Why It Matters

The period between 1914 and 1945 was one of the most destructive in the history of humankind. As many as 60 million people died as a result of World Wars I and II, the global conflicts that began and ended this era. As World War I was followed by revolutions, the Great Depression, totalitarian regimes, and the horrors of World War II, it appeared to many that European civilization had become a nightmare. By 1945, the era of European domination over world affairs had been severely shaken. With the decline of Western power, a new era of world history was about to begin.
MAKING CONNECTIONS

How can new technology affect warfare?

In World War I, new war technology such as the tank and machine gun contributed to a loss of life never before experienced in war. Soldiers living in muddy trenches were exposed to rats, lice, and disease while constantly under threat of attack. In this chapter you will learn about many aspects of World War I and the Russian Revolution.

• What other inventions made World War I more devastating than previous wars?
• What new technologies have been used in more recent wars?
1918
Germany agrees to truce

1918
Worldwide influenza epidemic begins

1919
U.S. President Wilson helps form the League of Nations

1919
Gandhi begins his nonviolent campaign in India

Analyzing
Make a Two-Tab Book to organize information you read about the Russian Revolution. Under the first tab, record political, social, and economic events that led to the revolution. Under the second tab, record political and military events that brought the Communists to power.
The Road to World War I

As European countries formed alliances and increased the sizes of their armed forces, they set the stage for a global war. All they needed was a good reason to mobilize troops. Another crisis in the Balkans in the summer of 1914 led directly to the conflict. When a Serbian terrorist assassinated Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife, the powder keg exploded.

Causes of the War

Nationalism, militarism, and a system of alliances contributed to the start of World War I.

HISTORY & YOU Have you ever defended a friend who was being criticized? Read to find out how a system of alliances led to the start of World War I.

Nineteenth-century liberals believed that if European states were organized along national lines, these states would work together and create a peaceful Europe. They were wrong. The system of nation-states that emerged in Europe in the last half of the nineteenth century led not to cooperation but to competition.

Nationalism and Alliances

Rivalries over colonies and trade grew during an age of frenzied nationalism and imperialist expansion. At the same time, Europe’s great powers had been divided into two loose alliances. Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy formed the **Triple Alliance** in 1882. France, Great Britain, and Russia created the **Triple Entente** in 1907.

In the early years of the twentieth century, a series of crises tested these alliances. Especially troublesome were the crises in the Balkans between 1908 and 1913. These events left European states angry at each other and eager for revenge. Self-interest and success guided each state. They were willing to use war to preserve their power.

Nationalism in the nineteenth century had yet another serious result. Not all ethnic groups had become nations. Slavic minorities in the Balkans and the Hapsburg Empire, for example, still dreamed of their own national states. The Irish in the British Empire and the Poles in the Russian Empire had similar dreams.

Internal Dissent

National desires were not the only source of internal strife at the beginning of the 1900s. Socialist labor movements also had grown more powerful. The Socialists were increasingly inclined to use strikes, even violent ones, to achieve their goals.
Some conservative leaders, alarmed at the increase in labor strife and class division, feared that European nations were on the verge of revolution. This desire to suppress internal disorder may have encouraged various leaders to take the plunge into war in 1914.

**Militarism**

The growth of mass armies after 1900 heightened the existing tensions in Europe. These large armies made it obvious that if war did come, it would be highly destructive.

Most Western countries had established **conscription**, a military draft, as a regular practice before 1914. (The United States and Britain were exceptions.) European armies doubled in size between 1890 and 1914. Militarism—the aggressive preparation for war—was growing. As armies grew, so too did the influence of military leaders. They drew up vast and **complex** plans for quickly mobilizing millions of soldiers and enormous quantities of supplies in the event of war.

Fearing that any changes would cause chaos in the armed forces, military leaders insisted that their plans could not be altered. This left European political leaders with little leeway. In 1914 they had to make decisions for military instead of political reasons.

**Reading Check**  
**Determining Cause and Effect**  
What were some major causes of World War I?
The Outbreak of War

Main Idea
Serbia’s determination to become a large, independent state angered Austria-Hungary and started hostilities.

History & You
What circumstances today might influence the United States to enter a war on behalf of an ally? Read to learn how an assassination led to a world war.

Militarism, nationalism, and the desire to stifle internal dissent may all have played a role in the starting of World War I. However, it was the decisions that European leaders made in response to a crisis in the Balkans that led directly to the conflict.

Assassination in Sarajevo

By 1914, Serbia, supported by Russia, was determined to create a large, independent Slavic state in the Balkans. Austria-Hungary, which had its own Slavic minorities to contend with, was equally determined to prevent that from happening.

On June 28, 1914, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, and his wife Sophia visited the city of Sarajevo (sar•uh•YAY•voh) in Bosnia. A group of conspirators waited there in the streets.

In that group was Gavrilo Princip, a 19-year-old Bosnian Serb. Princip was a member of the Black Hand, a Serbian terrorist organization that wanted Bosnia to be free of Austria-Hungary and to become part of a large Serbian kingdom. An assassination attempt earlier that morning by one of the conspirators had failed. Later that day, however, Princip succeeded in fatally shooting both the archduke and his wife.

Austria-Hungary Responds

The Austro-Hungarian government did not know whether or not the Serbian government had been directly involved in the archduke’s assassination, but it did not care. Austrian leaders wanted to attack Serbia but feared that Russia would intervene on Serbia’s behalf. So, they asked for—and received—the backing of their German allies. Emperor William II of Germany gave Austria-Hungary a “blank check,” promising Germany’s full support if war broke out between Russia and Austria-Hungary. On July 28, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.

Primary Source
Assassination of Francis Ferdinand

Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, wanted to change Austria into a triple monarchy that included a Slavic kingdom.

The German ambassador at Vienna described Austria’s reaction to the assassination:
“Here I hear even serious people express the desire of settling accounts with the Serbs once for all. A series of conditions should be sent to the Serbs, and if they do not accept these, energetic steps should be taken.”
—Dispatch from the German ambassador at Vienna, July 10, 1914

Document-Based Questions

This 1914 illustration is by the American artist I. B. Hazelton.

1. Making Inferences Why did the Black Hand want to assassinate Archduke Francis Ferdinand?

2. Determining Cause and Effect What effect did the assassination have in Austria and the rest of Europe?
Russia Mobilizes

Russia was determined to support Serbia’s cause. On July 28, Czar Nicholas II ordered partial mobilization of the Russian army against Austria-Hungary. Mobilization is the process of assembling troops and supplies for war. In 1914, mobilization was considered an act of war.

Leaders of the Russian army informed the czar that they could not partially mobilize. Their mobilization plans were based on a war against both Germany and Austria-Hungary. Mobilizing against only Austria-Hungary, they claimed, would create chaos in the army. Based on this claim, the czar ordered full mobilization of the Russian army on July 29, knowing that Germany would consider this order an act of war.

