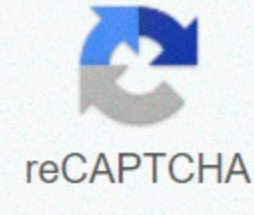




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Traité de versailles pdf

La Société de Nations était voulue par le président des Etats-Unis, Wilson. Il l'annexa aux traités de paix, car il voyait dans ce projet un moyen de résoudre pacifiquement les futures crises. Installée à Genève, la SDN repose sur trois institutions : - l'Assemblée générale où chaque pays dispose d'une voix ; - le Conseil de membres permanents (Etats-Unis, Royaume-Uni, France, Italie, Japon) et de membres non permanents, cherchant des solutions à l'occasion de graves crises internationales ; - un Secrétariat général, pour l'administration courante. La S.D.N. devait remplacer la diplomatie secrète, héritée du XIXe siècle, mais très vite cet organisme, porteur d'espoir montre ses faiblesses. Les membres fondateurs sont les nations victorieuses et excluent les pays vaincus. Très vite, la SDN souffre de l'absence de l'Allemagne et l'URSS, mais aussi des Etats-Unis, pourtant porteurs du projet mais qui contre toute attente refusent de ratifier le Traité de Versailles. Enfin, la S.D.N. manque de moyens pour faire respecter ses décisions. One of the treaties that ended World War I This article is about the Treaty of Versailles of 28 June 1919, at the end of World War I. For other uses, see Treaty of Versailles (disambiguation). Treaty of Versailles Long name: Treaty of Peace between the Allied and Associated Powers and Germany[n. 1] Cover of the English versionSigned28 June 1919[1]LocationHall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles, Paris, France[2]Effective10 January 1920[3]ConditionRatification by Germany and three Principal Allied Powers.[n. 2]Signatories Principal Allied and Associated Powers[n. 1] United States British Empire[n. 2] • United Kingdom • Canada • Australia • South Africa • New Zealand • India France Italy Japan Allied and Associated Powers[n. 1] Belgium Bolivia Brazil China Cuba Ecuador Greece Guatemala Haiti The Hedjaz Honduras Liberia Nicaragua Panama Peru Poland Portugal Romania The Serb-Croat-Slovene State Siam Czechoslovakia Uruguay Germany[n. 1] Paris Peace Conference League of Nations Covenant of the League of Nations Members Organisation Minority Treaties Little Treaty of Versailles Mandates Treaty of Versailles War guilt Reparations Role in the Weimar Republic's hyperinflation Dawes Plan Hague conference on reparations Young Plan Lausanne Conference Locarno Treaties Possible cause of World War II International Opium Convention Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine Treaty of Trianon Treaty of Trianon Treaty of Sévres Partition of the Ottoman Empire Conference of London (1920) San Remo conference Turkish National Movement Turkish War of Independence Treaty of Lausanne Others American Commission to Negotiate Peace Commission of Responsibilities The Inquiry vte Events leading to World War Versailles 1919Polish-Soviet War 1919Treaty of Trianon 1920Treaty of Rapallo 1920Franco-Polish alliance 1921March on Rome 1922Corfu incident 1923Occupation of the Ruhr 1923–1925Mein Kampf 1925Pacification of Libya 1923–1932Dawes Plan 1924Locarno Treaties 1925Young Plan 1929Japanese invasion of Manchuria 1931Pacification of Manchukuo 1931–1942January 28 Incident 1932World Disarmament Conference 1932–1934Defense of the Great Wall 1933Battle of Rehe 1933Nazis' rise to power in Germany 1933Tanggu Truce 1933Italo-Soviet Pact 1933Inner Mongolian Campaign 1933–1936German–Polish Non-Aggression Pact 1934Franco-Soviet Treaty of Mutual Assistance 1935Soviet–Czechoslovakia Treaty of Mutual Assistance 1935He–Umezu Agreement 1935Anglo-German Naval Agreement 1935December 9th MovementSecond Italo-Ethiopian War 1935–1936Remilitarization of the Rhineland 1936Spanish Civil War 1936–1939Italo-German "Axis" protocol 1936Anti-Comintern Pact 1936Suiyuan Campaign 1936Xi'an Incident 1936Second Sino-Japanese War 1937–1945USS Panay incident 1937Anschluss Mar. 1938May crisis May 1938Battle of Lake Khasan July–Aug. 1938Bled Agreement Aug. 1938Undeclared German-Czechoslovak War Sep. 1938Munich Agreement Sep. 1938First Vienna Award Nov. 1938German occupation of Czechoslovakia Mar. 1939Hungarian invasion of Carpatho-Ukraine Mar. 1939German ultimatum to Lithuania Mar. 1939Slovak–Hungarian War Mar. 1939Final offensive of the Spanish Civil War Mar.–Apr. 1939Danzig Crisis Mar.–Aug. 1939British guarantee to Poland Mar. 1939Italian invasion of Albania Apr. 1939Soviet–British–French Moscow negotiations Apr.–Aug. 1939Pact of Steel May 1939Battles of Khalkhin Gol May–Sep. 1939Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact Aug. 1939Invasion of Poland Sep. 1939 The Treaty of Versailles (French: Traité de Versailles; German: Versailler Vertrag, pronounced [vɛʁˈzɛː fɛʁˈtʁaːk] (listen)) was the most important of the peace treaties that brought World War I to an end. The Treaty ended the state of war between Germany and the Allied Powers. It was signed on 28 June 1919 in the Palace of Versailles, exactly five years after the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, which had directly led to the war. The other Central Powers on the German side signed separate treaties.