

SOCIO-ECONOMIC SITUATION IN FRANCE AFTER THE CIVIL WAR

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ABSTRACT

This article describes in detail the civil war in France and its impact on the life of the population, as well as the socio-economic life of the country after the war.

Keywords: civil war, socio-economic situation, scope of influence, population life, etc.

Americans will tell you about the battle between the Northern and Southern states between 1861 and 1865 on the problems of slavery and state's rights if you ask them about the Civil War. An English individual will refer to the fight between the king and Parliament over political power in the middle of the 17th century if you ask them about The Civil War. Irish people will tell you about the conflict between the extreme republicans and the pro-treaty side in the early 20th century if you ask them about the American Civil War. Chinese people will tell you about the conflict between republicans and communists from 1929 to 1949 if you ask them about the American Civil War. A French person will ask "why are you talking to me?" and resume their break if you inquire about the American Civil War. There have been numerous conflicts in French history that may be considered civil wars, despite the fact that there has never been a clearly defined "Civil War" in France. Let's define our terminology first. There are two main forms of civil wars: social civil wars and political civil wars. Social civil wars are large-scale conflicts within a nation involving various ethnic, cultural, or religious groups. Large-scale conflict between two or more clearly defined political organizations for control of a nation is known as a political civil war. These definitions are archetypes whose characteristics frequently overlap as ethnic or religious groups organize into political alliances in an effort to gain control. The Albigensian Crusade, which lasted from 1209 until 1229, is the first contender for a French Civil War. Christianity underwent a radical interpretation in the late 12th century under the influence of the Cathar movement. The Old Testament's god, according to the Cathars, was an all-evil deity because of his repeated crimes and strict restrictions. The New Testament god, in contrast, was an all-good god because of his mercy and redemption of humanity. As you can expect, the Catholic Church did not share their opinions and regarded them as heretics for their interpretations of Scripture and pagans for their belief in dual deities. The first time a crusade was mentioned against Christians was in 1209 when Pope Innocent III called for one to eradicate the Cathar heresy. The opportunity to attack the south was seized by the French monarch Philippe II, his son and successor Louis VIII, and many lords from the north. The northern lords had, in essence, been given permission by the Pope to annex riches and territory in the area. This was crucial for the monarchy in particular. The home base of the Capetians has always been in the north. The first few Capetian kings had little influence in the south and spent their time in conflict with strong northern foes like Normandy, Blois, and Anjou. Philippe II became well-known in the north during his reign after capturing Normandy.

Extremely brutality defined the Albigensian Crusade. The Catholics had no compassion for the people of the South. Killings were frequent. According to the official record, the crusaders attacked the city of Béziers on July 22, 1209, and massacred some 20,000 people there. The Catholics set fire to the townspeople's churches as they sought refuge there. One story claims that when a crusader questioned the leader Arnaud Amalric about how to tell Cathars from Catholics, the papal legate responded, "Kill them all. The Lord is aware of those who are his. The northern rulers took control of more land, increasing their own power and connecting the south more closely to the north. Additionally, as northern culture was imposed, southern culture diminished. This was a crucial period in France's history because, under the early Capetians, the nation was divided into numerous districts, each of which had a distinct culture and was essentially autonomous. France became more politically, spiritually, linguistically, and culturally united as a result of the harsh enslavement of the south, but at a terrible cost. Between 200,000 and one million people had died in southern France by the time of the Crusade. The Albigensian Crusade was "one of the most conclusive cases of genocide," according to the Polish jurist Raphael Lemkin, who first used the term "genocide."

Given that it divided France into two major regions, the Albigensian Crusade is a plausible candidate for a French civil war. As a result of a political conflict, the monarchy's power spread to the south. Occitan and Provençal cultures were marginalized in favor of a more cohesive French culture. There were undoubtedly enough casualties for a civil war. There were roughly 13 million people living there in all. If between 200,000 and one million people died, that would equate to either 1 out of every 65 or 1 out of every 13 French citizens being cruelly murdered throughout the conflict. The Hundred Years' conflict was the earliest prospect for a civil conflict in French history. The war, which lasted from 1337 to 1453, was actually a string of related conflicts. When Charles IV of France passed away without an heir, it all started. King Edward III of England asserted his lawful claim to the French crown. The majority of French nobles supported Philippe VI, the late king's cousin and the first Valois king, since they did not want an English tsar. Edward III launched an invasion because he wasn't going to let a pointless thing like the people's will get in the way of what he desired.

