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The Michigan Open Book Project

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After a long career running a business, I returned to the University of Michigan for my Masters and Certification and began teaching in Owosso 11 years ago. A marriage, a move north, and a couple of job changes later, I now teach at Boyne City. I run a state-wide Model United Nations program attended by over 1000 students annually. I have also been an AP Reader in US Government and Politics, Comparative Government, and World History.
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Salciccioli has been teaching since 2001. Throughout these years, he has taught students from grades 6-12 U.S. History, Government, Sociology, Law, Big History, Philosophy and his present course in World History. During his tenure he coached football, wrestling and track and field. He received his B.A. in political science-prelaw from Michigan State University in 1996, a second B.A. in History from the University of Michigan-Dearborn in 2001 and his Master in the Art of Teaching from Marygrove College in 2006. Salciccioli served as the President of the Michigan Council for the Social Studies from 2012-2014 and has been awarded the McConnell History Educator Award in 2014, the Fishman Prize Honor Roll in 2015 and the Gilder Lehrman Michigan History Teacher of the Year in 2016. He is a lifetime resident of Metro Detroit where he attempts to live with joy and purpose along with his wife.

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Kymberli has a BA in history and political science from Alma College, a MA in education from Michigan State University, and a MA in American History and Government from Ashland University. She was named a James Madison Fellow in 2011, was chosen as the Michigan Council for the Social Studies High School Educator of the Year in 2015, and is a two year member of the iCivics Educator Network. Kymberli teaches at her high school alma mater where her courses include Civics, World History, Current Events, Women’s Studies, and World Cultures, as well as serving on the school’s technology committee and school improvement team. Additionally, she teaches Intro to American Government at North Central Michigan College, and will be expanding to teach a history

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Rebecca Bush is currently the Social Studies Consultant at the Ottawa Area Intermediate School District (OAISD), where she assists K-12 social studies teachers in developing curriculum, modeling instructional strategies in social studies literacy, and designing district-level formative and summative assessments. Additionally, as Project Director, she has written and received multiple Teaching American History grants, working with teachers throughout an eight-county radius. She has presented at various national conferences on multiple topics surrounding social studies instruction as well as innovative techniques and topics in formative and summative assessment design. Currently she is Co-Project Director of The Performance Assessments of Social Studies Thinking (PASST) Project and assists with the professional development of teacher writers for the MI Open Book Project where she serves as an editor of several of the project’s texts. Rebecca currently leads
Chapter 10

How did World War I Shape the Global Landscape?

Why was World War I considered the first global war, and how did it impact the average citizen?

What was the legacy of World War I?

Why was Nationalism such a driving force in the global conflict?

What impact did technology have on the war’s changing landscape?

What factors led to the Armenian genocide, and what were its effects?

Which provisions of the Treaty of Versailles made the insurance of a lasting peace impossible?
World War I (also called the Great War) was unlike any conflict the world had ever seen. Lasting from 1914-1918, it was the first industrialized war, employing weapons made more mechanized (and more deadly) with technology from the Industrial Revolution. It was also considered the first truly global conflict, because it was fought on multiple fronts and involved nations from nearly every continent. Millions of soldiers and civilians lost their lives. The war affected daily life for citizens in ways never before seen. National boundaries were transformed. World leaders hoped to resolve this conflict with a lasting peace, yet nations were embroiled in World War II less than thirty years later following a global economic depression. Hegemony (dominance of one nation over others) started to shift from Western Europe toward the Soviet Union and the United States, and it all started with the first global war.

“This is a war to end all wars.” --Woodrow Wilson, American President

QUESTIONS TO GUIDE INQUIRY

1. Why was World War I considered the first global war, and how did it impact the average citizen?

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TERMS, PLACES, PEOPLE

Hegemony Entente
Militarism Imperialism
Arms race Nationalism
Conscription Pan-Slavism
Alliance
Triple Alliance
Triple Entente
Examine the maps below and make some predictions. What changes do you notice? How and why do you think these changes occurred between 1914 and 1919?

The latter portion of the 19th century was largely a time of peace in continental Europe. Nations were engaged in political transformations and economic industrialization, causing them to focus inward and strengthen their domestic structures. Some countries, particularly those of Western Europe, turned attention abroad as they built colonial empires. As a result, there was not much international conflict on the European continent in the 100 years preceding World War I. However, the very factors that kept the peace would eventually cause the Great War.

As you may recall from Chapter 7, Italy and Germany underwent unification in the mid-19th century. Both nations emerged as stronger, more dominant forces offsetting the former balance of power in Europe. Germany was exceptionally rapid in its rise as an industrial, political, and military force. Tensions lingered between France and Germany after France’s loss in the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871) and the German annexation of Alsace-Lorraine. Otto von Bismarck, Germany’s prime minister, pursued a course of diplomacy aimed at alienating France and forging alliances to protect Germany and maintain peace in Europe. France responded by forming its own alliances. Coupled with the race to build colonial empires, fierce nationalism, and growing military forces, Europe charted an inevitable course toward war.

