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Predatory War: A History of Violence

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PREDATORY WAR: A HISTORY OF VIOLENCE

by

JOHN P. CHAPMAN

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Honors in the Major Program in International and Global Studies in the College of Sciences and in The Burnett Honors College at the University of Central Florida Orlando, Florida

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Thesis Chair: Dr. Thomas Dolan
ABSTRACT

This thesis attempts to explain the reasons states choose to prey on other states or territories. A way of testing significance was devised and three variables were produced: Proclivity to violence, winning coalition size, and whether or not a war of conquest took place. The scope for this project was the time period of 1900-1950 and the location was Europe.

The European countries were then refined down to a list of 10 states based on power ratings used in the Correlates of War. Then the leaders of each of these states were rated on a scale of 1 – 5 on personal violence, or how inclined they were to act violently. In order to determine this number their biographies were researched and specific traits were used to determine if they were violent individuals. These include military service, criminal history, participation in violent sports, support of military action, participation in a war effort, and any other examples of violent behavior. Second, the winning coalition size of each of these leader’s states was determined as an indicator of the amount of domestic support a leader had. This was ascertained by Bruce Bueno de Mesquita’s rating system. The third variable, the occurrence of a war of conquest, was determined by finding if there was a war of conquest that took place during the tenure of the individual leaders. The hypothesis is that a leader with a high proclivity to violence and a small winning coalition size will have presided over more wars of conquest than leaders with a low proclivity to violence and a large winning coalition.

The three variables were compiled at the individual leader level totaling 151 cases and 10 countries. Then they were tested using the SPSS statistical program using a binary logistic regression. The results showed no significance between the variables. When tested individually however the independent variable of proclivity towards violence showed a p-value of .054, making
it nearly significant at the .05 level. This finding illustrates a potentially significant correlation between the individual violence level of a leader and whether or not they initiate or continue a war of conquest.
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INTRODUCTION

Studying warfare is the ancient foundation of international relations. Since Thucydides penned his work, The History of the Peloponnesian War, a text which explains the causes of the conflict, people have been fascinated with why these human catastrophes occur. Wars have molded our understandings of interstate interactions, but more importantly they are often the basis of International Relations theory. The International Relations theorist Kenneth Waltz explained that states “conduct their affairs in the shadow of brooding violence” (Waltz 102), implying that the international system is shaped by the potential for war, and that states conduct their foreign policy under this potentiality. Hans Morgenthau, another realist, contended that “we assume that statesmen think and act in terms of interest defined as power, and the evidence of history bears that assumption out” (Morgenthau 5). While Waltz and Morgenthau are both international relations realists, a theory that focuses on systemic explanations for war, their assertions have laid the foundation for decades of research and academic debate about warfare. War has shaped the world we live in and the historical topography we study. These events stand as historical landmarks, ushering in new world systems. For example, Westphalia was introduced on the cessation of the 30 Years’ War, the concert of Europe was created on the heels of Napoleon’s last stand, and Cold War bipolarity was cemented after the two world wars. These international phenomena have created the global systems and trends that affect the political landscape, hence the necessity of understanding them.

Not all wars are the same however, and war should not be treated as a single malady. There have been wars of preemption such as the 6 Days War, wars to enforce international law like the 1991 Gulf war, conflicts to enforce humanitarian rights such as the Somalian conflict of 1993, and
wars to establish statehood like the First and Second Indochinese wars on the part of the communist forces. While these wars share similar traits such as organization of forces, objectives, and destruction of enemy combatants, the justification for other wars can be more nefarious. Conquest wars are the most malicious type in which a state attacks another territory to exploit it for certain assets such as raw material, expanding space for population, or simply international power. Colonial wars are considered wars of conquest but so too are some interstate wars like the First World War, the Second World War, and the Iran Iraq war.

Analyzing why these phenomena occur is problematic. Does the cause stem from the international level or domestic level? Theorists that fall in the Realist category such as Waltz and Morgenthau posit that the lack of international government permits the necessary conditions for war. This paired with a fundamental search for power or security by states will set the stage for international conflict. This lack of international government is known as anarchy. While the international anarchic system may permit states to do what they wish, not all states wish to conquer. In the contemporary system, countries like Denmark, Luxembourg and Bolivia have remained docile, not wanting to extend their borders. There are other characteristics at work that would cause states to conquer.

Liberal theorists contend that internal domestic political factors are more important for explaining why wars are initiated. For example, the Democratic peace theory is a strong liberal argument claiming that states with functioning democracies do not attack one another, and there is substantial data to support this claim. The Democratic peace is the “closest thing … to an empirical law” (Levy 88) in the international field, meaning that in a field of seemingly infinite possibilities and variations, this theory has had the most success as a law, an observation that is
true based on empirical evidence. The first theorist to lay the ground work for this concept was Immanuel Kant. He claimed that “Liberal republics would progressively establish peace among themselves” (Badie et al 1435) due to their common values and laws. Countries like Great Britain, France, and the United States, have not fought wars with one another since their inceptions as functioning democracies. This theory poses “an apparent anomaly to realism” (Owen 87). There is a lasting absence of warfare between some nations, which cannot be explained only by human nature or the lack of international government. The inherent anarchic structure of the system dictates that states, no matter the type of regime they employed, would prey on one another. But this is clearly not the case. These domestic institutions and characteristics matter and further explanations are needed to understand why wars would occur.

Shifting analysis toward the internal characteristics of a state is the next step. Within certain states there are specific domestic features which enable states to initiate wars of conquest, characteristics which not all states have. First, the leaders whom are responsible for both domestic and international policy have direct impact on the international relations decisions a state makes. These individuals have the political and economic resources at their disposal to make and enforce policy, and they are sometimes the only ones with the express ability to initiate wars. History has shown that powerful leaders can cause wars. Napoleon, Hitler, Mussolini, Stalin, and Saddam Hussein were all powerful men who wanted to conquer for more power and prestige. A further question remains however, what causes them to cause wars? The answer lies within the leaders themselves and in the governments they lead.

A leader’s psychological processes are critical to forming the decisions they make in the international realm. The way they approach decision making, their basic inclinations towards one
behavior versus another and the way in which they perceive the world, all contribute to their political decisions. Should a leader be more inclined to aggression and conflict due to psychological factors, this could explain the occurrence of conquest wars. However, there are certain domestic aspects that must be reckoned with. There are checks on a leader’s power and freedom of action such as constitutional law, domestic support, or economic difficulties. In order for a leader to initiate a war there must be some degree of domestic cooperation to supply the troops, the material, and the funding. This is the second part of the puzzle, determining how much domestic support, or what type of domestic support is needed for such an endeavor. For the purposes of this study, individual inclinations towards violence will be assessed for the individual leaders of countries in a specified region and time period. As for the domestic support, this study will determine a method for measuring the degree of domestic support a leaders has, and therefore the amount of freedom they have to act.
RELEVANT WORKS

Leader Psychology Matters

The first aspect this study focuses on is the psychology of individuals who lead. Because of this, it must be established that leadership matters with regards to a state’s course of action. Margaret Hermann and Joe Hagan tackle this issue in their work, “International Decision Making: Leadership Matters.” They state that leaders are important because they “define states’ international and domestic constraints” (Hermann, Hagan 126). They work between the realm of their state’s international objectives and abilities, and against their domestic political constraints. In between these constraints leaders have a range of options to choose from, and “based on perceptions and interpretations, they build expectations, plan strategies, and urge actions on their governments” (Hermann, Hagan 126). This means that leaders with different perceptions and interpretations will not choose the same course of action within these parameters. This lays the basis for leader analysis to explain varying foreign policy decisions.

In order to further understand the importance of individual leaders there must be evidence to demonstrate clear divergent policy decisions based solely on the leader. In the piece, “Alliances, Domestic Politics, and Leader Psychology” Stephen B. Dyson asserts “leader psychology can help generate more determinate predictions” (Dyson 648) when explanations like alliance relations and domestic politics are insubstantial. His work focuses on the issue of why the United Kingdom avoided conflict in Vietnam but invaded Iraq alongside the United States. This state decided to follow a distinct course of action when one situation arose, but when a similar situation arose in the future, it chose the opposite course. The difference between the two leaders was “the degree of risk to domestic standing each prime minister was willing to run” (Dyson 656). This difference of
risk perception shows how the two leaders at the time of these conflicts, Wilson and Blair, chose differently based on their personal perspectives. It should be added that this work also contributes to the use of the domestic coalition size marker to explain leader support. While some leaders might not have high regards for their support base, others are “more responsive to the wishes of their constituents” (Dyson 648). This responsiveness would limit a leader’s perception of political freedom, and make it less likely for an unpopular or costly venture, like a war of conquest. While the United Kingdom is used as the basis for this study, it can be viewed as a micro chasm for the varying transnational regime types, those which place more significance on public approval and those who do not.

Since leaders matter, there must be a foundation for using personal characteristic analysis to explain foreign policy decisions. Margaret G. Hermann’s work, “Explaining Foreign Policy Behavior Using the Personal Characteristics of Political Leaders” goes about explaining why leaders make decisions based on varying psychological characteristics. There are two basic leader behavior types addressed by this study: aggressive and conciliatory. She states that aggressive leaders “are in high need of power” (Hermann 8), which can translate directly into war provoking, war supporting, or carrying out war efforts. This work makes the case for typifying leaders as having certain behavior patterns, and using these as variable outcomes to explain foreign policy. More specifically, this work adds to the dialogue about individual leader aggression, and how this personal characteristic can cause them to support or initiate war efforts for the sake of power.

One more compelling piece on the matter of leader psychology is Robert E. Gilbert’s, “Ronald Reagan's Presidency: The Impact of an Alcoholic Parent.” This work, while not in the realm of aggression or violence, mentions how a person’s experience when they were younger
affects their behavior when they are in leadership positions. The author states that Reagan’s “political life was affected dramatically by the fact that he was the son of an alcoholic parent” (Gilbert 737). In order to determine the effects of Reagan’s father on his adult political career, it is appropriate to focus on “Reagan’s boyhood and the major forces, both good and bad, that shaped it” (Gilbert 738). This background research on the youth and developmental stages of the leader supplies the theorist with crucial evidence to judge Reagan’s decisions. This project will follow a similar pattern of research in order to typify the violence levels of the individual leaders.

**Violence and Aggression in International Politics**

After establishing political psychology as a valid tool for explaining foreign policy, certain aspects of leader psychology must be selected for understanding the varying leader behaviors. This thesis will focus on the levels of leader violence and aggression to explain leader behavior. In order to tackle this, there must be methodology for understanding these leaders and their violent inclinations. In Betty Glad’s work, “Why Tyrants go too far: Malignant Narcissism and Absolute Power”, she does this by rendering psychological profiles on three of history’s most infamous dictators: Hitler, Stalin, and Saddam Hussein. She compiles information from rhetoric, political moves, and personal interactions to make assertions about their internal motivations and machinations. Her formation of psychological biographies for these individuals gives the reader a context in which to place the actions of these infamous dictators. Aspects of violence permeate her work as she recounts several of these men’s violent manifestations. For example she explains that Stalin had “personally ordered and signed tens of thousands of death sentences” and that he “instructed operatives on the torture of his victims” (Glad 13). Stalin personally had directed his subordinates on the appropriate methods to harm other human beings. These sorts of actions
demonstrate how violent personalities develop in leaders, the people who make foreign policy decisions such as going to war. Glad further explains that due to the types of leaders who are tyrannical, they often “undertake reckless adventures” (Glad 7). Reckless adventures meaning military expeditions abroad that are poorly planned but still carried out. She cites the example of Hitler’s invasion of Russia, a country with whom he had previously signed a non-aggression pact. Hitler attacked a country in a poorly planned fashion due to his aggressive personality as a tyrant.

Furthermore, Glad’s work breaks away from traditional realist theory by contending that “a realpolitik perspective does not provide us with an adequate analysis of the tyrant” (Glad 33). This is supportive of the previous argument by Dyson, in that personalities act as another explanatory variable when other explanations such as realism fall short. Glad’s work, while specifically aimed at tyrants, whom make up a relatively small group of the sample size represented in this research, is a focus on how leader personalities and psychologies impact decisions.

As for biological research, the following work explains how aggression could be determined by testosterone. In the work “Testosterone and Aggression in a Simulated Crisis Game,” the researchers found that men with higher testosterone are “more likely to engage in unprovoked attacks” (McDermott et al 30). Not only are these aggressive behaviors supported by possible personality markers like a proclivity to aggression, they are also supported by biological factors like the levels of androgens (testosterone) in men. These aggressive behaviors, because of higher testosterone levels, might be reflected in men who have taken part in violent activities like revolutions, violent sports, volunteering for military service or violent crime. When high levels of testosterone are multiplied with the military power of high political office, the results could yield more aggressive international policy and war.
High political office in itself can facilitate violent foreign policy. In the work *On Killing*, Lt. Colonel Dave Grossman, a US Army psychologist, finds that those that do killing at maximum range, the range at which the killer is “unable to perceive his individual victims” (Grossman 107), feel almost no psychological trauma from these acts. This means that killing at these distances is easier and does not constitute a burden on the people who perform the act. While Grossman analyzed this from the standpoint of bomber crews or artillermen, this could be further extrapolated to a leader’s office. If a leader makes a conscious decision to use violence to force foreign policy, they know that people will die because of this. This could include foreign combatants, their troops, and foreign civilians. The coupling of ease of killing due to distance and the innate aggression some leaders are inclined toward would make the ordering of violent force much simpler.

Another supporting factor of aggression, overconfidence, also determines if a leader fights or remains peace seeking. In the work *Overconfidence and War*, Dominic Johnson explains the criteria for the type of people that attain high political office. He states that the political and military leaders who reach the top of the decision making apparatus “are not typical people—because of self-selection of people who want to become leaders, institutional and public selection of those who become leaders, and the nonrandom selection of henchmen by those who are leaders” (Johnson 24). Here Johnson is claiming that in order to reach the top of the apparatus, overconfidence is needed, a degree of over confidence that would allow him to classify these people as non-normal. The factor overconfidence is relevant in that if a leader see’s themselves as being very capable at resolving a situation with force, they are more likely to do to so. Overconfidence can feed into international aggression, and aggression can feed into overconfidence. For example, for the First
World War, key decision makers on both sides “exhibited positive illusions about winning” (Johnson 59). The overtly aggressive tendencies by all super powers involved coupled with their “Cult of the offensive” (Evra 58) strategies, prompted overconfidence and made war a more acceptable method for policy. Further, on the matter of military leadership, The Prussian General Carl Von Clausewitz claimed that “A distinguished commander without boldness is unthinkable. No man who is not born bold can play such a role, and we consider this quality the first prerequisite of the great military leader” (Clausewitz 192). Clausewitz claims here that military men who have risen to high rank in the military need boldness, an aggressive ability to capitalize on fortuitous occasions in battle when they arise. Therefore these men who have risen to high rank are more likely to have this trait of “boldness”, and this could reflect in political careers after careers in war. Should a situation arise in international politics where quick action is needed; a former military member might take the opportunity to apply force in order to capitalize on the situation.

