The Great War, 1914–1918

In 1914, a chain of events led European nations into World War I. Two great alliances faced off in the bloodiest conflict the world had ever seen. As the map to the right indicates, much of the fighting took place along two major fronts, in the East and the West. Use the map to answer the questions that follow.

1. What two alliances fought in the war?
2. Which countries remained neutral?
3. From the French point of view, what was significant about the Battle of the Marne?
4. Which alliance may have had the greater challenge, given the geography of the conflict? Why?

For more information about World War I . . .

This 1914 British poster was one of many used by the warring nations to recruit soldiers for battle. This poster inspired the 1917 United States recruiting poster captioned, “I Want You for the U.S. Army.” In that poster Uncle Sam strikes a similar pose.

1914 (June) Archduke Franz Ferdinand assassinated. (July) Austria declares war on Serbia; World War I begins.
Battle of Masurian Lakes, 1914
Battle of Tannenburg, 1914
Battle of Marne, 1914

North Sea
Black Sea
Dardanelles

Atlantic Ocean
Mediterranean Sea
Adriatic Sea
Baltic Sea

Rome
Athens
Sarajevo
Bucharest
Constantinople
Gallipoli

Paris
Verdun
Brussels
London

Berlin
Warsaw
Limanowa
Vienna

Madrid
London
Amsterdam

Malta
Constantinople

1915 (Jan.) Trench warfare under way on western front. (Feb.) Gallipoli campaign starts in Turkey.

1916 (Feb.) French and Germans begin battle at Verdun.

1917 (April) United States enters war.

1918 (Nov.) Allies defeat Central Powers; war ends.
Interact with History

It is the summer of 1914 in Europe and tensions are high. The continent has been divided into two rival camps. The countries in each camp have pledged to fight alongside one another in case of war. Suddenly the unthinkable happens. The leader of a country you are allied with is assassinated. The dead leader’s country blames a rival nation and declares war. The country calls on you to keep your word and join the war on its side.

As a member of your country’s government, you are called to an emergency meeting to discuss your nation’s response. On one hand, you have promised to support your ally. However, if you declare war, it probably will set off a chain reaction of war declarations throughout the two camps. As a result, all of Europe could find itself locked in a large, destructive war.

Would you support your ally?

The leader of an allied nation is murdered. His country declares war and asks for your support.

If all nations keep their pledges to go to war, it will force millions of Europeans to fight and die.

EXAMINING the ISSUES

- Should you always support a friend, no matter what he or she does?
- What might be the risks of refusing to help an ally?
- What might be the consequences of a war involving all of Europe?

As a class, discuss these questions. In your discussion, consider the various reasons why countries go to war.

As you read about World War I in this chapter, see how the nations reacted to this situation and what factors influenced their decisions.
The Great War

1

The Stage Is Set for War

SETTING THE STAGE At the turn of the 20th century, the nations of Europe had been at peace with one another for nearly 30 years. An entire generation had grown up ignorant of the horrors of war. Some Europeans believed that progress had made war a thing of the past. Yet in little more than a decade, a massive war would engulf Europe and spread across the globe.

An Uneasy Peace Grips Europe

Efforts to outlaw war and achieve a permanent peace had been gaining momentum in Europe since the middle of the 19th century. By 1900, hundreds of peace organizations were active. In addition, peace congresses convened regularly between 1843 and 1907. However, below this surface of peace and goodwill, several forces were at work that would help propel Europe into war.

The Steady Rise of Nationalism One such force was nationalism, or a deep devotion to one’s nation. Nationalism can serve as a unifying force within a country. However, it also can cause intense competition between nations, with each seeking to overpower the other. By the turn of the 20th century, a fierce rivalry indeed had developed among Europe’s Great Powers. Those nations were Germany, Austria-Hungary, Great Britain, Russia, Italy, and France.

This increasing rivalry among European nations stemmed from several sources. Competition for materials and markets was one. Great Britain, home of the Industrial Revolution, had long been Europe’s leader in industry, finance, and shipping. After 1850, however, other nations began to challenge Britain’s power. One such nation was Germany. Germany’s many new industries made its economy the fastest-growing one on the continent. As a result, Germany competed with Great Britain for industrial dominance.

Nationalistic rivalries also grew out of territorial disputes. France, for example, had never gotten over the loss of Alsace-Lorraine to Germany in the Franco-Prussian War (1870). Austria-Hungary and Russia both tried to dominate in the Balkans, a region in southeast Europe. Within the Balkans, the intense nationalism of Serbs, Bulgarians, Romanians, and other ethnic groups led to demands for independence.

Imperialism Another force that helped set the stage for war in Europe was imperialism. As Chapter 27 explained, the nations of Europe competed fiercely for colonies in Africa and Asia. The quest for colonies sometimes pushed European nations to the brink of war. In 1905 and again in 1911, Germany and France nearly fought over who would control Morocco, in northern Africa. With most of Europe supporting France, Germany eventually backed down. As European countries continued to compete for overseas empires, their sense of rivalry and mistrust of one another deepened.
The Growth of Militarism  Beginning in the 1890s, increasing nationalism led to a dangerous European arms race. The nations of Europe believed that to be truly great, they needed to have a powerful military. By 1914, all the Great Powers except Britain had large standing armies. In addition, military experts stressed the importance of being able to quickly mobilize, or organize and move troops in case of a war. Generals in each country developed highly detailed plans for such a mobilization.

The policy of glorifying military power and keeping an army prepared for war was known as militarism. Having a large and strong standing army made citizens feel patriotic. However, it also frightened some people. As early as 1895, Frédéric Passy, a peace activist and future Nobel Peace Prize winner, expressed a concern that many shared:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
The entire able-bodied population are preparing to massacre one another; though no one, it is true, wants to attack, and everybody protests his love of peace and determination to maintain it, yet the whole world feels that it only requires some unforeseen incident, some unpreventable accident, for the spark to fall in a flash . . . and blow all Europe sky-high.

FRÉDÉRIC PASSY, quoted in Nobel: The Man and His Prizes

Tangled Alliances
The growing international rivalries had led to the creation of several military alliances among the Great Powers as early as the 1870s. This alliance system had been designed to keep peace in Europe. But it would instead help push the continent into war.

Bismarck Forges Early Pacts  Between 1864 and 1871, Prussia’s blood-and-iron chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, freely used war to unify Germany. After 1871, however, Bismarck declared Germany to be a “satisfied power.” He then turned his energies to maintaining peace in Europe.