When considering the causes of World War I, there is no singular “bad guy” to take the blame. Rather, the causes are an intricate and complex mixture of short-term and long-term influences. To understand the long-term causes of World War I, use the acronym MAIN: Militarism, Alliances, Imperialism, and Nationalism.
Militarism refers to glorification of the military and a readiness for war. Prompted by a desire to showcase their strength and prestige, the major European powers engaged in an arms race, or competition to build up the most extensive stores of weapons and armed forces. As one nation increased the size of its military, others responded in kind. For example, Great Britain had a well-established navy, stemming from roots during the Industrial Revolution and its extensive colonial empire. Germany embarked on a quest to build a navy to rival that of Great Britain, resulting in tension between the two nations. The naval rivalry centered on construction of the Dreadnought battleship, launched in 1906. The Dreadnought revolutionized naval technology, and redefined the standard for battleship technology. Germany went to work constructing its own destroyers, and Great Britain responded by expanding its fleet.

Between 1870 and 1914 the major powers in Europe more than doubled the size of their militaries. This is a sizeable increase under any circumstances, but especially notable in peacetime. Conscription, sometimes called a draft, was a tool used to achieve this increase by requiring individuals to enlist in the military.
Based on the data in the table above, which nations experienced the most dramatic changes? How do you predict this will impact the role of each nation in World War I?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>Increase in Military Spending (1890-1913)</th>
<th>Size of Peacetime Army in 1914.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>117%</td>
<td>430,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>970,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>158%</td>
<td>760,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria-Hungary</td>
<td>160%</td>
<td>480,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Alliances

Military alliances in Europe, prior to the outbreak of war in 1914

By the summer of 1914, Europe was polarized by alliances, or agreements to come to another country’s aid if they were under attack. The initial intention was to preserve national security. Perhaps it was naive, but countries entered into alliances with the mindset that they could maintain peace by dissuading aggressors, under the threat of triggering a larger conflict. Germany, Italy, and Austria-Hungary comprised the Triple Alliance. Its counterpart, the Triple Entente, included France, Britain, and Russia (an entente is an agreement for collaborative action). Russia also had agreements with Slavic nations in Eastern Europe.

The alliance system was built on the premise that nations would avoid battle on a small scale to prevent war on a large scale. This proved to be a dangerous assertion, because it can also mean that a small skirmish can quickly escalate into a colossal conflict.
What message does this cartoon convey about the alliance system?

**Imperialism**

During the 1800s, Western European countries built colonial empires that reached every corner of the globe. Seeking raw materials to fuel industrialization and cultivation of new markets to purchase finished goods, this land grab was fast and furious. Britain and France were leaders of this wave of imperialism, exerting power and influence over other nations. Tensions mounted as the scramble to acquire territory, especially in Africa and Asia, intensified. Germany and Italy were a bit late to the game since they were not fully unified until 1871, but they sought to build overseas empires as well. Rivalries and distrust abounded. In one example, Germany and France nearly went to war after a clash over interests in Morocco in 1905. The result was a climate of competition ripe for conflict by 1914.
Nationalism

This is an example of a satirical map. Choose one country and explain how its role in the start of World War I is portrayed.

Nationalism, intense pride in and devotion to one’s country, was the underlying force driving other causes of World War I. Nationalism fueled militarism and the desire for a strong country. It compelled nations to exert imperialist influences, expand territorial boundaries, and carve out their share of the industrial economy. Nationalism can be a unifying force, as it was in Germany and Italy.

Nationalism can be divisive as well, as in the case of the multiethnic Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian empires. The spirit of nationalism kindled a desire for ethnic groups with common language and common histories to seek their own sovereign states, as opposed to being part of larger empires. This was especially prevalent in the Balkans, a region in southeastern Europe (see map). The region was formerly under Ottoman rule, but the Ottomans gradually lost their hold on the Balkans as their empire went into decline. Russia and Austria-Hungary both hoped to gain supremacy in the region. The Balkans became a hotbed of nationalist tension, sometimes called the “powder keg” of Europe. One example of nationalist sentiment was Pan-Slavism, a movement to unite Slavic peoples. This movement was backed by Russia, a Slavic nation. Russia saw itself as a protector of Slavs. Russia would also benefit from the Pan-Slavic movement if it meant that they would gain territory with access to the Black Sea, by undermining Austria-Hungary’s authority in the Balkans.
The “Spark”

Diplomatic strains existed in the Balkans prior to the outbreak of World War I. In 1908, Austria-Hungary annexed the province of Bosnia-Herzegovina. This action angered Serbia, who viewed Bosnia as a homeland for Serbs. Russia also took offense as a fellow Slavic nation and rival of Austria-Hungary. Wars in 1912 and 1913 resulted in Serbian territorial expansion in the Balkans, and were perceived as a threat to Austria-Hungary’s clout in the region.

Archduke Franz Ferdinand

These events created a background of nationalist tension when Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, visited Sarajevo, Bosnia on June 28, 1914. Ferdinand and his pregnant wife Sophie were killed by a gunman while in their car, fleeing the city after a failed assassination attempt with a bomb earlier that day. The gunman was Gavrilo Princip, a 19-year-old
member of a Serbian terrorist group called the Black Hand. Members of the Black Hand resented the fact that Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia; they thought that Bosnia should have been part of Serbia.

