

World War I.

Under Secretary-General:

Deniz Sözen

Letter from the Secretary-General:

Dear delegates,

My name is Onur Alp Çimen and I am very proud to say that I will be serving as the Secretary General of the very first session of our conference. In our conference, our aim is to make sure that each esteemed participant of our conference will experience something unforgettable. When we were delegates in conferences we had great memories, made everlasting friendships and experienced so much that I believe that if we wrote them down, they would make a series of books worth reading. And with them there were some bad experiences and memories left behind as well but I personally think that MUN has changed my life since my first conference, in the best way ever possible. And with all that, we wanted the others to experience those good things too, but in the best way ever. We want our participants to experience the best, so we have worked day and night as the Academic Team and the Organization team to make sure that would happen in those three days.

Regards

Onur Alp Çimen

Secretary-General

Letter From The Under Secretary-General:

Dear Participants,

I have the utmost pleasure and honor of welcoming you to MUNKARA 2019. I am Deniz Sözen, a highschool student in Jale Tezer College. It's my honor to serve as the Under-Secretary-General responsible for World War I. committee.

I have been participating in Model United Nations conferences last 5 years and this would be my 4th time being a Under-Secretary-General. I would like to thank Secretary-General Mr. Onur Alp Çimen for giving me this opportunity.

I am looking forward to observe the debates in MUNKARA 2019 so please do not be shy and try to do your best. For any of you inquires please feel free to contact with me from denizsozenmun@gmail.com.

Regards

Deniz Sözen

Under-Secretary-General

Background of W.W.I.:

World War I began in 1914, after the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and lasted until 1918. During the conflict, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire (the Central Powers) fought against Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Romania, Japan and the United States (the Allied Powers). Thanks to new military technologies and the horrors of trench warfare, World War I saw unprecedented levels of carnage and destruction. By the time the war was over and the Allied Powers claimed victory, more than 16 million people—soldiers and civilians alike—were dead.

ARCHDUKE FRANZ FERDINAND

Tensions had been brewing throughout Europe—especially in the troubled Balkan region of southeast Europe—for years before World War I actually broke out.

A number of alliances involving European powers, the Ottoman Empire, Russia and other parties had existed for years, but political instability in the Balkans (particularly Bosnia, Serbia and Herzegovina) threatened to destroy these agreements.

The spark that ignited World War I was struck in Sarajevo, Bosnia, where Archduke Franz Ferdinand—heir to the Austro-Hungarian Empire—was shot to death along with his wife Sophie by the Serbian nationalist Gavrilo Princip on June 28, 1914. Princip and other nationalists were struggling to end Austro-Hungarian rule over Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The assassination of Franz Ferdinand set off a rapidly escalating chain of events: Austria-Hungary, like many in countries around the world, blamed the Serbian government for the attack and hoped to use the incident as justification for settling the question of Serbian nationalism once and for all.

KAISER WILHELM II

Because mighty Russia supported Serbia, Austria-Hungary waited to declare war until its leaders received assurance from German leader Kaiser Wilhelm II that Germany would support their cause. Austro-Hungarian leaders feared that a Russian intervention would involve Russia's ally, France, and possibly Great Britain as well.

On July 5, Kaiser Wilhelm secretly pledged his support, giving Austria-Hungary a so-called *carte blanche* or “blank check” assurance of Germany's backing in the case of war. The Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary then sent an ultimatum to Serbia, with such harsh terms as to make it almost impossible to accept.

WORLD WAR I BEGINS

Convinced that Austria-Hungary was readying for war, the Serbian government ordered the Serbian army to mobilize, and appealed to Russia for assistance. On July 28, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, and the tenuous peace between Europe's great powers quickly collapsed.

Within a week, Russia, Belgium, France, Great Britain and Serbia had lined up against Austria-Hungary and Germany, and World War I had begun.

THE WESTERN FRONT

According to an aggressive military strategy known as the Schlieffen Plan (named for its mastermind, German Field Marshal Alfred von Schlieffen), Germany began fighting World War I on two fronts, invading France through neutral Belgium in the west and confronting Russia in the east.

On August 4, 1914, German troops crossed the border into Belgium. In the first battle of World War I, the Germans assaulted the heavily fortified city of Liege, using the most powerful weapons in their arsenal—enormous siege cannons—to capture the city by August 15. Leaving death and destruction in their wake, including the shooting of civilians and the

execution of a Belgian priest, whom they accused of inciting civilian resistance, the Germans advanced through Belgium towards France.

FIRST BATTLE OF THE MARNE

In the First Battle of the Marne, fought from September 6-9, 1914, French and British forces confronted the invading Germany army, which had by then penetrated deep into northeastern France, within 30 miles of Paris. The Allied troops checked the German advance and mounted a successful counterattack, driving the Germans back to north of the Aisne River.

The defeat meant the end of German plans for a quick victory in France. Both sides dug into trenches, and the Western Front was the setting for a hellish war of attrition that would last more than three years.

Particularly long and costly battles in this campaign were fought at Verdun (February-December 1916) and the Battle of the Somme (July-November 1916). German and French troops suffered close to a million casualties in the Battle of Verdun alone.

The bloodshed on the battlefields of the Western Front, and the difficulties its soldiers had for years after the fighting had ended, inspired such works as *All Quiet on the Western Front* by Erich Maria Remarque and the poem *In Flanders Fields* by Canadian doctor Lieutenant-Colonel John McCrae.

THE EASTERN FRONT

On the Eastern Front of World War I, Russian forces invaded the German-held regions of East Prussia and Poland, but were stopped short by German and Austrian forces at the Battle of Tannenberg in late August 1914.

