PowerPoint® Presentations in World History

World War I

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Introduction

This PowerPoint® presentation is designed to offer your students an overview of key events, personalities, and concepts. Created by a classroom teacher, the slide show places a premium on ease of use and succinctness. We developed this title to:

- Engage students with visual elements
- Outline key historical issues
- Make learning clear and relevant
- Provide a customizable template for differentiated instruction

On the slides themselves, bullet points highlight central elements, and numerous images help to provide a visual context for the presentation. Extensive notes for each slide offer detailed information to help elaborate bullet points. Handouts provide a convenient way for students to make connections between the ideas presented, and the culminating quiz provides a convenient way to assess student comprehension.

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We value your feedback, so please let us know more about the ways in which you use this product to supplement your lessons; we’re also eager to hear any recommendations you might have for ways in which we can expand the functionality of this product in future editions. We look forward to hearing from you.

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In the summer of 1914, a complex set of circumstances led European nations into the most destructive war the world had ever experienced. Issues of nationalism, imperialism, alliances, and growing militarism were powder kegs waiting to explode. The explosion was triggered by a high profile assassination. The four-year long conflict would dramatically alter the global status quo.

World War I, originally known as “The Great War,” closed the curtain on the old world of the European aristocracies and monarchies while catapulting the United States to the forefront of international politics. The war created new nations and set the stage for conflicts that would rage into the next century.

[image: British troops advance in Allied counterattack]
The two sides in the Great War were the Allied Powers and the Central Powers. While many other countries were involved, these were the primary players.

ALLIED POWERS:
Major Powers
British Empire (1914–1918)
France (1914–1918)
Italy (1914–1918)
Russia (1914–1917)
United States (1917–1918)

CENTRAL POWERS
Major Powers
Austria-Hungary (1914–1918)
Germany (1914–1918)
Ottoman Empire/Turkey (1914–1918)
The island empire of the United Kingdom operated as a constitutional monarchy under the reign of King George V, with David Lloyd George as prime minister, or leader of the elected government in Parliament. It entered the war in 1914 to defend Belgium’s neutrality. Because of its position as a world power, its mighty navy and its many colonies had the least to gain from a war in Europe.
Although France was a republic, many citizens—and especially the army—longed for the glory days of Napoleon Bonaparte’s empire. President Raymond Poincaré directed France’s treaty of alliance with Russia, but by 1917, he had lost political power to the new Prime Minister, Georges Clemenceau. Like the U.K., France had colonies around the world, but it wanted revenge against Germany for its loss at the Battle of Sedan in 1870 in the Franco-Prussian War. In this battle, Germany had captured the rich land of Alsace-Lorraine, and France wanted the region back. Napoleon III was the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte. He was president and then emperor of France from 1848 to 1870.
Russia was ruled by Tsar Nicholas II. Tsars had ruled with an iron fist and maintained an economy based on serfdom. This position hindered the industrialization of Russia and kept 165 million people in virtual slavery. By 1914, Nicholas’s industrialization efforts had brought Russia far from where it was at the turn of the century, but it still lagged far behind the rest of Europe.
Otto von Bismarck, the prime minister of Prussia, unified the German states in 1871 under Kaiser Wilhelm I. After Wilhelm’s death, the crown passed to his son (who soon died) and then to his grandson, who in 1888 became Kaiser Wilhelm II. Because German unification had come so late, Germany had no colonies to supply it with raw materials or to buy German goods. Germany itself, however, was rich in raw materials, and by 1900 the country had become a leading industrial power.
In 1908, the Young Turks (the name given to a group of army officers who favored reforming the administration of the Ottoman Empire) forced the theocratic government of Sultan Abdul Hamid to institute a western-style constitution. This Islamic state gave up much of its sovereignty in exchange for help from Germany to build its army. By 1914, Germany had a greater influence on Ottoman foreign policy than the Turks did.
Like the Ottoman Empire, Austria-Hungary was an old and dying kingdom. Ruled by the 600-year-old Hapsburg Dynasty, this empire had at one time or another controlled most parts of Europe. By 1914, it had lost most of its prestige and was left with a small collection of lands that harbored numerous ethnicities. Emperor Franz Joseph’s attempts to hold this empire together and reassert its position in Europe provided the “explosion” that led to the Great War.
In 1914, the old empires were dying or clinging to outdated social practices and military tactics. To maintain their strength, countries entered into different alliances with one another in which one country would come to the aid of the other if attacked. Industrialization shifted wealth away from the land and into the factories in the cities. It brought tremendous wealth, surplus, and social unrest. As the aristocracies tried to hold on to their privilege and influence, liberals and radicals called for social reform and led mass protests. Some nations responded by crushing opposition, while others met the protesters’ demands which led to greater conflict between the rich and poor, or by uniting the two sides under the banner of nationalism.

In Hadol’s cartoon, the countries of Europe are personified. For example, England is drawn as an old maid with a dog (Ireland) on a leash. How are the other countries depicted?

(A Spanish lady sleeps on a subservient Portugal. France unsheathes its sword to protect itself against Prussia, a fat mustachioed Bismarck-like figure, squashing its southern neighbor Austria under its knee, with one hand encircling Austria’s outstretched legs in the east, the other placed possessively on the Netherlands and Belgium. The figure of Garibaldi represents a unified Italy, his head and shoulders protected from Prussian encroachment by the shelter of a Swiss roof. The rising tide of nationalism in Greece and the Dardanelles appears as the sleepy-eyed figure of European Turkey, his female companion across the Bosphorus, lying in comfort, smoking her narghilé. Norway and Sweden appear like a panther, ready to spring into action. A giant Russian sits overlooking the whole scene, a host of wild bears jumping up behind his voluminous coat tails to the East.)
In Austria-Hungary, nationalist feelings served to divide the country. Austria did not share a common language or culture with Hungary. Austrians spoke German; Hungarians spoke Magyar. Other ethnicities had their own languages as well. These ethnic groups did not want to be a part of Austria-Hungary and they also didn’t want other ethnicities living within their borders. Each wanted a separate homeland for themselves. In addition to ethnic divisions, these areas also had different religious heritages, including Protestant, Roman Catholic, Orthodox, and Muslim. Austria-Hungary was too poor, too weak, and too divided to survive much longer.
Long-Term Causes

New Zealand troops in the Somme and Ancre area

What caused this great conflagration in Europe? Several factors stand out:

- Unification of Germany
- Imperialism
- Alliances
- Militarization
- Industrialization
- Social unrest
- Nationalism
Prussian Prime Minister Otto von Bismarck unified Prussia and the German states in 1871 under Kaiser Wilhelm I (grandfather of Kaiser Wilhelm II). The previous year, Prussia had defeated France at the Battle of Sedan. This battle decided the Franco-Prussian War and ended the reign of France’s Napoleon III. It also forced France to cede Alsace-Lorraine to Germany.
A unified Germany threatened English industrial dominance; Germany also embarked on a military buildup that posed a threat to all of Europe. Germany’s well-equipped, well-trained army became the standard by which other armies in Europe were measured. Germany also built railroads to transport troops and supplies, modernized its weaponry, and continually trained its troops.
Imperialism was clearly a contributing cause of World War I. The competition for overseas possessions often brought European powers into conflict. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, Germany became more and more aggressive in its quest for imperial possessions. In 1905, the leading imperial powers acceded to Germany’s demand for a conference to dispute French control of Morocco. Though Germany gained nothing, other nations began to view Germany as a threat to stability in Europe. Britain and France had vied for control of areas in Africa, the Middle East, and the Indian subcontinent. It was not until the Anglo-French Entente of 1904 that the two nations finally settled their colonial disputes. Many the “entangling alliances” that historians often cite as a premier cause of World War I actually came about as a result of conflicts over imperialism.
European alliances were designed to keep a balance of power. The Triple Entente (U.K., France, and Russia) balanced the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy). Belgium had pledged neutrality but made a treaty with the U.K. to protect it in case of attack. The Ottoman Empire was weak and had allowed Germany too much control over its foreign policy. As a whole, these alliances assured total peace or total war. There was nothing in between: one incident could set off a chain reaction that would draw all the countries of Europe into a conflict.
The Industrial Revolution brought great changes to all aspects of life, including the military. Armies were now swifter, stronger, more mobile and more deadly. New technologies also created new weapons. The cavalry and bayonets of the past would now meet tanks, machine guns, howitzer cannons, and airplanes on the battlefields of Europe.
Since the Enlightenment, people had begun to lose faith in divine right and to question their governments. No longer did the poor and oppressed accept that they were destined by God to be poor and oppressed. Communist and socialist movements across Europe called for reforms that allowed labor unions, granted greater freedom to the masses, and established more democratic governments. As the movements grew, monarchs looked for ways to unite their countries. They found it in nationalism.
In countries like Germany, nationalist movements united the people with a sense of greatness of who they were. Nationalism takes patriotism and adds to it a sense of superiority that calls for the conquering of the inferior. In the 19th century, nationalism was expressed as dedication to and identification with the nation-state as evidenced by the unification of Germany and Italy.
The assassination of Franz Ferdinand triggered a series of events leading to war. A month after the assassination, Austria-Hungary sent an ultimatum to Serbia, which if agreed to, would have given Austria control of Serbia. When Serbia gave an evasive reply, Austria declared war. Austria acted with the knowledge it had the support of Germany, but that this action may bring Russia into war. Failed diplomacy between Kaiser Wilhelm and Tsar Nicholas led to the full mobilization of the Russian army, which in effect was a declaration of general war.

What is the meaning of the cartoon?
French and German troops mobilized, while some diplomatic efforts were attempted. France assured Russia it would come to its aid. Germany demanded that France stay out of the conflict, but when France refused, Germany declared war on France.

German military strategy planned for a two front war—defeat France with a lightening attack through Belgium and then turn on Russia. When Germany initiated its attack on France by going through neutral Belgium, Great Britain declared war on Germany.
Archduke Franz Ferdinand

- Ferdinand’s ideas created strife
- Ferdinand and his wife assassinated, June 28, 1914
- Emperor used nephew’s assassination as excuse to punish Serbia

Why did all of the leaders in Europe—who did not want to go to war—seemingly jump head-first into armed conflict when the opportunity came? When Emperor Franz Joseph’s son committed suicide, the emperor was forced to appoint his nephew Archduke Franz Ferdinand as heir to the Austria-Hungarian throne. Ferdinand’s ideas to end the dual monarchy, expand rights beyond the nobility, and his commoner wife had all created strife between the Emperor and his heir.

Ferdinand and his wife visited Sarajevo to build unity in the ethnically diverse empire. On June 28, 1914, during a parade, a member of the Black Hand, a Serbian revolutionary group, threw a bomb at the Archduke’s car. The bomb missed, but the driver took a wrong turn and ended up stopping beside Gavrilo Princip, another Black Hand member. Princip pulled his pistol and killed Ferdinand and his wife. These shots proved to be the catalyst starting the Great War.

Princip was arrested. The revolutionary group he belonged to was secretly supported by members of the Serbian government. After some hesitation, the emperor decided to use his nephew’s assassination as an excuse to punish Serbia.
Franz Joseph’s Ultimatum to Serbia

- Designed to punish Serbia for encouraging Slavic nationalism
- Ultimatum had three main components
- Serbia refuses, looks to Russia for support

Emperor Franz Joseph blamed Serbia for his nephew’s death. He, along with leading Austrian officials, wanted to punish Serbia for its role in encouraging Slavic nationalism in Austria-Hungary. At the same time Austria-Hungary knew it needed to avoid a general war in Europe. Once it had secured Germany’s support, Austria-Hungary sent its ultimatum to Serbia, giving the nation only 48 hours to comply. The ultimatum had three main components:

1. Suppress all anti-Austrian propaganda.
2. Dissolve nationalist and terrorist groups.
3. Allow Austrian representatives to participate in Serbia’s investigation of assassination plot and serve on all government agencies dealing with revolutionaries.

Austria needed to act quickly to prevent other nations from mobilizing in support of Serbia or offering diplomatic solutions which would force Austria to be the aggressor in the war and weaken its position at a peace settlement.

Blaming terrorists, Serbia denied it had any connection to the assassination. Even so, Serbian officials were willing to comply with the first two demands. The third demand, however, would have required Serbia to surrender its sovereignty. Knowing a refusal of Franz Joseph’s ultimatum would mean war, Serbia asked Russia if it would come to the aid of their “Slavic brothers.”
Germany’s Kaiser Wilhelm II believed there were two reasons a major war would not break out in Europe. The first was based on his own family ties: Wilhelm, Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, and Queen Victoria of England were all first cousins. This kinship created friendships, and the leaders often sent personal messages directly to one another. Wilhelm believed that these family ties would supersed other interests. Secondly, Wilhelm viewed the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand as an attack on the institution of monarchy. The Kaiser assumed that his cousins’ desire to protect and preserve their monarchies would outweigh other loyalties and concerns. He was wrong on both accounts.
Tsar Nicholas II

- Chose Slavic cultural ties over both family ties and the monarchy
- Mobilized army to support Serbia
- Kaiser Wilhelm II mobilized army in response
- Both refused to back down

Russia’s Tsar Nicholas’s Slavic cultural ties to Serbia trumped both family ties and the monarchy. Germans shared a common language and culture with Austria. Russia saw Serbia as its Slavic brother. Tsar Nicholas II mobilized his army to support Serbia. Kaiser Wilhelm II mobilized his army in response. Both refused to back down. The die was cast for war.
Pre-war mobilization plans exacerbated hopes for a diplomatic resolution in Europe. As telegrams passed between Germany and Russia in the few days following Austria’s declaration of war on Serbia on July 28, military leaders were already calling up troops. An anxious Europe waited to see if either Russia or Germany would back down. They did not have to wait long—Germany declared war on Russia on August 1, 1914, opening the way for the rest of Europe to become involved in the conflict.
The Schlieffen Plan—named for Count Alfred von Schlieffen, its author—outlined Germany’s plan of attack in the event of a conflict with Russia and France. Devised between 1892 and 1905, the plan centered on a rapid defeat of France so that Germany would not have to divide its forces on two fronts. Germany considered avoiding a two-front war as essential in order to defeat Russia. The plan, however, also called for breaching Belgium’s neutrality, and Belgium had an alliance with England. Thus, any violation of Belgian neutrality would probably create an enemy of England as well. In essence, the Schlieffen Plan was a guarantee that any conflict leading to its implementation would also lead to an inevitable world crisis.
Four key battles marked various stages during the war; all were fought on the German western front in France.

Marne
Verdun
Somme
St. Mihiel
Hindenburg Line
The first Battle of the Marne took place on September 5–9, 1914. The most important consequence of the battle was that the French and British forces were able to prevent the German plan for a swift and decisive victory, and prevented the fall of Paris. At one point the French used 600 taxis to transport 6,000 reinforcements 40 miles from Paris to the front.