**Gavrilo Princip**

The assassination of Franz Ferdinand was the “spark” that ignited the “powder keg” of Europe. As an isolated event, the murder of Ferdinand and his wife garnered media attention and created a stir among the public, but would not have triggered a global war without the MAIN causes churning in the background--military mobilization, fierce nationalism, and tangling alliances.

Austria-Hungary blamed Serbia for Ferdinand’s death. Russia backed its fellow Slavs in Serbia and mobilized its military to show readiness. Germany, in a tenuous geopolitical position, dreaded the possibility of a two-front war with neighboring France and Russia (allied in the Triple Entente) and mobilized its own forces. Austria-Hungary declared war with Serbia on July 28, 1914. Germany declared war with Russia on August 1 and France two days later. The alliance system kicked in and declarations of war ensued from around the globe. The Great War had begun.

The political cartoon above appeared in The Chicago Tribune in August 1914. What do you think the artist is trying to convey? Which nation(s) do you believe were most responsible for the outbreak of war? Create a pie chart showing the allocation of responsibility for the outbreak of war.
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TERMS, PLACES, PEOPLE

Schlieffen Plan     Treaty of Brest-
Neutrality         Litovsk
Central Powers     Balfour Declaration
Allied Powers      
Trench warfare     
Stalemate          
War of attrition   

Caption: Compare the two images of soldiers in battle. How are they similar? How are they different? What factors might account for the differences?
The Industrial Revolution altered the fundamental nature of warfare. The ingenuity and efficiency that marked transformations in industry could now be applied to the battlefield, with deadly results. Factories could produce weapons and ammunition en masse using assembly lines and interchangeable parts. World War I marked the introduction of several improvements and innovations in weaponry and technology.

- Tanks were first developed by the British. With bulletproof exteriors, they were able to navigate barbed wire entanglements. The first British tank weighed 14 tons and could only travel 3 miles per hour. Frequent breakdowns were problematic, even as tank designs improved during the course of the war.

- Poison gas was first used in battle by the Germans, opposing the French in 1915. They used chlorine gas, which damages the respiratory system and causes asphyxiation (insufficient oxygen supply). Mustard gas followed in 1917, causing a burning sensation in the eyes, blistering skin, and respiratory distress. International law banned the use of poison gas in war after World War I.

- Machine guns were pioneered by Hiram Maxim, an American inventor. In 1889, machine guns were adopted by the British army. Austria, Germany, Italy, and Russia followed within the next year. One machine gun could fire 500 rounds per minute, the equivalent of 100 rifles. Inventors followed Maxim with variations on his design, including technology that enabled machine guns to be mounted on airplanes and armored vehicles.

- Aircraft was initially used to gather intelligence about the opposing side, then for aerial dogfights with machine guns. The latter became possible once technology enabled machine gun fire to synchronize with the propellor. Airplanes were also used to bomb targets on the ground.

- Zeppelins were German airships used for bombing and reconnaissance. They were initially useful at high altitudes to avoid enemy fire, but as aircraft technology improved, the Zeppelins became obsolete by the end of the war.

- Submarines were used by both sides, but most prominently by the Imperial German Navy. Called Unterseeboote (U-boats), these vessels were part of Germany’s effort to thwart British naval superiority. Armed with torpedos and deck guns, the Germans employed U-boats to attack the opposing navy as well as supply ships.
• Flamethrowers had been used in warfare for centuries, but underwent refinements in World War I. These short-range weapons could project burning fuel up to 18 meters. German soldiers used them first, followed by Britain and France.

• Artillery was the deadliest form of weaponry in World War I. Mortars (short-barreled guns that could fire shells at high trajectories) were effective in trench warfare on the Western Front, and firing at buildings and fortifications. By the end of the war, some mortars could travel up to two kilometers. In 1914, Gustav Krupp invented Big Bertha for the German army. Weighing 43 tons, Big Bertha could fire a 2,200 pound shell over nine miles.

“We could hear the shells coming. We heard a rushing of air which increased in intensity until it became a furious hurricane roar and ended in a dreadful crash of thunder; fountains of earth and smoke were thrown into the air, and the whole earth shook.”

--Lieutenant-General Leman, Belgian army commander

The Western Front

Germany’s location put the nation in an unfavorable position, faced with the prospect of fighting a two-front war with France to the West and Russia to the East. Under the Schlieffen Plan, Germany devised a strategy to swiftly defeat French forces, then concentrate their forces on Russia (operating under the assumption that Russia, lacking industrialization, would be slower to mobilize their forces). Germany would avoid fortifications along its border with France by circling through neutral Belgium. Their plan was to crowd French forces against their own border, eliminating the possibility
of a major French offensive. The Germans expected to defeat the French within two months.

The Schlieffen plan backfired. Rather than delivering the “knockout blow” to France they intended, Germany inadvertently escalated war on the Western Front. Germany underestimated the consequences of invading neutral Belgium. Great Britain, outraged at Germany’s violation of Belgian neutrality (refraining from involvement in a war), declared war on Germany. The alliance system kicked off a chain reaction, plunging Europe into war. Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire came to be known as the Central Powers. Great Britain, France, and Russia formed the Allied Powers, also called the Allies. They were later joined by Japan and Italy. Note that Italy was a member of the Triple Alliance, but switched sides, lured by the promise of gaining territory around the Adriatic Sea in exchange for their loyalty to the Triple Entente. This will become an important factor in the eventual peace settlement at the end of the war.