The Conflict Broadens

Indeed, Germany reacted quickly. The German government warned Russia that it must halt its mobilization within 12 hours. When Russia ignored this warning, Germany declared war on Russia on August 1.

Like the Russians, the Germans had a military plan. General Alfred von Schlieffen (SHLEE•fuhn) had helped draw up the plan, which was known as the Schlieffen Plan. It called for a two-front war with France and Russia since the two had formed a military alliance in 1894.

According to the Schlieffen Plan, Germany would conduct a small holding action against Russia while most of the German army would carry out a rapid invasion of France. This meant invading France by moving quickly along the level coastal area through Belgium. After France was defeated, the German invaders would move to the east against Russia.

Under the Schlieffen Plan, Germany could not mobilize its troops solely against Russia. Therefore, it declared war on France on August 3. About the same time, it issued an ultimatum to Belgium demanding that German troops be allowed to pass through Belgian territory.

On August 4, Great Britain declared war on Germany for violating Belgian neutrality. In fact, Britain, which was allied with France and Russia, was concerned about maintaining its own world power. As one British diplomat put it, if Germany and Austria-Hungary won the war, “what would be the position of a friendless England?” By August 4, all the Great Powers of Europe were at war.

Vocabulary

Main Ideas
2. List the powers that formed the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente.
3. Explain why Gavrilo Princip killed Archduke Francis Ferdinand.
4. Identify the series of decisions that European leaders made in 1914 that led directly to the outbreak of war. Use a diagram like the one below.
   ![Diagram]

Critical Thinking
5. The BIG IDEA Analyzing How did the creation of military plans help draw the nations of Europe into World War I? In your opinion, what should today’s national and military leaders have learned from the military plans that helped initiate World War I? Explain your answer.

6. Making Inferences Why was the Austro-Hungarian government not really concerned whether Serbia itself was involved in Archduke Ferdinand’s assassination?

7. Analyzing Visuals Examine the painting on page 760. How is Archduke Francis Ferdinand reacting to the assassin?

Writing About History
8. Expository Writing Some historians believe that the desire to suppress internal disorder may have encouraged leaders to enter the war. As an adviser, write a memo to your country’s leader explaining how a war might help the domestic situation.
World War I

The war that many thought would be over in a few weeks lasted far longer, resulting in many casualties for both sides. The war widened, and the United States entered the fray in 1917. As World War I escalated, governments took control of their economies, rationing food and supplies and calling on civilians to work and make sacrifices for the war effort.

1914 to 1915: Illusions and Stalemate

Trench warfare brought the war on the Western Front to a stalemate while Germany and Austria-Hungary defeated Russia on the Eastern Front.

HISTORY & YOU How do political campaigns influence voters? Read to learn how governments tried to influence public opinion before World War I.

Before 1914, many political leaders believed war to be impractical because it involved so many political and economic risks. Others believed that diplomats could easily prevent war. At the beginning of August 1914, both ideas were shattered. However, the new illusions that replaced them soon proved to be equally foolish.

Government propaganda—ideas spread to influence public opinion for or against a cause—had stirred national hatreds before the war. Now, in August 1914, the urgent pleas of European governments for defense against aggressors fell on receptive ears in every nation at war. Most people seemed genuinely convinced that their nation’s cause was just.

A new set of illusions also fed the enthusiasm for war. In August 1914, almost everyone believed that the war would be over in a few weeks. After all, almost all European wars since 1815 had, in fact, ended in a matter of weeks. Both the soldiers who boarded the trains for the war front in August 1914 and the jubilant citizens who saw them off believed that the warriors would be home by Christmas.

The Western Front

German hopes for a quick end to the war rested on a military gamble. The Schlieffen Plan had called for the German army to make a vast encircling movement through Belgium into northern France. According to the plan, the German forces would sweep around Paris. This would enable them to surround most of the French army.

The German advance was halted a short distance from Paris at the First Battle of the Marne (September 6–10). To stop the Germans, French military leaders loaded 2,000 Parisian taxicabs with fresh troops and sent them to the front line.
The war quickly turned into a stalemate as neither the Germans nor the French could dislodge each other from the trenches they had dug for shelter. These trenches were ditches protected by barbed wire.

Two lines of trenches soon reached from the English Channel to the frontiers of Switzerland. The Western Front had become bogged down in trench warfare. Both sides were kept in virtually the same positions for four years.

**The Eastern Front**

Unlike the Western Front, the war on the Eastern Front was marked by mobility. The cost in lives, however, was equally enormous. At the beginning of the war, the Russian army moved into eastern Germany but was decisively defeated at the Battle of Tannenberg on August 30 and the Battle of Masurian Lakes on September 15. After these defeats, the Russians were no longer a threat to Germany.

Austria-Hungary, Germany’s ally, fared less well at first. The Austrians had been defeated by the Russians in Galicia and thrown out of Serbia as well. To make matters worse, the Italians betrayed their German and Austrian allies in the Triple Alliance by attacking Austria in May 1915.
Italy thus joined France, Great Britain, and Russia, who had previously been known as the Triple Entente, but now were called the Allied Powers, or Allies.

By this time, the Germans had come to the aid of the Austrians. A German-Austrian army defeated the Russian army in Galicia and pushed the Russians far back into their own territory. Russian casualties stood at 2.5 million killed, captured, or wounded. The Russians had almost been knocked out of the war.

Encouraged by their success against Russia, Germany and Austria-Hungary, joined by Bulgaria in September 1915, attacked and eliminated Serbia from the war. Their successes in the east would enable the German troops to move back to the offensive in the west.

**Reading Check**  
**Contrasting** How did the war on the Eastern Front differ from the war on the Western Front?

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**The Great Slaughter**

**Main Idea** New weapons and trench warfare made World War I far more devastating than any previous wars.

**HISTORY & YOU** How do new inventions and strategies affect warfare today? Read on to learn about the new inventions and trench warfare that characterized the fighting in World War I.

On the Western Front, the trenches dug in 1914 had by 1916 become elaborate systems of defense. The Germans and the French each had hundreds of miles of trenches, which were protected by barbed-wire entanglements up to 5 feet (about 1.5 m) high and 30 yards (about 27 m) wide. Concrete machine-gun nests and other gun batteries, supported further back by heavy artillery, protected the trenches. Troops lived in holes in the ground, separated from each other by a strip of territory known as no-man’s-land.

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**Science, Technology, & Society**

**The New Technology of World War I**

Warfare in the trenches produced unimaginable horrors. Battlefields were hellish landscapes of barbed wire, shell holes, mud, and injured and dying men.

Trench warfare left World War I in stalemate, with neither side able to gain more than a few miles of ground. Both the Allied Powers and the Central Powers attempted to gain an advantage with new weapons and war machines. Machine guns, poison gas, fighter airplanes, and tanks were all introduced or vastly improved during World War I.