In the summer of 1918, a second battle was fought at the Marne. A combined French, British, and U.S. force held off a German offensive. This battle marked the last real attempt by the Central Powers to win the war.
February 21 - December 18, 1916
Verdun, France, 120 miles east of Paris
1 million dead or wounded
Demoralized both sides
Change in command of both sides
First extensive use of the flamethrower
Half of the German army in France fought at Verdun
Three-fourths of the French army fought at Verdun
Battle of the Somme

- July 1–Nov. 18, 1916
- Somme River, France
- Drew Germans away from Verdun
- Tactics became more sophisticated and supply lines became more efficient
- First use of tanks (British)

July 1 - November 18, 1916
Somme River, France, 25-mile front on either side of the river
Drew Germans away from Verdun
Tactics became more sophisticated
Supply lines became more efficient
First use of tanks (British)
Battle of St. Mihiel

- September 12–13, 1918
- French/German border, southwest of Verdun
- First battle using exclusively American troops under American commanders

September 12-13, 1918
French/German border, southwest of Verdun
First battle exclusively using American troops under American commanders
The Hindenburg Line proved to be a formidable barrier to Allied advances on the Western Front. The Hindenburg Line was a vast system of defenses in Northern France constructed by the Germans during the winter of 1916-17. It ran from the area around Arras all the way to beyond St. Quentin, and consisted of deep and wide trenches, thick belts of barbed wire, concrete machine-gun positions, concrete bunkers, tunnels, and command posts. It was considered virtually impregnable by the Germans. The British offensives of 1917-1918 were to prove otherwise. The line provided a crucial stronghold when the German commanders Paul von Hindenburg and Erich Ludendorff could not successfully pursue an attack on the Western Front in 1917.

The initial retreat to the line, Operation Alberich, proved to be a shrewd maneuver by the Germans. Despite fears that the troops would be demoralized when forced to relinquish hard-won ground, the move actually strengthened the German position and consolidated forces, allowing Germany to rest in a defensive position while conducting submarine attacks against the British supply line. British forces breeched the line in early October of 1918, and a month later the Great War came to close.
World War I brought changes in many aspects of warfare, including technologies, tactics, and weaponry. New weaponry and tactics evolved as commanders desperately sought any means to get an advantage and end the fighting. Communication to and from the battle zones was achieved through telephone, Morse Code, radios, and carrier pigeons.
When Allied and Central forces came to a deadlock in late 1914, troops began to dig in along a 475-mile front. Initially, soldiers dug holes or took shelter in artillery craters; eventually, these crude excavations evolved into eight-foot deep networks of trenches protected by barbed wire. Trench life was plagued with disease, lice, water, and mud. While many officers had dugout areas in which to rest, most soldiers had to sleep standing up or leaning in corners. German trenches were the most sophisticated and offered sleeping rooms, some of which had wallpaper and painted ceilings.
Life in the Trenches

- Monotony
- “No Man’s Land”
- Dawn and dusk attacks
- British front line troops typically served for four days before being relieved

Life in the trenches consisted of long periods of monotony interrupted only by dreary conditions, the terror of attack, and periodic raids. Opposing armies’ trenches, sometimes as close as 100 feet from one another, were separated by a stretch of barren terrain known as “No Man’s Land.” Twice a day, at dawn and dusk, soldiers mounted a raised ledge in the trench called the “fire-step.” They stood ready for an hour, preparing for an enemy attack. From time to time, reservists relieved front-line soldiers and brought needed supplies. British front line troops typically served for four days before being relieved.
The relentless conditions of trench warfare and fighting on the front lines resulted in a new challenge to soldiers—“shell shock” or battle fatigue. Long periods of shelling and the mental stress of living in constant danger in the trenches could sometimes produce psychiatric trauma. Those afflicted usually demonstrated symptoms such as trembling, tearfulness, and damaged memory. Initially, soldiers suffering from shell shock were thought to be exhibiting cowardice and many were executed. Treatment improved once the condition was identified, yet most veterans still ended up suffering long-term effects.
On Christmas in 1914, a surprising thing occurred that broke the monotony of life in the trenches. Along the lines in various places, soldiers (typically British and German troops) called unofficial truces. Enemies joined together for caroling, soccer games, conversation, and exchanging tokens of war. The truce was short-lived, however, and fighting resumed after this brief period of humanitarianism.
Scorched Earth

- Tactic implemented by the Russians, borrowed by the Germans
- Retreating armies would burn buildings, ravage crops, cut down trees, and force inhabitants to flee
- Goal was to leave nothing of value behind that opposing forces could use

So-called “scorched earth” tactics employed by both sides during World War I devastated the countryside and left civilians (especially peasants) homeless and desperate. First used by the Russians on the eastern front and later adopted by German troops on the western front, “scorched earth” involved soldiers leaving a trail of destruction as they retreated. Armies would burn buildings, ravage crops, cut down trees, and force inhabitants to flee their homes. The goal of the tactic was to leave nothing of value behind that opposing forces might be able to use.
As in all wars, information regarding enemy plans and strategies is an invaluable asset, making espionage a part of wartime strategies. In World War I, spies would try to obtain the ciphers to the enemy’s secret codes. Spies would also try to gain valuable information through phone tapping and interrogating prisoners at the front lines. Spying carried very real risks—most spies captured behind enemy lines were executed. Two famous spies executed during World War I happened to be women. British nurse Edith Cavell, who was the matron of Berkendael Hospital in Brussels, helped more than 200 Allied soldiers escape; the Germans executed her for this deed. The infamous “Mata Hari” (her real name was Margaretha Zelle) was a former exotic dancer who became the mistress of many key French officials during the war. She passed on many secrets she learned to Germany; however, the French discovered she was a spy and executed her.
The Great War saw the advent of many new weapons technologies. Warships were designed to move more quickly and were equipped with higher quality weaponry. Improved submarine technology made it possible for the vessels to conduct torpedo attacks without surfacing. Artillery became more accurate and had longer ranges. Finally, chemical weapons such as chlorine gas were widely used in war for the first time.
The onset of the Great War saw aircraft used primarily in the area of intelligence. In an effort to combat enemy intelligence, developers began experimenting with arming airplanes. The greatest fighting spot on a plane was the nose. Dutch designer Anton Fokker’s interrupter allowed aircraft to have nose-mounted guns. The interrupter timed bullet flow with propeller motion, allowing bullets to pass between the blades. Bomber planes also advanced with war efforts and modern warfare would forever be changed as battles took to the skies.

Successful fighter pilots became known as “flying aces.” The most noted for the Germans was the Red Baron who had 80 victories. For the British, Major Mick Mannock had 73.
In 1914, Britain had 75 submarines to Germany’s 30, but Germany recognized the opportunity to cripple the island nation by sinking all approaching vessels, whether Allied or neutral. By February of 1917, Germany had amassed some 150 submarines for unrestricted warfare against Britain. In April of 1917, 373 Allied ships succumbed to German submarine torpedoes. Although the tactic of starving out the Brits seemed to be well on its way to success, Germany’s indiscriminate torpedoing of ships angered many neutral nations.
On May 7, 1915, a German U-boat torpedoed the British steamer *Lusitania* off the coast of southern Ireland. More than 1000 civilians perished—including 128 American citizens. Eyewitnesses reported a second explosion after the initial torpedo struck. Recent research corroborates neither German claims of a secret munitions cargo nor British claims of a second torpedo. Rather, it suggests that a coal ignition may have caused the second blast. Whatever the case may be, America’s anti-German sentiment flared after the tragedy, and popular sentiment in favor of abandoning neutrality and entering the war started to increase.
The two main pieces of artillery used during the war were the machine gun and the Howitzer. Machine guns maintained and perpetuated the deadlock of trench warfare because their rapid-fire capability made it quite deadly to attempt to breach “No Man’s Land” between the trenches. The British originally used a machine gun designed by Hiram Maxim, called the Maxim. It was modified over the course of the war and a version was eventually manufactured by Vickers. The German Maschinengewehr was modeled after the Maxim also.
Howitzers

- Heavy artillery
- Became more mobile
- Especially useful in bombarding enemy strongholds from long distances