The first few months of battle on the Western Front were characterized by a war of movement. However, that changed as a result of the First Battle of the Marne in September 1914. The French (with British support) defeated Germany, thus ending German hopes for a swift victory on the Western Front. Both sides dug in along the border between Germany and France; trench warfare ensued.

In trench warfare, opposing armies fight each other from trenches dug in the ground, roughly 500 yards apart. There were multiple lines of trenches, with the front lines taking the brunt of enemy fire. The area between the opposing front lines was called “no man’s land,” typically containing large amounts of barbed wire to deter enemy advances. If battle had been going on for long, no man’s land might also contain defective or abandoned military equipment, craters from artillery shells, and the bodies of fallen soldiers.
During earlier wars, armies would advance, do battle, and retreat, taking time to regroup and recover. In contrast, trench warfare kept soldiers in close proximity with the enemy for prolonged periods. The result was a great deal of physical and psychological fatigue. The nature of trench warfare also made it very difficult for either side to advance or lose much territory, resulting in a *stalemate* along the Western Front. Gains were more likely to be measured in yards than in miles. The Western Front became a war of attrition, based on slowly wearing down the other side. Even the new, technologically sophisticated weapons (machine guns, heavy artillery, armored vehicles) could not deliver the advances that military strategists were striving for.

Conditions in the trenches made daily life absolutely miserable. Eric Maria Remarque, a veteran of World War I, described daily life for soldiers in the trenches in his novel All Quiet on the Western Front.

“We must look out for our bread. The rats have become much more numerous lately because the trenches are no longer in good condition. Detering says it is a sure sign of a coming bombardment.

*The rats here are particularly repulsive, they are so fat-- the kind we call corpse rats. They have shocking, evil, naked faces, and it is nauseating to see their long, nude tails.*

They seem to be mighty hungry. *Almost every man has had his bread gnawed.* Kropp wrapped his in his waterproof sheet and put it under his head, but he cannot sleep because they run over his face to get at it. Detering meant to outwit them: *he fastened a thin wire to the roof and suspended his bread from it. During the night when he switched on his pocket-torch he saw the wire swinging to and fro. On the bread was riding a fat rat.*

*At last we put a stop to it. We cannot afford to throw the bread away, because already we have practically nothing left to eat in the morning, so we carefully cut off the bits of bread that the animals have gnawed.*” - Eric Maria Ramarque

The trenches were invariably muddy, filthy, smelly, and wet. Soldiers endured periods of constant shelling, with the casualty count numbering into the thousands some days. Confinement and boredom could feel stifling. Disease ran rampant. Lice multiplied in the folds of filthy uniforms. Trench foot, a fungal infection, developed as a result of prolonged exposure to cold, damp, unsanitary conditions. It often led to gangrene, and even amputation.

In the poem “Dulce et Decorum Est,” Wilfred Owen describes a gas attack in the trenches of World War I. The title is Latin for “it is sweet and honorable.” The last line, “Pro patria mori,” means, “to die for your country.”
The Eastern Front

While soldiers were entrenched in battle on the Western Front, another front formed in Eastern Europe. The Battle of Tannenburg in August 1914 was the only battle of World War I fought on German soil. Germany’s rapid defeat of Russian forces dashed Allied hopes for a quick victory against Germany. Russia suffered 30,000 casualties at Tannenburg, in addition to 100,000 soldiers taken prisoner.

The Russian army was the largest in the world in August 1914. Recruitment efforts started strong, but demoralizing defeats such as the Battle of Tannenburg left soldiers feeling more mauled than mighty. Russia lagged behind its European counterparts in industrialization, putting her at a disadvantage against Germany, an established industrial powerhouse. Russia relied more on horses than motorized vehicles. Lackluster roads and railroads inhibited transportation of troops and supplies. In Russia’s rickety military infrastructure, soldiers outnumbered rifles. By some accounts, one third of Russian soldiers went to the front without a rifle, with standing orders to take them from fallen comrades if the opportunity arose. Insufficient ammunition was rationed, with limits placed on the number of shells to be fired each day in battle. Soldiers at the front also dealt with shortages in clothing, boots, and bedding. Desertion rates rose, further weakening Russia’s military.

Russia was struggling abroad and at home, fraught with internal tensions. Discord stemmed from food and fuel shortages and inflation, which reached nearly 400 percent by 1916. Bread riots raged in cities. Sources of food and coal in the countryside could not be transported to areas of need, due to Russia’s minimally industrialized transportation infrastructure. Discontent with Russia’s involvement in World War I fanned the flames of preexisting anti-government sentiment. Imperiled by domestic hardships, Russia plunged into revolution. Czar Nicholas II abdicated the throne in March 1917.

After the fall of the Russian monarchy, a Provisional Government took that power. Alexander Kerensky, the minister of war, launched a military offensive on the Eastern Front. Kerensky wanted to show Russia’s allies (and the Central Powers) that the nation was still a formidable power, not to be discounted. However, the offensive failed, further demoralizing the Russian army.