In the end, new technology did not break the stalemate. It did, however, cause the deadliest war the world had yet seen. Nearly 10 million people perished during World War I, which became known as “the war to end all wars.”

Writer H. G. Wells described the impact of the new war technology:

“No, there does not appear the slightest hope of any invention that will make war more conclusive or less destructive; there is, however, the clearest prospect in many directions that it may be more destructive and less conclusive. It will be dreadfuller and bitterer: its horrors will be less and less forgivable.”


Machine guns could fire faster than other types of guns. Here, machine gunners wear masks to protect themselves from poison gas.
Tactics of Trench Warfare

Trench warfare baffled military leaders who had been trained to fight wars of movement and maneuver. At times, the high command on either side would order an offensive that would begin with an artillery barrage to flatten the enemy’s barbed wire and leave the enemy in a state of shock. After “softening up” the enemy in this fashion, a mass of soldiers would climb out of their trenches with fixed bayonets and hope to work their way toward the enemy trenches.

The attacks rarely worked because men advancing unprotected across open fields could be fired at by the enemy’s machine guns. In 1916 and 1917, millions of young men died in the search for the elusive breakthrough.

In just ten months at Verdun, France, 700,000 men lost their lives over a few miles of land in 1916. World War I had turned into a war of attrition, a war based on wearing the other side down by constant attacks and heavy losses.

War in the Air

By the end of 1915, airplanes had appeared on the battlefront for the first time in history. Planes were first used to spot the enemy’s position. Soon, planes also began to attack ground targets, especially enemy communications.

Fights for control of the air occurred and increased over time. At first, pilots fired at each other with handheld pistols. Later, machine guns were mounted on the noses of planes, which made the skies considerably more dangerous.

The Germans also used their giant airships—the zeppelins—to bomb London and eastern England. This caused little damage but frightened many people. Germany’s enemies, however, soon found that zeppelins, which were filled with hydrogen gas, quickly became raging infernos when hit by antiaircraft guns.

✓ Reading Check  Explaining Why were military leaders baffled by trench warfare?
A World War

MAIN IDEA With the war at a stalemate, both the Allied Powers and the Central Powers looked for new allies to gain an advantage.

HISTORY & YOU In the American Revolution, what country provided aid to the colonists? Read to learn how nations looked for allies in World War I.

Because of the stalemate on the Western Front, both sides sought to gain new allies. Each side hoped new allies would provide a winning advantage, as well as a new source of money and war goods.

Widening of the War

Bulgaria entered the war on the side of the Central Powers, as Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire were called. Russia, Great Britain, and France—the Allied Powers—declared war on the Ottoman Empire.

The Allies tried to open a Balkan front by landing forces at Gallipoli (guh•LIH•puh•lee), southwest of Constantinople, in April 1915. However, the campaign proved disastrous, forcing the Allies to withdraw.

In return for Italy entering the war on the Allied side, France and Great Britain promised to let Italy have some Austrian territory. Italy on the side of the Allies opened up a front against Austria-Hungary.

By 1917, the war had truly become a world conflict. That year, while stationed in the Middle East, a British officer known as Lawrence of Arabia urged Arab princes to revolt against their Ottoman overlords. In 1918 British forces from Egypt mobilized troops from India, Australia, and New Zealand and destroyed the Ottoman Empire in the Middle East.

The Allies also took advantage of Germany’s preoccupations in Europe and lack of naval strength to seize German colonies in the rest of the world. Japan, a British ally beginning in 1902, seized a number of...
German-held islands in the Pacific. Australia seized German New Guinea.

Entry of the United States

At first, the United States tried to remain neutral. As World War I dragged on, however, it became more difficult to do so. The immediate cause of the United States’s involvement grew out of the naval war between Germany and Great Britain.

Britain had used its superior naval power to set up a blockade of Germany. The blockade kept war materials and other goods from reaching Germany by sea. Germany had retaliated by setting up a blockade of Britain. Germany enforced its blockade with the use of unrestricted submarine warfare, which included the sinking of passenger liners.

On May 7, 1915, German forces sank the British ship Lusitania. About 1,100 civilians, including over 100 Americans, died. After strong protests from the United States, the German government suspended unrestricted submarine warfare in September 1915 to avoid antagonizing the United States further. Only once did the Germans and British engage in direct naval battle—at the Battle of Jutland on May 31, 1916, when neither side won a conclusive victory.

By January 1917, however, the Germans were eager to break the deadlock in the war. German naval officers convinced Emperor William II that resuming the use of unrestricted submarine warfare could starve the British into submission within six months. When the emperor expressed concern about the United States, Admiral Holtzendorf assured him, “I give your Majesty my word as an officer that not one American will land on the continent.”

The German naval officers were quite wrong. The British were not forced to surrender, and the return to unrestricted submarine warfare brought the United States into the war in April 1917. U.S. troops did not arrive in large numbers in Europe until 1918. However, the entry of the United States into the war gave the Allied Powers a psychological boost and a major new source of money and war goods.

Reading Check Evaluating Why did the Germans resort to unrestricted submarine warfare?

The Impact of Total War

World War I became a total war, with governments taking control of their economies and rationing civilian goods.

History & You Do you think the government should ever be allowed to censor what newspapers publish? Read to learn why many governments resorted to censorship and similar practices during World War I.

As World War I dragged on, it became a total war involving a complete mobilization of resources and people. It affected the lives of all citizens in the warring countries, however remote they might be from the battlefields.

Masses of men had to be organized, and supplies were manufactured and purchased for years of combat. (Germany alone had 5.5 million men in uniform in 1916.) This led to an increase in government powers and the manipulation of public opinion to keep the war effort going. The home front was rapidly becoming a cause for as much effort as the war front.

Increased Government Powers

Most people had expected the war to be short. Little thought had been given to long-term wartime needs. Governments had to respond quickly, however, when the new war machines failed to achieve their goals. Many more men and supplies were needed to continue the war effort. To meet these needs, governments expanded their powers. Countries drafted tens of millions of young men, hoping for that elusive breakthrough to victory.

Wartime governments throughout Europe also expanded their power over their economies. Free-market capitalistic systems were temporarily put aside. Governments set up price, wage, and rent controls. They also rationed food supplies and materials; regulated imports and exports; and took over transportation systems and industries. In effect, in order to mobilize all the resources of their nations for the war effort, European nations set up planned economies—systems directed by government agencies.
1. **Hypothesizing** In the face of a deadly pandemic, do you think that people today would continue with normal activities such as spectator sports? Why or why not?

2. **Making Generalizations** How would a pandemic similar to the one in 1918 affect your life?

Under conditions of total war mobilization, the differences between soldiers at war and civilians at home were narrowed. In the view of political leaders, all citizens were part of a national army dedicated to victory. Woodrow Wilson, president of the United States, said that the men and women “who remain to till the soil and man the factories are no less a part of the army than the men beneath the battle flags.”

