

**ATLAS and PLAT BOOK**

— of —

**LENAWEE COUNTY  
MICHIGAN**

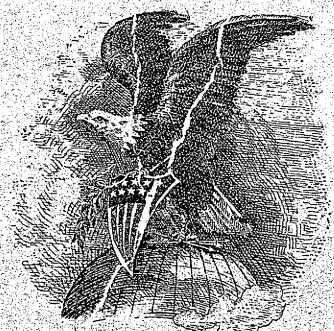
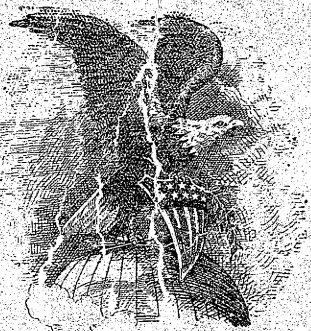
— and —

**History of The World War**



*Published by*

**THE ADRIAN DAILY TELEGRAM  
ADRIAN, MICHIGAN**







# ATLAS and PLAT BOOK

— of —

# LENAWEE COUNTY

# MICHIGAN

Containing Outline Map of the County, Map of Lenawee County and surrounding Counties  
 Plats of all the townships with Owners' Names, State Map, Map of the United States  
 Map of the World, Map of New Europe  
 — Also —  
 History and Atlas of the World War



*Published By*  
**THE ADRIAN DAILY TELEGRAM**  
 ADRIAN, MICHIGAN

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Compiled From Latest Data on Record

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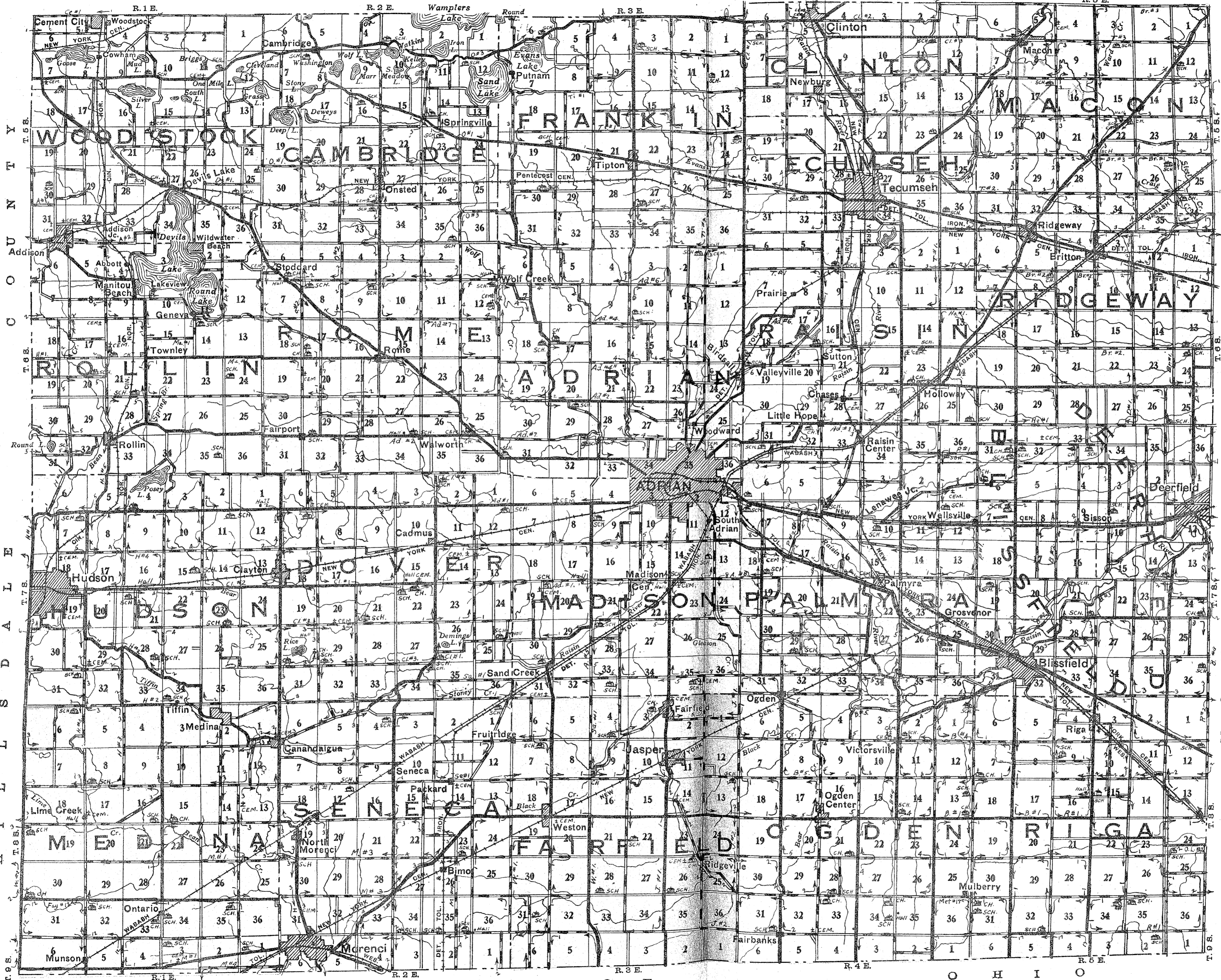
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Outline Map of  
**LENAWEE**  
County  
Michigan

Scale: 1/8 Inch to 1 Mile

The Keeton Company, Inc., Map Makers, Des Moines, Iowa

- Improved Roads Shown thus:
  - Rural Routes Shown thus:
  - Churches Shown thus:
  - Schools Shown thus:
  - Cemeteries Shown thus:
- Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads Same are Denoted by Arrow thus:

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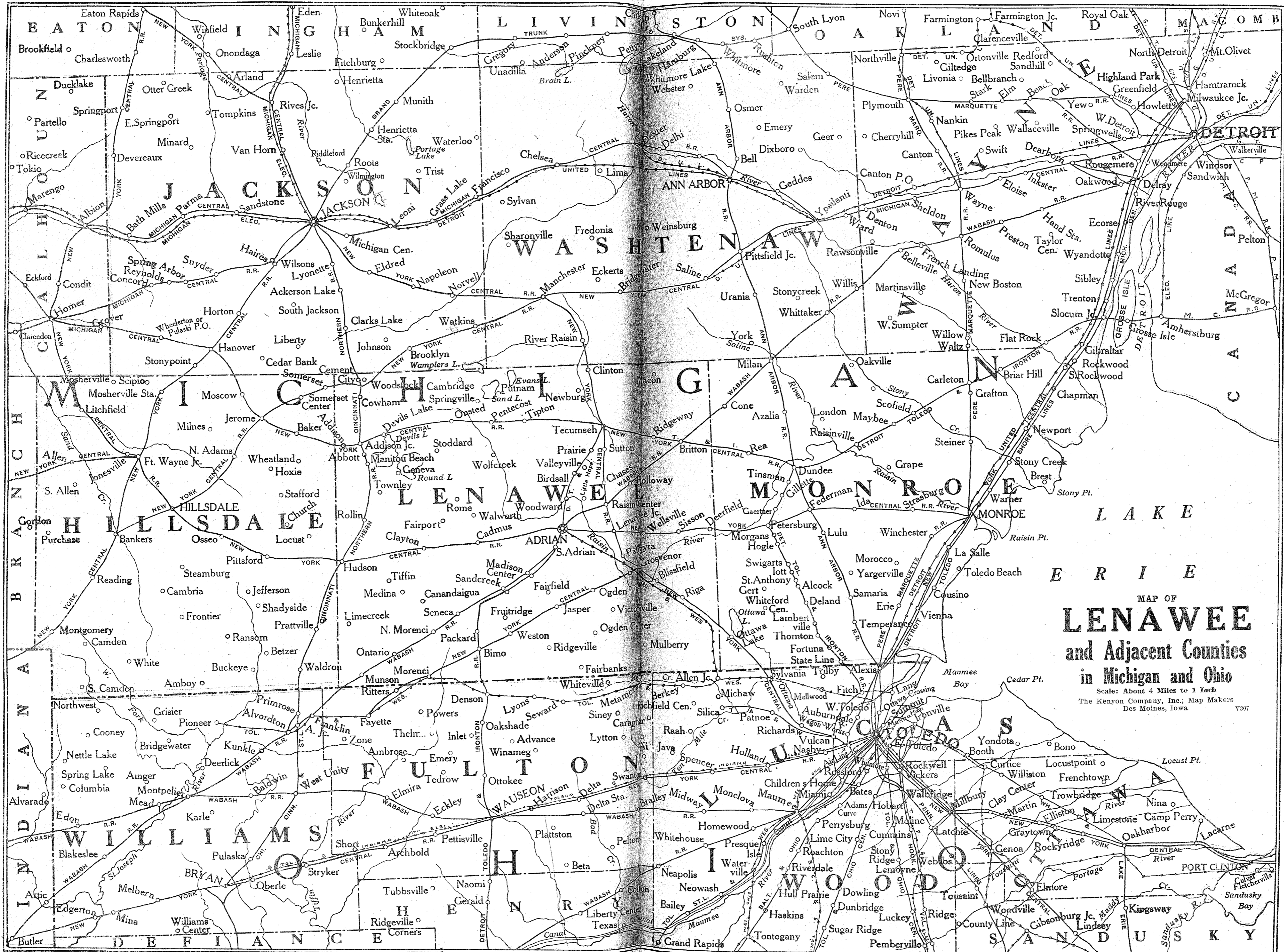
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MAP OF  
**LENAWEE**  
and Adjacent Counties  
in Michigan and Ohio

Scale: About 4 Miles to 1 Inch  
The Kenyon Company, Inc., Map Makers  
Des Moines, Iowa







# MAP OF WOODSTOCK TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN  
Township 5 South, Range 1, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 Inches to 1 Mile.

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in these Townships Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	Sandy Sweet	5	2	7.	Glen Higgins	1	5	14.	Abe DeFay	7	31
2.	A. Terrell			8.	Ervin Lewis	6	5	15.	H. E. Hand	1	31
3.	Mary Pelham	6.50	3	9.	Ervin Everly	12	5	16.	Matt Lewis	7	31
4.	Mary Pelham	1.50	4	10.	E. Pelham	3	8	17.	L. W. Lewis	2	31
5.	Thomas Carpenter	8.43	4	11.	O. Drake	1	10	18.	John Purcell	1	31
6.	Robert Everly	8	5	12.	Jackson Land Co.	12.28	12	19.	John Hunker	1	31
				13.	A. Cheesbro		27	20.	F. Rude	8	34
								21.	Frank Clarke	2	34
								22.	A. Sanford		27
								23.	Consumers Ice & Fuel Co.		27
								24.	W. Cheesbro		27

Thomas Clark owns 2 acres in South part of S. E. 1/4 of N. W. 1/4 of Sec. 34.















# MAP OF CLINTON and TECUMSEH TOWNSHIPS

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN  
Township 5 South, Range 4, East of Michigan Meridian

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in these Townships Shown on Map by Numbers

CLINTON TWP.				TECUMSEH TWP.			
No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	John O'Hara	3.50	1	1.	F. S. Sheldon	5	27
2.	C. Brooks		2	2.	The Wm. Hayden Milling Co		27
3.	E. Halladay		5	3.	J. M. Boyce		27
4.	W. B. Richmond		5	4.	C. H. Mattis	15	27
5.	Geo. Hennenderinger	6	4	5.	Thos. Kelly		27
6.	P. B. Sutfin et al.		3	6.	J. McCoy		27
6a.	Melvin Parlee		5	7.	Libbie Kay		27
7.	E. Smith		5	8.	Gratz		26
8.	R. J. Draper	5	7	9.	E. Dewey		26
9.	John O'Hara	2.25	11	10.	Chas. Moody		28
10.	Robt. Smith		17	11.	Chas. Gregg		28
11.	Mrs. Coryell		17	12.	John Hay		28
12.	Chas. McNeil Est.	15	17	13.	Robt. Quackenbush		28
13.	M. Pawson	3	18	14.	Mrs. E. Gordon		34
				15.	R. W. Cole	3.41	34

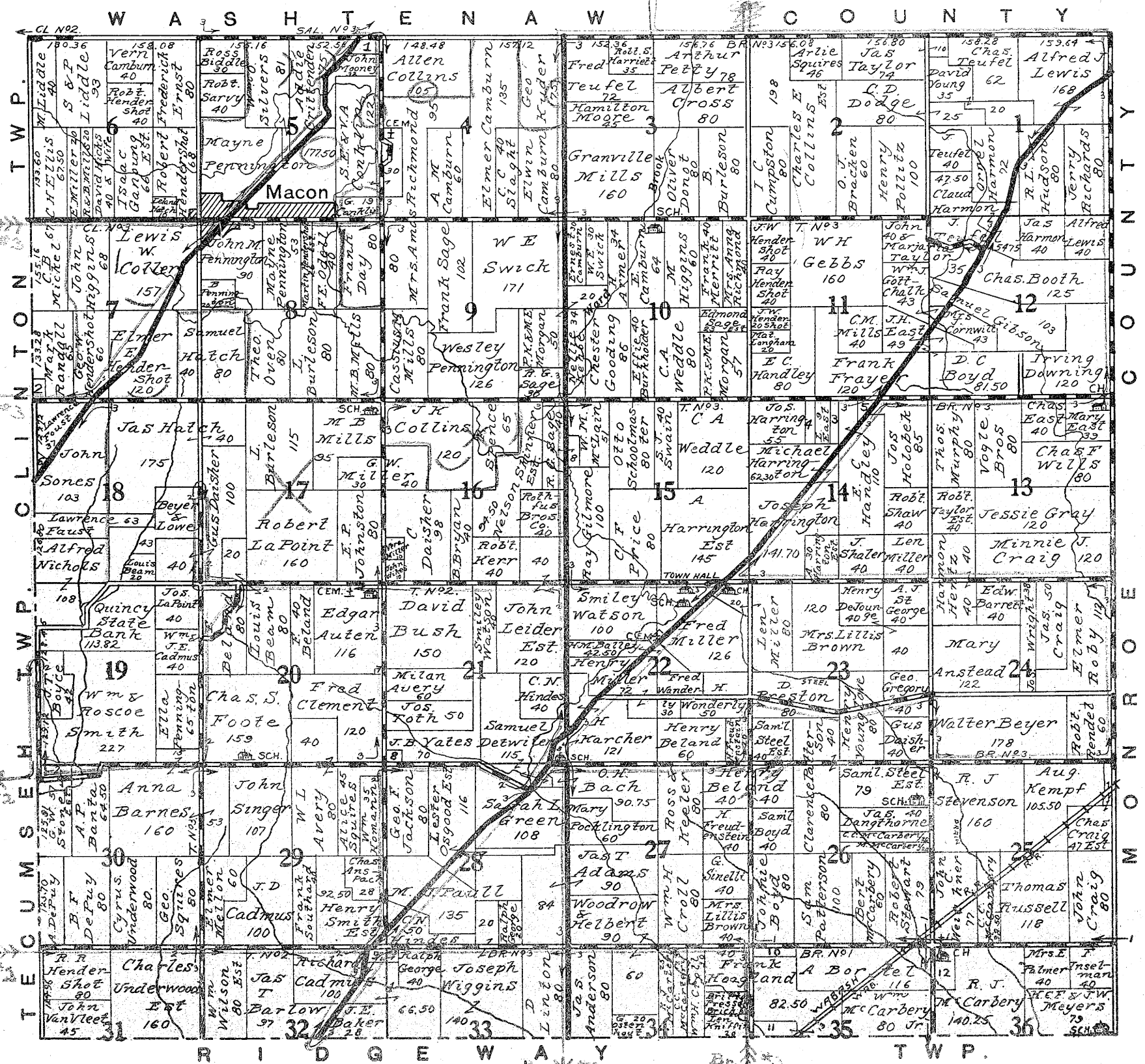


# MAP OF MACON TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN  
Township 5 South, Range 5, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 inches to 1 mile

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.
1.	D. Fulkerson	10	5	6.	A. Kelley	7	18	10.	Thos. Russell	10	35
2.	L. Kelley	6	7	7.	R. Collum	20	20	11.	Britton Pressed Brick Co.	20	35
3.	Jos. Holobek	7	14	8.	Milan Avery	4	21	12.	C. C. McCarbery	19.25	36
4.	D. C. Boyd	9	14	9.	Eli Caswell	2	32				
5.	G. B. Fulkerson	5	14		Eli Caswell	2	33				





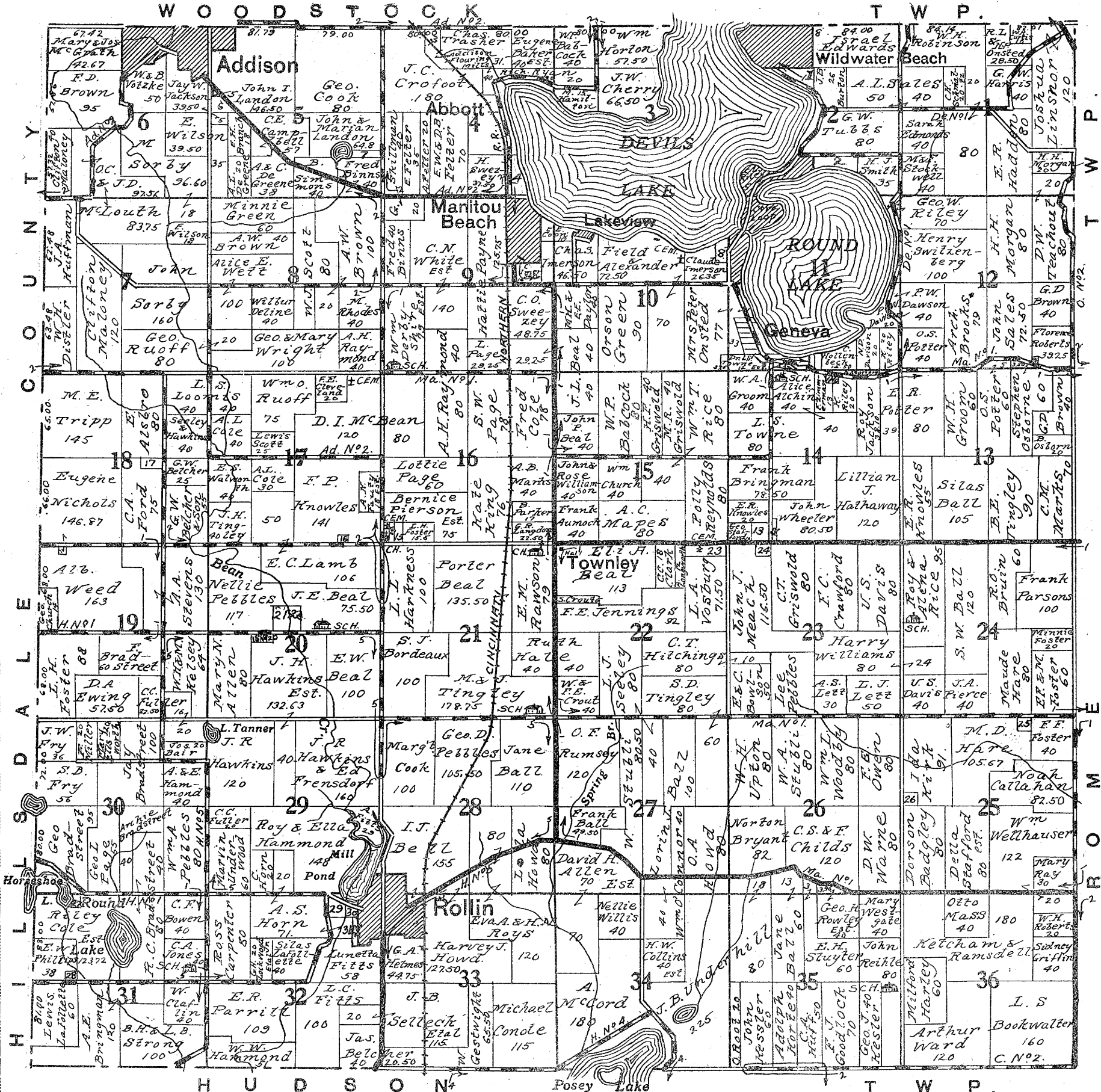
# MAP OF ROLLIN TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

Township 6 South, Range 1, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 Inches to 1 Mile.

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.
1.	W. Westerman	10	2	9.	Oscar Sales	1	12	17.	W. H. Ames	5	18	25.	S. E. Blaine	4	25
2.	E. C. & D. Smith	11	2	10.	Geo. Stafford	5	14	18.	Hula Catlin	2.45	20	26.	Efford Shultz Est.	5	25
3.	John Trasher	7	4	11.	N. D. Davison	1	14	19.	J. Craft	1	20	27.	Merritt Church	5	31
4.	Mrs. Frank Brown	8	4	12.	E. Stonestreet	1	14	20.	Ernest Seamans	2	20	28.	G. W. Turner	2	31
5.	B. Jackson	5	5	13.	Warren Coleman	10	14	21.	G. L. Vosburg	1.4	20	29.	B. J. Forbes	5	32
6.	B. Bunn	10.5	5	14.	H. E. Hodge	2	16	22.	J. Davis	3.50	22	30.	Frank Brown	5	32
7.	Minnie Dart	2.50	5	15.	H. A. Babcock	4	16	23.	C. L. Hathaway	7.50	22	31.	J. H. Snyder	4	32
8.	John Wilcox	5.80	10	16.	Jos. Bowerman	2.25	17	24.	Walter Ambrose	3.50	25	32.	H. A. Savage	3.75	32















# MAP OF RAISIN TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

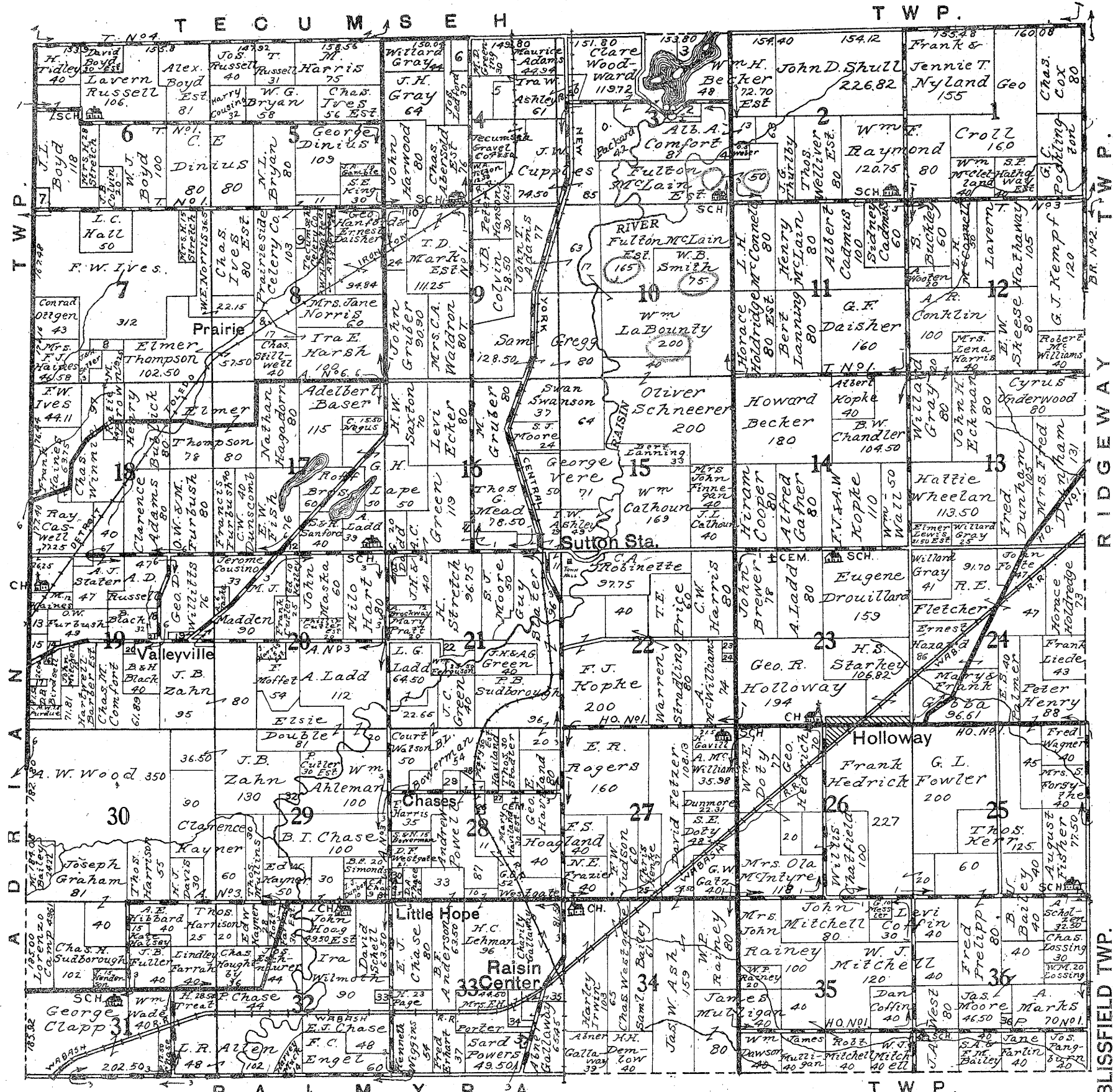
Township 6 South, Range 4, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 Inches to 1 Mile.

