

PERIOD 6: Accelerating Global Change and Realignment, c. 1900 to Present

Chapter 25 *The World War I Era, 1900–1919*

Chapter 26 *The Interwar Years, 1919–1939*

Chapter 27 *World War II*

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Chapter 29 *Decolonization*

Chapter 30 *Post-Cold War World, 1990–Present*

Period Overview

Scientific research after 1900 revolutionized how people thought, lived, and interacted with nature. Innovative theories reshaped human understanding of everything from how the universe began to the unconscious forces influencing individual behavior. Dramatic increases in agricultural productivity combined with medical breakthroughs such as the development of antibiotics to fight infections made people healthier and extended life, resulting in a population explosion. At the same time, new forms of birth control increased the control women had over their lives.

However, advances in technology and population growth intensified the human impact on the planet, resulting in air pollution, water pollution, deforestation, desertification, and global warming. In addition, improved military technology, including tanks, planes, and atomic weapons, increased wartime casualties.

The political order of the world in 1900 was dominated by a small number of countries in Europe, along with Russia, Japan, and the United States. Throughout the twentieth century, these states fought one another for power and struggled to maintain control of other lands. The result was a century with World War I and World War II, frequent large wars, endless small wars, and four decades of tense ideological conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union. By the end of the century, the old empires had collapsed, as most colonies had won their independence through negotiation or war.

The frequent wars and the rapid economic changes caused extensive global migrations as people fled violence and searched for economic opportunity. In the midst of all this upheaval, women were winning the right to vote and were challenging traditional divisions between the roles and opportunities for each gender.

In response to economic challenges, governments in Europe, the United States, India, and most countries increasingly influenced economic decisions. Communist governments such as the Soviet Union and China experimented with total control over the economy. The Soviets eventually abandoned the effort and China moved toward a more market-oriented approach.

The twentieth century featured the increasing role of transnationalism—the global reorganization of production in which the development of a product or service is split between multiple locations around the world. From regional organizations (the European Union) to collections of countries (United Nation) to humanitarian groups (Red Cross) to entertainment (Bollywood) to large corporations (Sony), people were working together across national borders in all aspects of life.

Key Concepts

6.1 Science and the Environment

- I. Researchers made rapid advances in science that spread throughout the world, assisted by the development of new technology.
- II. As the global population expanded at an unprecedented rate, humans fundamentally changed their relationship with the environment.
- III. Disease, scientific innovations, and conflict led to demographic shifts.

6.2 Global Conflicts and Their Consequences

- I. Europe dominated the global political order at the beginning of the twentieth century, but both land-based and transoceanic empires gave way to new forms of transregional political organization by the century's end.
- II. Emerging ideologies of anti-imperialism contributed to the dissolution of empires and the restructuring of states.
- III. Political changes were accompanied by major demographic and social consequences.
- IV. Military conflicts occurred on an unprecedented global scale.
- V. Although conflict dominated much of the twentieth century, many individuals and groups—including states—opposed this trend. Some individuals and groups, however, intensified the conflicts.

6.3 New Conceptualizations of Global Economy, Society, and Culture

- I. States responded in a variety of ways to the economic challenges of the twentieth century.
- II. States, communities, and individuals became increasingly interdependent, a process facilitated by the growth of institutions of global governance.
- III. People conceptualized society and culture in new ways; some challenged old assumptions about race, class, gender, and religion, often using new technologies to spread reconfigured traditions.
- IV. Popular and consumer culture became global.

Source: AP[®] World History Course and Exam Description.

The World War I Era, 1900–1919

*If you could hear, at every jolt, the blood
Come gargling from the froth-corrupted lungs,
Obscene as cancer, bitter as the cud
Of vile, incurable sores on innocent tongues,—
My friend, you would not tell with such high zest
To children ardent for some desperate glory,
The old Lie: Dulce et decorum est
Pro patria mori.*

—Wilfred Owen, from “Dulce et Decorum Est”

British poet Wilfred Owen’s “Dulce et Decorum Est” is one of the most famous war poems of the twentieth century. Most of the poem describes the horrors of modern warfare, and the final lines of the excerpt, translated as “It is sweet and noble to die for one’s country,” he labels “the old Lie.” World War I, which lasted from 1914 to 1918, was known as *the Great War*, not because of its positive nature, but because of the immense scale of the fighting. No previous war had involved as many nations from different parts of the world and few had killed as many soldiers *and* civilians. However, World War I did more than create an enormous body count. It fundamentally weakened the Western European powers, thus encouraging the growth of nationalism and appeals for self-rule within European colonies in Asia and Africa. The treaties signed at the end of this war arguably set the stage for World War II. World War I was easily one of the most influential events of the twentieth century.