Another predictor of aggression in international politics is age. In the work “Leader Age, Regime Type, and Violent International Relations”, it was found that as leaders age, they “become more likely to both initiate and escalate militarized disputes” (Horowitz et al 662). This pertains to the leaders at hand as they are often older men who have reached the peaks of their political careers. Also speaking to the relationship between the individual leader and the regime type, this study states that, the more constraints there are on a leader, “the less likely it will be that an individual characteristic, such as age, might influence the decision making process” (Horowitz et al 669). That is to say, the more institutional restrictions on a leader’s individual decision making, the less likely it is that one factor will influence foreign policy. While this study focuses on age specifically, this same rule can be translated to proclivity towards violence or aggression. In a
government with more leader restraint, one factor like age or violent inclinations would be muted by constraints.

A final consideration on the topic of aggression is the application of violent sports as an indicator of violent inclinations. Often with world leaders, they belong to an upper class that does not always commit crimes, fight in wars or get into fights. It is the catharsis of sport in which many leaders can become violent and show violent predispositions. In the article “Unnecessary Roughness” by Derek A. Kreager, there is insight into the perpetuation of violent behavior in sports. In his study, Kreager finds that American Football “shows a significant and positive relationship with fighting” (Kreager 716) and that wrestlers are “45% more likely than non-athletes to get into a fight” (Kreager 717). These are two sports that could be used when analyzing European leaders and their propensities towards violence. One problem however is that American football is not very popular in Europe. Despite this, the study still shows a positive relationship between violent contact sports and fighting as an indicator of violence. The key terms used to define these sports in the study were “Hyper masculine contact sports…the use of the body as a weapon and brutal bodily contact is necessary for on-the-field success” (Kreager 709). If European equivalents to American hyper masculine sports such as Rugby can be viewed in similar circumstances, then there is a potential for a very successful marker of violent behavior.

**Domestic Political Constraints**

While leader psychology has been addressed and supported, we now have to turn to the domestic political landscape. It was previously mentioned that leaders face constraints from their domestic political infrastructures, and they must make decisions that satisfy these. In the work “Diplomacy and Domestic Politics: The Logic of Two-Level Games”, the theorist Robert Putnam
posits that “at the national level domestic groups pursue their interests by pressuring the government to adopt favorable policies” (Putnam 434), government meaning the leader and his cabinet etc. The politicians reply by “constructing coalitions among those groups” (Putnam 434) in order to attain power. This domestic support from interest groups empowers the politician who in turn makes the international decisions. The reverse is possible as well, because the leader that does not “satisfy his fellow players at the domestic table risks being evicted from his seat” (Putnam 434). Therefore it is important for those in power to satisfy the coalitions they have built with their domestic interest groups in order to remain in power. They do this by promoting the coalition’s interests and in the context of this study, not making decisions that go against their interests like extraneous wars.

The connection between domestic support and a leader’s responsibility to satisfy domestic coalitions is apparent, but how does this translate to different regimes types? More specifically, how do democracies and authoritarian governments differ on who needs to be satisfied to stay in power? In the work “Public Good Provision under Dictatorship and Democracy”, Robert T. Deacon provides an analysis of how authoritarian governments must satisfy a smaller group to stay in power, and how democracies must satisfy a much larger constituency. First off, “Dictatorial governments are found to provide [public good]…at levels far below democracies” (Deacon 241), which is a direct result of the lack of participation by the population in the political process. If the authoritarian governments do not have to satisfy their populations to remain in power, there is little incentive to spend money on the average citizen. Only having to satisfy smaller coalitions means there is freedom of policy, so long as the leader continues to satiate this group. Because of this
smaller hindrance, aggressive, authoritarian leaders have the political freedom to wage a war of conquest if they desire.

A more precise way to measure this phenomenon, and the method this thesis adopts, is Bruce Bueno de Mesquita’s selectorate theory. In the work, The Logic of Political Survival, Bueno de Mesquita postulates that for a leader to stay in power, they must provide for the winning coalition, otherwise known as the group that “controls the resources vital to the political survival of the incumbent” (Bueno de Mesquita 57). He then defines this winning coalition as “a subset of the selectorate of sufficient size such that the subset’s support endows the leadership with political power over the remainder of the selectorate as well as the disenfranchised residents in the society” (Bueno de Mesquita 99). In summary, he states that this is the only group needed to be satisfied to exercise power over the rest of the population. The selectorate is defined as the “set of people whose endowments include those qualities or characteristics institutionally required to choose the government’s leadership and necessary for gaining access to private benefits doled out by the government’s leadership” (Bueno de Mesquita 84). The selectorate could therefore be described as the group of citizens that participate in the political process, but do not have the real power in ensuring the survival of a leader. The leader stays in power by raising taxes, giving the tax revenue to public programs for the general population, “and private rewards that only go to members of the winning coalition” (Bueno de Mesquita 122). The compositions of the winning coalitions vary depending on types of governments the leader controls. For authoritarian governments with little opportunity for political participation, the winning coalition is small in comparison to the selectorate. To illustrate this disparity between the two groups, the USSR, a communist authoritarian government, had a winning coalition size that “consisted of no more than 3 to 5
percent of the population and perhaps much less” (Bueno de Mesquita 105). The tiny amount of Soviets involved in the winning coalition meant that the leader of the country only had to answer to those 3 to 5 percent, not the majority of Russians. In theory this allows said leader to do as they please, so long as they satisfy that small percentage. While this theory focuses on explaining political accountability to the population a leader rules over, it will be extrapolated in order to explain how much freedom a leader has in making policy decision.
QUESTION

The question this thesis will attempt to answer is “Is there a correlation between a leader’s proclivity towards violence, the size of the winning coalition, and the occurrence of predatory conquest wars?” The dependent variable in this circumstance is whether or not there is a war of conquest. The outcome is binary, either “war of conquest” or “no war of conquest.”
HYPOTHESIS

In order for there to be a war of conquest, there must be a leader who has a higher inclination towards violence than a nonviolent counterpart. Their aggressive tendencies cause them to yearn for power and to aggrandize their self-images. They attempt to attain power and aggrandizement through warfare. In addition to a leader with the desire for conquest, there must be the appropriate domestic forces to support them. If a leader only has to satisfy a smaller group of the population in order to remain in power, then they have more freedom to decide foreign policy. This freedom gives a violent leader the latitude to attack another territory. This translates into the following hypothesis:

H₁: Leaders with a propensity to personal violence are more likely than leaders without a propensity to violence to initiate wars of conquest.

H₂: Leaders with small winning coalitions will be more likely than leaders with large winning coalitions to initiate wars of conquest.

H₃: Leaders with both a propensity to personal violence and a small winning coalition will be most likely to initiate wars of conquest.

H₅: Leaders with a propensity to personal violence are no more likely to initiate wars of conquest than leaders without a propensity to violence.
The time period for this study was the First half of the 20th century, from 1900 through 1950. The reason for choosing this time period is because it contains several important interstate and extra state wars. This period was before the decline of empires, therefore several imperial wars are included. The period also captures both of the world wars, the deadliest wars of conquest of recent history.

The location for the study chosen was Europe, because of this region’s propensity toward empire building and competition between great world powers. Not all of Europe was included in the study however. I distinguished those states which had the ability to conduct a war of conquest by rating their power. I used the Correlates of war CINC scores which measure multiple variables in order to assign each country a numerical score to determine how powerful they were. The study uses “demographic, industrial, and military indicators as the most effective measures of a nation's material capabilities” (COW 3). The countries included in this study are: The United Kingdom, Belgium, France, Spain, Germany, Poland, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Russia, and the Czech Republic. After taking the average CINC scores of the countries of Europe, these ten countries stood out as the most powerful for the time period. The CINC scores are corollary to these state’s involvement in conquest as well. For example, Germany, the United Kingdom, France, Russia, Spain, Italy, Austria Hungary and Belgium all has aspirations for empire building. The other two countries, Poland and the Czech Republic were new comers to the European stage, and while they did not have as much opportunity to expand their borders, they still relied on sizeable military capacity to protect themselves. Each of these states achieved a score over .010, ranking them higher than the remainder of their counter parts. This effectively refined the data down to those countries that had the potential to initiate a war of conquest.
DEPENDENT VARIABLE

The dependent variable explains whether or not a war of conquest took place. In order to explain this there must be established criteria for what a war of conquest is and how to classify it. A war of conquest, a predatory war, or a war of aggression is one in which a state attacks another state or territory to conquer for their own purposes. Examples of these are the First and Second World Wars on the part of Germany, Japan, and Italy, the 1990 Gulf war on the part of Iraq, and the British conquest of India. In all of these cases states organized power to attempt to annex, claim, incorporate, or take a piece of territory. While most wars involve some degree of land dispute, predatory wars differ because they are initiated with the express desire to claim territory. All of the colonial and imperial wars are included in the context of this study, even if the wars stemmed from a rebellion by domestic extra-state actors. These types of wars are included for two reasons. First, in order for the rebellion to occur, there must be an Empire there in the first place. Second, once the empire elects to fight the war, they are contesting their previous land claim or attempting to reclaim lands that are not rightfully theirs. These wars can be seen as re-conquering a land. The dependent variable in this case is binary, either one of two outcomes “War of Conquest”, “No war of conquest”.
INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Based upon the supporting works, the case has been made that leader personality matters when determining foreign policy. This paper is interested in the individual leader’s propensity towards violence and aggression. Aggressive leaders with violent past experiences are suspected to be more inclined to start a war of conquest. Prominent examples are Kaiser Wilhelm II, Hitler, Mussolini, and Stalin. These men had violent past behaviors, were aggressive political decision makers, and all attempted to conquer. When analyzing these leaders the factors of criminal history, military history, violent sport participation, militaristic support, and other types of violent history are considered. Military history is an important part of this puzzle as many of the politicians have been part of the military infrastructure. Military service, like violent sports, may have been the only way for the leader class of European society to display violent tendencies. While we cannot assume that all of these politicians saw or took part in combat, it is understood that men with more extensive military careers chose to be a larger part of the killing process and therefore are more inclined toward violence. Also, men who volunteered to fight in wars are also considered to have a high proclivity to aggression and violence because of their willingness to take part in the war. A scale is important when analyzing these figures because scaling these individuals allows for distribution of error. If errors are spread across a larger sample size they will be negated. For example, it is entirely possible that a man with military service in the First World War is less violent than a politician who had nothing to do war. While they might be erroneously assigned a 2 and 1 respectively marking the politician as less violent, they are still not placed at the upper end of the range as a 4 or 5.
The rankings were constructed as follows. The first category will be coded as 1, and denotes no propensity towards violence. The second category will be coded as 2, and denotes a slight propensity towards violence. The third category will be coded as 3, and denotes a medium propensity towards violence. The Fourth Category will be coded as 4, and denotes a high propensity towards violence. The fifth category will be coded as 5, and denotes a very high propensity towards violence. A combination of factors will determine how a leader scores on the violence continuum. A leader who has an extensive violent criminal record, violent military history, killed others in any other circumstance, and has a history of violent tendencies at youth will be coded as a 5. A leader who has taken part in multiple war efforts, has extensive military or criminal histories, shows aggressive behavior, but who did not show overly violent tendencies in other aspects of their life such as youth behavior will be coded as a 4. A European leader who has an extensive military, sport, or criminal past but then moderated in their participation in the political process will be coded as a 3. A leader who has supported military action politically, had minor involvement in a conflict, had a minor criminal history, or was part of the military bureaucracy will be coded as a 2. A European leader with no military, criminal, or violent sport experience who came to power through normal channels will be coded as a 1.

Based on the supporting works, it has become clear the domestic politics affects the ability of a leader to make policy decisions. The variations of regime type and sizes of coalitions dictates the degree a leader has the freedom to choose different courses of action. If a leader must support a larger winning coalition, they would be less likely to create unfavorable policy such as starting a war that could harm the large coalition. A country with a smaller winning coalition would be easier to placate so long as the coalition’s demands were met. Therefore the small coalition would
potentially support a leader’s decision to go to war, as long as they were satisfied with their benefits of support.

In order to measure the winning coalition size, I use Bueno de Mesquita’s classification system identified in *The Logic of Political Survival*. Bueno de Mesquita uses a scale of 0 to 1, to measure the sizes of the winning coalition size. He uses increments of .25 to explain the different sizes of winning coalitions, with a total of 5 options, 0, .25, .5, .75, and 1. 0 is the smallest winning coalition size. .25 denotes a slightly larger winning coalition, but is still a small winning coalition. .5 represents a medium winning coalition size. .75 represents a larger winning coalition size and 1 represents the largest possible winning coalition proportion to the selectorate.
RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

The first aspect of data collection for this research was finding a comprehensive list of leaders to generate my list from. I used the ARCHIGOS leader database, constructed by H. E. Goemans, to compile a list the leaders of the most powerful European countries for the scope of the project. These countries were: The United Kingdom, Belgium, France, Spain, Germany, Poland, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Russia, and the Czech Republic. Information for each of these leaders was found by researching biographies, speeches, and relevant works pertaining to them such as journal and news articles. Using this information they were assigned a value between 1 and 5 denoting their proclivities to violence. For many of the leaders, their respective countries had available fact books, encyclopedias and data bases to research background information on them. For example the Assemblée National website provided excellent pertinent information on French prime ministers and presidents who were a part of the Assemblée. In total 151 leaders were analyzed and assigned a number value.

Secondly, I measured the size of each of the leader’s winning coalition during their time in office. In order to do this I used Bueno de Mesquita’s data base which contained the winning coalition size ratings for each of the countries of interest. This information was based on years however, and not the individual tenures of the leaders. This became problematic because the winning coalition size often changed in different periods of time for the countries, and many leaders had multiple tenures with different coalition size ratings, or their tenures happened during a change of coalition size. For example, the winning coalition sizes in Germany, Italy, and Spain changed due to changes in the political system. All of these countries had relatively large coalition sizes in the years leading up to their revolutions, but afterwards the winning coalition sizes became
much smaller due to authoritarian rule. In order to counter this issue I calculated the average winning coalition sizes that corresponded to all of the leaders tenures. The individual equations are presented in the appendices.