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:

Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:

Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	Wm. Milosh	2	3	11.	E. Gree	1	16	20.	Friends Parsonage	3	19
2.	Raisin Flouring Mills	12	3	12.	Jas. Albarno	6	17	21.	W. C. Harrison	2	19
3.	E. S. Hoag	12	3	13.	Jacob Gaddy	9.90	19	22.	W. O. Payne, Est.	2	22
4.	C. W. Olds	3	3	14.	C. Munson	5.50	19	23.	O. O. Jones	2	22
5.	Gravel Bed	15	3	15.	G. L. Dunbar	14.25	19	24.	Jas. Kennedy	2	22
6.	L. E. Erhart	10	3	16.	J. N. Wheeler	5.00	19	25.	H. Henke	1.50	27
7.	Geo. Lanning	8.60	3	17.	C. W. Smith	5.00	19	26.	M. Grundy	2	28
8.	Chas. Winne	10	3	18.	Alonzo Gromer	5	19	27.	Parsonage	2	28
9.	J. Carson	3	3	19.	Frank Wooten	6	19	28.	R. B. Parsonage	.50	28
10.	M. Baldwin	5	3					29.	N. Westgate Est.	7	28
								30.	G. Westgate Est.	3.50	28
								31.	Geo. Wilson	2	29
								32.	B. Glenn	3	29
								33.	Dr. O. Q. Jones	4	32
								34.	E. Hoag, Jr.	13	33
								35.	E. Wooster	13	33
								36.	John Moore	3.50	36
								37.	Florence Haviland	1.75	33



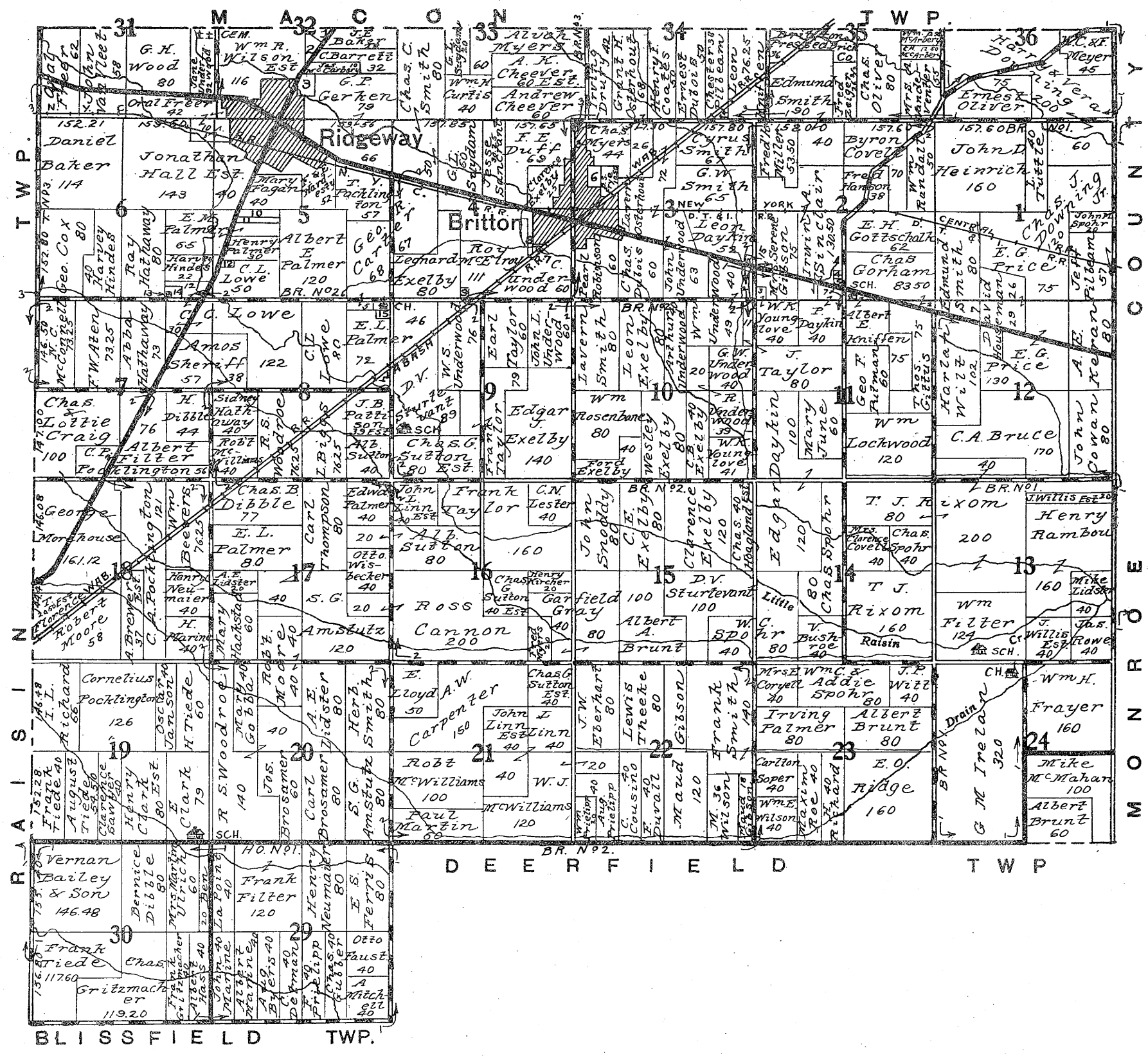
# MAP OF RIDGEWAY TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

Townships 5 and 6 South, Range 5, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 Inch to 1 Mile

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	
1.	J. E. Barlow	.....	T-5-S-4	32	5.	H. Millyard	1.50	2	9.	R. Milson	.....	2	13.	L. Covell, Est.	.....	6
2.	J. M. Gray	.....	T-5-S-7	32	6.	C. D. Zenuff	.....	3	10.	Mrs. J. Clark	.....	7	14.	M. E. Hines	3.50	6
3.	M. & Wm. Haman	.....	T-5-S-11	32	7.	Wm. Britton	4.50	4	11.	J. W. Beam	.....	5	15.	J. Lavinder	.....	8
4.	W. Millyard	.....	T-6-S-1	2	8.	Frank Taylor	.....	13	12.	C. Culbertson	.....	2				





# MAP OF HUDSON TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

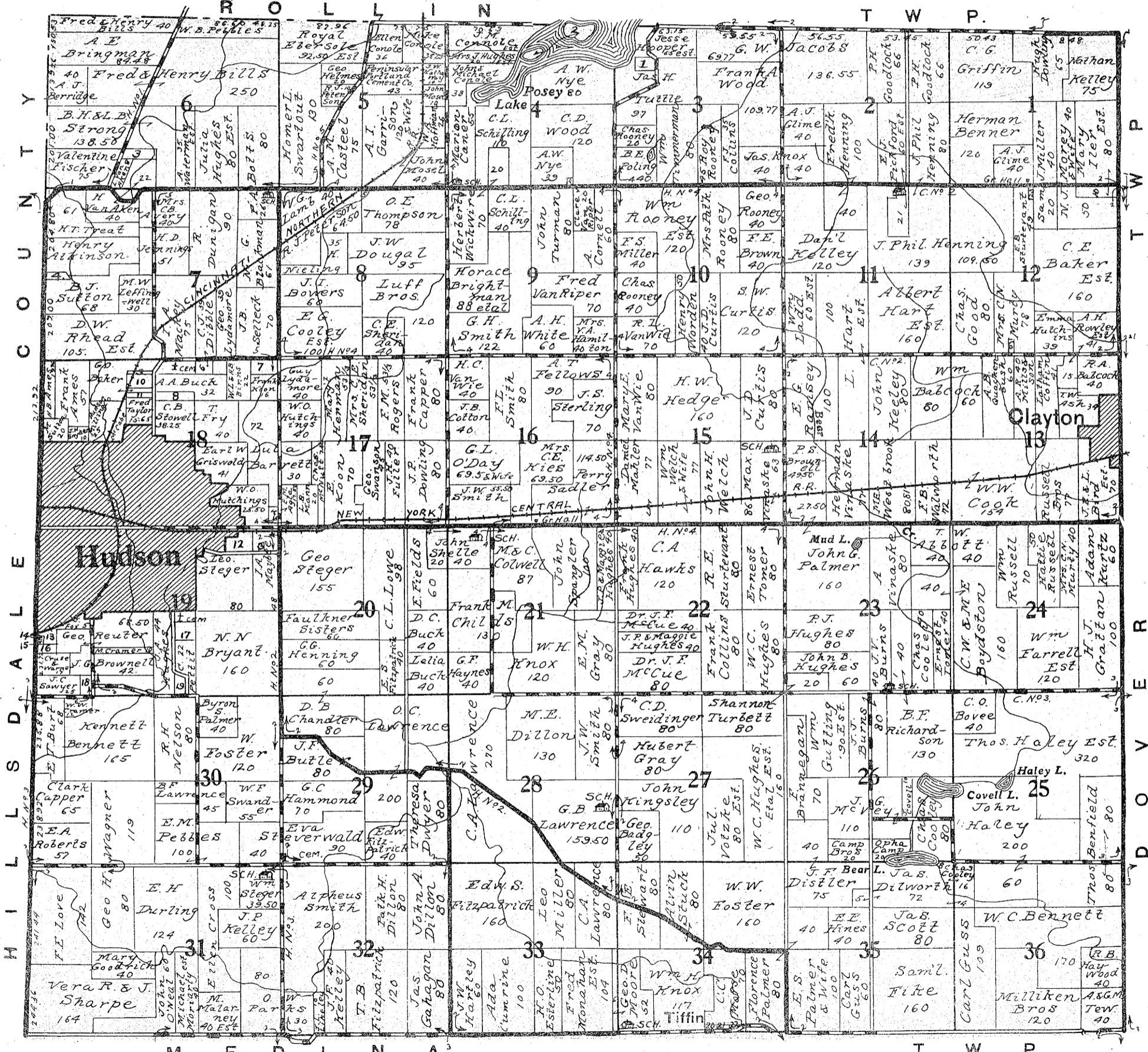
Township 7 South, Range 1, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 Inch to 1 Mile

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:

Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:

Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	S. Pittenger	10	3	7.	Mary Lockwood	10	18	13.	C. Staples	7	19	19.	B. S. Palmer	5	19
2.	J. B. Underhill	40	4	8.	Bertha Buck	16	18	14.	C. W. Wright	1	19	20.	Ida Knox	1.50	34
3.	L. G. Van Aken	6	7	9.	John Gallant	2	18	15.	I. W. Bacon	1	19	21.	Hannah Foster	1	34
4.	C. J. Dunn	6.75	6	10.	S. Chandler	5	18	16.	N. W. Brearly	4	19	22.	Frank Gould	2	34
5.	A. Fuller	1	8	11.	A. Terry	4	18	17.	Mrs. J. Hughes Est.	8	19	23.	C. A. Root	1	12
6.	R. Barnwell Est.	2	12	12.	Mrs. D. D. McLouth	12	19	18.	Chas. Kipp	5	19				









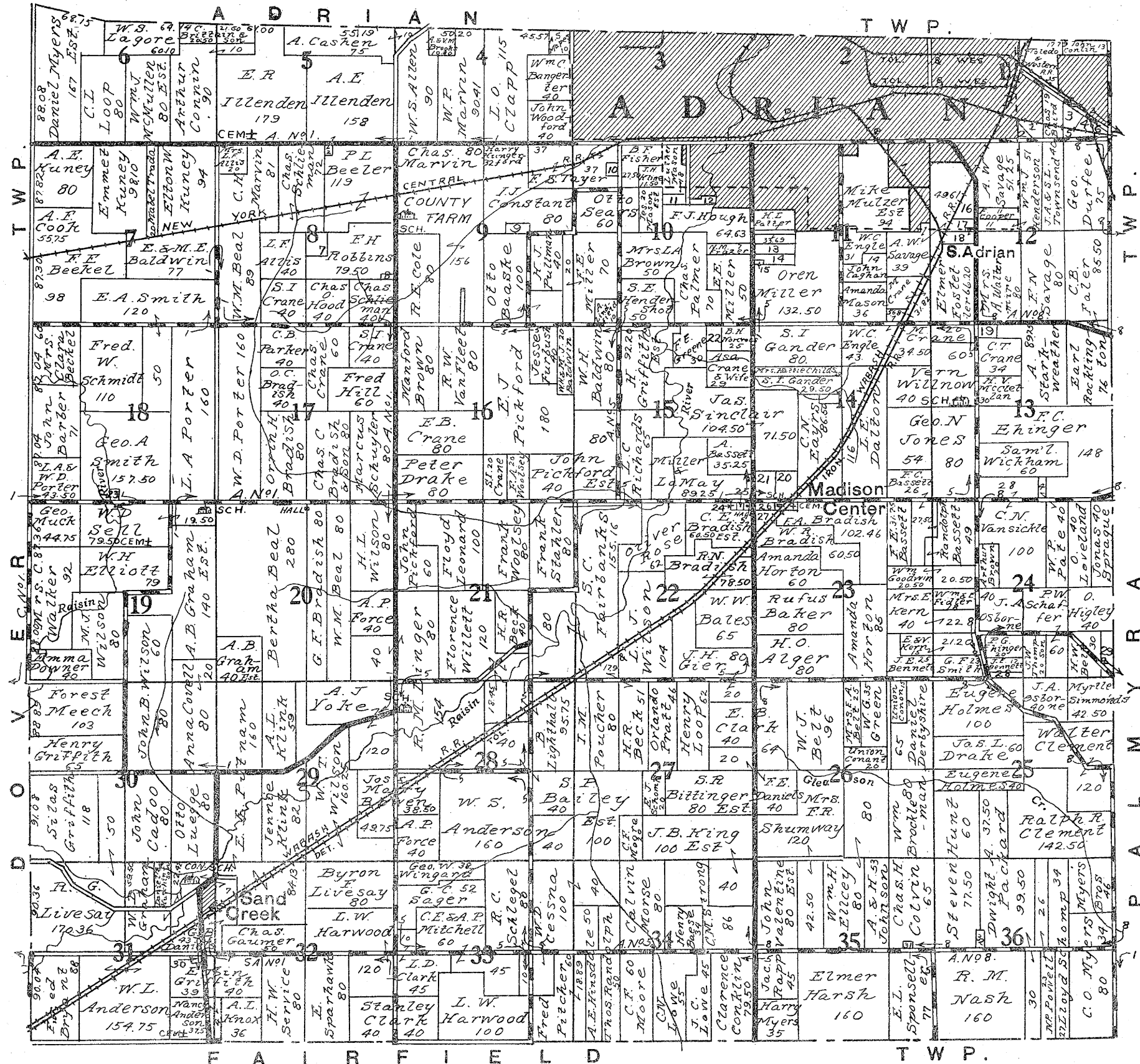
# MAP OF MADISON TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

Township 7 South, Range 3, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 Inch to 1 Mile

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	R. Howel	6	1	9.	J. F. Binger	4	9	17.	Homer Palmer	5	12	25.	R. N. Bradish		22
2.	M. Holmes	5	1	10.	City Gravel Pit		10	18.	E. D. Shove	7	12	26.	Cora Ward		23
3.	G. M. Gelenius	10	1	11.	Robt W. Boyd	8	10	19.	S. F. Pater	7.50	13	27.	C. E. Bradish Est.	5	23
4.	L. T. Lochner	4	1	12.	W. H. Martin	8	11	20.	Ray Curtis	11	14	28.	E. & V. Kern	3.70	24
5.	P. Collier	7	1	13.	N. F. Nickerson	6	11	21.	Clark Minger	12.50	14	29.	A. W. Savage	7.50	24
6.	Wm. Kratzer	1	1	14.	N. D. Chew	9.75	11	22.	Wm. Reynolds	9	15	30.	W. L. Briggs	1	31
7.	L. Bealer	10	1	15.	A. Goldsburg	7.50	11	23.	F. C. Allen	2.50	18	31.	Mary A. Johnson	1.50	35
8.	M. J. Teachout	.50	8	16.	Harry Lewis	7	12	24.	H. D. Foster		22	32.	B. Hanson	2.50	36





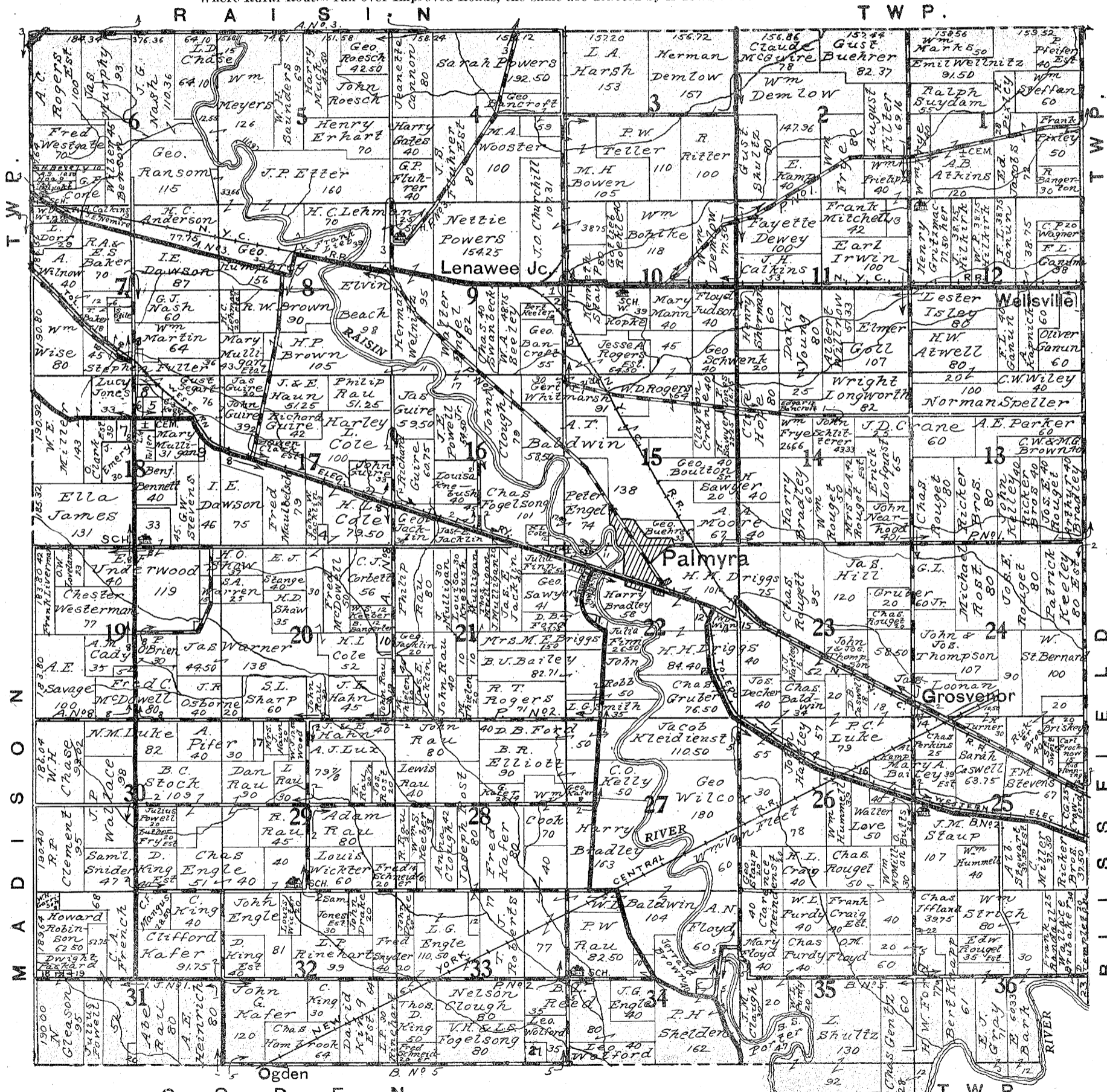
# MAP OF PALMYRA TOWNSHIP

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

Townships 7 and 8 South, Range 4, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/4 Inches to 1 Mile.

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	T. Benroot	3.50	9	7.	Henry Emery	7	18	13.	D. McAdam	1	22	19.	Grange Hall	3.50	31
2.	J. Hawley	3.50	9	8.	Unknown	18	18	14.	C. E. Ellsworth	5	24-25	20.	J. Rising	3.50	31
3.	G. Woodruff	3.50	10	9.	W. Campbell	3	18	15.	S. Clough	5	23	21.	C. Fogelson	10	33
4.	P. O'Brien	5	17	10.	M. Milligan	6	20	16.	Charles Minster	8	26	22.	Mrs. M. Fleet	2.50	36
5.	B. Bennett	8.50	18	11.	M. M. Breever	3	22	17.	Fred McDowell	10	29	23.	J. E. Wilson	3	36
6.	C. Keeber	4	18	12.	Eli Lewis Estate	16	22	18.	Campbell	1	31				



# Map of BLISSFIELD and DEERFIELD Townships

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

Townships 6 and 7 South, Range 5, East of Michigan Meridian

Improved Roads Shown thus:

Rural Routes Shown thus:

Churches Shown thus:

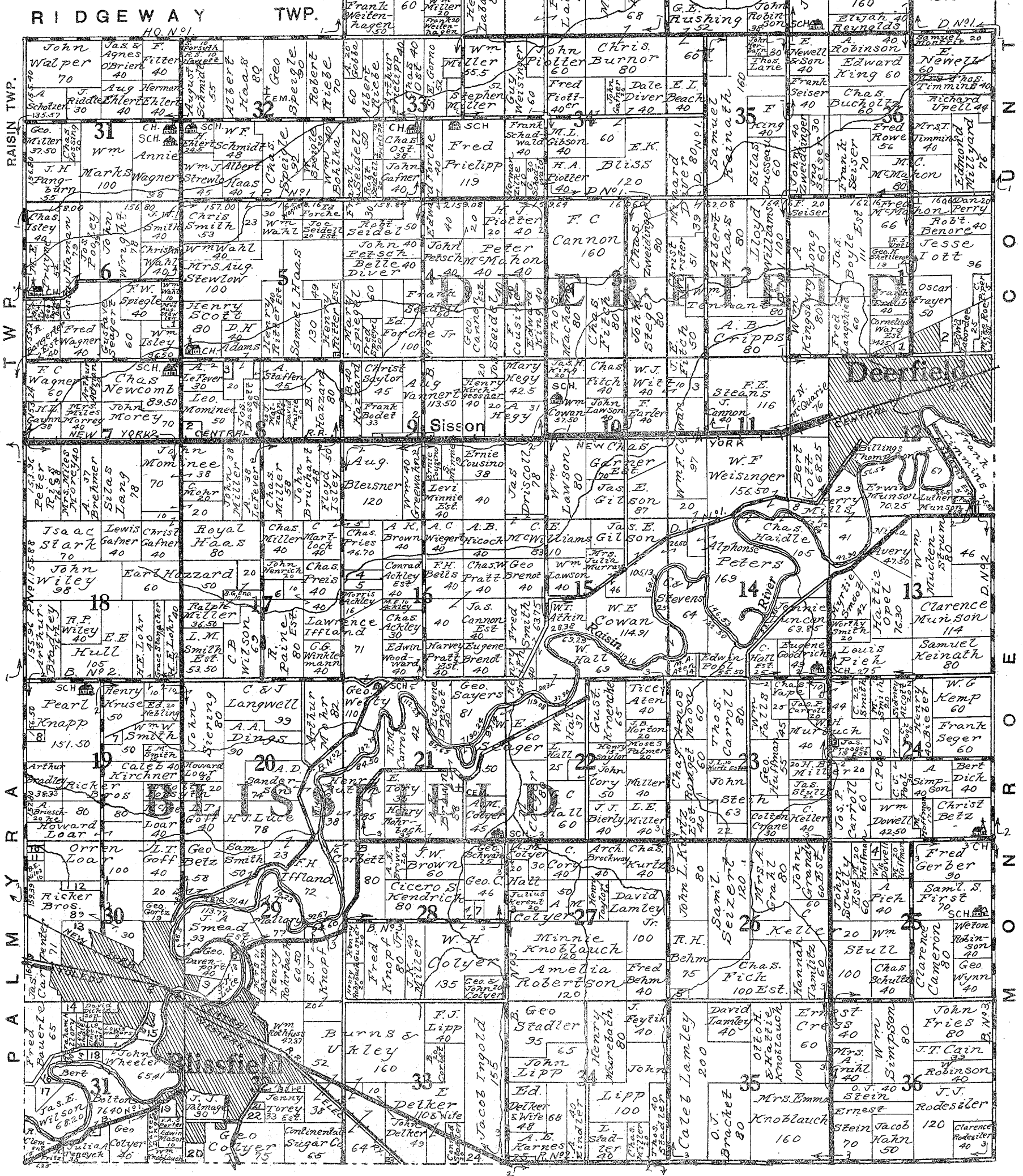
Schools Shown thus:

Cemeteries Shown thus:

Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads

Same are Denoted by Arrow thus

Scale: 1 1/4 inches to 1 mile.



List of Small Property Owners in these Townships Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.
<b>DEERFIELD TWP.</b>											
1.	Romeo Lavoy	5.25	1	2.	Wm. Prelipp	10	8	10.	Mrs. Eva Caswell	3	30
2.	Geo. Robison	10	1	3.	Chas. Manes	5	8	11.	Bert Caswell	5	30
3.	Albert La Point Est.	1	24	4.	Wm. Miller	7.50	16	12.	P. J. Glasser	5	30
4.	A. McCarty	4	25	5.	C. Miller	10	16	13.	Albert Brieschke	14	30
5.	B. Leonard	5	26	6.	L. T. Goff	10	17	14.	Jos. Carpenter	31	22
<b>BLISSFIELD TWP.</b>											
1.	C. Runge	3.80	6	7.	Geo. Schwahn	4.50	28	15.	M. W. Hensill	14	31
				8.	G. J. Schultz		29	16.	G. L. Newcomb	1	31
				9.	Chris Betz	4	29	17.	J. D. Templeton	18	31
								18.	Edna Jewett	4	31
								19.	S. S. and J. H. Porter	10	31
								20.	Herman Townburger	10	32
								21.	J. Torey	4	32
								22.	John Kohrbeck	2.50	33
								23.	John Fetzer and wife	4	33
								24.	Chas. Groth	4	33
								25.	J. G. Karner	4	34



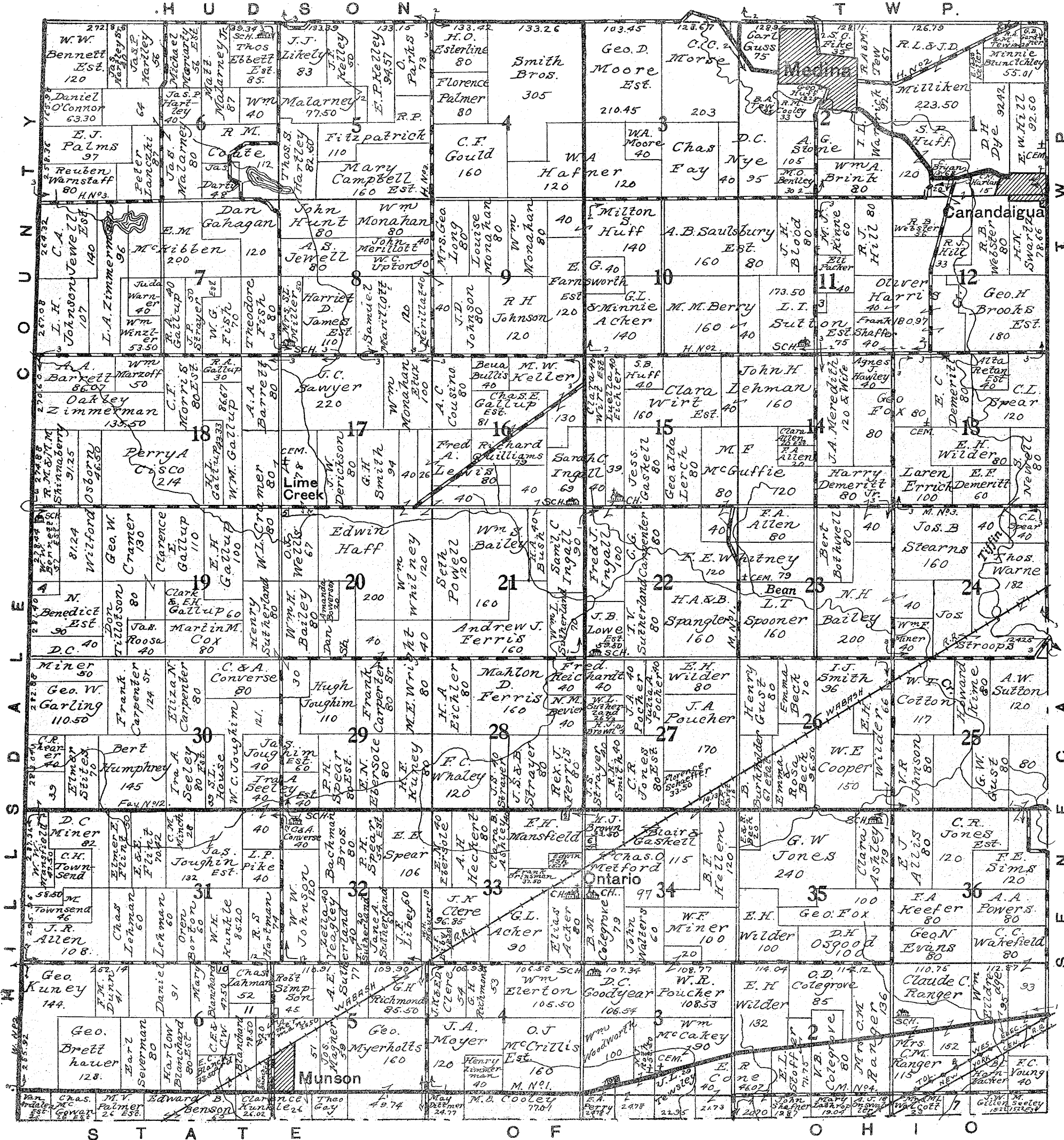


# MEDINA Township

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

Scale: 1 1/4 inches to 1 mile.