Despite that victory, Russia's assault had forced Germany to move two corps from the Western Front to the Eastern, contributing to the German loss in the Battle of the Marne.

Combined with the fierce Allied resistance in France, the ability of Russia's huge war machine to mobilize relatively quickly in the east ensured a longer, more grueling conflict instead of the quick victory Germany had hoped to win under the Schlieffen Plan.

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

From 1914 to 1916, Russia's army mounted several offensives on World War I's Eastern Front, but the Red Army was unable to break through German lines.

Defeat on the battlefield, combined with economic instability and the scarcity of food and other essentials, led to mounting discontent among the bulk of Russia's population, especially the poverty-stricken workers and peasants. This increased hostility was directed toward the imperial regime of Czar Nicholas II and his unpopular German-born wife, Alexandra.

Russia's simmering instability exploded in the Russian Revolution of 1917, spearheaded by Vladimir Lenin and the Bolsheviks, which ended czarist rule and brought a halt to Russian participation in World War I.

Russia reached an armistice with the Central Powers in early December 1917, freeing German troops to face the remaining Allies on the Western Front.

AMERICA ENTERS WORLD WAR I

At the outbreak of fighting in 1914, the United States remained on the sidelines of World War I, adopting the policy of neutrality favored by President Woodrow Wilson while continuing to engage in commerce and shipping with European countries on both sides of the conflict.

Neutrality, however, was increasingly difficult to maintain in the face of Germany's unchecked submarine aggression against neutral ships, including those carrying passengers. In 1915, Germany declared the waters surrounding the British Isles to be a war zone, and German U-boats

sunk several commercial and passenger vessels, including some U.S. ships.

Widespread protest over the sinking by U-boat of the British ocean liner Lusitania—traveling from New York to Liverpool, England with hundreds of American passengers onboard—in May 1915 helped turn the tide of American public opinion against Germany. In February 1917, Congress passed a \$250 million arms appropriations bill intended to make the United States ready for war.

Germany sunk four more U.S. merchant ships the following month, and on April 2 Woodrow Wilson appeared before Congress and called for a declaration of war against Germany.

GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN

With World War I having effectively settled into a stalemate in Europe, the Allies attempted to score a victory against the Ottoman Empire, which entered the conflict on the side of the Central Powers in late 1914.

After a failed attack on the Dardanelles (the strait linking the Sea of Marmara with the Aegean Sea), Allied forces led by Britain launched a large-scale land invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula in April 1915. The invasion also proved a dismal failure, and in January 1916 Allied forces were staged a full retreat from the shores of the peninsula, after suffering 250,000 casualties.

The young Winston Churchill, then first lord of the British Admiralty, resigned his command after the failed Gallipoli campaign in 1916, accepting a commission with an infantry battalion in France.

British-led forces also combated the Ottoman Turks in Egypt and Mesopotamia, while in northern Italy, Austrian and Italian troops faced off in a series of 12 battles along the Isonzo River, located at the border between the two nations.

BATTLE OF THE ISONZO

The First Battle of the Isonzo took place in the late spring of 1915, soon after Italy's entrance into the war on the Allied side. In the Twelfth Battle of the Isonzo, also known as the Battle of Caporetto (October 1917), German reinforcements helped Austria-Hungary win a decisive victory.

After Caporetto, Italy's allies jumped in to offer increased assistance. British and French—and later, American—troops arrived in the region, and the Allies began to take back the Italian Front.

WORLD WAR I AT SEA

In the years before World War I, the superiority of Britain's Royal Navy was unchallenged by any other nation's fleet, but the Imperial German Navy had made substantial strides in closing the gap between the two naval powers. Germany's strength on the high seas was also aided by its lethal fleet of U-boat submarines.

After the Battle of Dogger Bank in January 1915, in which the British mounted a surprise attack on German ships in the North Sea, the German navy chose not to confront Britain's mighty Royal Navy in a major battle for more than a year, preferring to rest the bulk of its naval strategy on its U-boats.

The biggest naval engagement of World War I, the Battle of Jutland (May 1916) left British naval superiority on the North Sea intact, and Germany would make no further attempts to break an Allied naval blockade for the remainder of the war.

SECOND BATTLE OF THE MARNE

With Germany able to build up its strength on the Western Front after the armistice with Russia, Allied troops struggled to hold off another German offensive until promised reinforcements from the United States were able to arrive.

On July 15, 1918, German troops launched what would become the last German offensive of the war, attacking French forces (joined by 85,000 American troops as well as some of the British Expeditionary Force) in the Second Battle of the Marne. The Allies successfully pushed back the German offensive, and launched their own counteroffensive just three days later.

After suffering massive casualties, Germany was forced to call off a planned offensive further north, in the Flanders region stretching between France and Belgium, which was envisioned as Germany's best hope of victory.

The Second Battle of the Marne turned the tide of war decisively towards the Allies, who were able to regain much of France and Belgium in the months that followed.

TOWARD ARMISTICE

By the fall of 1918, the Central Powers were unraveling on all fronts.

Despite the Turkish victory at Gallipoli, later defeats by invading forces and an Arab revolt had combined to destroy the Ottoman economy and devastate its land, and the Turks signed a treaty with the Allies in late October 1918.

Austria-Hungary, dissolving from within due to growing nationalist movements among its diverse population, reached an armistice on November 4. Facing dwindling resources on the battlefield, discontent on the homefront and the surrender of its allies, Germany was finally forced to seek an armistice on November 11, 1918, ending World War I.

TREATY OF VERSAILLES

At the Paris Peace Conference in 1919, Allied leaders would state their desire to build a post-war world that would safeguard itself against future conflicts of such devastating scale.

Some hopeful participants had even begun calling World War I “the War to End All Wars.” But the Treaty of Versailles, signed on June 28, 1919, would not achieve that lofty goal.