Bismarck saw France as the greatest threat to peace. He believed that France still wanted revenge for its defeat in the Franco-Prussian War. Bismarck’s first goal, therefore, was to isolate France. “As long as it is without allies,” Bismarck stressed, “France poses no danger to us.” In 1879, Bismarck formed the Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary. Three years later, Italy joined the two countries, forming theTriple Alliance. In 1887, Bismarck took yet another possible ally away from France by making a treaty with Russia.

Bismarck knew that his network of alliances was unstable. Two of Germany’s allies, Russia and Austria, were themselves bitter rivals for the Balkans. The slightest shift in diplomatic winds could blow apart the fragile web of treaties.

Shifting Alliances Threaten Peace  In 1890, Germany’s foreign policy changed dramatically. That year, Kaiser Wilhelm II—who two years earlier had become ruler of Germany—forced Bismarck to resign. A proud and stubborn man, Wilhelm II did not wish to share power with anyone. Besides wanting to assert his own power, the new Kaiser was eager to show the world just how mighty Germany had become. The army was his greatest pride. “I and the army were born for one another,” Wilhelm declared shortly after taking power.

Wilhelm set Germany on a new course. He let his nation’s treaty with Russia lapse in 1890. Russia responded by forming a defensive military alliance with France in 1892 and 1894. Such an alliance had been Bismarck’s fear. War with either Russia or France would
make Germany the enemy of both. Germany would then be forced to fight a two-front war, or a war on both its eastern and western borders.

Next, the impulsive Kaiser, envious of Britain’s large empire and mighty navy, decided to challenge Britain. During the 1890s, Germany built its own small colonial empire. At the same time, Wilhelm started a tremendous shipbuilding program in an effort to make the German navy equal to Britain’s.

Alarmed, Great Britain began to enlarge its own fleet. In 1904, Britain formed an entente, or alliance, with France. In 1907, Britain made another entente, this time with both France and Russia. The Triple Entente, as it was called, did not bind Britain to fight with France and Russia. However, it did almost certainly ensure that Britain would not fight against them.

By 1907, two rival camps existed in Europe. On one side was the Triple Alliance—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. On the other side was the Triple Entente—Great Britain, France, and Russia. A dispute between two rival powers could draw the entire continent into war.

**Europe on the Eve of World War I, 1914**

**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER:**
Interpreting Maps

1. **Region**
   - What countries made up the Balkans?

2. **Location**
   - Based on the map, which alliance might have an advantage if war erupted? Why?

**Crisis in the Balkans**

Nowhere was that dispute more likely to occur than on the Balkan Peninsula. This mountainous peninsula in the southeastern corner of Europe was home to an assortment of ethnic groups. With a long history of nationalist uprisings and ethnic clashes, the Balkans were known as the “powder keg” of Europe.

**Europe’s Powder Keg**

By the early 1900s, the Ottoman Empire—which included the Balkan region—was in rapid decline. While some Balkan groups struggled to free themselves from Ottoman rule, others already had succeeded in breaking away from their Turkish rulers. These peoples had formed new nations, including Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia.

Nationalism was a powerful force in these countries. Each group longed to extend its borders. Serbia, for example, had a large Slavic population. Serbia hoped to absorb all the Slavs on the Balkan Peninsula. On this issue of Serbian nationalism, Russia and Austria-Hungary were in direct conflict. Russia, itself a mostly Slavic nation, supported Serbian nationalism. Austria, which feared rebellion among its small Slavic population, felt threatened by Serbia’s growth. In addition, both Russia and Austria-Hungary had hoped to fill the power vacuum created by the Ottoman decline in the Balkans.

In 1908, Austria annexed, or took over, Bosnia and Herzegovina.

**The Armenian Massacre**

One group that suffered greatly for its independence efforts was the Armenians. By the 1880s, the roughly 2.5 million Christian Armenians in the Ottoman Empire had begun to demand their freedom. As a result, relations between the group and its Turkish rulers grew strained.

Throughout the 1890s, Turkish troops killed tens of thousands of Armenians. When World War I erupted in 1914, the Armenians pledged their support to the Turks’ enemies. In response, the Turkish government deported nearly 2 million Armenians. Along the way, more than 600,000 died of starvation or were killed by Turkish soldiers.
These were two Balkan areas with large Slavic populations. Serbian leaders, who had sought to rule these provinces, were outraged. The possibility of war arose. Russia offered Serbia full support, but the offer meant little. Russia was totally unprepared for war. When Germany stood firmly behind Austria, Russia and Serbia had to back down. By 1914, tensions in the Balkan region were once again on the rise. Serbia had emerged victorious from several local conflicts. As a result, the nation had gained additional territory and a new confidence. It was more eager than ever to take Bosnia and Herzegovina away from Austria. In response, Austria-Hungary vowed to crush any Serbian effort to undermine its authority in the Balkans.

A Shot Rings Throughout Europe

Into this poisoned atmosphere of mutual dislike and mistrust stepped the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his wife, Sophie. On June 28, 1914, the couple paid a state visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. It was to be their last. The royal pair were shot at point-blank range as they rode through the streets of Sarajevo in an open car. The killer was Gavrilo Princip, a 19-year-old member of the Black Hand. The Black Hand was a secret society committed to ridding Bosnia of Austrian rule.

Because the assassin was a Serbian, Austria decided to use the murders as an excuse to punish Serbia. An angry Kaiser Wilhelm II urged Austria to be aggressive, and he offered Germany's unconditional support. In effect this gave Austria license to do what it wanted with Serbia. On July 23, Austria presented Serbia with an ultimatum. An ultimatum is a list of demands that if not met, will lead to serious consequences. The ultimatum was deliberately harsh. Demands included an end to all anti-Austrian activity. In addition, Serbian leaders would have to allow Austrian officials into their country to conduct an investigation into the assassinations. Serbia knew that refusing the ultimatum would lead to war against the more powerful Austria. Therefore, Serbian leaders agreed to most of Austria's demands. They offered to have several others settled by an international conference.

Austria, however, was in no mood to negotiate. The nation's leaders, it seemed, had already settled on war. On July 28, Austria rejected Serbia's offer and declared war. That same day, Serbia's ally, Russia, took action. Russian leaders ordered the mobilization of troops toward the Austrian border.

Leaders all over Europe suddenly took alarm. The fragile European stability seemed about to collapse. The British foreign minister, the Italian government, and even Kaiser Wilhelm himself urged Austria and Russia to negotiate. But it was too late. The machinery of war had been set in motion.

