Why World War I occurred and who was involved

Why alliances between world powers were important

What it was like to live and fight in the trenches

The role Australia played in World War I

The impact of World War I in shaping world history in the twentieth century

You will discover

Simpson and his donkey

‘He gave his life that others might live.’ This is the epitaph on the grave of Private John Simpson Kirkpatrick, one of many at the Beach Cemetery at Anzac Cove in Turkey.

Simpson and his actions have come to typify the service and sacrifice that inspired a nation, and lie at the heart of the Anzac legend. He led his donkey, Duffy, up and down the cliffs and gullies at Anzac Cove, collecting the wounded and carrying them to first-aid stations. He braved it all (the snipers, the artillery bombing and the bullets) for four weeks until his luck ran out. Simpson was one of more than 8000 young men from Australia who lost their lives during World War I while fighting at Gallipoli.

1 Suggest why Simpson was given his epitaph.

2 What qualities of character do Simpson’s actions suggest he possessed?

3 Do you think these qualities — which exemplify memories of Australia’s involvement in Gallipoli — are typical of young Australian men today? Justify your answer.

4 Do you think the Turks (Australia’s enemy at Anzac Cove) had heroes like Simpson? Explain.

5 Why do you think that, of all those men killed at Gallipoli, Simpson is especially remembered?

6 Do you think Simpson was a significant Australian? Explain.
The Great War — an overview

World War I, called the Great War before 1939, was generally expected to be only a minor conflict that would be quickly resolved. It lasted four years, causing massive devastation, loss of life and human suffering, and changed the face of Europe and beyond. The world would never be quite the same again.

The war began on 28 July 1914, triggered by an assassin’s bullet one month earlier (see page 7). It ended on 11 November 1918. Over four years of conflict, 28 countries (including several empires) were involved, with some nine million fighting personnel killed and 21 million wounded. These figures do not include the countless millions of civilians killed or injured. The losses were on a scale previously unknown in war.

A number of factors led to the ‘war to end all wars’. Nationalism (see pages 4, 8–9) was becoming a strong force fanned by propaganda designed to whip up emotions. Those stirring up patriotic feelings probably had no idea what the outcome of their actions would be, as there had never before been a global war. From the late nineteenth century on, countries had been forming alliances with one another, sometimes shifting these allegiances when their interests changed (see page 5 for an outline of how these alliances helped to push countries into the war). Conscription in many countries was helping to build strong armies ready to fight. And new weapons and war machinery were capable of generating death and destruction on a level previously unknown.

The participants

World War I was fought between two groups of countries — the Allies and the Central Powers (some of the Allies were not directly involved although they lent support). The Allies comprised the British Empire, France, Italy, Russia, Belgium, the United States (from 1917), Greece, Portugal, Rumania, China, Japan, Brazil, Costa Rica, Cuba, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Liberia, Montenegro, Nicaragua, Panama, San Marino, Serbia and Siam. The Central Powers comprised Austria–Hungary, Bulgaria, Germany and the Ottoman Empire.

The war began in the Balkans, where many other small wars had already occurred. It flared into fighting on a wide range of fronts: the Western Front, the Eastern Front, the Italian Front, the Palestine Front, the Mesopotamia Front, and even in Africa (the Battle of Tanga). There were wars in the air and wars at sea, including the Battle of Jutland (1916).
The impact of the war
The war’s most obvious impact was the huge toll of dead and injured (with the economic, social and emotional consequences this produced), and the massive devastation of built and natural environments. Towns were flattened, farms burned to the ground and infrastructure such as bridges and railway lines destroyed. Countries were economically exhausted (some ruined) by the costs of the war, and four monarchies (in Russia, Germany, Austria–Hungary and the Ottoman Empire) were toppled.

There were also longer term consequences for the modern world:
- The United States emerged on the world stage as a seemingly reluctant yet influential global player.
- A revolution occurred in Russia, which set the scene for decades of tension between the world’s communist countries and those dominated by capitalism.
- Millions of people were uprooted, in many cases losing both their homes and their livelihoods. Many former rural workers drifted to the cities, changing the character of urban centres.
- Social relations began to change: women, who had had to be self-reliant during the war, began pushing for a new independence, and the aristocracy in western societies lost influence and prestige as a social class.
- The pre-war view that European civilisation was better than others was shattered.

**Activities**

**REMEMBER**

1. (a) In general terms, explain why World War I was such a significant event in world history.
   (b) Was it well named the ‘Great War’? Explain.

**THINK**

2. Suggest why new military technology contributed to the massive loss of life and injuries suffered by troops during the war.
3. Discuss these questions as a class:
   (a) Why might nationalism (see pages 8–9) often ‘sow the seeds’ for conflict between countries?
   (b) Can you think of any ways these feelings can be encouraged without becoming potential forces for conflict? Discuss as a class.
4. One of the longer term impacts of World War I was that western countries became more democratic in outlook: the idea of the aristocracy as the superior group in society was weakened. Why do you think this occurred?

**COMMUNICATE**

5. Use an atlas to find the names of five towns or villages currently located within areas once defined as (a) the Western Front and (b) the Eastern Front. Suggest how these places, and their people, might have been affected in both the short and long term by the conflict.

**INQUIRE**

6. Visit the website for this book and click on the World War I timeline weblink for this chapter (see ‘Weblinks’, page 315). Select four key events that especially interest you from the timelines provided for each of the four years of the war. Find out more about each (using the Internet or other sources). Present your findings to the class by way of a short talk, annotated visual display or PowerPoint display. Consider, for each, its significance to the overall course of the war.

**I CAN:**

- appreciate why World War I was such a significant world event
- think about some of the causes and consequences of the war
- investigate and report on selected key events during the war.
The causes of World War I

World War I began in 1914. However, its causes can be tracked back to the tensions and strained relationships between the Great Powers that had existed for many years. (The Great Powers were Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany, the United States, Italy and the Turkish Ottoman Empire.) Europe was a powder keg waiting to explode; it was just a matter of when and where.

At the start of the twentieth century the Great Powers each controlled huge professional armies made up of millions of well-trained men. Germany was recognised as having the biggest and best-trained army. However, Great Britain had the most powerful navy, with 49 warships, including the huge battleship HMS Dreadnought, to Germany’s 29 when war was declared.

Tensions and uncertainty were created in Great Britain and throughout Europe when the German leader, Kaiser Wilhelm II, announced a building program to develop Germany’s navy. The economics of the Great Powers were all booming at the time, and their leaders had plenty of money to spend on developing their military might. These nations were also highly industrialised for the time. New weapons and technologies meant that war could be fought on a larger, more devastating scale.

Long-term factors

Four long-term factors pushed the world towards the outbreak of World War I. They were nationalism, imperialism, militarism and alliances. These factors are explained on these pages.

NATIONALISM

Nationalists develop strong loyalties towards their own country — and to its political and economic goals — together with a belief that the needs of their country are more important than those of others. Nationalism began to sweep through Europe in the 1800s, helping to forge alliances between peoples sharing common languages, cultures and histories (see pages 8–9). Inevitably this brought nations and alliances into conflict. Intense patriotism helped to fan small disagreements, which might otherwise have been resolved through diplomacy, into much bigger conflicts.

Source A

This political cartoon represents some of the tensions between European powers in the early twentieth century, as they jostled one another for power and sought to form alliances. Here Kaiser Wilhelm II pushes between England and France to pass a secret note to France: ‘Meet me at Morocco.’
**Imperialism**

One way in which European countries tried to strengthen their power and influence was by establishing large empires, often in far-flung regions of the world. The colonies that made up these empires provided land for population expansion, raw materials for industry, markets for trade and investment, military bases to boost the strategic position of the colonising power, and extra troops in case of war. By the turn of the nineteenth century, large parts of Africa and Asia had been claimed as colonies by European powers, as had what we now call Australia. Although Australia federated in 1901, colonial loyalties to ‘mother England’ were still strong in the country at the time war broke out. Many former colonists would have felt it was their duty to help defend Britain.

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**Alliances**

A number of alliances were formed between European countries (and other countries such as Japan) leading up to World War I. These agreements generally meant that if one country was attacked, other members of the alliance were expected to come to their aid — whether or not they wanted to fight. These defensive alliances divided Europe and increased suspicions and tensions. Two of the most significant were:

- the Triple Alliance of 1882 between Germany, Italy and the empire of Austria-Hungary
- the Triple Entente of 1907 between France, Russia and Great Britain, formed as a defence against any aggression by the Triple Alliance.

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**Militarism**

Militarism is an ideology geared to building up large military forces. In the years leading up to World War I, all the Great Powers of Europe were very active in increasing the strength and size of their fighting forces both through conscription and through the introduction of new military technologies. Nationalism encouraged such activity. Germany, which already had the strongest army, began building up its naval power to counter Britain’s dominance at sea. This shifted the power balance; Britain responded by further strengthening its own navy.
Background to the Serbian resistance

The Austro-Hungarian Empire was made up of the former Austrian empire and the Kingdom of Hungary (see map on page 3). The union between Austria and Hungary, which took place in 1867, meant that each country had its own government, but that they worked together with respect to military matters and foreign relations.

