THE EMERGENCE OF NEW STATES IN EASTERN EUROPE AFTER THE FIRST WORLD WAR:

LESSONS FOR ALL OF EUROPE

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1918 was a crucial year in the history of Europe. Its importance does not only stem from the end of the First World War, but also from the establishment of new states. Eastern Europe was particularly active as many new states emerged after the dissolution of Tsarist Russia. The above-mentioned process was combined with the outcome of the First World War (the defeat of the Central Powers on the Western Front and their victory on the Eastern Front against Tsarist Russia resulting in their territorial gains over Eastern Europe) but simultaneously it was influenced by the Bolshevik Revolution originating from a structural crisis of Russia.

In fact, the process started before the end of the First World War with the declaration of independence of Finland, which was declared in December 1917 and internationally recognized in early 1918. In that year Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland also gained and managed to defend their independence. Unfortunately, other states which announced independent in 1918 gained at least partial international recognition (for instance, Azerbaijan, Armenia, Georgia, Ukraine) were destroyed by the Bolsheviks between 1920 and 1921. Many more short-lived bids for independence or autonomy occurred at that time in former Russian Empire, but were crushed by the Bolsheviks. All of these states sometimes cooperated closely between themselves against common enemies (mostly the Bolsheviks) but sometimes they fought fiercely against each other.

The legacy of nation-building processes taking place in the period of 1917-21 in the European part of Tsarist Russia - even when the states did not manage to survive - occupies a key role in historical memories of the citizens of these states. The importance of this legacy originates from the fact that these states often became the most progressive nation-building efforts in the world. The wider context of these developments and the important stakeholders existing in these states are still very relevant for contemporary European history. Despite that, the state-building attempts undertaken in Eastern Europe between 1917-1921 had a huge impact on the trajectory of European history.
EUROPEAN AND GLOBAL CONTEXT OF THE POST-WAR PERIOD

The post-war period was unique in history due to an impressive number of attempts to create independent states at the time. Many of these attempts were supported by the major powers and independence which resulted in the recognition of the international community, but most of them failed, particularly in the former Soviet Union. The nation-building processes were accompanied by wars, uprisings, revolutions, invasions, political coups, and the establishment of one-party states. For example, significant changes occurred in China, where the Communist Party seized power, and in Vietnam, where the Vietnamese National Front for a Free Southern Vietnam and a united Vietnam was established. Additionally, the post-war period was marked by the formation of a “Cold War” between the Soviet Union and Western Europe.

The Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye was signed between Austria and Italy on 10-09-1919.

The fall of Tsarist Russia was agreed between the new Bolshevik government of Russia and the Central Powers, that ended Russia’s participation in World War I.

The Treaty of Versailles was the most important of the peace treaties that brought World War I to an end. Signed between Germany and the Allied Powers.

The Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye was signed between Austria and Italy on 10-09-1919.

The post-war period was characterized by the establishment of independent states in Europe, which were often supported by major powers and recognized by the international community. The post-war period was marked by the formation of a “Cold War” between the Soviet Union and Western Europe, which continued until the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991.
The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was a year-long song for the Central Powers. The entrance of the US into the war in April 1917 significantly changed the balance of power on the Western Front in favor of Entente and resulted in its final victory. On 11 November 1918, a treaty between Germany and the victorious states was signed in a railway carriage in Compiegne. This promise of the war ended the Four Emperors. Austria-Hungary, Ottoman Empire, Turkey and Germany were defeated. Germany lost the war, and the Entente states won. The Central Powers, which fought against each other during the war, created a window of opportunity for many nations of the region to gain genuine independence. Two weeks after the end of the war, many nations of Central Russia proclaimed independence, including Finland (December, 1917), Ukraine (January, 1918), Kuban (February, 1918), Lithuania (February, 1918), Estonia (February, 1918), Minsk (February, 1918), Belorus (March, 1918), Northern Caucasus (May, 1918), Armenia (May, 1918), and Georgia (May, 1918). Almost immediately after the end of the war Poland and Latvia gained independence. Unfortunately, most of the above-mentioned states did not manage to maintain their independence against the Bolshevik opposition.
RUSSIAN REVOLUTION AND CIVIL WAR

The Russian Revolution constitutes one of the most important events in modern history and it greatly impacted the international order, political life, economic developments, and social structures almost everywhere, but especially in Eastern Europe. Since the beginning of the 20th century, Russia experienced various social unrest, which led to the eventual downfall of the Russian empire and society, which raised questions about the stability of the Tsarist regime. The national question represented the Achilles heel of Russia. Ethnic Russians made less than 50% of the population of the Empire and that share was declining every year, in some cases by about 5% per year, due to the advantageous position of the state army on the Eastern front over Russia, which inflicted on it severe defeats. The war effort severely affected the Russian economy and thereby provoked social dissatisfaction. This uncomfortable situation led to the February Revolution in 1917.

It resulted in the fall of Nicholas II and the establishment of the Russian Republic. For the first time in its modern history, Russia became a democracy. Political divisions emerged quickly between the democratic government and the Bolsheviks under the leadership of Vladimir Lenin who was confronting with the Socialist Revolutionaries (Early, peasant party) concerning the future of the revolution and, notably, the issue of the continuation of the war. The Bolsheviks and early revolutionaries promoted a radical transformation of the country and the creation of an autonomous Peace in Europe.

Almost immediately Russia entered a period of bloody civil war that lasted from 1917 to 1923 and resulted in around 15 million victims. Nevertheless, the Whites — led by the former generals and admirals of the Tsar’s armed forces, who began to rename the Bolsheviks from power and re-establish the Tsarist government—were divided into two groups, the emigres, or those who fled and supported the Whites, and the Whites, or those who stayed in Russia to fight against the Bolsheviks. These groups included the Salvation Army, the White Guard, the Imperial Army, the National Army, the Latvian Army, the Romanian Army, the Bulgarian Army, and the Finnish Army. All these groups, including the National Army, the Latvian Army, and the Romanian Army, fought against the Bolsheviks, who were led by Lenin and his associates.

On the one side, the “Bolsheviks” were fighting for revolution and power. On the other side, the “Whites” — led by the former generals and admirals of the Tsar’s armed forces — were eager to return Russia to power and to re-establish the Tsarist government. Between these two groups, many other organizations fought in the civil war. The Whites were fighting against the Bolsheviks, the Reds, the Germans, and the Finns. They were also fighting against the other Whites, such as the Black Hundreds, the Russian Imperial Forces, the Ukrainian Insurgent Army, and the Polish Army. Finally, other countries got considerably involved. The Bolsheviks had to fight soldiers of the Entente from the U.S., the British Empire, France, Greece, Romania, Serbia, Italy, Japan, and other countries.

The Bolshevik policy may be interpreted as a soft version of Tsarist consolidation. In fact, Bolshevik attempts at re-establishing order by spreading an ideology identified with Russian society as a whole, which will be called “Russian fascism,” were repeated by many non-Russian, independent movements from Siberia to western Russia, and destroyed dozens of states. Peripherally, the Baltic states, which survived the Bolsheviks’ attacks, where the five countries to internationally recognize “Bolshevik Russia as an independent state (February in 1920), Lithuania in July 1920, and Latvia in August 1920.”

![Image of Russian Revolution and Civil War]

Map: European part of the USSR in 1923, image from wikipedia.org
In Eastern Europe, the Bolsheviks combined the fight for the group’s Russian territories with the exportation of communism to Western Europe in order to overthrow the capitalist and democratic system. They invited the neighboring countries and created Socialist Republics which received their financial, material and military assistance. The Bolsheviks were met with a variety of reactions among regional populations. Certain prominent representatives of the national elites joined them. For instance, Vincas Mickevičius, known by his pen name as Kapočius, the leader of Socialist Lithuania and Latvia before WWI, was an important exponent of the Lithuanian National Revival, writing significant articles and editing publications. People originally from Eastern Europe played an important role in the communist elite in Russia. For instance, Julius Vincas, a Latvian, was the first commander-in-chief of the Red Army; meanwhile, Feliks Dzikiņš, a Polish volunteer, established and led the Cheka, a Soviet state security organization, a predecessor of the NKVD and KGB.

The Ukrainian People’s Republic of Soviets was the first republic established by the Bolsheviks in December 1917 in Kharkov (Ukraine). The Bolsheviks then created the Odessa Soviet Republic; January 1918; and the Donets-Krivoy Rog Soviet Republic (February, 1918). The following month they merged the two republics into the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic but it ceased to exist after a few weeks as a result of the loss of Ukraine to Germany. It was reestablished as the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic in March 1919 when most of Ukraine was once again occupied by the Bolsheviks. The republic survived until 1919. Between November and December 1918, the Bolsheviks established the Committee of the Working People’s Militia (Cheka) in Kiev to combat the anti-Bolshevik forces. The Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic; Soviet Lithuania and Belorussia were united into the Lithuanian-Belorussian-Soviet Socialist Republic (LBSR) in February 1919. This state was a sort of commercial continuation of Grand Duchy of Lithuania. It rested de facto within the territories of modern-day Belorus and eastern Lithuania for approximately five months until the Bolsheviks were expelled from both countries by the Poles and Lithuanians. The short-lived LBSR government was disbanded by the Bolsheviks in June 1920 in order to preserve the neutrality of Lithuania which the peace treaty was still being negotiated with. Immediately after the capture of Minsk in July 1920, the Bolsheviks reestablished the Soviet Belarusian Republic, which existed until the end of the Soviet Union. The Galician Soviet Socialist Republic was declared in July 1920 when the Red Army conquered parts of Eastern Galicia. Although it was short-lived, the republic was established in a divided territory inhabited by Ukrainians, Poles, and Belarusians outside of the former Russian. The same month the Bolsheviks also created the Transcaucasian Federal Revolutionary Committee with the goal of establishing a Polish-Soviet Socialist Republic. However, the Bolsheviks’ defeat in the battle of Warsaw aborted both initiatives.