Townships 8 and 9 South, Range 1, East of Michigan Meridian



Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:

Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:

List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	A. Camp	1	1	4.	A. T. Sprague	10.48	19	6.	S. N. Sines	4.50	34
2.	A. J. Benson	1	1	5.	F. A. Bauman	1	34	7.	J. D. & M. Martin	12.42	12
3.	F. J. Sutton	5	11	5.	J. M. Zear	1	20	8.	J. Oswald	2.50	6
										2.50	6
										21.6	6





# Map of SENECA Township

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

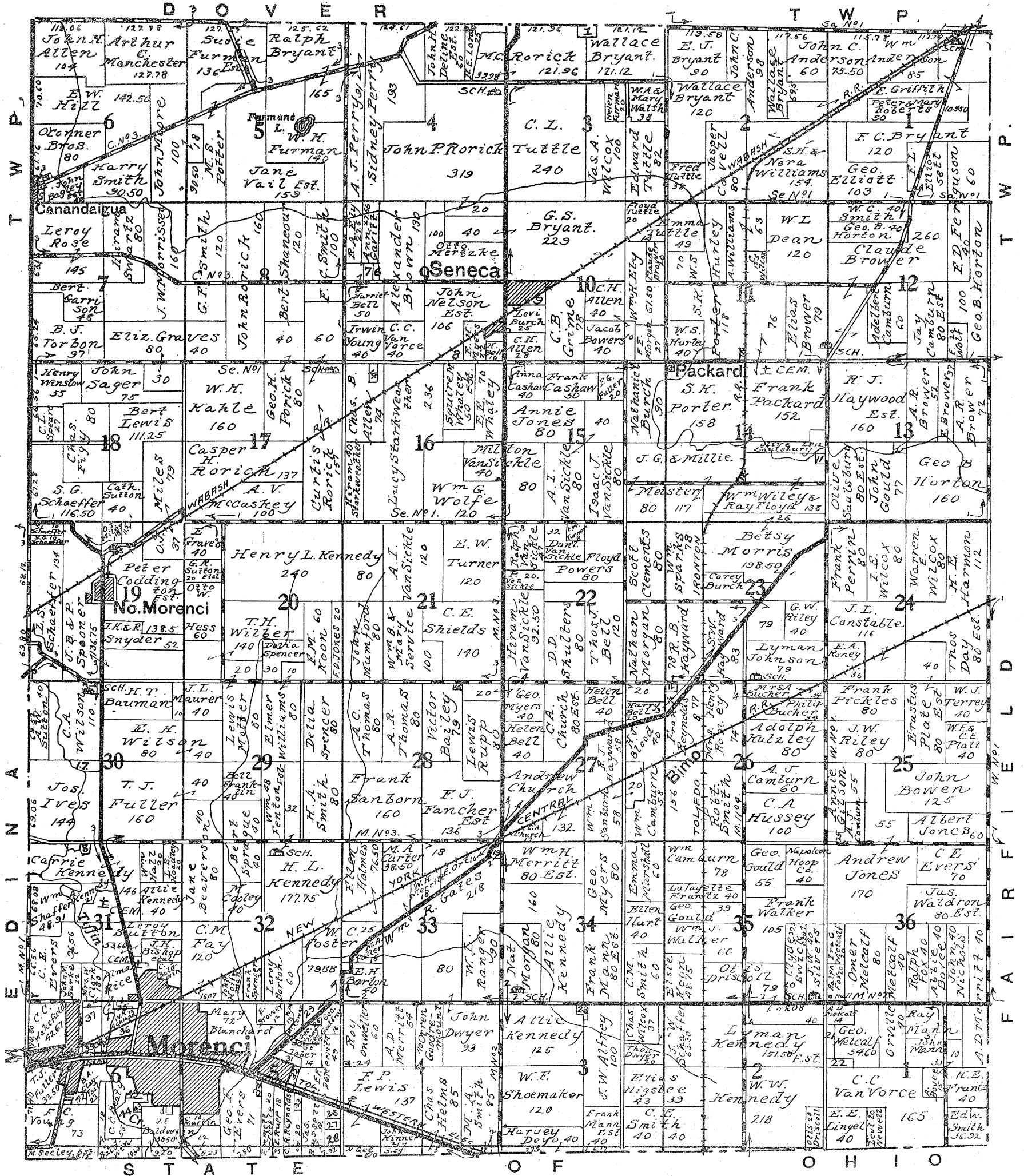
Townships 8 and 9 South, Range 2, East of Michigan Meridian

Scale: 1 1/2 Inches to 1 Mile.

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:

Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:

Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name.	Acres.	Sec.		
1.	Francis Everson	4	3	13.	Wm. H. Ely	2	14	25.	Etta Partridge	T-9-S.	1	5	37.	M. F. Fairbanks	20	6	
2.	Mrs. J. Hathway	6	5	14.	Mary Desher	4.50	16	26.	F. B. Sheffield	T-9-S.	4	5	38.	L. Hill	5	6	
3.	J. H. Allen	6	6	15.	D. Turbett	.75	19	27.	Mark Smith	T-9-S.	7	5	39.	C. C. Wakefield	3	6	
4.	Hiram Swords	1.50	6	16.	B. Dean	1	28	28.	Bell Woodard		10	5	40.	Wm. Hause Est.	1	6	
5.	Wm. Thompson	3	6	17.	Mary Rorick	5.50	30	29.	F. M. Heckman		5	5	41.	Toledo & Western R. R. Co.	9	6	
6.	Alva Youngs	5	9	18.	D. Mowry		31	30.	Wells Collar		2	5	42.	Geo. Heimbisner	4	6	
7.	J. Bell	5	9	19.	Fred Beyer Est.	3	33	31.	Hy. Cootly	8.50	5	5	43.	Burt Lewis	2	6	
8.	Wm. Romell	9	9	20.	Claude Swick Est.	.50	35	32.	A. M. Sampson		5	5	44.	Jno. Beadle	4	6	
9.	J. D. Thompson	6.33	10	21.	Fred Nichols	T-9-S.	6.66	1	33.	Wm. Crawford		2	5	45.	Wm. Metcalf	2	6
10.	Andrew Sample Est.	2	11	22.	Ira Metcalf	6.66	1	34.	E. J. Wells		5	5	46.	Daniel Staninger	7	6	
11.	J. B. Saulsbury	3	14	23.	F. Everson	T-9-S.	5	3	35.	Bert Osgood		2	6				
12.	W. R. Mull	3	14	24.	M. Delair		4	36.	Kellogg & Buck Milling Co.10		6	6					













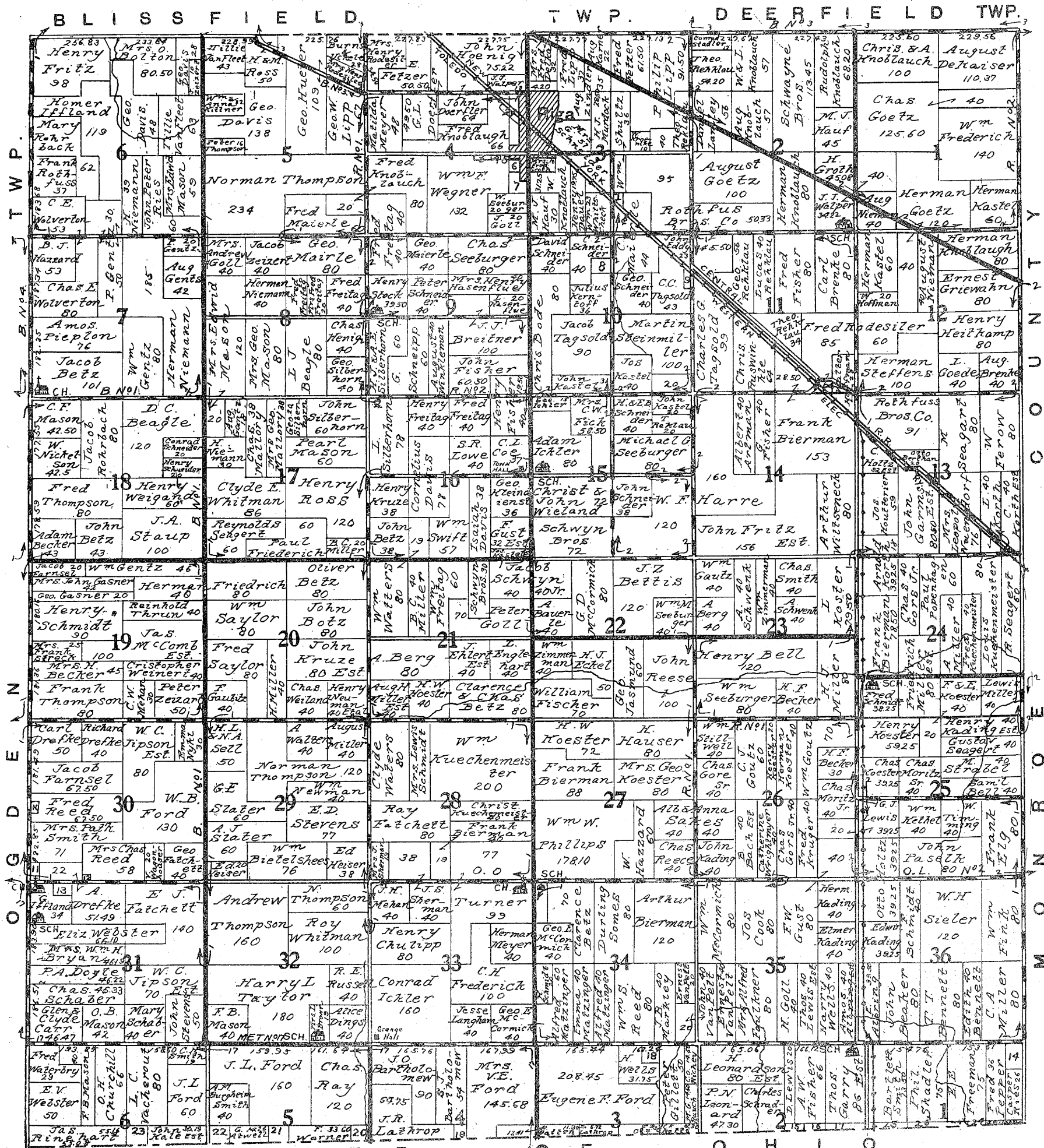
# Map of RIGA Township

LENAWEE COUNTY, MICHIGAN

Scale: 1 1/2 Inch to 1 Mile

Townships 8 and 9 South, Range 5, East of Michigan Meridian

Improved Roads shown thus: Schools Shown thus: Churches Shown thus:   
 Rural Routes Shown thus: Cemeteries Shown thus:   
 Where Rural Routes run over Improved Roads, the same are denoted by Arrows thus:



List of Small Property Owners in this Township Shown on Map by Numbers.

No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.	No.	Name	Acres.	Sec.
1.	Geo. Limberger	4.25	3	8.	Wm. Whittcheck	7	10	14.	Kate Shandley	T-9-S...13	1	21.	F. Hines	17.28	5
2.	C. Nieman	2	4	9.	H. Myers	2.50	10	15.	G. Cook	2.65	1	22.	Milo Bruce	11.26	5
3.	M. Lipp	3.50	4	10.	P. Bryan	2	30	16.	P. Cook	2.65	2	23.	A. Fashbaugh	10.46	6
4.	F. Behm	2	4	11.	Frank Underwick	2	30	17.	L. Strong	4.30	1	24.	E. F. Ford	1.62	1
5.	H. Groeb	1.5	4	12.	Fred Reed	2	30	18.	W. S. Showler	8.25	3	25.	H. Behm	2.75	1
6.	M. J. Hauf	5	4	13.	S. Huey	6	31	19.	H. Reed	3.25	4	26.	Wm. Wright	4.98	1
7.	H. Hasenplug	9	4					20.	W. P. Sanderson	8.31	5				





LOCATION AND POPULATION OF TOWNS IN MICHIGAN ACCORDING TO OFFICIAL 1920 CENSUS.

EXPLANATION OF INDEX

Key numbers are shown thus D6. County seats in capitals, thus AUDUBON. The letter and numeral directly following the name of the town correspond to the letters and numerals on the margin of the map. To locate a given town trace a line between the given letter on opposite side of the map and one between the given numeral on opposite sides of the map and at or very near the junction of these lines will be found the town desired.

Table with 4 columns: Town Index Pop., Town Index Pop., Town Index Pop., Town Index Pop. Lists various Michigan towns and their 1920 populations, such as Abitose, C7, 75; Ada, H11, 440; Alcona, M7, 100; Ann Arbor, L12, 19516; and many others.

Continued third Page Forward



# MAP OF MICHIGAN

With Population and Location of Principal Towns and Cities, according to latest reliable statistics.

Red Figures mark the Congressional Districts. Thin Red Lines show Electric Roads.

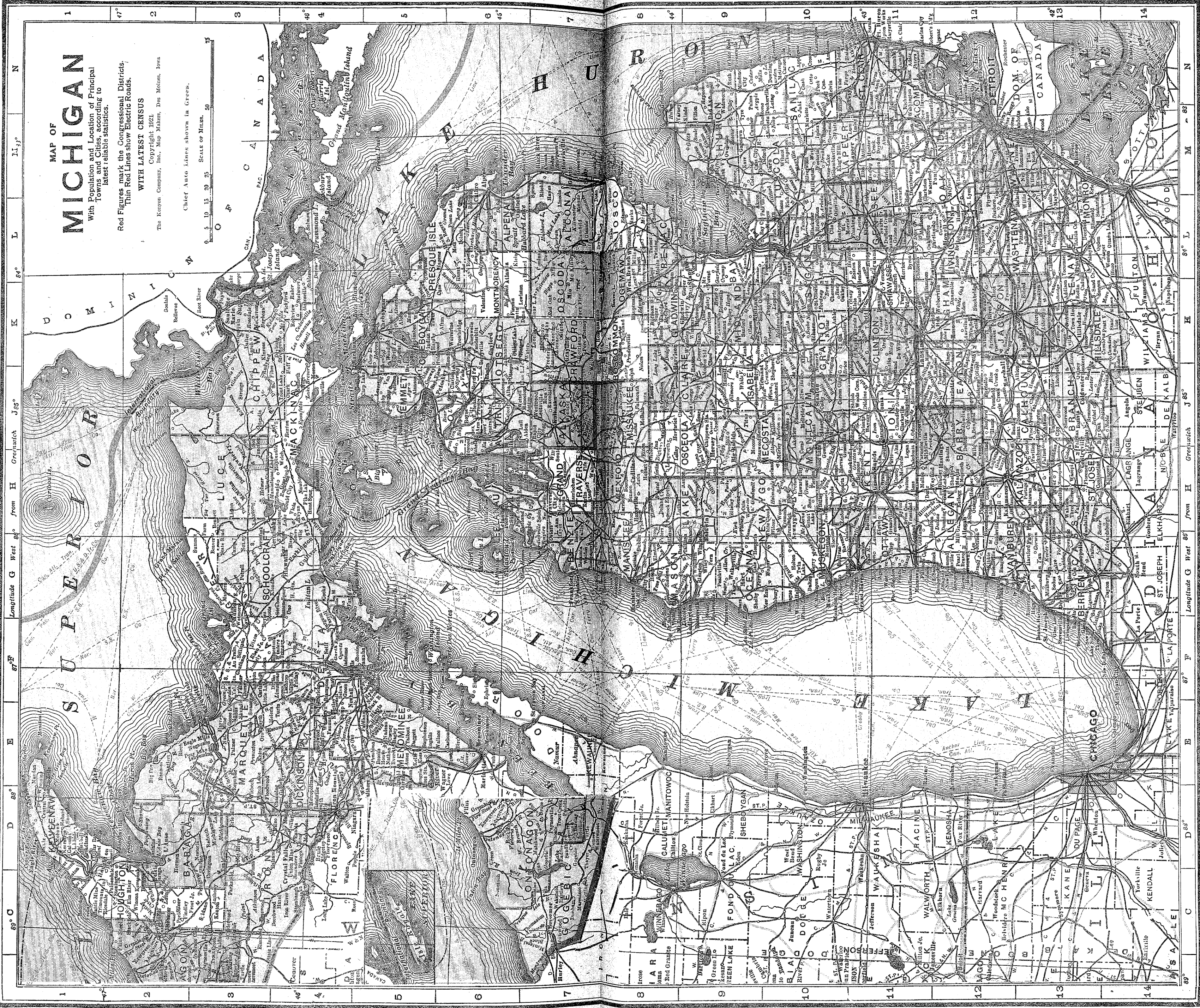
WITH LATEST CENSUS

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The Kenyon Company, Inc., Map Makers, Des Moines, Iowa

Chief Auto Lines shown in Green.

SCALE OF MILES. 50



89° C 88° E 87° F 86° G West 85° from H Greenwich J 84° K 83° L 82° M 81° N

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14





LOCATION AND POPULATION OF TOWNS IN MICHIGAN ACCORDING TO OFFICIAL 1920 CENSUS—Continued.

Town Index	Pop.	Town Index	Pop.	Town Index	Pop.	Town Index	Pop.	Town Index	Pop.	Town Index	Pop.
Lake Harold, J6		McIvor, L8	30	Northland, E4		Pinconning, L9	769	Rosina, J11	32	State Line, C3	
Lakeside, K5	40	McKeever, C2		N. Muskegon, G10	630	Pine River, L9	31	Stambaugh, C4	2268	Von Platen, K6	
Lamb, N11	123	McKinley, L7		Northport, H6		Pioneer, J7	13	Stager, D4		Vriesland, H11	200
Lamont, H11	203	McLeans, G11	32	N. Star, K10	253	Pine Run, L10	175	St. Charles, K10	1469	Wabiki, D8	
Langworthy, H8		McMillan, H3	75	Northville, M12	1738	Pintoga, D4		St. Clair, N11	3204	Wadhams, N11	28
LANSING, K11	37327	McVie, K4		Norvell, K13	160	Pine Ridge, F5		St. Collins, C3		Wadsworth, M9	25
L'ANSE, D2	1013	Mears, G9	250	Norwalk, G8		Pinckney, L13	384	Stearns, K9		Wagar, G9	
LAPEER, M11	4723	Mecosta, J9	297	Norway, D4	4533	Pittsford, K13	600	Sterling, L8	250	Wagner, E6	
Laporte, K10	102	Melita, L8	50	N. Windsor, K12		Plains, E3		Stephenson, E5	550	Wait, M10	
Laredo, L9		Melva, H7		Norwood, H6		Plainwell, H12	2049	Stauben, G4		Wakefield, C7	4151
Larium, D1	6696	Melvin, N10	169	Novi, M12	212	Platte, G7		Steiner, M13	22	Wakelee, H13	143
Larch, K3		Memphis, N11	451	Nunica, G11	200	Plymouth, M12	285	Stevensville, G13	206	Walburg, L6	
La Salle, M13	90	MENOMINEE,		Oak, M12	50	Pt. Charities, M9		St. Helen, K8		Walcott, J6	
Lathrop, F4	127	E6	8951	Oak Grove, L11	156	Pogoy, J9		Stittsville, J7	175	Wahalla, G9	
Lawrence, G13		Mendon, J13	625	Oak Hill, G8	150	Ponca, D4		ST. IGNACE, J4	1852	Wakerville, G9	252
Lawton, H13	1073	Mendota Jc., D1		Oakland, G11	27	PORT HURON,		Stillman, F3		Wallace, E6	22
Lawson, F3		Meridan, K12	70	Oakley, K10	201	N11	25944	Sullivan, G10		Wallin, H7	75
Lawndale, L10	54	Merrill, K10	636	Occoec, L5	26	Point Mills, D7	50	St. Joseph, G13	7251	Walkers Pt., K4	
Leaper, E4		Merson, H12	41	Ogden, L8	75	Point aux Pins,		ST. JOHNS, K11	8025	Walton, H7	
Leaton, K9	64	Metamora, M11	271	Ogden, L13	75	K5		St. Louis, K10	3036	Walton, D4	
Leetsville, J7		Metropolitan, E4		Ogden, J5	46	Sage, J3		Stonington, C2		Waltz, M13	210
Leer, L6		Metsker, G3		Ogontz, F4		Salle, G7		Stockbridge, K12	699	Ward, E4	
Lee, G12	75	Metz, L6	150	Okenos, K11	300	Sailor, H13		Stonington, F5		Wards, J6	
Leesburgh, H13	23	Meyers, N13		Ola, K10	68	Sallings, K6		Stratford, J7		Warren, M12	826
LeGrand, K5	350	Michelson, Mill,		Old Mission, H6	175	Salmon Island,		Strongville, K4		Wasepi, H13	95
Leitch, N10		J8		Olive, J12		L4		Strongs, J3	75	Washington, M11	208
LELAND, H6	350	Michie, L9		Oliver, H9		Salem, L12	200	Stronach, G8	250	Washington	
Lenox, N11	380	Michigamme, D3	1000	Olmey, K11	16	Saline, L13	830	Sturgeon R., F4		Washington	
Leoni, K13	152	Middleville, H1	833	Omen, K9	20	Samaria, L13	123	State Road, H3		Waterford, M11	225
Leota, J3	80	MIDLAND, K9	5483	Omer, L8	266	Sands, J7		Sturgis, H14	5990	Waters, K6	160
Leonidas, H13	300	Mikado, M7	95	Onaway, K5	2789	Sandhurst, C3		Sturgeon Bay, J5	100	Watervliet, G13	1072
Leonard, M11	264	Milan, L13	1557	Onekama Jc., G8		SANDUSKY, N10	1228	Sturgeon Bay, E7		Watersmet, C3	100
LeRoy, H8	642	Millford, L12	1088	Onekama, G8	252	Sandstone, K12		Sugar, K8		Watson, E4	
Les Chenaux, K4	80	Milton, N11		O'Neil, J7		Sand Lake, H11	566	Sullivan, G10		Waucedah, E4	
Leslie, K12	1089	Millbrook, J9	300	Onota, F3	50	Sandy, H10		Summer, J10	350	Waveland, K5	
Lester, J13	45	Millburg, G13	164	Oran, F3		Sanford, K9	200	Summit, H3		Wayland, H12	853
Levering, J5	350	Mill Cr., H11		ONTONAGON, C2	1406	Santiago, L8		Summit, D2		Wayne, M12	1899
Lewiston, K6	350	Millersburg, L5	243	Oral, K11		Sarnia, N11		Summit, J9		Weadock, K5	100
Lewis, L11	26	Millerton, G8	42	Orange, J11		Saranac, J11	750	Sunfield, J11	385	Weare, G9	40
Lexington, N10	378	Miller, J10	36	Ora, E4		Sault Ste Marie,		Sun, H11		Webberville, K12	465
Liberty, K13	60	Milllett, K11	100	Ora, E3		K3	12096	Suttons Bay, H6	392	Welch, J4	
Lighton, G13	24	Mill Grove, H12		Orchard Lake,		Saunders Sta., C4	34	Swanson, E5		Wellington, C7	
Limestone, F3	40	Millington, M10	689	L12	100	Saugatuck, G12	526	Swazy, E3		Wellington, J7	
Lindsley, E4		Mills, L8		Orchard Hill, L6		Sawyer, F13	100	Tallman, G9	81	Wells, F4	
Lincoln, M7	178	Mills, N9		Oregon, M11		S. Bay City, L9		Tamarack, C3		Wellsburg, J3	
Lincoln, L11	579	Mills, H13	20	Orient, J9	102	Scammon, L4		Tarry, M9		Wellston, H8	
Lincoln, G9	178	Minden City, N9	283	Orion, M11	929	S. Camden, K13		TAWAS CITY,		Wesley, G9	40
Lincoln Mill,		Mines, L9		Orono, H9	110	Schlessor, K4		L8	1013	W. Bay City, L9	
H10		Mint, H13		Orr, K10	20	Schoolcraft, H13	731	L3	5990	WEST BRANCH,	
Lincoln Jc., M7		MIO, K7	200	Ontonville, M11	445	Scofield, M13	115	Scotts, H13	400	K8	1276
Linwood, L9	200	Missaukee Jc.,		Oscar, C1	30	Scotts, G2	400	Scotts, G2	400	W. Campbell, J11	
Linkville, M9	96	J8	60	Osceola, H8		Seager, C2		Tecumseh, L13	2432	West Casco, G12	
Liston, H3		Mitchell, J6		Osses, K13		Sears, J8	96	Tekonsha, J13	569	Westmore, G3	
Lisbon, H10	19	Mohawk, D1		Oshlento, H12	125	Sebewaing, M9	1446	Temperance, L13	250	West Olive, G11	35
Little Lake, E3		Moline, H11	150	Osier, F4	20	Seganing, L9		Temple, J8	275	Weston, L14	275
Little River, E6		Monitor, L9	100	Osteneke, M6	100	Selva, F4		Tierney, J8		Westphalia, J11	325
Little Harbor, G4	40	MONROE, M13	11573	Ostego Lake, K6		Selkirk, L8	14	Titus, G9	20	Westwood, J7	72
Litchfield, J13	660	Montague, G10	845	Ottawa Lake,		Seneca, K13		Thayer, D7		Wetzell, J6	210
Livingston, G13	45	Montieth, H12		L14	200	Seney, G3		Thomas, M11	150	Wexford, H7	105
Lodge, M7		Montgomery, J14	354	Ottawa Beach,		Setif, F4		Thomaston, C7	20	Wheatley, K9	30
Logan, J11		Montreal, C7		G11		Seven Mile Hill,		Thompson, G4		White, C2	
Long, L8		Montrose, L10	522	Otter, C2		L7		Thompsonville,		White Cloud,	
Long Lake, C4		Moore, K8		Otter Lake, M10	325	S. Frankfort, G7		G7	410	H10	618
Longrie, E5		Moorepark, H13	110	Otia, H9		S. Grand Rapids,		Three Oaks, F14	1362	L9	
Long Rapids, L6	178	Moore Sid., K9		Otisville, L10	364	H11		Three Rivers,		H13	5209
Long Lake, J8		Moorville, H.		Otsego, H12	3168	Sharon, J7	40	Tone, K8	18	Tonquish, M12	
Loomis, K9		Moorland, G10	52	Ovid, K11	1067	Shabbona, M9	200	Topaz, C7		Topinabee, K5	100
Loretto, E4	200	Moran, J4		Oviatt, H7		Shaftsburg, K11	130	Toquon, G12	37	Torch Lake, H6	
Loranger, K8		Morenci, K14	1697	Orleans, J11	175	Shelbyville, H12	157	Tower, K5	545	Town House, K13	
Lott, L7	40	Morley, H10	336	Owendale, M9	244	Shelby, G9	1260	TRAVERSE			
Lovells, K7		Morgan, J12	75	Owosso, K11	12575	Shelldrake, J2	23	CITY, H7	10925		
Lowe, E6		Morrice, K11	372	Oxford, M11	1668	Shelldale, H6		Trenary, F4	200		
Lowell, J11	1730	Moscow, K13	175	Ozark, J4	33	Sheridan, H8	200	Trent, H10	45		
Loxley, J8		Motley, C2		Packard, E5	30	Sheridan, J10	489	Trenton, M13	1682		
Lucas, J8	100	MT. CLEMENS,		Pack Pine, K7		Sherwood, K10	823	Trimountain, C2			
Luce, L10		N12	9488	Packard, G12		Sherwood, J13	250	Troubridge, K6	53		
Ludington, G9	8810	Mt Morris, L10	1174	Paines, L10	125	Shingleton, G3		Trout Lake, J4	150		
Lull, J6		MT. PLEASANT,		Painesdale, C2		Shiloh, J11	87	Trout Cr., C3	60		
Lulu, L13	50	J9	4819	Palatka, C4		Shiloh, J12	33	Trufant, J10	400		
Lum, M11	300	Mud Lake, L7	40	Palmer, E3	799	Sidney, J10	100	Tunis, D3			
Luman, K9	25	Mullett Lake, K5		Palmyra, L13	200	Siemens, C7		Turin, F4			
Lupton, L8	150	Mulliken, J11	290	Palisade Park,		Sigbee, K7		Turner, L8	236		
Luther, H8	396	MUNISING, F3	5037	G12		Sigbee, K7		Turtle, C3			
Luzerne, H7	42	Munith, K12	300	Panola, D4		Sigbee, K7		Tustin, L8	281		
Lyons, J11	574	Munger, L10	200	Parks Sid., C3		Sigbee, K7		Tuscola, L10			
Macatawa, G11		Munsing Jc., F3		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Twining, L8	221		
Mackinac, K4	493	MUSKEGON,		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Twin Lake, G10	100		
Mackinaw, J4		G10	36570	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Tyre, M9	125		
Macon, L13	165	Muskegon Hts.,		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Uby, M9	455		
MacRae, E4		G10	9514	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Umstead, L3			
Madison, L11	52	Munson, K14	65	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Ungers, H9			
Malacca, E5		Muir, J11	363	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Union City, J13	1256		
Maltby, L7	30	Mynnings, J8	15	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Union Mine, D4			
Mancelona, J6	1214	N. Adams, K13	414	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Unionville, M9	488		
Manchester, L13	1024	Nadeau, E5	325	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Uno, G4			
Mandan, D1		Nahma, F4	300	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Upton Works,			
Mangum Sands,		Namur, E7		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		N11			
E3		Naples, J7		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Urania, L13			
MANISTEE, G8	9690	Narenth, E5		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Utica, M12	588		
MANISTIQUE,		Nashville, J12	1376	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Valentine, K6			
G4	6380	National Mine,		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Valley Cen., N10			
Manning, K5	20	E3		Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Van, J5	45		
Mansfield, D4		Nathan, E5	56	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Vandalia, H13	331		
Maple City, H7	132	Negaunee, E3	7419	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Vanderbilt, K6	394		
Maple Rapids, K11	466	Nelson, K10	18	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Vassar, L10	1458		
Maple Ridge, F4		Nerrisville, H7	115	Parkville, H12	36	Sigbee, K7		Vega, E4			
Marblehead		Nessen, H7	1								