Thirdly I found whether or not the states were part of a war of conquest. In order to do this, I used the Correlates of War project which listed the interstate and extra state wars a state was involved in. I matched the war dates with the corresponding leader tenures to determine if the leaders presided over the conflict. Further research was needed to better specify the dates of the wars in order to pair them with leader tenures. This is because the Correlates of War project only presents the data in years, not exact dates like the ARCHIGOS data base. Further research was also needed to determine if an interstate war was in the name of conquest, or if it was not initiated as a predatory war. If a country was an initiator of a war with the goal to claim territory, then it was determined that they had taken part in a war of conquest. This specifically labels Germany in both the First and Second world wars as the aggressors. This was less clear in the case of Italy in the First World War however. It was determined that they too initiated a war of conquest due to their evident switch of alliances in order to secure a better land grab deal from the Triple Entente. An extra state war is defined by the Correlates of War project as “fighting by a state system member outside its borders against the armed forces of an entity that is not a member of the interstate system” (Sarkees 1). In the scope of this study any of the extra state wars were deemed wars of conquest. This includes extra state actor initiated struggles as well was state initiated due to the nature of the conflicts. The extra state actor initiated conflicts were labeled as wars of conquest because of the state’s contention for the territory which entails a reconsolidation of power in the new territory, and can be seen as a re-conquest. For the purposes of the analysis, if there was
a war of conquest it was coded as a 1. If there was no war of conquest it was coded as a 0. The war
determinations and the coinciding leader tenures are presented in the appendices.
DESIGN OF TEST

In order to test the hypothesis, using the three variables, I compiled the proclivity to violence ratings of the leaders of specific European countries. These proclivities were entered into a spreadsheet corresponding with the leader they belong to. Then the average winning coalition sizes for each leader were entered in as the second independent variable. The final variable entered was the presence of a war of conquest during the tenure of the leaders. I used the SPSS program to test for statistical relationships between the variables. The test was a binary logistic regression analysis. The binary test was selected because the dependent variable is a dummy variable, either coded as a 0 or 1. The two independent variables were interacted (multiplied) in order to find if both of these variables combined would show significance to explain wars of conquest. The theory is based on the interaction of the two independent variables, and whether or not they can explain the dependent variable. Individual tests were tested as well in order to determine if there was a statistical relationship between each of the independent variables and the dependent variable. Also the variables of leader tenure and average power rating for each country were entered in order to control the analysis.
Number of Leaders included in scope: 151

Equation:

\[ W = c + \beta_1 \text{propensity to violence} + \beta_2 \text{wc size} + \beta_3 \text{propensity x wcsize} + e \]

**Interacted Test Data**

**Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 Log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>187.833a</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

**Table 1: Interacted Test 1 Model Summary**

**Variables in the Equation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1a</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>propensity</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.435</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.654</td>
<td>1.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wcsize</td>
<td>-.544</td>
<td>1.801</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>.581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proctimeswc</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.664</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td>1.277</td>
</tr>
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<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.077</td>
<td>1.285</td>
<td>.702</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.402</td>
<td>.341</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: propensity, wcsize, proctimeswc.

**Table 2: Results Interacted Test 1**

**Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 Log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>156.537a</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>.275</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

**Table 3: Interacted Test 2 Model Summary**
Variables in the Equation

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Step 1&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proclivity</td>
<td>-.140</td>
<td>.517</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WinnCoalSize</td>
<td>-1.348</td>
<td>2.068</td>
<td>.425</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ProcTimesWin</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td>.469</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.493</td>
<td>1.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TotalTenure</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>11.364</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PowerRating</td>
<td>18.250</td>
<td>5.143</td>
<td>12.593</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>84305101.35</td>
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<td>Constant</td>
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<td>1.689</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>.146</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<sup>a</sup> Variable(s) entered on step 1: Proclivity, WinnCoalSize, ProcTimesWin, TotalTenure, PowerRating.

Table 4: Results Interacted Test 2

Individual Test Data

Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 Log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>187.982&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 5: Individual Test 1 Model Summary

Variables in the Equation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>propensity</td>
<td>.333</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>3.725</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>1.395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.410</td>
<td>.413</td>
<td>11.646</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.244</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Variable(s) entered on step 1: propensity.

Table 6: Results Individual Test 1
Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 Log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>170.848a</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td>.163</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 7: Individual Test 2 Model Summary

Variables in the Equation

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Step 1a</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>propensity</td>
<td>.155</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>1.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenure</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>12.586</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.817</td>
<td>.477</td>
<td>14.501</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.163</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: propensity, tenure.

Table 8: Results Individual Test 2

Model Summary

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 Log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>171.275a</td>
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<td>.176</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 9: Individual Test 3 Model Summary

Variables in the Equation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1a</th>
<th>Proclivity</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proclivity</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>2.755</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>1.360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PowerRating</td>
<td>18.746</td>
<td>4.770</td>
<td>15.446</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>138506496.343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-2.304</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>20.086</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Proclivity, PowerRating.

Table 10: Results Individual Test 3
Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 Log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>157.012(^{a})</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.272</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 11: Individual Test 4 Model Summary

Variables in the Equation

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proclivity</td>
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<td>.210</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>1.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PowerRating</td>
<td>18.292</td>
<td>5.074</td>
<td>12.998</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>87897642.288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TotalTenure</td>
<td>.190</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>11.259</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-2.773</td>
<td>.603</td>
<td>21.123</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) Variable(s) entered on step 1: Proclivity, PowerRating, TotalTenure.

Table 12: Results Individual Test 4

Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>-2 Log likelihood</th>
<th>Cox &amp; Snell R Square</th>
<th>Nagelkerke R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>191.435(^{a})</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) Estimation terminated at iteration number 3 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Table 13: Individual Test 5 Model Summary

Variables in the Equation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WinnCoalSize</td>
<td>-.348</td>
<td>.607</td>
<td>.329</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.566</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-.473</td>
<td>.435</td>
<td>1.181</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.277</td>
<td>.623</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) Variable(s) entered on step 1: WinnCoalSize.

Table 14: Results Individual Test 5
Distributions of Variables

Figure 1: Distribution of Proclivities to Violence
Figure 2: Distribution of Winning Coalition Sizes
Interacted Tests

First the binary logistic regression was tested with all three independent variables, the proclivity to violence, the winning coalition size, and proclivity to violence * winning coalition size. This test did not show any significance for the three variables. The next test incorporated the two control variables, average power rating for the countries and leader tenure for each individual in the sample. The controls were found to be significant which was not surprising, however the
other three variables still showed no significance. Because of this there is no explanatory power in the statistical analysis and the null hypothesis was not disproven.

**Individual Tests**

First proclivity to violence was tested against the war of conquest, showing a significance coefficient of .054. This coefficient, while not under the .05 significance level, still has explanatory power under the .1 significance level. This result demonstrates that the higher a leader’s proclivity to violence, the more likely they are to initiate a war of conquest. While this finding does not support the original goal of the thesis, it supports the use of individual leader characteristics to explain foreign policy, and the analysis of violence in leaders to explain war. The next three tests incorporated the control variables, each one individually and then finally all together, with the analysis of the proclivity to violence variable. When tested with the tenure control variable, proclivity was found to be insignificant. When tested with the power rating control variable however, it was still significant at the .1 level. When tested all together with both control variables, it did not show any statistical significance. Finally the winning coalition size variable was analyzed against the dependent variable. No significance was found at any level, demonstrating that the winning coalition size rating does not show a significant relationship with wars of conquest in this study.

**Charts**

The accompanying pie charts show the distributions of the two independent variables and the dependent variable. For winning coalition size the average values were rounded to the nearest factor of .25 to better show the distribution along Bueno de Mesquita's definition. The first chart
shows that the two highest ratings for violence, 4 and 5, only contained 12 of the leaders. The third rating which still denotes a medium proclivity to violence was much larger with 37 cases. Clearly the lower ratings of violence, 1 and two, make up most of the sample size, explaining that a majority of the leaders, 67.55% of them, were relatively non-violent. The winning coalition size chart shows that 51% of the cases, 77, fell in the .75 range. This shows that more than half of the cases had relatively large winning coalition sizes, whereas the smaller ratings, .25 and 0, only made up 18.54% of the sample. This demonstrates that most of the European leaders in the sample maintained relatively large winning coalition sizes. This can be explained by the occurrence of democracy for varying regimes during this period such as France, the United Kingdom, Italy, and Spain.

The final chart shows the distribution of leaders who presided over a war of conquest and those who did not. Interestingly, 33% of the leaders presided over a war of conquest during their tenures. This number is similar to the percentage of leaders who scored a 3 or above on the violence scale, 32.45%. These proportions could illustrate the individual finding of significance between proclivity to violence and wars of conquest.
DISCUSSION

This research project is based upon several very powerful examples of attempted conquests and the men who lead them. Mussolini, Hitler, and Stalin all evoke images of strong political personalities, using military might to aggrandize themselves as well as their homelands. All of these men restricted the freedoms of their countries and did not include the majority of their people in the political process. These few strong cases tell academia that personality certainly matters and that the restriction of restraints on power allows leaders to act more freely. However, this period of European history is also full of democratic regimes who conducted imperialism overseas such as the United Kingdom, France, and Spain. The leaders that presided over the homeland during these instances were more often than not professional politicians with little evidence of high proclivities to violence. These men had worked their way through the system by playing politics in order to secure powerful positions. They were attorneys, doctors, professors, and theologians, not thugs. Perhaps in these cases of non-violent politicians, the mere institution of empires created the environment where conquest and violence was possible. It is also possible that these leaders did not have any evidence of violent behavior before they made it to power, but once they did, they could show their aggressive tendencies in an arena that fit them best.

The tests found that the interaction variable did not have significant correlation with whether or not a war of conquest took place. However, for the individual test between the dependent and the independent variable of proclivity towards violence, the results showed significance under the .1 level. This shows that there is explanatory power in the proclivities of violence in the individual leaders, in that leaders who have higher inclinations to aggression and violence are more likely to initiate wars of conquest. This further supports the assertions of political
psychologists that understanding leader psychology matters, and that understanding violence proclivity levels could help political scientists explain why a leader chose to attack.

These variables when combined to perform the actual bilateral regression test showed that there was no significance and therefore no explanatory power for these variables when multiplied. Winning coalition when tested individually did not show significance, which does not support the assertion that smaller winning coalition sizes are more likely to go to war. This is enforced by the presence of large democratic empires during this time that had relatively high winning coalition sizes. These empires with large winning coalition sizes took part in many wars of conquest, while still incorporating a large portion of their selectorate into the political process.

Concerning the research of the individual leaders, it was sometimes difficulty discovering any indicators of violence. This led to the assumption that leaders without evidence of violent histories were not as violent and therefore received ratings of 1s or 2s. However, it is possible that small manifestations of violence were not reported such as fights with a sibling, fights in a school yard, or participation in a sport like rugby at a minor level. On the other hand, for leaders such as Mussolini and Hitler, there are thousands of pages written about them their violent, troubled pasts. This information is much easier to find solely because of their exploits when they were leaders and the subsequent interest. This lack of data on some leaders and wide availability for others could have affected the data causing more leaders to be coded as 1s and 2s when they should have received higher marks. Despite this lack of a population of higher values, there is still a nearly significant correlation for the individual violence levels of the leaders at hand. Therefore the accuracy of the measurements is very nearly adequate to show correlation.
CONCLUSION

In conclusion this thesis attempted to explain a human behavior that has troubled political scientists for centuries. What makes a state choose to conquer another state or nation? There have historically been many explanations such as human nature, the quest for power, the love of power, the quest for security, or cultural differences. While some of these may be valid in different circumstances, it is certain that these do not fill all of the blanks. This thesis was a look at internal components of a state and how these could affect their war making behavior. It incorporated different aspects of the liberal theories such as political psychology and selectorate theory. It was established that individual leaders matter due to their role as the foreign policy decision makers. It was also established that violence and aggression levels are important when understanding why leaders choose to attack. Strong wills like those of Hitler, Stalin, and Mussolini consolidated internal power, terrorized their political opponents, and began to attack outwards. This leads to other side of the coin, the domestic political infrastructure. There are strong willed men who could be hampered by political mechanisms such as a large winning coalition. In the United States for example, a president must consider the opinion of the general population because this could affect the next election’s voting results, and they must contend with congress, the body that holds the power to legislate and fund a president’s endeavors. In a country where a president does not have total freedom of decision without consequences, they must be weary of the war decisions they make. However in a country where there is little political opposition, leaders have a free hand to attack. While the use of the selectorate theory and its findings were inconclusive in this study, it does not discount a leader’s responsibility to some portion of its population to remain in power.
Using an important part of history as the back drop for the experiment, it was found that the original hypothesis was incorrect using the methods of this study. There was not a correlation between a leader’s proclivities to violence, their country’s winning coalition size, and the occurrence of a war. Taken individually, the separate tests showed significance for the individual violence levels. This could prompt further investigation into the personal and developmental histories of leaders in order to explain foreign policy decisions such as aggressive behaviors, conciliatory behaviors, or alliance forming habits.
APPENDIX A: PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH
United Kingdom

Robert Arthur Talbot Gascoyne-Cecil, 3rd Marquess of Salisbury (1)

Cecil's shyness High lights potential non aggressive tendencies  1

Professional Political man for all of his life, no military history.

« A frail child and prone to depression, he developed a love of books and botany. » 3


Arthur Balfour (1)

Well, educated, strong minded, evangelical outlook suggests non violent tendencies. 1

“His leisure was divided equally between the arts and society, on the one hand, and tennis and golf on the other” 2

“He had always been a delicate and poorly man and he died the following year from circulatory failure.” 3


Henry Campbell-Bannerman (2)
Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was the son of the Lord Provost of Glasgow, and was educated at Glasgow High School and at Glasgow and Cambridge universities.1

He served in the War Office and the Admiralty and was Irish Chief Secretary. In Gladstone's government he served as a secretary of war 2

Cambridge (a third in classics) was interrupted at fourteen by a remarkable ten-month trip round Europe with his older cousin, which shaped much of his tolerant and Liberal outlook 3

1

http://www.westminster-abbey.org/our-history/people/sir-henry-campbell-bannerman 2

http://www.liberalhistory.org.uk/item_single.php?item_id=4&item=biography 3

H.H. Asquith (1)

Presided over first half of WW1

Educated at Oxford, Asquith became a lawyer and in 1886 Liberal member of parliament for East Fife. He quickly made his mark and in 1892 Gladstone appointed him home secretary. 1

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/asquith_herbert.shtml 1

David Lloyd George (2)

during World War I served as minister of munitions (1915–1916) and secretary of state for war (1916) 1

his audacity, charm, wit, and mastery of the art of debate 2
Andrew Bonar Law (1)

Melancholy' became the adjective universally applied to him 1

No one found Bonar Law charismatic - he was too reserved for that 1

A civil servant, J.C.C. Davidson, who was amazed by his powers of industry, judged that he 'misled many people into the belief that he was weak because his manner and voice were so gentle, and his heart so kind'. Conservative colleague Stanley Baldwin described him, publicly, as 'a most lovable, elusive and wistful personality', while privately declaring 'I loved the man'. 1

http://www.britishempire.co.uk/biography/bonarlaw.htm 1

Stanley Baldwin (2)

As a young man he served very briefly as a Second Lieutenant in the Artillery Volunteers at Malvern 1


Ramsay MacDonald (1)

His opposition to the Great War made him more unpopular still 1

He opposed the Boer War 2

https://www.gov.uk/government/history/past-prime-ministers/james-ramsay-macdonald 1

Neville Chamberlin (1)

Arthur Neville Chamberlain was born on 18 March 1869 in Birmingham into a political family. He managed his father’s sisal plantation on Andros Island, Bahamas, and then prospered in the metalworking industry in Birmingham.

