

'''World War I''' (or the '''First World War''', often abbreviated as '''WWI''' or '''WW1''') was a [[World war|global war]] that lasted from 28 July 1914 to 11 November 1918. Contemporaneously known as the '''Great War''' or "[[The war to end war|the war to end all wars]]",<ref>{{cite news |date=10 November 1998 |title=The war to end all wars |work=BBC News |url=http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/special_report/1998/10/98/world_war_i/198172.stm }</ref> it led to the mobilisation of more than 70 million [[military personnel]], including 60 million Europeans, making it one of the largest wars in history.{{sfn |Keegan |1998 |p=8}}{{sfn |Bade |Brown |2003 |pp=167-168}} It is also [[List of wars and anthropogenic disasters by death toll|one of the deadliest conflicts in history]],{{sfn |Willmott |2003 |p=307}} with an estimated nine million combatant deaths and 13 million civilian [[World War I casualties|deaths as a direct result of the war]],<ref>{{Cite web|title=World War I - Killed, wounded, and missing|url=https://www.britannica.com/event/World-War-I|website=Encyclopedia Britannica|language=en|access-date=2020-05-12}}</ref> while [[Genocides in history#World War I through World War II|resulting genocides]] and the related [[Spanish flu|1918 influenza pandemic]] caused another 17-100 million deaths worldwide.<ref name=Spreeuwenberg>{{cite journal |last1=Spreeuwenberg |first1=P. |display-authors=etal|title=Reassessing the Global Mortality Burden of the 1918 Influenza Pandemic. |journal=[[American Journal of Epidemiology]] |volume=187|issue=12|pages=2561-2567|date=1 December 2018 |doi=10.1093/aje/kwy191 |pmid=30202996|pmc=7314216 }}</ref><ref>{{cite book |last1=Williams |first1=Rachel |title=Dual Threat: The Spanish Influenza and World War I |date=2014 |publisher=Trace: Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange |location=University of Tennessee Thesis |pages=4-10 |url=https://trace.tennessee.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=https://www.google.com/&httpsredir=1&article=2761&context=utk_chanhonopr oj |accessdate=10 September 2018}}</ref>

On 28 June 1914, [[Gavrilo Princip]], a [[Bosnian Serb]] [[Yugoslav nationalist]], [[assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand|assassinated]] the Austro-Hungarian heir [[Archduke Franz Ferdinand]] in [[Sarajevo]], leading to the [[July Crisis]].<ref name="AJPT2">{{harvnb |Taylor |1998 |pp=80-93}}</ref>{{sfn |Djokić |2003 |p=24}} In response, [[Austria-Hungary]] issued an ultimatum to [[Kingdom of Serbia|Serbia]] on 23 July. Serbia's reply failed to satisfy the Austrians, and the two moved to a war footing. A network of interlocking alliances enlarged the crisis from a bilateral issue in the [[Balkans]] to one involving most of Europe. By July 1914, the [[great powers]] of Europe were divided into two coalitions: the [[Triple Entente]], consisting of [[French Third Republic|France]], [[Russian Empire|Russia]], and [[British Empire|Britain]]; and the [[Triple Alliance (1882)|Triple Alliance]] of [[German Empire|Germany]], Austria-Hungary, and [[Kingdom of Italy|Italy]]. The Triple Alliance was only defensive in nature, allowing Italy to stay out of the war until [[Treaty of London (1915)|April 1915]], when it joined the [[Allies of World War I|Allied Powers]] after its relations with Austria-Hungary deteriorated.<ref name="Seymour">{{cite book |title=The Diplomatic Background of the War |url=https://archive.org/details/in.ernet.dli.2015.47310 |author=Charles Seymour |publisher=[[Yale University Press]] |year=1916 |pages=[https://archive.org/details/in.ernet.dli.2015.47310/page/n55 35], 147}}</ref> Russia felt it necessary to back Serbia, and approved partial mobilisation after Austria-Hungary shelled the Serbian capital of [[Belgrade]] on 28{{nbsp}}July.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Lieven |first1=Dominic |title=Towards the Flame: Empire, War and the End of Tsarist Russia |date=2016 |publisher=Penguin |isbn=978-0141399744 |page=326}}</ref> Full Russian mobilisation was announced on the evening of 30{{nbsp}}July; the following day, Austria-Hungary and Germany did the same, while Germany demanded Russia demobilise within twelve hours.<ref name="auto">{{cite book |last1=Martel |first1=Gordon |title=The Month that Changed the World: July 1914 and WWI |date=2014 |publisher=OUP |at=6286 |edition=Kindle |ref=B00K79U0PK}}</ref> When Russia failed to comply, Germany declared war on Russia on 1{{nbsp}}August in support of Austria-Hungary, the latter following suit on 6{{nbsp}}August; France ordered full mobilisation in support of Russia on 2{{nbsp}}August.<ref>{{cite journal |title=Le Président de la République, R. [Raymond] Poincaré et al., 'A La Nation Française' |journal=Journal Officiel de la République Française |

date=2 August 1914 |pages=7053-7054 |url=https://www.loc.gov/law/help/digitized-books/world-war-i-declarations/ww1-gazettes/France-doc-3-OCR-SPLIT.pdf |accessdate=26 August 2018}}

Germany's strategy for a war on two fronts against France and Russia was to rapidly concentrate the bulk of its army in the West to defeat France within six weeks, then shift forces to the East before Russia could fully mobilise; this was later known as the [[Schlieffen Plan]].^{<ref>{{cite book |last1=Zuber |first1=Terence |title=Inventing the Schlieffen Plan: German War Planning 1871-1914 |date=2011 |publisher=OUP |isbn=978-0198718055 |pages=46-49 |edition=2014}}}</ref> On 2{{nbsp}}August, Germany demanded [[German invasion of Belgium|free passage through Belgium]], an essential element in achieving a quick victory over France.^{<ref>{{cite book |chapter=Note Given 2 August 1914, at 19 hours, by M. de Below Saleske [Klaus von Below-Saleske], Minister of Germany, to M. Davignon, Minister of Foreign Affairs |title=Documents Diplomatiques 1914: La Guerre Européenne Diplomatic Documents 1914: The European War |date=1914 |publisher=Ministère des Affaires Étrangères (Ministry of Foreign Affairs) |page=201 |url=https://www.loc.gov/law/help/digitized-books/world-war-i-declarations/ww1-gazettes/Belgium-1-OCR.pdf |accessdate=26 August 2018}}}</ref> When this was refused, German forces invaded Belgium on 3{{nbsp}}August and declared war on France the same day; the Belgian government invoked the [[Treaty of London (1839)|1839 Treaty of London]] and, in compliance with its obligations under this treaty, Britain declared war on Germany on 4{{nbsp}}August. On 12 August, Britain and France also declared war on Austria-Hungary; on 23{{nbsp}}August, [[Empire of Japan|Japan]] sided with Britain, seizing German possessions in [[Republic of China (1912-1949)|China]] and the Pacific. In November 1914, the [[Ottoman Empire]] entered the war on the side of the Austria-Hungary and Germany, opening fronts in the [[Caucasus Campaign|Caucasus]], [[Mesopotamian campaign|Mesopotamia]], and the [[Sinai and Palestine Campaign|Sinai Peninsula]]. The war was fought in (and drew upon) each power's colonial empire also, spreading the conflict to [[African theatre of World War I|Africa]] and across the globe. The Entente and its allies eventually became known as the Allied Powers, while the grouping of Austria-Hungary, Germany and their allies became known as the [[Central Powers]].

The German advance into France was halted at the [[First Battle of the Marne|Battle of the Marne]] and by the end of 1914, the [[Western Front (World War I)|Western Front]] settled into a [[battle of attrition|war of attrition]], marked by a long series of [[trench warfare|trench lines]] that changed little until 1917 (the [[Eastern Front (World War I)|Eastern Front]], by contrast, was marked by much greater exchanges of territory). In 1915, Italy joined the Allied Powers and opened a [[Alpine Front|front in the Alps]]. [[Kingdom of Bulgaria|Bulgaria]] joined the Central Powers in 1915 and [[Kingdom of Greece|Greece]] joined the Allies in 1917, expanding the [[Balkans Campaign (World War I)|war in the Balkans]]. The United States initially remained neutral, though even while neutral it became an important supplier of war [[materiel]] to the Allies. Eventually, after the sinking of American merchant ships by German submarines, the declaration by Germany that its navy would resume unrestricted attacks on neutral shipping, and [[Zimmermann Telegram|the revelation]] that Germany was trying to incite Mexico to initiate war against the United States, the [[American entry into World War I|U.S. declared war on Germany]] on 6{{nbsp}}April 1917. Trained American forces did not begin arriving at the front in large numbers until mid-1918, but the [[American Expeditionary Forces|American Expeditionary Force]] ultimately reached some two million troops.^{<ref>{{cite book |first=Edward M. |last=Coffman |title=The War to End All Wars: The American Military Experience in World War I |date=1998}}}</ref>

Though [[Serbian Campaign of World War I|Serbia was defeated in 1915]], and [[Kingdom of Romania|Romania]] joined the Allied Powers in 1916 [[Romania during World War I|only to be defeated in 1917]], none of the great powers were knocked out of the war until 1918. The 1917 [[February Revolution]] in Russia replaced the [[Tsarist autocracy]] with the [[Russian Provisional Government|Provisional Government]], but continuing discontent with the cost of the war led to the [[October Revolution]], the creation of the [[Russian Soviet Federative

Socialist Republic|Soviet Socialist Republic]], and the signing of the [[Treaty of Brest-Litovsk]] by the new government in March 1918, ending Russia's involvement in the war. Germany now controlled much of eastern Europe and transferred large numbers of combat troops to the Western Front. Using [[Infiltration tactics|new tactics]], the [[Spring Offensive|German March 1918 Offensive]] was initially successful. The Allies fell back and held. The last of the German reserves were exhausted as 10,000 fresh American troops arrived every day. The Allies drove the Germans back in their [[Hundred Days Offensive]], a continual series of attacks to which the Germans had no reply.<ref>{{cite book | last1=Sheffield |first1=Gary |title=Forgotten Victory |date=2002 | publisher=Review |isbn=978-0747271574 |page=251}}</ref> One by one the Central Powers quit. First Bulgaria, then the Ottoman Empire and the Austro-Hungarian empire. With its allies defeated, [[German Revolution of 1918–19|revolution]] at home, and the military no longer willing to fight, [[Wilhelm II, German Emperor|Kaiser Wilhelm]] abdicated on 9{{nbsp}}November and Germany signed an [[Armistice of 11 November 1918|armistice on 11 November 1918]], ending the fighting.

World War I was a significant turning point in the political, cultural, economic, and social climate of the world. The war [[Aftermath of World War I|and its immediate aftermath]] sparked numerous [[Revolutions of 1917–1923|revolutions and uprisings]]. The [[The Big Four (World War I)|Big Four]] (Britain, France, the United States, and Italy) imposed their terms on the defeated powers in a series of treaties agreed at the 1919 [[Paris Peace Conference, 1919|Paris Peace Conference]], the most well known being the German peace treaty: the [[Treaty of Versailles]].<ref>{{cite book |last1=Gerwath |first1=Robert |title=The Vanquished: Why the First World War Failed to End, 1917–1923 |date=2016 |publisher=Penguin |at=3323–3342 |isbn=978-0141976372 |edition=Kindle}}</ref> Ultimately, as a result of the war, the Austro-Hungarian, German, Ottoman, and Russian Empires ceased to exist, and numerous new states were created from their remains. However, despite the conclusive Allied victory (and the creation of the [[League of Nations]] during the Peace Conference, intended to prevent future wars), a [[World War II|second world war]] followed just over [[Interwar period|twenty years]] later. {{TOC limit|4}}

==Names==

The term "world war" was first used in September 1914 by German biologist and philosopher [[Ernst Haeckel]], who claimed that "there is no doubt that the course and character of the feared 'European War' ... will become the first world war in the full sense of the word,"{{sfn |Shapiro |Epstein |2006 |p=329}} citing a wire service report in ''[[The Indianapolis Star]]'' on 20 September 1914.

Prior to [[World War II]], the events of 1914–1918 were generally known as the ''Great War'' or simply the ''World War''.<ref>{{cite web |title=Were they always called World War I and World War II? |url=http://www.history.com/news/ask-history/were-they-always-called-world-war-i-and-world-war-ii |website=Ask History |accessdate=24 October 2013}}</ref>{{sfn |Braybon |2004 |p=8}} In October 1914, the Canadian magazine ''[[Maclean's]]'' wrote, "Some wars name themselves. This is the Great War."<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.oed.com/view/Entry/81104 |title=great, adj., adv., and n |website=Oxford English Dictionary}}</ref> Contemporary Europeans also referred to it as "[[the war to end war]]" or "the war to end all wars" due to their perception of its then-unparalleled scale and devastation.<ref>{{cite news |url=http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/special_report/1998/10/98/world_war_i/198172.stm |title=The war to end all wars |work=BBC News |date=10 November 1998 |accessdate=15 December 2015}}</ref> After World War{{nbsp}}II began in 1939, the terms became more standard, with British Empire historians, including Canadians, favouring "The First World War" and Americans "World War{{nbsp}}I".<ref>Margery Fee and Janice McAlpine. ''Guide to Canadian English Usage''. (Oxford UP, 1997), p. 210.</ref>

==Background==

{{Main|Causes of World War I}}

===Political and military alliances===

[[File:Map Europe alliances 1914-en.svg|thumb|upright=1.25|alt=Map of Europe focusing on Austria-Hungary and marking central location of ethnic groups in it including Slovaks, Czechs, Slovenes, Croats, Serbs, Romanians, Ukrainians, Poles.|Rival military coalitions in 1914: [[Triple Entente]] in green; [[Triple Alliance (1882)|Triple Alliance]] in brown. Only the Triple Alliance was a formal "alliance"; the others listed were informal patterns of support.]]

For much of the 19th century, the major European powers had tried to maintain a tenuous [[Balance of power (international relations)|balance of power]] among themselves, resulting in a complex network of political and military alliances. {{sfn |Clark |2013 |pp=121–152}} The biggest challenges to this were Britain's withdrawal into so-called [[splendid isolation]], the [[decline of the Ottoman Empire]] and the post-1848 rise of [[Kingdom of Prussia|Prussia]] under [[Otto von Bismarck]]. Victory in the 1866 [[Austro-Prussian War]] established Prussian hegemony in Germany, while victory over France in the 1870–1871 [[Franco-Prussian War]] [[Unification of Germany|unified]] the German states into a [[German Empire|German Reich]] under Prussian leadership. French desire for revenge over the defeat of 1871, known as [[revanchism]], and the recovery of [[Alsace-Lorraine]] became a principal object of French policy for the next forty years (see [[French-German enmity]]).<ref>Theodore Zeldin, 'France, 1848–1945: Volume II: Intellect, Taste, and Anxiety' (1977) 2: 117.</ref>

In 1873, to isolate France and avoid a war on two fronts, Bismarck negotiated the [[League of the Three Emperors]] (German: 'Dreikaiserbund') between Austria-Hungary, Russia and Germany. Concerned by Russia's victory in the 1877–1878 [[Russo-Turkish War, 1877–1878|Russo-Turkish War]] and its influence in the [[Balkans]], the League was dissolved in 1878, with Germany and Austria-Hungary subsequently forming the 1879 [[Dual Alliance, 1879|Dual Alliance]]; this became the [[Triple Alliance (1882)|Triple Alliance]] when Italy joined in 1882.{{sfn|Willmott |2003 |p={{pn|date=July 2020}}}} {{sfn|Keegan |1998 |p=52}}

The practical details of these alliances were limited, since their primary purpose was to ensure cooperation between the three Imperial Powers, and to isolate France. Attempts by Britain in 1880 to resolve colonial tensions with Russia and diplomatic moves by France led to Bismarck reforming the League in 1881.<ref>{{cite journal |last1=Medlicott |first1=W.N. |title=Bismarck and the Three Emperors' Alliance, 1881–87 |journal=Transactions of the Royal Historical Society |date=1945 |volume=27 |pages=66–70 |doi=10.2307/3678575 |jstor=3678575}}</ref> When the League finally lapsed in 1887, it was replaced by the [[Reinsurance Treaty]], a secret agreement between Germany and Russia to remain neutral if either were attacked by France or Austria-Hungary.

In 1890, the new German Emperor, [[Wilhelm II, German Emperor|Kaiser Wilhelm II]], forced Bismarck to retire and was persuaded not to renew the Reinsurance Treaty by the new [[Chancellor of Germany|Chancellor]], [[Leo von Caprivi]].<ref>{{cite book |last1=Keenan |first1=George |title=The Fateful Alliance: France, Russia and the Coming of the First World War |date=1986 |publisher=Manchester University Press |isbn=978-0719017070 |page=[https://archive.org/details/fatefulalliance00geor/page/20_20] |url=https://archive.org/details/fatefulalliance00geor/page/20_20 }}</ref> This allowed France to counteract the Triple Alliance with the [[Franco-Russian Alliance]] of 1894 and the 1904 [[Entente Cordiale]] with Britain, while in 1907 Britain and Russia signed the [[Anglo-Russian Convention]]. The agreements did not constitute formal alliances, but by settling long-standing colonial disputes, they made British entry into any future conflict involving France or Russia a possibility. These interlocking bilateral agreements became known as the [[Triple Entente]].<ref name=Willmott15>{{harvnb |Willmott |2003 |p=15}}</ref> British backing of France against Germany during the [[Second Moroccan Crisis]] in 1911 reinforced the Entente between the two countries (and with Russia as well) and increased Anglo-German estrangement, deepening the divisions that would erupt in 1914.<ref>{{cite book |first=Sidney B. |last=Fay |

title=The Origins of the World War |edition=2nd |date=1930 |volume=1 |pages=290-293}}</ref>

===Arms race===

[[File:Bundesarchiv DVM 10 Bild-23-61-23, Linienschiff "SMS Rheinland".jpg|thumb|upright=0.8|left|{{SMS|Rheinland}}, a {{sclass-Nassau|battleship|2}}, Germany's first response to the British ''Dreadnought'']]

The creation of the German Reich following victory in the 1871 [[Franco-Prussian War]] led to a massive increase in Germany's economic and industrial strength. Admiral [[Alfred von Tirpitz]] and Wilhelm II, who became Emperor in 1890, sought to use that to create a ''Kaiserliche Marine'' or [[Imperial German Navy]] to compete with Britain's [[Royal Navy]] for world naval supremacy.<ref name=willmott21/> In doing so, they were influenced by US naval strategist [[Alfred Thayer Mahan|Alfred Mahan]], who argued possession of a [[blue-water navy]] was vital for global power projection; Tirpitz translated his books into German and Wilhelm made them required reading.<ref>Holger Herwig, ''The Failure of German Sea Power, 1914-1945: Mahan, Tirpitz, and Raeder Reconsidered'', ''The International History Review'', 10:1 (February 1988), 72-73.</ref> However, it was also driven by Wilhelm's admiration of the Royal Navy and desire to outdo it.<ref>{{cite journal |last1=Moll |last2=Kendall |first1=Luebbert |first2=Gregory |title=Arms Race and Military Expenditure Models: A Review |journal=The Journal of Conflict Resolution |date=1980 |volume=24 |issue=1 |pages=153-185 |jstor=173938|doi=10.1177/002200278002400107 |s2cid=155405415 }}</ref>

This resulted in the [[Anglo-German naval arms race]] but the launch of {{HMS |Dreadnought |1906 |6}} in 1906 gave the Royal Navy a technological advantage over its German rival, which they never lost.<ref name=willmott21>{{harvnb |Willmott |2003 |p=21}}</ref> Ultimately, the race diverted huge resources to creating a German navy large enough to antagonise Britain, but not defeat it. In 1911, Chancellor [[Theobald von Bethmann-Hollweg]] acknowledged defeat, leading to the ''Rüstungswende'' or 'armaments turning point', when Germany switched expenditure from the navy to the army.{{sfn|Stevenson|2016|p=45}}

This was driven by Russia's recovery from the [[1905 Russian Revolution|1905 Revolution]], specifically increased investment post 1908 in railways and infrastructure in its western border regions. Germany and Austria-Hungary relied on faster mobilisation to compensate for fewer numbers; it was concern at the closing of this gap that led to the end of the naval race, rather than a reduction in tension elsewhere. When Germany expanded its standing army by 170,000 men in 1913, France extended compulsory military service from two to three years; similar measures taken by the [[Balkans|Balkan powers]] and Italy led to increased expenditure by the [[Ottoman Empire|Ottomans]] and Austria-Hungary. Absolute figures are hard to calculate, due to differences in categorising expenditure, while they often omit civilian infrastructure projects with a military use, such as railways. However, from 1908 to 1913, defence spending by the six major European powers increased by over 50% in real terms.{{sfn|Stevenson|2016|p=42}}

===Conflicts in the Balkans===

[[File:1908-10-07 - Moritz Schiller's Delicatessen.jpg|thumb|alt=Photo of large white building with one signs saying "Moritz Schiller" and another in Arabic; in front is a cluster of people looking at poster on the wall.|Sarajevo citizens reading a poster with the proclamation of the [[Bosnian Crisis|Austrian annexation in 1908]]]]

In October 1908, Austria-Hungary precipitated the [[Bosnian crisis]] of 1908-1909 by officially annexing the former Ottoman territory of [[Bosnia Vilayet|Bosnia and Herzegovina]], which it [[Austro-Hungarian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina|had occupied]] since 1878. This angered the [[Kingdom of Serbia]] and its patron, the [[Pan-Slavism|Pan-Slavic]] and [[Eastern Orthodox Church|Orthodox]] [[Russian Empire]]. The Balkans came to be known as the "[[powder keg of Europe]]".{{sfn |Keegan |1998 |pp=48-49}} The [[Italo-Turkish War]] in the

1911-1912 was a significant precursor of the World War I as it sparked [[nationalism]] in the Balkan states and paved the way for the [[Balkan Wars]].<ref>{{cite book |lccn=2012515665 |last=Clark |first=Christopher M. |author-link=Christopher Clark |isbn=9780713999426 |title=The Sleepwalkers: How Europe Went to War in 1914 |location=London |publisher=[[Allen Lane]] |year=2012 |pages=251-252}}</ref>

In 1912 and 1913, the [[First Balkan War]] was fought between the [[Balkan League]] and the fracturing Ottoman Empire. The resulting [[Treaty of London (1913)|Treaty of London]] further shrank the Ottoman Empire, creating an independent [[Albania]]n state while enlarging the territorial holdings of Bulgaria, Serbia, [[Kingdom of Montenegro|Montenegro]], and [[Kingdom of Greece|Greece]]. When Bulgaria attacked Serbia and Greece on 16 June 1913, it sparked the 33-day [[Second Balkan War]], by the end of which it lost most of [[Macedonia (region)|Macedonia]] to Serbia and Greece, and [[Southern Dobruja]] to Romania, further destabilising the region.{{sfn|Willmott |2003 |pp=2-23}} The [[Great Powers]] were able to keep these Balkan conflicts contained, but the next one would spread throughout Europe and beyond.

==Prelude==

===Sarajevo assassination===

{{Main|Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand}}
[[File:Gavrilo Princip captured in Sarajevo 1914.jpg|thumb |This picture is usually associated with the arrest of [[Gavrilo Princip]], although some<ref name="FinestoneMassie">{{cite book |first1=Jeffrey |last1=Finestone |first2=Robert K. |last2=Massie |title=The last courts of Europe |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=-1cvAAAAMAAJ |page=247}} |year=1981 |publisher=Dent |page=247}}</ref>{{sfn|Smith |2010}} believe it depicts Ferdinand Behr, a bystander.]]

On 28 June 1914, [[Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria|Archduke Franz Ferdinand]], heir presumptive to the [[Austro-Hungarian Empire]], visited the [[Bosnia and Herzegovina|Bosnian]] capital, [[Sarajevo]]. A group of six assassins ([[Cvjetko Popović]], [[Gavrilo Princip]], [[Muhamed Mehmedbašić]], [[Nedeljko Čabrinović]], [[Trifko Grabež]], and [[Vaso Čubrilović]]) from the [[Yugoslavism|Yugoslavist]] group [[Young Bosnia|Mlada Bosna]], supplied with arms by the Serbian [[Black Hand (Serbia)|Black Hand]], gathered on the street where the Archduke's motorcade was to pass, with the intention of assassinating him. The political objective of the assassination was to break off Austria-Hungary's South Slav provinces, which Austria-Hungary had annexed from the Ottoman Empire, so they could be combined into a Yugoslavia.

Čabrinović threw a [[hand grenade|grenade]] at the car but missed. Some nearby were injured by the blast, but Ferdinand's convoy carried on. The other assassins failed to act as the cars drove past them.

About an hour later, when Ferdinand was returning from a visit at the Sarajevo Hospital with those wounded in the assassination attempt, the convoy took a wrong turn into a street where, by coincidence, Princip stood. With a pistol, Princip shot and killed Ferdinand and his wife [[Sophie, Duchess of Hohenberg|Sophie]]. Although they were reportedly not personally close, the Emperor [[Franz Joseph of Austria|Franz Joseph]] was profoundly shocked and upset. The reaction among the people in Austria, however, was mild, almost indifferent. As historian [[Zbyněk Zeman]] later wrote, "the event almost failed to make any impression whatsoever. On Sunday and Monday (28 and 29 June), the crowds in [[Vienna]] listened to music and drank wine, as if nothing had happened."<ref name="history">{{cite web |url=http://www.history.com/this-day-in-history/european-powers-maintain-focus-despite-killings-in-sarajevo |title=European powers maintain focus despite killings in Sarajevo - This Day in History |date=30 June 1914 |publisher=History.com |accessdate=26 December 2013}}</ref>{{sfn|Willmott |2003 |p=26}} Nevertheless, the political effect of the murder of the heir to the throne was significant, and was described by historian [[Christopher Clark]] on the BBC Radio{{nbsp}}4 series ''Month of

Madness'' as a "[[September 11 attacks#Effects|9/11 effect]], a terrorist event charged with historic meaning, transforming the political chemistry in Vienna."<ref name="Christopher Clark 2014">{{cite AV media |title=Month of Madness |first=Christopher |last=Clark |publisher=BBC Radio 4 |date=25 June 2014 |url=http://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b03t7p27}}</ref>

===Expansion of violence in Bosnia and Herzegovina===

[[File:1914-06-29 - Aftermath of attacks against Serbs in Sarajevo.png|thumbnail|Crowds on the streets in the aftermath of the [[anti-Serb riots in Sarajevo]], 29 June 1914]]

The Austro-Hungarian authorities encouraged the subsequent [[anti-Serb riots in Sarajevo]], in which [[Bosnian Croats]] and [[Bosniaks]] killed two [[Bosnian Serbs]] and damaged numerous Serb-owned buildings.<ref name="DjordjevićSpence1992">{{cite book |first1=Dimitrije |last1=Djordjević |first2=Richard B. |last2=Spence |title=Scholar, patriot, mentor: historical essays in honor of Dimitrije Djordjević |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=CDJpAAAAAAAJ |page=313}} |year=1992 |publisher=East European Monographs |isbn=978-0-88033-217-0 |page=313 |quote=Following the assassination of Franz Ferdinand in June 1914, Croats and Muslims in Sarajevo joined forces in an anti-Serb pogrom.}}</ref><ref>{{cite book |title=Reports Service: Southeast Europe series |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=QGtWAAAAAAAJ}} |accessdate=7 December 2013 |year=1964 |publisher=American Universities Field Staff. |page=44 |quote=... the assassination was followed by officially encouraged anti-Serb riots in Sarajevo ...}}</ref> Violent actions against ethnic Serbs were also organised outside Sarajevo, in other cities in Austro-Hungarian-controlled Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Slovenia. Austro-Hungarian authorities in Bosnia and Herzegovina imprisoned and extradited approximately 5,500 prominent Serbs, 700 to 2,200 of whom died in prison. A further 460 Serbs were sentenced to death. A predominantly Bosniak special militia known as the ''[[Schutzkorps]]'' was established and carried out the persecution of Serbs.<ref name="Kröll2008">{{cite book |first=Herbert |last=Kröll |title=Austrian-Greek encounters over the centuries: history, diplomacy, politics, arts, economics |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=uJRnAAAAAAAJ}} |accessdate=1 September 2013 |year= 2008 |publisher=Studienverlag |isbn=978-3-7065-4526-6 |page=55 |quote=... arrested and interned some 5.500 prominent Serbs and sentenced to death some 460 persons, a new Schutzkorps, an auxiliary militia, widened the anti-Serb repression.}}</ref>{{sfn|Tomasevich|2001|p=485}}<ref name="Schindler2007">{{cite book |first=John R. |last=Schindler |title=Unholy Terror: Bosnia, Al-Qa'ida, and the Rise of Global Jihad |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=c8Xb6x2XYvIC |page=29}} |year=2007 |publisher=Zenith Imprint |isbn=978-1-61673-964-5 |page=29}}</ref>{{sfn|Velikonja|2003|p=141}}

=== July Crisis ===

{{Main|July Crisis|German entry into World War I|Austro-Hungarian entry into World War I|Russian entry into World War I}}

The assassination led to a month of diplomatic manoeuvring between Austria-Hungary, Germany, Russia, France and Britain, called the [[July Crisis]]. Austria-Hungary correctly believed that Serbian officials (especially the officers of the Black Hand) were involved in the plot to murder the Archduke, and wanted to finally end Serbian interference in Bosnia.{{sfn|Stevenson|1996|p=12}} On 23{{nbsp}}July, Austria-Hungary delivered to Serbia the [[July Crisis#Austro-Hungarian ultimatum|July Ultimatum]], a series of ten demands that were made intentionally unacceptable, in an effort to provoke a war with Serbia.{{sfn|Willmott|2003|p=27}} Serbia decreed general mobilisation on 25{{nbsp}}July. Serbia accepted all the terms of the ultimatum except for article six, which demanded that Austrian delegates be allowed in Serbia for the purpose of participation in the investigation into the assassination.<ref>Fromkin, David; ''Europe's Last Summer: Why the World Went to War in 1914'', Heinemann, 2004; pp. 196–97.</ref> Following this, Austria broke off diplomatic relations with Serbia and, the next day, ordered a partial

mobilisation. Finally, on 28 July 1914, a month after the assassination, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.