**Manipulation of Public Opinion**

As the war continued and casualties grew worse, the patriotic enthusiasm that had marked the early stages of World War I waned. By 1916, there were signs that civilian morale was beginning to crack. War governments, however, fought back against growing opposition to the war.

Authoritarian regimes, such as those of Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary, relied on force to subdue their populations. Under the pressures of the war, however, even democratic states expanded their police powers to stop internal dissent. The British Parliament, for example, passed the Defence of the Realm Act (DORA). It allowed the government to arrest protesters as traitors. Newspapers were censored, and sometimes publication was suspended.

Wartime governments made active use of propaganda to increase enthusiasm for the war. At the beginning, public officials needed to do little to achieve this goal. The British and French, for example, exaggerated German atrocities in Belgium and found that their citizens were only too willing to believe these accounts.

As the war progressed and morale sagged, governments were forced to devise new techniques for motivating the people. In one British recruiting poster, for example, a small daughter asked her father, “Daddy, what did YOU do in the Great War?” while her younger brother played with toy soldiers.

In the fall of 1918, just as World War I was winding down in Europe, a deadly influenza epidemic struck. Probably spread by soldiers returning from the front, it became the deadliest epidemic in history:

- An estimated 675,000 Americans died, ten times as many as had died in the war.
- An estimated 50 million people died worldwide.

Things could have been even worse. Because of the war, people were used to government restrictions. Public health departments were able to step in with measures to restrict contact. The war had also brought new technologies such as germ theory and antiseptics. These had saved lives in the battlefield and eventually would help save the world from this deadly epidemic.

**Connecting to the United States**

The Influenza Epidemic of 1918

Given the deadly spread of the 1918 influenza, scientists are keeping a close watch on today’s flu viruses. With today’s ease of air travel, a new virus could take only days to spread around the world.

Baseball players and spectators wear gauze masks to protect themselves from infection during the 1918 influenza epidemic.

**CONNECTING TO TODAY**

1. **Hypothesizing** In the face of a deadly pandemic, do you think that people today would continue with normal activities such as spectator sports? Why or why not?

2. **Making Generalizations** How would a pandemic similar to the one in 1918 affect your life?
Total War and Women

World War I created new roles for women. Because so many men left to fight at the front, women were asked to take over jobs that had not been available to them before. Women were employed in jobs that had once been considered beyond their capacity.

These jobs included civilian occupations such as chimney sweeps, truck drivers, farm laborers, and factory workers in heavy industry. For example, 38 percent of the workers in the Krupp Armaments works in Germany in 1918 were women. Also, between 1914 and 1918 in Britain, the number of women working in public transport rose 14 times, doubled in commerce, and rose by nearly a third in industry.

The place of women in the workforce was far from secure, however. Both men and women seemed to expect that many of the new jobs for women were only temporary. This was evident in the British poem “War Girls,” written in 1916:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

“There’s the girl who clips your ticket for the train,  
And the girl who speeds the lift from floor to floor,  
There’s the girl who does a milk-round in the rain,  
And the girl who calls for orders at your door.  
Strong, sensible, and fit,  
They’re out to show their grit,  
And tackle jobs with energy and knack.  
No longer caged and penned up,  
They’re going to keep their end up  
Till the khaki soldier boys come marching back.”

At the end of the war, governments would quickly remove women from the jobs they had encouraged them to take earlier. The work benefits for women from World War I were short-lived as men returned to the job market. By 1919, there would be 650,000 unemployed women in Great Britain. Wages for the women who were still employed would be lowered.

Nevertheless, in some countries the role women played in wartime economies had a positive impact on the women’s movement for social and political emancipation. The most obvious gain was the right to vote, which was given to women in Germany, Austria, and the United States immediately after the war. British women over 30 gained the vote, together with the right to stand for Parliament, in 1918.

Many upper- and middle-class women had also gained new freedoms. In ever-increasing numbers, young women from these groups took jobs, had their own apartments, and showed their new independence.
Technology and Trench Life Define Total War

The politicians and generals who led their nations into World War I anticipated an old fashioned conflict. But once the Allies and Germans reached a stalemate, the armies, for the first time, dug miles of trenches opposite one another as protection against exploding shells and machine-gun fire. Infantry soldiers rotated into and out of the trenches five days at a time. It was a world of mud and blood, poison gas and high-explosive shells overhead. The tedium of trench life was broken most often by one army or the other charging out of its trenches and into the enemy’s barbed wire and machine guns.

Cold Comfort in the Trenches

Trenches provided infantry soldiers with their only protection against enemy fire. They were a necessary innovation for armies fighting in close contact with powerful and accurate weapons. Hot food was brought forward in containers to discourage cooking fires. In some places, soldiers fired at the enemy trenches at every opportunity. In others, enemies took a “live and let live” approach. These attitudes often depended upon the level of exhaustion the soldiers were feeling.
ANALYZING VISUALS

1. **Comparing** How well do you think infantry soldiers’ uniforms protected them from modern weapons? How has this changed since World War I, and why?

2. **Theorizing** Think about the images of early tanks and airplanes shown here. Why do these devices seem primitive to us today?

TECHNOLOGY AND THE HORROR OF WAR

Tanks made their first appearance in battle during World War I. Though slow and cumbersome, they foreshadowed the destruction mechanized warfare would bring. Airplanes fought one another for the first time as well, and both sides experimented with bombs and machine guns in aerial attacks on ground positions. These applications of technology left a deep, terrifying impression on soldiers showing the dark side of industrialization.
The Russian Revolution

As the world anxiously waited to learn of developments along the fronts of World War I, Russia stirred internally with unrest. The Romanov dynasty of Russia ended when Czar Nicholas II stepped down and a provisional government was put in power. Seizing the opportunity that the instability offered, the Bolsheviks under V. I. Lenin overthrew the provisional government. By 1921, the Communists were in total command of Russia.

Background to Revolution

Worker unrest and the Russian czar’s failures in the war led to revolution in March 1917.

HISTORY & YOU Recall the causes of the French Revolution. Then, read to learn what caused the Russian Revolution.

After its defeat by Japan in 1905, and the Revolution of 1905, Russia was unprepared both militarily and technologically for the total war of World War I. Russia had no competent military leaders. Even worse, Czar Nicholas II insisted on taking personal charge of the armed forces in spite of his obvious lack of ability and training.

In addition, Russian industry was unable to produce the weapons needed for the army. Supplies and munitions were rarely at the places where they needed to be. Many soldiers trained using broomsticks. Others were sent to the front without rifles and told to pick one up from a dead comrade.

Given these conditions, it is not surprising that the Russian army suffered incredible losses. Between 1914 and 1916, 2 million soldiers were killed, and another 4 to 6 million were wounded or captured. By 1917, the Russian will to fight had vanished.