Bosnia-Herzegovina had been absorbed into the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1908. Many Bosnians, especially Bosnian Serbs, deeply resented the occupation. Both Serbia, which lay outside the empire, and Bosnia-Herzegovina were Slavic countries. Many people in both countries believed in the unity of all Slavic people and their right to self-government, rather than their division by artificial political boundaries.

The trigger

The long-term factors described on pages 4–5 created an explosive ‘powder keg’ in Europe — war was just waiting to happen. The fuse that lit it was the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife, Sophie, on 28 June 1914 during an official visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia.

Gavrilo Princip (right) was a member of the Serbian terrorist group Black Hand, which supported a union between Bosnia and Serbia.
The archduke was heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire; his assassin was 19-year-old Gavrilo Princip, a member of the Serbian nationalist group Black Hand. The group supported a union between Bosnia-Herzegovina and Serbia.

Outcome of the assassination
Austria–Hungary had long sought an excuse to attack Serbia, which it believed threatened its position of influence in the Balkan region: the assassination provided that excuse. On 23 July Austria–Hungary issued Serbia with an ultimatum demanding that the assassin be brought to justice. As expected, Serbia refused, instead asking for an international conference to resolve matters. Austria–Hungary dismissed this request, declaring war on Serbia on 28 July 1914.

Austria–Hungary expected that Serbia’s ally Russia would do no more than issue a diplomatic protest. If Russia did join the fight, though, Austria–Hungary could expect support from its ally Germany. Russia did. One by one, as the diagram opposite illustrates, countries took sides in defence of their allies. The declarations of war snowballed.

This illustration appeared in a French magazine shortly after the assassination. The caption read: ‘The assassination of the Archduke, Austrian heir, and the Duchess, his wife, in Sarajevo.’

Activities

REMÉMBER
1 List some of the long-term reasons why there were tensions in Europe prior to 1914.
2 Who was Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and why was his assassination so significant?

THINK
3 One important skill a historian needs to develop is to see connections between causes and consequences. Copy and complete the following table. Think of as many consequences as you can for each of the four main long-term causes of World War I. One has been suggested for each cause to get you started.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nationalism</td>
<td>Sense of unity among people of a country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperialism</td>
<td>Importance of transport routes between a country and its colonies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Militarism</td>
<td>More employment in munitions industries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alliances</td>
<td>More negotiations between countries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

COMMUNICATE
4 (a) Do you think nationalism, imperialism and militarism influence today’s world? Discuss as a class, based on your general knowledge, giving examples to support any opinions you give.
(b) What links do you think can be drawn between the world as it was in 1914 and the world today, and what lessons for the future do these links suggest? Share your views with others.

5 (a) Study the detail of source B carefully. This diagram lists only the main declarations of war between the Allies and the Central Powers during the course of World War I. Discuss as a class to what extent you think the pre-war alliances were the predominant cause of the war.
(b) To what extent do you think defensive alliances between countries are important in the world today? Are you aware of any? Give examples.

INQUIRE
6 (a) Why do you think assassination is sometimes used as a means to secure political or military outcomes?
(b) Find out how many political leaders have been assassinated since 1914. Investigate one in more detail, reporting your findings in small groups. Include comment on why you think the person might have been assassinated, and the outcome.

Learning

I CAN:
- appreciate that there were both long-term and immediate causes of World War I
- think about the links between causes and consequences of factors contributing to World War I
- understand the importance of alliances
- investigate and discuss other modern-day assassinations.
Rising nationalism was one of the forces helping to push nations to war in 1914. In fact, the shape of the modern world as we know it is very much a result of nationalism. The origins of nationalism, though, go back much further than the early twentieth century. This spread provides some background on the rise of this powerful, patriotic force.

What is a nation?
A nation is created when a group of people share a ‘homeland’. Nationalism is the belief in the shared values and identity of those people. It unifies people through such things as cultural symbols, music, literature, religion, language, costumes, foods and folklore.

Where did nationalism start?
Historians debate what single event marks the birth of the modern nation. One important step, however, occurred in 1648 when an agreement was reached to end the Thirty Years War. The agreement, called the Treaty of Westphalia, recognised the territory and independence of a number of European states.

The French Revolution
The French Revolution of 1789 was another key event marking the growing political power of nationalist movements in Europe. The revolutionary slogan ‘Liberty, Equality and Fraternity [brotherhood]’ marked an end to the age when European kings could expect to rule with absolute power over people with no political rights.

Revolution in France plunged Europe into 25 years of almost continuous war, ending in 1815 with the defeat of the French general (and self-declared emperor) Napoleon Bonaparte, at Waterloo. Napoleon had earlier used some of the ideals (i.e. principles) of the revolution to organise governments in territories he had conquered — abolishing feudalism and promoting constitutional government, religious tolerance and equality before the law.

The 1848 revolutions
After Napoleon’s defeat, the crowns of Europe sought to claw back the power they had held before the French Revolution, but the people had now ‘tasted’ liberty. In 1848 popular revolutions broke out in many European countries as people fought for political and legal rights. The desire for nationhood and independent government was also strong.

The Fundamental Rights of the German People
I. The German people consists of the citizens of the states which make up the German Reich. Every German has the rights of German citizenship . . .
II. No privilege of rank is valid before the law. Nobility is abolished as a rank . . . Every public office is open equally to all who are qualified.
III. The freedom of the individual is inviolable . . .
IV. Every German has the right to express his opinion freely in speaking, writing, printing, or pictorial representation. The freedom of the press may under no circumstances and in no way be limited, suspended, or annulled by means of preventive rules, namely censorship . . .

Source B
In 1848, after discussion about a union of German states took place in Frankfurt, a document called The Fundamental Rights of the German People was issued.

Progress was slow, but in 1871 a newly united Germany emerged. A revival in national languages, history, traditions and culture accompanied the unification of both Germany and Italy, and independence movements swept through countries such as Ireland, Greece, Belgium and Hungary.

Source A
French artist Eugène Delacroix’s view of the French Revolution in his 1830 painting entitled Liberty Leading the People
The spread of ideas

Powerful and inspirational people such as Giuseppe Mazzini (1805–1872) became nationalist idols. Mazzini was a member of an Italian revolutionary group called the Carbonari. Forced into exile, he formed a nationalist movement called Giovane Italia (Young Italy). He became the focus of the movement for Italian unification and independence, and a role model for young nationalist leaders across Europe.

‘The question of Italy is ... a question of Nationality; a question of independence, liberty, and unity for the whole of Italy; a question of a common bond, of a common flag, of a common life and law for twenty-five millions of men belonging between the Alps and the sea — to the same race, tradition, and aspiration.’


An excerpt from a letter written by Mazzini in 1857

Although nationalism in Europe at this time was in many ways a positive force, it was also becoming destructive. In France, for example, it resulted in bitter quarrels over political loyalty and intense competition with the other Great Powers of Europe. British naval supremacy was threatened when German nationalists enthusiastically promoted the building of a navy to rival it (see page 4).

New territorial disputes led to a number of brief wars, such as the Seven Weeks’ War of 1866.

By the end of the nineteenth century most people accepted the national borders of Europe. The ideals of nationalism had also spread to Asia. In India, for example, nationalism was beginning to encourage calls for an end to colonial British rule. Around the globe, nationalism would set the course of modern history. It was a cause that millions of people would die for — not only in World War I but also in the many conflicts that followed.

7 In light of the background information provided in this spread, discuss in small groups why nationalism was such a potentially dangerous force in Europe before the outbreak of World War I. Consider, for example, how it might have contributed to the speed with which nations rushed to war.

**DESIGN AND CREATIVITY**

8 Imagine you are a nineteenth-century nationalist. Create a poster to communicate the concept of nationalism, using the ideas expressed by Mazzini (see source C) and in the *Fundamental Rights of the German People* (source B) as the basis for your work. Provide and consider feedback from others on your finished work; suggest at least one way in which this feedback helps you to complete similar tasks better.

**I CAN:**

- explain what nationalism is and how it affected nineteenth-century Europe
- appreciate why nationalism was a factor that helped to bring about World War I
- demonstrate my understanding of nationalism in a poster.
When World War I broke out in 1914, Australia had been a nation for only 13 years (following the federation of its six colonies on 1 January 1901). Like many other countries, the new nation had no direct reason to be involved in the conflict in Europe. There were big political, social and economic changes to grapple with on the home front. Yet ties with Britain remained very strong.