In late-summer perspective, however, it was perhaps a little bit of a farce that the German front—leaving us six non-international volunteers—would be able to save some small territory. They were not even able to provide the Western powers with any resources or technology to stop Russia itself. “A Versailles treaty must have been shattered,” and the entire international system was built up by the victors had been done away with.” —Larose Dinges, an American historian, seems to be right by just pointing out...
In March 1918, after the Bolsheviks signed the peace Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, the Entente, in order to repel the forces of the Russian Empire, which had been defeated by the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire), formed the so-called Anglo-French-Danish-Bulgarian-British Expeditionary Force, tasked with establishing a Western military intervention. The forces were composed of British, French, and Danish soldiers, along with Russian, Serbian, and other Slavic soldiers, who had fled to the West. The goal of the intervention was to prevent the emergence of a centralized White forces against the Bolsheviks. However, their engagement had a significant impact on the independence movements in Eastern Europe and Caucaus. Allied efforts were hampered by war weariness from the global conflict lasting already four years, contradictory goals, and inefficient domestic support. The Allies fought against the Bolsheviks in the Far East and Northern Russia (Murmansk and Archangel), however their interventions were particularly important for the control of the former Russian territories, the Baltic region and Eastern Europe.

In August 1918, the British troops (Dunsterforce) arrived in Babyl, the capital of Azerbaijan, and were joined by the Bolshevik forces, an alliance of Russian Social Revolutionary, Menshevik, and the Democratic Socialists (Bolsheviks). They entered a short lifetime war to the Entente forces in Babyl, which was swiftly lost. The British Expeditionary Force in Babyl, numbering 6,000, was dissolved and the Babyl region was occupied by the Bolsheviks. The Entente forces were faced with the new Soviet government in Babyl, which had been established by the Bolsheviks, in a process of de-Russification, led by the Bolsheviks. The Bolsheviks, supported by the Entente forces, were able to move by sea and land, thereby consolidating their power across the lands in support of Ottoman and Turkish interests, and established bases for supplies and arms.

In November 1918, the Royal Navy launched the campaign "Operation Little Red" in the Baltic Sea. This intervention played a significant role in stabilizing the situation of the independent states of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. The Baltic states were granted independence by the Allies in the Treaty of Versailles, and the Entente forces were tasked with ensuring the independence of these states. However, the Entente forces were too small to change the balance of power in the region and faced serious difficulties in dealing with the Bolshevik forces. The campaign was marked by the Battle of the Baltic, in which the Entente forces were defeated, and the Entente forces were forced to withdraw from the region.

The British military authorities in Babyl were particularly concerned about the Entente forces' inability to prevent the Bolsheviks from establishing their control over the region. The Entente forces were also unable to prevent the Bolsheviks from establishing control over the Baltic region, which was a major concern for the British military authorities. The Entente forces were unable to prevent the Bolsheviks from establishing control over the Baltic region, which was a major concern for the British military authorities.

France focused its attention on Ukraine and Eastern Europe. Its intervention in southern Ukraine began in December 1918, when the French forces occupied Odessa in order to establish and supply General Anton Denikin's White Army forces. The campaign also involved a substantial Greek and full-time battalion, which was led by a French officer. However, the Entente forces were too small to change the balance of power in the region and faced serious difficulties in dealing with the Bolshevik forces. The campaign was marked by the Battle of the Baltic, in which the Entente forces were defeated, and the Entente forces were forced to withdraw from the region.

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The Entente forces also played an important role in diplomacy during the Soviet-Polish war. In November 1918 the Entente published a map with the proposal of a Polish temporary Eastern border along with an announcement that recognized "Poland's right to organize a regular administration of the territory of the former Russian-Polish regions situated to the West of its line. As the same time, the Entente forces also established a Russian Eastern border, which was considered to define the eastern frontier of Poland." The border line was mainly based on the criteria of the old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[...] line of old border, which was later replaced by the "[ [...]
German presence in Central and Eastern Europe started in the 12th and 13th century with a phenomenon called Ostsiedlung (German Eastern settlement). Prussia, Poles and Germans intermarried in a German settlement region inhabited by Baltic and Slavic peoples. Secondarily, the Lithuanian and Teutonic Knights built their own states in the Baltic region, resulting in German populations moving westwards across eastern Europe, but under the Franks. Empire, their presence in the region shrank. By the end of the 19th century, for example, they only made up slightly more than 3% of the population of the region. In Russian parts of Poland and Ukraine, their presence of the population was even smaller. Nonetheless, due to the economic power of Germany, a geopolitical concept called Mitteleuropa was developed (Dönhoff: Maßstab).

On the Eastern front, Germany, as soon as the late summer of 1915, was successful in overrunning the Russian army which was in the midst of strategic indecision and the loss of the recently conquered territories. Germany established its own administration, most of the time under the military governments.

On the other hand, the German victory on the Eastern Front provided the nations of the Russian Empire with a window of opportunity to launch their independent movements. On the other hand, Germany gave financial and the technical assistance to the rebel groups in the Balkan territories of the Russian Empire to weaken the unity and the morale of the Russian army on the Eastern Front. In 1919, Germany was one of the first states to recognize the independence of Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia, and the Lithuanian Republic of Byelorussia (Lithuania and the Belorussian Soviet Socialist Republic (BSSR). The Greater German Empire was thus formed, which consisted of the Greater East-Baltic and East-Scandinavian territories. This empire was created in the turbulent year of 1918. Yet, Germany refused to recognize the independence of South Estonia and Belarus. Moreover, Berlin supported attempts to establish the United Baltic Duchy, a German (state) which was supposed to unite Estonia and Latvia. Berlin tried to influence the political life of the newly independent countries by installing the German government in Ukraine and placing German kings on the thrones in Poland and Lithuania (both of which were referred to as Poland and Lithuanian Kingdoms). In 1919-1920, Berlin occupied part of the Ukraine, and the Lithuanian capital, Vilnius, after the battle of Vilnius. After the War, the German empire was disintegrated, and a plebiscite was held across the region of the defeated empire. In the end, after the loss of the German empire, which was supported - financially, materially and diplomatically - by the German government of five countries: Italy, Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, and Greece. After the loss of the German empire, two countries: by Italy and Greece. Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland were formed in 1918 and 1919, respectively. In the end, these countries were independent nations, supported by their own people and the international community.

The political and military engagement in the Baltic region should be placed in the wider context of territorial dispute between Poland and Germany which often turned into military confrontations (1918-1923). The disputes concerning the states located in the Baltic region, i.e., Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, were fought by Germany, Poland, Austria,苏联 and the Baltic states. The Baltic states, Belarus, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia were divided by Pomerania, which was incorporated into Poland. The map of the region shows the routes of the German armed forces, as well as the region under their control.
Polish independence was a long tradition of national and the union with Lithuania that distinguished itself by an ethnic, and religious diversity. Most of the ethnic Lithuanians, Belarusians and Ukrainians were assimilated into Polish culture. This country was gradually dominated by the Polish-speaking, which gained the upper hand over numerous minorities. At the same time, Poland was often called "the Poland of the little nations," mostly due to the presence of considerable minorities, particularly the Germans, Poles, Hungarians, Slovaks, and Ukrainians. The Lithuanian language was widely spoken in the north and east of the country.

The independence movement in Poland gained momentum in the late 19th century, with the establishment of the Polish National State in 1815. This was followed by the Polish-Ukrainian War of 1831, which was a key factor in the eventual reunification of Poland with Lithuania. The Polish-Ukrainian War of 1831 was fought between the Polish Legions and the Russian military, with the Polish forces being led by the charismatic Jan Kiliński. The war ended in a Polish victory, which led to the establishment of the Polish Republic in 1832.

During WWI, Poland managed to emerge as a new political entity, with the independence of the Polish-Ukrainian War of 1831, and the establishment of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. The Commonwealth was a key factor in the eventual reunification of Poland with Lithuania, with the Polish forces being led by the charismatic Jan Kiliński. The war ended in a Polish victory, which led to the establishment of the Polish Republic in 1832.

Between 1918 and 1921 Poland simultaneously ran several wars with almost all of its neighbors, including Latvia and Estonia. Poland fought with Bolshevik Russia, Lithuania, the Lithuanian Republic, the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, the Ukraine, and the Baltic States. Poland also engaged in a short conflict with Czechoslovakia over Czecho-Slovakia and the demarcation of the border in the Carpathian Mountains. Almost all of them resulted in a Polish victory. Because of so many conflicts, Poland gained the international recognition of all its borders in 1923.
POLISH-RUSSIAN-BOLSHEVIK WAR 1919-1920

Since the Treaty of Versailles only defined the western border of Poland, its eastern border was a subject of concern until 1923. But the conflict in the east in the case of Poland did not limit itself to territorial disputes. It was mainly the war with Bolshevik Russia for the independence of Poland and the countries of Eastern Europe. The conflict also spilled the fate of the central part of the continent. The war was a clash between Poland’s view of Eastern Europe, composed of new independent states under the leadership of Poland, federated with Lithuania and Belarus and closely allied with Ukraine and the Bolshevik vision of a Red Russia, still including the territory of Poland. On 10 September 1919, the Polish army launched an attack on the Bolshevik Mudrochka fort. The war continued for four years, and eventually led to the formation of new states in Eastern Europe. Poland declared war on Russia on 29 May 1919, Poland’s declaration of war on December 19, 1918. The Soviet Union declared war on Poland on 22 October 1919. At the same time, Poland declared war on Belarus.

Pilsudski refused to join Denikin in the attack against the Bolsheviks, ignoring the strong pressure from the Entente. He assumed Poland would be better off with the Bolshevists, whose policies were similar to Poland’s. The Polish government was under pressure to found the government of the Ukraine, despite the uncertain political situation in the region. The Polish government was isolated in the international community, and many countries were wary of embracing the Bolshevik government, although a full-scale attack by the Poles in support of Denikin was at that time a wasteful strategy. Moreover, Denikin’s forces rapidly ran out of steam due to weariness with various guerrilla groups which attacked its supply routes in Ukraine.

4 APRIL 1920

Poland, after signing the alliance with her Baltic People’s Republic, began its most offensive, Operation Klic.