Saddled with war guilt, heavy reparations and denied entrance into the League of Nations, Germany felt tricked into signing the treaty, having believed any peace would be a “peace without victory,” as put forward by Wilson in his famous Fourteen Points speech of January 1918.

As the years passed, hatred of the Versailles treaty and its authors settled into a smoldering resentment in Germany that would, two decades later, be counted among the causes of World War II.

LEGACY OF WORLD WAR I

World War I took the lives of more than 9 million soldiers; 21 million more were wounded. Civilian casualties caused indirectly by the war numbered close to 10 million. The two nations most affected were Germany and France, each of which sent some 80 percent of their male populations between the ages of 15 and 49 into battle.

The political disruption surrounding World War I also contributed to the fall of four venerable imperial dynasties—Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia and Turkey.

World War I brought about massive social upheaval, as millions of women entered the workforce to support men who went to war, and to replace those who never came back. The first global war also helped to spread one of the world’s deadliest global pandemics, the Spanish flu epidemic of 1918, which killed an estimated 20 to 50 million people.

World War I has also been referred to as “the first modern war.” Many of the technologies we now associate with military conflict—machine guns, tanks, aerial combat and radio communications—were introduced on a massive scale during World War I.

The severe effects that chemical weapons such as mustard gas and phosgene had on soldiers and civilians during World War I galvanized public and military attitudes against their continued use. The Geneva Convention agreements, signed in 1925, restricted the use of chemical and biological agents in warfare, and remains in effect today.

Pre-First World War naval arms race

The size and power of battleships grew rapidly before, during, and after World War I: a result of competitive shipbuilding among a number of naval powers, brought to an end by the Washington Naval Treaty

From 1897 to 1914, a naval arms race between the United Kingdom and Germany took place. British concern about rapid increase in German naval power resulted in a costly building competition of Dreadnought-class ships. This tense arms race lasted until 1914, when the war broke out. After the war, a new arms race developed among the victorious Allies, which was temporarily ended by the Washington Naval Treaty.

In addition to the British and Germans, contemporaneous but smaller naval arms races also broke out between Russia and the Ottoman Empire; the Ottomans and Greece; France and Italy; the United States and Japan; and Brazil, Argentina, and Chile.

Another very important cause of the War was the arms race that developed as a result of these nationalist rivalries.

There's no better way of scaring your enemies than by demonstrating that you have bigger and better weapons in larger quantity than them, and so it's unsurprising that the key powers, and in particular Britain and Germany, tried to outdo one another's armed forces. Each time one country built a new battleship the other responded by building even more ships.

GERMAN NAVAL LAWS

In line with the imperial and military ambitions of the Kaiser, Germany passed several laws between the 1890s and the 1910s which were designed to make Germany's navy larger than Britain's through the construction of the largest and most modern warships.

THE DREADNOUGHT CRISIS, 1909

In response to Germany's naval expansion, the British government announced plans in 1909 to build four more dreadnoughts. When it did, the public were outraged. Why? Because four was not enough in their view. A campaign was launched for the number to be doubled.

ARMIES

Germany also went to special efforts to build up its land army, and by 1914 had 8.5 million men available for military service. Spooked by the growing stature of the German army, France and Russia also made efforts to increase their troop levels.

With each new battleship or regiment made that a power, its enemies both expanded their own armed forces and also became more hostile towards them. As a result, we must see the atmosphere of hostility it created and the military resources it created as being another key cause of the war.

Army Weapons and Troop Expansion, 1904–1914

As noted in Section 4.1, the Great Powers had embarked on their RMA and adopted considerable new military technology by 1904. In the decade after 1904, however, these same armies stumbled over themselves in a much more frantic RMA competition with their enemies as second-wave technologies of the Second Industrial Revolution appeared on the military stage.

Only France had adopted semi-recoilless field guns (see postcard) by 1904, but Britain, Germany, and Austria-Hungary had them by 1908, followed by Russia, Turkey, and finally Italy. Like those of Russia and Britain before 1904, other armies rapidly deployed twenty-four machine guns (see photograph) per division as the years drew on anxiously to 1914; the Turks fell behind after their Balkan debacle, allotting only twelve per division. The Germans initially resisted the machine gun imperative; one leading member of the General Staff, Erich Ludendorff (1865–1937), was proud that he could distinguish between “humbug” and potentially beneficial weapons.

Soon enough, however, the Germans followed suit lest they be outgunned. Non-rigid airships ([see photograph](#)), rigid Zeppelins ([see photograph](#)), and the first airplanes ([see photograph](#)) took up station, first experimentally at annual maneuvers and then over battle lines in the shooting wars of 1911 to 1913. Furthermore, telephones and wireless kits, joined by military automobiles, had begun in embryonic form to displace horses as the means of communication and transportation. Few decades in the history of warfare have witnessed as much weapons-related innovative scurrying as the decade before the First World War.

For the most part, however, this was a sort of publicly quiet technological competition that occurred beyond the earshot of the general public, most parliamentary deputies, and even some of the better-informed military beat journalists, who all remained fixated on the numbers of infantry divisions and battleships, not so much on the specifics of the deadly new gadgetry that would accompany the troopers and sailors into battle. Just as with these outsiders, however, even better-informed insiders harbored nagging anxieties about the rapid army and navy buildups, for no expert could know for sure whether tactical and operational adjustments—each side's RMA—would work well in war.