Immediate Causes of the Great War

The final straw in a series of events that led to World War I was *Gavrilo Princip’s* assassination of *Archduke Francis Ferdinand* and his wife, Sophie, on June 28, 1914. Princip, a Serbian nationalist, was a member of the *Black Hand*, a nationalist organization devoted to ending Austro-Hungarian presence in the Balkans. From the Austro-Hungarian perspective, the Black Hand was a terrorist group. Immediately following the assassinations, the Austro-Hungarian Empire sent an ultimatum to the Serbian government, demanding that it work to end all anti-Austrian agitation in Serbia. When the Serbian government rejected the ultimatum, the Austro-Hungarian Empire looked to

its ally Germany, a stronger nation with more firepower, for military assistance to punish Serbia. Serbia, populated by ethnic Slavs looked to other Slavic countries, particularly Russia, for help. Russia and Germany’s entrance into the conflict changed a minor issue into a large war in August 1914.

Long-Term Causes of the Great War

Princip’s actions were not the sole cause of World War I. Rather, tensions in Europe had been simmering for decades. One way to remember the sources of such tensions is with the acronym MAIN: militarism, alliances, imperialism, and nationalism.

Militarism Defined as aggressive military preparedness, *militarism* celebrates war and the armed forces. European powers had been competing for dominance; one way to prove their strength was to invest in the military. Great Britain and Germany in particular spent a great deal of money on building up their armies and navies, heavily recruiting young men to join their armed forces, and buying more ships and other military hardware. A nation’s militaristic attitude influenced its public to view war as a festive competition, more similar to a game than to a gravely serious matter.

Alliances In their quest for power, European nations also formed *secret alliances*, groups whose members secretly agree to protect and help one another when attacked. When one member of an alliance was attacked in any way, the other members of the alliance were expected to stand up for that particular member. This system explains why Russia and Germany were ready to jump into the conflict between Serbia and Austria-Hungary.

Further, countries that were allied with particular countries were also sworn enemies of members of other alliances. For example, Britain and France were allies with Russia in the *Triple Entente*, but they also viewed Germany as a rival. France was bitter that Germany had taken French land during the Franco-Prussian War (1870–1871). Britain competed with Germany for colonies in Africa. After the war began, the Triple Entente added the United States, China, and Japan. This diverse group became known as the *Allies* during World War I.

The Allies’ rival alliance before the war was known as the *Triple Alliance*, composed of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. However, when the war began, Italy remained neutral and then in 1915 switched its allegiance and joined the Allies. At the outbreak of the war, the Ottoman Empire joined the Triple Alliance, which was also called the *Central Powers*.

Imperialism The alliance system developed largely because Western European countries became bitter rivals for global domination. One of the most important ways these nations could assert their power and generate wealth was to own overseas colonies. During the latter half of the nineteenth century, for example, Western European countries scrambled for any available land in Africa to add to the colonies they already owned in South and Southeast Asia, in the Americas, and in the Pacific. Thus, imperialism was a driving force behind tensions in Europe leading up to the archduke’s assassination.

Nationalism The assassination of the archduke in June 1914, the immediate cause of war, reflects the growth of nationalism, the final long-term cause of the Great War. On a basic level, nationalism originates from a feeling of pride in one's identity. Multinational empires such as the Ottoman Empire and the Austro-Hungarian Empire had to contend with nationalist movements among their subject peoples. Serbs, such as Princip, were eager to rid their land of Austro-Hungarian conquerors, and Arabs tired of the limitations imposed upon them by the Ottoman Empire. Both groups were seeking *self-determination*—the idea that peoples of the same ethnicity, language, culture, and political ideals should be united and should have the right to form an independent nation state. Militant nationalists among Serbs and Arabs fought on the side of the Allies, thus extending the boundaries of the Great War.

Understanding the role of militarism, alliances, imperialism, and nationalism during the years leading up to 1914 is essential to comprehension of this complicated conflict.

Changes in Warfare

Many modern-day films such as *Saving Private Ryan*, set during World War II, and *Platoon*, set during the Vietnam War, show that war is *not* a glorious experience, but most Europeans saw warfare differently during the first few months of World War I. Hundreds of thousands of teenage boys enthusiastically enlisted in the military, dreaming of heroism. Wartime assemblies sounded more like high school pep rallies, in which speakers naively predicted swift and easy victories in battles against supposedly inferior enemies. Leaders of some of the socialist parties were among the few Europeans who spoke out against the war. Even socialists were divided on the issue, however, as many supported the war effort of their nation.

At the time, few people actually understood how brutal twentieth-century warfare could be. Only over the years of fighting would the horrific effects of new advances in war technology and tactics, such as poison gas, machine guns, airplanes, submarines, tanks, and trench warfare become apparent.

- *Poison gas* was one of the most insidious weapons of the new style of warfare, with chlorine, phosgene, and mustard gas used during World War I. Soldiers were soon equipped with gas masks, which were effective when used in a timely fashion. Although fatalities were limited, the effects of a gas attack could be extremely painful and long-lasting. Many veterans suffered permanent damage to their lungs. After the war, international treaties outlawed the use of poison gas.
- Developed in the late 1800s, *machine guns* could fire more than 500 rounds of ammunition per minute, increasing the deadly impact of warfare. The weapon made it difficult for either side in a battle to gain new territory.
- Although *submarines* were used briefly in the American Civil War, they played a larger part in World War I, causing havoc on the shipping lanes of the Atlantic Ocean.