On 7-9 May the combined Polish-Ukrainian forces entered an abandoned fortified city during the battle. A raid on the Polish offensive by a successful Bolshevik counterattack. The Polish forces were engaged by Semyon Budenny’s 6th Cavalry Army. The Army was committed by tank attack, a novel and one of the most prominent weapons of the 20th century. In its collection of short stories "Red Cavalry".

The capture of Kiey by Polish-Ukrainian forces provided the nationalists’ hostage in Russia. On 30 May 1920 General Wilhelm, the chief of the German Army, signed a truce with the Bolsheviks, and the preliminary peace agreement was signed in Pilsudski’s palace on 16 July 1920. Poland declared war on Russia on 29 May 1919, Poland's declaration of war on December 19, 1918. The Soviet Union declared war on Poland on 22 October 1919. At the same time, Poland declared war on Belarus.

General Władysław Sikorski declared his offensive on the borders of Asia, bringing the Siberian Division and deploying Polish forces to the right. Soviet forces moved forward in the first phase of the offensive, on 10 May 1920, followed by the second phase of the offensive, on 26 May 1920.

On 10 October 1920, the Polish Army, under General Sikorski, declared war on the Soviet Union. Poland declared war on Russia on 29 May 1919, Poland's declaration of war on December 19, 1918. The Soviet Union declared war on Poland on 22 October 1919. At the same time, Poland declared war on Belarus.

The Polish delegation was dominated by the National Democratic Party and consisted of 12 representatives who were eager to press the Soviets to accept a border running along the line of the Narew River, which was located somewhere in the area comprising the parts of Belaruskie and Western Ukraine. It was mainly the war with Bolshevik Russia for the independence of Poland and the countries of Eastern Europe. The conflict also spilled the fate of the central part of the continent. The war was a clash between Poland’s view of Eastern Europe, composed of new independent states under the leadership of Poland, federated with Lithuania and Belarus and closely allied with Ukraine and the Bolshevik vision of a Red Russia, still including the territory of Poland. On 10 September 1919, the Polish army launched an attack on the Bolshevik Mudrochka fort. The war continued for four years, and eventually led to the formation of new states in Eastern Europe. Poland declared war on Russia on 29 May 1919, Poland’s declaration of war on December 19, 1918. The Soviet Union declared war on Poland on 22 October 1919. At the same time, Poland declared war on Belarus.
CRIMEAN TATARS

On the current territory of Ukraine, the Crimean Tatars undertook attempts to build their own state. At the start of the 20th century, they represented the largest ethnic community being on the Crimean Peninsula, but their share of the total population slightly exceeded 30%. They lost an absolute majority in the 1940s as a result of voluntary and forced migrations. Russians (around one third) and Ukrainians (around 10%) represented the largest non-Tatar communities. The Crimean Tatar community, despite their small size, was the avant-garde of the modernization of Muslim nations in Russia because they achieved the highest levels of literacy, substantially higher than the Ukrainians and the Belarusians. Quraish (the parliament of Crimean Tatars) established an autonomous Crimean Tatars Republic in December 1917. The declaration of autonomy stipulated the equality of all nations living within the peninsula.

Nevertheless by the end of January 1918, the Bolsheviks captured the whole of Crimea and dissolved the Quraish. A cross-terror engulfed the peninsula based on class struggle and ethnic cleansing. The Bolsheviks established the Taurida Soviet Social Republic on Crimean territory in March 1918 but the area was favored by German and Ukrainian forces in cooperation with Tatar guerilla. The Germans established the autonomous Crimean German Regional Government in late 1918 withwięks on Crimean territory. There were efforts by Ukraine to assert control over Crimea but, with German involvement, the region was governed in cooperation with them. However, in September and October, there was an effort to form a federation between the two countries. Crimea was again invaded by the Bolsheviks in April 1919, who established the Crimean Soviet Socialist Republic, but after a few weeks they were expelled by Whites. The Bolsheviks ultimately conquered the peninsula in November 1920. The conquest was accompanied by mass-massacres committed particularly against Ukrainians and a large number of Muslims, in consequence, Russians became the largest ethnic community on the peninsula.

Nazar Çelebi Čan - the head of the government of the Crimean Tatar National Council of People’s Republic, the author of the words to the national anthem of the Crimean Tatars “Ayt El-Sherafet” (1710–1718).

Cemal Sultan bey Solotonow was a Circassian prince of the Russian Empire, Prime Minister of Crimea (1717), and Chief of General Staff of the Crimean Levies. He was executed by the Bolsheviks after the invasion of Astara by the Poles in 1920.

The Khan’s Palace in Yenomay is located in the town of Balaklava, Crimea. It was built in the 16th century and became home to a succession of Crimean Khans. It is included on the UNESCO World Heritage Tentative List built in 2003. After the annexation of the Crimea Russia started construction works in the architectural complex. This move has offended the Crimean Tatars. Deputy Chairman of the Mejlis of the Crimean Tatar People’s council, jurist Elvira Dzhemileva, told the media in April 2019, that she would not be in favor of this, which she described as “reconstruction work”. It has already been condemned by various Russian and international organizations.

Vegetation around the Crimean Tatars area. Image from improb.org
Ukraine's history is characterized by a long tradition of resistance against foreign domination. The nation was first established as the Khazar Khaganate in the 8th century, which later evolved into the Grand Duchy of Kievan Rus' in the 10th century. During the Middle Ages, the region was part of the extensive Rus' Empire, which included modern-day Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus. The region was invaded and annexed by the Mongols in the 13th century and later became part of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and later the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. In the 18th century, Ukraine was annexed by the Russian Empire and remained a part of the Russian Empire until the Revolution of 1917, when it became part of the Soviet Union. After World War II, Ukraine was again a part of the Soviet Union until the dissolution of the USSR in 1991, when it declared independence as the Ukrainian Republic. Since then, Ukraine has faced numerous challenges, including the 2014 Crimean Crisis and the ongoing conflict in eastern Ukraine. Today, Ukraine is a member of the European Union and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).
BELARUSIAN INDEPENDENCE

As a result of the partitions of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and the Congress of Vienna, the Belarusian territories passed under the rule of the Russian Empire. The event later influencing the national processes in Belarus in the 19th century was the abolition of the Greek Catholic Church by the Tsarist regime and the forcible transfer of its believers into the Orthodox Church. In consequence, Belarusians were divided between the Orthodox Christian majority (most unadulterated peasants lacking any notion of national identity and educated classes leaning towards Russian identity) and the Roman Catholic minority (members of the petty gentry and intellectuals of small cities affiliated to Polish culture). This situation that resulted was a very limited number of publications in Belarusian, compared to the numbers published in Ukrainian. Only 28% of ethnic Belarusians were literate by the end of 19th century. The cities were generally small and dominated by other groups (Lews, Poles, and Russians).

The Belarusian national movement, as a political force, started very late (at the beginning of 20th century) when Ludwik Kwiatkowicz, Leonid Kononovich, Zapletskii and others led the Belarusian Revolutionary movement and the Social Democratic Party. The national movement was very strongly influenced by socialism. Catholics, who with noble background, were overrepresented in the Belarusian national movement. The nationalists treated the Grand Duchy of Lithuania as the precondition Belarusian states, but they had to compete for the right to its state tradition with Pole and Lithuanians. During the First World War, the western part of the territory of modern Belarus from 1915 was under German occupation. Germany established for the first time in history a modern education on a grand scale in the Belarusian language. After the First World War Treaty of March 1918, the entire territory of Belarus was occupied by Germany.

Belarus formerly announced the independent state as the Belarusian People’s Republic (1918). A new state raised its territorial claims to the northwestern parts of current Poland, Smolensk and Braslav in Russia and Vilnius in Lithuania. But, the BNP lacked its own army, police, judiciary, finances and, most importantly, international recognition.

In early 1919, the Soviet Red Army occupied most of Belarusian lands. The Belarusian cities divided themselves into their orientations: pro-Russian Bolshevik, pro-Polish and pro-Lithuanian. In 1919-1921, Belarus was an area of fierce fighting between Poland and Bolshevik Russia. The last attempt to gain independence in the name of BNP was undertaken in autumn 1920 by General Stanislaw Buliak-Bulakiewicz, who created the Estonian Republic which was destroyed by the Bolsheviks after several weeks. Finally, under the terms of Riga Treaty, the territories of present Belarus were divided between Poland and Soviet Russia.

1918-1919
1920-1921
1922-1923
1927-1937
1938-1949
1958-1961
1981-1991
1991-1995
1995-NOW

THE COAT OF ARMS OF BELARUS TRANSFORMATIONS

Marc Chagall was an early modernist artist of Belarusian Jewish origin. He created his own style of modern art based on his idea of Eastern Europe and rural life. His wartime years in Soviet Belarus, becoming one of his country’s most- dumped artists, is a member of the modernist avant-guardes.

General

General

Soviet

Bolsheviks supported the government of Belarusian People’s Republic and openly positioned his army as a Belarusian national army.

Soviet RSFSR

Bolsheviks

Soviet

Bolsheviks

The First Congress of the General Army of Belorussian Riflemen, 1917–General

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LITHUANIAN INDEPENDENCE

Lithuania, before its annexation into the Russian Empire in 1795, had a long tradition of nationalism and independence as the Great Duchy of Lithuania which was part of the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth. In this period, most of Lithuanians were gradually Russianized and the Jewish community gained a strong presence in large urban areas. There was also a large group of people, especially among the petty gentry, with dual Polish and Lithuanian identity. The Lithuanian ethnic mixture constituted a small part of the Great Duchy and they were inhabited by numerous non-Lithuanian minorities. The modern Lithuanian national identity developed in opposition to the state policy of Russification and the Polish nationalism promoted by the Polish nobleman movement. The patriotism, and in lesser degree the petty gentry, represented the social base of Lithuanian nationalism. Lithuanian national identity was mostly defined in ethnic terms (i.e., language, folk culture, etc.) but also Catholicism and the medieval tradition of Great Duchy. The free states of many peasants in Samogitia contributed to relatively high literacy levels. Almost half of the Lithuanian population at the end of 19th century was literate, higher than the rate among Poles living in Russia.