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/chamberlain_arthur_neville.shtml

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/104904/Neville-Chamberlain

Winston Churchill (3)

Winston's young career was actually that of an army officer. He soon developed a reputation as something of an action man - always wishing to be where the action was. Churchill re-joined the regular British Army and went to France as a Battalion officer.

http://www.britishempire.co.uk/biography/churchill.htm

Clement Atlee (3)

Attlee was so dull, quiet and unimpressive that he was often seemed to disappear altogether. He was thirty-one when World War I began. Attlee volunteered and eventually rose to the rank of major, serving in France.

http://www.britishempire.co.uk/biography/attlee.htm


Belgium

Paul de Smet Naeyer (2)
Endowed with a clear and sharp mind, a remarkable gift of assimilation is a persistent worker who has no trouble accumulating responsibilities. In his cluttered office a happy mess, he worked until the wee hours before falling into a sleep from which it emerges shortly before noon. 1

From a wealthy family of industrialists Ghent cotton, he resumed the activities of cotton. Before entering politics he became a banker and was head of the Société Générale de Belgique 1

He called the new line of defense in life which the words of Baron de Broqueville within a year will be ready orphans and Antwerp the best fortified city of the world will. 2

By his law on alcohol excise he carried over to reducing the consumption of strong drink. 2

http://static.wikipedia.orange.fr/wiki/Paul_de_Smet_de_Naeyer 1

http://users.skynet.be/ovo/DeSmetDeNaeyer.html 2

Jules de Trooz (1)

Catholic representative of the district of Leuven in the House since 1889, he was a municipal councilor of Louvain from 1895 to 1899 1

http://search.arch.be/eadsearch/ead/index/archiefbewaarplaats/BE-
A0510/beginjaar/1800/eindjaar/1900/pagina/14/eadid/BE-
A0510_000279_002802_FRE/anchor/descgrp-context-bioghist/open/c%3A1. 1

Frans Schollaert (1)
was a hardened old boy, energetic, intelligent and full of common sense. While J. Trooz sniffed the opinion of the House, and he felt more included files, included Schollaert much better he felt. We must add the proverbial stubbornness. Where the Minister, after carefully studying a case, a decision was taken, nobody not even the Pope - and God knows he was a good Catholic - could not make him change his opinion, moreover, the best man world. 1

http://www.ars-moriendi.be/SCHOLLAERT_FR.HTM 1

Charles, baron de Broqueville (2)

After entering politics in 1886, he was elected to the Belgian Parliament in 1892 as a member of the Catholic party. 1

A vocal opponent of military expansionism, Broqueville nevertheless supported military preparedness. 1

minister of war (1912-17); 2

http://www.mtholyoke.edu/~jedzi20h/classweb/Broqueville.html 1


Colmar Freiherr von der Goltz (4)

1861 Secondelieutenant the 5th East Prussian Infantry Regiment appointed number 41 in Königsberg, he was drafted in the autumn of 1864 to the War Academy in Berlin 1

In the academy time was 1866, the Austro-Prussian War, the Goltz Pasha experienced in his regiment, he was severely wounded. - 1867 saw his commanding in the General Staff. In the German-French war of 1870/71 Goltz Pasha was as General Staff Officer at the
2nd Used army whose commander Prince Friedrich Carl of Prussia and the first General Staff officer who later became Field Marshal Count von Haeseler were, both of which have exercised through their modern military-educational lessons on the internal development Goltz Pasha strong influence and it remained until the end of her acquainted

http://www.deutsche-biographie.de/sfz21654.html

Moritz Ferdinand Freiherr von Bissing (4)

In 1902 he became general of cavalry for different commands. 1901-07 he was the Commanding General of the Seventh Army Corps in Münster. Since 1885 he had often led cavalry exercise Travel and entered into his writings for the independent use of larger cavalry units and for the appropriate training in a combat on foot. 1

In the first World War he was first Deputy Commanding General of the Seventh Army Corps, was appointed Governor-General in Belgium on 27.11.1914 and on 24.12.1914 promoted to colonel general. 1

http://www.deutsche-biographie.de/sfz4606.html

Alexander von Falkenhausen (4)

Falkenhausen occurred in 1862 in the Prussian army, took part in the wars of 1866 and 1870/71 and increased troop service to General of Infantry and Commanding General of the XIII. Army Corps (1899-1902) on. Called into question, Falkenhausen was known as a military writer. At the beginning of the first World War II turned the 70-year leadership of the Army and was available on 02.09.1914 the Management of the 6th in the Army Corps in Lorraine formed replacement. After the Battle of the Marne, the mass was the
6th Army transported to the army's right wing, with the remaining weak forces took over Falkenhausen promoted to Colonel-General and appointed Commander of the Army Division Falkenhausen, 1

http://www.deutsche-biographie.de/sfz15533.html  1

Gérard François Marie Cooreman (1)

Having obtained his doctorate in law at the University of Ghent, Gérard Cooreman began in 1875 as a lawyer. Son of a famous industrial and financial Ghent, he also practiced many activities in the area of industry and banking. He was notably the director of the Belgian insurance company Union (where he succeeded his father), Director at Societe Generale, President of the Belgian Society of Marine Credit Union President Cotton, President of Cotton Company Congolese President and coal Monceau-Fontaine. Engaged in politics, Gérard Cooreman was elected in 1892 Catholic senator district of Ghent. 1


Leon Delacroix

He was a lawyer by training. In politics he was first a member of parliament for Names from 1919 to 1921. 1

After studying law at the Free University of Brussels, he enrolled at the Brussels Bar in 1889. Attorneys Supreme Court in 1909, he becomes Dean of the Bar Association in 1917. 2

http://archive.letterme.belgium.be/fr/biografie/delacroix/  1

http://fr.academic.ru/dic.nsf/frwiki/1091311  2
Henri Canton de Wiart

Born into a noble family Hainaut, Henry Carton de Wiart was born in Brussels January 31, 1869. Four brothers will like him outsized careers. After his secondary education at Saint Michael's College, he studied law at the University of Brussels and completes his studies in Paris, sensitive to a certain bohemian glamor, it comes into contact with the literary circles. There are frequent Bloy, with whom he kept up a correspondence, Maurice Barres, Verlaine ... Back in Belgium, after a visit by the University of Bonn, he admitted to the bar and became an intern at Edmond Picard. Good speaker, he is one of the prominent figures in the legal community in the capital. He will never abandon this career as a lawyer that he will continue to focus along with his political activities. Socialite, he attended trade shows in order, mixes in cultural life and publishes articles in The Brussels Journal. From this period date the heterogeneous Tales (1892) that bear the mark of his stay in Paris and the influence of Barbey d'Aurevilly he has personally experienced. With Father Firmin and Henry Moeller van den Bosch, he also participated in the founding of the journal Durendal. Activist in the young Christian workers' movement, he launched Social Future and Social Justice and becomes a leader of the young right. 1

http://www.arllfb.be/composition/membres/cartondewiart.html 1

Geroges Theunis
Georges Theunis was born in Montegnee in 1873. He was a soldier and engineer. From 1925 to 1926 he was co-opted senator. After the war, he was Minister of Finance (1920 to 1921 and from 1921 to 1925). In 1932, he became Minister of National Defence.


Aloys Van de Vyvere

Aloys van Vyvere is from a wealthy Flemish family Tielt, where his father, Jean-Baptiste van Vyvere operated a weaving workshop. His mother, Valerie Sierens, was known as a remarkably intelligent woman. The young Aloys was a brilliant medium education at Bishop College Tielt and differed in regional and national academic competitions. His taste for classical languages and, in particular, for the Greek masterpieces from this period. In 1888 he began studying law and Thomistic philosophy at the University of Louvain where he was actively involved in the cultural and social life. He created, with Pieter-Jozef Sencie, the future lord, the Vlaamse Sprekersbond, which was to oppose a Christian materialist view of socialism as it was propagated in particular by the Ghent group aound Edward Anseele. He also participated in the creation of the student magazine Ons Leven to promote the revival of the language and Flemish culture.

After completing his studies, he settled as a lawyer in Ghent, where, presumably under the influence of Auguste Beernaert, he began to advocate for the Catholic party, focusing particularly on the social trend of it. In early 1909, he took part in exceptional circumstances, the establishment of the first Catholic-Socialist aldermen knew that a Belgian city, he accepted himself an alderman sitting in a college where, among others, Edward Anseele.
Prosper Poullet

Doctor of Philosophy and Letters, he began his political career as an MP in 1908. His first ministerial post he was awarded in 1911 he became Minister of Science and Arts, until 1918, when he was appointed Minister of Economic Affairs. Later, he was also the Minister of Railways, Navy and PTT and the Interior.

Henri Jaspar

He was Doctor of Law. From 1919 to 1936 he was a member of Liege. He was Minister of Economic Affairs from 1918 to 1920, the Interior in 1920 and 1920 to 1924, Minister of Foreign Affairs. He was appointed Minister of State March 12, 1924

Jules Renkin

The zeal with which he defended in Parliament the annexation of the Congo by Belgium brought him to become the following year, the first holder of the portfolio of Colonies. At the head of this new department for ten years (1908-1918), Renkin worked to reorganize the administration of the Belgian Congo. Assisted by Pierre Orts (see instructions) and Paul Crokaert (see instructions), he also took the initiative to organize at the beginning of the First World War, the Belgian military force in Africa.
Paul van Zeeland

Belgian Politician. Educated at Louvain and Princeton. It was co-director of the National Bank and Belgian representative at the Conference for the reconstruction of Central and Eastern Europe (1932). Leader of the Catholic party headed a coalition government (1935-1937) 1

http://archive.dirupo.belgium.be/fr/biographie/paul-van-zeeland  1

Paul-Émile Janson

He was a lawyer and became, in 1910, Representative in Parliament. From 1935 to 1936, he was elected Senator. It performs several ministerial positions: National Defence, Justice, Foreign Affairs, and was Prime Minister from 1937 to 1938. 1

He held several ministerial positions: National Defence, Justice, Foreign Affairs. 2

http://archive.dirupo.belgium.be/fr/biographie/paul-emile-janson  1

http://www.biographie.net/Paul-%C3%89mile-Janson  2

Paul-Henri Spaak

Spaak joined the Belgian army during the First World War, after lying about his age. 1

entreprend en 1916 de rejoindre l’armée belge en passant clandestinement par les Pays-Bas neutres. 2

http://europa.eu/about-eu/eu-history/founding-fathers/pdf/paul-henri_spaak_en.pdf  1

http://www.eui.eu/HAEU/phs//biog.asp  2

Hubert Pierlot
Doctor of Law, he became a member of Neufchâteau in 1925. He was provincial senator from Luxembourg from 1926 to 1936 and senator Arlon from 1936 to 1946. Minister of the Interior (1934-1935) and Agriculture (1934-1935 and 1936-1939), he became Prime Minister and Minister of Agriculture (1939), Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs.

"Serious to the point of severity, honest to the point of scrupulosity, a never-tired worker, a devout Christian, a patriot, a model of civic, professional, and family virtues, he was an exceptional man."


Achille van Acker

Having left school at ten, he attended evening classes and considered "self-made man", he was awarded an honorary doctorate from the University of Lille. He was a member from 1927 (the first Workers' Party of Belgium (POB) and the Belgian Socialist Party). He was several times Prime Minister, Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, Public Health, Transportation and Coal.

Achille van Acker was born on 8 April 1898 in Bruges, the son of a basket maker and grew up with five siblings. At the age of 10 he left school to work in different occupations. Eventually he became dockworkers.


http://www.munzinger.de/search/portrait/Achille+van+Acker/0/5961.html

Camille Huysmans
It focuses, therefore, journalism in the Belgian social democracy which he is a militant known fast, uncompromising and independent. Alderman Brussels, he was elected in 1910 in Antwerp.

The growing influence of the left, born in Zimmerwald Conference, the more general rise in opposition to the war led him to attempt to renew relations between socialist parties of the belligerent countries: he launched the Peace Conference in Stockholm in 1917, which is a semi-failure.

http://www.universalis.fr/encyclopedie/camille-huysmans/

Gaston Eyskens

“I hauled buckets and large bowls filled with water on the street to the poor animals, heavily panting their long tongues sticking out, to give drink to.”

If we played 'war', I conducted the army. To mimic the real war full we dug trenches and we did even large buses carbide explode.

http://www.dbnl.org/tekst/eysk002memo01_01/eysk002memo01_01_0003.php

France

Waldeck Rousseau

known for his eloquence and mastery of legal detail, Waldeck-Rousseau was elected a deputy in 1879.

In 1884 he sponsored the Loi Waldeck-Rousseau, which made trade unions legal, though with important restrictions. After another term as deputy (1885–89), he retired to make his fortune at the bar.

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/634389/Rene-Waldeck-Rousseau
Emile Combes

A seminarian in his youth, Combes published his doctoral thesis, La Psychologie de saint Thomas d’Acquin, in 1860, but before ordination he left the church. He remained active in politics and supported Pierre Waldeck-Rousseau’s efforts to redefine the relationship between church and state.

[1]

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/127315/Emile-Combes

Maurice Rouvier

yielded to the pressure German and also attached at the bottom to the defense of French interests, he wants a more flexible attitude in shape.

Touched by all the affairs of the Third Republic is considered to have been one of the most corrupt Republicans.

[2]

http://www.universalis.fr/encyclopedie/maurice-rouvier/

http://fr.academic.ru/dic.nsf/frwiki/1139184

Ferdinand Sarrien

Captain mobilized Saône-et-Loire during the Franco-Prussian War, he made the campaign Dijon and was decorated (17 September 1871)

[1]


Ernest Monis

Minister of the Navy 9 December 1913 to 20 March 1914

[1]

http://fr.academic.ru/dic.nsf/frwiki/591564

Rene Viviani
He protested against the actions of the police during the unrest in Paris's Latin Quarter and this so vividly that the Minister of Justice request disciplinary action against him in the Bar Council.

Frédéric François-Marsal

Frédéric François-Marsal was destined for a military career and entered at age 20, in 1894, at the Military School of Saint-Cyr, where he was sergeant major and flagship of the School first the infantry promotion.

Mobilized August 2, 1914 as captain of Chasseurs, he became commander, and lieutenant-colonel, after passing Grand Headquarters Joffre in 1915, the staff of Castelnau in 1917 and have been in the same year, attached to the end of the war cabinet Clemenceau as head of the financial and economic studies.

Camille Chautemps

Volunteer fighter of the First World War

Auparavant, il avait été un pilier émérite du Stade français, qui, voilà un siècle, faisait déjà figure d'épouvantail du rugby.
After teaching at the School Alsace from 1892 to 1894, he was appointed professor of philosophy at the College of Vannes, then at the College of Niort.

Then he returned to Paris, where he taught philosophy at the Ecole Charlemagne Alsatian and high school until 1904.

Upon his arrival in Rabat, Steeg put all his ingenuity to save our young soldiers feared a new campaign hazards. His diplomacy dissociation opposing forces, reduced the enemy to sue for peace and ultimately to submit without bitterness.

Pierre Laval

Elected deputy for Aubervilliers in 1914, he urged a negotiated peace to end World War I.

he strives to continue the policy of peace 'of Aristide Briand . Against the German threat, it forges alliances with Fascist Italy and the USSR.

Poincare

his cold exterior and punctilious personality prevented him from becoming genuinely popular.

Clemenceau was among the crowd that invaded the Palais-Bourbon on September 4 and hailed the radical leader Léon Gambetta, who was proclaiming the republic. 