France appeared to have regained its prewar stability, wealth, and confidence by the end of the 1920s. For a while, France even appeared to be immune to the 1929–1930 economic crisis that engulfed Europe; it continued peacefully behind its high tariff barrier, a stable island in an otherwise turbulent world. But by 1931, France had also succumbed to the Great Depression's consequences, and the impacts there were no less devastating than elsewhere. The Radicals and Socialists took over the Chamber in 1932, displacing the right-wing parties. Édouard Herriot, the leader of the Radicals, was re-elected as premier with Socialist assistance but not participation. Herriot and a succession of successors searched for a solution to the escalating crisis throughout the course of the following two years. The rise of Nazi dominance across the Rhine, which culminated in Adolf Hitler's appointment to the position of chancellor in January 1933, exacerbated anxiety in France. The size and activity of right-wing movements in France increased, some of which were overtly fascist and others which supported more conventional authoritarianism. The unstable coalition was at the mercy of the Stavisky controversy, a murky episode that damaged the reputations of numerous prominent Radicals, by 1934. Right-wing anti-parliamentary organizations took advantage of the opportunity to protest the government;

on February 6, a sizable demonstration in front of the Chamber of Deputies turned into a brutal clash with armed police during which 15 rioters were killed and 1,500 others were hurt. Due to the potential for civil war, Premier Édouard Daladier resigned and was replaced by the former president Gaston Doumergue's national unity administration. The crisis was overcome by the regime, although significant tension endured. The CGT and all left-wing parties joined together to combat right-wing agitation, and even the Communists took part in this campaign, which culminated in the creation of the Popular Front in 1935. Radical ministers left the cabinet of Doumergue as a result of the premier's escalating authoritarianism. Pierre Laval, a former socialist who had turned to the right, quickly took over for Doumergue. Laval started an aggressive but unpopular effort to fight the Depression using conventional methods, including steep cuts in government spending and higher taxes. Early in 1936, these ideas destroyed his administration and turned into electoral concerns for the spring legislative vote. The Popular Front won a sizable majority in the Chamber and a slim majority of the popular vote in that election, which was arguably the most intensely contested since 1877. The Socialists overtook the Republicans as the largest party for the first time, although the Communists saw the biggest percentage increase, going from 10 to 72 seats.

Republican France continued to be a country of modest producers, merchants, and consumers. Napoleon III's reign saw a surge in manufacturing, although it stopped short of a full-fledged industrial revolution. A static or slowly evolving part of the economy exceeded the new, dynamic sector by a wide margin. Compared to other industrializing nations, the majority of the industry remained smaller and more dispersed. More than half of the workforce in the enormous textile and garment industries continued to work from home rather than in factories as late as the decade before 1914, with 90% of France's industrial firms employing less than five people per company. The pattern of commerce and trade was the same, with several small businesses like banks thriving. Similar to this, modest, subsistence family farms dominated rural France. Farmers made up around 45% of the entire active population in 1914 and 35% of it in 1930, down from a high of 52% in 1870. Small independent producers, traders, and farmers outnumbered the proletariat and other social classes by a wide margin.

Numerous factors have been cited as contributing to the slow rate of socioeconomic change, including a lack of basic natural resources, a history of luxury product specialization, a set of values that valued prudent management over risky experimentation, and a belief that the "family firm," a business small enough to be funded and run solely by the owners, was ideal. Regardless, industrialization in France was distinct from that in Germany or England. After a rapid boom in the 1850s, there followed several decades of much slower growth that did not endanger the social order or the fundamental values. The stability of the system was assured because the majority of society's members reported being generally content and not feeling threatened by their way of life (only the working class, both urban and agricultural, saw themselves as outsiders and victims rather than participants). This situation didn't start to alter until far into the 20th century, and especially after 1918. The Third Republic's governments were sensitive to the needs of the minor independents and served as their representatives. The majority of the bourgeois and peasantry preferred a laissez-faire policy: low taxes, no interference in the personal affairs of residents. The primary exception—the conquest of the colonial empire—had to be achieved somewhat covertly and with limited

resources. There was no public enthusiasm for expensive foreign policy endeavors or expensive social reforms. With the active assistance of its bourgeois allies, the administration only flagrantly violated laissez-faire in tariff policy. When Napoleon III's low-tariff agreements came to an end in 1877, the government immediately went back to protectionism. Thus, a large portion of French agriculture and industry was shielded from more productive foreign competitors and shielded from the need for modernization. Thus, the tiny independent producer's short-term interests were secured; nevertheless, it was unclear if this would affect his longer-term interests or the interests of the country as a whole.

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