

THE WORLD WAR  
FOR  
DEMOCRACY





# THE WORLD WAR FOR DEMOCRACY

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AND

Special Contributors

## A COMPLETE HISTORY

GIVING

AN ACCOUNT OF THE CAUSES AND EVENTS OF THE WORLD  
WAR, ILLUSTRATED BY MAPS, ETCHINGS AND HALFTONES

(Official Photographs)



79613

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ALBERT I—KING OF BELGIUM

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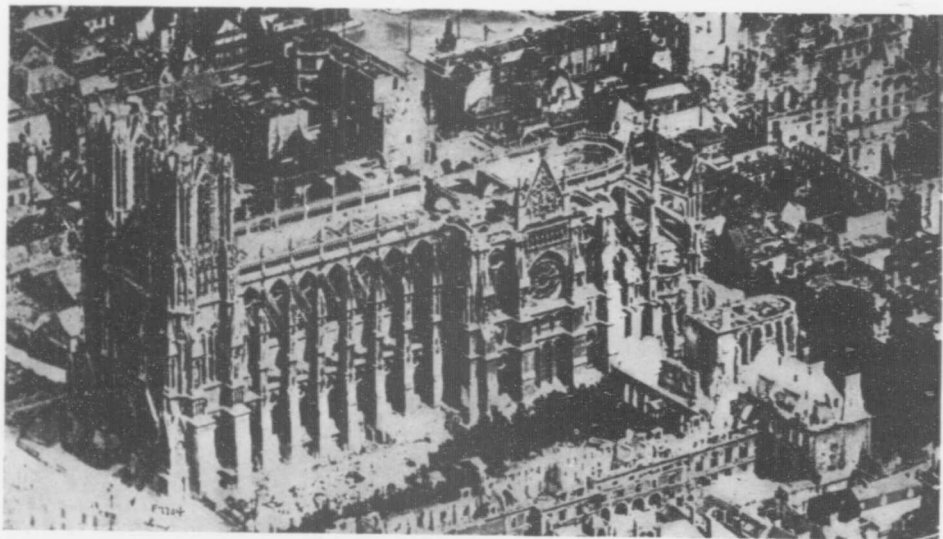
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KING PETER OF SERBIA.



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M. RAYMOND POINCARE, PRESIDENT OF FRANCE.



RHEIMS.

Photo by the International Film Service, Inc.

From the early days of the war, when the Hun overran Belgium and Northern France, to the close, Rheims was threatened time and again by the advancing Hun hordes. But the brave sons of France, strengthened by their Allies kept the enemy from the beautiful city. The famous cathedral was partially wrecked by enemy attacks.





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SCENE DURING THE AUSTRIAN DEBACLE.  
Sending ammunition up a mountain in Italy by an overhead wire.



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**CAPTURED GUNS TURNED ON THE ENEMY BY ALLIED MARKSMEN.**  
Hundreds of captured guns taken on the Western Front by the Allies were used to good advantage against the enemy. Crews, specially trained in the operation of German guns, used these prizes in shelling the enemy.



French Official Photographs. Copyright, Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
**BATTERING THE GERMANS OUT OF VALENCIENNES.**  
A heavy French gun is shown in action on the outskirts of Valenciennes.



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**FRENCH 75'S IN ACTION.**  
This French official photograph shows a battery of French 75 mm. guns in action on the French Front. These monsters sent a steady flow of deadly fire into the German lines.



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**POLAND—A NEW REPUBLIC BORN OF THE GREAT WAR.**



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**BOY SCOUTS, OF AMERICA, MARCH IN VICTORY PARADE.**



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A MACHINE GUN NEST.



ROYAL FLYING CORPS—BOMBING SQUADRON ON THE WESTERN FRONT IN FRANCE.  
A Royal Flying Corps Bombing Squadron, with machines lined up on the Aerodrome.



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**BRITISH CAVALRY JOINS PURSUIT OF FLEEING HUNS.**  
THE RUINS OF THE ONCE FAMOUS AND BEAUTIFUL ALBERT  
CATHEDRAL.



British Official Photograph. Photo from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
**BATTLEFIELD ON WESTERN FRONT AFTER GERMAN RETREAT.**  
Salvage corps of British soldiers collecting rifles, helmets, cartridges,  
clothing, etc., from battlefield near Bapaume.



Photo supplied from the Committee of Public Information, by International Film Service, Inc.

**CAPTURED HEADQUARTERS OF HUN GAS DIVISION.**

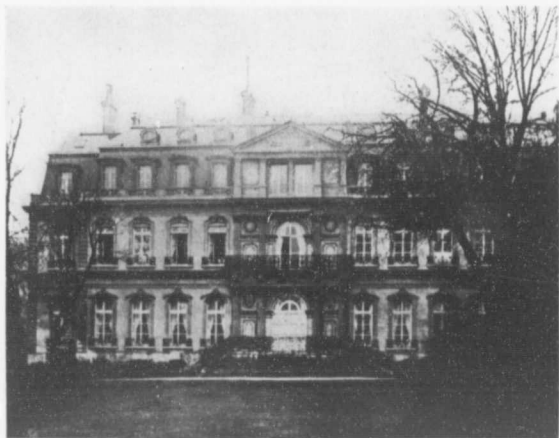
A house found on the side of a hill a very short distance back of the German front line trenches. It had been the home and office of a battalion gas officer.



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**DUCKING A CLOSE ONE.**

Two British Tommies making their way to the front line taking cover behind a wall to avoid the huge German shell which is shown bursting nearby.



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PRINCE MURAT'S CASTLE—THE "PARIS WHITE HOUSE."



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PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON IN LONDON.

Sir Archibald Bodkin is shown reading an address to President Wilson upon his arrival at Dover. (Note robe and wig.)

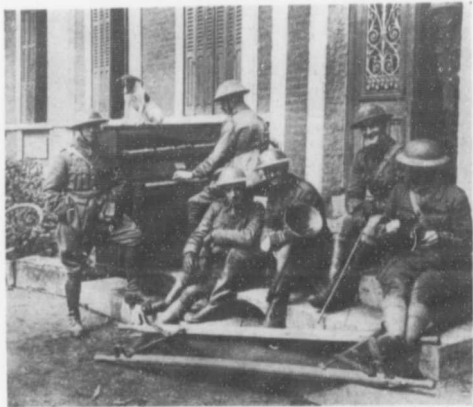




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**KILTIE GETS THE NEWS FROM HOME.**

Highland gas sentry reading a letter from home. (Note the gas alarm near at hand)



British Official Photograph. Supplied by the International Film Service, Inc.

**BRITISH OFFICERS AT THE FRONT ENJOY AMERICAN RAGTIME.**

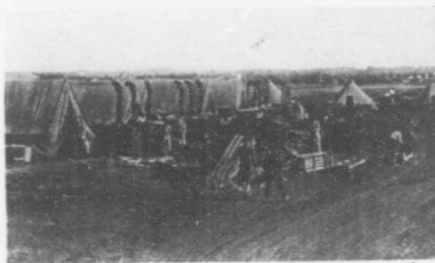
This British official photograph shows British officers outside a newly found billet enjoying the "ragging" of "HINDOOSTAN" an American music craze over seas. The small dog at the top of the dilapidated piano bears a striking resemblance to a famous musical instrument trademark.

The presence of the stretcher is a matter for conjecture. Perhaps it is for the pianist, should his efforts fail to please.



Photo Supplied by International Film Service, Inc.  
A KITCHEN BATTERY

Plenty of good food at the right time is one of the chief problems with which an army head must contend, and the Allied armies were well prepared to feed the soldiers.



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**GENERAL VIEW OF FIELD BAKERY.**

By means of these efficient ranges the soldiers were fed along the line of march.



British Official Photograph. Copyright, Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

**BRITISH PATROL RAIDS A GERMAN DUG-OUT.**

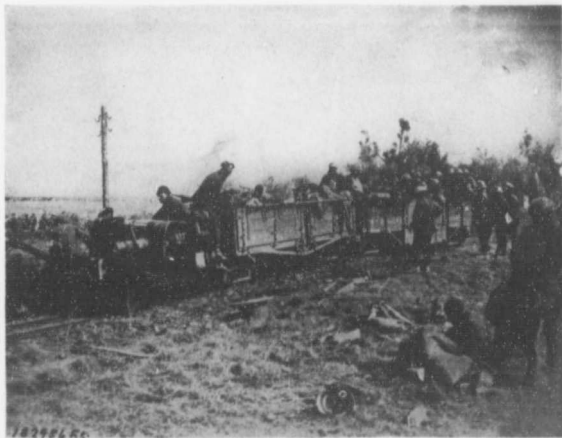
A daylight patrol of the Seaforth firing into a dug-out when the Germans in it refused to reply to their call.



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**EXHIBITION OF THE FRENCH MILITARY KENNELS IN PARIS.**

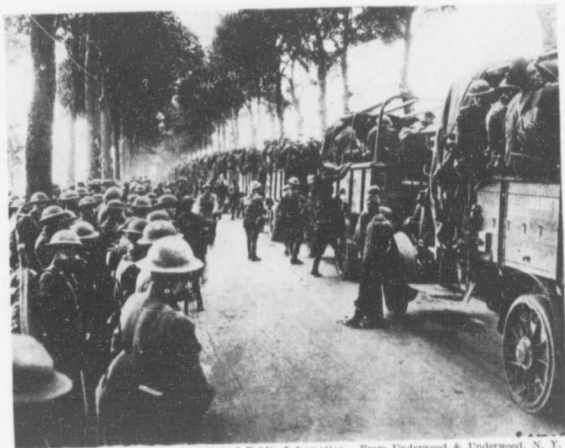
Dogs were used extensively in the war for drawing machine guns, rushing ammunition forward during a battle, carrying food and ammunition forward to detachments cut off in "No-Man's-Land," etc.



Canadian Official Photograph. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
**LIGHT RAILWAYS TRANSPORT WOUNDED TO REAR LINES.**  
 These light railways were used by the Allies extensively for the transportation of wounded from the scene of fighting. This one is loaded with wounded prisoners.



Canadian Official Photograph. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
**CANADIAN HEAVY ARTILLERY IN ACTION.**  
 (The gun is in recoil.)  
 The guns of the Canadian heavy artillery blasted away at the Hun defenses and gained for them the possession of the Arras-Cambrai road. The clearing of the enemy from that road opened the way into Cambrai.



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**AMERICANS GOING FORWARD TO FIRING LINE.**  
"Somewhere in France" troops of the 7th Infantry climbing aboard trucks of the Motor Transport Service on the way to the firing line.



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**FRENCH AND AMERICAN TROOPS ENTER ST. MIHIEL.**

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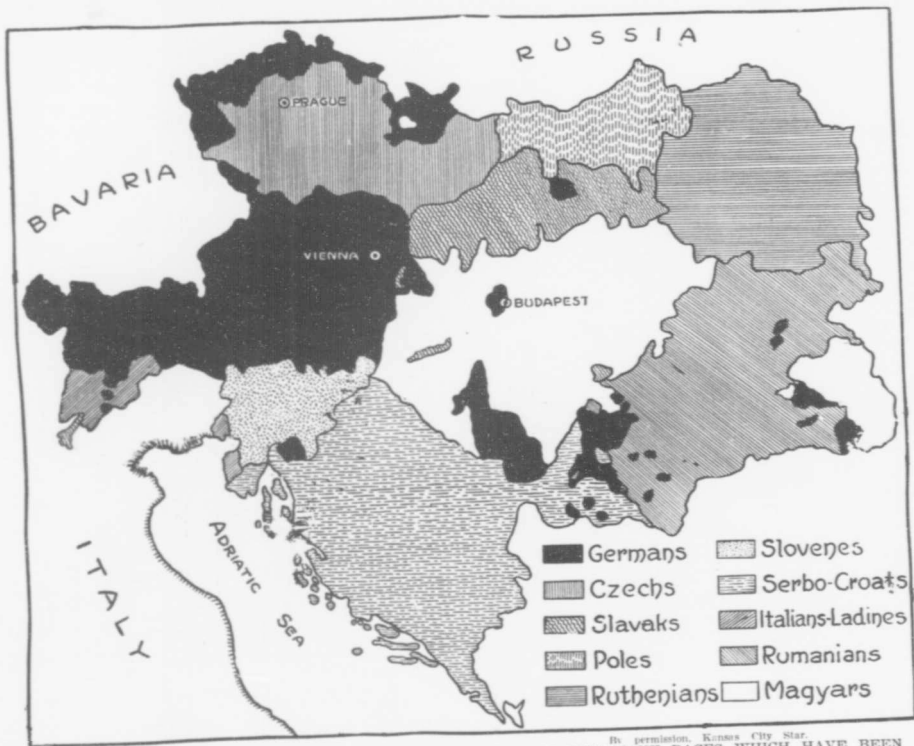
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MAP OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, SHOWING THE DISPOSITION OF THE MANY RACES WHICH HAVE BEEN UNDER THE HAPSBURG RULE.

By permission, Kerner City Star.

# Introduction

They laid foundation broad and deep—  
A superstructure grand  
Shall rise in strength and symmetry,  
And will forever stand!

The Great World War of 1914-'18 which so completely drew all of the civilized world into a conflict of unprecedented magnitude, alike in respect to man power, munition, and slaughter, began because of the unstable political situation in Europe, and was occasioned, forsooth, by the murder of the Austrian Crown Prince. Since that murder millions of brave men of many nationalities have given up their lives on the field of battle. From every quarter of the globe have gone the sturdy youths—the flower of every land—to fill the broken ranks in this awful contest. Stout hearts have tested the sorrow and sacrifice which follow in the wake of war. And what shall be the recompense? What recompense would be adequate? Into the sea has been spilled the fruits of the earth—the products of the toilers; and men, women and children have gone to untimely watery graves. The European battle fields have been stained by the blood of heroes, and the once peaceful cities, towns and countrysides of Europe have been transformed into a great funereal pyre while the distant homelands of those engaged in the struggle have been filled with anxiety and grief. What compensation then would be commensurate with so great and widespread sacrifice and such universal suffering?

The unstable political situation in Europe! This condition resulted in the pouring into Europe, men from every continent to help to decide the contest; hence, the recompense to be adequate must be a compensation to all mankind; it must be an awakening in all lands of the brotherhood of man; it must culminate in the advancement and development of the moral, physical, and spiritual in man. The quickening spirit of universal freedom must be so implanted in every heart and mind that it will be a controlling factor in life. That the great sacrifice may not be in vain, the contest must leave men and women sober and sane, imbued with the virtues, Faith, Hope and Charity, and truly

Democratic; and, above all, it should lead men everywhere to realize the weakness of human endeavor, and the need of Divine strength and guidance. A peace resulting in anything less than the establishing of Democratic ideas, the development of vigorous manhood and the strengthening of the Christian faith throughout the world would be a mockery, a snare and a delusion, that would again lead to wrangling of nations and the horrors of war.

In the present volume is related the story of the Great World War. The aim has been to stress the events which will have a lasting place in history.

The causes of the war have been set out in some detail that the reader may have a comprehensive knowledge of the situation in Europe prior to the outbreak of hostilities.

Canada took no small part in this World War. She tasted the bitterness of the beginning of the struggle and continued to drink deep of the cup of sacrifice. The heroism and patriotism of Canadians have found permanent lodgment in the history of the world.

The valor displayed by Canadians at Ypres and Vimy Ridge, and other hotly contested battlefields will not fail to stir the hearts of future generations with pride; and the magnificent contributions and unstinted sacrifices made by those remaining at home, disclosed a unity of purpose to sustain the soldiers on the battlefield until their efforts were crowned with success, and the freedom of all peoples be assured. In this work the story of Canadian valor is given.

The record of American activities in preparing for war is without a parallel in history, and the unselfish devotion to duty of the American patriots of 1917-1918 will forever brighten the pages of the history of civilization.

The Americans in the World War suffered no defeat. They took their places in the front line of battle in an incredibly short time after the declaration of war by the United States, and with rapid strides they advanced on an extended front.

The soldiers of the war, fighting Prussia, were of many nationalities, but had a common ideal—Liberty for the world.

W. O. McINDOO,

October 22, 1918.

Kansas City, Missouri.



# The Invaded Countries of Europe

OR

## The Battle Grounds of Nations

Three Nations: Belgium, France, Serbia—The Inspiration of the Century!

War always leaves a dismal trail, and sorrow and suffering are always found in its wake.

In the World War most civilized nations suffered, but only those countries which were invaded by the Central Powers, and were either crushed under the iron heel of despotism or the people driven from their homes, have an adequate realization of its horrors. Belgium, France and Serbia had the experience and made the sacrifice with a fortitude and courage that commands the admiration of the whole world.

In the study of the story of the World War, let us review briefly the history of these countries, and in viewing these invaded lands as they existed before the war, we can better understand what it meant to them to have their country trodden down and overrun by a ruthless enemy.

The World War extended in every direction—North, South, East, West, up in the air, down in the deep; the conflict raging in verdant fields, in snowclad mountain passes, in dense woodlands, along marshy banks of streams, in picturesque valleys, in cities, towns and villages, on ocean wave and in the deep and in the air, but the onrush of the Teutons centered in Belgium, France and Serbia, and these countries know the full meaning of Prussianism. Two of them—Belgium and Serbia—were crushed, their lands laid waste and their peoples led to servitude, while France experienced the horrors of an invading enemy and was saved from defeat only by the unparalleled devotion of her people to country and the wisdom and faithfulness of her leaders.

The world was given a new lesson in patriotism by the calm determination and devotion of these peoples in their darkest hour during invasion.

Italy and Russia were also invaded by the Central Powers. Italy was able to repel the invaders and escaped with less injury, while Russia after a time yielded to internal and external conflict.

The countries then which were the most systematically and thoroughly laid waste by the mad riot of a ruthless foe were Belgium, France and Serbia, and much that had been accomplished by the toil and enterprise of these peoples was destroyed, the lands left barren, and the inhabitants reduced to want.

An account of the origin and development of these countries will be briefly stated here.

### Belgium.

Belgium, the first martyr in the World War, was small in area, yet, in her struggle for life and liberty, her power was felt by the enemy, and she held the invaders at bay until other nations were able to receive the oncoming hordes.

Belgium has nine provinces, the same number as Canada, but her provinces aggregate only 11,373 square miles, just a little more than half the size of Nova Scotia, and a little larger than Massachusetts.

Before the war Belgium had a population of about 7,000,000, which in size compared favorably with the population of Canada.

Belgium is located between France and Holland, the North Sea and Prussia, and before the war it was the most densely populated country in Europe. There were many thriving cities, among which Brussels, the capital, had a population of over half a million. Other cities included Antwerp, Ghent, Liege and Louvain.

The country is well supplied with water from the Meuse and the Scheldt, with their branches, and by a system of canals. These rivers and canals add to the transportation facilities. Railroads are also extensive, part of which are owned by the government.

Much of the land is low, and in places protected by dykes. The southern part of Belgium is rough and covered in parts with natural forests in which the wild boar and the wolf may yet be found. The oak is abundant in these forests and supplied a large amount of tan bark and timber.

Farming and gardening were important industries. Every intensive cultivation of the soil resulted in the production of most all kinds of grain crops. The sugar beet industry was also important. Belgium horses were exported.

Part of the land is rich in minerals, including coal, iron, copper, zinc, lead and marble. The coal and iron ore are so near together that transportation is reduced to a minimum in obtaining fuel for smelting the iron ore, and Belgium was thus one of the greatest iron producing countries in the world.

Manufacturing was carried on, and included linen, woolen, cotton and silk goods, lace, leather and metals.

The commerce of Belgium was important.

There were elementary schools, public libraries, schools of music and art, scientific and literary societies, and also universities at Brussels, Louvain, Liege and Ghent. The great artists, Rubens, Teniers and Van Dyke, are numbered among Belgium's accomplished men.

This, in brief, was the situation in Belgium in 1914. Formerly, Belgium was part of Holland, from which it was parted in 1831, and it is from that date that its history as a separate kingdom dates. However, from the days of the Caesars its provinces have often served as the battle ground of Europe. The battle of Waterloo was fought on the soil of the province of Cobrant in 1815.

Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was elected the first king of Belgium after its independence from Holland. In 1865, his son succeeded as Leopold II. In 1909, Albert I became King upon the death of his brother, Leopold II. Albert was married in 1900 to Princess Elizabeth of Bavaria. He was King at the outbreak of the war, and his heroism and patriotism proved him to be a King in a very real sense.

The patriotic and homeloving Belgians, employed in all the useful industries, making their small corner of the world respond to the needs of 622 persons to each square mile, were invaded by a powerful nation bent on a mission of conquest and devastation, a nation, moreover, which was pledged, along with other nations, to insure the integrity of Belgium and to protect her from invasion.

#### Serbia.

Serbia, the first to follow Belgium into servitude, was a kingdom at that time ruled by Peter Karageorgevitch, who was proclaimed King in 1903. It is located in the Balkan Peninsula and had participated in many wars. It took an active part in the Balkan wars of 1912-13.

Serbia is some larger than Belgium, having 18,455 square miles. It is for the most part a mountainous country, covered with fine forests. Acorn-fed hogs were plentiful for home consumption and exportation. Cattle and sheep were also raised in large numbers. As to surface,

the country may be compared with New Hampshire and Vermont in area, while its population is about three times as great as that of the two states. Their exports consisted of cereals, wool, timber, fruit and wine. The inhabitants were largely employed in farming, each man owning his own farm, which was usually small and cultivated in a somewhat primitive way. Oxen were used extensively. The Serbians were democratic in their institutions, and there were no paupers or asylums. They are a well-built, stalwart people. The old customs and beliefs are adhered to. At the beginning of the war the population was about two and one-half million. The capital is Belgrade. There is a large per cent. of Serbians who are unable to read or write, but education was improving, elementary education being compulsory, and provisions were made for higher learning.

#### The Government of Serbia.

The government of Serbia was a constitutional Monarchy; the King ruled through eight ministers, and they were accountable to the people. There was also a National Assembly and a Senate.

The army was well organized and included all men between the ages of twenty and fifty who were able to bear arms. It was a "National Army" and they proved to be stubborn fighters both in the Balkan Wars and in the World War, where much personal valor was displayed.

For the early date of Serbian history, it is necessary to go back to the year 638, when the inhabitants were distributed among the slopes of the Carpathian Mountains, from whence they migrated to Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, after which they soon accepted the Christian faith. At that time they were under feudal lords. In the year of 1165 a dynasty was formed lasting 200 years, and Stephen Dushan was its greatest prince. This monarch, a most distinguished ruler, reigned from 1336 to 1356. He conquered Bulgaria, Macedonia and Albania, and sought to weld Serbia, Bulgaria and Byzantium into a power strong enough to withstand the Turks; but he died before he could accomplish his purpose. His son succeeded to the throne, but proved to be too feeble for the task, and it was abandoned.

In 1389 Serbia lost its independence and endured 300 years of Turkish cruelty; 200,000 of her people were carried off as slaves and whole families were blotted out. Every seven years the youths were forced to become Moslems and Janizaries.

In 1718 Austria won Serbia from the Turks, but the possession was of short duration. After 21 years she was compelled to give it up.

One hundred and ten years before the outbreak of the World War (1804), a wealthy farmer and swine owner, Czerny George (Black George), originally George Petrovitch, led the people against Belgrade, took the city and drove the Janizaries out of the country. They were able further to beat back the Turks in 1809-10 by the aid of the Russians. Following these defeats, the Turks entered into a treaty, agreeing that the Serbians might manage their own affairs, but they soon broke the treaty, and Czerny George was forced to seek safety in Austria. Milosh Obrenovitch was the next to lead the people of Serbia to victory, when in 1815 he confined the Turks in the garrison. He then had his rival, Czerny George murdered, and succeeded in being proclaimed Prince of Serbia in 1829. He proved to be a despot, and finally was forced to yield the throne to his son Milan, but he was unable to retain it long and was succeeded by his brother Michael.

The rival faction, of whom the murdered Czerny George had been leader, finally succeeded in placing his son, Alexander Kara-George, on the throne. He proved to be a weak ruler and was driven out in 1858. Then Milosh Obrenovitch was again made prince, but being

aged soon died, and was succeeded by his son Michael, who proved to be an able ruler, and succeeded in having the Turkish garrison withdrawn from Serbia. In 1868 Michael was assassinated, and his cousin Milan Obrenovitch, grand nephew of Milosh, became prince, and in 1876 joined Herzegovina and Montenegro. He finally took part in the Russo-Turkish War and the independence of Serbia was secured, and in 1882 he was crowned King as Milan I. After seven years he abdicated in favor of his son, a youth of 13 years, who succeeded under a regency as Alexander I and took full charge in 1893. Ten years after, he and Queen Draga were assassinated and Peter Karageorgevitch was proclaimed King in 1903, and was King at the outbreak of the World War. In 1909 the country became involved in a diplomatic controversy with Austria over the annexation by the latter country of Bosnia and Herzegovina, but Serbia finally acceded. Then followed the Balkan wars in 1912-13. The next incident of importance and which furnished an excuse for the World War was the assassination of the Austrian Crown Prince while in Bosnia.

The story of the strong resistance which Serbia, unaided, was able to place against the enemy until finally by sheer force of numbers her people were driven into exile or enslaved at home or slain, is most pathetic.

Serbia, the second martyr nation in the World War, displayed bravery and patriotism, showing a determination to protect her rights, but, unhappily, her location made it difficult for any of her Allies to render aid, with the exception of Russia, but Russia was on the verge of a revolution, so Serbia, single-handed and alone, faced the enemy superior in numbers and was crushed.

#### France.

France, a Republic in the midst of Monarchies, was compelled, from the beginning of the World War, to fight for her very existence, and narrowly escaped the servitude thrust upon Belgium and Serbia by a common enemy.

France is the home of a practical people, and they have given a new meaning to zealous patriotism.

She was the real objective of Germany, and it was the fortitude and courage of the undaunted soldiers of France, who stood to a man to face the fiercest foe civilization has ever known, coupled with the wisdom of the leaders and the moral support of a memory of a peaceful home life, that France was saved. Saved for the future generation, for the present generation has been bowed low with horrors indelibly stamped upon their memory.

France is rich in fascinating stories of her heroic past—she had her Joan of Arc, her Napoleon and the Marquis de Lafayette, but now to her list of heroes and heroines must be added Joffre, Foch et al., and the martyred thousands at Verdun, on the Somme, and at the Marne, and millions of patriotic men and women who gave their all in the cause of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, the inalienable rights of all mankind.

In this sketch a short account of the location and growth of France will be given. France is located in the western part of Europe and contains 207,107 square miles, being about the size of the combined area of the two Dakotas and Iowa, comprising about one-nineteenth of Europe. It is bounded on the north by the English Channel, the Strait of Dover and the North Sea, on the northeast by Belgium and Germany, on the east by Switzerland and Italy, on the south by the Mediterranean Sea and by Spain, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean and the English Channel. To the northeast are the lowlands. As to the climate

France may be divided into three industrial regions—that of wheat, wine, and oil. The northeast region, including Brittany, is subject to fogs, mists and cold summers, the climate in that section being not unlike that of England. The Mediterranean regions are hot, with dry summers, suitable for the growth of figs, olives and citron. The region lying between these extremes is a land of vineyards and wheat fields. The southwestern portion of France is a table land, with deep narrow valleys and mountain chains, and on the south and southeast borders are the Pyrenees and Alps. The land frontiers are composed almost entirely of mountain chains. These are traversed by natural passes. The mountains of France are low. Rivers are numerous, but there are no notable lakes. France is divided into 87 departments. Three-fourths of the people live in the country. One-half of the people live by agriculture and grow wheat, oats, rye, barley, buckwheat and corn. The sugar beet industry was important. The vineyards occupy 4½ million acres. Market gardening was carried on to perfection and on an extensive scale. Cattle breeding, raising horses, mules and sheep were large industries prior to the war. The fisheries were important; minerals are few; manufacturing was important, ranking first in silk and high in cotton goods.

The cities of France are numerous and large. Paris, the capital, situated on the Seine, is the second largest city of Europe. The artistic taste of the people is proverbial and manifests itself in the manufactured products. Exquisite lace, porcelain and carpets are examples of the productions. Paris rivaled the world in the manufacturing of jewels. In education France occupies an enviable position among the countries of Europe. Provisions are made for instruction in all branches, from the primer grades to the university. The metric system, which is now used, or coming into use, throughout the world, was adopted by France about 1789.

France is a Republic and the president is elected for seven years. In 1906 Clement Armand Fallières was elected president. He was succeeded in 1913 by Raymond Poincaré, who continued as president during the World War.

There are two houses, the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. There is also a Cabinet of eleven ministers.

#### Early History.

Julius Caesar, who invaded and conquered France in 58 B. C. and made it a Roman province, is the earliest historian of the country, which was then called Gaul and the people were called Celts. The name, France, was derived from the Franks after the decline of the Roman Empire. The region formerly covered not only all France, but also Belgium and part of Switzerland and Germany. While the Celts at that early date were a rough savage people, yet they had towns and fortifications, and knew arts of embroidery and working in metals. They also had some agricultural implements.

In 481, Clovis wrested France from the Romans and established the capital at Paris. He was a descendant of Merovaeus, and the dynasty was thus called Merovingian. At the time of Caesar's invasion France was idolatrous, females were slaves, and prisoners were barbarously treated. Clovis became converted to the Christian faith, and in the year of 496 was baptized in the famous Gothic structure of the thirteenth century, the Cathedral of Rheims, which will also be remembered as having been shelled by the Huns during the early part of the World War.

Charlemagne began to reign in 768, and was the greatest ruler of the second dynasty (Carlovingian), and under him France was

elevated to a higher position. The real founder of the French Empire, however, as distinguished from the Frankish or Germanic of the previous dynasties, was Hugh Capet, Count of Paris and Orleans, who was made King by the Feudal Chiefs in 987. Following this was a long period in which that dynasty endeavored to reclaim former power. The issue was several times determined by resorting to war. Philip VI, about two centuries after the reign of Hugh Capet, ushered in the House of Valois (1328-50), and this led to a series of wars with England.

The foundation of a great monarchy was laid by Louis IV, after the victories in which Joan of Arc played so important a part. Following this, Francis I and Francis II reigned, and the country was continuously in war, mostly of a religious nature.

When Louis XIII ascended the throne in 1610, he sided with the talented, energetic and ambitious Richelieu, who was placed at the head of the State as prime minister. Louis XIII died in 1643, and Louis XIV ascended to the throne. Under his reign (1643-1715) the French Monarchy reached its highest pinnacle of luxury and power. He extended the borders of France to the Rhine. Art, literature and science flourished in an unprecedented degree. He was followed by Louis XV (1715-74), who added Corsica to France, but the treaty of Paris, 1763, gave England the greater part of the French colonies. Following this was a dark period for France. The weakness of Louis XVI (1774-93), although a well-meaning prince, rendered him futile on the throne, and the general spirit of unrest which characterized the closing of the eighteenth century and the influence of the success of the American Revolution culminated in a revolution in 1789, and four years later the King was beheaded. After two years, weary and reduced by bloodshed, an amnesty was declared and Napoleon Bonaparte made consul, and finally in 1804 he was declared Emperor by a vote of the people. The story of Napoleon's career is an account of one continuous success until 1811, when he was checked. He was defeated in 1814, just 100 years before the World War commenced. Paris capitulated and Napoleon was banished to Elba. Louis XVIII succeeded to the French throne. Napoleon returned, but met his final defeat at Waterloo in 1815 and was banished to St. Helena.

A long line of French Kings ended with Louis Philippe, and a Republic was formed. Louis Napoleon was elected first President of the Republic, but was later made Emperor, in 1851, with the title of Napoleon III. He reigned nearly twenty years.

In 1870-71 the Franco-Prussian War began, and at Sedan the Emperor yielded to Prussia, lost Alsace and Lorraine, and France again became a Republic, the first president being M. Thiers. The new Republic had many difficult problems, and troublesome times were experienced, but, being practical, they recognized the importance of restoring the prosperity of the people, which they set about to do. The war indemnity they were required to pay to Germany was \$1,000,000,000.00 in gold.

In the short space of forty-three years France had recovered from the drainage of defeat in the war, when again she was invaded by her ancient enemy, and the conflict rapidly developed into the World War, in which most civilized nations participated for the cause of Liberty and Justice.

The Battle Ground of Nations! The sacred plains of patriotism—the zone of Loyalty and Devotion! Belgium, France and Serbia, your sacrifices have not been in vain! The impress of the image of your undaunted hearts shall long endure in the minds of men!

PUBLISHERS.

## CHAPTER I.

## THE CAUSES OF THE WAR.

(1) The War the result of the unstable condition of the European Political Situation since 1870.

The Great War of 1914 began suddenly, but not without warning. At the time in neutral nations and even in the great and extensive British Empire much surprise and astonishment were created by the apparent suddenness of the outbreak. But people living near a volcano are usually oblivious to its existence until an eruption commences. Europe since 1870 and especially since 1907 has been such a volcano.

Very few in Germany and not many more in France were surprised when war was declared. - Since 1871 these two countries have been piling up armaments against each other. Great Britain was unprepared for anything but a war at sea. Even the scare books dealing with the "Invasion of 1910" and the speeches of Lord Roberts had failed to arouse the island kingdoms to a sense of actual danger. Some British statesmen, especially Sir Edward Grey, understood how dangerous the international situation was, but for the most part the Asquith Government was more interested in the Irish question and social reform than in the possibility of a general European war. Of the non-European powers, Japan probably understood the situation of affairs best, and was prepared to settle old scores against Germany by attacking Kiao-Chau.

To be sure the actual outbreak of war was sudden, but thinking men had long prophesied war. There had been war scares in plenty during the past few years and it was known that Germany's preparations for war were nearly complete at a time when those of Russia and France were far from satisfactory. In modern warfare the element of surprise is still of vital importance, but "preparedness" is even more essential. For forty years Germany had been preparing and in 1913 had made great

sacrifices to make her army as efficient as possible. Special taxes had been raised to be paid by July 1, 1914. Strategic railways had been built along the French, Belgian and Russian frontiers. As in 1870 the war machine was prepared.

None of the Entente Allies was in anywhere so advanced a state of preparation. France in 1913 passed the famous three years law whereby every able-bodied Frenchman had to serve three years with the colors. In this way it was hoped with the expected and probable assistance of the British fleet to overcome to some extent the disparity in numbers between the French and German armies. Russia had very largely recovered from her defeat in the Russo-Japanese war, but she lacked strategic railways and, as events have proved, not only arms and ammunition, but also efficient and loyal leadership. Great Britain had her navy, but her army was insignificant in comparison with the conscript armies of Europe. But what there was of it was well trained and able to give a good account of itself. The British Expeditionary Force will go down in history as one of the finest fighting armies the world has ever seen.

With Germany was Austria-Hungary and, as a more doubtful ally, Italy. In case of an offensive war Austria-Hungary alone could be relied on. But the Austrian army was modelled after that of Germany and was very well supplied with heavy artillery. Turkey, too, might be looked upon as a German ally.

Such then was the situation when the Austrian Crown Prince was assassinated at Sarajevo (June 28, 1914). Few then saw the importance of that event, but it was the spark that fired the powder train. The Austrian note to Serbia, which was really the first diplomatic move toward war, put the blame for the murder on Serbia. Serbia protested her innocence and agreed to terms humiliating in the extreme. But it was soon evident that Austria was intent on war and was acting on orders received from Berlin. Russia mobilized to help Serbia, and Germany further complicated the situation by enquiring into the Russian mobilization. Then came the German invasion of Belgium and



France and the intervention of the British Empire.

The murderous onslaught of the German Empire on Belgium and France at first sight seemed to have but little connection with Austria's quarrel with a small Balkan State. But we now know that it was part of a deep-laid plan. France was to be humbled and crushed; Belgium was merely an incidental—a road to Paris; then accounts could be settled with Russia. Even if Great Britain did not remain neutral it was not thought that her "contemptible little army" could do much. The Kaiser had promised his troops that they would again be in their homes before the leaves fell. Germany had chosen her time for war and the Entente nations were very imperfectly prepared. In Great Britain the Irish problem had become acute and Carson's "army" was mobilized in Ulster. All France was taken up with the Caillaux trial. Russian military preparations were far from complete. It was the middle of summer and men were more intent on enjoying their summer vacations than worried over a quarrel between Austria and Serbia.

To be sure there had been ten days of extreme tension in diplomatic circles from July 23 to August 1, from the Austrian note to Serbia to Germany's ultimatum to Russia. But even then, in England at any rate, the man in the street was not interested in this quarrel in Eastern Europe. The more far-seeing considered war possible and even probable, but to the last it was hoped that peace would be maintained.

Then came the awful three days from August 1 to August 4 when Belgium was invaded, France forced to fight and the British Empire roused to battle. The Grand Fleet was mobilized and ready for action. The British ultimatum expired at midnight on August 4, and by the morning of August 5 the Central Empires were faced by the Triple Entente plus the heroic Belgian nation. The greatest war in human history had begun.

The first shock of battle had hardly been experienced when the astonished world began to enquire "What started this thing?" The world did not have long to wait for an answer. The British

Expeditionary Force was hardly in action before the British Government laid its cards on the table and gave out the Diplomatic Correspondence which had passed between the British Embassies in the belligerent countries and the British Foreign Office. This correspondence clearly showed that Great Britain had tried to keep the peace and had only declared war on Germany when there was no other possible alternative. The German counterblast, the "White Book," tried to place the blame on Russia. This claim was rebutted by the Russian Orange Book. Soon the official statements multiplied and the conflict of colors, —the yellow of France, the blue of Serbia and of Great Britain, the orange of Russia, the gray of Belgium, the white of Germany and the red of Austria-Hungary—seemed as if the spectrum itself was engaged in civil war. These publications still form the evidence on which the guilt for the outbreak of the world war must be assessed. But most of the thinking world has long ago accepted the verdict of the anonymous author of *J'Accuse*, himself a German, when he says, "Germany and Austria are responsible for the world war."

How was it possible that the Central Empires were able to bring about the world war? The answer to this will be found in a consideration of the unstable condition of the European political situation since 1870.

→ In 1870-1 occurred the Franco-Prussian War, during which the Empire of Napoleon III was destroyed in France and the modern German Empire was founded. France the vanquished, was stripped of Alsace-Lorraine, and Germany, with the conquered province, obtained an evil legacy. The French indemnity of a billion dollars enriched the German Empire but it was a poor return for French hatred and desire for revenge. The advice of Gambetta regarding Alsace-Lorraine, "Think of it always, speak of it never" has been carefully treasured and almost religiously instilled into the minds of the younger generation. In every diplomatic move in Europe since 1871 France and Germany have been on opposite sides.

But the German victory in 1870 did more than to incur for the victor the wrath of the vanquished. It broke up the old "Concert of Europe." The old order of things in which the four great Powers, Russia, France, Austria and Great Britain formed the backbone of the "Concert of Europe" and kept the peace by a mutual toleration of each other's ambitions was gone forever. Two new powers had appeared, Italy and Germany, and they claimed admission to the sacred circle. Germany's claim was far too great to be ignored.

Germany, as a result of her victories, occupied the centre of the diplomatic stage, and Bismarck, the great Imperial Chancellor, was in reality the arbiter of Europe. Fortunately for Europe, Bismarck's policy was peace. He saw that the new German Empire needed time to become consolidated and unified. The three wars, the Danish war in 1864, the Seven Weeks' war with Austria in 1866 and the Franco-Prussian War in 1870-1 had given Germany all the territory she required, and the huge French indemnity provided her with funds for commercial and industrial expansion. Germany's chief danger lay in the possible combination of her enemies against her. This, Bismarck, one of the greatest diplomats of all time, took as his special mission to avoid. He formed first the League of Three Emperors in 1872 and then in 1879 the Dual Alliance of Germany and Austria. This last alliance became the well-known Triple Alliance by the entrance of Italy in 1882. The League of the Three Emperors of Russia, Austria, and Germany was an attempt on Bismarck's part to checkmate any possible friendship between France and Russia, and to bind Eastern Europe together in a league to suppress democracy. It failed on account of the increasing jealousies of Austria and Russia. The Dual and Triple Alliances were an attempt to secure the interests of Central Europe and to drive a wedge between the Russian Empire and the Western powers. In this Bismarck was successful. Until his fall from power in 1890 there was no attempt on the part of the other European powers to combine against the Triple Alliance. They

were too busy pursuing their own plans.

The fall of Bismarck two years after the accession of the present Kaiser brought a change in the diplomatic situation. William II became the director of his own foreign policy and began to dream of world power. It was not enough for him to dominate the continent of Europe, he sought by means of the Triple Alliance, by his Entente with Turkey, by the new German Colonial Empire and above all by the German fleet to become the lord of the world. As he put it in his own grandiloquent phrase on the occasion of the launching of a battleship in 1900, "The Ocean teaches us that on its waves and on its most distant shores no great decision can any longer be taken without Germany and without the German Empire."

But these aspirations of the would-be lord of the world were not to pass without opposition. Russia and France drew closer together and in 1897 announced the formation of a new Dual Alliance. This alliance, to be sure, was directed as much against Great Britain as against Germany. But after the Boer War (1899-1902) Great Britain abandoned her "grand isolation" and sought new friends. The Anglo-French Entente and the Anglo-Russian Entente were concluded, and in 1907 was completed the Triple Entente of England, France and Russia.

The next seven years (1907-1914) were full of unrest. Germany bitterly resented the formation of this new league and began to denounce the scheme of her enemies to "encircle" her. She advanced "interests" in Morocco and added "Dreadnoughts" to her fleet which was by now easily the second strongest in the world. She encouraged her ally Austria-Hungary to annex Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908. This was a direct breach of the Berlin Treaty of 1878 which had left these provinces under Turkish suzerainty but allowed Austria to occupy them and govern them. This action on Austria's part was a check to Russian ambitions in the Balkans. Germany stood beside Austria in "shining armor" and Russia and Serbia had to give way.

The next great crisis was in 1911 when war almost occurred between France and Germany on the subject of Morocco. It was made evident on that occasion that Great Britain would stand by France and the Entente Cordiale between England and France was a real bond between the two countries. Germany was no longer able to bully all Europe at her pleasure.

The Balkan Wars (1912-13) as will be seen later, upset the plans of the Central Empires in the Near East and seriously weakened the power of Turkey. A general European war was narrowly averted mainly through the energy and tact of Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister.

But it was evident to most thinking Europeans that a war of the first magnitude was not only possible but probable. In that war Germany and Austria would probably take the offensive but also if possible try to make their own people believe that they were fighting in defense of their liberties. There was just enough truth in Germany's claim that the Entente Allies were trying to "encircle" her, to gain the whole-hearted support of the German people for the plans of aggression devised by the military authorities. The advantage of "preparedness" in this war would be with the Central Empires. The plan was to crush France and then to turn on Russia. It was a bold stroke and it very nearly succeeded.

Thus we see that since 1870 Europe has been divided into two hostile camps headed respectively by Germany and France. Throughout the early part of the period Germany was able to dominate the international situation. The policy of Bismarck was peace and that peace he maintained by attempted friendship with Russia and by the Triple Alliance. The other great powers were pursuing their own designs and Great Britain stood apart from France and Russia. After the fall of Bismarck the "world policy" of William II caused these three nations gradually to draw together in the Triple Entente. This was accomplished by 1907. From then till the outbreak of war in 1914 there was almost constant friction between the Central Empires and the

Triple Entente. The murder of the Austrian Archduke in June, 1914, gave the excuse for war.

## II. The Modern German Empire (1871-1914).

The German Empire was founded by Bismarck during the years 1866 to 1871 on a basis of "blood and iron." It is before all else a military state under Prussian leadership and control. The King of Prussia is the German Emperor and head of a federation of states. But this federation is unlike any other in existence in that the separate states are not upon an equality. In the United States the rights of each state are equal and in the Dominion of Canada the rights of each province are equal. Any attempt of one state or of a province or any number of either to dominate the others will not be endured. But in the German Empire, Prussia is all powerful. To begin with, the Kingdom of Prussia contains more than 60% of both the territory and population of the Empire. Moreover the government is so formed that the real power in the Empire is in the hands, not of the people's representatives, the Reichstag or Lower House, but in those of the Emperor, the Imperial Chancellor and the Federal Council or Bundesrat, the Imperial Upper House. The Emperor must be a Prussian, the Chancellor can hardly belong to any other German state, and Prussia is able to control the Bundesrat. The smaller states have certain rights, but they have little chance to oppose Prussia, except, perhaps, in the case of Bavaria and Saxony. Thus the Empire is, to quote a well-known phrase, "a league between a lion, half a dozen foxes and a score of mice."

The constitution of the German Empire, therefore, tends to put supreme power in the hands of the Emperor and his Ministers. These ministers are not responsible to the Reichstag who cannot turn them out of office if it chooses. Of course an unpopular Chancellor can be got rid of, but usually it means that the Emperor is ready to let him go, e.g., in the World War the fall of von Bethmann-Hollweg. There can, obviously, be no complete system

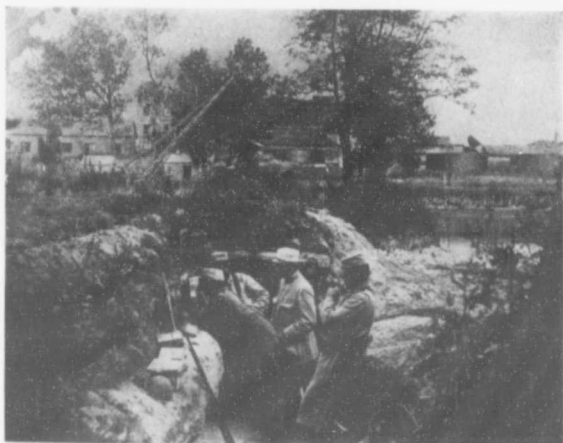


Photo supplied by International Film Service, Inc.

**A FRENCH COMMANDER'S OBSERVATION POST AND DUGOUT.**

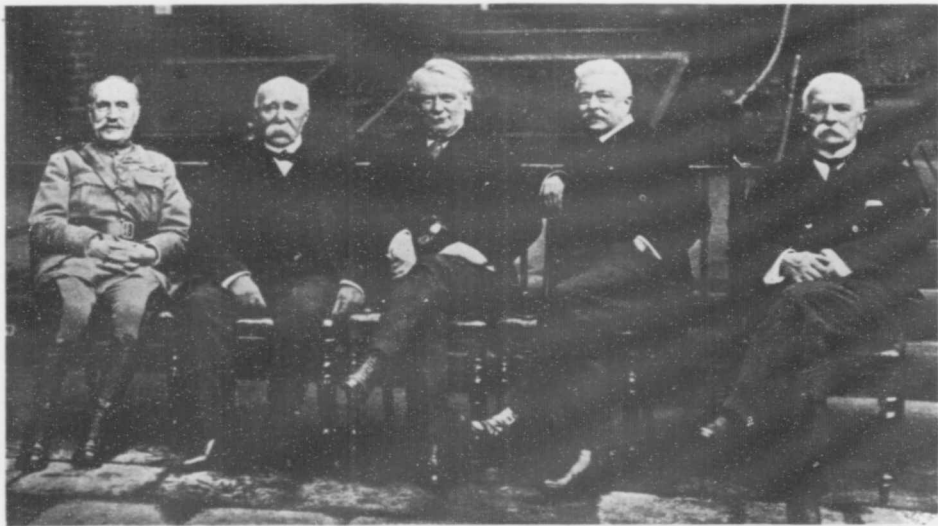
It was from posts such as these, not far behind the front line defense, that orders were sent out to the various under officers.



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**A TELEPHONE STATION.**

A Captain of the Field Artillery, megaphone in hand, receiving reports from observation posts via the field telephone. Information thus received enabled the battery commander to direct his men intelligently.



REMARKABLE GROUP OF ALLIED HEADS.

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From left to right they are: Marshal Foch, Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Armies; Premier Georges Clemenceau of France; Premier Lloyd George of England; Premier Orlando of Italy, and Baron Sonnino, the Italian Foreign Secretary.

This photograph was taken on December 7th, 1918, in the courtyard of No. 19 Downing Street, London, the home of Premier Lloyd George, where Marshal Foch and some of the Allied heads gathered at a preliminary peace conference to discuss the terms of the Allies, to be proposed at the Peace Conference at Versailles.

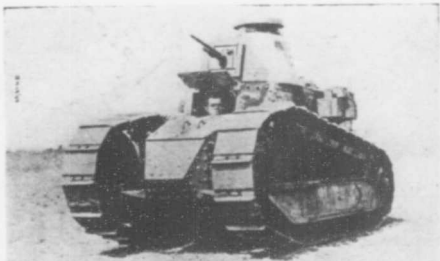




BRITISH TANK BRITANNIA AT CAMP UPTON.

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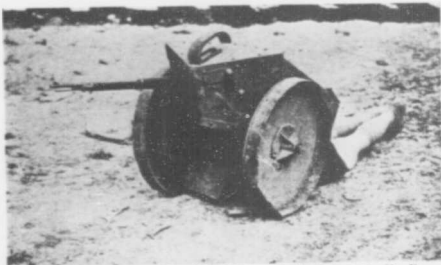
The British Tank Britannia was brought to the United States and used in a recruiting campaign, at which time it was in charge of Captain Richard Haigh, who had been twice wounded, and a crew of men all of whom had been wounded. The Britannia weighs thirty-six tons, travels over rough country, hills, banks and trenches at the rate of about four miles an hour, and is armed with six Lewis machine guns. She climbs almost impossible inclines, crosses broad and deep trenches and smashes forty foot trees. The Britannia fought in the battle of the Somme and has been "over the top" three times.



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BABY MACHINE GAS TANK AT AN AMERICAN TANK SCHOOL IN FRANCE.



Copyright International Film Service, Inc.  
MAJOR BRETT OF PORTLAND, OREGON, COMMANDER OF A TANK SECTION.



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A German Miniature Tank used by enemy as sniping post, captured by Canadians, November, 1918.

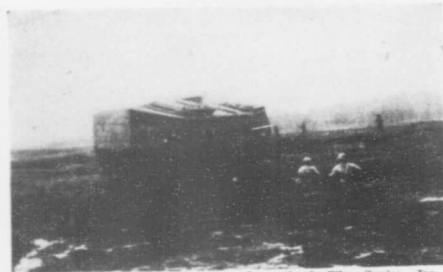


Photo by International Film Service, Inc.  
FRENCH TANK.



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Laying of foundation stones of Hebrew University at Jerusalem.  
This is a part of the fitting of Palestine for its settlement by the Jews  
from other lands.



British Official Photograph.

Supplied by International Film Service, Inc.

**BRITISH SOLDIERS USING A CAPTURED GERMAN GUN ON RE-  
TREATING GERMANS.**

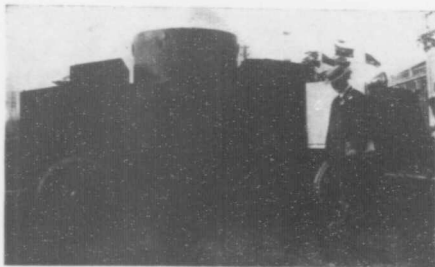


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**GENERAL SIR JULIAN BYNG.**  
Commander of British Armies in front of Cambrai.  
General Sir Julian had great faith in the possibilities  
of the "tank" and demonstrated their value from the  
morning of November 30th, 1917, when dozens of the  
big engines of destruction waddled through the Ger-  
man wire and across German trenches, clearing the  
way for the infantry and cavalry.



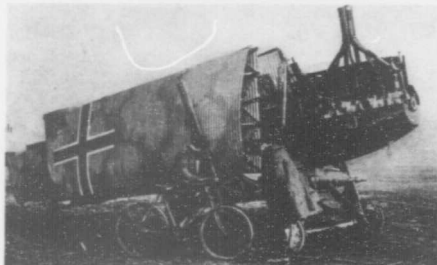
IN THE AVIATION FIELD NEAR TORONTO, CANADA.



ARMORED CAR.  
Canadian Exhibition, Toronto, Canada.



GENERAL SIR HENRY RAWLINSON.



Canadian official photograph, Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

#### AEROPLANE.

The Germans sprang many surprises during the course of the war but it is doubtful if any caused the excitement that this one did. The Canadians en route to Germany stumbled across this enemy plane which had been deserted. Close examination proved the machine to be made entirely of metal. The huge, sweeping wings and fuselage were made of tin, with the framework of iron and steel.

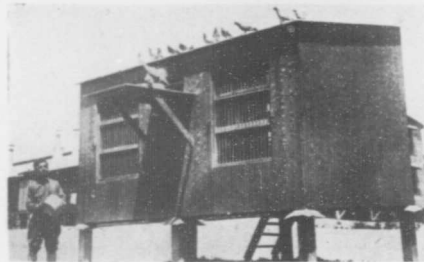


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 Photograph from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
**TAKING PIGEONS TO THE FRONT.**

This American Marine is carrying pigeons to the trenches to take messages back to headquarters when all other means of communication are interrupted.



British official photograph. Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.



Photograph from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
 The upper picture shows a British Tommy experimenting with a gas proof box for pigeons, captured from the Germans by the British.  
 The lower picture shows a pigeon house at Camp Gordon, Ga. By shaking corn in a tin pall the pigeons are called back to their loft.

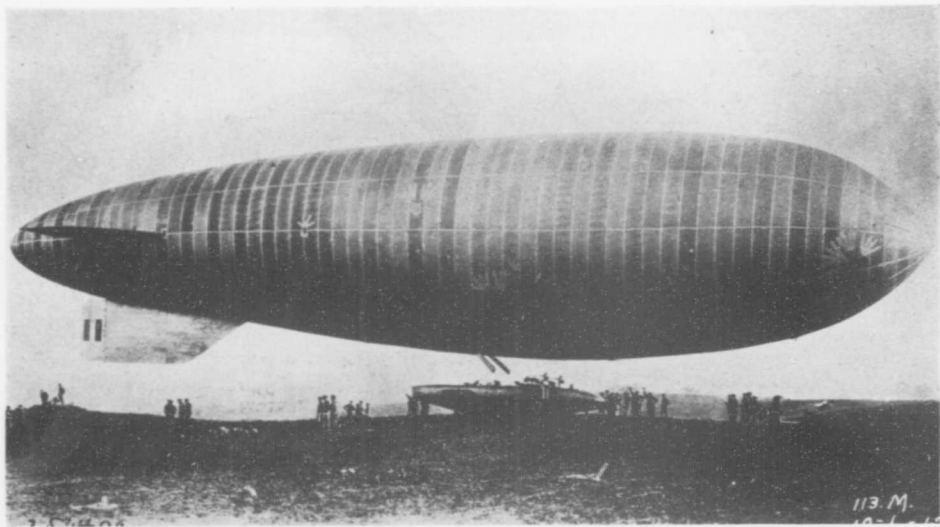


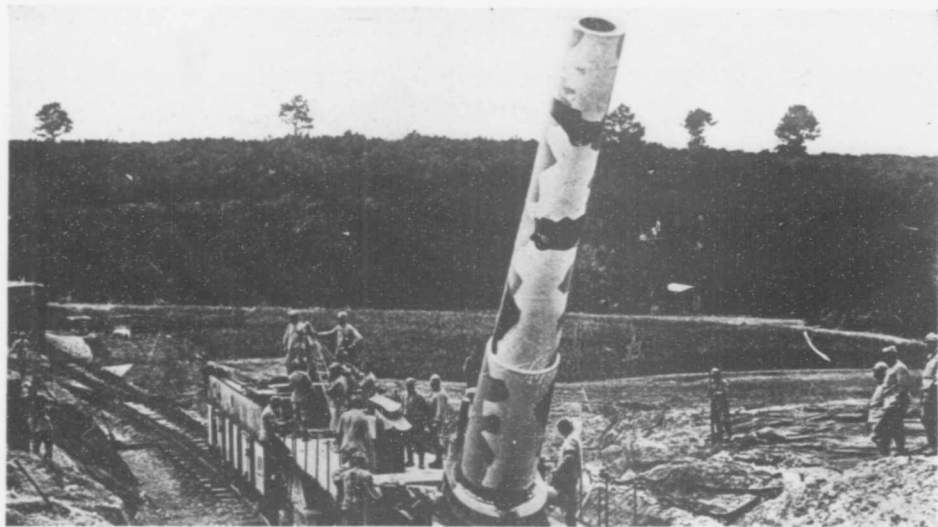
Photo from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
THE LARGEST DIRIGIBLE BALLOON IN AMERICA.