[[File:Austria Hungary ethnic.svg|thumb|left|Ethno-linguistic map of Austria-Hungary, 1910. [[Austro-Hungarian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina|Bosnia-Herzegovina was annexed]] in 1908.]]

On 25{{nbsp}}July, Russia, in support of Serbia, declared partial mobilisation against Austria-Hungary.<ref>L. F. C. Turner, "The Russian Mobilization in 1914." ''Journal of Contemporary History'' 3.1 (1968): 65-88

[<https://www.jstor.org/stable/259967> online].</ref> On 30{{nbsp}}July, Russia ordered general mobilisation. German Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg waited until the 31st for an appropriate response, when Germany declared ''Erklärung des Kriegszustandes'', or "Statement on the war status".<ref name="auto"/><ref>{{cite journal |date=31 July 1914 |title=Verordnung, betreffend die Erklärung des Kriegszustandes |language=German |journal=Reichsgesetzblatt |lccn=14013198}}</ref> Kaiser Wilhelm II asked his cousin, Tsar [[Nicolas II]], to suspend the Russian general mobilisation. When he refused, Germany issued an ultimatum demanding its mobilisation be stopped, and a commitment not to support Serbia. Another was sent to France, asking her not to support Russia if it were to come to the defence of Serbia. On 1{{nbsp}}August, after the Russian response, Germany mobilised and declared war on Russia. This also led to the general mobilisation in Austria-Hungary on 4{{nbsp}}August.

The German government issued demands to France that it remain neutral whilst they decided which deployment plan to implement, it being extremely difficult to change the deployment once it was underway. The modified German [[Schlieffen Plan]], ''Aufmarsch II West'', would deploy 80% of the army in the west, while ''Aufmarsch I Ost'' and ''Aufmarsch II Ost'' would deploy 60% in the west and 40% in the east. The French did not respond, but sent a mixed message by ordering their troops to withdraw {{convert|10|km|0|abbr=on}} from the border to avoid any incidents, and at the same time ordered the mobilisation of their reserves. Germany responded by mobilising its own reserves and implementing ''Aufmarsch II West''. The British cabinet decided on 29 July that being a signatory to the 1839 treaty about Belgium did not oblige it to oppose a German invasion of Belgium with military force.<ref>Christopher Clark, ''The Sleepwalkers'' (2012) p. 539.</ref>

On 1 August, Wilhelm ordered General [[Helmuth von Moltke the Younger]] to "march the whole of the{{nbsp}}... army to the East" after being informed that Britain would remain neutral if France was not attacked (and, possibly, that her hands might, in any case, be stayed by crisis in Ireland).<ref>{{cite news|title=On This Day, March 24, 1917. Kaiser's spy in north|newspaper=The Irish News|location=Belfast|date=24 March 2017}}</ref><ref>{{cite book|last=Coogan|first=Tim Pat|title=Ireland in the 20th Century|year=2009|publisher=Random House|location=London|isbn=9780099415220|page=48}}</ref> Moltke told the Kaiser that attempting to redeploy a million men was unthinkable, and that making it possible for the French to attack the Germans "in the rear" would prove disastrous. Yet Wilhelm insisted that the German army should not march into Luxembourg until he received a telegram sent by his cousin [[George V]], who made it clear that there had been a misunderstanding. Eventually the Kaiser told Moltke, "Now you can do what you want."<ref>{{Cite web|url=<https://www.telegraph.co.uk/history/world-war-one/11002644/First-World-War-centenary-how-events-unfolded-on-August-1-1914.html>|title=First World War centenary: how the events of August 1 1914 unfolded|first=Richard|last=Preston|date=1 August 2014|via=www.telegraph.co.uk}}</ref><ref>McMeekin, Sean, July 1914: Countdown to War, Basic Books, 2014, 480 p., {{ISBN|978-0465060740}}, pp. 342, 349</ref>

[[File:The War of the Nations WW1 337.jpg|thumb|Cheering crowds in London and Paris on the day war was declared.]]

For years, the French had been aware of intelligence indicating that Germany planned to attack France through Belgium. General [[Joseph Joffre]], chief of staff of the French military from 1911, inquired about the possibility of moving

some French troops into Belgium to preempt such a move by Germany, but France's civilian leadership rejected this idea. Joffre was told that France would not be the first power to violate Belgian neutrality and that any French move into Belgium could come only after the Germans had already invaded.<ref>{{cite book|authorlink=Margaret MacMillan|last=MacMillan|first=Margaret|title=The War That Ended Peace: The Road to 1914|publisher=[[Random House]]|year=2013|isbn=9780812994704|pp=565-568 (e-book)}}</ref> On 2 August, [[German occupation of Luxembourg during World War I|Germany occupied Luxembourg]], and on 3{{nbsp}}August declared war on France; on the same day, they sent the Belgian government an ultimatum demanding unimpeded right of way through any part of Belgium, which was refused. Early on the morning of 4{{nbsp}}August, the Germans invaded; [[Albert I of Belgium|King Albert]] ordered his military to resist and called for assistance under the [[Treaty of London (1839)|1839 Treaty of London]].{{sfn|Crowe|2001|pp=4-5}}<ref>{{cite book|last=Dell|first=Pamela|title=A World War I Timeline (Smithsonian War Timelines Series)|year=2013|publisher=Capstone|isbn=978-1-4765-4159-4|pages=10-12}}</ref>{{sfn|Willmott|2003|p=29}} Britain demanded Germany comply with the Treaty and respect Belgian neutrality; it declared war on Germany at 19:00 UTC on 4{{nbsp}}August 1914 (effective from 23:00), following an "unsatisfactory reply".<ref>{{cite web|url=http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwone/mirror01_01.shtml|publisher=BBC|title=Daily Mirror Headlines: The Declaration of War, Published 4 August 1914|accessdate=9 February 2010}}</ref>

==Progress of the war==

{{Further|Diplomatic history of World War I}}

===Opening hostilities===

====Confusion among the Central Powers====

The strategy of the Central Powers suffered from miscommunication. Germany had promised to support Austria-Hungary's invasion of Serbia, but interpretations of what this meant differed. Previously tested deployment plans had been replaced early in 1914, but those had never been tested in exercises. Austro-Hungarian leaders believed Germany would cover its northern flank against Russia.{{sfn|Strachan|2003|pp=292-296, 343-354}}<!-- may be able to find more on this in Samuel R. Williamson, Jr: "Austria-Hungary and the Origins of the First World War" --> Germany, however, envisioned Austria-Hungary directing most of its troops against Russia, while Germany dealt with France. This confusion forced the [[Austro-Hungarian Army]] to divide its forces between the Russian and Serbian fronts.

====Serbian campaign====

{{Main|Serbian Campaign of World War I}}

[[File:FirstSerbianArmedPlane1915.jpg|thumb|Serbian Army [[Blériot XI]] "Oluj", 1915]]

Austria invaded and fought the Serbian army at the [[Battle of Cer]] and [[Battle of Kolubara]] beginning on 12 August. Over the next two weeks, Austrian attacks were thrown back with heavy losses, which marked the first major Allied victories of the war and dashed Austro-Hungarian hopes of a swift victory. As a result, Austria had to keep sizeable forces on the Serbian front, weakening its efforts against Russia.{{sfn|Tucker|Roberts|2005|p=172}} Serbia's defeat of the Austro-Hungarian invasion of 1914 has been called one of the major upset victories of the twentieth century.<ref>{{Cite journal|first=John R.|last=Schindler|title=Disaster on the Drina: The Austro-Hungarian Army in Serbia, 1914|journal=War in History|volume=9|issue=2|pages=159-195|date=1 April 2002|doi=10.1191/0968344502wh2500a|s2cid=145488166}}</ref> The campaign saw the very first use of [[medical evacuation]] by the Serbian army in autumn of 1915 and [[anti-aircraft warfare]] in the spring of 1915 after an Austrian plane was shot down with [[ground-to-air]] fire.<ref>{{cite web|url=http://www.rts.rs/page/stories/sr/story/125/Dru%C5%A1tvo/1516279/Veliki+rat+-+avijacija.html|title=Veliki rat - Avijacija|publisher=RTS, Radio televizija Srbije, Radio Television of Serbia|website=rts.rs}}</ref><ref>{{cite magazine|url=http://www.nationalgeographic.rs/vesti/3842-prvi-ratni-avion-oboren-u-

istoriji-pao-na-kragujevac.html| title=How was the first military airplane shot down| magazine=National Geographic| accessdate=5 August 2015| archive-url=https://web.archive.org/web/20150831011608/http://www.nationalgeographic.rs/vesti/3842-prvi-ratni-avion-oboren-u-istoriji-pao-na-kragujevac.html| archive-date=31 August 2015| url-status=live}}

====German Offensive in Belgium and France====

{{Main|Western Front (World War I)}}

[[File:German soldiers in a railroad car on the way to the front during early World War I, taken in 1914. Taken from greatwar.nl site.jpg|thumb|German soldiers in a railway [[goods wagon]] on the way to the front in 1914. Early in the war, all sides expected the conflict to be a short one.]]

[[File:Georges Scott, A la baïonnette !.jpg|thumb|A French bayonet charge at the [[Battle of the Frontiers]]; by the end of August, French casualties exceeded 260,000, including 75,000 dead.]]

When the war began, the [[German Army order of battle (1914)|German Order of Battle]] placed 80% of the army in the West, with the remainder acting as a screening force in the East. The plan was to quickly knock France out of the war, then redeploy to the East and do the same to Russia.

The German offensive in the West was officially titled ''Aufmarsch II West,'' but is better known as the Schlieffen Plan, after its original creator. [[Alfred von Schlieffen|Schlieffen]] deliberately kept the German left (i.e. its positions in [[Alsace-Lorraine]]) weak to lure the French into attacking there, while the majority were allocated to the German right, so as to sweep through Belgium, encircle Paris and trap the French armies against the Swiss border (the French charged into Alsace-Lorraine on the outbreak of war as envisaged by their [[Plan XVII]], thus actually aiding this strategy).<ref>{{cite book |last1=Horne |first1=Alistair |title=The Price of Glory |url=https://archive.org/details/priceofgloryverd00horn |url-access=registration |date=1964 |publisher=Penguin |isbn=978-0140170412 |page=[https://archive.org/details/priceofgloryverd00horn/page/22 22] |edition=1993}}</ref> However, Schlieffen's successor Moltke grew concerned that the French might push too hard on his left flank. Consequently, as the German Army increased in size in the years leading up to the war, he changed the allocation of forces between the German right and left wings from 85:15 to 70:30. Ultimately, Moltke's changes meant insufficient forces to achieve decisive success and thus unrealistic goals and timings.{{sfn |Holmes |2014 |pp=194, 211}}{{Dubious|date=November 2018}}

The initial German advance in the West was very successful: by the end of August the Allied left, which included the [[British Expeditionary Force (World War I)|British Expeditionary Force]] (BEF), was in [[Great Retreat|full retreat]]; French casualties in the first month exceeded 260,000, including 27,000 killed on 22 August during the [[Battle of the Frontiers]].{{sfn |Stevenson |2012 |p=54}} German planning provided broad strategic instructions, while allowing army commanders considerable freedom in carrying them out at the front; this worked well in 1866 and 1870 but in 1914, [[Alexander von Kluck|von Kluck]] used this freedom to disobey orders, opening a gap between the German armies as they closed on Paris.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Jackson |first1=Julian |title=A Certain Idea of France: The Life of Charles de Gaulle |date=2018 |publisher=Allen Lane |isbn=978-1846143519 |page=55}}</ref> The French and British exploited this gap to halt the German advance east of Paris at the [[First Battle of the Marne]] from 5{{nbsp}}to 12 September and push the German forces back some {{convert|50|km|0|abbr=on}}.

In 1911, the Russian [[Stavka]] had agreed with the French to attack Germany within 15 days of mobilisation; this was unrealistic and the two Russian armies that entered [[East Prussia]] on 17 August did so without many of their support elements.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Lieven |first1=Dominic |title=Towards the Flame: Empire, War and the End of Tsarist Russia |date=2016 |publisher=Penguin |isbn=978-0141399744 |page=327}}</ref> The [[2nd Army (Russian Empire)|Russian Second Army]] was effectively destroyed at the [[Battle of Tannenberg]] on 26–30

August but the Russian advance caused the Germans to re-route their [[8th Army (German Empire)|8th Field Army]] from France to East Prussia, a factor in Allied victory on the Marne.{{Citation needed|date=November 2018}}

By the end of 1914, German troops held strong defensive positions inside France, controlled the bulk of France's domestic coalfields and had inflicted 230,000 more casualties than it lost itself. However, communications problems and questionable command decisions cost Germany the chance of a decisive outcome, and it had failed to achieve the primary objective of avoiding a long, two-front war.{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |pp=376–378}} This amounted to a strategic defeat; shortly after the Marne, [[Wilhelm, German Crown Prince|Crown Prince Wilhelm]] told an American reporter; "We have lost the war. It will go on for a long time but lost it is already."<ref>{{cite book |last1=Horne |first1=Alistair |title=The Price of Glory |url=https://archive.org/details/priceofgloryverd00horn |url-access=registration |date=1964 |publisher=Penguin |isbn=978-0140170412 |page=[https://archive.org/details/priceofgloryverd00horn/page/221 221] |edition=1993}}</ref>

====Asia and the Pacific====

{{Main|Asian and Pacific theatre of World War I}}

New Zealand [[Occupation of German Samoa|occupied]] [[German Samoa]] (later Western Samoa) on 30 August 1914. On 11 September, the [[Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force]] landed on the island of [[New Britain|Neu Pommern]] (later New Britain), which formed part of [[German New Guinea]]. On 28 October, the German cruiser {{SMS |Emden |1908 |6}} sank the [[Russian cruiser Zhemchug]] in the [[Battle of Penang]]. Japan seized Germany's Micronesian colonies and, after the [[Siege of Tsingtao]], the German coaling port of [[Qingdao]] on the Chinese [[Shandong]] peninsula. As Vienna refused to withdraw the Austro-Hungarian cruiser {{SMS |Kaiserin Elisabeth}} from Tsingtao, Japan declared war not only on Germany, but also on Austria-Hungary; the ship participated in the defence of Tsingtao where it was sunk in November 1914.<ref>Donko, Wilhelm M. (2012). 'A Brief History of the Austrian Navy' epubli GmbH, Berlin, p. 79</ref> Within a few months, the Allied forces had seized all the German territories in the Pacific; only isolated commerce raiders and a few holdouts in New Guinea remained.{{sfn |Keegan |1998 |pp=224–232}} {{sfn |Falls |1960 |pp=79–80}} [[File:World 1914 empires colonies territory.PNG|thumb|upright=1.25|World empires and colonies around 1914]]

====African campaigns====

{{Main|African theatre of World War I}}

Some of the first clashes of the war involved British, French, and German colonial forces in Africa. On 6–7 August, French and British troops invaded the German protectorate of [[Togoland]] and [[Kamerun]]. On 10 August, German forces in [[German South-West Africa|South-West Africa]] attacked South Africa; sporadic and fierce fighting continued for the rest of the war. The German colonial forces in [[German East Africa]], led by Colonel [[Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck]], fought a [[guerrilla warfare]] campaign during World War{{nbsp}}I and only surrendered two weeks after the armistice took effect in Europe.{{sfn |Farwell |1989 |p=353}}

====Indian support for the Allies====

{{Main|Indian Army during World War I}}

{{Further|Hindu–German Conspiracy|Niedermayer–Hentig Expedition|Third Anglo-Afghan War}}

[[File:Indian forces on their way to the Front in Flanders - first world war 2.jpg|thumb|The [[British Indian Army|British Indian]] infantry divisions were withdrawn from France in December 1915, and sent to [[Mesopotamian campaign|Mesopotamia]].]]

Germany attempted to use Indian nationalism and pan-Islamism to its advantage, [[Hindu-German Conspiracy|instigating uprisings in India]], and [[Niedermayer-Hentig Expedition|sending a mission]] that urged Afghanistan to join the war on the side of Central Powers. However, contrary to British fears of a revolt in India, the outbreak of the war saw an unprecedented outpouring of loyalty and goodwill towards Britain.^[sfn |Brown |1994 |pp=197-198]^[sfn |Brown |1994 |pp=201-203] Indian political leaders from the [[Indian National Congress]] and other groups were eager to support the British war effort, since they believed that strong support for the war effort would further the cause of [[Indian Home Rule movement|Indian Home Rule]].^[citation needed|date=March 2016] The [[British Indian Army|Indian Army]] in fact outnumbered the British Army at the beginning of the war; about 1.3 million Indian soldiers and labourers served in Europe, Africa, and the Middle East, while the central government and the [[princely state]]s sent large supplies of food, money, and ammunition. In all, 140,000 men served on the Western Front and nearly 700,000 in the Middle East. Casualties of Indian soldiers totalled 47,746 killed and 65,126 wounded during World War^{[sfn |I.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.mgtrust.org/ind1.htm |title=Participants from the Indian subcontinent in the First World War |publisher=Memorial Gates Trust |accessdate=12 December 2008}}}</ref>

The suffering engendered by the war, as well as the failure of the British government to grant self-government to India after the end of hostilities, bred disillusionment and fueled [[Indian independence movement|the campaign for full independence]] that would be led by [[Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi|Mohandas K. Gandhi]] and others.<ref>{{cite book |last=Horniman |first=Benjamin Guy |title=British administration and the Amritsar massacre |publisher=Mittal Publications |date=1984 |page=45}}</ref>

===Western Front===

{{Main|Western Front (World War I)}}

====Trench warfare begins====

[[File:Cheshire Regiment trench Somme 1916.jpg|thumb|Trenches of the 11th [[Cheshire Regiment]] at Ovillers-la-Boisselle, on the [[Battle of the Somme|Somme]], July 1916]]

Military tactics developed before World War I failed to keep pace with advances in technology and had become obsolete. These advances had allowed the creation of strong defensive systems, which out-of-date military tactics could not break through for most of the war. [[Barbed wire]] was a significant hindrance to massed infantry advances, while [[artillery]], vastly<!--between HE -->hydraulic recoil mechanisms, something like two orders of magnitude--> more lethal than in the 1870s, coupled with [[machine gun]]s, made crossing open ground extremely difficult.^[sfn |Raudzens |1990 |p=424] Commanders on both sides failed to develop tactics for [[Trench warfare|breaching entrenched]] positions without heavy casualties. In time, however, technology began to produce new offensive weapons, such as [[Chemical weapons in World War I|gas warfare]] and the [[Tanks in World War I|tank]].^[sfn |Raudzens |1990 |pp=421-423]

After the [[First Battle of the Marne]] (5–12 September 1914), Allied and German forces unsuccessfully tried to outflank each other, a series of manoeuvres later known as the "[[Race to the Sea]]". By the end of 1914, the opposing forces were left confronting each other along an uninterrupted line of entrenched positions from [[Alsace]] to Belgium's North Sea coast.<ref name=AJPT2/> Since the Germans were able to choose where to stand, they normally had the advantage of the high ground; in addition, their trenches tended to be better built, since Anglo-French trenches were initially intended as "temporary," and would only be needed until the breaking of German defences.^[sfn |Goodspeed |1985 |p=199 (footnote)]

Both sides tried to break the stalemate using scientific and technological advances. On 22 April 1915, at the [[Second Battle of Ypres]], the Germans (violating the [[Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907|Hague Convention]]) used [[chlorine]] gas for the first time on the Western Front. Several types of gas soon became widely used by both sides, and though it never proved a decisive,

battle-winning weapon, poison gas became one of the most-feared and best-remembered horrors of the war.<ref>{{cite web |first=Michael |last=Duffy |url=http://www.firstworldwar.com/weaponry/gas.htm |title=Weapons of War: Poison Gas |publisher=Firstworldwar.com |date=22 August 2009 |accessdate=5 July 2012}}</ref>{{sfn |Love |1996}} Tanks were developed by Britain and France and were first used in combat by the British during the [[Battle of Flers-Courcelette]] (part of the Battle of the Somme) on 15 September 1916, with only partial success. However, their effectiveness would grow as the war progressed; the Allies built tanks in large numbers, whilst the Germans employed only a few of their own design, supplemented by captured Allied tanks.

====Continuation of trench warfare====

[[File:French 87th Regiment Cote 34 Verdun 1916.jpg|thumb|upright=0.8|French 87th regiment near Verdun, 1916]]

Neither side proved able to deliver a decisive blow for the next two years. Throughout 1915–17, the British Empire and France suffered more casualties than Germany, because of both the strategic and tactical stances chosen by the sides. Strategically, while the Germans mounted only one major offensive, the Allies made several attempts to break through the German lines.

In February 1916 the Germans attacked French defensive positions at the [[Battle of Verdun]], lasting until December 1916. The Germans made initial gains, before French counter-attacks returned matters to near their starting point. Casualties were greater for the French, but the Germans bled heavily as well, with anywhere from 700,000{{sfn |Dupuy |1993 |p=1042}} to 975,000{{sfn |Grant |2005 |p=276}} casualties suffered between the two combatants. Verdun became a symbol of French determination and self-sacrifice.<ref>{{Cite news |url=https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/europe/verdun-myths-and-memories-of-the-lost-villages-of-france-5335493.html |title=Verdun: myths and memories of the 'lost villages' of France |last=Lichfield |first=John |date=21 February 2006 |work=The Independent |accessdate=23 July 2013}}</ref>

[[File:Royal Irish Rifles ration party Somme July 1916.jpg|thumb|left|alt=Mud stained British soldiers at rest |[[Royal Irish Rifles]] in a communications trench, [[first day on the Somme]], 1916]]

The [[Battle of the Somme]] was an Anglo-French offensive of July to November 1916. The [[first day on the Somme|opening day]] of the offensive (1 July 1916) was the bloodiest day in the history of the [[British Army]], suffering 57,470 casualties, including 19,240 dead. The entire Somme offensive cost the British Army some 420,000 casualties. The French suffered another estimated 200,000 casualties and the Germans an estimated 500,000.{{sfn |Harris |2008 |p=271}} Gun fire was not the only factor taking lives; the diseases that emerged in the trenches were a major killer on both sides. The living conditions made it so that countless diseases and infections occurred, such as [[trench foot]], [[shell shock]], blindness/burns from [[mustard gas]], [[lice]], [[trench fever]], "[[cooties]]" ([[body lice]]) and the '[[Spanish flu]]'.<ref>{{Cite web |url=https://trenchwarfareworldwar1.weebly.com/living-conditions.html |title=Living conditions |website=Trench Warfare|access-date=19 April 2018|archive-url=https://web.archive.org/web/20180420074403/https://trenchwarfareworldwar1.weebly.com/living-conditions.html|archive-date=20 April 2018|url-status=dead }}{{Unreliable source?|reason=It's a self-published Weebly website|date=June 2018}}</ref>

To maintain morale, wartime censors minimised early reports of widespread [[influenza]] illness and mortality in Germany, the United Kingdom, France, and the United States.<ref>{{harvnb|Valentine|2006}}</ref>{{fcv|date=July 2020}}</ref><ref>{{cite web |last=Anderson |first=Susan |title=Analysis of Spanish flu cases in 1918–1920 suggests transfusions might help in bird flu pandemic |url=http://www.eurekalert.org/pub_releases/2006-08/acop-aos082806.php |publisher=[[American College of Physicians]]|access-date=28 September 2018 |date=29 August 2006}}</ref> Papers were free to report the epidemic's effects in

neutral Spain (such as the grave illness of [[King Alfonso XIII]]).<ref>{{harvnb| Porras-Gallo| Davis| 2014}}{{fnc|date=July 2020}}</ref> This created a false impression of Spain as especially hard hit,<ref>{{harvnb| Barry|2004| p=171}}{{fnc|date=July 2020}}</ref> thereby giving rise to the pandemic's nickname, "Spanish flu".<ref>{{harvnb|Galvin|2007}}{{fnc|date=July 2020}}</ref>

[[File:Canadian tank and soldiers Vimy 1917.jpg|thumb|alt=Files of soldiers with rifles slung follow close behind a tank, there is a dead body in the foreground |Canadian troops advancing with a British [[Mark I tank#Mark II|Mark II tank]] at the [[Battle of Vimy Ridge]], 1917]]

Protracted action at Verdun throughout 1916,{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 | p=1221}} combined with the bloodletting at the Somme, brought the exhausted French army to the brink of collapse. Futile attempts using [[frontal assault]] came at a high price for both the British and the French and led to the widespread [[French Army Mutinies]], after the failure of the costly [[Nivelle Offensive]] of April–May 1917.{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=854}} The concurrent British [[Battle of Arras (1917)|Battle of Arras]] was more limited in scope, and more successful, although ultimately of little strategic value. {{sfn |Keegan |1998 |pp=325–326}} {{sfn |Strachan |2003 |p=244}} A smaller part of the Arras offensive, the capture of [[Battle of Vimy Ridge|Vimy Ridge]] by the [[Canadian Corps]], became highly significant to that country: the idea that Canada's national identity was born out of the battle is an opinion widely held in military and general histories of Canada.{{sfn |Inglis |1995 |p=2}} {{sfn |Humphries |2007 |p=66}}

The last large-scale offensive of this period was a British attack (with French support) at [[Battle of Passchendaele|Passchendaele]] (July–November 1917). This offensive opened with great promise for the Allies, before bogging down in the October mud. Casualties, though disputed, were roughly equal, at some 200,000–400,000 per side.

The years of trench warfare on the Western front achieved no major exchanges of territory and, as a result, are often thought of as static and unchanging. However, throughout this period, British, French, and German [[Tactical development on the Western Front in 1917|tactics constantly evolved]] to meet new battlefield challenges.

===Naval war===

{{Main|Naval warfare of World War I}}

[[File:King George V and officials inspecting munitions factory in 1917.PNG|thumb|[[George V|King George V]] (''front left'') and a group of officials inspect a British munitions factory in 1917.]]