- *Airplanes* in 1914 were still light and small and unable to carry many weapons. Therefore, they did not present much of a threat to troops or vehicles on the ground or ships at sea. Planes were used mainly to carry on reconnaissance (observation) of enemy lines.
- *Tanks* allowed armies to move across vast areas of difficult terrain, even over trenches.
- The defining experience for most soldiers in this war was the time spent in the trenches, long ditches dug in the ground with the excavated earth banked in front in order to defend against enemy fire. *Trench warfare* was not a glorious way to fight a war. Combatant nations dug hundreds of miles of trenches facing one another, and soldiers slept, ate, and fought in the trenches for months at a time. Trenches were often cold, wet, muddy, and rat-infested. Many soldiers died from disease caused by the unhygienic conditions. Erich Maria Remarque's 1929 novel, *All Quiet on the Western Front*, and the 1930 film based on it, give a vivid sense of a soldier's life in the trenches during World War I. Remarque himself was a young German soldier during the war.

With both the Central Powers and the Allies using such brutal weapons and tactics, neither side could easily defeat the other, resulting in a bloody four-year *stalemate* in which neither side made significant progress. (Test Prep: Write a paragraph comparing and contrasting warfare during World War I with the warfare before and during World War II. See pages 516 and 542–543.)

United States Entrance into the War

Economic ties between the United States and the Allies comprised one of the underlying reasons for U.S. entry into the war in 1917. In addition, many Americans believed that the Allied nations were more democratic than the Central Powers were. A third reason was growing resentment against the Germans, especially for *U-boat* (submarine) attacks on ships that carried Americans, among others. On May 7, 1915, a German submarine attacked and sank the *Lusitania*, an ocean liner carrying more than 100 U.S. citizens among its passengers. The event that finally pushed the United States into the war was the January 1917 interception of the *Zimmermann Telegram*, in which the German government offered to help Mexico reclaim its lost territories from the United States if Mexico allied with Germany in the war.

The Russian Revolution

The Great War made an already unstable Russia even more chaotic. Russian troops suffered a number of defeats with devastating numbers of casualties. Government mismanagement led to fuel and food shortages during the winter of 1916–1917, causing popular uprisings in St. Petersburg. In March 1917, revolutionary groups overthrew Tsar Nicholas II. The Romanov dynasty, after 300 years of rule, collapsed.

The monarchy was replaced by a provisional government that included socialists, liberals, and conservatives. Vying for political power outside of the Duma, the Russian parliament, were several *soviets*, groups of workers or soldiers led by socialists, which promised the Russian people reforms such as land redistribution and equal opportunities for education. A few months after the fall of the tsar, Vladimir Lenin returned to Russia from exile in Switzerland. He was the leader of the *Bolsheviks*, a party of radical socialists that seized power in November 1917, promising “peace, land, and bread” to hungry, war-weary Russians. (Test Prep: Create a chart that compares the Russian and the Chinese Revolutions. See pages 557–558.)

Throughout the 1917 upheavals, Russian troops continued to suffer an astounding number of casualties on the Eastern Front of the war against the Central Powers. Four months after he took control of the Russian government, Lenin appealed for peace with Germany. In March 1918, the leaders of the new *Soviet Russia* signed the *Treaty of Brest-Litovsk* with Germany, ending Russia’s involvement in World War I. The treaty called for Russia to hand over to Germany an enormous amount of land, including most of the Ukraine. But the treaty gave the new Bolshevik government time to concentrate on building a *Communist* state based on Marxist principles of common ownership of all property. The Bolshevik government also had to deal with the civil war that raged in Russia. In November 1920, the Soviet government finally declared victory over anti-Communist forces, which had been supported by armies of foreign powers: France, Britain, Japan, and the United States.

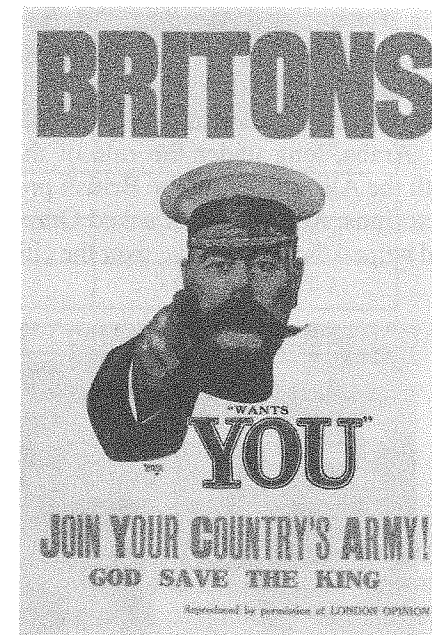
Total War

Combatant nations intensified the conflict in World War I by committing all of their resources to the war effort. This strategy, known as *total war*, meant that a nation’s domestic population, in addition to its military, was committed to winning the war. Thus, millions of civilians, particularly women, worked in factories producing war materials. Entire economies were centered on winning the war. Governments set up planning boards that set production quotas, price and wage controls, and rationing of food and other supplies. Censorship of the media was imposed, and those who opposed the war effort were sometimes imprisoned.