Photograph from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

**LATEST CURTISS BIPLANE ESTABLISHES RECORD AS FASTEST IN THE WORLD.**

In an official Navy test, this Curtiss Biplane established a new world's mark for speed and climbing. Fully loaded and equipped this plane achieved the speed of 160 miles an hour and climbed 12,500 in 10 minutes. The machine is equipped with a Curtiss type model X 12 cylinder engine, capable of attaining 400 H. P. The plane is the very latest Curtiss, type 18. The photo shows it at the plant of the Curtiss Engineering Corporation, Roosevelt Field, Garden City, L. I.

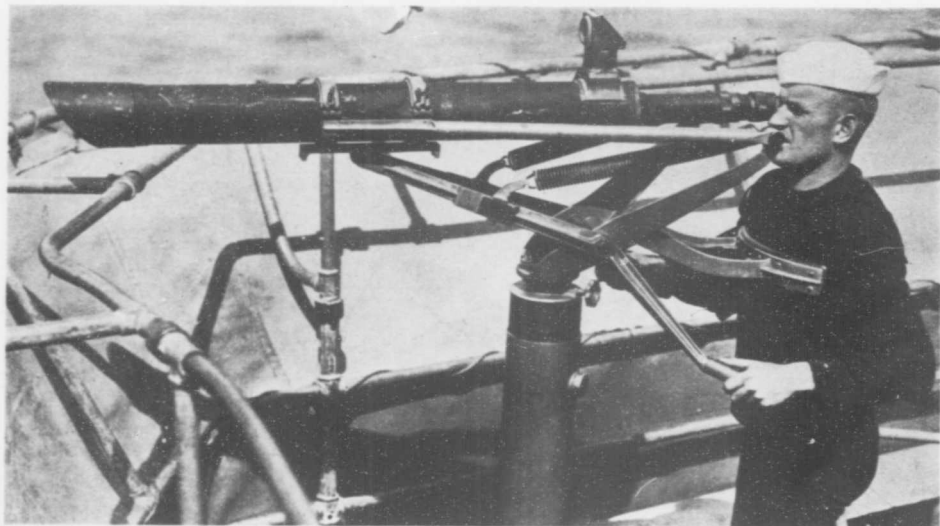


CAMOUFLAGED BIG GUN.

Mounted on a specially constructed railroad carriage this big French 400 mm. gun was used on the German forces making the drive on the Somme front. It was exceedingly well camouflaged to prevent detection by Boche aerial observers. Guns this size did good work by mowing down at long range the close packed masses of Germans as they advanced in the latest offensive.

Photograph from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

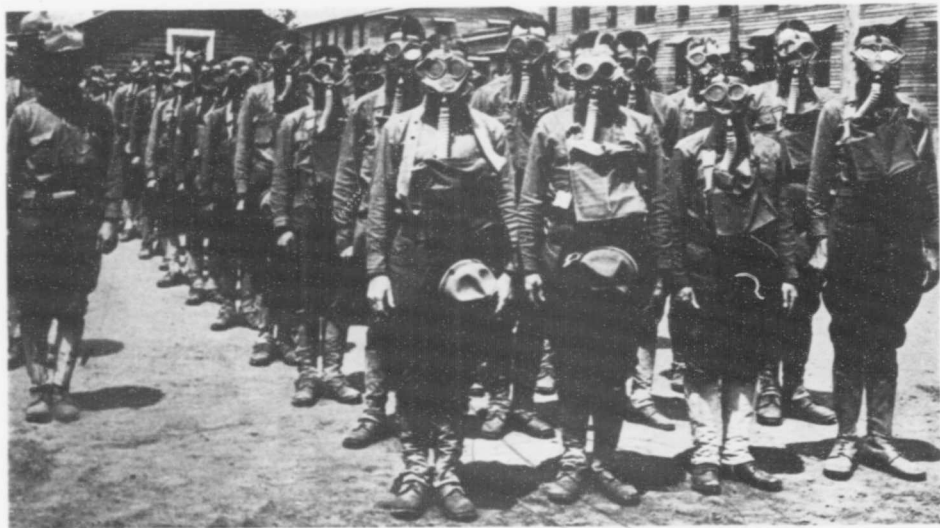




**EVER WATCHFUL.**

Copyright by N. G. Moser, from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

Sighting through the 40 power telescope on the U. S. S. Pennsylvania. Objects at great distances are clearly distinguished through this telescope.



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**FINAL STEPS IN THE MAKING OF AMERICAN SOLDIER—GAS DRILL.**

A gasmask drill at Camp Dix, New Jersey. This instruction is one of the final steps in a soldier's training before he starts abroad to fight the Germans.



Photograph from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
MODEL TRENCH SYSTEM USED TO TEACH NATIONAL ARMY SOLDIERS.



EMPEROR WILHELM AND FAMILY.

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The group photo shows the Hohenzollern family at the height of their popularity and from right to left they are: Prince Oscar and wife; the Duke of Brunswick, his wife and two children; Prince August Wilhelm, wife and child; Prince Joachim and wife; the ex-Kaiserin and ex-Kaiser Wilhelm; the ex-Crown Prince, his wife and five children; Prince Adalbert and wife; Prince Eitel Frederick and his wife (now divorced).

It can be emphatically stated that one of the reasons for the prolongation of the war by Germany was the fact that should Germany be beaten it would mean the end of the Hohenzollern family, the name of which Wilhelm's father, grandfather and great-grandfather, made a household word in all Germany. And that was exactly what happened.

The end of the war and the abdication of Emperor Wilhelm, marked the end of the family of Hohenzollerns in the limelight of the German society and royalty.



EMPEROR WILHELM AND HIS WAR LORDS.

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EX-CZAR OF RUSSIA.



Photo by International Film Service, Inc.  
GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA.

of democratic government in Germany until the powers of the Reichstag or Lower House are extended.

But that is not all. The Emperor, or Kaiser as he is usually called, is commander in chief of the army, and by the constitution every able-bodied German is required to serve as a soldier. The army, therefore, becomes the great training ground for efficiency and obedience. The officers form a caste apart, and are recruited chiefly from the nobility and the upper middle classes. Before the World War, no Jew had a chance to become an officer. In time of war the military authorities become the real rulers of the country and even in peace times their influence is tremendous. The army is, therefore, one of the great pillars of the Empire. The German proverb on the subject is "Without an army, no Germany," ("Ohne Armee Kein Deutschland"): it is not far from the truth.

The other great pillar of the German Empire is the bureaucracy or the official class. In no other country of Europe, except possibly in Russia before the fall of the Czars, has the official class played such an important part. From the Imperial Chancellor to the railway conductor all are state officials and do their part in ruling the country. Their work is thorough and efficient. Corruption is practically unknown and everything is thought out and regulated. The police, for example, keep a record of the movements of every German citizen and also of every foreigner staying in the country. In this way nothing is lost sight of, and everything goes by clockwork.

Education is under the control of the various German states, but the model of Prussia is carefully followed. The professors of the universities are government appointees and are, therefore, state officials. Intellectual freedom is tolerated provided that it does not contravene the best interests of the state. German education is, of course, very thorough and absolutely efficient, but it has a tendency to narrowness and over-specialization. From the elementary school to the university every student is instructed according to the program laid down by the govern-

ing class. Obedience is early taught and soon becomes second nature.

From the foregoing pages it is evident that German organization is painstaking and thorough. Nowhere has this been more noticeable than in industry and commerce. Before the outbreak of the World War, German commerce and industry had increased by leaps and bounds. Certain manufactured products, e.g., aniline dyes were almost exclusively German, and German steel and iron had markets throughout the world. From 1872 to 1905 both the export and the import trade of Germany doubled. Since 1905 this increase has been, if anything, proportionately greater. Both Great Britain and the United States felt German competition and enterprise in every world market.

Two of the greatest steamship lines in the world, the Hamburg-American and the North German Lloyd were both German owned and controlled and their vessels called at all the chief gates of the globe. The "Imperator" and the "Vaterland" rivalled the "Aquitania" and the "Olympic." Before the war one of the favorite advertising devices of these German lines was to display a map of the world indicating the exact position of each vessel of their huge fleets. There was practically no ocean, however distant, that did not see the black, white and red of the German merchant service. Today that huge commerce has disappeared.

To back this huge commerce the leaders of German industry had founded huge manufacturing plants scattered throughout Germany, many of them in Silesia and Saxony and in Westphalia around Dortmund and Essen. A trip through Westphalia reminded one of the great coal and iron regions around Pittsburg, or of the English "Black Country" centering around Wolverhampton and Birmingham. "Krupp's" at Essen needs no introduction to the world, but "Krupp's" was only one of many great industrial plants, albeit by far the most outstanding.

In Germany, as in the United States and in Canada, there have been combinations of producers to eliminate competition. In



America this has usually taken the form of "Trusts" in which a great business corporation takes over permanent control of a certain industry and crushes competition. In Germany the various competitors come to terms and form an agreement for a term of years only. Such a combination is by the Germans called a Cartel and has been defined by Dr. Tschierschky of Dusseldorf as "a community of interests brought about by means of a voluntary agreement of the independent producers ("entrepreneurs") of an industry with the purpose of monopolizing the market." These Cartels have a great influence in Germany and are looked upon with favor by the government. In fact in many cases the government has become a partner in the cartel and has even tried to keep out foreign competition. (1)

Industry and commerce in modern Germany are in close alliance with the rulers of the country. Herr Ballin, the head of the Hamburg-American Line, is a great personal friend of the Kaiser. On the occasion of the marriage of Fraulein Bertha Krupp, the heiress of the famous steel works, to Dr. von Bohlen-Halbach, the "All-Highest," himself, toasted the happy couple in the name of the Empire. "Big Business" is never allowed to get out of hand, but is organized for national and international purposes. Thus the great A. E. G. *Allgemeine Electricitats Gesellschaft (General Electric Company)* has its head office in Berlin and not only controls the German electrical business, but has or had branches in Russia, France, Austria, Italy, Sweden, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, South Africa the Dutch East Indies and South America. Its capital is estimated at \$1,000,000,000, and it has built up this enormous business in a little over thirty years. Emil Rathenau, the founder and head of the Company, ranks with Ballin of the Hamburg-American Line, and with Thyssen, the steel, iron and coal "king" in the great trio of self-made men who stand at the head of German commerce and industry.

(1) Kartell und Trust, P, 54 Leipzig, 1911.

House? It is hard to answer this finally, but one should remember that the German workman, as every other German, was trained to obey, and that the government in return for obedience granted him certain favors. The so-called State-Socialism of Bismarck which provided old age pensions, accident and sickness insurance in aid of the working man, was an attempt on the part of the government to check the spread of Socialism. The Social-Democratic party, of which so much has been said, was excellently organized and well led. In any other country but Germany, it would have been a strong political party representing the claims of labor, and on account of its numbers it would have held the balance of power in the state. In Germany, on account of the weakness of the Reichstag, it could only protest and annoy the government. It should be remembered that in the Zabern affair in 1913, Lieutenant von Förstner is reported toward the Social Democrats. The Crown Prince telegraphed to have offered any of his men ten marks, in case of trouble, for bringing down a Social Democrat. This young military fire-eater expressed the opinion of the governing class his congratulations on that occasion, and told the young lieutenant "to go right ahead." The military and the bureaucracy were not in love with these representatives of the lower classes who dared to protest in favor of their rights.

However, on the whole, the German workman gave little trouble to the government. He worked long hours and, according to our standards, receives little pay; but he was provided with cheap amusements, good theatres, concerts, café and the like. There was little poverty to be seen, and there were practically no beggars or vagrants. Even the news vendors were in uniform and were usually unfit for other work.

In short, Modern Germany resembled, more than anything else, a well-constructed, well oiled machine. Every

part was in its place and everything acting in harmony. The supervising brain was the Kaiser's and his orders were obeyed to the merest detail. Very little was left to individual initiative, everything being thought out in advance. Obedience, and Efficiency became the watchwords of Germany and finally to these was added World-Power.

### III. European Expansion (1878-1914).

The Franco-Prussian War broke up the old order of things in Europe. This was well illustrated by the attitude taken by Bismarck at the Congress of Berlin in 1878. That Congress met to provide a solution for the Balkan question and, if possible, to settle the points at issue between Turkey, Bulgaria, Austria and Russia. Russia was at the time backing Bulgaria, hoping by a "greater Bulgaria" to head off Austrian designs in the Balkans and to break Turkey's power. Bismarck took up the attitude of arbiter, and claimed that the whole affair wasn't "worth the bones of a Pomeranian grenadier." He called himself the "Honest Broker," but we can see now that he really assisted Austria to obtain a strong foothold in the Balkans by putting Bosnia-Herzegovina under her protection. Russia, in disgust, began to turn her attention to the Far East.

From 1878 on, the world has witnessed the growth of two new world empires, the French and the German, and the further extension of two others, the British and the Russian.

It will be well to consider these four world-empires more in detail.

#### (1) France.

In 1871 France lost Alsace-Lorraine, but, since 1878, she has built up the great Black Empire in northern and central Africa. Algeria has been in French hands since 1830, but Tunis was annexed in 1881. This annexation angered Italy and was one reason why the Italians joined the Triple

Alliance in 1882. In 1891 the Ivory Coast, and in 1892 Dahomey were occupied. Madagascar was added in 1895, and in 1898 British and French forces clashed at Fashoda on the Upper Nile. Although for a time it seemed as if Britain and France would come to blows, the result of this clash was not war, but a withdrawal of the French forces from the Nile and a further French advance in North West Africa.

In the meantime the ancient Sultanate of Morocco was being quietly overrun by the French and Spanish. In 1906 a tacit agreement was made by the two countries, assigning to each "spheres of influence" in Morocco. Germany, in the meantime, discovered "interests" in Morocco and the Kaiser arrived at Tangier to proclaim himself the protector of the Mohammedans and the supporter of the "independence and integrity" of Morocco. The incident clearly showed that Germany had designs in Morocco. At the time, France carried her point, but Morocco in 1911 again became a storm center for European diplomacy. On that occasion France obtained a free hand in Morocco, but was forced to give up territory in Equatorial Africa to Germany.

(2) Germany.

The German Empire came late upon the scene as a world state and, in consequence, found most of the desirable fields for colonization in the hands of other nations. At first the rulers of the new Empire showed no desire for colonies; Bismarck, in fact, was opposed to them on principle. He wished to consolidate and organize the German Empire rather than to seek and plant colonies in the midst of African swamps.

But even before Bismarck's fall German colonies had been founded in Africa and New Guinea. These were the result of the work of two societies, "The German Colonial Union," founded in 1882, and the "Society for German Colo-

nization," started in 1884. By the latter year South West Africa, Togoland, the Cameroons and German East Africa had been occupied. In 1885 German New Guinea was added and, soon after, various islands in the Pacific were annexed. In 1897 Kiao-Chau was "leased" from China.

Germany, at this time, had become a world power and the Germans could point to certain spots on the map which owed allegiance to the Kaiser. But the colonial venture was really a colossal failure. Germans would not go and live in the colonies and the government had trouble with the natives. The Hereros in South West Africa were exterminated with a ruthlessness unparalleled in history since the Spanish slaughter of the Incas of Peru in the 16th century. Above all, the colonies did not pay; in fact, they cost Germany over double what she got from them. Under such conditions it is not to be wondered at that the German war-lords cast longing eyes at the French colonies in Africa.

But even if the African venture had failed, there was still a field for German colonial activity in the Turkish Empire. Ever since his accession in 1888, William II has made it a point to be friendly with the Turk. As a result, the Turkish Empire has not only relied on German protection but has steadily become Germanized. The Kaiser, in 1898, visited Jerusalem and posed as the protector of Mohammedans as well as of Christians. At the same time he obtained a verbal promise from the Sultan to allow the construction of a railway from Scutari, opposite Constantinople, to Bagdad. In 1902 the Turkish government officially authorized the road.

This railroad, which was under construction when the great war broke out, was to open up the heart of the Asiatic Turkish Empire for colonization. Above all, it was a menace to both Russia and Great Britain; to Russia's hold on the Caucasus and Turkestan; and to Britain's hold on India.

It was originally intended to extend the line as far as Koweit on the Persian Gulf, but the British seized Koweit and foiled the scheme. During the early part of the war Bagdad was captured by the British, hence Germany's chances of dominating the Asiatic Turkish Empire began to wane and seemingly to become more remote. The Bagdad railway plan was a good one, and a victorious Germany could have put into operation the new Orient Express from Berlin to Bagdad. But Bagdad passed out of the hands of the Turks.

(3) Great Britain.

The British Empire is of course the most widespread and diverse political organism in the world. It is probably the least understood. It contains within it, in addition to the Home Land, five great self-governing dominions; Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand and Newfoundland; also crown colonies, protectorates and native states. The great Indian Empire and Egypt represent two of the oldest civilizations in the world, while the Hottentots and the Esquimaux are but a short way removed from barbarism.

This huge Empire is not held together by any great organized force or military despotism, but by the good will and loyalty of its citizens of all races, colors and creeds. The North American Indians, the Gurkhas and Sikhs from the frontiers of India, the Maoris of New Zealand, the Negroes of Jamaica were all fighting in the war by the side of their white brothers. Great Britain did not force them to come; they came of their own accord to fight for the Great White Chief. The South African native chief, in a letter to King George V, summed up the attitude of the native races in this war when he inquired if it was right that he and his people should be at peace while his king was at war. The British Empire is a triumph in unity in

diversity. It is bound together only by sentimental ties, but those ties are strong. The Victorian period ushered in an era of good feeling that has proved permanent amongst the colonies. The old colonial system of George III and his ministers is gone forever.

In the acquisition of African territory, Great Britain obtained the best portion of the lands most suited for colonization by the white race. Part of these lands were originally owned by the Dutch, and until the conclusion of the Boer war in 1902 Anglo-Dutch rivalry in South Africa was intense. After that war, however, the Boers became loyal British subjects and Great Britain has treated them well. Their satisfaction is emphasized by the fact that early in the great World War two of the best known Boer generals took the field on behalf of the British Empire against the Germans in South West Africa.

German and British interests were bound to clash. Not only in Africa but whenever the two nations met on the seas, Britain seemed to bar the way to German advancement, and the Pan-Germanists, the most aggressive section of the German Imperialists, saw in the British Empire a colossal sham. But Professor Hermann von Treitschke warned his compatriots that the "reckoning with England would be the longest and most difficult."

#### (4) Russia.

Foiled in her designs on the Turkish Empire, Russia turned her attention to the Far East. Already she possessed Vladivostok (founded in 1858) on the Pacific, and had taken over much of ancient Turkestan. Samarcand had been occupied in 1868 and Khiva in 1873. But after 1878 the Russian bear began to put out its paw toward Afghanistan and to threaten the Khyber Pass, the gateway to India. Great Britain took alarm, and relations between the two countries became strained. In fact, until after Edward VII

ascended the throne in 1901, Russia was considered by most Englishmen as the great enemy. Turkestan was finally overcome in 1881 and soon Russia began to be interested in Persia. Toward the close of the century the great Siberian railway was commenced, and it was completed in 1905.

In 1898 Russia seized Port Arthur, on the Liaotung Peninsula, from China. This angered Japan and in 1904-5 the Russo-Japanese war was fought. It ended disastrously for Russia and turned Russian ambition back to Central Asia and the Balkans. The Persian problem was solved by agreement between Great Britain and Russia in 1907, and the two powers drew closer together. But Austrian and Russian interests still clashed in the Balkans and, as it was evident after 1908 that Germany was backing Austria and thwarting Russia, a breach between Russia and Germany became highly probable. Austrian designs on Serbia and the outcome of the Balkan wars in 1912-13 turned that probability into a certainty.

#### IV. The Triple Alliance vs. The Triple Entente.

The interests of all of these great World Empires were bound to clash at times, and one is not surprised in hearing of friction between Great Britain and France and also between Great Britain and Russia as well as between France and Germany. However, since the early years of the twentieth century, Britain, France and Russia have been found to be acting more and more in harmony with each other and to be more and more opposed to Germany and Austria, with whom Italy with a mingling of jealousy, gratitude and confidence had cast her lot. It has been, in short, a case of the Triple Alliance against the Triple Entente.

The Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy was formed in 1882 through the instrumentality of Bismarck.



Germany and Austria had discovered community of interests and at the Congress of Berlin, 1878, Bismarck had quietly secured for Austria a sphere of influence in the Balkans. It is not surprising, therefore, to find Austria and Germany banded together. But what of Italy? Italy in the great World War finally cast in her lot with the Entente Allies to fight her ancient enemy, Austria. How came it about that Italy, in 1882, entered into such a seemingly unnatural alliance? In the first place she was jealous of France. Napoleon III had, in 1859, fought for Italian unity, but he had sold out his Allies at Villafranca and made peace with Austria, leaving Italy only half free. French troops had garrisoned Rome until 1870, and the French government in 1881 annexed Tunis, and thus deprived Italy of a most desirable colony. In the second place, Italy owed a debt of gratitude to Prussia for obtaining for her the cession of Venetia in 1866. Lastly, the Congress of Berlin had shown Italians that Germany was strong enough to help her Allies. Italy had come back empty handed from the Congress, and saw that she would have to abandon her policy of isolation. For these reasons, apparently, Italy joined Austria and Germany in the Triple Alliance. Events have since proved that Italy became, like Austria, merely a pawn in Germany's hands, and from 1907 to 1915 she was a very restive and uncertain member of the Triple Alliance. But at first the alliance accomplished its object. It maintained peace in Europe and prevented a union of France, Austria, Italy and Russia against Germany.

Against the Triple Alliance has been set the Triple Entente. The Triple Alliance was the work of Bismarck. The Triple Entente was the work of no one man. It arose from necessity and its formation was the result of a diplomatic revolution in Europe. It is usually admitted that Great Britain was the bulwark of the Triple Entente. Yet,

Great Britain had been on bad terms with Russia for years, and was on none too good terms with France. But from 1907 until the outbreak of the Great World War, Britain, France and Russia were closely bound together in the Triple Entente. Why? There can be only one answer—necessity. The menace of the Central Powers was so great that unity of the countries exposed was the only means of self-preservation.

There are really three distinct diplomatic movements to be traced in the growth of the Triple Entente.

(1) The Franco-Russian Alliance.

(2) The *Entente Cordiale* between England and France.

(3) The Anglo-Russian Entente.

These three movements culminated about 1907 in the Triple Alliance. It will be well to consider them separately and very briefly.

(1) The Franco-Russian Alliance.

The first mention of a possible Franco-Russian alliance occurred in the month of May, 1872, in the Paris newspaper, *Le Temps*, which foretold as inevitable an alliance between Russia and France. In 1875, the Czar Alexander II, intervened along with Queen Victoria to prevent a German attack on France, and France was very grateful. But nothing definite was done until the early 90's. Then an interchange of visits between Paris and Petrograd took place, and in 1894, according to Prof. Seymour of Yale College, the Dual Alliance between France and Russia was signed. However, it was not made public for some two or three years. Germany then had enemies on either side of her and was no longer able to impose her will on a disunited Europe.

(2) The *Entente Cordiale*.

The way to the *Entente Cordiale* was somewhat devious. After the Congress of Berlin in 1878, for twenty years,

England stood apart from continental affairs. But the Boer war (1899-1902) showed that it was necessary for Great Britain to abandon her policy of "grand isolation" and to seek new alliances. During that war Germany had shown that she was none too friendly toward England. While the attitude of the French foreign office was so "correct" as to avoid all appearance of giving offense, nevertheless, the French jingoes would not have been averse to war with "perfidious Albion," who had so lately humiliated France at Fashoda. Fortunately the accession to the throne of Edward VII in 1901 opened the way towards better understanding between England and France.

Few English rulers have known France, and especially Paris, as did Edward VII. His feelings toward France were the direct opposite to those possessed by his mother, Queen Victoria, who was frankly pro-German. For various reasons he desired more cordial relations with France. This desire was shared by two outstanding men in Paris, M. Delcassé, Minister of Foreign Affairs from 1898 to 1905, and Sir Thomas Barclay, who was for some time president of the British Chamber of Commerce in Paris. These three men, aided by President Loubet of France, brought the Entente Cordiale into existence.

The outstanding differences between Great Britain and France were settled by arbitration in 1903, and the entente was formed in April, 1904. The entente was not a close offensive and defensive alliance, but merely a friendly agreement between the two powers. It did not interfere in any way with the relations toward Germany, of either France or Great Britain. None the less, it restored the balance of power in Europe, but even the German Chancellor, Prince Bülow, admitted that this was the result rather than the cause of the entente. At the time of its formation, the Entente Cordiale was not looked upon by

Germany as an act of hostility. Later, however, Germany found it blocking her road to world power.

(3) The Anglo-Russian Entente.

To round out the Entente Cordiale and the Franco-Russian Alliance, an understanding between Russia and Great Britain was necessary. Russia and Great Britain had not been at all on good terms since their interests clashed in the Far East. "The bear that walks like a man" had been for a generation a horror to many Englishmen who feared a Russian attack on India. But in 1907, the Anglo-Russian Entente was concluded and "spheres of influence" were mapped out in Persia. Fear of a greater enemy had caused these two old antagonists to bury the hatchet.

Thus, by 1907, the Triple Alliance was faced by the Triple Entente. Then began those seven years of "excursions and alarms" which ended in the outbreak of the World War. Crisis followed crisis, beginning with the Austrian annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908, and ending, whether by fate or design, in the murder of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand at Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia, June 28, 1914. During the bulk of this period the Balkans were the chief storm center, but for a time in 1911, Germany, by sending the gunboat "Panther" to Agadir in Morocco, caused the peace of the world to hang by a thread. Europe was in a state of unstable equilibrium and a general conflagration seemed inevitable.

V. The Outbreak of War, June 28th-August 4th, 1914.

That the general conflagration came in 1914 is now a matter of history. The murder of the Archduke in June passed almost unnoticed by the world at large, for few really understood its inner meaning. Those few who did were not surprised that it provided the pretext for war.

The murder took place at Serajevo in Bosnia, and was but another act in the great Balkan tragedy. It was used by Austria as an opportunity to bully Serbia. Serbia stood in Austria's way in the Balkans and had designs on a port on the Adriatic. To foil these ambitions, Austria had plotted to bring about the second Balkan War of 1913, whereby Bulgaria and Turkey made common cause against Roumania, Serbia, Montenegro and Greece. In the first Balkan war, 1912, it had been a case of the three Christian Balkan states, Bulgaria, Serbia and Montenegro, plus Greece, against Turkey. The outcome of this war had not been to the liking of either Germany or Austria. The outcome of the Second Balkan War had not bettered affairs much and Austria feared a "greater Serbia" which would include Bosnia and possibly other Austrian possessions as well. Serbia had therefore to be humbled.

So it happened that Austria, with the connivance of Germany, sent on July 23, 1914, her famous note to Serbia. It practically amounted to a declaration of war. Russia stood by Serbia and all attempts to "localize" the war were foiled when Germany threw down the gauntlet to both France and Russia. Germany sought to realize her ambitions and to dictate terms from Paris and Petrograd. It was not thought in Berlin that Great Britain would abandon her neutrality. To save time the German Supreme Command chose the road to France through Belgium. The German war lords had not reckoned sufficiently, either on Belgian bravery or Great Britain's small but efficient army.

"The Day" had arrived at last and Germany was ready to accomplish her "historical mission." As one German military authority put it, in March, 1913, "Neither the ridiculous clamors for revenge of the French jingoes, nor

1st Balkan

2nd Balkan

1st Balkan

Be not  
misled by  
Br's army

the English gnashing of teeth, nor the wild gestures of the Slavs will turn us from our end, which is to strengthen and to extend Deutschtum (Germanism) throughout the entire world."



KING GEORGE V. AND QUEEN MARY—GREAT BRITAIN.



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LORD HORATIO HERBERT KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM.



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GENERAL SIR ARTHUR CURRIE, CANADA.





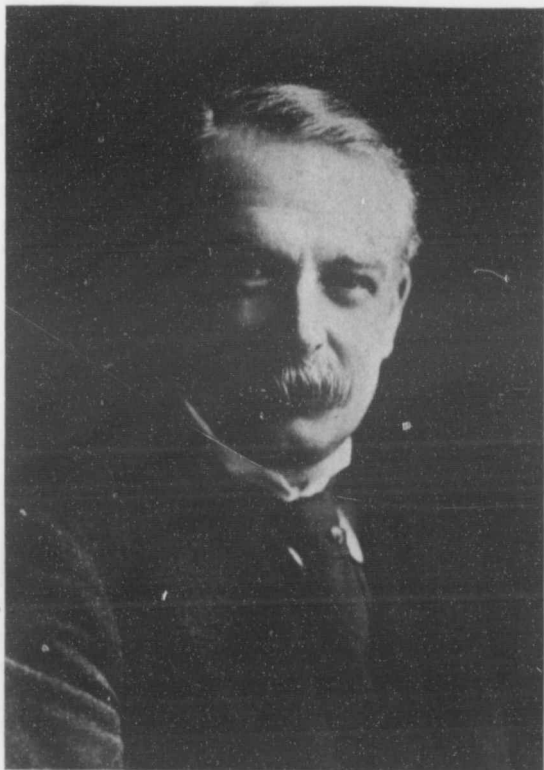
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FIELD MARSHAL SIR DOUGLAS HAIG, (GREAT BRITAIN).



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ADMIRAL SIR JOHN JELICOE,  
Chief of the British Naval Staff.



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MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH, FRANCE.



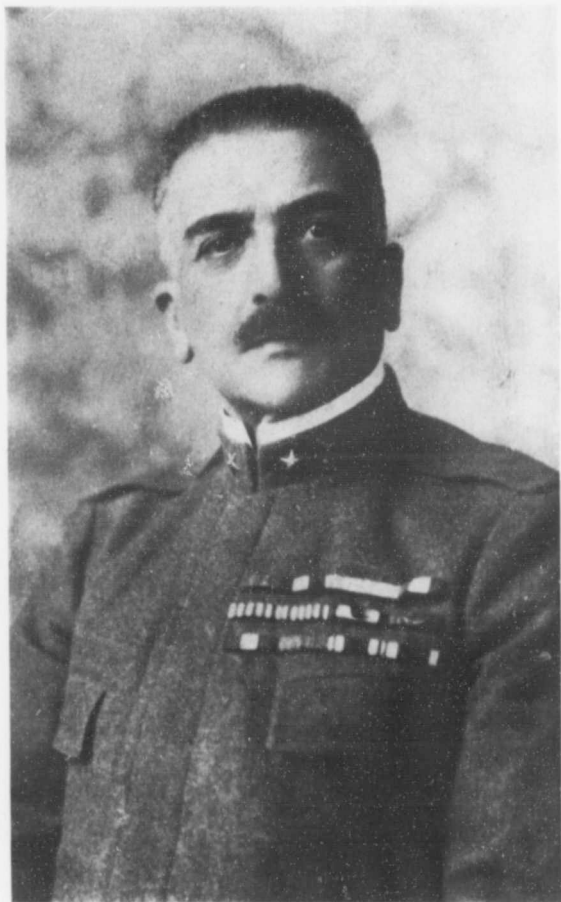
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THE HERO OF THE MARNE  
General Joseph J. Joffre, France.



VICTOR EMANUEL, III.—KING OF ITALY.  
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GENERAL FERDINAND DIAZ,  
Italy.

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Canadian official photograph from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

**CANADIANS IN THE GREAT CAMBRAI DRIVE.**

One of the busy scenes just preceding the victorious attack by the Canadians upon Cambrai, is depicted in this Canadian official photo. In the center can be seen captured German soldiers by the Canadians carrying in one of their wounded comrades. The quintette were a part of the outposts before the German lines which crumbled in the face of the Canadian attack.



British official photograph supplied by International Film Service, Inc.  
CAPTURE OF CAMBRAI.

British troops moving forward across the battlefield. In the foreground the troops are here shown leaving a communication trench.



British official photograph supplied by International Film Service, Inc.  
**THE CAPTURE OF CAMBRAI.**

British field artillery battery moving up into action. They are here shown passing an advanced dressing station where the wounded and prisoners were gathered.



Photo by International Film Service, Inc.

**LARGE BRITISH HOWITZERS IN ACTION ON THE CAMBRAI FRONT.**



Photo supplied by International Film Service, Inc.

American troops in Canada were presented with a British banner and were reviewed by the Governor General. The troops were under command of Major J. D. Woolnough, who arrived in Montreal from the Pacific Coast. The photo shows the Duke of Devonshire, Governor General of Canada, accompanied by Major Woolnough, inspecting the ranks of the regiment. On the extreme left is Lt. General Brydges, Chief of British Military Mission in the United States, and Major General Gwatkin, A. G. of Canada.



Canadian official photograph supplied by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

#### CANADIAN ENGINEERS BUILDING A CORDUROY ROAD.

Solid roads were necessary in transporting food and ammunition in sufficient quantities.

## CHAPTER II

## THE GERMAN ONRUSH

## I. THE FORCES COMPARED—GENERAL SITUATION

The British ultimatum to Germany expired at midnight August 4, 1914, but before that time German troops were in Luxemburg and France. The Belgian government and nation had refused to purchase safety by dishonor and the forts of Liege were preparing for defense. Austria and Serbia were already at war, and Russian troops had on August 2nd crossed the East Prussian frontier. The attack of von Emmich's troops on the forts of Liege began within a few hours after the expiration of the British ultimatum. The same day, August 5th, saw the first naval engagement of the war when the German mine-layer, *Königin Luise*, was sunk by the British destroyer *Lance*.

**Forces Engaged and Aims of the Belligerents**

Before going further into the early events of the war it would be well to pause for a moment to consider the forces engaged on either side in this stupendous struggle, and the aims of the various belligerents. Practically every nation which engaged in the war announced that it took up arms in defense of its national liberties; but, since in war the best defensive action is an attack, each of the belligerents had its own plans of campaign, and sought if possible to invade the enemy's territory. However, on account of the tremendous onslaught of the Teutonic powers, the Entente Allies were compelled to act on the defensive and, in the

case of Belgium, Serbia, and France, to endure invasion from the first.

#### Country Responsible for the War

Germany, no matter how loud her protestations to the contrary, began the war with the object of obtaining territory and inflicting a crushing defeat on France and Russia. Her plan was to invade France through Belgium, to capture Paris, to destroy the French army and then to turn on Russia and, if possible, dictate terms from Petrograd. This plan nearly succeeded, and in its boldness and execution will always remain one of the master strokes of all time. Fortunately for civilization the German warlords did not reckon sufficiently upon the heroism of Belgium, the patriotism of France or the doggedness of the British Expeditionary Force.

#### Austria on the Offensive and Defensive

Austria, the junior partner of the Teutonic alliance, sought to invade Serbia and take possession of that country. She had, for the rest, to defend herself from Russia and to stave off invasion.

#### Belgium and Serbia

Belgium and Serbia had little chance for any offensive warfare. Belgium merely sought to defend her liberties to the end and to hamper the Germans in every way she could. Serbia, on the other hand, had designs upon Bosnia-Herzegovina and also desired, if possible, to secure that little window on the Adriatic denied her in 1913 as a result of Austrian intrigue. It will be remembered that after the First Balkan War there seemed a possibility that Serbia would secure, through Albania, access to the Adriatic. The setting up of an "autonomous Albania" with the Teutonic Prince, Wilhelm von Wied, as ruler, crushed Serbia's hopes.



If victorious in this war, Serbia might expect a port on the Adriatic.

#### Russia's Reason for War

Russia took up arms in defense of Serbia, but also sought to carry the war into East Prussia, and, if possible, to capture Galicia, including Cracow. Her only hope of doing this was to advance while the German armies were rushing toward Paris. The German High Command had designs upon Warsaw and could easily concentrate forces in Posen and East Prussia to co-operate with Austrian armies in Galicia in order to overrun Poland. The Polish salient was hard for the Russians to defend. In order to secure the support of the Poles, the Russian Grand Duke Nicholas, on behalf of the Czar, issued a proclamation on August 15, 1914, offering self-government to Poland. Poland has since been the scene of some of the hardest fighting on the Eastern Front during the war.

#### France

France sought in the appeal to arms to protect her own territory and to invade Alsace-Lorraine. It was hoped that after forty-three years of waiting, the lost provinces could be once more reunited to France. The French nation demanded that a blow be struck in Alsace. For the rest, France was willing to accomplish her destiny.

#### Great Britain

The entrance of Great Britain into the war to protect France and, if possible, defend the rights of Belgium, brought into action the British fleet and the British army. The navy sought to "bottle up" the German "High Seas Fleet" before it could leave port. The army was soon mobilized and sent to France. The first troops left England on the night of August 7, 1914, and by August 17th the

whole of the first expeditionary force of from 150,000 to 160,000 men was in France.

### Armies Compared

Having thus outlined the chief plans of the belligerents, it will now be fitting to consider the armies engaged on each side in this world shaking and all embracing struggle. In former wars the numbers of men engaged on either side had been small. At Waterloo Napoleon and Wellington each had only a little over seventy thousand men. Less than two hundred and fifty thousand fought on both sides at Sedan. In the Great European War, from its beginning, these numbers sink into insignificance. The exact number of Germans who took part in the first onrush is not known. Hilaire Belloc, however, estimates that the Germans put across the Rhine "rather more than two and a quarter million men" during the period from August to the end of October, 1914. Belloc's estimates are generally sound and may be taken as indicating the huge scale on which operations were conducted by Germany from the beginning of the war. The German plan was to crush all opposition by sheer weight of numbers. Need one wonder at their initial success?

It is absolutely impossible for anyone but a high military authority to give anything like an accurate estimate of the forces engaged on both sides at the beginning of the war or since. One can give figures of the so-called "standing armies" of Europe with the approximate numbers which could be called to the colors at the outbreak of war. But in the last analysis it is not the four or five million men in each country who were called to the colors by Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, or Russia, who constituted the "effective" military force of those countries. Much less is this true in the case of Great Britain, or of the United

States, where the "standing army" was a professional volunteer army and there was only a comparatively small volunteer "Territorial Force" or "National Guard" available as reserves. This consideration leads to the inevitable conclusion that after all, the real "manpower" of a country can be measured only by the number of physically fit men in that country between the ages of eighteen and forty-five.

While it is not known exactly how many men were mobilized by the chief belligerents during the early months of the war, nor are we yet sure of the actual numbers who took part in the chief battles of 1914 and 1915,\* what we do know is approximately how many men each nation could put in the field if every fit man were called upon for service. It has been estimated that ten per cent of the population of any country can be considered the number of fit men available for service. On this basis Germany could put nearly seven million men into the field; Austria about four million; France also four million; the British Empire over six million,† of this number Canada could furnish about 700,000; Russia could furnish an inexhaustible supply, and the United States about 10,000,000. But such figures are really very misleading. The number of men alone does not give the true index of a nation's power.

#### Training and Equipment

Men without training and equipment are only a rabble. During the war some Russian armies have been little better

\*M. Lausanne, editor of the Paris "Le Matin," speaking in Toronto, Canada on March 4, 1918, made the statement, "At the battle of the Marne France had 1,500,000 men. Today we have in the field 2,750,000."

†The British Prime Minister, David Lloyd-George, in speaking in Parliament August 8, 1918, stated that "since August, 1914, including those already with the colors, this country has raised for the army and navy in Great Britain alone, no less than six and a quarter million men. Most of these were raised by voluntary recruiting, a most unexampled feat in the history of any country." He also credited the self-governing British Dominions with a million more, and India with one and a quarter million. By July 1, 1918, Canada had enlisted for war service 552,601 men and had lost by death 42,919, and during the same period the wounded had totalled 113,007. The other Dominions had suffered in proportion.

than half armed mobs. It must be confessed, too, that without money it is useless to attempt to provide training and equipment for the men. Modern wars are fought by "nations in arms" and it is organization and efficiency that count.

Now this is the doctrine which Germany has believed and has taught to the world. For almost fifty years she had sought to organize her people on a war basis and had succeeded. Austria was also well organized; so, too, was France. Russia, on the other hand, was only partly organized at the outbreak of war and Great Britain had to redraft her system after war was declared.

#### German Mobilization

The German General Staff had planned on a short and decisive war and had made preparations accordingly. The army was quickly mobilized and sent to the frontier. This was comparatively an easy matter, since German troops are trained for rapid mobilization at any time and a large force is constantly under arms. Since 1871 Germany has been one huge camp and the essence of German strategy has been preparation for a sudden offensive. There is every reason to believe that the great German armies were almost completely mobilized several days in advance of the declaration of war on France. The new field-gray uniforms were issued and the troop trains were ready to be hurried along the strategic railways which for years Germany had constructed just behind the Russian, Belgian, and French frontiers. The mighty war machine was ready and at the crucial moment it was set in motion. What years of preparation, scientific knowledge, military strategy and discipline could do, had been done. According to the German plans, all that remained was a sudden smashing victory against France—

Belgium and Britain were not expected to do much—and then a knockout blow to Russia. It was a colossal bid for world-power.

### The German Plan of the Army

The ordinary procedure in the German army, upon which the Austro-Hungarian was closely modeled, was as follows:

At the age of seventeen a German was liable for service, but his actual service began at the age of twenty. If called up for service the recruit served two years with the infantry or three years with the cavalry or artillery. These years were spent in barracks or in the field on maneuvers. No time was wasted and the training was very thorough. After his service with the colors, the soldier passed into the Regular Reserve until he had completed his full seven years in the active army. The training in the Regular Reserve consisted in several weeks service at different times with the colors. After these seven years the soldier passed into the *Landwehr*, on whose rolls he was kept for the next twelve years. At the age of thirty-nine he was transferred to the first levy of the *Landsturm*, out of which he passed at the age of forty-five, a quarter of a century after he had first been called to the colors. If not called up for service at twenty, the recruit was placed at once in the so-called "Ersatz" Reserve, which was liable for service along with the *Landsturm* in time of war. In this way, then, the Central Empires had a tremendous reservoir of partly trained men.

### The Austrian Plan of the Army

Closely modeled upon the German army was the Austro-Hungarian. Events have shown that it was not so ef-

ficient, since Austrian defeats in the war were much more numerous than those sustained by the Germans, but in both cases the system was the same. Military service in both countries was universal and obligatory. In peace times only a portion of the men liable for service was thoroughly trained, but in time of war all were available.

#### The French Plan of the Army

The army of France was also based on the principle of universal military service, but there were great differences between the French and German systems. According to the "Three Years' Law" of 1913, every Frenchman who was physically fit had to spend three years with the colors, in place of two. After his time in barracks, the soldier was placed in the Regular Reserve, where he spent eleven years. Then came seven years in the Territorial Army, which corresponded roughly to the German Landwehr, and then finally seven years in the Territorial Reserve. After that, liability for military service ceased. In order to overcome the German advantage in population, practically every able-bodied Frenchman served his full time with the colors. Service began at the age of twenty and was not complete until the age of forty-eight. By such heroic efforts France attempted to keep pace with the ever increasing power of Germany.

#### The Russian Army

The Russian Empire possessed a tremendous reservoir of men, but lacked equipment and strategic railways. The Russo-Japanese war taught Russia some bitter lessons, which resulted in great changes in her organization and administration. Unfortunately, these changes were not complete when war broke out, with the result that although some Russian armies won brilliant victories, their successes were

counter-balanced by inefficiency and defeat. The German army organization had been largely copied in Russia, but German efficiency was lacking. In addition political conditions in the huge empire were very troubled and the mutterings and grumbings of the great Revolution of 1917 were already to be heard.

#### **The Belgian Army**

The Belgian army was in a state of transition from the old "conscript army," which allowed paid substitution, to the new "national army" based on universal military service.

#### **The Serbian Army**

The Serbian army was a "national army" and had seen service in the Balkan Wars. It was well led and well organized, but it lacked equipment. None the less, the Serbians, like the Belgians, proved very stubborn fighters.

#### **Great Britain's Army**

The old British army was the last "professional army" in Europe. In comparison with the "national armies" it was insignificant, but what there was of it was efficient to the last degree. It was made up of men who had enlisted for a period of twelve years, seven with the colors and five in the Reserve. These men were professional soldiers who had spent some of their term of service in India, with the exception of the Guards, who served only three years with the colors and did not go abroad. Many of them were veterans of the South African War, and all of them had been trained "to do their bit."

In addition to the old Regular Army there were the Special Reserve, the Territorial Force, and the National Reserve. The Special Reserve was chiefly made up of reserve officers, often university students who had taken an officer's training course. The Territorial Force was raised for home defense, but could, like the American National Guard, volunteer for foreign service. The National Reserve was made up of old soldiers, "time-expired men" from the old Regular Army, who were willing to serve their country in any possible way, but whose age would usually prevent them from going to the front with the Expeditionary Force. The total of all the British forces available at the outbreak of war was not far from one million men, of which the old Regular Army with its Reserve constituted rather over one-third. The British Expeditionary Force, which in case of war was to be sent to the continent, amounted roughly to 160,000 men—"a mere spearhead to the shaft which was the manpower of Britain."

#### The British Navy

Britain's army was small, but her navy was the greatest in the world. To be sure the German navy was strong enough to be dangerous, but it was unable, as events proved, to compete with the British on anything like equal terms. It is hardly realized even yet how much the cause of the Entente Allies owes to the British navy. Figures show that up until the end of 1917, eleven million men had been transported on Allied troop ships and that only around two thousand had lost their lives. When it is considered that Canada alone sent from three hundred thousand to four hundred thousand troops across the Atlantic without loss of life, one realizes the work of the British navy.



## II. THE MARTYRDOM OF BELGIUM

Belgium stood in the road to Paris and, for strategic reasons, the German General Staff preferred to violate Belgian neutrality rather than to attempt to get through the heavily fortified Eastern French frontier. It was not expected that Belgium would offer much resistance. It was inconceivable to the German mind that a whole nation could go to Thermopylae. Yet that was what the high-souled Belgian people did. They sacrificed their lives rather than forfeit their honor.

The atrocities committed by the Germans in Belgium have so shocked the world at large, and become a matter of such common knowledge, that the gallant and hopeless stand of the Belgian army has been completely overshadowed by them. Unfortunately, it will be necessary to refer to these abominations of German "Kultur" a little later on, but just a passing glance should be cast over the Belgian defensive campaign.

**Belgian Fortifications**

On account of her geographical position as a halfway house between France and Germany, Belgium, although declared neutral by the famous "scrap of paper" in 1839, had to be ready to resist invasion on all sides. In order to do so, Belgian strategists had strengthened the defenses of Antwerp, Liege, and Namur. Brussels, the capital, was an "open" or undefended city, protected only by the three great fortresses which lay to the North, East and Southeast respectively. Of these three Liege lay closest to the German frontier, only about twenty-five miles from Aix-la-Chapelle. Any attack on Belgium from Germany would probably have Aix-la-Chapelle as one of its chief bases of operation and so Liege would naturally have to bear the brunt of the fighting. That was, in fact, what happened.

Liege had been fortified by the celebrated Belgian engineer, Brialmont, with a ring of outlying forts. The spaces between the forts were to be filled by trenches manned with infantry. The forts were defended by heavy guns, or rather by what were considered heavy guns until the Germans brought up their gigantic howitzers and broke to pieces the defenses of Brialmont. The defense of the city and forts of Liege was entrusted to the veteran Belgian general, Leman, but unfortunately hostilities broke out so rapidly that it was impossible to complete the full scheme of defensive operations.

#### **Beginning of the World Slaughter**

It should be borne in mind that the Belgian people had only two or three days in which to mobilize and to stave off invasion. That they accomplished anything at all is a marvel. Before the Belgian army was fully mobilized the Germans were pounding away at Liege. General Leman did what he could, but it is doubtful whether he ever had under his command even half as large a force as was necessary to defend the forts of Liege. Fortunately, the Germans, expecting an easy victory, at first only sent a small force under General von Emmich against Liege. The first attacks of the Germans were beaten back, but one by one the eastern and southern forts of the "ring" were silenced. The space between the remaining forts became too great for the Belgian infantry to defend, and German troops entered the city of Liege on the morning of August 7, 1914. Before that, General Leman had withdrawn his troops from the city and was holding the northern line of forts. So long as he could hold out the Germans were unable to carry out completely their plans for the rush through Belgium to France. The last of the forts fell on August 17th or 18th. General Leman was captured after the fall of Fort Loncin on August

14th or 15th—the exact date is uncertain. He was found unconscious, pinned down by falling beams, but was revived and carried as prisoner to General von Emmich. Von Emmich gallantly gave him back his sword.

The stand of Liege greatly heartened the Belgians and gained much precious time for the Entente Allies, as the French armies were given time to complete their mobilization and to advance into Alsace and across the Belgian frontier in order to defend Namur, while the British Expeditionary Force also reached Mons. The check before Liege was heralded as a German disaster, but unfortunately, it was only an incident in a triumphal progress of the Germans towards Brussels and Paris.

The British and French military authorities were much criticized at the time and have been since, for not attempting earlier to rush aid to Belgium. It is pointed out that the British Expeditionary Force did not get into action until August 23rd, and that it arrived too late. The French, too, made a wild dash into Alsace without coming to help Belgium. Surely some attempt could have been made to save Belgium from martyrdom! Why was she left alone to bear the brunt?

It is hard to answer this question and to give an explanation for the plans of General Joffre and the other Franco-British commanders. Certainly before the war it was generally understood that in case of an European conflagration the British Expeditionary Force would land at Ostend. It should be remembered, however, that the German advance was so rapid and the Allied preparations so hurried that the invasion of Belgium was well under way before the French or British were fully mobilized. If the British had landed at Ostend they might have saved Brussels, although that is doubtful, but they would have been in greater danger of annihilation than they were during the

retreat from Mons. The French advance into Alsace is now admitted to have been a colossal blunder.

#### **Belgians Face a German Avalanche**

The Belgian army soon found itself faced by the oncoming avalanche of Germans and unsupported by any Allied aid. It was forced to fall back on Antwerp and Namur. This meant the abandoning of Brussels, which fell into the enemy's hands, without fighting, on August 20th. The same day the Belgian army was defeated at Tirlemont. For two days German troops marched through Brussels in a steady stream. Possibly the German High Command sought to impress the Belgians, but it should be remembered that Brussels lies on the road to France. It was about this time, according to the report of the British Royal Commission on "Alleged German Outrages," headed by Lord Bryce, that systematic massacres began in the Louvain-Malines district east of Brussels. Outrages had already occurred around and in Liege from August 4th to August 21st. These outrages and massacres of unarmed civilians were probably in revenge for the spirited defense made by the Belgian army.

#### **Belgians Make Successful Attack**

The bulk of the Belgian army was centered around Antwerp and on August 25th made a successful attack on the Germans at Malines. The Germans were driven back from the town and through several villages, but they massacred the civilian population as they went. The sack of Louvain occurred on the day of the battle of Malines and the following days. The "German fury" in Belgium was well under way.

### German Outrages

It is not intended in this sketch of the war to make any detailed allusion to horrors, but rather to give a general sketch of events. At first the outside world was skeptical as to the real truth about the "Alleged German Outrages," but the publication of Lord Bryce's Report and the evidence of countless eye witnesses, including neutrals, and even German officers and soldiers, has proved the Germans in Belgium and the occupied districts of Europe guilty of the most revolting crimes against humanity. In every war abominations occur, but not for centuries has any civilized part of Europe witnessed anything to parallel the horrors perpetrated by the apostles of "Kultur." These crimes did not lessen as the war progressed and an outraged civilization demanded full retribution and reparation.

### Heavy Howitzers Were Irresistible

In the meantime, while the main Belgium army was withdrawing on Antwerp, the great German howitzers were battering to pieces the defenses of Namur. The French Commander-in-Chief, Joffre, had, during the same period, extended his lines from France to Belgium and had based his force on the Namur salient. The British Expeditionary Force had also come up and taken up its position at Mons. In this way the Entente Allies reckoned on making a stand against the German invaders. But the German heavy howitzers spoiled their plans. Namur fell on August 22, 1914, and on the next day was fought the battle of Mons. A general retirement of the French and British towards Paris began, and the Belgians who escaped from Namur headed towards Antwerp. The bulk of Belgium was in German hands.

## III. THE RUSH TO PARIS

The stand of Belgium delayed somewhat, but did not radically interfere with the plans of the German General Staff. Paris was the objective and after the fall of Namur the German race to Paris began in earnest. By this time the huge German armies were in France and Belgium, and so great was the disparity of numbers that all the Entente Allies could do was to fall back, fighting as desperately as possible. It was in the fullest sense of the term a "strategic retreat," but it needed consummate courage and generalship to prevent it becoming a rout.

It has been pointed out by some writers on the war, and especially by John Buchan, that the German onrush into Belgium and the occupation of Brussels prevented the formation of an Allied line of defense from Antwerp across Belgium to Namur, and then along the French frontier past Lille, Maubeuge, and Verdun to Alsace. The fall of Namur made a still greater chasm in this scheme of defense. The forces of von Kluck were pouring through Belgium into Northern France and were attempting to surround the Allied lines. The British at Mons were, at the time of the fall of Namur, on the extreme left of the Allied line, and beyond them were only a few bodies of French Territorials who were guarding bridges and railways, and a few British troops stationed on the lines of communications. The position of the British was therefore extremely critical. They were exposed to flank attacks and were in danger of being completely cut off.

In the meantime the French army on the extreme right had advanced into Alsace and, during the early days of the war, French outposts had been welcomed at Mulhouse. These minor successes were hailed as Allied victories, but really they led to nothing. The Germans attacked in force and drove the French back from Mulhouse. Soon the pressure

of the advancing German hordes at other points of the line caused the attack on Alsace to be abandoned by the French. These operations in Alsace, however pleasing to French patriotism, are now generally admitted to have been a blunder, since they employed troops which could have been used to better advantage in defending Belgium, reinforcing other portions of the French line, or which could have been held in reserve for any emergency.

#### General Retirement of British and French

Behind Namur lay the French fortresses of Maubeuge and Mezières and toward these strongholds the Allied armies might be expected to retreat. To the west lay Lille, also fortified. Maubeuge was capable of defense and lay in the German line of advance. Mezières was not so well defended. While the British were at Mons the French made a stand at Charleroi which lies on the road to Maubeuge, but after hard fighting were driven out of the place. The Germans claim to have captured 200 guns and 20,000 prisoners at Charleroi. Maubeuge held out well and did not finally capitulate till September 7th, but the Allied armies retired behind the fortress and left it isolated. Lille was declared an open town and was evacuated on August 24th. Mezières fell after practically no fighting on August 27th. The French fortresses had been as powerless as the Belgian's to withstand the German onrush.

The French army of the Meuse, after a gallant attempt to hold the line of the river, fell back, and, in doing so, endangered other French armies to the east of them. A general retirement from the Franco-Belgian frontier of the French armies from Verdun to the Meuse followed. Verdun became, therefore, the pivot of the Allied line, which swung back through Northern France towards Paris. Every day the French and British armies gave ground, but the

oncoming German hosts were unable to pierce the Franco-British line. Unless it were possible to strike a staggering blow on the Allied left flank, which was at the moment held by the British, the Germans, although victoriously advancing, could not hope to destroy the enemy. The French and British, therefore, had to retire, which they did in good order, and to take up new positions either on the heights of Champagne or, failing that, on the river Marne, where they could make a stand with one end of their line securely based on Verdun and the other on Paris.

That was actually what happened during the terrible days which followed the battles of Charleroi and Mons. The Allied armies fell back, harassed by the enemy, sometimes losing touch with each other, but never abandoning hope. It was a nerve-racking experience, especially for the British Expeditionary Force which, as will be seen, was forced for a time to bear the brunt of the fighting on the western end of the line. The whole Allied line was being pressed back, and, except for a slight victory at Guise, the French were giving way before the German onrush. Even the success at Guise was not followed up and the French continued to withdraw until the Marne was crossed and about half of the Allied armies were behind the line of that river. The capital of France had been moved to Bordeaux on September 2nd, and Paris was prepared to stand a siege.