At the start of the war, the German Empire had [[cruiser]]s scattered across the globe, some of which were subsequently used to attack Allied [[merchant shipping]]. The British Royal Navy systematically hunted them down, though not without some embarrassment from its inability to protect Allied shipping. Before the beginning of the war, it was widely understood that Britain held the position of strongest, most influential navy in the world.<ref>{{cite web | url=https://warandsecurity.com/2014/08/04/the-naval-balance-of-power-in-1914/ | title=The Naval Balance of Power in 1914 |date=4 August 2014 }}</ref>{{Unreliable source?|reason=Looks to be a [[WP:SPS|SPS]] blog post.|date=May 2018}} The publishing of the book ''[[The Influence of Sea Power upon History]]'' by Alfred Thayer Mahan in 1890 was intended to encourage the United States to increase their naval power. Instead, this book made it to Germany and inspired its readers to try to over-power the British Royal Navy.<ref>{{cite web |last=Sempa |first=Francis P. | url=https://thediplomat.com/2014/12/the-geopolitical-vision-of-alfred-thayer-mahan/ |title=The Geopolitical Vision of Alfred Thayer Mahan |publisher=The Diplomat |website=thediplomat.com |date=30 December 2014|access-date=28 April 2018}}</ref> For example, the German detached light cruiser {{SMS|Emden}}, part of the [[East Asia Squadron]] stationed at Qingdao, seized or destroyed 15

merchantmen, as well as sinking a Russian cruiser and a French destroyer. However, most of the [[German East Asia Squadron|German East-Asia squadron]]—consisting of the armoured cruisers {{SMS|Scharnhorst}} and {{SMS|Gneisenau|2}}, light cruisers {{SMS|Nürnberg|1906|2}} and {{SMS|Leipzig|1905|2}} and two transport ships—did not have orders to raid shipping and was instead underway to Germany when it met British warships. The German flotilla and {{SMS|Dresden|1907|2}} sank two armoured cruisers at the [[Battle of Coronel]], but was virtually destroyed at the [[Battle of the Falkland Islands]] in December 1914, with only ''Dresden'' and a few auxiliaries escaping, but after the [[Battle of Más a Tierra]] these too had been destroyed or interned.{{sfn|Taylor|2007|pp=39–47}}

[[File:Hochseeflotte 2.jpg|thumb|left|Battleships of the [[High Seas Fleet|''Hochseeflotte'']], 1917]]
[[File:NationaalArchief uboat155London.jpg|thumb|left|[[German submarine Deutschland|U-155]] exhibited near Tower Bridge in London, after the 1918 Armistice]]

Soon after the outbreak of hostilities, Britain began a naval [[blockade of Germany]]. The strategy proved effective, cutting off vital military and civilian supplies, although this blockade violated accepted international law codified by several international agreements of the past two centuries.{{sfn|Keene|2006|p=5}} Britain mined international waters to prevent any ships from entering entire sections of ocean, causing danger to even neutral ships.{{sfn|Halpern|1995|p=293}} Since there was limited response to this tactic of the British, Germany expected a similar response to itsunrestricted submarine warfare.{{sfn|Zieger|2001|p=50}}

The [[Battle of Jutland]] (German: ''Skagerrakschlacht'', or "Battle of the [[Skagerrak]]") in May/June 1916 developed into the largest naval battle of the war. It was the only full-scale clash of battleships during the war, and one of the largest in history. The Kaiserliche Marine's [[High Seas Fleet]], commanded by Vice Admiral [[Reinhard Scheer]], fought the Royal Navy's [[Grand Fleet]], led by Admiral Sir [[John Jellicoe, 1st Earl Jellicoe|John Jellicoe]]. The engagement was a stand off, as the Germans were outmanoeuvred by the larger British fleet, but managed to escape and inflicted more damage to the British fleet than they received. Strategically, however, the British asserted their control of the sea, and the bulk of the German surface fleet remained confined to port for the duration of the war.<ref>{{cite journal |author=Jeremy Black |title=Jutland's Place in History |journal=Naval History |date=June 2016 |volume=30 |issue=3 |pages=16–21}}</ref>

German [[U-boat]]s attempted to cut the supply lines between North America and Britain.<ref name="Sheffield">{{cite web |last=Sheffield |first=Garry |title=The First Battle of the Atlantic |website=World Wars in Depth |url=http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwone/battle_atlantic_ww1_01.shtml |publisher=BBC |accessdate=11 November 2009}}</ref> The nature of [[submarine warfare]] meant that attacks often came without warning, giving the crews of the merchant ships little hope of survival.<ref name="Sheffield"/>{{sfn|Gilbert|2004|p=306}} The United States launched a protest, and Germany changed its rules of engagement. After the sinking of the passenger ship [[RMS Lusitania|RMS ''Lusitania'']] in 1915, Germany promised not to target passenger liners, while Britain armed its merchant ships, placing them beyond the protection of the "[[Prize rules|cruiser rules]]", which demanded warning and movement of crews to "a place of safety" (a standard that lifeboats did not meet).{{sfn|von der Porten|1969}} Finally, in early 1917, Germany adopted a policy of [[unrestricted submarine warfare]], realising the Americans would eventually enter the war.<ref name="Sheffield"/>{{sfn|Jones|2001|p=80}} Germany sought to strangle Allied [[sea lane]]s before the United States could transport a large army overseas, but after initial successes eventually failed to do so.<ref name="Sheffield"/>

The U-boat threat lessened in 1917, when merchant ships began travelling in [[Convoys in World War I|convoys]], escorted by [[destroyer]]s. This tactic made

it difficult for U-boats to find targets, which significantly lessened losses; after the [[hydrophone]] and [[depth charge]]s were introduced, accompanying destroyers could attack a submerged submarine with some hope of success. Convoys slowed the flow of supplies, since ships had to wait as convoys were assembled. The solution to the delays was an extensive program of building new freighters. Troopships were too fast for the submarines and did not travel the North Atlantic in convoys.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://nslegislature.ca/index.php/committees/committee_hansard/C11/va_2006nov09 |title=Committee Hansard |date=9 November 2006 |author=((Nova Scotia House of Assembly Committee on Veterans Affairs)) |accessdate=12 March 2013 |website=Hansard}}</ref> The U-boats had sunk more than 5,000 Allied ships, at a cost of 199 submarines.<ref>{{cite book |first1=Roger |last1=Chickering |first2=Stig |last2=Förster |first3=Bernd |last3=Greiner |series=Publications of the German Historical Institute |location=Washington, DC |year=2005 |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=evVPoSwqrG4C |page=73}} |title=A world at total war: global conflict and the politics of destruction, 1937-1945 |publisher=[[Cambridge University Press]] |isbn=978-0-521-83432-2 }}</ref>

World War I also saw the first use of [[aircraft carrier]]s in combat, with {{HMS |Furious |47 |6}} launching [[Sopwith Camel]]s in a successful raid against the [[Zeppelin]] hangars at [[Tondern raid|Tondern]] in July 1918, as well as [[blimp]]s for antisubmarine patrol.<ref name="price1980">{{harvnb |Price |1980}}</ref>

===Southern theatres===

====War in the Balkans====

{{Main|Balkans Campaign (World War I)|Bulgaria during World War I|Serbian Campaign (World War I)|Macedonian front}}
[[File:Flüchtlingstransport Leibnitz - k.k. Innenministerium - 1914.jpg|thumb|Refugee transport from Serbia in [[Leibnitz]], [[Styria]], 1914]]
[[File:Bulgaria southern front.jpg|thumb|Bulgarian soldiers in a trench, preparing to fire against an incoming aeroplane]]
[[File:Austrians executing Serbs 1917.JPG|thumb|Austro-Hungarian troops executing captured Serbians, 1917. [[Kingdom of Serbia|Serbia]] lost about 850,000 people during the war, a quarter of its pre-war population.<ref>"[https://archive.org/stream/PAM550-99/PAM550-99_djvu.txt The Balkan Wars and World War I]". p. 28. '[Library of Congress Country Studies]]'</ref>]]

Faced with Russia in the east, Austria-Hungary could spare only one-third of its army to attack Serbia. After suffering heavy losses, the Austrians briefly occupied the Serbian capital, [[Belgrade]]. A Serbian counter-attack in the Battle of Kolubara succeeded in driving them from the country by the end of 1914. For the first ten months of 1915, Austria-Hungary used most of its military reserves to fight Italy. German and Austro-Hungarian diplomats, however, scored a coup by persuading Bulgaria to join the attack on Serbia. {{sfn|Tucker|Roberts|2005|p={{google books |plainurl=y |id=2YqjfHLyyj8C |pp=241}} 241-]]} The Austro-Hungarian provinces of [[Slovenia]], Croatia and [[Bosnia (region)|Bosnia]] provided troops for Austria-Hungary in the fight with Serbia, Russia and Italy. Montenegro allied itself with Serbia.{{sfn |Neiberg |2005 |pp=54-55}}

Bulgaria declared war on Serbia on 12 October 1915 and joined in the attack by the Austro-Hungarian army under Mackensen's army of 250,000 that was already underway. Serbia was conquered in a little more than a month, as the Central Powers, now including Bulgaria, sent in 600,000 troops total. The Serbian army, fighting on two fronts and facing certain defeat, retreated into northern [[Principality of Albania|Albania]]. The Serbs suffered defeat in the [[Kosovo Offensive (1915)|Battle of Kosovo]]. Montenegro covered the Serbian retreat towards the Adriatic coast in the [[Battle of Mojkovac]] in 6-7 January 1916, but ultimately the Austrians also conquered Montenegro. The surviving Serbian soldiers were evacuated by ship to Greece.{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |pp=1075-1076}} After conquest, Serbia was divided between Austro-Hungary and Bulgaria. {{sfn|DiNardo|2015|p=102}}

In late 1915, a Franco-British force landed at [[Salonica]] in Greece to offer assistance and to pressure its government to declare war against the Central Powers. However, the pro-German [[Constantine I of Greece|King Constantine I]] dismissed the pro-Allied government of [[Eleftherios Venizelos]] before the Allied expeditionary force arrived.^{sfn |Neiberg |2005 |pp=108-110}} The friction between the King of Greece and the Allies continued to accumulate with the [[National Schism]], which effectively divided Greece between regions still loyal to the king and the new provisional government of Venizelos in Salonica. After intense negotiations and an armed confrontation in [[Athens]] between Allied and royalist forces (an incident known as [[Noemvriana]]), the King of Greece resigned and his second son [[Alexander of Greece|Alexander]] took his place; Greece officially joined the war on the side of the Allies in June 1917.

The Macedonian front was initially mostly static. French and Serbian forces retook limited areas of Macedonia by recapturing [[Bitola]] on 19 November 1916 following the costly [[Monastir Offensive]], which brought stabilisation of the front.<ref>{{cite book |last=Hall |first=Richard |title=Balkan Breakthrough: The Battle of Dobro Pole 1918 |year=2010 |publisher=Indiana University Press |location= |page=11 |isbn=978-0-253-35452-5}}</ref>

Serbian and French troops finally made a breakthrough in September 1918 in the [[Vardar Offensive]], after most of the German and Austro-Hungarian troops had been withdrawn. The Bulgarians were defeated at the [[Battle of Dobro Pole]], and by 25 September British and French troops had crossed the border into Bulgaria proper as the Bulgarian army collapsed. Bulgaria capitulated four days later, on 29 September 1918.^{sfn |Tucker |Wood |Murphy |1999 |pp=150-152}} The German high command responded by despatching troops to hold the line, but these forces were far too weak to reestablish a front.<ref name=militera>{{cite web |url=http://militera.lib.ru/h/korsun_ng4/06.html |title=The Balkan Front of the World War |language=Russian |first=N. |last=Korsun |publisher=militera.lib.ru |accessdate=27 September 2010}}</ref>

The disappearance of the Macedonian front meant that the road to [[Budapest]] and Vienna was now opened to Allied forces. Hindenburg and Ludendorff concluded that the strategic and operational balance had now shifted decidedly against the [[Central Powers]] and, a day after the Bulgarian collapse, insisted on an immediate peace settlement.^{sfn |Doughty |2005 |p=491}}

====Ottoman Empire====

{{Main|History of the Ottoman Empire during World War I}}

{{See also|Middle Eastern theatre of World War I}}

[[File:Scene just before the evacuation at Anzac. Australian troops charging near a Turkish trench. When they got there the... - NARA - 533108.tif|thumb|left|Australian troops charging near a Turkish trench during the [[Gallipoli Campaign]]]]

The Ottomans threatened Russia's [[Caucasus|Caucasian]] territories and Britain's communications with India via the [[Suez Canal]]. As the conflict progressed, the Ottoman Empire took advantage of the European powers' preoccupation with the war and conducted large-scale ethnic cleansing of the indigenous [[Armenians|Armenian]], [[Greeks|Greek]], and [[Assyrian people|Assyrian]] Christian populations, known as the [[Armenian Genocide]], [[Greek Genocide]], and [[Assyrian Genocide]].<ref>{{cite book |editor1-last=Gettleman |editor1-first=Marvin |editor2-last=Schaar |editor2-first=Stuart |title=The Middle East and Islamic world reader |date=2003 |publisher=Grove Press |location=New York |isbn=978-0-8021-3936-8 |pages=119-120 |edition=4th |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=srLGT3dwTogC}}}</ref><ref>{{cite book |last1=January |first1=Brendan |title=Genocide : modern crimes against humanity |date=2007 |publisher=Twenty-First Century Books |location=Minneapolis, Minn. |isbn=978-0-7613-3421-7 |page=14 |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=IoPMDp2WA6cC}}}</ref><ref name=lieberman>{{cite book |last1=Lieberman |first1=Benjamin |title=The Holocaust and Genocides in Europe |date=2013 |

publisher=Continuum Publishing Corporation |location=New York |isbn=978-1-4411-9478-7 |pages=80-81 |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=ySFMAQAAQBAJ}}}}</ref>

The British and French opened overseas fronts with the [[Gallipoli Campaign|Gallipoli]] (1915) and [[Mesopotamian campaign]]s (1914). In Gallipoli, the Ottoman Empire successfully repelled the British, French, and [[Australian and New Zealand Army Corps]] (ANZACs). In [[Mesopotamia]], by contrast, after the defeat of the British defenders in the [[Siege of Kut]] by the Ottomans (1915-16), British Imperial forces reorganised and captured [[Baghdad]] in March 1917. The British were aided in Mesopotamia by local Arab and Assyrian tribesmen, while the Ottomans employed local Kurdish and Turcoman tribes.<ref>Arthur J. Barker, ''The Neglected War: Mesopotamia, 1914-1918'' (London: Faber, 1967)</ref>

[[File:Sultan Mehmed V of Turkey greeting Kaiser Wilhelm II on his arrival at Constantinople.jpg|thumb|[[Mehmed V]] greeting [[Wilhelm II]] on his arrival at [[Constantinople]]]]

Further to the west, the Suez Canal was defended from Ottoman attacks in 1915 and 1916; in August, a German and Ottoman force was defeated at the [[Battle of Romani]] by the [[ANZAC Mounted Division]] and the [[52nd (Lowland) Infantry Division]]. Following this victory, an [[Egyptian Expeditionary Force]] advanced across the [[Sinai Peninsula]], pushing Ottoman forces back in the [[Battle of Magdhaba]] in December and the [[Battle of Rafa]] on the border between the Egyptian [[Sinai Peninsula|Sinai]] and Ottoman Palestine in January 1917.<ref>{{cite book |first1=John |last1=Crawford |first2=Ian |last2=McGibbon |title=New Zealand's Great War: New Zealand, the Allies and the First World War |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=mtEEuD_-2SMC |page=219}} |year=2007 |publisher=Exisle Publishing |pages=219-220}}</ref>

Russian armies generally had success in the [[Caucasus campaign]]. [[Enver Pasha]], supreme commander of the Ottoman armed forces, was ambitious and dreamed of re-conquering central Asia and areas that had been lost to Russia previously. He was, however, a poor commander.{{sfn|Fromkin|2004|p=119}} He launched an offensive against the Russians in the Caucasus in December 1914 with 100,000 troops, insisting on a frontal attack against mountainous Russian positions in winter. He lost 86% of his force at the [[Battle of Sarikamish]].<ref name=caven>{{harvnb |Hinterhoff |1984 |pp=499-503}}</ref>

[[File:Ottoman 15th Corps.jpg|thumb|left|Kaiser Wilhelm II inspecting Turkish troops of the 15th Corps in East Galicia, Austria-Hungary (now Poland). Prince Leopold of Bavaria, the Supreme Commander of the German Army on the Eastern Front, is second from the left.]]

The Ottoman Empire, with German support, invaded [[Persia]] (modern [[Iran]]) in December 1914 in an effort to cut off British and Russian access to [[petroleum reservoir]]s around [[Baku]] near the [[Caspian Sea]].<ref>a b c The Encyclopedia Americana, 1920, v.28, p.403</ref> Persia, ostensibly neutral, had long been under the spheres of British and Russian influence. The Ottomans and Germans were aided by [[Kurdish people|Kurdish]] and [[Azeri]] forces, together with a large number of major Iranian tribes, such as the [[Qashqai people|Qashqai]], [[Tangistani]]s, [[Luristani]]s, and [[Khamseh]], while the Russians and British had the support of Armenian and Assyrian forces. The [[Persian Campaign]] was to last until 1918 and end in failure for the Ottomans and their allies. However, the Russian withdrawal from the war in 1917 led to Armenian and Assyrian forces, who had hitherto inflicted a series of defeats upon the forces of the Ottomans and their allies, being cut off from supply lines, outnumbered, outgunned and isolated, forcing them to fight and flee towards British lines in northern Mesopotamia.<ref>a b c d e f g {{harvnb|Northcote |1922 |p=788}}{{fcnl |date=July 2020}}</ref>

[[File:Sarikam.jpg|thumb|Russian forest trench at the [[Battle of Sarikamish]], 1914-1915]]

General [[Nikolai Yudenich|Yudenich]], the Russian commander from 1915 to 1916, drove the Turks out of most of the southern Caucasus with a string of victories.<ref name=caven/> During the 1916 campaign, the Russians defeated the Turks in the [[Erzurum Offensive]], also [[Trebizond Campaign|occupying Trabzon]]. In 1917, Russian [[Grand Duke Nicholas Nikolaevich of Russia (1856–1929)|Grand Duke Nicholas]] assumed command of the Caucasus front. Nicholas planned a railway from [[Georgia within the Russian Empire|Russian Georgia]] to the conquered territories, so that fresh supplies could be brought up for a new offensive in 1917. However, in March 1917 (February in the pre-revolutionary Russian calendar), the Tsar abdicated in the course of the [[February Revolution]], and the [[Russian Caucasus Army (World War I)|Russian Caucasus Army]] began to fall apart.

The [[Arab Revolt]], instigated by the Arab bureau of the British [[Foreign Office]], started June 1916 with the [[Battle of Mecca (1916)|Battle of Mecca]], led by [[Sherif Hussein]] of [[Mecca]], and ended with the Ottoman surrender of Damascus. [[Fakhri Pasha]], the Ottoman commander of [[Medina]], resisted for more than two and half years during the [[Siege of Medina]] before surrendering in January 1919.{{sfn |Sachar |1970 |pp=122–138}}

The [[Senussi]] tribe, along the border of Italian Libya and British Egypt, incited and armed by the Turks, waged a small-scale guerrilla war against Allied troops. The British were forced to dispatch 12,000 troops to oppose them in the [[Senussi Campaign]]. Their rebellion was finally crushed in mid-1916.{{sfn |Gilbert |1994}}

Total Allied casualties on the Ottoman fronts amounted 650,000 men. Total Ottoman casualties were 725,000 (325,000 dead and 400,000 wounded).<ref name="Brief Ottoman History">{{cite book |last=Hanioglu |first=M. Sukru |title=A Brief History of the Late Ottoman Empire |publisher=Princeton University Press |year=2010 |pages=180–181 |isbn=978-0-691-13452-9}}</ref>

====Italian participation====

{{Main|Italian Front (World War I)|Military history of Italy during World War I}}

{{See also|Albania during World War I}}

[[File:Interventisti Bologna 1914.jpg|thumb|A pro-war demonstration in [[Bologna]], Italy, 1914]]

Italy had been allied with the German and Austro-Hungarian Empires since 1882 as part of the Triple Alliance. However, the nation had its own designs on Austrian territory in [[Trentino]], the [[Austrian Littoral]], [[Rijeka|Fiume]] (Rijeka) and [[Dalmatia]]. Rome had a secret 1902 pact with France, effectively nullifying its part in the Triple Alliance;<ref>{{cite book |first=Hall |last=Gardner |title=The Failure to Prevent World War I: The Unexpected Armageddon |url={{google books|plainurl=y |id=631TBgAAQBAJ |page=120}} |year=2015 |publisher=Ashgate |page=120}}</ref> Italy secretly agreed with France to remain neutral if the latter was attacked by Germany.<ref name="Seymour" /> At the start of hostilities, Italy refused to commit troops, arguing that the Triple Alliance was defensive and that Austria-Hungary was an aggressor. The Austro-Hungarian government began negotiations to secure Italian neutrality, offering the French colony of Tunisia in return. The Allies made a counter-offer in which Italy would receive the [[Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol|Southern Tyrol]], Austrian Littoral and territory on the Dalmatian coast after the defeat of Austria-Hungary. This was formalised by the [[Treaty of London (1915)|Treaty of London]]. Further encouraged by the Allied invasion of Turkey in April 1915, Italy joined the Triple Entente and declared war on Austria-Hungary on 23 May. Fifteen months later, Italy declared war on Germany.<ref>{{cite book |first=Thomas Nelson |last=Page |title=Italy and the world war |url={{google books|plainurl=y |id=nQgyAQAAIAAJ |page=142}} |year=1920 |publisher=Scribners |pages=142–208}}</ref>

[[File:Austro-Hungarian mountain corps.jpg|thumb|left|upright=0.8|Austro-Hungarian troops, Tyrol]]

The Italians had numerical superiority, but this advantage was lost, not only because of the difficult terrain in which the fighting took place, but also because of the strategies and tactics employed.<ref>{{harvnb|Marshall|page=108}} {{Full citation needed|date=September 2019}}</ref> [[Field Marshal]] [[Luigi Cadorna]], a staunch proponent of the frontal assault, had dreams of breaking into the Slovenian plateau, taking [[Ljubljana]] and threatening Vienna.

On the Trentino front, the Austro-Hungarians took advantage of the mountainous terrain, which favoured the defender. After an initial strategic retreat, the front remained largely unchanged, while Austrian [[Kaiserschützen]] and [[Standeschützen]] engaged Italian [[Alpini]] in bitter hand-to-hand combat throughout the summer. The Austro-Hungarians counterattacked in the [[Asiago|Altopiano of Asiago]], towards Verona and Padua, in the spring of 1916 ('''[[Battle of Asiago|Strafexpedition]]'''), but made little progress and were defeated by the Italians.<ref>{{cite book |first=Mark |last=Thompson |title=The White War: Life and Death on the Italian Front, 1915–1919 |location=London |publisher=Faber and Faber |page=163 |isbn=978-0-571-22334-3 }}</ref>

Beginning in 1915, the Italians under Cadorna mounted eleven offensives on the [[Battles of the Isonzo|Isonzo front]] along the [[Soča|Isonzo]] (Soča) River, northeast of [[Trieste]]. Of these eleven offensives, five were won by Italy, three remained inconclusive, and the other three were repelled by the Austro-Hungarians, who held the higher ground. In the summer of 1916, after the [[Battle of Doberdò]], the Italians captured the town of [[Gorizia]]. After this victory, the front remained static for over a year, despite several Italian offensives, centred on the [[Banjšice Plateau|Banjšice]] and Karst Plateau east of Gorizia.

[[File:Kämpfe auf dem Doberdo.JPG|thumb|Depiction of the [[Battle of Doberdò]], fought in August 1916 between the Italian and the Austro-Hungarian armies]]

The Central Powers launched a crushing offensive on 26 October 1917, spearheaded by the Germans, and achieved a victory at [[Battle of Caporetto|Caporetto]] ([[Kobarid]]). The Italian Army was routed and retreated more than {{convert|100|km|mi}} to reorganise. The new Italian chief of staff, [[Armando Diaz]], ordered the Army to stop their retreat and defend the [[First Battle of Monte Grappa|Monte Grappa]] summit, where fortified defenses were constructed; the Italians repelled the Austro-Hungarian and German Army, and stabilised the front at the [[Battle of the Piave River|Piave River]]. Since the Italian Army had suffered heavy losses in the Battle of Caporetto, the Italian Government ordered conscription of the so-called ''{{'}}99 Boys'' (''Ragazzi del '99''): all males born in 1899 and prior, who were 18 years old or older. In 1918, the Austro-Hungarians failed to break through in a series of battles on the Piave and were finally decisively defeated in the [[Battle of Vittorio Veneto]] in October. On 1{{nbsp}}November, the Italian Navy destroyed much of the Austro-Hungarian fleet stationed in [[Pula]], preventing it from being handed over to the new [[State of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs]]. On 3{{nbsp}}November, the Italians invaded Trieste from the sea. On the same day, the [[Armistice of Villa Giusti]] was signed. By mid-November 1918, the Italian military occupied the entire former Austrian Littoral and had seized control of the portion of Dalmatia that had been guaranteed to Italy by the London Pact.<ref>{{cite book |first1=Giuseppe |last1=Praga |first2=Franco |last2=Luxardo |title=History of Dalmatia |location=|publisher=Giardini |year=1993 |page=281 |isbn=88-427-0295-1 }}</ref> By the end of hostilities in November 1918,<ref name="Paul O 2005. Pp. 17">{{cite book |first=Paul |last=O'Brien |title=Mussolini in the First World War: the Journalist, the Soldier, the Fascist |location=Oxford, England; New York |publisher=Berg |year=2005 |page=17 |isbn=1-84520-051-9 }}</ref> Admiral [[Enrico Millo]] declared himself Italy's Governor of Dalmatia.<ref name="Paul O 2005. Pp. 17"/> Austria-Hungary surrendered on 11 November 1918.{{sfn |Hickey |2003 |pp=60–65}} {{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |pp=585–589}}

====Romanian participation====
{{Main|Romania during World War I}}

[[File:Marshal Joffre inspecting Romanian troops during WWI.jpg|thumb|left|Marshal [[Joffre]] inspecting Romanian troops, 1916]]

Romania had been allied with the Central Powers since 1882. When the war began, however, it declared its neutrality, arguing that because Austria-Hungary had itself declared war on Serbia, Romania was under no obligation to join the war. On 4{{nbsp}}August 1916, Romania and the Entente signed the Political Treaty and Military Convention, that established the coordinates of Romania's participation in the war. In return, it received the Allies' formal sanction for [[Transylvania]], [[Banat]] and other territories of Austria-Hungary to be annexed to Romania. The action had large popular support.<ref>Laurentiu-Cristian Dumitru, Preliminaries of Romania's entering the World War I, No. 1/2012, Bulletin of "Carol I" National Defence University, Bucharest, p.171</ref> On 27 August 1916, the Romanian Army [[Battle of Transylvania|launched an attack]] against Austria-Hungary, with limited Russian support. The Romanian offensive was initially successful in Transylvania, but a Central Powers counterattack by the drove them back.<ref>Michael B. Barrett, ''Prelude to Blitzkrieg: The 1916 Austro-German Campaign in Romania'' (2013)</ref> As a result of the [[Battle of Bucharest]], the Central Powers occupied Bucharest on 6{{nbsp}}December 1916. Fighting in Moldova [[Romanian Campaign#Stabilization and stalemate (1917)|continued in 1917]], but Russian withdrawal from the war in late 1917 as a result of the [[October Revolution]] meant that Romania was forced to sign an armistice with the Central Powers on 9{{nbsp}}December 1917.<ref>Cyril Falls, ''The Great War'', p. 285</ref>

[[File:Romanian troops at Marasesti in 1917.jpg|thumb|Romanian troops during the [[Battle of Mărășești]], 1917]]

In January 1918, Romanian forces established control over [[Bessarabia]] as the Russian Army abandoned the province. Although a treaty was signed by the Romanian and [[Bolshevik]] Russian governments following talks between 5{{nbsp}}and 9{{nbsp}}March 1918 on the withdrawal of Romanian forces from Bessarabia within two months, on 27 March 1918 Romania formally attached Bessarabia, inhabited by a Romanian majority, to its territory, based on a resolution passed by the local assembly of that territory on its unification with Romania.{{sfn|Clark|1927}}

Romania officially made peace with the Central Powers by signing the [[Treaty of Bucharest (1918)|Treaty of Bucharest]] on 7{{nbsp}}May 1918. Under the treaty, Romania was obliged to end the war with the Central Powers and make small territorial concessions to Austria-Hungary, ceding control of some passes in the [[Carpathian Mountains]], and to grant oil concessions to Germany. In exchange, the Central Powers recognised the sovereignty of Romania over Bessarabia. The treaty was renounced in October 1918 by the [[Alexandru Marghiloman]] government, and Romania nominally re-entered the war on 10 November 1918 against the Central Powers. The next day, the Treaty of Bucharest was nullified by the terms of the Armistice of [[Compiègne]].<ref>{{cite book |last=Béla |first=Köpeczi |title=Erdély története |publisher=Akadémiai Kiadó |url=http://mek.oszk.hu/02100/02109/html/571.html}}</ref><ref>{{cite book |last=Béla |first=Köpeczi |title=History of Transylvania |publisher=Akadémiai Kiadó |url=http://mek.niif.hu/03400/03407/html/429.html |isbn=978-84-8371-020-3 |year=1998}}</ref> Total Romanian deaths from 1914 to 1918, military and civilian, within contemporary borders, were estimated at 748,000.<ref>{{cite book |title=Потери народонаселения в 20. веке |language=Russian |trans-title=The loss of population in the 20th Century |last=Erlikman |first=Vadim |year=2004 |location=Moscow |publisher=Русская панорама |isbn=978-5931651071}}</ref>

===Eastern Front===

{{Main|Eastern Front (World War I)}}

====Initial actions====

[[File:Mikolaj II w Twierdzy Przemyśl.jpg|thumb|Emperor [[Nicholas II]] and Commander-in-Chief [[Grand Duke Nicholas Nikolaevich of Russia (1856–1929)|

Nikolai Nikolaevich]] in the captured Przemyśl. The Russian [[Siege of Przemyśl]] was the longest siege of the war.]]

Russian plans for the start of the war called for simultaneous invasions of Austrian [[Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria|Galicia]] and East Prussia. Although Russia's initial [[Battle of Galicia|advance into Galicia]] was largely successful, it was driven back from East Prussia by Hindenburg and [[Erich Ludendorff|Ludendorff]] at the battles of Tannenberg and the [[First Battle of the Masurian Lakes|Masurian Lakes]] in August and September 1914.{{sfn |Tucker | Roberts |2005 |p=715}}{{sfn |Meyer |2006 |pp=152–154, 161, 163, 175, 182}} Russia's less developed industrial base and ineffective military leadership were instrumental in the events that unfolded. By the spring of 1915, the Russians had retreated from Galicia, and, in May, the Central Powers achieved a remarkable breakthrough on Poland's southern frontiers with their [[Gorlice–Tarnów Offensive]].<ref name="Smele">{{harvnb |Smele}}</ref> On 5{{nbsp}}August, they captured [[Warsaw]] and forced the Russians to withdraw from Poland.

Despite Russia's success in the June 1916 [[Brusilov Offensive]] against the Austrians in eastern Galicia,{{sfn |Schindler |2003}} the offensive was undermined by the reluctance of other Russian generals to commit their forces to support the victory. Allied and Russian forces were revived only briefly by [[Romania during World War I|Romania's entry into the war]] on 27 August, as Romania was rapidly defeated by a Central Powers offensive. Meanwhile, unrest grew in Russia as [[Nicholas II of Russia|the Tsar]] remained at the front. The increasingly incompetent rule of [[Alexandra Feodorovna (Alix of Hesse)|Empress Alexandra]] drew protests and resulted in the murder of her favourite, [[Grigori Rasputin|Rasputin]], at the end of 1916.

====Russian Revolution====

{{Main|Russian Revolution}}

[[File:Map Treaty of Brest-Litovsk-en.jpg|thumb|right|upright=0.8|Territory lost under the [[Treaty of Brest-Litovsk]]]]

In March 1917, demonstrations in [[Saint Petersburg|Petrograd]] culminated in the abdication of Tsar Nicholas II and the appointment of a weak [[Russian Provisional Government|Provisional Government]], which shared power with the [[Petrograd Soviet]] socialists. This arrangement led to confusion and chaos both at the front and at home. The army became increasingly ineffective.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Neiberg |first1=Michael |title=The Cambridge History of the First World War |date=2014 |publisher=Cambridge University Press |pages=110–132 |edition=1st}}</ref>

Following the Tsar's abdication, [[Vladimir Lenin]]—with the help of the German government—was ushered by train from Switzerland into Russia 16 April 1917.<ref>{{cite news |title=How Germany got the Russian Revolution off the ground |url=https://www.dw.com/en/how-germany-got-the-russian-revolution-off-the-ground/a-41195312 |work=[[Deutsche Welle]] |date=7 November 2017}}</ref> Discontent and the weaknesses of the Provisional Government led to a rise in the popularity of the Bolshevik Party, led by Lenin, which demanded an immediate end to the war. The Revolution of November was followed in December by an armistice and negotiations with Germany. At first, the Bolsheviks refused the German terms, but when German troops began marching across Ukraine unopposed, the new government acceded to the [[Treaty of Brest-Litovsk]] on 3{{nbsp}}March 1918. The treaty ceded vast territories, including Finland, the [[Baltic states|Baltic provinces]], parts of Poland and Ukraine to the Central Powers.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Wheeler-Bennett|first1=John W.|title=Brest-Litovsk : The forgotten peace |date=1938 |publisher=Macmillan |location=London |pages=36–41}}</ref> Despite this enormous German success, the manpower required by the Germans to occupy the captured territory may have contributed to the failure of their [[Spring Offensive]], and secured relatively little food or other [[materiel]] for the Central Powers war effort.