Artillery technology had also improved by World War I, resulting in the Howitzer, a long-range, large-shelled weapon. As the war went on, further improvements to the Howitzer made it more mobile. Howitzers were especially useful in bombarding enemy strongholds from long distances. Artillery launched by Howitzers would travel a high arc and drop into enemy territory.
The Great War saw wide-scale implementation of both archaic and modern weaponry and strategies. The most horrific of these strategies was the use of poison gas. The worst of the gases was chlorine. It poured from the German lines like a yellow-green cloud. Within seconds of inhaling its vapor it destroyed the victim's respiratory organs, bringing on choking attacks. In 1917, the Germans began using mustard gas (Yperite). Mustard gas, an almost odorless chemical, was distinguished by the serious blisters it caused both internally and externally, brought on several hours after exposure.
Another new innovation in weaponry was the flamethrower, a terrifying German weapon first used at the battle of Verdun in 1916. Flamethrowers initially surprised and frightened French troops in the trenches. Because of the weapon’s limited range (about 40 yards), French soldiers soon developed counter tactics: By targeting the flamethrower’s tank they could turn the German soldier carrying it into a ball of flames. Despite this vulnerability, the flamethrower eventually became an essential part of all armies’ arsenals.
Another innovation in weaponry was the tank. Developed by the British, the tank got its name because of a need for secrecy: to deceive the enemy as to the vehicle’s true purpose, the British referred to the vehicle as a water carrier, or “tank.” Initially, the tank was unsuccessful due to mechanical problems and slow speed, which made them easy targets. The first successful tank offensive occurred at Cambrae in 1917, when more than 400 tanks were able to breach German lines. Tanks would continue to play an increasingly important role in the war, and by World War II, they had become a major weapon in modern warfare.
Telephone and Radio

- Difficulties in keeping lines of communication open
- Telephone’s shortcomings
- Radio’s shortcomings

The vast battlefields of the Great War created new challenges for military commanders as communication difficulties arose. Both telephones and radios proved faulty in addressing communication needs: telephone lines terminated at the front line, which proved problematic when armies advanced, while radios could only transmit in Morse Code, broke down easily, and were very cumbersome.
World War I also gave rise to the very first war films. In 1916, two cameramen filmed battle footage from the British front line along the Somme. The edited footage, *The Battle of the Somme*, included staged scenes, yet the large audiences that saw it viewed it as authentic. While newspapers continued to provide the majority of war news, many other war films would be released before the end of World War I.
Zimmerman Telegram

- Sent January 1917 by the German Foreign Secretary
- Proposed a German-Mexican alliance against the U.S.
- Telegram intercepted by the British and made public
- Added to the American public’s desire to enter the war

In January of 1917, German Foreign Secretary Arthur Zimmerman sent a confidential, encoded telegram intended to be relayed by the German ambassador in the U.S. to the German ambassador in Mexico. The telegram outlined a plan for a proposed alliance between Mexico and Germany against the United States. In return for allying themselves with Germany, Zimmerman promised to help Mexico “…reconquer the lost territory in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona.” The British, however, intercepted the message before it reached Count von Bernstoff, the German ambassador in Washington, D.C. Hoping to convince the Americans to abandon neutrality and enter the war as an ally, the British presented the telegraph to President Woodrow Wilson on February 24; soon afterwards, the contents of the telegram became public. As a result, more and more Americans began to clamor for their country to enter the war.
While the United States had long supported the Allied forces, it maintained its neutrality through the first few years of the war. Sentiment to stay out of the war was initially strong; President Woodrow Wilson even won reelection in 1916 using the campaign slogan, “He kept us out of war.” The news reports the U.S. received from Britain, however, were strongly biased in favor of the Allies; British propaganda also tried to stoke anti-German sentiment in the U.S. by focusing on supposed German “atrocities” during the war. Anti-German sentiment also rose because of Germany’s use of unrestricted submarine warfare (most notably with the sinking of the Lusitania) and the Zimmerman telegram. Finally, German subs sank two U.S. ships in mid-March of 1917. On April 2, President Wilson asked Congress to declare war; on April 6, the war resolution passed. Wilson proclaimed a desire for a “peace without victory,” and the United States began to assemble its forces.
The Draft

- U.S. needed massive military force
- June 5, 1917 – Draft implemented
- 24 million men registered; 6,400,000 actually called into service

New York City men wait to register for the draft

The massive military force the United States needed to have a major impact on the war could only be achieved by conscription. Consequently, on June 5, 1917, the government implemented a draft for men aged 21 to 31. The first men drafted into service were chosen by lottery at a ceremony in the Senate office building on July 20. While only 6,400,000 men ended up being called into service during the war, an overwhelming 24 million men registered.
In an effort to finance the war and to drum up public support for the war effort, President Wilson launched a Liberty Bond campaign. Top artists were recruited to create colorful posters urging people to buy the bonds. In addition to collecting funds, the bond drives stirred American patriotism as everyone from marching bands and movie stars to the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts turned out to support bond events. Citizens from all walks of life responded and invested in the bonds. All told, four Liberty Bond drives and one Victory Bond drive raised over $20 billion for the war effort.
Both the war and war propaganda created an increase in anti-German sentiment in the United States. In addition to rallying public support for the war and convincing people to buy bonds, the government’s newly-formed Committee of Public Information took a cue from the British and put out propaganda posters that demonized the Germans. In addition, people began to change everyday terms derived from German. Many food items were renamed: “sauerkraut” became “liberty cabbage,” “frankfurters” became “liberty sausages” and the hamburger became “Salisbury steak.” The ugliest side of anti-German sentiment came when people began to ostracize Americans with German ancestry. Some went even further and attacked German Americans: in April of 1918, a mob lynched a German-born citizen named Robert Prager.
As male workers went off to war, women began to fill some of their jobs—especially at factories. As women demonstrated their competence and skill in the workforce, society began to reconsider its view of women and their roles in society. One of the biggest changes for women came when governments began granting suffrage: first in Denmark (1915); followed by The Netherlands and Russia (1917); Austria, Britain, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Poland and Sweden (1918); Germany and Luxembourg (1919); and the United States (1920).
In 1915, after Russian commanders ordered a general retreat, Tsar Nicholas took command of the army. His presence at the front inspired the troops but left a political vacuum in St. Petersburg. Years of Tsarist oppression, such as shown in the photo, compounded the unpopularity of the regime. On March 8, 1917, riots broke out in Petrograd. The Tsar ordered troops to restore order, but the soldiers joined the revolution. The Russian parliament, the Duma, created a provisional government on March 12. On the advice of both military and political leaders, Tsar Nicholas abdicated, thus ending tsarist rule in Russia.
The provisional government turned out to be short-lived: it was undermined by bread shortages, the devaluation of the ruble, and its inability to maintain the country’s infrastructure. The biggest threat, however, came from the growing support for communism. Under the leadership of Vladimir Lenin, the communists gained control of the government in 1917, marking the beginning of the Soviet Union. Lenin and other key Soviet officials soon met with Germany about ending the war between the countries. With the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, Russia withdrew from the war, leaving Germany free to focus all of its attention on the Western Front.
Arabs in the War

- Arab tribes unite with one another and the British against Ottoman rule
- Arab raids disrupt Turkish supply lines and draw troops away from the British-Turkish front

The various Arab tribes in the Middle East had long been under the influence of the Turkish-dominated Ottomans. Although these tribes frequently fought amongst themselves, they came together and worked with the British to throw off Ottoman rule and establish an Arab nation. Led by Husayn ibn Ali, the Amir of Mecca, and British Captain T.E. Lawrence, Arab forces began disrupting Turkish supply lines and attacking small outposts. These tactics fit the style of the undersupplied and undertrained Arabs. The British benefited from these forays because the Ottomans had to pull troops away from the British-Turkish front in order to chase Arab raiders.
The armistice that would eventually mark the end to fighting in the Great War went into effect on Monday, November 11, 1918 at 11:00 a.m. This armistice, set for the 11th hour of the 11th day of the 11th month, was only a temporary agreement to stop the fighting. While the armistice officially ended the Great War, the peace negotiations and resulting treaty yet to come would prove problematic.
Peace negotiations took place in Paris in January of 1919. The talks were dominated by the “Big Three” Allied leaders: President Woodrow Wilson of the United States, Premier George Clemenceau of France, and Prime Minister David Lloyd George of England. Also shown in the picture is Prime Minister Vittorio Orlando of Italy. While representatives from 27 countries participated in negotiation talks, the defeated powers were not invited. Another notable absence was Russia. The Russians were engaged in a civil war and did not attend. It took six months before a final treaty addressing peace with Germany was agreed upon and signed. Four other treaties dealing with Austria, Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria soon followed.
On June 28, 1919, at the Palace of Versailles outside of Paris, representatives of Germany’s new Weimar Republic (formed after the Kaiser had abdicated) had to sign a treaty without having had input into any of its terms. The treaty was signed on the anniversary of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, which had ignited the war five years earlier. The Versailles Treaty’s harsh conditions and unrealistic requirements for reparations angered the German people, helped contribute to an economic depression that would affect all of Europe, and failed to resolve the underlying reasons for many conflicts on the continent. The treaty’s basic conditions included:

1. Germany had to cede the region of Alsace-Lorraine (which it had won in the Franco-Prussian War in the 1870s) back to France, the Sudetenland to Czechoslovakia, and the “Polish Corridor” to Poland.
2. Demilitarization of the Rhineland.
3. Germany’s Saar coal region was placed under international control for 15 years.
4. Disarmament: Germany was limited to only 100,000 army troops; no reserves, tanks, aircraft, warships, or subs were permitted.
5. Germany had to pay $5 billion in immediate reparations, with future reparations to be determined by May 1921.

Some saw the treaty as overly punitive: they felt that rather than setting terms to ensure a lasting peace in Europe, the treaty instead was designed to make Germany suffer. Being stripped of a real army and having to give up large chunks of its territory was humiliating, but the reparations required were crippling. All told, Germany would be expected to pay over $33 billion in reparations, an impossible amount for the war-devastated country.
President Woodrow Wilson outlined a plan for peace called the “Fourteen Points” in an address to Congress on January 8, 1918. His plan for peace was based on research from a group of experts. “The Inquiry,” formed in the fall of 1917, faced the task of identifying feasible war aims for the U.S. and determining war goals for the other countries involved. Wilson ultimately found it impossible to convince the European allies that a “peace without victory” was in their best interest. European leaders either dismissed most of the ideals of the Fourteen Points or diluted them in the final peace agreement. The Fourteen Points were:

1. Open diplomacy; no secret treaties.
2. Freedom of the seas in war and in peace.
3. Removal of all economic barriers.
4. Reduction in national military forces.
5. Colonial disputes judged impartially. Subjected peoples have equal voice with colonial powers.
6. Withdrawal of all German and Austrian forces from Russian territory.
7. Restoration of Belgian sovereignty.
8. Occupied French territory restored, including Alsace-Lorraine.
9. Borders of Italian frontiers redrawn according to national identity.
12. Non-Turks within Ottoman Empire given opportunity for autonomy.
13. Establish a Polish state with sea access.
The League of Nations lived a short and inglorious life from 1919 until 1939. The League was an important component of the Versailles Treaty, and a plan for the organization was put into place on February 14, 1919, at the Paris Peace Conference. President Woodrow Wilson was given the task of writing the League’s covenant and (with the exception of Germany and Russia) any country that signed the peace treaties could be part of the new world organization.

The League’s development, however, suffered a key setback when the U.S. Senate refused to ratify the Versailles Treaty. Many senators objected to the treaty primarily because of the League of Nations. They felt that the League’s charter committed the U.S. to comply with any of the League’s decisions, and thus undermined U.S. sovereignty. Wilson embarked on a countrywide speaking tour in order to get the public to pressure the Senate to ratify the treaty (he ended up suffering a stroke from the strain of the tour), but the Senate ultimately rejected it. In 1921, the U.S. finally put a formal conclusion to the war by signing separate treaties with Germany, Austria, and Hungary. The U.S. never did join the League of Nations.

The League proved to be an impotent, powerless organization that many countries manipulated to advance their own goals rather than to administer justice. Inconsistencies in purpose and administration prevented the League from ever fulfilling the ideal of becoming a world-governing body that settled disputes, promoted disarmament, and supervised world health.
Number of wounded for the Central Powers

- Germany: 4,126,000
- Austria-Hungary: 3,620,000
- Ottoman Empire: 1,565,000

Number of wounded for the Allied Powers

- Russia: 4,950,000
- France: 3,600,000
- British Empire: 2,111,000
- Italy: 947,000
- United States: 204,000
Number of Deaths

Central Powers

- Germany - 1,935,000 (50%)
- Austria-Hungary - 1,200,000 (21%)
- Ottoman Empire - 725,000 (18%)

Allied Powers

- Russia - 1,700,000 (20%)
- France - 1,368,000 (14%)
- British Empire - 942,000 (10%)
- Italy - 680,000 (8%)
- United States - 116,000 (2%)

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- United States 116,000

German soldier lies dead next to his machine gun.
Physical and Financial Costs of the War

- Food shortages
- Economic depression

The war exacted a huge physical and financial toll on the population of Europe. The war wiped out entire villages and even some cities were wiped out by the fighting. Much of the fighting in France had destroyed valuable farmland. Thus farmers had lost both their animals and their land—a development that contributed to food shortages after the war. As a result of the lingering bitterness between nations and ethnicities, food shortages, economic depression, and trade issues continued after the fighting. Countries such as France and Great Britain had borrowed heavily to finance the war and were now deeply in debt to lender countries like the United States.
European society was put in a state of upheaval. The political map of Europe was redrawn, often along ethnic lines. Some of these boundary changes would lead to future unrest—several Balkan states united into one Yugoslavia, for example. This led many people to leave familiar lands to find “their own kind.” Once the refugees relocated they were often rejected by their ethnic kin because of competition for food and jobs. Also, loss of land by once-powerful European Empires like Austria-Hungary led to bitter feelings toward neighboring countries.
The war inspired an outburst of creativity as writers and artists found a number of different ways to express the emotions evoked by the conflict. The poets Wilfred Owen (*Dulce et Decorum Est* and *Anthem for Doomed Youth*) and Isaac Rosenberg (*Break of Day in the Trenches* and *Deadman’s Dump*) tried to capture the tragedy of war in their writing. Visual imagery emerged in movies that became popular in the 1920s. Short comedies like the Keystone Cops and features starring Rudolf Valentino became a dominant force in entertainment. Soldier-painters such as Otto Dix and Stanley Spencer influenced the art world. Several years after the war had ended, novels like Erich Maria Remarque’s *All Quiet on the Western Front* would emerge to bring further clarity and insight as to the impact of the Great War.
New Nations: Europe

- Ireland
  - Michael Collins
  - Northern Ireland
- Division of Austria-Hungary
  1. Austria
  2. Hungary
  3. Czechoslovakia
  4. Yugoslavia
  5. Other portions went to Romania, Poland and Italy

Ireland
Sinn Fein is the Irish Republican party. The party and its leader, Michael Collins gained freedom for Ireland by agreeing not to fight for the six counties of Northern Ireland. This concession led to the conflict between Northern Ireland and England that has continued today.