Propaganda was another component of total war. *Propaganda* is communication meant to influence the attitudes and opinions of a community around a particular subject. Governments invested heavily in army and navy recruitment campaigns and other wartime propaganda. Posters and articles in newspapers and magazines often depicted the enemy crudely or misrepresented the facts of the war completely. American and British propaganda, for example, demonized the German army, exaggerating reports of atrocities against civilians. This tactic in particular fomented hatred and bitterness across borders, even among civilians.



Source: Library of Congress



Source: Library of Congress

Posters recruiting sailors and soldiers for World War I in the United States and Great Britain reflected how governments used art and media to appeal to nationalist feelings in the early twentieth century.

A Global War

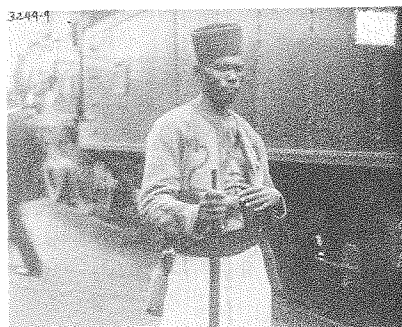
World War I was fought in Europe, Asia, and Africa and in the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. Not since the Seven Years’ War of the late eighteenth century had there been such a *global war*. Most of the major combatants in World War I ruled colonies in Asia, Africa, the Americas, and the Pacific. Competition for these colonies was one major reason for war. Imperialism extended the boundaries of the war, and major battles were fought in North Africa and the Middle East. Japan entered the war on the side of the Allies so that it could take control of German colonies in the Pacific: the Marshall Islands, the Mariana Islands, Palau, and the Carolines. Japan also occupied a German-held port in China: Qingdao.

The British were able to seize most of Germany’s colonies in Africa, but the Germans held on to German East Africa, now Tanzania. The British also defended the Suez Canal from an attack by the Ottoman Empire.

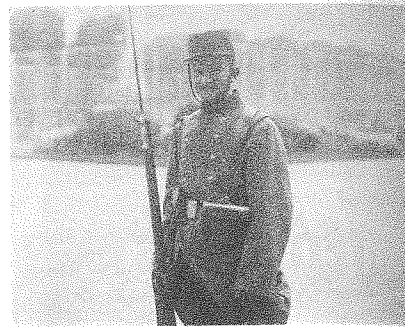
Colonial troops reinforced their home countries’ forces in several battles. Australian and New Zealand troops formed a special corps known as *ANZAC* and fought in a bloody year-long campaign at *Gallipoli*, a peninsula in northwestern Turkey, that resulted in heavy Allied losses with little to show for the effort. Canadian troops fought in several European battles. Britain drafted Africans and Indians for combat roles in Europe. Some 200,000 Gurkha soldiers from Nepal, India, served in the British Army in Europe and Southwest

Asia. France used Algerian, Chinese, and Vietnamese forces in support roles behind the lines. Some colonial troops fought in hopes that their efforts would gain them recognition from their colonizers, who often promised the colonies self-rule (ability to establish own government) after the war ended.

Arabs, long under the rule of the multinational Ottoman Empire, fought with the Allies because the British promised self-rule after the war if they were victorious. Arab troops attacked Ottoman forts in Arabia and present-day Israel and helped the British take over the cities of Baghdad, Damascus, and Jerusalem.



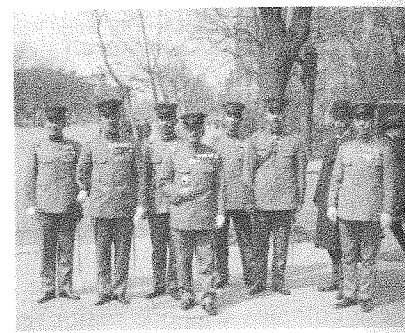
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Source: Library of Congress

World War I armies included soldiers from Senegal in West Africa (upper left), France in Western Europe (upper right), India in South Asia (lower left), and Japan in Eastern Asia (lower right).

Casualties of the War

After three years of a bloody stalemate, the United States entered the war in 1917, despite considerable popular protests in the United States against American involvement. By the summer of 1918, when U.S. forces were finally in place in Europe, U.S. actions helped push the war in the Allies' favor. Allied advances against the Central Powers forced Germany to surrender on November 11, 1918, now known as *Armistice Day*.

Between 8 million and 9 million soldiers died in the Great War, with more than 21 million wounded. In France, Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary, less than half of all young men who fought for their countries returned physically unharmed. Soldiers who did return often bore emotional scars.

World War I Casualties				
Country	Alliance	Dead (in millions)	Wounded (in millions)	Imprisoned (in millions)
Germany	Central Powers	1.8	4.2	0.6
Russia	Allies	1.7	5.0	0.5
France	Allies	1.4	3.0	0.5
Austria-Hungary	Central Powers	1.2	3.6	0.2
Great Britain	Allies	0.9	2.1	0.2
Italy	Allies	0.5	1.0	0.5
Turkey	Central Powers	0.3	0.4	Not known
United States	Allies	0.1	0.2	Less than 0.05

Atrocities Civilian casualties were harder to record, but estimates range anywhere from 6 million to 13 million. This was one of the first modern wars where civilians were considered fair game in battle. Although the Allies' propaganda often exaggerated accounts of atrocities, reports of German soldiers raping women and killing families during their march through Belgium were quite common.