In November 1917, Vladimir Lenin and the Bolshevik party seized power in Russia and promised to end the nation’s involvement in World War I. Russia withdrew from combat, and negotiated the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk in March 1918. The terms of the agreement required Russia to concede territory in Poland, Ukraine, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, and Finland. Russian withdrawal allowed Germany to devote its full strength to the Western Front. Around the same time, the United States entered
During World War I, both sides opened new fronts, hoping to strain the opposition by dividing their troops and resources. Fighting spread to the Middle East with the start of the Gallipoli Campaign, a British offensive in Turkey. After the Ottoman Empire joined the Central Powers, Britain and France feared the move would jeopardize their supply lines with Russia via the Black Sea. Turkey controlled the Dardanelle Straits, which connected the Black and Mediterranean Seas. The offensive was poorly managed, and after a couple of foiled opportunities to emerge victorious, the British were forced to retreat. After their defeat, the British tried to undermine Ottoman authority in the Middle East by instigating rebellions. T.E. Lawrence, sometimes known as Lawrence of Arabia, was a particularly prominent British officer who led revolts of Arab tribes in the diverse Ottoman Empire. The British also issued the Balfour Declaration in 1917, which promised Jews a homeland in Palestine in exchange for their wartime support.

Excerpt from the Balfour Declaration (1917):

“His Majesty’s Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country.”

1. How do you think the sultan of the Ottoman Empire felt about this document?
2. If you were a Jewish person living in an Allied nation (such as Russia or the United States), would this declaration affect your perception of the war effort? Why?

3. How do you predict this declaration will affect Middle Eastern political relations and boundaries in the coming decades?

The scope of the war continued to spread. At the Battle of Jutland, the British and German navies fought off the coast of Denmark with an indecisive outcome. Colonies in Africa and Asia were drawn into the conflict. Japan, an Allied nation, invaded China to challenge Germany’s hold on its sphere of influence there. The Great War had indeed become global.

**Armenian Genocide**

The Armenian genocide refers to the extermination of 1.5 million people in the declining Ottoman Empire between 1915 and 1923. At the beginning of World War I, about 2 million Christian Armenians resided in Turkey, comprising 10 percent of the population. By 1923, fewer than 400,000 Armenians remained. Under the traditional Ottoman social hierarchy, Muslims generally enjoyed higher status than non-Muslims. However, a segment of the Armenian population found success as merchants and skilled artisans. Others rose to elevated status with jobs in banking and politics, resulting in resentment from some Islamic Turks.

A group called the Young Turks rose to power in Turkey. Their goal was to revive and expand the Ottoman Empire, with unity from a policy of Pan-Turkism. The Young Turks sought to “Turkify” diverse ethnic minorities in the Ottoman Empire and viewed Armenians as an obstacle. The Young Turks became the perpetrators of genocide.

A march of Armenians, guarded by Ottoman soldiers

(Image source: [https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/4/4e/Armenians_marched_by_Ottoman_soldiers%C2%A91915.png](https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/4/4e/Armenians_marched_by_Ottoman_soldiers%C2%A91915.png))
Acts of genocide intensified during the course of World War I. First, Armenian soldiers were banned from military service and exiled, sentenced to hard labor, or executed by Turkish soldiers. On April 24, 1915 hundreds of Armenian intellectuals were rounded up for arrest. Some Armenians were forced to convert to Islam. Next, Armenian civilians—including women, children, and the elderly—were massacred and buried in mass graves. Others perished during long marches and forced deportations (see map). Deaths resulted from starvation, exposure to the elements, disease, and exhaustion as Armenians were marched out of the country through inhospitable deserts and mountainous terrain. Those who survived the marches were sent to concentration camps in the Syrian desert. Orphans numbered in the tens of thousands.

The violence against Armenians was documented by journalists and government officials from the Allies and Central Powers. The excerpt below is from an American consul:

**US CONSUL LESLIE DAVIS DESCRIBING ARMENIAN "DEPORTEES" PASSING THROUGH THE HARPOOT PLAIN ON THEIR WAY TO DER ZOR**

“All of them were in rags and many . . . almost naked . . . emaciated, sick, diseased, filthy, covered with dirt and vermin . . . driven along for many weeks like herds of cattle, with little to eat . . . There were few men among them, most of the men having been killed by the Kurd before their arrival at Harpoot. Many of the women and children also had been killed and very many others
had died on the way . . . Of those who had started, only a small portion were still alive and they were rapidly dying . . . Many Turkish officers and other Turks visited the camps to select the prettiest girls and had their doctors present to examine them . . . Several hundred of the dead and dying scattered about the camp . . . the body of a middle-aged man who had apparently just died or been killed. A number of dead bodies of women and children lay here and there . . . Old men sat there mumbling incoherently. Women with matted hair and sunken eyes sat staring like maniacs. One, whose face has haunted my memory ever since, was so emaciated and the skin was drawn so tightly over her features that her head appeared to be only a lifeless skull. Others were in the spasms of death. Children with bloated bellies were on the ground wallowing in filth. Some were in convulsions. All in the camp were beyond help”. - United States Official records on the Armenian Genocide 1915-1917, pp. 644, doc. NA/RG59/867.4016/392.

Documents from Turkish government officials reveal state sponsorship of policies targeting Armenians, such as this:

January 15th, 1916

To the Government of Aleppo:

We are informed that certain orphanages which have opened also admitted the children of the Armenians.