In 1914 Australia was quickly finding its feet as a young nation, but it was still a part of the large and powerful British Empire, just as Papua New Guinea was part of the German Empire and Indochina was part of the French Empire. Many Australians still held dear the connection with Britain, and continued to see England as 'home'. All of the basic systems of government, law and education in Australia at the time were based on British models. Importantly, Australia still depended on Britain for its defence. Hence, a great deal of patriotic fervour greeted the news in Australia that Britain had entered the war; Australia quickly followed. Labor Prime Minister Andrew Fisher pledged that Australia would help England 'to the last man and the last shilling'.

Unfortunately, most young men then thought that going off to war would be 'a great adventure' and a chance to 'see the world'. Some joined because the army offered regular food and pay. It was generally believed that the war would end quickly and few people would get hurt.

The decade or so before the outbreak of World War I was a time of rapid change for Australians. In 1901 Australia had become one nation with a Federal Parliament and Constitution. The following year, women were given the right to vote in federal elections and by 1907 trade unions were petitioning the government for a 'basic wage'. By 1913 a location was found for the new national capital, to be called Canberra.

Instead of a confusion of names and geographical divisions, which so perplexes many people at a distance, we shall be Australians, and a people with 7000 miles of coast, more than 2 000 000 square miles of land, with 4 000 000 of population, and shall present ourselves to the world as 'Australia'. We shall at once rise to a higher level; we shall occupy a larger place in the contemplation of mankind.

A call to arms

World War I saw Australians come together to defend their nation for the first time. Even though they were still under British command, Australian soldiers wore their own country's uniform, obeyed the orders of their own officers, and fought and died under their own flag. When the government initially called for 20 000 volunteers for the Australian Imperial Force (AIF), they received 50 000 responses.
The people of Australia quickly rallied behind the ‘call to arms’, generally providing unquestioning support of Britain and its war efforts.

During World War I, four out of every ten Australian men between the ages of 18 and 45 joined up. About 330 000 were sent to fight overseas. More than 59 000 were killed. Another 167 000 were wounded and 4000 were taken prisoner. Men were not the only volunteers, however. The Army Nursing Service saw more than 2000 Australian women serving overseas. Twenty-one of them died abroad.

The British and Australian governments produced recruitment posters to encourage as many Australians as possible to join up.

To sum up my motives for enlisting, I would say:
1. To a small degree a spirit of adventure and a desire to see other parts of the world.
2. A sense of duty to Australia, although not so significant as our country seemed so far away from the hostilities.
3. To go along with my contemporaries and support one’s comrades in the field.
4. To a greater extent possibly than the three previous motives was the desire to help the Motherland in her hour of need.

*Quoted in J. N. I. Dawes and L. L. Robson, Citizen to Soldier, Melbourne University Press, Melbourne, 1977*

One soldier’s recollections of his motives for enlisting

**Activities**

**THINK**

1. (a) What significant events took place in Australia in the early 1900s? Why were they important in forging Australia as a nation?
   (b) How do you think these events would have shaped the mood and attitude of many of Australia’s people?

2. Why did so many young Australians rush to enlist in the war effort?

3. Explain in your own words what Andrew Fisher meant by ‘to the last man and the last shilling’. What does this tell you about Australia’s commitment to support Britain at this time?

**COMMUNICATE**

4. Use the statistics given in this spread to create a pie chart of what happened to the 330 000 or so Australian men who were sent to fight overseas. (You will need to calculate, and name, the ‘other’ segment of the chart from these statistics.)

5. Imagine that you are a young person who has decided to enlist in the Australian Imperial Force. Write a letter to your boyfriend or girlfriend explaining your decision.

**SELF-DISCOVERY**

6. Look at the recruitment posters (primary sources) opposite.
   (a) What messages is each communicating?
   (b) Why do you think such posters were considered necessary?
   (c) Based on what you know about Australia at the time, do you think they would have appealed to young men? Why or why not?
   (d) If such posters were produced today, do you think they would be effective in encouraging young Australians to enlist to fight? Give examples to back your opinion.
   (e) What sort of message, if any, would encourage you to fight for Australia or to support Australian military efforts in the global arena today? Explain.
In any conflict, each side will see the event from its own viewpoint. Both sides in World War I — the Allies and the Central Powers — believed that victory was rightfully theirs and that the war would be quickly settled. They were both wrong.

As different countries joined the war effort, each had varying motives and plans for how they would implement their military strategies.

**French viewpoint**

France was intent on winning back Alsace and Lorraine, territories it had lost to Germany after the Franco-Prussian War of 1870–71. France believed this goal was possible for three reasons:

- It imagined its troops were full of *élan vital* (a fierce fighting spirit that would enable them to overcome any enemy).
- It assumed that Germany would not enter neutral Belgium for fear of Britain's reaction.
- It thought that the German army was not especially strong.

All these assumptions proved wrong. Within weeks of entering the war, France was forced to abandon its plans of attack and instead adopt defensive strategies against Germany.

**German viewpoint**

From the German point of view, every US ship could potentially be carrying arms to help the Allied war effort, and so became a fair target for attack by German submarines, or U-boats.

The sinking of the US liner *Lusitania* in May 1915 nearly brought an end to America’s policy of neutrality, as did the sinking in April the following year of the British passenger ship *Sussex*, carrying several US citizens.

Eventually the repeated threats posed by German submarines against her shipping brought the United States into the war.

**United States viewpoint**

The United States did not enter World War I until 6 April 1917. Its neutrality until this time reflected the strong opinion of its people that the war in Europe had nothing to do with them. As the war progressed, however, US support for the Allies increased both in principle and by way of provisions to Allied powers such as Britain and France. As a result, American commercial shipping increased greatly during the first three years of the war.

**Source A**

The disputed territory of Alsace–Lorraine

**Source B**

For 90 years historians have investigated the sinking of the *Lusitania*, shown here in an artist’s representation, to determine whether it was really carrying munitions for the British, as Germany claimed.
Germany’s Schlieffen Plan

Germany faced a dilemma: it had an enemy to the west (France) and a bigger one to the east (Russia). Its plan of attack, first developed by Count Alfred von Schlieffen in 1905, was to launch a sudden killer blow against France (which it expected to defeat in a mere six weeks), so it could then devote most of its resources to defeating Russia.

The German approach was to mobilise a large force and advance into northern France with all speed: this meant, among other things, marching across the flat land of neutral Belgium — something the French did not expect. The plan, therefore, was to take the French by surprise, sweeping down in a wide arc from the north to capture Paris from the rear. Germany counted on the bulk of the French army’s being aligned along their shared border, where the French had built fortresses as part of their plan to recapture Alsace and Lorraine.

The Schlieffen Plan almost succeeded. But German hopes of quick victory were not realised. French and Belgian resistance proved much stronger than expected. The great distances over which German troops were stretched meant supply and communication lines were long and unreliable. Both sides began to dig trenches to defend the ground they held. At first these were meant only to provide temporary shelter against the oncoming winter. But by early 1915 lines of opposing trenches had been dug from the coast of Belgium all the way to the Swiss border. The land around these trench systems, in which bitter fighting took place over the next three years, became known as the Western Front (for more information on the war fronts see page 3 and worksheet 4.1).

The Schlieffen Plan was designed to bring about a quick defeat of France so that Germany could send its troops to defend the Eastern Front against the Russian Army.

**Activities**

**REMEMBER**
1. What was France’s main goal at the start of World War I? Why?
2. Explain why the United States entered the war after remaining neutral for most of its duration.
3. Why did Germany need to conquer France quickly?

**COMMUNICATE**
4. Examine source C carefully. Explain in a paragraph how the Schlieffen Plan was meant to work, referring to the map.

**THINK**
5. Why might historians be interested in finding evidence that the Lusitania was carrying munitions?
6. Using this spread, describe one significant factor that (i) France, (ii) Germany and (iii) the United States each underestimated or overlooked about ‘the enemy’, and that proved to be a disadvantage for them.

**SELF-DISCOVERY**
7. Visit the website for this book and click on the Western Front and World War I weblinks for this chapter (see ‘Weblinks’, page 315). In groups of two or three, select one of the multimedia presentations provided that most interests you. You can view it at school or as a group homework task. After you have viewed the display, discuss:
   (a) what new information you learned that particularly interested you about the Western Front and the war
   (b) to what extent the electronic display provided you with ideas for learning strategies and study tips you could apply in other areas. A group spokesperson will present a summary of the group’s discussion to the class.

**I CAN:**
- appreciate that different countries have different viewpoints in wartime
- analyse aspects of a military plan
- reflect on learning habits and strategies through use of an ICT learning tool.
Trench warfare

The main fighting of World War I took place in and around the trenches of the Western Front. By 1915 these stretched over 500 kilometres, from the Belgian coast through to the Swiss Alps, and were home to millions of troops. Trench warfare produced no winners; rather, it was a defensive tactic that led to continual ‘stalemates’. Over four years the armies of both sides lived and died in them. When the fighting was at its heaviest, tens of thousands of men could be killed or wounded in a single day.