#### After One Month of War

The Germans had arrived within sight of their goal in one short month from the declaration of war. Victory seemed within their grasp. There was even talk of declaring Paris an "open town" and retiring behind the Seine. Fortunately the allied Commander-in-Chief, General Joffre, had other plans. On September 6th he issued his famous order to his men which contained the sentence, "An army



which can no longer advance will at all costs hold the ground it has won, and allow itself to be slain where it stands rather than give way." On the same day the First Battle of the Marne began.

#### IV. "THE CONTEMPTIBLE LITTLE ARMY"

Before commencing our account of the First Battle of the Marne, the earliest great turning point in the World War, it will be necessary to re-tell in a few words the deathless story of the retirement from Belgium of the British Expeditionary Force, the so-called "Contemptible Little Army."

There is no more glorious page in the annals of the British Army than that which deals with the "Retreat from Mons." Rarely has any army been in a more dangerous position, and rarely, if ever, has it extricated itself so well. To be sure the British Expeditionary Force had to stand heavy losses, but the real wonder is that, under the circumstances, they were not completely cut off and either annihilated or forced to surrender.

#### Battle of Mons

The British Expeditionary Force had landed in France during the period August 7th to August 17th, and on August 23rd it took up its position at and near Mons. The total British forces on the battle field of Mons are reckoned by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle at about 86,000, of whom 10,000 were cavalry and the balance infantry and artillery. These men formed the First and Second Army Corps and were commanded by General Sir John French. The Army Corps commanders were General Sir Douglas Haig, now British Commander-in-chief in France, and General Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien. The Third Army Corps under General Pulteney did not fight at Mons, but part of it, the Fourth Division, came up later and assisted in covering the retreat.

The battle of Mons (August 23, 1914) was stubbornly contested. General French had expected an attack upon his right flank from the direction of Charleroi, but the chief attack came from von Kluck's army on his exposed left flank. Von Kluck's object was, of course, to smash up the Second Army Corps, which was on the left of the line, and to carry through his great turning movement, which was to "roll up" the forces of the Allies. But the Second Army Corps under Smith-Dorrien, though outnumbered about three or four to one, put up a splendid fight. The German attacks were beaten back with loss and the British held their ground. The First Corps, to the east of Mons, was also engaged, but was not called upon to bear the brunt of the fighting.

#### **Allies Forced to Retire**

About 5 o'clock in the afternoon Sir John French received the fatal news that the French army on his right had been forced to retire and that he had four army corps against him instead of two. It was, therefore, necessary for him to get his army away from Mons and its neighborhood as soon as possible. Orders were immediately issued to fall back, and in face of a much more numerous enemy than the British had believed to be against them, the "Retreat from Mons" began.

#### **Incidents During Retreat**

It is quite impossible to follow in detail the British retreat to the valleys of the Marne and Seine, but few armies have ever stood a more gruelling test. Tired out from fighting, the British troops were forced to march and fight and march again, and to keep it up for ten days. How they managed it will never be fully understood. Some of

their officers must have slept in the saddle and the men seem to have slept on the march. It was enough to turn the most disciplined army into a rabble but the British Tommies "stuck it" nobly. Frederic Coleman in his charming book, "From Mons to Ypres with French," tells of the spirit of the British Tommies and how in spite of all their privations they never lost heart. He quotes the remark of an English brigadier which sums up the situation admirably, "Ah! they may be able to kill such men, but they will never be able to beat them."

One incident from the retreat is worth quoting, since it is typical of the whole movement. Major Bridges of the 4th Dragoon Guards was sent on Friday, August 28th, to St. Quentin to pick up whatever stragglers he could find, for in the retreat small detachments had become separated from their battalions and had usually been given up as missing. At St. Quentin Major Bridges found about two hundred men utterly exhausted and disheartened. They had lost touch with the main body of the army which had retreated south, and felt themselves unable to proceed further. Most of them had been tramping continuously without food for thirty-six hours.

Major Bridges instantly sized up the situation and took his own way of heartening the men. He entered a toy shop and bought a small child's drum and a penny whistle. The tiny drum he fastened to his belt—he was a huge man—and handed over the penny whistle to his trumpeter with instructions to play "The British Grenadiers."

The effect was tremendous. The men, utterly fagged out, responded to the grand old marching air, struggled to their feet and followed the major and his trumpeter. And so the procession moved on mile after mile towards Roye. The "tow, row, row, tow, row, row," to the "British Grenadiers" had caught them and a new enthusiasm took hold

of the marching men. Near Roye, Major Bridges tried to leave the men with directions as to how to get food and shelter. But they would have none of it and begged the Major not to leave them. "Don't leave us, Colonel," they cried. "Don't, for God's sake, leave us! They all left us but you. We'll follow you anywhere, but where to go when you leave us we don't know at all."\* So the procession reached Roye in safety.

Some of the regiment suffered terribly. The First Gordon Highlanders, with Colonel Gordon at their head, lost their way and were surrounded by the Germans. They put up a gallant fight but were wiped out, either killed or captured. As a battalion they ceased to exist.

When it is remembered that General French's "Contemptible Little Army" was forced to retire from Mons with German armies on both flanks as well as in front, one can easily understand how desperate the British situation was. For a time the First and Second Army Corps lost touch with one another. They were both retiring along parallel roads, but there was little chance of keeping any sort of connection between the two army corps and with the Fifth French army to the east. On August 25th Sir Douglas Haig and the First Army Corps made a stand at Landrecies and on August 26th the Second Corps under Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien fought a hard battle at Le Cateau. In that battle General Smith-Dorrien showed himself a great commander of men. He got his troops out from one of the "hottest corners" in the early campaigns of the war. Sir John French in his official dispatch gave him the following tribute:

"I say without hesitation that the saving of the left wing of the army under my command, on the morning of August 26th, could never have been accomplished unless a

\*Frederic Coleman: Mons to Ypres with French. P. 55.

commander of rare and unusual coolness, intrepidity and determination had been present to personally conduct the operation."

After the evening of August 28th, the worst of the retreat was over. The German pursuit slackened up by the time the British reached the river Aisne. Hard fighting again commenced on September 1st, to the south of Compiègne, but by that time the British, though still in great danger, were in closer touch with their French Allies. On that day, September 1st, occurred the famous stand of "L" Battery of the Royal Horse Artillery near Nery. This battery, heavily shelled by the Germans, kept on firing until only one gun was left, served by three men, one of whom was severely wounded. Fortunately British infantry reinforcements came up in time to save the guns.

By September 3rd the British reached the Marne and their left wing was almost within gunshot of the forts of Paris. Two days later they reached the end of their retreat and took up their position with the Fifth French Army on their right and the forts of Paris and the new Sixth French Army on their left. On the sixth of September the order to advance was given.

#### V. THE FIRST BATTLE OF THE MARNE

While the main French and British armies were being driven back towards the Marne, the Second French Army was holding the line from Verdun to Nancy. Against this French force from August 30th to September 6th the Germans hurled tremendous numbers. Nancy was the chief object of attack and the chief French defense was the Grand Couronné, a series of hills to the northeast of Nancy. This German attack on the Grand Couronné is really the connecting link between the great German offensive and the Battle of the Marne. It is not really part of the latter

movement, but it made the western battle possible. It was only because such a large German force was held so long on the eastern French frontier that the French were able to gain that relative superiority in men which made the victory of the Marne a reality.

#### **End of First Phase on Western Front**

The first phase of the war on the Western Front may be said to have ended at dawn on Sunday, September 6, 1914. The Germans had driven the Allied armies back to the gates of Paris, but they had not broken the Franco-British line. The Allies now in turn attacked and drove the Teutons across the Marne and back to the line of the Aisne. Fighting was continuous from September 6th to September 12th. The engagements of those seven days go by the general title of the Battle of the Marne, although all the fighting was by no means on the banks of that river. But whatever its name, it will remain one of the greatest, if not the greatest, Allied victories in the war. Rightfully we talk of the Battle of the Marne as the great turning point of the war. There have been other turning points since, notably at Ypres and Verdun, but none of these, even Verdun, has caught the fancy and imagination as did the Marne.

#### **Critics on German Failure at Paris**

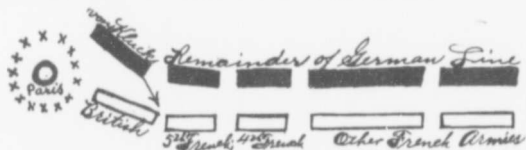
Military historians and arm-chair critics may continue to dispute for some time over the exact cause of the German defeat at the Marne. Hilaire Belloc has called the battle an "Action of Dislocation" and has shown how the German center was so weakened as to allow a new French Army under General Foch to break through. None the less, the German center made at least four strong attacks on the French line. Other authorities have given other explanations for the German defeat, and at the time it was even suggested that there had been changes in the orders given

by the German General Staff, which caused von Kluck to turn before Paris. In fact, certain of the phases of the Battle of the Marne are none too clear and it is quite possible that the Germans blundered.

But whatever the strategy of the battle as originally planned may have been, three facts remain of paramount importance. These are von Kluck's "turning movement" before Paris, the formation of a new Sixth French Army to the left of the British line, and the great victory of General Foch over the German center, after he had beaten back several strong attacks.

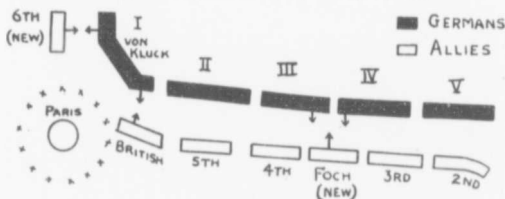
#### Position of Armies

Von Kluck had attempted throughout the British retreat to outflank Sir John French's army. But the "contemptible little army" had retired to safety under the protection of the Paris forts. Von Kluck, who was anxious to strike a heavy blow, had either to go around the Paris defenses in the hope of taking her defenders in the rear, or else to turn sharply to the southeast before Paris. If he adopted this latter course he would have to march across the British flank, but could then strike a hard blow at the Fifth French Army. He might then succeed in breaking the Allied line, as indicated in the diagram below.



Fortunately for the Allies, the new Sixth French Army took its place on von Kluck's flank and forced him to bend his line considerably. At the same time another new French army was slipped in at the center of the French

line opposite a weak place in the German line. In this way the schemes of von Kluck were foiled and an opportunity given to the French to strike home. The whole situation was thus changed by the creation of these two new French armies. It may be expressed graphically as follows:



NOTE. GERMAN ARMIES ARE NUMBERED WITH ROMAN NUMERALS.  
FRENCH ARMIES, EXCEPT FOCH'S, WITH ARABIC NUMERALS.  
ARROWS SHOW DIRECTION OF ATTACKS.

This diagram shows how von Kluck, instead of driving a wedge between the British and French, found himself between two fires, and how Foch was enabled to drive in a wedge between two German armies opposed to him.

#### Turning From Paris

While von Kluck was turning in front of Paris a fierce German attack on the French center was in progress. General Foch with the Ninth Army sustained this onslaught and, although forced for a time to give ground, was able to reconstruct his line and launch his great counter attack. In the meantime the movements of the German armies to the west were gradually weakening the German center, which was sufficiently "dislocated" to allow General Foch to drive in his wedge between the two German army groups holding the center of the German line. Foch's attack, however, did not fully develop until September 9th, and by that time von Kluck was already in retreat in the west.



It should not be thought, however, that the German armies in the center gave way without a struggle. Up until noon on September 9th it looked very much as if the French line would be broken and the Allied armies cut in two. But in the afternoon of that day Foch launched his offensive and his troops won a decisive victory over the armies of von Buelow and von Hausen. On the same day the British crossed the Marne. From then on, the battle belonged to the Allies and the only question was how far could the Germans be driven back before making a stand.

This question was settled partly by the Germans themselves and partly by the nature of the country. By September 12th the Germans had reached new positions across the river Aisne and along the Champagne ridge. There they entrenched and a new phase of the war on the western front began.

#### **The Beginning of the Battle of the Aisne**

The British and French attacked on the Aisne, crossed the river at some points and attempted to scale the heights beyond. But the Battle of the Aisne proved an interminable affair. It was really the beginning of trench warfare in the present war, and, as such, deserves separate treatment later.

Although the Allied armies were held up by the new German line of defense, the Battle of the Marne must be classed as one of the greatest counter strokes in history. The German plans for breaking the Allied lines were completely foiled. They had not won the great decisive victory of the war, but they had been outgeneraled, defeated and forced to retire. The German army, however, though defeated, was not crushed. It was, by the close of the Battle of the Marne, firmly encamped and entrenched on French soil.

## VI. THE RACE FOR THE COAST—THE FALL OF ANTWERP

While the main bodies of the Teutonic and Franco-British armies were struggling on the new German defensive line in the lengthy Battle of the Aisne, a most interesting development was taking place in Belgium and northern France. It was an attempt of both sides to outflank the other and to get possession of the seacoast of Flanders. Antwerp still remained in Belgian hands; so, too, did Ostend. With these as bases, it was hoped that the Allies could hold the line of the Scheldt and extend their troops across Belgium and France until they joined up with the Sixth French Army. The Germans, on the other hand, hoped to be able to break through this line of defense, capture Antwerp and Ostend and even Dunkirk and Calais.

It will probably never be quite understood why the Germans in their first rush to Paris did not take possession of the Channel ports, which were none too strongly held. Probably the plans of the German General Staff had been so carefully prepared with a view to annihilating the French Army at one blow that the capture of the Channel ports seemed only of minor consideration. But after the First Battle of the Marne it became of vital importance to the Germans to prevent their long line of communications through Belgium and France from being cut. The best way to do this was by a counter attack which would, if possible, cut off the French and British from the sea, and incidentally from giving aid to the hard pressed Belgians. Antwerp was still the Belgian stronghold, and as Antwerp is, what Napoleon called it, "a loaded pistol pointed at England's heart," it became absolutely necessary for the Germans to carry the city. If Antwerp was once taken and the Belgian coast was in German hands, then an attack could be launched on Calais and Boulogne. British cross-channel

communications would be endangered and German submarine bases could be established at Ostend and Zeebrugge.

The race for the coast represented the last movement of the great Allied offensive and also marks the recovery by the Germans from their defeat at the Marne. The French and British generals saw the necessity for extending the battle lines to the sea and thereby closing the open gate into northern France. In order to do this, troops had to be rushed north at once to lengthen the line and, if possible, to join up with the remnants of the Belgian army. So long as Antwerp held out, it could be used as an Allied base. If it fell, then Ghent, Bruges, and even Ostend, would have to be abandoned to the enemy.

During the fighting on the Aisne two new French armies, the Seventh and the Tenth, were formed and sent to extend the Allied lines to the north. The Seventh Army, under General Castlenau, was in position by September 20th and was actively engaged about Noyon on the 21st. Noyon was captured by the French on that day but lost a few days later. By the end of September Castlenau's troops held a line from a little to the west of Noyon to a little north of Albert. On September 30th, the Tenth Army under General Maud'huy came up and took its place to the north of the Seventh Army. Maud'huy's troops were soon heavily engaged by new German forces who were attempting to turn their flank. Fortunately, after hard fighting, the French held Arras, but were unable to retain Lille, which fell into German hands on October 13th.

In the meantime the British army had been moved from its place on the battle line of the Aisne and was coming up to take its position to the north of Maud'huy's Tenth Army. After much hard fighting the British took up their place on the new line between October 11th and October 19th. The Seventh British Division had landed at Ostend and Zeebrugge on October 6th, in the hope of as-

sisting the garrison of Antwerp. Unable to do this, after many adventures, it took up its position near Ypres on October 16th. The Belgian army which had fallen back from Antwerp was taking up its position along the Yser Canal between Nieuport and Dixmude. By October 20th the Allied line had reached the sea and the gate was closed to the Germans.

Antwerp was by this time in the enemy's hands. From September 28th to October 6th the German howitzers pounded the outlying forts. On October 7th the bombardment of the doomed city began. The vast mass of the civilian population began to leave Antwerp and made for Ghent or the Dutch border. On October 9th the Germans entered the city.

#### British Naval Brigades

One incident of the siege and fall of Antwerp remains to be discussed—the arrival of the British naval brigades, commanded by General Paris and accompanied by the First Lord of the Admiralty, Winston Churchill. These brigades consisted partly of Royal Marines and partly of half-trained reservists and volunteers. Their arrival greatly heartened the Belgians and it was hoped that they were but the advance guard of a far greater British force. Unfortunately, no other British troops came, and although the naval brigades did what they could, they were powerless to prevent the fall of Antwerp. The British Admiralty was much criticized at the time for its action. Instead of helping the Belgians to hold Antwerp the British naval brigades seem to have been assisted by the Belgians in their retreat from the abandoned city. The naval brigades failed to accomplish their purpose, but their presence certainly stiffened the Belgian defense.

The fall of Antwerp meant the abandonment of all the rest of Belgium except that corner of West Flanders which

lies behind the line of the Yser. The remnants of the Belgian Army retired behind the Yser and joined up with the main body of the Allies. The commercial capital of Belgium remained in German hands.

#### VII. THE EASTERN FRONT—TANNENBERG

While these events were going on in the west a scarcely less interesting campaign was being conducted by the Russians against the Germans and Austrians. Russian troops advanced into East Prussia and penetrated as far as Allenstein in the Masurian Lakes region. In the south, the Austrians were forced to retire on Lemberg and soon eastern Galicia was in Russian hands. For a time it seemed as if Russian troops would advance far into Germany and Austria. Men began to talk about the "Russian steamroller," and the most optimistic prophesied a Russian triumphal march to Berlin which would end the war. But these optimists reckoned without von Hindenburg.

#### Von Hindenburg and the Masurian Lakes Region

General von Hindenburg was appointed to succeed General von Francois, who had not distinguished himself during the Russian advance. Probably no general in peace time has ever made a closer study of any possible battle ground than von Hindenburg made of the Masurian Lakes region in East Prussia. For years he had gone over the district and knew every possible road across the bogs. He also knew to a nicety how to entrap an advancing hostile army and to force them to make their way through the trackless, and in some cases, bottomless bogs.

The Russians fell into von Hindenburg's trap. The Northern Army, the so-called Army of the Niemen, under General Rennenkampf had advanced as far as Koenigsberg.

the capital of East Prussia. But Koenigsberg is a strong fortress and Rennenkampf could not hope to reduce it without assistance by sea. This he could not expect since the German fleet held the Baltic.

The other Russian army—the Army of the Narev under Samsonov—had, in the meantime, won a success at Frankenau, and had taken up its position near Allenstein, in the lake region. Against him was drawn up the army of von Hindenburg. Hindenburg had taken up his position with the utmost care, and he waited for the Russians to attack. If they did so he had them at his mercy.

#### Tannenberg and Lemberg

Battle was joined on August 26th and continued until the 31st. It was a complete victory for the Germans. The Russians were driven back in disorder through the lake region to the frontier. Samsonov was killed on the last day of the battle and the retreat became a rout. Between 80,000 and 90,000 prisoners fell into German hands. Von Hindenburg became the idol of the German people. From this great victory at Tannenberg dates his reputation as the greatest Teutonic commander.

The defeat of Tannenberg put an end to the Russian invasion of East Prussia, but even von Hindenburg was unable to put a stop to the advance against Lemberg. On August 27th the Third Russian Army, under Brussilov, captured Tarnapol and menaced Lemberg. A combined attack of three Russian armies caused the Austrians under von Auffenberg to evacuate the city of Lemberg on September 3rd. The next day Brussilov sent his left wing into the passes of the Carpathian mountains. Fighting continued along the whole Russian front in Galicia until September 10th and the Austrians were forced to give ground every-

where. Two days later the victorious von Hindenburg found himself held on the line of the river Niemen.

#### The Balkans

In the meantime severe fighting had been going on in the Balkans. Austrian forces had invaded Serbia. Serbians and Montenegrins were attempting to invade Bosnia and to clear the enemy out of Serbia. On August 17th the Serbians won a victory at Shabatz and the next day followed it up by defeating the Bosnian army at the river Jardar. By August 23rd they claimed to have their country freed from the invaders.

On the Eastern Front, therefore, in the early days of the war, the Central Empires did not make much progress. The bulk of the German armies were fighting in the west, and Austria-Hungary was not able to accomplish much without German assistance. None the less, a commander of note had appeared on the German side in the person of von Hindenburg.

## CHAPTER III

## THE FIRST AUTUMN AND WINTER.

## I. TRENCH WARFARE—THE FIRST BATTLE OF YPRES

The Allied line reached the sea and the last gap was closed October 20, 1914; but that did not by any means end the German attempts to secure the Channel ports. The gate to Calais had been slammed shut in the nick of time, but it was not yet locked and bolted. The Germans were in force and, as events proved, were determined to break through the thin but resolute Franco-British-Belgian line. At Ypres it has been reckoned that the Germans outnumbered the British five to one. The Kaiser himself was present during the battle, and we have it on the authority of Sir John French that a division of the Prussian Guard which made a furious attack "had received the Emperor's special commands to break through and succeed where their comrades of the line had failed."\*

The First Battle of Ypres, which lasted from October 21st to November 17th, may be regarded in one of two ways: either as the concluding action of the great German onslaught which began with the rush through Belgium and Northern France, or as the beginning of a new phase of warfare on the Western Front. A strong case can be made for either interpretation, but possibly it can best be treated as ushering in that long period of "stale-mate" on the Western Front which continued so long, except for a few

\*Sir John French Dispatch of November 20, 1914.



offensives on either side. When the Allied lines were extended to the sea, trench warfare began,\* and the Western Front assumed that rigid and durable form which it possessed for the next two or three years of the war.

This great struggle at Ypres was therefore the first attempt of the Germans to break through the Allied defense system and as such is comparable with the second Teutonic attempt at Ypres and the great attack on Verdun.† The Allied offensives in Champagne and on the Somme were movements of the same sort, directed against the Germans. The only distinction between the First Battle of Ypres and these later offensives is that the defenses at first on either side were still in the early stages of construction, with the natural result that greater mobility was possible and there was more open fighting than in some of the later engagements of the war. Not that the fighting around Ypres was not heavy and the casualty lists tremendous, but that there were fewer deep "dugouts" and concrete fortifications than appeared in subsequent schemes of defense. The Allied line which ran from the Yser to Arras was chiefly defended by the heroism of the men who manned it and not by the latest inventions of science.

#### Trench Warfare Not New

Trench warfare is no modern invention which was unknown before the outbreak of the present war. Who has not heard of Pompey's lines at Dyrrhachium and Wellington's lines at Torres Vedras? The entrenchments thrown

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\*The Battle of the Aisne, which began after the Germans had reached that river on September 12th, and continued indefinitely, marked the commencement of trench warfare on the southern part of the line.

†The great German attack of March, 1918, succeeded in breaking the Allied line for a time, but the Allies broke the German lines in July and August of the same year. In each case the defeated army was able to reform its line in the rear.

up by both sides during the engagements of the American Civil War are also well known. At some stage in most wars the opposing armies come to grips and to maintain their position dig themselves in. On account of the fierceness and accuracy of artillery fire in modern warfare such tactics are absolutely necessary. Infantry in trenches with well-constructed "dugouts" are comparatively immune from shrapnel and high explosive shells; in the open they present too easy a mark.

The retirement of the Germans from the Marne to the line of the Aisne marks the beginning of systematic trench warfare on the Western Front. To be sure there was plenty of trench fighting before that, e. g., at Liege and Mons, but it was not until the Battle of the Aisne that trench-fighting became permanent. As the Allied forces swept onward to the attack in that battle they found themselves opposed by a well entrenched and often invisible enemy. The attacks, although obtaining some local successes, on the whole, failed. The Germans held their new defensive line, and all that the Allies could do was to dig themselves in. The German line usually followed the highest ground and so the Allies were forced to attack up hill, and often to construct their trenches on lower ground than that held by the Germans.

By the end of September the French and British were well entrenched on the battle line running from Alsace to the valley of the Aisne. Movement along the British front practically ceased after the breakdown of the German counter attacks between September 26th to 28th. The last great assault on the French to the east was made by the Crown Prince on October 3rd. After that time "stale-mate" set in on that part of the front also. Until October 20th there was open fighting from Albert to the Coast of Flanders, but then the lines were closed. It was now impossible for either side to outflank the other. The only remaining

strategy was to try to break the enemy's line. The German Supreme Command selected that portion of the Allied line from Arras to the sea, as the scene for the first attempt. The fall of Antwerp had given to the Germans Ostend and Zeebrugge: if Dunkirk and Calais could be captured, then control of the Straits of Dover would no longer be in the hands of the Entente Allies. On account of lack of men the Allied line from the sea to Arras was not very strongly held and the German war lords had a plentiful supply of new troops available. A series of crushing blows by the Germans on the Yser, at Arras, La Bassée, and Ypres was expected, to avenge the Battle of the Marne and open the road to Calais.

#### Along the Yser

On the Yser fighting began on October 17th. The Germans under von Beseler attempted to capture Nieuport and to follow the coast road to Dunkirk and Calais. The remains of the much battered Belgian army under command of de Moranville were drawn up on the east side of the Yser in order to stave off attack. They were assisted by British warships and "monitors." The Germans attacked on October 18th, but were beaten back from the coast by the big British naval guns. Fighting continued on the following days, but the Germans were unable to make much progress along the coast. Further inland the attacks of the enemy met with more success and the Belgians, although reinforced by the French, had to retire to positions back of the Nieuport-Dixmude railway.

#### Belgium Inundated

Then it was that the Belgian engineers played their trump card and inundated the country. At first the Germans made progress through the shallow water, but soon

wider areas were flooded and further advance was checked. Scores of Germans were drowned in their attempts to cross the flooded area and the coast road to Calais was effectively blocked.

#### Successes and Failures

In the meantime fierce fighting had taken place near La Bassée. There General Smith-Dorrien, with about 30,000 British, beat back the attacks of the Bavarians and successfully prevented a breach from being made in its line. On October 27th the Germans succeeded in occupying the village of Neuve-Chapelle, which was later to become the scene of the first British offensive movement on this front in 1915. The fighting around La Bassée, which remained so long in German hands, is also notable as being the first occasion in which the troops from India took their place in the British battle line. Though new to European war conditions the East Indians gave a very good account of themselves.

Farther south at Arras the French under General Maud'huy were forced to meet a tremendous attack from von Buelow's army which had been reinforced by the Prussian Guard. Arras being an important railway center, von Buelow was determined to secure it at all costs. On October 24th the Germans arrived within gunshot of the city and their bombardment did much harm to the Hotel de Ville and other historical buildings. But the French could not be forced out of Arras. German attacks continued until the beginning of November but the French line remained unbroken.

### The First Battle of Ypres

The fighting at Arras, however, intense as it undoubtedly was, could not be compared to the titanic struggle which was going on at Ypres.

The First Battle of Ypres was one of the chief and most hotly contested efforts of the Germans to pierce the Allied line, but at the same time from October 20th to the beginning of November heavy fighting took place on the Yser, at La Bassée and at Arras. None of these attacks were successful, although in many places the Allies were forced to give ground. The Germans possessed a tremendous superiority in numbers, but they were faced by troops who knew that defeat meant a breach in the Allied line and ultimate destruction for the armies of the Entente. This was to be avoided at all costs.

The little Belgian city of Ypres was now undergoing the first of those awful battles which have made its name a household word throughout the world. The villages which lie to the north, east, and south of Ypres, St. Julien, Langemarck, Bixchoote, Zonnebeke, Hooge, St. Eloi, Hollebeke, Zillebeke, are almost as well known as the stricken Belgian city with its ruined Cloth Hall and Cathedral. Since these villages which formed, and whose ruins so long formed, parts of the so-called Ypres salient witnessed the scene of so many important engagements of the war, a rough sketch map, indicating their positions, is given on page 77.

The German aim at Ypres was to drive the British back from the Ypres salient, to capture the town, and to drive a wedge in between the French and Belgians to the north and the main body of the French to the south of the city. The British were determined to hold Ypres at all costs. Behind Ypres the way lay open to the sea.

Sir John French's dispatches show that the British had hoped to make Ypres the base for a drive against Bruges

and even Ghent. These plans were frustrated by the great strengthening of the German line previous to the attempted drive on the Channel ports. None the less, the British were enabled to take possession of a line running from Bixschoote through Zonnebeke to a point just behind Beclaere and then turning sharply to the southwest skirting Gheluelvelt, and Zandvoorde to Hollebeke. From Hollebeke the line ran south to Armentieres. Such was the position of the British at Ypres on October 21, 1914. The most exposed parts of the line were near Langemarck, where a heavy attack was delivered on October 22nd, at Beclaere, the point of the salient, and around Hollebeke. As the battle wore on, more and more of the fighting concentrated on the line south of Hollebeke. There the Germans made great progress and drove the British back to Wytschaete and Messines, both villages being finally captured by the enemy.

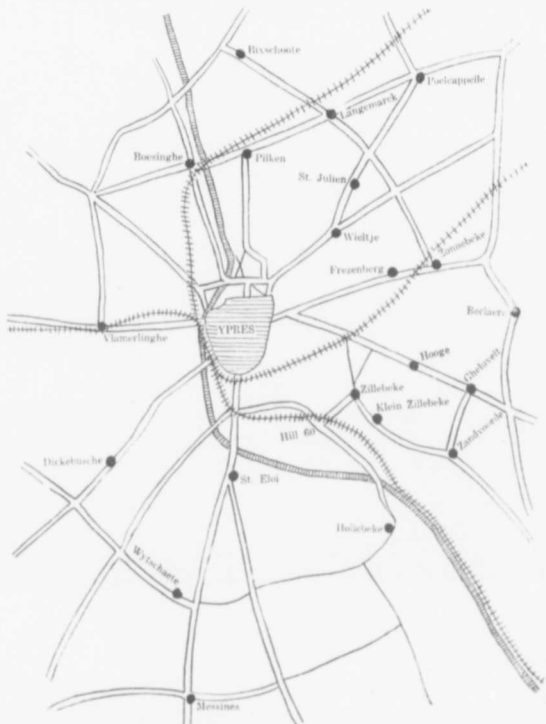
The crisis of the battle of Ypres, according to Sir John French, was reached on October 31st when Gheluelvelt fell into German hands and it seemed as if a way might be opened to Ypres. But aid came to the hard pressed British in time and the Second Worcesters recaptured Gheluelvelt at the point of the bayonet. The recovery of the village allowed assistance to be sent to near Hollebeke where there seems to have been the beginning of a gap in the British line.

The next day, November 1st, saw the loss of both Hollebeke and Messines. Wytschaete was captured by the Germans but was retaken by the British with French assistance. After that the British line ran from Le Gheir (which is to the south and a little to the east of Messines) then west of Messines and by way of Wytschaete, St. Eloi and Klein Zillebeke to Gheluelvelt.

On November 6th Klein Zillebeke became the center of the fighting and the French under de Moussy were driven back. The dismounted British Household Cavalry charged and saved the situation by hard fighting.

## Germans' Supreme Effort Before Ypres

The last great German effort before Ypres took place on November 11th and the four following days. The Prussian Guard was brought up to accomplish what their com-



YPRES AND ITS NEIGHBORHOOD  
(Copyright, 1919, W. G. Schless)

rades had failed to do—to break the British line. Their chief attack was along the Menin road against Gheluvelt and the Kaiser was present to witness their victory. He was disappointed, for the Guard was beaten back after tremendous fighting, having endured terrible losses. The British line held.

Sir Douglas Haig, in his general order of November 12th, put the story of that fighting simply and clearly in the following sentences:

"The Commander-in-Chief has asked me to convey to the troops under my command his congratulations and thanks for their splendid resistance to the German attack yesterday. The attack was delivered by some fifteen fresh Battalions of the German Guard Corps, which had been specially brought up to carry out the task in which so many other Corps had failed, viz., to crush the British and force a way through to Ypres.

"Since their arrival in this neighborhood the First Corps, assisted by the Third Cavalry Division, Seventh Division, and troops from the Second Corps, have met and defeated the Twenty-third, Twenty-sixth, and Twenty-seventh German Reserve Corps, the Fifteenth Active Corps, and finally, a strong force from the Guards Corps. It is doubtful whether the annals of the British Army contain any finer record than this."

Fighting continued until November 17th, when the Germans again attacked to the south of the Menin road, but were again unsuccessful. After that, although there were still some engagements of minor importance, the Germans failed to make any appreciable gains. The First Battle of Ypres was over and victory lay with the Entente Allies. The great German attempt to reach the Channel ports had failed.



There seems little doubt that the First Battle of Ypres will rank in history as one of the chief engagements of the war. The Second Battle of Ypres attracted more public attention than the First on account of the use of poison gas and on account of the gallant stand of the Canadians. But had not the "Old British Army" stood its ground in October and November, 1914, there could have been no second battle fought at Ypres in April, 1915.

## II. THE WAR AT SEA—THE FALL OF KIAO-CHAU AND TSING-TAU

### **The Emden; Coronel; The Falkland Islands**

While armies of a size unparalleled in former wars were fighting on land, great events were occurring at sea. The British and French fleets acting together in the early days of the war swept German commerce from the seas and began to guard the trade routes of the world. The German High Seas Fleet made no attempt to come out in force and to try conclusions with the British Grand Fleet. British naval supremacy made itself felt from the beginning of the war.

The German Fleet remained in its own home waters, protected by Heligoland and the mine fields which were laid along the German coast line from the Dutch frontier to the entrance of the Kiel Canal. It was a strong defensive position which could be held for any length of time. From this great German base submarines and cruisers could be sent out to prey upon British commerce. In addition mine layers, from the outbreak of war, had scattered their death-traps throughout the North Sea. Early in August, 1914, several British ships, including H. M. S. Amphion, were sunk by floating mines. A great naval battle was expected but none occurred. The German High Seas Fleet was taking no chances.

### Commerce Destroyers

The German naval authorities, unable to cope with the whole British fleet, still possessed two methods whereby they could do harm on the seas to the Entente Allies. One was by "commerce destroyers," cruisers and armed merchantmen who attacked unarmed British liners and cargo-boats. Chief among these commerce raiders were the "Emden" whose strange and romantic career will be dealt with later; the "Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse," which was sunk by H. M. S. "Highflyer;" and the "Cap Trafalgar" sunk by the "Carmania," a converted Cunard liner. The other method, which singularly failed, was to attack the British transports which were taking men to France or bringing contingents from India or the great self-governing British Dominions. The German navy proved itself unable during the first year of the war to make any serious inroads upon British shipping.

### Naval Engagement

The first naval action of any size in the war was the Battle of the Bight of Heligoland which took place on August 28, 1914. On that occasion British submarines and destroyers were sent in towards Heligoland in order to "draw out" the German fleet. Two British cruisers accompanied the British destroyers and engaged two and later three German cruisers. Sir David Beatty and his fleet of British battle cruisers came up in time to sink three German cruisers and badly damaged a fourth which had appeared during the fighting. The British had hoped to engage in battle with a much larger section of the German fleet, but von Ingenohl, the Teuton commander, was unwilling to risk a more general conflict. After this affair at the Bight of

Heligoland the German High Seas Fleet remained in harbor and refused to be lured into further encounters.

### Submarines

Submarine activities increased and the British lost several important ships. The chief loss from submarines came in September when three British cruisers, the "Aboukir," the "Hague" and the "Cressy," were sunk by a German U-boat. This incident not only caused considerable heart searching at the British Admiralty but demonstrated the effectiveness of the German submarine. One U-boat had accounted for three British cruisers and had dimmed the luster of the British victory off Heligoland. For a matter of fact the German cruisers sunk off Heligoland were much more up-to-date than the "Hague," "Cressy" and "Aboukir," and were a more serious loss than these three rather antiquated vessels. The British, on October 17th, sunk four German destroyers off the Dutch coast and so again obtained a balance on the right side of the ledger.

### The Emden

In the meantime the German commerce-destroyer, the "Emden," was making history. This cruiser, at the time of the declaration of war, was in Eastern waters and soon set herself to make trouble for British or other Allied vessels in those waters. It has been estimated that in seven weeks she sank 70,000 tons of British shipping. On September 22nd by way of diversion the "Emden" bombarded the outskirts of Madras and set fire to some oil tanks. A little over a month later, in order to look more like a British cruiser, the "Emden" was fitted with a dummy fourth funnel and so eluded pursuit and sank more ships.

But the commerce raider was not to continue immune forever. On November 9th an attack was made on the Cocos-Keeling Islands in the Indian Ocean, and the British wireless and cable station there were seized. Fortunately, before the instruments were smashed the British operator was able to send out a warning cry for help. This message was picked up by the Australian fleet, and H. M. A. S. "Sydney"\* was sent post haste to the rescue. A sharp action ensued in which the "Emden" was so badly damaged that she had to run aground on North Keeling Island. A party from the German vessel, including three officers and forty men, succeeded in escaping on a small schooner, the "Ayesha," and carried on a sort of Captain Kidd warfare for some considerable time. Captain von Müller of the "Emden" was taken as prisoner to Australia where he was very well treated.

#### Kiao-Chau Surrenders

The "Emden" had started out on her romantic career from Kiao-Chau, the German naval base in China, after the declaration of war. On the day after her destruction, November 10th, Tsing-Tau, the fortress of Kiao-Chau, surrendered to a combined Japanese and British force under General Kaneio. Japan had sent an ultimatum to Germany on August 15, 1914, in terms strangely reminiscent of those by which Germany, after the Chinese War, had forced Japan to give up Port Arthur. The ultimatum expired on August 23rd, and Japanese troops on August 27th seized several islands off the Tsing-Tau peninsula. Fighting commenced early in September, and on September 13th the Japanese occupied the Kiao-Chau railway station. A small British force arrived on September 23rd and gave assistance

\*His Majesty's *Australian Ship* "Sydney"—as distinguished from the ships of the British Royal Navy which go by the ordinary title H. M. S.

to the Japanese. Gradually the forts of Tsing-Tau were silenced by the superior Japanese and British gunfire, and on November 7th the Germans hoisted the white flag. The formal surrender of Tsing-Tau took place on November 10th. The Kaiser had lost his coaling station in eastern Asia.

#### The Fate of German Colonies

Before the siege of Kiao-Chau and Tsing-Tau several of the warships of the German Pacific Squadron had left their base and were cruising around in the Southern Pacific. They were under the command of Admiral von Spee, who stationed himself off the coast of South America. In the meantime the German colonies of New Guinea and Samoa had fallen into the possession of Australia and New Zealand. Samoa was captured on August 28th and also New Pomerania and New Guinea by the middle of September. Very little opposition was encountered anywhere and the German flag disappeared from Australasian waters.

Admiral von Spee made no attempt to defend these German colonies. Apparently he was more intent upon raiding British commerce along the west coast of South America. He had concentrated under his command two armored cruisers, the "Gneisenau" and the "Scharnhorst," and three light cruisers, the "Dresden," "Leipzig" and "Nürnberg." These ships were superior both in speed and gunfire to any British warships which were known to be in South American waters. Von Spee had, therefore, no reason to refuse battle if he got a chance.

#### Battle of Coronel

Such a chance was presented to him off Coronel on the coast of Chili, on November 1, 1914, when he encountered the fleet of Admiral Cradock. Cradock was a brave Admiral

and, although his ships were inferior to von Spee's in both speed and gunfire, he gave battle. The result was a complete German victory. The British flagship, the "Good Hope," went down with Cradock on board. The "Monmouth" was also sunk, but the "Glasgow" escaped to give warning of the British defeat. Although very badly hit the "Glasgow" managed to pick up the "Canopus," a ship of Cradock's fleet which had been left behind for repairs and had, therefore, been absent from the Battle of Coronel. The two British ships managed to get to the Falkland Islands off the southeast coast of South America.

#### A Surprise for von Spee in the Falklands

Cradock's defeat and death left the Falkland Islands with their wireless station open to attack. Von Spee evidently considered his quarry quite safe so made no move against the islands until early in December. By that time Admiral Sturdee had arrived from England with the battle cruisers "Invincible" and "Inflexible," two of the finest ships in the British navy, and also three armored cruisers and a converted liner. Sturdee was determined to take no chances. Having been joined by the "Bristol" from the West Atlantic station, and the "Glasgow," the British Admiral arrived at Port Stanley in the Falkland Islands on December 7th. There he found the "Canopus," and all was made ready to give von Spee a warm welcome immediately.

Von Spee in the meantime was heading for the islands where he expected to encounter only the "Canopus." On December 8th, only a day after Sturdee had arrived, the German fleet was sighted from the land and the battle soon began. When von Spee perceived the situation he attempted to draw off, but he soon decided to give battle. The German light cruisers made off, pursued by the three British light cruisers, the "Kent," "Glasgow" and "Cornwall." Two

of the German cruisers, the "Nürnberg" and the "Leipzig" were sunk, but the "Dresden" got away. The "Gneisenau" and "Scharnhorst" were both sunk by gunfire from the "Invincible," the "Inflexible" and the "Carnarvon." Admiral von Spee went down with his fleet.

The Battle of the Falkland Islands was a complete British victory. It was a well planned and a well executed maneuver. It speaks volumes for the efficiency of the British Admiralty that Sturdee was able to slip away from England unknown to the Germans, and that von Spee got no warning of the increased strength of his opponents. Cradock and von Spee have been added to the long list of naval heroes who preferred death to surrender.

### III. ENTRANCE OF TURKEY INTO THE WAR

#### THE ATTITUDE OF ITALY

##### Trouble With Turkey

On the same day that the Battle of Coronel was fought the British Ambassador, Sir Louis Mallet, left Constantinople. Turkey had entered the war on the side of the Central Powers. This action on the part of the Ottoman Empire was the result of a long series of difficulties between Turkey and Great Britain stretching back to the outbreak of war between the Central Empires and the Entente Powers in August, 1914. Chief among these were the unneutral action of Turkey in receiving and harboring the German battle ships, "Goeben" and "Breslau," the presence in Constantinople of German officers, men and munitions of war, and the repudiation by Turkey of the "Capitulations" or international treaties which granted certain rights to foreigners living in the Turkish Empire. The Turks also closed the Dardanelles on September 27th, because they claimed that British warships were blockading the straits and had

turned back a Turkish destroyer. Great Britain was able to claim, on her part, that Turkish troops were preparing to invade Egypt.

War between Turkey and the Entente Powers was to be expected, since the real controlling force in Constantinople was German and not Turkish. During the early days of the war the German battleship "Goeben" and cruiser "Breslau" which had been operating in the Mediterranean, fled to the Dardanelles and were received by the German consul there on August 11th. They subsequently arrived at Constantinople and a report was issued that they were "sold" to the Turkish government. This, however, was not the case, which is evidenced by the fact that the German officers and crews remained on board. At the same time the British Naval Mission headed by Admiral Limpus was replaced by Turkish officers, probably, as Mr. Beaumont of the British Embassy at Constantinople has suggested, because "it would have been an impossible situation for Admiral Limpus, if he had had under his direct orders a mixed crew of Turks and Germans."\* The withdrawal of the British Naval Mission left Marshal Liman, the head of the German Military Mission in Turkey, and the German Ambassador, supreme in Constantinople.

Late in August and early in September, reports were being sent to the British Foreign Office that German troops were passing through Roumania and Bulgaria on their way to Constantinople. Turkish mobilization was continually progressing and reports came from Cairo that a Turkish attack was being planned on the Suez Canal. False rumors were spread abroad in Constantinople by the German authorities to the effect that a revolution had broken out in India, and that Japanese aid had been called in by Great

\*British Parliamentary Paper Cd. 7628, dispatch No. 18, August 16, 1914.



Britain "in return for free immigration into the Pacific Coast, a free hand in China and a £40,000,000 loan."\*

On September 9th the Turkish Government abolished the "Capitulations." An immediate protest was lodged by all the foreign embassies, including the German and Austrian Ambassadors. The abolition of the "Capitulations" freed Turkey from a certain amount of international control and was no doubt flattering to Turkish pride. It did not, however, improve the diplomatic situation in Constantinople.

#### Turkey's First Acts of War

Finally, on October 29th, definite acts of war were committed by the Turks. A force of Bedouins crossed the Turkish-Egyptian frontier and occupied the wells of Magdaba, twenty miles within Egyptian territory. On the same day, Turkish torpedo boats raided Odessa on the Black Sea and sank a Russian gunboat. On October 30th, Sir Louis Mallet applied for his passports and had "a very painful interview with the Grand Vizier."

#### New Problems

The entrance of Turkey into the war brought up several new problems. Chief of these, from the British point of view, was the question of Egypt. Since 1882 Egypt had been "occupied" by Great Britain, but it still remained under Turkish suzerainty. But as Turkish troops were hourly expected to attack the Suez Canal, which is built on Egyptian territory, and a band of Bedouins had already seized the wells of Magdaba, it was evident that some change in Egypt's official status must at once be made. So, on December 17th, with the consent of France, who had originally intervened with Great Britain in that country, Egypt was proclaimed a British Protectorate. A Sultan of Egypt was

\*British Parliamentary Paper Cd. 7628, No. 75.

set up in the person of Prince Hussein Kamel Pasha, who succeeded the Khedive Abbas II, who had thrown in his lot with Turkey. The fact that the new ruler of Egypt was called Sultan and not Khedive showed not only that Turkish suzerainty had ceased to exist, but also that the Mohammedan world now possessed two supreme rulers or Sultans. The Sultan of Turkey might proclaim a *jihad* or holy war for "the faithful," but now "the faithful" were divided in their allegiance. In the Sudan, where Gordon died in 1885 fighting the Mahdi, and Kitchener overthrew the Mahdi's successor in 1898, the Mahdi's eldest son rallied the tribesmen to the British cause. Much had been hoped by the German warlords from Egyptian secessionists and a rebellion in the Sudan was looked for. Once again the Berlin officials had misunderstood the real character of the British Empire.

### Italy

The outbreak of war with Turkey immediately brought to the fore the question of Italy. When the Great War began, Italy was still a member of the Triple Alliance, but it was recognized by all the belligerents that it was to be expected that she would declare herself neutral. Italian and Austrian interests clashed in the Balkans and Italy still longed for those "unredeemed portions" of her country—Trent and Trieste. These two cities and the districts surrounding them are chiefly inhabited by Italians, but have remained under Austrian rule. In 1866 at the conclusion of the Austro-Prussian War, in which Italy fought as Prussia's Ally, Venice and Venetia were ceded to Italy, but Italy had been unable to obtain Trent and Trieste. Italian relations with Germany were none too cordial either, since Germany had done nothing to advance the Italian cause in North Africa and had been none too pleased when Italy, in

1911, went to war with Turkey and obtained Tripoli. Still it was hardly thought that Italy would go so far as to declare war upon her Allies.

#### Political Parties in Italy

None the less, from the first there was much uncertainty among the diplomats of Europe as to what attitude Italy might finally adopt towards the Entente Allies. There were two parties in the country, the Neutralists and the Interventionists. The Neutralists were made up of the extreme clericals, who mistrusted France and Russia on religious grounds; the aristocrats, who had German leanings; the extreme socialists, who were also pacifists; and many commercial men, including bankers, who had extensive business dealings with Germany. The Interventionists favored joining the Entente Allies and were supported by those Italians who hated Austria as the hereditary enemy, and Germany as overbearing and barbarian. These two political parties were almost equally balanced. The Premier, Signor Salandra, was thought to favor intervention, but his Foreign Minister, the Marquis di San Giuliano, was rather pro-German. Thus the Italian government declared itself neutral. In December, 1914, the death of San Giuliano led to the succession to the Foreign Office of Baron Sonnino. Then began a diplomatic battle which finally ended in the entrance of Italy on the side of the Entente Allies in May, 1915. The German Ex-Chancellor, von Buelow, was sent to Rome to keep Italy neutral, but he failed.

#### Turkey Unsuccessful

While Italy was thus hesitating in her course, Turkish forces were engaged with the British in Mesopotamia and with the Russians in Transcaucasia. The British were able to seize Basra, on the river Euphrates near the Persian

Gulf, on November 23rd, and early in December had possession of the deltas of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. A Turkish attack on Transcaucasia failed late in January, 1915. A few days later, February 2-4, the Turks were beaten back from the Suez Canal. The Turk had not covered himself with glory.

#### IV. BRITAIN'S NEW ARMIES—REBELLION IN SOUTH AFRICA

##### Rally of the British Empire

During the early months of the world-war occurred the great rally of the British Empire. From every corner of the habitable globe members of the British race came forward to defend their freedom and the integrity of their Empire. Each of the self-governing Dominions offered to send contingents to aid the Motherland, and the native princes of India vied with one another in contributing to the defense of the world-wide empire. Even the Falkland Islands contributed their share to help on the war. It was the call of the blood, and "in the day of Armageddon, the last dread day of all" the Empire answered the call. Rudyard Kipling, years before, had summed up the spirit of Britain's Overseas Empire in the lines:

"Round and round our homes are set  
About the seven seas,  
Woe to us if we forget,  
We that hold by these"—

But there was no forgetting. Down to the little island of Niue in the Southern Pacific, "the last, least lump of coral, that none be left behind," all rushed to do their part. The croakers had prophesied that in time of stress the British Empire would fall apart. In the hour of stress the unseen ties of Empire held.

### Britain's Need

But, after all, it was upon the Motherland and not upon the daughter states that the chief burden of the war had, of necessity, to fall. Great Britain possessed men, money and materials, but lacked organization for war. New armies had to be called into being and they had to be trained and equipped in record time, in order to provide reinforcements for the hard pressed Expeditionary Force. In addition, munitions had to be made in quantities undreamed of before the war, and for that purpose arsenals and munition factories had to be built all over the country. Britain's great industrial army of men and women, which totaled over 4,000,000 in 1917, had to be gathered together, trained, housed, and kept working with the maximum of efficiency and the minimum of friction. In a word, the British Isles had to be put on a war footing. To do this efficient leadership was an absolute necessity.

### Britain's Early Activities

Fortunately, in the person of Lord Kitchener, the British Empire possessed a man who held the confidence of all and who had proved himself in the past to be an "organizer of victory." On August 5, 1914, Kitchener became Secretary of State for War. He set himself at once to call for recruits. At first 100,000 men were asked for, then the number was raised to 500,000, then to 1,000,000. A tremendous advertising campaign was inaugurated to get men. Throughout the entire country, billboards conveyed the message to young men, "Your King and Country need you; enlist today." Men came forward in thousands, and finally in tens of thousands. At first there were no uniforms, no rifles, nor equipment; but there was a spirit of willingness, loyalty and devotion rarely equaled in any country. The

recruits were lodged in huge camps which sprang up over night in all parts of the British Isles. These new forces were known as "Kitchener's Army." Not since the days of "Cromwell's Ironsides" had any British leader given his name to a great new volunteer army. But it was well termed "Kitchener's Army," for his was a name of power in Britain in those days. In the popular imagination Kitchener was the one man to save the British Empire. Nor was he found wanting.

#### Loyalty of British Dominions

All over the wide-flung British world it was the same. Canada offered 20,000 men as her First Contingent, but when the force was gathered at Valcartier, P. Q., it was found that nearly double that number had enlisted for training. In the early autumn of 1914, when the "Canadian Armada" sailed out of Gaspé Harbor there were 33,000 men on board, the first of those hundreds of thousands whom the New World was to send "to redress the balance of the old." Great Britain could not compel these men to come. They went of their own free will to aid the Motherland in her hour of trial, and to strike a blow in defense of democracy and liberty. It is hard to overpraise the men of the First Canadian Contingent, the "Original Firsts," who so gloriously held the line against such terrible odds in the Second Battle of Ypres. They were not in the ordinary sense of the term professional soldiers, but in the hour of trial they stood their ground like veterans. From every province in Canada they came forward to defend the Empire. Many of them had been born in the Motherland, but others were native sons of Canada. All walks of life were represented and in one tent at Valcartier were to be found a London cockney, a college professor from Alberta and a young lad from Winnipeg. Although most of them were

new to military life, all were keen and willing to learn. Even the mud of Salisbury Plain was not sufficient to dampen their ardor.

With the First Canadian Contingent, although not originally part of the Canadian Expeditionary Force, should be classed that great regiment raised and equipped by Major Hamilton Gault of Montreal, the "Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry." Princess Patricia, the daughter of the Governor-General, the Duke of Connaught, was its honorary colonel and worked its regimental colors with her own hands. The regiment was recruited throughout the entire Dominion and a finer body of men never left Canada than the "Princess Pat's." But the "Princess Pat's," although the first Canadians to get into action, were not present at the awful struggle of the Second Battle of Ypres. The credit for that heroic stand goes to those immortal battalions of the First Contingent which were made up of men from every Canadian Province. Men from Ontario fought shoulder to shoulder with men from British Columbia, and the new western provinces mourned their dead along with the long-settled east. It is impossible to single out individual battalions for special mention, when all were wonderful. Some had to bear a greater strain than others, and their deeds are recorded later. But the glory of Ypres was truly the "Battle Glory of Canada."

Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Newfoundland were not one whit behind Canada in their offers of aid. The Australian government placed the Australian navy at the disposal of the British Admiralty, and raised an Expeditionary Force of 20,000 and a Light Horse Brigade of 6,000. The New Zealand Expeditionary Force numbered 8,000 and Newfoundland raised a regiment which accompanied the First Canadian Contingent to England. In South Africa the Union Government

released all British troops who were still on garrison duty there, and undertook the defense of their country. General Botha, who had commanded the Boers in the South African War, and since 1909 had been the Premier of United South Africa, called for levies in order to invade German South West Africa.

### The Boer Rebellion

Unfortunately, there were still some Boers in South Africa who had not sincerely accepted British rule and who were only too willing to take advantage of the outbreak of war in order to further their own ends. A plot was formed, probably instigated by Maritz and headed by Beyers, Kemp and DeWet, to overthrow the existing constitution and to restore the old republican rule in the Transvaal and Orange Free State. The vast majority of the South African Dutch were loyal to General Botha and the Union of South Africa, but DeWet and the other leaders could find plenty of back-veld Boers who still hoped for a restoration of the Boer republics.

Rebellion broke out toward the end of October, 1914. On the 24th of that month DeWet seized Heilbronn in the Orange Free State. In the meantime Beyers had gathered a force near Pretoria at Rustenburg. Botha immediately summoned the loyal burghers to take up arms, and the unique spectacle occurred of Boers who had fought side by side as late as 1902, taking opposite sides in 1914, the majority following Botha to defend British institutions. It was an hour of peril for the South African Union; General Botha, with his able lieutenant, Smuts, backed by the loyal Dutch, saved the situation. In a few weeks Botha had over 30,000 men under his command. An engagement took place near Rustenburg in which Beyers and Kemp were defeated and forced to flee. By November 7th, Gen-



eral Smuts was able to announce at Johannesburg that the rebellion in the Cape Province was over, that the Transvaal revolt had failed, and that only in the Orange Free State, the scene of DeWet's operations, was the rebellion at all serious. Two weeks later DeWet was a fugitive, and on December 1st he surrendered to Union forces commanded by Colonel Jordaan. Beyers was drowned trying to swim the Vaal river which was in flood, and Kemp fled across the German border. The rebellion had failed. In January, 1915, Botha began his campaign against German Southwest Africa. Early in February Kemp and his command surrendered to the Union forces at Upington on the Orange River near the German frontier. Maritz, who was supposed to be at the bottom of the whole conspiracy, sought safety among his German friends. South Africa had vindicated her loyalty to the British Empire.

#### V. THE WESTERN FRONT—NEUVE CHAPELLE

##### **Inactivity During Winter Months**

On the Western Front trench warfare continued, but few important actions took place. What fighting there was, was local in character and could have little, if any, decisive effect. A few yards of trenches were gained here or lost there, but on the whole, the Allied lines remained fixed from Switzerland to the sea. The system of trenches became much more intricate and wire entanglements thornier and harder to cut through. Regiments remained opposite each other so long that they became quite well acquainted. On Christmas Day, 1914, on some parts of the line a holiday was taken and the men of the opposing armies "fraternized" with one another. It should not be imagined, however, that hostilities completely ceased. Casualty lists grew and what was termed a "quiet day" at the front usually added many names to the ever increasing roll.

### Chief Engagements During Winter

The chief engagements which took place during the winter months were the French offensive in Champagne, and the British attack on Neuve Chapelle. There were also several minor attacks, which entailed desperate fighting. Two of these were launched by the Germans, one near Soissons, against the French, from January 8th to January 14th, 1915, and the other towards the end of the same month against the British at La Bassée and Givinchy. It was in this latter battle on February 1st that Lance-Corporal Michael O'Leary won the Victoria Cross, the highest honor in the British Army, by capturing the enemy's position single handed, and holding it until help came.