Year	Britain	France	Russia
1904	209.460 = 100	575.000 = 100	1.100.000=100
1905	213.780 = 102	595.000 = 103	1.900.000 = 173
1906	196.600 = 93.7	590.000 = 99	1.000.000 = 90,9
1907	179.209 = 86	602.492 = 102	1.000.000 = 90,9
1908	183.280 = 88	610.923 = 106	1.000.000 = 90,9
1909	181.900 = 86.9	567.484 = 99	1.209.000 = 110
1910	182.350 = 87.1	574.342 = 100	1.303.000 = 118
1911	182.700 = 87,2	593.556 = 103	1.345.000 = 122
1912	192.590 = 92	611.709 = 106	1.332.000 = 121
1913	192.144 = 91,7	850.000 = 148 (1914)	1.300.000 = 118

Table 1: Triple Entente Peacetime Army Strength (with Index Numbers to show percentage changes)

Years	Britain	France	Russia
1904	29,2 = 100	28,0 = 100	39,4 = 100
1905	28,9 = 99	28,5 = 102	40,0 = 102
1906	27,8 = 95,2	34,2 = 120	41,5 = 105
1907	27,1 = 93	32,7 = 117	42,9 = 109
1908	26,8 = 92	33,3 = 119	54,4 = 138
1909	27,2 = 93,2	34,7 = 124	57,0 = 145
1910	27,4 = 93,8	36,4 = 130	56,6 = 144
1911	27,6 = 94,5	40,5 = 145	58,1 = 147
1912	28,1 = 96,2	43,4 = 155	67,6 = 172
1913	28,3 = 96,9	44,2 = 158	75,8 = 192

Table 2: Army Expenditures (in Millions of Pounds Sterling, Current Prices, with Index Numbers to show percentage changes), 1904–1914

Years	Germany	Austria-Hungary	Italy	Turkey
1904	606.866 = 100	361.770 = 100	221.085 = 100	280.000 = 100
1905	609.552 =100,4	361.770 = 100	220.834 = 99,9	
1906	614.353 =101,2	362.398 = 101	249.816 = 113	
1907	616.838 =101,6	366.578 = 101	249.917 = 113	
1908	619.006 = 102	365.742 = 101	247.000 = 112	361.644 = 129
1909	610.196 =100,5	369.203 = 102	247.000 = 112	
1910	610.083 =100,5	370.510 = 102	238.617 = 108	
1911	612.557 =100,9	353.017 = 98	253.786 = 115	
1912	646.321 =106,5	405.120 = 120	256.000 = 116	378.377 = 135
1913				
1914	811.000 = 137	494.000 = 137	305.000 = 138	250.000 = 89

Table 3: Triple Alliance and Turkey Peacetime Army Strength (with Index Numbers to show percentage changes)

Years	Germany	Austria-Hungary	Italy	Turkey
1904	36,6 = 100	17,6 = 100	9,7 = 100	7,1 = 100
1905	39,7 = 108	17,4 = 98,9	10,1 = 104	
1906	41,5 = 114	17,4 = 98,9	10,1 = 104	
1907	46 = 126	18,5 = 105	10,3 = 106	
1908	47 = 128	21,1 = 120	10,9 = 112	
1909	49 = 134	27,4 = 156	12,0 = 124	
1910	47,3 = 129	24,2 = 138	13,5 = 139	13,3 = 187
1911	46,9 = 128	22,4 = 127	14,7 = 152	
1912	52,1 = 142	25,4 = 144	18,7 = 193	
1913	78,3 = 214	34,4 = 195	25,3 = 250	

Table 4: Army Expenditures (in Millions of Pounds Sterling, Current Prices, with Index Numbers to show percentage changes), 1904–1913^f

The Summer of 1914

THE ASSASSINATION OF ARCHDUKE FRANZ FERDINAND

By the summer of 1914 the existence of two rival alliances meant that, if two enemy countries did go to war, the rest of Europe would be committed to follow them.

The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand set the final chain of events in motion to make this nightmare scenario come true. On 28 June 1914, Franz Ferdinand and his wife were shot dead in their car by Gavrilo Princip, a Bosnian assassin who had previously tried to join the Black Hand, only to be rejected by the group for being too small to make a good terrorist.

EFFECTS OF THE ASSASSINATION

The assassination created a domino effect of different countries threatening one another and coming to the support of their alliance partners:

Backed by Germany's promise of a 'blank cheque' of military support, and believing that France and Britain would tell Russia not to intervene, on 23 July Austria-Hungary issued an ultimatum to Serbia: put a stop to all pro-Serbian nationalist and anti-Austro-Hungarian activities.

Serbia would have been too small to stand up to Austria-Hungary and Germany on its own. But Russia came to its support by making preparations to mobilize its army on 25 July, believing that if it and France stood together, Austria-Hungary would back down.

Therefore we have two groups: Germany and Austria-Hungary on one side, France, Russia and Serbia on the other, who both believed that they could make the other side back down through making threats. Tragically, neither side did.

Serbia began to mobilize its troops on 25th July, and Austria-Hungary responded by doing the same. Britain nervously watched these events unfolding, and tried to propose a conference to resolve things peacefully. The plan was rejected by Germany.

WAR IS DECLARED

On 28th July, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. All-out war was now inevitable.

Russia mobilized its army, and Austria-Hungary then declared war on Russia.

Germany prepared to put the Schlieffen Plan into action, making a token effort to avoid war with France by making the impossible demand that it sit out of any war between Germany and Russia.

Britain made assurances to France and Belgium that it would defend them against Germany and, sure enough, declared war on Germany on 4th August when the Germans invaded Belgium.

Raw Material and Market Search

Raw materials were vital during the First World War. Due to the armaments production, the belligerents' needs increased significantly, while the available resources fell. Each country intended both to increase its resources and to use them more efficiently. This required broad state intervention that consisted in controlling the needs of domestic populations and administering the distribution of products. Raw materials were also at the core of the Allied cooperation to provide Europe and North America with all necessary supplies. This leads to the question of whether the war led to a change in the global trade of raw materials.