The most shocking example of such atrocities was the death of between 600,000 and 1.5 million Armenians in Turkey. This action has been called the twentieth century's first *genocide*, the attempted killing of a group of people based on their race, religion, or ethnicity. The Ottoman government alleged that the Christian Armenians, a minority within the Ottoman Empire, were cooperating with the Russian army, the Ottoman's enemy during World War I. As punishment for this cooperation, the Ottoman government deported Armenians from their homes between 1915 and 1917 and forced them south to camps in Syria and Mesopotamia, present-day Iraq. Many Armenians died because of starvation, disease, or exposure to the elements, and some were executed by Turkish troops. Armenians have argued that the deaths constituted genocide, a Turkish attempt to eliminate the Armenian people. Turkish government have said the deaths were the result of actions of war, ethnic conflicts, and disease, but were not genocide. (Test Prep: Create a graphic organizer comparing the Armenian genocide with the Nazis' extermination of millions of Jews. See page 542.)

An *influenza epidemic* was another fatal blow that struck the globe at the end of the war. Under peacetime circumstances, a virulent disease might do major damage to a concentrated group of people in a particular region. In 1918, however, millions of soldiers were returning home as the war ended, interacting with countless people, making it easier for the flu to spread. In 1919, the epidemic became a *pandemic* (disease prevalent over a large area

or the entire world), killing 20 million people not only in Europe, but also in the United States and elsewhere around the world. India, for example, may have lost seven million people to the disease.

A more intangible casualty of the war was the loss of a sense of security and hopefulness. The term *Lost Generation*, used to describe to a group of American expatriate writers living in Paris after the war, has been used more broadly to describe the shock that the war wrought on the generations that experienced the war.

Paris Peace Conference

The war itself inflicted significant damage on Europe. The treaty conference held in its wake, however, would have even more profound effects on the world as a whole. The leaders of the United States, Great Britain, France, and Italy composed the *Big Four* at the *Paris Peace Conference*. They were Woodrow Wilson, David Lloyd George, Georges Clemenceau, and Vittorio Orlando, respectively. The Italians walked out of the peace conference in a rage because Italy would not get Fiume, a town they had been promised for joining the allies. Soviet Russia, later called the *Soviet Union*, was not invited to the conference because it had undergone a Communist revolution. Western leaders shunned Russian leaders because they were terrified that Communist ideas would infiltrate their own countries. The leaders of the victorious countries had different visions of how to settle the peace.

President Wilson's motto was to establish "peace without victory," reflecting his belief that no one country should be severely punished or greatly rewarded. France's Clemenceau could not have disagreed more: he believed that France, out of all the Allies represented at the conference, had suffered the most and thus deserved special considerations to be protected from Germany. He also argued that the victorious powers should seek some sort of revenge on the Central Powers for starting the war. Clemenceau complained about Wilson's idealism, which he believed stemmed from Wilson's naiveté about European relations, even though Wilson had a Ph.D. in history. David Lloyd George tended to support Clemenceau's ideas, but he often acted as an intermediary between the two differing points of view.

Fourteen Points Despite Clemenceau's protests, Wilson pushed for his ideals, which he outlined in a document called the *Fourteen Points*. He particularly wanted to create a *League of Nations*, an organization in which all nations of the world would convene to discuss conflicts openly, as a way to avoid the simmering tensions that had caused World War I. Although the other nations agreed to establish the League, the U.S. Senate voted against joining it and against ratifying the *Treaty of Versailles*, the 1919 peace treaty with Germany.

Wilson also believed that conquered peoples under the defeated Central Powers deserved the right to self-determination. Instead of the colonies and territories of the Central Powers being snatched up by the Allies, conquered peoples should have the right to decide their own political fate. Quite a few

new nations were created or resurrected in Europe: Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia, most of which were home to Slavic peoples.

The Treaty of Versailles Because Wilson was unable to convince France and Britain that Germany should *not* be punished, the Treaty of Versailles punished Germany terribly. Most notably, Germany had to pay billions of dollars in *reparations* (payment of money for wrongs committed) for damage caused by the war, give up all of its colonies, and restrict the size of its armed forces. Germans were made to take the entire blame for the war. Signing the treaty was humiliating for German leaders. Moreover, the terms of the treaty caused tremendous damage to the nation during the decade following World War I. The German economy suffered from sky-high inflation, partly due to the reparations the country was forced to pay. The German people were bitter in the immediate aftermath of the Paris Peace Conference. Resentment toward the *Weimar Government*, which had agreed to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, set the stage for an extreme and militaristic political party known as the Nazis to take power barely 15 years later.