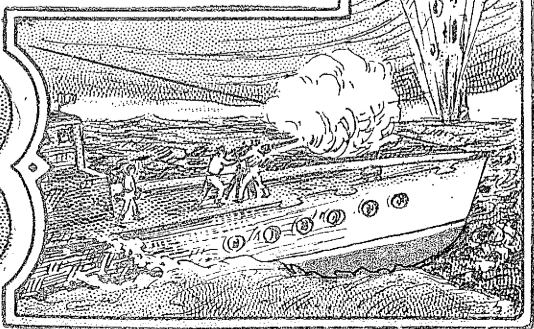
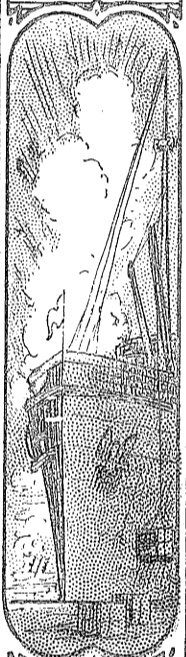
REVISED ATLAS OF THE WORLD

SHOWING LATEST MAPS AND PICTURES  
WITH HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

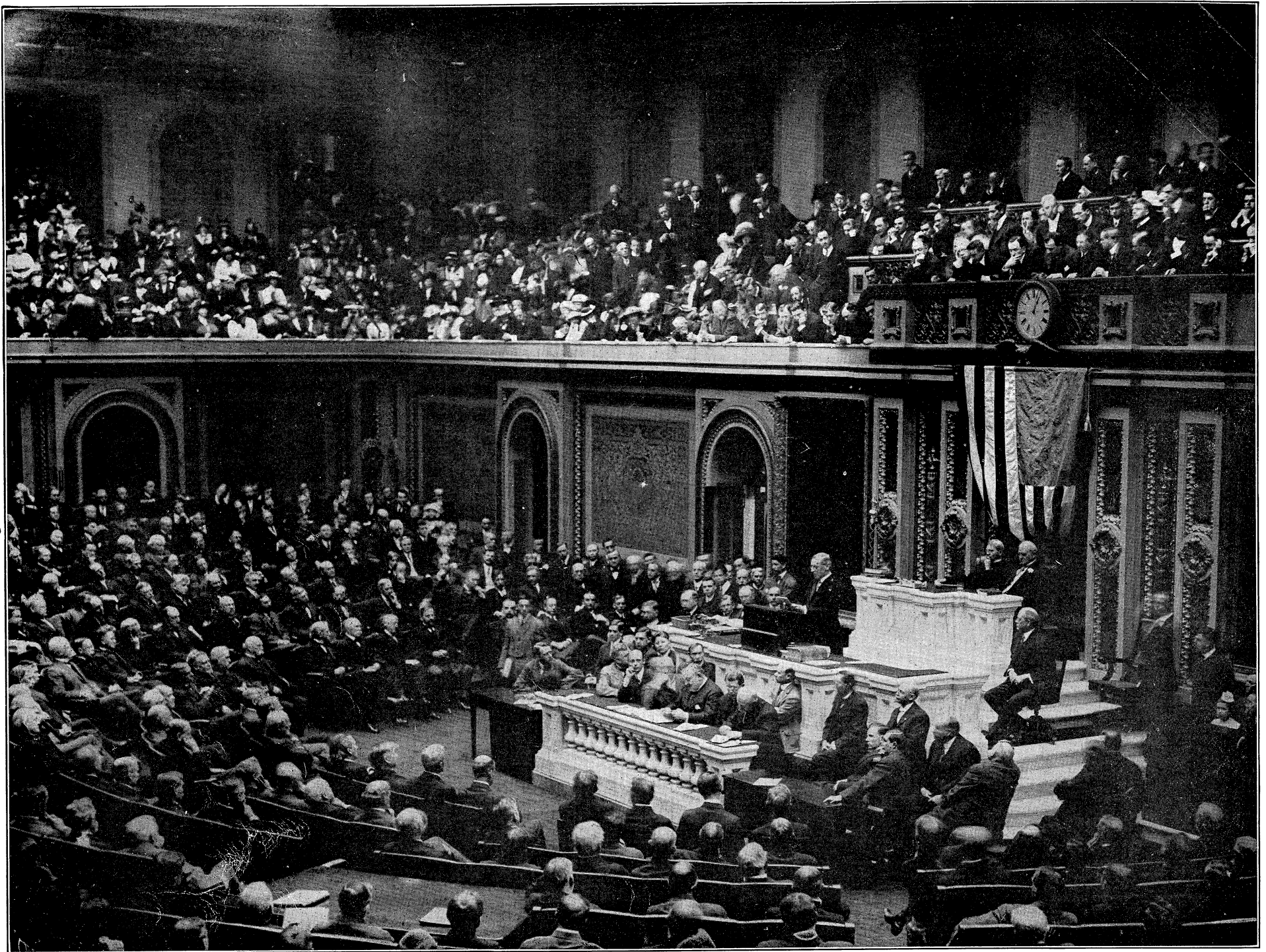


FOR HIS HOME AND HIS COUNTRY

"FOR HOME AND COUNTRY"







President Wilson Delivering His Great Address at the Joint Session of Congress at Washington, April 2, 1917

### The Closing Paragraphs of the President's Great Address to Congress, April 2, 1917

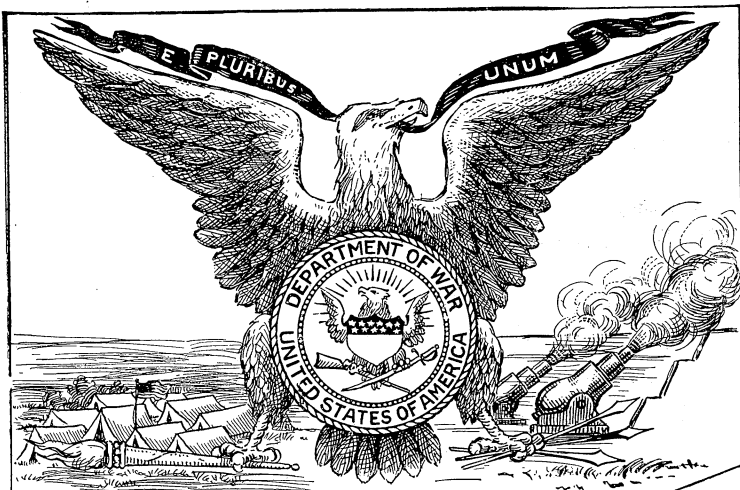
"It is a distressing and oppressive duty, gentlemen of the Congress, which I have performed in thus addressing you. There are, it may be, many months of fiery trial and sacrifice ahead of us. It is a fearful thing to lead this great, peaceful people into war, into the most terrible and disastrous of 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 of their own governments, for the rights and liberties of small nations, for a universal dominion

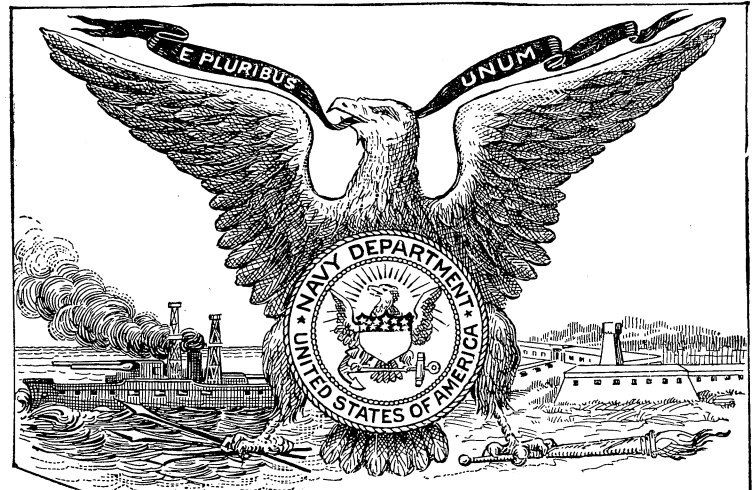
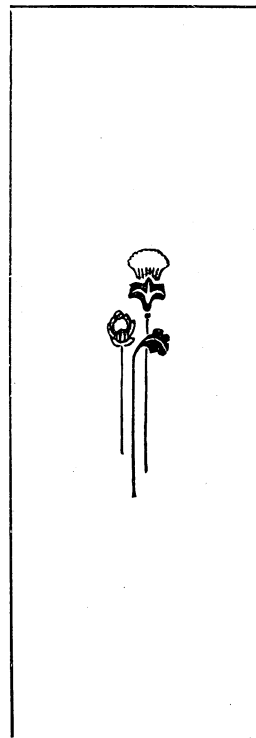
of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free.

"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 happiness and the peace which she has treasured.

"God helping her, she can do no other."



**THE ARMY:**  
OUR BULWARK AGAINST INVASION



**THE NAVY**  
OUR LINE OF FIRST DEFENSE



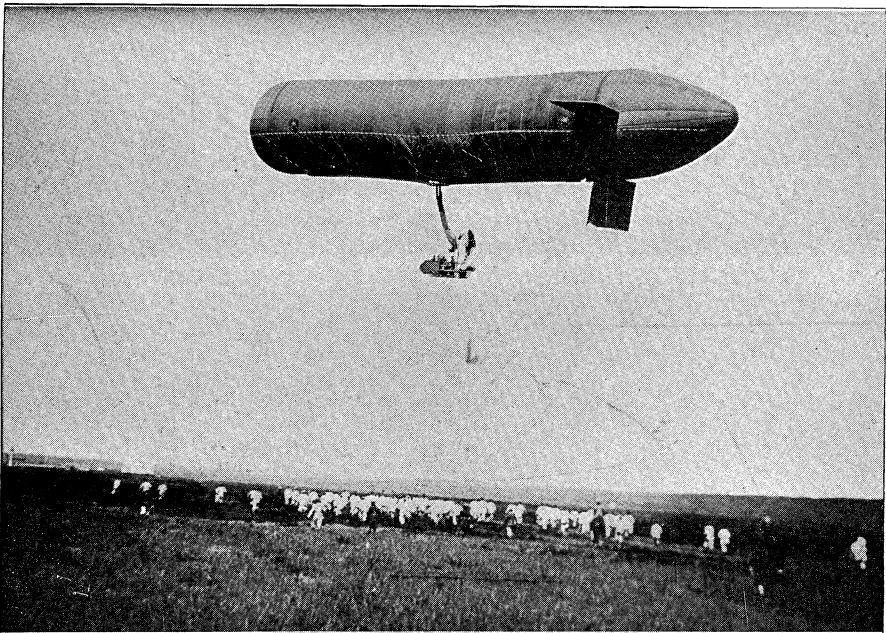
# A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE GREAT WAR

## CHAPTER I.

**EVENTS LEADING UP TO THE WAR**—On the morning of Monday, November 11, 1918, an armistice was signed which brought to an end the greatest war in the history of the world, a war which cost millions of human lives and many billions of dollars, in which twenty-six nations were more or less directly engaged, which lasted over 1,500 days and which was terminated by the most abject surrender ever imposed upon any great nation. On that day representatives of Germany signed at Senlis an armistice in the presence of Marshal Foch, of France, and representatives of Great Britain, by the terms of which they agreed to withdraw from Belgium and France, to relinquish Alsace-Lorraine (which they had held for forty-seven years, ever since the Franco-Prussian war), to surrender all of their submarines, practically all of their air fleet, the greater part of their navy and immense quantities of munitions of war, and to withdraw from their own frontier so as to permit the armies of the United States, Great Britain and France to stand guard on the Rhine against any possible treachery. After such suffering and sacrifice, such courage and struggle, as had never before been seen, the world was at last made safe for democracy through victory on the field of battle. With revolution stalking through "the Fatherland," with its armies in the field defeated and battling for their lives as they retreated in what order they could, and thoroughly discredited throughout the entire world, Germany was glad to accept the severe peace terms agreed upon by the allied supreme war council at Versailles and transmitted to their representatives by Marshal Foch in the shell-shattered town of Senlis. The abdication of the Kaiser and the Crown Prince and their flight from Germany into Holland confirmed the victory. The Kaiser had not only found his dream of world empire shattered, he had lost his throne and had been driven from the land of his fathers, an outcast some day to be brought before the bar of justice to answer for his many crimes. The German surrender followed close upon the heels of that of Austria-Hungary, upon which almost equally severe terms were imposed by the Allies. It in turn followed the surrender of Turkey and Bulgaria. One by one the allies of Germany deserted, as defeat after defeat was administered to them. Finally, in sheer despair, Germany terminated the war by accepting the stringent terms of the victorious allies.

What were the causes of this greatest of all wars? They may be divided into two classes; remote and direct. They might equally well be classified as real and assumed. They were political, military and commercial. It is difficult, if not impossible, to say, which one, or which group, the future will declare the real one.

**THE CAUSES OF THE WAR**—Ostensibly the fact that on June 28, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of the Austrian empire, was assassinated, together with his wife, while making a state visit to Sarajevo (capital of the province of Bosnia, which the Berlin treaty of 1878 put under the administration of Austria-Hungary) was the direct cause of the great war. Back of that, however, was a long story of political intrigue and international complications. The political balance of the great powers of Europe was so delicately adjusted, before the war, that any weakening of one meant the vibration of all. Germany had taken advantage of the defeat of Russia in eastern Asia, in its struggle with Japan in 1904 and 1905, to bully France over Morocco. In 1908, judging correctly that Russia was still unfit for war, Austria, with the connivance and help of Germany, tore up the treaty of Berlin and annexed the Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. It was while on a visit to these newly annexed provinces that the Austrian archduke was assassinated. The immediate criminal was a youth named Gavrilo Princip, but whether he acted on his own initiative or merely the tool of others higher up, perhaps a part of a great political plot, has never been disclosed. Germany and Austria did not care. They seized upon the murder as the excuse for the war for which they had long been preparing.



GERMAN OBSERVATION BALLOON HOVERING OVER VERDUN

Such are the facts of history. Back of them, however, are certain economic developments and aspirations, certain dreams of German domination the world over, which make the murder of the Austrian Crown Prince take second place among the war causes. Germany dreamed of the day ("Der Tag" they called it) when there would be German domination from Berlin to Bagdad; when the German flag would rule over the seas; when German capital would develop the richest parts of the world; when German colonies would form a vast ring of wealth around the earth. The Kaiser was ambitious to be the modern Alexander; he had been for years preparing a vast war machine. He looked about to see where and how best he could utilize that terrible, death-dealing machine.

There had been bad blood between Germany and France ever since the Franco-Prussian war, brought to a conclusion in the spring of 1871 by the surrender

of Napoleon III and the siege and surrender of Paris. Prussia had demanded the payment by France of an immense indemnity and the cession of the splendid provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. Victor though she was, Germany still looked longingly at the remaining provinces of the country it had defeated and yearned for the day when the remaining valuable coal and iron deposits of France would be hers. She needed them for fulfilling her dreams of world power, for "made in Germany" was a commercial trademark to which the world was rapidly being forced to pay homage. Without coal and iron Germany could neither manufacture those things which would ensure her world-wide commercial domination nor send them abroad to bring the world to Germany's feet.

**GERMANY'S DREAM OF CONQUEST**—Great Britain stood between Germany and that world-empire of which she dreamed. Through her maritime power and the energy of her merchants, Britain had become a great world power while Germany was still a collection of petty states. When Germany became a powerful empire, with an increasing population and an immense commerce, she found that England had preceded her to those choice spots of the world where her eyes fondly turned. "Gott strafe England" (meaning "God strike England") was in the hearts of those who ruled over the German people long before the Austrian Archduke was killed.

"There are a score of considerations which show that a European war had long been planned and that finally the very date, determined by the completion of the broadened Kiel canal, had been approximately fixed," says A. Conan Doyle, the noted British writer, adding: "The importations of corn, the secret preparations of giant guns, the preparations of concrete gun-platforms, the early distribution of mobilization papers, the sending out of guns for auxiliary cruisers, the arming of the German colonies, all point to a predetermined rupture. If it could not be effected on one pretext, it certainly would on another."

Twice Germany believed the time had come when war might be precipitated, without the open hand of intrigue and desire being seen. The first time was in 1905, the second in 1911. Both times the commercial development and the government of Morocco were the ostensible excuses. Both times Germany was thwarted in its efforts to precipitate a general European war. Still eyeing covetously the great iron and coal fields of France, she impatiently awaited the day when the mailed fist might strike, quickly and victoriously. The murder of the Austrian Archduke was seized as the final excuse.

Working as an ally—a vassal, rather—of Germany, Austria held an inquiry in connection with the trial of the assassins which was reported to have implicated individual Serbians in the plot, although no charge was made against the Serbian government. A demand was immediately made, however, containing such severe and impossible conditions that Serbia could not have remained a nation and grant them. Austria rightfully demanded the immediate trial and conviction of the assassins, but it did not stop there. It demanded that Austrian judges should sit in Serbia to hear the case and that Austrian delegates should have partial administrative control in the Serbian kingdom. Serbia was asked to turn over its courts, even its government, to Austria, because certain of its citizens were implicated in a murder not even committed within its borders. It turned to the nearest friend it had and asked for help. That friend was Russia, bound to Serbia by ties of diplomatic alliance and the kinship of blood and race. Russia was willing that the murderers should be punished; it was not willing that Serbia should be humbled to the extent which Austria demanded. The Austrian army was already mobilizing—Russia began to mobilize in the south. Austria seems to have instantly made up her mind to push the matter to an extreme conclusion, as is shown by the fact that mobilization papers were received by Austrians abroad, bearing the date of June 30, only two days after the Sarajevo murder. Events crowded rapidly upon each other. On July 28, 1914, Austria declared war upon Serbia. Three days later Germany, as Austria's ally, declared war upon Russia. Two days later, Germany declared war upon France, which was Russia's ally. The sparks of war were falling all over Europe. Every eye was turned toward England, to see what that kingdom would do in the crisis.

England remained aloof at first from the diplomatic negotiations and the military preparations. The attitude of France was never in doubt. Russia was her ally; France took her stand beside Russia at once. A strong bid for British neutrality was made by Germany, on July 29, the day after Austria declared war upon Serbia. In an official conversation, the German Chancellor declared that Germany was ready to pledge herself to take no territory from France in case of victory. He would make no promise as regards the French colonies, the French fleet or the immense indemnity which was already being discussed in some of the German papers. He proposed, merely, that England should hold aloof, at the price of France being allowed to retain her territory intact. Germany craved French territory, because of the coal and iron fields, yet it promised to keep its hands off, provided only that England desert her ally in the hour of need and remain neutral. To do this, Britain promptly refused. Sir Edward Grey said: "From the material point of view such a proposal is unacceptable, for France, without further territory in Europe being taken from her, could be so crushed as to lose her position as a great power and become subordinate to German policy. Altogether apart from that, it would be a disgrace for us to make this bargain with Germany at the expense of France, a disgrace from which the good name of this country would never recover." England saw clearly that Germany might, indeed, allow the coal and iron fields of France to remain France's, while at the same time securing their entire output. England was unprepared for war, but she was no traitor to her ally and to humanity in the hour of need.

**THE RAPE OF BELGIUM**—It was in this crisis, with England valiantly refusing to desert France, but not proposing to enter the war, that Germany precipitated matters once and for all by violating the neutrality of Belgium and rushing her armies across that fair land in order the sooner and more powerfully to strike at France.

The neutrality of Belgium was solemnly guaranteed by France, Prussia (the dominant kingdom in the federation of Germany) and Great Britain, in 1831 and 1839. On the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian war, in 1870, both France and Prussia recognized anew the neutrality of Belgium, in a special treaty arranged by Great Britain. Solemnly pledged to regard Belgium as a neutral nation, and knowing full well that to send a single armed man over the frontier without permission constituted a violation of that treaty of neutrality and a virtual declaration of war, Germany lost no time in sending its armed hordes across the Belgian frontier, insultingly promising not to destroy Belgian property in the event the government allowed its millions to march through the land. Others had faithfully lived up to the treaty of Belgian neutrality. Germany broke it without any warning. On July 31, the British government asked France and Germany if they were still prepared to stand by their pledge to Belgium. France answered promptly that she was, and added that she had withdrawn her armies six miles from the Belgian frontier as an evidence of good faith. Germany failed, or refused, to answer. She was too busy mobilizing her immense armies close to the Belgian frontier, prepared to march across Belgium the very moment the hour to strike had arrived.

Great Britain looked on, alarmed and suspicious. Having received no reply to its request for a definite assurance about Belgium, the British government instructed its ambassador to ask for an immediate answer, on August 4th. The startling reply came from the German secretary of foreign affairs that the German troops had already crossed the Belgian frontier. It was in this conversation that the German official referred to the Belgian neutrality treaty as "a scrap of paper"; an historic scrap of paper, indeed, which thrust Great Britain into a war from which it might otherwise have held aloof and which, in the end, brought to Germany the most crushing defeat ever administered to any nation in the history of the world. On that day, August 4, 1914, war was declared between Great Britain and Germany. Up to that time Great Britain had taken but one step beyond the path of strict neutrality. That step consisted in the announcement on August 2, subject to Parliamentary approval, that "if the German fleet comes into the Channel or through the North Sea to undertake hostile operations against the French coasts or shipping, the British fleet will give all the protection in its power." This did not mean war, but two days later Germany's action in invading Belgium brought it about.

There still remained one other nation, the position and attitude of which were in doubt. That nation was Italy.

Prior to the outbreak of the war Italy was an ally of Germany and Austria-Hungary. The terms of the alliance did not bind Italy to take up war on account of any war being waged by its allies; it was only called upon to assist if the land of either Germany or Austria-Hungary were invaded by an enemy. This was not the situation in August, 1914. Italy canvassed the situation thoroughly and at last decided on a policy of strict neutrality. This not only relieved France of a grave peril, but afforded the simplest and most conclusive exhibition of the aggressive character of Germany's action. It was not until the following May (1915) that Italy definitely decided to cast its fortunes with Britain, France, Russia and Belgium against her former allies: Germany and Austro-Hungary. Long before that (October 29, 1914) Turkey had declared war against Russia. Twelve months later (October, 1915) Bulgaria also joined forces with the Central Empires. The outbreak of actual hostilities found Russia, France, Serbia, Montenegro, Belgium and Great Britain allied against Germany and Austria-Hungary. Within a year Germany and Austria had the support of Bulgaria and Turkey, while the allies found themselves supported by Italy, Roumania and Japan. Eventually twenty-six nations became embroiled in the struggle, the list being as follows:

**THE NATIONS ENGAGED**—The Central Empires: Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria.

The Allies: Belgium, Serbia, France, Great Britain, Montenegro, Italy, Greece, Brazil, Japan, China, Cuba, Portugal, Liberia, Panama, San Marino, Siam, Roumania, Russia, the United States, Nicaragua, Uruguay and Guatemala.

The greatest war in the history of the world found at its close almost 100,000,000 men under arms or available for military service. It was fought out at a cost of almost \$200,000,000,000. Such figures are appalling. Never before had the world known such a holocaust, such a tragedy. Never before had it seen so many men clutching so fiercely at each others throats, engaged in so titanic a struggle.

## CHAPTER II.

**THE CAMPAIGN OF 1914**—The war began with the overrunning, by the German armies, of the neutral kingdom of Belgium and the neutral duchy of Luxemburg. Had it not been for the courageous and determined resistance of the Belgian troops, under command of King Albert, who held back the German hordes until France could prepare, in a measure, for the unexpected invasion, the war might have ended in a few months, with a victory for the Central Empires, instead of in their decisive defeat. "Time was the precious gift which little Belgium gave to the Allies; she gave them days and days, and every day worth an army corps."

**THE INVASION OF BELGIUM**—The army which came pouring over the Belgian frontier was the most efficient and the best armed and equipped ever gathered in the field up to that time. The Germans considered it invincible. There was not a thing which had not been provided, either to assist the soldiers in carry-



PLAYING CARDS IN A SHELTER ON THE FRENCH FRONT

ing on their offensive, or to frighten the people of the conquered territory into passiveness. The army moved forward with the precision of clockwork; everything seemed to have been arranged long in advance. Only the little Belgian army, mobilized with great speed, stood between the Germans and their long-held dreams of a Middle Europe empire, stretching from the Baltic to the Black Sea. Never was there a more gallant, determined resistance; never did soldiers give up their lives more willingly for others. The Belgians fought not only for their own ravished land, but also for France, for Europe, for civilization itself. Their courageous self-sacrifice cannot be overestimated.