Beginnings of Upheaval

An autocratic ruler, Czar Nicholas II relied on the army and bureaucracy to hold up his regime. He was further cut off from events when a man named Grigory Rasputin (ra•SPYOO•tuhn) began to influence the czar’s wife, Alexandra.

Rasputin gained Alexandra’s confidence through her son, Alexis, who had hemophilia (a deficiency in the ability of the blood to clot). Alexandra believed that Rasputin had extraordinary powers, for he alone seemed to be able to stop her son’s bleeding. With the czar at the battlefront, Alexandra made all of the important decisions after consulting Rasputin. His influence made him an important power behind the throne. Rasputin often interfered in government affairs.
As the leadership at the top stumbled its way through a series of military and economic disasters, the Russian people grew more and more upset with the czarist regime. Even conservative aristocrats who supported the monarchy felt the need to do something to save the situation. First, they assassinated Rasputin in December 1916. It was not easy to kill Rasputin. They shot him three times and then tied him up and threw him into the Neva River. Rasputin drowned but not before he had managed to untie the knots underwater. The killing of Rasputin occurred too late, however, to save the monarchy.

**The March Revolution**

At the beginning of March 1917, working-class women led a series of strikes in the capital city of Petrograd (formerly St. Petersburg). A few weeks earlier, the government had started bread rationing in Petrograd after the price of bread had skyrocketed.

Many of the women who stood in the lines waiting for bread were also factory workers who worked 12-hour days. Exhausted and distraught over their half-starving and sick children, the women finally revolted.
On March 8, about 10,000 women marched through the city of Petrograd demanding “Peace and Bread” and “Down with Autocracy.” Other workers joined them, and together they called for a general strike. The strike shut down all the factories in the city on March 10.

Alexandra wrote her husband Nicholas II at the battlefront: “This is a hooligan movement. If the weather were very cold they would all probably stay at home.” Nicholas ordered troops to break up the crowds by shooting them if necessary. Soon, however, large numbers of the soldiers joined the demonstrators and refused to fire on the crowds.

The Duma, or legislative body, which the czar had tried to dissolve, met anyway. On March 12, it established the provisional government, which mainly consisted of middle-class Duma representatives. This government urged the czar to step down. Because he no longer had the support of the army or even the aristocrats, Nicholas II reluctantly agreed and stepped down on March 15, ending the 300-year-old Romanov dynasty.

**Provisional Government**

The provisional government, headed by **Aleksandr Kerensky** (keh•REHN•skee), now decided to carry on the war to preserve Russia’s honor. This decision to remain in World War I was a major blunder. It satisfied neither the workers nor the peasants, who were tired and angry from years of suffering and wanted above all an end to the war.

The government was also faced with a challenge to its authority—the soviets. The soviets were councils composed of representatives from the workers and soldiers. The soviet of Petrograd had been formed in March 1917. At the same time, soviets sprang up in army units, factory towns, and rural areas. The soviets, largely made up of socialists, represented the more radical interests of the lower classes. One group—the Bolsheviks—came to play a crucial role.

**From Czars to Communists**

**MAIN IDEA** Lenin and the Bolsheviks gained control and quickly overthrew the provisional government.

**HISTORY & YOU** How has political change happened in the United States? Read to learn how Lenin proposed to make changes in Russia.

The Bolsheviks began as a small faction of a Marxist party called the Russian Social Democrats. The Bolsheviks came under the leadership of Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov (ool•YAHL•nuhf), known to the world as V. I. Lenin.

Under Lenin’s direction, the Bolsheviks became a party dedicated to violent revolution. Lenin believed that only violent revolution could destroy the capitalist system. A “vanguard” (forefront) of activists, he said, must form a small party of well-disciplined, professional revolutionaries to accomplish the task.

**Lenin and the Bolsheviks**

Between 1900 and 1917, Lenin spent most of his time abroad. When the provisional government was formed in March 1917, he saw an opportunity for the Bolsheviks to seize power. In April 1917, German military leaders, hoping to create disorder in Russia, shipped Lenin to Russia. Lenin and his associates were in a sealed train to prevent their ideas from infecting Germany.

Lenin’s arrival in Russia opened a new stage of the Russian Revolution. Lenin maintained that the soviets of soldiers, workers, and peasants were ready-made instruments of power. He believed that the Bolsheviks should work toward gaining control of these groups and then use them to overthrow the provisional government.

At the same time, the Bolsheviks reflected the discontent of the people. They promised an end to the war. They also promised to redistribute all land to the peasants, to transfer factories and industries from capitalists to committees of workers, and to transfer government power from the provisional government to the soviets. Three simple slogans summed up the Bolshevik
program: “Peace, Land, Bread,” “Worker Control of Production,” and “All Power to the Soviets.”

The Bolsheviks Seize Power

By the end of October, Bolsheviks made up a slight majority in the Petrograd and Moscow soviets. The number of party members had grown from 50,000 to 240,000. With Leon Trotsky, a dedicated revolutionary, as head of the Petrograd soviet, the Bolsheviks were in a position to claim power in the name of the soviets. During the night of November 6, Bolshevik forces seized the Winter Palace, the seat of the provisional government. The government quickly collapsed with little bloodshed.

This overthrow coincided with a meeting of the all-Russian Congress of Soviets, which represented local soviets countrywide. Outwardly, Lenin turned over the power of the provisional government to the Congress of Soviets. The real power, however, passed to a council headed by Lenin.

The Bolsheviks, who renamed themselves the Communists, still had a long way to go. Lenin had promised peace; and that, he realized, would not be an easy task.

The Russian Revolution

The Russian Revolution was the most violent and radical revolution since the French Revolution. In March 1917, the czar abdicated and a provisional government took control. Then, led by V. I. Lenin, the Bolsheviks seized power in November 1917. This marked a new era of Soviet rule. Russia had become the world’s first socialist state, and Lenin intended for the revolution to spread.

The day after the Bolsheviks seized the Winter Palace, Lenin addressed the Russian people. In his speech he outlined the goals of the Bolsheviks. These goals threatened the governments of Western Europe:

“The first thing is the adoption of practical measures to realize peace. . . . We shall offer peace to the peoples of all the warring countries upon the basis of the Soviet terms—no annexations, no indemnities, and the right of self-determination of peoples. . . . This proposal of peace will meet with resistance on the part of the imperialist governments. . . . But we hope that revolution will soon break out in all the warring countries. This is why we address ourselves especially to the workers of France, England, and Germany.”

—V. I. Lenin, quoted in Ten Days that Shook the World, by John Reed

Document-Based Questions

Georgiy Savitsky’s painting Assault on the Winter Palace depicts the events of November 6, 1917.