Meanwhile, the number of Lithuanians living in urban areas was lower than the number of Latvians and Estonians. Non-Lithuanians dominated main cities in Lithuania. The most contentious issue was the status of Vilnius, the national capital of Lithuania, which was mostly inhabited by Poles. The Lithuanian issue is one of the key elements of the Baltic world. The Poles living in Vilnius who accepted the status of Vilnius as a free city undertook a key minority in political Lithuanian movement. Vilnius was a center of Lithuanian national movement with a Lithuanian minority. It was, in fact, the center of Lithuanian national movement and an example of the emergence of a distinct Lithuanian culture.

31-02-1918: The Treaty signed on February 31, 1918, in the town of Teterów, Poland, established a separate Lithuanian state. The treaty was signed by Adomas Paleckis, a Lithuanian nationalist leader.

However, initially, Germany did not recognize the Act. Lithuania, trying to convince the Germans, decided to establish the Kingdom of Lithuania with Prince Witold, son of the King of Württemberg. In July 1918, Mindaugas I was elected King of Lithuania by his subjects, but he never managed to get crowned as Germany was losing the war. The Kingdom of Lithuania, under German protection, included parts of central northern Poland and Belarus, thus making Lithuania’s minority group in the country. On 11th of November 1918, immediately after the signing of the armistice in Compiegne, Lithuania finally elected their own government led by Antanas Smetona. In April 1919, Teterów elected Antanas Smetona the first president of Lithuania. He would become the most important political figure of the interim period in Lithuania. He symbolizes the complexity of the Lithuanian Polish-German knot. His wife, Józefa Smetonowa, was the cousin of Ribbentrop.

The Lithuanians invaded Lithuania in autumn 1918. They progressed rapidly and gained control of two-thirds of Lithuania’s territory. They captured Vilnius at the start of January 1919. Thanks to the German Fischerschenko, the Lithuanian offensive was stopped and in the Lithuanian state had an opportunity to build its own military forces. Nevertheless, later Lithuanians had to fight against German irregular forces - the Berlinski Westenica, Voloniers Army - which invaded Lithuania from Latvia in summer 1919. However, the Lithuanians defeated them in November 1919 at the Battle of Budislawicze.

Finally, between 1919 and 1920, Lithuania had to fight the war against Poland. The war broke out because of a dispute over Vilnius and its surroundings, but for the Lithuanians it was also a defense of their independence. Part of the Polish elite wanted to establish a federation with Lithuania, while the other Polish elite wanted to absorb Lithuania into a Greater Poland. The Lithuanian forces were stable in front of the Polish forces and, in 1920, Lithuania was able to gain Vilnius.

The Soviet-Soviet War, 1920: Lithuania's independence was threatened by the Soviet-Soviet War in 1920, which was fought between the Lithuanian Red Army and the Bolsheviks. Lithuania declared its independence on November 18, 1918, and by early 1920, it had established diplomatic relations with many countries. However, in February 1920, the Red Army invaded Lithuania and occupied the southern part of the country. The Lithuanian army was able to repel the invasion, and Lithuania was able to maintain its independence. The war ended in May 1920 with the Treaty of Tartu, which confirmed Lithuania's independence and territorial integrity.

On November 18, 1918, the Act of Independence was signed in Vilnius by the Lithuanian National Council, which declared Lithuania an independent state. The Council was formed by Lithuanian nationalists who had been fighting for independence since the late 19th century. The Act of Independence was signed by 100 Lithuanian deputies, including the council's president, Antanas Smetona.

On February 31, 1918, in Teterów, Poland, the Treaty of Teterów was signed, which established the independence of Lithuania.

On February 15, 1920, the Soviet-Soviet War ended with the Treaty of Tartu, which confirmed Lithuania's independence and territorial integrity.

Finally, on December 15, 1920, the Lithuanian independence was recognized by the League of Nations, which established the independence of Lithuania.

From then on, Lithuania became a full-fledged member of the international community and was able to participate in various international organizations and forums. The Lithuanian government continued to work towards maintaining its independence and territorial integrity, and it was successful in doing so until the final stages of World War II, when the country was occupied by the Soviet Union.
Between the 13th and 16th centuries, Latvia was under the rule of various German feudal political institutions which partly continued until the end of 18th century in the form of the Duchy of Courland, a vassal state of Poland. Latvian lands were conquered gradually by Russia in the 18th century due to the conflict with Sweden and the partition of Poland. Initially under the Russian rule, German nobility and bourgeoisie enjoyed a certain political autonomy, whereas Latvians generally remained considered second-class citizens. However, due to the very high fertility levels (around 8% by the end of 19th century), the Latvian national movement was able to develop a distinct national consciousness in the second half of the 19th century. National fervor was much higher in Latgale, on eastern part of the country inhabited mainly by the Catholic community. Moreover, urbanization and industrialization contributed to the emergence of the Latvian bourgeoisie and working class and the change in the ethnic structure of large cities in favor of Latvians, which constituted almost half of the population of Riga, on the one hand. Non-Latvians besides Germans, Russians, Jews, and Poles accounted for around 30% of the population.

When the First World War broke out, the ethnic Latvians in order to defend their country against the German-officers organized themselves into the Latvian Riflemen and fought on with the Russians. The eastern part of Latvia, which was not part of the Duchy of Courland but belonged to the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, was occupied by the Lithuanian forces in September and occupied the whole country after the League of Nations Treaty (March 3, 1920). Nevertheless, in November 1920 Latvian parties established the National Council of Latvia. The Bolshevik Revolution in Russia in秋天 1918 and the German defeat in November 1918 offered Latvia an opportunity of pre-eminence of independence.

As such, on November 18, 1918, Justs Pembe (the People’s Council of Latvia), the successor of the National Council, declared the independence of Latvia, and a Latvian provisional government was then subsequently created. Kārlis Ulmanis was elected the prime minister. He would go on to the president of Latvia in the interim period.

The invasion of the Bolsheviks on the 1st December 1918 showed that the Latvian society was polarized. Initially, many Latvians joined the Bolsheviks and established the Latvian Red Riflemen. The initial support for the Bolsheviks is explained by the fact that a high proportion of the Latvian population was made up of industrial and agricultural workers. Many of them believed that the Bolshevik Revolution would bring about an improvement in the living standards of the people. However, the Bolsheviks’ rule was short-lived, as a counter-revolutionary movement was launched by the Balts. They gained control of Latvia, occupying Riga, in January 1919. The national government established was a small portion of territory under its control. It had to handle food to Liepaja. The Baltic German minority constituted another challenge to Latvian independence. After initial cooperation with Latvia, Baltic Landeswehr, a German unit under the command of Rudolf von der Goltz, orchestrated a coup against the Latvian government. The coup received the informal support of Germany. German forces took back Riga from the Soviets committing massacres against the local population and continued their advance to the north. Their objective was to connect Estonia in order to establish a German state in the Baltic region, which was supported as a modern version of the “Baltic way” by the Soviet Union. The Battle of Cesis (June 1919) against Estonian and Latvian national forces. Finally, on 3rd of January 1920, Latvian forces, together with the Polish Army, defeated the Social Democratic Republic, in the final battle of Daugavpils.

This victory led to the Treaty of Riga (August 11, 1920) in which Bolshevik Russia recognized the independence and the territorial integrity of Latvia.

11-08-1920

Good to know: Riga is the city with the highest concentration of Art Nouveau architecture anywhere in the world. Built during a period of rapid economic growth, most of the city’s Art Nouveau buildings date from between 1904 to 1914. More info at www.visitriga.lv
ESTONIAN INDEPENDENCE

For centuries Estonian lands belonged to various countries (Germany, Denmark, and Sweden), but the most important was the legacy of German rule. After World War II, Estonia became part of the Soviet Union in the 1940s. By 1960, it was considered one of the main cities. At the end of the century, Estonia's economy and political situation improved, and the country gained its independence in 1991.

The Estonian Army High Command in Tallinn: From left to right: General Major Ernst Rüüt, Lt. Artur Luik, General Major Heiki Riibber, Commander of the Estonian Defence Forces, Commander of the National Guard, and General Major Karl Riis. From bottom left: General Major Andres Leedu, General Major Juri Tretiakov, Commander in chief General Governor of Estonia, Commander of the National Guard, and General Major Ingo Rahn.

The military victory of the Estonian army against the Bolsheviks allowed Estonia to support the fight for Ukrainian independence. Finally, Estonia signed the Treaty of Tartu (February 2, 1920) with Russia, which recognized its independence and territorial integrity.

The military celebration of Republic Independence Day in Tallinn on September 24, 1938.

Estonian Independence Day was celebrated on March 24, 1992, and marked the restoration of independence after the Soviet Union's dissolution in 1991.

The declaration of independence by the Republic of Estonia on February 24, 1918.

The Estonian declaration of independence on February 24, 1918. The Estonian declaration of independence was the first in the Baltic region and the Baltic States. Estonia declared its independence on February 24, 1918, and the declaration was signed by Eesti Patarei, the President of Estonia.

The military occupation of Estonia by the Soviet Union on September 24, 1938.

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Using the German offensive in winter 1918 and the retreat of Red Army as a window of opportunity, Mäeoor re-established itself and issued the Estonian Declaration of Independence on February 24, 1918. Nevertheless, the first period of independence was extremely short-lived with the German forces entering Tallinn the following day and Germany did not recognize Estonia's independence.

The Bolsheviks undertook a last attempt to conquer Estonia in autumn 1919 but the Estonians achieved a final victory against the Red Army in the battle of Kreisau (November-December 1919).

On December 24, 1918, the Estonian Declaration of Independence was signed in Tallinn, and the country gained its independence from the Russian Empire. The declaration was signed by Eesti Patarei, the President of Estonia.

Estonian independence was ratified by the Treaty of Tartu on February 2, 1920, which formally recognized Estonia's independence and territorial integrity.

Estonian independence was recognized by several countries, including Germany, France, and the United States. However, it was not recognized by the Soviet Union, which continued to have territorial claims on Estonia.