With the adoption of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, the Entente no longer existed. The Allied powers led [[Allied intervention in the Russian Civil War|a small-scale invasion]] of Russia, partly to stop Germany from exploiting Russian

resources, and to a lesser extent, to support the [[White movement|"Whites"]] (as opposed to the "Reds") in the [[Russian Civil War]].{{sfn|Mawdsley|2007|pp=[https://archive.org/details/russiacivilwar00evan/page/54_54-55]}} Allied troops landed in [[Arkhangelsk]] and in [[Vladivostok]] as part of the [[North Russia Intervention]].

====Czechoslovak Legion====

{{Main|Czechoslovak Legion}}

[[File:Czech Troops.jpg|thumb|upright=1.25|left|[[Czechoslovak Legion]], Vladivostok, 1918]]

The Czechoslovak Legion fought on the side of the Entente. Its goal was to win support for the independence of [[Czechoslovakia]]. The Legion in Russia was established in September 1914, in December 1917 in [[French Third Republic|France]] (including volunteers from America) and in April 1918 in [[Kingdom of Italy|Italy]]. Czechoslovak Legion troops defeated the [[Austria-Hungary|Austro-Hungarian]] army at the Ukrainian village of [[Battle of Zborov (1917)|Zborov]], in July 1917. After this success, the number of Czechoslovak legionaries increased, as well as Czechoslovak military power. In the [[Battle of Bakhmach]], the Legion defeated the Germans and forced them to make a truce.

In Russia, they were heavily involved in the Russian Civil War, siding with the Whites against the [[Bolsheviks]], at times controlling most of the [[Trans-Siberian railway]] and conquering all the major cities of [[Siberia]]. The presence of the Czechoslovak Legion near [[Yekaterinburg]] appears to have been one of the motivations for the Bolshevik [[Shooting of the Romanov family|execution of the Tsar and his family]] in July 1918. Legionaries arrived less than a week afterwards and captured the city. Because Russia's European ports were not safe, the corps was evacuated by a long detour via the port of Vladivostok. The last transport was the American ship Heffron in September 1920.

===Central Powers peace overtures===

[[File:River Crossing NGM-v31-p338.jpg|thumb|'''[[They shall not pass]]'''', a phrase typically associated with the defence of Verdun]]

On 12 December 1916, after ten brutal months of the Battle of Verdun and a [[Romania during World War I#The counteroffensive of the Central Powers (September–December 1916)|successful offensive against Romania]], Germany attempted to negotiate a peace with the Allies.<ref name=lanoszka>{{cite web |url=https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/monkey-cage/wp/2018/11/11/why-the-first-world-war lasted-so-long/? |author=Alexander Lanoszka |author2=Michael A. Hunzeker |title=Why the First War lasted so long |work=Washington Post |date=11 November 2018 |accessdate=11 November 2018}}</ref> However, this attempt was rejected out of hand as a "duplicitous war ruse".<ref name=lanoszka/>

Soon after, the US president, Woodrow Wilson, attempted to intervene as a peacemaker, asking in a note for both sides to state their demands. [[David Lloyd George|Lloyd George's]] War Cabinet considered the German offer to be a ploy to create divisions amongst the Allies. After initial outrage and much deliberation, they took Wilson's note as a separate effort, signalling that the United States was on the verge of entering the war against Germany following the "submarine outrages". While the Allies debated a response to Wilson's offer, the Germans chose to rebuff it in favour of "a direct exchange of views". Learning of the German response, the Allied governments were free to make clear demands in their response of 14 January. They sought restoration of damages, the evacuation of occupied territories, reparations for France, Russia and Romania, and a recognition of the principle of nationalities.{{sfn|Keegan|1998|p=345}} This included the liberation of Italians, Slavs, Romanians, Czecho-Slovaks, and the creation of a "free and united Poland".{{sfn|Keegan|1998|p=345}} On the question of security, the Allies sought guarantees that would prevent or limit future wars, complete with sanctions, as a condition of any peace settlement.{{sfn|Kernek|1970|pp=721-766}} The negotiations failed and the Entente powers rejected the German offer on the grounds that Germany had not put forward any specific proposals.

===1917-1918===

Events of 1917 proved decisive in ending the war, although their effects were not fully felt until 1918.

====Developments in 1917====

[[File:Guetteur au poste de l'écluse 26.jpg|thumb|upright=0.8|left|French Army lookout at his observation post, [[Haut-Rhin]], France, 1917]]

The British naval blockade began to have a serious impact on Germany. In response, in February 1917, the [[German General Staff]] convinced [[Chancellor]] Theobald von Bethmann-Hollweg to declare unrestricted submarine warfare, with the goal of starving Britain out of the war. German planners estimated that unrestricted submarine warfare would cost Britain a monthly shipping loss of 600,000 tons. The General Staff acknowledged that the policy would almost certainly bring the United States into the conflict, but calculated that British shipping losses would be so high that they would be forced to sue for peace after five to six months, before American intervention could have an effect. Tonnage sunk rose above 500,000 tons per month from February to July. It peaked at 860,000 tons in April. After July, the newly re-introduced [[convoy]] system became effective in reducing the U-boat threat. Britain was safe from starvation, while German industrial output fell, and the United States joined the war far earlier than Germany had anticipated.

On 3 May 1917, during the Nivelle Offensive, the French 2nd Colonial Division, veterans of the Battle of Verdun, refused orders, arriving drunk and without their weapons. Their officers lacked the means to punish an entire division, and harsh measures were not immediately implemented. The French Army Mutinies eventually spread to a further 54 French divisions, and 20,000 men deserted. However, appeals to patriotism and duty, as well as mass arrests and trials, encouraged the soldiers to return to defend their trenches, although the French soldiers refused to participate in further offensive action.<ref>{{harvnb|Marshall|page=292}}</ref> [[Full citation needed|date=September 2019]] [[Robert Nivelle]] was removed from command by 15 May, replaced by General [[Philippe Pétain]], who suspended bloody large-scale attacks.

[[File:Bundesarchiv Bild 183-1983-0323-501, Kriegskinematograph im Schützengraben.jpg|thumb|German<!--UFA?--> film crew recording the action]]

The victory of the Central Powers at the Battle of Caporetto led the Allies to convene the [[Rapallo Conference]] at which they formed the [[Supreme War Council]] to co-ordinate planning. Previously, British and French armies had operated under separate commands.

In December, the Central Powers signed an armistice with Russia, thus freeing large numbers of German troops for use in the west. With German reinforcements and new American troops pouring in, the outcome was to be decided on the Western Front. The Central Powers knew that they could not win a protracted war, but they held high hopes for success based on a final quick offensive. Furthermore, both sides became increasingly fearful of social unrest and revolution in Europe. Thus, both sides urgently sought a decisive victory.{{sfn|Heyman|1997|pp=146-147}}

In 1917, Emperor [[Charles I of Austria]] secretly attempted separate peace negotiations with Clemenceau, through his wife's brother [[Prince Sixtus of Bourbon-Parma|Sixtus]] in Belgium as an intermediary, without the knowledge of Germany. Italy opposed the proposals. When the negotiations failed, his attempt was revealed to Germany, resulting in a diplomatic catastrophe.{{sfn|Kurlander|2006}}<ref>{{sfn|Shanafelt|1985|pp=125-130}}</ref>

====Ottoman Empire conflict, 1917-1918====

{{Main|Sinai and Palestine Campaign}}

[[File:Turkish howitzer 10.5cm leFH 98 09 LOC 00121.jpg|thumb|left|[[10.5 cm Feldhaubitze 98/09]] and Ottoman artillerymen at Hareira in 1917 before the Southern Palestine offensive]]

[[File:Capture of Jerusalem 1917d.jpg|thumb|left|British artillery battery on [[Mount Scopus]] in the [[Battle of Jerusalem (1917)|Battle of Jerusalem]], 1917. Foreground, a battery of 16 heavy guns. Background, conical tents and support vehicles.]]

In March and April 1917, at the [[First Battle of Gaza|First]] and [[Second Battle of Gaza|Second Battles of Gaza]], German and Ottoman forces stopped the advance of the Egyptian Expeditionary Force, which had begun in August 1916 at the Battle of Romani.{{sfn|Erickson |2001 |p=163}}<ref>{{cite book |title=The Mounted Riflemen in Sinai & Palestine: The Story of New Zealand's Crusaders |last=Moore |first=A. Briscoe |year=1920 |publisher=Whitcombe & Tombs |location=Christchurch |oclc=156767391 |page=67}}</ref>

At the end of October, the [[Sinai and Palestine Campaign]] resumed, when General [[Edmund Allenby, 1st Viscount Allenby|Edmund Allenby]]'s [[XX Corps (United Kingdom)|XXth Corps]], [[XXI Corps (United Kingdom)|XXI Corps]] and [[Desert Mounted Corps]] won the [[Battle of Beersheba (1917)|Battle of Beersheba]].<ref>{{cite book |title=Military Operations. Part I Egypt & Palestine: Volume 2 From June 1917 to the End of the War |last=Falls |first=Cyril |series=Official History of the Great War Based on Official Documents by Direction of the Historical Section of the Committee of Imperial Defence |others=Maps compiled by A.F. Becke |year=1930 |publisher=HM Stationery Office |location=London |oclc=1113542987 |page=59}}</ref> Two Ottoman armies were defeated a few weeks later at the [[Battle of Mughar Ridge]] and, early in December, [[Jerusalem]] was captured following another Ottoman defeat at the [[Battle of Jerusalem (1917)|Battle of Jerusalem]].<ref>{{cite book |chapter=The Palestine Campaigns |last=Wavell |first=Earl |authorlink=Archibald Wavell, 1st Earl Wavell |editor-last=Sheppard |editor-first=Eric William |edition=4th |title=A Short History of the British Army |year=1968 |origyear=1933 |publisher=Constable & Co. |location=London |oclc=35621223 |pages=153-155}}</ref><ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.firstworldwar.com/source/jerusalemdecree.htm |title=Text of the Decree of the Surrender of Jerusalem into British Control |publisher=First World War.com |accessdate=13 May 2015 |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20110614214531/http://www.firstworldwar.com/source/jerusalemdecree.htm |archivedate=14 June 2011}}</ref><ref>{{cite book |title=The Last Crusade: The Palestine Campaign in the First World War |last=Bruce |first=Anthony |year=2002 |publisher=John Murray |location=London |isbn=978-0-7195-5432-2 |page=162}}</ref> About this time, [[Friedrich Freiherr Kress von Kressenstein]] was relieved of his duties as the Eighth Army's commander, replaced by [[Cevat Çobanlı|Djevad Pasha]], and a few months later the commander of the [[Ottoman Army]] in Palestine, [[Erich von Falkenhayn]], was replaced by [[Otto Liman von Sanders]].<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.firstworldwar.com/bio/kressenstein.htm |title=Who's Who - Kress von Kressenstein |publisher=First World War.com |accessdate=13 May 2015}}</ref><ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.firstworldwar.com/bio/liman.htm |title=Who's Who - Otto Liman von Sanders |publisher=First World War.com |accessdate=13 May 2015}}</ref>

[[File:Ottoman soldiers WWI.jpg|thumb|Ottoman troops during the [[Mesopotamian campaign]]]]

[[File:British Troops Marching in Mesopotamia.jpg|thumb|British troops on the march during the [[Mesopotamian campaign]], 1917]]

In early 1918, the front line was [[Capture of Jericho (1918)|extended]] and the [[Occupation of the Jordan Valley (1918)|Jordan Valley]] was occupied, following the [[First Transjordan attack on Amman|First Transjordan]] and the [[Second Transjordan attack on Shunet Nimrin and Es Salt (1918)|Second Transjordan]] attacks by British Empire forces in March and April 1918.{{sfn|Erickson |2001 |p=195}} In March, most of the Egyptian Expeditionary Force's British infantry and [[Yeomanry]] cavalry were sent to the Western Front as a consequence of the Spring Offensive. They were replaced by Indian Army units. During several months

of reorganisation and training of the summer, a [[Sinai and Palestine Campaign#Summer front line operations|number of attacks]] were carried out on sections of the Ottoman front line. These pushed the front line north to more advantageous positions for the Entente in preparation for an attack and to acclimatise the newly arrived Indian Army infantry. It was not until the middle of September that the integrated force was ready for large-scale operations.

The reorganised Egyptian Expeditionary Force, with an additional mounted division, broke Ottoman forces at the [[Battle of Megiddo (1918)|Battle of Megiddo]] in September 1918. In two days the British and Indian infantry, supported by a creeping barrage, broke the Ottoman front line and captured the headquarters of the [[Eighth Army (Ottoman Empire)]] at [[Battle of Tulkarm (1918)|Tulkarm]], the continuous trench lines at [[Battle of Tabsor (1918)|Tabsor]], [[Battle of Arara|Arara]], and the [[Seventh Army (Ottoman Empire)]] headquarters at [[Battle of Nablus (1918)|Nablus]]. The Desert Mounted Corps rode through the break in the front line created by the infantry. During virtually continuous operations by [[Australian Light Horse]], British mounted Yeomanry, Indian [[Lancers]], and New Zealand [[Mounted Riflemen|Mounted Rifle]] brigades in the [[Jezreel Valley]], they captured [[Battle of Nazareth (1918)|Nazareth]], [[Capture of Afulah and Beisan|Afulah and Beisan]], [[Capture of Jenin (1918)|Jenin]], along with [[Battle of Haifa (1918)|Haifa]] on the Mediterranean coast and [[Daraa]] east of the Jordan River on the Hejaz railway. [[Battle of Samakh (1918)|Samakh]] and [[Tiberias]] on the [[Sea of Galilee]] were captured on the way northwards to [[Damascus]]. Meanwhile, [[Third Transjordan attack|Chaytor's Force]] of Australian light horse, New Zealand mounted rifles, Indian, British West Indies and Jewish infantry captured the crossings of the [[Jordan River]], [[Salt, Jordan|Es Salt]], [[Amman]] and at Ziza most of the [[Fourth Army (Ottoman Empire)]]. The [[Armistice of Mudros]], signed at the end of October, ended hostilities with the Ottoman Empire when fighting was continuing north of [[Aleppo]].

====15 August 1917: Peace offer by the Pope====

{{See also|Pope Benedict XV#Peace efforts}}

On or shortly before 15 August 1917 [[Pope Benedict XV]] made a peace proposal<ref>'[[Daily Telegraph]]' Wednesday 15 August 1917, reprinted on p. 26 of ''Daily Telegraph'' Tuesday 15 August 2017</ref> suggesting:

- * No annexations
- * No indemnities, except to compensate for severe war damage in Belgium and parts of France and of Serbia
- * A solution to the problems of [[Alsace-Lorraine]], [[Trentino]] and [[Trieste]]
- * Restoration of the [[Congress Poland|Kingdom of Poland]]
- * Germany to pull out of Belgium and France
- * Germany's overseas colonies to be returned to Germany
- * General disarmament
- * A Supreme Court of arbitration to settle future disputes between nations
- * The freedom of the seas
- * Abolish all retaliatory economic conflicts
- * No point in ordering reparations, because so much damage had been caused to all belligerents

====Entry of the United States====

{{Main|American entry into World War I}}

At the outbreak of the war, the United States pursued a policy of [[non-intervention]], avoiding conflict while trying to broker a peace. When the German U-boat [[SM U-20 (Germany)|'U-20']] [[Sinking of the RMS Lusitania|sank the British liner RMS ''Lusitania'']] on 7{{nbsp}}May 1915 with 128 Americans among the dead, President [[Woodrow Wilson]] insisted that America is "too proud to fight" but demanded an end to attacks on passenger ships. Germany complied. Wilson unsuccessfully tried to mediate a settlement. However, he also repeatedly warned that the United States would not tolerate unrestricted submarine warfare, in violation of international law. Former president [[Theodore Roosevelt]] denounced German acts as "piracy".{{sfn |Brands |1997 |p=756}} Wilson was

narrowly re-elected in [[1916 United States presidential election|1916]] after campaigning with the slogan "he kept us out of war".<ref>[https://www.newspapers.com/newspage/354921942/ "Wilson for 'America First'"], ''[[The Chicago Daily Tribune]]'' (12 October 1915).</ref><ref>Cooper, John Milton. ''[https://books.google.com/books?id=x0ZVsy04K2cC&pg=PA278 Woodrow Wilson: A Biography]'', p. 278 (Vintage Books 2011).</ref><ref>Garrett, Garet. ''[https://books.google.com/books?id=jLEAK4R8qjwC&pg=PA13 Defend America First: The Antiwar Editorials of the Saturday Evening Post, 1939–1942]'', p. 13 (Caxton Press 2003).</ref>

[[File:USA bryter de diplomatiska förbindelserna med Tyskland 3 februari 1917.jpg|thumb|[[Woodrow Wilson|President Wilson]] before Congress, announcing the break in official relations with Germany on 3 February 1917]]

In January 1917, Germany decided to resume unrestricted submarine warfare, in the hopes of starving Britain into surrender. Germany did this realising it would mean American entry. The German Foreign Minister, in the [[Zimmermann Telegram]], invited Mexico to join the war as Germany's ally against the United States. In return, the Germans would finance Mexico's war and help it recover the territories of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona.{{sfn |Tuchman |1966}} The United Kingdom intercepted the message and presented it to the US embassy in the UK. From there it made its way to President Wilson who released the Zimmermann note to the public, and Americans saw it as ''[[casus belli]]''. Wilson called on anti-war elements to end all wars, by winning this one and eliminating militarism from the globe. He argued that the war was so important that the US had to have a voice in the peace conference.<ref name="Karp-PoW-1979">{{harvnb |Karp |1979}}</ref> After the sinking of seven US merchant ships by submarines and the publication of the Zimmermann telegram, Wilson called for war on Germany on 2{{nbsp}}April 1917,<ref>[[S: Woodrow Wilson Urges Congress to Declare War on Germany|Woodrow Wilson Urges Congress to Declare War on Germany]] (Wikisource)</ref> which the [[US Congress]] [[United States declaration of war on Germany (1917)|declared 4{{nbsp}}days later]].

The United States was never formally a member of the Allies but became a self-styled "Associated Power". The United States had a small army, but, after the passage of the [[Selective Service Act of 1917|Selective Service Act]], it drafted 2.8 million men,<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.sss.gov/induct.htm |title=Selective Service System: History and Records |publisher=Sss.gov |accessdate=27 July 2010 |url-status=dead |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20090507211238/http://www.sss.gov/induct.htm |archivedate=7 May 2009}}</ref> and, by summer 1918, was sending 10,000 fresh soldiers to France every day. In 1917, the US Congress granted US citizenship to Puerto Ricans to allow them to be drafted to participate in World War{{nbsp}}I, as part of the [[Jones-Shafroth Act]]. German General Staff assumptions that it would be able to defeat the British and French forces before American troops reinforced them were proven incorrect.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Stone |first1=David |title=The Kaiser's Army: The German Army in World War One |date=2014 |publisher=CONway |location=London |isbn=978-1844862924}}</ref>

The [[United States Navy]] sent a [[United States Battleship Division Nine (World War I)|battleship group]] to [[Scapa Flow]] to join with the British Grand Fleet, destroyers to [[Cobh|Queenstown]], [[Ireland]], and [[submarine]]s to help guard convoys. Several regiments of [[US Marines]] were also dispatched to France. The British and French wanted American units used to reinforce their troops already on the battle lines and not waste scarce shipping on bringing over supplies. General [[John J. Pershing]], [[American Expeditionary Forces]] (AEF) commander, refused to break up American units to be used as filler material. As an exception, he did allow African-American combat regiments to be used in French divisions. The [[Harlem Hellfighters]] fought as part of the French 16th Division, and earned a unit [[Croix de guerre 1914–1918 (France)|Croix de Guerre]] for their actions at [[Battle of Château-Thierry (1918)|Château-Thierry]], [[Battle of Belleau Wood|Belleau Wood]], and Sechault.<ref>{{cite web |publisher=US [[National Archives and Records Administration]] |url=https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/369th-infantry/

|title=Teaching With Documents: Photographs of the 369th Infantry and African Americans during World War I |accessdate=29 October 2009 |url-status=dead |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20090604163502/http://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/369th-infantry/ |archivedate=4 June 2009}}</ref> AEF doctrine called for the use of frontal assaults, which had long since been discarded by British Empire and French commanders due to the large loss of life that resulted.{{sfn |Millett |Murray |1988 |p=143}}

A Supreme War Council of Allied forces was created at the Doullens Conference on 5 November 1917. General Foch was appointed as supreme commander of the Allied forces. Haig, Petain, and Pershing retained tactical control of their respective armies; Foch assumed a co-ordinating rather than a directing role, and the British, French, and US commands operated largely independently. General Foch pressed to use the arriving American troops as individual replacements, whereas Pershing still sought to field American units as an independent force. These units were assigned to the depleted French and British Empire commands on 28 March 1918.

====German Spring Offensive of 1918====

{{Main|Spring Offensive}}

[[File:General gouraud french army world war i machinegun marne 1918.JPG|thumb|French soldiers under [[Henri Gouraud (French Army officer)|General Gouraud]], with machine guns amongst the ruins of a cathedral near the [[Marne (river)|Marne]], 1918]]

Ludendorff drew up plans ([[Code name|codenamed]] [[Operation Michael]]) for the 1918 offensive on the Western Front. The Spring Offensive sought to divide the British and French forces with a series of feints and advances. The German leadership hoped to end the war before significant US forces arrived. The operation commenced on 21 March 1918 with an attack on British forces near [[Saint-Quentin, Aisne|Saint-Quentin]]. German forces achieved an unprecedented advance of {{convert|60|km|mi}}.{{sfn |Westwell |2004}}

British and French trenches were penetrated using novel [[infiltration tactics]], also named ''Hutier'' tactics after General [[Oskar von Hutier]], by specially trained units called [[Stosstruppen|stormtroopers]]. Previously, attacks had been characterised by long artillery bombardments and massed assaults. In the Spring Offensive of 1918, however, Ludendorff used artillery only briefly and infiltrated small groups of infantry at weak points. They attacked command and logistics areas and bypassed points of serious resistance. More heavily armed infantry then destroyed these isolated positions. This German success relied greatly on the element of surprise.<ref>{{harvnb |Posen |1984 |p=190}}</ref>{{fcn|date=July 2020}}</ref>

[[File:British 55th Division gas casualties 10 April 1918.jpg|thumb|left|British [[55th (West Lancashire) Division]] soldiers blinded by tear gas during the [[Battle of the Lys (1918)|Battle of Estaires]], 10 April 1918]]

The front moved to within {{convert|120|km|mi}} of Paris. Three heavy [[Krupp]] [[railway gun]]s fired 183 shells on the capital, causing many Parisians to flee. The initial offensive was so successful that Kaiser Wilhelm II declared 24 March a [[Public holiday|national holiday]]. Many Germans thought victory was near. After heavy fighting, however, the offensive was halted. Lacking tanks or [[Self-propelled artillery|motorised artillery]], the Germans were unable to consolidate their gains. The problems of re-supply were also exacerbated by increasing distances that now stretched over terrain that was shell-torn and often impassable to traffic.{{sfn |Gray |1991 |p=86}}

Following Operation Michael, Germany launched [[Battle of the Lys (1918)|Operation Georgette]] against the northern [[English Channel]] ports. The Allies halted the drive after limited territorial gains by Germany. The German Army to the south then conducted [[Third Battle of the Aisne|Operations Blücher and Yorck]], pushing broadly towards Paris. Germany launched Operation Marne ([[Second Battle of the Marne]]) on 15 July, in an attempt to encircle

[[Reims]]. The resulting counter-attack, which started the [[Hundred Days Offensive]], marked the first successful Allied offensive of the war. By 20 July, the Germans had retreated across the Marne to their starting lines,{{sfn | Rickard |2007}} having achieved little, and the German Army never regained the initiative. German casualties between March and April 1918 were 270,000, including many highly trained stormtroopers.

Meanwhile, Germany was falling apart at home. [[Anti-war]] marches became frequent and morale in the army fell. Industrial output was half the 1913 levels.

====New states enter the war====

In the late spring of 1918, three new states were formed in the [[South Caucasus]]: the [[First Republic of Armenia]], the [[Azerbaijan Democratic Republic]], and the [[Democratic Republic of Georgia]], which declared their independence from the Russian Empire. Two other minor entities were established, the [[Centrocaspian Dictatorship]] and [[South West Caucasian Republic]] (the former was liquidated by Azerbaijan in the autumn of 1918 and the latter by a joint Armenian-British task force in early 1919). With the withdrawal of the Russian armies from the Caucasus front in the winter of 1917–18, the three major republics braced for an imminent Ottoman advance, which commenced in the early months of 1918. Solidarity was briefly maintained when the [[Transcaucasian Democratic Federative Republic|Transcaucasian Federative Republic]] was created in the spring of 1918, but this collapsed in May, when the Georgians [[Treaty of Poti|asked for and received protection]] from Germany and the Azerbaijanis concluded a treaty with the Ottoman Empire that was more akin to a military alliance. Armenia was left to fend for itself and struggled for five months against the threat of a full-fledged occupation by the Ottoman Turks before defeating them at the [[Battle of Sardarabad]].{{sfn|Hovannisian |1967 |pp=1-39}}

===Allied victory: summer 1918 onwards===

====Hundred Days Offensive====

{{Main|Hundred Days Offensive|Weimar Republic}}
[[File:Riflemen-1918-Western-Front.png|thumb|Between April and November 1918, the Allies increased their front-line rifle strength while German strength fell by half.{{sfn |Ayers |1919 |p=104}}]]
[[File:Aerial view of ruins of Vaux, France, 1918, ca. 03-1918 - ca. 11-1918 - NARA - 512862.tif|thumb|Aerial view of ruins of [[Vaux-devant-Damloup]], France, 1918]]

The Allied counteroffensive, known as the [[Hundred Days Offensive]], began on 8{{nbsp}}August 1918, with the [[Battle of Amiens (1918)|Battle of Amiens]]. The battle involved over 400 tanks and 120,000 British, [[Dominion]], and French troops, and by the end of its first day a gap {{convert|24|km|mi}} long had been created in the German lines. The defenders displayed a marked collapse in morale, causing Ludendorff to refer to this day as the "Black Day of the German army".<ref>{{cite book |publisher=Vanwell |origyear=1977 |year=2004 |title=Shock Army of the British Empire: The Canadian Corps in the Last 100 Days of the Great War |last=Schreiber |first=Shane B. |place=St. Catharines, ON |isbn=978-1-55125-096-0 |oclc=57063659}}</ref>{{sfn |Rickard |2001}}<ref>{{cite book |publisher=Pan |origyear=1998 |year=1999 |title=1918: Year of Victory |last=Brown |first=Malcolm |place=London |isbn=978-0-330-37672-3 |page=190}}</ref> After an advance as far as {{convert|23|km|mi|0}}, German resistance stiffened, and the battle was concluded on 12 August.