Effects of the War

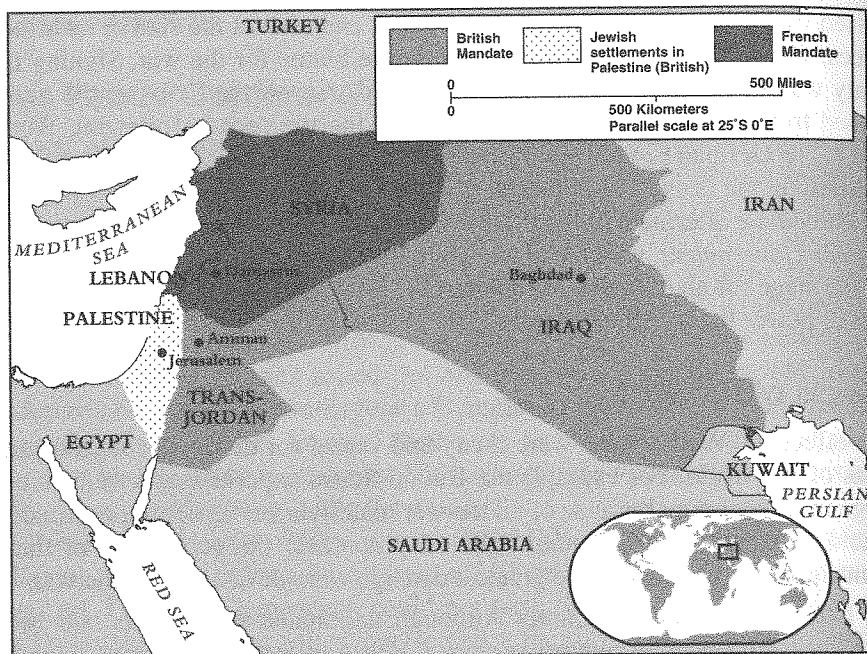
The effects of World War I were many and varied for different countries and areas of the world. For example, the United States experienced a tremendous surge in its economy because of all the war materials and agricultural products it sold to Britain and the other Allies. By contrast, the economies of those countries that experienced the greatest damage were devastated by the war.

Effects on Colonial Lands Although nationalist movements had been brewing for decades in regions such as South Asia and West Africa, colonial people's experiences in the war renewed their hopes of independence. African and Asian colonial troops contributed a great deal of manpower to the Allied war effort. For colonized peoples, this disastrous war shed a different light on the imperial powers. Britain, France, and Germany did not appear invincible or even formidable anymore. The colonized peoples thought that the principle of self-determination, as elucidated in Wilson's Fourteen Points, would get them closer to self-rule. Nationalists in Africa and Asia hoped that the blood they had shed for their "home countries" would earn them some respect from Western Europe and thus begin a *decolonization* process.

The peace conference's *Big Three*—Lloyd George, Wilson, and Clemenceau—were not at all interested in freeing the colonies. Wilson even refused to meet with a young Vietnamese nationalist, Ho Chi Minh, who requested to speak with him about the independence of Vietnam from the French. This rejection only fueled stronger nationalist movements in South Asia, Southeast Asia, and Africa. The seeds of Asian, African, and Arab nationalism were sown largely in the aftermath of World War I. (Test Prep: Write a brief paragraph connecting self-rule after World War I with later movements for independence. See pages 573–590.)

Mandate System Arab rebels of the former Ottoman Empire were especially insulted by the results of the peace conference. They had been promised self-rule if they fought with the Allies. Instead, the Allies forgot all of their promises and through the League of Nations established a *mandate system* to rule the colonies and territories of the Central Powers.

MANDATES IN THE MIDDLE EAST AFTER WORLD WAR I



Article 22 of the League of Nations charter specifically stated that colonized people in Africa and Asia required “tutelage” from more “advanced” nations in order to survive. For example, Cameroon, which had been a German colony, was divided and transferred to France and Britain as separate mandates.

Southwest Asia experienced enormous upheaval because of the fall of the Ottoman Empire. Palestine, Transjordan, Syria, and Iraq all became League of Nations mandates. These Arab states were not yet sovereign lands, but virtual colonies of Great Britain and France. This infuriated the Arabs who lived in these lands and set the stage for a nationalist movement known as *Pan-Arabism*—an ideology that called for the unification of all lands in North Africa and West Asia.

In 1917, the British government issued the *Balfour Declaration*, which stated that *Palestine* should become a permanent home for the Jews of Europe. Those who supported a Jewish homeland were known as *Zionists*. After the Allied victory in the Great War, European Jews moved in droves to Palestine, which was controlled by the British.

The mandate system existed in East Asia, as well. Japan, being a victorious ally, won spheres of influence in China that had formerly been controlled by Germany. The Chinese, who had also fought on the side of the Allies, were furious with the settlement, which ignored their demands that Japan stop occupying the Shandong Peninsula. Led by urban intellectuals and college students in Beijing, a series of nationalistic demonstrations, known as the *May Fourth Movement*, erupted in 1919 in response to the results of the Paris Peace Conference. The demonstrators also called for more democracy in China, much of which was controlled by war lords. Some of the leaders of the May Fourth Movement later became active in the new Chinese Communist Party.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE: WAS THE PARIS PEACE CONFERENCE A SUCCESS?