By the time the First World War broke out, the Second Industrial Revolution had greatly increased the industrial output in Western Europe and the United States. These countries' consumption of industrial fuel and raw materials (coal, oil, wood, ore, cotton, wool, leather, etc.) was increasing, and they imported these goods from all over the world. The First World War was an industrial war that demanded large amounts of weapons and ammunition. As each country attempted to reinforce its armament factories, economic warfare made it increasingly difficult to import raw materials. The new balance between the consumption and the production of raw materials, in addition to transport difficulties, triggered a general supply crisis. To solve it, the belligerent states set up administrations to control, requisition and deliver raw materials to consumers. The struggle for raw materials between the belligerents also affected the structure of global markets for these products.

A Shortage of Raw Materials

The outbreak of the war shrank the industrial capacity and led to massive devastation and destruction. As early as August 1914, France was one of the most devastated countries. Following the invasion and occupation of northern and eastern France by German forces, France lost 14 percent of its industrial output. Before the war, this area produced 75 percent of the French coal production, 81 percent of the iron, 63 percent of the steel, 85 percent of the linen, 94 percent of the wool, and 75 percent of the sugar. The frontline crossed the coal basin in northern France so that the colliers of Bethune had to work several days and nights under enemy shelling. Likewise, on the Eastern Front, damage from the war contributed to reducing the production of raw materials. In the Ottoman Empire, the Russian bombing of the Ereğli coalmines on the Black Sea added to the mobilization of workers and contributed to decreased production, as many workers left the coalmines to join the army. In 1916, the coal production was 60 percent of its 1913-1914 level and 25 percent in 1918.

	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918
USA	62,972	42,103	56,415	76,370	76,494	70,773
Germany	28,608	20,505	17,710	?	?	?
Luxembourg	7,333	5,007	6,139	6,752	4,509	?
France	21,918	11,252	620	1,681	2,035	1,672
United Kingdom	16,253	15,105	14,463	13,711	15,083	15,285
Spain	9,862	6,820	5,618	5,857	5,551	?
Russia	9,514	?	?	?	?	?
Sweden	7,476	6,587	6,883	6,986	6,217	?
Italy	603	706	680	947	999	695
Norway	544	652	715	880	?	?
Belgium	150	82	5	30	17	0.5
Algeria	1,349	1,115	819	939	1,065	782
Tunisia	597	248	286	367	606	?
Canada	136	222	361	250	195	188
Japan	172	136	136	159	?	?

Table 1: Ore production (in millions of metric tons)

	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918
USA	517	466	482	535	591	615
United Kingdom	292	270	257	261	253	231
Germany	277.3	245	235	253	263	261
Austria	43.9	39	38	40.8	-	-
France	40.8	29.8	19.9	21.5	29	26
Russia	33.8	33	28	-	-	-
Belgium	22.8	17	14	17	15	14
Japan	21.4	22	20	23	26	28
British India	16	17	17	17	18	21
Canada	13.6	12	12	13	13	14
Hungary	9.9	9	9	-	-	-
Spain	4.3	4.4	4.7	5.6	6	-
Netherlands	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4
Italy	0.7	0.8	1	1.3	1.7	2
World total	1342	1210	1190	1270	1335	1332

Table 2: Coal and lignite production (in millions of metric tons)

	1913	1917	1918	1919
USA	33.1	44.7	47.5	54.8
Mexico	3.5	8.3	9.5	12.6
Russia	8.6	9.4	5.5	3.7
Dutch East Indies	1.5	1.8	1.8	2.2
Romania	1.9	0.4	1.2	0.9
British India	1.1	1.08	1.07	1.1
Galicia	1.09	0.8	0.8	0.8
Peru	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Japan and Formosa	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3
World total	51.6	68.8	70	79.4

Table 3: Oil production (in millions of metric tons)

	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918
Argentina	9,380	11,432	8,951	1,015	4,976	7,050
USA	4,535	3,952	3,564	3,631	2,328	3,723
British India	5,472	3,883	4,034	4,836	5,344	5,151
Canada	4,455	1,823	2,700	2,098	1,508	1,538
Russia	7,035	4,815	4,856	-	-	-
Austria	155	116	94	85	-	-
Uruguay	245	149	99	31	85	127
Romania	134	39	32	-	-	74
Italy	103	82	82	92	82	120
France	76	85	41	33	40	48
Japan	34	65	78	68	-	165
World total	31,804	26,563	24,676	17,757	20,418	23,874

Table 4: Linseeds production (in thousands of hundredweight)

The economic war was increasingly linked to the conflict. The main objective was to deprive the belligerent countries of raw materials essential to their war efforts. This strategy was key because the European war economy depended heavily on overseas trade. Between 1911 and 1913, more than 80 percent of the main imports of the industrial western countries (Great Britain, Germany, France and the United States) consisted of raw materials and foodstuffs.

The Allies increased their blockade of the Central Powers throughout the war. Until March 1915, the blockade was restricted and followed the pre-war agreements. Military goods as well as raw materials were declared contraband and could be seized by the enemy fleet. The Allies had no right to control the neutral ports, but they managed to prevent them from trading with the Central Powers thanks to bilateral agreements. As early as September 1914, a Dutch trade association committed itself to limiting commercial exchanges between the Netherlands and Germany. Great Britain signed further agreements with the Danish and Swedish governments.