The French offensive in Champagne began on February 16th and continued for over a month. The Germans were steadily but very slowly beaten back. The French advance averaged only about fifteen feet each day. None the less, although the price paid was heavy, it was an advance, and it prevented the German Crown Prince from making an attack in the Argonne region just to the east of the scene of hostilities in Champagne.

#### Neuve Chapelle

Before the French attack in Champagne was over the British were trying to capture Neuve Chapelle. Neuve Chapelle lies to the southwest of the Ypres salient about ten miles from Armentieres. During the fighting in October, 1914, the village changed hands several times, but finally remained in possession of the Germans. It was thought that a successful attack on Neuve Chapelle would allow the British to straighten out their line, and, if possible, carry a series of ridges to the east which would open the road to Lille. There had been but little fighting around Neuve Chapelle and so the British planned a surprise attack.

The attack came on the morning of March 10th. At 7:30 a. m. the "artillery preparation" started. In force and intensity it could not equal the later "barrages" of the war, but it accomplished its purpose in that it destroyed most of the barbed wire entanglement in front of the German positions. At 8:50 a. m. the infantry went forward and the village of Neuve Chapelle, or rather the few shattered remains of what once had been a village, fell into British hands. Unfortunately, on the northern outskirts of the village the German barbed wire and trenches were still intact and the British forces sustained terrible casualties. By noon the first objectives were obtained, and the British were busily consolidating their positions.

#### **Blunders and Counter-Attacks**

A further advance against the ridge which dominated the road to Lille should now have taken place, but at this point blunders occurred. Telephonic communication with the rear had been interrupted since the wires had been cut by artillery fire, and there was delay in bringing up the reserves. The favorable moment was lost and the Germans had a chance to reorganize and make a stand on their second line of defense. Fighting continued until the evening of March 12th but then it was evident that the British could not take the German positions on the ridge and that the Germans could not retake Neuve Chapelle. So the British dug themselves in and consolidated their gains. The chief German counter-attack was not at Neuve Chapelle but at St. Eloi where the British were for a time driven back, but succeeded in regaining their positions.

#### **Canadian Troops**

In this action the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry distinguished itself. The "Princess Pat's" were the

first of the overseas troops to get into action and they showed themselves worthy of fighting along side of the oldest and most experienced British regiments.

### Results

Neuve Chapelle has been criticised as another Balaclava which, though brilliant, accomplished little. This criticism is, however, not altogether just. It is true that through imperfect staff work and delay in bringing up reinforcements, Lille, the great objective, was lost, and that the British casualties were terrible in comparison with the amount of ground gained. On the other hand, the possession of Neuve Chapelle was something. It straightened out an ugly bend in the British line, and provided a point of departure for future operations against Lille. The capture of the village put new heart into the British troops. Still, the great opportunity for breaking through a weak place in the German line had gone and the ruins of Neuve Chapelle were but a poor substitute for the great commercial city of Lille.

## VI. THE EASTERN FRONT—ATTACKS ON CRACOW AND WARSAW

### Augustovo

During the autumn and winter months the war on the Eastern Front had been continuing with varying fortunes. Von Hindenburg, towards the end of September, attempted to cross the river Niemen but failed. He was forced to retreat, pursued by the alert Rennenkampf. Fighting occurred around Augustovo from October 1st to October 9th and the result was favorable to the Russians.

### Cracow

At the same time further south the Austrians were falling back on Cracow. Jaroslav fell into Russian hands

September 20th, and Przemysl was attacked. This latter fortress held out, but the Grand Duke Nicholas was able to "mask" it, (i. e. leave a sufficient force behind to attack it) and to advance towards Cracow. Cracow was of tremendous strategic importance since it was the key, not only to Austria, but to Germany as well. If Cracow fell into Russian hands, then communications between Vienna and Berlin could be cut and the German industrial centers in Silesia attacked. By September 29th the Russians were only one hundred miles from Cracow. This was, however, the farthest point reached at that time for von Hindenburg then became commander-in-chief of the Austro-German forces on the Eastern Front and began to carry the war into Poland. This caused the Russian troops in Western Galicia to fall back in order not to be cut off.

#### Warsaw and Kazimiriev

Von Hindenburg's objective was Warsaw, and against that city no less than three assaults were made during the autumn and winter of 1914-15. The first of these was made in October, 1914. The Grand Duke Nicholas did not try to defend western Poland, but took up a strong defensive position in front of Warsaw and along the line of the river Vistula. From October 15th to 21st, fighting went on along this Russian line of defense. Warsaw was saved in a three days battle from October 16th to 19th, and on the 21st the Russian general, Ruzsky, won a victory at Kazimiriev. This last proved decisive, since the Germans were forced to fall back to the frontier leaving a trail of devastation behind them. Hindenburg's first attack on Warsaw had been a complete failure.

### Near Success at Cracow

After this German defeat, the Russians again advanced on Cracow. This time Russian cavalry patrols got within thirty miles of Cracow on November 12th, and on December 6th were in the southern suburbs of the city. But on December 8th the Austrians attacked and drove the Russians back. On December 12th the Dukla Pass across the Carpathians was recaptured by the Austrians and the Russian line of communication was threatened. The Russians were able to hold the approaches to this pass and also to the Lupkow and Uzsok passes and so to check the Austrian advance.

### Warsaw Again the German Objective

In the meantime von Hindenburg was making his second assault on Warsaw. This time the German attack was through north Poland along the line of the Bzura river. The Second Battle of Warsaw was fought from December 7th to Christmas Eve. The Russians entrenched along the Bzura and Rawka rivers and held the line against all attacks.

The third attack on Warsaw began on January 31, 1915, when von Mackensen attempted to break the Russian line on the Rawka. He made progress against the Russians but could not break through the line, and by February 8th the Russians were able, by a counter-attack, to recover much of the ground lost.

### Flank Movements on Warsaw

Von Hindenburg had thus three times attempted to take Warsaw by frontal attacks. He now saw that it would be necessary for him to attack the Russian flanks

and drive them back. If he could drive the Northern Russian armies back, Warsaw might be captured by a flank attack or the Russians be compelled to retreat to the Brest-Litovsk line. Accordingly, an attack was delivered on the Russian force in East Prussia, and the Mazurian Lake district was once more the scene of a Russian reverse. From February 7th to February 15th the Russians were driven back over seventy miles across the East Prussian frontier to their own soil. The Russian fortress of Ossowietz held out against the German pressure and by the middle of March the German lines remained stationary about ten miles within the Russian border. On the Narev, von Hindenburg's attack did not prosper either, for, although the Germans won some success and captured Przasnysz, they lost it again on February 26th.

#### Carpathian Mountains

In the meantime, a desperate struggle was in progress in Galicia for the passes over the Carpathian mountains. Here the campaign was fought in deep snow and the Austrians were able to make little progress against Brussilov's Russians. By March 21st the Russians held the Dukla Pass and were almost at the crest of the Lupkow Pass and commanded the exit from the Uzsok and Rostoki passes. The Austrian counter attacks had not driven their enemy out of the Carpathians.

#### Fall of Przemyśl

On March 22nd, after a long siege, Przemyśl fell into Russian hands. Przemyśl was important as a railway center and its capture gave the Russian armies in Galicia a base against the Northern Carpathians. But its fall did not really affect the war on the Eastern Front so much as would

have been expected. Przemysl had long been in the public eye, possibly the curious spelling of the name and its difficulty of pronunciation by Anglo-Saxons had something to do with it, and the general public had come to look upon it as a key position. As such, it was vastly inferior to either Warsaw or Cracow. For a matter of fact, the Russians held the city only a little over two months. It was recaptured by von Mackensen on June 2, 1915, during his great advance. By that time the whole complexion of affairs on the Eastern Front had entirely changed.



## CHAPTER IV

## EARLY ATTEMPTS AND FAILURES

I. THE SECOND GERMAN DRIVE FOR CALAIS—POISON GAS—  
THE CANADIANS AT YPRES

In the spring of 1915 the war on the Western Front entered a new phase. During the winter, although there had been considerable local activity and a few big engagements, there had been nothing to compare with the hard fighting of the previous autumn. The Battle of Neuve Chapelle was very intense while it lasted and after the Neuve Chapelle engagement there had been hard fighting at Hill 60, south of Ypres. The French fought hard in Champagne but there had been no second Battle of the Marne. Both sides were well entrenched and barbed wire entanglements could stand considerable artillery preparation. Unless some new offensive weapon could be devised, then the situation on the Western Front would remain what it was, a "stale-mate" where progress was only measurable by a foot rule. The Germans recognized this, and for their second drive on Calais they prepared that crowning abomination, poison gas.

**Poison Gas**

In this terrible earth-shaking struggle almost every known expedient for killing the enemy was used, but it remained for the apostles of German "Kultur" to produce and use poison gas. Since its appearance at the Second

Battle of Ypres this method of destruction has become common, but it is doubtful whether any action of the Germans, except the unrestricted submarine warfare, met with more universal condemnation. It can only be defended on von Bethmann Hollweg's flimsy grounds that "necessity knows no law."

### Second Battle of Ypres

The First Battle of Ypres showed that the Ypres salient was one of the chief, if not the chief, keys to Calais, and Calais remained a great German objective. If the Allied line could be broken at Ypres and a wedge driven in sufficiently deep, a great German advance to the coast would be possible. Toward the end of April, the northern part of the Ypres salient from Bixschoote to near Zonnebeke was held by part of the French Eighth Army, consisting chiefly of colonial and territorial troops, and by the Canadian Division which had recently completed its training upon Salisbury Plain in England and had just taken its place in the battle line. It was against these troops that the Germans directed the first great gas attack.

On the afternoon of April 22, 1915, from Bixschoote to Langemarck, the French troops were actively engaged with the enemy. A little after five o'clock the Canadians to the right of the French line observed a strange, new phenomenon. From the German trenches opposite the French, jets of whitish vapor appeared which rolled over as a greenish-yellow-brown mass to the French trenches. The French were seen to catch their throats and to fall to the ground in agony. Some of the "Turcos," the French North African native troops, broke and ran for shelter. The Germans then advanced and captured the French positions, including some thousands of prisoners who had been rendered insensible by the fumes, also eight batteries of French field guns

and four British heavy guns. The first German gas attack had accomplished its purpose and had left the Canadian flank unprotected. A tremendous gap had been made in the Allied line, which opened the way to Ypres.

#### Canadians at Ypres

All the Canadians could do was to prevent the Germans from getting in behind them and cutting them off from all chance of aid. Accordingly, General Turner, the commander of the Third Canadian Brigade which was on the left of the Canadian line and was therefore most exposed to a German flank attack, threw back his left flank southward in order to protect his rear. Thus a sharp salient like an inverted V was formed, with the village of St. Julien well behind the Canadian line. But in order to do this, General Turner had to thin his line and it meant that the German superiority at any given point was relatively increased. However, such was the valor of the Canadians that they held their line unbroken. The Germans attacked repeatedly and the Canadians were subjected to poison gas as well as shell and rifle fire. Two Canadian Highland Battalions belonging to the Third Brigade, the 15th (the 48th Highlanders) from Toronto, and the 13th (the Royal Highlanders of Canada) from Montreal, which were at the left end of the Canadian line suffered most. The Canadian guns, firing point blank at a range of two hundred yards, backed up the infantry and mowed down the advancing tide of Germans. The infantry kept up a tremendous fire and beat back the enemy.

Beyond the Canadian left there was still a gap which had to be filled if possible. In a little wood to the west of St. Julien lay the four British guns which had been lost in the first gas attack against the French. These guns were recaptured in a charge made by two fresh Canadian battalions which had arrived, the 10th, a Western Canadian

battalion from the Prairie Provinces, and the 16th, the Canadian Scottish. The wood was recaptured, but it could not be held and the guns were once more abandoned.

#### **The Famous First Brigade.**

In the early morning of April 23rd, to ease the strain on the much enduring Third Brigade, and, if possible, to close the gap between the Canadians and the French, two battalions from the First Brigade, the 1st from Western Ontario and the 4th from Central Ontario, were ordered to make a counter attack. They did so with the utmost gallantry. It was a terrible ordeal. One member of the 4th battalion who survived gave his impression of the attack in the unforgettable sentence, "They opened the gates of hell and pushed us in." The casualties were terrible. Colonel Birchall of the 4th battalion fell leading his men, who swept on to avenge his death. The objective, the German trenches, was reached and taken. Although the German gunners had the exact range of the trenches and used every effort to dislodge the Canadians, the remnants of the two gallant battalions held on until Sunday night, April 25th, when they retired to the new line which had been occupied by British troops. This magnificent but terrible counter-attack had saved the day. A thin khaki line of unbeaten Canadians had bridged the gap.

To hold this line, reinforcements were absolutely essential, and any available troops, no matter to what brigade or division they might happen to belong, were sent forward to help to hold the line. Colonel Geddes of the "Buffs," the East Kent Regiment, was given command of these British troops, who became known as Geddes' detachment. General Alderson assumed command of these reinforcements and brilliantly directed the defense of this position of the Ypres salient. None the less, the whole engagement was essen-

tially a soldier's battle. Officers and men fought desperately side by side in order to close the gap. A wounded French officer has left an account of how a group of Canadian Highlanders were cut off and held a "toy trench" until they ran out of ammunition and then, gathering in the parapet of the trench around a small British flag which they had tied to a pole, they fixed bayonets and awaited the end. "The Germans poured in a terrible volley at close range, and then swept towards the band of heroes. Not more than a dozen remained now, and they did not wait for the German attack. With leveled bayonets they threw themselves on the Germans and every man perished. They were brave men and had fought *jusqu'a la mort*, as we say in France."

They *were* brave men. It was a Canadian Thermopylae, but it was not in vain. These men gave their lives to close the gap, and their comrades behind them were able to finish their work.

But the closing of the gap did not by any means end the Second Battle of Ypres. The Canadians still held a terribly difficult salient and the Germans were coming on again in great force. The 13th and 15th battalions were being assailed from the flank and were in great danger of being cut off by a German enveloping movement. For a time the Germans were even in the rear of the Canadian line. A new German gas attack was launched on the morning of April 23rd against these two battalions and soon the whole Third Brigade was forced to retire. This left the Second Brigade with its flank exposed.

#### General Currie

Major General Arthur (now Sir Arthur) Currie, who was then commanding the Second Brigade, and was later put in command of all the Canadian forces in France, was

Note—The reader is referred to the map of the Ypres Salient on p. 77.

\*Quoted, Tucker, *The Battle Glory of Canada*, p. 144.

forced to fling his left flank around towards the south, thereby forming a new salient in the Canadian line. Therefore, the left of the Second Brigade, which was made up of the 8th Battalion (90th Winnipeg Rifles—popularly known as the "Little Black Devils"), had to establish contact with the new position of the Third Brigade. For a time the left of the 8th Battalion was "in the air," i. e., they were unable to bridge the gap and were exposed to flank attacks. But they held on to their trenches, or rather what was left of them, with grim tenacity. The officer commanding the 8th Battalion, Lieutenant Colonel L. J. Lipsett, is said to have replied to a query from headquarters that "the 8th Battalion can hold its bit." He knew his men. One of the soldiers of the 8th Battalion, Private (now Lieutenant-Colonel) A. L. Saunders, wrote of this part of the fighting, "The boys stuck to it, and you chaps at home must wait until you meet someone who was in the front trench to realize what a glorious fact that is." The "glorious fact" is now well known, but no one who was not in the front trenches can fully realize what the Canadians endured.

The critical days for the Canadians were Thursday, Friday and Saturday, April 22nd, 23rd and 24th. By the 25th British troops in sufficient numbers had been brought up and an attempt was made on that day by the British to retake St. Julien which had been lost when the Canadian Third Brigade had retired on April 24th. The British attack got as far as the outskirts of the village but was beaten back by machine gun fire. A Canadian detachment had been cut off in the village and the British attack had sought to bring relief, but it was too late. The Canadians by that time were either casualties or prisoners.

### British Line Shortened

The battle continued until May 24th and was stubbornly contested. On May 3rd the British shortened their line and held only a diminished Ypres salient. From April 22nd to May 3rd the northern point of the salient had been at Grafenstafel near the Passchendaele road. The new line ran from a point on the Yser Canal opposite Boesinghe, along the canal for about a mile and a half and then turned to the east and crossed the Poelcappelle and Passchendaele roads to the south of St. Julien. It crossed the Zonnebeke road at Frezenberg and the Menin road at Hooge, and met the Yser Canal to the south of Ypres not far from Hill 60. German attacks on May 8th and 9th caused the British to fall back from Frezenberg and on May 12th the British line rested on the Zonnebeke road.

### Second Phase of Second Battle of Ypres

The period from May 4th, when the new British position had been established, to May 13th, when the fighting slackened, may be considered as the second phase of the Second Battle of Ypres. Though not so spectacular as the first phase it was none the less vital. The Germans were still determined to get through to Ypres and the fighting was very desperate in places. British battalions suffered tremendous losses and were in some cases forced to give ground. But in every case the British Tommies gave as good as they got, and the price the Germans paid for their gains was so high that it really deprived them of that greatest fruit of victory for which they longed, a broken and defeated British line. In the end the attackers seem to have been quite as exhausted as the attacked.

### The Great German Attack at Ypres

The great German attack took place on May 24th, when, by the aid of new supplies of poison gas, the Teutons sought once more to break the British line. The British Fourth Division on the left suffered terribly and there was a slight contraction in the battle line. But nothing further was accomplished. The German gas attacks had failed to dislodge the British from the Ypres salient.

The Second Battle of Ypres will live long in the history of the British Empire. It was a hard fought struggle for the British and will always be remembered with pride by the British race. But to the Canadian it is a thing apart. That bit of Belgium is forever Canadian. The Bishop of London put it in an eloquent phrase when he said, "Here the blustering Goliath of the world met his David, and he was a Canadian."

#### II. THE FIRST U-BOAT CAMPAIGN—SINKING OF THE "LUSITANIA"—"AMERICAN NOTES"

##### The "Lusitania"

While the Second Battle of Ypres was still in progress an event occurred which was greatly to affect the international situation. On May 1, 1915, the Cunard liner "Lusitania" sailed from New York. On the same day the German Embassy published in the New York morning papers a warning to Americans not to travel through the "war zone" which had been proclaimed by Germany around the British Isles on February 4, 1915. Six days later, on May 7th, the "Lusitania" was sunk within the "war zone." The event was celebrated by the Germans as a triumph, and Ambassador Gerard in his



book, "My Four Years in Germany," gives a picture of a medal struck in Germany to commemorate the event.

### The German U-boat Campaign

The sinking of the "Lusitania" was part of the first German U-boat campaign. The U-boats, as the German submarines are termed, from the fact that they almost all are designated by that letter of the alphabet plus a number, were Germany's weapon to overcome Britain's maritime supremacy. The British navy barred the way not only for the German High Seas Fleet but also for German merchant ships. No German ship could hope to run the effective blockade which the British navy had quickly established. Neutral ships could only trade with Germany on terms agreeable to the Entente Allies. A great deal of uncertainty existed in international law as to what constituted "contraband of war," that is, articles liable to seizure on the High Seas. The "Declaration of London" in 1909 had attempted to limit the rights of belligerents at sea and, had it been adopted, it might have furnished a satisfactory international code of law, clearly defining "contraband of war." Germany, however, would not agree to the Declaration of London, and the British Parliament in consequence failed to ratify it. Under these circumstances each belligerent was free to make what rules it liked for war at sea. Germany proceeded to formulate a code which would allow her to do anything and yet which required her enemies and the neutral powers to obey whatever rules she chose to lay down for them. Thus Germany sought to prevent the United States from sending munitions of war to her enemies, but at the same time, she tried to import American copper through Holland, Italy and Scandanavia. Above all, she attempted to sink unarmed British merchant ships.

The U-boat was really a formidable weapon in German hands. It alone could run the cordon of British ships and carry death and destruction into the Atlantic. To the Germans the destruction of British sea-borne commerce was a prime necessity. Only by cutting off Britain's food supplies and by starving her out, could Germany hope to defeat her chief enemy. This is frankly recognized by the German Seamen's report of March 8, 1917, published after the "ruthless submarine policy" was established in February, 1917, but really in itself a defense of German submarine policy from the beginning of the war. This document lays down that "the causes of the war lie, according to the German view, mainly in the economic sphere," and that "the freedom of the seas was destroyed, Germany and its Allies were cut off from contact with the world, and the possibilities of neutral navigation were greatly limited." England was, of course, the chief offender and against her Germany began "reprisals" by U-boats.

The first British merchantman to be sunk by a German submarine was the "Glitra," which, on October 26, 1914, was sent to the bottom by U-17 off the Norwegian coast. At the end of the year 1914, the Germans began to throw out hints of a submarine campaign against merchant shipping and in an interview on December 24th, Admiral von Tirpitz asked the pointed question, "What will America say?"

#### **"War Area" Announced**

In February, 1915, the German government announced that the English Channel, the north and west coasts of France, and the waters around the British Isles were a "war area" and gave notice that all enemy ships found in that area would be destroyed and that neutral vessels

might be exposed to danger. This was really a notice of intention "to torpedo at sight, without regard to the safety of the crew or passengers, any merchant vessel under any flag."

#### **Blockade of Germany Declared**

In answer to this German challenge the British government on March 1, 1915, issued a declaration of a counter blockade of Germany by Britain and France. This document laid it down that in consequence of Germany's action it was necessary "to frame retaliatory measures in order . . . to prevent commodities of any kind from reaching or leaving Germany." It was then also stated that "the British and French Governments will therefore hold themselves free to detain and take into port, ships carrying goods of presumed enemy destination, ownership or origin."\* This was making all goods bound for Germany "contraband of war" and as such was a departure from previous British custom. But it should be remembered that this declaration of March 1st was in answer to the German proclamation of a "war zone" for the operation of submarines against merchant shipping, which was in itself a new departure in naval warfare.

#### **America's Attitude**

The American Government did not altogether approve of this British declaration and addressed a note to the British Government on March 9th, asking for information. Before that, on February 22nd, Sir Edward Grey had received an American note identical in form to one also sent to the German Foreign Office, suggesting a compromise between Great Britain and Germany, which, if carried out, would have modified the ferocity of the submarine warfare.

\*British Declaration of March 1, 1915.

To both of these notes the British Foreign Secretary replied on March 15th, putting forward the British object in establishing a blockade, and stating that Great Britain intended to show "in every case such consideration for neutrals as may be compatible with that object, which is, succinctly stated, to establish a blockade to prevent vessels from carrying goods for, or coming from, Germany."\* At the same time he threw the blame for inhumanity in the conduct of the war entirely upon Germany. Germany was soon to give further proof of the truth of this contention by sinking the "Lusitania."

The fate of the "Lusitania" sent a shudder throughout the neutral world. The German U-boat commander may have been hailed as a hero in Germany, but his action involved his nation in difficulties with the United States. One hundred and fourteen Americans lost their lives when the "Lusitania" was torpedoed. On February 10th, President Wilson had told the German Government that it would be held to "strict accountability" if any American rights were violated by submarine activities in the war zone. It now remained to be seen how far Germany could be held "strictly accountable."

#### Further Developments in the Submarine War

Then followed three American notes on the subject of the "Lusitania." Germany defended the sinking of the vessel on the ground that she carried munitions of war. Nothing much was accomplished by this note writing, since the German War-Lords were not anxious to promise redress or even to apologize for the sinking of the "Lusitania." Then on August 19, 1915, the "Arabic" was sunk and three more Americans lost their lives. Soon after, von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador at Washington, promised that the

\*Sir Edward Grey to Mr. Page, March 15, 1915.

U-boats would not sink "liners" without warning and without putting the passengers in safety, provided that the liners did not try to escape or to offer resistance.

This, however, did not end the submarine question. On March 24, 1916, the channel steamer "Sussex" was torpedoed with Americans on board. The German Government on April 10th cynically informed the United States that it could not be sure whether or not a U-boat sank the "Sussex." On the 18th of April, 1916, an American ultimatum informed the German warlords that "unless the Imperial Government should now immediately declare and effect abandonment of this present method of submarine warfare against passenger and freight carrying vessels, the Government of the United States can have no choice but to sever diplomatic relations with the German Empire altogether."\* As a result of this ultimatum the German Government on May 4, 1916, grudgingly gave her promise that ships would not be sunk without warning.

Germany's promise was hailed by Americans as a diplomatic victory, but it is now known that there were also other reasons for the ending of the first U-boat campaign. The Allied patrol had become more efficient and methods had been discovered for destroying submarines. The first attempt to starve out Great Britain by means of these under-sea commerce destroyers had failed. Still it should be remembered that there was a strong party in Germany opposed to "unrestricted submarine warfare" and that this party had for a time the support of the Imperial Chancellor, von Bethmann Hollweg, and possibly even of the Kaiser. The Chancellor is stated by Mr. Gerard to have said in conversation that he knew personally that even the Kaiser did not approve of the torpedoing of the "Lusitania."† Even

\*Quoted, Gerard, *My Four Years in Germany*, p. 256.

†Quoted, Gerard, *My Four Years in Germany*, p. 248.

he seems to have felt the wave of feeling which passed over the whole world outside of the Central Empires at that outrage against humanity.

### III. THE ATTACK ON THE DARDANELLES—GALLIPOLI—THE MESOPOTAMIAN CAMPAIGN

#### Gallipoli

While the U-boats were starting out to raid British commerce and to cause the death of innocent non-combatants, a stern battle was being fought by the French and British, including the Australians and New Zealanders, at Gallipoli. It was a classic battleground on the old Thracian Chersonese, opposite "the ringing plains of windy Troy." It was a brave attack by brave men against tremendous odds and it failed not through any lack of valor, but on account of insufficient support and the insurmountable difficulties of the battleground.

#### The Dardanelles

The Allied attack on the Dardanelles and the landing of an expeditionary force at Gallipoli was an attempt to strike a blow at Constantinople, the heart of the Turkish Empire, and, if possible, to open a route into the Black Sea in order to bring out Russian wheat for Western Europe and to send into Russia those guns and munitions which were so sorely needed. Above all, the Allied strategists considered that a decisive victory over the Turks would have a great influence on the wavering Balkan nations. German propaganda was busy in Greece and Bulgaria, and it should not be forgotten that Bulgaria, in the autumn of 1915, joined the Central Empires. An Allied victory at the Dardanelles very possibly might have kept Bulgaria out of the war. A great Turkish defeat would have resulted in the capture of Constantinople and would have put an end to that dearest of

all German projects, the Berlin-Bagdad Railway. The reasons, therefore, for undertaking the Dardanelles campaign were political and economic as well as military.

#### **Operations at the Dardanelles**

In the Allied operations in and around the Dardanelles, two distinct phases can be traced. The first began on February 18, 1915, and lasted exactly a month. This was purely a naval operation, an attempt by the combined British and French fleets to "force" the straits. The other, which began on April 25th and lasted until the end of the year, was a land campaign; an attempt to capture the Gallipoli peninsula. This land campaign was, however, undertaken, with the assistance of the navy, in order to secure a safe passage for the Allied fleet through the Narrows of the Dardanelles. In every stage of the Gallipoli campaign the navy co-operated with the expeditionary forces, bringing them there, covering their landing, conveying supplies, munitions and reinforcements to them, and finally, when the attack was abandoned, taking away the few who had survived that gallant but hopeless struggle.

#### **Naval Attack on the Dardanelles**

The naval attack on the Dardanelles was first directed against the forts which guard the entrance to the straits. These defense works were shelled from long range by the 15-inch guns of the "Queen Elizabeth," the new British super-dreadnought and also by the combined broadsides of the other Allied warships. By the evening of February 25th these Turkish forts on both sides of the straits had been silenced and the work of clearing away the mine field which had been placed across the entrance to the Dardanelles began. The next day an advance of four miles up the straits was made. But greater difficulties lay ahead at a

point called the Narrows, fourteen miles from the mouth of the straits. Here the Turks, with German assistance, had constructed an elaborate series of fortifications capable of withstanding a heavy attack from the water. In making such an attack warships would be at a great disadvantage. The Turkish batteries were well concealed and had the warships at their mercy. It was hoped that the long-range guns of the "Queen Elizabeth," which was to take up its position in the Gulf of Saros and fire across the Gallipoli peninsula at the forts on the Narrows, would be able to silence the Turkish batteries. Unfortunately, this scheme did not work out in practice.

Minor naval operations continued in the straits and in the Gulf of Saros until March 18th, when the final attempt was made to force the Narrows. The attack was a failure and resulted in the loss of three battleships and more than two thousand men. The Turkish forts were not destroyed by the British and French gunfire and the Allied fleet failed even to reach the Narrows. One French battleship, the "Bouvet," was sunk by shellfire and the British ships "Irresistible" and "Ocean" went down after striking Turkish mines. Several other warships were hit and badly damaged. By the end of the day it was evident that a naval attack alone was not likely to carry the Dardanelles.\*

#### **Dardanelles Expeditionary Force**

The failure of March 18th resulted in the formation of the Dardanelles Expeditionary Force, which was made up of French and British, including Australian and New Zealand troops. The British troops consisted of the 29th Division which was chiefly made up of Regulars, the East Lancashire

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\*Mr. Morgenthau, American Ambassador to Turkey, has recently produced evidence to show that the Turks were considering the advisability of abandoning the defense of the Dardanelles, but regained courage when the Allied fleet did not return to the attack. If the attack had been continued successfully the road to Constantinople was open.



Territorial Division, the Naval Division which had served at Antwerp, and the "Anzacs" (the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps). The Territorials and the "Anzacs" had been doing garrison duty in Egypt and were only too eager to take part in actual fighting. The French force was a composite body made up from the Colonial Army and the Foreign Legion and was placed under the command of General d'Amade. The commander-in-chief of the whole Dardanelles Expeditionary Force was General Sir Ian Hamilton.

The Allied plan was to seize the Gallipoli peninsula, which was known to be held by a strong Turkish army. It was a hazardous undertaking, since on the whole rocky peninsula there were only a half dozen beaches where a landing could be made, and those landing places could be strongly held by the enemy. But the prize was great. If the Gallipoli peninsula could be carried and held, then the Dardanelles could be forced and Constantinople taken. Mr. Winston Churchill put the case for the attack on Gallipoli in the following sentences: "You must not forget the prize for which you are contending. The army of Sir Ian Hamilton and the fleet of Admiral de Robeck are separated by only a few miles from a victory such as this war has not yet seen. \* \* \* Beyond those few miles of ridge and scrub on which our soldiers, our French comrades, our gallant Australian and New Zealand fellow-subjects, are now battling, lie the downfall of a hostile empire, the destruction of an enemy's fleet and army, the fall of a world-famous capital, and probably the accession of powerful Allies. The struggle will be heavy, the risks numerous, the losses cruel, but victory, when it comes, will make amends for all. There never was a great subsidiary operation of war in which a more complete harmony of strategic, political and economic advantages has combined, or which stood in truer relation to the main decision which is in the central theatre. Through the

Narrows of the Dardanelles and across the ridges of the Gallipoli peninsula lie some of the shortest paths to a triumphant peace."\*

None the less, to understand completely the difficulties which lay in some of "the shortest paths to a triumphant peace," one should compare with the eloquence of Mr. Churchill the statement of John Masefield regarding the Gallipoli attack.

"No army in history has made a more heroic attack; no army in history has been set such a task. No other body of men in any modern war has been called upon to land over mined and wired waters under the cross fire of machine guns."†

#### Landing at Cape Helles; Gaba Tepe; Kum Kale

On April 25, 1915, the landing of the British forces on the Gallipoli peninsula took place at Cape Helles, the southernmost point of that neck of land, and also at Gaba Tepe, a point on the Gulf of Saros opposite the Narrows. At the same time the French force landed on the Asiatic coast at Kum Kale and a feint was made of landing at Bulair, near the head of the Gulf of Saros.

The landing at Cape Helles was on five beaches numbered respectively: S, V, W, X, Y. Of these, Beach V was just to the east of Cape Helles and near the Turkish fort, Sedd el Bahr. At this beach a terrible fight occurred. An attempt was made to land a large body of troops from the transport "River Clyde" by means of a bridge of boats formed from "lighters" or barges which she had towed after her and were to be dragged or swept into position between her and the shore. But a murderous fire from the Turks at Sedd el Bahr caused this bridge of boats,

\*Quoted, Buchan, *Nelson's History of the War*, Vol. vi., p. 140.

†Masefield, *Gallipoli*, p. 33.

which could only be partly completed, to become a death trap. A few survivors managed to get ashore, only to be mown down by machine guns. Of these a few, however, managed to gain the shelter of a sand bank. The bulk of the force remained on board the transport until night and then landed under cover of darkness. There they found the survivors from the afternoon's landing parties, some of whom had got ashore in boats. An attack was made on the Turkish fort and all through the night terrible fighting went on. In the morning a foothold was secured among the ruins of the fort, and V Beach remained in British hands.

At Beach W, to the west of Cape Helles, there had also been hard fighting, but at Beaches X and Y on the west coast of Gallipoli the landing had been very successful. At Beach S the Turks had made but little resistance. All these beaches, except Beach Y, were held and became the base for further operations.

#### Australians and New Zealanders Grim Fighting

Further north at Gaba Tepe a grim fight was in progress. There the Australians and New Zealanders had managed to effect a landing and had beaten back a Turkish attack. But the country was very broken and the Turks were strongly entrenched on the high ground. So it was that the Anzacs had to face a terrible ordeal of artillery fire succeeded by infantry attacks. But nothing could daunt the men from the Antipodes, and singing their song, "Australia Will Be There," they held their ground and consolidated their position.

The fight near Gaba Tepe kept up next day, but, by then, relief had come to the hard-pressed Anzacs through the presence of several British warships off the coast, which shelled the attacking Turks. On the beach the working

parties, quite oblivious of shrapnel and high explosive shells, dragged away at cases of stores and ammunition, while in the trenches, during the pauses in the fighting, the wearied infantrymen tried to deepen and strengthen their position. By the evening of the 26th of April this position had been won, and the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps had gained for itself a reputation for valor rarely surpassed even in this world-shaking war. Their place of landing very properly received the name of "Anzac Cove."

A landing had been accomplished, but it still remained to carry the Turkish positions. This proved to be a sterner task. The British held only two small tracts of territory and were opposed by Turkish fortifications built so as to command their trenches. Everything which the British needed, even to drinking water, had to be brought to them, and they were often short of ammunition. Above all, if a successful attack was to be made on the Turks, large re-enforcements were necessary. Unfortunately, these re-enforcements did not arrive until too late. If the first attack in May and June could have been pressed home before the Turks had recovered, Gallipoli might have been won, but the reserves were not sent.

After the landing and the fighting which accompanied it, the next great movement at Gallipoli was the offensive which began on May 6th and continued until the evening of May 8th. The Allied position was improved by this series of actions, but the main Turkish positions were not captured. The next attack came in June and lasted intermittently from June 4th to the 28th. The battle of the 28th of June was a British success, but it could not be followed up on account of lack of fresh troops. So nothing further was attempted until re-enforcements could be sent, and then a new attack was planned at Cape Helles and Anzac Cove accompanied by a landing at Suvla Bay,

a little to the north of the Australian and New Zealand position. In order to deceive the Turks the re-enforcements landed at Anzac had to be concealed in deep "dugouts" constructed by the Australians for that purpose. Very nearly 30,000 men were landed and hidden, and the Turks were taken by surprise.

The attack was planned for August 6th, to take place simultaneously at Cape Helles, Anzac and Suvla Bay. The Cape Helles action was designed as a minor engagement, but became a desperate struggle which lasted a week, from August 6th to the 13th. Masefield has thus described the hardest part of this fighting which took place in a vineyard to the west of the Krithia road: "It was not a battle in the military text-book sense: it was a fight, man to man, between two enemies whose blood was up. It was a week-long cursing and killing scrimmage, the men lying down to fire and rising up to fight with the bayonet, literally all day long, day after day, the two sides being within bombing distance all the time."

#### Anzac

At Anzac tremendous fighting occurred. The first, or covering attack, was against the hill of Lone Pine, which was the gateway to the narrowest part of the Gallipoli peninsula and through which a rush might be made on Mairdors and the Narrows. Lone Pine was captured and held during five days of unceasing struggle. The main attack was to the north of Lone Pine against the chief Turkish positions on the ridges north of the Anzac line. This action was successful only in part on account of the tremendously difficult nature of the battle ground. The peak, Chunuk Bair, was captured by the New Zealanders, but the highest peak, Koja Chemen, remained throughout in Turkish hands.

In the meantime, another force had landed at Suvla Bay and was fighting hard to establish itself. The objec-

tive here was the Anafarta Ridge, but the attack was a failure and the Turks held the line of the ridge. The failure at Suvla Bay meant the breakdown of the whole attack, and by the end of August the last great movement at the Dardanelles had ceased.

The Allied troops remained in possession of their positions on the Gallipoli peninsula until the end of the year, but there was no further attempt to carry the heights. The great Dardanelles scheme had failed. The blame lay not with the Allied troops who held on to their gains through thick and thin, but with those in authority who did not send sufficient re-enforcements in time to carry out the undertaking. None the less, it should be remembered that the repulse at Suvla Bay on August 9th and 10th resulted in the failure of that Allied attack on which all hopes for the capture of the Gallipoli peninsula were pinned.

### Mesopotamia

While fighting was going on at the Dardanelles, the British had also embarked upon what promised to be a successful campaign in Mesopotamia. The British aimed at capturing Bagdad and cutting off the Germans forever from the Persian Gulf. A force under General Townshend was sent up the Tigris River in August in order to capture Kut-el-Amara which blocked the way to Bagdad. On September 28th, a battle was fought before Kut-el-Amara and the Turks were completely defeated. The town was captured next day and the first stage of the campaign ended in a complete British victory.

The second stage also began successfully and an advance was made on Bagdad. The ruins of Ctesiphon, eighteen miles from Bagdad, were captured on November 22nd, but on account of lack of water the British were com-

pelled to withdraw. A week later, November 29th, General Townshend retreated from Ctesiphon to Kut-el-Amara and soon after was besieged in that town by the Turks. A British relieving force was unable to break through to Kut-el-Amara; and, on April 29, 1916, Townshend surrendered, after a siege of one hundred and forty-three days. General Townshend's defeat, following so close after the failure at Gallipoli, was a severe blow to British prestige in the east, but it by no means ended the Mesopotamian campaign. The British, assisted by East Indian troops, doggedly renewed their task and in the end victory crowned their efforts.

#### IV. ITALY VS. AUSTRIA

##### Opening of the Italian Campaign

On May 23, 1915, Italy declared war on Austria. For commercial and political reasons Germany was not included in the declaration of war. Austria was the hereditary Italian enemy, and it was hoped to free Trent and Trieste from Austrian domination. But Germany had posed as Italy's friend and had by means of the Banca Commerciale Italiana (Italian Commercial Bank) in Milan, built up such a network of control over Italian finance and industry that a war with Germany would entail sacrifices greater than Italy was at first able to bear. So it was that Italy began a "limited liability war" against Austria. Subsequent events involved her in war also with Turkey and finally with Germany.

##### Austro-Italian Front

The Italian campaign was conducted by General Luigi Cadorna, whose father had captured Rome in 1870, and had as its objects the capture of the Trentino and Trieste. The Austro-Italian frontier was strategically favorable to Aus-

tria and any Italian move would entail tremendous fighting. The Austro-Italian front naturally falls into three parts, the Trentino, the mountainous barrier of the Dolomites, the Carnic and Julian Alps, and the line of the Isonzo River. Of these the Trentino is a sharp salient flanked by mountain ranges, with the only entrances along the River Adige or through the gap formed by the lake of Gardo. The Dolomites and Carnic Alps are an almost impassable barrier. There are few good passes and all are capable of stubborn defense. The line of the Isonzo, as has been shown in the war, is also an exceedingly strong position.

#### Nature's Impediments

In estimating the part played by the Italians in the war it is always necessary to bear in mind the exceedingly difficult country through which General Cadorna had to conduct his campaign. It was, for the most part, mountain warfare and battles were fought above the clouds. Tremendous peaks were scaled and guns were carried up to dizzy heights. That an attacking army could make any progress at all, speaks volumes for the courage and determination of the Italian leaders and the morale of their soldiers. It should be remembered that the Italian collapse in the autumn of 1917 came after two years and a half of the hardest sort of mountain fighting, when war weariness had set in. In the early days of the Italian campaign the devotion of the troops was splendid.

#### The Austrian Attack

The first blow in the Austro-Italian War was struck by Austria, when on May 24, 1915, Austrian warships attacked the railway line from Brindisi to Rimini along the Italian east coast. Venice was also raided from the air and an attack by sea was made on the Italian torpedo-boat base at



Porto Corsini, north of Ravenna. At the same time the Austrians blew up two bridges in the Adige valley, thereby showing their determination to take up a defensive position in the Trentino and hold the passes into Italy.

### The Italian Fronts

Cadorna's main army was gathered on the Isonzo front with Gorizia as its objective. A second army was ordered to hold the Trentino front and to advance if possible. Detachments held the rest of the line and kept in communication with the two main armies. On May 24th, Cadorna was already over the Austrian frontier with his left wing at Caporetto on the Isonzo River and his center looking down toward Gorizia. His right wing was near Cormons. Advance along the Isonzo was steady but very, very slow. On May 24th, Ala in the Trentino was captured, and three days later Cortino on the crest of the Dolomites was carried.

Progress along all these fronts was extremely difficult. It was a case of war by man against man, but also by man against nature. On June 9th, Monfalcone was captured and a victory was won on the Isonzo on July 2nd. From then on further advances were made, the chief of which were the capture of San Michele in July, which resulted in a foothold being gained on the Carso Plateau and a second great Italian victory on the Isonzo in October. The Austrians were being slowly pressed back and the Italians were seizing important strategic positions which would serve as bases for further offensives. Fighting continued throughout the winter, and the horrors of war were increased by the intense frosts and cold on the Alpine mountain tops.

## V. THE FIRST ALLIED OFFENSIVES—CHAMPAGNE AND LOOS

During the spring and summer of 1915, there was considerable fighting on the Western Front. The British had fought hard at Festubert in May and at Hooge in June, and the French had fought the Battle of the Artois between Arras and Lens about the middle of May, and in Lorraine they had even arrived within gunshot of Metz. But these actions must be classed as of minor importance. The great Allied offensive of 1915 did not take place until September, and then it consisted of a simultaneous attack by the French in Champagne and the British at Loos.

**British at Loos**

The British attack at Loos, just outside of Lens, was really only part of the northern offensive in which the French 10th Army also had a share, but, since it was entirely carried out by British troops who were acting almost independently of their French allies, it may be classed as a separate engagement. It was, for a matter of fact, one of the chief of the subsidiary attacks, the chief attack being the great French offensive in Champagne.

The artillery preparation for the offensive began on September 23rd, and from La Bassee to Arras and along the Champagne front the first line German trenches were battered to pieces. The bombardment continued until dawn on September 25th, when the infantry attack began. It was the first great Allied combined offensive on the Western Front and much was hoped from it.

**French at Champagne**

The French attack in Champagne was against an immensely strong German position, full of deep "dugouts" cut out of the solid chalk, and concrete fortifications manned by machine-guns. But the artillery preparation had been

thorough and the "poilus" were ready for their task. Their dash was irresistible, and by the end of the first day on a fifteen mile front, an average advance of two and a half miles had been made. The French soldiers dug themselves in on the advanced line, and on the 26th of September more progress was made. The German Crown Prince attempted a counter movement in the Argonne, but he was too late. Fighting was continued on September 29th, and in one place the German final line was breached. But the gap was not wide enough and the French were delayed by shellfire from the enemy's guns. The German line had not been completely broken and, although the French held the ground they had won, further progress was impossible.

#### Vimy Ridge

At the same time of the Champagne attack, in the northern sector the French were attacking Vimy Ridge, and the British were trying to drive the enemy back on the line from La Bassée to Loos. The French made progress towards Vimy Ridge and cleared out a strong German position called the Labyrinth. By September 29th, the crest of Vimy Ridge was in French hands, but further progress was not advisable, since the British to the north had not yet advanced so far.

#### The Battle of Loos

The main British attack was on a front of about seven miles, from the La Bassée Canal to the village of Grenay. Its object was, if possible, to open a way to Lens, the French coal city, which had been in German hands since the battle lines were extended to the sea in 1914. Many of the British battalions which took part in the attack belonged to the New Army and were to give a most heroic account of themselves. As in Champagne, the German de-

fense system was extremely efficient. The slag-heaps thrown up near the coal mines became great bastions, and strong redoubts had been constructed. The whole country around Lens was thus converted into one huge fortress. Chief among the fortifications on the northern part of the British line was the Hohenzollern Redoubts, near which was a great slag-heap, Fosse No. 8. On the southern half of the line were the Loos Redoubt, guarding the village of Loos, the Double Crassier, a slag heap opposite Grenay, and also Hill 70, behind Loos. It was against this strongly fortified area that the British attack was directed.

The attack began early on September 25th, and by noon the Hohenzollern Redoubt and Fosse No. 8 had fallen to the 9th Division of the New Army. The famous fighting 7th Division of the original Expeditionary Force carried the German first and reserve lines, and by mid-day were considerably in advance of the 9th Division. In the south the 15th and 47th Divisions carried the Double Crassier and the village of Loos, and the Highlanders of the 15th Division went on to capture Hill 70. This objective was carried by 9 o'clock in the morning, but, instead of holding this strongly fortified post, the Highlanders pressed forward until they were beyond the last German position and were in the outskirts of Cite St. Laurent, a suburb of Lens. It was a most magnificent performance and it endangered the German hold on Lens, but the Highlanders were so far ahead of the remainder of the British line that they held what Buchan had termed "a mad salient," without support on either side of them. Reinforcements were absolutely necessary, but they were slow in coming up. The British Commander-in-Chief had apparently not expected such rapid progress and had no reserves ready for such an emergency. The Germans were thus able to win back considerable ground in their counter-attacks.

Fighting continued until October 2nd, by which time Fosse No. 8 and the bulk of Hill 70 had been lost, but considerable progress had been made in the center of the line. The Hohenzollern Redoubt and the village of Loos, along with the Double Crassier, remained in British hands.

The Battle of Loos was a British victory, but its cost was terrible. Up to October 1st, 45,000 names were added to the casualty list, who, for the most part, were men of the new army who a year before had joined up to "do their bit." They had given their lives to protect what they held most sacred.

#### VI. THE RUSSIAN SITUATION—THE FALL OF WARSAW

On the Eastern Front during the spring and summer of 1915, the Central Powers were winning notable victories. The Russians were driven out of Western Galicia, Przemysl once again fell into Austrian hands, and then Warsaw was abandoned. But that was not the end of the Russian disasters. The Russian armies fell back to a line from Riga through Kovno, Grodno and Ossowietz to Brest Litovsk. The fall of Kovno meant a further retirement to Vilna and Pinsk. By the end of October, 1915, the Russian front ran from a point a little to the west of Riga, past Dvinsk through the Pripet Marshes, to Brody in Eastern Galicia.

The Russian retirement, from before Warsaw to behind the Pripet Marshes, was really a succession of "strategic retreats" due to tremendous and overwhelming pressure from an advancing and victorious enemy. The German drive against Russia can only be compared with the great German onrush towards Paris. For the first time in the war, Russia felt the full might of the German Empire, and the projected Russian offensive against Cracow disappeared before the advance of von Mackensen, just as the Rou-

manian offensive was to disappear before the same leader's troops in 1916. This was a hard blow to the hopes of the Allies and meant a lengthening of the war. Germany was able to beat back the "ring of steel" by which the Allies sought to crush her and, taking the offensive, she overran the rest of Poland, most of Courland, and part of Lithuania. But the Germans were unable to inflict an overwhelming defeat upon the Russian armies. The Russians lost heavily, but so also did the Germans. Warsaw was a real loss to the Allies, but Riga, upon which the Kaiser had set his heart, still held out.

#### Chief Stages in German Advance

It would be well to indicate the chief stages in the German advance. The first blow was struck in Galicia on April 28th, and von Mackensen won a victory at Cieczkovic on May 2nd. The Russian defense collapsed under terrific artillery fire and Cieczkovic was taken. The Russian retreat then began, and by May 12th had reached the River San. The great object of Grand Duke Nicholas, the Russian commander-in-chief, was to extricate his armies and to fight hard rear guard actions. One of the first of these was the Battle of the San, which began on May 15, 1915, and lasted for three days. During that time Jaroslav fell into German hands. On June 2nd, Przemysl was also recaptured, and Lemberg was taken on June 22nd. The bulk of Galicia was now cleared of Russian troops, and Austrian rejoicing was tremendous. The German mailed fist had struck hard in order to aid its Ally. The first stage of the German drive was completed by the fall of Lemberg.

The next objective was Warsaw and the railway lines running out of Warsaw towards Petrograd, by way of Grodno and Vilna, and to Kiev by way of Ivangorod, Lublin and Cholm. Von Mackensen was pressing on towards the

latter or southern railway line, and the Russian general, Ivanov, sought to cover that line. Ivanov was successful for a time, but on July 14, 1915, was launched the great German offensive from Bukovina to the Baltic. In the south the Germans pressed on towards Cholm and Lublin, in the center the lines of the Rawka and Bzura were voluntarily abandoned by the Russians and a tremendous fight occurred along the Narev. The Grand Duke Nicholas could have made a stand to hold Warsaw and the railway lines. He preferred to save his armies and to abandon the Warsaw salient. All possible supplies were removed from Warsaw and the Russian troops withdrawn. During the early morning of August 5th German cavalry patrols entered the Polish capital.

The last stage of the Russian retreat began after the fall of Warsaw. The Grand Duke Nicholas had to get all his army groups back to the new Brest-Litovsk line and, if possible, not to fight a battle west of the Pripet Marshes. He was successful in this, although for awhile there was danger along the River Narev. But an unexpected disaster caused a still further withdrawal. Kovno fell into German hands on August 17th, and Novo Georgievsk on August 19th. The latter had been left behind the Russian line of retreat in hope that it might prove another Maubeuge. Brest-Litovsk alone remained and it could not be expected to hold out for long. On August 25th, this fortress also fell and Grodus followed on September 2nd. Vilna, too, was captured on September 18th, and a further Russian retreat was begun. There was great danger for two days that the Russians would be cut off and that von Hindenburg would win a decisive victory. Such, however, was not the case, and the Russian armies reached their new line in safety. This line, with slight changes, was to remain for months as the new Eastern Front. The Germans had gained great

tracts of territory, but the Russian armies, although they had received terrible punishment, were still in the field and unbroken.

#### VII. BULGARIA ENTERS THE WAR—SERBIA'S DOOM

While the Russian armies were being driven back to their new line, Bulgaria was preparing to join in the world conflict on the side of the Central Powers. On July 17th a secret alliance was made between Germany and Bulgaria, and by October 11th Bulgarian armies were fighting. The causes for this action may be sought in Bulgarian ambitions, German intrigues, and the complete failure of Allied diplomacy in the Balkans. Bulgaria, under her ruler, Czar Ferdinand, a German, had ambition of winning for herself that position of hegemony in the Balkans which she had failed to secure in the Second Balkan War of 1913. In that year, a combination of Greece, Serbia and Roumania had defeated Bulgaria and Turkey, with the result that Serbia had secured part of Western Macedonia which Bulgaria coveted. Bulgaria, therefore, sought revenge on Serbia and turned towards the Central Powers. The road to Constantinople lay through Serbia and Bulgaria, and, with Bulgaria allied to Germany and Austria, Serbia could be overrun and relief brought to Turkey.

Although Bulgaria in October, 1915, joined the Central Powers, it was none too certain during the summer that she was going to take this stand. The Entente Allies hoped that she would remain neutral or even that she could be brought in on their side. But the Allied diplomats were not able to pay the full price demanded by Bulgaria. Serbia stated that she would rather fight Bulgaria than hand over to her those portions of Macedonia which had become the Bulgarian Naboth's vineyard. But Serbia could not hope



to fight Bulgaria without Allied aid. Three times during the war she had beaten back the Austrian invaders, but she was seriously weakened. The problem was how much help could she get from the Entente Allies and from Greece. Greece was bound to Serbia by treaty and the Greek statesman Venizelos was prepared to furnish assistance. But the Greek queen was the Kaiser's sister and she proved more than a match for Venizelos. Allied aid was promised to Serbia, but it arrived too late to be of any assistance. Serbia suffered the fate of Belgium and, although upon the Greek king and queen much of the blame must rest, the fact remains that the Allied generals, statesmen and diplomats failed to send the much needed reinforcements.

The German forces for the drive against Serbia were entrusted to von Mackensen, who had just proved his worth in the great offensive against Russia. His object in invading Serbia was to open a way to Constantinople. To do so, he had first to capture Belgrade, which had been taken by Austrians and retaken by the Serbians in 1914. At the same time an offensive was to be launched across the River Save. This crossing was effected on October 7th, and the next day, after a tremendous bombardment, Belgrade was evacuated by the Serbians. The Germans took possession of Belgrade on October 9th. Two days later the Bulgarian attack began, although war was not officially declared by Bulgaria on Serbia for several days. Great Britain and France in turn declared war on Bulgaria on October 15th and 16th respectively. In the meantime von Mackensen was advancing slowly, waiting for the Bulgarians to attack the Serbians in the rear and on the flank. He did not have to wait long. Veles fell to the Teodorov's Bulgarian Army of the South on October 20th, and Uskub on October 22nd. This last was a real disaster, since it cut off Nish, the only remaining Serbian city of importance, from relief from the

south. Nish held out until November 6th, but then fell into the enemies' hands. All that remained for the Serbian armies was a retreat to the Albanian border. The doom of Serbia had come. With the broken Serbian armies went the remnant of the civil population and the horrors of this retreat can never be fully described.

In the meantime, the Entente Allies had landed a force at Salonika, in Greece, composed of British and French from Gallipoli under General Sarrail, with the ostensible purpose of covering the Serbian retreat. An advance was made through Greek territory along the course of the River Vardar to Strumnitza Station, just across the Serbian frontier, which was recaptured by the French advance guards from the Bulgarians, who had seized it. Further progress was attempted towards Veles, and Knivolak was captured on October 27th. A mountain across the Vardar, called Kara Hodjali, which commanded the whole district, was carried by the French and held against Bulgarian counter-attacks.

A body of Serbians were still attempting to defend the Babuna Pass, which guarded the way to Monastir, and with them the French attempted to gain contact. In order to do this, Kavadar was captured and the so-called "entrenched camp of Kavadar" formed. But the position of the Allies was none too secure. The line of the Vardar could easily be cut and a retreat forced towards Salonika. The Allied troops had come too late to save Serbia, and they were not numerous enough to launch an offensive against Bulgaria. It has been argued that the Serbians could have made a better defense if they had been left to themselves. Be that as it may, one thing is certain, Serbia had become another martyr for the Allied cause, and she had not received the expected assistance to enable her to repel invasion. It is doubtful whether any large body of troops could have

been sent from the Western Front without seriously weakening the Allied defense there, but the lack of those troops in Serbia caused that brave little country to be ground under the Teutonic heel.

## CHAPTER V

## VERDUN AND THE SOMME

## I THE SITUATION AT THE BEGINNING OF 1916—"THE WAR OF ATTRITION"

**Western Front**

The second Christmas of the war found the situation on the Western Front but little changed from what it had been exactly one year before. The battle lines still extended from Switzerland to the North Sea. There had been minor changes here and there—the Germans had been pressed back near Lens and in Champagne and the British held a diminished Ypres salient. The French, towards the end of December, 1915, had made some further progress in the region of the Vosges mountains, around Hartmannsweilerkopf, and had taken some German trenches. But when all these shiftings of the battle lines had been considered, it had to be admitted that neither side had been able to make any appreciable advance during 1915. There had been severe fighting throughout a great part of the year, but the results had been negligible. The great Allied "push" of September and October, 1915, had not broken the German lines, and the Germans had not attempted any great counter offensive.