The Paris Peace Conference, according to most scholars, was a major failure, but they have not agreed on what went wrong. British economist John Maynard Keynes was among the first critics with *The Economic Consequences of the Peace* (1919). As the title suggested, Keynes focused on the economic issues that emerged. In particular, he attacked the reparation policy, which he considered harsh and short-sighted. Partially due to the influence of Keynes’ opposition to the reparations policy, the U.S. Senate rejected the Versailles treaty, and the United States never joined the League of Nations.

American journalist Ray Stannard Baker focused on the political consequences of the peace. During the conference, he had served as Wilson’s press secretary, and afterwards he defended Wilson and criticized those who blocked his efforts to build a viable international organization. By 1941, Europe and East Asia were well into an even more bloody conflict, World War II, and Wilsonian internationalism looked even more attractive to some. Among these was American historian Paul Birdsall, whose book *Versailles Twenty Years After* was sympathetic to the efforts to unite the world against militaristic dictators.

By 2003, when Canadian historian Margaret MacMillan’s book *Paris 1919: Six Months that Changed the World* was published, other problems from the conference were evident. At the conference, the borders in the Balkans and the Middle East had been redrawn. Wars and turmoil in both of these regions during the 1990s suggested that the settlement after World War I had failed to create viable states.

Not every scholar has focused on the shortcomings of the Paris Peace Conference. In 1996, Boston University historian William Keylor called for reevaluating the event. For example, he suggested that in light of the settlement of World War II, the treaties ending World War I do not look as harsh.

KEY TERMS BY THEME

STATE-BUILDING:

HISTORICAL FIGURES

Gavrilo Princip
Archduke Francis
Ferdinand
Woodrow Wilson
David Lloyd George
Georges Clemenceau
Vittorio Orlando
Ho Chi Minh

STATE-BUILDING: STATES, MOVEMENTS, & ALLIANCES

Black Hand
Triple Entente
Allies
Triple Alliance
Soviet Russia
Big Four
Big Three
Soviet Union
League of Nations
Weimar Government
Pan-Arabism
Zionists
May Fourth Movement

STATE-BUILDING

The Great War
militarism
secret alliances
Central Powers
self-determination
stalemate
Lusitania
Zimmermann
Telegram
Treaty of
Brest-Litovsk
total war
propaganda
global war
Gallipoli
ANZAC
Armistice Day
Paris Peace
Conference
Fourteen Points
Treaty of Versailles
reparations
decolonization
mandate system
Balfour Declaration
Palestine

ENVIRONMENT

Poison gas
machine guns
Tanks
submarines
Airplanes
Trench warfare
U-boat
Influenza epidemic
pandemic

SOCIAL STRUCTURE

Soviets
Bolsheviks
Lost Generation

CULTURE

genocide
Armenians

MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS

- The long-term cause of World War I that was most responsible for expanding the scope of the war beyond Europe was
 - alliances
 - imperialism
 - militarism
 - nationalism
- Women's participation in the labor force during the war
 - decreased significantly
 - increased only slightly
 - increased greatly
 - stayed basically at the same level
- In the summer of 1914, the most popular view in Europe toward the prospect of war was widespread
 - support for war
 - opposition to war
 - apathy toward war
 - ignorance of a potential war
- Why was World War I referred to as a total war?
 - Nations committed all their resources to winning the war.
 - All the European colonies were involved in the war.
 - The European powers had large standing armies.
 - Resulting social revolutions changed all aspects of European society.
- Why is propaganda more common in a total war than in a traditional, more limited war?
 - Very few people will volunteer if they think a war will be large.
 - Propaganda primarily discourages enemy civilians from supporting a war.
 - Only countries with totalitarian governments engage in total war.
 - Winning a total war requires support from throughout society.

Question 6 refers to the cartoon below.



Source: Punch Limited

6. To which long-term cause of World War I does the cartoon refer to most directly?
- (A) new technology
 - (B) militarism
 - (C) nationalism
 - (D) imperialism
7. What effect did the Russian Revolution have on Russia's actions in World War I?
- (A) Russia was instrumental in Germany's final defeat.
 - (B) Russia made an early peace with Germany.
 - (C) Russia turned against the United States and other Allies.
 - (D) Russia enforced Communist principles at the Paris Peace Conference.
8. What alleged reason did the Ottoman Empire give for attacking the Armenian population in Turkey between 1915 and 1917?
- (A) Armenian collusion with the Russian Army
 - (B) Cover-up of Ottoman military mistakes
 - (C) Revenge for Armenian massacres of Muslims in the nineteenth century
 - (D) Separatist movements within the Armenian population

9. Which of the conflicts below is a direct result of the mandate system?
- (A) World War II
 - (B) Conflict in Vietnam
 - (C) Nationalist conflicts in Africa
 - (D) Palestinian and Israeli conflict

Question 10 refers to the excerpt below.

A free, open-minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the government whose title is to be determined.

—From Woodrow Wilson, "Speech on the Fourteen Points,"
65th Congressional Record

10. Based on the excerpt and information in the text, which statement best reflects Wilson's position?
- (A) Colonial powers should continue to determine a colony's future.
 - (B) The Big Four should divide Germany's colonies among themselves.
 - (C) Colonized peoples and colonizers should have equal say in a colony's future.
 - (D) Colonized peoples should have an unlimited right to self-determination.