Rather than continuing the Amiens battle past the point of initial success, as had been done so many times in the past, the Allies shifted attention elsewhere. Allied leaders had now realised that to continue an attack after resistance had hardened was a waste of lives, and it was better to turn a line than to try to roll over it. They began to undertake attacks in quick order to take advantage of successful advances on the flanks, then broke them off when each attack lost its initial impetus.<ref name="Pitt-1962">{{harvnb |Pitt |2003}}</ref>

The day after the Offensive began, Ludendorff said: "We cannot win the war any more, but we must not lose it either." On 11 August he offered his resignation to the Kaiser, who refused it, replying, "I see that we must strike a balance. We have nearly reached the limit of our powers of resistance. The war must be ended."{{cn|date=July 2020}} On 13 August, at [[Spa, Belgium|Spa]], Hindenburg, Ludendorff, the Chancellor, and Foreign Minister Hintz agreed that the war could not be ended militarily and, on the following day, the German Crown Council decided that victory in the field was now most improbable. Austria and Hungary warned that they could continue the war only until December, and Ludendorff recommended immediate peace negotiations. [[Prince Rupprecht]] warned [[Prince Maximilian of Baden]]: "Our military situation has deteriorated so rapidly that I no longer believe we can hold out over the winter; it is even possible that a catastrophe will come earlier."<ref name="Chron-FWW" />

====Battle of Albert====

[[File:Canadian Scottish at Canal du Nord Sept 1918 IWM CO 3289.jpg|thumb|[[16th Battalion (Canadian Scottish), CEF|16th Bn (Canadian Scottish)]], advancing during the [[Battle of the Canal du Nord]], 1918]]

British and Dominion forces launched the next phase of the campaign with the [[Battle of Albert (1918)|Battle of Albert]] on 21 August.{{sfn |Terraine |1963}} The assault was widened by French<ref name="Chron-FWW">{{harvnb |Gray |Argyle |1990}}</ref> and then further British forces in the following days. During the last week of August the Allied pressure along a {{convert|110|km|mi|0|adj=on}} front against the enemy was heavy and unrelenting. From German accounts, "Each day was spent in bloody fighting against an ever and again on-storming enemy, and nights passed without sleep in retirements to new lines."<ref name="Pitt-1962" />

Faced with these advances, on 2 September the German ''[[Oberste Heeresleitung]]'' ("Supreme Army Command") issued orders to withdraw in the south to the [[Hindenburg Line]]. This ceded without a fight the [[Salient (territory)|salient]] seized the previous April.{{sfn |Nicholson |1962}} According to Ludendorff, "We had to admit the necessity ... to withdraw the entire front from the Scarpe to the Vesle."{{sfn |Ludendorff |1919}}{{page needed|date=July 2020}} In nearly four weeks of fighting beginning on 8{{nbsp}}August, over 100,000 German prisoners were taken. The German High Command realised that the war was lost and made attempts to reach a satisfactory end. On 10 September Hindenburg urged peace moves to Emperor Charles of Austria, and Germany appealed to the Netherlands for mediation. On 14 September Austria sent a note to all belligerents and neutrals suggesting a meeting for peace talks on neutral soil, and on 15 September Germany made a peace offer to Belgium. Both peace offers were rejected.<ref name="Chron-FWW" />

====Allied advance to the Hindenburg Line====

[[File:World War I Observation Balloon HD-SN-99-02269.JPEG|thumb|upright=0.8|left|An American major, piloting an [[observation balloon]] near the front, 1918]]

In September the Allies [[Hundred Days Offensive#Advance to the Hindenburg Line|advanced to the Hindenburg Line]] in the north and centre. The Germans continued to fight strong rear-guard actions and launched numerous counterattacks, but positions and outposts of the Line continued to fall, with the BEF alone taking 30,441 prisoners in the last week of September. On 24 September an assault by both the British and French came within {{convert|3|km|mi|0}} of St. Quentin. The Germans had now retreated to positions along or behind the Hindenburg Line. That same day, Supreme Army Command informed the leaders in Berlin that armistice talks were inevitable.<ref name="Chron-FWW" />

The [[Hundred Days Offensive#Battles of the Hindenburg Line|final assault]] on the Hindenburg Line began with the [[Meuse-Argonne Offensive]], launched by French and American troops on 26 September. The following week, co-operating French and American units broke through in [[Champagne, France|Champagne]] at

the [[Battle of Blanc Mont Ridge]], forcing the Germans off the commanding heights, and closing towards the Belgian frontier.{{sfn |McLellan |p=49}} On 8{{nbsp}}October the line was pierced again by British and Dominion troops at the [[Battle of Cambrai (1918)|Battle of Cambrai]].<ref>{{cite book |series=For King and Empire: A Social History and Battlefield Tour |title=The Canadians at Cambrai and the Canal du Nord, August–September 1918 |publisher=CEF Books |year=1997 |last=Christie |first=Norm M. |isbn=978-1-896979-18-2 |oclc=166099767}}</ref> The German army had to shorten its front and use the Dutch frontier as an anchor to fight rear-guard actions as it fell back towards Germany.

When Bulgaria signed a separate armistice on 29 September, Ludendorff, having been under great stress for months, suffered something similar to a breakdown. It was evident that Germany could no longer mount a successful defence. The collapse of the Balkans meant that Germany was about to lose its main supplies of oil and food. Its reserves had been used up, even as US troops kept arriving at the rate of 10,000 per day.{{sfn |Stevenson |2004 |p=380}}{{sfn |Hull |2006 |pp=307–310}}{{sfn |Stevenson |2004 |p=383}} The Americans supplied more than 80% of Allied oil during the war, and there was no shortage.{{sfn |Painter |2012 |p=25 |<!-- ps=. "Over the course of the war the United States supplied more than 80 percent of Allied oil requirements, and after US entry into the war, the United States helped provide and protect tankers transporting oil to Europe. US oil resources meant that insufficient energy supplies did not hamper the Allies, as they did the Central Powers." -->}}

====German Revolution 1918–1919====

[[File:Bundesarchiv Bild 183-R72520, Kiel, Novemberrevolution, Matrosenaufstand.jpg|thumb|[[German Revolution]], Kiel, 1918]]

News of Germany's impending military defeat spread throughout the German armed forces. The threat of mutiny was rife. Admiral Reinhard Scheer and Ludendorff decided to launch a last attempt to restore the "valour" of the German Navy.

In northern Germany, the [[German Revolution of 1918–1919]] began at the end of October 1918. Units of the German Navy refused to set sail for a last, large-scale operation in a war they believed to be as good as lost, initiating the uprising. The [[Wilhelmshaven mutiny|sailors' revolt]], which then ensued in the naval ports of [[Wilhelmshaven]] and [[Kiel mutiny|Kiel]], spread across the whole country within days and led to the proclamation of a republic on 9{{nbsp}}November 1918, shortly thereafter to the abdication of Kaiser Wilhelm II, and to German surrender.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.kurkuhl.de/docs/kieler_14punkte.pdf |author=K. Kuhl |title=Die 14 Kieler Punkte |trans-title=The Kiel 14 points }}</ref><ref>{{cite book |first=D. |last=Dähnhardt |title=Revolution in Kiel |publisher=Karl Wachholtz Verlag |location=Neumünster |year=1978 |page=91 |isbn=3-529-02636-0 }}</ref><ref>{{cite book |first=Wolfram |last=Wette |authorlink=Wolfram Wette |chapter=Die Novemberrevolution – Kiel 1918 |editor-last=Fleischhauer |editor2-last=Turowski |title=Kieler Erinnerungsorte |publisher=Boyens |year=2006 |isbn= }}</ref>{{sfn |Stevenson |2004 |p=383}}

====New German government surrenders====

With the military faltering and with widespread loss of confidence in the Kaiser leading to his abdication and fleeing of the country, Germany moved towards surrender. Prince Maximilian of Baden took charge of a new government on 3{{nbsp}}October as Chancellor of Germany to negotiate with the Allies. Negotiations with President Wilson began immediately, in the hope that he would offer better terms than the British and French. Wilson demanded a constitutional monarchy and parliamentary control over the German military.{{sfn |Stevenson |2004 |p=385}} There was no resistance when the [[Social Democratic Party of Germany|Social Democrat]] [[Philipp Scheidemann]] on 9{{nbsp}}November declared Germany to be a republic. The Kaiser, kings and other hereditary rulers all were removed from power and Wilhelm fled to exile in [[the Netherlands]]. It was the end of Imperial Germany, a new Germany had been born as the [[Weimar Republic]].{{sfn |Stevenson |2004 |loc=Chapter 17}}

====Armistices and capitulations====

{{Main|Armistice of 11 November 1918}}

[[File:Trento 3 novembre 1918.jpg|thumb|Italian troops reach [[Trento]] during the [[Battle of Vittorio Veneto]], 1918. Italy's victory marked the end of the war on the Italian Front and secured the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.]]

The collapse of the Central Powers came swiftly. Bulgaria was the first to sign an armistice, the [[Armistice of Salonica]] on 29 September 1918.<ref name="indiana.edu-1918">{{cite web |url=http://www.indiana.edu/~league/1918.htm |website=League of Nations Photo Archive |title=1918 Timeline |accessdate=20 November 2009}}</ref> German Emperor [[Wilhelm II, German Emperor|Wilhelm II]] in his telegram to [[Ferdinand I of Bulgaria|Bulgarian Tsar Ferdinand I]] described situation: "Disgraceful! 62,000 Serbs decided the war!".<ref>{{Cite web|url=https://militaryhistorynow.com/2017/09/21/knock-out-blow-at-dobro-polje-six-facts-about-the-obscure-battle-that-ended-ww1/ |title=The Battle of Dobro Polje – The Forgotten Balkan Skirmish That Ended WW1 | website=Militaryhistorynow.com |access-date=2019-11-21|date=21 September 2017}}</ref><ref>{{Cite web|url=https://historycollection.co/ten-facts-battle-dobro-polje-battle-led-allied-victory-world-war/9/|title=The Germans Could no Longer Keep up the Fight |website=historycollection.com |access-date=2019-11-21|date=22 February 2017}}</ref> On the same day, the [[Oberste Heeresleitung|German Supreme Army Command]] informed [[Wilhelm II, German Emperor|Kaiser Wilhelm II]] and the [[Chancellor of Germany#Chancellor of the German Empire (1871-1918)|Imperial Chancellor]] [[Count]] [[Georg von Hertling]], that the military situation facing Germany was hopeless .{{Sfn|Axelrod|2018|p=260}}

[[File:US 64th regiment celebrate the Armistice.jpg|thumb|Men of US 64th Regiment, [[7th Infantry Division (United States)|7th Infantry Division]], celebrate the news of the Armistice, 11 November 1918]]

On 24 October, the Italians began a push that rapidly recovered territory lost after the Battle of Caporetto. This culminated in the Battle of Vittorio Veneto, which marked the end of the Austro-Hungarian Army as an effective fighting force. The offensive also triggered the disintegration of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. During the last week of October, declarations of independence were made in Budapest, Prague, and Zagreb. On 29 October, the imperial authorities asked Italy for an armistice, but the Italians continued advancing, reaching Trento, Udine, and Trieste. On 3{{nbsp}}November, Austria-Hungary sent a [[White flag|flag of truce]] to ask for an [[armistice]] (Armistice of Villa Giusti). The terms, arranged by telegraph with the Allied Authorities in Paris, were communicated to the Austrian commander and accepted. The Armistice with Austria was signed in the Villa Giusti, near [[Padua]], on 3{{nbsp}}November. Austria and Hungary signed separate armistices following the overthrow of the [[Habsburg Monarchy]]. In the following days the Italian Army occupied [[Innsbruck]] and all [[Tyrol]] with over 20,000 soldiers.<ref>{{cite journal |author=Andrea Di Michele |title=Trento, Bolzano E Innsbruck: L'occupazione Militare Italiana Del Tirolo (1918-1920) |language=it |trans-title=Trento, Bolzano and Innsbruck: The Italian Military Occupation of Tyrol (1918-1920) |journal=Trento e Trieste. Percorsi Degli Italiani d'Austria Dal '48 All'annessione |year=2014 |pages=436-437 |quote=La forza numerica del contingente italiano variò con il passare dei mesi e al suo culmine raggiunse i 20-22.000 uomini. [The numerical strength of the Italian contingent varied with the passing of months and at its peak reached 20-22,000 men.] |url=http://www.agiati.it/UploadDocs/12255_Art_20_di_michele.pdf |archive-url=https://web.archive.org/web/20181002053915/http://www.agiati.it/UploadDocs/12255_Art_20_di_michele.pdf |url-status=dead |archive-date=2018-10-02 }}<!--see https://www.agiati.it/memorie-trento-e-trieste-rasera-caffieri for metadata --></ref>

On 30 October, the Ottoman Empire capitulated, signing the Armistice of Mudros.<ref name="indiana.edu-1918"/>

On 11 November, at 5:00 am, an [[Armistice of 11 November 1918|armistice with Germany]] was signed in a railroad carriage at Compiègne. At 11 am on 11 November 1918—"the eleventh hour of the eleventh day of the eleventh month"—a ceasefire came into effect. During the six hours between the signing of the armistice and its taking effect, opposing armies on the Western Front began to withdraw from their positions, but fighting continued along many areas of the front, as commanders wanted to capture territory before the war ended. The [[occupation of the Rhineland]] took place following the Armistice. The occupying armies consisted of American, Belgian, British and French forces.

[[File:Armisticetrain.jpg|thumb|upright=0.8|[[Ferdinand Foch]], second from right, pictured outside the [[Compiègne Wagon|carriage]] in [[Compiègne]] after agreeing to the armistice that ended the war there. The carriage was later chosen by [[Nazi Germany]] as the symbolic setting of Pétain's June 1940 armistice.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.compiègne.fr/decouvrir/clairierearmistice.asp |url-status=dead |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20070827142334/http://www.compiègne.fr/decouvrir/clairierearmistice.asp |archivedate=27 August 2007 |title=Clairière de l'Armistice |publisher=Ville de [[Compiègne]] |language=French}}</ref>]]

In November 1918, the Allies had ample supplies of men and materiel to invade Germany. Yet at the time of the armistice, no Allied force had crossed the German frontier, the Western Front was still some {{convert|720|km|mi}} from Berlin, and the Kaiser's armies had retreated from the battlefield in good order. These factors enabled Hindenburg and other senior German leaders to spread the story that their armies had not really been defeated. This resulted in the [[stab-in-the-back legend]],{{sfn |Baker |2006}}{{sfn |Chickering |2004 |pp=185–188}} which attributed Germany's defeat not to its inability to continue fighting (even though up to a million soldiers were suffering from the [[1918 flu pandemic]] and unfit to fight), but to the public's failure to respond to its "patriotic calling" and the supposed intentional sabotage of the war effort, particularly by Jews, Socialists, and Bolsheviks.

The Allies had much more potential wealth they could spend on the war. One estimate (using 1913 US dollars) is that the Allies spent \$58 billion on the war and the Central Powers only \$25 billion. Among the Allies, the UK spent \$21 billion and the US\$17 billion; among the Central Powers Germany spent \$20 billion.<ref>{{cite book |first=Gerd |last=Hardach |title=The First World War, 1914–1918 |url=https://archive.org/details/firstworldwar1910000hard |url-access=registration |location=Berkeley |publisher=University of California Press |year=1977 |page=[https://archive.org/details/firstworldwar1910000hard/page/153 153] |isbn=0-520-03060-5 |postscript=none }}, using estimated made by {{cite book |first=H. |last=Menderhausen |title=The Economics of War |location=New York |publisher=Prentice-Hall |year=1941 |page=305 |oclc=774042 }}</ref>

==Aftermath==

{{Main|Aftermath of World War I}}

In the aftermath of the war, four empires disappeared: the German, Austro-Hungarian, Ottoman, and Russian. Numerous nations regained their former independence, and new ones were created. Four dynasties, together with their ancillary aristocracies, fell as a result of the war: the [[House of Romanov|Romanovs]], the [[House of Hohenzollern|Hohenzollerns]], the [[Habsburg]]s, and the [[Ottoman Dynasty|Ottomans]]. Belgium and Serbia were badly damaged, as was France, with 1.4 million soldiers dead,<ref>[http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/7199127.stm "France's oldest WWI veteran dies"] {{webarchive |url=https://web.archive.org/web/20161028021340/http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/7199127.stm |date=28 October 2016 }}, 'BBC News', 20 January 2008.</ref> not counting other casualties. Germany and Russia were similarly affected.<ref name="Tucker 2005 273"/>

===Formal end of the war===

[[File:William Orpen - The Signing of Peace in the Hall of Mirrors.jpg|thumb|upright=0.8|The signing of the [[Treaty of Versailles]] in the [[Hall of Mirrors]], Versailles, 28 June 1919, by [[Sir William Orpen]]]]

A formal state of war between the two sides persisted for another seven months, until the signing of the [[Treaty of Versailles]] with Germany on 28 June 1919. The United States Senate did not ratify the treaty despite public support for it,<ref>{{cite book |last=Hastedt |first=Glenn P. |title=Encyclopedia of American Foreign Policy |publisher=Infobase Publishing |date=2009 |page=483 |isbn=978-1-4381-0989-3}}</ref><ref>{{cite book |last1=Murrin |first1=John |last2=Johnson |first2=Paul |last3=McPherson |first3=James |last4=Gerstle |first4=Gary |last5=Fahs |first5=Alice|title=Liberty, Equality, Power: A History of the American People |publisher=Cengage Learning |volume=II |date=2010 |page=622 |isbn=978-0-495-90383-3}}</ref> and did not formally end its involvement in the war until the [[Knox-Porter Resolution]] was signed on 2{{nbsp}}July 1921 by President [[Warren G. Harding]].<ref>{{cite news |title=Harding Ends War; Signs Peace Decree at Senator's Home. Thirty Persons Witness Momentous Act in Frelinghuysen Living Room at Raritan |newspaper=[[The New York Times]] |url=https://query.nytimes.com/gst/abstract.html?res=F10B13F63C5D14738DDDA0894DF405B818EF1D3 |date=3 July 1921}}</ref> For the United Kingdom and the British Empire, the state of war ceased under the provisions of the ''[[Termination of the Present War (Definition) Act 1918]]'' with respect to:

- :* Germany on 10 January 1920.<ref>{{London Gazette |issue= 31773 |date= 10 February 1920 |page=1671}}</ref>
- :* Austria on 16 July 1920.<ref>{{London Gazette |issue= 31991 |date= 23 July 1920 |pages=7765-7766 }}</ref>
- :* Bulgaria on 9 August 1920.<ref>{{London Gazette |issue= 13627 |date= 27 August 1920 |page=1924}}</ref>
- :* Hungary on 26 July 1921.<ref>{{London Gazette |issue= 32421 |date= 12 August 1921 |pages=6371-6372 }}</ref>
- :* Turkey on 6 August 1924.<ref>{{London Gazette |issue= 32964 |date= 12 August 1924 |pages=6030-6031 }}</ref>

After the Treaty of Versailles, treaties with Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire were signed. However, the negotiation of the treaty with the Ottoman Empire was followed by strife, and a final peace treaty between the Allied Powers and the country that would shortly become the [[Republic of Turkey]] was not signed until 24 July 1923, at [[Treaty of Lausanne|Lausanne]].

Some [[war memorial]]s date the end of the war as being when the Versailles Treaty was signed in 1919, which was when many of the troops serving abroad finally returned home; by contrast, most commemorations of the war's end concentrate on the armistice of 11 November 1918.<ref>http://www.warmemorials.org/uploads/publications/117.pdf</ref> Legally, the formal peace treaties were not complete until the last, the Treaty of Lausanne, was signed. Under its terms, the Allied forces left [[Istanbul|Constantinople]] on 23 August 1923.

===Peace treaties and national boundaries===

[[File:Dissolution of Austria-Hungary.png|thumb|300px|[[Dissolution of Austria-Hungary]] after war]]

After the war, the [[Paris Peace Conference, 1919|Paris Peace Conference]] imposed a series of peace treaties on the Central Powers officially ending the war. The 1919 [[Treaty of Versailles]] dealt with Germany and, building on [[Fourteen Points|Wilson's 14th point]], brought into being the [[League of Nations]] on 28 June 1919.{{sfn |Magliveras |1999 |pp=8-12}}{{sfn |Northedge |1986 |pp=35-36}}

The Central Powers had to acknowledge responsibility for "all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the war imposed upon them by" their aggression. In the Treaty of Versailles, this statement was [[Article 231 of the

Treaty of Versailles|Article 231]]. This article became known as the War Guilt clause as the majority of Germans felt humiliated and resentful.<ref>{{cite book |first=John H. |last=Morrow |title=The Great War: An Imperial History |publisher=Routledge |location=London |year=2005 |isbn=978-0-415-20440-8 |page=290}}</ref> Overall the Germans felt they had been unjustly dealt with by what they called the "[[diktat]] of Versailles". German historian Hagen Schulze said the Treaty placed Germany "under legal sanctions, deprived of military power, economically ruined, and politically humiliated."<ref>{{cite book |first=Hagen |last=Schulze |title=Germany: A New History |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=B84ZaAdGbS4C |page=204}} |year=1998 |publisher=Harvard U.P. |page=204}}</ref> Belgian historian Laurence Van Ypersele emphasises the central role played by memory of the war and the Versailles Treaty in German politics in the 1920s and 1930s:

<blockquote>Active denial of war guilt in Germany and German resentment at both reparations and continued Allied occupation of the Rhineland made widespread revision of the meaning and memory of the war problematic. The legend of the "[[stab in the back]]" and the wish to revise the "Versailles diktat", and the belief in an international threat aimed at the elimination of the German nation persisted at the heart of German politics. Even a man of peace such as <nowiki>[[Gustav Stresemann|Gustav]]</nowiki> Stresemann publicly rejected German guilt. As for the Nazis, they waved the banners of domestic treason and international conspiracy in an attempt to galvanise the German nation into a spirit of revenge. Like a Fascist Italy, Nazi Germany sought to redirect the memory of the war to the benefit of its own policies.<ref>{{cite book |first=Laurence Van |last=Ypersele |title=Mourning and Memory, 1919–45 |editor-first=John |editor-last=Horne |work=A Companion to World War I |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=EjZHLXRKjtEC |page=584}} |year=2012 |publisher=Wiley |page=584}}</ref></blockquote>

Meanwhile, new nations liberated from German rule viewed the treaty as recognition of wrongs committed against small nations by much larger aggressive neighbours.<ref>{{Cite web|url=http://www.owlnet.rice.edu/~ethomp/The%20Surrogate%20Hegemon.pdf|title=The Surrogate Hegemon in Polish Postcolonial Discourse Ewa Thompson, Rice University}}</ref> The Peace Conference required all the defeated powers to pay [[World War I reparations|reparations]] for all the damage done to civilians. However, owing to economic difficulties and Germany being the only defeated power with an intact economy, the burden fell largely on Germany.

Austria-Hungary was partitioned into several successor states, including Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and [[Yugoslavia]], largely but not entirely along ethnic lines. Transylvania was shifted from Hungary to [[Greater Romania]]. The details were contained in the [[Treaty of Saint-Germain]] and the Treaty of Trianon. As a result of the [[Treaty of Trianon]], 3.3 million Hungarians came under foreign rule. Although the Hungarians made up approximately 54% of the population of the pre-war [[Kingdom of Hungary]] (according to the [[Ethnic and religious composition of Austria-Hungary#Transleithanian states|1910 census]]), only 32% of its territory was left to Hungary. Between 1920 and 1924, 354,000 Hungarians fled former Hungarian territories attached to Romania, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia.<ref>{{cite book |first1=Károly |last1=Kocsis |first2=Eszter Kocsisné |last2=Hodosi |title=Ethnic Geography of the Hungarian Minorities in the Carpathian Basin |year=1998 |isbn=978-963-7395-84-0 |page=19}}</ref>

The Russian Empire, which had withdrawn from the war in 1917 after the October Revolution, lost much of its western frontier as the newly independent nations of [[History of Estonia#Road to the republic|Estonia]], [[History of Finland#Independence and Civil War|Finland]], [[History of Latvia#Independence|Latvia]], [[History of Lithuania#Independent Lithuania (1918–40)|Lithuania]], and [[Second Polish Republic|Poland]] were carved from it. Romania took control of Bessarabia in April 1918.{sfn|Clark|1927}}

[[File:Venizelos signing the Treaty of Sevres.jpeg|thumb|right|Greek prime minister [[Eleftherios Venizelos]] signing the [[Treaty of Sèvres]]]]

The Ottoman Empire disintegrated, with much of its [[Levant]] territory awarded to various Allied powers as protectorates. The Turkish core in [[Anatolia]] was reorganised as the Republic of Turkey. The Ottoman Empire was to be partitioned by the [[Treaty of Sèvres]] of 1920. This treaty was never ratified by the Sultan and was rejected by the [[Turkish National Movement]], leading to the victorious [[Turkish War of Independence]] and the much less stringent 1923 Treaty of Lausanne.

Though by 1923 most countries had made peace treaties, [[Andorra]] was an exception. Andorra declared war on Germany in August 1914. At that time, it had an army of 600 part-time military men, commanded by two officials. Andorra had a very small population, so it never sent soldiers to the battlefield. Andorra was therefore not allowed to attend the Treaty of Versailles. The country finally concluded a peace treaty with Germany in 1958.<ref>{{cite web | url=https://everything-everywhere.com/8-facts-about-andorra/ | title=8 Facts You Might Not Have Known About Andorra| date=30 June 2011}}</ref><ref>{{cite web | url=http://halfapage.com/44-year-war-germany-andorra/ | title=The 44-year war between Germany and Andorra| date=3 April 2016}}</ref><ref>{{cite web | url=http://uk.businessinsider.com/wars-that-were-extended-by-quirks-of-diplomacy-2015-12?IR=T/#andorra-and-the-german-empire-6 | title=9 wars that were technically ongoing due to quirks of diplomacy}}</ref><ref>{{cite web | url=https://www.abc.net.au/radionational/programs/archived/worldwarone/25-things-you-might-not-know-about-world-war-one/5546018 | title=25 things you might not know about WWI| date=24 June 2014}}</ref>

===National identities===

{{Further|Sykes–Picot Agreement}}

[[File:Map Europe 1923-en.svg|thumb|Map of [[List of national border changes since World War I|territorial changes in Europe]] after World War{{nbsp}}I (as of 1923)]]

After 123 years, Poland re-emerged as an independent country. The Kingdom of Serbia and its dynasty, as a "minor Entente nation" and the country with the most casualties per capita,<ref>{{cite news |title=Appeals to Americans to Pray for Serbians |newspaper=[[The New York Times]] |date=27 July 1918 | url=https://timesmachine.nytimes.com/timesmachine/1918/07/27/102727338.pdf}}</ref><ref>{{cite news |title=Serbia Restored |newspaper=[[The New York Times]] | date=5 November 1918 | url=https://timesmachine.nytimes.com/timesmachine/1918/11/05/98273895.pdf}}</ref><ref>{{cite web |title=The Minor Powers During World War One - Serbia | first=Matt |last=Simpson |publisher=firstworldwar.com |date=22 August 2009 | url=http://www.firstworldwar.com/features/minorpowers_serbia.htm}}</ref> became the backbone of a new multinational state, the [[Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes]], later renamed Yugoslavia. Czechoslovakia, combining the [[Kingdom of Bohemia]] with parts of the Kingdom of Hungary, became a new nation. Russia became the [[Soviet Union]] and lost Finland, Estonia, Lithuania, and Latvia, which became independent countries. The [[Ottoman Empire]] was soon replaced by Turkey and several other countries in the Middle East.

In the British Empire, the war unleashed new forms of nationalism. In Australia and New Zealand the Battle of Gallipoli became known as those nations' "Baptism of Fire". It was the first major war in which the newly established countries fought, and it was one of the first times that Australian troops fought as Australians, not just subjects of the [[British Crown]]. [[Anzac Day]], commemorating the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC), celebrates this defining moment.<ref>{{cite news | url=https://www.nytimes.com/1916/04/26/archives/anzac-day-in-london-king-queen-and-general-birdwood-at-services-in.html |title='ANZAC Day' in London; King, Queen, and General Birdwood at Services in Abbey |newspaper=[[The New York Times]] |date=26 April 1916}}</ref><ref name="awmtradition">{{Cite web | url=http://www.awm.gov.au/commemoration/anzac/anzac_tradition.asp |title=The ANZAC Day tradition |last=Australian War Memorial |publisher=[[Australian War Memorial]] |archive-

url=https://web.archive.org/web/20080501163212/http://www.awm.gov.au/commemoration/anzac/anzac_tradition.asp |archive-date=1 May 2008 |url-status=dead |access-date=2 May 2008}}

After the Battle of Vimy Ridge, where the Canadian divisions fought together for the first time as a single corps, Canadians began to refer to their country as a nation "forged from fire".

Having succeeded on the same battleground where the "mother countries" had previously faltered, they were for the first time respected internationally for their own accomplishments. Canada entered the war as a Dominion of the British Empire and remained so, although it emerged with a greater measure of independence.

When Britain declared war in 1914, the dominions were automatically at war; at the conclusion, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa were individual signatories of the Treaty of Versailles.

Documenting Democracy

Retrieved 31 March 2012

Lobbying by [[Chaim Weizmann]] and fear that American Jews would encourage the United States to support Germany culminated in the British government's [[Balfour Declaration]] of 1917, endorsing creation of a [[Jewish homeland]] in Palestine.

A total of more than 1,172,000 Jewish soldiers served in the Allied and Central Power forces in World War I, including 275,000 in Austria-Hungary and 450,000 in Tsarist Russia.

Timeline of The Jewish Agency for Israel:1917-1919

May 2013

The establishment of the modern state of Israel and the roots of the continuing [[Israeli-Palestinian conflict]] are partially found in the unstable power dynamics of the Middle East that resulted from World War I.

Before the end of the war, the Ottoman Empire had maintained a modest level of peace and stability throughout the Middle East.

With the fall of the Ottoman government, power vacuums developed and conflicting claims to land and nationhood began to emerge.

The political boundaries drawn by the victors of World War I were quickly imposed, sometimes after only cursory consultation with the local population. These continue to be problematic in the 21st-century struggles for [[national identity]].