**Eastern Front**

On the Eastern Front conditions were rapidly approaching the deadlock which existed in the West. The Russians still held their line from Riga, past Dvinsk through the

Pripet Marshes along the Styr and Strypa rivers, to Bukovina and the Roumanian frontier. There was fighting in November near Riga and Dvinsk and also along the Styr and Strypa, but these actions did not materially alter the situation on the Eastern Front. Farther down the line toward the Roumanian frontier, a Russian offensive movement under General Ivanov took place in December, 1915, and January, 1916, against the Austrians. Its object was two-fold, to capture Czernowitz, the capital of Bukovina, and to ease the pressure in the Balkans, where the Allied forces at Salonika were opposed by a Bulgarian army twice their size. There was also some uncertainty as to the attitude of Roumania. Although Czernowitz held out, the Russian offensive accomplished its chief object. Von Mackensen with five divisions returned from the Balkans, and Roumania remained neutral instead of being forced, as had been feared, to join the Central Powers.

In the Balkans the Allied armies had fallen back on Salonika and that city, although on Greek territory, was being strongly held. Austria had long had designs on Salonika, which she hoped to make her port of entry into the Aegean and the Mediterranean. This the Entente Allies were determined to prevent at all costs. The consent of the Greek Government was somewhat grudgingly obtained, and the Allies put Salonika into a position of withstanding a severe siege.

In the meantime, the remnants of the Serbian army had been driven across the Montenegrin and Albanian frontiers, where they obtained shelter. Essad Pasha, the ruler of Albania, threw in his lot with the Entente Allies and Italian forces arrived at Avlona and Durazzo. It has been reckoned that nearly 130,000 Serbian soldiers reached the Albanian coast in safety. It was well that they did so, since, early in January, 1916, Austrian forces overran

Montenegro and captured Cetinje on the 13th of that month. The German and Austrian authorities then reported that Montenegro had "unconditionally surrendered." This was not the case, however, and Montenegrin resistance was kept up for a few days after the fall of Cetinje. Montenegro had been forced to follow Serbia and Belgium into captivity.

Four days before the capture of the Montenegrin capital the last British troops had been successfully withdrawn from the Gallipoli Peninsula. The evacuation began early in December and by December 20th the British trenches at Suvla and Anzac were completely abandoned. Everything was removed from Suvla, but some stores and guns were left burning on the beach at Anzac. The Turks were completely puzzled by the British maneuvers and allowed their enemies to get away without the loss of a man. The withdrawal from Cape Helles took place on the nights of January 8th and 9th. Everything went off very satisfactorily and once again the Turks were completely mystified. General Sir Charles Munro, who had succeeded Sir Ian Hamilton as commander at Gallipoli, summed up the situation in the following sentences, which are taken from his special order issued after the Suvla and Anzac evacuations, but are equally applicable to that from Cape Helles:

"The arrangements made for withdrawal, and for keeping the enemy in ignorance of the operation which was taking place, could not have been improved. The General Officer commanding the Dardanelles Army and the General Officers commanding the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps and 9th Army Corps, may pride themselves on an achievement without parallel in the annals of war. \* \* \*

"It is no exaggeration to call this achievement one without parallel. To disengage and to withdraw from a bold and active enemy is the most difficult of all military

operations; and in this case the withdrawal was effected by surprise, with the opposing forces at close-grips—in many cases within a few yards of each other. Such an operation, when succeeded by a re-embarkation from an open beach, is one for which military history contains no precedent.”\*

This evacuation was a fitting close to the Gallipoli episode.

#### **Kut-el-Amara**

In Mesopotamia Kut-el-Amara was holding out against the Turks, who had closed in around it. British reinforcements were on the way, while General von der Goltz had arrived to take charge of the Turkish armies.

#### **Austro-Italian Front**

One more front remains yet to be discussed, the Austro-Italian. But, in the well-known phrase of the official communiques, from that region there was “nothing to report.” The Austrians held their ground and the Italians attempted no great winter campaign amongst the Alpine snows.

#### **General Situation on Battle-fronts, January, 1916**

The survey of conditions of the battle-fronts as they presented themselves in January, 1916, shows that movement on any large scale had practically ceased. For nearly a year and a half the greatest war in human history had been waging, and the net result was a deadlock. No sudden blow on any front was likely to end the war on all fronts. The German armies were everywhere encamped on the territory of their enemies, but they had not been able to secure the final decision, the “knockout blow,” which had been aimed at in 1914. On the other hand, the Entente

\*Quoted Buchan Nelson's *History of the War*, vol. xii, pp. 69-70.

Allies had not broken through the German lines, and had not yet succeeded in bringing the Central Empires to their knees through economic pressure and the menace of starvation. It was evident to both sides that the war would be long and tedious. The Canadian colonel who wrote home saying that he thought that "the first seven years of the war would be the worst" only slightly exaggerated a very common opinion. The only hope of victory was that one side would be able to wear down the other.

This "war of attrition," as it was called, was expected to be a very slow process. Germany was known to be exceedingly well organized and capable of resisting the Allied blockade for a very considerable time. Hopes were often expressed that Austro-Hungarian resistance would weaken, and that Turkey and Bulgaria would tire of the war. But there were no signs of such happenings in January, 1916. The Central Powers with their Allies were still presenting a united front to the world and were far from being willing to accept peace on any but their own terms. There was much "war weariness," no doubt, and not a little suffering, but there was as yet no great national movement in Germany or Austria-Hungary toward peace, even including "peace at any price."

None the less, the Entente Allies were able to look upon the military and political situation with high hopes. The Germans and their Allies were held on all the battle fronts except in the Balkans, and the British navy was supreme at sea. The first U-boat campaign had not interfered materially with Great Britain's sea-borne commerce, and had involved Germany in serious international complications. Above all, Germany was then probably at her maximum strength and efficiency and was putting every ounce of her resources into the struggle. So, too, was France.



but the British Empire had by no means reached its maximum of effort. In Great Britain the munitions situation was improving, and the failure of Lord Derby's scheme for voluntary recruiting made some form of compulsory service inevitable. Russia was recovering from the great German offensive and was ready to give a good account of herself in 1916. Italy, on her part, was steadily wearing down Austrian resistance.

The neutral world, also, was slowly coming to the opinion that a great Teutonic victory was not probable. Diplomatic relations between Germany and the United States were very strained and Norwegian, Swedish, Portuguese, Dutch and Greek ships, as well as American vessels, had been sunk by the U-boats. The Allied blockade had caused practically all direct foreign trade with Germany from overseas to cease and, although much merchandise did reach the Teutonic Powers by way of Holland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Switzerland and Roumania, steps were taken to control this trade also. Neutral trade with the Entente Allies went on unchecked and fortunes were made by getting munition contracts in neutral countries.

Thus the Entente Allies were able to accept with confidence the "war of attrition." In the end, if all other factors remained constant, it was bound to tell in their favor. Subsequent events were to show that all other factors did not remain constant. The German declaration of "Ruthless Submarine Warfare," coupled with the outbreak of the Russian Revolution, caused the whole war situation to change once more. But that was not until the spring of 1917. During 1916 the "war of attrition" had its opportunity. Neither side, however, was willing to leave all to the slow-grinding mills of time. Great offensives occurred on both sides, notably at Verdun, and on the Somme, but also on the Russian and Italian fronts as well.

## II THE GERMAN DRIVE ON VERDUN—"THEY SHALL NOT PASS"

## Two Immortal Cities

In the course of the World War two cities, one in Flanders and the other in France, have won immortality. Probably few of their buildings remain unshattered, but their fame has gone out to the ends of the earth. Future generations will learn to revere those names, which have already become almost personifications of the heroic devotion of the men who gave their lives to save those cities, no matter how great the cost. Ypres and Verdun will live together in history, and no higher honor can be given to either than to be coupled with the other. But while the glory of Ypres may be said to be international, since British, Canadians, East Indians and French all fought together to save that ancient Belgian city, the glory of Verdun is the glory of France alone. The defeat of the German onslaught at Verdun was due to the superior strategy of the French generals, and to the dogged persistence of the French "poilus." The French Army Order once contained the phrase, "Vous êtes les bons ambassadeurs de la République" ("You are the good ambassadors of the Republic").\* It was true. These men held the line for France, knowing well that defeat meant destruction for their country. The spirit of Verdun was the spirit of the Marne strengthened and intensified. The French soldiers muttered "passeront pas" ("They shall not pass") and grimly beat off the German attacks. The whole French nation repeated the phrase until it became a sort of national motto. It was once again as it had been in the days of Joan of Arc. Nothing could break the spirit of the French people. A dying "poilu" put it in a phrase: "Nous sommes un moment de la France éternelle" ("We are a moment of eternal France").

\*cf. The words of General Mangin to his men after the French offensive at Verdun in December, 1916: "You have been the true ambassadors of the Republic."

### The German Drive on Verdun

The great German drive on Verdun began on February 21, 1916, and lasted until the end of June, when the British and French were ready to begin their great offensive on the Somme. It roughly falls into two parts, the first and second attacks. The first attack lasted until April 9th and gained for the Germans considerable territory, but only included one of the outlying forts of Verdun, Fort Douaumont. It did not break the French line nor capture Verdun. Above all, it did not open up the way to Paris nor cover the German Crown Prince with glory. The second attack began on May 3rd and lasted till June 30th. It was equally unsuccessful, although it drove the French out of several of their important positions, especially the crest of Hill 304, the hill called "Le Mort Homme" (Dead Man's Hill), the villages of Cumieres and Fleury and also Fort Vaux. But by that time it was evident that the capture of Verdun could never result in an overwhelming German victory.

### The Defense System of Verdun

The defense system of Verdun at the outbreak was similar to those "ring fortresses" of Liege and Namur, which had so easily collapsed before the German howitzers. The line of forts and batteries formed a circuit of some thirty miles. There were thirty-six redoubts in all and the diameter of the "entrenched camp" was about nine miles. In addition, after war was declared a series of entrenchments were begun outside the line of the forts. These entrenchments were only partly completed when the German Crown Prince was pressing on Verdun. The great German defeat at the Marne lessened the pressure on the "entrenched camp" and from the close of 1914 the German positions around Verdun were roughly in the form of a horseshoe with the points in the Argonne and at St. Mihiel and the center opposite the eastern defenses of the city.

The city of Verdun lies in a valley between the heights of the Meuse. To the north and east of the city the chief hills are, from west to east, Hill 304, "Dead Man's Hill" ("Le Mort Homme"), "The Goose's Crest" ("Côte de l'Oie"), Talou Hill, "Pepper Hill" ("Côte de Poivre") and the heights around Forts Douaumont and Vaux. In February, 1916, the French advanced lines were in front of all of these heights on a salient running from a point just south of the village of Boureuilles, then to the north of Avocourt by Malancourt to Forges and the River Meuse, which was crossed just south of the village of Consenvoye. To the east of the Meuse, the line ran to the north of the villages of Brabant and Haumont through Ornes and then into the heights of the Woevre, skirting Etain to Fresnes. The heights of the Meuse were again held at the village of Les Eparges.

This advanced line was in February, 1916, but weakly held, chiefly by French Territorial Troops. No great military operation had occurred around Verdun for months and

evidently none was expected. In fact, it seems that the trench systems were allowed to get out of repair and few precautions were made against any surprise attack. It had become the custom for both sides to precede any infantry attack by an artillery preparation lasting anywhere up to forty-eight hours, and evidently the French High Command thought that reserves could be rushed in during that time. So, when a desultory bombardment was begun against the Verdun salient on February 16th, nothing much was thought of it. The French at Verdun awaited a more intense concentration of artillery fire. They were disappointed for several days and were unable to judge with certainty whether or not the great attack would come. Their airmen, however, reported great concentration of guns north of the village of Ornes.

#### First Phase of Attack on Verdun

But on the morning of February 21st there could no longer be any doubt that an attack was beginning. A furious bombardment started, far more intense and more terrible than anything yet experienced in the war. The smallest gun used by the Germans was the 4-inch and the largest the huge 13-inch Austrian heavy howitzer. The French first lines were literally blown to pieces and the communication trenches were badly damaged. The German infantry was sent forward, expecting to open up the way to Verdun. The German strategists expected that the city would fall in four days.

In that they were mistaken. The French had been shelled out of their front line trenches and had been forced to retire, but they were still holding their second line and were not ready to give that up without a struggle. For five days the fighting went on and the Germans slowly closed in on the French. By the end of that time all that

remained of the original French forces—since reinforcements had not yet come up—were holding on to Pepper Hill and the heights beyond Fort Douaumont. These were the keys to Verdun on the east side of the Meuse and to possess them the Germans were ready to pay an exorbitant price. Fort Douaumont fell into German hands late on Friday, February 25th, and the Kaiser was able to wire to Berlin that a key to Verdun was in his hands. Fortunately for the French, General Phillipe Petain had arrived to take command and had brought reinforcements with him. The Germans had captured Fort Douaumont, but they got no further.

General Petain at once took charge and, although he could not save Fort Douaumont, a brilliant attack by the famous 20th Corps of Nancy, the men who had held the Grand Couronné in 1914, recaptured most of the ground lost, except the ruins of the fort, and snatched from the Germans the spoils of victory. The Germans had not captured Verdun in their first overwhelming drive. It was now necessary for them to revise their plans. The great frontal attack had all but succeeded and the French line was held by sheer grit and determination. General Petain had arrived just in the nick of time.

The first attack on Verdun had been directed against the heights to the east of the Meuse, with the object of smashing the center of the salient. The next attack was to be chiefly against the heights to the west of the Meuse, with a subsidiary movement against Fort Vaux to the southeast of Fort Douaumont. In the meantime the French lines had been withdrawn from the Woevre plain to the foot of the heights of the Meuse and extended down to the village of Les Eparges. Fort Vaux was, therefore, just above this new line and so was a point of vantage. The heights to the west of the Meuse were also of vital importance to the defense of Verdun. If the Goose's Crest,

the Mort Homme and Hill 304 could be carried, then Verdun would be untenable.

It was against the first of these, the Goose's Crest, that the next German attack was directed. On March 6th and 7th the eastern crest of this ridge was carried, but there was still severe fighting in the Crows' Wood to the west. By March 8th most of the lost ground had been won back by French counter attacks and the Germans were attacking Fort Vaux. There hard fighting took place on March 9th, 10th and 11th, but the fort held out. Then, once again, the main German attack shifted to the west of the Meuse and the assault on the Mort Homme began. But the Mort Homme was held, despite all the German efforts, and by March 16th the French line west of the Meuse ran from near Avocourt by Malancourt and Bethincourt, then skirting the Mort Homme through the wood of Cumieres to the Meuse. The Crows' Wood and the Goose's Crest were lost, but the Mort Homme still remained a key to the whole position. To the east of the Meuse, Fort Vaux had defied all German attacks and was strongly held. The fall of Verdun was unlikely.

It may here be asked why, after three weeks of effort, the German still kept attacking Verdun? The answer is provided by two sentences from General Joffre's Order of the Day to the defenders of Verdun, issued in March, 1916. "The struggle is not yet at an end, for the Germans need a victory. You will succeed in wresting it from them." The reasons for the continuance of the attack at Verdun were largely political. The German people had been told that Verdun was bound to fall and so further attempts had to be made at a tremendous sacrifice of life. The Crown Prince, too, needed a victory in order to bolster up his sinking reputation.

On the French side, General Petain proved himself a

great master of men as well as of strategy. He kept the French losses at a minimum, but obtained a maximum price from the enemy for every yard he relinquished to them. Some positions, such as the Douaumont crest or the Mort Homme, he held at all costs, but usually his orders were to give ground and then to regain it by a counter stroke. His object was to wear down the German forces rather than to hold a few yards of battered earth.

The next German offensive began on March 20th, when the Bavarians and Wurtembergers won a foothold in Avo-court Wood and threatened Hill 304. General Petain, on March 29th, by a counter attack, won back part of the ground lost and relieved the pressure on Hill 304. On March 31st, part of Malancourt was captured and the rest evacuated. Petain withdrew the French troops from Hau-court, at the same time leaving a sharp salient around Bethincourt guarding the Mort Homme. In the meantime the Germans had fought their way into the outskirts of the village of Vaux and had captured most of Caillette Wood, thus threatening the communications between Douaumont and Fort Vaux. On April 3rd General Mangin counter attacked and won back nearly all of Caillette Wood.

But it was not until April 9th that this phase of the struggle reached its climax. On that day the Germans delivered a tremendous frontal attack on the Mort Homme and Hill 304, but were unable to carry their objectives. The ruins of the village of Cumières were reached, but not held, and some French front line trenches were captured at the Mort Homme. But that was all. After three days fighting it was evident that this thrust for Verdun had been no more successful than the first great attack in February. The keys to Verdun remained in French hands. With the failure of these German attacks the first phase of the Verdun struggle came to an end.



From the middle of April to the beginning of May there was comparative peace at Verdun. Then the Germans launched another great series of attacks in order, "by blind blows on a narrow front, to wear down the French strength."<sup>\*</sup> There was no longer any hope of striking at Paris through Verdun, but the Germans wished if possible to prevent the Franco-British combined attack, which they feared was coming. The second attack on Verdun was, therefore, Germany's attempt to forestall the Battle of the Somme.

#### Second Phase of Attack on Verdun

At the beginning of May the French line ran as follows: Starting from Avocourt on the west, it skirted Avocourt Wood, crossed the northern slopes of Hill 304 and the western slopes of the Mort Homme and extended to the Meuse at Cumières, to the south of the Goose's Crest. To the east of the Meuse the line ran along the south side of Pepper Hill, through Haudromont Wood along the southern side of Douaumont ridge—the crest had been lost—to the outskirts of the village of Vaux, then past Fort Vaux and along the Heights of the Meuse. To the east of the Meuse the French were holding the last line of defense before Verdun. To the west there was a line through Charny which corresponded to the Douaumont line.

It was against Hill 304 and the Mort Homme that the Germans made their first effort on May 3rd and 4th in the second phase of the Verdun offensive. After over two weeks fighting these objectives were carried and by Sunday, May 21st, the top of the Mort Homme was in German hands. But the French lines were unbroken and the German losses had been terrible.

On the day that the summit of the Mort Homme was lost, the French on Douaumont ridge began a counter

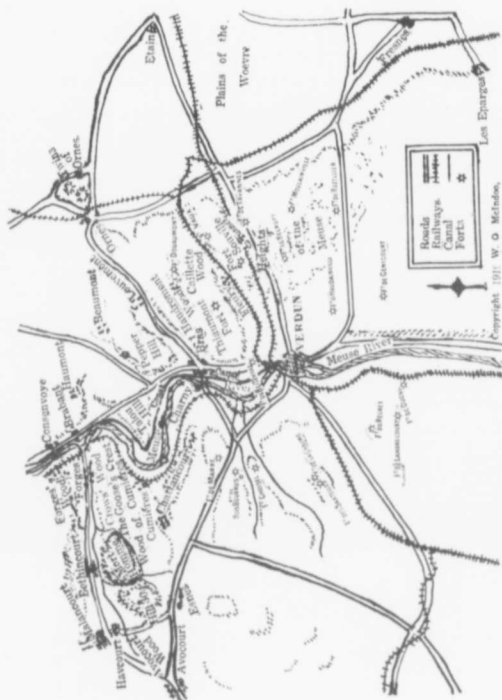
<sup>\*</sup>Buchan: Nelson's History of the War, vol. xiv, p. 187.

offensive against Fort Douaumont, which had remained in German hands since the end of February. The bulk of the fort was recaptured on May 22nd and held until the next day, when the French fell back to their old positions. The counter attack had accomplished its purpose in actively employing the German forces to the east of the Meuse and preventing reinforcements being sent from the east to the west of the river.

West of the Meuse the struggle continued grimly till the end of the month. The French were forced back in several places, but were strongly holding their main line of defense. Hill 304, the Mort Homme and the village of Cumières were lost, but Charny was not even seriously threatened.

The next stroke of the German hammer was the capture of Fort Vaux. From June 1st, when the assault began, until June 6th the fort held out. For five days the garrison under Major Raynal were cut off from communication with their comrades, but the resistance continued. When the fort fell the Germans began a tremendous drive on the whole sector, with Fort Souville as the objective. On June 23rd came the great assault, when 100,000 men were flung against a front of only three miles. Thiaumont Fort was stormed on that day and the village of Fleury was entered on June 24th. The French counter attacked on June 30th and regained Thiaumont Fort. The next day the Battle of the Somme began.

There was fighting around Verdun until early in August, but by that time General Nivelle, Petain's successor, was in entire control of the situation. The way to Verdun was completely barred. The Germans had not passed.



MAP ILLUSTRATING THE CHIEF FRENCH POSITIONS AT VERDUN, 1916

III THE WAR ON THE ITALIAN FRONT—THE AUSTRIAN  
OFFENSIVE IN THE TRENINO AND THE CAPTURE  
OF GORIZIA BY THE ITALIANS

On the Italian Front in the spring and summer of 1916 two offensives took place. The first of these was the Austrian drive in the Trentino, which occurred in May and June. The other was the Italian counter offensive along the Isonzo, which resulted in the capture of Gorizia on August 9th. The Austrian movement in the Trentino was undertaken chiefly with a view to preventing the Italian drive on Gorizia. It delayed that attack for two or three months, but it could not prevent it.

#### Gorizia

Gorizia was the key to the Isonzo Front and had been Cadorna's objective ever since the outbreak of war between Italy and Austria in May, 1915, but so far it had held out against all Italian attacks. The Austrians still held the bridge head across the Isonzo at Gorizia and, although the Italians had heavily attacked the fortifications on Podgora and Oslavia, which guarded Gorizia on the west, they had not captured these positions. Further north on the Isonzo a desperate warfare had been waged on Monte Nero, which guarded Tolmino, and to the south the Italians had gained a strong foothold on Monte San Michele, the key to the Carso Plateau. The crest of San Michele had been carried during the Italian attack of July, 1915, but it could not be held on account of Austrian cross-fire, and the Italian lines ran just below the summit. The Carso Plateau was an Austrian stronghold similar to the German fortresses which had been constructed at certain points along the Western Front. The way to Trieste lay over the Carso, but nothing could be done towards capturing Trieste until Gorizia was in Italian hands.

### The Isonzo

The Isonzo Front was the chief Italian theatre of war, but little could be accomplished by Cadorna's armies there, unless the Trentino was strongly held against the Austrians. An Austrian offensive through the Trentino could easily cut the Italian lines of communication and force a withdrawal from the Isonzo. Considerable fighting took place in the Trentino during 1915, with the result that the Italians held a series of advanced posts which commanded the valleys leading down towards Trent, but were checked by strong Austrian positions at Rovereto, Folgaria, Lavarone and Levico. The main Italian line of defense was the second line from the River Brenta past Asiago Arsiero and Monte Pasubio to the Lake of Garda. If that line fell, then a way might be opened to the northern Italian plains.

### Austrian Offensive in the Trentino

On May 15th the Austrian offensive in the Trentino began and the Italian first line rapidly fell under the pounding of the Austrian heavy guns. Terrific fighting continued for several days. The Italians were driven back to their main line of defense and even behind it. Asiago and Arsiero were evacuated on May 30th, but on the same day the Italian left defeated the Austrians at the Pass of Buole, the gateway to the Lower Adige. Monte Pasubio was heavily attacked, but was successfully defended. None the less, by June 1st the Austrian Army Order contained the information that only one more mountain remained between the battle line and the Venetian plain.

General Cadorna, in the meantime, was rushing up reserves from the Isonzo Front, and by June 3rd was able to announce that the Austrian offensive was checked. Fighting went on until the middle of June and then died down.

The Russian offensive under Brussilov had begun in Galicia on June 4th, and the Austrians had been caught napping.

The real Italian reply to the Austrian offensive in the Trentino was the great "push" against Gorizia in August, 1916, but before that time considerable territory had been recaptured in the Trentino. During the last two weeks of June the Austrians were forced back nearly to their old positions, which they had held before the beginning of the drive in May. Asiago was retaken by the Italians on June 26th and Arsiero the next day. The net gain to Austria in the Trentino was not sufficient to recompense her for the cost in men and material. Above all, the drive had not cut the Italian line of communications.

#### The Capture of Gorizia

After winning back the lost territory in the Trentino, Cadorna was able to turn his attention to the Isonzo once more. His plan was to make a feint attack on Monfalcone, to storm San Michele, and to capture Gorizia. The artillery preparation began on August 1st, and on August 4th the Bersaglieri made their feint at Monfalcone. Two days later came the great attack on San Michele and Monte Sabotino. These were successful, and on August 8th began the assault on Gorizia. The city fell on August 9th and Cadorna began to prepare his next move—that against Trieste. The western end of the Carso was cleared of the Austrians by August 12th and the line of the Isonzo had been pierced. It was a great Italian victory. None the less, the way to Trieste still lay across very difficult country. All that Cadorna could do for the time being was to hold his new lines and to use them as a base of operations to work his way slowly across the Carso.

One result of the capture of Gorizia was the Italian declaration of war on Germany on August 28, 1916. As

German assistance had been received by Austria throughout the Trentino campaign, this declaration of war by Italy was only a recognition of existing conditions. The Germans made no great move against Italy until the autumn of 1917.

#### IV THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN IN THE NEAR EAST AND THE GREAT RUSSIAN SUMMER OFFENSIVE

##### Fall of Erzerum and Trebizond

On the Eastern Front but little change occurred until the outbreak of the great Russian offensive in June, 1916. But during the early months of that year several notable successes were gained by the Russian armies operating in the Near East. In January an advance was made on Erzerum, which is situated in Turkish territory about one hundred miles from the Russian Transcaucasian frontier. After severe fighting, the passage of the Araxes River was forced on January 18th and, although Erzerum held out until February 16th, when it was evacuated by the Turks, its fall was never in doubt. The capture of Erzerum gave the Russians control of Turkish Armenia.

The next Russian move was against Trebizond on the Black Sea which was captured on April 18th. At the same time an advance was made from Erzerum toward the Turkish headquarters at Erzinghian on the Western Euphrates River. The Russian object seems to have been to drive as deep a wedge as possible into the Turkish Empire in Asia. Unfortunately these Russian successes did not ease the Turkish pressure on the besieged British garrison at Kut-el-Amara which surrendered on April 29th, after the final failure of General Gorrings's troops to break the Turkish lines and to bring aid to General Townshend's garrison.

### Brussilov's Great Offensive

On the main Russian Front changes were also occurring. In April General Ivanov was given a higher post and Brussilov took command of the Southern Army Group. In June Brussilov began a great series of offensives against the Austrians from the Pripet Marshes to the River Pruth, near the Roumanian frontier. These offensives began along the entire line on June 4th and continued for several days. In the so-called "Volhynian Triangle" (Lutsk, Dubno and Rovno) great progress was made up until the middle of June. Lutsk was captured and held, and Dubno fell on June 9th. By June 16th the Russians had reached the Galician frontier having advanced fifty miles from their old line, and captured over 1,300 officers and 70,000 men. For the moment it seemed as if Kovel would be recaptured by the Russians. But the German commander, von Linsingen, counter attacked and forced the Russians to recross the Stokod River at Svidniki and lessened the pressure on Kovel.

In the meantime severe fighting had occurred, both along the Austrian line which ran between the River Sereth and the River Strypa and also on the frontier of Bukovina. Not much progress was made along the line between the rivers, but in Bukovina on June 17th the Russians entered Czernowitz, which had just been evacuated by the Austrians. After the fall of Czernowitz, Lechitsky, the Russian commander, continued the conquest of Bukovina and by June 23rd Kimpolung, the southernmost town of the provinces, was in Russian hands.

By the end of June Brussilov's armies had made great progress against the Austrians. The Austrian line had been pierced in several places and great tracts of country had been won. For the first time in many months the Russians possessed sufficient artillery and munitions to undertake a



great offensive and they made good use of their opportunities.

The early days of July saw the Russian offensive resumed with great success. The Stokod was again reached and Kovel once more threatened. But Brussilov's chief blow was against Brody. The Russian 11th Army under General Sakarov won a battle on the River Styr and its tributary, the Lipa, and drove in a wedge between the Germans and Austrians. On July 22nd the Austrians began to evacuate Brody, which was captured by the Russians on July 28th only after severe fighting. Sakharov then pushed on, and by August 10th had turned the flank of Bothmer, who had held the line of the Sereth and Strypa.

In Bukovina an advance was made against Kolomea which was captured by the Russians on June 29th, and Delatyn fell on July 8th. Stanislaw was now the Russian objective, but little progress was possible on account of the July rains. The beginning of August brought better weather and Stanislaw was taken on August 10th. Bothmer, the German commander, hit now on both flanks, could only retreat.

#### Austrian Situation Serious

Austria's position was now serious. She was fighting hard on the Italian front in a vain attempt to save Gorizia. Her armies in Galicia were being forced back. Above all, the Battle of the Somme had begun and the Germans could spare but few reinforcements. The only thing to do was to effect a complete reorganization. This was entrusted to von Hindenburg and resulted in the Germans taking complete control of the forces on the Eastern Front. Brussilov's offensive had gained its purpose in that it had won considerable territory and inflicted tremendous losses upon the enemy. It needed all the ingenuity of the German General

Staff to bolster up Austria. Roumania now definitely cast in her lot with the Entente Allies and declared war on Austria on August 27, 1916. The Russian triumphant advance had not been without effect upon that country.

The capture of Stanislaw did not end the Russian campaign which continued triumphantly until the end of August and the beginning of September. Halicz was menaced but not captured and the southern road to Lemberg was blocked. Considerable fighting also took place in the Carpathians where Lechitsky made some progress but was unable to break the Austrian defense. By the end of September it was evident that the Russians could neither take Lemberg nor proceed far into the Carpathians. The entrance of Roumania into the war had caused Brussilov to revise his plans. The results did not prove satisfactory.

#### V THE BRITISH BLOCKADE AND THE BATTLE OF JUTLAND

When the Russian guns, on June 1, 1916, were beginning to batter down the Austrian defenses, the last echoes of what was, up till then, the greatest naval battle of the war were dying away. After months of waiting, the British Grand Fleet had been in action with the German High Seas Fleet and the German commander, von Scheer, had retired to shelter. The Germans announced that they had won a great "victory," but the British Fleet still held the seas and the German Fleet remained safe within its harbors. Perhaps the best commentary upon the German claim of "victory" was the fact that the "victorious" German High Seas Fleet would not again come out and fight. The British had successfully met the enemy's attack and defeated the Germans in a great naval battle.

But the Battle of Jutland was only the central incident of the British blockade. It showed that the tireless watch-

ers of the North Sea had not cruised in vain and that the net was being drawn tighter around Germany.

#### British Blockade

The British blockade had been declared by the Order in Council of March 11, 1915, and had continued throughout the year. Neutral ships were carefully searched and any goods which were believed destined for the enemy were removed. There was considerable friction with neutral countries over the British "right of search" and American meat packers protested against their goods being taken into British Prize Courts as "contraband of war." The Swedish people also objected when their brand new liner, the "Stockholm," was detained by the British Contraband Committee. But the British authorities continued their search. Great Britain was determined to stop all exports from and imports into Germany. Goods from a neutral country could be sent to another neutral country provided that they were not transshipped to Germany through the receiving country. The doctrine of "continuous voyage," i.e., the non-transference of goods while en route, was being rigidly applied.

In this way then, the British Fleet was steadily reducing German economic efficiency. Raw materials of all sorts were being stopped on their way to Germany. The British Foreign Office, in a memorandum issued in answer to the American Note of November 5, 1915, which had complained against British methods, made the statement that although cotton did not become contraband until August 20, 1915, the German technical paper, the "Konfektionar," admitted in its issue of July 1st "that not a gramme of cotton had found its way into Germany during the preceding four weeks." German supplies were running short and it is more than probable that economic pressure had a great deal to do with the appearance of the German High Seas Fleet in action off Jutland on May 31, 1916.

Since the British victory at the Falkland Islands in November, 1914, there had been only one serious encounter between the British and German Fleets, the Battle of the Dogger Bank\* on January 24, 1915, in which the Germans received a severe pounding, but escaped a complete defeat on account of damage done to Admiral Beatty's flagship, the "Lion." For over a year after that no important naval battle took place. The German U-boats plied their nefarious trade against British and other Allied shipping, and the British invented ways and means to do away with the German submarines. The full tale of the U-boat warfare may never be told. Kipling has written his "Tales of the Trade," and Alfred Noyes has recounted the fate of some of the German submarines, but the wall of silence has not yet been broken and the full story of the new warfare has not been written. Many a U-boat passed the Elbe bases and went out into the North Sea and the Atlantic, never to return.

As the spring of 1916 wore on, a feeling spread among the British that the German High Seas Fleet would come out and fight. There was no real ground for the feeling, except that since the Germans had failed at Verdun and a Russian offensive was soon expected, the German War-Lords might make a desperate attempt to break the British blockade by a great stroke at the British Grand Fleet. Such an attempt was made on May 31st and the battle of Jutland took place.

#### **The Battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916**

The Battle of Jutland—also called the Battle of Horn Reef, from the Horn Reef which was in the vicinity of the fighting—is the greatest naval battle which has yet been fought in over a century. It is the first great naval

\*Also called the Battle of the North Sea.

battle, with the possible exception of Admiral Togo's victory in the Sea of Japan, in which modern "ironclads" have battled for the mastery. In no other naval contest in history have so many "dreadnoughts" taken part. For the first time in the war the two greatest fleets in existence met and grappled together. After a fight, which lasted from 3 p. m. to 9 p. m., the German Fleet began to retire to shelter, and, although the British destroyers kept up a running fight all night, "low visibility" prevented the British from annihilating the German fleet. As it was, the Battle of Jutland was a great British victory. The German official reports claimed it as the greatest British naval defeat in history, and the Kaiser pompously announced that: "The gigantic fleet of Albion, ruler of the seas, which, since Trafalgar, for a hundred years has imposed on the whole world a bond of sea tyranny, and has surrounded itself with a nimbus of invincibility, came into the field. This gigantic Armada approached our fleet and was beaten. The first great hammer blow was struck, and the nimbus of British supremacy disappeared." The real truth of the case was stated by the "New York World," when reviewing the situation after the battle, it said: "The German navy is still a navy in jail, which assaults its jailer now and then with great fury, but which remains in jail nevertheless."

### Outline of the Battle of Jutland

It would be well to outline briefly the chief phases of this all-important naval battle. Before the fighting began the British Battle Cruiser Fleet under Sir David Beatty was scouting considerably ahead of the main body of the British Grand Fleet, the Battle Fleet of Sir John Jellicoe. With Beatty were three Light Cruiser Squadrons and four Destroyer Flotillas, in addition to one Battle Squadron and two Battle Cruiser Squadrons. Under the direct command of Sir John Jellicoe were the other Battle Squadrons, one Battle Cruiser Squadron, two Cruiser Squadrons, one Light Cruiser Squadron, and three Destroyer Flotillas. The German High Seas Fleet was also in two divisions, the Battle Cruiser Fleet under Admiral von Hipper, and the Battle Fleet under Admiral von Scheer. Beatty's object was to engage the German Battle Cruiser Fleet and to entice the Battle Fleet of von Scheer to come out and fight. In order to accomplish his purpose the British Battle Cruiser Fleet would have to bear the brunt of the early part of the fighting against much superior numbers, and to engage the whole German High Seas Fleet until Jellicoe could come up.

#### First Phase

The first phase of the battle was the contest between Sir David Beatty's Battle Cruiser Fleet and the corresponding Battle Cruiser Fleet of von Hipper. In that phase Beatty expected to hold his own, and he did so, although he sustained very heavy losses. The "Indefatigable" and the "Queen Mary" were sunk by gunfire, but the Germans also suffered, and one of their battle cruisers caught fire. The British destroyers were also in action with the German destroyers and fought a very hard battle. By 5

o'clock the German Battle Fleet under the command of von Scheer had come up and Beatty was forced to steer north. The first phase of the battle was over.

### Second Phase

The second phase, which lasted about two hours, from 5 to nearly 7 p. m., was a "strategic retreat" on the part of Sir David Beatty and a hot pursuit by the combined fleets of von Hipper and von Scheer. Beatty had now only eight "capital ships," against nineteen of the enemy, and had to avail himself of his superior speed. The British ships were to the west of the Germans and, silhouetted against the sunset, provided most excellent targets at about 14,000 yards. The Germans, on the other hand, were protected by the oncoming darkness and the rising mists.

Jellicoe, in the meantime, was racing towards Beatty at top speed and by 6 o'clock the two fleets were close together. Beatty, by this time, had turned his line sharply to the east and was heading off the German Fleet toward the southwest. By 6:50 p. m. the two British fleets were united. Unfortunately, daylight was fast fading and the Germans were shrouded in mist. "Low visibility" had set in.

### Third Phase

The third phase, which lasted from 6:50 to 9 p. m., was an attempt by Jellicoe to cut von Scheer off from his naval bases. Both fleets were actively engaged, and now the Germans were to the west of the British. In what light remained the British poured in salvos of shells into the German ships and severely damaged a number of them. All that von Scheer could do was to run for safety as fast as possible. During this phase the Germans sustained heavy losses. Beatty's flagship, the "Lion," and three

other battle cruisers successfully put three German battle-ships or battle cruisers out of action, all three being set on fire.

#### Fourth Phase

The last phase of the Battle of Jutland began at 9 p. m. on May 31st and lasted until the morning of June 1st. In this stage of the fighting the British destroyers pursued the German fleet and launched torpedo attacks upon the retiring enemy. Kipling in his "Destroyers at Jutland" has told us a few of the incidents of that exciting chase, but the full tale of the bravery of the destroyers has not yet been told. Sir John Jellicoe gave to the destroyer flotillas the highest praise possible. When he wrote in his official dispatch, he said: "There were many gallant deeds done by the destroyer flotillas; they surpassed the very highest expectations that I had formed of them."

Daylight on June 1st saw no sign of the German fleet. Sir John Jellicoe waited with his ships until the afternoon and then returned to the bases of the Grand Fleet. Safe behind the defenses of Heligoland and the mouths of the Elbe and Weser lay the "victorious" German Fleet.

Probably the most curious thing about the whole Battle of Jutland was the absolutely wrong impression given at first by the German and British announcements. The Germans reported not only the number of British ships lost, but also their names. At the same time they admitted only the loss of a very few German ships. The British published their list of losses and also gave an estimate of the number of German ships lost. In true British fashion they did not claim an overwhelming victory. They left the world to judge the facts for itself. But the German version had over twenty-four hours start of the British and, although it was soon discredited when the German Government admitted that "for political reasons" certain losses



had been concealed, for a few days it looked as if the battle had resulted, if not a German victory, at least in a draw. A study of Sir John Jellicoe's dispatch was enough to dispel any such notion. Its apparent honesty and straight-forwardness contrasted strangely with the German attempt at making out a case.

#### Lord Kitchener

Three days after the British Grand Fleet had arrived back from the Battle of Jutland the British Empire suffered an irreparable loss in the death, by drowning, of Lord Kitchener. Kitchener had left the British Isles on H. M. S. "Hampshire" in order to be present at an important conference with the Russian commanders on the subject of the coming Allied offensive. He was attended by only a small personal staff. On June 5th the "Hampshire" sank off the coast of the Orkney Islands and Kitchener was heard of no more. All sorts of wild rumors soon were circulated that Kitchener was in Russia, or a prisoner in Germany, and one is reminded of the legend of the Middle Ages that the great Emperor Frederick Barbarossa had not died, but would come once again to lead his people.

Kitchener's death cast a gloom over the Entente Allies. He had become almost a personification of the British spirit, quiet, dogged, stern and loyal. But his work lived on. The new British armies are his eternal monument.

#### VI THE FIRST BATTLE OF THE SOMME

July 1, to November 18, 1916

In less than a month after Kitchener's untimely death the British and French were attacking the Germans on the Somme. It was the first great Allied offensive since the autumn of 1915 and great preparations had been made by the Entente Allies. Sir Douglas Haig, in his official dis-

patch, stated that the object of the offensive was three-fold; "to relieve the pressure on Verdun; to assist our Allies in the other theatres of war by stopping any further transfer of German troops from the Western Front; and to wear down the strength of the forces opposed to us." All three purposes were accomplished by the Battle of the Somme.

The Battle of the Somme began July 1, 1916, and lasted until the middle of November, the last British attack being delivered on November 18th. It was by far the greatest Allied offensive action until then in the war and it did much to shake the legend of German invincibility. The Germans boasted that their defense line was far too strong to be broken by any onslaught, but the French and British pierced that line and drove the Germans back step by step toward Bapaume and Peronne.

#### **Germans Attempt to Forestall the Battle of the Somme**

Before sketching the history of the Battle of the Somme it will be well to make some reference to the various attempts made by the Germans during the spring of 1916 to forestall it. The German High Command had hoped that the attack on Verdun would produce an immediate Allied counter offensive. To checkmate such a movement the northern part of the German line on the Western Front was kept manned at full strength and several local attacks were delivered against the British.

#### **British, French and Belgian Lines**

The British at this time held a line stretching from the Ypres salient to the Somme River and running roughly north and south. The southern part of this line from Arras to the Somme had been taken over by the British from the

French in 1915. From the Somme to Verdun the French line ran roughly east and west and then at Verdun turned southeast towards Switzerland. North of the Ypres salient a mixed force of French and Belgians held the line to Nieuport on the North Sea. In the spring and early summer of 1916 the Germans tried several times to find the weak places in this line. They met with but poor success.

#### **Germans Make Local Attacks**

The chief German local attacks were in the Ypres salient. In February a ridge called "The Bluff" was captured from the British and held for seventeen days. Fierce fighting occurred in March and April at St. Eloi, in which the Canadians participated. In May the attack shifted south to Vimy Ridge and the Hohenzollern Redoubt. The Germans made some progress, but secured no very important strategic positions.

#### **Battle of Sanctuary Wood, 1916**

On June 2nd occurred the chief of this series of minor actions, the Battle of Sanctuary Wood. The Germans launched a tremendous attack against the Canadians, and the "Princess Pat's" and the Canadian Mounted Rifles suffered very heavily. The Canadians were forced to give ground, most of which was re-won by a counter attack on June 13th.

#### **The Irish Problem**

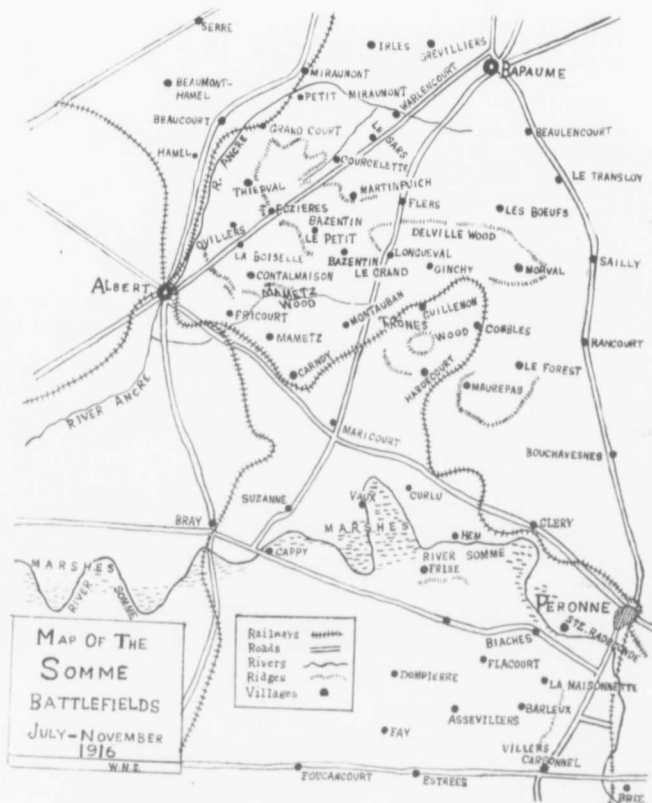
In the meantime large British forces were being gathered in France for the great drive. The Military Service Act had provided a great reservoir of men. The Act had, however, not been applied to Ireland, where a serious rebellion had broken out in Dublin during Easter week.

It was suppressed and its leaders, who belonged to the Irish organization of Sinn Fein, were executed. Sir Roger Casement, who, after a distinguished career in the British Consular Service, had become identified with the Sinn Fein movement and had even gone to Germany to secure assistance from the enemies of Great Britain, was captured and later executed as a traitor. The suppression of the rebellion of Easter week by no means settled the Irish problem, but it should not be forgotten that while the leaders of Sinn Fein were proclaiming a "Provisional Government" in Dublin, Irish regiments at the front were fighting hard to defend the British Empire. All Ireland did not side with Sinn Fein and in the Battle of the Somme the Ulster Division covered itself with glory.

#### Scene of the Battle of the Somme

The scene of the great Allied offensive was along the banks of the Somme River, but chiefly to the north of that river. The German position to be attacked was, in the words of Sir Douglas Haig, "of a very formidable character, situated on a high, undulating tract of ground, which rises to more than 500 feet above sea level and forms the watershed between the Somme on the one side and the rivers of southwestern Belgium on the other."<sup>\*</sup> The German lines rising in successive tiers along the watershed were veritable fortresses of concrete and barbed wire. General Haig describes the German defense systems as follows: "The first and second systems each consisted of several lines of deep trenches, well provided with bomb-proof shelters and with numerous communication trenches connecting them. The front of the trenches in each system was protected by wire entanglements, many of them in two belts forty yards broad, built with iron stakes interlaced with barbed wire.

<sup>\*</sup>Haig Second Despatch, Dec. 23rd, 1916.



almost as thick as a man's finger." It was against such positions as these that the British and French were to hurl themselves in the Battle of the Somme. Need one wonder that the Germans thought their lines impregnable?

#### Stages of the Battle of the Somme

The Battle of the Somme falls into four phases or stages, each of which represented a distinct Allied advance and the capture of an objective or series of objectives. Of course, setbacks occurred, chief among which must be reckoned the British defeat before Thiepval during the first few days of the offensive, but in each stage enough was won to make further progress possible, and to prevent the Allied advance from being so narrowed down as merely to form a new salient. The first stage began on July 1st and lasted until July 14th. It resulted in the capture of a large part of the German first line. The second stage began July 14th and lasted until September 10th. The third stage commenced with the great attack of September 15th, in which the "tanks" first appeared, and resulted in a considerable gain of territory. This stage lasted until the beginning of November. The fourth and final stage, commonly called the Battle of the Ancre, began during the second week of November and lasted about a week. The last British attack was on November 18th, and with it the First Battle of the Somme came to a close.

#### First Stage

The first British objective against which the British troops were hurled on July 1st was the German front line of defense from Gommecourt to near Maricourt. This line ran from near Gommecourt along the heights to the west of Serre and Beaumont Hamel, then crossed the Ancre and ran in front of Thiepval to near La Boiselle.

From La Boiselle it skirted Fricourt and then turned sharply to the east covering Mametz and Montauban, then on to the River Somme, which it crossed near Curlu, and extended to near Lihons, south of the Somme.

On Saturday, July 1st, the British and French offensive began and terrific fighting took place. The main British attack was from Maricourt, south of Montauban, to the River Ancre. During the first five days of fighting Fricourt, Mametz, Montauban, Hardecourt and La Boiselle fell and the British were pressing hard on Contalmaison. To the north of La Boiselle less progress had been made. The Thiepval ridge held, in spite of tremendous British attacks, and Beaumont, Hamel and Serre could not be carried. Further fighting continued, chiefly on the southern part of the line and by July 10th Contalmaison and Mametz wood were in British hands.

The French, in the meantime, had made a dashing attack north and south of the Somme and had met with tremendous success. South of the Somme, Biaches, one mile from Peronne, was captured on July 9th and by that time important positions had been won also to the north of the river.

By July 14th the first German defense system had been carried on a broad front from La Boiselle to the Somme, and south of the Somme the German second positions had been reached. The first stage of the Battle of the Somme was over.

### Second Stage

On July 14th, the national holiday of France, the second stage began with a furious assault. The British attacked on a front of four miles from a point southeast of the village of Pozières to Longueval and Delville Wood. This attack was everywhere successful. At Delville Wood

a terrible struggle took place, which lasted thirteen days. In it the South African Brigade distinguished itself. On July 23rd a further attack occurred and resulted in the capture of Pozieres on July 26th. The Australians and English troops from the Midland counties fought desperately and the Anzacs, if possible, surpassed their own achievements at Lone Pine Hill in the Gallipoli campaign.

Fighting continued in August around Pozières, Guillemont and Ginchy and resulted in important gains. The French, in the meantime, south of the Somme had carried the third German position and, between August 12th and 16th, attacked to the north of the river. There they also met with great success and captured the bulk of the enemy's third line. On August 18th occurred a new attack from Thiepval to the Somme. At Thiepval the Leipzig Redoubt was taken after hard fighting. Further south the attack was less successful, but the British and French had now got to the watershed.

Throughout this period of the battle and, indeed, throughout the five months of fighting at the Somme, the British and French aviators held the supremacy of the air. These "knights of the air" were the eyes of their armies and performed prodigies of valor. Not only did they defeat the enemy airmen, but they also obtained invaluable information and even occasionally bombed the enemy's trenches. Of the work of the British airmen, Sir Douglas Haig writes in his official dispatch as follows:

"Not only has the work of the Royal Flying Corps to be carried out in all weathers and under constant fire from the ground, but fighting in the air has now become a normal procedure, in order to maintain the mastery over the enemy's air service. In these fights the greatest skill and determination have been shown, and great success has attended the efforts of the Royal Flying Corps."



The Great World War has witnessed the growth of this new branch of the service, which promises to become even of increasing importance as new inventions are made and new types of machines perfected.

By the beginning of September the British and French had captured the German second position from Thiepval to Estries, south of the Somme. This had been completed by the capture of Guillemont on September 3rd. The second stage of the Battle of the Somme may be said to have ended then. The third was begun by the great attack on September 15th.

#### Third Stage

The German third position, which had been completed since the beginning of the second stage on July 14th, was based on the villages of Courcellete, Martinpuich, Flers, Lesbocufs and Morval. All these villages lie beyond the watershed on the downward slopes. The British attack of September 15th was directed against this third German line.

A surprise had been carefully prepared by the British for the Germans who manned the third defense line. This was the employment of the "tanks" to batter down concrete fortifications and to clear out machine gun "nests." These weird monsters were of great service to the infantry in their advance, in that they could overcome obstacles which could not be carried by the infantry except at a huge loss of life.

The British attack of September 15th was successful on the left and center, but unsuccessful on the right. The Canadians on the left of the line carried Courcellette and the Scottish division, who had won fame at Loos, captured Martinpuich. Flers was taken by the New Zealand Division, assisted by a New Army Division, and a "tank," which waddled up the main street of the village, followed by the

cheering British troops. Unfortunately, the British right was held up before attaining its objectives and Lesbœufs and Morval remained in German hands. None the less, the British attack had carried some very important ground, and the "tanks" had done wonders.

In the meantime the French also had carried their objectives and were approaching Combles from the south. The British continued attacking and after much hard fighting Guedecourt was penetrated, but not held, and Lesbœufs and Morval fell to the British on September 25th. Guedecourt was captured on September 26th, and the French captured Fregicourt. Combles was then evacuated by the Germans.

By the evening of September 26th it looked as if the Entente Allies would be able to sweep clean through the remaining German defenses and reach the open country beyond. Unfortunately, the fair weather, which had so far favored the Allied attacks, gave place to torrents of rain. The whole Somme country became one impassable bog and supplies had to be brought up over broken roads and tracks which were the despair of British and French transport officers.

Fighting continued through October and into November, but little ground was gained. The Germans were given an opportunity to strengthen their last line of fortifications and to prepare new lines. But near Thiepval, where the first attack in July had broken down, three redoubts, the Stuff, the Zollern and the Schwaben, were attacked and captured. The first two of these were in British hands by the end of September, but fighting for the Schwaben continued until October 20th. The Germans made numerous counter attacks to regain the Schwaben, but were unsuccessful. In addition to these redoubts two trenches, called Stuff and Regina, were the scenes of heavy engagements,

but by the end of October these also had been lost by the Germans. In the taking of Regina Trench the Canadians played an important part.

#### Fourth Stage

The last stage of the Battle of the Somme began toward the middle of November. On the 11th of that month the British bombardment commenced against Serre and Beaumont Hamel and south to St. Pierre Divion. On the 13th the attack started, and after five days fighting, St. Pierre Divion, Beaumont Hamel and Beaucourt had been captured. Serre and Grandcourt held out. The last attack was on November 18th by the Canadians from Regina Trench against Grandcourt. The outskirts of the village were reached, but no further progress was made. It was the concluding action of the Battle of the Somme.

#### Results

The great offensive had accomplished its purpose. The German line had been pressed back and heavy casualties had been inflicted on the enemy. The German war machine had been taxed to the uttermost. The losses of the Entente Allies had been heavy, but they had not been in vain. The Germans had boasted that their defense systems could not be broken. They were broken, and German morale suffered. As Sir Douglas Haig put it in the concluding paragraphs of his dispatch:

"The enemy's power has not yet been broken, nor is it yet possible to form an estimate of the time the war may last before the objects for which the Allies are fighting have been attained. But the Somme battle has placed beyond doubt the ability of the Allies to gain these objects."

## CHAPTER VI

## GERMANY AGAINST THE WORLD

## I. THE BALKAN SITUATION—THE ROUMANIAN DEBACLE

**Roumania**

While the French and British were attacking on the Somme, stirring events were taking place in the Balkans. After much hesitation, Roumania, on August 27th, declared war against Austria-Hungary. Germany promptly declared war on Roumania on August 28th, and Bulgaria followed with a similar declaration on September 1st. It was evident that the Central Powers were quite prepared to deal with Roumania. That small country, which entered the war on the side of the Entente Allies in order to realize her national and territorial ambitions, was soon to feel the full force of the German "mailed fist," and to follow Belgium, Serbia and Montenegro into servitude.

Geographically, Roumania may be classed as a Balkan state. Politically and racially, the Roumanians have little in common with the Slavonic peoples of the Balkans. The Roumanian people are a mixed race, the descendants of the old Roman legionaires who occupied the ancient Roman province of Dacia, with an admixture of Slavonic elements as well. But it is the Roman rather than the Slav traits which are predominant. The Roumanian language is a Romance language, much more akin to Italian than to Russian. As in the case of Serbia, large numbers of Roumanians live under the domination of Austria-Hungary and,

just as the Serbians before the war longed for a Greater Serbia in which the Serbo-Croats of Austria-Hungary would form part, so the Roumanians dreamed of reuniting their fellow countrymen of Hungarian Transylvania with them to form a Greater Roumania. But in this Greater Roumania the Russian province of Bessarabia would also have a part.

The Second Balkan War of 1913 had resulted in the cession by Bulgaria to Roumania of a strip of land extending from the Black Sea to Turtukai and Salistria on the Lower Danube. Bulgaria wanted this territory back, and with it the Dobrudja, which had been given to Roumania in 1878 at the Treaty of Berlin, in return for Bessarabia. In case of war, Roumania could expect a Bulgarian attack on the Dobrudja and also along the Lower Danube. Unfortunately, the Roumanian General Staff seem to have made inadequate plans for staving off such an attack, and planned an aggressive campaign against Austria-Hungary in order to conquer Transylvania. It was a fatal error and largely contributed to the Roumanian debacle during the autumn of 1916.

The outbreak of war in 1914 found Roumania closely bound to the Triple Alliance. Since 1883 she had been very closely connected, politically and economically, with the German Empire. Her King Carol was a Hohenzollern, who had continually cultivated the friendship of the Kaiser. King Carol really favored intervention on the side of the Central Powers, but in that he could not obtain the support of the majority of the nation. Roumania, therefore, in August, 1914, declared herself neutral, closely following the example of Italy. During the next two years Roumanian feeling swayed to and fro, as the Central Powers and the Entente Allies alternately seemed to be victorious. The Prime Minister, Bratianu, took up a neutral attitude, but Take Jonescu, who was probably the leading Roumanian

statesman, favored intervention on the side of the Entente Allies.

King Carol died in November, 1914, and was succeeded by his nephew, Ferdinand, who did not possess the pro-German sympathies of his uncle. As a result, Roumania continued neutral, but gradually veered over more and more to the side of the Entente Allies. At length, in August, 1916, according to the report of General Polivanoff, dated December 20, 1917, and made public by the Bolsheviks, "a military and political agreement" was signed with Roumania by the Entente Allies, which promised Bukovina and all Transylvania to her in return for a declaration of war on Austria-Hungary. General Polivanoff's opinion, recorded after the event, was that the Entente Allies entirely overvalued Roumania's entry into the war, and there seems to have been a fear in Russia that a Roumanian victory would have been hostile to Russian interests. This probably explains why more Russian aid was not sent to Roumania and why that unfortunate country was practically allowed to play a "lone hand" against the Austro-German and Bulgarian forces.