Estonian independence was a significant event in European history, as it marked the end of the Russian Empire and the beginning of the modern Baltic states. The declaration of independence was signed on February 24, 1918, by Eesti Patarei, the President of Estonia.

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Finnish independence became a part of the Russian Empire in 1809. The Grand Duchy of Finland enjoyed a special, autonomous status in Russia. It was more than an office and an administrative region of the empire. The political and cultural autonomy helped to create a Finnish national identity as well as gain political experience through elections. Until the end of the 19th century, Russia did not recognize the autonomous development of the national identity and the stronger status of Finnish language. However, the Russian elite gradually came to accept that the Finnish language was equal to Russian. This development was essentially supported by the Finnish Swedish and the grand figures of Finnish culture and national romanticism created in the 19th century were from Finnish-Swedish background.

One major factor in the development of Finnish culture was the creation of schools, which led to a greater awareness of the nation's history and identity. Beginning in the 19th century, a national movement emerged that sought to promote Finnish language, culture, and independence. This movement was supported by the Finnish-Swedes and included prominent figures such as Alexander Stenbäck and Fredrika Stenbock.

Reform and finally the beginning of WWI in 1914 encouraged different activist groups to unite and seek for independence from Russia. More than 1900, mostly young right wing students, travelled to Germany to gain military training and foster the Jäger Movement and military training with Germany that had been given a key role in the outcome. The 1905 Russian Revolution was a turning point for Finnish independence and the relationship between Finland and Russia as its legal successor state.

The Russian Revolution changed the situation, when an enormous fence-like wall was torn open in Finland and just a few days later the Finnish Truce Union Federation declared general strike. The political field had not yet seen two committees: the Reds and the Whites. The Reds saw the situation as possibilities for a social revolution in Finland and had the majority in the parliamentary and in right-wing parties. They had independence as their goal based up on the people's will. The Whites were supported by Germany which already had goals in covering the Jäger Movement and helped by a large number of expatriate soldiers. The Whites were officially supported and helped in publications and training by German-speaking and by far from the northern parts of historians and politicians.

However political internal opposition was revolutionizing society collapsed and the civil war broke out. On January 27, 1918, the Red Guards seized power in Helsinki and declared the beginning of a revolution, forcing the White government to flee the capital. Until March 1918, the Red Guards were leading the conflict, occupying the industrial regions of the South. The White party was the internal counter of the northern counter. The Whites, led by the grand figures of Finnish culture and national romanticism, were allowed to return to the capital.

After the battle of European German troops led by general Rodion von der Goltz took over Helsinki on 14th of April. Von der Goltz practically became a military dictator of the country, and was appreciated by the Whites who wished to establish stability. In May 1918 the Grand Duchy of Finland submitted an offer of peace to Germany. When Finland declared its independence on December 6, 1917, the country in the north of Europe was recognized by the majority of European states. By January 16, 1918, over 100 people died more than one percent of the population. The great majority of voters (70 percent) on the side of the Reds and around 11,000 people died from starvation or from the German army's concentration camps built by the Whites.
Russian Empire was inhabited by many ethnic groups speaking Baltic-Finnic languages. The Grand Duchy of Finland was a region that inhabited the largest amount of these people. In addition there were Estonians, Karelians, Veps, Ingrians, Valaams and Leningrads who inhabited neighboring regions. In the beginning of the 20th century around 5 percent of the people speaking Baltic-Finnic languages lived elsewhere in Russia outside the area of autonomous Finland. Karelia occupied an especially important place in the romantic Finnish nationalism because its folklore was the main source of inspiration for the national mythology (Karelian). From as the biggest Baltic-Finnic nation and with the autonomous status in the Russian Empire it had the greatest capacity to create, study and support the language. Thus both Karelians in Russia and Karelians in Finland were involved in the support of the national movement. Essential authors of national ideology of Russia is based on the same melody as the Finnic one. The popularity of the idea of Greater Finland (Suur-Eurooppa) was at its peak during the time of the declaration of independence and soon after that (1917–1920) in the right wing groups that observed of expanding the Finnish territory to the east during the unstable situation in Russia. It has its roots in the formation process of the national minorities identity in the mid-19th century where “natural borders” of states were redefined based on studies of vegetation and geological formations, as well as cultural and linguistic studies. In the second half of 19th century it maintained the ideology of an autonomous culture that in the end was supposed to expand at least to the Three-leaves border (the White Sea, the Orias-Strela and the Kandalaksha and coloring lines with Karelians).

Consequently, immediately after the civil war (1918) Finnish right wing volunteers started Heimstosse (Kihpisjoki) on Russian territory to unite regions inhabited by Finns and Karelians or to help the Finnish people to gain independence during the Russian civil war (1917–1922). The troops were not officially sent by Finland, but they were approved and supported by the government and the military. As a consequence, Finnish volunteers got involved also in the war of independence in Estonia (1918–1919) (Raasepori, 1918–1919 South Ingria, 1919 North Ingria, 1919 South Ostrobothnia) and in Karelia or the Republic of North Ingermanland. It is estimated that around 10000 Finnish volunteers participated in the war. Kihpisjoki ended up in Karelia, but the Greater Finland project remained popular among the Finnish right wing until 1944.

After the establishment of independent Romania, the idea of the unification of all Romanian-speaking populations into a Greater Romania (România Mare) gained popularity within the Romanian political elite. WWI offered Bucharest supporters an opportunity to expand Romanias control over Transylvania, Bessarabia, and Bucovina, to an old (1774–1775) as well as to a new formal basis, by the end of 19th century and Romania considered also Transylvania, Crișana, Olt, Dâmbovița, Valcea, Hunedoara, Iași, Romania, Bucovina, and others became the majority in the region, while Romanian speakers slightly more than 40% of population were relegated to the bottom of social ladder and experienced the policy of assimilation. The interwar period was marked by the trend of national identity being less than 10% of the Romanian population were able to read or write.

In December 1917, a few weeks after the Bolshevik Revolution, Romanians from Bessarabia established the Moldavian Democratic Republic (MDR) which on 6th of April 1918 declared independence. The MDR was the very act of Bessarabian aggression and survived mostly thanks to Romanian military intervention. After the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, on 30th of April 1918 the MDR voted for the unification of Moldova with Romania. However the Romanian were overrepresented substantially in the National Council and were among the ethnic minorities. Romanian, a considerable majority of Moldovans supported the integration of Bessarabia into Romania, but local leaders with the help of the members of the Council voted for unification. In the interwar period, the Soviet Republic became Soviet sovereignty over Bessarabia. It considered itself Romanian-occupied territory.

In 1930s, Romanian authorities tried to assimilate the Moldovans, although there was some limited autonomy given to the region. The Moldova autonomy was suspended in 1938, and the region was incorporated into Romania. The Oaș, Maramureș, and Bistrița-Năsăud counties were occupied by Hungary, while Transylvania and Banat by Austria-Hungary and Russia. In case of Russia, Romanian-speaking communities inhabited Bessarabia (currently the Republic of Moldova). Bessarabia which belonged to the Principality of Moldavia and was annexed in 1812 after the Russian-Turkish War. The ethnic structure of Bessarabia changed dramatically after 1917. The Bolshevik Revolution allowed Romani to make a significant impact on the local society. They gained control over the economy and education. The 1930s were marked by a period of mass deportations, which took place during the period of the so-called Great Purge. The deportations targeted not only political opponents but also millions of ordinary people, including large numbers of ethnic minorities and members of the intelligentsia. The Great Purge resulted in the deaths of an estimated 1.6 million people, with millions more displaced and exiled.
In 1918 the South Caucasian nations such as Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia differed deeply between themselves—as far as history, religion, social-stratum culture, tradition and language are concerned. Nevertheless they created, through a short lived, common state, the Transcaucasian Democratic Federal Republic, Georgians, mostly Orthodox Christians, possessed, from the ancient time to the beginning of 16th century, their own states; for 300 years they were rivals of the Ottoman Empire and Persia. The states were ruled by dynasties whose powers were based on the peasantry, and this peasantry was Orthodox Christian. The Georgians thought of the Mideast Agas. The Armenians were definitely more urbanized and, in consequence, better prepared for the challenges of the modern era than other Caucasian communities. However, most of them were peasants, often subdued to Muslim bondsmen or slaves. The idea of an Armenian nation-state—nominally ethnically homogeneous Greater Armenia—particularly contradicted the ethnic, wealth, ideology, the Armenians were among the South Caucasian communities, the most authentically nation living in a territory stretching from Central Anatolia to the Caucasian Sea. They were mixed greatly with Turkish people, Kurds and Georgians. The Armenian community also distinguished themselves with diaspora groups dispersed around the world.

The Azerbaijanis were mostly Shia Muslims from Iran; but they spoke a language very similar to the Turkish from Anatolia. The Sunni Arab minority living in the northern part of Azerbaijan were affiliated with the Kurds inhabiting North Caucasus, especially Daghestan. The Azerbaijanis lived under the Persian supremacy for centuries and were greatly overpowered in Persian rule. But they were strongly influenced by Iranian culture. In the 18th century the Azeri people achieved autonomy (nationalism) under Russian rule. In the last decades of the 19th century the South Caucasus was occupied by Russia. Nevertheless the majority of Azeri Christians and Armenians, a considerable number of Muslim Georgians resided in neighboring countries (e.g. the Ottoman Empire and Persia). Under the rule of the Caucasian peoples gained a strong representation in different sectors of the Russian elite. For instance, during WWI numerous Azerbaijanis served as generals in the Russian army. At that time (within a few years of 1917) the multinational government was replaced by a national government. The Azerbaijanis were the most competent in terms of national and economic activities. The Arab predominant movement was dominated by social-democrats (Mensheviks) and was mostly led by pettyetty. Azeri nationalization process the modernization efforts of the Azeri people was simultaneously processed with the definition of identity confusing between Pan-Turkism, Pan-Arabism and the Iranian world. Indeed, before the WMU Muhammed Amin Riza Pasha was forced to resign to establish an independent Ottoman state and Khorenatsi was forced to resign to establish the Armenian republic. The independence movements were supported by the European states and the Azeri people also received support from the French. It is also worth mentioning that the Transcaucasian nations officially called them “Turkmen.”