Most battlefield trenches contained many defensive structures. The most commonly used arrangement was the three-line trench system. This allowed front-line trenches for firing at the enemy, support trenches where troops could be rested, and reserve trenches to hold reinforcements and supplies. Communication trenches linked all three trench lines, allowing for easier movement of troops and information. Some German trenches extended up to ten metres underground.

Sandbags filled with earth were used to shore up the edges of the trenches; they also helped to absorb bullets and shell fragments. The men packing and then stacking the filled bags worked in pairs and were expected to move 60 bags an hour.

Duckboards were wooden planks placed across the bottom of trenches and other areas of muddy ground. They enabled soldiers to stand out of the mud. The trench system was constantly waterlogged, particularly during the winter months. Duckboards were the only way of protecting the men from contracting the dreaded trench foot and from sinking deep into the mud.

The use of mustard gas and other chemical weapons meant that all soldiers needed to have gas masks near at hand. Until all troops could be issued with masks, many soldiers used urine-soaked material to help keep out the deadly gas. Mustard gas was almost odourless and took 12 hours to take effect. It was so powerful that only small amounts, added to high-explosive shells, were effective. Once in the soil, mustard gas remained active for several weeks.

Modern artist’s interpretation of a typical trench system

Trenches were generally designed in a zigzag pattern; this helped to protect the trench against enemy attack. Each bend could be defended separately if necessary and explosions could be contained.

Fire steps and scaling ladders were needed to enable the troops to ‘go over the top’ of the trenches. Going ‘over the top’ refers to the orders given to troops to leave the trenches and head out into no-man’s-land in an attempt to attack the enemy trenches.

Machine guns (see page 2) were one of the most deadly weapons. They were able to fire 400–500 bullets every minute.

Trench toilets were called latrines. They were usually pits 1.5 metres deep, dug at the end of a short gangway. Each company had two sanitary personnel whose job it was to keep the latrines in good condition. Officers gave out sanitary duty as a punishment for breaking army regulations.
Each soldier was issued with a kit containing nearly 30 kilograms of equipment. This included a rifle, two grenades, 220 rounds of ammunition, a steel helmet, wire cutters, field dressing, entrenching tool (a spade), a heavy coat, two sandbags, rolled ground sheet, water bottle, haversack, mess tin, towel, shaving kit, extra socks and preserved food rations. The weight made it very difficult to move quickly, and many men chose to share gear to minimise their load.

Barbed wire was used extensively throughout the trench system. While it helped to protect the trenches, it made it very difficult to attack the opposing trench. In the dark of night, soldiers were sent out to cut sections of wire to make it easier for the attacking soldiers in morning raids. Minor cuts and grazes caused by the barbed wire often became infected in the unsanitary conditions of the trenches.

No-man’s-land was the space between the two opposing trenches; it was protected by rows of barbed wire. It could be anywhere from 50 metres to one kilometre wide.

The British army employed 300 000 field workers to cook and supply the food for the troops. However, in many instances there was not enough food for the workers to cook. Rations were regularly cut and of a poor standard. The bulk of the diet in the trenches was bully beef (canned corned beef), bread and biscuits. Long, cold, wet winters and hot, dry summers would have made life in the trenches horrendous. Snow, rain and freezing temperatures drastically slowed combat during the winter months. Lack of fresh water, scorching sun with limited coverage, and the stench of dead bodies and rubbish would have made the hotter months unbearable.

No-man’s-land was the space between the two opposing trenches; it was protected by rows of barbed wire. It could be anywhere from 50 metres to one kilometre wide.

Activities

REMEMBER
1 Why did the armies build a three-line trench system, often in a zigzag pattern?

THINK
2 Suggest why the trench system was ultimately unsuccessful as a military tactic.
3 Complete this concept map to describe why weather played such a key role in the conditions of the trenches.

---

COMMUNICATE
4 Discuss as a class some of the problems you think the soldiers in the trenches would have faced each day.
5 Imagine you are a soldier who has been blinded in the trenches. Describe what you would hear, smell and feel.

DESIGN AND CREATIVITY
6 Using sticks, string, cardboard and small mirrors, design and construct a periscope that would enable you to see over the top of an obstacle without lifting your head. Explain in a paragraph why such a device was needed (and often made) by those fighting in trenches.
7 Working in small groups, and referring to source A (a secondary source), construct a trench diorama. Elect a group spokesperson to talk to the class about one aspect of your model (e.g. its advantages or disadvantages).

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I CAN:
- draw conclusions about trench warfare from an illustration
- appreciate what it was like to live in the trenches
- help to build a diorama to show my understanding of the trench system.
The horror continues

With the prospect of another long, cold winter ahead, the morale in the trenches is at an all-time low. Even without the constant threat of enemy attack, life on the front line is hard, brutal and unforgiving.

The field hospitals are preparing for the problems that the soldiers will face living through another European winter. Frostbite is especially feared, occurring when extremities of the body — such as fingers, toes, ears or nose — actually freeze solid. With the blood supply thus cut off, the affected body part blackens and ‘dies’. Immediate medical attention is required to prevent gangrene. Sometimes this attention is simply not available.

Trench foot is again on the rise. Wet and muddy conditions make it almost impossible for the troops to keep their feet dry — and they have only one pair of boots. In these conditions, it is almost impossible to stop feet from becoming infected. Feet become numb at first, and then the skin turns blue. If untreated, gangrene can set in, and the foot then needs to be cut off. The British army has just issued its soldiers with three pairs of socks each; and the troops are under orders to change their socks at least twice a day.

Vermin (both rats and lice) are reaching plague proportions in the trenches. The filth of rotten food, human waste, dead bodies and sodden debris has made the trenches a haven for vermin. Disease — due to lack of proper food and clean water, the proximity of rotting corpses, and now this abundance of vermin — has become a serious problem. Rats have become fat with food, and are fearless scavengers. Many soldiers are joking that they have become so fond of their body lice, they’ve started naming them.

The mental anguish and torture of living constantly surrounded by death, noise and the horror of seeing your mates killed has led to increasing numbers of men suffering from shell shock and battle fatigue. The unrelenting noise of bullets, artillery explosions and bursting shells is thought to be one of the main causes. Headaches, giddiness, uncontrollable panic attacks and even mental breakdown are the common symptoms of this problem.

A shipment of comfort parcels has just arrived from the home front and will be distributed in the next few days. The parcels contain soap, toothbrushes, chewing gum, notepads, pencils, envelopes, handkerchiefs, and hand-knitted socks and scarves.

The British soldier eats his lunch in the trenches.
The stench of the dead bodies now is awful as they have been exposed to the sun for several days, many have swollen and burst. The trench is full of other occupants, things with lots of legs, also swarms of rats.

Sometimes the men amused themselves by baiting the ends of their rifles with pieces of bacon in order to have a shot at [the rats] at close quarters.

Frank Laird

If you left your food the rats would soon grab it. Those rats were fearless. Sometimes we would shoot the filthy swines. But you would be put on a charge for wasting ammo, if the sergeant caught you.

Richard Beasley, interview comment

Your feet swell up two or three times their normal size and go completely dead. You could stick a bayonet into them and not feel a thing. If you are fortunate enough not to lose your feet and the swelling begins to go down, it is then that the agony begins. I have heard men cry and scream with the pain, and many had to have their feet and legs amputated.

Sergeant H. Roberts, interview comment

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Sergeant H. Roberts, interview comment

The stench of the dead bodies now is awful as they have been exposed to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many to the sun for several days, many.

Sergeant A. Vine, diary entry of 8 August 1915

Life in the trenches was hell on earth. Lice, rats, trench foot, trench mouth, where the gums rot and you lose your teeth. And of course dead bodies everywhere.

James Lovegrave, interview comment

One of our men... went suddenly demented. The shells had an electrifying effect on him... He dropped his rifle and rushed out over the front-line trench into no-man’s-land, the Germans blazing away at him. Then he turned and ran down between the lines of the two armies; no-one seemed able to bring him down. Then he turned again, faced into our system... He was unwounded, but evacuated raving mad.

Captain R. A. McGoldrick, 1917

Think

1 In your own words, explain what morale is. Why would it have been low for soldiers fighting in the trenches?
2 Explain why soldiers in the trenches would have not welcomed (a) a heavy downpour of rain, (b) a prolonged spell of freezing weather, and (c) a heatwave.
3 List some of the symptoms of shell shock. What caused it?

Activities

Think
4 Suggest why parcels from the home front were commonly called ‘comfort parcels’.
5 Analyse the pie chart opposite. (a) What was the biggest health threat soldiers faced? (b) What do these statistics reveal about life on the Western Front for a soldier?

Communicate
6 (a) Write down four questions you would like to have asked one or more of the soldiers whose comments are reported here. Indicate for each why you would like to know this. (b) Swap your questions with a partner, and use Internet and other research tools to see how many you can answer.