1. Analyzing Why did the Bolsheviks choose the Winter Palace as the place to attack?

2. Explaining Why is the Russian Revolution considered a turning point?
“Communism is Soviet power plus the electrification of the whole country. Otherwise the country remains small-peasant. . . . We are weaker than capitalism, not only on a world scale but also within the country. All this is well known. We recognize this and we are taking action to transform the small-peasant base into a heavy-industry base. Only when the country is electrified, when industry, agriculture, and transport are placed on the technical basis of modern heavy industry, will we have won decisively.”

—V. I. Lenin, remarks to the Congress of Soviets, 1920

Year of the Proletarian Dictatorship is a propaganda poster created in 1918 by the Russian artist Aleksandr Apsit. It illustrates some of the goals of the Communists after the Russian Revolution.

1. **Making Inferences** What were two major goals of the Communists after the Russian Revolution? Explain.

2. **Analyzing** Why do you think a communist revolution occurred in Russia rather than an industrialized nation?

It would mean the humiliating loss of much Russian territory. There was no real choice, however.

On March 3, 1918, Lenin signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany and gave up eastern Poland, Ukraine, Finland, and the Baltic provinces. To his critics, Lenin argued that it made no difference. The spread of the socialist revolution throughout Europe would make the treaty largely irrelevant. In any case, he had promised peace to the Russian people. Real peace did not come, however, because the country soon sank into civil war.

**Civil War in Russia**

Many people were opposed to the new Bolshevik, or Communist, government. These people included not only groups loyal to the czar but also liberal and anti-Leninist socialists. Liberals often supported a constitutional monarchy, while a number of socialists supported gradual reform. These socialists expected to work for a socialist state under more democratic leaders than Lenin. They were joined by the Allies, who were extremely concerned about the Communist takeover.

The Allies sent thousands of troops to various parts of Russia in the hope of bringing Russia back into the war. The Allied forces rarely fought on Russian soil, but they gave material aid to anti-Communist forces. Between 1918 and 1921, the Communist or Red Army fought on many fronts against these opponents.

The first serious threat to the Communists came from Siberia. An anti-Communist, or White, force attacked and advanced almost to the Volga River before being stopped. Attacks also came from the Ukrainians and from the Baltic regions. In mid-1919, White forces swept through Ukraine and advanced almost to Moscow before being pushed back.

By 1920, however, the major White forces had been defeated and Ukraine retaken. The next year, the Communist regime regained control over the independent nationalist governments in Georgia, Russian Armenia, and Azerbaijan (A•zuhr•by•JAHN).
The royal family was another victim of the civil war. After the czar abdicated, he, his wife, and their five children had been held as prisoners. In April 1918, they were moved to Yekaterinburg, a mining town in the Urals. On the night of July 16, members of the local soviet murdered the czar and his family and burned their bodies in a nearby mine shaft.

**Triumph of the Communists**

How had Lenin and the Communists triumphed in the civil war over such overwhelming forces? One reason was that the Red Army was a well-disciplined fighting force. This was largely due to the organizational genius of Leon Trotsky. As commissar of war, Trotsky reinstated the draft and insisted on rigid discipline. Soldiers who deserted or refused to obey orders were executed on the spot.

Furthermore, the disunity of the anti-Communist forces weakened their efforts. Political differences created distrust among the Whites. Some Whites insisted on restoring the czarist regime. Others wanted a more liberal and democratic program. The Whites, then, had no common goal.

The Communists, in contrast, had a single-minded sense of purpose. Inspired by their vision of a new socialist order, the Communists had both revolutionary zeal and strong convictions. They were also able to translate their revolutionary faith into practical instruments of power. A policy of war communism, for example, was used to ensure regular supplies for the Red Army. The government controlled the banks and most industries, seized grain from peasants, and centralized state administration under Communist control.

Another instrument was Communist revolutionary terror. A new Red secret police—known as the Cheka—began a Red Terror. Aimed at destroying all those who opposed the new regime (much like the Reign of Terror in the French Revolution), the Red Terror added an element of fear to the Communist regime.

Finally, foreign armies on Russian soil enabled the Communists to appeal to the powerful force of Russian patriotism. At one point, over 100,000 foreign troops—mostly Japanese, British, American, and French—were stationed in Russia in support of anti-Communist forces. Their presence made it easy for the Communist government to call on patriotic Russians to fight foreign attempts to control the country.

By 1921, the Communists were in total command of Russia. The Communist regime had transformed Russia into a centralized state dominated by a single party. The state was also largely hostile to the Allied Powers, because the Allies had tried to help the Communists’ enemies in the civil war.
Governments, troops, and civilians were weary as World War I continued through 1917. Shortly after the United States entered the war, Germany made its final military gamble on the Western Front and lost. The war finally ended on November 11, 1918. The peace treaties were particularly harsh on Germany. New nations were formed, and a League of Nations was created to resolve future international disputes.

The Last Year of the War

The new German republic and the Allies signed an armistice, ending the war on November 11, 1918.

HISTORY & YOU  Have you heard debates about how large the U.S. military budget should be? Read to understand the role of U.S. army support in the Allied victory of World War I.

The year 1917 had not been a good one for the Allies. Allied offensives on the Western Front had been badly defeated. The Russian Revolution, which began in November 1917, led to Russia’s withdrawal from the war a few months later. The cause of the Central Powers looked favorable, although war weariness was beginning to take its toll.

On the positive side, the entry of the United States into the war in 1917 gave the Allies a much-needed psychological boost. The United States also provided fresh troops and material. In 1918, American troops would prove crucial.

A New German Offensive

For Germany, the withdrawal of the Russians offered new hope for a successful end to the war. Germany was now free to concentrate entirely on the Western Front. Erich Ludendorff, who guided German military operations, decided to make one final military gamble—a grand offensive in the west to break the military stalemate. In fact, the last of Germany’s strength went into making this one great blow. The divisions were running low on provisions, reserves of soldiers were nearly depleted, and the German home front was tired of the war.

The German attack was launched in March 1918. By April, German troops were within about 50 miles (80 km) of Paris. However, the German advance was stopped at the Second Battle of the Marne on July 18. French, Moroccan, and American troops (140,000 fresh American troops had just arrived), supported by hundreds of tanks, threw the Germans back over the Marne. On August 8, the
forces met at the Second Battle of the Somme. Ludendorff wrote of this battle: “August 8 was the black day of the German army in the history of this war.” Ludendorff admitted that his gamble had failed:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

“The 8th of August put the decline of [our] fighting power beyond all doubt, and in such a situation as regards reserves, I had no hope of finding a strategic expedient whereby to turn the situation to our advantage."


A million American troops poured into France, and the Allies began an advance toward Germany. On September 29, 1918, General Ludendorff told German leaders that the war was lost. He demanded the government ask for peace at once.