There was little time to prepare to repel the invaders. On July 31, before any declaration of war, a German army of 125,000 men was moving close to the Belgian border. On the night of Saturday, August 1, the vanguard of the German armies, using motor trucks followed by trains, burst through the neutral duchy of Luxemburg, and on August 3 they were over the Belgian line. They swept everything before them for the first few days. Irresistibly they swung along, beating back the little handful of brave Belgian defenders (Belgium's army, on a war footing, was only 200,000), while France, England and Russia made frantic efforts to call, train, arm and equip great armies overnight—an impossible task. But, the Germans met with an unexpected setback. They approached the forts of Liege, Belgium, expecting them to fall quick and easy victims to their powerful guns, the like of which the world had never seen before. Here was where the Kaiser made his first mistake. On August 5 the Huns attempted to rush the gaps between the Liege forts. These gaps were three miles wide and filled with

entrenched infantry. The Germans expected to sweep them away, but the Belgians held on. The Germans fell by the thousands. Eighty thousand other Germans were brought up and on August 7 the attack was renewed, but with no better result. A garrison of 25,000 Belgians held off the attacking army of 120,000 ten days, giving France the precious time which she needed so badly.

The Liege garrison fought well, but it fought against too heavy odds. With twelve forts, three miles apart, it was impossible to guard all the avenues of attack and approach with the small force at command. The Germans entered the town of Liege on the 8th, but the forts still held out. Day followed day, and still the forts held. The Germans had expected to be in France before Liege was finally conquered. On August 14 the last Liege fort fell and the Germans were permitted to press forward. By that time the French were pouring into Alsace and Lorraine, in a courageous, but ill-timed attempt to regain these "lost provinces." Had the Liege forts fallen as quickly as the Germans confidently expected, the German dream of world empire might have come to pass. But when the Liege forts held back the onrushing invaders, the history of the war and of the world has changed.

**GERMAN BARBARITY**—The Germans poured into Belgium, in a seemingly never-ending stream. They ravished the once-fair land, the neutrality of which they had solemnly guaranteed. They perpetrated untold atrocities on the people. The great university of Louvain was sacked and destroyed. Belgian men were arrested and shot down on little or no excuse. Women were torn from their husbands, daughters from their parents, and compelled to submit themselves to the lustful desires of the brutal invaders. Children were bayoneted, apparently merely to satisfy the blood lust of the conquerors. Brutality ran riot. Immense indemnities were demanded for the smallest overt acts; hostages were held without reason or warrant of law. The German hand was at the throat of Belgium and Germany knew no mercy.

After Liege came Namur, another Belgian stronghold, of which much was expected. But Namur was a disappointment. The German invasion, by now, was sweeping everything before it. It had spread into Brussels, the Belgian capital. Namur was believed to be stronger than Liege, yet it held back the German tide only a few days. On August 22 the garrison surrendered, a considerable portion effecting a retreat to the French army, which by that time had come up to the support of the town. The tide had been held back a little, however, so that it was the third week of August before the ranks of the Belgian army had taken refuge in Antwerp, and the Germans, at last victorious over their puny foe, were finally sweeping down upon northern France in a 200-mile line. By that time 100,000 British had crossed the channel, coming to the rescue of the Belgians, a handful compared with the hordes of Huns, but heroes every one of them, destined to fall before the Teutonic conqueror, but in falling to pull the enemy down with them. No braver body of troops ever entered a battle than these British "Tommys," fighting against overwhelming odds with a courage which thrilled the world. "A thin red line of heroes," they added undying glory to the brilliant military page of Britain.

The first real battles between the Germans and the French were at Dinant, where the French were victorious, and at Charleroi, which the Germans carried on August 22, pushing the French back with considerable loss of guns and prisoners along the whole line. There was a defeat, but nothing approaching a rout or an envelopment, so the hearts of the French beat high. The line fell back, fighting determinedly, but northern France was thrown open to the invaders. This retirement resulted in the battle of the Mons, August 23, the first encounter in which the British army engaged.

**BRITAIN TO THE RESCUE**—The bulk of the British expeditionary force passed over to France under cover of darkness on the nights of August 12 and 13, 1914. A. Conan Doyle has described the embarkation in this manner: "It is doubtful if so large a host has ever been moved by water in so short a time in all the annals of military history. There was drama in the secrecy and celerity of the affair. Two canvas walls converging into a funnel screened the approaches to Southampton Dock. All beyond was darkness and mystery. Down this fatal funnel passed the flower of the youth of Britain, and their folk saw them no more. They had embarked upon the great adventure of the German war. The crowds in the street saw the last serried files vanish into the darkness of the docks, heard the measured tramp upon the stone quays further away in the silence of the night, until at last all was still and great steamers were pushing out into the darkness." Such was the embarkation of the first contingent of the many millions of soldiers who were to cross the waters from England, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States. Germany was pleased to call the first 100,000 which England sent across the channel a "contemptible little army," but that handful grew into millions, and British military history records no more gallant deeds than were performed by her troops in the great world war.

The battle of Mons (August 23, 1914) found the British troops unaccustomed to warfare as it was to be waged during the four succeeding years. Still they held their ground well. When it was finally learned that instead of being opposed by 90,000 Germans, the enemy numbered 180,000, and that instead of being supported by French troops on either side, the Germans had already put the French on his right to flight, while nothing substantial lay on his left, Sir John French (the British commander) was forced to order a retirement, after losing 5,000 men. Considering the size of the forces participating and the energy with which the battle was being conducted, this was no easy task, but it was accomplished in good order. Step by step the British retreated, hard pressed by the Germans, who felt, three days after the Mons defeat, that complete victory was at last theirs. On August 26 the German general, Von Kluck, sent an exultant telegram to Berlin declaring that he had the enemy surrounded, a telegram which set Berlin fluttering with flags. But the end was not yet. Sir John French and General Joffre (the latter in command of the French army and eventually to become Marshal of France) had other plans, daring plans, which it took courageous minds to conceive and brave men to execute. What history records as the "Retreat to the Marne" was begun, a retirement which was to end in an "about face" and the retreat, in turn, of the invaders.

**THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE**—It was apparent from a very early date that General Joffre had determined upon a retreat of the Allied armies to the line of the Marne river, where lay strong fortifications. To all appearances the French and British were in rapid retreat before an overwhelming foe. In fact, however, they were luring their enemy along, farther and farther away from his base of supplies, awaiting the time when they might turn and fall upon him with sledge-hammer blows which his exhausted vanguard could not withstand. "Whatever may be said of the first French advances into Alsace and Lorraine, the plan of escape from the northern peril proves that the taciturnity of Joseph Jacques Joffre covered a cool, clear brain, capable of large and delicate combinations, a rare knowledge of his men to respond to the extraordinary demand made upon their endurance. France had not begun well and the full force of the invasion was upon her. Few commanders ever held such a responsibility, but, in the supreme crisis, this captain did not fail."

A part of the German army was held back by the resistance of the great French fort of Maubeuge, gaining a delay of twelve days. The first German troops appeared before the place on August 25. It was not until September 7 (while the issue was being decided on the Marne) that Maubeuge surrendered, and full possession of the trunk railway, for which the enemy was fighting, was obtained. September 6 was a day of great elation in the armies of France and England, for it marked the end of the retreat and the beginning of their victorious advance. The Allied retreat could not have gone farther south without exposing Paris to the danger of an attack. Already the Germans were at Senlis, within twenty-five miles of Paris and their guns were plainly heard in that city. The French government had already been transferred to Bordeaux, and Paris put into a state which promised a long and stubborn defense. On September 6 the French and British line was extended in seven separate armies from Verdun to the west of Paris, a distance of 174 miles. The desperate struggle of September 6, 7, 8 and 9 may be looked upon as the first turning point of the war. At one time the situation was desperate for the Allies, but 20,000 men—all sorts and conditions—were rushed out from Paris in a five-mile line of automobiles, taxis and trucks, and the tide was turned. On the morning of the 10th the Germans began an extended retreat,

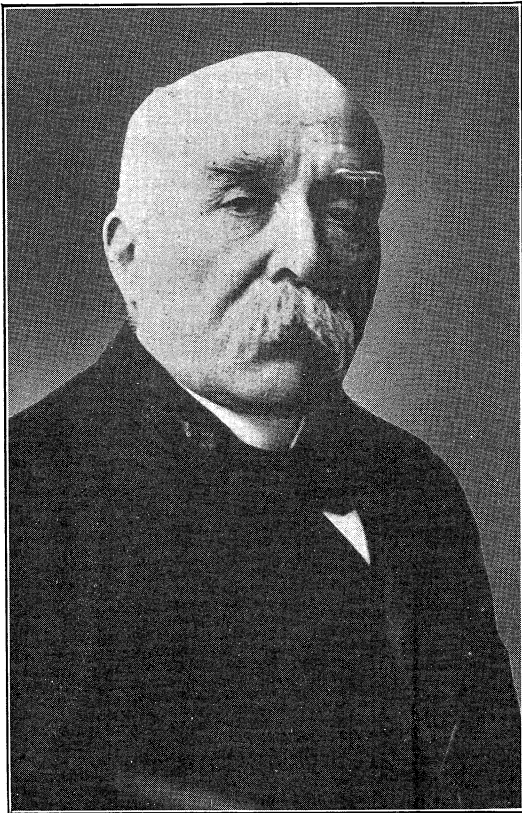


held in front by the French and in danger of being cut off by the British to the east. On the 13th the advance guard of the Allies, pursuing the retreating Huns, crossed the Aisne river, which runs parallel to the Marne, some thirty miles distant. Only one bridge remained and it was partly demolished, still 25,000 British troops, under command of General Haig, were across before the evening of that day. Step by step, the Germans were pushed back over the country they had invaded so rapidly, and apparently so successfully. About two million men were engaged on both sides.

The battle of the Marne will go down in history as one of the greatest of all time. Had not the Germans been checked, Paris would shortly have fallen and eventually all France with it. But Maubeuge resisted till September 7, thus keeping back the heavy siege guns, without which the forts around Paris could not be laid low. The long retreat turned into an offensive operation, which slowly, but surely, pushed the invaders back. The moral effect of the victory was even greater than the military and material. The mere fact that a great German army (commanded by the Crown Prince and two of Germany's best generals, Von Kluck and Von Bulow) had been pushed back across thirty miles of country, and finally taken refuge in trenches in order to hold their ground, was a great encouragement to the Allies. It was the first time since the days of Napoleon I that a Prussian army had been turned and driven. From that day on, the Allies felt that with anything like equal numbers they were superior to their opponents.

Both sides dug themselves in and trench warfare ensued throughout the fall and winter months. Gigantic artillery duels and infantry sorties occupied the time until heavier fighting could be resumed in the spring.

**BATTLE OF YPRES**—After digging in, the Germans had time to prepare reserve formations which might suddenly be thrown against any chosen spot in the allied line. A half million reserves were quickly made ready. The bloody but indecisive battle of Ypres followed, opening October 16. Victory perched first on one banner, then on the other, from October 16 to 31. Looking back at the closing days of the struggle, it is now apparent that Ypres bade fair, for a time, to be the most serious defeat the British army had experienced, since the very first days of the fighting, at Le Cateau. If the Germans had been able to push home their attack once more, it is probable that they would have taken Ypres and that the results would have been serious, wiping out the first British army



GEORGES W. CLÉMENCEAU  
President of the Peace Conference

and inflicting such a defeat as would have taken Britain long to recover from. Sir John French, the British commander, is reported as having said that there was no time in the Marne retreat when he did not see his way through, but that on October 31, just before French reinforcements came up in the battle of Ypres, he seemed to be at the end of his resources. His command suffered heavily. At the famous battle of Waterloo, which decided the fate and world ambitions of Napoleon I, the English losses were under 10,000. At Ypres they were little short of 50,000. A German force of 500,000 men had set about to reach the Channel coast, but they did not advance five miles in a month, and that advance was made at a sacrifice of 150,000 men. "The struggle was over," says A. Conan Doyle. "For a fortnight still to come it was close and desperate, but never again would it be quite so perilous as on that immortal last day of October, when over the green Flemish meadows, besides the sluggish water courses, on the fringes of the old-world villages, and in the heart of the autumn-tinted woods, two great empires fought for the mastery."

While the British and French were thus engaged, the Belgians had been doing their bit fully as well, proportionate to their strength. After the evacuation of Brussels, in August, they had withdrawn their army to Antwerp, from which they made frequent sallies upon the Germans, who were garrisoning their country. Toward the close of September, the Germans turned their attention seriously to the reduction of Antwerp. They drove the garrison within the lines, and early in October began a bombardment upon the outer forts with such result that it was evidently only a matter of days before they would fall, and the city with them. On the 8th it was clear that the forts could no longer hold. The next day the Belgian and British forces made their way successfully out of the city. Unfortunately, however, a part of the British wandered across the Holland boundary line and were interned for the remainder of the war. The balance of the command joined the main allied forces and continued to fight valiantly "for God and country."

**THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN**—While this was going on in the western theatre of the war, great events had been occurring on the eastern front. Russia, the great

eastern ally, had succeeded in engaging, and frequently defeating, great masses of Austrian troops, preventing them from going to the relief of the Germans in France. Always an unknown quantity, Russia proved herself of inestimable value to the Allies in the opening engagements of the war. Mobilizing his army with surprising promptness, the Czar succeeded in throwing into East Prussia two large armies, one under General Rennenkampf, the other under General Samsonoff. They broke through all opposition on the frontier, and advanced unchecked, straight toward the heart of Prussia. The Prussian opposition wavered, and for a time it appeared as though Russia was to win a great and decisive victory. Then Germany summoned two commanders, who were destined to lead its great armies throughout the remainder of the war—Von Hindenburg and Ludendorff. The first was appointed to supreme command, the second was made chief of staff. Within a few days after he had been given command, Von Hindenburg lured General Samsonoff and his Russian army into a trap at Tannenberg, East Prussia, on September 1, and cut his army to pieces. Thousands drowned in the lakes of the region. The total of prisoners, it is said, ran almost to one hundred thousand. With Samsonoff done for, Hindenburg turned on Rennenkampf, but that Russian chieftain saw a light just in time and raced for the frontier. Hindenburg caught him at Lyck, routed him, and captured 30,000 of his men, but Rennenkampf escaped with a good part of his forces.

**AUSTRIA A POOR ALLY**—On the same day that the Russians were defeated at Tannenberg, another Russian army entered Lemberg, capital of the Austrian crown-lands of Galicia, after a week of desperate fighting. The fall of Lemberg, moreover, was simply the prelude to three weeks of uninterrupted Austrian disaster, which was to end in the almost complete conquest of Galicia by the Czar. The latter half of September the Russians occupied one important town after another, until they surrounded Przemysl, the last Austrian foothold east of the Dunajec river. At the same time, other Russian forces pushed the broken Austrian armies behind the foothills of the Carpathian mountains and began to climb the eastern slopes of the passes into Hungary. By September 30, not less than 25,000 of the 30,000 square miles of the Galician province, with about 8,000,000 inhabitants, were in Russian hands and a Russian army was threatening the Austrian province of Bukovina to the south.

"It had been the mission of the Austrian army to hold the Russians in play until Germany should have 'dealt with France,'" comments Frank H. Simonds. "Now, October come, Germany had failed to dispose of France and Austria had broken down under the great burden that had been imposed upon her. If the Russian dash into East Prussia in August, which had proved so disastrous to German plans in France, had been a first indication of the fact that Russian mobilization had gone forward far more rapidly than had been expected, the conquest of Galicia had demonstrated to the satisfaction of Russia's enemies, at the least, that Russia had been fairly well mobilized before the war opened."

Austria turned to Germany for aid. The situation was critical. Whole regiments were deserting. High commanders were in disgrace. Nor was the situation made any better by the fact that in the south the Serbians had defeated the Austrians decisively in the battle of the Jedar and were advancing in Bosnia toward Sarajevo, where the Austrian Archduke had been murdered. Such were the circumstances which led to the first German invasion of Russian Poland.

**VON HINDENBURG TO THE RESCUE**—This German invasion began about October 1. It was led by Von Hindenburg. Relying upon their great mobility, their great number of automobiles and the better training of their troops, the Germans hoped to reach Warsaw, capital of Russian Poland, before the Russians could concentrate against them. For nearly three weeks the great German advance continued. The crack Hun troops actually reached the suburbs of Warsaw and German aeroplanes dropped bombs on the city. Its early fall was believed certain. As a result, the Russians were compelled to draw back in Galicia, to give up the siege of Przemysl and to relinquish all hopes of besieging Cracow. Concentrating their reserves, they were able at the critical moment to rush fresh masses of troops through Warsaw, in whose suburbs German shells were falling, and strike the unprotected German left wing. By October 20 the entire German army was in retreat. As they retired they destroyed railroads and roads, quickly threw off the Russian pursuit, and reached their own frontier of East Prussia in good order.

Far less fortunate were the Austrians, who had endeavored to redeem Galicia. They had relieved Przemysl, but on November 5 one branch of the Austrian army was badly defeated and driven in on Cracow. Its retirement compelled the retreat of the other Austrian forces, which had been pushing ahead. Przemysl was again invested by the Russians, whose armies once more swept to the crests of the Carpathian mountains and began to sift down into the plains of Hungary. At no time since the war opened were Russian fortunes so high. The first German effort to save Austria had failed. Galicia was in Russian hands. Russian troops had proved themselves superior to Austrian.

Once more Germany turned to Von Hindenburg. He was called upon to relieve the Russian pressure upon German frontiers and to carry the war into Poland. Thanks to the advantage of the railroad facilities, German troops were rushed into Poland again, flanking the Russians on both sides. But once more the enormous resources of Russia saved her from disaster. Gathering up all the garrison and reserve troops in Warsaw and nearby fortresses, the Russians pushed a new army out from Warsaw, which took the Germans in the rear. German military skill met the crisis, the gravest for Germany in the war to that time. New troops were rushed from Belgium and France. Some of the most desperate and costly fighting of the war took place. When it terminated, Russians and Germans faced each other in a double line across Poland, from the Vistula river to Galicia, and the campaign resolved itself into a deadlock.

**THE WAR IN THE BALKAN STATES**—The fighting had not been confined to Poland, Galicia, France and Belgium. The Balkan states had likewise seen great armies in conflict. In the opening days of the war, Serbia was the first of the Allies to win a great victory. In the third week of August, 1914, 175,000 Austrians were routed and driven home across the Drina river. In the weeks that followed, Serbian and Montenegrin troops invaded Bosnia and approached the capital, Sarajevo, where the murder of the Austrian Archduke had occurred in June. The Serbians made steady progress for some weeks, the Bosnian Serbs rallying to their support. By October, however, the Serbian invasion of Bosnia was checked. Little by little, Austria had gathered together a great army, reinforced by Germans, and had beaten down Serbian resistance. Austrian armies crushed their way through the frontier districts on the Serbian side of the Drina river, until they reached the line of the Orient railway, which runs south from Belgrade to Constantinople, Turkey. Once this line was reached the defense of Belgrade, the Serbian capital, was impossible. Its garrison was compelled to retreat to escape capture, and on December 1, Belgrade fell to Austria. The Serbian army was shaken, but still defiant. With the ultimate weakening of the Austrian forces, through need of hurrying troops to Hungary and to Galicia, where the big Russian drive was in full swing, the Serbs swung around and retook Belgrade, after it had been in Austrian hands but a fortnight.

**TURKEY ENTERS THE WAR**—On November 17 the "Holy War" was proclaimed by Turkey, thus bringing another country into the fighting. Turkey was doomed to early defeat, however. It had counted on Mohammedan support in India, the Philippines, Egypt, French Africa, wherever Allah was worshipped. But this support was not forthcoming; these provinces remained loyal. On January 4, 1915, three Turkish corps were overwhelmed and well-nigh destroyed by the Russian armies in the Caucasus. German diplomatic intrigue had brought Turkey into the war; Turkey was to rue its decision before many weeks had passed and to be but a poor ally.

**SUMMARY OF THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1914**—The war had begun with the Germans rushing through Belgium, confident of the destruction of France by one quick, powerful blow, as had been done in the Franco-Prussian war. The year ended with Germany pushed back from its point of farthest French advance, digging in for the winter, with Russia holding the Austrian armies and making it necessary for Germany to carry troops back and forth from the western to the eastern fronts as the pressure grew strong or relaxed. Germany had failed in its large and well-laid plans, though at the end of the year it held a quarter of

Russian Poland, practically all of Belgium and 8,000 square miles of northern France, the home of some 2,500,000 Frenchmen. Against this must be reckoned Russian occupation of a corner of East Prussia, and French occupation of a small portion of Alsace. Provinces containing at least 12,000,000 people, having an area of at least 30,000 square miles, towns such as Brussels, Antwerp, Lille, Lodz, St. Quentin and Liege were held by the Germans, who had reached the English Channel at Ostende, and approached Warsaw, Poland, on the east. Only Russia, among the Allies, had made progress in invasion. The armies of the Czar held at least 30,000 square miles of Austrian territory, with a population of 9,000,000, and East their comrades, absolutely helpless against this diabolical agency, rushed madly Prussian lands having an area of 5,000 square miles and a population of perhaps 1,500,000. Germany held more territory than she had annexed in 1871. In China, however, her great port of Kiao-Chau had been taken by the English and Japanese. In the Pacific her island holdings had vanished. In Africa her colonies were being won away from her. Her flag had disappeared from the ocean. So the year came to an end.

### CHAPTER III.

**THE CAMPAIGN OF 1915**—The first three years of the war have been aptly characterized as "the year of defense, the year of equilibrium and the year of attack." Following the overrunning of Belgium and northern France, and the surging back and forth of Russians, Austrians and Germans in Poland and Galicia, 1915 found both sides endeavoring to regain their equilibrium, poising themselves for the still greater blows which were to be delivered in 1916. Not that 1915 did not see much terrific and costly fighting. Little of this fighting was decisive, however. The Allies were holding their own, until armies could be raised and the even more serious problems of war munitions be solved. From every part of the world troops were being rushed to the aid of the mother countries—France and England—and the tread of armed millions made Europe shake as it had never shaken before. The year was an active one on every front, but it was not a decisive one. The Allies settled down to a campaign of "nibbling," doing what damage they could at various points in the long battle line from the North Sea to Switzerland.

From the Allies' standpoint, it was becoming a war of attrition. They did not care so much for territorial gains and losses as for a campaign of incessant hammering upon the Germans' lines with a steady attendant loss of life among the enemy. Man power was to be the deciding factor; the more men that could be killed, the sooner would victory result. So the Allies dug themselves in and trench warfare ensued all along the 200-mile fighting front in France and Flanders.

The dawn of the year found all eyes turning to the sea. Would the deciding battle be fought there? Would Britain be able to hold its mastery of the seven seas? Would the Germany navy come out of its base and fight the Allied fleets? Would the growing menace of the submarine eventually make it impossible for the Allies to move men and supplies?

**THE SUBMARINE BLOCKADE**—In September, 1914, (the second month of the war) the loss of three vessels by German submarine attack warned the British public of what was to come. Thereafter, in a long procession, the Audacious, the Hawke, the Bulwark and the Formidable—all British battleships—were lost through mines, submarines or other attack. These disasters were amply avenged. On December 8, off the Falkland islands, in the South Atlantic ocean, the Gneisenau, the Scharnhorst, the Nurnberg and the Leipzig—all German war ships—were sunk, with their commander, Admiral von Spee, while the Dresden (another German battleship) escaped, only to fall a prey to her pursuers several months later. On December 16 a squadron of German cruisers appeared off Scarborough, Hartlepool and Whitby, England, and swept the shore with their guns, destroying many buildings and killing more than 100 men, women and children. For centuries the attack of a hostile fleet had been unknown to England's shores. The war was brought home to Britain as never before. England, however, retained her mastery of the seas. Into England and France there flowed an ever increasing flood of arms and ammunition made in neutral countries, chiefly the United States. German ships and products were shut off from the world market. In January the German government adopted a policy which amounted to the seizure by the government of all the wheat in the country and the issuance of weekly allowances to the population. This step gave Great Britain the chance for which it had been waiting. Under all existing law, wheat was non-contraband, or, at most, conditional contraband, subject to seizure by hostile fleets, only, when intended for the armies or officials of a nation at war. Since Germany had decided to commandeer all wheat, however, the British government interpreted this as a warrant for seizing all grain bound for Germany, even though carried in neutral ships. In brief, England proposed to starve Germany out. In retaliation, Germany declared a blockade about the British islands. Relying upon her submarines, she announced that after February 18, 1915, these craft would sink all ships, not merely belligerent vessels, which were found in the waters adjacent to the British islands and included in the zones indicated in her declaration.

In pursuance of their threats the Germans began to carry out ruthlessly their policy of submarine blockade. Ship after ship was sent to the bottom. At first the crews were warned and permitted to escape. But as the campaign continued this practice was abandoned. The world was hardly prepared, however, for the sinking of the Falaba, a passenger steamer carrying women and children, who were lost, along with one American citizen. The reign of piracy on the high seas had begun; the future was to disclose that there was no limit to its frightfulness.

**RUSSIA IN 1915**—In the second week of February, Russia suffered a defeat comparable only with that of Tannenberg, in the early days of the war. The victorious Russian army had pushed ahead steadily in East Prussia from November, 1914, to February, 1915. Along its front were the famous Mazurian Lakes, impenetrable in spring, summer and fall, but, in winter, when the lakes and water courses were frozen, open to attack. Von Hindenburg, gathering up all his available forces from Poland, suddenly descended upon the Russian armies in this lake region and inflicted a defeat which became a massacre. Accepting the German figures, the Russians suffered the loss of 100,000 prisoners and 150,000 killed and wounded. For the time being, by the battle of the Mazurian Lakes, Germany cleared her frontiers; she was able to divert her soldiers to France once more. Three times, aided by the splendid system of strategic railways and in the marching power of her soldiers, the Germans had forced back the invaders and terminated the campaign far in Russian territory. In all, the Germans claimed over 1,000,000 Russian prisoners, thousands of guns and fabulous quantities of military stores as a result of their victorious campaigns. Russia, however, was undismayed. No country had greater man resources. She was to remain a vigorous ally for the greater part of another year.

**THE FIGHT FOR HUNGARY**—On March 22 the Austrian citadel, Przemysl, in Galicia, facing starvation, surrendered to the Russians. 117,000 men, 3,000 officers, including nine generals, and one of the great strongholds of Europe were the Russian booty. In addition, nearly 30,000 Austro-Hungarian troops had perished in the long defense. Four army corps were thus accounted for in a surrender unequalled in Europe since Sedan and Metz deprived France in 1870 of her two field armies. In taking Przemysl the Russians achieved by far the greatest allied triumph on the offensive side of the war up to that time. Only the earlier Russian victories before Lemberg, and the Servian successes at Jedar, could compare with this, and Przemysl surpassed them all. Against 10,000 square miles of conquered Belgium was now to be set more than twice as large an area in Galicia.