Analyze a photograph (p. 20)
7 Imagine that you were a war journalist present when one of the photographs on these pages was taken. Write an article about what you saw for your newspaper back home.

ICT
8 Communicate online with three of your classmates on what you would have found hardest to cope with in the trenches. You might like to check out the Trench Life weblink on the website for this book (see ‘Weblinks’, page 315).

I can:
- use different sources to describe life in the trenches
- analyse graphical data and use it to help make evaluations
- analyse historical photographs to construct an article.
The name ‘Gallipoli’ has great significance for most Australians. Between 25 April and 18 December 1915 thousands of young Australian and New Zealand soldiers lost their lives on the beaches and cliffs of the Gallipoli Peninsula during Australia’s first battle of World War 1. Their heroism and grit during a military campaign that had little hope of success gave rise to the Anzac legend.

On 1 November 1914 the first Australian Imperial Force troops left Australia, expecting to head straight to England to complete their battle training. Before they reached their destination, Turkey entered the war on the German side. This changed the plans; the Australians were now needed to fight the Turks. Instead of landing in England, the Australian troops disembarked in Egypt the following month.

The months of training in the Egyptian deserts were frustrating. The Australian soldiers were eager to fight; however, the British officers who supervised their training were appalled at their lack of discipline and what they saw as louche, rude behaviour.

Why Gallipoli?

Winston Churchill, then First Lord of the Admiralty, was in charge of Britain’s Royal Navy. He worked out a plan to send a large force of troops to capture the Turkish capital city of Constantinople and the strategic Gallipoli Peninsula. He had two reasons for doing this:

1. Once Turkey entered the war on the side of the Germans, the sea route to Britain’s ally Russia was blocked. The plan was to gain control of the 65-kilometre-long Dardanelles Strait so supplies and communications could more easily reach Russia.
2. By gaining control of Constantinople, Turkey would be taken out of the war, and a Balkan rebellion against Germany could be encouraged.

The attack

The Turks commanded the rocky cliffs alongside the Dardanelles Strait, and thus were able to rain down artillery and machine-gun fire on advancing troops below. The main Allied landings were at two locations on the Gallipoli Peninsula: Cape Helles and Ari Burnu (later renamed Anzac Cove). The Ari Burnu landings were made by 17 000 members of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (Anzacs), soldiers largely untested in battle. The Allied troops were transported from their ships to the narrow beach in landing craft. This exposed them to enemy fire before they had even set foot on land. This amphibious landing was a disaster waiting to happen.

On the morning of 25 April 1915 the first Anzacs made it to shore. Inadequate maps, strong currents and poor planning meant that they were put down two kilometres north of the planned landing site. Instead of the gently sloping sand dunes they had been expecting, they faced steep cliff faces. By the end of the first day more than 2000 Allied troops were dead and many more were badly wounded. The survivors managed to establish a beachhead and eventually dig their trenches.
The Allies expected the Turkish army to be weak and easy to defeat. However, Mustapha Kemal (later known as Kemal Atatürk), the officer leading the Turkish defenders, had rallied his troops well. He had placed them strategically along the towering cliffs, making it almost impossible for the Anzacs (who had dug in on the lower slopes) to either advance or retreat.

For the next eight months fierce battles raged, with little or no ground being made on either side. Of the 252,000 Allied soldiers involved in the campaign, some 48,000 were killed, including about 11,000 Anzacs. About 65,000 Turks are also thought to have been killed. The hopelessness of the task did not, however, prevent the Anzacs from fighting bravely. Both British and Australian observers were amazed at their exceptional courage. The legend of the Anzac had been born.

**A short peace**

After the battle had been raging for a month, large numbers of both Turkish and Anzac soldiers lay dead, their bodies packed into the gullies and crevices.
of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Both sides wanted to bury their dead as a sign of respect. There was also a concern that, with the onset of summer, rotting bodies left unburied would spread disease. The two sides agreed to a temporary truce while Turkish and Anzac soldiers worked side by side, removing their dead. For a short time, the soldiers smiled at each other, exchanging souvenirs, lollies and tobacco.

Evacuation
After more than seven months of fighting, the Allies realised the situation was hopeless and decided to withdraw. Working with a British officer, Australian Lieutenant Colonel Brudenell White planned how best to evacuate close to 105,000 men, some 2000 vehicles, around 300 guns and massive amounts of supplies. Between 17 and 19 December the evacuation was conducted secretly at night. To avoid Turkish suspicion, empty crates and boxes were delivered each day to make it seem like normal resupply was continuing. A game of cricket was played in an area of the beach where the Turkish shells could not reach. When the Turks stormed down to the beaches on 20 December, the Anzac trenches were empty.
Remembering the Anzacs

ON 25 APRIL 1915 the first Anzacs landed at Gallipoli. Many lost their lives that day, and a great many more died in the weeks that followed. Each year on 25 April since 1916, when the first Anzac Day memorial service was held, Australians remember those who fought and died at Gallipoli. They also remember those who served in all other wars in which Australians have fought. Anzac Day became a national holiday in the 1920s.

Anzac Day ceremony, Melbourne War Memorial

At Anzac Day ceremonies, returned servicemen and servicewomen march through towns and cities, and gather at shrines or cenotaphs. Dawn services are held at which the ‘Last Post’ is played by a bugler, and the words from Binyon’s poem (see source G) are spoken. The words ‘lest we forget’ are a promise that those who died will never be forgotten.

The following stanza from the poem ‘For the Fallen’, by the British poet Laurence Binyon, has become a vital part of Anzac Day ceremonies. The words ‘lest we forget’ are not those of the poet.

They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old:
Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn.
At the going down of the sun and in the morning,
We will remember them.
Lest we forget.

Think

1. Think of ten words (positive and negative) you think best characterise the Anzacs. Use these words to help you describe in a paragraph what you understand by ‘the Anzac legend’.
2. It has been said that the Allied evacuation was the most successful part of the whole Gallipoli campaign. (Official figures suggest there were only three casualties.) Would you agree or disagree? Explain.

Communicate

3. Watch Peter Weir’s film Gallipoli. Keep notes on how the Australian soldiers were portrayed (i) before they left Australia, (ii) while they were in Egypt, and (iii) when they got to Gallipoli. Discuss as a class:
   (a) what sorts of primary sources you think were used to help make this film
   (b) any aspects you think were changed or exaggerated to make the film more exciting for a modern viewer. Justify your opinion.
4. Explain why you think the verse from Binyon’s poem has become such an important part of Anzac Day ceremonies.

Analyse a photograph

5. Study this photograph of Anzacs landing heavy artillery at Anzac Cove.

(a) Who might have taken this photo, and why?
(b) What does it reveal about (i) the beach, (ii) the landscape and (iii) the weather conditions?
(c) What information does it provide about uniforms and weaponry?
(d) What does it tell you about some of the physical difficulties faced by the Anzacs?

I CAN:

- appreciate why the Gallipoli campaign was unsuccessful
- understand why the Anzac legend developed, and what it represents for Australians today
- analyse a photograph to draw some conclusions about conditions at Anzac Cove
- recognise why Anzac Day ceremonies are important.
As the war progressed, the need for more and more troops to fight became critical. Britain demanded more from its dominions and colonies. As the war dragged on, the number of volunteers slowly dried up. Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes decided to conscript men into the army.

During the course of World War I, some 417,000 Australian men enlisted. However, the initial rush gradually petered off. By the end of the war, even if conscription had been brought in, there would have been very few men left who were eligible to enlist.

People quickly took sides on the conscription debate. Posters, cartoons, songs, handbills, cards and badges were all produced to try to help convince people to support one or other side of the debate.

Billy Hughes believed that the public would support him, and sent the issue to a federal referendum. He held two referenda, one in October 1916 and the other in December 1917. Both times, Australians said ‘no’ to conscription.

Australian society was bitterly divided by the idea of conscription. People split into pro-conscription and anti-conscription groups, and this split affected everyone. The divisions between social classes, religious backgrounds and political beliefs grew even wider.

### Ask the people

#### October 1916

Are you in favour of the Government having, in this grave emergency, the same compulsory powers over citizens in regard to requiring their military service, for the term of this war, outside the Commonwealth, as it now has in regard to military service within the Commonwealth?

#### December 1917

Are you in favour of the proposal of the Commonwealth Government for reinforcing the Commonwealth Forces overseas?

### Referenda questions

#### Source A

Volunteers for the Australian Imperial Force, 1914–18

#### Source B

### YES!

**Those supporting conscription:**
- representatives of every political party except the Labor Party
- business organisations
- major newspapers such as *The Argus*, *The Age* and *The Bulletin*
- Protestant churches
- some returned soldiers.

**Pro-conscription arguments:**
- It was Australia’s duty to support Great Britain.
- Conscription meant ‘equality of sacrifice’.
- Voluntary recruitment had failed.
- Australia had a good reputation that had to be protected.
- Other Allied countries, such as Great Britain, New Zealand and Canada, had already introduced conscription.