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/120962/Georges-Clemenceau/1352/Early-political-career

Astride Briand

Won Nobel Peace Prize

adopt the general strike as a political tactic at a workers’ congress at Nantes. As opposed to violence

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/79162/Aristide-Briand

Joseph Caillaux

he advocated compromise and conciliation with the "hereditary enemy" across the Rhine.

His imperious, manic behavior aroused hostility, opposition to World War I led to his imprisonment for treason in 1920


Louis Barthou

historien et humaniste, membre de l’Académie française, d’une intelligence claire et précise
Sa mort brutale fut la fin d’une politique réaliste d’alliance solide contre les menaces de revanche et d’agression. 1

http://www.assemblee-nationale.fr/histoire/Barthou.asp

Gaston Doumergue

Le jeune Doumergue, vif et parfois turbulent, est puni comme les autres. 1

http://www.aiguesvives.fr/Gaston-Doumergue-1-Biographie-d-un.html

Paul Painleve

He approached the Chamber of Deputies in 1907 arguing that it was necessary to set up a branch of the military involved with aviation; he was successful and the military aviation service was set up. 1

http://www-history.mcs.st-and.ac.uk/Biographies/Painleve.html

Alexandre Millerand

With Briand he assumed responsibility for using troops to suppress the railway strike of October 1910. Appointed minister of war under Raymond Poincaré in 1912, he reorganized the higher command and for the first time gave a definite status to military aeronautics. He retained the same post in René Viviani’s Cabinet until he resigned in October 1915. In 1918 he was elected a member of the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques. 1

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/382848/Alexandre-Millerand

Georges Leygues

tiré par la littérature, et en particulier la poésie 1

il envisage une carrière d'officier de marine puis 1
wanted to be a naval officer


Edourd Herriot

He rapidly acquired a reputation for outstanding scholarship and teaching

The son of an army officer


http://www.larousse.fr/encyclopedie/personnage/Herriot/123780- more info

Andre Tardieu

he served with distinction in the light infantry during World War I until 1916

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/583458/Andre-Tardieu

Joseph Paul Boncour

His physician father, freethinker and republican, his mother born of Norman, Catholic and monarchist, have a simple and quiet life.

Reading Jules Verne and the Journal of travel creates in him a maritime vocation and in 1889, he moved to Saint-Brieuc, where he intends to prepare the entrance to the Naval Academy contest, at St. Charles College. But the mathematical side of the preparation
repels quickly and it takes still in Brittany, studied literature. then this is Paris, the Latin Quarter, where he studied law, still to meet its maritime vocation through Commissioner of the Navy. 1

Soon, this is war, Paul Boncour make the front four years, sometimes line where he became battalion commander, now as head of the intelligence service. His qualities and courage earned him the Croix de Guerre with palm and the Legion of Honor in military title 1

http://www.assemblee-nationale.fr/sycomore/fiche.asp?num_dept=5724 1

Édouard Daladier

Daladier, in his effort to avoid war, joined the British prime minister, Neville Chamberlain, in signing the Munich Pact with Adolf Hitler’s Germany. 1

In World War I Mr. Daladier went into the army as a sergeant and was demobilized as a captain with a Croix de Guerre and the Legion of Honor won in action 2

The war marked him profoundly. 3

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/150071/Edouard-Daladier 1


Albert Sarraut
As governor-general he applied liberal policies, increasing the proportion of native Indochinese in the civil service, recognizing the use of the local languages and local law, and continuing the public-works policy of his predecessor, Paul Doumer.  

A senator from 1926 to 1940, Sarraut was minister of the interior (1926–28, 1934, 1937–40) and for the navy (1930–31)  

Il y a du mousquetaire en lui. Il eut plusieurs duels qui défrayèrent la chronique ; celui qui l'opposa en 1906 au député bonapartiste Pugliesi-Conti lui valut une blessure dont il devait se ressentir toute sa vie.  2 (Participated in Duels)

From August to October, 1916, took part in the fighting at Verdun, during which he was awarded the Military Medal. This is a military title as a reserve lieutenant in the 80th RI that will receive the Knight's Cross of the Legion of Honor in 1927.  2

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/524493/Albert-Sarraut

http://www.senat.fr/senateur-3eme-republique/sarraut_albert0265r3.html#1889-1940  2

Pierre-Étienne Flandin

When in March 1936 the Germans sent their troops into the Rhineland, Flandin, as foreign minister, suggested the use of French armed forces to evict them, but he was supported by only a minority of ministers.  1

after participating in the campaign of the Yser with AF Squadron 33, was appointed in 1915 special adviser at the Ministry of War  2

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/209500/Pierre-Etienne-Flandin  1


Fernand Bouisson
From sporty, he organized from his childhood in the school where he was raised, an 
association of athletics at a time when physical education had not yet entered the school. 
He became a "swordsman" formidable and "rugby" world class. completing his studies he did his military service in the artillery 1
http://www.assemblee-nationale.fr/sycomore/fiche.asp?num_dept=1043  1

Leon Blum
Strong supporter of national defense, he fought the Socialists 'minority' Paul Faure and 
Jean Longuet.  1
http://www.larousse.fr/encyclopedie/personnage/L%C3%A9on_Blum/109175  1

Paul Reynaud
Reynaud was a lawyer and served in the army during World War I.  1
Then he completed his military service in the 37th Infantry Regiment in Nancy.  2
Mobilized as a sub-lieutenant in the health service, he participated in all major battles that took place on the French front. Suffering from pleurisy during the Battle of the Somme, he was evacuated to Paris 2
http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/500788/Paul-Reynaud  1

Philippe Petain
As a young second lieutenant in an Alpine regiment, sharing the rough outdoor life of his men, he came to understand the ordinary soldier. The extraordinary popularity he was later to enjoy with the rank and file in World War I is believed to have had its origin there.  1
He reestablished discipline with a minimum of repression by personally explaining his intentions to the soldiers and improving their living conditions. Under him the French armies participated in the victorious offensive of 1918, led by Marshal Ferdinand Foch, generalissimo of the Allied armies. Pétain was made a marshal of France in November 1918 and was subsequently appointed to the highest military offices (vice president of the Supreme War Council and inspector general of the army).

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/453539/Philippe-Petain

Charles de Gaulle

but, as a boy, de Gaulle already showed a passionate interest in military matters. He attended the Military Academy of Saint-Cyr, and in 1913, as a young second lieutenant, he joined an infantry regiment commanded by Colonel Philippe Pétain.

'De Gaulle was an intelligent, hardworking, and zealous young soldier and, in his military career, a man of original mind, great self-assurance, and outstanding courage. In World War I he fought at Verdun, was three times wounded and three times mentioned in dispatches, and spent two years and eight months as a prisoner of war (during which time he made five unsuccessful attempts to escape).

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/227099/Charles-de-Gaulle

Jean Félix Gouin

A volunteer, Felix Gouin makes the 1914-1918 war in a combat unit.


Georges Bidault

served briefly with the French Army of Occupation.
he returned to France in 1941 and began working with the National Council of Resistance, which he headed in 1943.  

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/64755/Georges-Bidault

Paul Ramadier

The War of 1914 pulls his activities and away from the aggregation of Roman law. In 1914, he was seriously wounded as an infantry sergeant. His brilliant conduct earned him the Military Medal and the Croix de Guerre.  
His conciliatory temperament, his good nature, his empiricism, were legendary His family also knew deep humanistic qualities who liked to read old authors, historian, scholar and Latin scholar, he was a-'m told, as familiar with Babeuf with St. Augustine. It is deep culture that created his passion for social justice and a permanent human Liberal accent. But this picturesque character also will be remembered as a hard worker to bed late and getting up early, driven by a constant passion for the public good and always respecting simplicity and extreme simplicity. General de Gaulle called it a "great gentleman." Attached to all his mind, republican traditions he was equally to the secular state and the school was a constant in his political life. And he declared that "we can only command nature except by obeying her" all his life he tried to put his actions in accord with his ideal.  


Robert Schuman

He escaped in 1942 and worked in the Résistance until France was liberated
Hendrik Tangerink

Hendrik Tangerink was a Dutch diplomat who served as the ambassador to the United States from 1936 to 1941. He was known for his skill in mediating disputes and his ability to forge alliances. Tangerink was a key figure in the early stages of World War II, working to maintain neutral relations between the Netherlands and the major powers.


Spain

Francisco Silvela

Samuels was also a prominent essayist and writer who edited historical works, legal, and contributed essays to publications such as The Times, The Magazine of Spain, The Fair and The Time. He belonged to the royal academies of Moral and Political Sciences of the Language and Jurisprudence.

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/528429/Robert-Schuman

André Marie

Went to the front as a single gunner, he returned six months later to follow the Fontainebleau wannabe course, returned the combat zone with the rank of lieutenant and was appointed shortly afterwards Lieutenant temporarily. At the end of the war, he was commander of a battery 75. His heroic conduct earned him two minor injuries, many citations. He was awarded the Croix de Guerre with palm.

http://www.assemblee-nationale.fr/histoire/biographies/IVRepublique/marie-andre-03121897.asp

Henri Queuille

Doctor of Medicine in 1908, he returned to practice medicine in Neuvic where its activity and the need to serve quickly referred her to the attention of his fellow citizens. During the war he served first as a medical officer in the 84th Regiment, then as a doctor in various ambulances.

http://www.senat.fr/senateur-3eme-republique/queuille_henri0469r3.html#1889-1940

http://www.senat.fr/senateur-3eme-republique/queuille_henri0469r3.html#1889-1940
Marcelo Azcárraga Palmero

He served during the Revolutionary Sexenio management positions in the military, becoming Secretary of War in 1872, during the reign of Amadeo. Chief of Army López Domínguez Martínez Campos and arranged to pay the canton of Cartagena, fought after the Carlists in the North. Participated in conspiratorial work who hatched in the Restoration, which made him reach the quarterback job in 1875.

Práxedes Mateo Sagasta

Chief of the Revolutionary Junta of 1854

In 1866, after participating in an attempted military coup in charge of Juan Prim, into exile in France

Raimundo Fernández Villaverde

At twenty-five he was elected deputy to the legislature from 1872 to 1873 for the constituency of Caldas de Reis (Pontevedra), having been later by Caldelas Bridge (also in Pontevedra)

Participated in many conferences and debates of the Athenian and most relevant scientific societies
Antonio Maura y Montaner

His tolerance and lack of knowledge of human nature, however, tended to obscure his otherwise brilliant political career. 1

He came from a family of merchants and manufacturers of fertilizers. He studied at the Institut Balear in Palma, where he was co-Alcover, and Guasp Manuel Alexandre Rosselló 2

He started out in state politics when he began a campaign for the reorganization of the Navy (1884-85) 2

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/370015/Antonio-Maura-y-Montaner 1


Eugenio Montero Ríos

President of the Senate, in 1898 led the delegation that negotiated the Treaty of Paris, which gave independence to Cuba and the Philippines 1

He was a member of the Royal Academy of History and of Moral and Political Sciences 1

Progressive vinulado the Free Institution of Education, and supporter of Prim conspired in favor of the revolution of 1868 2

http://www.buscabiografias.com/bios/biografia/verDetalle/7257/Eugenio%20Montero%20Rios 1


Segismundo Moret y Prendergast
He opposed war with the United States as a hopeless venture, sought mediation by other European governments to end the crisis over Cuba.

José López Domínguez

He fought in the war between Spain and Morocco in 1859-1860.

José Canalejas y Méndez

Introduced obligatory military service.

Canalejas ordered (1911) the occupation of Larache, Alcázar, and Arcila by Spanish troops.

Manuel García Prieto

Upon finishing his studies, he joined the Military Advocate.
Dato y Iradier

Studied and lived in Madrid where he practiced law career. Even internationally, as demonstrated by being named legal adviser to the Rothschild.

Joaquín Sánchez de Toca Calvo

Politician, lawyer and sociologist Spanish.

Manuel Allende Salazar

During seasons in which he taught, tried to impose the roots of Catholicism in his method, consistent with their strong religious convictions. He liked many elite sports like fencing and horseback riding, as well as walks and playing cards.

Gabino Bugallal y Araujo

He studied Secondary Education in Pontevedra and Law in Santiago and Salamanca, taking his degree in 1880. He moved to Madrid, where he worked as an articled clerk. In 1886, he was elected as a deputy in Ponteareas (shortly after he would be elected in other districts) and nominated as secretary of the Parliament.
Jose Sanchez Guerra

travels to Paris, where he organized the revolutionary movement of Valencia

http://www.buscabiografias.com/bios/biografia/verDetalle/6305/Jose%20Sanchez%20Guerra

Primo de Rivera

Born into a military family, Primo de Rivera was graduated from the General Military Academy
general and statesman who, as dictator of Spain from September 1923 to January 1930,
founded an authoritarian and nationalistic regime that attempted to unify the nation
around the motto “Country, Religion, Monarchy.”

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/476543/Miguel-Primo-de-Rivera

Damaso Berenguer

Prepared an ambitious plan to get the final occupation of the territory of the protectorate. It obtained some initial successes, such as Chefchaouen making, for which he received the title of Count

http://www.buscabiografias.com/bios/biografia/verDetalle/4092/Damaso%20Berenguer

Juan Bautista Aznar-Cabañas

He had a military role during the war in Morocco to send as an admiral in 1921 and 1922 the squadron that supported reconquistadoras forces from the territory of the Command of Melilla after the disaster of Annual, and was appointed Minister of the Navy in the government headed by García Prieto in 1923.
Niceto Alcalá Zamora

As leader of the revolutionary committee, he successfully demanded Alfonso’s abdication on the basis of the municipal elections of April 1931.

Alejandro Lerroux

Which then evolved towards more moderate, but took part in the 1917 summer agitation.

During the Civil War supported the insurgents.

Minister of War Spain 16 November 1934-3 April 1935

Ricardo Samper Ibáñez

Law degree from the University of Valencia, in 1905 began to practice law in his own firm without interruption until he was appointed Minister of Labour.

A few years before being elected mayor of Valencia, Samper was elected provincial Ibáñez, a position noted for his commendable efforts to eliminate currents coming despotic practices using the provincial Commission.

Joaquín Chapaprieta

As part of the Administration, in 1903 he was Director General Properties, then General Manager of Administration, in 1915, Secretary of Grace and Justice, the following year, Treasury, and by 1922, Minister of Labour.
Manuel Portela y Valladares

he served as Member of Parliament, civil governor of Barcelona and Minister of Development. The proclamation of the Republic was elected in the Constituent Cortes, deputy for Lugo Galleguista the GOP, then by Pontevedra by the Centre Party in 1936. Upon the military uprising of July 18 went to Nice, where the October 8, 1936, sent a letter to General Franco expressing his admiration for him and for the ideas he espoused.

http://www.mcnbiografias.com/app-bio/do/show?key=portela-valladares-manuel

Manuel Azana

In 1930 he began to organize a liberal republican party, Republican Action (Acción Republicana), in opposition to the dictatorship of General Miguel Primo de Rivera. He was one of the signatories of the Pact of San Sebastián (August 1930), an alliance of republicans, socialists, and the Catalan left that called for the abdication of King Alfonso XIII. When Alfonso left Spain after the municipal elections of April 1931, this group became the provisional government. As minister of war in the new government, Azaña drastically reduced the army establishment.