In February new German troops appeared in Hungary and the Russian advance through the Carpathian passes was halted and finally thrown back. The Russians gave ground and retreated to well-selected and strongly-fortified positions. Henceforth, for many weeks, a terrific struggle went on in the Carpathian mountains. When March came the situation changed. Despite German successes at the Mazurian Lakes, Russia still sent hosts of fresh troops to the Carpathians, her armies slowly pushed ahead toward the crests of the passes. The surrender of Przemysl

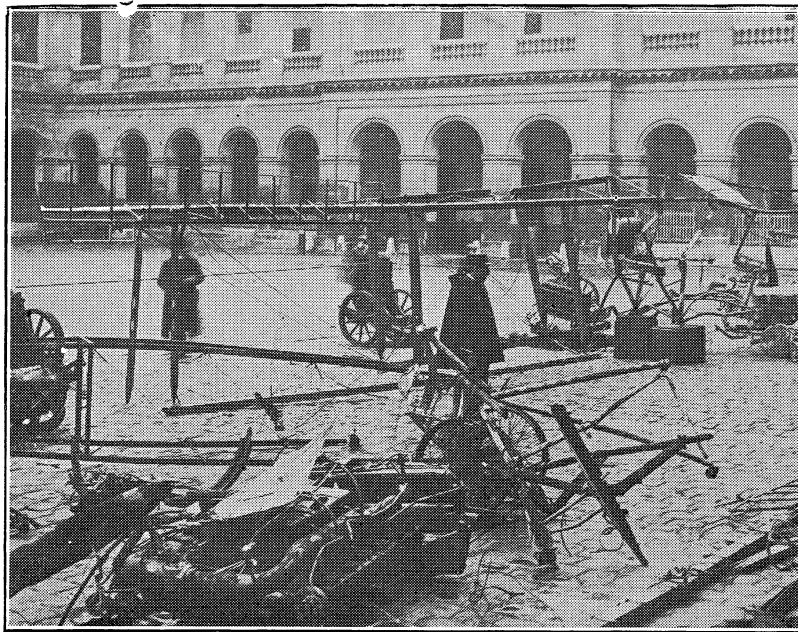
(with 120,000 Austrians) wholly changed the face of the eastern campaign by releasing at least 125,000 Russians, removing all threat of an attack in the rear and freeing the Czar's forces for a new drive at Hungary. The long promised advance through the Carpathians resulted. Immediately new demands were made upon the Germans for help, by the Austrians, and still more German troops were hurried to the threatened Hungarian frontier, to hold the narrow ridge of the Carpathians separating the Hungarians from the triumphant Russians. By the second week of April the Russians had captured 70,000 more Austrians, had passed the summit and had approached Bartfeld, in Hungary, the terminus of an important railroad leading to Budapest, capital of Hungary, 210 miles away. In four columns, following three railroads and one national highway, the Russians were seeking to drive through Hungary. The battle for the Carpathian passes had become one of the most important of the war. Reports were rife that Austria-Hungary would sue for a separate peace with the Allies.

Once more German aid was sought, and given. By the third week of April the Russian advance, after having made notable progress, passed down the slopes and overran the edge of the Hungarian plains, came to a halt. Germans and Austrians claimed that the Russians had been defeated. Russia attributed the deadlock to the weather; rains and flood having made the roads impassable. A deadlock ensued. Once more Russia had been on the verge of a great and decisive victory; once more it was unable to carry on till that victory was achieved. It had exacted a terrible toll from the enemy, however, and had caused many German troops to be taken away from the French front at the very time when English and French "nibbling" operations, at widely-separated and unexpected points, had made the stability of the whole German line most precarious. Russia was a good ally in the first two years of the fighting, no matter how great a disappointment she was to prove later.

Beyond question German money rather than German arms, was the basic cause of the Russian failure to push their drive. There seems no doubt that the extensive bribery of many Russian officials lies at the base of the strange pause in their victorious advance in May, 1915.

**THE FIGHTING IN FLANDERS.**—The long period of petty and desultory warfare—trench raiding and the like—in France—came to an end with the advent of spring. The French had attempted to break through the German entrenched lines in the Champagne district of eastern France (between Rheims and Verdun) late in January, but were unsuccessful. Slight progress east of Rheims was offset by ground lost in other sections. German lines still held, the German artillery still bombarded Rheims at will.

**BATTLE OF NEUVE CHAPELLE.**—The first real blow of the Allies, on March 10, was directed against the village of Neuve Chapelle, near the western end of the far-flung battle line, in Flanders. This village had already changed hands several times the fall before, eventually remaining with the Germans. The obstacle in front of the allied army was a most serious one. The barbed wire entanglements were on an immense scale, the trenches were bristling with machine guns and the village in the rear contained several large houses surrounded with orchards, both houses and orchards being converted into fortresses. It took a



GERMAN GOTHAS BROUGHT DOWN BY WIDE RANGE GUNS OF LONDON.

high grade of courage to attack in the face of such obstacles, but the British and French set about it.

The allied attack was made over a front of a little more than four miles. It was preceded by the heaviest artillery bombardment known up to that time. More than 300 British cannon suddenly opened up on the narrow front. The village of Neuve Chapelle disappeared as if by an earthquake. The German trenches were leveled by the terrific blast. Thousands of allied troops pressed forward, carrying the German trenches and pressing on for more than a mile from their starting point. For the first time the superiority of the allied artillery was definitely established. For the first time in many months, too, a real gain had been made by the Allies. On the other hand, the casualty list of the victors was heavy. It cost Britain alone 13,000 men to make this small gain. The conclusion was being forced home that the Germans, in their trenches and strongly-fortified positions, could not be rushed by any frontal attack, except at such a loss of life as no nation or group of nations could well stand. This conclusion was strengthened by the fighting around Hill 60, a low ridge about fifty feet high and 750 feet long, which faced the allied trenches southwest of Ypres. This fighting began April 17 and lasted for several weeks. Gains could be made, but only at a terrific price in human life.

There followed shortly a battle, or rather a series of battles, which stand out prominently in the history of the war because of the introduction of new and brutal methods by the Germans. For the first time in civilized warfare, poisonous gas was used, with terrible effectiveness. This occurred at Langemarck, in what is generally called the second battle of Ypres, on April 22, 1915. A Conan Doyle describes the scene thus: "From the base of the German trenches over a considerable length, there appeared jets of whitish vapor, which gathered and swirled until they settled into a definite, low cloud-bank, greenish-brown below, and yellow above, where it reflected the rays of the sinking sun. This ominous bank of vapor, impelled by a northern breeze, drifted swiftly across the space which separated the two lines. The French troops, staring over the top of the parapet at this curious screen which ensured them a temporary relief from fire, were observed suddenly to throw up their hands, to clutch at their throats and to fall to the



ground in the agonies of asphyxiation. Many lay where they had fallen, while their comrades, absolutely helpless against this diabolical agency, rushed madly out of the mist and made for the rear, overrunning the line of trenches behind them. The Germans meanwhile advanced and took possession of the successive lines of trenches, tenanted only by the dead garrisons, whose blackened faces, contorted figures and lips fringed with the blood and foam from their bursting lungs, showed the agonies in which they had died."

Thousands of stupefied prisoners, eight batteries of French field guns and four British batteries of heavies, were the trophies won by the Germans in this introduction of barbaric and unwarranted war methods. After four days of fighting they had advanced some two miles nearer to Ypres on a five-mile front. The Allies' loss was heavy, perhaps 30,000 to 35,000 men by the end of the month. Continuation of the operations, late in April and throughout much of May, resulted in a wedge being driven into the allied lines which might have had serious results had the Germans been quick to follow up their advantage. The opportunity passed, however, and the allied line held. Thereafter came a prolonged lull, during which the Germans were content to remain upon the defensive upon the west, while they successfully attacked the Russians in the east.

**BATTLE OF THE DUNAJEC**—The Germans and Austrians concentrated with surprising swiftness and secrecy upon the Dunajec river, a short distance east of Cracow. General Von Mackensen, in charge of the German forces, opened battle along the Dunajec river in Hungary. On May 1, 1915, he struck the Russian army with cyclonic force. The Germans here used for the first time the noted "pincer method"—of driving two irresistible "wedges" among the opposing force and "pinching it off" from its support. His plan was most successful. Most of the Russians in his front were simply obliterated. Those who were left could only fall back, fighting desperately. Mackensen had dealt Russia a terrible blow on the Dunajec. Despite desperate bravery, the Russians could not withstand him. Przemysl was recaptured by the Central Powers; Lemberg soon shared its fate. Then Mackensen, acting in co-ordination with Hindenburg, swept northward, fortress after fortress falling before the German armies. Soon Warsaw, capital of Poland, was in German hands. The Russians, under Grand Duke Nicholas, were forced eastward. Brest-Litovsk fell. Vilna opened her gates to the invaders, who claimed over 300,000 prisoners, thousands of guns and fabulous quantities of stores. Winter alone put an end to the Russian rout.

**THE GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN**—Entrance to the Black Sea is secured from the Aegean Sea through the Dardanelles, which widens into the Sea of Marmora and then narrows into the Bosphorus straits, about twenty miles long, separating European and Asiatic Turkey. The Allies attempted to force this water-way in order to destroy the Turkish and German fleets in the Black Sea and gain entrance to Austria-Hungary through either Bulgaria or Roumania. The attempt forms one of the most disastrous chapters of the entire war.

In the middle of February, 1915, the British and French fleets bombarded the Dardanelles forts. In the early days of the operation easy and rapid progress was made. Headed by the Queen Elizabeth, one of the newest British battleships, the allied fleets forced the entrance to the straits and leveled the forts at the mouth. Preceded by mine sweepers they penetrated some ten miles inside the straits. In the meantime other ships bombarded the narrow Gallipoli peninsula, to the west of the straits, reaching the Turkish forts by indirect fire. This was only the first and easiest step in forcing a road to Constantinople. After a month of heavy bombardment the allied fleet attempted to force the channel, relying upon the apparent success of their guns in silencing the Turkish forts. The result was an immediate disaster. The French battleship Bouvet, with more than 600 officers and men, was sunk by a mine. Two British battleships, the Irresistible and the Ocean, shared a similar fate, though most of their crews were saved. Other ships were put out of commission. By April 1st the bombardment had stopped and all hope of forcing the straits without the aid of land forces had disappeared.

The operation of the land forces—composed mainly of colonials from New Zealand and Australia, called Anzacs—called for the utmost courage and sacrifice. It is doubtful if military annals contain a more heroic chapter. The Anzacs were landed upon the peninsula on April 25 in the face of the most withering fire from concealed Turkish guns, with hardly one chance of a thousand of living and digging in. Capt. R. Hugh Knyvett, of the Australian army, writes thus of the landing: "Think of those beaches and sea mines, densely strewn with barbed wire (even into deep water), with machine guns arranged so that every yard of sand and water would be swept by direct, indirect and cross fire, with a hose-like stream of bullets; think of the thousands of field pieces and howitzers ready, ranged and set, so that they would spray the sand and whip the sea, merely by the pulling of triggers. Think of a force larger than the intended landing party, entrenched, with their rifles loaded and their range known, behind all manner of overhead cover and wire entanglements, and then remember you are one of a party that has to step ashore from an open boat and kill or drive far enough inland those enemy soldiers to enable your stores to be landed so that when you have defeated him you may not perish of starvation. Far more than at Balaklava did those young men 'down under' walk 'right into the jaws of death, into the mouth of hell.' And the Turks waited until they were well within the jaws before they opened fire. No one in the landing force knew where the Turks were, and the Turks did not fire on us until we got to the zone which they had so prepared that all might perish there. Was there ever a more favorable setting for a massacre?"

Notwithstanding this setting, however, a handful of Anzacs grabbed a foothold and the little force hung on, fighting for their lives, throughout the entire summer and fall. By the end of May the British casualties amounted to 38,636. It was impossible to make any progress toward Constantinople; all the British could hope for was to hang on like grim death to what little footing they had. Only when winter settled down and supplies were not to be had was Gallipoli abandoned, the last position being given up on January 9, 1916. With the abandonment of the Gallipoli peninsula went all hopes of the Allies forcing the Dardanelles and reaching the Central Empires through the back door.

In France and Flanders while the French and British armies had lain in apparent idleness during the summer of 1915—an idleness which was only broken by occasional trench raiding and a few minor engagements—great preparations for a considerable attack had been going forward. These culminated in the big drive of the French in the Champagne district and the engagements of the British at Loos. The latter battle started September 25 and ended October 13. The net result was a gain to the British of nearly 7,000 yards of front and 4,000 yards of depth. Had the gain gone to that farther distance, which was hoped for, and aimed at, the battle might, as in the case of the French in Champagne, have been a considerable victory. It proved, however, that the German lines could be pierced and that the German troops were not invincible. The French accomplished more. They attacked in the Champagne district with at least three times as many men as the British, upon a threefold broader front. Their best results were gained in the first jump. They were able to continue their gains for several days, until, like the British, they found that the consolidating defense was too strong for their attack. Their victory was none the less a great one, yielding 25,000 prisoners, and 125 captured cannon.

**FORMATION OF ALLIED WAR COUNCIL**—The Allied Supreme War Council was organized in November, 1917, and consisted of the commander-in-chief and the chief-of-staff of the armies of Great Britain, France and Italy, together with the Prime Ministers and the Foreign Ministers of these three nations. The United States approved of the idea and has worked in conjunction with the Council. The idea of an allied central source of power was first suggested by Lord Kitchener, commander-in-chief of the British armies, in 1915. Two years later it was realized that if the Allies were to be victorious over the Central Powers all the armies and all the branches of the war work must be co-ordinated. The Central Powers were working under a supreme command, the Allies were diffusing their efforts. Hence the necessity of a central body, the decrees of which should be final. Thus the Supreme War Council came into being, its sessions being held at Versailles, France, a few miles of Paris. From that time on there was unity of action among the Allies and the tide of victory was turned.

**SUMMARY OF 1915**—"So, for a second time, wet, foggy winter settles down upon the water-logged, clay-bottom trenches," says a British historian. "Little did those who manned them at Christmas of 1914 imagine that Christmas of 1915 would find them in the same position. Even their brave hearts would have sunk at the thought. And yet a move back of a couple of miles at Ypres and a move forward of the same extent in the south, were all that either side could show for a year's hard work and the loss of so many thousand lives. Far off, where armies could move, the year had seen great fluctuations. The Russians had been pushed out of Poland and far over their own borders. Serbia had been overrun. Montenegro was on the verge of utter destruction. The great attempt upon the Dardanelles had been made and had failed, after an epic of heroism which will surely live forever in our history and in that of our brave Australian and New Zealand brothers. The one gleam of light in the whole year had been the adhesion of Italy to the cause of freedom. Here, on the long western line, motionless, but not passive, locked in a vast strain, which grew ever more tense, was the real war. All others were subsidiary. The close of 1915 found the Empires somewhat disappointed at the past, but full of grim resolution for the future."

#### CHAPTER IV.

**THE CAMPAIGN OF 1916**—In a year marked by the fiercest fighting the world had ever known, two names stand out pre-eminent: Verdun and Somme. The campaign of 1916 revolved around these two extended battles. There was activity on every front, but Verdun and Somme are the names to remember.

Chief town in the French department of the Meuse, Verdun before the war was a fortress with a circumference of thirty miles, connected with Toul, France, by a line of forts along the heights of the Meuse river. It dominated the crossing of the river and the great historic highway from Rheims, France, to Metz, the principal fortress of German Lorraine. It formed the eastern pivot of the entrenched line of the allied troops after the battle of the Marne river had established the position of opposing forces. It was against Verdun that the German Crown Prince launched his army at the beginning of the 1916 campaign. His choice at first produced universal astonishment. There were ample reasons for it, however. Verdun was regarded by the German military heads as an open gate to the province of Lorraine and a permanent menace to Metz—the strongest fortress of Lorraine. It was coveted by Germany in order to safeguard the mining region of Briey, France, indispensable to the Kaiser if he were to have the coal and iron necessary to carry on the war. If the coal production of Germany, Belgium, northern France and Lorraine were at Germany's disposal she would be able to hold her own in the economic conflict, even against America. The importance of the Briey Basin, France's richest mineral field, and Verdun, its key, may be regarded as the outstanding motive of the Crown Prince's attack. Furthermore, the fall of Verdun, by uncovering the Argonne forest, would have opened the way for a direct drive on Paris. Both sides realized full well the importance of the struggle.

From the beginning of the war, the Verdun forts had protruded as a salient far into the German lines. Against these forts the German Crown Prince hurled a force of between 300,000 and 400,000 men with a fierceness and perseverance matched only by the courage and deadly gun work of the French defenders under Field Marshal Joffre and General Petain. As an artillery combat Verdun stands absolutely without a precedent. More than 4,000,000 high explosive shells were fired in the first four days, uprooting forests, shattering trenches and plowing up every foot of earth over large areas.

**THE BATTLE OF VERDUN**—The battle began eight miles northeast of Verdun on the morning of February 21, 1916, with a German artillery "drumfire" of an intensity never known before. The noise was so deafening as to stun the men who heard it. The roar of the guns is said to have been heard more than a hundred miles away. Aeroplanes added to the terror of the combat, and even in underground caverns men fought by the light of liquid fire used in the German attack. The first phase of the battle reached its climax around Fort Douaumont, on February 25-27, when the ground changed hands three times and was finally held by the Germans. The German barrage fire prevented many French regiments from retreating and caused the capture in one night of 10,000 prisoners.

The second phase of the battle consisted of a record German drive in the flat Woevre region, southeast of Verdun, resulting in the capture of the village of Fresnes and reaching another terrific climax in the struggle for Fort Vaux, two miles east of Fort Douaumont. The second fort was stormed by the Germans on March 9 at great cost, but the French forces holding the village of Vaux resisted stubbornly.

The third phase of the great battle came in the drive on the north side of the Verdun salient, and on the west bank of the River Meuse, eight or nine miles northwest of Verdun. Here the village of Forges was taken on March 7 after stubborn resistance, and four days later the blood-stained remnants of Corbeaux Woods were largely in German hands.

After two whole months' desperate fighting the result was that the Germans had reached the French main line east of the Meuse River and gained possession of a small part of Douaumont; but they had not been able to get to the main French position west of the Meuse nor secure a permanent footing on Dead Man Hill, or Hill 304, the vital points in the advance line held by the French west of the Meuse.

The Germans renewed the bombardment of Fort Vaux on May 31, finally cutting off the garrison and forcing the surrender of the fort, on June 10. Shortly thereafter they opened an attack along a front of three miles, threw 100,000 men against Ridge 221, Thiaumont works and Fleury, and on June 23 captured the Thiaumont position. Two days later they were also successful at Fleury, but a vigorous French counter offensive held them in check. On June 30 the French recovered Fleury and the Thiaumont works. At this stage the offensive battle of Verdun ended for a time, as the British had already begun their terrific bombardment on the Somme river and the Germans needed all the men and guns they could spare to resist the "big push" in that region. From then on, German activities at Verdun were mainly designed to conceal the fact that the initiative had passed from them. Throughout July they made a brave show, but in August it was plain that they desired nothing so much as to be left alone. This the French refused to do. On October 25 occurred one of the most dramatic episodes of the war. The French attacked and at one swoop recovered the Haudromont quarries, the village and fort of Douaumont and Caillette Woods, all being forts of the Verdun battlefield. They made 6,000 prisoners and their own losses were considerable less than that figure. The German campaign of over six months, the sacrifice of hundreds of thousands of German lives, had been in vain. Ten days later the Germans evacuated Fort Vaux. The end of the year found the two armies exactly as they had been at the end of February, except that the French had suffered incomparably less than their opponents. On December 15, the French regained the Louvemont ridge on a front of over six miles. They penetrated two miles into the enemy positions and pushed the Germans back to where they had been earlier in the year. Ten thousand prisoners and a large number of guns were captured.

"They shall not pass," was the historic declaration of the French commander when he saw the hordes of the Kaiser bearing down upon Verdun, and he kept his word. The world never saw fiercer or more heroic fighting than at Verdun. Its name and fame will last as long as France. Here is a description of a bit of the battle, written by an eyewitness: "At the top of the ravine, on the edge of the plateau, was a great heap of Germans. They looked like a swarm of bees crawling over one another; not one was standing. Every minute shells threw bodies and debris into the air. The whole ravine slope was gray with corpses; one could not see the ground, they were so numerous, and the snow was no longer white. We calculated that there were fully 10,000 dead at that point alone, and the river ran past dappled with patches and streaks of blood." At such a cost was Verdun stormed—and saved.

**THE BATTLE OF THE SOMME**—The battle of the Somme actually began on June 27, when the Allies opened artillery fire along the French front from the Somme river to the Yser river. By this date the English had a vast army in France. Through voluntary enlistment their forces had grown from only 100,000



In 1914, to 4,000,000 in 1916. The battle was fought by both British and French armies, the largest ever assembled.

On July 1 the movement forward began, the British aiming at the town of Bapaume and the French at Peronne, fifteen miles distant. The British succeeded, on the opening day of the drive, in breaking through on a twenty-mile front and capturing a number of positions on both banks of the Ancre river, to the north of the Somme. The French also had a force on the north side of the Somme, where they rapidly forged ahead three miles on a six-mile front. From July 1 to July 10 the fighting was almost continuous, day and night. The Allies had great advantages in superior artillery, an enormous supply of ammunition, and greater number of troops. The British captured a considerable number of guns and 7,500 prisoners. The French also captured several thousand prisoners.

The second phase of the battle began on July 14, with an attack by the Allies on the German second-line trenches. Both the British and French made headway, taking many guns and several thousand more prisoners. On July 22 occurred the great fight for Pozieres. The British attacked from that village to Guillemont, taking Pozieres on July 26. German second-line trenches along a five-mile front were now in the possession of the British. The German lines were badly bent back by the Allies, who kept extending the line of attack. The fighting was frequently as deadly as the terrible struggle at Verdun. Both sides lost men by the thousands from day to day. The beginning of August saw the British gaining possession of more of the German second-line trenches north of Pozieres and the French advancing north of the Somme. The Germans were in very strong positions at Thiepval, Guillemont and Maurepas, and furious battles were fought by the Allies for the possession of all of these. On August 11 and 12 Maurepas was attacked by the British and French, but it was not until August 24 that the Germans were finally forced. Meanwhile, on August 12, the French had attacked the German third-line trenches on a four-mile front east of Hardecourt to the Somme,



MACHINE GUNNERS IN A GUN PIT ON THE FRONT

and had reached positions nearly three-fourths of a mile beyond. The British also moved forward past the German third lines on a six-mile front. At the end of August the British had taken nearly 16,000 prisoners, nearly 100 field guns and over 150 machine guns. During this month alone the British losses in killed, wounded and missing were 4,711 officers and 123,234 men—a fearful payment for so small a gain.

On August 3 occurred an eventful battle which wrested Guillemont from the Germans on the British sector and gave the French near Clery the most important victory since the opening of the Somme drive. It is estimated that the Germans threw 100,000 gas shells at the British in the one day at Guillemont. The machine-gun fire directed at the British was frightful. Twice it stopped them, but the third time they went ahead. Day after day the Allies pushed ahead, sometimes making a gain of a few hundred yards, again of a few thousand. The battle of September 15, when the British broke the third German line, was memorable for the first appearance of the "tanks," the huge armored motor cars, traveling on caterpillar feet, crushing all obstacles beneath them. On September 25 the Allies captured Combles and on September 26 and 27 they took Thiepval. With the exception of Peronne, Combles was the largest town in this section of the front and the most important point that remained in the German hands between the Allies' lines and Bapaume. The Allies had been endeavoring to take Combles and Thiepval ever since the opening of the Somme offensive in July. The British made another push on October 7, thereby gaining a mile on the way to Bapaume, while the French straightened their line by wiping out the German salient between the Chaulnes Wood and Hill 91. The Allies now attempted to push on and capture Peronne and Bapaume. The advance was impeded by bad weather, however, so that about the middle of November it came to a close. Throughout December there were artillery duels and trench raids, but the lines remained virtually where they were until the end of the year.

**THE OUTCOME**—The final results of this long drawn out and most bloody contest were not decisive. While the Germans were pushed back along their whole front, the Allies were far from obtaining the results for which they had so freely spilt heroic blood.

All the fighting of this year was characterized by the unparalleled sacrifice of men. Over 1,000,000 of French and Germans in killed and wounded together fell around Verdun. The fierce and long continued battle of the Somme, lasting from June 27 to mid-November, was probably equally fatal in its toll-taking of human life. The Allies learned from these two frightful battles—each in reality a series of great battles—to henceforth conserve their forces. In the great battles of 1917 and 1918 they largely abandoned the heavy attacks of masses of infantry which distinguished the battles of 1915 and 1916. Henceforth, an enormous and long continued artillery bombardment opened their battles; and not until the opposing lines were torn to pieces and thoroughly demoralized by this irresistible shell fire, were the men sent "over the top."

The German commanders were much slower in learning this vital lesson. They continued well into 1918 their great frontal attacks by massed bodies of "shock troops." While frequently gaining the desired objective by such tactics, they thereby rapidly reduced their man power, and the morale of a remarkably well trained and disciplined army.

**THE RUSSIAN DRIVE OF 1916**—The Russian drive, which began on the eastern front on June 4, was one of the most remarkable successes of the Allies up to that time. It was part of the allied general program to carry on simultaneous offensives in all theatres of the war. The Russian forces were now nominally under the supreme command of the Czar in place of the Grand Duke Nicholas, who had been sent to the Caucasus. The Russians attacked on the whole eastern front from the Gulf of Riga (a part of the Baltic Sea) to the Roumanian frontier, but the main offensive was that led by General Brusiloff along a sector of 250 miles. The drive was immediately successful. Lutsk, in the Russian province of Volhynia, was taken on June 6, and the Russians began to press forward on

Kovel, in the same province, one of the chief objectives of the advance. By June 16, the Russians had pushed into the Austro-German lines a new salient with a radius of forty-five miles. Meantime, the Russians had also been pressing forward south of the Dniester river, forcing the Austrians to fall back on the Carpathian passes. On June 17 the Russians captured Czernowitz, in the duchy of Bukowina, Austria, after which they overran practically all of the duchy. In all this fighting the Russians were daily taking thousands of Austrian prisoners and vast quantities of artillery, ammunition and war material of all kinds.

The Austrian crownland of Galicia next became the principal battle area. On July 16 the Russians commenced a great advance, which resulted in the fall of town after town and the capture of many thousands of prisoners. The Austrian army retreated rapidly and the Russians turned their attention to the German army in Galicia. They were defeating it decisively, when once more General von Hindenburg arrived to save the situation. The Russians began to encounter a far more determined defensive, which had for its purpose the protection of Lemberg, capital of Galicia, and the holding of the Carpathians. A deadlock ensued, followed by an intermission in the hostilities. When this eastern campaign came to a standstill, at the end of August, the Russians had taken, during the three months, 400,000 prisoners and occupied 7,000 square miles of Austrian territory. The effect on the Central Empires was a great deal more damaging than the Somme battle on the west front. The military power of Austria-Hungary had suffered a serious decline.

**ROUMANIA ENTERS THE WAR**—Events on the eastern front were affected by the entrance of Roumania into the war on the side of the Allies, on August 27. At the beginning of September the Russian general attack was being aimed at Lemberg from the south. The German-Austrian lines were bent back, but the Russians were unable to attain their objective. On November 9 the Teutons scored an important local success by smashing the Russian front along two and one-half miles, southwest of Minsk, Russia. The Russian advance was stopped, the Germans having the better of the position. In the meantime, actuated by political motives, rather than by military expediency, Roumania began its operations by a campaign to win back Transylvania, the easternmost part of Hungary, where the population is largely of the Roumanian race and speaks the Roumanian language. Military authorities agree that Roumania's wise course of action would have been to invade Bulgaria, the ally of Germany and Austria, but this policy was not adopted. When the Roumanians opened their attack by advancing over the Transylvania Alps, a Russo-Roumanian army attacked the Austro-Hungarian front in the southeast Carpathians. The forces of the Central Empires fell back, while the Roumanians gained temporary advantages. These successes were more than offset, however, by the advance of the Germans, Bulgarians and Turks, who entered Roumania at three points. Within two weeks after the opening of hostilities, the Russo-Roumanian forces were falling back severely defeated. Reverses overtook the Roumanians on every side. Finally the entire Roumanian army which had invaded Hungary was forced back across the Danube. There followed a campaign in Roumania in which the German troops were constantly victorious, under the leadership of two noted generals: Falkenhayn and Mackensen. These two generals effected a junction on November 25 at Alexandria, fifty miles southwest of Bucharest, capital of Roumania. The Russians attempted to come to the rescue of the Roumanians, but their efforts were futile. On December 1 a great Teuton offensive was launched. The Russians also launched an offensive in the Riga district, but were unable to divert enough Teutons to save Roumania from its impending doom. Bucharest fell on December 6, the Roumanians moving their capital to Jassy. They had entered the war with high hopes, but proved to be a weak ally, quickly put out of the fighting. They had a fairly well trained and equipped army of about 500,000 men. But a poor plan of campaign on their part, and the overwhelming forces brought against them, proved their downfall. The Allies have been severely criticised also for failure to more adequately support Roumania. They depended upon Russia, and Russia could not, unaided, do the work.