From spring 1915 on, the blockade entered an unrestricted phase. The Allies aimed to cut off all maritime transport to and from the enemy countries. They increased their pressure on the neutral countries to prevent them from re-exporting goods to Germany by imposing import quotas for raw materials and foodstuffs. In late 1915, the British government imposed such conditions on the Netherlands, Switzerland and Denmark, the Central Powers' principal European commercial partners. Specific agreements about some products had been concluded with Norwegian and Swedish trade associations to reduce their exchanges with Germany. Moreover, the British could impose their policy on the neutral countries by refusing to deliver bunker coal to their vessels. Thus, in a time of fuel scarcity, the English supremacy over the coal resources in Europe helped to increase the Allies' power.

The blockade was implemented to isolate the Central Powers from foodstuffs and raw materials. It was only partly successful and hardly

explained their final defeat. The economic collapse of Germany was rather caused by the increasing demands of the armament industry. Nevertheless, the blockade had a deep impact on the whole economy and forced the Germans to do without many raw materials and to develop both a means of rationing and substitute products.

The Allies faced the same problems by the time Germany launched its submarine war. The first German *U-Boot* attacks started in October 1914. The attacks intensified in autumn 1916, when the average losses of Allied ships increased from 120,000 tons per month in late 1915 to 300,000 one year later. The unrestricted submarine warfare begun on 1 February 1917 constituted a further step. Germany sank on average 600,000 tons per month and up to 885,000 in May. In less than six months, the Allies lost 3.5 million tons. From the summer 1917, the Allied losses decreased, and more and more German submarines were sunk.

Although important, the submarine warfare was not decisive for the fate of the war. The Allies managed to maintain their sea trade thanks to the convoy system and an increase in their shipbuilding capacities. But the economic consequences were severe. The Germans sank 9.5 million tons in the last two years of the war. Not only did this cause a shortage of ships on which all Allied imports depended, but it also disrupted the entire seaborne trade and made the neutral vessels refuse to transport goods for the Allies. As a result, the German submarines made the difficulty of transporting goods the largest economic concern in wartime.

Securing access to vital sources of raw materials became an important war aim. For example, oil shortages led the belligerent countries to secure their supply routes, especially since oil had become a key resource for military ships and merchant fleets. The Ottoman Empire and the 1917 Russian Revolution prevented Western Europe from importing Russian and Romanian oil. As a result, Great Britain tried to control and exclude German interests from Mesopotamia. Thanks to the Sykes-Picot Agreement signed in May 1916, Great Britain was promised the best areas and its oil

companies, such as Anglo-Persian Oil Company and the Royal Dutch-Schell, kept their rights over the oilfields.

Germany took a different route, invading Ukraine in February 1918 to chase the Bolsheviks out in order to seize the raw materials it needed, including the coal from the Donetsk Basin. In August 1918, the German government signed a treaty with Russia, committing itself to protecting Baku from Turkish attacks; in return, Russia granted Germany 25 percent of the Azeri oil.

The lack of coal was particularly severe in continental Europe from the end of 1916. This was primarily due to transport difficulties. Railroads were in high demand to transport troops and supply military and civilian needs, so that large amounts of coal remained on the pitheads of the mines. Each country had to cope with specific drawbacks. For instance, Russia had a large supply of coal, but it was extracted in Siberia coalmines, which were far from the consumption centres and made transport difficult. In 1917, revolutionary movements in the Donbass region led to lower levels of coal production. Thus the shortage showed the need for Russian officials to develop new metal and coal basins as well as transport networks in remote regions such as the Caucasus, the Urals, and Siberia.

In Germany, the coal crisis was the first consequence of the saturation of the rail network. Because of the blockade, the ports and the rivers received few imported products. As a result, the entire burden for transporting coal from the Ruhr and Silesia fell on the railway. More goods than in peacetime had to be shipped longer distances between the Western and Eastern fronts. The location of the factories also contributed to the railway crisis. According to the Hindenburg Programme, the steel production was not confined to one place. Rather, it produced in the Ruhr, was then sent to Berlin to be manufactured into shells before returning to the Ruhr to be completed by adding powder. In autumn 1916, the railway stations became jammed and schedules could no longer be followed. The cold winter worsened the situation in January and February 1917, and traffic was

interrupted several times. Consequently, the coalmines could not deliver the necessary output for the rest of the country.

The situation was extremely difficult for countries whose fuel supply depended on importing raw materials. Italy did not produce coal and encountered major problems since, in 1917, it was able to import only 49 percent of the average of the five years before the war.^[13] France had to import half of its coal by sea from England. Already by 1915, both ports and inner transports were congested. The difficulties became critical in the following year. From July 1916, the military transports needed for the Battle of the Somme demanded use of all available railways, cutting off the coalmines of Nord and Pas-de-Calais from the rest of the country. The submarine war upset the import of British coal via the Channel and diverted many neutral vessels from the coal traffic between England and France. Additionally, the winter 1916-1917 was the coldest in a decade and further increased the need for coal. As the largest producer in the world, Great Britain had to supply these two countries, but its exports were well below their pre-war level. The neutral countries were also affected by the coal shortage since France and Italy took 60 percent of the British exports in 1916 compared with 30 percent in 1913.

International Cooperation

The economic difficulties obliged the Allied governments to cooperate in order to improve their supply capacities. As early as August 1914, France and Great Britain had set up a *Commission internationale du Ravitaillement* (International Commission of Supplying), which centralised the purchased of supplies for the Allies. Many committees of this kind were created. These were purely purchasing agencies for the Allied governments; they did not regulate prices or credit, or focus on streamlining the available means of transport. The difficulties of the maritime transport, more complicated from autumn 1916 on, and the bad crop season in the summer of 1916, led the Allied governments to strengthen their economic

cooperation in order to prioritize certain supplies. Thus, the Wheat Executive was established on 27 November 1916. It determined the needs of each Allied country, and the purchasing and sharing of grains at a specific price. This organisation avoided high prices and rationalized the maritime transports. Specific agreements were signed to increase British exports of coal to France and Italy. On 1 June 1916 the Board of Trade limited the prices of coal and maritime freight. The *Bureau national des Charbons* centralised the imports and sent them to a British Coal Controller, who delivered them to the collier districts and ship-owners. The coal vessels were then told in which port they should load and unload their shipments. As the historian Georges-Henri Soutou wrote: “Within the summer 1917, the problem of raw materials came at the first plan of the Allied concerns.”