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/46714/Manuel-Azana-y-Diaz

Santiago Casares Quiroga

Casares, a man of great culture, tireless reader, bibliophile, whose books were seized and burned by the rebels,
Diego Martinez Barrio

worked from ten years in a bakery and later as an apprentice typographer, and the a solicitor firm. Achieved then owning your own printing press which printed the Republican weekly newspaper "The People". He joined the group 20 years he led the Cordoba Alejandro Lerroux within the Republican Union that he founded along with Salmerón. 1


José Giral Pereira

Knowing the preparation of a military uprising against the Republic, Giral, as Minister of the Navy, was responsible, in the days before the July 1936 lifting of the prohibition of naval maneuvers under Moroccan and Canarian coasts. 1

http://www.mcnbiografias.com/app-bio/do/show?key=giral-y-pereira-jose

Francisco Largo Caballero

Sentenced to life imprisonment for his part in the general strike of August 1917, he was released on his election to the Cortes (parliament) in 1918. 1

Largo Caballero moved further to the left, spoke increasingly of Socialist revolution, and supported the abortive uprising of October 1934. 1

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/330604/Francisco-Largo-Caballero
Juan Negrín

encouraging his students to learn foreign languages and read scientific literature in the language of the author, and also to think of public health as a national, public responsibility. 1

Negrín joined the Spanish Socialist Party in May 1929 and, from the proclamation of the Republic, he concentrated on politics, dropping out from medical practice and academic activity. 2

http://www.sussex-academic.com/sa/titles/history/JacksonNegrin.htm 1

http://www.uv.es/cultura/e/expjuannegrining.htm 2

Jose Miaja Menant

José Miaja Menant ingresa en la Academia de Infantería de Toledo en 1896. Su primer destino es el Principado de Asturias, desde donde solicita traslado a Melilla. En la guerra de Marruecos obtiene la graduación de comandante en 1911, alcanzando el generalato en 1932. 1

Fue designado provisionalmente ministro de la Guerra en el gobierno de Azaña (1936). y al iniciarse la Guerra Civil mandaba la 1.ª brigada de Infantería, con sede en Madrid. 2

http://webs.ono.com/uribest/BOLETIN4.pdf 1


Francisco Franco

He soon led an uprising against the sitting administration and took control of Spain after the Spanish Civil War (1939). 1
enlist in the army, and in 1907, when he was just 14 years old, Franco entered the
Infantry Academy at Toledo. 1

Franco surprisingly remained neutral and avoided military conspiracies. 2

http://www.biography.com/people/francisco-franco-9300766 1


Germany

Kaiser Wilhelm II

He never wanted himself or Germany to appear weak; hence he developed a strong will, an aggressive demeanor and an arrogance that led to a complex mix of stubbornness and instability. 1
to be a celebrated marksman in the hunting field 2
he abandoned the University to enter the Prussian army; 2

http://www.pbs.org/greatwar/chapters/ch1_voices1.html 1


Friedrich Ebert

Ebert was the son of a master tailor. He learned the saddler’s trade and traveled through Germany as a journeyman saddler. He soon became a Social Democrat and trade unionist, representing so-called revisionist—gradualist, liberal—“trade-union” socialism, without, however, displaying a deep interest in the ideological struggles of Marxism. His
attention was always directed toward practical improvement in the living conditions of
the German working class and, above all, its social and moral betterment.  1
http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/177590/Friedrich-Ebert  1

Philipp Scheidemann

Scheidemann joined the majority of his party in supporting Germany’s participation in
World War I.  1
http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/527166/Philipp-Scheidemann  1

Gustav Bauer

He joined the trade union movement, was elected (1908) Vice President of the General
Committee of German Trade Unions.  1

Attended public school in Königsberg; worked as office assistant in lawyer's office (to
1902); founded the Office Employees Association (1895); editor of Der Bureau-Angestellte (1895-1901)  2
http://www.treccani.it/enciclopedia/gustav-bauer_(Dizionario-di-Storia)/#  1
http://www.archontology.org/nations/german/germ_1919_45b/bauer.php  2

Herman Muller

In July 1914 he was sent on an abortive mission to France to coordinate Socialist
opposition to the impending World War I.  1
http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/396854/Hermann-Muller  1
Constantin Fehrenbach

Fehrenbach gained national prominence through his sharp criticism of the actions of the military in Saverne affair. It calls for a precise constitutional limitation of military force.

As a member of the Centre Party Fehrenbach began his political career as a city councilor in the municipal area of Freiburg.

During World War II, the center initially supported the German war effort and argued for expansive war aims. Over time, the demand for a negotiated peace with who was also at the center Entente louder

http://www.dhm.de/lemo/html/biografien/FehrenbachKonstantin/


Joseph Wirth

he advocated a policy of fulfillment of Germany’s obligations under the Versailles Treaty settlement and consistently opposed German militarism after both world wars.

Wirth is co-founder and first president of the Academic Vincent conference. The lay organization provides charitable assistance to the poor and needy.

For the Centre Party, he was elected to the Freiburg city council college.

He is member of the Reichstag. His main concern is the social question, the solution of which makes it dependent on social reforms.

With the beginning of the First World War to Wirth reports as a volunteer. Declared unfit for service, he joined the Red Cross.

Wilhelm Cuno

As an expert of the German economy the Cuno government takes part in the peace and reparation.

By initiating and signing of the Hapag-Harriman Treaty with the United American Lines Hapag Cuno secures a leading position in the international merchant shipping.

Catholic and well regarded by the Centre.

Gustav Stresemann

In his early years he helped in the family business and, since he was a lonely boy, assiduously pursued his studies.

After attending the Andreas Real Gymnasium in Berlin, Stresemann studied literature, philosophy, and political economy at Berlin and Leipzig.

Stresemann nonetheless supported the idea, novel at the time, that management should accept labor's right to organize and should recognize its representatives as official negotiators of collective bargaining demands.

He believed in force, in authority, in discipline. He argued as early as 1907 for the creation of a strong navy, seeing in it the instrument by which to extend and protect German overseas trade; in 1916, he supported unrestricted submarine warfare; he helped to defeat the government of Bethmann-Hollweg which he thought too temperate; he opposed the Treaty of Versailles.
Wilhelm Marx

1863 - 15th January: Wilhelm Marx was born the son of a Catholic school principal in Cologne.  

1899 – 1904 Chairman of the Centre in Elberfeld.  

1922 - Marx is chairman of the Centre Party and Chairman of the People's Association for Catholic Germany.

Hans Luther

Luther was 1897 graduate of the classical Leibniz-Gymnasium in Berlin.  

In the right-wing Kapp Putsch in 1920 Luther took the role of a custodian of public interests and could end the violent clashes between right-and left-wing extremists in the city.  

In the education and training policy, Luther proved to be progressive and drove the establishment of a vocational school for women and the establishment of the People's High School in Essen ahead.

Heinrich Bruning

Brüning received his doctorate from the University of Bonn in 1915 and then rose to the command of a machine-gun company in World War I  

At the First World War Bruning participates as a volunteer and attained officer rank.
Franz von Papen

Papen began his career as a professional soldier. He belonged to the ultraright wing of the Catholic Centre Party.

Kurt von Schleicher

Kurt von Schleicher, the son of a Prussian army officer, was born in Brandenburg, Germany, on July 4, 1882. He joined the German Army in 1900 and during the First World War was a general on the staff of Paul von Hindenburg. After the war Schleicher helped organize the Freikorps. He remained close to Paul von Hindenburg and after he was elected as president in 1925 Schleicher worked as his political adviser.

Adolf Hitler

enlisted in the German army, where he was wounded and decorated. In 1923, Hitler attempted an unsuccessful armed uprising in Munich. On his release he began to rebuild the Nazi Party and used new techniques of mass communication, backed up with violence, to get his message across.

The fourth son of an irascible, authoritarian customs official. As a child, the future German Führer was lazy and temperamental. Years later, one of his school teachers would remember him as lacking in "self-discipline, being notoriously cantankerous, wilful, arrogant and bad-tempered."
In his autobiography, "Mein Kampf," Hitler traced his anti-Semitism to his years in Vienna. For Hitler, Jews came to represent everything he despised and feared. They were responsible for Capitalism and Socialism, for Modernism in art, which Hitler hated, for pornography, for the anti-nationalism of the press, and for Hitler's own personal failures. "Thus I finally discovered who were the evil spirits leading our people astray...," Hitler claimed. "My love for my own people increased correspondingly. Considering the satanic skill which these evil counselors displayed how could their unfortunate victims be blamed? .... The more I came to know the Jew, the easier it was to excuse the workers."

In 1919, Hitler joined one of the many right-wing parties that sprung up in Germany after World War I, as its 55th member. The organization would come to be called the National Socialist German Workers' Party or the Nazi Party.

Karl Dönitz

Karl Dönitz was born on 16 September 1891 near Berlin and went into the Imperial German Navy in 1911. Having served as a submarine officer in World War One, when Adolf Hitler came to power Dönitz was chosen to create a new U-boat fleet. He was appointed commander of the fleet and during the early years of World War Two, turned the U-boats into a serious threat to Britain's survival.
Poland

Ignacy Ewaryst Daszyński

He supported the creation of trade unions 1

He supported the creation of paramilitary organizations in Galicia. He personally contributed to the legalization of "Sagittarius" and "Rifle Association. 1

participated in the invasion of the Kielce region Pilsudski 1

http://www.edupedia.pl/words/index/show/564644_leksykon_postaci-ignacy_ewaryst_daszyski.html 1

Gabriel Narutowicz

During the First World War, was engaged in charity activity directed to Poland 1

He won international recognition as a water-power engineer 1

health condition, interrupted his studies at the St.Petersburg University and graduated from the Technical University in Zurich. 1

http://www.president.pl/en/president/polish-presidents/gabriel-narutowicz/ 1

Stanisław Wojciechowski

Opposed the use of terror. 1

Engaged in the creation of the Polish army in Russia 1

Wojciechowski supported continued parliamentary government 2

http://www.president.pl/en/president/polish-presidents/stanislaw-wojciechowski/ 1

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/646442/Stanislaw-Wojciechowski 2
Józef Piłsudski

In 1887 Piłsudski played a limited and unknowing role in a plot to assassinate Tsar Alexander III.

After 1905 Piłsudski built a Polish paramilitary in anticipation of the next European war. When World War I came in 1914, his Union of Riflemen formed the core of Polish legions incorporated by the army of Austria-Hungary.

His mother, née Maria Billewicz, inspired him with hatred for the Russian imperial regime.


http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/460674/Jozef-Pilsudski

Edward Rydz-Smigly

Polish general. Served with Piłsudski in World War I. Inspector general of Polish army, succeeding Piłsudski (1935); marshal of Poland and one of most powerful men in country (1936-39);


Bolesław Bierut

infamous for persecuting Polish patriots during the period of late Stalinism.

During the occupation period he was an NKVD (People's Commissariat for Internal Affairs) officer, later a member of the Polish United Worker’s Party, carrying out the
orders of Moscow. He was a supporter of the programme of dependency on the USSR and the Sovietization of Poland, infamous for persecuting Polish patriots during the period of late Stalinism. 1

he was arrested and imprisoned several times during the 1920s and 1930s 2

http://www.president.pl/en/president/polish-presidents/boleslaw-bierut/ 1


**Austria-Hungary**

Franz Joseph I

In the spring of 1848 he served with the Austrian forces in Italy 1

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/216776/Francis-Joseph 1

Emperor Karl

In the first years of the war he served as a staff officer, commanding the XX Corps in the Austrian Tyrol offensive of May 1916 and moving to Galicia that summer in the wake of the Brusilov offensive. Karl performed well in these engagements but remained inwardly skeptical about the chances for an ultimate Austro-German victory. 1

http://net.lib.byu.edu/estu/wwi/bio/k/karl-1.html 1
Italy

Luigi Girolamo Pelloux

Italian soldier and politician. Served in Africa (1885-89) 1 took part in the wars of 1859 and 1866 at Custoza (1866) won the silver medal in the value and in 1870 commanded the artillery opened the breach of Porta Pia, earning the Knight's Cross of the Military Order of Savoia 2


http://www.treccani.it/enciclopedia/luigi-girolamo-pelloux/ 2

Giuseppe Saracco’

Politician (Bistagno 1821 - there in 1907), lawyer. Member of the Subalpine Parliament (since 1851), then Senator (since 1865), was Secretary General for Public Works (1862) and Finance (1864) and then Minister of Public Works (1887-89, 1893-96). 1

Born in Bistagno, near Alessandria in Piedmont, Giuseppe Saracco had a distinguished political career that spanned the entire period from the Risorgimentoto the Giolittian age. He entered the Piedmontese Parliament in 1849 and served as a minister on many occasions under all the leading figures of liberal Italy. In 1898, he became president of the Senate, of which he had been a member since 1865. As Christopher Seton Watson has written of him, Saracco “had twice accepted cabinet office from Francesco Crispi without damaging a reputation for integrity, common sense, and financial wisdom. 2

http://www.treccani.it/enciclopedia/giuseppe-saracco/ 1
Giuseppe Zanardelli

Law student at Pavia, he participated in the uprisings of 1848 and the following year took part in the "ten days" of Brescia.

A combatant in the volunteer corps during the war of 1848, he returned to Brescia after the defeat of Novara.

Alessandro Fortis

Italian politician. Fought under Garibaldi (1866-67), a militant of the Action Party since 1866,

then in the volunteer military, which shyly approached in 1860 with a brief stint in the body of the Hunters of Marche, one of the many Yields of the National Society, took on a decidedly democratic transition in the Garibaldi partisan: enlisted in the 1st Regiment volunteers and then incorporated in the 3rd, 3 July 1866 the F. fighting in Rocca d'Anfo the orders of G. Bruzzesi and the following year he took part in the expedition that would end at the gates of Rome. On both occasions he had to partner his cousin A. Cantoni, who, having fallen in Mentone November 3 1867 would be remembered by G. Garibaldi in the novel Cantoni the volunteer.

Sidney Sonnino

Promoted Italy's entrance into World War I  


Luigi Luzzatti

During and after the First World War always supported the need for a peace monetary and proposed to create an international body who would provide the compensation of give and take between countries to facilitate the return to normal in international relations. 

He was an enthusiastic supporter of the doctrine of free trade. 