**Collapse and Armistice**

German officials soon found that the Allies were unwilling to make peace with the autocratic imperial government of Germany. Reforms for a liberal government came too late for the tired, angry German people.
On November 3, 1918, sailors in the northern German town of Kiel mutinied. Within days, councils of workers and soldiers formed throughout northern Germany and took over civilian and military offices. Emperor William II gave in to public pressure and left the country on November 9. After William II’s departure, the Social Democrats under Friedrich Ebert announced the creation of a democratic republic. Two days later, on November 11, 1918, the new German government signed an armistice (a truce, an agreement to end the fighting).

Revolutionary Forces

The war was over, but the revolutionary forces set in motion in Germany were not yet exhausted. A group of radical socialists, unhappy with the Social Democrats’ moderate policies, formed the German Communist Party in December 1918. A month later, the Communists tried to seize power in Berlin.

The new Social Democratic government, backed by regular army troops, crushed the rebels and murdered Rosa Luxemburg and Karl Liebknecht (LEEP•KNEHKT), leaders of the German Communists. A similar attempt at Communist revolution in the city of Munich, in southern Germany, was also crushed.

The new German republic had been saved. The attempt at revolution, however, left the German middle class with a deep fear of communism.

Austria-Hungary, too, experienced disintegration and revolution. As war weariness took hold of the empire, ethnic groups increasingly sought to achieve their independence. By the time World War I ended, the Austro-Hungarian Empire had ceased to exist.

The empire had been replaced by the independent republics of Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia, along with the large monarchical state called Yugoslavia. Rivalries among the nations that succeeded Austria-Hungary would weaken eastern Europe for the next 80 years.

The Peace Settlements

In January 1919, representatives of 27 victorious Allied nations met in Paris to make a final settlement of World War I. Over a period of years, the reasons for fighting World War I had changed dramatically. When European nations had gone to war in 1914, they sought territorial gains. By the beginning of 1918, however, they were also expressing more idealistic reasons for the war.

Wilson’s Proposals

No one expressed these idealistic reasons better than the president of the United States, Woodrow Wilson. Even before the end of the war, Wilson outlined “Fourteen Points” to the United States Congress—his basis for a peace settlement that he believed justified the enormous military struggle being waged.

Wilson’s proposals for a truly just and lasting peace included reaching the peace agreements openly rather than through secret diplomacy. His proposals also included reducing armaments (military forces or weapons) to a “point consistent with domestic safety” and ensuring self-determination (the right of each people to have their own nation).

Wilson portrayed World War I as a people’s war against “absolutism and militarism.” These two enemies of liberty, he argued, could be eliminated only by creating democratic governments and a “general association of nations.” This association would guarantee “political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.”

Wilson became the spokesperson for a new world order based on democracy and international cooperation. When he arrived in Europe for the peace conference, Wilson was enthusiastically cheered by many
Europeans. President Wilson soon found, however, that more practical motives guided other states.

The Paris Peace Conference

Delegates met in Paris in early 1919 to determine the peace settlement. At the Paris Peace Conference, complications became obvious. For one thing, secret treaties and agreements that had been made before the war had raised the hopes of European nations for territorial gains. These hopes could not be ignored, even if they did conflict with the principle of self-determination put forth by Wilson.

National interests also complicated the deliberations of the Paris Peace Conference. David Lloyd George, prime minister of Great Britain, had won a decisive victory in elections in December 1918. His platform was simple: make the Germans pay for this dreadful war.

France’s approach to peace was chiefly guided by its desire for national security. To Georges Clemenceau (kleh•muh•SOH), the premier of France, the French people had suffered the most from German aggression. The French desired revenge and security against future German attacks. Clemenceau wanted Germany stripped of all weapons, vast German payments—repairs—to cover the costs of the war, and a separate Rhineland as a buffer state between France and Germany.

The most important decisions at the Paris Peace Conference were made by Wilson, Clemenceau, and Lloyd George. Italy, as one of the Allies, was considered one of the Big Four powers. However, it played a smaller role than the other key powers—the United States, France, and Great Britain, who were called the Big Three. Germany was not invited to attend, and Russia could not be present because of its civil war.

In view of the many conflicting demands at the peace conference, it was no surprise that the Big Three quarreled. Wilson wanted to create a world organization, the League of Nations, to prevent future wars. Clemenceau and Lloyd George wanted to punish Germany. In the end, only compromise made it possible to achieve a peace settlement.

Wilson’s wish that the creation of an international peacekeeping organization be the first order of business was granted. On January 25, 1919, the conference accepted the idea of a League of Nations. In return, Wilson agreed to make compromises on territorial arrangements. He did so because he believed that the League could later fix any unfair settlements.

Clemenceau also compromised to obtain some guarantees for French security. He gave up France’s wish for a separate Rhineland and instead accepted a defensive alliance with Great Britain and the United States. However, the U.S. Senate refused to ratify this agreement, which weakened the Versailles peace settlement.

People in History

Georges Clemenceau
1841–1929 French Premier

Georges Clemenceau, premier of France during World War I, had a long history in French-German diplomacy. During his early political career, Clemenceau had been involved in the 1871 peace treaty ending the Franco-Prussian War. The treaty imposed harsh terms on France while strengthening the new German republic, and Clemenceau vowed to bring France back from this “shameful humiliation.” After World War I, he had his opportunity. The Treaty of Versailles was shaped by Clemenceau’s dislike and distrust of the Germans. “For the catastrophe of 1914 only the Germans are responsible,” he said. “Only a professional liar would deny this.” How did Clemenceau’s early political career affect his position at the Paris Peace Conference?
A German nationalist responded to the terms of the treaty:

“People and government have, during the most recent days, unambiguously made clear that we cannot sign the document which our enemies call a peace. One thing is certain, that any government which, by its signature, would confer upon this work of the devil . . . the halo of right, would, sooner or later, be driven out . . . [N]othing is left but to remain cold-blooded, offer passive resistance wherever possible, and show contempt and pride.”
—Alfred von Wegerer, May 28, 1919

The Treaty of Versailles

The final peace settlement of Paris consisted of five separate treaties with the defeated nations of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey. The Treaty of Versailles with Germany was by far the most important.

The Germans considered it a harsh peace. They were especially unhappy with Article 231, the so-called War Guilt Clause, which declared that Germany (and Austria) were responsible for starting the war. The treaty ordered Germany to pay reparations for all damages that the Allied governments and their people had sustained as a result of the war.

The military and territorial provisions of the Treaty of Versailles also angered the Germans. Germany had to reduce its army to 100,000 men, cut back its navy, and eliminate its air force. Alsace and Lorraine, taken by the Germans from France in 1871, were now returned. Sections of eastern Germany were awarded to a new Polish state.

German land along the Rhine River became a demilitarized zone, stripped of all weapons and fortifications. This, it was hoped, would serve as a barrier to any future German moves against France. Although outraged by the “dictated peace,” Germany accepted the treaty.

The Legacies of the War

The war, the Treaty of Versailles, and the separate peace treaties made with the other Central Powers redrew the map of eastern Europe. The German and Russian empires lost much territory. The Austro-Hungarian Empire disappeared.