1. TERMS & NAMES
   Identify
   • militarism
   • Triple Alliance
   • Kaiser Wilhelm II
   • Triple Entente

2. TAKING NOTES
   Create a time line of major events that led to World War I.

   event one
   event two
   event three
   event four

   Write the lead paragraph of a news story about one event.

3. ANALYZING ISSUES
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   • keeping Russia as an ally
   • peace in Europe

CONNECT to TODAY

The War in Bosnia

Intense nationalism in the Balkans led to bloodshed once again in the 1990s. Beginning in 1991, the different ethnic groups living in the country of Yugoslavia declared their independence. As the Yugoslavian republics of Slovenia, Croatia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina all broke away, the country dissolved into civil war. Serbia—Yugoslavia's largest and most influential republic—fought the independence efforts of other groups.

Eventually, the war took a terrible turn—particularly in Bosnia. With the support of the Serbian republic, Serbs living in Bosnia began a murderous campaign of "ethnic cleansing" to rid Bosnia of its non-Serb peoples. Although a United Nations-enforced agreement ended the fighting in 1996, anger and ethnic hatreds still simmer.

Chapter 29

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   • peace in Europe
The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand on June 28, 1914, was the spark that ignited a giant blaze. This single terrorist act set off a chain reaction within the alliance system that would result in the largest war Europe—and the world—had ever seen.

The Alliance System Collapses

By 1914, Europe was divided into two rival camps. One alliance, the Triple Entente, included Great Britain, France, and Russia. The other, known as the Triple Alliance, included Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.

Austria-Hungary’s declaration of war against Serbia set off a chain reaction within the alliance system. The countries of Europe followed through on their numerous and complex pledges to support one another. As a result, nearly all the nations of Europe soon were drawn into the war.

A Chain Reaction

In response to Austria’s declaration of war, Russia, Serbia’s ally, began moving its army toward the Russian-Austrian border. Expecting Germany to join Austria, Russia also mobilized along the German border. Czar Nicholas II of Russia told the Kaiser that the maneuvers were just a precaution. Yet to Germany, Russia’s mobilization amounted to a declaration of war. On August 1, the German government declared war on Russia.

Russia looked to its ally France for help. Germany, however, did not even wait for France to react. Two days after declaring war on Russia, Germany also declared war on France. Much of Europe was now locked in battle.

The Schlieffen Plan

Germany quickly put its military plan into effect. The plan was named after its designer, General Alfred Graf von Schlieffen (SHLEE•fuhn). In the event of a two-front war, Schlieffen had called for attacking France and then Russia. The general had reasoned that Russia—with its lack of railroads—would have difficulty mobilizing its troops. Under the Schlieffen Plan, a large part of the German army would race west, to defeat France, and then return to fight Russia in the east.

Speed was vital to the German plan. The French had troops all along their border with Germany. Thus, the Germans knew that breaking through would be slow work. There was another route, however: France’s northern border with Belgium was unprotected.

Germany demanded that its troops be allowed to pass through Belgium on their way to France. Belgium, a neutral country, refused. Germany then invaded Belgium. This brought Great Britain into the conflict. The British had close

**terms & names**

- Schlieffen Plan
- Central Powers
- Allies
- Western Front
- trench warfare
- Eastern Front

**main idea**

One European nation after another was drawn into a large and industrialized war that resulted in many casualties.

**why it matters now**

Much of the technology of modern warfare, such as fighter planes and tanks, was introduced in World War I.
ties with Belgium, one of their nearest neighbors on the continent. Outraged over the violation of Belgian neutrality, Britain declared war on Germany on August 4.

**European Nations Take Sides** By mid-August 1914, the battle lines were clearly drawn. On one side were Germany and Austria-Hungary. They were known as the **Central Powers**, because of their location in the heart of Europe. Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire would later join the Central Powers in the hopes of regaining lost territories.

On the other side were Great Britain, France, and Russia. Together, they were known as the **Allies**, Japan joined the Allies within weeks. Italy, which at first was neutral, joined the Allies nine months into the war. Italy claimed that its membership in the Triple Alliance had been a defensive strategy. The Italians felt that the Germans had made an unprovoked attack on Belgium. Therefore, the Italians argued, they were not obligated to stand by their old ally.

In the late summer of 1914, millions of soldiers marched happily off to battle, convinced that the war would be short. Only a few people foresaw the horror ahead. One of them was Britain's foreign minister, Sir Edward Grey. Staring out over London at nightfall, Grey said sadly to a friend, “The lamps are going out all over Europe. We shall not see them lit again in our lifetime.”

**A Bloody Stalemate Along the Western Front**

It did not take long for Sir Edward Grey's prediction to ring true. As the summer of 1914 turned to fall, Germany's lightning-quick strike instead turned into a long and bloody stalemate, or deadlock, along the battlefields of France. This deadlocked region in northern France became known as the **Western Front**.
The Conflict Grinds to a Halt Early on, Germany’s Schlieffen Plan worked brilliantly. By the end of August, the Germans had overrun Belgium and swept into France. By September 3, German units were on the edge of Paris. A major German victory appeared just days away. The French military then came into possession of intelligence that told them the exact direction the German army was about to take. On September 5, the Allies attacked the Germans northeast of Paris, in the valley of the Marne River. Every available soldier was hurled into the struggle. When reinforcements were needed, more than 600 taxicabs rushed soldiers from Paris to the front. After four days of fighting, the German generals gave the order to retreat. “It was an inspiring thought,” a British officer later wrote, “that the time had now come to chase the German.” By September 13, the Germans had been driven back nearly 60 miles.

Although it was only the first major clash on the Western Front, the First Battle of the Marne was perhaps the single most important event of the war. The defeat of the Germans left the Schlieffen Plan in ruins. A quick victory in the west no longer seemed possible. In the east, Russian forces had already invaded Germany. Germany was going to have to fight a long war on two fronts. Realizing this, the German high command sent thousands of troops from France to aid its forces in the east. Meanwhile, the war on the Western Front settled into a stalemate.

War in the Trenches By early 1915, opposing armies on the Western Front had dug miles of parallel trenches to protect themselves from enemy fire. This set the stage for what became known as trench warfare. In this type of warfare, soldiers fought each other from trenches. And armies traded huge losses for pitifully small land gains.

Life in the trenches was pure misery. “The men slept in mud, washed in mud, ate mud, and dreamed mud,” wrote one soldier. The trenches swarmed with rats. Fresh food was nonexistent. Sleep was nearly impossible.