Luzzatti was frequently entrusted by successive Italian governments with delicate international negotiations. As one of the delegates who arranged the commercial treaty with France he received the grand cross of the Legion of Honor. 

number of essays on Religious Ethics, the Relations of the State toward the Religious and National Minorities, and the Jewish Question. He wrote of the repeated efforts he made over a long period of years in favor of granting of citizenship rights to the Jews of Roumania 

The underlying theme of his commitment is the desire to improve the living conditions of the lower classes and for this purpose gives life to a mutual aid society for the workers in the Veneto.
Antonio Salandra
here he supported the strengthening of the government to the parliament expressing expansionist tendencies abroad and conservative inside

Paolo Boselli
Favouring Italy’s entry into World War I against Austria-Hungary (1915)
in favor of intervention in the First World War

Vittorio Emanuele Orlando
He favoured Italy’s entrance into the war (May 1915)
He had supported Italy's entry into World War I

Francesco Fausto Nitti
“my father brought and brings in everyday life the light of his faith and he lives in reality that is in himself: for he love of neighbor, protection of the weak, goodness and self-sacrifice for all, were never empty words from proferirsi from the pulpit during the Sunday worship. were true acts of faith made daily. comes him such a peace of mind and
such a force even in the most dense and concern most turbulent of his life, that the observer remains admired and touched. "  

The relationship with his parents was addictive; their religion (even his mother came from one of the first Protestant families of Tuscany) he will recognize that derive moral rigor that characterizes all his life.  

From Protestantism learned above all respect and love for the freedom of the individual, as the first foundation of human progress and civilization and aversion to all forms of violence  

http://www.storiaxxisecolo.it/antifascismo/biografie%20antifascisti143.html  

Giovanni Giolitti  

After studying law, Giolitti began his prefectorial (civil service) career in 1862 and was elected deputy in parliament in 1882.  

He had many enemies, however, and retained power by using the highly criticized technique called giolittismo, which is associated with corruption and violence on election days and with personal deals rather than with party loyalty.  


http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/234011/Giovanni-Giolitti  

Ivanoe Bonomi  

During World War I he served as a volunteer  

A strong supporter of Italy's entrance into World War I
Luigi Facta

After studying law, Facta became a journalist. He was elected deputy in 1891. He served as undersecretary first of justice and then of the interior in Giovanni Giolitti’s coalition cabinet (1903–05). In succeeding ministries he was three times minister of finance and during the first six months of 1919 was minister of justice. 1

in this way, consuming the youth on the books, at the age of eighteen he managed to graduate in law from the University of Turin. 2

Benito Mussolini

but his support for Italy's entry into World War One led to his break with socialism. He was drafted into the Italian army in September 1915. 1

He organised them into armed squads known as Black Shirts, who terrorised their political opponents 1

"March on Rome," a forceful Fascist seizure of Rome, 2

The elder Mussolini was a blacksmith who worked only intermittently and was often in debt; he had a strong character, subscribing to a mixture of socialist, anarchist, and republican ideas, and took an active part in the politics of his town. He drank to excess and was frequently unfaithful to his wife. 3
His father believed in corporal punishment and a thick leather strap was used to discipline the children. Mussolini described his character at this time as embittered and "almost savage."  

Once, when a teacher tried to punish him with a ruler, the boy exploded in anger, hurling an inkpot at the man. Often disciplined for breaking the school's rules, young Benito was finally expelled for stabbing a fellow student with a penknife (on another occasion he even knifed his girlfriend).  

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/mussolini_benito.shtml


Pietro Badoglio

Badoglio entered the Italian army in 1890 as an artillery officer and fought in the Ethiopian campaign of 1896 and in the Italo-Turkish War (1911–12). In World War I he distinguished himself by planning and directing the capture of Monte Sabotino on Aug. 6, 1916. Although his forces suffered defeat in the Battle of Caporetto on Oct. 24, 1917, he emerged from the war a high-ranking general and conducted the armistice talks for the Italians. He was chief of the Italian general staff from 1919 to 1921.

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/48567/Pietro-Badoglio
Ferruccio Parri

Committee of National Liberation High (CLNAI), then Deputy Commander Body volunteers of liberty (CVL). 1

In the closing stages of the war in Italy, he was one of the three top leaders of the partisan brigades that fought a guerrilla war against German occupation troops in northern Italy. 2

He was a high school history teacher until he joined the Italian Army and reached the rank of major in World War I. He was wounded four times and received four decorations for bravery, including France's Croix de Guerre. 2

http://www.anpi.it/donne-e-uomini/ferruccio-parri/ 1


Alcide de Gasperi

He was, for example, able to understand that finding solutions to problems was more important than holding grudges and believed that substance was important, not form. 1

De Gasperi believed that the Second World War taught all Europeans the following lesson: “the future will not be built through force, nor the desire to conquer, but by the patient application of the democratic method, the constructive spirit of agreement, and by respect for freedom”. 1

http://europa.eu/about-eu/eu-history/founding-fathers/pdf/alcide_de_gasperi_en.pdf 1
Russia

Nicholas II

Alexandra was the dominant personality in their relationship and encouraged the weaker Nicholas's autocratic tendencies. He mistrusted most of his ministers and yet was incapable of carrying out the task of ruling the vast Russian empire alone.  1

he loved all things associated with the military, which he admired not only as an important institution in Russian life but as a model for an ideal society and polity. 2

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/nicholas_ii.shtml  1


Vladimir Lenin

At university, he was exposed to radical thinking, and his views were also influenced by the execution of his elder brother, a member of a revolutionary group  1

Expelled from university for his radical policies, Lenin completed his law degree as an external student in 1891. He moved to St Petersburg and became a professional revolutionary.  1

One impetus to his conversion doubtless was the execution by hanging of his older brother Alexander in 1887; Alexander and a few associates had conspired to assassinate the Emperor .2

Lenin loved hunting, hiking, horseback riding, boating, mush-rooming, and the outdoor life in general. He sought to steel himself by systematic physical exercise and generally
forbade himself those hobbies which he considered time-wasting or corrupting: chess, music, and companionship. 2

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/lenin_vladimir.shtml 1


Joseph Stalin

He studied at a theological seminary where he began to read Marxist literature. He never graduated, instead devoting his time to the revolutionary movement against the Russian monarchy. He spent the next 15 years as an activist and on a number of occasions was arrested and exiled to Siberia. 1

Never a fiery intellectual polemicist or orator like Lenin or Trotsky, Stalin specialized in the humdrum nuts and bolts of revolutionary activity, risking arrest every day by helping organize workers, distributing illegal literature, and robbing trains to support the cause, while Lenin and his bookish friends lived safely abroad and wrote clever articles about the plight of the Russian working class. Although Lenin found Stalin's boorishness offensive at times, he valued his loyalty, and appointed him after the Revolution to various low-priority leadership positions in the new Soviet government. 2

In 1897 Lenin was arrested, spent some months in jail, and was finally sentenced to 3 years of exile in the Siberian village of Shushenskoe. 2

Stalin then joined the underground revolutionary Marxist movement in Tbilisi. In 1901 he was elected a member of the Tbilisi committee of the Russian Social Democratic Workers party. The following year he was arrested, imprisoned, and subsequently
banished to Siberia. Stalin escaped from Siberia in 1904 and rejoined the Marxist underground in Tbilisi. When the Russian Marxist movement split into two factions, Stalin identified himself with the Bolsheviks. 3

Stalin made a name as the organizer of daring bank robberies and raids on money transports, an activity that V. I. Lenin considered important in view of the party's need for funds, although many other Marxists considered this type of highway robbery unworthy of a revolutionary socialist. 3

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/historic_figures/stalin_joseph.shtml 1
http://www.pbs.org/redfiles/bios/all_bio_joseph_stalin.htm 2

Czechoslovakia

Tomáš Masaryk

Though he was trained to be a teacher, he briefly became a locksmith’s apprentice but then entered the German Hochschule in Brno in 1865. Continuing his studies at the University of Vienna, he obtained his doctorate in 1876. 1

Masaryk's excellent results garnered him a scholarship and in addition he achieved a lucrative position as a tutor in the family of Anton Le Monnier, Director of the Police. At this time Masaryk was financially self-sufficient enough to also provide for his brother Ludvik's education (as of 1868). But a conflict erupted with the grammar school's board of directors when Tomas Masaryk refused to go to confession, which was compulsory at
the school. This led to his expulsion from this institute. Fortunately, his patron and employer, Le Monnier, was transferred to Vienna and Masaryk joined him. 2

Granted he criticized the condition in the Austrian-Hungarian Empire, but he did not strive for the independence of the Czech Lands 2

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/367736/Tomas-Masaryk 1


Edvard Benes

After his studies at Prague Vinohrady Gymnasium in the years 1896-1904 he enrolled to the Faculty of Philosophy in Prague. After studying briefly he left for Paris, where he studied at the Sorbonne and at the Independent School of Political and Social Studies. 1

The outbreak of the World War I provoked Benes into organising an internal resistance movement called "Maffia". In particular he was responsible for channels of communication between Prague and future President Masaryk, who was exiled in Switzerland at the time. In September 1915 Benes left for abroad and from that time on his destiny was closely tied to personalities of T.G. Masaryk a M.R. Stefanik. 1

Influenced by the nationalist ideas of Tomáš Masaryk, who wished to liberate the Czechs and Slovaks from Austrian rule 2


http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/60672/Edvard-Benes 2
Emil Hacha

In 1894 he graduated from the Faculty of Law of Prague University, in 1895 he gained his doctoral degree in law and then was mostly employed as a clerk in the Royal Czech Land Committee and the council of the Supreme Administrative Legal Court in Vienna.  

Hacha published scientific papers on issues of international law, he was an expert in Anglo-Saxon law and also a connoisseur of English literature; together with his brother he translated the well known humorous novel "Three Men in a Boat" by Jerome K. Jerome. As a highly regarded lawyer he was a judge at The Hague Court and before the Munich Agreement was signed he spent some years as a member of the Legislative Council, a government counselling organ.  


Klement Gottwald

During World War I he served in the Austro-Hungarian army, deserting, however, to the Russians before the end of the war.  

In the years between 1915 and 1918 he served as a soldier in the Austrian-Hungarian army. In 1918 he deserted from the army. After October 28, 1918 he served for two years in the Czechoslovak army.  

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/239918/Klement-Gottwald

APPENDIX B: WARS OF CONQUEST
United Kingdom

Extra State

Last Ashanti (1900)
  Salisbury 28/06/1895 11/07/1902

Somali Rebellion (1901-1904)
  Salisbury 28/06/1895 11/07/1902
  Balfour 12/07/1902 04/12/1905

British Conquest of Kano & Sokoto (1903)
  Balfour 12/07/1902 04/12/1905

Younghusband Expedition (1904)
  Balfour 12/07/1902 04/12/1905

Sokoto Uprising (1906)
  Campbell-Bannerman 10/12/1905 - 06/04/1908

Third British-Zulu (1906)
  Campbell-Bannerman 10/12/1905 - 06/04/1908

Third British-Afghan (1919)
Lloyd-George 10/12/1916 - 19/10/1922

First British-Waziristan (1919-1920)
Lloyd-George 10/12/1916 - 19/10/1922

Iraqi-British (1920)
Lloyd-George 10/12/1916 - 19/10/1922

Moplah Rebellion (1921-1922) Martial law was withdrawn on 25 February 1922
Lloyd-George 10/12/1916 - 19/10/1922
http://www.bcmh.org.uk/archive/conferences/2012MalabarLloyd.pdf

Saya San's Rebellion (1930-1932)
MacDonald 08/06/1929 - 07/06/1935

British-Palestinian (1936)
Baldwin 07/06/1935 28/05/1937

Second British-Waziristan (1936-1938)
Baldwin 07/06/1935 28/05/1937
Chamberlin 28/05/1937 10/05/1940
Indonesian (1945-1946) August 17, 1945 Indonesia claimed independence British left in November 1946

Atlee 27/07/1945 26/10/1951


**Interstate**

Boxer Rebellion (1900) - May 1900, a protocol was finally signed in September 1901

Salisbury 28/06/1895 11/07/1902

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/76364/Boxer-Rebellion

**France**

**Extra State:**

Anti-Foreign Revolt (1907-1910)

Clemenceau 28/10/1906 20/07/1909

Briand (24/07/1909 24/02/1911)

French Conquest of Wadai (1909-1911),

Briand (24/07/1909 24/02/1911)

Franco-Berber (1912)

Poincare 14/01/1912 - 18/01/1913

Moroccan Berber (1913-1915),

Barthou 24/03/1913 02/12/1913
Doumercue 08/12/1913 04/06/1914

Viviani 09/06/1914 29/10/1915

Franco-Syrian (1920), July 23, 1920

Millerand 19/01/1920 03/09/1920

http://www.war-memorial.net/Franco-Syrian-war--3.42

Rif Rebellion (1925-1926), April 1925 – May 1926

Painleve 17/04/1925 02/11/1925

Briand 29/11/1925 20/07/1926


The French Left and the Rif War, 1924-25: Racism and the Limits of Internationalism

David H. Slavin


Published by: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Article Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/260628

Franco-Druze (1926-1927), July 1925- Mid 1927

Herriot 20/07/1926 24/07/1926

Poincare 24/07/1926 28/07/1929

http://www.rochester.edu/college/faculty/hgoemans/Archigos.2.9-August.pdf

Yen Bai Uprising (1930-1931) 2/9/1930 – 1931
The revolt began on the night of February 9–10, 1930, when military members of VNQDD mutinied against their French commanders at the garrison of Yen Bai, Tonkin.


Blum 16/12/1946 16/01/1947

Ramadier 22/01/1947 19/11/1947

Schuman 24/11/1947 19/07/1948

Marie 27/07/1948 27/08/1948

Queuille 13/09/1948 06/10/1949

Bidault 28/10/1949 24/06/1950

Queuille 30/06/1950 04/07/1950

http://wars.findthedata.org/l/55/First-Indochina-War

http://www.clemson.edu/caah/history/FacultyPages/EdMoise/viet3.html
On March 29, 1947, Malagasy nationalist tribesmen revolted in the eastern part of the island.

In December 1948, the highcommissariate Pierre de Chevigné boasted in the radio that not a single squarecentimeter of the island escaped to the French military control,

http://www.academia.edu/1822327/Malagasy_Uprising
http://www.war-memorial.net/Madagascar-Rebellion-3.93
**Treaty of Ankara**, also called Franklin-Bouillon Agreement, (Oct. 20, 1921)

Discussions between French and British Prime ministers 5, September 1919


**The Struggle for Mastery in Cilicia: Turkey, France, and the Ankara Agreement of 1921**

Yücel Güçlü

*The International History Review*, Vol. 23, No. 3 (Sep., 2001), pp. 580-603

Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.

Article Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/40108751

Franco-Thai (1940-1941)

Petain 17/06/1940 18/04/1942

**The 1940 Franco-Thai Border Dispute and Phibuun Sonkhraam's Commitment to Japan**

E. Thadeus Flood

*Journal of Southeast Asian History*, Vol. 10, No. 2 (Sep., 1969), pp. 304-325

Published by: Cambridge University Press on behalf of Department of History, National University of Singapore

Article Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/20067747
Spain

Extra State

Moroccan Berber (1913 – 1914)

Garcia Prieto 15/11/1912 27/10/1913
Dato y Iradier 27/10/1913 9/12/1915

Riff Rebellion (1921 – 1926) July 1921 – May 1926

Allende Salazar 13/03/1921 14/08/1921
Maura y Montaner 14/08/1921 8/3/1922
Sanchez Guerra 8/3/1922 5/12/1922
Garcia Prieto 5/12/1922 14/9/1923
de Rivera 14/09/1923 28/01/1930

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/503327/Rif-War

Ideology and Practical Politics: A Case Study of the Rif War in Morocco, 1921-1926

C. R. Pennell


Published by: Cambridge University Press

Article Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/163332

Inter State

Second Spanish Moroccan (1909 – 1910) Summer 1909
Maura y Montaner 24/01/1907 21/10/1909
Moret y Prendergast 21/10/1909 9/2/1910

**Germany**

**Extra State**

South West African Revolt (1904-1906)

Wilhelm II 15/06/1888 9/11/1918

Maji-Maji Revolt (1905-1906)

Wilhelm II 15/06/1888 9/11/1918

**Interstate**

Boxer Rebellion (1900)

Wilhelm II 15/06/1888 9/11/1918

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/76364/Boxer-Rebellion

World War I (1914-1918)

Wilhelm II 15/06/1888 9/11/1918

“In 1914 fate seemed to have offered Germany the opportunity to turn dreams into imperial reality.”