#### Source C

An anti-conscription badge produced in 1916

### NO!

**Those opposing conscription:**
- trade unions
- most of the Labor Party
- the Catholic Church (Melbourne’s Archbishop, Daniel Mannix, led the fight against conscription)
- the Women’s Peace Army
- most working-class people
- some returned soldiers.

**Anti-conscription arguments:**
- No person had the right to send another to be killed or wounded.
- There would not be enough hands to farm if men were conscripted.
- The working class would unfairly bear the burden of the fight.
- Too many Australian men had already died or been wounded.
- Conscription would harm and divide Australia.
While the results were relatively close, the Australian public did not want to be told that they had to go to war. This is why, ultimately, the conscription referenda were unsuccessful.

Australian women had been given the right to vote in 1902, and they relished the opportunity to have a real say on such an important issue. Both sides in the conscription battle wanted to win the support of women, as it was believed they held the deciding votes. Hughes even arranged ‘women only’ rallies to try to convince them to vote for conscription. However, many women were strongly opposed to conscription. It was their husbands, sons, brothers, fiancés and best friends who were being sent off to war.

A popular anti-conscription song sung at the women-only rallies

I didn’t raise my son to be a soldier, I brought him up to be my pride and joy.
Who dares to put a musket to his shoulder
To kill some other mother’s darling boy?
The nations all should arbitrate [decide through discussion] their quarrels,
it’s time to put the gun and sword away.
There’d be no war today
If mothers all would say, I did not raise my son to be a soldier.

Anti-conscription posters (a) and (b) – (a) carried the caption ‘Propping up his throne’. Pro-conscription poster (c), drawn by the Australian artist Norman Lindsay, had the caption: ‘Your turn next’. Help to prevent this by voting ‘Yes’.
Karl Marx and communism

Karl Marx (1818–1883) was a German philosopher, economist and social theorist whose writing had an enormous influence on socialism. His revolutionary theories, which came to be known as Marxism, inspired one of the most important political debates in modern history. Marx and his associate Friedrich Engels transformed socialist ideals into the worldwide political force called communism.

Marx’s political views were inspired by the economic conditions he had observed in Germany at the start of the Industrial Revolution. He believed in a society run ‘by the people for the people’. He wanted the workers to control everything — the farms, the factories, even the government — and for wealth to be distributed evenly. His ideas were to greatly influence the 1917 revolution in Russia (see pages 26–7) — a significant event during the course of World War I.

The Communist Manifesto

In 1848, the year of revolutions in Europe, Marx and Engels published a pamphlet called The Communist Manifesto. It outlined the basic elements of their philosophy. Marx rejected the utopian socialist theory that change would come from reforming the existing system. Workers of the growing industrial cities of Europe were seen as a new revolutionary force that could destroy the old order and end political and economic injustice.

Marx and Engels believed that the struggle between different classes of society was at the core of events throughout history, and that economic conditions always explained the way people behaved. The relations between nineteenth-century capitalist employers and workers were the current expression of a centuries-old struggle between oppressor and oppressed — as, for example, between the patricians (aristocratic class) and plebeians (common class) of ancient Rome or medieval feudal lords and serfs (enslaved labourers).

Source A

Karl Marx

Source B

Conclusion to The Communist Manifesto

Society as a whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other – bourgeoisie [middle class] and proletariat [workers]. . . . The Communists . . . openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communist revolution. The proletariat have nothing to lose but their chains. They have the world to win. Working men of all countries, unite!


Source C

Key principles of communism (based on Marx’s view)

- Key communist principles (based on Marx’s view)
  - Abolition of private ownership of property and inheritance rights
  - Introduction of increasingly heavy income tax
  - Confiscation of property of any rebels or of people who leave the country
  - Introduction of state-controlled centralised systems for banking, communications and transport
  - Extensions of state-owned production systems (e.g. for factories and farms)
  - Gradual blurring of distinctions between country and town
  - Introduction of free education for all children
  - Equal labour rights for all

- Key communist principles (based on Marx’s view)
Workers of the world unite!
The views of Marx gave hope to the poor of the world. The capitalist system that many saw as grinding workers down for the profit of only a few was predicted to crumble in the face of worldwide revolution. The classless society that Marx believed would emerge from the revolution would share the wealth once held by the capitalists. A humane and cooperative society free of conflict and hatred would be the future. Marxism called on workers of all nations to unite and give their loyalty to the ‘international brotherhood of the proletariat’.

Source D
A 1919 English poster promoting the movement known as the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW). The IWW was founded in Chicago, in the United States, in 1905 and in Australia in 1907. Activists in the movement, known as the Wobblies, were dedicated to the overthrow of capitalism. Initially the IWW looked to communism in Russia as a model for revolution around the world.

Source E
The capitalist world had much to fear from the goals and ideals of communism. This cartoon from a 1919 edition of Punch magazine shows communism as a pack of wolves prowling around the temple of peace.

Activities

REMEMBER
1. Who was Karl Marx and what were the principles of Marxism? Explain in your own words.
2. What are the key terms identified by Marxists, and what do they mean?
3. Explain why Marxism gained such widespread support among workers during the nineteenth century.

THINK
4. Read the closing lines of source B. Why do you think such words would have inspired revolution?
5. What do you think is the message of the poster shown as source D? Who might the audience be for such a poster, and why do you think it might have appeal for them?
6. Think about why someone might have produced a cartoon as shown in source E.
   (a) What does this suggest about the attitudes of supporters of capitalism towards the growing communist influence?
   (b) Why might these attitudes be expected if communism was to bring about a more equal, more humane and more cooperative society?
   (c) What is the cartoonist predicting in this cartoon?

DESIGN AND CREATIVITY
7. After the 1917 revolution, Russian communists adopted the symbol of the crossed hammer and sickle. Use the Internet to find out what symbols other communist nations have adopted and suggest what their significance is. Then design a flag for the IWW using ICT software such as Paintshop.

I CAN:
☐ understand why Karl Marx was such a significant world figure
☐ reflect on the principles of Marxism
☐ use ICT tools and techniques to design a symbolic flag for the IWW.
World War I had obvious impacts on nations in conflict: massive casualties and death tolls, devastation of natural and built landscapes, and changes to the political and economic fortunes of countries. But it was also a contributing factor to one of the most significant events of the twentieth century — the Russian Revolution of 1917.

At the start of the war, Russia’s Tsar Nicholas II lived in isolated luxury, largely unaware of the harsh realities of life for ordinary Russians. As Russian war casualties reached the millions and supplies ran dangerously low, he began to lose the backing of those who helped him maintain his rule: the aristocracy, the bureaucracy, the Church, the Duma, the secret police (called the Okhrana) and the army.

The Bolshevik Revolution
The winter of 1917 was bitterly cold in Russia, only worsening the plight of the peasants and workers in Russia’s capital, St Petersburg (then called Petrograd). An uprising in February finally forced the Tsar to abdicate. Germany helped arrange for revolutionary leaders whom the Tsar had exiled to return through war-torn Europe to Russia in sealed trains. Germany hoped they would destroy the provisional government of Prince Lvov (see source A). The most important of these exiled revolutionaries was Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, who became the leader of the Bolsheviks.

Source A
Events in a crucial week in March 1917

8 March 1917
A riot began on International Women’s Day. A crowd of some 100 000 demanded food and workers’ rights. The Tsar’s forces (mostly young, untrained men and wounded soldiers) could not control them.

11 March 1917
On the Tsar’s orders, the soldiers fired on the crowd, killing more than 50. The angry crowd then sacked public buildings and lynched police officers. Against the Tsar’s orders, the Duma refused to close; it elected a provisional (temporary) government with Prince Lvov in charge.

15 March 1917
The Tsar was forced to abdicate (give up his throne) and flee with his family. They were later captured and reportedly all executed.

Lenin’s promise to the people was simple. It was trumpeted on banners and in the Russian newspaper Pravda: ‘End the war. Land to the peasants. All power to the soviets!’ (or ‘Peace, Land, Bread!’)

Seven months after the riots that forced the Tsar to flee, the Bolsheviks, with Lenin in control, seized key positions around the Russian capital, including railway stations and bridges. Shots were fired at the Winter Palace, but they were blanks designed only to frighten. Not a single palace defender was harmed as the provisional government was removed from power over two days in early November.

Source B
This translated extract from a 1917 police report confirms that the Russian police were well aware of the dangers posed by a determined mob.

The economic condition of the masses, in spite of large raises in wages, is near the point of distress. Even if wages are doubled, the cost of living has tripled. The impossibility of obtaining goods, the loss of time spent queuing up in front of stores, the increasing mortality rate because of poor housing conditions, the cold and dampness resulting from lack of coal, all these conditions have created such a situation that the mass of industrial workers is ready to break out in the most savage of hunger riots.