The space between the opposing trenches won the grim name “no man’s land.” When the officers ordered an attack, their men went “over the top” of their trenches into this bombed-out landscape. There, they usually met murderous rounds of machine-gun fire. Staying put in the trench, however, did not ensure one’s safety. Artillery fire brought death right into the trenches. “Shells of all calibers kept raining on our sector,” wrote one French soldier. “The trenches disappeared, filled with earth...
. . . the air was unbreathable. Our blinded, wounded, crawling, and shouting soldiers kept falling on top of us and died splashing us with blood. It was living hell.”

The Western Front had become a “terrain of death.” It stretched nearly 500 miles from the North Sea to the Swiss border. A British officer described it in a letter:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

Imagine a broad belt, ten miles or so in width, stretching from the Channel to the German frontier near Basle, which is positively littered with the bodies of men and scarified with their rude graves; in which farms, villages and cottages are shapeless heaps of blackened masonry; in which fields, roads and trees are pitted and torn and twisted by shells and disfigured by dead horses, cattle, sheep and goats, scattered in every attitude of repulsive distortion and dismemberment.

*VALENTINE FLEMING,* quoted in *The First World War*

Military strategists were at a loss. New tools of war—machine guns, poison gas, armored tanks, larger artillery—had not delivered the fast-moving war they had expected. All this new technology did was kill huge numbers of people more effectively.

The slaughter reached a peak in 1916. In February, the Germans launched a massive attack against the French near Verdun. Each side lost more than 300,000 men.

In July of 1916, the British army tried to relieve the pressure on the French. British forces attacked the Germans northwest of Verdun, in the valley of the Somme River. In the first day of battle alone, more than 20,000 British soldiers were killed. By the time the Battle of the Somme ended in November, each side had suffered over half a million casualties.

What did the warring sides gain? Near Verdun, the Germans advanced about four miles. In the Somme valley, the British gained about five miles.

**The Battle on the Eastern Front**

Even as the war on the Western Front claimed thousands of lives, both sides were sending millions more men to fight on the Eastern Front. This area was a stretch of battlefield along the German and Russian border. Here, Russians and Serbs battled Germans, Austrians, and Turks. The war in the east was a more mobile war than that in the west. Here too, however, slaughter and stalemate were common.

**Central Powers Gain the Advantage** At the very beginning of the war, Russian forces had launched an attack into both Austria and Germany. At the end of August 1914, Germany counterattacked near the town of Tannenberg. During the four-day battle that followed, the Germans crushed the invading Russian army and drove it into full retreat. Germany regained East Prussia and seized numerous guns and horses from the enemy. More than 30,000 Russian soldiers were killed.
Russia fared somewhat better against the Austrians. Russian forces defeated the Austrians twice in September 1914, driving them deep into Austria. Not until December of that year did the Austrian army—with German assistance—manage to turn the tide. In a 17-day battle near Limanowa, Austria defeated the Russians and drove them eastward. Two weeks later, the Austrian army pushed the Russians out of Austria-Hungary.

**Russia’s War Effort Weakens**

By 1916, Russia’s war effort was near collapse. Unlike the nations of western Europe, Russia had yet to become industrialized. As a result, the Russian army was continually short on food, guns, ammunition, clothes, boots, and blankets. Moreover, the Allies were unable to ship supplies to Russia’s ports. In the north, a German naval fleet blocked the Baltic Sea. In the south, the Ottomans still controlled the straits leading from the Mediterranean to the Black Sea.

The Russian army had only one asset—its numbers. Throughout the war the Russian army suffered enormous battlefield losses. More than 2 million Russian soldiers were killed, wounded, or captured in 1915 alone. And yet the army continually rebuilt its ranks from the country’s enormous population. For more than three years, the battered Russian army managed to tie up hundreds of thousands of German troops in the east. Thus, Germany could not hurl its full fighting force at the west.

Germany and her allies, however, were concerned with more than just the Eastern or Western Fronts. As the war raged on, fighting spread beyond Europe to Africa, as well as to Southwest and Southeast Asia. In the years after it began, the massive European conflict indeed became a world war.
Aviation

World War I introduced plane warfare. And with it came daring dogfights and legendary pilots. Two such pilots were America’s Eddie Rickenbacker and Germany’s Baron Manfred von Richthofen, better known as the Red Baron. In a larger sense, however, the war ushered in an era of great progress in the field of aviation. In the warring nations’ quest to dominate the skies, they produced thousands of planes and continually worked to improve engine designs. After the war, these nations converted their war planes to commercial use. They also began designing larger, stronger planes for civilian transport. The age of air travel had begun.

By 1926, passenger airlines were operating in Europe, Africa, Australia, and North and South America. Built in 1928, the Ford Tri-motor model, shown below, was one of the better-known American passenger planes of the time.

Designers of the early passenger planes made sure to devote plenty of space for luggage.

The three-motor system gave the plane greater power. It became the prototype for many later models.

Clarifying
What role did World War I play in the advancement of aviation technology?
SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R3

Investigating
Find out about any one of today’s more advanced aircraft, such as the Concorde, or the latest military jet or commercial airplane. Write a brief report about the craft’s most advanced and interesting features. Present your report to the class.

Connect to History

The Tri-motor carried about 10 passengers. Temperature control, however, was still many years away. Passengers often bundled up in coats to keep warm.

> Annual Ridership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Riders (in billions)</th>
<th>1950</th>
<th>1960</th>
<th>1990</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 million*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 million*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.25 billion*</td>
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*estimated
Source: The World Book Encyclopedia

On the eve of World War I, planes were still considered a novelty. Here, an early plane races an automobile at a track in Columbus, Ohio, in 1914. The finish was so close that no one knew who won.
SETTING THE STAGE  By early 1915, it was apparent to all the warring nations that swift victory had eluded them. As war on both European fronts promised to be a grim, drawn-out affair, all the Great Powers looked for new allies to tip the balance. They also sought new war fronts on which to achieve victory.

A Truly Global Conflict  Geographical widening of the war actually had begun soon after the conflict started. Japan entered the war on the Allies’ side. The Ottoman Turks and later Bulgaria allied themselves with Germany and the Central Powers. That widened the conflict further. By early 1915, the only major neutral power left besides the United States was Italy. And Italy joined the Allies in April. None of these alliances gave an advantage to either side. But they did give military leaders more war zones in which to try to secure victory.