### Greece

While Roumania was coming to a decision, interesting events were happening in Greece and on the Salonika Front. Greece was then playing a curious and inglorious role. The allied army, made up of French, British and Serbian troops, was encamped on Greek soil. The Greek army was mobilized, and one great section of the people, headed by M. Venizelos, favored immediate and active intervention on the side of the Entente Allies. The King, the Queen, and the Court were pro-German, and the Chief of Staff of the Greek army was doubtful as to the Entente Allies' chance of victory. German agents were busily engaged in Greece,

and the Greek Government was pursuing a policy of "peace at any price."

Such was the situation when, on May 26, 1916, Bulgarian troops occupied Fort Rupel, which is situated on Greek territory. There was a storm of popular protest, but the Greek Government did nothing. The Allied position at Salonika was now highly dangerous, with the Bulgarians in front of them and the Greeks in their rear. As a result a "pacific blockade" of Athens was begun by British war-ships.

On June 12th provocative incidents took place in Athens and the Entente Allies presented an ultimatum to the Greek Government demanding, among other things, demobilization of the Greek army, a general election, and a new "business Cabinet." It was hoped that a general election would put M. Venizelos in power.

But before any election could take place the Bulgarians, with German assistance, had begun an offensive on the Salonika Front. Its intention was evidently to forestall an Allied offensive on that front. On August 25th the outer forts of Kavalla, a Greek town defended by Greek troops, were occupied by the Bulgarians and on September 14th the invaders entered the town itself. Then occurred a strange incident. The Greek 4th Army Corps, with the exception of the 6th Division, surrendered to the enemy and were sent to Germany as "guests" of the German Government.

#### Uncertainty in Greece

This action of the 4th Corps left the position of Greece more than ever in doubt, and the French, British and Serbians were compelled to continue their campaign with the ever-present fear of a Greek attack in the rear or on the flank. None the less, they fought well and drove back the enemy. The Serbians, in September, began to advance

and on the 20th of that month crossed the frontier into their own country. Monastir was their objective and, after two months of fighting, it fell into Serbian hands on November 19th. The Serbians again had a foothold in their native land.

In the meantime a crisis was approaching in Greece. On August 30th a revolution broke out at Salonika and a Committee of National Defense was formed, with Colonel Zimbrakakis, an ardent supporter of Venizelos, at its head. At the same time a squadron of twenty-three Allied war-ships appeared off the Piraeus, the port of Athens, and demanded the arrest and deportation of Baron Schenk and other German agents. Incidents followed, and a body of Greek Reservists held a demonstration of protest in the garden of the French Embassy against the actions of the Entente Allies. The Greek Premier, M. Zaimis, resigned and the new premier was a supporter of the King. So affairs went on from bad to worse until French, British and Italian troops were landed at the Piraeus on December 1st, and bloodshed occurred. For several days a reign of terror, organized by the Royalists against the Venizelists, took place in Athens. On December 7th Entente Allied Governments established a strict blockade, and on December 14th presented an ultimatum demanding that the entire Greek army be withdrawn from Thessaly and a large portion sent to the Peloponnesus. On December 31st a second note demanded an apology from the Greek Government, also reparation for the outbreaks of December 1st and 2nd, and finally saluting of the British, French, Italian and Russian flags in a public square in Athens in the presence of the garrison and the Minister of War. Late in January, 1917, these demands, even the last, which seems at first sight rather pettish, but no doubt conveyed an acknowledgment of the superiority of the Entente Allies, were con-



plied with. But by that time the Austro-Germans and Bulgarians had overrun the bulk of Roumania and the situation on the Salonika Front was but little changed. King Constantine of Greece had played Germany's game most excellently.

#### Roumanian Campaign

The Roumanian campaign began on August 28, 1916, with the fairest hopes. On that day Roumanian troops crossed the Transylvanian border in no less than eighteen places. But, in doing so, the Roumanian leaders left a very exposed and imperfectly guarded flank in the Dobrudja and along the line of the Danube. Possibly, it was thought that all available Bulgarian troops were engaged against General Sarrail on the Salonika Front. Russian aid was also expected, and it was even hoped that the Bulgarians would not declare war on Roumania. But, whatever the reason, the Roumanian Army allowed itself to be led into a trap.

At first all went well. The Austro-Hungarian forces were everywhere driven back and by September 10th Hermannstadt was evacuated. In some places the invaders were fifty miles inside the Transylvania frontier. But the former Chief of the German General Staff, von Falkenhayn, who had taken command of the newly formed 9th Austrian Army, was preparing to strike an offensive blow. Another army under von Mackensen was being collected south of the Danube for an attack on the Dobrudja. This attack began on September 1st, while the Roumanians were gaily entering Transylvania, and it developed rapidly. Turtukai, on the south bank of the Danube near the Bulgarian border, on September 5th, fell into von Mackensen's hands along with 100 guns and one whole infantry division. Roumania was already beginning to pay the price for having left her flanks only weakly defended.

### The Downfall of Roumania

Von Mackensen steadily advanced and by September 16th had come into touch with the chief Roumanian force in the Dobrudja. Bitter fighting ensued, but for the moment the Roumanians were able to hold back the enemy. If the Roumanian commander had possessed sufficient reserves he might have carried out a successful counter-attack and even might have penetrated into Bulgaria. Unfortunately, he had not the troops and so was unable to take the initiative.

In Transylvania, in the meantime, the Roumanian advance had been checked. The First Roumanian Army was soon driven back at the Vulcan Pass and the Red Tower Pass (Rotherthurm Pass) was won by von Falkenhayn's troops on September 26th. The Roumanians were forced to retire from Hermannstadt and, although in the north the Fourth Roumanian Army achieved some success in central Transylvania, it was too late to check the oncoming Teutonic tide. Von Falkenhayn then set himself to force the Carpathian passes and to drive the Roumanians back into their own country. This he succeeded in doing, although the Roumanians put up a tremendous fight. By the close of October the Germans were well into Western Wallachia and preparing to advance farther.

Von Mackensen, on his part, had not been idle. The Tschernavoda-Constanza railway was cut on October 21st and Constanza captured the following day. The Tschernavoda railway bridge over the Danube was blown up by the Roumanians on October 25th. Fortunately for Roumania, Russian troops arrived in time to prevent the entire Dobrudja from being overrun.

The next move in the overthrow of Roumania was the crossing of the Danube by von Mackensen on November

26th. At the time the Roumanian armies were trying to hold the line of the Aluta River, a tributary of the Danube, which runs right across that part of Roumania from the Red Tower Pass until it reaches the Danube near Islaz. At Islaz part of von Mackensen's troops crossed. Von Mackensen was then able to turn the Roumanian left flank on the Aluta River.

Von Mackensen's crossing was the beginning of the end. After that the Roumanian campaign became a procession. Town after town fell into German hands. Bucharest, the capital, fell on December 5th. The Roumanian forces retired towards Moldavia, leaving the great oil fields to fall into the enemy's hands. But before they left they set fire to the wells and destroyed the machinery. Wallachia was now lost. All that the Roumanians could do was to make a stand in the northern province of Moldavia.

The Roumanian retreat continued and by the end of January the entire province of Wallachia and the whole of the Dobrudja were in possession of the Central Powers. Moldavia had been saved and Jassy was the capital of what remained of the country.

The downfall of Roumania showed conclusively that the striking force of the Central Empires was still overwhelming. Roumania had made great tactical mistakes, but what crushed her in the end was sheer force of numbers. Russian aid might easily have done much to save the situation, since Russia alone of the Entente Allies was so geographically situated as to be able to render assistance. But Russia was already on the brink of a precipice. On March 11, 1917, the Russian Revolution began, although for months before that there were mutterings of the coming storm. Roumania was left to accomplish her own destiny unaided by her Allies.

## II. "PEACE WITHOUT VICTORY"

One week after von Mackensen occupied Bucharest, the German Chancellor, von Bethmann-Hollweg, announced the willingness of the Central Empires to put forth peace proposals. The German War-Lords, having conquered the world, were now ready to give out the terms upon which they would graciously be pleased to make peace. At least such was the conclusion which the German Chancellor would seem to wish to convey. He sought to cast upon the Entente Allies the onus, not only of making war, but also of refusing peace. The following sentences from the Chancellor's speech to the Reichstag will make this clear:

"Gentlemen, in August, 1914, our enemies challenged the superiority of power in the world war. To-day we raise the question of peace, which is a question of humanity. We await the answer of our enemies with that serenity of mind which is guaranteed to us by our exterior and interior strength and by our clear conscience."

It was a clumsy maneuver and the so-called "peace proposals" were not here definitely stated. The whole Teutonic case was built up on the Teutonic War Map. The Central Empires held, as "pledges of victory," Belgium, part of Northern France, Poland, Serbia, Montenegro, over one-half of Roumania, and several provinces of Russia. These valuable regions the German warlords now sought to use as a basis for negotiation. Germany might "evacuate" Belgium, provided that unfortunate country remained under German economic control. Northern France, too, might be given up in return for a "free hand" in the East. But in the German proposal addressed to the American Chargé d'Affaires in Berlin for transmission to the Entente Allies, no definite peace terms were laid down. It did not suit the Central Powers to make plain their real intentions and to

show their hand. They merely gave out to the world sundry interesting phrases to the effect that "the respect for the rights of other nations" was not at all "incompatible with their own rights and legitimate interests" and that they did not "seek to crush or annihilate their adversaries." In fact, the whole document was a veiled threat to the Entente Allies, admonishing them to make peace before a worse fate befell them. Naturally, the Allies were not willing to make peace on such terms. Sir Arthur Conan Doyle voiced, unofficially, the sentiments of the Entente Peoples when he stated: "We want to know more about the terms, for without them the Imperial Chancellor's suggestion of peace is preposterous and ridiculous. We, too, are conscious of victory, and his boastings will be laughed at."

But while Germany was announcing her "victory" to the world and talking about "the glorious deeds of our armies" and the "gigantic advantages gained over adversaries superior in number and war material," economic conditions within her borders were steadily growing worse. The Berlin "Tagliche Rundschau" complained of the food scarcity and stated that, in Berlin, fish had become one of the most important foods; and that only smoked fish was available, and that, at six times the normal price. Bread supplies were also said to have been "failing constantly." This did not mean, of course, that Germany was on the verge of starvation, but it gave the lie to Bethmann-Hollweg's statement above quoted, in so far as it referred to the "interior strength" of Germany.

In a word, Germany was trying to make the best of a bad situation. She had won territory in Europe, but she had not defeated her enemies. She had inflicted numerous heavy blows upon them, but had, herself, also suffered heavy reverses. All her colonies had been taken from her,

with the exception of East Africa, which was being lost piecemeal. Togoland had been captured by the Entente Allies in August, 1914. German New Guinea, Samoa and the Bismarck Archipelago had all fallen into British hands before the end of September, 1914. Southwest Africa was captured by General Botha in July, 1915. The Cameroons held out until February, 1916, and then surrendered to a combined French and British force. The fall of Kiao-Chau to the Japanese in November, 1914, has already been recorded in these pages. The German Overseas Empire had ceased to exist, except for those portions of German East Africa which had not yet been conquered.

It was the same with German sea-borne commerce. The U-boat "Deutschland," flying the flag of the German mercantile marine, arrived at an American port in July, 1916, and returned again in November. But such a spectacular maneuver did not mean much. The British fleet was ever on the watch and the "Bremen," the sister U-boat of the "Deutschland," failed to arrive in American waters. The great German Atlantic liners were still reposing in their docks. It was easy for the German warlords to demand "freedom of the seas," but they could not enforce their demands. The seas remained free for the Entente Allies, and for the neutral nations provided that they did not trade with the Central Powers. The Teutonic War Map was a map of Europe. The war map of the Entente Allies was the map of the world.

As might be expected, the German "peace proposals" met with critical distrust in neutral nations and were utterly repudiated by the Entente Allies. All eyes were turned toward the United States of America, then the leading neutral country, to see what role President Wilson would play. In his election campaign of 1916, President Wilson had made it clear that he wished, if possible, to keep the

United States from joining in the war as a belligerent, but that he also favored an international "League to Enforce Peace." It remained to be seen whether President Wilson would play the German's game for them by supporting the Teutonic "peace proposals," or whether he would take a stand of his own.

#### President Wilson's Notes

The world had not long to wait. On December 18, 1916, President Wilson addressed a note to all the belligerents asking them to state their aims. In his note he credited both sides with possessing the same aims and called upon each side to prove its sincerity. It was a skillful move, but one at first misunderstood, not only among the peoples of the Entente Allies, but also in the United States. Frank H. Simonds, in the "New York Tribune," denounced President Wilson for playing Germany's game and stated that, "In the eyes of Europe today the United States is no longer a nation dedicated to the championship of noble principles and committed to the support of a just peace. Today and henceforth, we have become the agents and purveyors of a German peace."

Such criticism, however, was not just, although it obtained support at the time. President Wilson was preparing the American nation for the possibility of a war with Germany and he sought to give the people of the United States an opportunity to hear both sides state their case. He also wished to know "the terms upon which the war might be concluded and the arrangements which would be deemed satisfactory as a guarantee against its renewal or the kindling of any similar conflict in the future." \* \* \* Now, this last was exactly the aim for which the Entente Allies were fighting. This was to be "war to end war," and the peace terms must contain provisions which

would make it impossible for any nation or set of nations to set the whole world once again in a blaze. On the other hand, the Central Powers, however much they might protest to the contrary, did not intend to make peace upon such terms. Their Teutonic peace was to be the basis for further wars of aggression. It was long ago said that "War is the national industry of Prussia," and Prussia was the backbone of the Central Empires.

#### Allies Reply to Wilson's Note

The Allied Governments of Russia, France, Great Britain, Japan, Italy, Serbia, Belgium, Montenegro, Portugal, and Roumania, on December 30, 1916, replied to the German note of December 12th. On January 10, 1917, a reply was also given to President Wilson's note of December 18, 1916. These two statements of the objects of the Entente Allies and their determination not to accept a "German peace" are very clear and enlightening. The German note was characterized as a "sham proposal, lacking all substance and precision," and stigmatized as "less an offer of peace than a war maneuver." The reply to President Wilson was in a very different tenor. The Allied Governments in their note stated "that they associate themselves whole-heartedly with the plan of creating a League of the Nations to insure peace and justice throughout the world." Any similarity of aims between the two belligerent groups was emphatically denied and reference was made to the German atrocities in Belgium and Serbia, the massacre of the Armenians, Zeppelin raids over open towns, and the destruction of passenger steamers and merchantmen by the German U-boats; and, also, to the most flagrant of the German judicial murders, the executions of Miss Cavell and Captain Fryatt. Finally, the determination of the Entente Allies was laid down to restore and recompense Belgium, Serbia, Montenegro, and



the invaded territories in France, Russia, and Roumania, and to reorganize Europe on a basis of "respect for nationalities" and "the right to full security and liberty of economic development possessed by all peoples, small and great."

#### **Belgium's Separate Reply**

Belgium sent a separate reply to President Wilson in addition to her part in the joint note from the Entente Allies. In that note it was pointed out most pathetically that: "Unlike the Central Powers, Belgium has never had any ideas of conquest," and that "Previous to the German ultimatum, Belgium only desired to live on good terms with all her neighbors." A protest was also recorded against the deportation of Belgian civilians by the German authorities, and the activities of the American Commission for Relief in Belgium were most highly praised.

#### **German Address No Reply to Wilson**

The German Government sent no reply to President Wilson, but on January 11, 1917, issued a note to neutrals, which sought to strengthen the German case by heaping abuse on the Entente Allies. It is noteworthy that this note was not sent to President Wilson, but was scattered abroad for the consumption of all the neutral nations. If Germany and the Central Empires had really desired peace, an unequalled opportunity had been given them. They ignored it and indulged in further "camouflage."

#### **President Wilson Makes Aims Clear.**

On January 22, 1917, President Wilson made a further statement of his aims, this time before the Senate, in which he made use of the phrase "peace without victory." This "peace without victory" was not to be dictated by a victor to the vanquished, but was to be based on the rights

of the peoples of the world to govern themselves. The President then proposed "that the nations should with one accord adopt the doctrine of President Munroe as the doctrine of the world; that no nation should seek to extend its policy over any other nation or people, but that every people should be left free to determine its own policy, its own way of development, unhindered, unthreatened, unafraid, the little along with the great and powerful." To attain this ideal, the "freedom of the seas" in its truest sense is necessary. Great naval and military armaments should cease, and peace should be "made secure by the organized major force of mankind."

It was a great ideal of co-operation among nations and looked forward to "the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world." Unfortunately, it was impossible of realization so long as the Central Powers were bent on conquest and annexation.

### III. THE THIRD WINTER ON THE WESTERN FRONT.

#### French Counter Attack

While the First Battle of the Somme was still in progress, the French delivered a great assault at Verdun. Towards the end of October all was in readiness for this counter stroke, and on the 21st of that month the artillery preparation began. Three days later the French infantry went forward and won their objectives. Fort Douaumont was rewon on October 25th, and Fort Vaux followed on November 2nd. By the close of November 3rd the French lines stood once again where they had been on February 26, 1916, five days after the attack of the Crown Prince had begun. In ten days the French under General Mangin had recovered what it took the Germans eight months to win.

But the French plans went further. All the forts of Verdun were now once again in French hands, but the Ger-

mans held strong commanding positions to the east of the Meuse. The next great attack was made on December 15th and resulted in the recapture of several important positions including Pepper Hill, Louvemont village, and the farm of Les Chambrettes. The next day the attack was renewed with equal success. The last attack was on December 18th, when a Zouave battalion regained part of the ruins of Les Chambrettes farm, which had been lost during a German counter attack.

The French attack at Verdun was a very striking answer to Germany's peace maneuvers. The Germans might claim that they were everywhere victorious, but there was little on the Western Front during the autumn of 1916, and the winter of 1916-17 to substantiate that claim.

#### On the British Front

On the British Front, fighting continued throughout the winter. Sir Douglas Haig was determined, "so far as circumstances and the weather would permit," not to allow the Germans any peace. At the conclusion of the Battle of the Somme several important positions still remained in German hands. Haig, therefore, set himself to drive the enemy from these points of vantage. This was done by a series of small offensives.

The first of these was on January 11, 1917, against the Beaumont Hamel Spur, and was completely successful. The next was the capture of Grandcourt on February 10th, after a week of fighting. After the capture of Grandcourt, a movement was made against Miraumont and Serre which, after considerable fighting, were found by British patrols on February 24th to have been evacuated by the Germans. Gommecourt fell on February 27th, and Ires was captured on March 10th. The British were steadily drawing near Bapaume.

Then occurred the German withdrawal to the so-called "Hindenburg Line," an action which left Bapaume and Peronne undefended. These towns were occupied by the British on March 17th and 18th and an advance was made against the new German line. But the "Hindenburg Line" was well defended and British progress became slower. On April 1st and 2nd the Germans were driven back to within two miles of St. Quentin. But St. Quentin did not fall and Cambrai was well behind the new German line.

#### Vimy Ridge

On April 9th, the British spring offensive began, and the Canadians covered themselves with glory by capturing Vimy Ridge. This gave the British a height of land and vantage point which they had long coveted. But by that time Germany had thrown down the gauntlet to America by proclaiming "unrestricted submarine warfare" and the United States had entered the war as a belligerent.

#### IV. "UNRESTRICTED SUBMARINE WARFARE" PRESIDENT WILSON'S STAND

In his speech of December 12, 1916, von Bethmann-Hollweg referred to the "heroic deeds" of the German submarines and added that "the spectre of famine, which our enemies intended to appear before us, now pursues them without mercy." This was, of course, not an entirely accurate statement, since the food situation in Germany was, from all accounts, more serious than it was in either France or Great Britain, but it is intensely interesting as foreshadowing the next German move, the declaration of "unrestricted submarine warfare" at the end of January, 1917.

This declaration on Germany's part was a result of the victory of von Tirpitz and the supporters of "ruthlessness" over the "moderate" party to which the Chancellor von

Bethmann-Hollweg belonged. Germany needed a victory badly and no victory could be complete so long as the British fleet remained in control of the seas. The Battle of Jutland had showed that the British Grand Fleet was quite able to protect itself. The only alternative remaining was "ruthless" submarine warfare. If a complete submarine blockade of the British Isles and France could be inaugurated, and if all ships, neutral as well as hostile, could be sunk at sight, then Great Britain and France might be starved out. Such a course might involve trouble with the United States and other neutrals, but Germany was prepared for that. The Kaiser had told Ambassador Gerard in an interview on October 22, 1915, that he would "stand no nonsense from America," and that "America had better look out after this war."

#### Germany's Pledge

It will be remembered that May 4, 1916, the German Government had given its pledge to the United States Government that "merchant ships, both within and without the area declared a naval war zone, shall not be sunk without warning and without saving human lives, unless the ship attempt to escape or offers resistance." This pledge, given after the sinking of the "Sussex," the German Government now was prepared to break.

#### Announcement of Unrestricted Submarine Warfare

On the last day of January, 1917, the German Ambassador at Washington presented a note to Mr. Lansing, the American Secretary of State, in which the German Government announced its policy of "unrestricted submarine warfare." On the same day, the Imperial Chancellor, von Bethmann-Hollweg, announced the new policy of the government to the Reichstag. In the course of his speech he made the following statements: "When the most ruthless

methods are considered the best calculated to lead us to victory and to swift victory—they must be employed. The moment has now arrived. Last August the time was not yet ripe, but today the moment has come when, with the greatest prospect of success, we can undertake this enterprise."

The gauntlet was flung down to America, and the United States was not slow in accepting the challenge. Diplomatic relations with Germany were broken off and Count Bernstorff received his passports on February 3, 1917.

#### **President Wilson's Address to Congress**

On the same day that Count Bernstorff received his passports, President Wilson appeared before both Houses of Congress assembled in joint session and delivered an historic address. He did not propose war against Germany, and attempted to separate the German people from the German Government. With the former, the people of the United States had no quarrel. It was evidently his hope that the German Government would not drive the United States to a declaration of war. This hope eventually proved to be groundless, but, for the time being, the Germans committed no "overt act" which would inevitably lead to an outbreak of hostilities.

#### **Next Steps Toward War by United States**

On February 26th a further step towards war was taken by the United States when President Wilson asked for a declaration of "armed neutrality." By that time two American vessels had been sunk by German submarines. On March 12th, orders were issued to place armed guards on American merchant ships. From that to a declaration of war was only a short step. However, war was not declared for nearly two months.

### Criticism of President Wilson

President Wilson had to face considerable criticism both at home and abroad for not issuing a declaration of war sooner than he did. It should be remembered that the President of the United States cannot of his own initiative declare war. The declaration of war of April 6, 1917, was passed by both Houses of Congress. The whole of the American Republic was not ready to go to war, even as late as the declaration of "armed neutrality." Before President Wilson again addressed Congress on April 2nd, the famous "Zimmermann note," which sought to bring Mexico into the war on the side of the Central Powers in return for the states of New Mexico, Texas and Arizona, had been made public. This prepared the way for a declaration of war.

### V. THE SINAI PENINSULA AND THE FALL OF BAGDAD

While the United States was hovering on the brink of war, British arms in Asia and Africa were winning successes. The Sinai Peninsula was cleared of the Turks, and in Mesopotamia General Maude captured Bagdad. The former gave the British a base of operations against Palestine, and eventually led to the capture of Jerusalem on December 8, 1917. The latter not only nullified the effects of the British surrender of Kut-el-Amara, but also gave the death blow to German schemes in Mesopotamia. Bagdad, the terminus selected for the great Berlin-Bagdad Railway, was lost to the Turkish Empire, and the Union Jack floated over the home of the Caliphs.

#### The Sinai Peninsula

The clearing of the Sinai Peninsula occurred after a long period of rather tedious defensive operations undertaken along the eastern Egyptian frontier, following the entrance of Turkey into the war in November, 1914. It will

be recalled that a Turkish attack on the Suez Canal was beaten back in February, 1915. After that, there was no event of importance on the eastern Egyptian frontier for months. But on the western frontier of Egypt in December, 1915, and January, 1916, the Bedouins of the Libyan Desert tried to make a raid upon the British forces in Western Egypt and were defeated. The chief Turkish attack, however, came in August, 1916, when the German general, von Kressenstein, led a force of Turks against the British positions east of the Suez Canal. A battle was fought near Romani on August 4th and resulted in a complete Turkish defeat.

This gave the British an opportunity to carry the war into Turkish territory. This they were more inclined to do on account of an unlooked for event which had occurred in June, nearly two months before the Turkish defeat at Romani. The Grand Sherif of Mecca declared his independence of Constantinople and began a revolt in Southern Arabia. The two most holy cities of the Mohammedan world, Mecca and Medina, were soon in his hands and the German bubble of a great Pan-Islamic federation under the nominal leadership of the Turkish Sultan, but the real leadership of the German Kaiser, was broken. The Turkish Empire was rapidly disintegrating.

In December, 1916, the British advance in the Sinai Peninsula was made. El Arish was evacuated by the Turks without a struggle. A battle was fought at Magdaba which was captured on December 23rd. On January 9th, Rafa, which is situated a few miles within the frontier of Egypt and Syria, was occupied and the Sinai Peninsula was once more in British hands.

In the month of February, 1917, the Bedouins were driven out of the Siwa Oasis in western Egypt. This put an end to all danger to Egypt from the west.



### Advance on Bagdad

In the meantime, Sir Stanley Maude had taken command of the Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force. Great preparations had been made for an attack on Bagdad, and the British then held a line near Kut-el-Amara. The campaign began on December 12, 1916, and progressed rather slowly for some weeks. The difficulties confronting General Maude were great. The chief Turkish defenses were the position of Sanna-i-Yat on the left or eastern bank of the Tigris, and the line of the Hai, a tributary of the Tigris, which runs in on the western side at Kut-el-Amara. The Sanna-i-Yat position, as well as the floods of the Tigris, had prevented the British relieving column from bringing aid to General Townshend when he was besieged in Kut-el-Amara, and this position was still a great obstacle to any British advance.

### Sanna-i-Yat

General Maude's plan was to proceed along the western or right bank of the Tigris and capture the Hai position. Then it would be possible to carry the Sanna-i-Yat fortifications and force the surrender of Kut-el-Amara. This plan was carried out, but it took time. The Hai line was captured on December 13th and 14th, and by December 18th Turkish communications on the right bank were cut between Kut-el-Amara and the Khadairi Bend, which is situated about five miles down stream from Kut. During January the Khadairi Bend was cleared of Turks, and in February the Wahra Bend above Kut was attacked. This bend was captured on February 16th, which meant that the Turks had lost the right bank of the Tigris. The next problem was to carry Sanna-i-Yat.

The attack on Sanna-i-Yat began on February 17th and continued until February 24th, when the sixth enemy line

was taken. On February 23rd, the Tigris was crossed at the Shumran Bend to the north of Kut and, on the 24th, the British were advancing on Kut from both sides. But the Turks did not wait for them; they evacuated the town and retired toward Bagdad. The same day the British entered the town which General Townshend had so bravely and hopelessly defended.

#### Capture of Bagdad

Kut-el-Amara was the key to Bagdad and, after its fall, General Maude's advance was rapid. The Turks attempted to make a stand at Diala, south of Bagdad, but were driven back after some fighting. British troops entered Bagdad on March 11, 1917.

The fall of Bagdad will be remembered as one of the chief incidents of the war. It restored British prestige in the East which had suffered severely from the capture of Kut-el-Amara and the disasters at Gallipoli. It put an end to Teutonic and Pan-Islamic dreams in Mesopotamia and wrenched another of the chief cities of the Mohammedan world away from the German controlled government of Constantinople. Above all, it demonstrated once again that the British peoples will not readily accept a defeat but will go on doggedly until defeat is turned into victory.

#### VI. THE OUTBREAK OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

The day that Bagdad fell the Russian Revolution was beginning. The next day the Provisional Government was set up, and on March 15th Czar Nicholas signed his abdication. It was all so sudden that the world at large had hardly realized what was happening when the news came that the dynasty of the Romanoffs had fallen.

But, like most striking and dramatic episodes of history, the Russian Revolution of March, 1917, was really the re-

sult of a long and tortuous series of events. Ever since the Russian defeat in the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) and the summoning of the first Duma, or parliament, in 1906, there had been constant demands in Russia for government by the people. The events of the great war had brought this discontent to a head. Russia had stood together in defeat only to find that when victories came, there was at the head of the government of the country a body of men whom the nation could not trust. The administrative machine was controlled by the court circle, and "dark forces" were hinted at which were leading the country to ruin.

The situation in Russia was roughly parallel to that in France before the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789. There was, however, this difference, that Russia was engaged in the greatest war in history, while France in 1789 was at peace with the world. In both cases it was the Court against the nation, and the unpopularity of the Court and the inefficiency of the royal ministers did much to produce the outbreak. The soundest elements in Russia, as in France, were on the side of the Revolution, but in both cases the revolutionary movement soon passed out of the control of the more moderate elements. In each case the Revolution had to run its course.

#### Gregory Rasputin Assassinated

The first act provoking the Russian Revolution occurred on December 29, 1916, when Gregory Rasputin was assassinated by several members of the Russian aristocracy. Rasputin, who was a most disreputable character, was the chief of the "dark forces" who were at the time ruling Russia. An uneducated peasant, with a certain personal magnetism and mystical religious powers which illy agreed with his depraved life, he had gained complete control of the Imperial Family. He has been called the "chief medicine man to a

superstitious Court." His political influence was unbounded and he was as corrupt as he was powerful. He was hated by the Russian nobility and was finally done to death by them.

### The Duma Postponed

Alarmed by the death of their favorite, the Russian Court attempted to strike at the liberal elements in the country. The Duma which should have met on January 25, 1917, was postponed for a month, and the general congress of the Union of the Towns and Zemstvos (or county councils) was forbidden. This Union of the Towns and Zemstvos had been throughout the war one of the most valuable agents for good government in Russia and to forbid its general congress was a blow at popular liberty. The censorship was drawn tighter and machine guns were mounted on the roofs of buildings in Petrograd in order to repel any popular movement.

The chief in this reactionary movement was Alexander Protopopov. Protopopov had originally been a Liberal, but had gone over to the reactionary side, and had been much under the influence of Rasputin. After Rasputin's death he became the leader of the Court party and was bitterly hated by the Russian people. It has been suggested that he was mentally unhinged. At any rate he seems to have gone by the title of the "Mad Minister."

The Duma met on February 27, 1917. Nothing occurred which could awake the suspicion of the reactionaries. There was an attack on Protopopov by Purishkevitch, an extreme Conservative, but it could not rival Miliukov's attack on Sturmer on November 14, 1916, during the previous session of the Duma, an attack which had caused the fall of that minister. It seemed as if absolutism had triumphed once more. There was no organized opposition ready to dispute with the government for the control of the situation.

### Food Situation Serious

But the quiescence of the Duma was the calm before the storm. Early in March the food situation in Petrograd became serious and crowds began to parade the streets. The soldiers of the Petrograd garrison were soon seen to be in sympathy with the populace and were ready in case of emergency to make common cause with them. But no clash between the populace and the Government took place until March 11th. On that day the new military governor of Petrograd, General Khabalov, announced that the police had orders to disperse the crowd, and the Nevski Prospect, the chief thoroughfare of Petrograd, was put under military guard. Some firing occurred and one company of the Pavlovsk Regiment mutinied and refused to fire on the people.

### Russian Revolution

The next day, March 12, 1917, the revolution broke out. Several regiments mutinied and shot their officers. Then the Law Courts were attacked and set on fire. In the afternoon the Russian Bastille, the great fortress of Saints Peter and Paul, fell into the hands of the Revolutionaries. The chief office of the secret police was raided and its papers were burned in the street. The old regime had fallen and the Revolution held sway.

### Provisional Government

The Duma was still sitting and from its members were formed a Provisional Government. The chief among those selected to hold office were Prince Lvov, Miliukov and Kerensky. Outside the walls of the Duma another committee was being formed by the soldiers and workingmen. An attempt had to be made to combine these two forces, or else by splitting up into hostile factions, the Russian Revolution might fail to achieve its purpose.

### Kerensky

It was here that Kerensky did good work. He was the leader of the so-called "Revolutionary Socialists" and became the link between the Duma and the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates, or "Soviet," which represented the more radical elements in the Revolution. For the time being a working agreement between these two bodies seemed possible.

### Czar Nicholas Abdicates

On March 15th Czar Nicholas abdicated in favor of his brother the Grand Duke Michael. But the Grand Duke was not destined to sit on the throne of Russia. When Guchkov, who had been sent by the Duma to receive the Czar's abdication, returned to Petrograd from Pskov, where the abdication had taken place, he found a constitutional crisis in progress. The Moderates, including the bulk of the Provisional Government of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates demanded a republic. A new Ministry was announced on March 15th, the day of the Czar's abdication, made up of members of the moderate and extreme parties. But a split occurred between the Moderate and the "Soviet" when it was announced by Miliukov that Grand Duke Michael would be Regent. This the "Soviet" would not accept.

Fortunately, Kerensky was able to appease the "Soviet" and the new regime entered upon office. But Grand Duke Michael did not become Regent. On March 16th he renounced his claim to power and accepted the new Provisional Government. The triumph of the Revolution was now apparently complete.

There was, unhappily, much difference between the appearance and the reality. The Provisional Government of March 15th had to show itself able to control the situation.

It was largely composed of Moderates and it had to appease the radical elements. Among the radicals there was a small group which made up in agitation and organization for any weakness in numbers. These men were the Bolsheviks and were destined to play a great part in the later stages of the Revolution. The leader of the Bolsheviks was Lenine and he soon brought himself and his party to the front. The creed of the Bolsheviks was a form of International Socialism, which taught the "class war" and the triumph of the "proletariat" or working classes over the "bourgeoisie" or the middle classes. To the Bolsheviks the "bourgeoisie," the intellectuals, and even the peasants were enemies. They had no great national feelings, but dreamed of an international state in which the Bolsheviks would be the rulers and all other classes the servants. The exact relation existing between the German Government and the leaders of the Bolsheviks, especially Lenine and Trotsky, were not so apparent at the outbreak of the Russian Revolution as they afterward became.

Against the Bolsheviks were placed the Mensheviks, whose views were far more temperate than those of the followers of Lenine. They were Socialists, but they were nationalists as well. They obtained the support of the great majority of the Russian Social Democrats. Unfortunately they were not able to overcome the Bolsheviks.

Thus the problems confronting the Provisional Government were not light. The radical elements were clamoring for a share in the government, and a great agrarian revolution was beginning. The peasants were starting to take possession of the land and the lot of the landowners was not easy. Above all, the army was becoming disaffected. The agents of the Council of Workmen and Soldiers had begun to "democratize" the Russian soldiers. The chief result was the gradual breaking down of discipline. The

army was the nation's only defense against the Central Powers and its "democratization" left the way open to the enemy.

#### VII. THE UNITED STATES DECLARES WAR ON GERMANY

In his speech before Congress on April 2, 1917, President Wilson made reference to the "wonderful and heartening things that have been happening within the last few weeks in Russia." It was thus that the beginning of the Russian Revolution was regarded by the world at large. The beginning was, unhappily, not the whole of the revolutionary movement. None the less, it had its influence upon the United States of America when that country was preparing to declare war upon Germany. Russia had been the home of autocracy and despotism, and only when the rule of the Czars had ceased could the American democracy extend a hand of greeting to the new Russian democracy. At least so it seemed when President Wilson delivered his "War Message."

During March, 1917, it became more evident that the United States could not long preserve its "armed neutrality." Five more American vessels were sunk between March 16th and April 1st. It was evident that the German Government had no intention of abandoning its "ruthless submarine policy." There was only one thing left for the United States to do and that was to declare war on the German Empire.

#### President Wilson's War Message

On April 2nd President Wilson appeared before Congress and delivered his "War Message." In dignified and moderate language he recalled to his hearers the steps by which diplomatic relations with the German Government had been severed, and how the German submarines had plied



their nefarious trade. "Vessels of every kind," he said, "whatever their flag, their character, their cargo, their destination, their errand, have been ruthlessly sent to the bottom without warning and without thought of help or mercy for those on board, the vessels of friendly neutrals along with those of belligerents." He went on to recount how that hospital ships and Belgian Relief ships had also been sunk, and referred to the "wanton and wholesale destruction of the lives of non-combatants, men, women and children." He stigmatized the German submarine warfare as a "warfare against mankind."

Armed neutrality he admitted to be impracticable, and asked for a declaration of war against the Imperial German Government. The President made it clear that the United States would not enter the war from any selfish motives, but "to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world as against selfish and autocratic power, and to set up among the really free and self-governed peoples of the world such a concert of purpose and of action as will henceforth insure the observance of those principles."

The President drew a distinction between the German Government and the German people. He stated that the United States had no quarrel with the German people, who were mere pawns in the game.

The keynote of the speech was struck in the phrase: "The world must be made safe for democracy." It was in defense of democracy in its truest sense that the United States was entering upon the war. In words similar to those of Lincoln's Second Inaugural Address of 1865, the President concluded:

"It is a fearful thing to lead this great, peaceful people into war, into the most terrible and disastrous of all wars; civilization itself seeming to be in the balance.

"But the right is more precious than peace, and we shall fight for the things which we have always carried nearest our hearts—for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own governments, for the rights and liberties of small nations, for a universal dominion of right by such a concert of free people as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free.

"To such a task we can dedicate our lives and our fortunes, everything that we are and everything that we have, with the pride of those who know that the day has come when America is privileged to spend her blood and her might for the principles that gave her birth and the peace which she has treasured.

"God helping her, she can do no other."

After President Wilson's message the declaration of war was largely a mere matter of form. The nation was behind the President. On April 4th the Senate passed the war resolutions by a vote of 82 to 6. In the House of Representatives a debate took place in which some opposition to the declaration of war was raised, but the motion was carried on April 6th by 373 votes to 50. From that date the United States was at war with Germany.

#### WILSON'S WATCHWORD

##### **"The World Must Be Made Safe for Democracy"**

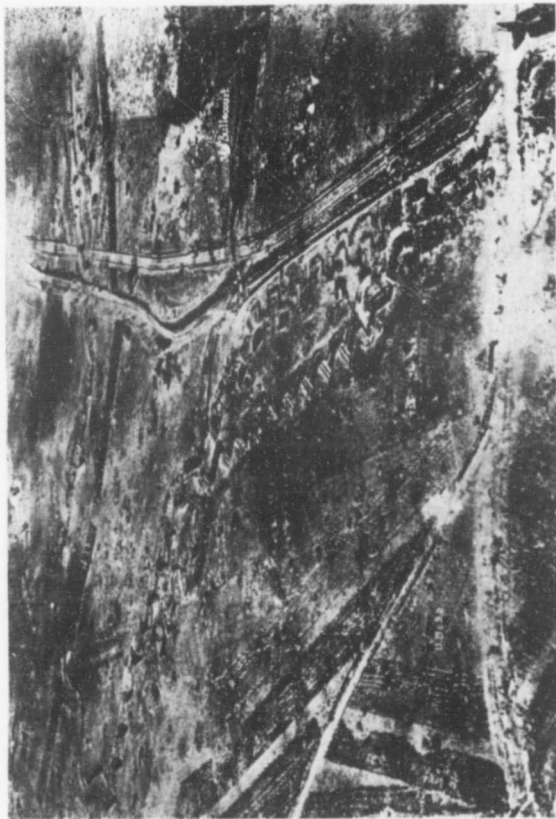
President Wilson gave to the Entente Allies a new watchword in his speech of April 2, 1917. It will live in history as the embodiment of a great ideal. Already it has taken its place beside Lincoln's immortal "government of the people, for the people and by the people." It shows the growth of a true spirit of internationalism and cosmopolitanism. When the peoples of the world are free to rule themselves, then, and then alone, can there be a chance for

universal peace. So long as the ruling caste of any country, be it militarist, mercantilist, capitalist, or proletarian, can force its will upon the rest of the inhabitants of that country and cause them to engage in war against their neighbors, the whole world will be divided into hostile camps. Only by co-operation among nations can peace be secured. Such co-operation is impossible while one nation or series of nations piles up armaments and cherishes designs of world power.



CANADIANS ADVANCE THROUGH BARRAGE FIRE.

This remarkable photograph actually shows Canadians passing through the German barrage fire during the advance at Arras. It was this fearless spirit in reaching their goal, even through fire and flame, that brought the Allied armies past the Hindenburg line.



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**THE HINDENBURG LINE.**

This photograph shows a portion of the famous Hindenburg line, giving a glimpse of the complex and intricate network of trenches, communication lines, and barbed wire in front of it and reserve and communication trenches in the rear.

## CHAPTER VII

## THE STIRRING EVENTS OF 1917

With the Germans firmly settled on the Hindenburg line the situation again became a deadlock. Apparently, for the time being, this well suited the German purpose, but neither Field Marshal Haig nor the French High Command purposed to allow the enemy to rest in peace. The Germans had proclaimed the abandonment of the Somme battlefields a great strategic victory, and later events gave some color of truth to this claim. But from the Allied viewpoint it was a confession of defeat—of inability to hold against a determined offensive. It had nullified the huge preparations of the British for a resumption of the Somme attack, but if a decision was to be had along the Western front in 1917, the Allied commanders intended to obtain it. From time immemorial military strategy had been built upon the theory of the superiority of defense over attack, but as the Allies gained in experience and advanced in appreciation of the fact that modern warfare is largely a matter of artillery, the disadvantages of the attack gradually were lessened.

**The Battle of the Chemin des Dames**

This was demonstrated in the first big battle of the year, when, on May 5th, the French opened a great attack on the Chemin des Dames, the historic highway which tops the ridge from near Laon toward Rheims. Naturally a strong military position, the Germans had strengthened its defenses until they believed it was impregnable to direct assault. They had the additional advantage of observation in being able from the heights to detect any movement on the part of the Allies against that front. Nevertheless, under the eyes of the Germans, the French concentrated on the front of the Chemin des Dames the greatest mass of

artillery that they had used in any attack up to that time. Beginning before daylight the morning of May 5th, the French opened a terrific and smothering fire of high explosive, gas and shrapnel against the trenches, fortified caverns and redoubts covering the heights, which lasted several hours. At the signal, the infantry dashed forward and in fighting against great odds, with a dash and gallantry rarely equaled in the war, charged up the slopes and drove the enemy back in confusion. Within two days the whole ridge was in the hands of the French and there was evidence that the German defeat was turning into a rout. Indeed, it has been asserted the French were about to accomplish a break through the enemy line. As might be expected, the victors had paid dearly for their success, but whether too dearly is a question over which there was a great difference of opinion. Nevertheless, the battle was halted suddenly at the height of the French success, a reorganization of the French Command followed and there was a controversy over the battle, which lasted several months. The French settled down upon their hard-won ground and for the remainder of the year French operations were confined to small fighting.

#### Ypres Front, June 7th

In the meantime, however, Field Marshal Haig kept the Germans busy with raids and feints along the lines from Lens to Cambrai, while he prepared for a new attack. The Field Marshal's plans were developed when, on the morning of June 7th, he opened a new campaign on the Ypres front, designed, at its maximum result, to drive the Germans back from the Belgian coast and thus end the submarine activity centering at Ostend and Zeebrugge. A secondary purpose was to make Zeebrugge available as a supply base for the British army in Belgium.

The battle opened with one of the most spectacular operations of the war and was, to the fortunate few who witnessed it, one of the most awe-inspiring sights. From early in the war the Germans had held the Messines ridge, a height running southwest from Ypres several miles. In the flat Flanders plain this height gave the Germans an observation post which dominated many miles of the British line. Its capture was necessary to British success in the contemplated drive, but a direct frontal attack would be very costly. To avoid the necessity for this sacrifice another plan was determined upon. For months British engineers had been stealthily working at night, honeycombing the base of the ridge with galleries and chambers into which were packed, finally, more than a million pounds of dynamite. Dawn came the morning of June 7th with a soft warm glow in the east. On both sides the usual artillery firing had died down and a peaceful quiet had settled over the countryside. And then the whole scene changed. The earth rocked and a rumbling roar like the passage of a train through a tunnel was followed by a mighty blast like the eruption of a volcano which seemed to lift the ridge from its base and covered it with sheets of flame. The German trenches were obliterated, their garrisons swallowed up in the craters and abysses which seamed what was left of the ridge. At that instant the British guns turned loose a withering barrage upon the German back areas, while the British infantry surged forward to the summit of the ridge, and dug in without opposition. Probably no great victory of the war was won so cheaply on the part of the attacking party nor attended with greater loss of life in proportion to the defending force. Unfortunately for the Allies, such opportunities were too few.

In secure possession now of the dominating heights at Ypres, Field Marshal Haig promptly launched a series of attacks which lasted through the summer and early autumn,

and shoved the Germans slowly off the high ground east of Ypres and left them for the winter holding the outer edge of a dangerous salient extending from Dixmude in a semi-circle to the Lys River. If the gain of ground was small it was important, and it was made against terrific odds. Almost continuous rain converted the battlefield into a quagmire in which the attackers often, while up to their waists in mud and water, fought the enemy. Probably no more arduous campaign was fought during the war, and it established the staying qualities of the new British army as no other fighting had. It gave new confidence to the armies, and to the Empire. The Dominions, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, whose soldiers had fought shoulder to shoulder with their brothers from Great Britain, were justly proud of their gallant sons.

#### The "Tanks" at Cambrai

In the battles which had followed their initial appearance at Courcellette in the Somme battles of 1916, the "tanks" played an important and increasing part. As yet, however, they were still in the experimental stage, and the Germans, while clumsily imitating them, professed to hold the iron monsters in contempt. General Sir Julian Byng, commanding the British armies in front of Cambrai, was a strong believer in the possibilities of the "tank" and determined to put the new weapon to a test which would decide once for all whether they were to be reckoned with in future operations. Cambrai was one of the chief German strongholds and an important supply base for the Western front. Its defenses were strongly held and to a great depth. General Byng planned an attack against these defenses, and the tank was to play the leading part. Dozens of the big engines of destruction, mounting machine guns and small



rapid-fire cannon, were concentrated behind the British lines, and on the morning of November 30th, without the usual blast of artillery fire, they surged forward, in droves, waddling through the German wire and across the German trenches, clattering along like so many ambulating boiler shops, spitting fire from their machine guns as they raked the German trenches or poured a hail of bullets into the fleeing ranks of the enemy.

Behind the tanks the infantry and cavalry swept forward, dispersing the enemy that the tanks had left behind and driving them into a headlong rout up to the very gates of Cambrai. At one point the cavalry and infantry, sweeping ahead of the tanks, even penetrated the last German defense line. The tank was no longer an experiment. It had established itself as one of the major weapons of the war.

Unfortunately, the British were unprepared for the full realization of the value of the new weapon. No such success had been anticipated and a break through was the last thing looked for. Before the British could rush up the necessary reinforcements to drive home the victory thus so cheaply won, the Germans, fully realizing their danger, threw in every man that could be spared to the Cambrai front, and, in most desperate and bloody fighting, forced the British back from Cambrai and saved the city. Nevertheless, the British gain was considerable and important, and the battle proved for all time that, in the tank, the Allies had a weapon which would count heavily in future attacks.

Following Cambrai, desultory fighting continued up and down the British front for several weeks and then settled down to another winter deadlock.

#### **The Italian Disaster**

The fighting of the spring and summer had gone badly against the Germans and their vassals. America had thrown

in its fortunes with the Allies, the explanation of the strategic retreat to the Hindenburg line had not been wholly accepted by the Germans at home, Greece had finally turned against the Central Powers, Russia still was a dangerous factor, and the Italians again were on the offensive along the Isonzo. Economic conditions were bad in Germany and worse in Austria, and there was deep discontent in the dual empire, whose military successes had been few and whose defeats had been many. Something must be done to bolster up the waning faith in Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey, which also was being hard pressed. A victory of some kind was a necessity to carry Germany and its vassals through the winter.

For some months in Italy there had been an undercurrent of dissatisfaction with the progress of the war. Food was scarce and dear, the Italian armies were constantly hampered by insufficient ammunition and were operating upon the most difficult front in the whole of Europe. There had been food riots in many cities and a spirit of unrest permeated the whole kingdom. Despite the vigilance of the Italians, German agents were numerous throughout the peninsula, and through them the poison of dissatisfaction was spread. Along the Isonzo front operations moved slowly because of the lack of munitions, and finally, when they halted, the Germans began massing an army on this front, while German agents began operations in the rear of the Italian armies. Gradually, by means of forged letters and wild rumors, the morale of the Italian army was undermined. Reports that their families were starving, that women and children crying for bread were being shot down in the streets, reached the troops. German and Austrian aeroplanes dropped forged Italian newspapers along the Italian front, depicting terrible conditions in the cities. A part of the Italian army was brought almost to the point of mutiny.

At the proper moment, the German and Austrian armies struck a blow on the Caporetto sector which sent the Italian army reeling backward, and in a day overwhelmed the whole northern end of the Isonzo line. With its flank uncovered, the southern end of the line was forced into a rapid retreat to save itself. In two days it had lost territory which had taken two and a half years of the most arduous fighting to conquer. It was swept back across the Italian frontier and so badly disorganized that it was feared for a time the whole kingdom would be overwhelmed and forced to submit to a German peace. By November 3rd the Italian armies reached the Piave River line, however, and it was apparent that the Germans and Austrians had outrun their guns and supplies. Nevertheless, it was doubtful if the Italians would be able to hold long where they were, and Venice was in grave danger of capture. The Italians had lost nearly all of their guns and munitions, huge quantities of supplies and approximately a quarter of a million prisoners. The situation was desperate, but thanks to the immediate action of France and Great Britain, guns, munitions and men were rushed to the Piave front, and after some severe fighting the Austro-German onslaught was stemmed.

But the Austro-German victory had accomplished its purpose. It strengthened the German confidence in ultimate victory, it put new life into Austria, it impressed Bulgaria and Turkey, and it had, the Germans believed, put Italy out of the war, if not permanently, at least long enough to give Germany and its Allies the opportunity of again seeking a decision on the Western front, the prospects for which were brightened to a great degree by events in Russia.

#### **The Russian Collapse**

Through the spring and summer of 1917 events moved swiftly in Russia. Kerensky apparently was the popular

favorite and the strong man needed in the crisis. He became premier July 20th, and at once ordered General Brusiloff to begin an offensive against the Austrians in Galicia. A military victory would have strengthened greatly the hands of the new premier and the offensive began with great promise, but within three days it had become a Russian rout, and from that time the Russian army as a fighting force ceased to be. The poison of Bolshevism already had sapped its vitality. Officers no longer had any control of their men, most of whom simply walked off from their commands and started for home. With the Czar gone, the millennium had dawned in Russia so far as the peasant soldiers were concerned. When the Czar was gone, they had been told, the land would be divided up.

What was left of the Russian army was no opposition either to the Germans or the Austrians. The two armies marched into Russia as far as they liked, while German and Austrian agents swarmed into the cities. Nikola Lenine, arch-priest of Bolshevism, who had been an exile in Switzerland, was liberally supplied with German gold, and hurried swiftly across Germany into Russia. Leon Trotzky, a radical of the same type, hurried from America to Russia. Under the traitorous crowd which had surrounded the Czar, economic conditions in Russia had been allowed to run down. The railroads were in a deplorable condition and, while there was plenty of food in the country, the cities were going hungry. Bolshevism thrived upon hunger.

#### Leaders of Factions

Kerensky, not measuring up to the strong man he was supposed to be, rapidly lost popular favor. He proved to be a vacillating and temporizing word-monger, without the moral force to back up the brave words he uttered. The economic situation went from bad to worse. The people were

split into factions, each seeking its own advantage, while Bolshevism spread rapidly. Fighting was almost continuous in Petrograd, and, finally, on November 7th, Kerensky was forced to flee and the Bolsheviki took control of the government, with Lenine as premier and Trotzky as his chief lieutenant and minister of war. There began then a reign of anarchy in Russia which plunged the nation into such economic distress as no other nation has ever experienced.

#### Attitude of Provinces.

Finland had declared its independence and under German tutelage was preparing, in spite of its strong democratic tendencies, to set up a monarchy with a German king. The Ukrainian provinces also set up a government of their own under German auspices. Courland, Lithuania, the Crimea, Georgia, Siberia and other provinces followed the example of Ukraina, and it appeared as if the once vast Russian empire was to crumble away to nothing. Poland alone, apparently, was to have no future, for Austria and Germany held it with a strong grip and proposed to set it up as a vassal state with no more control of its own destinies than the Germans had allowed to Alsace and Lorraine.

#### Bolsheviki and German Agents

Once having attained to power, the Bolsheviki, directed by German agents, set about to conclude a "peace" between Russia and the Central Powers. The Germans stage-managed the negotiations, which took place at Brest-Litovsk. The Russians simply did what they were told to do, and never in history was a more barefaced robbery perpetrated by one set of nations upon another, nor a more shameful surrender sanctioned by a government ruling over millions who had no more voice in the treaty arranged than if they had not existed. All of the German protestations of "annexations

without indemnities" and such catch-words as they had used as baits for the western Allies were thrown aside and a thoroughgoing "German peace" was imposed upon the helpless Russians. The Russians refused to sign the treaty, but acknowledged it, and even paid several installments of the huge indemnity of 6 million rubles which was one of the penalties imposed upon them.

### The Near East

In the Near East, during the summer, there was little activity. Beyond policing Serbia and that part of Rumania which she occupied, Bulgaria had done little fighting, except for an occasional skirmish along the Saloniki front.

Turkey had spent the time trying to reorganize her tattered armies and re-occupying Armenia as the Russians withdrew. Turkish troops also advanced into the Caucasus. There were the usual Armenian massacres in the train of the retiring Russians, though many thousands of the unfortunate Armenians followed the Russians into the Caucasus.

### The Capture of Jerusalem

As the autumn approached, activity was renewed on the Mesopotamian and Palestine fronts. The Russian retirement necessitated a strengthening of the Bagdad front and rendered dangerous, for the time being, any further British attempt to advance beyond that city. On the Palestine front, however, General Allenby had made extensive preparations for a winter campaign in Palestine, and, beginning in late October, the Anglo-Egyptian army, in a series of brilliant operations, carried its lines forward and captured Gaza November 7th. General Allenby rested there while he prepared for the more important operation designed to capture Jerusalem. Late in November the advance was

again begun and a continuous series of successes carried the British forces through the historic cities of the Bible until, on December 9, 1917, Jerusalem was taken. It was a victory which brought rejoicing to the whole Christian and Jewish worlds. After long centuries of Turkish misrule the Holy City, the cradle not only of Judaism but of Christianity, was again in Christian hands and pledged to the Jewish race. Next day the British made their formal entry into the city, not with the blare of bands, not with the pomp and pageantry of military display, but in silence and humility, General Allenby himself leading the procession afoot.

Militarily, there was nothing especially remarkable in the British victories in Palestine, beyond the difficulties overcome, but morally the value of the capture of the Holy City was very great.

## CHAPTER VIII

### THE TIDE EBBS AND FLOWS

#### Situation Favorable to Germans, Spring, 1918

Spring, 1918, came with the Germans flushed with the success of their Russian intrigues. The Eastern front was broken, and no longer a danger to them. Rumania had been placed in bondage with Serbia and Belgium, and plundered outrageously. Italy would require many months to recover from the disaster of the previous autumn. America still was a negligible factor and apparently need not be reckoned with. Her army in France was only a couple of divisions and the new armies at home still were in training and 3,000 miles away. The U-boats, it was confidently believed, would prevent any considerable portion of them landing in France and granting that a few troops should succeed in getting through, the Germans were contemptuous of their fighting ability.