[i] Although the armistice, signed on 11 November 1918, ended the actual fighting, it took six months of Allied negotiations at the Paris Peace Conference to conclude the peace treaty. The treaty was registered by the Secretariat of the League of Nations on 21 October 1919. Of the many provisions in the treaty, one of the most important and controversial required "Germany [to] accept the responsibility of Germany and her allies for causing all the loss and damage" during the war (the other members of the Central Powers signed treaties containing similar articles). This article, Article 231, later became known as the War Guilt clause. The treaty required Germany to disarm, make ample territorial concessions, and pay reparations to certain countries that had formed the Entente powers. In 1921 the total cost of these reparations was assessed at 132 billion gold marks (then \$31.4 billion or £6.6 billion, roughly equivalent to US\$442 billion or UK£284 billion in 2021). At the time economists, notably John Maynard Keynes (a British delegate to the Paris Peace Conference), predicted that the treaty was too harsh—a "Carthaginian peace"—and said the reparations figure was excessive and counter-productive, views that, since then, have been the subject of ongoing debate by historians and economists. On the other hand, prominent figures on the Allied side, such as French Marshal Ferdinand Foch, criticized the treaty for treating Germany too leniently. The result of these competing and sometimes conflicting goals among the victors was a compromise that left no one satisfied, and, in particular, Germany was neither pacified nor conciliated, nor was it permanently weakened. The problems that arose from the treaty would lead to the Locarno Treaties, which improved relations between Germany and the other European powers, and the re-negotiation of the reparation system resulting in the Dawes Plan, the Young Plan, and the indefinite postponement of reparations at the Lausanne Conference of 1932. The treaty has sometimes been cited as a cause of World War II: although its actual impact was not as severe as feared, its terms led to great resentment in Germany which powered the rise of the Nazi Party. Although it is often referred to as the "Versailles Conference", only the actual signing of the treaty took place at the historic palace. Most of the negotiations were in Paris, with the "Big Four" meetings taking place generally at the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs on the Quai d'Orsay. Background First World War Main article: World War I Play media Newsreel footage of the signing of the peace treaty at Versailles On 28 June 1914, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria, was assassinated by a Serbian nationalist.[4] This caused a rapidly escalating July Crisis resulting in Austria-Hungary declaring war on Serbia, followed quickly by the entry of most European powers into the First World War.[5] Two alliances faced off, the Central Powers (led by Germany) and the Triple Entente (led by Britain, France and Russia). Other countries entered as fighting raged widely across Europe, as well as the Middle East, Africa and Asia. In 1917, two revolutions occurred within the Russian Empire. The new Bolshevik government under Vladimir Lenin in March 1918 signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk that was highly favourable to Germany. Sensing victory before American armies could be ready, Germany now shifted forces to the Western Front and tried to overwhelm the Allies. It failed. Instead, the Allies won decisively on the battlefield and forced an armistice in November 1918 that resembled a surrender.[6] US entry and the Fourteen Points Main articles: American entry into World War I and Fourteen Points On 6 April 1917, the United States entered the war against the Central Powers. The motives were twofold: German submarine warfare against merchant ships trading with France and Britain, which led to the sinking of the RMS Lusitania and the loss of 128 American lives; and the interception of the German Zimmermann Telegram, urging Mexico to declare war against the United States.[7] The American war aim was to detach the war from nationalistic disputes and ambitions after the Bolshevik disclosure of secret treaties between the Allies. The existence of these treaties tended to discredit Allied claims that Germany was the sole power with aggressive ambitions.[8] On 8 January 1918, President Woodrow Wilson issued the nation's postwar goals, the Fourteen Points. It outlined a policy of free trade, open agreements, and democracy. While the term was not used self-determination was assumed. It called for a negotiated end to the war, international disarmament, the withdrawal of the Central Powers from occupied territories, the creation of a Polish state, the redrawing of Europe's borders along ethnic lines, and the formation of a League of Nations to guarantee the political independence and territorial integrity of all states.[9][n. 3] It called for a just and democratic peace uncompromised by territorial annexation. The Fourteen Points were based on the research of the Inquiry, a team of about 150 advisors led by foreign-policy advisor Edward M. House, into the topics likely to arise in the expected peace conference.