Fighting Rages Beyond Europe  As the war dragged on, the Allies desperately searched for a way to end the stalemate. A promising strategy seemed to be to attack a region in the Ottoman Empire known as the Dardanelles. This narrow sea strait was the gateway to the Ottoman capital, Constantinople. By securing the Dardanelles, the Allies believed that they could take Constantinople, defeat the Turks, and establish a supply line to Russia. They might even be able to mount an offensive into the Austrian heartland by way of the Danube River.

The effort to take the Dardanelles strait began in February 1915. It was known as the Gallipoli campaign. British, Australian, New Zealand, and French troops made repeated assaults on the Gallipoli Peninsula on the western side of the strait. Turkish troops, some commanded by German officers, vigorously defended the region. By May, Gallipoli had turned into another bloody stalemate. Both sides dug trenches, from which they battled for the rest of the year. In December, the Allies gave up the campaign and began to evacuate. They had suffered about 250,000 casualties.

Despite the Allies’ failure at Gallipoli, they remained determined to topple the Ottoman Empire. In Southwest Asia, the British helped Arab nationalists rise up against their Turkish rulers. Particularly devoted to the Arab cause was a British soldier named T. E. Lawrence. Better known as Lawrence of Arabia, he helped lead daring guerrilla raids against the Turks. With the help of the Arabs, Allied armies took control of Baghdad, Jerusalem, and Damascus.

In various parts of Asia and Africa, Germany’s colonial possessions came under assault. The Japanese quickly overran German outposts in China. They also captured Germany’s Pacific island colonies.

Background  Although the Ottoman Empire had greatly declined by World War I, it still ruled Arab lands in Southwest Asia.
English and French troops attacked Germany’s four African possessions. They seized control of three.

Elsewhere in Asia and Africa, the British and French recruited subjects in their colonies for the struggle. Fighting troops as well as laborers came from India, South Africa, Senegal, Egypt, Algeria, and Indochina. Many fought and died on the battlefield. Others worked to keep the frontlines supplied. Some colonial subjects wanted nothing to do with their European rulers’ conflicts. Others volunteered in the hope that service would lead to their independence. This was the view of Indian political leader Mohandas Gandhi, who supported Indian participation in the war. “If we would improve our status through the help and cooperation of the British,” he wrote, “it was our duty to win their help by standing by them in their hour of need.”

**The United States Enters the War** In 1917, the focus of the war shifted to the high seas. That year, the Germans intensified the submarine warfare that had raged in the Atlantic Ocean since shortly after the war began. By 1917, failed crops, as well as a British naval blockade, caused severe food shortages in Germany. Desperate to strike back, Germany decided to establish its own naval blockade around Britain. In January 1917, the Germans announced that their submarines would sink without warning any ship in the waters around Britain. This policy was called **unrestricted submarine warfare**.

The Germans had tried this policy before. On May 7, 1915, a German submarine, or U-boat, had sunk the British passenger ship *Lusitania*. The attack left 1,198 people dead, including 128 U.S. citizens. Germany claimed that the ship had been carrying ammunition—which turned out to be true. Nevertheless, the American public was outraged.

President Woodrow Wilson sent a strong protest to Germany. After two further attacks, the Germans finally agreed to stop attacking neutral and passenger ships.

However, the Germans returned to unrestricted submarine warfare in 1917. They knew it might lead to war with the United States. They gambled that their naval
blockade would starve Britain into defeat before the United States could mobilize. Ignoring warnings by President Wilson, German U-boats sank three American ships.

In February 1917, another German action pushed the United States closer to war. The British intercepted a telegram from Germany’s foreign secretary, Arthur Zimmermann, to the German ambassador in Mexico. The message said that Germany would help Mexico “reconquer” the land it had lost to the United States if Mexico would ally itself with Germany. The British decoded the message and gave it to the U.S. government.

When the Zimmermann note was made public, Americans called for war against Germany. Even before news of the note, many Americans had sided with the Allies. A large part of the American population felt a bond with England. The two nations shared a common ancestry and language, as well as similar democratic institutions and legal systems. In addition, reports—some true and others not—of German war atrocities stirred anti-German sentiment in the United States. More important, America’s economic ties with the Allies were far stronger than those with the Central Powers. America traded with Great Britain and France more than twice as much as with Germany. The Zimmermann note simply proved to be the last straw. On April 2, 1917, President Wilson asked Congress to declare war. The United States entered the war on the side of the Allies.

War Affects the Home Front

By the time the United States joined the Allies, the war had been going on for nearly three years. In those three years, Europe had lost more men in battle than in all the wars of the previous three centuries. The war had claimed the lives of millions and had changed countless lives forever. The Great War, as the conflict came to be known, affected everyone. It touched not only the soldiers in the trenches, but civilians as well. It affected not just military institutions, but also political, economic, and social institutions.

Governments Wage Total War  World War I soon became a total war. This meant that countries devoted all their resources to the war effort. In Britain, Germany, Austria, Russia, and France, the entire force of government was dedicated to winning the conflict.

In each country, the wartime government took control of the economy. Governments told factories what to produce and how much. Numerous facilities were converted to munitions factories. Nearly every able-bodied civilian was put to work. Unemployment in many European countries nearly disappeared. European governments even enlisted the help of foreign workers. For example, thousands of civilians were deported from German-occupied Belgium and France to work in Germany as farm and factory laborers. Britain and France recruited Chinese, West Indian, Algerian, and Egyptian laborers to work behind their lines at the front.

So many goods were in short supply that governments turned to rationing. Under this system, people could buy only small amounts of those items that were also needed for the war effort. Eventually, rationing covered a wide range of goods, from butter to shoe leather.

Governments also suppressed antwar activity—sometimes forcibly. In addition, they censored news about the war. Many leaders feared...
that honest reporting of the war would turn people against it. Governments also used propaganda—one-sided information designed to persuade—to keep up morale and support for the war. One of the main instruments of propaganda was the war poster. In nations throughout Europe, striking, colorful posters urged support for the war by painting the enemy as monsters and allies as heroes. (See poster on page 747.)

The War’s Impact on Women Total war meant that governments turned to help from women as never before. Thousands of women replaced men in factories, offices, and shops. Women built tanks and munitions, plowed fields, paved streets, and ran hospitals. They also kept troops supplied with food, clothing, and weapons. Although most women left the work force when the war ended, they changed many people’s views of what women were capable of doing.

The Allies Win the War

With the United States finally in the war, the balance, it seemed, was about to tip in the Allies’ favor. Before that happened, however, events in Russia gave Germany a victory on the Eastern Front.