Austria-Hungary
In an attempt to resolve ethnic tensions, Austria-Hungary was carved into four new nations: Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia. In addition, other parts of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire were parceled out to adjacent countries (Romania, Poland, Italy). While the effort did create homelands for some ethnicities, it created other problems as the new majority ethnicities oppressed the remaining minorities. Widespread ethnic cleansing accompanied the Yugoslav War from 1991 to 1999, of which the most significant examples occurred in eastern Croatia and Krajina, in most of Bosnia (1992-1995), and in the Albanian-dominated breakaway province of Serbia called Kosovo (1999). Large numbers of Serbs, Croats, Bosnians and Albanians were forced to flee their homes and were expelled from their countries. In 2004, following an upsurge in violence, Serbs were forced by Albanian rioters to flee their homes in the province.
Despite earlier promises by the British to grant self-determination to the Arab nation, the Sykes-Picot Agreement between Britain and France left it up to the two nations to divide and control Arab lands as they saw fit. Following the war, “mandates,” or trusteeships, were established over former Turkish-controlled territories. The British and French controlled much of this area. In a 1917 document called the Balfour Declaration, British Foreign Secretary Arthur Balfour stated in a letter to Jewish leader Lord Rothschild that his government supported the idea of a Jewish homeland in Palestine. Most Arab states opposed the creation of a Jewish state, and when the United Nations voted to establish Israel, the Arab countries immediately attacked the new state and were defeated. Arab feelings of betrayal at this time set the stage for the anti-western views that still dominate many Arab nations.
Rise of Extremism: Japan and Russia

Japan
- Moved to expand its empire
- Extend its influence to mainland China
- Rise of militaristic extremists

Russia
- Joseph Stalin
- Modernization
- Repression

Japan
As the war raged in Europe, imperial nations ignored their East Asian colonies. Japan saw an opportunity to step into this vacuum and expand its influence over mainland China and benefit from the country’s natural resources. As Japan expanded its empire, militaristic extremists gained in popularity and power on the island nation.

Russia
Following Lenin’s death in 1924, Joseph Stalin assumed leadership of the Soviet Union. Stalin consolidated all state power in himself, then set the U.S.S.R. on a course of modernization that brought industry and order to the vast country. At the same time, his paranoia led to the imprisonment or murder of millions of people who disagreed with his policies or threatened his power.
There was widespread dissatisfaction with Germany’s new Weimar government. To address the $33 billion in reparations, the government simply printed more paper money. This increase in deutschmarks created hyperinflation; at one point, one billion deutschmarks equaled about one American cent. Humiliated by the concessions the Versailles Treaty had forced them to make, some Germans sought to rebuild national pride by joining extreme right-wing and nationalistic political movements, including the National Socialist Party, which came to be known as the “Nazis.” Adolf Hitler, an Austrian-born German who had served as a corporal in the Great War, rose to become leader of the party and eventually dictator of Germany in 1933.
In Italy, the newly formed Fascist Party set out to distinguish itself from the socialists and communists by promoting an extreme nationalism and promising to restore to the nation the glory of ancient Rome. The fasces—a bundle of sticks wrapped around an axe—was one of the symbols of Rome. Benito Mussolini, the leader of the Fascists, became dictator of Italy in 1924. Though the Fascists employed brutal, repressive tactics, Mussolini’s government also brought efficiency and productivity to the factories; as life improved, citizens became tolerant of the Fascist’s heavy-handed regime.
After the brutality of the Great War, many Americans came to believe that U.S. interests should not be tied to those of Europe. Consequently, the U.S. became isolationist again, withdrawing from taking any major role in European affairs. When the Great Depression hit in the 1930s, the U.S. became even more isolationist as it struggled to solve economic problems at home.

While socialist and communist groups were gaining power in Europe, the U.S. became more and more suspicious of all “reds.” In 1919, bombs were set off in several American cities; one of them damaged the home of Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer. Palmer believed the bombings signaled an attempt by “radicals” and “subversives” to overthrow the government. In 1919 and 1920, Palmer directed the Justice Department to conduct raids and arrest many communists, socialists, and anarchists. Most arrested were completely innocent: only a few were convicted, but more than 500 were deported.
Post-war Europe was beset by instability. The defeat of the Central Powers resulted in the creation of new nations, new governments, and a whole new set of challenges. Dictators emerged and fascism—fostered by poor economic conditions—began to spread.
The Great War
World War I
Causes, Events, Aftermath

Map of Allied and Central Powers

ALLIED POWERS
Major Powers
• British Empire (1914–1918)
• France (1914–1918)
• Italy (1914–1918)
• Russia (1914–1917)
• United States (1917–1918)

CENTRAL POWERS
Major Powers
• Austria-Hungary (1914–1918)
• Germany (1914–1918)
• Ottoman Empire: Turkey (1914–1918)

United Kingdom
• Constitutional monarchy
• 1914: Entered the war to defend Belgium’s neutrality
• Had the least to gain from a war in Europe
France:
- A republic
- Many longed for glory days of Napoleon Bonaparte’s empire
- Colonial power
- Sought revenge against Germany

Russia:
- Tsar Nicholas II
- Economy based on serfdom
- Struggle to industrialize

Germany:
- Otto von Bismarck unified the German states (1871)
- Kaiser Wilhelm II
- No colonies
- Leading industrial power by 1900
Ottoman Empire

- 1908: Western-style constitution
- Surrendered sovereignty for German help
- 1914: German influence in Ottoman foreign policy

Austria-Hungary

- Hapsburg Dynasty—an old and dying kingdom
- Numerous ethnicities
- Provided the "explosion" that led to the Great War

Pre-War Europe

- Outdated social practices and military tactics
- Alliances
- Industrialization
- Aristocracies
- Calls for social reform
- Government responses
Balkan Powder Keg

- Nationalist feelings divide country
- Multiple languages, religions, and cultures
- Each wanted its own homeland

Long-Term Causes

- Unification of Germany
- Alliances
- Militarization
- Industrialization
- Social unrest
- Nationalism

Unification of Germany

- 1870: Prussia defeats France at the Battle of Sedan
- 1871: Otto von Bismarck unites Prussia and the German states
Unification of Germany (continued)

- Threatened English industrial dominance
- Military buildup threatened all of Europe
- German army became the new standard for other European armies

Imperialism

European control of Africa, 1914

Alliances

- Designed to balance power in Europe
- Triple Entente: U.K., France, and Russia
- Triple Alliance: Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy
- Belgium pledged neutrality
- Ottoman Empire weak
- Alliances assured total peace or total war
Industrialization

• Changed all aspects of life
• Armies swifter, stronger, more mobile, deadlier
• New military technologies

Social Unrest

• Enlightenment ideals infiltrated populace
• People lost faith in divine right
• People questioned government
• Communists and socialists called for reforms
• Monarchs looked for ways to unite their countries
• Nationalism

Nationalism

• A uniting force
• Patriotism combined with a sense of superiority
• Called for conquering the inferior
Events Leading to War

• June 28: Archduke Franz Ferdinand assassinated
• July 23: Austria-Hungary delivers ultimatum to Serbia
• July 28: Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia
• July 29: Austria-Hungary bombards Belgrade; Kaiser Wilhelm II and Tsar Nicholas II exchange telegrams trying to avoid war
• July 30: Russia orders full mobilization; France sends troops within six miles of German border
• July 31: Germany officially asks Austria not to mobilize while unofficially suggesting they do, and moves troops toward France

“...The lamps are going out all over Europe”

Events Leading to War (continued)

August 1: France orders full mobilization; Germany orders full mobilization, moves toward Luxembourg; German ambassador sorrowfully delivers declaration of war to Russian foreign minister
August 3: France and Germany declare war on each other; British mobilize army and navy
August 4: Germany invades Belgium; Great Britain and Belgium declare war on Germany
August 6: Austria-Hungary declares war on Russia

Archduke Franz Ferdinand

• Ferdinand’s ideas created strife
• Ferdinand and his wife assassinated, June 28, 1914
• Emperor used nephew’s assassination as excuse to punish Serbia

Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife on the parade route in Sarajevo

The apprehension of Gavrilo Princip
Franz Joseph’s Ultimatum to Serbia

- Designed to punish Serbia for encouraging Slavic nationalism
- Ultimatum had three main components
- Serbia refuses, looks to Russia for support

Franz Joseph I, Emperor of Austria
Serbian Prime Minister Nikola Pasic

Kaiser Wilhelm II

- Family ties would supersede other interests
- Assassination an attack on the institution of monarchy

Wilhelm II, Emperor of Germany, 1888–1918

Tsar Nicholas II

- Chose Slavic cultural ties over both family ties and the monarchy
- Mobilized army to support Serbia
- Kaiser Wilhelm II mobilized army in response
- Both refused to back down