[10] Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, 1918 Main article: Treaty of Brest-Litovsk The borders of Eastern Europe, as drawn up by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk After the Central Powers launched Operation Faustschlag on the Eastern Front, the new Soviet Government of Russia signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany on 3 March 1918.[11] This treaty ended the war between Russia and the Central powers and annexed 3,400,000 square kilometres (1,300,000 square miles) of territory and 62 million people.[12] This loss resulted in the loss of one third of the Russian population, around one third of the country's arable land, three-quarters of its coal and iron, one third of its factories (totalling 54 percent of the nation's industrial capacity), and one quarter of its railroads.[12][13] Armistice Main article: Armistice of 11 November 1918 During the autumn of 1918, the Central Powers began to collapse.[14] Desertion rates within the German army began to increase, and civilian strikes drastically reduced war production.[15][16] On the Western Front, the Allied forces launched the Hundred Days Offensive and decisively defeated the German western armies.[17] Sailors of the Imperial German Navy at Kiel mutinied, which prompted uprisings in Germany, which became known as the German Revolution.[18][19] The German government tried to obtain a peace settlement based on the Fourteen Points, and maintained it was on this basis that they surrendered. Following negotiations, the Allied powers and Germany signed an armistice, which came into effect on 11 November while German forces were still positioned in France and Belgium.[20][21][22] Occupation Main article: Occupation of the Rhineland The terms of the armistice called for an immediate evacuation of German troops from occupied Belgium, France, and Luxembourg within fifteen days.[23] In addition, it established that Allied forces would occupy the Rhineland. In late 1918, Allied troops entered Germany and began the occupation.[24] Blockade Main article: Blockade of Germany Both Germany and Great Britain were dependent on imports of food and raw materials, most of which had to be shipped across the Atlantic Ocean. The Blockade of Germany (1914–1919) was a naval operation conducted by the Allied Powers to stop the supply of raw materials and foodstuffs reaching the Central Powers. The German Kaiserliche Marine was mainly restricted to the German Bight and used commerce raiders and unrestricted submarine warfare for a counter-blockade. The German Board of Public Health in December 1918 stated that 763,000 German civilians had died during the Allied blockade, although an academic study in 1928 put the death toll at 424,000 people.[25] The blockade was maintained for eight months after the Armistice in November 1918, into the following year of 1919. Foodstuffs imports into Germany were controlled by the Allies after the Armistice with Germany until Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles in June 1919.[26] In March 1919, Churchill informed the House of Commons, that the ongoing blockade was a success and "Germany is very near starvation."[27] From January 1919 to March 1919, Germany refused to agree to Allied demands that Germany surrender its merchant ships to Allied ports to transport food supplies. Some Germans considered the armistice to be a temporary cessation of the war and knew, if fighting broke out again, their ships would be seized.[28] Over the winter of 1919, the situation became desperate and Germany finally agreed to surrender its fleet in March.[citation needed] The Allies then allowed for the import of 270,000 tons of foodstuffs.[29] Both German and non-German observers have argued that these were the most devastating months of the blockade for German civilians.[30] though disagreement persists as to the extent and who is truly at fault.[31][32][33][34][35] According to Dr. Max Rubner 100,000 German civilians died due to the continuation blockade after the armistice.[36] In the UK, Labour Party member and anti-war activist Robert Smillie issued a statement in June 1919 condemning continuation of the blockade, claiming 100,000 German civilians had died as a result.[37][38] Negotiations The heads of the "Big Four" nations at the Paris Peace Conference, 27 May 1919. From left to right: David Lloyd George, Vittorio Orlando, Georges Clemenceau, and Woodrow Wilson Talks between the Allies to establish a common negotiating position started on 18 January 1919, in the Salle de l'Horloge at the French Foreign Ministry on the Quai d'Orsay in Paris.[39] Initially, 70 delegates from 27 nations participated in the negotiations.[40] Russia was excluded due to their signing of a separate peace (the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk) and early withdrawal from the war. Furthermore, German negotiators were excluded to deny them an opportunity to divide the Allies diplomatically.