While the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire at the end of World War I was pivotal in contributing to the modern political situation of the Middle East, including the [[Arab-Israeli conflict|Arab-Israeli conflict]],

Pre-State Israel: Under Ottoman Rule (1517-1917)

accessdate=30 December 2008}}</ref><ref name="Gelvin_2005">{{harvnb |Gelvin | 2005}}</ref> the end of Ottoman rule also spawned lesser known disputes over water and other natural resources.{{sfn |Isaac |Hosh |1992}}

The prestige of Germany and German things in [[Latin America]] remained high after the war but did not recover to its pre-war levels.<ref name=Carlos2011>{{cite book |last1=Sanhueza |first1=Carlos |language=Spanish | date=2011 |chapter=El debate sobre "el embrujamiento alemán" y el papel de la ciencia alemana hacia fines del siglo XIX en Chile |chapter-url=http://publications.iai.spk-berlin.de/servlets/MCRFileNodeServlet/Document_derivate_00000510/BIA%20146%20Sanhueza.pdf |title=Ideas viajeras y sus objetos. El intercambio científico entre Alemania y América austral. Madrid-Frankfurt am Main: Iberoamericana-Vervuert |pages=29-40 |doi= |access-date= }}</ref><ref name=Penny2017>{{cite journal |last1=Penny |first1=H. Glenn |date=2017 | title=Material Connections: German Schools, Things, and Soft Power in Argentina and Chile from the 1880s through the Interwar Period |journal=[[Comparative Studies in Society and History]] |volume=59 |issue=3 |pages=519-549 | doi=10.1017/S0010417517000159 }}</ref> Indeed, in [[Chile]] the war bought an end to a period of intense scientific and cultural influence writer [[Eduardo de la Barra]] scorningly called "the German bewichment" ({{lang-es|el embrujamiento alemán}}).<ref name=Carlos2011/>

===Health effects===

[[File:Transporting Ottoman injured at Sirkedji.jpg|thumb|left|Transporting Ottoman wounded at [[Sirkeci]]]]

Of the 60 million European military personnel who were mobilised from 1914 to 1918, [[World War I casualties|8 million were killed]], 7 million were permanently disabled, and 15 million were seriously injured. Germany lost 15.1% of its active male population, Austria-Hungary lost 17.1%, and France lost 10.5%.{{sfn |Kitchen |2000 |p=22}} France mobilised 7.8 million men, of which 1.4 died and 3.2 were injured.<ref>Sévillia, Jean, Histoire Passionnée de la France, 2013, p.395</ref>

In Germany, civilian deaths were 474,000 higher than in peacetime, due in large part to food shortages and malnutrition that weakened resistance to disease.<ref>{{cite book |first=N.P. |last=Howard |title=The Social and Political Consequences of the Allied Food Blockade of Germany, 1918-19 |work=German History |year=1993 |volume=11 |issue=2 |pages=161-188 | url=http://libcom.org/files/blockade%20Germany_0.pdf}} table p. 166, with 271,000 excess deaths in 1918 and 71,000 in the first half of 1919 while the blockade was still in effect.</ref> By the end of the war, starvation caused by famine had killed approximately 100,000 people in Lebanon.{{sfn |Saadi | 2009}} Between 5{{nbsp}}and 10 million people died in the [[Russian famine of 1921]].<ref>{{cite web | url=http://www.hoover.org/publications/digest/6731711.html |publisher=Hoover Institution |website=Hoover Digest |date=30 January 2007 |title=Food as a Weapon |first=Bertrand M. |last=Patenaude | archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20080719190529/http://www.hoover.org/publications/digest/6731711.html |archivedate=19 July 2008 |accessdate=14 August 2014}}</ref> By 1922, there were between 4.5 million and 7{{nbsp}}million homeless children in Russia as a result of nearly a decade of devastation from World War{{nbsp}}I, the Russian Civil War, and the subsequent famine of 1920-1922.{{sfn |Ball |1996 |pp=16, 211}} Numerous anti-Soviet Russians fled the country after the Revolution; by the 1930s, the northern Chinese city of [[Harbin]] had 100,000 Russians.<ref>{{cite news | url=http://www.highbeam.com/doc/1G1-16051029.html |archive-url=https://web.archive.org/web/20070510153951/http://www.highbeam.com/doc/1G1-16051029.html |url-status=dead |archive-date=10 May 2007 |title=The Russians are coming (Russian influence in Harbin, Manchuria, China; economic relations) |work=The Economist (US) |date=14 January 1995}} (via Highbeam.com)</ref> Thousands more emigrated to France, England, and the United States.

[[File:Emergency hospital during Influenza epidemic, Camp Funston, Kansas - NCP 1603.jpg|thumb|Emergency military hospital during the [[Spanish flu]] pandemic, which killed about 675,000 people in the United States alone, [[Camp Funston]], [[Kansas]], 1918]]

The Australian prime minister, [[Billy Hughes]], wrote to the British prime minister, [[Lloyd George]], "You have assured us that you cannot get better terms. I much regret it, and hope even now that some way may be found of securing agreement for demanding reparation commensurate with the tremendous sacrifices made by the British Empire and her Allies." Australia received £5,571,720 war reparations, but the direct cost of the war to Australia had been £376,993,052, and, by the mid-1930s, repatriation pensions, war gratuities, interest and sinking fund charges were £831,280,947.{{sfn |Souter |2000 |p=354}} Of about 416,000 Australians who served, about 60,000 were killed and another 152,000 were wounded.<ref name="Tucker 2005 273"/>

Diseases flourished in the chaotic wartime conditions. In 1914 alone, louse-borne [[epidemic typhus]] killed 200,000 in Serbia.{{sfn |Tschanz}} From 1918 to 1922, Russia had about 25 million infections and 3{{ }}million deaths from epidemic typhus.{{sfn |Conlon}} In 1923, 13 million Russians contracted malaria, a sharp increase from the pre-war years.<ref>{{cite book |last=Taliaferro |first=William Hay |title=Medicine and the War |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=HcOAnAINJZAC |page=65}} |year=1972 |page=65 |isbn=978-0-8369-2629-3}}</ref> In addition, a major influenza epidemic spread around the world. Overall, the [[1918 flu pandemic]] killed at least 17 million to 50 million people.<ref name=Spreeuwenberg/>{{sfn |Knobler |Mack |Mahmoud |Lemon |2005}}<ref>{{cite book |last1=Kamps |first1=Bernd Sebastian |last2=Reyes-Terán |first2=Gustavo |title=Influenza |url=http://www.influenzareport.com/ir/overview.htm |series=Influenza Report |publisher=Flying Publisher |isbn=978-3-924774-51-6 |accessdate=17 November 2009}}</ref> Moreover, between 1915 and 1926, an epidemic of [[encephalitis lethargica]] spread around the world affecting nearly five million people.<ref>K. von Economo.'Wiener klinische Wochenschrift', 10 May 1917, 30: 581-585. Die Encephalitis lethargica. Leipzig and Vienna, Franz Deuticke, 1918.</ref><ref name=Reid_2001>{{cite journal |author1=Reid, A.H. |author2=McCall, S. |author3=Henry, J.M. |author4=Taubenberger, J.K. |title = Experimenting on the Past: The Enigma of von Economo's Encephalitis Lethargica |journal = J. Neuropathol. Exp. Neurol. |volume = 60 |issue = 7 |pages = 663-670 |year = 2001 |pmid = 11444794 |doi = 10.1093/jnen/60.7.663|s2cid=40754090 }}</ref>

The social disruption and widespread violence of the Russian Revolution of 1917 and the ensuing [[Russian Civil War]] sparked more than 2,000 [[pogrom]]s in the former Russian Empire, mostly in [[Ukraine after the Russian Revolution|Ukraine]].<ref>{{cite web |url=https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/judaica/ejud_0002_0016_0_15895.html |title=Pogroms |website=[[Encyclopaedia Judaica]] |accessdate=17 November 2009 |publisher=American-Israeli Cooperative Enterprise}}</ref> An estimated 60,000-200,000 civilian Jews were killed in the atrocities.<ref>{{cite web |url=https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/History/modtimeline.html |title=Jewish Modern and Contemporary Periods (ca. 1700-1917) |website=Jewish Virtual Library |accessdate=17 November 2009 |publisher=American-Israeli Cooperative Enterprise}}</ref>

In the aftermath of World War I, Greece [[Greco-Turkish War (1919-1922)|fought]] against Turkish nationalists led by [[Mustafa Kemal Atatürk|Mustafa Kemal]], a war that eventually resulted in a [[Population exchange between Greece and Turkey|massive population exchange between the two countries]] under the Treaty of Lausanne.<ref>[http://www.spiegel.de/international/0,1518,451140,00.html "The Diaspora Welcomes the Pope"] {{webarchive|url=https://web.archive.org/web/20120604185021/http://www.spiegel.de/international/0%2C1518%2C451140%2C00.html |date= 4 June 2012 }}, 'Der Spiegel' Online. 28 November 2006.</ref> According to various sources,<ref>{{cite journal |last1 = Rummel |first1 = R.J. |authorlink = R.J. Rummel |year = 1998 |title = The

Holocaust in Comparative and Historical Perspective | url = | journal = Idea Journal of Social Issues | volume = 3 | issue = 2 }}</ref> several hundred thousand Greeks died during this period, which was tied in with the Greek Genocide.<ref>{{cite news |url=https://www.nytimes.com/2000/09/17/nyregion/a-few-words-in-greek-tell-of-a-homeland-lost.html |first=Chris |last=Hedges |title=A Few Words in Greek Tell of a Homeland Lost |work=The New York Times |date=17 September 2000}}</ref>

==Technology==

{{See also|Technology during World War I|Weapons of World War I}}

===Ground warfare===

{{See also|Tanks in World War I}}

[[File:Tanks on parade in London at the end of World War I, 1918 (3056450509).jpg|thumb|left|Tanks on parade in London at the end of World War I]]

World War I began as a clash of 20th-century technology and 19th-century [[military tactics|tactics]], with the inevitably large ensuing casualties. By the end of 1917, however, the major armies, now numbering millions of men, had modernised and were making use of telephone, [[Wireless|wireless communication]],{{sfn |Hartcup |1988 |p=154}} [[Armored car (military)|armoured cars]], [[tank]]s,{{sfn |Hartcup |1988 |pp=82–86}} and aircraft. Infantry formations were reorganised, so that 100-man companies<!--- surely most companies at the start of the war had more than 200-men!---> were no longer the main unit of manoeuvre; instead, squads of 10 or so men, under the command of a junior NCO, were favoured.

Artillery also underwent a revolution. In 1914, cannons were positioned in the front line and fired directly at their targets. By 1917, [[indirect fire]] with guns (as well as mortars and even machine guns) was commonplace, using new techniques for spotting and ranging, notably aircraft and the often overlooked [[field telephone]].<ref>Sterling, Christopher H. (2008). 'Military Communications: From Ancient Times to the 21st Century'. Santa Barbara: ABC-CLIO. {{ISBN|978-1-85109-732-6}} p. 444.</ref> [[Counter-battery fire|Counter-battery]] missions became commonplace, also, and sound detection was used to locate enemy batteries.

[[File:Austin21.jpg|thumb|A Russian armoured car, 1919]]

Germany was far ahead of the Allies in using heavy indirect fire. The German Army employed {{convert|150|mm|0|abbr=on}} and {{convert|210|mm|0|abbr=on}} [[howitzer]]s in 1914, when typical French and British guns were only {{convert|75|mm|0|abbr=on}} and {{convert|105|mm|0|abbr=on}}. The British had a 6-inch (152 mm) howitzer, but it was so heavy it had to be hauled to the field in pieces and assembled. The Germans also fielded Austrian {{convert|305|mm|0|abbr=on}} and {{convert|420|mm|0|abbr=on}} guns and, even at the beginning of the war, had inventories of various calibres of ''[[Minenwerfer]]'', which were ideally suited for trench warfare.{{sfn |Mosier |2001 |pp=42–48}}<ref>{{cite book |last=Jager |first=Herbert |title=German Artillery of World War One |publisher=Crowood Press |date=2001 |page=224 |isbn=978-1861264039}}</ref>

[[File:38cmBttrPommern.jpg|thumb|38-cm ''[[Batterie Pommern|Lange Max]]'' of [[Koekelare]] (Leugenboom), biggest gun in the world in 1917]]

On 27 June 1917 the Germans used the biggest gun in the world, [[Batterie Pommern]], nicknamed ''[[Lange Max Museum|Lange Max]]''. This gun from Krupp was able to shoot 750 kg shells from [[Koekelare]] to [[Dunkirk]], a distance of about {{convert|50|km|0|abbr=on}}.

Much of the combat involved trench warfare, in which hundreds often died for each metre gained. Many of the deadliest battles in history occurred during World War{{nbsp}}I. Such battles include Ypres, the Marne, [[Battle of Cambrai (1917)|Cambrai]], the Somme, Verdun, and Gallipoli. The Germans employed the

flamethrower was a powerful, demoralising weapon that caused terror on the battlefield.

[[Trench railways]] evolved to supply the enormous quantities of food, water, and ammunition required to support large numbers of soldiers in areas where conventional transportation systems had been destroyed. Internal combustion engines and improved traction systems for automobiles and trucks/lorries eventually rendered trench railways obsolete.

====Areas taken in major attacks====

[[File:Attack areas in WW1.jpg|thumb|center|upright=4.0]]

On the Western Front neither side made impressive gains in the first three years of the war with attacks at Verdun, the Somme, Passchendaele, and Cambrai—the exception was Nivelle's Offensive in which the German defence gave ground while mauling the attackers so badly that there were mutinies in the French Army. In 1918 the Germans smashed through the defence lines in three great attacks: Michael, on the Lys, and on the Aisne, which displayed the power of their new tactics. The Allies struck back at [[Battle of Soissons (1918)|Soissons]], which showed the Germans that they must return to the defensive, and at Amiens; tanks played a prominent role in both these assaults, as they had the year before at Cambrai.

The areas in the East were larger. The Germans did well at the First Masurian Lakes driving the invaders from East Prussia, and at [[Battle of Jugla|Riga]], which led the Russians to sue for peace. The Austro-Hungarians and Germans joined for a great success at Gorlice–Tarnów, which drove the Russians out of Poland. In a series of attacks along with the Bulgarians they occupied Serbia, Albania, Montenegro and most of Romania. The Allies successes came later in [[Third Battle of Gaza|Palestine]], the beginning of the end for the Ottomans, in Macedonia, which drove the Bulgarians out of the war, and at Vittorio Veneto, the final blow for the Austro-Hungarians. The area occupied in East by the Central powers on 11 November 1918 was {{cvt|1042600|km2|sqmi}}.

===Naval===

[[File:Bundesarchiv DVM 10 Bild-23-61-15, Panzerkreuzer "SMS Goeben".jpg|thumb|The {{sclass-|Moltke|battlecruiser|0}} {{ship|Ottoman battlecruiser|Yavûz Sultân Selîm}}]]

Germany deployed U-boats (submarines) after the war began. Alternating between restricted and unrestricted submarine warfare in the Atlantic, the [[Kaiserliche Marine]] employed them to deprive the British Isles of vital supplies. The deaths of British merchant sailors and the seeming invulnerability of U-boats led to the development of depth charges (1916), hydrophones (passive [[sonar]], 1917), blimps, [[hunter-killer submarine]]s ([[British R-class submarine|HMS 'R-1']], 1917), forward-throwing [[anti-submarine weapon]]s, and dipping hydrophones (the latter two both abandoned in 1918).<ref name="price1980"/> To extend their operations, the Germans proposed supply submarines (1916). Most of these would be forgotten in the [[interwar period]] until World War{{nbsp}}II revived the need.<ref>Lawrence Sondhaus, ''The Great War at Sea: A Naval History of the First World War'' (2014).</ref>

===Aviation===

{{Main|Aviation in World War I}}

[[File:Sopwith F-1 Camel.jpg|thumb|left|[[RAF]] [[Sopwith Camel]]. In April 1917, the average life expectancy of a British pilot on the Western Front was 93 flying hours.<ref>{{cite book |first1=Eric |last1=Lawson |first2=Jane |last2=Lawson |year=2002 |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=9PGHckhHiX0C}}pg=PT123 |title=The First Air Campaign: August 1914– November 1918 |publisher=Da Capo Press |p=123 |isbn= 978-0-306-81213-2}}</ref>]]

[[Fixed-wing aircraft]] were first used militarily by the Italians in Libya on 23 October 1911 during the [[Italo-Turkish War]] for reconnaissance, soon followed by the dropping of grenades and [[aerial photography]] the next year.

By 1914, their military utility was obvious. They were initially used for [[reconnaissance]] and [[Close air support|ground attack]]. To shoot down enemy planes, [[anti-aircraft guns]] and [[fighter aircraft]] were developed. [[Strategic bomber]]s were created, principally by the Germans and British, though the former used [[Zeppelin]]s as well.<ref name="Cross 1991">{{harvnb | Cross |1991}}</ref> Towards the end of the conflict, aircraft carriers were used for the first time, with HMS ''Furious'' launching [[Sopwith Camels]] in a raid to destroy the Zeppelin hangars at [[Tondern]] in 1918.<ref name="Cross 1991" pp=56-57}}

[[File:Richthofen and Falkenhayn with Fokker Dr.I c1918.jpg|thumb|right|[[Luftstreitkräfte]] [[Fokker Dr.I]] being inspected by [[Manfred von Richthofen]], also known as the Red Baron, one of most famous pilots in the war.<ref>{{Cite web|url=http://www.theaerodrome.com/aces/germany/richthofen2.php|title=Manfred von Richthofen|website=theaerodrome.com|access-date=21 April 2019}}</ref>]]

Manned [[observation balloon]]s, floating high above the trenches, were used as stationary reconnaissance platforms, reporting enemy movements and directing artillery. Balloons commonly had a crew of two, equipped with [[parachute]]s, <ref name="Winter 1983">{{sfn |Winter |1983}}</ref> so that if there was an enemy air attack the crew could parachute to safety. At the time, parachutes were too heavy to be used by pilots of aircraft (with their marginal power output), and smaller versions were not developed until the end of the war; they were also opposed by the British leadership, who feared they might promote cowardice.<ref name="FullCircle">{{harvnb |Johnson |2001}}</ref>

Recognised for their value as observation platforms, balloons were important targets for enemy aircraft. To defend them against air attack, they were heavily protected by antiaircraft guns and patrolled by friendly aircraft; to attack them, unusual weapons such as air-to-air rockets were tried. Thus, the reconnaissance value of blimps and balloons contributed to the development of air-to-air combat between all types of aircraft, and to the trench stalemate, because it was impossible to move large numbers of troops undetected. The Germans conducted air raids on England during 1915 and 1916 with airships, hoping to damage British morale and cause aircraft to be diverted from the front lines, and indeed the resulting panic led to the diversion of several squadrons of fighters from France.<ref name="Cross 1991"/><ref name="FullCircle"/>

==War crimes==

===Baralong incidents===

{{Main|Baralong incidents}}
[[File:HMS Baralong.jpg|thumb|HMS ''Baralong'']]

On 19 August 1915, the German submarine [[SM U-27 (Germany)|U-27]] was sunk by the British [[Q-ship]] {{HMS|Baralong}}. All German survivors were [[summarily executed]] by ''Baralong''<ref>{{sfn |Halpern |1994}}</ref> crew on the orders of Lieutenant [[Godfrey Herbert]], the captain of the ship. The shooting was reported to the media by American citizens who were on board the ''Nicosia'', a British freighter loaded with war supplies, which was stopped by U-27 just minutes before the incident.<ref>Halpern, Paul G. (1994). A Naval History of World War I. Routledge, p. 301; {{ISBN|1-85728-498-4}}</ref>

On 24 September, ''Baralong'' destroyed [[SM U-41 (Germany)|U-41]], which was in the process of sinking the cargo ship ''Urbino''. According to Karl Goetz, the submarine's commander, ''Baralong'' continued to fly the US flag after firing on U-41 and then rammed the lifeboat—carrying the German survivors—sinking it.<ref>Hadley, Michael L. (1995). Count Not the Dead: The Popular Image of the German Submarine. McGill-Queen's Press – MQUP, p. 36; {{ISBN|0-7735-1282-9}}</ref>

===Torpedoing of HMHS ''Llandovery Castle''===
{{See also|Unrestricted submarine warfare}}

The Canadian hospital ship {{HMHS|Llandovery Castle}} was torpedoed by the German submarine [[SM U-86]] on 27 June 1918 in violation of international law. Only 24 of the 258 medical personnel, patients, and crew survived. Survivors reported that the U-boat surfaced and ran down the lifeboats, machine-gunning survivors in the water. The U-boat captain, [[Helmut Patzig]], was charged with war crimes in Germany following the war, but escaped prosecution by going to the [[Free City of Danzig]], beyond the jurisdiction of German courts.<ref name="Davies2013c">{{cite book |first=J.D. |last=Davies |authorlink=J. D. Davies (historian and author) |title=Britannia's Dragon: A Naval History of Wales |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=urs7AwAAQBAJ |page=158}} |year=2013 |publisher=History Press Limited |isbn=978-0-7524-9410-4 |page=158}}</ref>

===Blockade of Germany===

{{main|Blockade of Germany}}

After the war, the German government claimed that approximately 763,000 German civilians died from [[starvation]] and disease during the war because of the Allied blockade.<ref>{{cite web |title=The blockade of Germany |url=http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/pathways/firstworldwar/spotlights/blockade.htm |website=nationalarchives.gov.uk |publisher=The National Archives |accessdate=11 November 2018}}</ref><ref>{{cite web |last1=Raico |first1=Ralph |title=The Blockade and Attempted Starvation of Germany |url=https://mises.org/library/blockade-and-attempted-starvation-germany |publisher=[[Mises Institute]]|date=26 April 2010 }}</ref> An academic study done in 1928 put the death toll at 424,000.<ref name="university2">Grebler, Leo (1940). ''The Cost of the World War to Germany and Austria-Hungary''. Yale University Press. p. 78</ref> Germany protested that the Allies had used starvation as a weapon of war.<ref>{{Cite journal |last=Cox |first=Mary Elisabeth |date=21 September 2014 |title=Hunger games: or how the Allied blockade in the First World War deprived German children of nutrition, and Allied food aid subsequently saved them. Abstract. |journal=The Economic History Review |language=en |volume=68 |issue=2 |pages=600–631 |doi=10.1111/ehr.12070 |s2cid=142354720 |issn=0013-0117 }}</ref> Sally Marks argued that the German accounts of a hunger blockade are a "myth," as Germany did not face the starvation level of Belgium and the regions of Poland and northern France that it occupied.{{sfn|Marks|2013}} According to the British judge and legal philosopher [[Patrick Devlin, Baron Devlin|Patrick Devlin]], "The War Orders given by the Admiralty on 26 August [1914] were clear enough. All food consigned to Germany through neutral ports was to be captured and all food consigned to Rotterdam was to be presumed consigned to Germany." According to Devlin, this was a serious breach of International Law, equivalent to German minelaying.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Devlin |first1=Patrick |title=Too Proud to Fight: Woodrow Wilson's Neutrality |url=https://archive.org/details/tooproudtofightw00devl |url-access=registration |date=1975 |publisher=New York: Oxford University Press |pages=[https://archive.org/details/tooproudtofightw00devl/page/193 193–195]}}</ref>

===Chemical weapons in warfare===

{{Main|Chemical weapons in World War I}}

[[File:French soldiers making a gas and flame attack on German trenches in Flanders. Belgium., ca. 1900 - 1982 - NARA - 530722.tif|thumb|left|French soldiers making a gas and flame attack on German trenches in Flanders]]

The German army was the first to successfully deploy chemical weapons during the Second Battle of Ypres (22 April – 25 May 1915), after German scientists working under the direction of [[Fritz Haber]] at the [[Kaiser Wilhelm Society|Kaiser Wilhelm Institute]] developed a method to weaponize [[chlorine]].{{efn|A German attempt to use chemical weapons on the Russian front in January 1915 failed to cause casualties.}}<ref name="AJPH">{{cite journal |last=Fitzgerald |first=Gerard |title=Chemical Warfare and Medical Response During World War I |journal=[[American Journal of Public Health]] |volume=98 |issue=4 |pages=611–625 |date=April 2008 |doi=10.2105/AJPH.2007.11930 |doi-access=free |pmid=18356568 |pmc=2376985 |quote=<!--In the late afternoon of April 22, 1915, members of a special unit of the German Army opened the valves on more than 6000 steel

cylinders arrayed in trenches along their defensive perimeter at Ypres, Belgium. Within 10 minutes, 160 tons of chlorine gas drifted over the opposing French trenches, engulfing all those downwind. ... The attack that spring day, nonetheless, marked a turning point in military history, as it is recognized as the first successful use of lethal chemical weapons on the battlefield. ... Although chemical weapons killed proportionally few soldiers in World War I (1914–1918), the psychological damage from 'gas fright' and the exposure of large numbers of soldiers, munitions workers, and civilians to chemical agents had significant public health consequences. ... By the time of the armistice on November 11, 1918, the use of chemical weapons such as chlorine, phosgene, and mustard gas had resulted in more than 1.3 million casualties and approximately 90 000 deaths.-->}}</ref> The use of chemical weapons was sanctioned by the German High Command in an effort to force Allied soldiers out of their entrenched positions, complementing rather than supplanting more lethal conventional weapons.<ref name="AJPH"/> In time, chemical weapons were deployed by all major belligerents throughout the war, inflicting approximately 1.3 million casualties, but relatively few fatalities: About 90,000 in total.<ref name="AJPH"/> For example, there were an estimated 186,000 British chemical weapons casualties during the war (80% of which were the result of exposure to the [[blister agent|vesicant]] [[sulfur mustard]], introduced to the battlefield by the Germans in July 1917, which burns the skin at any point of contact and inflicts more severe lung damage than chlorine or [[phosgene]]),<ref name="AJPH"/> and up to one-third of American casualties were caused by them. The Russian Army reportedly suffered roughly 500,000 chemical weapon casualties in World War I.<ref>{{cite book|last=Schneider|first=Barry R.|date=28 February 1999|title=Future War and Counterproliferation: US Military Responses to NBC|publisher=Praeger|p=84|isbn=0-275-96278-4}}</ref> The use of chemical weapons in warfare was in direct violation of the [[Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907#Hague Convention of 1899|1899 Hague Declaration Concerning Asphyxiating Gases]] and the [[Hague Convention of 1907|1907 Hague Convention on Land Warfare]], which prohibited their use.<ref>{{cite book|url=https://archive.org/details/anatomyofnuremb00tayl/page/34|title=The Anatomy of the Nuremberg Trials: A Personal Memoir|first=Telford|last=Taylor|year=1993|publisher=[[Little, Brown and Company]]|isbn=978-0-316-83400-1|accessdate=20 June 2013|page=[https://archive.org/details/anatomyofnuremb00tayl/page/3434]}}</ref><ref>{{cite book|url={{google books|plainurl=y|id=0PYx0j3wRVAC|page=7}}|title=Cornerstones of Security: Arms Control Treaties in the Nuclear Era|first1=Thomas|last1=Graham|first2=Damien J.|last2=Lavera|date=2003|pages=7–9|publisher=[[University of Washington Press]]|isbn=978-0-295-98296-0|accessdate=5 July 2013}}</ref>

The effect of poison gas was not limited to combatants. Civilians were at risk from the gases as winds blew the poison gases through their towns, and they rarely received warnings or alerts of potential danger. In addition to absent warning systems, civilians often did not have access to effective gas masks. An estimated 100,000–260,000 civilian casualties were caused by chemical weapons during the conflict and tens of thousands more (along with military personnel) died from scarring of the lungs, skin damage, and cerebral damage in the years after the conflict ended. Many commanders on both sides knew such weapons would cause major harm to civilians but nonetheless continued to use them. British [[Field marshal (United Kingdom)|Field Marshal]] [[Sir Douglas Haig]] wrote in his diary, "My officers and I were aware that such weapons would cause harm to women and children living in nearby towns, as strong winds were common in the battlefield. However, because the weapon was to be directed against the enemy, none of us were overly concerned at all."<ref>{{cite book|title=The Poisonous Cloud: Chemical Warfare in the First World War|first=L.F.|last=Haber|date=20 February 1986|pages=106–108|publisher=[[Clarendon Press]]|isbn=978-0-19-858142-0}}</ref><ref>{{cite book|title=Dew of Death: The Story of Lewisite, America's World War I Weapon of Mass destruction|first=Joel A.|last=Vilensky|date=20 February 1986|pages=78–80|publisher=[[Indiana University Press]]|isbn=978-0-253-34612-4}}</ref><ref>{{cite book|title=Handbook of Chemical and Biological Warfare Agents|first=D. Hank|last=Ellison|date=24 August 2007|

pages=567-570 |publisher=[[CRC Press]] |edition=2nd |isbn=978-0-8493-1434-6}}</ref><ref>{{cite book |title=War Made New: Weapons, Warriors, and the Making of the Modern World |first=Max |last=Boot |year=2007 |pages=245-250 |publisher=Gotham |isbn=978-1-59240-315-8}}</ref>

The war damaged chemistry's prestige in European societies, in particular the German variety.<ref>{{cite book|last=Johnson|first=Jeffrey Allan|editor5-first=Martin|editor5-last=Wolf|editor4-first=Florian|editor4-last=Schmaltz|editor3-first=Jürgen|editor3-last=Renn|editor2-first=Dieter|editor2-last=Hoffmann|editor1-first=Bretislav|editor1-last=Friedrich|title=One Hundred Years of Chemical Warfare: Research, Deployment, Consequences|chapter=Military-Industrial Interactions in the Development of Chemical Warfare, 1914-1918: Comparing National Cases Within the Technological System of the Great War|publisher=[[Springer Science+Business Media]]|year=2017|isbn=9783319516646|pp=147-148|doi=10.1007/978-3-319-51664-6|url=http://www.oapen.org/search?identifier=1002249}}</ref>

===Genocide and ethnic cleansing===

====Ottoman Empire====

{{See also|Armenian Genocide|Assyrian genocide|Greek genocide|Genocide denial}}
[[File:Morgenthau336.jpg|thumb|Armenians killed during the Armenian Genocide. Image taken from ''Ambassador Morgenthau's Story'', written by [[Henry Morgenthau, Sr.]] and published in 1918.<ref>{{cite book |author=Henry Morgenthau |title=Ambassador Mogenthau's story |publisher=Brigham Young University |chapter-url=http://net.lib.byu.edu/~rdh7/wwi/comment/morgenthau/Morgen25.htm |year=1918 |chapter=XXV: Talaat Tells Why He "Deports" the Armenians}}</ref>]]
[[File:Hromadná poprava srbského obyvatelstva.jpg|thumb|Austro-Hungarian soldiers executing men and women in Serbia, 1916<ref>{{cite book |last1=Honziík |first1=Miroslav |last2=Honziíková |first2=Hana |title=1914/1918, Léta zkázy a naděje |year=1984 |publisher=Panorama |location=Czech Republic}}</ref>]]