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwone/origins_01.shtml
Latvian Liberation (1919)

Scheidemann 12/2/1919 20/06/1919
Bauer 21/06/1919 26/03/1920

“They (Germans) did help Lithuanian volunteers halt the Soviet advance in February 1919”

“by December 15 all German troops had finally abandoned Latvia and Lithuania.”

“The commander of the German troops in Latvia, Gen. Rüdiger, Graf von der Goltz, sought to transform Latvia into a base for a new anti-Communist German–Russian force and to form Baltic regimes loyal to imperial Germany and pre-revolutionary Russia.”


World War II

Hitler 30/01/1933 30/04/1945
Doenitz 30/04/1945 23/05/1945

“Hitler invades Poland on 1 September 1939. Britain and France declare war on Germany two days later.”

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwtwo/ww2_summary_01.shtml

Poland

Interstate

Russo-Polish War (1919-1920)

Pilsudski 14/11/1918 9/12/1922
“the conflict began when the Polish head of state Józef Piłsudski formed an alliance with the Ukrainian nationalist leader Symon Petlyura (April 21, 1920) and their combined forces began to overrun Ukraine, occupying Kiev on May 7.”

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/514051/Russo-Polish-War

Polish–Lithuanian War (1920)

Piłsudski 14/11/1918 9/12/1922

“In addition, the Poles, who were at war with Soviet Russia, entered Lithuania (March 1919) and seized Vilnius from the Bolsheviks (April).”


**Austria-Hungary**

World War I (1914-1918)

Francis Joseph I 02/12/1848 21/11/1916.

Karl 21/11/1916 11/11/1918

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwone/origins_01.shtml

**Italy**

**Extra State wars**

Italian-Sanusi (1923 – 1931)

Mussolini 30/10/1922 25/07/1943
**Interstate wars**

Italian-Turkish (1911-1912), September 29, 1911 to October 18, 1912

Giolitti 27/03/1911 10/03/1914.

“Using the pretext of the infringement of Italian interests in the two provinces, the Italian government issued an ultimatum to Turkey on Sept. 28, 1911, and on the next day declared war.”

“By the terms of the Treaty of Lausanne (also called Treaty of Ouchy; Oct. 18, 1912), Turkey conceded its rights over Tripoli and Cyrenaica to Italy.”

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/297469/Italo-Turkish-War

Conquest of Ethiopia (1935-1936)

Mussolini 30/10/1922 25/07/1943

World War I (1915-1918) May 23 1915 - November 11 1918

Salandra 21/03/1914 12/06/1916.

Boselli 17/06/1916 30/10/1917

Orlando 30/10/1917 19/06/1919

“On the 23d the Italian Ambassador at Vienna handed to the Austro-Hungarian Minister for Foreign Affairs Italy's Declaration of war, stating that from the following day, the
24th, his Majesty, the King, would consider himself in a state of War with Austria-Hungary, and the Ambassador asked for his passports”

http://net.lib.byu.edu/estu/wwi/comment/italy/Page05.htm#14

World War II

Mussolini 30/10/1922 25/07/1943

“Finally, on September 27, 1940, Germany, Italy, and Japan signed the Tripartite Pact, which became known as the Axis alliance.”

“Italy’s failed effort to conquer Greece in the late autumn and winter of 1940-1941 exacerbated German concerns about securing their southeastern flank in the Balkans.”


Russia

Extra State

Conquest of Mongolia (1921)

Lenin 07/11/1917 10/03/1923

Inter State

Boxer Rebellion (1900)

Nicholas II 01/11/1894 06/11/1917

Sino-Russian (1900)

Nicholas II 01/11/1894 06/11/1917
“The worst anti-Russian violence occurred after Russia signalled its intention on July 19
1900 to invade Manchuria, an occupation it achieved by October that year through the
use of 100,000 troops.”

http://www.historyorb.com/asia/manchuria.php

Second World War (1939 – 1945)

Stalin 10/03/1923 05/03/1953

“In a secret protocol of this pact, the Germans and the Soviets agreed that Poland should
be divided between them, with the western third of the country going to Germany and the
eastern two-thirds being taken over by the U.S.S.R.”

http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/648813/World-War-II
APPENDIX C : WINNING COALITION AVERAGES
Listed below are the average calculations for those leaders who had multiple winning coalition sizes assigned to them due either to multiple tenures during years with varying winning coalition sizes, or one continuous tenure during which the winning coalition sized changed within that time. Those leaders who are not listed below did not require any calculation as their single or multiple tenures correlated to the same winning coalitions.

**United Kingdom**

Asquith:

1908 – 1916

1908-1913, 6 years, received WC score of .75

1914 – 1916, 3 years, received WC score of .5

Total years = 9

\[(6 \times .75) + (3 \times .5)\]

\[4.5 + 1.5 = 6\]

\[6/9 = .67\]

Lloyd George:

1916-1922

1916-1918, 3 years, received WC score of .5

1919-1922, 4 years, received score of .75

Total years = 7

\[(3 \times .5) + (4 \times .75)\]

\[1.5 + 3 = 4.5\]
4.5/7 = .63

Chamberlin

1937-1940

1937-1939, 3 years, received WC score of 1
1940, 1 year, received WC score of .75

Total years = 4

\((3 \times 1) + (1 \times .75)\)

3 + .75 = 3.75

3.75 / 4 = .94

Churchill

1940-1945, 1951-1955

1940-1945, 6 years, received WC score of .75
1951-1955, 5 years, received WC score of 1

Total years = 11

\((6 \times .75) + (5 \times 1)\)

4.5 + 5 = 9.5

9.5 / 11 = .86

Atlee

1945-1951

1945, 1 year, received WC score of .75
1946-1951, 6 years, received WC score of 1

Total years = 7

115
(1*.75) + (6*1)

.75+6 = 6.75

6.75 / 7 = .96

Belgium

Charles Baron de Broqueville

1911-1914, 1932-1934
1911-1913, 3 years, received WC score of .75
1914, 1 year, received WC score of 0
1932-1934, 3 years, received WC score of 1
Total years = 7
(3*.75) + (1*0) + (3*1)

2.25 + 0 + 3 = 5.25
5.25/7 = .75

Delacroix

1918-1920
1918, 1 year, received WC score of .5
1919-1920, 2 years, received WC score of 1
Total years = 3
(1*.5) + (2*1)

.5+2 = 2.5
2.5/3 = .83
France

Clemenceau

1906-1909, 1917-1920
1906-1909, 4 years, received WC score of .75
1917-1918, 2 years, received WC score of .5
1919-1920, 2 years, received WC score of .75

Total years = 8
(4*.75) + (2*.5) + (2*.75)
(6*.75) + (2*.5)
4.5 + 1 = 5.5
5.5 / 8

Briand

1909-1911, 1913, 1915-1917, 1921-1922, 1925-1926, 1929
1909-1911, 3 years, received WC score of .75
1913, 1 year, received WC score of .75
1915-1917, 3 years, received WC score of .5
1921-1922, 2 years, received WC score of .75
1925-1926, 2 years received WC score of .75
1929, 1 year, received WC score of .75

Total years = 12
(3*.75) + (1*.75) + (3*.5) + (2*.75) + (2*.75) + (1*.75)
(9*.75) + (3*.5)
6.75 + 1.5 = 8.25
8.25/12 = .69

Domergue

1913-1914, 1934
1913, 1 year, received WC score of .75
1914, 1 year, received WC score of .5
1934, 1 year, received WC score of 1
Total years = 3
(1*.75)+(1*.5)+(1*1)
1.25+1 = 2.25
2.25/3 = .75

Herriot

1925, 1926, 1932
1925, 1926, 2 years, received WC score of .75
1932, 1 year, received WC score of 1
Total years = 3
(2*.75)+(1*1)
1.5+1 = 2.5
2.5/3 = .83

Tardieu

1929-1930, 1932
1929, 1 year, score of .75
1930, 1 year, score of 1
1932, 1 year, score of 1

Total years = 3

\((1 \times .75) + (2 \times 1)\)

.75 + 2 = 2.75

\(2.75 / 3\)

Laval


1931-1932, 2 years, score of 1
1935-1936, 2 years, score of 1
1942-1943, 2 years, score of .25
1944, 1 year, score of 0

Total year = 7

\((4 \times 1) + (2 \times .25) + (1 \times 0)\)

4 + .5 = 4.5

4.5/7 = .64

Daladier

1933, 1934, 1938-1940

1933, 1 year, received WC score of 1
1934, 1 year, received WC score of 1
1938-1939, 2 years, received WC score of 1
1940, 1 year, received a WC score of .25
Total years = 5

\[(1\times1)+(1\times1)+(2\times1)+(1\times.25)\]

\[(1\times4)+(1\times.25)\]

\[4+.25=4.25\]

\[4.25/5=.85\]

**Spain**

Maura y Montaner

1903-1904, 1907-1909, 1918, 1919, 1921-1922

1903-1904, 2 years, score of .75

1907, 1909, 3 years, score of .75

1918, 1 year, score of .5

1919, 1 year, score of .75

1921-1922, 2 years, score of .75

Total years = 9

\[.75\times8) + (1\times.5)\]

\[6+.5 = 6.5\]

\[6.5/9 = .72\]

Figueroa y Torres

1912, 1915-1917, 1918-1919

1912, 1 year, score of .75

1915-1917, 3 years, score of .5

1918, 1 year, score of .5
1919, 1 year, score of .75

Total years = 6

(.75*2) + (.5*4)

1.5 + 2 = 3.5

3.5 / 6 = .58

Garcia Prieto

1912-1913, 1917, 1918, 1922-1923

1912-1913, 2 years, score of .75

1917, 1918, 2 years, score of .5

1922, 1 year, score of .75

1923, 1 year, score of 0

Total years = 6

(.5*2) + (.75*3) + (1*0)

1 + 2.25 = 3.25

3.25 / 6 = .54

Dato y Iradier

1913-1915, 1917, 1920-1921

1913, 1 year, score of .75

1914-1915, 1917, 3 years, score of .5

1920-1921, 2 years, score of .75

Total years = 6

(.75*3) + (.5*3)
2.25 + 1.5 = 3.75

3.75/6

Berenguer

1930-1931

1930, 1 year, received score of .25
1931, 1 year, received score of .75

Total years = 2

.75 + .25 = 1

½ = .5

Negrin

1937-1939

1937, 1 year, score of .75
1938, 1 years, score of .5
1939, 1 year, score of 0

Total years = 3

.75 + .5 + 0 = 1.25

1.25/3

Franco

1939-1950

1939-1945, 7 years, score of 0
1956-1950, 5 years, score of .25

Total years = 12
\[(7 \times 0) + (5 \times 0.25) = 1.25\]
\[1.25/12 = .10\]

**Germany**

Kaiser Wilhelm II

1900-1918

1900-1913, 14 years, score of .5
1914-1917, 4 years, score of .25
1918, 1 year, score of 0

Total years = 19
\[(14 \times 0.5) + (4 \times 0.25) + (1 \times 0)\]
\[7 + 1 + 0 = 8\]
\[8/19 = .42\]

Ebert

1918-1919

1918, 1 year, score of 0
1919, 1 year, score of .75
\[(1 \times 0) + (1 \times 0.75) = .75\]
\[.75/2 = .38\]

Schleider is not calculated because his tenure, 3/12/1932 28/01/1933, only overlaps into the new WC size score determination due to his one month in office until his assassination. After his
assassination Hitler took power and drastically changed the political system warranting BDMs lower score for 1933-1939.

**Hitler**

1933-1945

1933-1939, 7 years, score of .5
1940-1944, 5 years, score of .25
1945, 1 year, score of 0

Total years = 13

\[(7 \times .5) + (5 \times .25) + (1 \times 0) = \]

\[3.5 + 1.25 = 4.75\]

\[4.75/13 = .37\]

**Poland**

**Piludski**

1919-1922, 1926-1935

1919-1922, 4 years, score of .75
1926-1935, 10 years, score of .25

Total years = 14

\[(4 \times .75) + (10 \times .25)\]

\[3 + 2.5 = 5.5\]

\[5.5/14 = .39\]

**Wojchechowski**
1922-1926

1922-1925, 4 years, score of .75

1926, 1 year, score of .25

Total years = 5

\[(4 \times .75) + (1 \times .25)\]

\[3 + .25 = 3.25\]

\[3.25/5 = .65\]

Italy

Giolitti

1903-1905, 1906-1909, 1911-1914, 1920-1921

1903-1905, 1906-1909, 1911-1913, 10 years, score of .25

1914, 1 year, score of 0

1920 – 1921, 2 years, score of .25

Total years = 13

\[(12 \times .25) + (1 \times 0)\]

\[3 + 0 = 3\]

\[3/13 = .23\]

Orlando

1917-1919

1917-1918, 2 years, score of 0

1919, 1 year, score of .25

Total years = 3
(2*0) + (1*.25)
0 + .25 = .25
.25/ 3 = .08

Bonomi

1921-1922, 1944-1945
1921-1922, 2 years, score of .25
1944-1945, 2 years score of 0
Total years = 4
(2*.25) + (2*0)
.5 + 0 = .5
.5 / 4

Mussolini

1922-1943
1922-1927, 6 years, score of .25
1928-1939, 12 years, score of .5
1940-1942, 3 years, score of .25
1943, 1 year, score of 0
Total years = 22
(.25 + 9) + (.5 * 12) + (1*0)
2.25 + 6 + 0 = 8.25
8.25 / 22 = .38

De Gasperi
1945-1950
1945, 1 year, score of 0
1946-1947, 2 years, score of .25
1948-1950, 3 years, score of 1
Total years = 6
$(0 \times 1) + (2 \times .25) + (3 \times 1)$
$0 + .5 + 3 = 3.5$
$3.5/6 = .58$

Russia

Nicholas II

1900-1917
1900-1913, 14 years, score of .25
1914-1917, 4 years, score of 0
Total years = 18
$(14 \times .25) + (4 \times 0)$
$3.5 + 0 = 3.5$
$3.5 / 18 = .19$

Lenin

1917-1923
1917-1918, 2 years, score of 0
1919-1922, 5 years, score of .25
1923, 1 year, score of .75
Total years = 8

\[(2*0) + (5*.25) + (1*.75)\]

\[1.25 + .75 = 2\]

\[2/8 = .25\]
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