[41] Initially, a "Council of Ten" (comprising two delegates each from Britain, France, the United States, Italy, and Japan) met officially to decide the peace terms. This council was replaced by the "Council of Five", formed from each country's foreign ministers, to discuss minor matters. French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau, Italian Prime Minister Vittorio Emanuele Orlando, British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, and United States President Woodrow Wilson formed the "Big Four" (at one point becoming the "Big Three" following the temporary withdrawal of Vittorio Emanuele Orlando). These four men met in 145 closed sessions to make all the major decisions, which were later ratified by the entire assembly. The minor powers attended a weekly "Plenary Conference" that discussed issues in a general forum but made no decisions. These members formed over 50 commissions that made various recommendations, many of which were incorporated into the final text of the treaty. [42][43][44] French aims France had lost 1.3 million soldiers, including 25% of French men aged 18–30, as well as 400,000 civilians. France had also been more physically damaged than any other nation (the so-called zone rouge (Red Zone); the most industrialized region and the source of most coal and iron ore in the north-east had been devastated and in the final days of the war mines had been flooded and railways, bridges and factories destroyed).[45] Clemenceau intended to ensure the security of France, by weakening Germany economically, militarily, territorially and by supplanting Germany as the leading producer of steel in Europe.[45][46][47] British economist and Versailles negotiator John Maynard Keynes summarized this position as attempting to "set the clock back and undo what, since 1870, the progress of Germany had accomplished."[48] Clemenceau told Wilson: "America is far away, protected by the ocean. Not even Napoleon himself could touch England. You are both sheltered; we are not".[49] The French wanted a frontier on the Rhine, to protect France from a German invasion and compensate for French demographic and economic inferiority.[50][51] American and British representatives refused the French claim and after two months of negotiations, the French accepted a British pledge to provide an immediate alliance with France if Germany attacked again, and Wilson agreed to put a similar proposal to the Senate. Clemenceau had told the Chamber of Deputies, in December 1918, that his goal was to maintain an alliance with both countries. Clemenceau accepted the offer, in return for an occupation of the Rhineland for fifteen years and that Germany would also demilitarise the Rhineland.[52] French negotiators required reparations, to make Germany pay for the destruction induced throughout the war and to decrease German strength.[45] The French also wanted the iron ore and coal of the Saar Valley, by annexation to France.[53] The French were willing to accept a smaller amount of reparations than the Americans would concede and Clemenceau was willing to discuss German capacity to pay with the German delegation, before the final settlement was drafted. In April and May 1919, the French and Germans held separate talks, on mutually acceptable arrangements on issues like reparation, reconstruction and industrial collaboration. France, along with the

Margaret (2001). Peacemakers. London: John Murray. ISBN 0-7195-5939-1. Also published as Macmillan, Margaret (2001), Paris 1919: Six Months That Changed the World. New York: Random House. ISBN 0-375-76052-0 – via Internet Archive. Parker, R.A.C (April 1956). "The First Capitulation: France and the Rhineland Crisis of 1936". World Politics. 8 (3): 355–373. doi:10.2307/2008855. JSTOR 2008855. Sharp, Alan (2011). Consequences of Peace: The Versailles Settlement: Aftermath and Legacy 1919–2010. Haus Publishing. ISBN 978-190579174-3. Sharp, Alan (2018). Versailles 1919: A Centennial Perspective. Haus Publishing. ISBN 978-191220809-8. Sharp, Alan (2018). The Versailles Settlement: Peacemaking After the First World War, 1919–1923 (Third ed.). Palgrave. ISBN 978-113761139-0. Webster, Andrew (2018). "Treaty of Versailles (1919)". In Martel, Gordon (ed.). The Encyclopedia of Diplomacy. 4. Wiley-Blackwell. pp. 1–15. ISBN 978-111888791-2. Wheeler-Bennett, Sir John (1972). The Wreck of Reparations, being the political background of the Lausanne Agreement, 1932. New York: H. Fertig. External links Wikimedia Commons has media related to Treaty of Versailles. Wikisource has original text related to this article: Treaty of Versailles Wikisource has original text related to this article: Treaty of Peace between Germany and the United States of America Documents relating to the Treaty from the Parliamentary Collections Treaty of Versailles Resource Guide from the Library of Congress Photographs of the document The consequences of the Treaty of Versailles for today's world Text of Protest by Germany and Acceptance of Fair Peace Treaty Woodrow Wilson Original Letters on Treaty of Versailles, Shapell Manuscript Foundation My 1919 – A film from the Chinese point of view, the only country that did not sign the treaty "Versailles Revisted" (Review of Manfred Boemeke, Gerald Feldman and Elisabeth Glaser, The Treaty of Versailles: A Reassessment after 75 Years. Cambridge, UK: German Historical Institute, Washington, and Cambridge University Press, 1998), Strategic Studies 9:2 (Spring 2000), 191–205 Map of Europe and the impact of the Versailles Treaty at omniatlas.com Retrieved from " traité de versailles date. traité de versailles 1783. traité de versailles 1919 pdf. traité de versailles définition. traité de versailles canada. traité de versailles texte. traité de versailles conséquences. traité de versailles allemagne

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