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE-OVER-TIME ESSAY QUESTIONS

Directions: You are to answer the following question. You should spend 5 minutes organizing or outlining your essay. Write an essay that:

- Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with appropriate historical evidence.
 - Addresses all parts of the question.
 - Uses world historical context to show continuities and changes over time.
 - Analyzes the process of continuity and change over time.
1. Analyze the continuities and changes caused by nationalism from 1900 to 1920 in ONE of the following regions:
- East Asia
 - Southwest Asia
 - Eastern Europe

Questions for Additional Practice

2. Analyze continuities and change in warfare from the Crimean War to the end of the Great War.
3. Analyze continuities and change in Russia's relationship with Western Europe in the late nineteenth century and the early twentieth century.

COMPARATIVE ESSAY QUESTIONS

Directions: You are to answer the following question. You should spend 5 minutes organizing or outlining your essay. Write an essay that:

- Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with appropriate historical evidence.
 - Addresses all parts of the question.
 - Makes direct, relevant comparisons.
 - Analyzes relevant reasons for similarities and differences.
1. Analyze similarities and differences between the priorities of the United States and the priorities of Great Britain and France at the Paris Peace Conference:

Questions for Additional Practice

2. Analyze similarities and differences in the effects of World War I on TWO of the following countries and their empires:
 - France
 - Germany
 - Russia
3. Compare and contrast the effects of the Paris Peace Conference of 1919 with the effects of the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

THINK AS A HISTORIAN: APPLY SYNTHESIS

Synthesis is the process by which two or more things are joined together to create a new whole. For example, a synthesis of ideas to explain how World War I began might combine information about how the growth of militarism, the spread of nationalism, and the impact of alliances. Information about the number of deaths in the war probably would not fit into the synthesis. *Which THREE statements would be most useful in creating a synthesis to justify the name "The Great War" for the conflict now called World War I?*

1. The war included soldiers from all over the globe, including many from Africa and Asia fighting on behalf of a European country.
2. The alliance system that led to the conflict grew out of the Congress of Vienna, which has kept Europe relatively peaceful for a century.
3. The number of people killed and wounded in the conflict made it one of the costliest wars in human history to that time.
4. The conflict was total war, which meant that civilians were involved as providers of supplies for soldiers as never before.
5. Propaganda in the conflict often depicted the enemy crudely, and with little regard for accuracy.

WRITE AS A HISTORIAN: WRITE A STRONG LAST SENTENCE

The final sentence of an essay can have the most impact on a reader. Your last sentence should be compelling and solidify the points made in the body paragraphs. Summarize the contentions and restate the position from your introduction in order to firmly establish your stance. The closing sentence often resembles the thesis statement.

1. Choose the sentence that best concludes an essay about the causes of World War I.
 - a. Several factors contributed to the Great War, including patriotism, expansionism, and military allies.
 - b. The unwavering nationalism, strong alliances, and dominating imperialistic attitudes led to World War I.
2. Choose the sentence that best concludes an essay about the effects of the war on international relations.
 - a. Germany's financial and political penalizations, the false hope of colonized peoples and the contradicting interests of nations generated the state of international relationships after World War I.
 - b. In addition to nominal peace conferences, some countries felt excluded from such meetings which led to increased tension between nations.

The Interwar Years, 1919–1939

Has not this truth already come home to you now when this cruel war has driven its claws into the vitals of Europe? When her hoard of wealth is bursting into smoke and her humanity is shattered on her battlefields? You ask in amazement what she has done to deserve this? The answer is that the West has been systematically petrifying her moral nature in order to lay a solid foundation for her gigantic abstractions of efficiency.

—Rabindranath Tagore, *Nationalism*, written in 1917

History has underestimated the effects of World War I, or the Great War as it was called at the time. Perhaps because of World War II's unspeakable genocides, as well as its general carnage and destruction, much of the devastation of World War I has been forgotten.

The years following World War I brought economic depressions and hope to people around the world. From the perspective of Western Europe and the United States, the overall mood of the 20-year period was pessimistic. Colonized peoples, however, viewed a weakened Europe as an opportunity to fight for independence. As Tagore describes in the opening passage, Western Europe was beginning to implode. The troubles of the era moved many in the West to adopt radical philosophies, such as fascism and Nazism. Western countries grappled with new political landscapes and troubled economies. In the meantime, the colonized lands of the world were giving birth to nationalist movements and solidifying national identities. The interwar era, though short, brought with it daring new intellectual and artistic movements that reflected the confusion and chaos of the time.

The Great Depression

World War I brought anxiety to the nations that suffered through it. Even the victorious Allied nations experienced troubles following the war. They had lost millions of their citizens, both soldiers and civilians, and had spent an excessive amount of money on the international conflict. The defeated Central Powers, particularly Germany and the newly dismembered Austria-Hungary, suffered even greater losses. The Treaty of Versailles forced Germany to pay billions of dollars in reparations to the war's victors. Germany could not meet these payments, so the government printed more paper money in the 1920s.