The [[ethnic cleansing]] of the Ottoman Empire's Armenian population, including mass deportations and executions, during the final years of the Ottoman Empire is considered [[genocide]].<ref name="IAGSletter">{{cite web |url=http://www.genocidewatch.org/TurkishPMIAGSOpenLetterreArmenia6-13-05.htm |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20071006024502/http://www.genocidewatch.org/TurkishPMIAGSOpenLetterreArmenia6-13-05.htm |archivedate=6 October 2007 |author=International Association of Genocide Scholars |title=Open Letter to the Prime Minister of Turkey Recep Tayyip Erdoğan |date=13 June 2005 |url-status=dead |df=|author-link=International Association of Genocide Scholars }}</ref> The Ottomans carried out organised and systematic massacres of the Armenian population at the beginning of the war and portrayed deliberately provoked acts of Armenian resistance as rebellions to justify further extermination.<ref name=leverkun>{{cite book |last=Vartparonian |first=Paul Leverkuehn |others=translated by Alasdair Lean; with a preface by Jorge and a historical introduction by Hilmar |title=A German officer during the Armenian genocide: a biography of Max von Scheubner-Richter |year=2008 |publisher=Taderon Press for the Gomidas Institute |location=London |isbn=978-1-903656-81-5 |url=https://books.google.com/books?id=_hItAQAAIAAJ |author2=Kaiser}}</ref> In early 1915, a number of Armenians volunteered to join the Russian forces and the Ottoman government used this as a pretext to issue the [[Tehcir Law]] (Law on Deportation), which authorised the deportation of Armenians from the Empire's eastern provinces to Syria between 1915 and 1918. The Armenians were intentionally [[Death march|marched to death]] and a number were attacked by Ottoman brigands.{{sfn |Ferguson |2006 |p=177}} While an exact number of deaths is unknown, the [[International Association of Genocide Scholars]] estimates 1.5 million.<ref name="IAGSletter"/><ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.genocidescholars.org/sites/default/files/document%09%5Bcurrent-page%3A1%5D/documents/US%20Congress_%20Armenian%20Resolution.pdf |title=International Association of Genocide Scholars |accessdate=12 March 2013}}</ref> The government of Turkey has consistently [[Armenian Genocide denial|denied the genocide]], arguing that those who died were victims of inter-

ethnic fighting, famine, or disease during World War I; these claims are rejected by most historians.^[Fromkin |1989 |pp=212-215]

Other ethnic groups were similarly attacked by the Ottoman Empire during this period, including Assyrians and [[Greek genocide|Greeks]], and some scholars consider those events to be part of the same policy of extermination.^{<ref>{{cite web |author=International Association of Genocide Scholars |url=http://www.genocidescholars.org/images/Resolution_on_genocides_committed_by_the_Ottoman_Empire.pdf |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20080422005726/http://genocidescholars.org/images/Resolution_on_genocides_committed_by_the_Ottoman_Empire.pdf |archivedate=22 April 2008 |url-status=dead |title=Resolution on genocides committed by the Ottoman empire |df=}}</ref><ref>{{cite book |last=Gaunt |first=David |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=4mug9LrpLKcC}} |title=Massacres, Resistance, Protectors: Muslim-Christian Relations in Eastern Anatolia during World War I |location=Piscataway, New Jersey |publisher=Gorgias Press |year=2006}}</ref><ref>{{cite journal |doi=10.1080/14623520801950820 |last1=Schaller |first1=Dominik J. |last2=Zimmerer |first2=Jürgen |year=2008 |title=Late Ottoman genocides: the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire and Young Turkish population and extermination policies - introduction |journal=Journal of Genocide Research |volume=10 |issue=1 |pages=7-14 |s2cid=71515470 }}</ref>} At least 250,000 Assyrian Christians, about half of the population, and 350,000–750,000 [[Greeks in Turkey|Anatolian]] and [[Pontic Greeks]] were killed between 1915 and 1922.^{<ref>{{cite book |last1=Whitehorn |first1=Alan |title=The Armenian Genocide: The Essential Reference Guide: The Essential Reference Guide |date=2015 |publisher=ABC-CLIO |pages=83, 218 |url=https://books.google.com/books?id=0vrnCQAAQBAJ&pg=PA218|isbn=978-1610696883 }}</ref>}

====Russian Empire====

{{Main|Anti-Jewish pogroms in the Russian Empire}}

{{See also|Urkun}}

<!--Approximately 200,000 Germans living in [[Volhynia]] and about 600,000 Jews were deported by the Russian authorities.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://lib.ndsu.nodak.edu/grhc/history_culture/history/people.html |title=A People on the Move: Germans in Russia and in the Former Soviet Union: 1763-1997 |publisher=North Dakota State University Libraries |accessdate=17 November 2009}}</ref><ref name="WWI and the Jews">{{cite web |url=http://www.myjewishlearning.com/history/Modern_History/1914-1948/WWI_and_the_Jews.shtml |title=WWI and the Jews |publisher=MyJewishLearning.com |accessdate=17 November 2009}}</ref><ref name="Timeline 1900s">{{cite web |url=https://www.loc.gov/exhibits/haventohome/timeline/haven-timeline_3.html |title=Timeline 1900s |publisher=The Library of Congress}}</ref> In 1916, an order was issued to deport around 650,000 [[Volga Germans]] to the east as well, but the Russian Revolution prevented this from being carried out.^{<ref>{{cite web |url=http://archive.prairiepublic.org/features/GFR/timeline.htm |title=The Germans from Russia: Children of the Steppe/Children of the Prairie |publisher=Prairie Public Broadcasting |accessdate=17 November 2009 }}{{Dead link|date=April 2019 |bot=InternetArchiveBot |fix-attempted=yes }}</ref>}-->

Many pogroms accompanied the [[Russian Revolution]] of 1917 and the ensuing Russian Civil War. 60,000–200,000 civilian Jews were killed in the atrocities throughout the former Russian Empire (mostly within the [[Pale of Settlement]] in present-day [[Ukraine]]).^{<ref>{{cite web |url=https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/judaica/ejud_0002_0016_0_15895.html |title=Pogroms |website=[[Encyclopaedia Judaica]] |publisher=Jewish Virtual Library |accessdate=17 November 2009}}</ref><!--<ref>{{cite encyclopedia |url=https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/History/modtimeline.html |title=Jewish Modern and Contemporary Periods (ca. 1700-1917) |encyclopedia=Jewish Virtual Library |accessdate=17 November 2009}}</ref>}--> There were an estimated 7–12 million casualties during the [[Russian Civil War]], mostly civilians.^{{{sfn |Mawdsley |2007 |p=[https://archive.org/details/russiancivilwar00evan/page/287 287]}}}

===Rape of Belgium===

{{Main|Rape of Belgium}}

The German invaders treated any resistance—such as sabotaging rail lines—as illegal and immoral, and shot the offenders and burned buildings in retaliation. In addition, they tended to suspect that most civilians were potential

'[[francs-tireurs]]' ([[guerrillas]]) and, accordingly, took and sometimes killed hostages from among the civilian population. The German army executed over 6,500 French and Belgian civilians between August and November 1914, usually in near-random large-scale shootings of civilians ordered by junior German officers. The German Army destroyed 15,000–20,000 buildings—most famously the university library at [[Leuven|Louvain]]—and generated a wave of refugees of over a million people. Over half the German regiments in Belgium were involved in major incidents.{{sfn |Horne |Kramer |2001 |loc=ch 1-2, esp. p. 76}} Thousands of workers were shipped to Germany to work in factories. British propaganda dramatising the [[Rape of Belgium]] attracted much attention in the United States, while Berlin said it was both lawful and necessary because of the threat of franc-tireurs like those in France in 1870.<ref>The claim of franc-tireurs in Belgium has been rejected: {{harvnb |Horne |Kramer |2001 |loc=ch 3-4}}</ref> The British and French magnified the reports and disseminated them at home and in the United States, where they played a major role in dissolving support for Germany.{{sfn |Horne |Kramer |2001 |loc=ch 5-8}}{{sfn |Keegan |1998 |pp=82-83}}

==Soldiers' experiences==

{{Main|List of last surviving World War I veterans by country|World War I casualties |Commonwealth War Graves Commission|American Battle Monuments Commission}}

The British soldiers of the war were initially volunteers but increasingly were [[conscription|conscripted]] into service. Surviving veterans, returning home, often found they could discuss their experiences only amongst themselves. Grouping together, they formed "veterans' associations" or "Legions". A small number of personal accounts of American veterans have been collected by the [[Library of Congress]] [[Veterans History Project]].<ref>{{Cite web |url=http://memory.loc.gov/diglib/vhp/search?query=&field=all&war=worldwari |title=Search Results (+(war:"worldwari")) : Veterans History Project |publisher=American Folklife Center, Library of Congress |access-date=23 May 2017}}</ref>

===Prisoners of war===

{{Main|World War I prisoners of war in Germany}}

[[File:German prisoners in a French prison camp. French Pictorial Service., 1917 - 1919 - NARA - 533724.tif|thumb|left|German prisoners in a French prison camp during the later part of the war]]

About eight million men surrendered and were held in [[Prisoner-of-war camp|POW camps]] during the war. All nations pledged to follow the [[Hague Conventions (1899 and 1907)|Hague Conventions]] on fair treatment of [[prisoners of war]], and the survival rate for POWs was generally much higher than that of combatants at the front.{{sfn |Phillimore |Bellot |1919 |pp=4-64}} Individual surrenders were uncommon; large units usually surrendered ''en masse''. At the siege of Maubeuge about 40,000 French soldiers surrendered, at the [[battle of Galicia]] Russians took about 100,000 to 120,000 Austrian captives, at the Brusilov Offensive about 325,000 to 417,000 Germans and Austrians surrendered to Russians, and at the Battle of Tannenberg 92,000 Russians surrendered. When the besieged garrison of [[Kaunas]] surrendered in 1915, some 20,000 Russians became prisoners, at the battle near [[Przasnysz]] (February–March 1915) 14,000 Germans surrendered to Russians, and at the First Battle of the Marne about 12,000 Germans surrendered to the Allies. 25–31% of Russian losses (as a proportion of those captured, wounded, or killed) were to prisoner status; for Austria-Hungary 32%, for Italy 26%, for France 12%, for Germany 9%; for Britain 7%. Prisoners from the Allied armies totalled about 1.4 million (not including Russia, which lost 2.5–3.5 million men as prisoners). From the Central Powers about

3.3million men became prisoners; most of them surrendered to Russians. {{sfn |Ferguson |1999 |pp=368-369}} Germany held 2.5million prisoners; Russia held 2.2-2.9million; while Britain and France held about 720,000. Most were captured just before the Armistice. The United States held 48,000. The most dangerous moment was the act of surrender, when helpless soldiers were sometimes gunned down.{{sfn |Blair |2005}}{{sfn |Cook |2006 |pp=637-665}} Once prisoners reached a camp, conditions were, in general, satisfactory (and much better than in World War{{nbsp}}II), thanks in part to the efforts of the [[International Red Cross]] and inspections by neutral nations. However, conditions were terrible in Russia: starvation was common for prisoners and civilians alike; about 15-20% of the prisoners in Russia died, and in Central Powers imprisonment 8% of Russians.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://profismart.ru/web/bookreader-115250-24.php|archive-url=https://archive.today/20130417092302/http://profismart.ru/web/bookreader-115250-24.php|url-status=dead|archive-date=17 April 2013 |title=Максим Оськин - Известные трагедии Первой мировой Пленные Дезертиры Беженцы - стр 24 - Читаем онлайн |publisher=Profismart.ru |accessdate=13 March 2013}}</ref> In Germany, food was scarce, but only 5% died.{{sfn |Speed |1990}}{{sfn |Ferguson |1999 |loc=Chapter 13}}{{sfn |Morton |1992}}

[[File:1stGazaBritishPrisoners00118v.jpg|thumb|British prisoners guarded by Ottoman forces after the [[First Battle of Gaza]] in 1917]] The Ottoman Empire often treated POWs poorly.{{sfn |Bass |2002 |p=107}} Some 11,800 British Empire soldiers, most of them Indians, became prisoners after the Siege of Kut in Mesopotamia in April 1916; 4,250 died in captivity.<ref>{{cite web |publisher=British National Archives |title=The Mesopotamia campaign |url=http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/pathways/firstworldwar/battles/mesopotamia.htm |accessdate=10 March 2007}}</ref> Although many were in a poor condition when captured, Ottoman officers forced them to march {{convert|1100|km|mi|0}} to Anatolia. A survivor said: "We were driven along like beasts; to drop out was to die."<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.awm.gov.au/stolenyears/ww1/turkey/story2.asp |publisher=Australian War Memorial |website=Stolen Years: Australian Prisoners of War |title=Prisoners of Turkey: Men of Kut "'Driven along like beasts'" |accessdate=10 December 2008 |url-status=dead |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20090108200459/http://www.awm.gov.au/stolenyears/ww1/turkey/story2.asp |archivedate=8 January 2009 |df=}}</ref> The survivors were then forced to build a railway through the [[Taurus Mountains]].

In Russia, when the prisoners from the [[Czech Legion]] of the Austro-Hungarian army were released in 1917, they re-armed themselves and briefly became a military and diplomatic force during the Russian Civil War.

While the Allied prisoners of the Central Powers were quickly sent home at the end of active hostilities, the same treatment was not granted to Central Power prisoners of the Allies and Russia, many of whom served as [[forced labour]], e.g., in France until 1920. They were released only after many approaches by the Red Cross to the [[Allied Supreme Council]].<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.icrc.org/Web/Eng/siteeng0.nsf/html/57JQGQ |title=ICRC in WWI: overview of activities |publisher=Icrc.org |accessdate=15 June 2010 |url-status=dead |archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20100719030032/http://www.icrc.org/web/eng/siteeng0.nsf/html/57JQGQ |archivedate=19 July 2010 |df=}}</ref> German prisoners were still being held in Russia as late as 1924.<ref>{{cite news |url=http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,768983,00.html |title=Germany: Notes |work=Time |date=1 September 1924 |accessdate=15 June 2010}}</ref>

===Military attachés and war correspondents===

{{Main|Military attachés and war correspondents in the First World War}} Military and civilian observers from every major power closely followed the course of the war. Many were able to report on events from a perspective somewhat akin to modern "[[embedded journalism|embedded]]" positions within the opposing land and naval forces.

==Support for the war==

[[File:Affiche-guerre Femmes-au-travail.jpg|thumb|upright=0.8|left|Poster urging women to join the British war effort, published by the [[Young Women's Christian Association]]]]

[[File:BVRC-Great-War-Contingent 1914.jpg|thumb|[[Bermuda Volunteer Rifle Corps]] First Contingent in Bermuda, winter 1914–1915, before joining [[Royal Lincolnshire Regiment|1 Lincolnshire Regiment]] in France in June, 1916. The dozen remaining after [[Capture of Gueudecourt|Guedecourt]] on 25 September 1916, merged with a Second Contingent. The two contingents suffered 75% casualties.]]

[[Image:Public Schools Battalion at White City 1916.jpg|thumb|right|A company of the [[Public Schools Battalion]] prior to the Battle of the Somme. The ''Public Schools Battalions'' were [[Pals battalion]]s raised as part of [[Kitchener's Army]], originally made up exclusively of former public schoolboys.]]

In the Balkans, [[Yugoslav nationalism|Yugoslav nationalists]] such as the leader, [[Ante Trumbić]], strongly supported the war, desiring the freedom of [[Yugoslavs]] from Austria-Hungary and other foreign powers and the creation of an independent Yugoslavia. The [[Yugoslav Committee]], led by Trumbić, was formed in Paris on 30 April 1915 but shortly moved its office to London.{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=1189}} In April 1918, the Rome Congress of Oppressed Nationalities met, including [[Czechoslovak]], [[Italians|Italian]], [[Poles|Polish]], [[Transylvanian]], and Yugoslav representatives who urged the Allies to support national [[self-determination]] for the peoples residing within Austria-Hungary.<ref name=autogenerated3/>

In the Middle East, [[Arab nationalism]] soared in Ottoman territories in response to the rise of Turkish nationalism during the war, with Arab nationalist leaders advocating the creation of a [[Pan-Arabism|pan-Arab]] state. In 1916, the Arab Revolt began in Ottoman-controlled territories of the Middle East in an effort to achieve independence.{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=117}}

In East Africa, [[Iyasu V]] of [[Ethiopian Empire|Ethiopia]] was supporting the [[Dervish state]] who were at war with the British in the [[Somaliland Campaign]].<ref>{{cite book |last1=Mukhtar |first1=Mohammed |title=Historical Dictionary of Somalia |year=2003 |publisher=Scarecrow Press |page=126 |url=https://books.google.com/books?id=DPwOs0cNy5YC&pg=PA126&dq=iyasu+dervish#v=onepage |accessdate=28 February 2017 |isbn=978-0810866041}}</ref> Von Syburg, the German envoy in [[Addis Ababa]], said, "now the time has come for Ethiopia to regain the coast of the Red Sea driving the Italians home, to restore the Empire to its ancient size." The Ethiopian Empire was on the verge of entering World War{{nbsp}}I on the side of the Central Powers before Iyasu's overthrow due to Allied pressure on the Ethiopian aristocracy.<ref>{{cite news |title=How Ethiopian prince scuppered Germany's WW1 plans |url=https://www.bbc.com/news/world-37428682 |accessdate=28 February 2017 |agency=BBC News |date=25 September 2016}}</ref> Iyasu was accused of converting to [[Islam]].<ref>{{cite book |last1=Ficquet |first1=Éloi |title=The Life and Times of Lij Iyasu of Ethiopia: New Insights |publisher=LIT Verlag Münster |page=185 |url=https://books.google.com/books?id=rMj7AgAAQBAJ&pg=PA185&dq=iyasu+alleged+conversion#v=onepage |isbn=9783643904768 |year=2014 }}</ref> According to Ethiopian historian [[Bahru Zewde]], the evidence used to prove Iyasu's conversion was a doctored photo of Iyasu wearing a turban provided by the Allies.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Zewde |first1=Bahru |title=A history |page=126}}</ref> Some historians claim the British spy [[T. E. Lawrence]] forged the Iyasu photo.<ref>{{cite book |last1=Ficquet |first1=Éloi |title=The Life and Times of Lij Iyasu of Ethiopia: New Insights |publisher=LIT Verlag Münster |page=62 |url=https://books.google.com/books?id=rMj7AgAAQBAJ&pg=PA62&dq=bahru+zewde+doctored+photo#v=onepage |isbn=9783643904768 |year=2014 }}</ref>

A number of socialist parties initially supported the war when it began in August 1914.<ref name=autogenerated3>{{harvnb |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |

But European socialists split on national lines, with the concept of [class conflict](#) held by radical socialists such as Marxists and [Syndicalism|syndicalists](#) being overborne by their patriotic support for the war.^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=1069] Once the war began, Austrian, British, French, German, and Russian socialists followed the rising nationalist current by supporting their countries' intervention in the war.^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=884]

[Italian nationalism](#) was stirred by the outbreak of the war and was initially strongly supported by a variety of political factions. One of the most prominent and popular Italian nationalist supporters of the war was [Gabriele d'Annunzio](#), who promoted [Italian irredentism](#) and helped sway the Italian public to support intervention in the war.^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=335] The [Italian Liberal Party](#), under the leadership of [Paolo Boselli](#), promoted intervention in the war on the side of the Allies and used the Dante Alighieri Society to promote Italian nationalism.^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=219] Italian socialists were divided on whether to support the war or oppose it; some were militant supporters of the war, including [Benito Mussolini](#) and [Leonida Bissolati](#).^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=209] However, the [Italian Socialist Party](#) decided to oppose the war after anti-militarist protestors were killed, resulting in a [general strike](#) called [Red Week \(Italy\)|Red Week](#).^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=596] The Italian Socialist Party purged itself of pro-war nationalist members, including Mussolini.^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=596] Mussolini, a syndicalist who supported the war on grounds of irredentist claims on Italian-populated regions of Austria-Hungary, formed the pro-interventionist '[Il Popolo d'Italia](#)' and the '[Fasci Rivoluzionario d'Azione Internazionalista](#)' ("Revolutionary [Fasci](#) for International Action") in October 1914 that later developed into the '[Fasci di Combattimento](#)' in 1919, the origin of fascism.^[Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=826] Mussolini's nationalism enabled him to raise funds from [Italian Ansaldo company|Ansaldo](#) (an armaments firm) and other companies to create '[Il Popolo d'Italia](#)' to convince socialists and revolutionaries to support the war.^[Dennis Mack Smith. 1997. 'Modern Italy; A Political History'. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. p. 284.]

==Opposition to the war==

[Main|Opposition to World War I|French Army Mutinies](#)

[File:Sackville Street \(Dublin\) after the 1916 Easter Rising.JPG|thumb|left|Sackville Street \(now \[O'Connell Street\]\(#\)\) after the 1916 \[Easter Rising\]\(#\) in \[Dublin\]\(#\)\]\]](#)

Once war was declared, many socialists and trade unions backed their governments. Among the exceptions were the Bolsheviks, the [Socialist Party of America](#), the Italian Socialist Party, and people like [Karl Liebknecht](#), [Rosa Luxemburg](#), and their followers in Germany.

[Benedict XV](#), elected to the papacy less than three months into World War I, made the war and its consequences the main focus of his early pontificate. In stark contrast to his [pope Pius X|predecessor](#),^{[[History of the Church](#) |year=1981 |publisher=Burns & Oates |location=London |isbn=978-0-86012-091-9 |translator-first=Margit |translator-last=Resch |volume=9 |series=The Church in the industrial age |first=Roger |last=Aubert |editor=Hubert Jedin |editor2=John Dolan |page=521 |chapter=Chapter 37: The Outbreak of World War I]} five days after his election he spoke of his determination to do what he could to bring peace. His first encyclical, '[Ad beatissimi Apostolorum](#)', given 1 November 1914, was concerned with this subject. Benedict XV found his abilities and unique position as a religious emissary of peace ignored by the belligerent powers. The 1915 Treaty of London between Italy and the Triple Entente included secret provisions whereby the Allies agreed with Italy to ignore papal peace moves towards the Central Powers. Consequently, the publication of Benedict's proposed [World War I#15 August 1917: peace offer by the Pope|seven-point Peace Note](#) of August 1917 was roundly ignored by all parties except Austria-Hungary.^{[[World War I#15 August 1917: peace offer by the Pope|seven-point Peace Note](#)]}

title=Who's Who - Pope Benedict XV |publisher=firstworldwar.com |date=22 August 2009 |url=http://www.firstworldwar.com/bio/popebenedict.htm}}</ref>

[[File:The Deserter.jpg|thumb|'The Deserter', 1916: Anti-war cartoon depicting Jesus facing a [[firing squad]] with soldiers from five European countries]]

In [[United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland|Britain]] in 1914, the [[Public Schools Act 1868|Public Schools]] [[Officers' Training Corps]] annual camp was held at Tidworth Pennings, near [[Salisbury Plain]]. Head of the British Army, [[Lord Kitchener of Khartoum|Lord Kitchener]], was to review the [[cadet]]s, but the imminence of the war prevented him. General [[Horace Smith-Dorrien]] was sent instead. He surprised the two-or-three thousand cadets by declaring (in the words of Donald Christopher Smith, a [[Bermuda|Bermudian]] cadet who was present),

<blockquote>that war should be avoided at almost any cost, that war would solve nothing, that the whole of Europe and more besides would be reduced to ruin, and that the loss of life would be so large that whole populations would be decimated. In our ignorance I, and many of us, felt almost ashamed of a British General who uttered such depressing and unpatriotic sentiments, but during the next four years, those of us who survived the holocaust—probably not more than one-quarter of us—learned how right the General's prognosis was and how courageous he had been to utter it.<ref>'"'Merely For the Record": The Memoirs of Donald Christopher Smith 1894–1980'". By Donald Christopher Smith. Edited by John William Cox, Jr. Bermuda.</ref></blockquote>

Voicing these sentiments did not hinder Smith-Dorrien's career, or prevent him from doing his duty in World War{{nbsp}}I to the best of his abilities.

[[File:1917 - Execution à Verdun lors des mutineries.jpg|thumb|left|Possible execution at [[Verdun]] at the time of the mutinies in 1917. The original French text accompanying this photograph notes, however, that the uniforms are those of 1914/15 and that the execution may be that of a spy at the beginning of the war.]]

Many countries jailed those who spoke out against the conflict. These included [[Eugene Debs]] in the United States and [[Bertrand Russell]] in Britain. In the US, the [[Espionage Act of 1917]] and [[Sedition Act of 1918]] made it a federal crime to oppose military recruitment or make any statements deemed "disloyal". Publications at all critical of the government were removed from circulation by postal censors,<ref name="Karp-PoW-1979"/> and many served long prison sentences for statements of fact deemed unpatriotic.

A number of nationalists opposed intervention, particularly within states that the nationalists were hostile to. Although the vast majority of Irish people consented to participate in the war in 1914 and 1915, a minority of advanced [[Irish nationalism|Irish nationalists]] staunchly opposed taking part.<ref>{{cite book |last=Pennell |first=Catriona |title=A Kingdom United: Popular Responses to the Outbreak of the First World War in Britain and Ireland |year=2012 |publisher=Oxford University Press |location=Oxford |isbn=978-0-19-959058-2}}</ref> The war began amid the Home Rule crisis in Ireland that had resurfaced in 1912, and by July 1914 there was a serious possibility of an outbreak of civil war in Ireland. Irish nationalists and Marxists attempted to pursue Irish independence, culminating in the [[Easter Rising]] of 1916, with Germany sending 20,000 rifles to Ireland to stir unrest in Britain.{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |p=584}} The UK government placed Ireland under [[martial law]] in response to the Easter Rising, though once the immediate threat of revolution had dissipated, the authorities did try to make concessions to nationalist feeling.<ref>O'Halpin, Eunan, "'The Decline of the Union: British Government in Ireland, 1892–1920'", (Dublin, 1987)</ref> However, opposition to involvement in the war increased in Ireland, resulting in the [[Conscription Crisis of 1918]].

Other opposition came from [[conscientious objector]]s—some socialist, some religious—who refused to fight. In Britain, 16,000 people asked for conscientious objector status.{{sfn |Lehmann |van der Veer |1999 |p=62}} Some of them, most notably prominent peace activist [[Stephen Henry Hobhouse]], refused

both military and [[alternative service]].<ref>Brock, Peter, ''These Strange Criminals: An Anthology of Prison Memoirs by Conscientious Objectors to Military Service from the Great War to the Cold War'', p. 14, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2004, {{ISBN|0-8020-8707-8}}</ref> Many suffered years of prison, including [[solitary confinement]] and bread and water diets. Even after the war, in Britain many job advertisements were marked "No conscientious objectors need apply".{{Cite quote |date=June 2017}}
[[File:Vladimir Lenin Leon Trotsky Lev Kamenev 1920.jpg|thumb|Bolshevik leaders [[Vladimir Lenin|Lenin]] and [[Leon Trotsky|Trotsky]] promised "Peace, Land and Bread" to the impoverished masses]]

The [[Central Asian Revolt]] started in the summer of 1916, when the Russian Empire government ended its exemption of Muslims from military service.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.country-data.com/cgi-bin/query/r-12499.html |title=Soviet Union - Uzbeks |publisher=Country-data.com |accessdate=13 March 2013}}</ref>

In 1917, a series of French Army Mutinies led to dozens of soldiers being executed and many more imprisoned.

On 1–4 May 1917, about 100,000 workers and soldiers of [[Saint Petersburg|Petrograd]], and after them, the workers and soldiers of other Russian cities, led by the Bolsheviks, demonstrated under banners reading "Down with the war!" and "all power to the soviets!" The mass demonstrations resulted in a crisis for the [[Russian Provisional Government]].<ref>{{cite book|author=Richard Pipes|title=The Russian Revolution|url=https://books.google.com/books?id=XtE54LuhFzEC&pg=PA407|year=1990|publisher=Knopf Doubleday|page=407|isbn=9780307788573}}</ref> In [[Milan]], in May 1917, Bolshevik revolutionaries organised and engaged in rioting calling for an end to the war, and managed to close down factories and stop public transportation.<ref name="Seton_6">Seton-Watson, Christopher. 1967. ''Italy from Liberalism to Fascism: 1870 to 1925''. London: Methuen & Co. Ltd. p. 471</ref> The Italian army was forced to enter Milan with tanks and machine guns to face Bolsheviks and [[Anarchism|anarchists]], who fought violently until 23 May when the army gained control of the city. Almost 50 people (including three Italian soldiers) were killed and over 800 people arrested.<ref name="Seton_6"/>

In September 1917, [[Russian Expeditionary Force in France|Russian soldiers in France]] began questioning why they were fighting for the French at all and mutinied.{{sfn |Cockfield |1997 |pp=171-237}} In Russia, opposition to the war led to soldiers also establishing their own revolutionary committees, which helped foment the [[October Revolution of 1917]], with the call going up for "bread, land, and peace". The [[Decree on Peace]], written by Vladimir Lenin, was passed on 8{{nbsp}}November 1917, following the success of the October Revolution.<ref>{{Cite web |url=http://staff.lib.msu.edu/sowards/balkan/lect16.htm|title=Legacy of 1917 and 1918|last=Sowers|first=Steven W.|date=|website=Michigan State University|archive-url=|archive-date=|url-status=|access-date=}}</ref> The Bolsheviks agreed to a peace treaty with Germany, the [[peace of Brest-Litovsk]], despite its harsh conditions. The [[German Revolution of 1918-1919]] led to the abdication of the Kaiser and German surrender.