Russia Withdraws from the War By March 1917, civil unrest in Russia—due in part to war-related shortages of food and fuel—had brought the czar’s government to the brink of collapse. Czar Nicholas, faced with the prospect of revolution, abdicated his throne on March 15. In his place a provisional government was established. The new government pledged to continue fighting the war. However, by 1917, nearly 5.5 million Russian soldiers had been wounded, killed, or taken prisoner. The war-weary Russian army refused to fight any longer.

Eight months later, a second revolution shook Russia (see Chapter 30). In November 1917, Communist leader Vladimir Ilyich Lenin seized power. Lenin insisted on ending his country’s involvement in the war. One of his first acts was to offer Germany a truce. In March 1918, Germany and Russia signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, which ended the war between them.

The treaty was extremely hard on Russia. It required the Russian government to surrender lands to Germany that now include Finland, Poland, Ukraine, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. (See map on page 762.) Even though the treaty became invalid after the war, these nations still gained their independence.

A Failed Final Push Russia’s withdrawal from the war at last allowed Germany to send nearly all its forces to the Western Front. In March 1918, the Germans mounted one final, massive attack on the Allies in France. More than 6,000 German cannons opened the offensive with the largest artillery attack of the entire war.

As in the opening weeks of the war, the German forces crushed everything in their path. By late May 1918, the Germans had again reached the Marne River. Paris was less than 40 miles away. Victory seemed within reach.

By this time, however, the German military had weakened. The effort to reach the Marne had exhausted men and supplies alike. Sensing this weakness, the Allies—with the aid of nearly 140,000 fresh American troops—launched a counterattack. Marshal Ferdinand Foch, the French commander of the Allied forces, used Americans to fill the gaps in his ranks. The U.S. soldiers were inexperienced but courageous and eager to...
fight. A British nurse, Vera Brittain, later recalled her joy in seeing the American reinforcements:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

They were swinging rapidly toward Camiers, and though the sight of soldiers marching was now too familiar to arouse curiosity, an unusual quality of bold vigor in their swift stride caused me to stare at them with puzzled interest. They looked larger than ordinary men; their tall, straight figures were in vivid contrast to the undersized armies of pale recruits to which we had grown accustomed. . . . Then I heard an excited exclamation from a group of Sisters behind me. “Look! Look! Here are the Americans!”

VERA BRITTAIN, Testament of Youth

In July 1918, the Allies and Germans clashed at the Second Battle of the Marne. Leading the Allied attack were some 350 tanks that rumbled slowly forward, smashing through the German lines. With the arrival of 2 million more American troops, the Allied forces began to advance steadily toward Germany.

Soon, the Central Powers began to crumble. First the Bulgarians and then the Ottoman Turks surrendered. In October, a revolution in Austria-Hungary brought that empire to an end. In Germany, soldiers mutinied, and the public turned on the Kaiser.

On November 9, 1918, Kaiser Wilhelm II was forced to step down. Germany declared itself a republic. A representative of the new German government met with Marshal Foch. In a railway car in a forest near Paris, the two signed an **armistice**, or an agreement to stop fighting. On November 11, World War I came to an end.

After four years of slaughter and destruction, the time had come to forge a peace settlement. Leaders of the victorious nations gathered outside Paris to work out the terms of peace. While these leaders had come with high hopes, the peace settlement they crafted left many feeling bitter and betrayed.

**Section 3 Assessment**

1. **TERMS & NAMES**
   - Identify
   - *unrestricted submarine warfare*
   - *total war*
   - *rationing*
   - *propaganda*
   - *armistice*

2. **TAKING NOTES**
   - Using a chart like the one below, list the reasons why the United States entered World War I.

   **Reasons for U.S. Entry**

   1. 
   2. 
   3. 
   4.

3. **ANALYZING ISSUES**
   - In what ways was World War I truly a global conflict?

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - where the war was fought
   - who participated in the war effort

4. **ANALYZING THEMES**
   - **Economics**
     How did the concept of total war affect the warring nations’ economies?

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - the governments’ new role in their economies
   - the scarcity of food and other products
   - the role of women
   - unemployment rates during the war years
Honoring War Heroes

Throughout history, people around the world have shared in a somber, healing ritual: honoring their country’s soldiers killed in battle. In many nations, people come together to honor those citizens who have fought and died for their country. After World War I, France built a ceremonial grave to honor all of its soldiers killed in the great conflict. From early times to today, other nations have paid their respects to their dead soldiers with medals, monuments, and parades.

Tomb of the Unknown Soldier
A woman pays her quiet respects at the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier in Paris. On top of the memorial rests an eternal flame in honor of France’s dead soldiers. Each year on Armistice Day, the president of France lays a wreath at the site. Following World War I, similar memorials to unknown dead soldiers were created in the United States, Great Britain, Belgium, and Italy.
The Wall
A man pays tribute at the Vietnam Veterans Memorial in Washington, D.C. The monument, known as the Wall, is a memorial to the men and women who fought and died in the Vietnam War in the 1960s and 1970s. The monument consists of two adjoining black granite walls inscribed with the names of all Americans who either died in the war or were listed as missing in action.

“The People’s Heroes”
This monument is a tribute to the Chinese armed forces, officially known as the People’s Liberation Army. The monument, which sits in Beijing, is called the Memorial to the People’s Heroes. It is a tribute to the soldiers, past and present, who have taken part in the struggle to forge a Communist China, which began around 1946.

Trajan’s Column
The Romans relied greatly on their powerful military to oversee a huge empire. Consequently, they glorified war and soldiers with numerous statues and monuments. Shown here is a detail from Trajan’s Column, in Rome. The 100-foot-high column was dedicated in A.D. 113 to the emperor Trajan after he conquered Dacia. The column is a continuous spiral carving of soldiers and battle scenes.

Great Britain built its own Tomb of the Unknown Warrior in London to honor those who lost their lives in World War I.
Setting the Stage

World War I was over. The killing had stopped. The terms of peace, however, still had to be worked out. On January 18, 1919, a conference to establish those terms began at the Palace of Versailles, outside Paris. For one year this conference would be the scene of vigorous, often bitter debate. The Allied powers struggled to solve their conflicting aims in various peace treaties.

The Allies Meet at Versailles

Attending the talks, known as the Paris Peace Conference, were delegates representing 32 countries. However, the meeting's major decisions were hammered out by a group known as the Big Four: Woodrow Wilson of the United States, Georges Clemenceau of France, David Lloyd George of Great Britain, and Vittorio Orlando of Italy. Russia, in the grip of civil war, was not represented. Neither were Germany and its allies.