Apparently the tide had set in for the Germans. The day of decision was dawning. Victory awaited their pleasure. While the people at home were busily considering what terms they would impose upon the vanquished, the army on the Western front was greatly reinforced by divisions drawn from the Russian front, in spite of the agreement with Russia in the Brest-Litovsk treaty not to do so. The shattered divisions of the army which had borne the brunt of the fighting of the previous year at Ypres, Cambrai and the Chemin des Dames had been filled up and the whole army reorganized upon an entirely new plan. More than 200 first class divisions, approximately two and one-half million men, were ready to launch against the Allies. France was to be crushed first, then England. Italy's disaster would follow, and then would come the reckoning with America, whose billions were counted on to pay the cost of the war. There was no talk of peace then. Germany would make peace in her own good time.

So confident of victory were the Germans that they even announced with much show of sincerity the date upon which they would begin the offensive. The Kaiser traveled in state to the Western front and it was announced that the forthcoming attack would be "the Kaiser's battle." Newspaper correspondents from over Germany were carried on a special train to the Western front to witness the opening of the offensive.

#### The Allies' Situation

Apparently, neither the British nor France Commands had expected the Germans to begin the offensive so early nor did they believe the offensive was to begin March 21st, as Berlin had announced. The British armies still were in process of reorganization and, in spite of the protests of the commanders in the field, the war office had, on the insist-



ence of the French, ordered Field Marshal Haig to take over an additional sector of the front between Cambrai and St. Quentin. General Gaugh had been assigned to the command of this front but had not yet been given the necessary troops for its defense. The Germans may have known this or, fortunately for them, it merely may have fitted in with their plans. Nevertheless, this was the point—at the junction of the British and French armies—which the Germans selected for their front of attack. Early the morning of March 21st, after a brief but terrific artillery preparation, the Germans advanced in a new formation designed by General von Hutier and developed for the Russian campaign at the taking of Riga. This new formation made use of large numbers of small field guns and trench mortars advancing with the infantry. General Gaugh's insufficient force was overwhelmed where it stood, and the Germans advanced through the break in the line, almost unopposed. With their flanks uncovered, it was necessary for the British to the north and the French to the south to fall back rapidly to protect themselves, while such reserves as were available were hurried around to bridge the gap in the line and thus again present a continuous front to the enemy. Despite most desperate and determined efforts for two days, the Allies had been unable to close this gap and there was grave danger that one or the other army would be outflanked. France had thrown in almost her last reserves, the British were using every available division. The Allied situation was desperate. In this crisis, General Sandoman Carey of the British army gathered around him a motley force of stragglers, camp followers, cooks, officers, servants and a small force of American engineers who had been working behind the British front. With rifles, machine guns and several pieces of artillery salvaged from the battlefield, and with ammunition and shells from aban-

done dumps, this heroic little band swept into the line between the flanks of the two armies. They fought day and night, they starved and they thirsted, they stood and they died, but they plugged the gap until the Germans were halted. Not in all the four years of the war was there a more heroic episode.

#### Germans Aggressive

The prime German objective was Amiens. The battle front had spread out until it extended from the western end of the Chemin des Dames north to Vimy Ridge where the determined Canadians blocked all further German progress. Within a week the Germans had swept westward from the Hindenburg line over the ground they had abandoned the year before, and gained a large area of additional territory. From La Fere they had advanced westward forty-eight miles, the limit of advance gradually receding as the line extended northward. By capturing Amiens the Germans would cut the chief north and south supply line of the Allies armies and then they intended to drive down the valley of the Somme to the sea, dividing the Allies, cooping the British in between Abbeville and Nieuport and then at their leisure finishing with the French army.

The Allied situation was critical, never so critical as it was in those latter days of March, 1918. Almost frantic appeals were made to America to speed up her war preparations and rush men to the front, trained or untrained. General Pershing offered to General Foch, in command of the French armies, the entire American resources in France, at that time four divisions of trained troops. France threw in her last reserves, Britain combed her islands to the last man that could be spared.

### The Germans Repeat a Military Mistake

Fortunately, the Germans had repeated the costly mistake that lost the Austro-German army a decision in Italy. They had outrun their guns and supplies and they were forced to come to a halt within six miles of their goal at Amiens. By the end of the first week in April they had definitely abandoned further efforts in that quarter, and stood on their new line that ran roughly from Vimy Ridge east of Arras, southwest, east of Amiens to Montdidier, thence swinging east and northeast to the Chemin des Dames.

### Germans Renew Efforts

But the Germans had no intention of abandoning their efforts with one stroke. They knew it was a case of "now or never" for victory and no time must elapse before America could throw in the weight of its rapidly growing armies. Balked on the Somme, the German Command promptly prepared another stroke.

Portugal, upon entering the war as a British Ally, sent an army of several divisions to co-operate on the British front. This army lay along the Lys river in French Flanders. Falling suddenly upon this little army in the fog and mist the morning of April 9th, the Germans, with vastly superior numbers, overwhelmed it and opened a gap in the line which was only closed after a most desperate struggle, and which barely prevented the Germans from driving through to Calais and Dunkirk, the apparent objective.

The result of the German success was to drive a deep salient into the British line nearly thirty miles deep at its deepest point, capturing Mont Kemmel, the famous Messines Ridge and other high ground southwest of Ypres, and forcing the British, in order to hold their line, to evacu-

ate all of the ground east of Ypres so dearly won in the great offensives of the previous summer and autumn.

Not even the battles which followed the great offensive on the Somme exceeded in desperation the efforts which the Germans made to drive through the line to the channel ports, and the struggle continued long after the British had taken up their line of battle. Time after time the Germans drove in force against the new British line which was reinforced with several French divisions, but each time they failed, with terrific losses. But it was a narrow escape for the Allies, and renewed calls were made upon America for assistance.

#### Foch Placed in Supreme Command

It was in this crisis of their fortunes that the Allies took the most momentous military decision of the whole war in agreeing upon a unity of operation, and General Ferdinand Foch of the French army was placed in supreme command of all the Allied armies, on the French, the Italian and the Saloniki fronts. The action was a lesson learned from the enemy who, for more than three years had successfully waged battle against numerically superior forces, making up for lack of numbers by unity of command and co-ordinated effort. In contrast to this German unity of operation, the Belgian, British, French, Italian, Serbian, and Russian armies had acted independently and the American army was preparing to enter the war under the same conditions. The result was that each commander made his own plans and acted upon them independently and often without the knowledge of the commanders of the other Allied armies. The result was three years of much wasted effort and lack of co-operation. Had there been, in the beginning of the war, or even in the second year of the war, a supreme command and one general staff for all of the Allied forces, possibly the war might have been won then.

Unity of command had appeared desirable to the French early in the war, but conditions at that time were not ripe for it. The British army was still in the making, there were British traditions, long cherished, that stood in the way and there was a lack then of the true appreciation of the immensity of the task which confronted the Allies. It required a disaster to bring home to the nations the realization that the old methods no longer would do.

At the critical hour when the fate of the Allies hung in the balance, General Pershing, commanding the American expeditionary forces, offered himself and his army without reserve for whatever task the French or British might select, and under whatever commander they might choose. Here was a hint, and it was only a few days later that, upon the initiative of Premier Lloyd George of Great Britain, the appointment of a supreme commander was decided upon and General Foch was selected as the man to hold the line until America could come in.

#### Hastening of American Troops

In the midst of the German stroke in Flanders, Field Marshal Haig had announced that the British were "fighting with their backs to the wall." It was a phrase that thrilled America. The call for help fell upon willing ears. The American people were becoming impatient with the seeming slowness of the government in proceeding with its war preparations and there was a demand for a more active participation in the great events transpiring in France. The army was no less impatient, so that there was prompt response in America to the appeal from the other side. Transportation, however, was the great problem. America's transport fleet was small. England, France and Italy must be fed and the ships must cross a submarine-infested sea.

To speed up the shipment of troops, France and England went upon short rations and every available French and British ship was added to the American transport fleet. Within a month American troops were landing in England and France by the thousands a day and, after a short preliminary training in camp, were rushed to the front to get their battle-seasoning brigaded with French and British troops.

#### The Submarine Activity

Despite the great activity of the German submarines, the shipment of troops proceeded uninterrupted, and it is worthy of note that barely 400 American soldiers fell victims to the U-boats. The sinking of the British liner *Tuscania* off the north coast of Ireland was the most serious sea disaster to the American forces, 327 men having been drowned when the ship sank. A few weeks later the British transport *Moldavia*, carrying American troops from England to France was torpedoed and more than 50 American soldiers were killed or drowned. Some twenty others were lost when the American transport *President Lincoln*, a former German liner, was torpedoed. Not one American transport bound to Europe with troops was sunk.

#### Check to Submarines

With the advent of American forces to co-operate with the British and French navies in hunting down the submarines, the losses to shipping began to fall off, while the sinking of submarines increased, and it was announced by Premier Lloyd George on May 24th that the Allied fleets had obtained the upper hand; that submarines were being sunk faster than the Germans could build them, and ships were being built by the Allies faster than the Germans could destroy them.

the blocking, by a detachment of the British fleet, of the Belgian harbors of Zeebrugge and Ostend, which had been used as bases by the German submarines which operated in the English channel. This exploit, under the direction of Rear Admiral Keyes of the British navy, was one of the most thrilling naval adventures of the war. Four old cruisers, filled with concrete, were steamed into the Zeebrugge harbor while the Cruiser Vindictive drew the fire of the harbor defenses. The old cruisers were sunk across the entrance, blocking the channel; the crews afterwards being picked up by the Vindictive. A few nights later a similar exploit was carried out at Ostend, when the Vindictive was sunk across the harbor's mouth.

Meantime, a submarine mine barrage was being laid from the coast of Scotland to a point just south of the Arctic Circle on the coast of Norway designed further to hamper the U-boats by forcing them to spend nearly two weeks in getting from their German bases to the hunting grounds south of the British Isles.

The result of these operations was greatly to increase the difficulties under which the Germans labored.

#### **America Rushes Troops to Europe**

So rapid was the transport of American troops that by the first days of June the American army in France had doubled in size and in that month alone 300,000 men were landed in Europe. Camp after camp in America was denuded of its troops and new drafts were called for the purpose of forming special organizations needed by the army. There was an early realization that, after the summer campaign, the bulk of the fighting must fall upon the American army and the plans for a force of two million men were too small. It was decided to double that force. To do so, America must dip further into its reservoir of men and the draft was

enlarged to take in men between 18 and 21, and 31 and 45. There had been organized up to that time 40 combatant divisions. It was decided to plan for an army of 90 divisions in France at all times, more than 3,000,000 fighting men.

The chief handicap in America's war preparation was the length of time required in which to complete the program for aeroplanes, machine guns, artillery and munitions to bring them to the quantity production basis. France and Great Britain agreed to make up any deficiency until America's output began to appear.

As fast as the newly arrived divisions were given their preliminary trench training brigaded with the French or British armies, they were sent back to the American area to be completely outfitted and polished off for the work to come. Gradually, as this process was completed, the troops were sent up to the Alsace front, where they relieved French divisions, for the more serious work that awaited them on the active battleline.

#### **The Third German Drive for Paris**

The vast American troop movement had begun none too soon, and it presently became apparent that the Germans realized they were running a race with time. As yet the Allies had not recovered from the staggering blows that had been dealt them on the Somme and in Flanders, and which they had barely parried. Foch had not yet had time to make a re-disposition of the now truly Allied armies under his command. Nor did the Germans purpose to give him any opportunity to do so. After the battles of the Somme, and in Flanders, British and French divisions, which had been badly cut up in these battles, were sent to the Chemin des Dames sector to rest up and refit, on the theory that the Germans, knowing the natural strength of this position, would scarcely risk an attack there.



But here it was, that, on May 27th, the Germans launched their third drive for Paris, and it was, in fact, their most ambitious offensive. Deluging the French and British lines with a veritable hail of high explosive and gas shells, and holding back reinforcements by one of the most terrific barrages used in the whole war, the Germans charged up the slopes to the historic highway, overwhelmed the defenders and with wonderful speed started on a race for the Marne. The first day of the battle they advanced from the Ailette to the Aisne River, sweeping back the Allied forces as so much chaff. Soissons, held by the French since the German retreat to the Aisne after the first battle of the Marne, fell quickly and the invaders swept on to the Chateau Thierry. Rheims was gravely menaced by this German victory, but the natural defenses of the Rheims *montane* held fast and the famous Cathedral city remained with the French. On the west, the natural barriers of the Cotterets forest barred the way, so that the Germans were forced to slow down in a deep pocket, a precarious position ordinarily, and temporarily safe only because of the exhaustion of the Allied armies which prevented a counter-drive against the enemy.

#### American Mettle Tested

While the Germans were crossing the Aisne in their third rush at Paris, an event occurred which, militarily was only of minor importance, but morally it was of the greatest significance. After the German rush had been brought to halt before Amiens, after the drive on the Somme, the American First Division went into line near Montdidier, relieving a French division. The Germans here, in taking the village of Cantigny, had thrust a small but annoying salient into the French line. The outside of this salient was taken over by the American troops and it was de-

terminated to give them their first real battle there. The night of May 28, the American artillery opened fire on the German lines, and after laying down a barrage, the Yankee fighters went over the top, and in a dashing action, which received the highest praise from the French, took the village of Cantigny, "bit off" the salient, captured 170 prisoners and held their position against repeated counter-attacks. The affair at Cantigny was the first wholly American operation of the war, planned by the American commanders, supported by American artillery and participated in only by American troops.

It was a test of American mettle, a test for which the French and British armies had been waiting. It established the American soldier at once as a first class fighting man and General Foch saw that he had in the rapidly arriving American divisions the reserve that would win the war. Promptly he made use of the new and fresh troops under his command.

## CHAPTER IX

## THE TURN OF THE TIDE

## Supremacy of the Allies

In spite of the speed with which the advance to the Marne had been made, the German effort was by no means spent, and, arriving at Chateau Thierry, the Crown Prince's forces, after a brief rest, began an effort to widen out the head of their advance. Their design was to outflank the Forest of Villers Cotterets and push down the Marne Valley along the national highway through Meaux to Paris.

Meantime, preparations were being made by the Germans for a new drive down the valley of the Oise toward Paris, the plan being to push out simultaneously from the Somme and the Marne salients, and either pinch off the French forces lying in between, or force them to beat a hasty retreat. Worn out by the tremendous strair which they had been under, the French, west and northwest of Chateau Thierry, had begun to fall back in retreat. The road to Paris was open! France was distracted. With the capital menaced from two directions and its army stretched to the danger point the day appeared dark indeed.

## American Divisions Victorious

But assistance was at hand. The Third American Division, just completing its preliminary training, was hurried to the Marne, its motorized machine gun battalion preceding the other units. The Second Division was in reserve behind the First Division at Cantigny and had just received orders to march in to relieve the First Division. In the middle of the night these orders were countermanded and the division ordered to prepare for instant departure for a secret destination. By daylight hundreds of motor trucks,

driven by French Chinese, were awaiting the troops and then began a wild race against time. Down the broad Amiens highway to the outskirts of Paris and thence along the roads through the valley of the Marne the trucks, packed with carefree, cheering young Americans, went careening along. The journey consumed more than thirty hours. Nearing Chateau Thierry the sounds of the fighting become louder and louder, and the roads were filled with long strings of refugees and French soldiers retreating before the Germans.

It was a Sunday afternoon, June 3d, when the division reached the neighborhood of Bouresches, which the Germans had just taken. The division, one brigade of regular infantry and one brigade of marines, was hastily thrown into battle formation and, while the wearied French were slowly moving backward, the Americans went forward with yells and cheers, drove the Germans out of Bouresches and held the town against all counter-attacks. Simultaneously, the Third Division Machine Gun Battalion went into action with the French at the bridge-head at Chateau Thierry and held it against all assaults. Promptly seizing their advantage, the American troops drove forward and captured Belleau Wood—now re-named the Foret des Marines—Vaux and Torey.

The effect of these American victories upon the wearied French armies was electrical. America had seemed slow coming in and France had begun to doubt whether, after all, the sons of the great sister Republic could be counted upon. All doubts were swept away. Cantigny had asserted their valor, Bouresches and Belleau Wood proved it. There the American troops in their first battle had gone up against the enemy's best divisions, the Prussian Guard, demonstrated themselves not only the enemy's equal but his superior, gaining strong tactical positions with far greater loss to the enemy than to themselves. They had taken the German at his high tide and dammed his progress. From that

moment, though it was yet too early to realize it, the German army was doomed to defeat.

As yet, however, the Allies were not out of the woods. The Germans, intoxicated by the success of their three previous drives, kept their eyes steadily on Paris, and, on June 9th, launched their fourth attack between Montdidier and the Oise, striking for Compiègne and thence purposing to advance down the valley of the Oise to the French capital. Here, however, General Foch was prepared, and after an advance of only four miles the offensive was halted, though severe fighting continued for another two weeks in which the Germans made several very costly but futile efforts to make a breach in the French line. Thereafter, for nearly a month, there were isolated actions all along the line from Ypres to Rheims, but without serious effort on the part of either army.

The American troops in the sector northwest of Chateau Thierry kept up a continuous harrassment of the Germans in the Belleau and Vaux districts, taking numerous prisoners.

#### Germany Urges Austria On

While the Germans had been exerting their greatest efforts, their Austrian Allies had remained quiescent, merely holding their positions along the Piave in Italy without any effort further to advance their line. Strong representations were being made by Berlin to Vienna of the necessity for Austrian support in concerted action, and finally, on June 15, 1918, the Austrians launched an offensive along a 100-mile front. After its defeat and retreat in 1917, however, the Italian army had been reorganized under General Diaz, and greatly strengthened in morale and material, and it met the Austrian offensive with determined resistance. When the first Austrian blow had spent its force, the Italians, aided by British and French troops, began a vigorous counter-

attack which not only threw the Austrians back in rout and confusion but cost them thousands of prisoners and killed, also the loss of a great quantity of artillery. Not only was the defeat a severe blow to Austria, but it had a depressing effect in Germany.

#### Losses

The Germans had now made four great offensives, had suffered very heavy losses, and, while gaining considerable territory, had achieved no military advantage. While the Allies had suffered heavy losses also, possibly greater losses than the Germans, these losses were balanced by the steady stream of American troops flowing into France. The German losses, on the other hand, were absolute. Germany had no reservoir upon which to draw, nor could she depend upon her Allies for more than a few divisions. She must have known that the American army was growing to huge proportions. In fact, by the first day of July, one million Americans had landed in France.

#### The Germans' Last Offensive

In this situation, the Germans decided upon the last desperate gamble. Beginning early the morning of July 15th, they struck all along the line from Chateau Thierry east to Massignes, a front of sixty-five miles. East of Rheims, the blow had been anticipated and well prepared for, and General Gouraud's French army led the Germans into a position from which they escaped only after suffering very heavy losses and after failing to gain any ground beyond which it was necessary for the French to give up in order to accomplish their purpose. Between Chateau Thierry and Rheims, American, French, British and Italian divisions were in line. Here, indeed, was a battle of the nations, and it remained for the American troops to play the leading part. The

strongest German pressure was exerted between Chateau Thierry and Dormans. The French divisions were pressed back to the south side of the stream at several points and the order was given for a retreat. The American Third Division was holding the bank of the Marne opposite Chateau Thierry and, under the most intense artillery and infantry fire, they refused to retreat. The order for retreat came from the French commander, General Degouette, but it was not obeyed. Instead, the American commander, Major General Omar Bundy, sent this reply:

"We regret being unable on this occasion to follow the counsels of our masters, the French, but the American flag has been forced to retire. This is unendurable and none of our soldiers would understand their not being asked to do whatever is necessary to re-establish a situation which is humiliating to us and unacceptable to our country's honor. We are going to counter attack."

The Germans had succeeded in forcing the Americans back toward Conde-en-Brei.

The French commander had informed the American general that the early German success could not have any great effect on the fate of battle; that it was understood perfectly that after hard fighting the Americans had slowly retired and that it was not expected that they immediately launch a counter-attack. He added that a counter-attack could be postponed without risk and it might be better to give the American troops a rest. They wanted no rest. They intended to attack.

And suiting his action to the note, the American commander ordered a counter-attack, throwing two German divisions into complete confusion, capturing six hundred prisoners and driving the enemy back across the river on that front. This threw the German plans completely into confusion and the offensive was brought to a halt with only

minor losses of ground to the Allies. From that moment until the war ended the German army was on the defensive. Six weeks previously the American army had blocked the road to Paris, now it had turned the tide of the war.

### The Great Allied Offensive

Whatever lingering doubts there may have been of the fighting ability of the American disappeared after the battle of Chateau Thierry. General Foch was provided with the reserve that was necessary to carry out his plans. Defeated in their efforts to widen out the Marne cul-de-sac, the Germans were left in an extremely hazardous position. Before they could plan a new campaign, General Foch, under cover of the Villers Cotterets Forest, gathered a new army composed of the First and Second American Divisions, and picked French troops, including a division of Moroccans. During the night of July 17th, this army was moved up to the battle line and, without the usual brief warning of a preliminary bombardment, was hurled against the German trenches, while massed French and American artillery laid down a rolling barrage. Simultaneously, American and French troops struck along the line as far south as Chateau Thierry.

### Germans Realize Danger

The Germans were under no illusions as to what the attacks meant and brought up large numbers of reserves and made a stubborn defense with machine guns and artillery. Through five days of fighting the Allies steadily advanced, and by that time the Germans were in full retreat out of the cul-de-sac, nor did they end their flight until they had reached the Aisne north of Soissons and the line of the Vesle, east of that city, leaving Soissons again in the hands of the French. In the beginning of the offensive



the American First and Second Divisions had been given the post of honor and in the course of the action they captured more than 5,000 prisoners and more than 100 guns. Other divisions which took part in the battle were the 3d, 4th, 26th, 28th, 32d, 42d and 77th.

#### Allies in the Ascendent

The Allies now were definitely on their feet. The German Crown Prince's army had barely escaped disaster, losing more than 35,000 prisoners and 700 guns, and the Crown Prince had been forced to call upon Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria, commanding the German armies in the British front, for aid in holding back the Allies. German morale was greatly depressed by this sudden reverse, and no less was the morale of the Allies heightened by their success.

General Foch's recipe for success in war was to remain always on the offensive. While he prepared for a new and a greater blow at the invader, the Franco-American army along the Vesle steadily had hammered the German line, driven the Germans across that stream, taking Fismes. Intermittent fighting continued several days longer. On August 6th General Foch was raised to the rank of Marshal of France.

What the new marshal's plans were, soon developed. The morning of August 8th, the British and French launched an offensive in Picardy along a front of twenty miles astride the Somme, from the Avre River at Braches to the vicinity of Morlancourt. The French under General Debenedy, and the Canadian, Australian and American troops brigaded with the British under General Rawlinson took the enemy completely by surprise, pressing his lines back more than seven miles and taking more than 10,000 prisoners. Field Marshal Haig especially commended the Australian and

American troops who had the task of taking the heavily fortified Chipilly Ridge.

Each succeeding day the battle front spread to the north and to the south. The French took Montdidier August 10th, and the next day it was announced that the Allies had captured more than 36,000 prisoners and more than 500 guns. The Germans now were definitely in retreat back to the Hindenburg line. Their retreat was speeded further when the French began a new attack along the Oise, August 19th, and the British followed with an attack in the Lys salient in Flanders. On the 21st Field Marshal Haig struck between Arras and Albert and widened the attack until the German

#### The Drive for Cambrai

army was in motion practically from Arras to Soissons.

One after another, the German positions fell before the onslaughts of the determined Allies, and before the end of the month the victorious French and British troops with their American Allies had reached and crossed in many places the battle line of 1916. Bapaume, Noyon, Peronne and a long list of towns whose names had figured in the first battle of the Somme and the subsequent retreat of the Germans in 1917 had been retaken. Further to the north, in the Lys salient, the determined British and French attacks had, by August 31st, driven the Germans back to their old lines of defense and closed the salient. American troops also took part in these actions and on August 31st they captured Vormeezele.

One of the German barriers which had held up the British in the spring of 1917 in their attacks east of Arras was the Drocourt-Queant "switch" line, an outer defense of the main Hindenburg position. Smashing forward on September 2d, the British troops broke through this formidable defense and began a drive toward Douai and Cambrai.

and two days later crossed the Canal du Nord. The whole German position now was precarious, and, beginning with a retreat from Lens, the whole line began to move backward along a front of 130 miles from Noyon to Ypres. Simultaneously, increasing pressure by the American army on the Vesle forced the Germans to begin a retreat across the Aisne and back to the Chemin des Dames. By September 9th, the Germans were back in the Hindenburg line, their whole gains for the year swallowed up in defeat, and wide breaches made in their strongest defenses. Their losses in men and materials were enormous. The British alone had taken 75,000 prisoners and more than 700 guns. The French had taken nearly as many men and guns. Settled down in the Hindenburg line, the German resistance began to stiffen, but it was the resistance of despair. The Hun knew he was beaten. All he could do now was to fight for terms. These the Allies were not ready to grant him.

#### The First American Drive

In taking its place at the battle front, the American army had been assigned to the Alsace-Lorraine front, both for military and political reasons, the chief military reason being that it was a "quiet" sector, upon which the new army could gradually learn the arts of war without being subject to the likelihood, at any time before its training was completed, of a determined offensive from the enemy. Events upon the other fronts, however, had interfered with this plan. None the less, with the reduction of the Marne salient, and the beginning of the Allied offensive and its success, General Pershing gradually withdrew his seasoned troops to the American area and completed plans which had been long in preparation for his first real offensive. This contemplated the reduction of the St. Mihiel salient, a sharp point of the German line which bulged out from Verdun and

Pont-à-Mousson to cut the important railroad line to Nancy. As a beginning, the American army, which included two French corps, took over the line extending from the Moselle river to Verdun. Under cover of night plans for the operation were carried out, including the assembling of an army of approximately 600,000 men.

#### Divisions Employed

In line, from right to left, were the 82d, 90th, 5th, 2d, 89th, 42d and 1st American divisions, a French Colonial Corps, the 26th and 4th American divisions, and a French division. In reserve were the 78th, 3d, 35th, 91st, 80th and the 33d divisions.

#### The Engagement

Promptly at the stroke of 1 o'clock on the morning of September 12th, a sheet of flame lighted up the sky as thousands of guns let loose a rain of death against the German lines, and in the succeeding four hours the guns paused only when they became too hot to fire longer. At 5 o'clock the firing ceased and a roar of cheers swept around the 40-mile front as the Americans went over the top, led on by a number of tanks and wire cutters. Demoralized by the terrific artillery fire and the sudden appearance of the yelling Americans, the Germans fled in confusion. The American advance moved along with clock-like regularity. Within 45 minutes the first village had been taken. Within 24 hours the salient had been wiped out, and the German was fighting with his back against a defense line prepared many months before. At the cost of only 7,000 casualties, mostly light, the Americans had captured 16,000 prisoners 553 guns, a vast quantity of shells and other munitions, railroad cars, locomotives and other supplies, released the inhabitants of many villages who had been prisoners four years, and estab-

lished the American line in a position to threaten Metz. In fact, American guns already had thrown shells into the Metz defenses.

The battle was the first all-American operation on a large scale, planned by American officers, carried out under their direction, with all-American artillery and aeroplane support. It was a signal success and it sent a thrill of pride through all America.

#### Americans Break Hindenburg Line

At the other end of the battle line, American troops were giving an equally good account of themselves. The 27th and 30th divisions were co-operating there with the British, and had been given the post of honor in co-operation with the Australian corps, September 29th and October 1st, in the assault upon the Hindenburg line. Here occurred some very desperate fighting, and it fell to the 30th Division to have the honor of first breaking through the famous German line. The 27th Division and the Australians speedily followed. It was a battle against great odds, fought in a maze of trenches, fortified shell craters and machine gun nests, and the conduct of the American troops and their Australian comrades elicited high praise in orders by Field Marshal Haig. Between the 6th and 19th of October the two divisions made a further advance of thirteen miles and captured more than 6,000 prisoners.

The official correspondent with the Australian forces wrote of their feat:

"Never in this war have we seen keener or braver soldiers or more intelligent men than the two (American) divisions in the fighting north of St. Quentin. Some day when the full story of this battle can be told, the American people will thrill with pride in these magnificent troops upon whom a tremendous task fell. They were faced by the most

formidable task that could be imposed upon them—the breaking of two double systems of the greatest defense line the German empire ever constructed.”

#### Allies Move Steadily Forward

On either side of the break in the line the British and French had smashed forward, and Cambrai and St. Quentin were taken. North of Ypres, the heroic remnant of the gallant Belgian army, after four years of waiting, drove forward between Dixmude and the North Sea, routing the Germans with one sweep and advancing to within two miles of Roulers, threatening the center of communications of the whole German army in Belgium, as well as the naval forces at Ostend and Zeebrugge. More than 5,000 prisoners and 300 guns were taken by the Belgians. From that time onward, the Allies moved steadily forward day by day, thrusting here and there in force as the Germans attempted to make a stand.

The French on their sector northwest of Rheims, met more determined opposition. It was necessary for the Germans to hold back the French in order to permit the orderly retreat of their forces operating in Northern France and Belgium.

#### Russian Anarchy

The Brest-Litovsk treaty was a test of German honesty and sincerity, no less than an abject and degrading surrender on the part of Russia. Even before the ink upon it was dry, Germany, as if to emphasize its own utter untrustworthiness, began a military exploitation of Russia as shameful as it was thorough. Russia was in a state of anarchy and German agents helped to keep it so. It was to Germany's interest to render her late antagonist impotent until she had crushed the Allies, and she made a thorough job of it.

### Effect of Russian Revolt

With Russia's collapse, Rumania was completely cut off from her Allies and left helpless before her enemies. To have what she might from the wreck, she could only agree to any terms which the Central Empire might impose upon her. Accordingly, after agreeing to an armistice, she signed a peace treaty with the Central Powers, who exploited her thoroughly, economically and militarily, and by territorial aggrandizement stripped her of her defensive frontiers, cynically compensating her in Bessarabia at Russia's expense.

Meantime, however, affairs in Greece, which King Constantine was vainly endeavoring to throw into the arms of Germany and her Allies, reached a crisis. [To safeguard their interests the Allies took prompt action in June, 1917, by bringing about the abdication of King Constantine and the Crown Prince and placing on the throne, under control of Premier Venizelos, the second son of the King. Greece then declared war against the Central Empires and began to mobilize and equip its army.

Thousands of Czecho-Slovaks in the Austrian army who had been captured by the Russians or who had deserted to them were formed into a separate army to fight with Russia. With the collapse of the Russian front, this army of something like 50,000 men began a march across Russia and Siberia to Vladivostock, where it was expected they would take ships for France to fight with the Allies. Developments in Russia, however, made it desirable that this force remain there, and the United States, France, Great Britain, and Japan made immediate arrangements to re-enforce and supply them. Vast quantities of war material shipped by the Allies to Russia had been stored at Vladivostock, and to keep this out of the hands of the Germans or the Bolshevik forces, the Czecho-Slovaks took charge of

the Siberian railroad while American and Japanese troops were landed at the port to reenforce them. Similarly, it was necessary, in order to protect large quantities of supplies which had been landed on the Arctic coast of Russia, for Britain and America to send troops to the port of Archangel and the Murmansk coast.

#### Reign of Terror in Russia

Events in Russia following the seizure of power by the Bolsheviki closely paralleled the "Reign of Terror" (1793) in France. Indeed, it was a reign of terror in which blood flowed freely and assassinations were so frequent as to become commonplace. The Bolshevik authorities were especially hostile to those who counseled moderation or who were well-to-do, the so-called Bourgeois class. Attempts were made several times to assassinate Lenine and Trotzky, the former having once been dangerously wounded.

The actions of the Germans in Russia aroused great indignation among patriotic Russians. Thousands of German soldiers were murdered and on July 6th Count Mirbach, German Ambassador to Russia, was assassinated in Moscow. The Bolshevik government shot some 200 members of the Social Revolutionists party accused of participating in the conspiracy to kill the ambassador. Three weeks later, Field Marshal von Eichorn of the German army was assassinated in Kiev by a bomb, in retaliation for the cruelty of his army in its treatment of the Ukrainians. Conditions were such that Dr. Karl Helfferich, who was appointed Ambassador to Russia in succession to Mirbach, refused to stay at his post and returned to Germany.

Through all the turmoil the Bolshevik authorities managed to keep close guard on the deposed Czar and other members of the Imperial family who were imprisoned at a monastery in Tobolsk. There were frequent rumors from



Russia of counter-revolutionary plots in behalf of the Romanoffs. Following the approach of a Czecho-Slovak force to Tobolsk, and the alleged discovery of a plot to free Nicholas, he was removed to Ekaterinburg, where, the morning of July 16th, he was taken out and shot.

#### Secretary Lansing's Note

The terrorism inaugurated and continued by the Bolsheviks was viewed in the Allied countries with horror, and in September, 1917, Secretary Lansing, by direction of the President, sent a note to all American diplomatic and consular representatives in Russia, in which he said:

"This government is in receipt of information from reliable sources revealing that the peaceable citizens of Moscow, Petrograd and other Russian cities are suffering from an openly avowed campaign of mass terrorism and are subject to wholesale executions. Thousands of persons have been shot without even a form of trial; ill-administered prisons are filled beyond capacity and every night scores of Russian citizens are recklessly put to death and irresponsible bands are venting their brutal passions in the daily massacre of untold innocents."

The diplomatic representatives were instructed to express to the Bolsheviks the horror of the nation, to aid and befriend the Russian people and to inquire whether the Bolshevik government was disposed to call a halt upon the perpetration of these crimes. In effect, the Bolsheviks ignored the protests, and the reign of terror continued uninterrupted.

#### Mittel Europa Dream Collapses

From the very beginning of the Saloniki expedition, there had been a strong sentiment in England and France against it. For more than three years, except to hold Greece

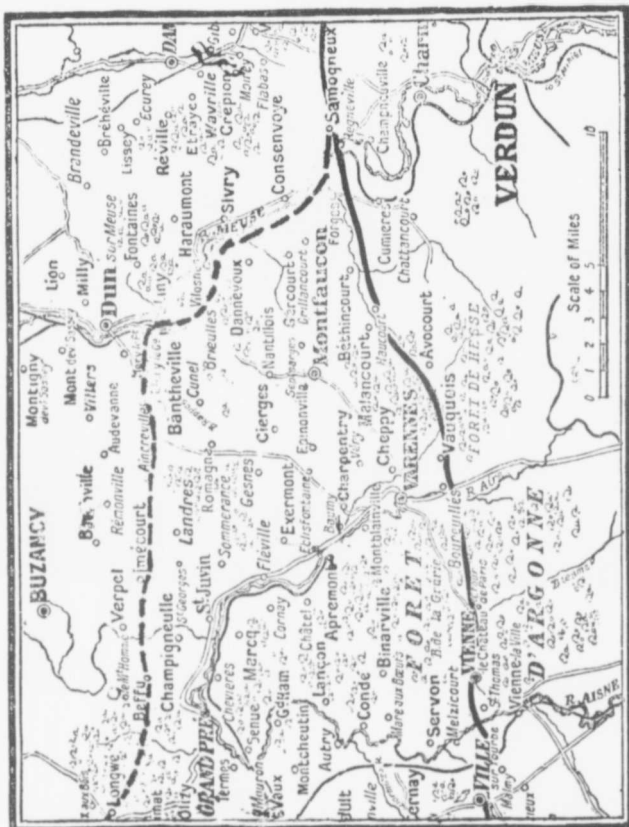
in line with the Allies, the Anglo-French and Serbian armies, later reinforced by the Italians, had lain almost inactive along a line that swung north from the Aegean coast around Saloniki and thence west along the Greek border and through Albania to the Adriatic coast. Following the launching of the Allied offensive in July, the Italian and French troops in Albania became active and in a sudden drive forward cleared all of Southern Albania of the Austrians.

There were some minor operations in August and then apparently the line settled down to inactivity, but suddenly on September 14th, General Franchet D'Esperey, the Allied commander in Greece, swung forward with the Serbian army and struck a blow which sent the Bulgarians reeling backward. Two days later the entire Allied army, composed of French, British, Serbian, Greek, and Italian troops, was set in motion, and in a brilliant campaign that utterly demoralized the Bulgarian forces and their German and Austrian Allies, swept through Macedonia and Albania into Serbia and started for the Danube. The Bulgarian army was utterly routed and on September 12th Bulgaria sued for peace. Three days later, Bulgaria agreed to the only terms the Allies would consider—unconditional surrender. King Ferdinand fled, abdicating his throne in favor of the Crown Prince Boris.

Turkey, by the surrender of Bulgaria, was completely cut off from her Allies and left in a hopeless position. Following the capture of Jerusalem there was little activity on the Palestine or Mesopotamian fronts, except that in February the Anglo-Egyptian forces took Jericho. During the night of September 18th, a general attack was launched between the Jordan River and the sea. The next day French troops went into action with the British forces, and Arab forces of the King of Hedjaz took up the battle east of the Jordan. The Allies swept through the Holy Land like a

whirlwind, virtually annihilating the Seventh and Eighth Turkish armies, capturing more than 35,000 prisoners and practically all of the artillery of the Turkish forces. Damascus was entered by Australian cavalry the night of September 30th and the next day the city formally surrendered. The Allies then swept on to Aleppo, which was captured October 26th. This ended the fighting in Turkey. After vainly seeking to obtain terms from the Allies, Turkey agreed, October 30, 1918, to the armistice, which was virtually an unconditional surrender on her part.

Germany's Mittel Europa had collapsed like a house of cards and the Berlin-to-Bagdad route was cut forever. The star and the crescent had set forevermore, Armenia's long martyrdom was nearing an end and the Ottoman beast thereafter would be securely caged. A new era was about to dawn over the cradle of the human race.



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#### NOTED BATTLE FIELDS OF FRANCE.

The continuous black line reaching from Samogneux to Ville indicates the old Hindenburg Line, September, 1918. The dotted line indicates the battle front the latter part of October, to which the American troops had forced the Germans in more than a month of desperate and continuous fighting.

## CHAPTER X

## FINAL BATTLES OF THE GREAT WORLD WAR

**The Great Argonne Battle**

Immediately following the launching of the St. Mihiel offensive, much of the heavy corps and army artillery which had supported the opening of the American attack was moved westward to the line between Verdun and the Argonne Forest. A general attack was planned along the line between Verdun and Rheims and to the Americans was again assigned a post of honor, the taking of the rough and heavily fortified Argonne Forest. The Germans had two main lines of supply for their forces at the Western front. One ran through Liege and the other through Metz and Sedan. Between these two lines was the Ardennes Forest in Belgium, rougher even than the Argonne and much too difficult of passage for a retreating army. The plan of the new drive was to reach Sedan or Mezieres, cut the southern supply line of the Germans and make more difficult their escape. The German army had as yet shown no demoralization, and, while the mass of its troops had suffered in morale, its first class divisions and notably its machine gun defense were exhibiting remarkable tactical efficiency as well as courage.

**Planning the Attack**

The German General Staff was fully aware of the consequences of a defeat on the Meuse-Argonne line. Certain that the Germans would do everything in their power to hold back an offensive along that sector, General Pershing planned his purposed attack as secretly as possible, but he also planned it with a determination to use every available American fighting man to force a decision. From right to left the divisions in line were the 33d, 80th, 4th,

70th, 37th, 91st, 35th, 28th and 77th, and in reserve were the 3d, 32d, 92d, 1st, 29th and 82d divisions.

#### The Battle

The Argonne sector had been long inactive, after futile attempts by the French early in the war to drive the Germans northward. The line was thinly held by the French, who were relieved the night of September 25th by the American divisions. The morning of September 26th the American artillery opened upon the Germans while the infantry drove through the barbed wire entanglements and the sea of shell craters, across No Man's Land, mastering all the first line defense. In three days the Americans had advanced three to seven miles, taking a large number of villages. It was desperate fighting from the start and the Americans fought in the open. Each division gave a good account of itself and the 35th was especially mentioned, and, on account of its position, it unavoidably suffered many casualties.

#### Verdun Relieved

East of the Meuse, French and American troops co-operating, pushed back the Germans and ended the long martyrdom of Verdun, forcing the Germans to abandon the positions from which they had regularly shelled the city. As a result of the first three days of the operation the Americans had taken 10,000 prisoners, had forced the battle into the open and were prepared for the inevitable enemy reaction when German reserves and artillery should be brought up. Into the battle the Germans then threw the flower of their army, including the guard divisions which had been badly mauled in the Chateau Thierry battle with the Americans. Fierce counter-attacks in strong force, supported by heavy bombardments with large quantities of poison gas, failed, however, to check the Americans, who con-

tinued their advance, though slowly, as it was necessary to clean out numerous machine gun nests, supported by snipers.

#### **Rheims and Its Neighborhood**

Further to the west the 2d and 36th Divisions were in line with the French who co-ordinated their movement with the Americans to the east. The American divisions, with the French, advanced north from east of Rheims, conquered the complicated defense works on their front with great gallantry and attacked the strongly held wooded hill of Mont Blanc, which they captured in a second assault. They went on to the village of St. Etienne which they took, forcing the Germans to fall back from Rheims and positions which they had held since 1914. The success of the Franco-American drive again set in motion the German line from east of Rheims to the vicinity of Laon. The French captured La Fere on October 13th and the capture of Laon and the Forest of St. Gobain quickly followed.

#### **Germans Dispute American Advance**

On the American front, the offensive was renewed all along the line October 4th. The Germans fought for every foot of ground, on a terrain that especially favored the defense, by a prodigal use of machine guns and by artillery at short ranges. Strong counter-attacks challenged the American troops at every point, but by October 10th the American sweep had cleared the Argonne Forest completely. Prisoners by the thousands were taken by the Americans. On October 14th the Americans entered the formidable German defense known as the Kreimhilde line, where the Germans had expected to check the Americans indefinitely. Two days later Grandpré, a village of great strategic importance, the junction point of the railways supplying the German armies between the Argonne and Laon, was taken. The dogged offensive of the Americans was wearing down the Germans

who continued desperately to throw their best divisions against them, thus weakening the line on the other fronts and making the advance of the other Allies less difficult.

#### **American Divisions Dispatched to Belgium**

Meantime, the 37th and 91st Divisions were detached and dispatched to reinforce the French and Belgian army in Belgium. By October 16th it became clear that the Germans had started a retreat on a tremendous scale in the north. Belgian cavalry entered Bruges and the next day Ostend was abandoned and then Zeebrugge. So fast did the Germans retreat, that for days the Belgians, French, British, and American infantry completely lost touch with them, only the cavalry being able to keep up with the Huns in the race. The next day Lille was abandoned by the Germans, who also gave up Douai. King Albert and Queen Elizabeth hastened from Belgian headquarters to Ostend and were given a great ovation by the delirious inhabitants released from four years of slavery.

With the retreat in Belgium, the whole German line from Pont-a-Mousson in Lorraine to the North Sea had been dislodged from its original position and in the center it had been driven back many miles from the positions it had taken up in 1914. Its losses in men, guns and supplies had been enormous. On the other hand, the Allies not only had gained by so many guns and so much captured material, but the constant flow of American troops had served to compensate largely for their losses. Germany's doom became apparent.

#### **Colored Troops**

In the world war the colored American proved his readiness to respond to the duties of his citizenship in a national crisis. As a soldier at the front he was ready to make the supreme sacrifice on the altar of Liberty, and as a worker at



home he yielded to none in his loyalty and devotion to the cause for which his country was fighting.

Among the very first American soldiers cited for valor on the field and decorated with the French war cross were two colored soldiers, members of the famous "Buffalos" from New York, and numbers of them received American decorations for gallantry in action. The Buffalos, the 369th Infantry (15th New York) and the equally gallant 370th Infantry (8th Illinois) were among the first American regiments to take their places in the trenches in France. Placed for training with French regiments, they won high praise from their comrades by their quickness to learn the arts of trench fighting and their readiness to take part in daring raids against the German trenches.

The 369th, in addition to having 191 of its members cited for valorous deeds performed in action, was also decorated as a unit.

On September 26th they were opposing the strongest point of the Hindenburg line in Champagne, but took it without heavy losses. They then went to the Vosges to take part in the big offensive which was prevented by the surrender of the Germans in the signing of the armistice.

#### **Colored Regiment Honored**

The French army honored the regiment by giving it the leading position on the march to the Rhine, where it arrived November 18th. For its work with the French the regiment was awarded the Croix de Guerre, which General Le Bouc pinned on the regiment's state flags.

At one period the regiment was under shell fire for 191 days, held one trench ninety-one days without relief and were raided every night, but captured large numbers of prisoners.

#### **Large Number from Colored Population**

In all, America's colored population contributed more than 300,000 men to the American army. Part of this great

force was organized into the 92d Division, organized at Camp Funston, and the 93d Division, organized at Camp Upton, the former including the 15th New York and the 8th Illinois National Guard regiments, organized and almost wholly officered by colored men. The remainder of the colored troops were organized into Pioneer Infantry service battalions and other organizations. In the organization of the 92d and 93d Divisions, all of the company officers and some of the staff officers were colored men. Part of these officers came from the ranks of the famous negro regiments of the regular army, the 9th and 10th Cavalry and the 24th and 25th Infantry, the remainder from civilians selected for their fitness and trained at the training camp established at Camp Dodge, Ia.

It was not the fortune of the two divisions to complete their training in time to get into the three big battles of the war in which the American troops participated, though the 92d Division had just gone to the front to take part in the great Argonne battle when the armistice was signed. Nevertheless, both divisions saw considerable trench service while in training and the 92d Division lost 109 men killed, 50 died of wounds and 52 missing or captured. The 93d Division lost 372 men killed, 105 died of wounds and 12 missing or captured. Each regiment suffered a considerable number of minor casualties.

In all their service, the negro troops upheld the best traditions of the race as fighting Americans, just as they had in the Civil War, in the Indian wars, in the Philippines and in Cuba, where the 9th and 10th Cavalry played so gallant a part in the taking of San Juan Hill.

In the navy the colored man saw his full share of the war and helped drive the Hun from the seas. Hundreds of colored sailors served with the battle fleet and on the transports which carried the army overseas.

### African Negro

It must not be forgotten, either, that the African negro played a large and important role in the war. More than half a million soldiers from the Senegal and the other French African colonies served with the French army, and the black Colonial troops left behind them a record surpassed by no other troops in France.

### The Final Peace Offensive

It will be recalled that President Wilson, in an address to Congress January 5, 1918, enunciated fourteen conditions upon which the nations must be agreed as preliminary to a durable peace. He further strengthened these fourteen conditions in an address to Congress February 11th in which he outlined four additional general principles.

### The President's Fourteen Points in Brief

- 1.—Open covenants of peace without private understandings.
- 2.—Absolute freedom of the sea in peace and war, except as they may be closed by international action.
- 3.—Removal of economic bars and establishment of equality of trade conditions among nations consenting to peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.
- 4.—Guarantees for the reduction of armaments.
- 5.—Impartial adjustment of all colonial claims based upon the principle of "home rule."
- 6.—Evacuation of all Russian territory and opportunity for Russia's political development.
- 7.—Evacuation of Belgium without any attempt to limit her sovereignty.
- 8.—All French territory to be freed and restored, and Alsace-Lorraine restored.
- 9.—Readjustment of Italy's frontiers along lines of nationality.

10.—Free opportunity for autonomous development for the peoples of Austria-Hungary.

11.—Evacuation of Rumania, Serbia, and Montenegro. Access to the sea for Serbia. International guarantee of economical and political independence and territorial integrity of the Balkan states.

12.—Secure sovereignty for Turkey's portion of the Ottoman Empire. Other nationalities under Turkish rule to be assured security of life and opportunity for autonomous development. The Dardanelles to be opened to all nations.

13.—Establishment of an independent Polish state, including territories inhabited by indisputable Polish population with free access to the sea, and political and economic independence and territorial integrity guaranteed by international covenant.

14.—Establishment of a league of nations to preserve peace.

#### Germany's Vision of Conquest

Just at that time, however, Germany and her Allies were not talking peace, though two weeks later, Chancellor von Hertling in discussing the general situation before the Reichstag, announced that Germany agreed "in principle" to the principles laid down by Mr. Wilson. The military situation just then was too good for Germany to consider peace. Victory and conquest looked much too near, and so, while German armies were smashing forward on the west front, there was an entire absence of anything like peace talk from Berlin. The Germans purposed, then, to talk peace in Paris.

#### Only a Dream—The Awakening

When the vision of conquest began to be obscured by the succession of Allied victories, peace talk began to be

heard again. Austria, always the weaker and the more easily influenced of the two major partners of the Teutonic Alliance, clearly foresaw the inevitable end. Beginning with speeches by Baron Burian in which peace was discussed in vague terms, the "peace offensive" was launched September 14th when a note was dispatched to the Allies by Austria inviting all the belligerents to send delegates to an unbinding but secret conference for an exchange of views.

#### **Armistice Proposed by Austria**

The Allies foresaw the real meaning of this invitation and the suggestion was rejected promptly. Next came the surrender of Bulgaria, and panic seized Vienna. The Allies already had recognized the Czecho-Slovak (Bohemian) Republic and Vienna was desperately attempting to throw an anchor to windward by proposing to transform the Empire from an autocracy into a confederation of self-governing states. With this project launched as a bait to President Wilson, another note was dispatched October 5th proposing to "conclude immediately with him and his Allies a general armistice and start, without delay, negotiations for peace based upon the fourteen points of President Wilson's speech of January 8th" and on the principles of subsequent speeches.

#### **Central Powers Accept Wilson's 14 Points**

Apparently by pre-arrangement, Germany, the next day, dispatched a similar note to the President inviting all of the belligerent states to send plenipotentiaries for the purpose of opening negotiations. In other words, the two powers were proposing to the Allies to be received as equals at a peace table to conclude a negotiated peace. This was not on the Allied program. They purposed, as Germany and Austria had earlier purposed, to impose terms, not to agree to them.

In the German and Austrian notes it was specifically stated that each power accepted the principles contained in the President's fourteen points as a basis for negotiations.

#### President Wilson Asks Questions

To this President Wilson replied in a note dispatched to Germany October 8th, with a series of questions, designed further to commit the German government to the fourteen points. He demanded to know if the German government's purpose was to enter "into discussions only to agree on the practical details of their application." The President also said that he could not place before the Allies the German proposition so long as the German armies were on the soil of the Allies. Last, and important, he demanded to know if the "imperial chancellor is speaking merely for the constituted authorities of the empire."

#### Germany's Reply

To this note of inquiry Germany made prompt reply, answering in the affirmative to the President's questions.

#### President's Stinging Indictment of Germany

The next day the President replied in a note which was a stinging indictment of the barbarous conduct of the German army and navy, and of the German government which sanctioned it, declaring that the established German government... was untrustworthy, inviting the German people to turn out the autoocrats, and saying that the plea for an armistice must be referred to the military.

#### Germany Replies—Begs for Mercy

To this note Germany, on October 20th, replied, and in substance, threw itself upon the mercy of the President in

trusting that the President, in placing the proposal before the Allies, "would approve of no demand which would be irreconcilable with the honor of the German people and with opening the way to a peace of justice." It protested against the scathing arraignment of its barbarous practices on sea and on land and, to prove its sincerity, announced that the U-boats had been forbidden to torpedo passenger steamers. As to the German government, the note asserted that the autocracy had been swept away and in its stead there had been erected a government responsible to the German people.

#### President's Diplomacy

The situation had now been brought by the President's diplomacy to be a point where Germany was fully committed in agreement to the President's principles, and begging for peace. In his reply of October 23d, the President announced that any armistice that would be granted must assure the military supremacy of the Allies—in other words Germany must surrender. The German government, the President said, was, to outward appearances, representative, but, he added, "the nations of the world do not and cannot trust the words of those who hitherto have been the masters of Germany." If, he said, the United States and the Allies "must deal with the military masters and the monarchial autocrats of Germany, they must demand not peace negotiations but surrender."

To this the Chancellor, Prince Maximilian, answered October 27th that the German government was truly Democratic and that it now awaited "proposals" for an armistice. The President then laid the German note before the Allies.

Meantime Austria's situation was becoming increasingly serious, and Vienna was impatient at the way the negotiations between Berlin and Washington were dragging on. Peace at any price was a necessity for Austria, and becom-

ing a greater necessity each day, if the empire was to survive. On October 27th, Count Andrassy, the new premier, dispatched an urgent note to President Wilson asking that overtures begin at once. This, Count Andrassy supplemented by a personal note to Secretary Lansing asking him to intervene with the President in Austria's favor.

This ended the series of notes. The stage was set for the grand finale. The curtain now was rising for the last act of the war.

#### The Grand Climax

The first scene of the grand climax was laid in Italy. The repulse of the Austrian offensive in June had restored the morale of the Italian army as well as of the people. Had the Italian army been as well prepared in June as it was later, the repulse might easily have been turned into as great a disaster as the Italians had suffered in the previous year, but the victory that was to come lost nothing of its greatness for the waiting, and the June defeat of the Austrians prepared the way for it.

The Italian army, reenforced by a small number of French and British and a regiment of American troops, began its offensive October 23d. The attack was opened in the Asiago Plateau region and gradually extended down the Piave River and west across the Trentino until the whole line was engaged. Gathering momentum with each hour, the Italian army swept across the plateau and into the Trentino, and by October 28th the Austrians had been driven from the whole length of the Piave and were in a retreat which quickly developed into a disastrous rout. In another two days the Austrian army had been completely disorganized, abandoning its guns and munitions, its trains and everything else that might impede its headlong flight toward the Austrian border. It was almost a case of every man for



himself. Prisoners were taken in such numbers that they could not be counted, and many thousands of the Italians who had been captured in the Austrian drive the year before were freed. In all, more than 300,000 prisoners were taken and not fewer than 5,000 guns, machine guns by the train-load, motor trucks, wagons and other equipment captured. In killed and wounded the Austrians had lost probably 200,000 men. The Austrian army was, in fact, practically destroyed, and not only was Italian invasion inevitable, but French and Serbian troops were approaching the Danube through Serbia.

#### Austria Asks for Armistice

Long before the extreme stage of its defeat was reached, however, Austria realized that it would be useless to continue the struggle, and plenipotentiaries were dispatched to ask for an armistice. An Austrian officer bearing a white flag entered the Italian lines the late afternoon of October 28th. However, it was found that the officer was not possessed of the proper credentials and he was sent back to his own lines with the message that if Austria desired to ask for an armistice, it must observe the proprieties of the occasion and send a more representative and duly accredited mission. The next evening the white flag was again hoisted over the Austrian lines and a delegation of high military and naval officers and diplomatic representatives, headed by General von Weber entered the Italian lines. After the formalities of the occasion had been observed, the delegation was taken to the headquarters of General Diaz, where General Badoglio conducted the negotiations for the Italian army. To the request for an armistice he promised to deliver within an hour the Italian answer. Meanwhile, in expectation of the Austrian plea, the Allied War Council at Versailles had been at work on the terms, and within the

promised time these were communicated to the Austrian delegation. The Austrian delegation at once communicated the terms to Vienna and the next day they were accepted. The formal armistice was signed at 3 o'clock Sunday afternoon, November 3d, and the fighting ceased at 3 o'clock the next morning.

### Austria Surrenders

In effect, in accepting the terms of the armistice, Austria surrendered unconditionally, as had Bulgaria and Turkey. The large interests involved, however, necessitated the writing out of stipulations, and these, after providing for the disposition of the military and naval forces of the Austrian empire, required the evacuation not only of Italian soil, but of Italia Irredenta—those parts of Austria peopled almost wholly by Italians, such as Trentino and the Istrian peninsula—and also of Bosnia, Herzegovina and Dalmatia, which were to become, after a settlement of Italian claims relating to Fiume and the Dalmatian Coast, part of the new Jugo Slav state, embracing Serbia, Montenegro, Croatia and Slavonia. Recognition of this new state was required as well as recognition of the independence of Bohemia.

Following the collapse of the army came the collapse of the Austrian Empire itself. Hungary dissolved the union with Austria and a few days later Emperor Karl, whose dominion once was the second largest in Europe, abdicated his throne and retired to a country estate.

### First Scene of the Last Act

The collapse of the ramshackle Austro-Hungarian Empire closed the first scene of the last act in the great world war for democracy. The action now shifts back to France, where the denouement rapidly was approaching. The terms of the armistice with Austria opened the back door of Ger-

many to attack, both on the Russian and on the Austrian frontiers. Bavaria, fearing invasion, demanded that the Imperial German government at once sue for peace, else the Bavarian army would be withdrawn from the front for the protection of its own frontier. The Belgians, British and French were steadily hammering the German forces at all points, driving the once proud army mile after mile toward its own frontiers, never ceasing day or night the swing of their hammer blows.