New nation-states emerged from the lands of these three empires: Finland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, and Hungary. New territorial arrangements were also made in the Balkans. Romania acquired additional lands. Serbia formed the nucleus of a new state, called Yugoslavia, which combined Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes.
The principle of self-determination supposedly guided the Paris Peace Conference. However, the mixtures of peoples in eastern Europe made it impossible to draw boundaries along strict ethnic lines. Compromises had to be made, sometimes to satisfy the national interests of the victors. France, for example, had lost Russia as its major ally on Germany’s eastern border. Thus, France wanted to strengthen and expand Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and Romania as much as possible. Those states could then serve as barriers against Germany and Communist Russia.

As a result of compromises, almost every eastern European state was left with ethnic minorities: Germans in Poland; Hungarians, Poles, and Germans in Czechoslovakia; Hungarians in Romania, and Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, Macedonians, and Albanians in Yugoslavia. The problem of ethnic minorities within nations would lead to many later conflicts.

Yet another centuries-old empire—the Ottoman Empire—was broken up by the peace settlement. To gain Arab support against the Ottoman Turks during the war, the Western Allies had promised to recognize the independence of Arab states in the Ottoman Empire. Once the war was over, however, the Western nations changed their minds. France took control of Lebanon and Syria, and Britain received Iraq and Palestine.

These acquisitions were officially called mandates. Woodrow Wilson had opposed the outright annexation of colonial territories by the Allies. As a result, the peace settlement created the mandate system. According to this system, a nation officially governed another nation as a mandate on behalf of the League of Nations but did not own the territory.

World War I shattered the liberal, rational society that had existed in late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century Europe. The deaths of nearly 10 million people, as well as the incredible destruction caused by the war, undermined the whole idea of progress. Entire populations had participated in a devastating slaughter.

World War I was a total war—one that involved a complete mobilization of resources and people. As a result, the power of governments over the lives of their citizens increased. Freedom of the press and speech were limited in the name of national security. World War I made the practice of strong central authority a way of life.

The turmoil created by the war also seemed to open the door to even greater insecurity. Revolutions broke up old empires and created new states, which led to new problems. The hope that Europe and the rest of the world would return to normalcy was, however, soon dashed.
THE CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I

- Nationalism contributed to the start of World War I, as rivals vied for colonies and trade.
- European nations increased the size of their militaries, heightening existing tensions.
- Serbia’s desire for an independent state angered Austria-Hungary.

The Reality of MODERN WARFARE

- Trench warfare brought the Western Front to a stalemate until new allies entered the war.
- Trench warfare and new technology caused a devastating loss of life.
- Governments took control of economies and rationed civilian goods, affecting all citizens.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION and THE END OF WORLD WAR I

- Russia’s failure in the war and worker unrest led to the Russian Revolution in 1917.
- Bolshevik overthrow of the provisional government led to civil war and eventual Communist control.
- A defeated Germany signed an armistice with the Allies, ending the war on November 11, 1918.
- The Treaty of Versailles punished Germany, formed new nations, and created the League of Nations to solve international problems.
Reviewing Vocabulary

Directions: Choose the word or words that best complete the sentence.

1. Ideas that are spread to influence public opinion for or against a cause are known as ________.
   A. ad campaigns
   B. brochures
   C. propaganda
   D. newsletters

2. Germany had to make ________ to cover the costs of World War I.
   A. reparations
   B. credit card purchases
   C. debts
   D. border changes

3. ________ is the process of assembling troops and supplies to get ready for war.
   A. Conscription
   B. War communism
   C. Armistice
   D. Mobilization

4. The ________ were councils composed of representatives from Russian workers and soldiers.
   A. czars
   B. Duma
   C. soviets
   D. Bolsheviks

Reviewing Main Ideas

Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Section 1 (pp. 758–761)

5. To increase the size of their armies, many Western countries established which of the following?
   A. a voluntary enlistment program
   B. Their imperialistic goals
   C. a conscription program
   D. The Schlieffen Plan

6. When was Archduke Francis Ferdinand assassinated?
   A. August 4, 1914
   B. September 20, 1915
   C. November 11, 1918
   D. June 28, 1914

Section 2 (pp. 762–769)

7. During World War I, the Allies tried to open a Balkan front by landing forces at which city?
   A. Gallipoli
   B. Beirut
   C. Sarajevo
   D. Odessa

8. Who urged Arab princes to revolt against their Ottoman overlords in 1917?
   A. Mohandas Gandhi
   B. Lawrence of Arabia
   C. Lord Chamberlain
   D. Gavrilo Princip
9. When did most British women gain the right to vote?
   A 1920
   B 1904
   C 1918
   D 1935

Section 3 (pp. 772–777)
10. In which city did Russian working-class women lead a series of strikes in March 1917?
   A Moscow
   B Berlin
   C Budapest
   D Petrograd

11. Which faction of a Marxist party came under the leadership of V. I. Lenin?
   A Bolsheviks
   B Stalinists
   C Zionists
   D Slavsheviks

Section 4 (pp. 778–783)
12. Under whose command did the German forces make one final military gamble to win the Western Front in 1918?
   A Adolf Hitler
   B Erich Ludendorff
   C Karl Liebknecht
   D Friedrich Ebert

13. What were Woodrow Wilson’s proposals for a peace settlement called?
   A Germany’s Nightmare
   B Twelve Points
   C Fourteen Points
   D The Peace Settlement

Critical Thinking
Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Use the following map to answer question 14.

14. When did the Allied Powers win the most battles in the Middle East?
   A 1917
   B 1918
   C 1920
   D The Allied Powers and Central Powers won the same number of battles.

15. What major event resulted from the Balkan crises between 1908 and 1913?
   A The creation of a new Serbian kingdom
   B The assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife
   C The Berlin Conference of 1884
   D The end of the Romanov dynasty
16. Why did Russian conservative aristocrats kill Rasputin?
   A He was a holy person.
   B He had hemophilia.
   C He was Alexis’s tutor.
   D He interfered too often in government affairs.

17. What slogan would best express Georges Clemenceau’s motives at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919?
   A “Give Them Bread”
   B “Peace at Last”
   C “Revenge! Sweet Revenge!”
   D “Down with Autocracy”

18. Which of the following statements is based on the information in the graph?
   A There were approximately 1 million U.S. casualties in World War I.
   B Approximately 400,000 U.S. troops were wounded in World War I.
   C Compared to the total number of U.S. casualties in World War I, there were approximately 3 times the total number of casualties in the Civil War.
   D Total American casualties in World War I did not exceed 200,000.

19. Is the ambassador neutral in his comments, or does he favor one country over another?

20. Compare the ways in which the actual events that started World War I mirror the ambassador’s concerns.

21. Both Britain and the United States passed laws during the war to silence opposition and censor the press. Are the ideals of a democratic government consistent with such laws? Provide arguments for and against.