Wilson's Plan for Peace

In January 1918, while the war was still raging, President Wilson had drawn up a series of proposals. Known as the Fourteen Points, they outlined a plan for achieving a just and lasting peace. The first five points included an end to secret treaties, freedom of the seas, free trade, and reduced national armies and navies. The fifth goal was the adjustment of colonial claims with fairness toward colonial peoples. The sixth through thirteenth points were specific suggestions for changing borders and creating new nations. The guiding idea behind these points was self-determination. This meant allowing people to decide for themselves under what government they wished to live. Finally, the fourteenth point proposed a “general association of nations” that would protect “great and small states alike.” This reflected Wilson's hope for an organization that could peacefully negotiate solutions to world conflicts.

Main Idea

After winning the war, the Allies dictated a harsh peace settlement that left many nations feeling betrayed.

Why It Matters Now

Hard feelings left by the peace settlement helped cause World War II.

Terms & Names

- Woodrow Wilson
- Georges Clemenceau
- David Lloyd George
- Fourteen Points
- self-determination
- Treaty of Versailles
- League of Nations

HISTORY MAKERS

Georges Clemenceau (1841–1929) and Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924)

The most hostile relationship at the Paris Peace Conference was that between two allies: Wilson and Clemenceau. These two highly intelligent and committed leaders brought very different visions of peace to the negotiating table. Woodrow Wilson was the son of a Presbyterian minister. He had been a history scholar, professor, and president of Princeton University before becoming president. A morally upright man, he was guided by a deep inner religious faith.

Clemenceau, by contrast, had been a physician, journalist, and sometime playwright before becoming premier of France. In Paris, the two men clashed. Wilson’s idealism, as embodied in the Fourteen Points, stood in stark contrast to Clemenceau’s desire to punish Germany.

The stubborn personalities of the two men made reaching agreement even harder. Lloyd George of Britain summed it up nicely when he was asked how he did at the Paris Peace Conference. “Not badly,” he replied, “considering I was seated between Jesus Christ and Napoleon.”

Think Through History

A. Summarizing

What were Wilson’s general goals for the postwar world?
The Allies Dictate a Harsh Peace  As the Paris Peace Conference opened, Britain and France showed little sign of agreeing to Wilson’s vision of peace. Both nations were concerned with national security. They also wanted to strip Germany of its war-making power. The French, in particular, were determined to punish Germany. France was where much of the fighting had occurred. The nation had lost more than a million soldiers and had seen large amounts of its land destroyed. Clemenceau wanted Germany to pay for the suffering the war had caused.

The differences between French, British, and U.S. aims led to heated arguments among the nations’ leaders. Finally a compromise was reached. The Treaty of Versailles between Germany and the Allied powers was signed on June 28, 1919—five years to the day after Franz Ferdinand’s assassination in Sarajevo.

Adopting Wilson’s fourteenth point, the treaty created a League of Nations. The league was to be an international association whose goal would be to keep peace among nations. The five Allied powers—the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan—were to be permanent members of the league’s Executive Council. Its General Assembly would consist of representatives of 32 Allied and neutral nations. Germany was deliberately excluded. Also left out was Russia. Russia’s early withdrawal from the war and its revolutionary leadership had made it an outcast in the eyes of the other Allies.

The treaty also punished Germany. The defeated nation lost substantial territory and had severe restrictions placed on its military operations. As punishing as these provisions were, the harshest was Article 231. It was also known as the “war guilt” clause. It placed sole responsibility for the war on Germany’s shoulders. As a result, Germany had to pay reparations to the Allies.

All of Germany’s territories in Africa and the Pacific were declared mandates, or territories to be administered by the League of Nations. Under the peace agreement, the Allies would govern the mandates until they were judged ready for independence.

The Creation of New Nations  The Versailles treaty with Germany was just one of five treaties negotiated by the Allies. The Western powers signed separate peace treaties in 1919 and 1920 with each of the other defeated nations: Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire.

These treaties, too, led to huge land losses for the Central Powers. Several new countries were created out of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia were all recognized as independent nations.
Europe Before World War I

Europe After World War I

**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps**

1. **Region** Which Central Powers nation appears to have lost the most territory?
2. **Location** On which nation’s former lands were most of the new countries created?

The Ottoman Turks were forced to give up almost all of their former empire. They retained only the territory that is today the country of Turkey. The Allies carved up the lands that the Ottomans lost in Southwest Asia into mandates rather than independent nations. Palestine, Iraq, and Transjordan came under British control; Syria and Lebanon went to France.

Russia, alienated by the Allies, suffered land losses as well. Romania and Poland both gained Russian territory. Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, formerly part of Russia, became independent nations.

“A Peace Built on Quicksand” In the end, the Treaty of Versailles did little to build a lasting peace. For one thing, the United States—considered after the war to be the dominant nation in the world—ultimately rejected the treaty. Many Americans objected to the settlement and especially to President Wilson’s League of Nations. Americans believed that the United States’ best hope for peace was to stay out of European affairs. The United States worked out a separate treaty with Germany and its allies several years later.

In addition, the treaty with Germany—in particular the war-guilt clause—left a legacy of bitterness and hatred in the hearts of the German people. Other countries felt cheated and betrayed as well by the peace settlements. Throughout Africa and Asia, people in the mandated territories were angry at the way the Allies disregarded their desire for independence. The European powers, it seemed to them, merely talked about the principle of national self-determination. European colonialism, disguised as the mandate system, continued in Asia and Africa.

Some Allied powers, too, were embittered by the outcome. Both Japan and Italy, which had entered the war to gain territory, had gained less than they wanted.

Lacking the support of the United States, and later other world powers, the League of Nations was in no position to take action on these complaints. The settlements at
Versailles represented, as one observer noted, “a peace built on quicksand.” Indeed, that quicksand eventually would give way. In a little more than two decades, the treaties’ legacy of bitterness would help plunge the world into another catastrophic war.

The Legacy of the War

World War I was, in many ways, a new kind of war. It involved the use of new technologies. It ushered in the notion of war on a grand and global scale. It also left behind a landscape of death and destruction such as was never before seen.

The War’s Extreme Cost  Both sides in World War I paid a tremendous price in terms of human life. About 8.5 million soldiers died as a result of the war. Another 21 million more were wounded. In addition, the war led to the death of countless civilians by way of starvation, disease, and slaughter. Taken together, these figures spelled tragedy—an entire generation of Europeans wiped out.