Should this be done through ignorance of our real purpose, or because of contempt of it, the Government will view the feeding of such children or any effort to prolong their lives as an act completely opposite to its purpose, since it regards the survival of these children as detrimental.

I recommend the orphanages not to receive such children; and no attempts are to be made to establish special orphanages for them.

Minister of the Interior,

TALAAT.
Civilian Life

World War I was an instance of total war, a conflict in which nations devoted all their resources to achieving victory. As a result, the war had unprecedented effects on civilian populations. Citizens joined the war effort to produce food, weapons, and supplies for larger-than-ever militaries. Governments imperiled in war turned to their citizens for support, asking more than ever before and appealing to patriotic sentiments. At the beginning of the war, the government of Great Britain asked for 100,000 volunteers to enlist as soldiers. In one month’s time, 750,000 answered the call to serve as volunteers.

However, enthusiasm gave way to weariness as the war progressed. Casualties mounted as civilians became victims of the new weapons of war. In 1915, Germany bombed London and other targets in the southern and coastal regions of Great Britain using Zeppelins. In March 1918, Germany fired shells on the citizens of Paris, France for a 44 day period of destruction. In 1917 and 1918, Great Britain and France bombed German cities, killing over 700 civilians and injuring 1800 others.

Other citizens were displaced by the conflict. Parts of Belgium, France, Poland, western Russia, and the Balkans were occupied and administered by the Central Powers during the war. Citizens fled their homes, seeking shelter elsewhere. In
Belgium, about 1 of every 7 citizens emigrated to nearby Allied nations.

**Economic Effects**

Germany was agriculturally solvent before the war, but the British naval blockade prevented Germany from importing fertilizers needed to bolster farm output. As a result, Germany was the first nation to experience wartime food shortages. In 1915, Germany implemented rationing, a method of fixing the amount of commodities allotted per person. Bread rations were reduced by a third. In 1916, rationing extended to other foods, including milk, meat, and potatoes. Butter, coffee, eggs, fruits, and vegetables became rare. A poor harvest of potatoes in 1917-1918 further diminished rations. German citizens experienced malnourishment, the spread of diseases such as tuberculosis, and shortened lifetime expectancies.

Britain was less affected because of its extensive navy and its ability to trade with overseas nations. However, some shortages did occur. “War bread” replaced regular bread, made with potato flour. Prices increased, especially for meat. Citizens were encouraged to cultivate vegetable gardens. Great Britain was able to stave off rationing until 1918. Even the King and Queen of England were issued ration booklets. France also delayed major shortages until the latter part of the conflict. The French had their own version of war bread, which became rationed. Additional limits were placed on sugar and milk prices soared.

War affected the economy beyond food supplies as well. The British naval blockade affected supplies of cotton and leather in Germany, posing challenges for clothing manufacturers. Shoes were made from wood. Soap became a luxury. A coal shortage made it difficult for some citizens to heat their homes. Elementary schools in Berlin had to close during the winter of 1916-1917 due to lack of heat. Inflation also plagued wartime economies as prices increased and purchasing power
decreased. Real wages in France dropped 20 percent over the war’s duration.

The governments of belligerent nations appealed to citizens to support the war effort through indirect means such as rationing, but also in a more direct manner: with their money. War bonds were sold to finance the cost of war; they raise capital by asking private citizens to invest money in the government. In return, the bonds earn interest and can be cashed in at a later date. Campaigns to sell war bonds often appealed to citizens’ feelings of patriotism.

Women and the War Effort

World War I was a turning point for gender roles and women’s rights. Some women joined the military, although they were more likely to serve in clerical or nursing positions than direct combat. Others supported the war effort by taking on new roles at home, such as selling war bonds. Women went to work filling vacancies left by men off fighting in the war. They served in positions traditionally occupied by men, including police officers, firefighters, postal workers, public transportation operators, bankers, and clerks. Women also found new job opportunities in factories. In the United States, 1.5 million women worked in war-related industries during the conflict. In Germany, 75,000 women worked in Germany’s machine industry before the war’s onset. That number grew to 500,000 during the maelstrom. By 1918, 25 to 30 percent of laborers in French munitions factories were women. Britain and France also asked women to go to work in agriculture, harvesting food crops for citizens and the military.

The Great War prompted women to take on new roles and responsibilities in society. Developments in women’s rights were soon to follow. In March 1918, the British Parliament granted women the right to vote with a 7 to 1 ratio in favor. Germany followed suit in November of the same year. In the United States, the women’s suffrage movement culminated in the passage of the 19th Amendment, granting women the right to vote in 1920. The
evolution of women’s roles was even reflected in changing fashions, with women wearing shorter skirts and even pants.

**Propaganda**

One aspect of total war was the use of propaganda, information (often biased or exaggerated) used to promote or discredit a cause. Propaganda ran the gamut, encouraging a wide range of topics such as enlisting in the military, rationing, promoting war bonds, patriotism, and villainizing the opposite side. Posters often used national symbols to represent countries, such as Uncle Sam for the United States and John Bull for Great Britain (as in the image below). Posters aimed at discrediting Germany sometimes depicted soldiers as Huns wearing pointed helmets, a reference to the Boxer Rebellion in China when Kaiser Wilhelm II instructed German soldiers to squash the rebellion with the ferocity of Huns of previous eras.