Several days after the Bolshevik Revolution, the Caucasian peoples established the Transcaucasian Commissariat—a sort of government—and in January 1918, the Transcaucasian parliament convened. It was named after the Polish pre-revolutionary assembly that showed the impact of the small and often-filthful political movements in the South Caucasus. Under the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk on 2nd March, 1918 Bolshevik Russia ceded Armenia, Azerbaijan and caucasus to the Ottoman Empire.

In 1918 the Azerbaijanis provided a substantial financial, diplomatic and military assistance to the Mountainous Republic of the Northern Caucasus (MRNK). The Azeri and Armenian MRNK proposed to unite the Armenian and Azeri republics into the Transcaucasian Federal Republic. However the other republics—Armenia and Georgia as well as Georgia—were frightened by the predominance of Muslims in such a pan-Caucasian state as a result of the Ottoman-Armenian relations. In fact, the Azeri, Armenians and Georgians did not agree with this proposal. Ultimately, differences between the South Caucasian nations turned out to be too serious for the federation to survive, and the Transcaucasian Republic dissolved just after five weeks.
ARMENIA, AZERBAIJAN, GEORGIA

20-05-1918

Georgia stepped out of the Transcaucasian Democratic Federal Republic and proclaimed its independence. Two days later, Armenia and Azerbaijan did the same.

The Democratic Republic of Azerbaijan (ARD), under the leadership of the Musavat party (Islamic), survived mainly thanks to assistance from the Ottoman Empire whose military intervention allowed Baku to occupy territory just to Armenia, the Wedes and the Baku. After the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, Azerbaijan found itself under the protection (and eventual military occupation) of Great Britain. Different countries established their diplomatic missions in Baku. However, as international recognition was concerned, the ARD was generally a de facto state pending its de jure recognition. After the withdrawal of British forces in August 1918, the young republic did not receive international support, and, in April 1920, Baku was occupied by the Red Army.

Independent Armenia, under the Dashnash government, from the very beginning had to face an existential threat from the Ottoman Empire. During the First World War, Armenia had been part of the Ottoman Empire. After its collapse, the Young Turk regime,restored with a decisive smaller scale assault against Muslims in Eastern Anatolia. The idea of a union between the Turkish nation (Pan-Turkism) and the Armenians was advocated by the Young Turks. At the end of April 1918, the Ottoman army launched an offensive against Armenia. However, in advance was stopped in the Battle of Sarandabad, both Arabs and Kosovards by the Armenian forces under the command of Mesar Siahian and Ottoman Army. The military campaign is collectively known as the “Hercules battle” in May in Armenian history. The terms of the Treaty of Baku (June 1918) that Armenia was forced to accept were especially harsh: the new republic was left with 15,000 square kilometers. However, the Ottoman Empire recognized the independence of Armenia. In June 1919, the Treaty of Baku was signed with the Armenian Republic, and the Treaty of Ankara (April 1920) was signed with the Ottoman Empire, which allowed Armenia to increase its territory seven times. The Turks tried to repel the Armenian expansion through the establishment of the South Caucasian Republic, proclaimed in Karabakh in December 1918, which was fighting with both Georgia and Armenia and was finally occupied by British troops in April 1919.

10-06-1919

The Treaty of Erzurum, signed by the Ottoman government in August 16, 1920, granted Armenia enormous territorial benefits in Eastern Anatolia and Transcaucasia. Armenia was compensated as an independent state by the signed treaties. Great Britain, France and Italy. Furthermore, the Turkish republicans, under the leadership of Kemal Atatürk, which resulted against the Ottoman government, rejected the Treaty. In effect, the conflict between the Republic and Armenia broke out on September 10, 1920.
European Parts of Russia

We often forget that, in geographical terms, around 40 percent of Europe's territory is located in current Russia. The Tsarist Revolution launched an attempt for autonomy and independence in European Russia. The south-western regions of European Russia distinguished themselves particularly by strong armies, and regional identities. Many of them were Muslims, Caucasians and Ukrainians. They differed greatly concerning their level of modernisation. For instance, at the end of 19th century, Volga Tartars had literacy rates that were almost as high as the Russian ones. Mountainian, Crimean and Bessarabian Tartars had literacy rates that were extremely high among the Muslim communities of North Caucasus. Immediately after the Christian Revolution, Bessarabia, a Turco-Tatar nation living in the Volga region, proclaimed Bashkortostan an autonomous region. Fighting against the Whites, in March 1919 the Bolsheviks concluded an agreement with the Bessarabian and accepted the status of a Bashkort Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic within the borders of the Western大洋, under the leadership of a Bashkir autonomous republic located in Kazan that claimed to unite Volga Tartars, Bashkirs and the Chuvash. Another Turco-Tatar nation aspired to recreate the Khanate of Kazan. The Mius War was initiated on March 1, 1918. However, the republic was destroyed by the Red Army in less than one month.

1917-1918

![A Russian soldier from the 1917 Revolution.](image)

**The Russian Revolution** was a political, social, and economic revolution that took place in Russia from February 1917 to November 1917.

1918-1920

![The Mountainous Republic of the Northern Caucasus proclaimed independence in May 1918. Its territory covered the entire North Caucasus and surrounding areas. The Mountainous Republic was de facto recognized by Germany, Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, Georgia, Azerbaidzhan, Ukraine, Bulgaria and the Kuban People's Republic. At the beginning of the Russian Civil War, the Mountainous Republic was captured by forces loyal to the Provisional Government of General Kerensky. In the summer of 1918, the Mountainous Republic of the North Caucasus, the North Caucasian Emirate (an Islamic state) was established by local communities, it composed of Daghestan and the Western Dagastan, and sought the protection of the Ottoman Empire, which was invaded from September 1919 to March 1920, Georgia recognized the emirate's authority but it fell under the control of the Bolsheviks. Nevertheless, in August 1920, the anti-communist uprising flared up and continued until it was suppressed in May 1921.](image)

**The fight for independence** in Russia also had an Asian context. The Kazakhs established the Ahtah Horde, an autonomous republic government named after the legendary founder of the Kazakh people. It was aligned with the Whites and fought against the Bolsheviks. In 1918, when the Whites forces were losing, Ahtah Horde launched negotiations with the Bolsheviks. In 1920, the Bolsheviks defeated the White Russian forces and occupied Karakalpakstan.

1918-1919

![Central Asian Muslims in 1918 organized the Basmachi uprisings against the Bolsheviks. Their ranks included the Turkic and Tatar Muslims, as well as the Crimean Tatars. They were inspired by the ideals of the Islamic revival and the desire for independence from Russian rule. The Basmachi movement gathered strength in Central Asia by 1916. However, despite the resistance, it continued until 1934. It was the longest lasting resistance movement against the Bolsheviks in the Soviet Union.](image)

However, in the Far East, the regions that were settled by the Ukrainians colonized the areas of the Amur River and the Pacific Ocean proclaimed the Ukrainian Republic of the Far East in January 1918 and its formation with the Ukrainian People's Republic. However, its territory was occupied by Whites and then the Bolsheviks.

1920-1922

![The period from 1920 to 1922 saw the consolidation of the Soviet Union and the beginning of its expansion into Central Asia.](image)

Co-ordinated by the European Commission, the European Programme for the European Union and the Cultural Unit City of Porto New Eastern Europe. LATVIAN INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS.
COOPERATION IN EASTERN EUROPE

Poland concluded an active policy regarding the cooperation of independent movements in Central Eastern Europe during the post-war period. In Poland's view, the independence of non-Russian peoples in the Russian Empire was an optimistic way to consolidate their own independence. This was the principle which was later coined “Pomeranianism” and was promoted by the Founding Father of the Polish independent, Mieczysław Pilsudski. This project was aimed to permanently weaken the imperialistic tendencies of Russia (whether Turat or Soviet Russia) by offering support to non-Russian independent movements.

Another political project defended by Pilsudski and its supporters was the Miejsko-Osobowy (Municipal). This geopolitical project aimed to create political alliances between countries of the Baltic Sea and the Black Sea. According to Pilsudski, the union of the Polish-Ukrainian-Carpathian Commonwealth (including Poland, Belarus, Lithuania and possibly Latvia) represented a crucial precondition for the motivation of both geopolitical concepts. Lithuania was imagined as a gateway to the Baltic Sea and Belarus as a gateway to the Black Sea. Both countries were seen as potential partners for Poland and Lithuania - each country assuring the right old citizen. On 22nd April, 1919 three former Russian autonomous states in Eastern Poland issued "The Declaration to the Inhabitants of the Former Grand Duchy of Lithuania". The proclamation was printed in the Lithuanian and Polish languages. It was then translated into Belarusian and Yiddish. Pilsudski pledged to...

...create an opportunity for settling the nationality problems and religious affairs in a manner that you yourself will determine, without any kind of force or pressure from Poland....

However, the federal project was impossible to implement due to Lithuania's fear of Poland's domination (the proportion of Lithuanians to Poles was more than 1:19 in Eastern Europe) and because the Belarusian independent movement was weak.

Pilsudski also assumed that the Polish-Lithuanian federation would help establish a very close alliance with Ukraine and support for movements in the Baltic. The most practical example of this was the military cooperation between Poland and Ukraine within the framework of the Polish-Ukrainian Revival Agreement, signed on 25th of April 1920. A few days later, the Polish-Ukrainian force launched the Bila Tserkva offensive against the Bolsheviks which resulted in the liberation of large areas of Eastern Galicia from the Bolsheviks. In the same way, Pilsudski arranged with the Lithuanian “Legion” in Warsaw. After the war, the Lithuanian government of the Lithuanian “Legion” in Warsaw was recognized and the Lithuanian army of the “Legion” was accepted as the main Lithuanian army. Pilsudski was also recognized as the founder of the Polish-Lithuanian Army in Poland.