The war also had a devastating economic impact on Europe. The great conflict drained the treasuries of Europe. One account put the total cost of the war at $338 billion—a staggering amount for that time. The war also destroyed acres of farmland, as well as homes, villages, and towns.

A Lost Generation  The enormous suffering and apparent pointlessness of the Great War left a deep mark on Western society as well. A sense of disillusionment settled over the survivors. The insecurity and despair that many people experienced are reflected in the art and literature of the time. In a poem written in 1919, the Russian poet Anna Akhmatova captured these feelings:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
Why is our century worse than any other?
Is it that in the stupor of fear and grief
It has plunged its fingers in the blackest ulcer,
Yet cannot bring relief?

Westward the sun is dropping,
And the roofs of towns are shining in its light.
Already death is chalking doors with crosses
And calling the ravens and the ravens are in flight.

ANNA AKHMATOVA, from You Will Hear Thunder, translated by D. M. Thomas

The Great War shook European society to its foundations. While the war would continue to haunt future generations, its more immediate impact was to help ignite one of the most significant events of the 20th century. In Chapter 30, you will learn about that event: the Russian Revolution.

Section Assessment

1. TERMS & NAMES
   Identify
   • Woodrow Wilson
   • Georges Clemenceau
   • David Lloyd George
   • Fourteen Points
   • self-determination
   • Treaty of Versailles
   • League of Nations

2. TAKING NOTES
   Using a web diagram like the one below, show the effects of World War I.

   Effects of WWI

   Which effect do you think was most significant? Why?

3. FORMING OPINIONS
   Do you think the peace settlements at Versailles were fair? Why or why not? Consider the warring and nonwarring nations affected.

   THINK ABOUT
   • Germany’s punishment
   • the creation of new nations
   • the mandate system

4. THEME ACTIVITY
   Power and Authority  In small groups, create a list of 8-10 interview questions a reporter might ask Wilson, Clemenceau, or Lloyd George about the Paris Peace Conference. Ask about such topics as:
   • Wilson’s Fourteen Points
   • the handling of Germany and Russia
   • the numerous demands from different nations and groups
Many nations feel bitter and betrayed by the peace settlements. Problems that helped cause the war—nationalism, competition—remain.

**TERMS & NAMES**

Briefly explain the importance of each of the following regarding World War I.

1. Triple Alliance
2. Triple Entente
3. Central Powers
4. Allies
5. trench warfare
6. total war
7. armistice
8. Fourteen Points
9. Treaty of Versailles
10. League of Nations

**REVIEW QUESTIONS**

**SECTION 1** (pages 743–746)

**The Stage Is Set for War**

11. How did nationalism, imperialism, and militarism help set the stage for World War I?
12. Why were the Balkans known as “the powder keg of Europe”?

**SECTION 2** (pages 747–751)

**War Consumes Europe**

13. Why was the first Battle of the Marne considered so significant?
14. Where was the Western Front? the Eastern Front?
15. What were the characteristics of trench warfare?

**SECTION 3** (pages 753–757)

**War Affects the World**

16. What was the purpose of the Gallipoli campaign?
17. What factors prompted the United States to enter the war?
18. In what ways was World War I a total war?

**SECTION 4** (pages 760–763)

**A Flawed Peace**

19. What was the purpose of the League of Nations?
20. What was the mandate system, and why did it leave many groups feeling betrayed?

**INTERACT WITH HISTORY**

On page 742, you examined whether you would keep your word and follow your ally into war. Now that you have read the chapter, reevaluate your decision.

If you chose to support your ally, do you still feel it was the right thing to do? Why or why not?

If you decided to break your pledge and stay out of war, what are your feelings now? Discuss your opinions with a small group.
CHAPTER ACTIVITIES

1. LIVING HISTORY: Unit Portfolio Project

Your unit portfolio project focuses on how science and technology have influenced history. (See page 739.) For Chapter 29, you might use one of the following ideas.

- Write a piece of historical fiction describing a World War I airplane battle.
- Write a brief report describing what life was like aboard a German U-boat.
- Using images from magazines and books, create a display to show how technology affects warfare.

2. CONNECT TO TODAY: Cooperative Learning

While World War I was extremely costly, staying prepared for the possibility of war today is also expensive.

Work with a small team to present the military and defense budgets of several of the world’s nations.

- Examine how much money each country spends on its military and defense, as well as what percentage of the overall budget it represents.
- Combine your research on a large chart and present it to the class.
- Discuss whether the amounts spent for military and defense are justified.

3. INTERPRETING A TIME LINE

Revisit the unit time line on pages 738–739. Examine the Chapter 29 time line. For each event, draw an image or symbol that represents that event.

CRITICAL THINKING

1. ALLIED LEADERS

Often, it is the people in power who determine events and make history. How did the Treaty of Versailles reflect the different personalities and agendas of the men in power at the end of World War I?

2. THE ALLIANCE SYSTEM

Trace the formation of the two major alliance systems that dominated Europe on the eve of World War I by providing the event that corresponds with each date on the chart.

3. A HOLLOW VICTORY

Winston Churchill, Great Britain’s prime minister in the 1940s and 1950s, was undersecretary of the British navy during World War I. He said that the Allied victory in World War I had been “bought so dear [high in price] as to be indistinguishable from defeat.” What did he mean by this statement? Use examples from the text to support your answer.

4. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES

The following quotation is from an editorial in the German newspaper Vossische Zeitung on May 18, 1915. It is in response to President Wilson’s protest to the German government after the sinking of the British passenger ship Lusitania. The writer believes that Americans were aboard the ship to deter a possible attack against the ship—and its war cargo.

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

The responsibility for the death of so many American citizens, which is deeply regretted by everyone in Germany, in a large measure falls upon the American government. It could not admit that Americans were being used as shields for English contraband [smuggled goods]. In this regard America had permitted herself to be misused in a disgraceful manner by England. And now, instead of calling England to account, she sends a note to the German government.

- Why does the writer hold the American government responsible for the deaths of the Americans?
- How does this paragraph reinforce the idea that history can be based on different points of view?

FOCUS ON GRAPHS

This graph provides the total number of troops mobilized, as well as the number of military deaths each major nation suffered in World War I.

- Which nation suffered the most deaths? Which one suffered the fewest?
- Which nations lost more than a million soldiers?

Connect to History

Based on the number of troops each side mobilized, what may be one reason the Allies won?

World War I Battlefield Deaths

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Number of Troops Mobilized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allied Powers: 42 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Powers: 23 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Battlefield Deaths of Major Combatants

*Includes troops from Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India, and South Africa

Source: Encyclopaedia Britannica