Source C
Lenin, a keen reader of revolutionary literature in his youth, was determined to bring revolution to Russia.
Effects on Russia and beyond
The revolution brought enormous social and economic upheaval, first in Russia and then in many other parts of the world. Communism (see pages 24–5) was introduced through immediate and far-reaching reforms:

- Private ownership of capital was prohibited.
- Factories, mines and transport were nationalised.
- Public debt was cancelled.
- Land was confiscated and redistributed.
- Religious practice was discouraged, even though Russia was a deeply religious nation. About 70,000 churches were closed over the next 20 years. Marx had called religion ‘the opiate [drug] of the people’, believing it was a tool of oppression.

- Russian soldiers and sailors were immediately withdrawn from the war with Germany and given the vote, as were productive workers and housekeepers aged over 18. Others regarded as enemies of the state, such as the clergy and the bourgeoisie, were denied the vote.
- In July 1918 a constitution was adopted to replace the autocracy of the past with a ‘dictatorship of the proletariat’. The government design was shaped like a pyramid, with rural and urban councils (soviets) at the bottom and a central executive committee at the top to administer the new Russian Republic. The structure appeared democratic, but in practice the Communist Party had placed itself as dictator and suppressed all rival political parties.

The revolution was the first large-scale attempt in the world to establish a communist society. Russia had been a backward nation when the war broke out, with few of the benefits of industrialisation. For centuries the Russian masses had suffered absolute, rigid and often corrupt government. Events of 1917 were a reaction to the frustrated movements for reform. The ideas of the powerful revolutionary leadership, inspired by Karl Marx’s Communist Manifesto (see page 24), readily took hold in a country where people were hungry, sick of war and frustrated by the slow pace of change.

Activities

THINK
1. Use source B to help you list the conditions that were angering many of the Russian people.
   (a) Rank them in order of seriousness, and justify your ranking.
   (b) Explain why these conditions helped to make the revolution rapid and relatively bloodless.
2. Discuss as a class the differences (based on your general understanding) between the systems Lenin set up in Russia and the way Australia is run today. What advantages and disadvantages can you identify for both systems of government?
3. Why do you think Lenin’s slogan ‘Peace, Land, Bread!’ appealed to the Russian people in 1917?
4. Why do you think Lenin regarded religion as an ‘opiate’?

COMMUNICATE
5. Work in small groups to create and perform a script recording the thoughts, fears and other emotions of a Russian peasant family during the period from March to November 1917. Use sources in this spread to help you. Among other things, your dialogue must refer to:
   • the war, and its impact on your community
   • your family’s living conditions
   • Lenin, and the revolutionary thinking of Karl Marx
   • your expectations about what the revolution might mean for your family.

INQUIRE
6. Mystery still surrounds what happened to the captured Romanov family. Were the Tsar’s family all killed, or did one daughter, Anastasia, escape? Find out more about this mystery. Use your research to write a gripping short story.

I CAN:
- compare communist views of society with Australian society today
- understand why Lenin’s views appealed to many Russians in 1917
- understand how Russians’ experience of World War I helped trigger revolution in 1917.
The war ends

In 1917 two significant events occurred on the world stage: the entry into the war of the United States, and a people’s revolution in Russia. Each had a major impact on the course of World War I, which to that point seemed to be bogged down, with continuing carnage and no clear winners.

The United States entered the war on the side of Britain and her allies. Before 1917 America had supported Britain with money and supplies. But in 1917 German submarines began attacking American ships (see pages 12–13). This persuaded the United States to enter the war, and more than one million American soldiers were sent to Europe. Both sides in the war knew that the United States could provide many more millions of men, as well as guns and supplies.

As a result of the Russian Revolution, a communist state was set up (see pages 6–7). The new leader, Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, wanted to change the country’s systems quickly. He could not afford to keep Russian troops fighting in Europe while he was strengthening his own power in Russia. So in 1918 Russia signed a peace treaty with Germany and left the war. This freed up the German troop involvement on the Eastern Front, which meant that these troops could be sent to try to break the deadlock on the Western Front.

Although Germany was now able to concentrate its efforts on the Western Front, its allies could not offer any real support. Austria–Hungary and Turkey were hurting badly from years of conflict. Defeat was inevitable.

On 11 November 1918, at 11 am, fighting stopped and an armistice was signed. World War I had ended. In the Allied nations, the end of the war was greeted with wild enthusiasm. Crowds gathered in the streets, dancing, drinking, singing and cheering.

Victory had come, though, at a huge cost. In four years of fighting, nearly nine million fighting personnel and another nine million civilians lost their lives. Europe had lost most of its wealth paying for the war. Family life suffered. Farms were ruined, especially in Belgium and France, and it took many years for the land to recover. No longer was war seen as a heroic adventure — millions of soldiers returned home physically and mentally broken, and many were invalids for the rest of their lives.
Remembrance Day is still celebrated. It is marked by one minute’s silence, observed all over the country each year at 11 am on 11 November. An imitation red poppy has become a symbol of remembrance.

**Activities**

**REMEMBER**

1. What two major events changed the course of World War I and why were these significant?
2. (a) When is Remembrance Day, and what does it celebrate?
   (b) What is the significance of the red poppies sold on Remembrance Day?

**THINK**

3. Read source B carefully and then answer the following questions:
   (a) Why do you think it was so important for the British people to see their King?
   (b) In what way was this display an expression of nationalism?
   (c) How do you think the King and Queen must have felt? Explain, using quoted evidence from the extract.
   (d) Why do you think the crowd smashed the air-raid shelter box? What did this action symbolise?

**COMMUNICATE**

4. Imagine you were the journalist asked to prepare a report for your local paper on the British street party shown in source C. Your 300-word report should include ‘interviews’ with those who were there.

5. List the things you would be unable (or would find very difficult) to do if you had lost either both arms or both legs.

**TEAMWORK**

6. In groups, discuss as many consequences as you can think of that service personnel in World War I and their families faced with the ending of the war. Consider factors such as injuries (physical and mental), jobs, beliefs, adjustments to family life etc. Listen respectfully to the ideas of others and build on their contributions in what you say.

**I CAN:**

- understand how and why World War I came to an end
- appreciate the significance of Remembrance Day
- analyse a text extract to reach conclusions.

**then & now**

**Remembrance Day**

On 22 April 1915 the second of three fierce battles fought around the Belgian city of Ypres (see page 2) broke out. Ypres lay within a largely farming region of Europe called Flanders. The battle lasted just over two weeks, during which over 200,000 men (on both sides) lost their lives. One participant, John McCrae, later wrote a poem called ‘In Flanders Fields’ about this battle. In it he spoke of the poppies that grew in the fields. Publication of his poem prompted action to associate poppies with ex-servicemen. The first ‘poppy day’ was held on Remembrance Day, 11 November 1921.

**Source C**

A street party in a British town following the announcement of peace.

**Source D**

Many soldiers suffered total or partial leg or arm amputations as a result of war wounds.
1. Complete the following word puzzle to identify (for 1 down) the name of the President of the United States when that country entered World War I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clues:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 The name given to the long line of trenches extending from Belgium to the Swiss border</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The empire controlled by Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The name of the Bosnian city where the heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire was assassinated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 What was held in Australia when the question about conscription was put to the people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 The most common health problem suffered by those who lived in the trenches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Describes a movement in a country when people develop strong loyalties to their country and a belief in their country's importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 The first name of the person in charge of the British Royal Navy in early 1915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 The time of day when many Anzac Day memorial services are held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 The surname of the Australian private who helped transport the wounded on his donkey at Gallipoli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 A primary reason why a localised European dispute turned into a world war</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 The name of the plan Germany tried to implement to capture Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 A condition often suffered by soldiers exposed to constant explosions, trauma and fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Short form of Australian and New Zealand Army Corps</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Describe in your own words the four main long-term causes of World War I, using one or two sentences for each. Create a symbol that you think best represents each. (pp. 4–7)

3. List as many outcomes of World War I as you can think of on (a) the natural landscape, (b) public facilities, (c) families, (d) medical facilities, (e) employment, and (f) ideals and beliefs.