#### Americans Advance in the Argonne

The culminating event was the resumption, after a few days of rest, of the American advance in the Argonne. With the Kreimhilde line broken, the last of the prepared German defenses in the Argonne region was gone. On October 23d the Americans pressed forward and threw back the enemy's counter-attacks with great loss to him, taking valuable ground, which was needed for the work to come. It was evident the continuous American advance was telling upon the German morale. Taught to believe that America was a nation of bluffers, that its army couldn't get to France and couldn't fight if it should get there, the strong evidence to the contrary that the German soldier was getting day after day got on his nerves. Uninterrupted success, on the other hand, had heightened, if possible, the American morale and the army now was ready to give the enemy the coup de grace.

The position of the American lines and the future plan of operations necessitated a regrouping of the American forces, and the troops were given another short rest while the necessary changes were being made, artillery brought up and ammunition replenished. Rested divisions were placed in line and the advance was resumed November 1st. The increased artillery force, with the addition of 16-inch

naval guns, which shelled German railroad junctions and supply bases far in the rear, acquitted itself with great credit in support of the advance, and the infantry swept forward irresistibly against the German lines, which, by this time, were too far worn with the constant pressure of the Americans to do more than hold their forces together as they were pushed back toward the Belgian frontier. By the next day the American movement became an overwhelming onslaught, gaining speed with every yard until finally it was only by loading troops and machine guns in motor trucks and hurrying them forward that the Americans were able to keep in touch with the enemy. The morning of November 6th, the 42d Division reached the Meuse at Sedan, deferring entrance to the city, so famous in French history, until a division from the French army on the left could swing forward and cross the river, and thus have the honor. The strategical goal of the advance was gained. One of the two German lines of retreat now was cut off. The enemy was left now with the narrow bottle neck through Liege and Spa as its sole avenue of escape. Nothing but surrender or an armistice could avert a disaster to the German armies.

#### The Onward Sweep of the Allies

To the right, the American forces had crossed the Meuse and were sweeping out to circle Metz from the West. South of Metz a French and American army was being concentrated for the launching of a huge offensive designed to sweep through Alsace and Lorraine to the Rhine, and to carry the war onto true German soil. In the West the French had swept the Germans almost from the soil of France, while the British army was now wholly on Belgian soil and approaching Mons, the scene of the historic stand of the "Contemptibles" of 1914, as the German hordes swept

through Belgium toward Paris. The gallant little Belgian army was driving toward Brussels and Antwerp.

With Sedan taken, the German army was no longer capable of resistance. The evening of November 7th, the German government communicated by wireless with Marshal Foch, informing him that delegates, including Mathias Erzberger, General Winterfeld, Count von Oberndorff, General von Gruenell and Naval Captain von Salow had been appointed to receive the terms of an armistice. Marshal Foch promptly replied, informing the German government that he would receive the delegates, and directing them to proceed to a designated spot in the lines.

#### Germans Receive Terms of the Armistice

The German delegates arrived at Marshal Foch's headquarters in his private car at Senlis, November 8th, and the formal terms of the armistice were delivered to them. It was with something of a shock that the delegation learned that Germany was to be given no better terms than its accomplices in the gigantic tragedy she herself had engineered. In fact, though the Allies had demanded unconditional surrender from Bulgaria, Turkey and Austria, the terms were even harsher in German ears in that the Allies laid down explicit stipulations that humbled German pride in the dust. The time for argument had gone, there was nothing to do but accept, and, the morning of November 11, 1918, at 5 o'clock the armistice was signed. At 11 o'clock the last shots were fired.

#### The Allied Terms of the Armistice.

1. Military clauses on Western front:
  1. Cessation of operations by land and in the air six hours after the signature of the armistice.
  2. Immediate evacuation of invaded countries: Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine, Luxemburg, so ordered as to be completed within fourteen days from the signature of the armistice. German troops which have not left the above mentioned territories within the period fixed

will become prisoners of war. Occupation by the Allied and United States forces jointly will keep pace with evacuation in these areas. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated in accordance with a note annexed to the stated terms.

#### Must Free All Prisoners

3. Repatriation beginning at once and to be completed within fifteen days of all inhabitants of the countries above mentioned, including hostages and persons under trial or convicted.

4. Surrender in good condition by the German armies of the following equipment: Five thousand guns (2,500 heavy, 2,500 field), 25,000 machine guns, 3,000 minnenwerfer, 1,700 aeroplanes (fighters, bombers—firstly D 73s and night bombing machines). The above to be delivered *in situ* to the Allies and the United States troops in accordance with the detailed conditions laid down in the annexed note.

#### Must Retire Behind Rhine

5. Evacuation by the German armies of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. These countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be administered by local troops of occupation. The occupation of these territories will be carried out by Allied and United States garrisons holding the principal crossings of the Rhine, Mayence, Coblenz, Cologne, together with bridgeheads at these points in 30-kilometer radius on the right bank and by garrisons similarly holding the strategic points of the regions. A neutral zone shall be reserved on the right bank of the Rhine between the stream and a line drawn parallel to it twenty-five miles to the east from the frontier of Holland to the parallel of Gernsheim and, as far as practicable, a distance of thirty kilometers from the east of stream from this parallel upon Swiss frontier. Evacuation by the enemy of the Rhine lands shall be so ordered as to be completed within a further period of thirty-one days after the signature of the armistice. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated according to the note annexed.

#### Must Not Molest Civilians.

6. In all territory evacuated by the enemy there shall be no evacuation of inhabitants; no damage or harm shall be done to the persons or property of the inhabitants. No destruction of any kind to be committed. Military establishments of all kinds shall be delivered intact, as well as military stores of food, munitions, equipments not removed during the periods fixed for evacuation. Stores of food of all kinds for the civil population, cattle, etc., shall be left *in situ*. Industrial establishments shall not be impaired in any way and their personnel shall not be moved. Roads and means of communication of every kind, railroad, waterways, main roads, bridges, telegraphs, telephones, shall be in no manner impaired. No person shall be prosecuted for offenses of participation in war measures prior to the signing of the armistice.

#### Must Give Up Rolling Stock.

7. All civil and military personnel at present employed on them shall remain. Five thousand locomotives, one hundred and fifty thousand wagons and five thousand motor lorries in good working order, with all necessary spare parts and fittings, shall be delivered to the associated powers with twenty-five days. The railways of Alsace-Lorraine shall be handed over within thirty-six days, together with all pre-war personnel and material. Further material necessary for working of railways in the country on the left bank of the Rhine shall be left *in situ*. All stores of coal and material for the upkeep of permanent ways, signals and repair shops left entire *in situ* and kept in an effi-

cient state by Germany during the whole period of armistice. All barges taken from the Allies shall be restored to them. A note appended regulates the details of these measures.

8. The German command shall be responsible for revealing all mines or delay-acting fuses disposed on territory evacuated by the German troops and shall assist in their discovery and destruction within forty-eight hours. The German command shall also reveal all destructive measures that may have been taken (such as poisoning or polluting of springs, wells, etc.) under penalty of reprisals.

#### Our Armies Must Be Fed

9. The right of requisition shall be exercised by the Allies and the United States armies in all occupied territory, subject to regulation of accounts with those whom it may concern. The upkeep of the troops of occupation in the Rhine land (excluding Alsace-Lorraine) shall be charged to the German government.

10. An immediate repatriation, without reciprocity, according to detailed conditions which shall be fixed, of all Allied and United States prisoners of war. The Allied powers and the United States shall be able to dispose of these prisoners as they wish.

11. Sick and wounded who cannot be removed from evacuated territory will be cared for by German personnel, who will be left on the spot with the medical material required.

II. Disposition relative to the eastern frontiers of Germany:

12. All German troops at present in any territory which before the war belonged to Rumania, Turkey, or Austria-Hungary shall withdraw within the frontiers of Germany as they existed on August 1, 1914. As to territory that belonged to Russia, it is provided that the German troops now there shall withdraw within the frontiers of Germany as soon as the Allies, taking into account the internal situation of those territories, shall decide that the time for this has come.

#### Must Evacuate at Once

13. Evacuation by German troops to begin at once and all German instructors, prisoners, and civilian as well as military agents, now on the territory of Russia (as defined before 1914) to be recalled.

14. German troops to cease at once all requisitions and seizures and any other undertaking with a view to obtaining supplies intended for Germany in Rumania and Russia (as defined on August 1, 1914).

15. Renunciation of the treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk and of the supplementary treaties.

#### Free Access to Evacuated Places

16. The Allies shall have free access to the territories evacuated by the Germans on their eastern frontier, either through Danzig or by the Vistula, in order to convey supplies to the populations of those territories or for maintaining order.

III. Clause concerning East Africa:

17. Evacuation of all German forces operating in East Africa within a period to be fixed by the Allies.

IV. General clauses:

18. Reparation, without reciprocity, within a maximum period of one month, in accordance with detailed conditions hereafter to be fixed, of all civilians interned or deported who may be citizens of other Allies or associated states than those mentioned in clause three, paragraph nineteen.

**Reparation Is Demanded**

19. The following financial conditions are required: Reparation for damage done. While such armistice lasts no public securities shall be removed by the enemy which can serve as a pledge to the Allies for the recovery or repatriation for war losses. Immediately restitution of the cash deposit in the National Bank of Belgium and in general immediate return of all documents, specie, stocks, shares, paper money, together with plant for the issue thereof, touching public or private interests in the invaded countries. Restitution of the Russian and Rumanian gold yielded to Germany or taken by that power. This gold to be delivered in trust to the Allies until the signature of peace.

**V. Naval condition.**

20. Immediate cessation of all hostilities at sea and definite information to be given as to the location and movements of all German ships. Notification to be given to neutrals that freedom of navigation in all territorial waters is given to the naval and mercantile marines of the Allied and associated powers, all questions of neutrality being waived.

**To Surrender 160 Submarines.**

21. All naval and mercantile marine prisoners of war of the Allied and associated powers in German hands to be returned without reciprocity.

22. Surrender to the Allies and the United States of America of all German submarines now existing (including all submarine cruisers and mine laying submarines) with their complete armament and equipment in ports which will be specified by the Allies and the United States of America. Those which cannot take the sea shall be disarmed of the material and personnel and shall remain under the supervision of the Allies and the United States. All other submarines to be paid off and completely disarmed and placed under the supervision of the Allied Powers and the United States of America.

**Will Give Up Seventy-Four Ships**

23. The following German surface warships, which shall be designated by the Allies and the United States of America, shall forthwith be disarmed and thereafter interned in neutral ports, or for the want of them, in allied ports, to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America and placed under the surveillance of the Allies and the United States of America, only care takers being left on board, namely: Six battle cruisers, ten battle ships, eight light cruisers, including two mine layers, fifty destroyers of the most modern type. All other surface warships (including river craft) are to be concentrated in German naval bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America, and are to be paid off and completely disarmed and placed under the supervision of the Allies and the United States of America. All vessels of the auxiliary fleet (trawlers, motor vessels, etc.) are to be disarmed, designated for internment shall be ready to leave German ports within seven days upon directions by wireless, and that the military armament of all vessels of the auxiliary fleet shall be put on shore.

**Will Sweep Up Mines.**

24. The Allies and the United States of America shall have the right to sweep up all mine fields and obstructions laid by Germany outside German territorial waters, and the positions of these are to be indicated.

25. Freedom of access to and from the Baltic to be given to the naval and mercantile marines of the Allied and associated powers. To



secure this, the Allies and the United States of America shall be empowered to occupy all German forts, fortifications, batteries and defense works of all kinds in all the entrances from the Categat into the Baltic, and to sweep up all mines and obstructions within and without German territorial waters without any question of neutrality being raised, and the positions of all such mines and obstructions are to be indicated.

#### Blockade Is to Continue.

26. The existing blockade conditions set up by the Allies and associated powers are to remain unchanged and all German merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture. The Allies and the United States should give consideration to the provisioning of Germany during the armistice to the extent recognized necessary.

27. All naval aircraft are to be concentrated and immobilized in German bases to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America.

28. In evacuating the Belgian coasts and ports, Germany shall abandon all merchant ships, tugs, lighters, cranes and all other harbor materials, all materials for inland navigation, all aircraft and all materials and stores, all arms and armaments and all stores and apparatus of all kinds.

29. All Black Sea ports are to be evacuated by Germany; all Russian war vessels of all descriptions seized by Germany in the Black Sea are to be handed over to the Allies and the United States of America, all neutral merchant vessels seized are to be released; all warlike and other materials of all kinds seized in those ports are to be returned and German materials as specified in clause twenty-eight are to be abandoned.

30. All merchant vessels in German hands belonging to the Allied and associated powers are to be restored in ports to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America without reciprocity.

31. No destruction of ships or of materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender or restoration.

32. The German government will notify the neutral governments of the world, and particularly the governments of Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Holland, that all restrictions placed on the trading of their vessels with the Allied and associated countries, whether by the German government or by private German interests and whether in return for specific concessions such as export of shipbuilding materials, or not, are immediately canceled.

33. No transfers of German merchant shipping of any description to any neutral flag are to take place after signature of the armistice.

#### VI. Duration of armistice:

34. The duration of the armistice is to be thirty days, with option to extend. During this period, on failure of execution of any of the above clauses, the armistice may be denounced by any of the contracting parties on forty-eight hours' previous notice. It is understood that the execution of Articles 3 and 18 shall not warrant the denunciation of the armistice on the ground of insufficient execution within a period fixed except in the case of bad faith in carrying them into execution. In order to assure the execution of this convention under the best conditions the principle of a permanent international armistice commission is admitted. This commission shall act under the authority of the Allied military and navy commanders in chief.

#### VII. Time limit for reply:

35. This armistice to be accepted or refused by Germany within seventy-two hours of notification.



By permission of the K. C. Star.

#### LOCATION OF ARMIES AT THE TIME OF SIGNING ARMISTICE.

The Hindenburg Line.

Battle Line November 11th, when the Armistice was signed.

Line to which German Army retired after Armistice was signed. All territory west of the Rhine occupied by Allied forces, also all shaded territory east of the Rhine.

### The Triumph of Democracy

So long as the war went well for Germany, the German people stood united behind the government and the army, and the vast majority were in thorough accord with the policy of forcing upon the Allies a "strong German peace," in other words, a peace of conquest, loot and economic enslavement. When the war began to go against Germany it was another story. Germany had been told by her military masters that the war had been forced upon the German people, and the German people, even those who knew better, reiterated this to the world. Those who had been deceived began gradually, as the war progressed, to learn differently, although, while victory was in prospect, it made no change in their attitude. When victory became doubtful, it was characteristic of the German people that they should begin to turn upon those who had sought to raise them to the mastery of the world. In this they were helped along by propagandists of two widely differing schools—the President of the United States and the Bolsheviki. The one appealed to the orderly Democracy of Germany, the other to the cupidity of the baser element of the German people. Each was successful in a growing degree as defeat for the Germany army loomed more and more inevitable. With hope for victory gone, came the German desire for peace, any kind of a peace just so that the fighting ended and Germany could get food. President Wilson had made it very plain to the German people that no peace could be made with the autocracy that ruled it. Very well, then, Germany would get rid of the autocracy.

No sooner had the German armies been hurled back from the Marne and upon the Somme than rumors began to filter out from Germany of growing unrest within the empire. Rumors developed into facts, and frequent cabinet changes followed, and efforts were made to appease the people by modifications in the government designed to limit

the power of the autocracy and place the government on a Democratic basis. The emperor appealed to the people, first to stand firm, and then, as the gathering clouds grew darker, to spare his throne. By the middle of October the unrest had grown beyond any power to stop it. Huge mass meetings were held, in which the soldiers joined, and revolution was proclaimed. The first definite step was the mutiny of the sailors of the fleet, who deposed their officers and took charge of the vessels. There was some fighting and a number of officers were killed. The mutiny rapidly spread at the naval ports and in Hamburg, and several thousand sailors proceeded to Berlin where they set the spark that flamed up over the empire. The Socialist parties promptly took charge of the uprising, and on November 7th the managing committee served notice upon Prince Maximilian of Baden, the imperial chancellor, that the emperor and the crown prince must abdicate. The emperor and the crown prince were then at military headquarters. Secretly, the Kaiser, with a small entourage, fled to Holland, and the crown prince followed. On November 9th, Prince Maximilian announced that the Kaiser had abdicated, and this announcement was supplemented with a statement from the crown prince renouncing his rights to the imperial as well as the Prussian thrones.

This was followed by the resignation of Prince Maximilian, who entrusted the chancellorship to Friedrich Ebert, a Socialist, and the Socialist party took charge of the government. There existed, however, a strong Bolshevik element in the cities and numerous councils of soldiers and workmen were set up. These gradually rallied to the leadership of the extremely radical Spartacus group led by Dr. Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg. In the contest for power that followed, the armed forces of the government and the Bolshevik Spartans fought a civil war which ended

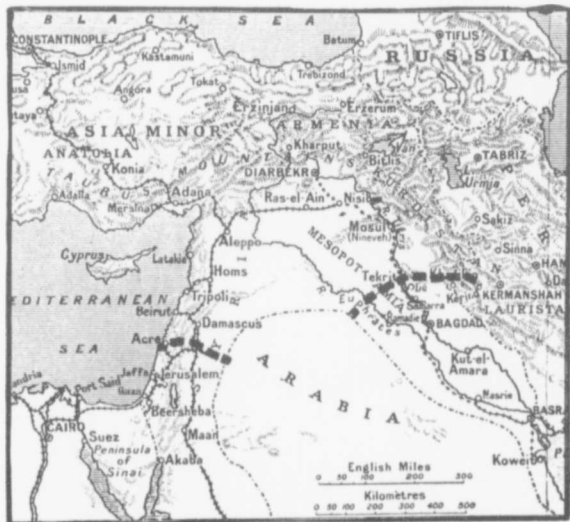
with what amounted to the murder of Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg in January, 1919, after they had been arrested by government troops. Meantime, elections for a new national assembly, which was to draw up a constitution for a German republic were held, and the government coalition obtained a large majority. Sporadic outbreaks of the radical element continued for a time, but order finally was restored.

The army which had been on the Western front took little part in the revolution. General Ludendorff, the real directing head of the army, had followed the Kaiser into exile. Field Marshal von Hindenburg placed himself under the new government and held the army firmly in hand as it conducted the evacuation of France and Belgium and the Rhine provinces and carried out the terms of the armistice that applied specifically to the military forces.

As the German army retired, the Allied armies followed in their wake and American troops first reached the Rhine December 8th. The French held the Alsatian stretch of the Rhine, the American Third Army, newly constituted as the Army of Occupation, took up the next area, with Coblenz as its center, and between them and the Dutch frontier were the British and the Belgians.

There remained now only the enforcement of the terms of the armistice and the framing of the treaty of peace. To the conference, which was to be held at Versailles, President Wilson appointed as the American delegates, himself, Secretary Lansing, Gen. Tasker Bliss, Henry White, and Col. E. M. House, who had been his confidential adviser since his election. The appointment of the delegates from other nations followed. The President and the other members of the delegation sailed for France December 2d. The President was given a great ovation when he landed in Paris, and even greater ovations, if possible, when he subsequently visited England and Italy.

Preliminary to the meeting of the peace congress, the supreme war council was composed of the President of the United States and the premiers of France, Great Britain held numerous conferences at which the details for the peace congress were settled. The first meeting of the Congress was held January 18, 1919, at Versailles, in the palace in which, exactly forty-eight years before, the German empire had been proclaimed. Upon the ruins of that once-powerful empire stood Democracy Triumphant around her gathered the free nations of the world to mould to her image the longings of all peoples.



By permission of the K. C. Star.

#### MESOPOTAMIA AND PALESTINE

The dotted lines show the British Fronts in Mesopotamia and Palestine the latter part of September, 1918, at which time the British forces in Palestine were within seventy miles of Damascus. Damascus is about 200 miles from Aleppo. The distance from Aleppo, where the Constantinople Railway joins the Bagdad to Constantinople through Asia Minor, is about eighty miles.



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**FRENCH FOREIGN LEGION IN IMPRESSIVE CEREMONY IN WASHINGTON.**

The famous French Foreign Legion is known all over the world for fearlessness in battle. A contingent of the Legionnaires came to the United States to aid in the Fourth Liberty Loan campaign. They paraded up Pennsylvania Avenue, went to see the President and here they are shown presenting their battleflag at the base of the Lafayette Monument in Washington. They visited the largest cities of the United States. They were in Kansas City, Mo., in September, 1918.



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OVATION GIVEN TO PRESIDENT WILSON UPON HIS FIRST ARRIVAL IN PARIS, DECEMBER, 1918.  
A general view of the Place de l'Étoile, showing the President's carriage passing the Triumphal Arch on its way to the Murat Castle, where President Wilson established his home during his stay in the French Capital. An idea of the vastness of the crowd which welcomed the president may be had from the assemblage in this square.





—3D—

AMERICAN ENGINEERS WHO FOUGHT WITH BRITISH AT CAMBRAL

British Official Photograph. Copyright, Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

Group of engineers who fought throughout the day and were especially mentioned. The men dropped their tools and fought with the British troops when the Germans made an attack. The Germans were given a hearty reception by the American fighters, even though the Sammies were not armed.



Canadian Official Photograph from Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

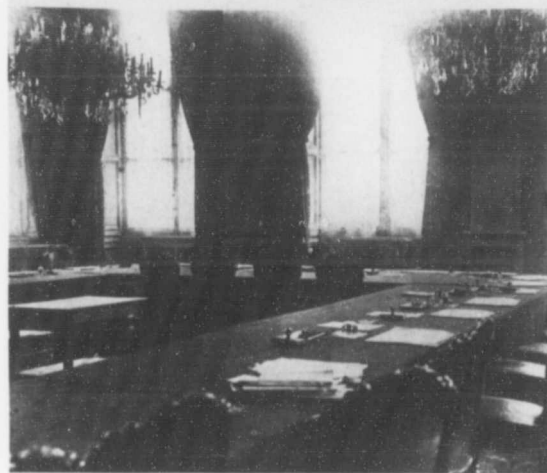
**VICTORIOUS CANADIANS ENTER MONS ON ARMISTICE MORNING.**

When the news that the victorious Canadians were entering their city was coupled with the report that the Armistice had been signed, the entire city of Mons went wild with excitement. Everywhere the Allied flags were hung from the windows as the crowds joined in the singing of the national anthems. This photo shows a Canadian kilted battalion marching through Mons on the morning of November 11th, 1918.



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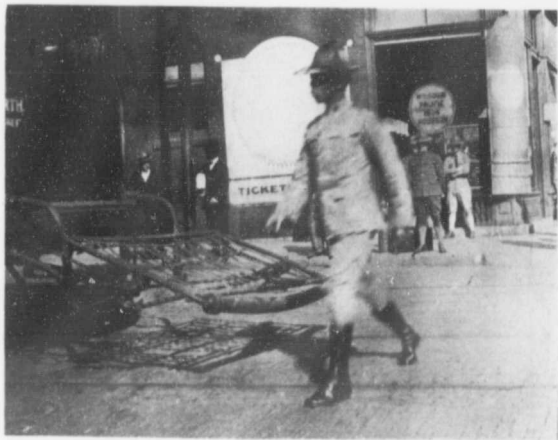
FIRST ACTUAL PHOTOGRAPH OF THE SOLDIERS AND WORKMEN IN CONTROL OF THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT. Crowds collected upon Unter-den-Linden, the pride of the Ex-emperor, listening to Philip Scheidemann proclaiming the German Republic in front of the Reichstag Building. In the center of the picture is the Zeughaus, the German Museum in which are collected captured guns, flags and material of the Franco-Prussian War. It was on November 8th that the Republic was proclaimed, the same day upon which this picture was made.



French Official Photograph from Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.  
THE FRENCH MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS ON THE QUAY D'ORSAY, PARIS, THE SCENE OF THE PEACE CONFERENCE IN FRANCE.  
The upper panel shows the building as seen from the quay. The lower, the Clock Room, where President Wilson and the delegates of the Allied nations assembled.



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.  
**FRENCH TROOPS REVIEWED AT WIESBADEN, GERMANY.**  
General Lecomte of the French Army is here shown reviewing the 33rd Army Corps at Wiesbaden, Germany. Wiesbaden, which was formerly the capital of the Duchy of Nassau, is now noted as the chief town of the Prussian district of Wiesbaden.

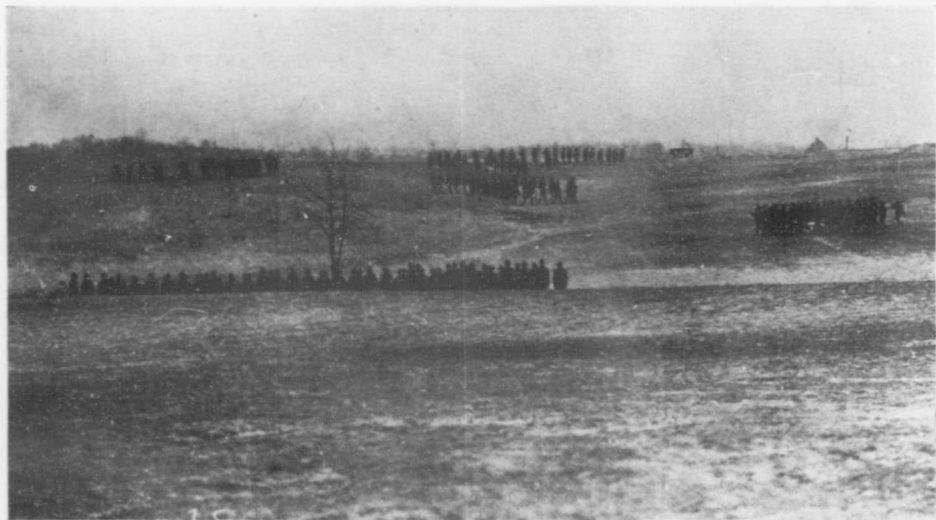


COLORED SOLDIER.

Photographed at Leavenworth, Kansas.



Copyright by International Film Service, Inc.  
COLORED SOLDIERS REPAIRING RAILWAY LINES OF COMMUNICATION  
FROM BREST TO THE FRONT LINES.



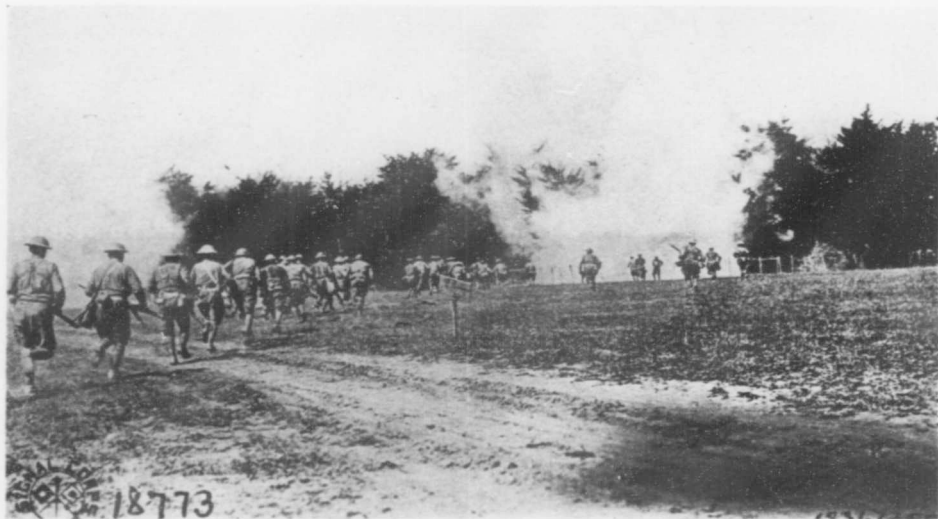
Photograph from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
COLORED TROOPERS DRILLING AT CAMP MEADE.

Copyright, G. V. Buck, Washington, D. C.



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AMERICAN AMBULANCE OUTSIDE THE DRESSING STATION AT CHEMIN DES DAMES, WAITING, READY FOR WORK.





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82D DIVISION.  
Companies H and K of the 336th Infantry following the 207th Engineers in an advance on the enemy.

Photograph by Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.



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**AMERICANS IN THE ST. MIHIEL SALIENT.**

A remarkable photograph of streams of American soldiers pouring into the St. Mihiel salient, with continuous pressure on the retreating Germans. In the background may be seen the famous Mont Sec, strongly fortified by the Germans but captured by the Americans in the course of the first day of the assault. The soldiers in the foreground are machine gunners; their column is crossing the route of a supply train.



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Photograph by Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

**THE LONG, LONG TRAIL OF THE AMERICAN ARMY OF OCCUPATION.**

1st Engineers, 1st Division on the march in occupied Germany. The scene is a road near Wirges, which is eleven miles northeast of the city of Coblenz.



International Film Service, Inc.

**CAPTOR OF JERUSALEM**  
General Sir Edmund H. H. Allenby.

With not a desecrated church or shrine, he lead his men on foot into the Holy City, where for centuries before no conqueror had entered.



Major General Hunter Liggett, who led the First American Army, when in the initial offensive the St. Mihiel salient was wiped out in a single day, was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-General by President Wilson.



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**GENERAL ROBERT LEE BULLARD'S SECOND AMERICAN ARMY GETS ITS BAPTISM OF FIRE**

The new Second American Army under command of General Bullard received, as a unit, its baptism of fire when it repulsed a German raid in the Argonne Forest, on the Meuse River front.



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**A PONTOON BRIDGE.**

A military bridge on the Aisne built by the Americans.



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Photograph by Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

**BRIDGE OF BOATS.**

A column of American Pioneer Troops crossing the Rhine at Coblenz over the Bridge of Boats. The bridge, which was nearly 400 yards long, was so constructed that it could be opened to allow river boats to pass.

## CONCLUSION

The war was won. Germany's army still was intact and her front unbroken, not because it could not be broken but because the breaking was not worth the price. But her military power was shattered forever, her naval power a withered arm no more effective than "painted ships upon a painted ocean." Her dream of world domination was forever faded. Deserted by her allies one by one, threatened by invasion and the ravages of war, weakened by the hunger of four long and weary years, facing a winter of more terrible hardships than she had yet experienced, there was no alternative to submission. Whatever hopes the German people may have had for an honorable peace were dashed to the ground. The time had months passed when the Allies might have treated with her upon that basis. The giant of militarism had been shorn of his locks, stripped of his might. Germany must surrender unconditionally and submit with the best grace that she could muster to whatever terms the Allies saw fit to impose upon her. That these terms would not be light she well knew, for in the flush of her successes she had let it be known what her own terms might be. These boastings of four years re-echoed a mockery in her ears. The ghosts of countless murdered children, of cities full of outraged women, the pleadings of tortured prisoners and shrieks of the maimed, torn by bombs showered upon defenseless cities and hospitals, haunted them. Retribution had come—terrible and unrelenting.

The world had marveled and shuddered at the colossal defeats inflicted upon the Italians and upon the British less than a year before. Here was a turn of the tide, which brought about the most colossal military collapse in history. Five short months had turned the apples of victory into the ashes of defeat in her mouth. Helpless longer to continue the struggle into which her over-ambitious leaders had

deceived her, there was no alternative to submission. Germany henceforth must do penance for the sins her misguided leaders had guided her into.

In these pages an attempt has been made to trace the causes of the great world conflict and its course. From the beginning there can be traced the clash of two absolutely hostile ideals. On the one hand we find "world power" and "militarism" and the doctrine of the "will to power." On the other we find the Entente nations striving to uphold their own rights to life and liberty. They have sought to defend themselves against an avalanche of military autocracy which threatened to carry all things before it.



GEN. JOHN J. PERSHING, U. S. A.



## IMPORTANT BATTLES OF THE WAR

The following list shows in alphabetical order the names and dates of the most important battles of the World War:

- Aisne, battle of, September 14, 1914.  
 Aisne Caverns, battle of, October 23, 1914.  
 Allenstein, battle of, September 1, 1914.  
 Ancre, battle of, November 13, 1916.  
 Argesu, battle of, December 3, 1916.  
 Arras, battle of, April 9, 1917.  
 Artois, fighting in the, September 26, October 2, 1915.  
 Bapaume, captured by British, March 17, 1917; lost to Germans, March 24, 1918; recaptured by British, August 29, 1918.  
 Belloy en Senterre, battle of, July 4, 1916.  
 Brest-Litovsk, captured by Germans, August 25, 1915.  
 Cambrai, battle of, November 21, 1917; October 9, 1918.  
 Caporetto, battle of, October 24, 1917.  
 Carso Plateau, battle of, May 23-24, 1917.  
 Champagne, battle of the, September 25-30, 1915.  
 Chateau Thierry, battle of, July 15, 1918.  
 Craonne, battle of, January 25-27, 1915; village recaptured by French, May 4, 1917.  
 Dardanelles, campaign begun November 3, 1914; ended January 9, 1916.  
 Dardanelles Forts, bombardment of, begun February 19, 1915.  
 Dogger Bank, British naval, victory, January 24, 1915.  
 Douaumont Fort, captured by Germans, February 26, 1916; recaptured by French, October 21, 1916.  
 Duna'ec, battle of the, May 1, 1915.  
 Falkland Islands, naval battle of, December 8, 1914.  
 Festubert, battle of, May 16-17, 1915.  
 Fleury, battles of, July 11, August 17, 1916.  
 Gaze, battle of, March 26-27, 1917.  
 Ghelvelt, battle of, October 31, 1914.  
 Givenchy, battle of, December 19-21, 1914.  
 Helgoland, naval battle of, August 28, 1914.  
 Hermannstadt, battle of, September 30, 1916.  
 Hooge, battle of, August 3-9, 1915.  
 Huloch, battle of, September 25-October 2, 1915.  
 Jerusalem, captured by British, December 9, 1917.  
 Jutland, naval battle of, May 31, 1916.  
 Kut-el-Amara, surrender of British force at, April 29, 1916; recaptured February 22-26, 1917.  
 La Bassée, battle of, January 25-28, 1915.  
 Le Cateau, battle of, August 6, 1914; October 19, 1918.  
 Lemberg, taken by Russians, September 2, 1914.  
 Liège, captured by Germans, August 5-8, 1914.  
 Loos, battle of, September 25 to October 8, 1915.  
 Louvain, burned, August 26, 1914.  
 Marne first battle of, September 6-11, 1914; second battle, July 15, 1918.  
 Messines Ridge, June 7, 1917.  
 Meuse-Argonne, battles of, September 26, October 4, and November 1, 1918.  
 Monchy le Preux, battle of, April 23-25, 1917.  
 Mons, battle of, August 21-23, 1914.  
 Neuve Chapelle, battle of, March 10-12, 1915.  
 Piave, battles of, June 23, October 28, 1918.  
 Przemyśl, siege of, September 20, 1914, to March 22, 1915.

Reims, October 2-9, 1918.  
St. Eloi, battle of, December 9, 1914.  
St. Julien, battle of, October 14, 1918.  
St. Mihiel, battle of, September 12, 1918.  
Soissons, first battle of, September 15, 1914; second battle of, January 8-12, 1915.  
Somme, battle of, July 1, 1916.  
Suez Canal, battle near, February 2, 1915.  
Tannenberg, battle of, August 26, 1914.  
Tarnopol, battle of, September 8, 1915.  
Torey, battle of, July 18, 1918.  
Vaux, battle of, July 1, 1918.  
Verdun, German attacks on began February 22, 1916.  
Vilna, captured by Germans, September 18, 1915.  
Vimy Ridge, captured by Canadians, April 9, 1917.  
Warsaw, captured by Germans, August 4, 1915.  
Ypres, first battle of, October 20-31, 1914; second battle of, April 22-24, 1915; third battle of, July 30-August 2, 1917.  
Yser Canal, battles along, October 20-28, 1914.



**GENERAL FRANCHET D'ESPEREY**  
Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Forces in Macedonia.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE WAR

**1914.**  
 June 28—Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, murdered at Sarajevo.

July 5—Kaiser's Crown Council at Potsdam resolves upon war.

July 23—Austria sends ultimatum to Serbia.

July 28—Austria declares war on Serbia.

July 31—Russia mobilizes her armies.

August 1—Germany declares war on Russia and invades Luxemburg.

August 3—Germany declares war on France and invades Belgium.

August 4—Great Britain declares war on Germany.

August 20—Germans occupy Brussels.

August 23—Japanese bombard Tsingtau.

August 25—Germans burn Louvain.

August 26—British and French troops conquer Togoland.

August 29—Samoa captured by New Zealand forces.

September 2—Russians capture Lemberg.

September 5—Great Britain, France Russia sign an agreement to make no separate peace, Japan and Italy adhering later.

September 6-9—Battle of the Marne in which the French turned back the tide of invasion and forced the Germans to retreat to the Aisne.

September 11—Australians capture New Guinea and Bismarck archipelago.

September 16—Russians under Rennenkampf retreat from East Prussia.

September 22—British cruisers Aboukir, Hogue and Cressy sunk by submarines in North Sea.

October 9—Germans occupy Antwerp.

October 14—Allies occupy Ypres, halt Germans on the Yser.

November 1—British cruisers Monmouth and Good Hope sunk in action off the Chilean coast.

November 2—Great Britain declares war on Turkey and annexes Cyprus.

November 7—Japanese capture Tsingtau.

November 10—German cruiser Emden caught and destroyed at Cocos Island by British.

December 2—Austrians capture Belgrade.

December 8—British naval victory of the Falkland Islands—South African rebellion collapses.

December 14—Serbians recapture Belgrade.

December 17—Egypt declared a British protectorate.

December 24—First German air raid on England.

**1915.**

January 24—British naval victory in North Sea off Dogger Bank.

February 18—German submarine blockade of Great Britain begun.

February 19—Anglo-French squadron begins attack on Dardanelles.

March 1—British order in council issued to prevent commodities of any kind reaching or leaving Germany.

March 17—Russians capture Permyssl.

April 17—Second battle of Ypres begun. Gas used by Germans for first time.

April 26—Allies land in Gallipoli.

May 2—Russians, defeated in battle of the Dunaiej, begin retirement in Galicia.

May 7—The Lusitania sunk by submarine.

May 23—Italy declares war on Austria.

June 2—Italians cross the Isonzo.

June 2—Austro-Germans retake Permyssl.

June 25—Austro-Germans recapture Lemberg.

July 9—Conquest of German Southwest Africa completed.

August 4—Germans capture Warsaw.

August 19—The Arabic sunk by submarine.

August 29—Italy declares war on Turkey.

September 28—Turks defeated at Kutel-Amara.

October 6—Allies land at Salonica.

October 11—Bulgarians invade Serbia.

October 12—Nurse Cavell shot by Germans in Brussels.

October 14—Great Britain declares war on Bulgaria.

November 22—Battle of Ctesiphon in Mesopotamia.

December 2—Fall of Monastir and Austro-German conquest of Serbia completed.

**1916.**

January 8—Allies evacuate Gallipoli.

January 13—Austro-Germans capture Cetinje.

February 16—Russians capture Erzeroum.

February 18—The Cameroon conquered.

February 21—Battle of Verdum begun.

March 10—Germany declares war on Portugal.

April 19—American ultimatum to Germany threatening to break off relations unless Germany modified her submarine policy.

April 29—General Townshend at Kutel-Amara surrenders to Turks.

May 31—Naval battle off Jutland.

June 2—Third battle of Ypres begun.

June 5—Lord Kitchener drowned.

June 21—Grand Shereef of Mecca proclaims himself King of the Hedjaz.

June 17—Russians capture Czernowitz.

July 1—Battle of the Somme begun.

July 3—German submarine merchantman arrives at Baltimore.

August 2—Italians capture Gorizia.

August 27—Roumania enters war on the side of the Allies; Italy declares war on Germany.

September 15—British capture Courcellette; first appearance of the tanks.

September 25—Venizelos forms a provisional Greek government at Salonica.

November 18—French capture Mostar.

December 6—Germans capture Bucharest.

#### 1917.

January 31—Germany announces unrestricted submarine warfare.

February 2—United States severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

February 24—British capture Kut-el-Amara.

March 11—British capture Baghdad.

March 12—Revolution begun in Russia; Tsar abdicates.

April 6—United States declares war on Germany.

May 5—French gain the Chemin-des-Dames.

June 7—British capture Messines Ridge.

June 26—First American troops land in France.

June 29—Greece enters war against Germany.

July 26—Kerensky becomes Russian Premier.

July 23—Russians retreat at Galicia.

August 15—Italians begin drive on Isonzo front.

September 3—Germans capture Riga.

October 25—Italians driven back from Isonzo line.

November 7—Kerensky overthrown. Bolsheviki seize power in Russia; British in Palestine capture Gaza.

November 9—Italians reach the Piave line.

November 20—General Byng attacks with tanks near Cambrai.

December 9—Jerusalem captured by the British.

December 22—Bolsheviki begin peace negotiations with Central Powers.

#### 1918.

January 8—President Wilson announces fourteen points for settlement of world war.

March 3—Bolsheviki sign Brest-Litovsk treaty of peace with Central Powers.

March 21—German drive on the Somme begun to separate British and French armies.

April 5—Japanese, French and British marine land at Vladivostok.

April 9—Germans begin Lys drive for Channel ports.

April 14—General Foch appointed commander-in-chief of all allied armies.

April 22—British naval forces raid Zebrugge and Ostend, blocking submarine harbors.

May 1—Germans occupy Sebastopol and seize Russian Black Sea fleet.

May 9—Ostend again raided and the Vindictive sunk at entrance to harbor.

May 27—German drive on the Aisne begun, reaching the Marne.

June 6—Americans attack at Chateau-Thierry.

June 9—Fourth German drive begun on the Oise.

July 1—Americans capture Vaux.

July 15—Fifth and last German drive begun on Marne-Champagne front.

July 16—Tsar Nicholas reported murdered.

July 18—Foch begins counted offensive below the Marne.

August 2—French recapture Soissons.

August 4—Allies cross Vesle.

August 15—American troops reach Vladivostok.

August 25—British smash Hindenburg line.

August 31—Germans retreat from Lys salient.

September 4—Germans evacuate Lens.

September 12—Americans begin action, wiping out St. Mihiel salient in three days.

September 18—Bulgarian front crumbles before allied drive from Macedonia.

September 22—British defeat Turks, capture Nazareth.

September 30—Bulgaria surrenders.

October 1—British take Damascus.

October 6—Prince Maximilian of Baden, German Chancellor, asks President Wilson to move for peace.

October 17—Belgians reach Ostend and Bruges; Lille taken; British in Douai.

October 19—Belgian coast won.

October 20—French reach the Danube; Germany asks President Wilson for armistice.

October 21—Czechoslovakia recognized as a nation and army joins Allies.

October 25—Italy begins counter-offensive, driving the Austrians from the Piave.

October 26—General Allenby captures Aleppo.

October 28—Austria asks for separate peace, accepting all of President Wilson's terms; American long range guns shell Longuyon.

October 29—Italians drive Austrians out of Piave line.

October 30—Turkey surrenders, signs armistice.

November 2—Americans rout Germans in the Argonne.

November 3—Austria surrenders, signs armistice, effective three P.

M. November 4; Serbians re-enter Belgrade.

November 4—Allied Supreme War Council agrees on terms of armistice to Germany.

November 6—Germany breaks relations with Bolsheviks.

November 7—Americans enter Sedan.

November 9—Revolution in Germany; Kaiser flees to Holland.

November 11—German envoys sign armistice at Senlis.

December 3—King and Queen of Roumania enter Bucharest.

December 9—Spain severs rela-

tions with Germany.

December 13—Allies advance to the Rhine, occupying bridgeheads at Cologne, Coblenz and Mayence; President Wilson arrives in France to take part in peace conference; armistice extended to January 17.

December 14—German East African troops surrender in Rhodesia; President of Portugal assassinated.

December 16—Poland suspends relations with Germany.

December 26—President Wilson arrives in London as guest of King George.



THE BALKAN THEATER OF WAR

The line of advance is shown as it was in September, 1918, which resulted in the surrender of Bulgaria to the Allies and cut railway communication between Turkey and Austria-Hungary and Germany.

PRACTICAL EXAMINER  
IN THE  
FUNDAMENTALS OF THE WORLD WAR

The questions listed herein are based on the history of the World War, and the pages where the answers are to be found are indicated.

To be able to pass a credible examination on these questions would indicate that a fair and comprehensive understanding of the subject has been gained.

No one, and especially no teacher, can afford to be satisfied with a smattering and disconnected knowledge of this, the greatest of all wars.

Make use of the questions for self examination as well as for classroom work.

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### SUGGESTIONS

#### The Value of an Intelligent Democracy

The desire which lies at the root of democracy is nothing new; it is merely a desire of people to have a hand in the management of their own affairs. This desire used to be spoken of as a tendency, but now we speak of transition movements and the evolution of systems. Transition is essential, for without it we would be reduced to stagnation. Our task is not to prevent the change coming to us as a result of the war but to control it and make it as gradual as possible, thus giving time for right methods to be adopted. No greater period has ever presented itself for consideration than the present, and no greater obligation ever rested upon a people to instruct the youth in the fundamentals of democratic education, than the one resting upon us to plant and cultivate the ideals of free government and see to it that these ideals grow into the highest aspirations of patriotism.

If this education be neglected, indefinite impressions fill the mind with specters and hobgoblins, uncertain and lawless thoughts and we have anarchy.

#### THE VALUE OF INTELLIGENT READING

It is only within recent years that history is written with the fundamental purpose of stating the truth without fear. The old method was to repeat with some elaboration what was already known without attention to the sources of knowledge. Such a method served to perpetuate error as well as truth.

The first business of a history student is to establish the authenticity of the facts in the chain of historical development. He should be careful to refrain from making positive statements except as to facts, and to be moderate in expression. Silence concerning an event does not imply that it never happened, neither does it imply that it is of little importance.

The history student should not reach a conclusion from

a single or isolated fact; neither should he assume that what is true at one time will be true at another time or at another place.

The element of time is to the story of history what latitude and longitude is to geography. The chief value of a fact lies in its relation to other facts and if one does not have the time element in his knowledge of events his knowledge is valueless.

As each part of a machine must have its particular place in order to be of value to the whole structure, so each fact must have its proper relation to all other facts. The facts properly arranged make the framework of history which later becomes clothed with the story of human activity.

Careful reading relates date, place and participants which results in the increase of one's historical perception.

Historical imagination places the reader in thought in the time and place among the participants he is reading about. This power is to some extent natural but it is subject to cultivation and is essential to great historical perception.

The love of history grows by reading history; the student should endeavor through his imagination to see and feel the life of the past as it really was.

Mechanical reading is of little value. We should not read words and sentences, but ideas. The history student should cultivate the habit of selective reading; all facts are not of equal importance, though all may be necessary for the continuity of the story; learn to distinguish the essential from the less essential.

Mathew Arnold has written some wise words upon reading: "Estimate the proportion and relation of what you read. If we read but a very little, we naturally want to press it all; if we read a great deal, we are willing not to press the whole of what we read, and we learn what ought to be pressed and what not. To read to good purpose we must read a great deal, and be content not to use a great deal of what we read. Culture is reading; but reading with a purpose to guide it and with system. It has often been said and cannot be said too often: Give to any man the time he now wastes, not only on his vices (when he has them) but on useless business, wearisome or deteriorating amusements, trivial letter writing, random reading, and he will have plenty of time for culture."

Time is everlasting, some of us waste all of it, most of us waste much, but all of us waste some.

#### METHOD OF PRESENTATION

The growing interest in the study of history in the schools has led to improved methods in presenting the subject matter to the pupils. The following suggestions may be

of help to those who use this book; no suggestion, however, is of value unless supplemented by the judgment of the teacher in adapting the material to the capacity of the pupil.

The aim has been to present a concise account of the world war within reasonable compass; we have endeavored first, to state clearly and concisely the true conditions; second, to select from the mass of material that which gave shape and character in the development of events; and third, to tell the story as simply, clearly and continuously as possible.

A good characteristic of a well constructed history is instructive illustrations and photographs. Educators now believe that a picture possesses a certain value as a means of instruction and differs from the written narrative only in the fact that the story is told without words.

## THE EUROPEAN WAR

### Lesson I

#### Causes:

I—The unstable condition of Political Europe since 1870.

1. Military preparedness.
  - (a) Russia.
  - (b) Germany.
  - (c) Austria-Hungary.
2. Mobilization.
  - (a) The Belgian invasion.
  - (b) Intervention of Great Britain.

II—The Modern German Empire, 1871-1914.

1. The Franco-Prussian war, 1870-1871.
2. Germany's territorial acquisition.
3. The result on European politics.
4. Bismarck, his rise and fall.

### Lesson II

III—European Expansion, 1878-1914.

1. France and her Black Empire.
2. Germany and her African interests.
3. Great Britain with her widespread interests.
4. Russia with her interest in the Far East.

IV—The Triple Alliance vs. The Triple Entente.

1. The Triple Alliance.
  - (a) The membership and its purpose.
  - (b) Italy's interests.
2. The Triple Entente.
  - (a) Its origin.
  - (b) Its growth.
  - (c) The results to political Europe.



### Lesson III

V—The outbreak of the war, June 28th—August 4th, 1914.

1. The murder of the Austrian Crown Prince, June 28th.
2. Austria's note to Serbia.
3. Germany sought to dictate terms.
4. The conflict of the color books.

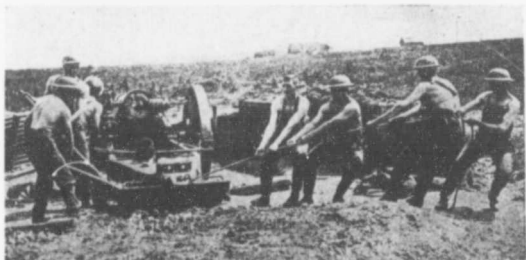
#### Review Lessons I and II

The remaining chapters are so carefully divided into topics and sub-topics that each chapter is an outline written into story. It remains, therefore, merely to determine the proper portion for each day's advance lesson. Each chapter may be divided into three lessons by grouping the topics.

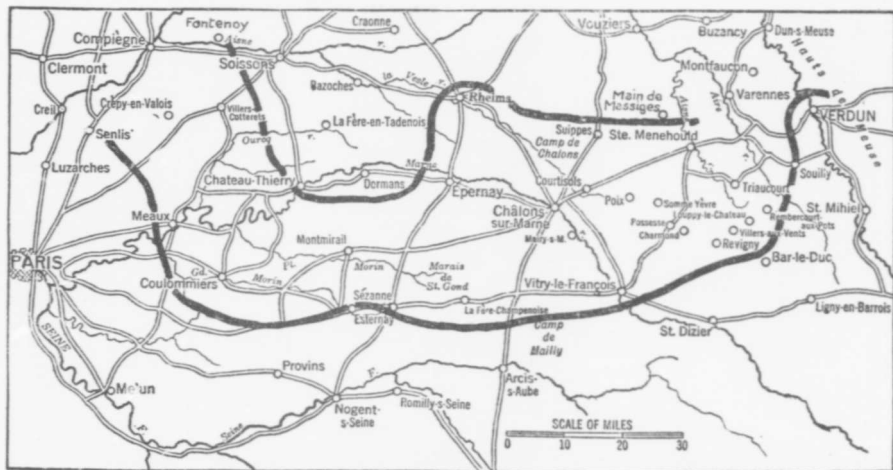
The questions following chapter ten are carefully prepared and paged for answers, this affords not only convenience, but is of great value in acquiring a knowledge of the subject.



GUNNERS WORK OVERTIME ON BRITISH FRONT IN FRANCE.



British Official Photograph. Copyright, Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.  
BRITISH GUNNERS STRIPPED TO THE WAIST SHELLING THE GERMANS.



THE MARNE BATTLEFIELDS.

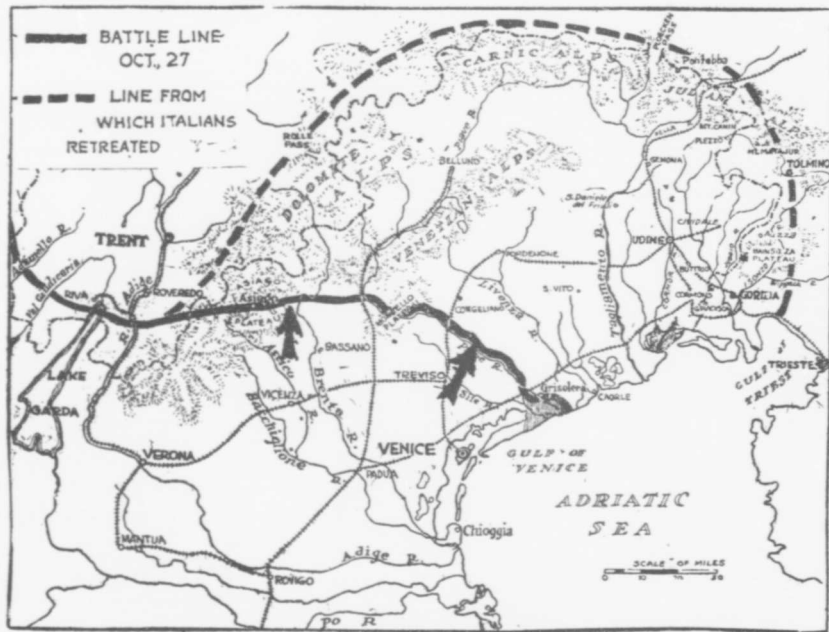
By permission of the K. C. Star.

The lower black line indicates front of Joffre's victory, September, 1914. The upper black line marks Foch's success, July, 1918. (Four years of fierce fighting on an extended front.)



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**MAP SHOWING AMERICAN ACTIVITY.**

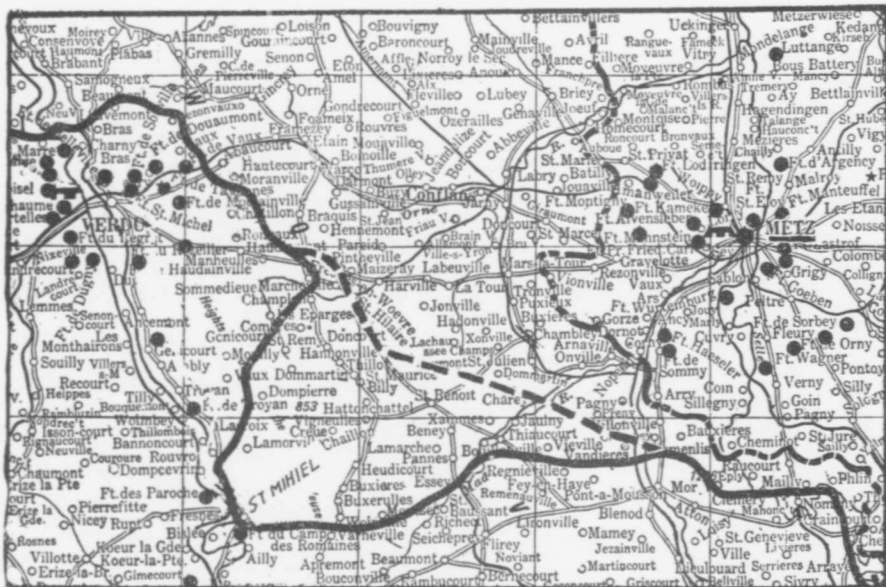
- 1—Territory taken by American troops in the capture of the St. Mihiel Salient, September, 1918.
- 2—Territory taken by Americans in the Argonne Battle, September 26th to November 11th.
- 3—Advance of 2d and 36th Divisions operating with the French Army in October.
- 4—Territory captured by American troops in the Marne pocket, beginning with the opening of the Allied offensive July 18th.
- 5—Cantigny, scene of the first American Battle.



ALLIED DRIVE IN ITALY, OCTOBER, 1918.

Between the arrows is indicated the main front of the big Allied offensive in which the Italians broke the main Austrian defenses and captured a great number of prisoners.

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By Permission Kansas City Star.

THE NEW LINE ACROSS ST. MIHIEL SALIENT.

The dotted line indicates the French and American main line September, 1918. The map is divided into ten-mile squares.

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