Tsar Nicholas II and Tsarina Alexandra
Mobilization

- Pre-war mobilization plans hindered diplomacy
- Austria declared war on Serbia
- Military leaders called up troops
- Germany declared war on Russia on August 1, 1914

Germany’s Schlieffen Plan

- Outlined Germany’s plan of attack
- Relied on rapid defeat of France
- Avoiding two-front war essential
- Violated Belgium’s neutrality

Key Battles

- Marne
- Verdun
- Somme
- St. Mihiel
- Hindenburg Line
**Battle of the Marne**
- September 5–9, 1914
- Marne River, East of Paris
- Stopped Germany’s rapid advance
- Prevented the fall of Paris
- Set the stage for trench warfare

**Battle of Verdun**
- Feb. 21–Dec. 18, 1916
- Verdun, France, 120 miles east of Paris
- Demoralized both sides
- First extensive use of the flamethrower

**Battle of the Somme**
- July 1–Nov. 18, 1916
- Somme River, France
- Drew Germans away from Verdun
- Tactics became more sophisticated and supply lines became more efficient
- First use of tanks (British)
**Battle of St. Mihiel**

- September 12–13, 1918
- French/German border, southwest of Verdun
- First battle using exclusively American troops under American commanders

**Hindenburg Line**

- Crucial stronghold
- Formidable barrier to Allied advances
- Operation Alberich
- British forces breached the line in early October of 1918

**Changing Warfare**

- Changes in technologies, tactics, and weaponry
- Communication achieved through telephone, Morse Code, radios, and carrier pigeons
Trench Warfare

- Forces dug in to begin trench warfare along 475-mile front
- Plagued with disease, lice, water, and mud
- German trenches were the most sophisticated

Life in the Trenches

- Monotony
- “No Man’s Land”
- Dawn and dusk attacks
- British front line troops typically served for four days before being relieved

Shell Shock

- Symptoms
- Shell-shocked soldiers first viewed as cowards; many were executed
- Treatment improved once the condition was identified
Christmas Truce

- Christmas, 1914
- Unofficial truces implemented between soldiers
- Truce was short-lived

German and British troops meet during the Christmas truce

Scorched Earth

- Tactic implemented by the Russians, borrowed by the Germans
- Retreating armies would burn buildings, ravage crops, cut down trees, and force inhabitants to flee
- Goal was to leave nothing of value behind that opposing forces could use

Rains of a French town after German troops retreated through it, 1918

Espionage

- Spies tried to obtain information in various ways
- Risks
- Edith Cavell
- Mata Hari

British nurse and heroine Edith Cavell

German spy Mata Hari
Weapons
- Warships
- Submarines
- Artillery
- Chemical weapons

German troops use chlorine gas, Flanders, 1917

German submarine off the Danish coast

Airplanes
- First used for intelligence gathering; later armed
- Bomber planes
- “Aces”

German bombing raid on British camp, 1915

Baron Manfred Freiherr von Richthofen (the Red Baron)

Submarines
- Britain initially had more submarines than Germany
- German submarine strategy
- Backlash

German sailors load a torpedo on a U-boat

German U-boat and a sinking English steamer
**Sinking of the Lusitania**

- May 7, 1915: Passenger ship sunk by German submarine
- More than 1000 civilian deaths, including 128 Americans
- Germany claimed the ship was carrying munitions
- Incident put the U.S. one step closer to entering the war

**Machine Guns**

- Maintained and perpetuated trench warfare
- Designers and manufacturers continued to modify original machine gun - the Maxim

**Howitzers**

- Heavy artillery
- Became more mobile
- Especially useful in bombarding enemy strongholds from long distances
**Chemical Weapons**

- Archaic and modern weaponry and strategies meet
- Poison gas
- Attacked nervous system
  - painful death
  - long-lasting mental disturbances

A German dispatch rider wearing a gas mask, 1917

**Flamethrowers**

- Terrifying
  - German weapon first used at Verdun, 1916
- Effects
- Counter tactics

French troops using flamethrowers

**Tanks**

- British innovation
- Unsuccessful at first
- Cambrae, 1917: First successful tank offensive
- Increasingly important weapon in modern warfare

British tank in action

French tanks, Americans support French troops
Telephone and Radio

- Difficulties in keeping lines of communication open
- Telephone’s shortcomings
- Radio’s shortcomings

German soldiers set up a radio on the Western Front

The Media

- 1916: First war films
- Newspapers provided the majority of the public with war news

Behind the scenes of a film in Austria, 1918

Zimmerman Telegram

- Sent January 1917 by the German Foreign Secretary
- Proposed a German-Mexican alliance against the U.S.
- Telegram intercepted by the British and made public
- Added to the American public’s desire to enter the war

Coded copy of the Zimmerman Telegram
The U.S. Enters the War

- April 6, 1917: U.S. officially declares war against Germany
- Propaganda, submarine warfare, Zimmerman telegram erode neutrality
- “Peace without victory”

The Draft

- U.S. needed massive military force
- June 5, 1917 – Draft implemented
- 24 million men registered; 6,400,000 actually called into service

Liberty Bonds

- Intended to finance the war, increase public support for the war effort
- Patriotic appeal
- Over $20 billion raised from bonds
Anti-German Sentiment

- Committee of Public Information
- Eliminating German names
- Attacks on people of German descent

Changing Roles of Women

- Women filled factory jobs
- Views of women and their roles in society changed
- Many countries granted women’s suffrage

Russian Revolution

- 1915: Tsar Nicholas takes command of the army
- Political vacuum in St. Petersburg
- Provincial government created
- Tsar abdicates to the Duma
- Cossacks slaughter people of Odessa, 1905
The Soviet Union and the War

• Provisional government was short-lived
• Lenin and the Soviets assume power
• Treaty of Brest-Litovsk: Russia withdraws from WW1

Arabs in the War

• Arab tribes unite with one another and the British against Ottoman rule
• Arab raids disrupt Turkish supply lines and draw troops away from the British-Turkish front

War’s End: The Armistice

• November 11, 1918
• Temporary agreement to stop fighting
• Peace negotiations and treaty followed
Paris Peace Conference

The “Big Four” at the Paris Peace Conference

• “Big Three”
• 27 countries participated
• Defeated powers were not invited
• Six months to reach treaty agreement on Germany
• Other treaties

Versailles Treaty

Yugoslav delegates at Paris Peace Conference

• June 28, 1919: Weimar Republic signed treaty in utter defeat
• Treaty’s conditions
• Was the treaty overly punitive?

Wilson’s “Fourteen Points”

Wilson and French President Raymond Poincare in Paris

• Wilson’s plan for a “peace without victory”
• European leaders only implement some of the Fourteen Points in the Versailles Treaty
League of Nations

- Part of the Versailles Treaty
- U.S. Senate rejects the treaty
- U.S. never joins the League
- League turns out to be ineffective, inconsistent, easily manipulated

Number of Wounded

Central Powers
- Germany: 4,216,000 (44%)
- Austria-Hungary: 3,620,000 (39%)
- Ottoman Empire: 1,565,000 (17%)
- France: 3,600,000 (30%)
- United States: 204,000 (2%)
- Russia: 4,950,000 (42%)
- British Empire: 2,111,000 (18%)
- Italy: 947,000 (8%)

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**Physical and Financial Costs of the War**

- Food shortages
- Economic depression

**Social/Political Costs of the War**

- Refugees
- Ethnic minorities

**Arts and the Great War**

- Poets
- Visual imagery
- Novels

Isaac Rosenberg
Wilfred Owen
Erich Maria Remarque
**New Nations: Europe**

- Ireland
  - Michael Collins
  - Northern Ireland
- Division of Austria-Hungary
  1. Austria
  2. Hungary
  3. Czechoslovakia
  4. Yugoslavia
  5. Other portions went to Romania, Poland and Italy