For the French government, there were many benefits to be gained from a closer economic cooperation with Great Britain. That is why in August 1917 Étienne Clémentel proposed creating an inter-Allied body for the control of raw materials on the pattern of the Wheat Executive. The idea had been discussed during the Paris Economic Conference in June 1916 when the Allies had decided to reinforce their collaboration in the field of raw materials in order to improve their distribution among the Allies and to prevent enemy countries from using them. Such an organisation would have allowed French officials to participate in decisions instead of being dependant on England, which had both the raw materials and the means of transport. Since the failure of the Nivelle Offensive in May 1917, the British government had also been convinced of the importance of economic factors for winning the war.

However, not all Allied governments shared the same view. Whereas Great Britain and the United States were only interested in a wartime collaboration, France was eager to maintain the inter-Allied economic bodies after the war. The Allies also faced organisational problems. For all these reasons, the economic cooperation in the field of raw materials

remained limited. In August 1917 the Allies created the Meats and Fats Executive, but the Oil Seeds Executive was not created before spring 1918.

The coordination of shipping was the greatest success of the inter-Allied cooperation. In November 1917, each Allied country committed to limiting their imports. In return, Great Britain agreed to create a pool of ships. The Allied Maritime Transport Committee (AMTC) composed of the four Allied ministers of trade (United Kingdom, United States, France and Italy) decided how to use these ships and a new administration was established to provide statistics. Despite political and organizational difficulties, in 1918 the AMTC prepared a general program of transportation, taking into account the needs for raw materials and the available possibilities for shipping.

Thus, the inter-Allied cooperation for raw materials was necessary both to weaken the Central Powers and to supply the Allies during a period of scarcity of credit and means of transport. But it was broken up as soon as the war ended, as each country had diverging interests. France was dependant on Great Britain and the United States for shipping and raw materials. These two countries refused to lose their economic advantages in order to protect their export markets in peacetime.

Substitute Products and Domestic Production

The belligerents replaced lacking raw materials with “*ersatz*” (replacement) products. By the end of the war, the Germans had to wear shoes and use soap of very poor quality. But the chronic shortages also led to several technological advances. For example, a British firm managed to produce potassium from blast furnace residue as a substitute for German potash. Another company replaced barium with a selective native carbonate in the form of whiterite. Because of the increasing difficulties of importing Chilean nitrates, the British government helped to create oxidation of ammonium factories to make ammonium nitrate essential for sulphuric

acid. The Haber-Bosh process to synthesize ammoniac, invented in 1910 in Germany, took advantage of the lack of nitrate in Europe.

The war showed how dependant France and Russia were on foreign coal and contributed to these countries' goals of building hydroelectric power plants and developing long-distance electricity transport that were fulfilled in peacetime. These two countries developed domestic output by intensifying the production of secondary basins, as well as by harnessing new coalfields, like in the Moscow basin, the Urals and Siberia in Russia, or in Massif Central in France. Everywhere, the lack of coal obliged people to use wood, oil and peat instead. Germany encouraged the recycling and harnessing of low-rented basins, like phosphate-poor ores in the district of Lahn-Dill in Thuringia and in the Harz, molybdenum in Werdenfels, wolfram in Saxony, and graphite in Passau. In Austria the abandoned mines of zinc, stain, lead and copper were reopened.

Germany also requisitioned resources from the countries it invaded. Germany removed the wood stocks in Poland and oil in Romania. In occupied France, the factories were taken over and the German army seized the finished goods and raw materials. A special service, the *Schutzverwaltung*, was in charge of requisitioning all industrial supplies. The timber from the forests in occupied France were used to build the trenches; it was also sent to Germany. The Germans also took civilians' goods. Thus woollen products, such as mattresses and pillows, were requisitioned. From the end of 1916, they took all the metal that could be melted down and reused for the armament industry: copper, nickel, stain, brass, bronze, etc. The civilians in conquered territory had to gather all their metal objects. Church bells were the most desired. This led to a conflict with the Catholic Church in Belgium. The policy of taking raw materials in the occupied areas was aimed at both increasing the industrial production capacity of Germany and weakening the enemies' economies so that they were no longer competitors after the war.

Warfare and Global Markets of Raw Materials

The war altered the structure of global trade and led to a “decentralization of the international economy”. Before 1914, Europe and North America were the industrial leaders that made the highest added-value products, whereas the other continents supplied them with cheap raw materials. This “centre-periphery” pattern changed during the war. The United States, Eastern Asia, and the dominions witnessed a broad industrial growth at the detriment of Western Europe. The European countries imported more manufactured goods and saw their raw material import levels fall by half.

A study of the aftermath of the war in Latin America shows how the conflict affected the raw material exports. The war’s effects on the economy of Latin America were ambivalent. The war demonstrated the high degree of dependency on overseas trade and foreign fleets in the area, especially in countries that specialized in a single type of export. Thus, before the war, three-quarters of Mexico’s exports were of ore (gold, silver, lead and copper). The same proportion of the Chilean exports was of nitrates. Brazil’s main export was coffee, but rubber represented more than a quarter of its total exports. Other Latin American countries had more diversified exports: Argentina sold linen, hides and wool, while Peru sold raw cotton, copper, oil and rubber.