**THE ITALIAN CAMPAIGN**—The Austrian-Italian campaign was one of the major operations of 1916. Italy had declared war on Austria on May 23, 1915. On June 28 Italy invaded Austrian territory south of Riva (Austria), on the western shore of Lake Garda. Other successes followed, but Italy did not take a prominent part in the war until the following year.

The Austro-Italian campaign of 1916 was influenced by the events at Verdun, for the offensive begun by the Italians, on March 14, when they began shelling the Austrian positions on the Isonzo river, was undertaken for the purpose of preventing Teutonic reinforcements being sent to Verdun. The Italians made some headway during March and April, but the main campaign was to come later. About the middle of April the Austrians began to concentrate in great force in the Trentino (lying between Italy and Austria), in preparation for an offensive on a large scale. This was initiated on May 14, with a heavy bombardment of the Italian positions. The Italians were caught napping by the Austrians, who had 350,000 men and a great quantity of artillery, and in consequence were soon forced back. The purpose of the Austrian campaign was to isolate the Italian army on the Isonzo River, cause it to capitulate and then force Italy out of the war, leaving the Franco-Italian frontier open to Austrian offensive all along the line. The Austrians were forced to withdraw troops to serve against the Russians and, between June 2 and 17, to cease their offensive altogether. The Italians were now ready to go forward once more, and by June 25, the Austrians were in retreat, losing large numbers of men and guns.

Italian efforts to secure a foothold on the Carso Plateau, which blocks the way to Trieste, the most important Austrian town on the Adriatic Sea, were carried on determinedly, but the obstacles were many and the progress slow. Italy was handicapped by lack of adequate shells, though no army fought more bravely than hers. The Carso is a great upstanding bank of stone. The Austrians had mined it and tunnelled it until it was well-nigh impregnable. Here is a vivid description of the fighting there:

"The upward path was gained in a succession of mines and deep galleries, protected by stone-built breastworks. The enemy's shrapnel and high explosive broke with deadly effect on the bare rock, and scattered flakes and splinters of stone which were more dangerous than the flying bullets and fragments of shell. Earthworks could not be made, for there was no earth except what the Italians brought with them in sandbags and handcart. Slowly and at a heavy cost of life and limb, the Italian troops pushed on, and by yards and inches drew close enough to assault, one after another, the armored caverns and the labyrinth of fortified passages which the Austrians, long before the war and in preparation for it, had constructed."

The determined courage of the Italians won out. On August 9 the Carso Plateau fell and with it the city of Gorizia. Nearly 19,000 prisoners were taken by the Italians and a serious blow had been dealt to Austrian prestige. The Italians had opened the way to Trieste.

**NAVAL BATTLE OF JUTLAND**—The naval battle off the coast of Jutland, a province of Denmark, was another notable event of 1916. It was the greatest naval engagement of modern times, both on account of the number and size of the ships which took part in it, and of the tremendous power and skill with which science and invention had equipped the fleets. On the afternoon of May 31, the British grand fleet, under the command of Sir John Jellicoe, was patrolling the North Sea, when the cruiser division, commanded by Admiral Beatty, sighted a division of German cruisers in advance of the German grand fleet. Beatty at once proceeded to attack the enemy, while the British main fleet (informed by wireless that the German navy had at last come out of its safe quarters behind the mine fields and coast defenses of Helgoland and the Kiel canal) rapidly steamed to Beatty's assistance. The greater part of the battle had been fought before the British dreadnaughts arrived. The five German battle cruisers, being attacked by the six heavier British cruisers, steamed southward toward the main body of the German fleet. The British immediately pursued. At a separating distance of nearly eleven miles the action began. The British lost an important ship almost at once. This was the battle cruiser Indefatigable, which went down with all its crew of 900 officers and men, except two survivors. Another British cruiser, the Queen Mary, sank from a terrific explosion. Out of a crew of 1,000, only a score or so were saved. The first part of the battle lasted about an hour. A new phase began with the arrival of a large part of the German grand fleet. The

odds were now heavily against Admiral Beatty. He withdrew to the northwest, his object being to draw on the German main fleet so that it would have to fight the British dreadnaughts under Admiral Jellicoe. He succeeded in sinking a German cruiser just before Jellicoe arrived with the main fleet. Now came what promised to be the most terrible of all naval battles. Admiral Jellicoe arrived and prepared to throw the weight of the greatest navy the world has ever seen against the German fleet. But at this dramatic point the mists blotted the German navy from sight, thus giving the German ships a chance to escape, which they did in all haste. The German ships reached their base before the British reached theirs, and startled the world with a report of a great German navy victory. Later on, the British admiralty report gave the real facts. The British lost three battle cruisers, three armored cruisers and eight destroyers, the total tonnage amounting to 114,100 tons, while the officers and men who perished numbered 5,613. Though no British battleship was lost, the Marlborough was torpedoed, but continued in action. The Warspite was hit, but succeeded in getting back to port. The Germans admitted losing one battleship, one battle cruiser, four light cruisers and five destroyers, the total tonnage lost being 63,015, and the loss in officers and men 3,866. According to the British admiralty, however, the Germans lost four battleships, three of which were seen to sink, while the total number of vessels of all kinds lost was eighteen, with a total tonnage of 113,435. Only the haze and mist saved the German fleet from the ordeal of facing Britain's superior forces and prevented the crowning of Admiral Beatty's efforts with complete success. The battle again proved that Britain was still mistress of the seas. Thereafter, for the duration of the war, the German fleet did not venture from port; it was practically out of commission until the armistice, signed November 11, 1918, compelled the surrender of the greater part of the vessels to the British.

**BULGARIA ENTERS THE WAR ON SIDE OF CENTRAL POWERS**—While German armies were winning in western Russia, in the summer of 1915, German diplomats were secretly scoring a notable victory in the Balkans. Bulgaria, the most warlike of the three small kindoms—Serbia, Bulgaria and Roumania—which separated the Teutons from Turkey, was won to the side of the Central Empires, and September 20, 1915, a treaty was signed between Turkey and Bulgaria, both now allies of Germany and Austria. About the same day Field Marshal Von Mackensen, Germany's able soldier, appeared at the head of a new German army opposite Belgrade, the Serbian capital. The Serb and Greek armies were mobilized and the Greeks were anxious to attack Bulgaria without waiting for a declaration of war. England persuaded them to wait, still believing that Bulgaria would remain neutral. On October 4 diplomatic relations between Bulgaria and Russia were broken in consequence of an ultimatum which demanded that Bulgaria should definitely break with the Central Powers. On October 11, 1915, Bulgaria declared war on Serbia and four days later England declared war on Bulgaria.

Bulgaria immediately mobilized every available man, down to the youngest class, and enrolled about 750,000, leaving only the women and old men to work the farms. She attacked the Serbian army in October and made possible the Austro-German advance into Serbia under General von Mackensen. Thereafter the Bulgarians advanced rapidly, meeting with little opposition, for they entered the war when it seemed most likely that the Central Empires would win. The troops of King Ferdinand, of Bulgaria, overran all Macedonia and captured Monastir, 136 miles northwest of Salonica, a place of 60,000 population. The victorious Bulgarians settled down to enjoy their triumph, cherishing the delusion that Greater Bulgaria—which they had fought to accomplish in the preceding Balkan wars (1912 and 1913)—had at last been brought about and that their ancient enemies, the Serbs, were effectually disposed of.

The campaign of 1916 bolstered up this delusion of the Bulgarians. Von Mackensen led an army of Germans, Turks and Bulgarians into the Dobrudja, the southeastern portion of Roumania, between the lower Danube and the Black Sea. As a result of an active campaign, Roumania was put out of the war and the Bulgarians were in undisputed possession of the entire Dobrudja, another part of the Greater Bulgaria of their dreams. This was in October, 1916. The year closed with Bulgaria apparently nearer to her dreams of empire than any of her Teutonic allies.

**GERMAN SUBMARINE WARFARE**—March 1 was the date set by the German government for unrestricted submarine warfare on a frightful scale. The new policy—that of sinking ships without any warning whatever and making no provision for the removal of crew or passengers—was an admission that the submarine was not accomplishing what Germany had hoped. The facts were, that in 1915 Great Britain had lost, through Germany's submarine warfare, 741 steam ships and 334 sailing ships, a total of 1,075 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,534,901. In the same time, however, Britain had built 655 new steam ships and 152 new sailing vessels, a total of 807, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,523,850. In other words, Britain was building new ships almost as rapidly as German submarines were sinking vessels, so that the submarine was making no appreciable delay. Germany had hoped to completely blockade the British Isles with the submarine and make it impossible for them to secure food or supplies. They had failed, however, and their new submarine policy was frank admission of this fact.

In the three ensuing months after the new policy was adopted, it was estimated that the loss to allied and neutral shipping amounted to over 320,000 tons. The total number of vessels sunk during the three months was 196, consisting of 153 belonging to the Allies and 43 to neutrals. The number of lives lost on all allied ships was 205 and on neutrals 18, a total of 223. Among the most serious sinkings was that of the channel steamer *Sussex*, unarmed and with Americans on board, March 10. This was the beginning of serious controversy between the American and German governments, culminating in the severing of diplomatic relations. The *Sussex* was doing its regular work of conveying passengers across the English channel, was unarmed and received absolutely no warning. The United States ambassador, on first taking up the matter with the German government, was assured that no German submarine was responsible for the deed. In a note dated April 10, however, the German government admitted having sunk a vessel in the channel at almost the same time and place as the *Sussex* was sunk, but denied that it sunk the *Sussex*. In a note dated April 18, the United States asserted that it was "conclusively established" that the *Sussex* had been sunk by a German submarine. The German reply, dated May 8, admitted that one of its submarines had sunk the *Sussex*, declared its readiness to pay an adequate indemnity to the injured American citizens, and stated that the submarine commander had been properly punished.

The German submarine campaign during June, July and August was responsible for the destruction of 237 merchant ships belonging to the Allies and 52 belonging to the neutrals, a total of 289, representing nearly 300,000 tons. No lives were lost, care having been taken by the German submarine commanders to respect the pledge given by their government to the United States after the sinking of the *Sussex*.

The German submarine campaign during September, October and November was responsible for the sinking of over a million tons of shipping belonging to the Allies and neutral nations. The allied loss was 439 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 778,500; the neutral nations lost 179 vessels, representing 241,600 tons. One of the sensational episodes of the underseas campaign was sending a submarine within sight and sound of the American coast. The U-53 made an unexpected appearance at Newport, R. I., October 7. After a few hours she put to sea. The next day she sunk five ships off Nantucket, three British, one Norwegian and one Dutch. The war was being brought home to the United States as never before, and American participation was drawing closer day by day.

**SUMMARY OF THE 1916 CAMPAIGN**—The end of this year saw the Central Powers at the height of their success. Russia had been driven back within her own boundaries, and Russian Poland, over 1,000,000 prisoners and immense booty had been taken. Turkey and Bulgaria were subservient allies, and the Germans held supreme power from the English channel to the Euphrates, and from the Baltic to the Adriatic. Belgium and northern France were firmly held and the Allies, in spite of vast sacrifices of brave lives, had moved them scarcely at all. Furthermore, their deadly submarines were rapidly destroying the shipping of the world, and bringing starvation daily closer to England. Things looked dark, indeed, for the Allies; but with a courage beyond praise, they fought on.

## CHAPTER V.

**THE CAMPAIGN OF 1917**—The entrance of the United States into the world war was one of the great happenings of 1917. The declaration of war by the United States against Germany was inevitable in the face of the long-continued abuses of the rights of humanity and the disregard of all international law.

**THE LUSITANIA AND OTHER OUTRAGES**—The American people had been first aroused against Germany by the sinking of the steamship *Lusitania* on May 7, 1915, with a loss of 1,198 lives, over 100 being American. There had appeared at the end of April, in American newspapers, an advertisement issued by the German Embassy at Washington, warning Americans not to sail on belligerent passenger liners bound for England, inasmuch as they were liable to destruction in the submarine war zone which Germany had established. When the *Lusitania* sailed, a few days later, this warning was disregarded and over 2,000 men, women and children embarked. On May 7, off the coast of Ireland, the liner was struck by a torpedo, fired without warning, and sunk within twenty minutes.

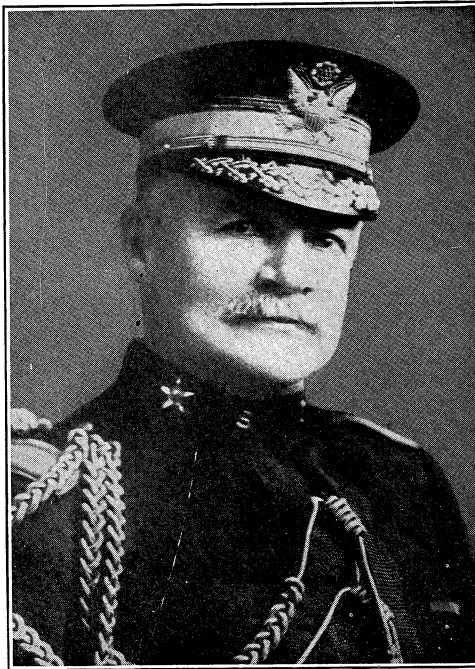
Many Americans clamored for war against Germany at that time, but President Wilson began a series of diplomatic note exchanges which continued intermittently until the actual declaration of war on April 6, 1917. Germany attempted to sidestep responsibility for the murder of the noncombatants on the *Lusitania* by asserting that it was a war vessel, carrying war munitions, but this was disproved. The sinking of the *Lusitania* followed other German acts of piracy on the seas. On April 15, 1915, the American steamer, *Cushing*, was attacked by a German airplane. On May 1, 1915, the American steamer *Gulflight* was torpedoed and sunk. Then came the *Lusitania* outrage. In a speech delivered three days later President Wilson made it plain that the United States would not go to war on that account. Nevertheless, the government, on May 13, dispatched a strongly worded protest to Germany covering the whole subject of German submarine warfare. Germany's answer was evasive, but sufficed the American government for the time being.

The next two years matters went from bad to worse. Ships were sunk by German submarines without warning and without time being granted for the crew and passengers to leave on lifeboats. Lifeboats which were launched were sunk, and men, women and children foully murdered. Germany put into practice a policy of ruthless piracy on the high seas which disregarded every dictate and principle of law and humanity. At least 200 Americans went to their deaths through German and Austrian submarines up to February 1, 1917. Most of the Americans lost were traveling on unarmed merchant ships. More than 2,000 citizens of other nationalities lost their lives in the attacks.

Twenty American negro muleteers on the Leyland liner *Armenian* were killed June 28, 1915, by shellfire and drowning when the *Armenian* failed to escape with her cargo of army mules from a submersible near the Cornwall coast. On July 25, 1915, came the first complete destruction of an American ship by a submarine. It was the *Leelanaw* of New York, bound from Archangel, Russia, to Belfast, Ireland, with flax. Finally, on January 31, 1917, the German government issued a notice to the neutral nations that, beginning with the next day, merchant ships bound to and from allied ports would be sunk without warning, and that the danger zone had been extended over a much larger area. This was giving official sanction to a practice that had been in vogue for two years, but which Germany officially claimed to have discountenanced. It came at the very time that President Wilson was using his high office in an attempt to bring about peace between the warring nations, in fact, when peace seemed imminent.

**WAR DECLARED BY UNITED STATES**—The president studied the situation for three days. On the morning of February 3, he determined to break off relations with Germany. Congress was assembled in joint session that afternoon and addressed by the president. In his address President Wilson recalled the warning he had given Germany on April 18, 1916, after the sinking of the *Sussex*, with the loss of American life, that if relentless and indiscriminate submarine warfare were persisted in, the United States could have no choice but to sever diplomatic relations. The German government had given a "solemn assurance," but now that this pledge had been deliberately withdrawn, the United States government had no alternative consistent with American honor and dignity but to suspend diplomatic relations. Count Bernstorff, the German ambassador, left America on February 14. About the same time, James W. Gerard, the United States ambassador, left Germany.

**THE COMING OF WAR TO AMERICA**—On February 26, President Wilson went before Congress and asked for authority to arm merchant ships and to take other measures needed for the protection of American citizens and property on the high seas when attacked by submarines. A bill for this purpose was immediately introduced and passed by the House of Representatives, but was defeated in the Senate through the filibustering of eleven senators. On March 12 the president announced that he would exercise his authority to arm merchant ships by executive act. Guns, manned by naval gunners, were accordingly placed on all American vessels sailing through the danger zone. There was still hope that war might be averted. On March 19, the sinking of three American ships and the loss



GENERAL HUNTER LIGGETT  
Commander of American First Army.

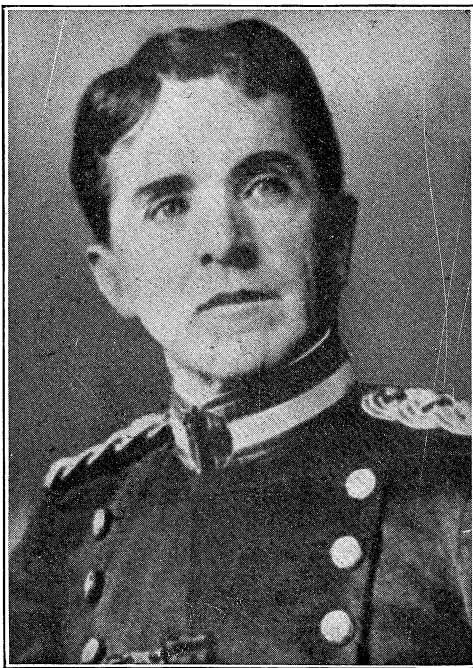
of fifteen sailors shattered this hope. The following day, March 20, war preparations were begun by the United States. The special session of Congress, originally set for April 16, was advanced to April 2. On the evening of April 2, President Wilson delivered to the two houses of Congress, in joint session, an address in which he recommended that Congress declare "the recent course of the Imperial German government to be in fact nothing less than war against the government and people of the United States," and that Congress "formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it." The president defined the issues to be those of democracy against autocracy. "The world," he asserted, "must be made safe for democracy." Resolutions embodying the president's recommendations were at once introduced in both houses of Congress. The



Senate passed them on the night of April 4 by a vote of 82 to 6. The House adopted them on the morning of April 6 by a vote of 373 to 50. On Friday afternoon, April 6, President Wilson signed the joint resolution. By this act the United States and Germany were officially at war.

The first hostile act on the part of the United States was the seizure, on April 6, of all German ships in American ports. These had an aggregate tonnage of 600,000. Wireless stations were also seized or ordered to be dismantled, so as to shut off communication with Germany. Recruiting for the army, navy and marines was speeded up. Certain national guard regiments were called into the federal service. The work of mobilizing and training a great army to send overseas began without delay. Recruiting for the navy and marines was satisfactory. Recruiting for the army was slow. The president asked Congress to pass a conscription act. After some opposition a bill empowering the president to raise an army by selective draft was passed on May 18. All male residents who were 21, but not yet 31 years of age, were called upon to register June 5, for classification and conscription into the army. The registration of over 9,500,000 young men took place on that date, and the drawing to decide the first 687,000 men to be called to the colors occurred on July 20.

**AMERICAN TROOPS SENT TO FRANCE**—The first intimation that the United States meant to fight on the battlefields of Europe was the announcement that a division of the regular army was to proceed without delay to the French front. The position of commander-in-chief was given to Major General John J. Pershing. With his staff, General Pershing arrived in England on June 8. Five days later the party landed in France. The first contingent of United States troops to fight in Europe arrived in France on June 26. Toward the end of July trenches began



MAJOR GEN'L. ROBERT L. BULLARD  
Commander of American Second Army.

to be dug in and near the American camps established in France, and a start was made toward training the new American army in the new methods of fighting. After General Pershing had inspected these camps, on August 1 and 2, he announced that the United States was making good progress and would shortly be in the fighting.

In the meantime, the first ships of the United States navy had anchored off the French coast, June 6. Immediately they began to do their share in convoying troop ships and keeping the English channel and North Sea clear of submarines and sweeping mines which the Germans had laid.

**FINANCING THE WAR**—The United States now set about raising the necessary money for the war. On May 18 the government offered to the people bonds amounting to \$2,000,000,000. This was the first Liberty Loan, followed by three others before peace was finally secured. The United States was raising money not only for its own war needs, but to loan to its allies. On August 27, Chairman Kitchin of the House ways and means committee, estimated the war expenses of the United States to June 30, 1918, at \$19,300,000,000. This included actual expenses of \$10,000,000,000, and loans to the allied governments amounting to \$7,000,000,000. Congress set about to raise this amount through increased taxes and bond issues.

On October 27 it was officially announced that the American troops in France had begun to finish their intensive training in the trenches "in a quiet sector on the French front." A few days later, just as the Germans were completing their retreat across the Ailette river, they announced the capture of some American patrols on the Marne canal. From that day onward casualty lists told of Americans killed or wounded in action or by German shell fire. The Americans had entered the war and from then on were destined to play a large and important part.

Meantime, at home, the government was busily engaged in preparing an army and navy, which should turn the tide to the Allies and bring the war to a conclusion much more quickly than any one hoped or believed possible. The progress made by November 7 was shown by the figures made public by the Secretary of War on that date. The army was then distributed as follows: National (draft) army, 616,820; national guard called into federal service, 469,000; regular army, 370,000; special branches, 200,000; reserves, 80,000; officers, 80,000; total, 1,815,820. The growth of the navy was no less satisfactory. At the end of November the personnel had increased since the beginning of the year from 4,500 officers and 68,000 men, to 15,000 officers and 254,000 men; the number of ships in commission from a little more than 300 to 1,000.

On the assembling of Congress, on December 4, President Wilson read a message in which he recommended a declaration of war against Austria-Hungary, chief ally of Germany. Congress took this important step three days later, on December 7.

The year closed with the United States having an army of 2,000,000 men and having declared war against both Germany and Austria-Hungary, making every effort to take an active part in the fighting in France with the opening up of a new campaign in the spring of 1918.

The Germans were reported as not believing the United States would actively attack them; and the vigor and amazing speed with which a vast army was raised and started overseas was unquestionably a great surprise to the Central Powers. They had believed their submarines would render perilous and slow transfer of troops over the Atlantic, but within twelve months of our entering the war they were going across at the rate of nearly 300,000 each month.

**FIGHTING ON THE SOMME**—In January, 1917, fighting was resumed along the River Somme, in France, where the "big push" had occurred the year before. The British (who now had over 1,500,000 men in France) began advancing on both sides of the Ancre river, in the direction of Bapaume. In the last four days of February they occupied Serre, Miraumont, Ligny and numerous other towns. The Germans began to fall back to new defensive positions behind the Bapaume-Peronne highway, in a retreat which was to establish them on the "Hindenburg Line," a previously prepared series of fortifications and entrenchments which was

considered impregnable (see maps of western France in this atlas). The British advanced warily. The important towns of Bapaume and Peronne were taken, in addition to sixty villages. On the line between the towns of Roye and Noyon, adjoining the Somme front, the Germans abandoned considerable territory to the French. North of the Ancre the Germans fell back as far as Arras. In their retirement they destroyed the countryside systematically, chopping down forests, poisoning wells and razing every building. With a belt of twenty miles of devastated territory between them and the allied position, the Germans, early in April, entrenched themselves on the Hindenburg line. The British, on April 9, and the French, on April 16, initiated their forward movements by attacking the terminal positions of the Hindenburg line: Vimy Ridge, north of Arras, and the Craonne Plateau, east of Soissons. The British offensive was on a front of forty-five miles between Lens and St. Quentin, including Vimy Ridge, which dominated the plain of Douai, the coal fields of Lens, and the German positions around Arras.

**BATTLE OF VIMY RIDGE**—The most important episode in the opening of this offensive was the taking of Vimy Ridge by the Canadians. Along a twelve-mile front the Canadians penetrated the German positions to a depth of from two to three miles, capturing many important fortified positions. The number of German prisoners at the end of the first five days reached 13,000. The British commander announced that his men were astride the vaunted Hindenburg line.

The French opened their offensive on April 16 on an eleven-mile front east of Rheims, between that city and Soissons. They sought to capture the southern pivot of the Hindenburg line, the principal attacks being against the heights of the Aisne river. They were successful, capturing many thousands of Germans, and occupying Craonne. At this point the Germans brought up large numbers of fresh troops. By the end of May the Franco-British offensive had been stopped and vigorous counter attacks were being launched by the Germans.

**BLOWING UP MESSINES RIDGE**—Early in June it became apparent that the British proposed to resume hostilities on the front near Ypres, where some of the earliest fighting of the war had occurred in 1914. One of the problems that demanded solution was Messines Ridge, held by the Germans, from which their guns were able constantly to sweep the British positions in the low lands near the Ypres salient. Britain proposed to take this ridge. For more than a year engineers and sappers had been tunneling and mining below it, unknown to the Germans above. At last nineteen mines, containing over 1,000,000 pounds of explosive, were ready for the blasting operations. The British proposed to blow off the whole top of Messines Ridge and with it all the Germans and their fortifications. The plan succeeded. The signal for exploding the mines was given on June 7, and in a moment the German positions on a ten-mile front were shattered to pieces. According to witnesses the concussion was so great that the sound could be heard 100 miles away. "Woods were swept out of existence, hill slopes were stripped and laid bare and villages disappeared beneath piles of ruin and debris." The British soldiers swept forward. A brief struggle won them the village of Messines. By noon the whole ridge was in their possession and they swept down the further side and attacked the German rear defenses. The British took 7,000 German prisoners and many guns, while many thousands of Huns were killed.

In the last days of July the third battle of Ypres began. The preliminary bombardment reached its height on the night of July 30, and the following day the offensive was launched along a front of fifteen miles between the Lys and the Yser rivers. The German positions were penetrated to a depth of two miles. The second phase of the battle opened August 16. Between then and August 22 the French consolidated their positions and swept on.

The French won several brilliant successes along the Aisne and Meuse rivers at this time. On August 20, after a three days' bombardment, they went forward along the Meuse on an eleven-mile front, taking almost all the fortifications and positions adjacent to Verdun for which the Germans had struggled the year before. By the time the drive came to an end, nearly 100 of the 120 square miles originally lost to the Germans had been recovered, thus setting at naught the whole of the operations of the German Crown Prince in which he had sacrificed nearly a million men.

**THE TERRIFIC SMASHES AT YPRES**—As a result of terrific attacks by the French and British, beginning September 20, on an eight-mile front in the region of Ypres and continuing until October 12, the Allies came within long-range gunshot of Roulers and gained the principal heights commanding the plain of Flanders. In five terrific drives during this time the Allies advanced a distance of three miles in the neighborhood of Passchendaele, gained nearly a mile over the Ypres-Menin road and reconquered an area of about 23 square miles. As proof of the deadly fighting in this region, the British staff announced that in two months the Germans had used up and killed or retired almost 800,000 men in defending their lines, and in furious counter attacks. During the same period the British casualties numbered around 200,000.