In spring 1920, Poland, within the framework of Polish-Ukrainian foreign policy, sent a special delegation to South Caucasus. The Polish diplomats worked out the treaty of alliance with Georgia and started negotiations on a common military support for the Mountain peoples from the North Caucasus. Then the delegation went to Azerbaijan, but during their visit the country was conquered by the Bolsheviks who arrested the Polish diplomats. In May 1920, the Czecho-Slovaks officially submitted an application to the League of Nations asking for the Polish protectorate over Crimea.

The army of the UNR was definitely the largest allied armed force fighting with Poland in the war with the Bolsheviks. Moreover in 1920 some Belarusians, Russians, Dniester Cossacks, and Tatars Musulmans fought with the Poles against the Bolsheviks. Poland even started to organize the Russian army under the political leadership of Boris Savitsky, a revolutionary socialist (anarchist). At the beginning of October, there were more than 45,000 former Soviet Russian soldiers served alongside the Polish army, including almost 30,000 Ukrainians. However these military commitments did not meet the expectations. Poland by signing the Treaty of Riga with Russia, violated the terms of the military alliance with the UNR, which had explicitly prohibited a separate peace with Moscow. Ukrainian officials of Poland were interested by the Polish authorities, and were therefore not interested in the Polish assistance, while the Poles were interested in the advantages of the UNR. At this stage, the Poles were also interested in the UNR, but this time in the context of the Polish-Ukrainian-Carpathian Commonwealth.
The Baltic region was an area of close cooperation between nations in the fight for independence. In 1919 during the Polish-Soviet War, the Swedish Brigade and the Polish Legion established on the basis of Polish soldiers serving in the Twelve Army fought against the Red. Hundreds of Estonian volunteers crossed the Gulf of Finland and joined the White forces.

In response around 3,000 Finnish volunteers contributed greatly to the Estonian victory in 1919. They consisted of two groups: the Finnish Volunteer Corps and the Boys from the North. Yet Baltic German, Russian, Ingrian, Swedish, and Danish volunteers were also present.

The Battle of Cesis was a decisive battle in the Estonian War of Independence and the Latvian War of Independence. After heavy fighting an Estonian force, supplemented by Latvian units, repelled Baltic German attacks and went on counter-attack.

Meanwhile, Poland intervened in favor of Latvia in Latgale where the Latvian Grand Duke Republic maintained its puppet government until 1920. Latvia requested external help to stabilize this part of its territory. The common Polish-Latvian operation led to the Retribution of the region in January 1920. The operation was commanded by Edward Rydz-Śmigły, the further Marshal of Poland.

On January 1920, the Battle of Daugavgrīva was the final battle of Latvian War of Independence. A joint Polish and Latvian force, operating under Pāvils Solāns, known as Operation Winter, defeated the Red Army.

In November 1918, Belarusian politicians agreed with Lithuanians to cooperate. Belarusian politicians joined Tarybash (State Council). Lithuania also established the ministry for Belarusian affairs and nominated Georgi Tarkhankut, the former prime minister of the BMIK, to this post. One of Belarusian politicians joined the Lithuanian delegation participating in the Warsaw Peace conference. Various separated Belarusian military with neighboring, Baltic, Russian, and Polish companies operated at different times within the Lithuanian army fighting against the Bolsheviks and Poles.

The cooperation between the in addition to the governments of Belarus and Ukraine in the following years were also marked by cooperation and joint efforts against the Bolsheviks.

By the end of 1920, Daugavgrīva was captured by the Latvian and Polish forces and returned to Latvia.

Between 1919 and 1920 Estonia, Finland, Latvia, and Lithuania met several times to coordinate their efforts against the Red forces and the issue of a regional union. In 1920, Poland joined these meetings, followed by delegations from Belarus and Ukraine. Regional integration was at its highest point during a conference in Riga in the end of August 1920 when a secret political treaty was agreed upon between Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, and Ukraine. According to the treaty, the participating states "bound themselves to adjust entirely by peaceful means frontier disputes," joint to protect in any way protect their territories, activities or undertakings which may be directed against one of the participating states. The states also agreed that they would not conclude with another state any agreements or pacts of a military-political character that are not agreed to close-up, without prior agreement of the government of the contracting state. Furthermore, because of the Polish-Lithuanian conflict and the conquest of Ukraine by Bolsheviks the treaty had never entered into force.
The fight for independence sometimes turned into military conflicts and territorial clashes between the new states, their minorities, and neighboring states. For example, in 1919, the newly independent Lithuania fought a war against Poland for control of the region around Vilnius, a historically Lithuanian city that had been part of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. This war, known as the Lithuanian-Polish War, lasted from 1918 to 1920.

**POLISH-UKRAINIAN WAR**

Was held between the Second Polish Republic and Ukrainian forces (both West-Ukrainian People's Republic and Ukrainian People's Republic).

**1918-1919**

During the Bolshevik offensive in 1920, Lithuania negotiated the Treaty of Moscow (July 12) which granted a free passage for the Red Army, as well as Bolshevik Russia's recognition of Lithuanian independence and its territorial claims over Vilnius and its surrounding area. However, in case of the Bolshevik victory over Poland, Lithuania would have lost its independence. The successful Polish counteroffensive dramatically altered the balance of power. Under the mediation of Ignacy Daszyński, a Soviet envoy from Moscow agreed the Suwałki Agreement on 7th October 1920 which suggested that Vilnius would be left with Lithuania. However, the next day the Polish general, Stanislaw Zaleski arrived, starting hostilities.

**LUCIAN ZALEWSKI**

A Polish general. Leader of the Republic of Central Lithuania.

Also a public and military commander and grandson of World War I Polish Field Marshal Władysław Sikorski. He was the President of the Republic of Central Lithuania, a self-proclaimed independent state founded in the early 1920s in the region inhabited by Lithuanians and Polish-speaking people.

Poland officially claimed Zaleskiwicz to be a deserter, and deprived it of financial and support for the independence. Zaleskiwicz captured Vilnius and proclaimed the independence of the Republic of Central Lithuania. He continued to advance towards Kovno, entering the ethnically Lithuanian territories and creating the survival of independent Lithuania. His offensive was met with strong Lithuanian resistance ( Battles at Smilga and Kineidas), and under the pressure of League of Nations and international community, he signed the Treaty of Lausanne (1923) with the Republic of Poland, recognizing the independence of the Second Polish Republic, and the borders of the former Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.

Poland soon celebrated the incorporation of Vilnius Region in Poland. 1922. Image from the YIVO Institute for Polish Jewish History.
CONFLICTS IN SOUTH CAUCASUS

Between 1917 and 1920 the South Caucasus faced three main interrelated conflicts: conflicts between the Azerbaijanis and the Armenians, the Georgians and the Armenians, and between the Georgians and the Ossetians. The war between the Armenians and the Azerbaijanis was often waged between guerrilla forces committing massacre and ethnic cleansing. Indeed, the conflict took place in a very ethnically mixed environment. The regions of Syunik and Nagorno Karabakh were inhabited by the Azeri people (who were a slight minority) along with a Armenian who were a stable minority). The Armenian communities were divided from the rest of the Azerbaijani territories by Karabakhh and the region was inhabited by the Azeris and the Armenians on the same territory.

Before WW I, Baku was the largest Azeri city, but at the same time it was the second largest Armenian city in the Caucasus after Yerevan. The Azeri–Armenian conflict started in Baku with the March Days event.

March 1918

The massacre of thousands of Armenians in Baku conducted by Armenian nationalism in cooperation with the Bolsheviks. In September 1918, the Ottoman army and its Azeri-Soviet allies, occupied the city, and retaliated with the massacre of Armenians in the city.

In December 1918, in response to a border proposal presented by the British mission, which favoured Azerbaijanis and Armenian living in Nakhichevan, declared the Republic of Ararat. It was essentially subordinate to Armenia and had to fight from the very beginning with the Armenian army. At the time, a limited-intensity guerilla confrontation between the Azerbaijanis and Armenians started in Karabakh, Syunik, and the Nakhichevan. In early March 1919, regular troops of Azerbaijan attempted to suppress the Armenian-controlled enclaves in Karabakh. That triggered the outbreak of the First Bulgarian–Armenian war of 1877–1878 when the Republic of Ararat was overrun by the Cossacks. In the middle of March, Armenian troops launched a widespread offensive and occupied areas with Azerbaijanis. Syunik, and Karabakh were very quickly put under stable control. Armenian forces in Karabakh reached the outskirts of Orbeli, the second largest city in the territory, and performed ethnic cleansing in areas with mixed populations. The massacres, atrocities, and ethnic cleansing resulting in dramatic changes of the natural structure. The death toll, in absolute numbers, was considerably larger among the Azeris, but proportionally to the size of the populations, the Armenians suffered more deaths.

The Georgian-Ossetian conflict (1918-1920) comprised of three uprisings, which took place in the Ossetian-inhabited areas of Georgia. South Ossetia, named after the Ossetians, is located in the western part of the country in the Greater Caucasus mountain range near the border with Russia. The Chechens and the Ingush began to move into the Georgian border areas and occupied the city of Tskhinvali. The Georgians demanded a degree of autonomy comparable to what was granted to the Abkhazians and the Adjara in the south. Tskhinvali responded that demand because of the cooperation between the Ossetians and the Bolsheviks. The uprisings were violently crushed by the Georgian armed forces.