This is an example of World War I propaganda, published by the British to appeal to feelings of patriotism and promote enlistment in the military.
In 1914, President Woodrow Wilson made a declaration of neutrality to the United States Congress. He stated,

*I venture, therefore, my fellow countrymen, to speak a solemn word of warning to you against that deepest, most subtle, most essential breach of neutrality which may spring out of partisanship, out of passionately taking sides. The United States must be neutral in fact, as well as in name, during these days that are to try men’s souls. We must be impartial in thought, as well as action, must put a curb upon our sentiments, as well as upon every transaction that might be construed as a preference of one party to the struggle before another.*

However, even with this official policy of neutrality, American foreign policy had Allied leanings. With preference for a democratic government, Wilson felt trepidation about a potential Central Powers victory. Wartime loans to Allied nations totaled over $2 billion by 1917, compared to $27 million loaned to Germany. The British naval blockade prevented Germany from trading with the United States, but American trade with France and Great Britain flourished. Germany retaliated with a blockade of its own. In February 1915, German U-boats started attacking commercial vessels, targeting those carrying goods to and from Great Britain. The United States continued to engage in trans-Atlantic trade and travel, thinking that American ships would be safeguarded by the policy of
neutrality. The U.S. also informed Germany that she would be held culpable for any American ships sunk by U-boats.

On May 7, 1915, a British passenger liner called the Lusitania was torpedoed by a German submarine during a voyage from New York to Liverpool, England. The ship sank in less than 20 minutes. Of the 1198 passengers killed, 128 were Americans. The American public was outraged. Woodrow Wilson threatened to terminate diplomatic ties with Germany unless she agreed to halt attacks on passenger ships and spare the lives of crew members on commercial ships. These terms constituted the Sussex Pledge. Germany capitulated to the pledge in 1916, appeasing the United States. However, the terms of the Sussex Pledge would not last. In January 1917, Germany announced a policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, stating that their U-boats would attack any and all ships (including non-military vessels) that passed through occupied waters. Americans were displeased with the shift in German policy.

In addition to unrestricted submarine warfare, another key event in January 1917 contributed to the end of American neutrality in World War I. British cryptographers intercepted and deciphered a telegram sent to the German ambassador in Mexico city from Arthur Zimmerman, Germany’s foreign minister. The Zimmerman Telegram

The Zimmerman Telegram

telegram offered Mexico an opportunity to regain territory lost to the United States in the 1840s including Texas, New Mexico, California, and Arizona in exchange for an alliance with Germany. Britain gave the decrypted message to the United States, and the telegram was published in American newspapers. Public opinion against Germany intensified after such a direct threat on American soil. On April 2, 1917, President Wilson addressed Congress requesting a declaration of war, stated that “The world must be made safe for democracy.” Congress agreed, declaring war on Germany.

Within a year, the size of the United States Army swelled from 100,000 to 5,000,000 with the help of conscription. The entry of fresh, energized soldiers into the conflict was a great help to the war-weary Allies. Russia had withdrawn from the war under the terms of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, allowing Germany to concentrate all its forces on the Western Front. At the Second Battle of the Marne in July 1918, Germany launched its last major offensive of World War I. American “doughboys” fought alongside Italian, British, and French soldiers to achieve victory, but with heavy casualties on both sides. Germany suffered 168,000 losses compared to 13,000 for Great Britain, 95,000 for France, and 12,000 for the United States. The battle signaled a turning point, indicating that the Allies were gaining the upper hand.
An Allied Victory

The Second Battle of the Marne was followed by a string of Allied victories. The Central Powers dissolved as Bulgaria, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire withdrew from the war. Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicated his position in Germany. The conflict officially ended on November 11, 1918 with an armistice, or agreement to stop fighting. (Side note--in the United States we observe Veterans Day each year on November 11th. Ceremonies are often held at 11:00 a.m. because the World War I armistice went into effect at the eleventh hour, on the eleventh day, of the eleventh month in 1918.)
Cost of the War

The “war to end all wars” incurred immense costs, both human and financial. Russia and Germany lost the most soldiers (see pie charts for more data on military deaths). Overall, 9 million soldiers and 5 million civilians perished as result of World War I, with an additional 21 million people wounded. Total war meant that civilians were drawn into the conflict like never before, along with its perils. Financially, the war cost Allied nations over $125 billion with the United States, Great Britain, France, and Russia bearing the most expense. Costs for the Central Powers totaled over $60 billion, with Germany and Austria-Hungary taking on the majority of the burden.
Influenza Pandemic of 1918

In the fall of 1918, the world was in the twilight of the Great War with peace on the horizon. However, an unexpected threat would leave millions fighting for their lives: influenza. The deadly strain was dubbed the “Spanish flu,” because the media in Spain were the first to report news of the outbreak. It arose in different locations around the globe, urban and rural alike. It is possible that the spread of the virus was exacerbated by large-scale troop movements. In addition to the typical flu symptoms such as fever, achiness, and nausea, victims would experience sudden, severe bouts of pneumonia in which the lungs would fill with fluid. It might be a few hours or a few days from the onset of symptoms until death. The flu virus was atypical in its impact, both in magnitude and demographics. Influenza usually takes the heaviest toll on children and the elderly, but this strain was more deadly among young adults ages 20 to 40 years. With so many doctors and nurses caring for soldiers wounded in battle, hospitals and medical professionals on the homefront were overwhelmed with victims of the pandemic. The statistics were staggering:

- With 50 million victims, the 1918 influenza pandemic caused more deaths that the Great War.
- The 1918 influenza pandemic caused more deaths in one year than the bubonic plague did in four years, between 1347 and 1351.
- One-fifth of the world’s population was infected.
- Of the American soldiers who perished in Europe, half of the deaths were due to influenza, not enemy fire.
- During one year, the average life expectancy in the United States declined by 12 years.
You have probably heard the saying “Art imitates life.” As a result of the 1918 influenza pandemic, children developed a rhyme to sing while jumping rope:

*I had a little bird

*Its name was Enza

*I opened the window

*And in-flu-enza

**Paris Peace Conference**

The armistice brought an end to combat in World War I, but there will still issues to settle in hopes of creating a lasting peace. The Paris Peace Conference convened on January 18, 1919 at the Palace of Versailles with representatives from thirty nations in attendance. Vittorio Orlando of Italy, David Lloyd George of Great Britain, Georges Clemenceau of France, and Woodrow Wilson of the United States constituted the “Big Four” leaders among the delegates.

Woodrow Wilson’s Fourteen Points, derived from an address to Congress, provided a blueprint for the peace negotiations. In summary, the Fourteen Points called for and end to secret treaties and alliances, free trade and travel in international waters, military disarmament for all nations, German withdrawal of troops from other nations, fair treatment of colonial subjects, and recommendations for establishing borders of particular nations. Wilson also called for self-determination, the policy of allowing nationalities to choose which form of government they wish to live under. Lastly, Wilson suggested the formation of an international peacekeeping organization, the League of Nations. The purpose of the League of Nations was to establish collective security, or cooperation among nations to ensure a lasting peace.
Members of the Paris Peace Conference worked together to arrive at the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, the peace agreement ending the Great War. It is worth of note that the Allies did not permit nations of the defeated Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, Bulgaria) to attend the Paris Peace Conference or participate in treaty negotiations. Another notable absentee was Russia; the Allies did not recognize the legitimacy of Russia’s Bolshevik government and did not invite the nation to the conference.

**The Treaty of Versailles**

Should the Treaty of Versailles focus on punishing or rebuilding Germany? That question was at the heart of the peace negotiations. Delegates from the Allied nations had differing priorities. Woodrow Wilson’s goal for the conference was to achieve “peace without victory.” Others felt Wilson was too idealistic. British Prime Minister David Lloyd George’s 1918 election platform included “making the Germans pay.” French Premier Georges Clemenceau was most concerned with disarming the German military and preventing future aggression, given that the nations share a border. Vittorio Orlando sought to expand Italian territory in the Adriatic region, in return for Italy having joined the Allies at the war’s onset. After weeks of tense negotiations, the Allies arrived at an agreement to present to Germany.

Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles on June 28, 1919. Despite resenting terms of the treaty, Germany had no alternative. The treaty included the war guilt clause, requiring Germany to accept all the blame for the war. Germany also had to pay reparations, payment for war damages, to the Allies. The bill tallied over $30 billion U.S. dollars, to be paid in installments.

With its economy already struggling, Germany would default on payments within a few years. Other provisions were aimed at weakening Germany. The German military was limited to 100,000 soldiers. The treaty also put caps on stores of military weapons, closed munitions factories, and prohibited imports of weapons. The German navy was no longer permitted to possess submarines and its air force was dismantled. The size of German territory diminished as France reclaimed Alsace and Lorraine. Lastly, Germany had to relinquish many of its colonial holdings.

The Treaty of Versailles included the Covenant of the League of Nations, making the organization official. Its intended purpose was to preserve peace and prevent another global conflict. Membership was to include victorious Allied nations, but Germany and the Soviet Union were excluded. Also, despite being proposed by President Woodrow Wilson in the first place, the United States Congress refused to ratify the treaty necessary for membership in the League. Opponents in the Senate cited concerns about the cost and military obligations to other nations.

What message is the author of the cartoon trying to convey? How do you know?

Making connections: Choose three provisions of the Treaty of Versailles. For each, explain how it relates to one of the MAIN causes (militarism, alliances, imperialism, nationalism) of World War I and predict how it will impact the next 20 years of world history.
Beyond Germany

While the Treaty of Versailles was the most prominent postwar agreement, the Allies negotiated settlements with other members of the Central Powers. These agreements altered the map of Europe. Poland became an independent nation, as did the Baltic countries of Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia. Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia emerged from the defeated Austro-Hungarian Empire. The Ottoman Empire (sometimes called the “sick man of Europe” due to its prolonged decline) came to an end, transitioning into Turkey. Former Ottoman territories were subject to the new mandate system, which proposed that territories would be under Western influence until ready to self-govern. In reality, the mandates were treated more like traditional colonies. This dashed hopes for independence among European colonies in Africa and Asia, hoping that the principle of self-determination would extend beyond the European continent.

Revisit these maps from the opening of the chapter. Given what you have learned about World War I, how can you enhance your original explanation of the differences between the maps?