4. Explain why the decisions taken by the United States and Russia in 1917 were so significant for the course of the war. (pp. 26–9)

5. Use simple sketches to explain the role of trenches during warfare in World War I. Was the trench system successful? Explain. (pp. 14–17)

6. Conduct a roleplay in small groups to demonstrate your understanding of some of the problems soldiers faced in the trenches of World War I. (pp. 14–17)

7. Individually, in pairs or in small groups, prepare a creative response for display in your class on Remembrance Day. It can be a dance, a mime, a painting or sculpture, or a prepared song or musical piece. It can focus on Gallipoli or on any war effort in which Australians have been involved. (pp. 18–21, 29)

8. What were the arguments of the two sides in respect to the introduction of conscription in Australia during World War I? (pp. 22–3)

9. There were many people who had an impact on the events and outcomes of World War I. Draw up a table in your workbook to show which country each of the following people was from and what role each played in the war.

| Winston Churchill | John Simpson Kirkpatrick |
| William Hughes | Kaiser Wilhelm II |
| Kemal Atatürk | Vladimir Lenin |
| Franz Ferdinand | Gavrilo Princip |

10. Test your ability to examine evidence by studying this artefact.

WHAT IS THIS?
(a) the AIF Cross, given to all Australians who participated in the war
(b) the Iron Cross, given to recognise bravery of German personnel
(c) the Victoria Cross, given to recognise bravery of British and Commonwealth service personnel
(d) the Lenin Cross, given to mark bravery on the Eastern Front
11. Look carefully at the table at the bottom of the page and answer the following questions:

(a) Which countries of the British Empire raised the most troops to go to the war?
(b) Which country suffered the most in terms of (i) total battle casualties and (ii) percentage of casualties to those who took to the battlefield? Why is it important to distinguish between these two statistics?
(c) Suggest why Australia and New Zealand might have had such high casualty rates.
(d) What impact might these high casualty rates have had on the people at home?

12. Either write a short response to, or deliver a short monologue from, one of the following perspectives to show that you can understand and appreciate the impact that war has on people and society:

(a) a British soldier who fought in both Gallipoli and the Western Front, and is returning home after spending six months in a British hospital after losing both his legs
(b) a French farmer who spent the war aiding the Allies, whose property was destroyed in one of the last battles of the war. His two sons never returned from military service.
(c) an Australian mother or father whose three sons readily enlisted, proud and excited to go to war. They were three of the 60 000 Anzacs who never made it home.

13. In pairs, prepare a short dialogue to perform in front of the class, during which you give the opposing arguments given in Australia during World War I in respect to the introduction of conscription. After the presentations, decide as a class which three points (for either point of view) were the most persuasive in influencing class opinion.

14. Below is an artist’s impression of Lenin addressing a large crowd of Russians.

(a) What does the portrayal of the people and their clothes tell you about their class, gender and age?
(b) How do you think the people are reacting to Lenin’s speech? Why?
(c) Where do you think the scene is set, and what does this suggest about Lenin’s goals and motives?
(d) What does the painting suggest to you about the artist’s attitude to Lenin?

Forces of British Empire in World War I, 1914–18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Raised</th>
<th>Took the field</th>
<th>Killed and died of wounds</th>
<th>Wounded less died of wounds</th>
<th>Number reported prisoners</th>
<th>Total battle casualties</th>
<th>Troops took the field to population</th>
<th>Battle casualties to took the field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>1916</td>
<td>48 089 249</td>
<td>5 704 416</td>
<td>5 399 563</td>
<td>702 410</td>
<td>1 662 625</td>
<td>1 70 389</td>
<td>2 535 424</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1917</td>
<td>8 361 000</td>
<td>628 964</td>
<td>422 405</td>
<td>56 625</td>
<td>149 732</td>
<td>3 729</td>
<td>210 086</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1916</td>
<td>3 275 325</td>
<td>416 809</td>
<td>311 781</td>
<td>59 342</td>
<td>152 171</td>
<td>4 084</td>
<td>215 045</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>1916</td>
<td>1 099 449</td>
<td>128 535</td>
<td>98 950</td>
<td>16 654</td>
<td>41 317</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>18 600</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>1916</td>
<td>6 685 827</td>
<td>136 070</td>
<td>116 070</td>
<td>6 928</td>
<td>11 444</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>3 661</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newfoundland</td>
<td>1918</td>
<td>254 587</td>
<td>11 922</td>
<td>10 619</td>
<td>1 195</td>
<td>2 314</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>7 620</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1916</td>
<td>315 200 000</td>
<td>1 440 437</td>
<td>1 338 620</td>
<td>53 486</td>
<td>64 350</td>
<td>3 762</td>
<td>121 598</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fed. Malay States</td>
<td>1918</td>
<td>820 871</td>
<td>1 000</td>
<td>1 000</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Indies</td>
<td>1916</td>
<td>1 772 000</td>
<td>15 601</td>
<td>15 601</td>
<td>1 256</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 953</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>1918</td>
<td>4 686 383</td>
<td>2 182</td>
<td>2 182</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td></td>
<td>391 844 691</td>
<td>8 485 926</td>
<td>7 756 791</td>
<td>898 332</td>
<td>2 085 377</td>
<td>182 914</td>
<td>3 166 071</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of key terms

alliances: economic or military agreements made between two or more countries
amphibious landing: military action involving coordinated assaults by land, sea and air forces
aristocracy: the wealthy and privileged class
armistice: another name for a truce (see truce)
artillery: large-calibre guns (e.g. cannons)
autocracy: a government or political system in which a single individual holds unlimited power
Balkans: describes those countries in the Balkan peninsula (namely Turkey, Rumania, Bulgaria, Greece, Albania and the former Yugoslavia)
beachhead: that part on a shoreline that an invading military force tries to secure as its first goal
Bolshevik: member of the majority faction of the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party, which seized power in Russia in the revolution of 1917
British Empire: the United Kingdom and all the countries (colonies and claimed territories) then under its control
bureaucracy: an administrative system or government marked by departmental separation and fixed rules
capital: wealth in the form of money, property or other economic resources
capitalism: economic system based on private ownership of capital, free markets, competition and the profit motive
capitalist: describes a system of government or person favouring capitalism
carnage: widespread slaughter, as in war
cenotaph: a memorial to honour a person or persons who were killed in war
colony: a settlement whose ruling authority is linked to or directly controlled by that in another country
Commonwealth: describes what Australia became when its six colonies (see colony) federated to become one nation in 1901
communism: a political ideology that holds that the resources and wealth of a country should be enjoyed by all its people. Rigid controls are generally involved to ensure compliance.
conscription: the compulsory call-up of a nation’s citizens to fight in a war
Constitution: a legal document that sets out the rules and principles by which a nation or an organisation is governed
constitutional government: a form of government in which a written ‘constitution’ (a codified set of rules and principles) establishes the rights and obligations of government and people
democratic: based on the principles of democracy — government by the people or their representatives
diplomacy: negotiation between countries
dominion: a territory that is under the control of another
Duma: Russian Parliament
Eastern Front: the region where fighting raged between Russia, Germany and Austria–Hungary during World War I
empire: countries or territories ruled by a single political power
enlist: to voluntarily join the armed forces to fight in a war
epitaph: an engraved inscription on a person’s tomb or gravestone
federation: the union of colonies or states to form a nation
front line: the front region of a battle between two warring parties where most of the action takes place
frostbite: injury, usually to extremities (e.g. fingers or toes) caused by prolonged exposure to freezing temperatures; body tissue blackens and dies, and gangrene may occur
gangrene: localised death of living tissue, either from infection or interruption of blood supply
home front: the civilian population of a country at war
mobilise: organise and get ready for action
morale: the mental and emotional wellbeing or spirit of a group
nationalised: of a private business or industry taken over and run by government
no-man’s-land: an area of a battlefield between the front lines of opposing armies not held by either side
parapet: the reinforced lip of a trench
patriotism: a love for one’s country; a person who shows this is patriotic
primary source: a source of evidence that existed or was created during the period being studied
propaganda: information used selectively to persuade people to a particular view
rations: food provided for the members of a fighting force
raw materials: natural resources (e.g. timber) before being treated or processed
referendum: a ballot in which the people decide on an important political question
secondary source: a source that gives information about an earlier time, but was prepared after that time
shell shock: a disturbed state of mind produced in some people when they are exposed to too many shell explosions and too much war related stress
shilling: a coin once part of Australian currency. There were 12 pence (12d) to one shilling (1/-) and 20 shillings to one pound (£1).
sniper: a specialist soldier whose job it is to shoot enemy soldiers from a hidden location that is some distance away
socialism: economic system based on state ownership of capital and industry and state control of the economy; set of beliefs according to which all people are equal and should share equally in the wealth of a country
soviet: elected government council, at local, regional or national level, in the former Soviet Union
stalemate: a chess term, meaning that neither side can advance or make gains
trench: excavation line from which opposing armies fire at each other; some systems consisted of a network of lines containing support trenches (those that contained supplies etc.), reserve trenches (used in the event that a main trench was damaged) and communication trenches (used to provide runners with cover when relaying orders, instructions etc. from one military unit to another)
trench foot: a condition caused by the feet remaining wet (and sometimes cold) for too long. The tissue would become numb, discolour and then start to break down.
truce: another name for an armistice, when opposing armies cease fire at a certain time by agreement
ultimatum: a final, non-negotiable demand
utopian socialist: pre-Marxian idealist who believed radical social change could be introduced peacefully and voluntarily
waterlogged: soaked with so much water that no more can be absorbed
Western Front: the World War I battle line that stretched from Belgium to the Swiss border, between the armies of the Allies and the Germans