**New Nations: The Middle East**

- Sykes-Picot Agreement
- Mandates
- Balfour Declaration
- Anti-western views

**Rise of Extremism: Japan and Russia**

**Japan**
- Moved to expand its empire
- Extend its influence to mainland China
- Rise of militaristic extremists

**Russia**
- Joseph Stalin
- Modernization
- Repression

Sinn Fein members in British Parliament, 1918

Arab leaders at the Paris Peace Conference (Captain T.E. Lawrence, third from right)

Joseph Stalin meets Chairman Mao
Rise of Extremism: Germany

- Dissatisfaction with Weimar government
- Hyperinflation
- Resentment over terms of the Versailles Treaty
- National Socialists (Nazis)
- Adolf Hitler

Adolf Hitler (x over his head) as a World War I corporal

Rise of Extremism: Italy

- Fascist Party
- Benito Mussolini

Benito Mussolini addresses followers in Colosseum

Rise of Extremism: The United States

- Return to isolationism
- Anti-socialist, anti-communist
- The Palmer raids
- Great Depression

U.S. Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer
Post-War Europe

- Instability
- Spread of fascism

Map of Europe after World War I, 1919–1926
Extension Ideas and Activities

• Create World War I postcards. Base each postcard on factual events from the World War I time frame, mentioning events at the front and back home. Include related images to enhance the project. Address various perspectives and include facts:
  1. Soldier in Central Army
  2. Soldier in Allied Army
  3. Woman on the homefront
  4. Pacifist
  5. Prisoner of war
  6. Political leader

• Choose a specific technology introduced during World War I and create a chart or timeline outlining the evolution of the item from inception through modern uses.

• Create a scrapbook with photographs, drawings and images, all with captions, to tell the biography of a key political figure in the war.

• Imagine that you are in a war zone. The military has adopted a scorched earth policy. Soldiers are at your door telling your family you have 15 minutes before they set your house and lands on fire. In addition to necessities, which you have already gathered, what items would you pack to take with you? Prioritize your list and defend/justify each item.

• Prioritize the importance of each of President Woodrow Wilson’s Fourteen Points, and then incorporate the top five or six into a modified plan to achieve a more lasting peace. Present your plan to the class.

Discussion Questions

1) Based on what you know, defend or refute the belief that World War II was actually just an extension of World War I.

2) What provisions for peace would you have implemented to resolve the World War I conflict justly and achieve a more lasting peace?

3) Which nations were justified in their actions during World War I? Explain and defend.

4) What similarities and differences exist between the Balkan Crisis of 1910s and that of the 1990s?

5) What factors need to be considered to accurately calculate the true cost of the war? How would you account for non-monetary losses such as lives, national pride, and cultural destruction?

6) How would the outcome of the war have been different if the United States had entered sooner? What if it had not entered at all?
Websites

http://www.english.emory.edu/LostPoets/ThePoets.html
Gives a brief biography of several poets from World War I and some of their poems

http://www.art-ww1.com/gb/index2.html
Art of the Great War

http://www.firstworldwar.com/index.htm
http://lcweb2.loc.gov/learn/lessons/primary.html
http://www.lib.byu.edu/~rdh/eurodocs/germ/1933.html
Numerous primary sources

http://www.indiana.edu/~league/
League of Nations Website

http://www.historyteacher.net/APEuroCourse/WebLinks/WebLinks-WorldWar1.htm
List of World War I sites with primary sources

http://www.ww1-propaganda-cards.com/
Propaganda from World War I

http://www.richthofen.com/
On-line copy of The Red Fighter Pilot by Baron von Richthofen (The Red Baron)

http://www.soldierssongs.com/songs.htm
MP3s of songs from several wars

http://www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/FWWstatistics.htm
Statistics from World War I

http://www.armenian-genocide.org/encyclopedia/young_turks.htm
Story and photos of the Young Turks attempt to remove the Ottoman’s Armenian population

http://mars.acnet.wnec.edu/~grempel/courses/wc2/lectures/worldwar1.html
Outline and quick review of World War I

http://rutlandhs.k12.vt.us/jpeterso/uboatcar.htm
Political cartoons from World War I

http://www.collectionscanada.ca/firstworldwar/index-ehtml.
National Archives of Canada
World War I Quiz

Read the following questions and choose the best answer.

1. World War I was originally called
   a) The War to End All Wars
   b) The Great War
   c) War of the Nations
   d) The Serbian Response

2. The Allied Powers were comprised of
   a) Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire
   b) Italy, Greece, and Japan
   c) France, Russia, Britain, and the U.S.
   d) Belgium, Serbia, and Poland

3. The Central Powers were comprised of
   a) Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire
   b) Italy, Greece, and Japan
   c) France, Russia, Britain, and the U.S.
   d) Belgium, Serbia, and Poland

4. The war was sparked by
   a) Russian mobilization of troops to the border of France
   b) Germany’s submarine attack on the Lusitania
   c) France’s refusal to negotiate
   d) the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand

5. The war spread throughout Europe due to the network of
   a) alliances between the countries
   b) spies and underground insurgents
   c) propaganda and news reports
   d) mobilization and retaliation

6. All of the following are causes of the war EXCEPT
   a) unification of Germany
b) nationalism
c) diplomatic negotiations
d) militarization

7. Much of the social unrest surrounding events just prior to World War I centered on
   a) surplus crop production
   b) the influx of migrant workers
c) an upsurge of diplomatic relations
d) the transition from monarchies to democracies

8. The Schlieffen Plan called for Germany to breach the neutrality of
   a) Switzerland
   b) France
c) Serbia
d) Belgium

9. The key battles of the Marne, Verdun, Somme, and St. Mihiel were all fought in
   a) Germany
   b) France
c) Britain
d) Serbia

10. The Zimmerman Telegram helped convince
    a) Germany to declare war against Russia
    b) the United States to enter the war
c) France to mobilize troops along their eastern border
d) Serbia to accept the ultimatum issued by Austria-Hungary

11. Some new weaponry innovations for World War I included
    a) submarines, tanks, and airplanes
    b) cannon, bayonets, and hand grenades
c) rifles, missiles, and iron-clad ships
d) catapults, maces, and trip wires

12. The land between the trenches was known as
    a) “The Great Divide”
b) “The Void”
c) “No Man’s Land”

d) “Point of No Return”

13. Russia withdrew from the war in 1917 because
   a) France negotiated a peace treaty
   b) Italy had pushed Russian forces back to Moscow
   c) Germany’s defeat was inevitable
   d) the communist Bolsheviks took over Russia

14. The most profound impact of the war on women was
   a) required military service
   b) food and cotton rationing
   c) gaining the right to vote
   d) rejection in enlistment attempts

15. The fighting ended with the armistice declared on
   a) December 12, 1916
   b) November 11, 1918
   c) February 22, 1917
   d) May 15, 1915

16. The Treaty that officially ended the war with Germany was
   a) the Versailles Treaty
   b) the Peace of Westphalia
   c) the Geneva Accords
   d) Austria’s Ultimatum to Serbia

17. Wilson had high hopes for the peace talks as outlined in
   a) the Zimmerman Telegraph
   b) the Versailles Treaty
   c) Schleiffen Plan
   d) the Fourteen Points

18. The world governing body that emerged from the Paris Peace Conference was
   a) the Warsaw Pact
   b) the League of Nations
   c) the United Nations
d) the North Atlantic Treaty Organization

19. New countries emerging after the war included
   a) Serbia, Russia, and Norway
   b) Belgium, Sweden, and Denmark
   c) Ireland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia
   d) Scotland, Luxembourg, and Finland

20. Dire conditions in post-war Europe led to the rise of extreme political movements including
   a) Nazism and Fascism
   b) Constitutional monarchies
   c) Democratic reformations
   d) Communism and Socialism
Answer Key

1. B
2. C
3. A
4. D
5. A
6. C
7. D
8. D
9. B
10. B
11. A
12. C
13. D
14. C
15. B
16. A
17. D
18. B
19. C
20. A