Georgia waged also a brief war with Armenia. Government circles in Armenia claimed the Loro-Borchali, Akhalkalaki, and Ahalmalka districts, which are located in current southern Georgia, and mostly inhabited by Armenian settlers. On 9th December, 1918 Armenia invaded forces invaded the Borchali district. The Georgians were trapped in the district for a short time and returned the status quo ante bellum. Following the diplomatic intervention of the Allies, the hostilities ceased after three weeks and an agreement on the borders was signed by both sides. The district was divided into two regions: one for Georgia and the other for Armenia. The Georgian army regained the district in a short time and returned the status quo ante bellum. Following the diplomatic intervention of the Allies, the hostilities ceased after three weeks and an agreement on the borders was signed by both sides. The district was divided into two regions: one for Georgia and the other for Armenia. The district was divided into two regions: one for Georgia and the other for Armenia. The district was divided into two regions: one for Georgia and the other for Armenia. The district was divided into two regions: one for Georgia and the other for Armenia. The district was divided into two regions: one for Georgia and the other for Armenia.
INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS AND MODERNITY

The fight for independence in the former Tsarist Russia at the end of WWII was often intertwined with the program of the progressive modernization of society pursued by national elites. For instance, the first government of independent Poland established an eight-hour working day, guaranteed the legitimate trade unions and the right to strike, introduced labor inspections, acknowledged unions and the protection of women. Independent Lithuania provided Jews with an unprecedented level of political and cultural autonomy. It was the longest-lasting arrangement in interwar Europe. The widespread participation of Jews in Lithuanian political life during the post-war period generated a brief and exceptional efflorescence of Jewish national modern identity.

In fact, certain national movements, even before the war, were the asset of gentle modernity. Poland was the first country in Europe (at that time an unincorporated duchy) and one of the first in the world where women gained the universal voting right. In 1907, after the 1917 February Revolution the new regime ordained the women’s suffrage. Poland confirmed it immediately after announcing its independence in December 1918. Between 1919 and 1930 Poland was followed by Independent Russia, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, the Polish–Lithuanian Autonomous Republic of the Crimea, and the United African States of Ethiopia. All these progressive independent movements allowed the unprecedented inclusion of women into political life in the newly established countries. For the first time, women started to recognize high political offices. It was very much the case with Catharine Poleshchuk, a prominent Polish, a writer and a vocal champion of the first Woman’s Political Club of Lithuania in 1920 and was elected to office during the first free elections in the history of the country. Free women were elected to the Lithuanian Constituent Assembly, making up at least 5% of its members. It was one of the highest proportions of women in any parliament in the world. One elected Jewish women, Rhinawe Shanasheve, joined the Presidium of Constituent Assembly which composed of 16 people who were responsible for the preparation of drafting legislature in one of the most modern constitutions in the world. For instance, Georgia (with the exception of the Orthodox Church) was the first country in Europe to abolish the death penalty. At that time, capital punishment was abolished only in few Latin American countries.

The program of the Georgian political elite was not accidental. In fact, Georgia was the first country in the history of the world to be ruled by a social democratic government and it was seen as a fascinating experiment and a positive alternative to the Soviet totalitarian Revolution. The Russian prime minister of Great Britain, Ramsey MacDonald, who visited Georgia in 1920, wrote:

I found myself with something to my country and my country's economy and what shall I do? I think I could see no other country.

In comparison with the last, which Soviet Russia represents, Georgia appears as a prototype.

The modernization efforts of Eastern European Muslims in the post-war period constituted a particularly significant phenomenon. In 1917 the Crimean Tatar Qaybdir (parliament) elected the secular Crimean People’s Republic. Historically, it was mostly inhabited by non-Muslims, but elected the parliament’s office on the first political entity in the history of the Muslim world. This example influenced, to a great extent, the process of the modernization of the Turkic nations, recognized the establishment of Western culture throughout Muslim. Therefore before the war, Ismail Gaspirali, the main influential ideologue of the modernization of the Turkic nations, recognized the Muslim People’s Republic as the main source of inspiration for all Turkish nations. The prime minister of Crimean, General Muzaffer Subayda, a Lithuanian-Polish Turk, became the commander general of the army in exile. A great number of students were evacuated from the University of Budapest, and the oldest independent university in the Muslim world, the University of Baku, also flourished. The establishment of the Crimean People’s Republic facilitated the creation of autonomous educational institutions, the establishment of the Tatar language school, and the movement of students. The Crimean People’s Republic exemplified the modernization of the Turkic nations, recognized the establishment of Western culture throughout Muslim. Therefore before the war, Ismail Gaspirali, the main influential ideologue of the modernization of the Turkic nations, recognized the Muslim People’s Republic as the main source of inspiration for all Turkish nations. The prime minister of Crimean, General Muzaffer Subayda, a Lithuanian-Polish Turk, became the commander general of the army in exile. A great number of students were evacuated from the University of Budapest, and the oldest independent university in the Muslim world, the University of Baku, also flourished. The establishment of the Crimean People’s Republic facilitated the creation of autonomous educational institutions, the establishment of the Tatar language school, and the movement of students.

JAZIPDZI GASIPRAJI

The leader of the Crimean Tatar movement “The Executive Committee of the Muslim Women of Crimea” (“Qolqur Govt.”), which existed in the Crimea in the early twentieth century. Her name is associated with such a unique phenomenon for the modernization of the Muslim world: the development of a Muslim women’s movement. She was a daughter of the famous Crimean Tatar leader Gaspirali Ali. Gaspirali was a key figure in the Crimean Tatar movement and an important figure in the Crimean Tatar movement. She was a daughter of the famous Crimean Tatar leader Gaspirali Ali. Gaspirali was a key figure in the Crimean Tatar movement and an important figure in the Crimean Tatar movement. She was a daughter of the famous Crimean Tatar leader Gaspirali Ali. Gaspirali was a key figure in the Crimean Tatar movement and an important figure in the Crimean Tatar movement. She was a daughter of the famous Crimean Tatar leader Gaspirali Ali. Gaspirali was a key figure in the Crimean Tatar movement and an important figure in the Crimean Tatar movement.

The progressive policies of the newly established states were to a certain degree, a response to the social reformation of communist Russia. The Bolsheviks initiated the social revolution in Russia by carrying out the Khorostovskaya Uprising in 1917 against the Moscow industrial society. (The first time in the world was to become a government (the First Soviet) in the Russian Empire. In addition, in Caucasian Union, Yegorov Peshch, an Ukrainian German, is considered to be the first woman to become leader of an independent national government. She occupied the positions of Minister of Interior and acting leader of the Provisional Caucasian Soviet Government (1917–1918).
The interwar period was not only a pause between the two world wars. For the Eastern European countries that emerged in independence, it was a period that allowed them to implement the will of the people and to establish the boundaries of their new states. However, it also brought challenges and conflicts, including territorial disputes that would later result in military actions.

On the basis of the Kiel Peace Treaty signed with the new Germany in 1925, the Soviet Union occupied Bessarabia and northern Bessarabia,敖德萨, Germany, Finland, Romania, and Lithuania, as well as parts of the Baltic region. In 1939, the USSR occupied 19% of its territory from the perspective of the Soviet Union, and the conclusion of the Ribbentrop-Molotov Pact made it easier to implement the territorial claims of the Soviet Union.

The Soviet Union proposed, disputed and established during the 1930s. The interwar period had long become the subject of a number of wars that brought the region closer and were accompanied by a number of key events affecting the political and cultural life of the countries. The Second World War is also a wave of opportunity for the Soviet Union to successfully implement its territorial ambitions.

In 1919, a new Polish Constitution established the first democratic state in Europe, excluding the Soviet Union. The new constitution provided for the establishment of a democratic state with a parliament, the rule of law, and freedom of speech. However, the interwar period did not bring peace. The Polish-Ukrainian War, the Polish-Soviet War, the Polish-Czechoslovak War, and the Polish-Lithuanian War all took place during this period. The interwar period was marked by territorial disputes, border changes, and military actions.

The first political changes in the interwar period took place in 1919-1920, when the Polish-Ukrainian War was declared. The Polish-Soviet War broke out in 1920, and the Polish-Lithuanian War began in 1921. The interwar period was also marked by the establishment of the intergovernmental system, the formation of the Council of Europe, and the establishment of the intergovernmental body, the Interparliamentary Union.
LEGACY OF THE WARS OF INDEPENDENCE (1918-1921): 100th ANNIVERSARY

A century since the wars of independence (1918-1921): the division between the countries which succeeded in the fight and those that failed, is still noticeable. After the fall of Soviet Union, the only countries which managed to retain their independence between 1918 and 1921 became members of the EU. And even a century after, until this day, the West and the East, with a mix of emotions, as the CIS member-Ukraine, Jerry Brunt discovered even though the federalist program promoted, particularly by Poland, did not proceed in a formal manner to reunite the Baltic States and Ukrainian independence. At that time, it was in the interests of both the Polish Republic and the Ukraine to restore the integrity of the Polish state. The Polish-Ukrainian War of 1918-1920 constituted the practical parts of the post-war political negotiations, which were conducted in the course of the negotiations of the Treaty of Riga. This agreement was signed on 9 March 1921, and the Treaty of Riga ended the Polish-Ukrainian War.

Moreover, many of the conflicts that emerged after the dissolution of the Soviet Union—most notably, ethnic conflicts—were exacerbated by this period of turbulence, with some regions gaining independence, in particular, as a result of the 1921-1922 period. For instance, the Ant-Soviet party groupings in the 1920s and 1930s, such as the White Army and the Chechen, formed significant segments of the population during the Soviet era when it was possible to categorize themselves as such. During the period of the Polish-Ukrainian War, the state of Ukraine was based on the state of Ukraine, which was independent and recognized by Poland and other states. However, anti-independence agitation, such as Romani and Interchurch (Between the lines of the so-called “independent states”), was perceived as an attempt to undermine the Soviet Union and/or the new state of Ukraine, which was perceived as a successor to the former Soviet Union.

However, anti-independence agitation, such as Romani and Interchurch (Between the lines of the so-called “independent states”), was perceived as an attempt to undermine the Soviet Union and/or the new state of Ukraine, which was perceived as a successor to the former Soviet Union. In this context, the state of Ukraine was considered to be an extension of the territory of the Soviet Union, and the state of Ukraine was not recognized by other states. In this context, the state of Ukraine was considered to be an extension of the territory of the Soviet Union, and the state of Ukraine was not recognized by other states. The state of Ukraine was not recognized by other states. The state of Ukraine was not recognized by other states. The state of Ukraine was not recognized by other states.

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The culture of our Russia is law [...]. Culture is in Western Europe: in France, England, Belgium, and Germany. Today, the reintegration of that approach to Europe in the Muslim world would be more than welcome.