Already at the end of 1914, the collapse of international finance, the lack of ships, and the blockade of the Central Powers triggered a halting of international sales. As a result, prices fell. All countries’ foreign trade was disrupted, although Chile’s trade was damaged the least. Nitrate prices fell down from 8 s per quintal in July 1914 to 6 s 4 d in September and 5 s 8 d in February 1915. In the last five months of 1913, 29 million quintal had been exported, as opposed to 9.5 million in the same period in 1914. This product was usually used to make fertilizers – not the highest priority for belligerent countries during the war. The Chilean copper exports were even more affected, because large stocks had been made in the United States before the war, which contributed to a sharp decrease in prices, due to diminished demand. A further example is the cotton trade. Due to the

increase of transportation costs by 300 percent, the producers found it harder to see the products.

Beginning in 1915, the international economic situation favoured Latin America. Admittedly, the blockade isolated the continent from Germany, a country that had imported 24 percent of Chilean nitrates. But, except for coffee, all the products from South America were widely needed by the Allies. In particular, the Chilean nitrates were used to make explosives in Western Europe and in the United States. Output reached an unprecedented level and prices rose until the end of the war. The restoration of trade between South America and Europe after the war allowed Chilean and Peruvian exporters to earn more money. However, this occurred to the detriment of local industry, which remained badly developed. Had shipping and a larger workforce been available, the export of raw materials would probably have increased even more.

Except for the first months of the conflict, the First World War benefited Latin America. Nevertheless, the increase of raw material exports from this continent was of short duration and was due to the exceptional circumstances of the war. The huge purchases made by Western Europe and the United States did not continue in peacetime. As a result, the war reinforced the industrialized countries' dominance of those countries supplying raw materials. Although local industry spread throughout the war, this development proved limited because South American producers could not compete with the imported manufactured goods in the long-term.

Far East Asia, in contrast, had a different outcome. Here, Europe's decline helped industry to develop at an unprecedented scale, especially in Japan. The exports of raw materials also increased in order to supply new industries. Both industry and exports boomed in China. Forced sales to Japan made cotton the leading sector there. The exports of silk, tea, wool, hides and leather, vegetal oil, ore and coal also rose significantly, thanks to Japanese investments and a scarcity of European goods. Prior to 1914 India had also been a provider of raw materials. The war closed the traditional markets for India's main products, such as cotton, jute, and

rubber. But it created a demand for other goods like manufactured jute goods, wolfram, mica, saltpetre, timber and other raw materials. The growth of the cotton industry was somewhat illusionary, as increases in production were not based upon innovations in output methods but were due to a larger workforce. In addition, the Indian sales were threatened by the Japanese products.

The industrial war had many effects on the raw material producers, although most of them were neutral. The large European needs were not necessarily a good opportunity for the rest of the world. Admittedly, they could sell their raw materials at higher prices. But this was of short duration. As soon as the war ended, their exports returned to their pre-war levels, again demonstrating that they remained dependent on the industrial countries.

Conclusion

During the First World War there was a scarcity of raw materials. This scarcity altered consumption habits, both for industry and for civilians. This situation obliged consumers to deal with shortages and ersatz products, but it also led them to focus on the uses and purchase conditions. Everywhere, the general scarcity led to regulation and the increasing intervention by the state, since it was the only institution that seemed capable of allocating raw materials.

The allocation of raw materials constituted an international issue. The use of raw materials was a problem for all belligerent countries and was at the centre of military strategy. Everywhere, officials and armies had to find solutions to provide materials for armament factories in order not to lose the war. But the supply of raw materials became an economic weapon too and one of the economic aims of both sides.

Raw materials constituted a key aspect of the industrial powers' economic domination of the other continents before the war. During the war, this situation was altered but not reversed. The exchange conditions became

more favourable for the providers of raw materials only because the belligerents were temporarily weakened. The example of Latin America shows that their improved situation was not due to a durable economic development. However, for Japan the post-war period demonstrated that the structure of the global raw materials market remained as it had been prior to 1914.

The Long Term Causes of the War

- * Franco Prussian War
- * Expansionist policy

Nationalism

- * The Bosnian Crisis, 1908
- * The Balkan Wars, 1912-1913

Imperialism

- * The Boer War, 1899-1902
- * The First Morocco Crisis, 1905
- * The Second Morocco Crisis, 1911

The Arms Race

Alliances

- * Triple Alliance, 1882
- * Franco-Russian Alliance, 1892
- * Entente Cordiale, 1904
- * Anglo-Russian Entente, 1907
- * Triple Entente, 1907
- * The Schlieffen Plan

The Outbreak of War

- * The assassination of Franz Ferdinand
- * The chain of diplomatic events leading to the war

Effects of the Wall Street Crash and the Depression

- * Loss of savings
- * Collapse in savings
- * Farmers
- * Banking crisis
- * Unemployment
- * Poverty
- * Hoover's response

Roosevelt as President: the New Deal

- * Emergency Banking Relief Act
- * The Glass-Steagall Act
- * Fireside Chats
- * Home Owners' Loan Corporation
- * Public Works Administration
- * Tennessee Valley Authority
- * Works Progress Administration
- * Federal Emergency Relief Administration.
- * Social Security Act
- * National Labour Relations Act
- * Commodity Credit Corporation
- * Agricultural Adjustment Acts
- * The National Recovery Administration and the National Industrial Recovery Act
- * Tax increases

Successes and failures of the New Deal

- * Arguments of New Deal opponents
- * Arguments of New Deal supporters
- * Unconstitutional reforms
- * Effect on banking system
- * Unemployment rate
- * Roosevelt's re-election
- * Roosevelt recession
- * World War Two