==Conscription==

[[File:Young men registering for military conscription, New York City, June 5, 1917.jpg|thumb|Young men registering for conscription, [[New York City]], 5 June 1917]]

Conscription was common in most European countries. However, it was controversial in English-speaking countries. It was especially unpopular among minority ethnic groups—especially the Irish Catholics in Ireland and Australia,<ref>{{cite journal |first=Alan J. |last=Ward |title=Lloyd George and the 1918 Irish conscription crisis |journal=Historical Journal |year=1974 |volume=17 |issue=1 |pages=107-129 |doi=10.1017/S0018246X00005689 }}</ref> and the French Catholics in Canada.

===Canada===

{{Main|Conscription Crisis of 1917}}

In Canada the issue produced [[Conscription Crisis of 1917|a major political crisis that permanently alienated the Francophones]]. It opened a political gap between [[French Canadian]]s, who believed their true loyalty was to Canada and not to the British Empire, and members of the Anglophone majority, who saw the war as a duty to their British heritage.<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.cbc.ca/history/EPISCONTENTSE1EP12CH2PA3LE.html |title=The Conscription Crisis |publisher=CBC |date=2001}}</ref>

===Australia===

{{Main|Conscription in Australia}}

[[File:Melbourne recruiting WWI.jpg|thumb|Military recruitment in [[Melbourne]], [[Australia]], 1914]]

Australia had a form of conscription at the outbreak of the war, as compulsory military training had been introduced in 1911. However, the ''Defence Act 1903'' provided that unexempted males could be called upon only for home defence during times of war, not overseas service. Prime Minister Billy Hughes wished to amend the legislation to require conscripts to serve overseas, and held two non-binding referendums - [[1916 Australian conscription referendum|one in 1916]] and [[1917 Australian conscription referendum|one in 1917]] - in order to secure public support.<ref name=parl>{{cite news|url=https://www.aph.gov.au/About_Parliament/Parliamentary_Departments/Parliamentary_Library/pubs/rp/rp1415/ComParl|title=Commonwealth Parliament from 1901 to World War I|publisher=Parliament of Australia|date=4 May 2015|access-date=15 December 2018}}</ref> Both were defeated by narrow margins, with farmers, the [[Australian labour movement|labour movement]], the Catholic Church, and Irish-Australians combining to campaign for the "No" vote.<ref>J.M. Main, ''Conscription: the Australian debate, 1901-1970'' (1970) [http://espace.library.uq.edu.au/view/UQ:338722 abstract] {{webarchive |url=https://archive.today/20150707113023/http://espace.library.uq.edu.au/view/UQ:338722 |date=7 July 2015 }}</ref> The issue of conscription caused the [[Australian Labor Party split of 1916|1916 Australian Labor Party split]]. Hughes and his supporters were expelled from the party, forming the [[National Labor Party]] and then the [[Nationalist Party (Australia)|Nationalist Party]]. Despite the referendum results, the Nationalists won a landslide victory at the [[1917 Australian federal election|1917 federal election]].<ref name=parl/>

===Britain===

{{Main|Conscription in the United Kingdom}}

{{See also|Recruitment to the British Army during the First World War}}

[[File:British recruits August 1914 Q53234.jpg|thumb|British volunteer recruits in [[London]], August 1914]]

In Britain, conscription resulted in the calling up of nearly every physically fit man in Britain—six of ten million eligible. Of these, about 750,000 lost their lives. Most deaths were those of young unmarried men; however, 160,000 wives lost husbands and 300,000 children lost fathers.{{sfn |Havighurst |1985 |p=131}} Conscription during the First World War began when the British government passed the [[Military Service Act 1916|Military Service Act]] in 1916. The act specified that single men aged 18 to 40 years old were liable to be called up for military service unless they were widowed with children or ministers of a religion. There was a system of [[Military Service Tribunals]] to adjudicate upon claims for exemption upon the grounds of performing civilian work of national importance, domestic hardship, health, and conscientious objection. The law went through several changes before the war ended. Married men were exempt in the original Act, although this was changed in June 1916. The age limit was also eventually raised to 51 years old. Recognition of work of national importance also diminished, and in the last year of the war there was some support for the conscription of clergy.<ref>Chelmsford, J.E. "Clergy and Man-Power", ''[[The Times]]'' 15 April 1918, p. 12</ref> Conscription lasted until mid-1919. Due to the political situation in Ireland, conscription was never applied there; only in [[England]], [[Scotland]] and [[Wales]].

===United States===

{{Main|Conscription in the United States#World War I}}

In the United States, conscription began in 1917 and was generally well received, with a few pockets of opposition in isolated rural areas.<ref>{{cite book |first=John Whiteclay |last=Chambers |title=To Raise an Army: The Draft Comes to Modern America |location=New York |publisher=The Free Press |year=1987 |isbn=0-02-905820-1 |url-access=registration |url=https://archive.org/details/toraisearmydr00cham }}</ref> The administration decided to rely primarily on conscription, rather than voluntary enlistment, to raise military manpower for when only 73,000 volunteers enlisted out of the initial 1{{nbsp}}million target in the first six weeks of the war.<ref>{{cite book |first=Howard |last=Zinn |title=A People's History of the United States |location= |publisher=Harper Collins |year=2003 |page=134 |title-link=A People's History of the United States }}{{edition needed|date=September 2019}}</ref> In 1917 10 million men were registered. This was deemed to be inadequate, so age ranges were increased and exemptions reduced, and so by the end of 1918 this increased to 24 million men that were registered with nearly 3{{nbsp}}million inducted into the military services. The draft was universal and included blacks on the same terms as whites, although they served in different units. In all 367,710 black Americans were drafted (13% of the total), compared to 2,442,586 white (87%).

Forms of resistance ranged from peaceful protest to violent demonstrations and from humble letter-writing campaigns asking for mercy to radical newspapers demanding reform. The most common tactics were dodging and desertion, and many communities sheltered and defended their draft dodgers as political heroes. Many socialists were jailed for "obstructing the recruitment or enlistment service". The most famous was Eugene Debs, head of the Socialist Party of America, who ran for president in 1920 from his prison cell. In 1917 a number of radicals and anarchists challenged the new draft law in federal court, arguing that it was a direct violation of the Thirteenth Amendment's prohibition against slavery and involuntary servitude. The Supreme Court unanimously upheld the constitutionality of the draft act in the [[Selective Draft Law Cases]] on 7{{nbsp}}January 1918.

===Austria-Hungary===

Like all the armies of mainland Europe, Austria-Hungary relied on conscription to fill its ranks. Officer recruitment, however, was voluntary. The effect of this at the start of the war was that well over a quarter of the rank and file were Slavs, while more than 75% of the officers were ethnic Germans. This was much resented. The army has been described as being "run on colonial lines" and the Slav soldiers as "disaffected". Thus conscription contributed greatly to Austria's disastrous performance on the battlefield.<ref>{{Cite book |title=Catastrophe: Europe goes to War 1914 |last=Hastings |first=Max |publisher=Collins |year=2013 |isbn=978-0-00-746764-8 |location=London |pages=30, 140}}</ref>

==Diplomacy==

{{Main|Diplomatic history of World War I}}

[[File:Cartoon for a Telegram.jpg|thumb|1917 political cartoon about the [[Zimmermann Telegram]]. The message was intercepted by the British; its publication caused outrage and contributed to the [[American entry into World War I|U.S. entry into World War I]].]]

The non-military diplomatic and propaganda interactions among the nations were designed to build support for the cause, or to undermine support for the enemy. For the most part, wartime diplomacy focused on five issues: [[Propaganda in World War I|propaganda campaigns]]; defining and redefining the war goals, which became harsher as the war went on; luring neutral nations (Italy, Ottoman Empire, Bulgaria, Romania) into the coalition by offering slices of enemy territory; and encouragement by the Allies of nationalistic minority movements inside the Central Powers, especially among Czechs, Poles, and Arabs. In addition, there were multiple peace proposals coming from neutrals, or one side or the other; none of them progressed very far.{{sfn |Stevenson |1988 |p={{pn|date=July 2020}}}}<ref>{{cite book |first=Z. A. B. |last=Zeman |title=Diplomatic

History of the First World War |
url=https://archive.org/details/diplomatichistor0000zema |url-
access=registration |location=London |publisher=Weidenfeld and Nicolson |
year=1971 |isbn=0-297-00300-3 }}</ref><ref>See {{cite book |author=Carnegie
Endowment for International Peace |title=Official Statements of War Aims and
Peace Proposals: December 1916 to November 1918 |editor-first=James Brown |
editor-last=Scott |year=1921 |url=https://archive.org/details/cu31924016943106 |
publisher=Washington, D.C., The Endowment }}</ref>

==Legacy and memory==

{{quote |<poem>... "Strange, friend," I said, "Here is no cause to mourn."
"None," said the other, "Save the undone years"... </poem> |[[Wilfred
Owen]], ''Strange Meeting'', 1918<ref name="Wilfred Owen 2004"/>}}

{{quote |<poem>The War was an unprecedented triumph for natural science.
<nowiki></nowiki>[[Francis Bacon|Francis]]<nowiki></nowiki> Bacon had promised
that knowledge would be power, and power it was: power to destroy the bodies and
souls of men more rapidly than had ever been done by human agency before. This
triumph paved the way to other triumphs: improvements in transport, in
sanitation, in surgery, medicine, and psychiatry, in commerce and industry, and,
above all, in preparations for the next war.</poem> |[[R.G. Collingwood]],
writing in 1939.<ref>R.G. Collingwood ''An Autobiography'', 1939, p. 90.</ref>}}

The first tentative efforts to comprehend the meaning and consequences of modern warfare began during the initial phases of the war, and this process continued throughout and after the end of hostilities, and is still underway, more than a century later.

===Historiography===

Historian Heather Jones argues that the [[historiography]] has been reinvigorated by the cultural turn in recent years. Scholars have raised entirely new questions regarding military occupation, radicalisation of politics, race, and the male body. Furthermore, new research has revised our understanding of five major topics that historians have long debated: Why the war began, why the Allies won, whether generals were responsible for high casualty rates, how the soldiers endured the horrors of trench warfare, and to what extent the civilian homefront accepted and endorsed the war effort.<ref>{{cite journal |first=Heather |last=Jones |title=As the centenary approaches: the regeneration of First World War historiography |journal=[[Historical Journal]] |year=2013 |volume=56 |issue=3 |pages=857–878 [p. 858] |doi=10.1017/S0018246X13000216 }}</ref>

===Memorials===

{{Main|World War I memorials}}
[[File:Sacrario militare di Redipuglia agosto 2014.JPG|thumb|The Italian [[Redipuglia War Memorial]], which contains the remains of 100,187 soldiers]]

Memorials were erected in thousands of villages and towns. Close to battlefields, those buried in improvised burial grounds were gradually moved to formal graveyards under the care of organisations such as the [[Commonwealth War Graves Commission]], the [[American Battle Monuments Commission]], the [[German War Graves Commission]], and [[Le Souvenir français]]. Many of these graveyards also have central monuments to the missing or [[Tomb of the Unknown Soldier|unidentified]] dead, such as the [[Menin Gate]] memorial and the [[Thiepval Memorial to the Missing of the Somme]].

[[File:VERDUN-OSSUAIRE DE DOUAUMONT5.JPG|thumb|left|The French military cemetery at the [[Douaumont ossuary]], which contains the remains of more than 130,000 unknown soldiers]]

In 1915 [[John McCrae]], a Canadian army doctor, wrote the poem ''[[In Flanders Fields]]'' as a salute to those who perished in the Great War. Published in [[Punch (magazine)|''Punch'']] on 8{{nbsp}}December 1915, it is still recited today, especially on [[Armistice Day|Remembrance Day]] and [[Memorial Day]].<ref>{{cite journal |url=http://www.histori.ca/minutes/minute.do?id=10200

|title=John McCrae |journal=Nature |volume=100 |issue=2521 |pages=487-488 |
publisher=Historica |url-status=dead |
archiveurl=https://web.archive.org/web/20110609170125/http://www.historica.ca/minutes/minute.do?id=10200 |archivedate=9 June 2011 |df=|bibcode=1918Natur.100..487.
|year=1918 |doi=10.1038/100487b0 |s2cid=4275807 }}</ref><ref>{{cite journal |
url=http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/en/article/john-mccrae/ |first=Evans
|last=David |title=John McCrae |journal=Nature|volume=100 |issue=2521 |
pages=487-488 |bibcode=1918Natur.100..487. |year=1918 |doi=10.1038/100487b0 |
s2cid=4275807 }}</ref>

[[File:Pagny le Chateau monument morts 002b.jpg|thumb|A typical village [[war memorial]] to soldiers killed in World War I]]
[[National World War I Museum and Memorial]] in [[Kansas City, Missouri]], is a memorial dedicated to all Americans who served in World War{{nbsp}}I. The [[Liberty Memorial]] was dedicated on 1{{nbsp}}November 1921, when the supreme Allied commanders spoke to a crowd of more than 100,000 people.<ref name="kclibrary.org">{{cite web |url=http://www.kclibrary.org/blog/week-kansas-city-history/monumental-undertaking |title=Monumental Undertaking |website=kclibrary.org|date=21 September 2015 }}</ref>

The UK Government has budgeted substantial resources to [[World War I centenary|the commemoration of the war during the period 2014 to 2018]]. The lead body is the [[Imperial War Museum]].<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.1914.org |title=Commemoration website |publisher=1914.org |accessdate=28 February 2014}}</ref> On 3{{nbsp}}August 2014, French President [[Francois Hollande]] and German President [[Joachim Gauck]] together marked [[Centenary of the outbreak of World War I|the centenary of Germany's declaration of war on France]] by laying the first stone of a memorial in Vieil Armand, known in German as [[Hartmannswillerkopf]], for French and German soldiers killed in the war.<ref name="HartmannswillerkopfMemorial">{{Cite news |url=https://www.francenews.net/news/224398825/french-german-presidents-mark-world-war-i-anniversary |title=French, German Presidents Mark World War I Anniversary |access-date=3 August 2014 |publisher=France News.Net}}</ref>

===Cultural memory===

{{Further|World War I in popular culture}}
{{Globalize|section|Britain|date=June 2017}}
{{multiple image
| align = right
| image1 = John McCrae in uniform circa 1914.jpg
| width1 = 150
| alt1 =
| caption1 =
| image2 = Siegfried Sassoon by George Charles Beresford (1915).jpg
| width2 = 150
| alt2 =
| caption2 =
| footer = Left: [[John McCrae]], author of ''[[In Flanders Fields]]''
Right: [[Siegfried Sassoon]]
}}

World War I had a lasting impact on [[social memory]]. It was seen by many in Britain as signalling the end of an era of stability stretching back to the [[Victorian era|Victorian period]], and across Europe many regarded it as a watershed.<ref>{{cite book |first=Mark David |last=Sheftall |title=Altered Memories of the Great War: Divergent Narratives of Britain, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada |location=London |publisher=I. B. Tauris |year=2010 |isbn=978-1-84511-883-9 }}</ref> Historian [[Samuel Hynes]] explained:

{{quote |A generation of innocent young men, their heads full of high abstractions like Honour, Glory and England, went off to war to make the world safe for democracy. They were slaughtered in stupid battles planned by stupid generals. Those who survived were shocked, disillusioned and embittered by their war experiences, and saw that their real enemies were not the Germans, but the old men at home who had lied to them. They rejected the values of the society

that had sent them to war, and in doing so separated their own generation from the past and from their cultural inheritance.<ref name="Hynes1991"/>}}

This has become the most common perception of World War I, perpetuated by the art, cinema, poems, and stories published subsequently. Films such as ''[[All Quiet on the Western Front (1930 film)|All Quiet on the Western Front]]'', ''[[Paths of Glory]]'' and ''[[King & Country]]'' have perpetuated the idea, while war-time films including ''Camrades'', ''[[Poppies of Flanders]]'', and ''[[Shoulder Arms]]'' indicate that the most contemporary views of the war were overall far more positive.{{sfn |Todman |2005 |pp=153-221}} Likewise, the art of [[Paul Nash (artist)|Paul Nash]], [[John Nash (artist)|John Nash]], [[Christopher Nevinston]], and [[Henry Tonks]] in Britain painted a negative view of the conflict in keeping with the growing perception, while popular war-time artists such as [[Muirhead Bone]] painted more serene and pleasant interpretations subsequently rejected as inaccurate.<ref name="Hynes1991">{{cite book |last=Hynes |first=Samuel Lynn |authorlink=Samuel Hynes |title=A war imagined: the First World War and English culture |year=1991 |publisher=Atheneum |isbn=978-0-689-12128-9 |pages=i-xii}}</ref> Several historians like [[John Terraine]], [[Niall Ferguson]] and [[Gary Sheffield (historian)|Gary Sheffield]] have challenged these interpretations as partial and [[polemic]]al views:

<blockquote>These beliefs did not become widely shared because they offered the only accurate interpretation of wartime events. In every respect, the war was much more complicated than they suggest. In recent years, historians have argued persuasively against almost every popular cliché of World War{{nbsp}}I. It has been pointed out that, although the losses were devastating, their greatest impact was socially and geographically limited. The many emotions other than horror experienced by soldiers in and out of the front line, including comradeship, boredom, and even enjoyment, have been recognised. The war is not now seen as a 'fight about nothing', but as a war of ideals, a struggle between aggressive militarism and more or less liberal democracy. It has been acknowledged that British generals were often capable men facing difficult challenges, and that it was under their command that the British army played a major part in the defeat of the Germans in 1918: a great forgotten victory.{{sfn |Todman |2005 |pp=153-221}}</blockquote>

Though these views have been discounted as "myths",<ref name="Hynes1991"/><ref name="Fussell2000">{{cite book |last=Fussell |first=Paul |title=The Great War and modern memory |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=D9iNQYfeKdWC}} |accessdate=18 May 2010 |year=2000 |publisher=Oxford University Press |isbn=978-0-19-513332-5 |pages=1-78}}</ref> they are common. They have dynamically changed according to contemporary influences, reflecting in the 1950s perceptions of the war as "aimless" following the contrasting Second World War and emphasising conflict within the ranks during times of class conflict in the 1960s. The majority of additions to the contrary are often rejected.{{sfn |Todman |2005 |pp=153-221}}

===Social trauma===

[[File:Cover-of-book-for-WWI-veterans-by-William-Brown-Meloney-born-1878.jpg|thumb|upright=0.8|A 1919 book for veterans, from the [[United States Department of War|US War Department]]]]

The social trauma caused by unprecedented rates of casualties manifested itself in different ways, which have been the subject of subsequent historical debate.{{sfn |Todman |2005 |pp=xi-xv}}

The [[optimism]] of ''[[Belle Époque|la belle époque]]'' was destroyed, and those who had fought in the war were referred to as the [[Lost Generation]].{{sfn |Roden}} For years afterwards, people mourned the dead, the missing, and the many disabled.{{sfn |Wohl |1979}} Many soldiers returned with severe trauma, suffering from [[combat stress reaction|shell shock]] (also called neurasthenia, a condition related to [[posttraumatic stress disorder]]).{{sfn |Tucker |Roberts |2005 |pp=108-1086}} Many more returned home with few after-effects; however, their silence about the war contributed to the conflict's growing mythological

status. Though many participants did not share in the experiences of combat or spend any significant time at the front, or had positive memories of their service, the images of suffering and trauma became the widely shared perception. Such historians as Dan Todman, [[Paul Fussell]], and Samuel Heyns have all published works since the 1990s arguing that these common perceptions of the war are factually incorrect.^{[sfn |Todman |2005 |pp=xi-xv]}}

===Discontent in Germany===

The rise of [[Nazism]] and [[fascism]] included a revival of the nationalist spirit and a rejection of many post-war changes. Similarly, the popularity of the [[stab-in-the-back myth|stab-in-the-back legend]] (German: ''Dolchstoßlegende'') was a testament to the psychological state of defeated Germany and was a rejection of responsibility for the conflict. This conspiracy theory of betrayal became common, and the German populace came to see themselves as victims. The widespread acceptance of the "stab-in-the-back" theory delegitimised the Weimar government and destabilised the system, opening it to extremes of right and left.

Communist and fascist movements around Europe drew strength from this theory and enjoyed a new level of popularity. These feelings were most pronounced in areas directly or harshly affected by the war. [[Adolf Hitler]] was able to gain popularity by using German discontent with the still controversial Treaty of Versailles.^{<ref>{{cite web |url=http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwone/war_end_01.shtml |publisher=BBC |title=The Ending of World War One, and the Legacy of Peace |first=Martin |last=Kitchen}}</ref>} World War{{nbsp}}II was in part a continuation of the power struggle never fully resolved by World War{{nbsp}}I. Furthermore, it was common for Germans in the 1930s to justify acts of aggression due to perceived injustices imposed by the victors of World War{{nbsp}}I.^{[sfn |Baker |2006]}}^{<ref>{{cite encyclopedia |url=http://www.britannica.com/eb/article-9110199/World-War-II |title=World War II |encyclopedia=Encyclopædia Britannica |accessdate=12 November 2009}}</ref>}^{[sfn |Chickering |2004]}} American historian [[William Rubinstein]] wrote that:

<blockquote>The 'Age of Totalitarianism' included nearly all the infamous examples of genocide in modern history, headed by the Jewish Holocaust, but also comprising the mass murders and purges of the Communist world, other mass killings carried out by Nazi Germany and its allies, and also the Armenian Genocide of 1915. All these slaughters, it is argued here, had a common origin, the collapse of the elite structure and normal modes of government of much of central, eastern and southern Europe as a result of World War{{nbsp}}I, without which surely neither Communism nor Fascism would have existed except in the minds of unknown agitators and crackpots.^{<ref>{{cite book |last=Rubinstein |first=W.D. |year=2004 |url={{google books |plainurl=y |id=nMMAk4VwLLwC}} |title=Genocide: a history |publisher=Pearson Education |page=7 |isbn=978-0-582-50601-5}}</ref>}**</blockquote>**

===Economic effects===

{{See also|Economic history of World War I}}

[[File:The Girl Behind the Gun 1915.jpg|thumb|Poster showing women workers, 1915]]

One of the most dramatic effects of the war was the expansion of governmental powers and responsibilities in Britain, France, the United States, and the Dominions of the British Empire. To harness all the power of their societies, governments created new ministries and powers. New taxes were levied and laws enacted, all designed to bolster the [[war effort]]; many have lasted to this day. Similarly, the war strained the abilities of some formerly large and bureaucratised governments, such as in Austria-Hungary and Germany.

[[Gross domestic product]] (GDP) increased for three Allies (Britain, Italy, and the United States), but decreased in France and Russia, in neutral Netherlands, and in the three main Central Powers. The shrinkage in GDP in Austria, Russia,

France, and the Ottoman Empire ranged between 30% and 40%. In Austria, for example, most pigs were slaughtered, so at war's end there was no meat.

In all nations, the government's share of GDP increased, surpassing 50% in both Germany and France and nearly reaching that level in Britain. To pay for purchases in the United States, Britain cashed in its extensive investments in American railroads and then began borrowing heavily from [\[\[Wall Street\]\]](#). President Wilson was on the verge of cutting off the loans in late 1916, but allowed a great increase in [\[\[Federal government of the United States|US government\]\]](#) lending to the Allies. After 1919, the US demanded repayment of these loans. The repayments were, in part, funded by German reparations that, in turn, were supported by American loans to Germany. This circular system collapsed in 1931 and some loans were never repaid. Britain still owed the United States \$4.4 [\[\[1,000,000,000|billion\]\]](#)⁹ in this context - see [\[\[Long and short scales\]\]](#) of World War debt in 1934, the last instalment was finally paid in 2015.^{<ref>{{cite web |url=https://www.express.co.uk/news/uk/562830/First-World-War-debt-paid-off |title=Britain Finally pays off last of First World War debt as George Osborne redeems £1.9bn |work=Daily Express |first=Peter |last=Henn |date=9 March 2015 }}}</ref>

Macro- and micro-economic consequences devolved from the war. Families were altered by the departure of many men. With the death or absence of the primary wage earner, women were forced into the workforce in unprecedented numbers. At the same time, industry needed to replace the lost labourers sent to war. This aided the struggle for [\[\[suffragette|voting rights for women\]\]](#).^{<ref>{{cite book |last=Noakes |first=Lucy |title=Women in the British Army: War and the Gentle Sex, 1907-1948 |year=2006 |publisher=Routledge |location=Abingdon, England |isbn=978-0-415-39056-9 |page=48}}}</ref>

World War I further compounded the gender imbalance, adding to the phenomenon of [\[\[surplus women\]\]](#). The deaths of nearly one million men during the war in Britain increased the gender gap by almost a million: from 670,000 to 1,700,000. The number of unmarried women seeking economic means grew dramatically. In addition, demobilisation and economic decline following the war caused high unemployment. The war increased female employment; however, the return of demobilised men displaced many from the workforce, as did the closure of many of the wartime factories.

In Britain, rationing was finally imposed in early 1918, limited to meat, sugar, and fats (butter and [\[\[margarine\]\]](#)), but not bread. The new system worked smoothly. From 1914 to 1918, trade union membership doubled, from a little over four million to a little over eight million.

Britain turned to her colonies for help in obtaining essential war materials whose supply from traditional sources had become difficult. Geologists such as [\[\[Albert Ernest Kitson\]\]](#) were called on to find new resources of precious minerals in the African colonies. Kitson discovered important new deposits of [\[\[manganese\]\]](#), used in munitions production, in the [\[\[Gold Coast \(region\)|Gold Coast\]\]](#).^{<ref>{{sfn |Green |1938 |p=cxxvi}}}

Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles (the so-called "war guilt" clause) stated Germany accepted responsibility for "all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the war imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her allies."^{<ref>{{cite book |editor1=Anton Kaes |editor2=Martin Jay |editor3=Edward Dimendberg |title=The Weimar Republic Sourcebook |chapter-url=https://books.google.com/books?id=J4A1gt4-VCsC&pg=PA8 |chapter=The Treaty of Versailles: The Reparations Clauses |year=1994 |publisher=University of California Press |page=8 |isbn=978-0520909601}}}</ref> It was worded as such to lay a legal basis for reparations, and a similar clause was inserted in the treaties with Austria and Hungary. However neither of them interpreted it as an admission of war guilt."^{<ref>{{harvnb|Marks|1978|pp=231-232}}}</ref> In 1921, the total reparation sum was placed at 132 billion gold marks. However, "Allied

experts knew that Germany could not pay" this sum. The total sum was divided into three categories, with the third being "deliberately designed to be chimerical" and its "primary function was to mislead public opinion ... into believing the "total sum was being maintained."<ref name=Marks237>{{harvnb|Marks|1978|p=237}}</ref> Thus, 50 billion gold marks (12.5 billion dollars) "represented the actual Allied assessment of German capacity to pay" and "therefore ... represented the total German reparations" figure that had to be paid.<ref name=Marks237/>

This figure could be paid in cash or in kind (coal, timber, chemical dyes, etc.). In addition, some of the territory lost—via the treaty of Versailles—was credited towards the reparation figure as were other acts such as helping to restore the [[Library of Louvain]].<ref>{{harvnb|Marks|1978|pp=223–234}}</ref> By 1929, the [[Great Depression]] arrived, causing political chaos throughout the world.<ref>{{cite book |title=World War One: A Short History |first=Norman |last=Stone |location=London |publisher=Penguin |year=2008 |isbn=978-0-14-103156-9 }}</ref> In 1932 the payment of reparations was suspended by the international community, by which point Germany had paid only the equivalent of 20.598 billion gold marks in reparations.<ref>{{harvnb|Marks|1978|p=233}}</ref> With the rise of Adolf Hitler, all bonds and loans that had been issued and taken out during the 1920s and early 1930s were cancelled. [[David A. Andelman|David Andelman]] notes "refusing to pay doesn't make an agreement null and void. The bonds, the agreement, still exist." Thus, following the Second World War, at the [[Agreement on German External Debts|London Conference]] in 1953, Germany agreed to resume payment on the money borrowed. On 3{{nbsp}}October 2010, Germany made the final payment on these bonds.{{efn|World War I officially ended when Germany paid off the final amount of reparations imposed on it by the Allies.<ref>{{Cite news |title=First World War officially ends |url=https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/germany/8029948/First-World-War-officially-ends.html |website=The Telegraph |accessdate=15 March 2017 |quote=<!--The final payment of £59.5 million, writes off the crippling debt that was the price for one world war and laid the foundations for another.--> |first=Allan |last=Hall |date=28 September 2010 |location=Berlin}}</ref><ref>{{cite news |url=http://www.time.com/time/world/article/0,8599,2023140,00.html |title=Why Did World War I Just End? |last1=Suddath |first1=Claire |date=4 October 2010 |work=Time |accessdate=1 July 2013 |quote=<!--World War{{nbsp}}I ended over the weekend. Germany made its final reparations-related payment for the Great War on Oct. 3, nearly 92 years after the country's defeat by the Allies.-->}}</ref><ref>{{cite news |url=http://news.blogs.cnn.com/2010/09/30/world-war-i-to-finally-end-this-weekend/ |title=World War I to finally end for Germany this weekend |date=30 September 2010 |work=CNN |accessdate=15 March 2017 |quote=<!--Germany and the Allies can call it even on World War I this weekend.-->}}</ref><ref>{{cite news |url=https://www.nytimes.com/2010/12/26/opinion/26macmillan.html |title=Ending the War to End All Wars |date=25 December 2010 |work=The New York Times |accessdate=15 March 2017 |quote=<!--NOT many people noticed at the time, but World War I ended this year.--> |first=Margaret |last=MacMillan}}</ref>}}

The war contributed to the evolution of the [[wristwatch]] from women's jewellery to a practical everyday item, replacing the [[pocketwatch]], which requires a free hand to operate.<ref name="npr">{{cite web |url=https://www.npr.org/templates/transcript/transcript.php?storyId=521792062 |title=From Wristwatches To Radio, How World War I Ushered in the Modern World |publisher=NPR}}</ref> Military funding of advancements in radio contributed to the postwar popularity of the medium.<ref name="npr" />