The Flanders offensive, now at an end, was followed by one of the most brilliant attacks of the whole war, the British drive on Cambrai, an important French railroad town. The operation was begun on November 20, on a front of thirty-two miles, and resulted in an advance of five miles, bringing the British advance guard within three miles of Cambrai. Two days later the Germans began to counter attack and regained some of their lost territory. On November 30 the Germans attacked again and forced from the British much of the ground they had won. On December 5 the Germans had penetrated on an eight-mile front to a depth of three miles, almost wiping out the British salient. Further withdrawals by the British became necessary. On January 4, 1918, the Germans drove the British from their positions on the Hindenburg line east of Bellecourt. On January 8 the British recovered most of these positions, but the Cambrai drive, which had started so auspiciously for the British, was practically a failure, and the lives of over 1,000,000 English, Canadian and Australians had been paid in vain.

**THE ENGLISH CAMPAIGN IN TURKEY IN ASIA**—England declared war on Turkey (which had allied itself with Germany) in November, 1914. On the 15th of that month a British force of 5,000 from India (mostly native troops) captured the Turkish fort at Fao, a little town in Mesopotamia (a province of Turkey) at the head of the Persian gulf. The victorious troops proceeded to the important city of Basra, which was easily captured on November 23. Early in December the fortified town of Kurna, fifty miles above Basra, was captured, leaving the British in undisputed possession of a region from which a Turkish force, under German direction, might have threatened India, over which Britain exerts a guiding hand. On June 3, 1915, the British captured Amara, 75 miles above Kurna. What was left of the Turkish force retreated 150 miles up the Tigris river to Kut-el-Amara. General Townshend was sent up the Tigris in command of a small British army. He found 10,000 Turks a short distance below Kut-el-Amara and on September 24, 1915, the British decisively defeated the Turks. The next day the Turks were in full retreat toward Bagdad and the British were in Kut-el-Amara.

From Kut-el-Amara, General Townshend pushed up the Tigris to attack Bagdad, 573 miles from the Persian gulf. The British forces numbered 15,000, of whom only one-third were Englishmen. The campaign was ill advised and disastrous. By November 24 the British casualties amounted to 4,500, one third of the force. The Turks received further reinforcements, and the British retreated to Kut-el-Amara. Here the Turks surrounded them and began a long siege. On April 29, 1916, General Townshend's troops could hold out no longer and although a relieving army was but 25 miles away the entire force at Kut-el-Amara surrendered, after a brave defense lasting 143 days. The Turks claimed to have captured 13,000 men. The British placed the number at 9,000, of which 6,000 were native Indians.

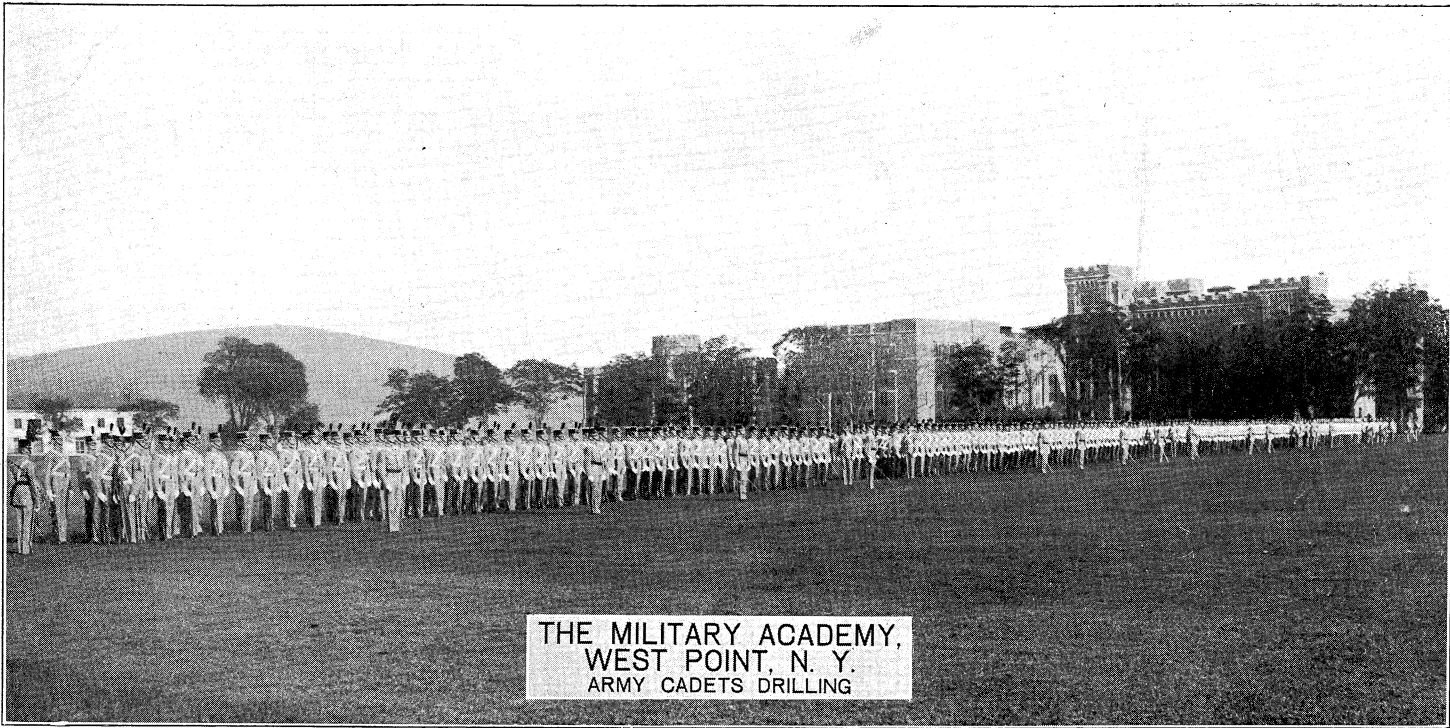
In January, 1915, both Turkey and Russia had armies in northern Persia, where on January 30 the Turks lost Tabriz. Meanwhile, a Russian army, numbering 100,000 began an advance toward Erzerum, the strongly fortified Turkish base in Armenia. The Turkish commander made the mistake of separating his forces into small bodies, to attack the Russians in various places. One after the other the separated Turkish troops were defeated and by the middle of January the remains of the Turkish army were in full retreat upon Erzerum. This disaster denied to Austria a successful Turkish diversion against southeastern Russia.

A strong British force was organized, under Lieut.-Gen. F. S. Maude, to meet the anticipated attack of the Turks upon the Suez canal, connecting the Mediterranean

Continued on Page Nine



**"THE MEN BEHIND THE GUNS"**



**THE MILITARY ACADEMY,  
WEST POINT, N. Y.  
ARMY CADETS DRILLING**

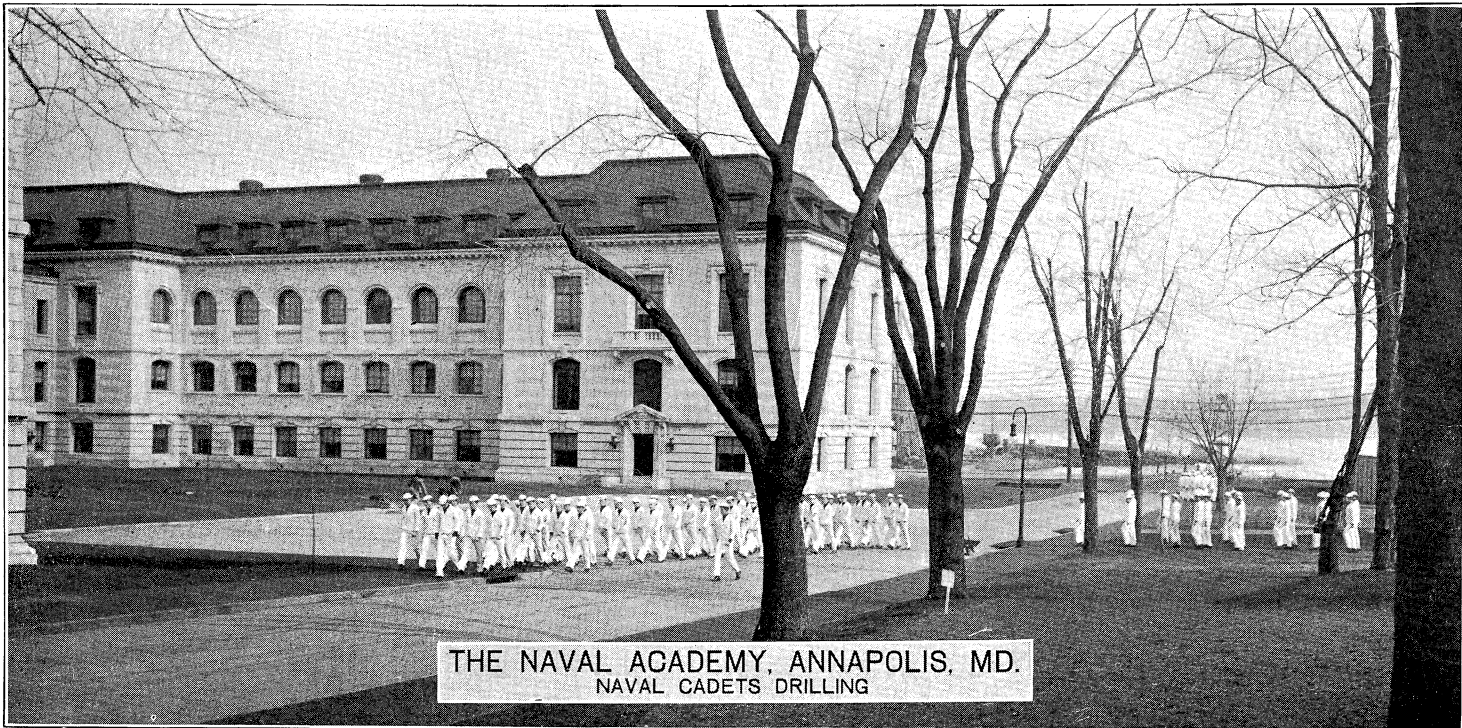


**WARREN G. HARDING, United States**



**GUSTAVE, King of Sweden**

The United States Military Academy is a school for the practical and theoretical training of cadets for the military service of the United States. After a 4-year course, the cadet is eligible for promotion and commission as a second lieutenant in any army or corps of the army. Each congressional district is entitled to have two cadets at the Academy. No candidate can be admitted under 17 or over 22 years of age. Must be 5.5 inches in height and unmarried. The pay of a cadet is \$600 a year and one ration a day. No cadet is allowed to receive money or other supplies from his parents or any other person without the sanction of the Superintendent.



**THE NAVAL ACADEMY, ANNAPOLIS, MD.  
NAVAL CADETS DRILLING**



**YOSHIHITO, Japan**

The United States Naval Academy is a school for the practical and theoretical training of young men for the naval service of the United States. The students are styled midshipmen. The course of study is six years. Four years at the Academy and two years at sea. Three midshipmen are allowed for each senator, representative and delegate in congress. All candidates must be between the ages of 16 and 20 years. Height must not be less than 5 ft. 3 inches. Minimum weight is 105 pounds. Candidates must be unmarried. The pay of a midshipman is \$600 a year. They must supply themselves with clothes, books, etc., amounting to \$280.00 per year.



**GEORGE V., Great Britain**



**PAUL DESCHANEL, President of France**



**VICTOR EMANUEL III, Italy**

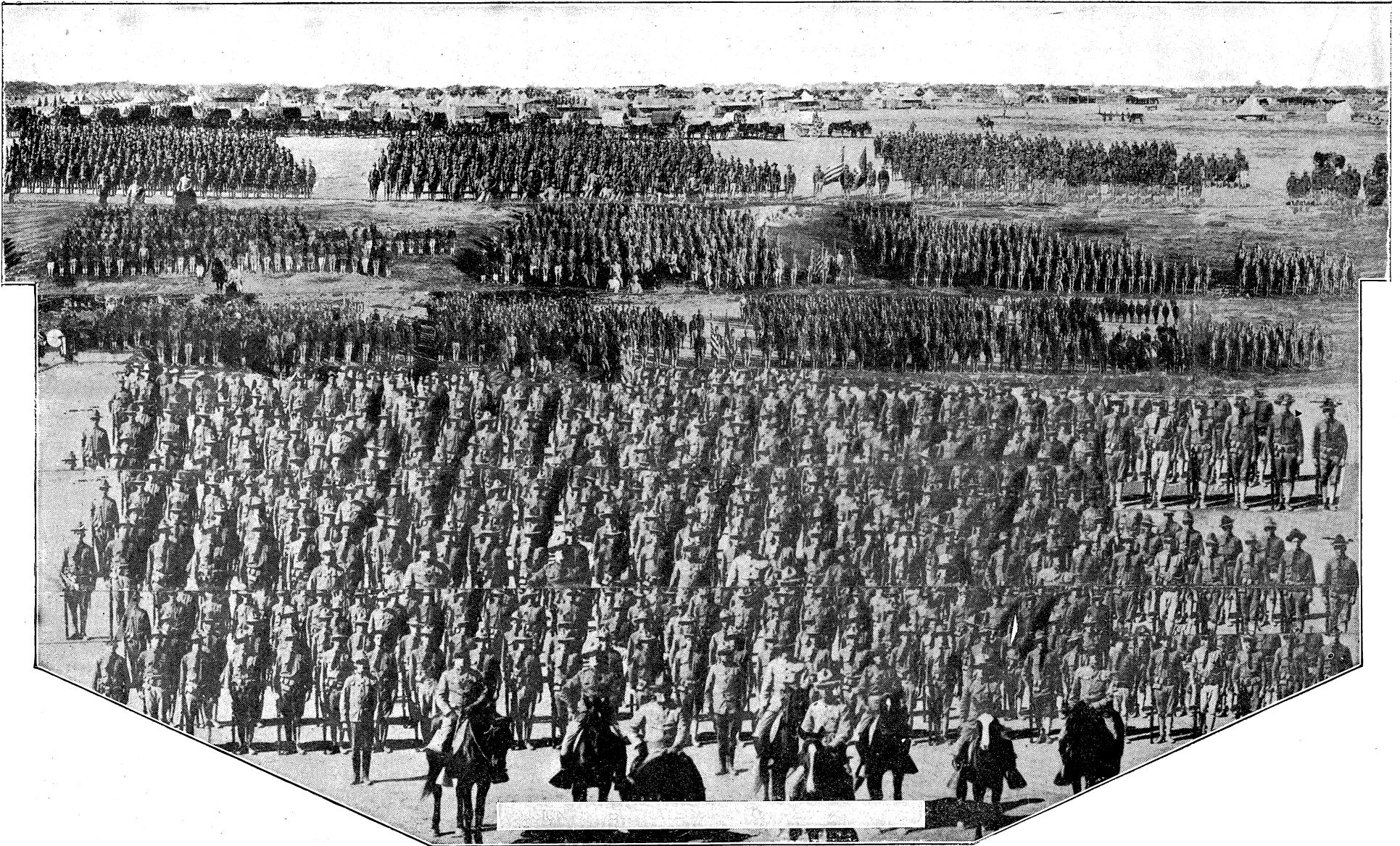








**"SOMEWHERE IN FRANCE"**



**OUR BOYS "OVER THERE" IN REVIEW BEFORE GOING TO THE FRONT**



**UNITED STATES MARINES MARCHING FROM BARRACKS TO TRANSPORT ON THEIR WAY TO FRANCE**



**"SOMEWHERE IN FRANCE"**



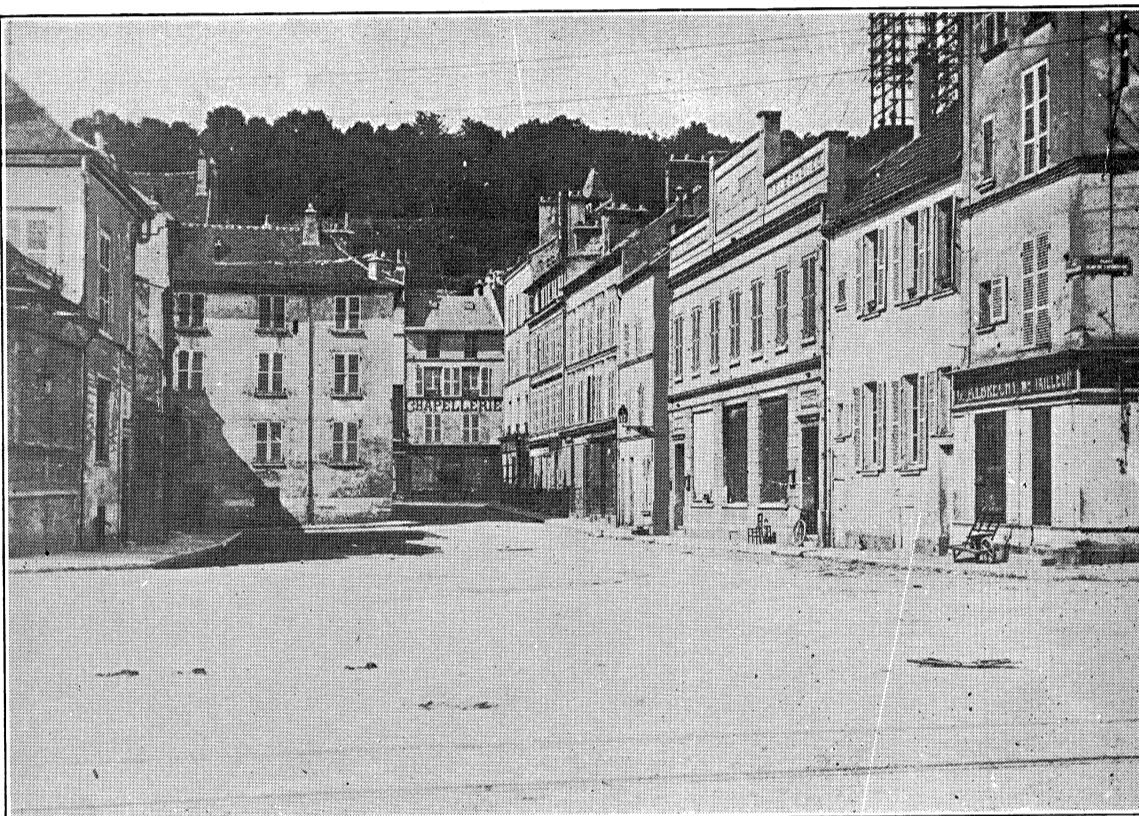
SETTING BIG GUNS INTO PLACE IN THE WOODS NEAR SOISSONS, FRANCE



CANADIAN TROOPS LEAVING MONTREAL FOR EUROPE

**Number of Soldiers in American Expeditionary Force by States**

Arizona .....	10,000	N. Dakota .....	25,000
Alabama .....	67,000	N. Carolina .....	71,000
Arkansas .....	59,000	New York .....	328,000
Connecticut .....	44,000	New Jersey .....	95,000
California .....	102,000	New Hampshire .....	12,000
Colorado .....	31,000	Maine .....	22,000
Florida .....	31,000	Indiana .....	93,000
Georgia .....	79,000	Oklahoma .....	76,000
Idaho .....	17,000	Ohio .....	185,000
Illinois .....	232,000	Oregon .....	26,000
Iowa .....	92,000	Pennsylvania .....	275,000
Kansas .....	59,000	S. Dakota .....	28,000
Louisiana .....	62,000	S. Carolina .....	49,000
Minnesota .....	86,000	Rhode Island .....	7,000
Missouri .....	115,000	Texas .....	155,000
Mississippi .....	58,000	Utah .....	16,000
Maryland .....	43,000	Virginia .....	67,000
Delaware .....	7,000	D. of C. ....	13,000
Massachusetts .....	114,000	W. Virginia .....	52,000
Montana .....	34,000	Wisconsin .....	87,000
Kentucky .....	72,000	Washington .....	39,000
Nevada .....	5,000	Wyoming .....	11,000
Nebraska .....	43,000	Tennessee .....	70,000
New Mexico .....	12,000	Vermont .....	9,000
Michigan .....	123,000	<b>Total</b> .....	<b>3,417,000</b>



CHATEAU THIERRY WHERE THE AMERICAN FORCES DEFEATED THE CRACK PRUSSIAN GUARDS.

**Location and Population of the Principal Cities of Europe.**

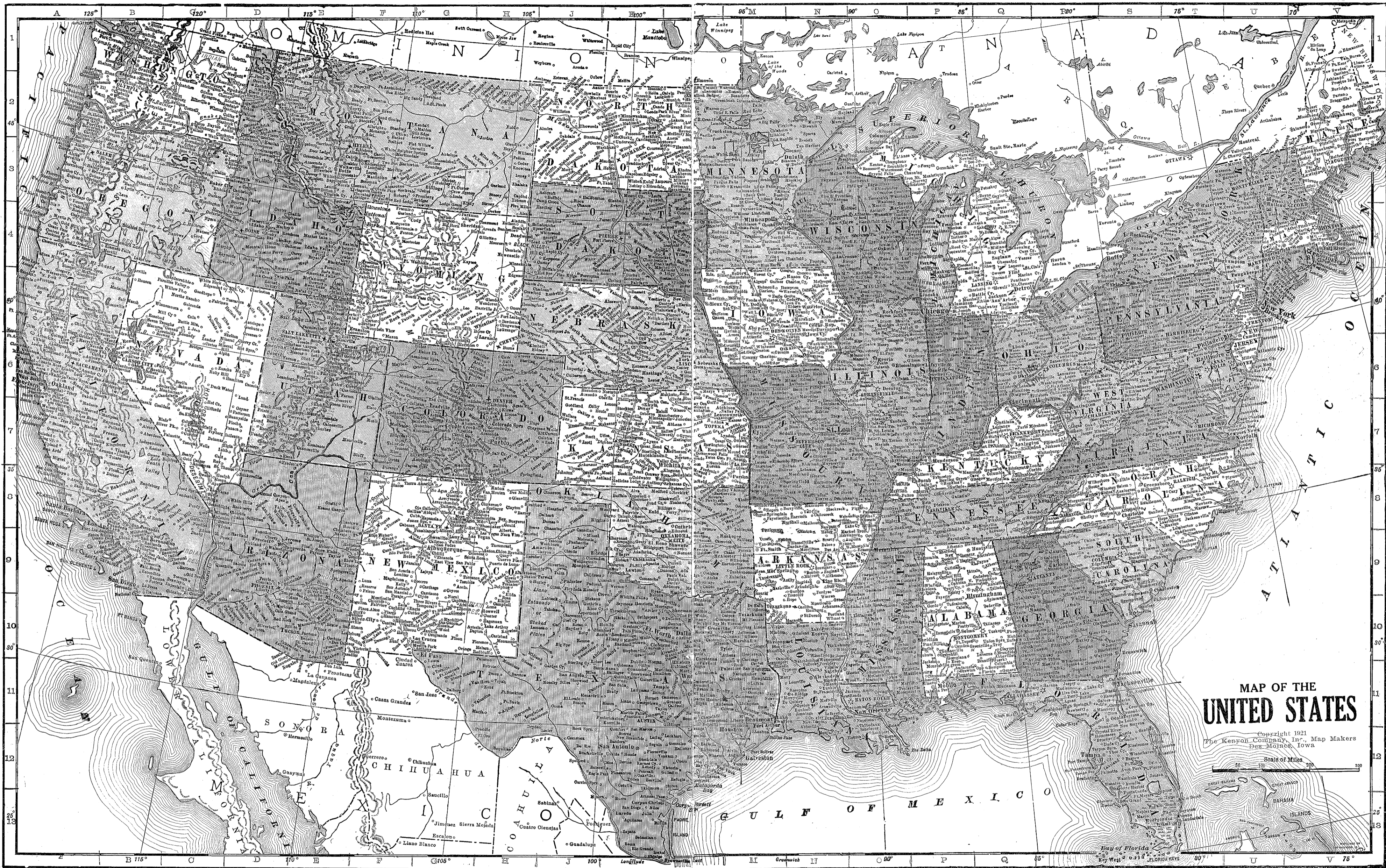
Town	Index	Pop.
<b>AUSTRIA</b>		
Gratz, (H9)		138080
Vienna, (H8)		1999912
<b>BELGIUM</b>		
Antwerp, (F7)		310903
Brussels, (F7)		629917
Ghent, (F7)		164117
Liege, (F7)		180000
<b>CZECHOSLOVAKIA</b>		
Brunn, (H8)		109346
Prague, (H8)		228645
<b>DENMARK</b>		
Copenhagen, (H6)		426540
<b>ENGLAND</b>		
Birkenhead, (D6)		110915
Birmingham, (E6)		522204
Blackburn, (E6)		129216
Bolton, (E6)		168215
Bradford, (E6)		279767
Brighton, (E7)		123478
Bristol, (D6)		330380
Cardiff, (D6)		164333
Derby, (E6)		114848
Gateshead, (E6)		109888
Halifax, (E6)		104936
Leeds, (E6)		428968
Leicester, (E6)		211579
Liverpool, (D6)		760803
London, (E7)		7323327
Manchester, (E6)		846800
Newcastle, (E5)		246980
Norwich, (E6)		111733
Nottingham, (E6)		239743
Plymouth, (D7)		107636
Portsmouth, (E7)		188133
Preston, (E6)		112989
Rhondda, (D6)		113735
Sheffield, (E6)		409070
Southampton, (E7)		104824
South Shields, (E5)		100853
Sunderland, (E5)		146077

<b>FINLAND</b>		
Helsingfors, (K4)		117317
<b>FRANCE</b>		
Bordeaux, (D9)		251997
Lille, (E7)		210696
Lyons, (E9)		472114
Marseilles, (E9)		517498
Nancy, (F8)		110570
Nantes, (D8)		133247
Nice, (H9)		134232
Paris, (E8)		2763393
Rheims, (E7)		109859
Rouen, (E7)		118459
St Etienne, (E9)		146788
Strassburg, (F8)		167678
Toulon, (E10)		103549
Toulouse, (D9)		149438
<b>GERMANY</b>		
Altona, (G6)		168320
Berlin, (H7)		2040148
Bochum, (F7)		118464
Bremen, (G6)		214861
Breslau, (H7)		422738
Brunswick, (G7)		136397
Charlottenburg, (H7)		239559
Chemnitz, (H7)		428722
Dortmund, (F7)		175577
Dresden, (H7)		516966
Duisburg, (F7)		192346
Dusseldorf, (F7)		253274
Elberfeld, (F7)		162853
Frankfurt, (H7)		334978
Hamburg, (G6)		802793
Hanover, (G7)		250024
Karlsruhe, (F8)		111249
Kassel, (G7)		120467
Kiel, (G6)		163772
Konigsberg, (J6)		223770
Krefeld, (F7)		110344
Leipzig, (G7)		503672
Madgeburg, (G7)		240633
Mannheim, (F8)		163693
Munich, (G8)		538933

Nuremberg, (G8)		294426
Stettin, (H6)		224119
Stuttgart, (G8)		249286
Wiesbaden, (F7)		100953
<b>GREECE</b>		
Athens, (K12)		167479
Salonica, (K11)		150000
<b>HOLLAND</b>		
Amsterdam, (F7)		565656
Rotterdam, (F7)		403356
The Hague, (F7)		254504
<b>HUNGARY</b>		
Budapest, (J8)		732322
Szegedin, (J9)		102991
<b>IRELAND</b>		
Belfast, (D5)		349180
Dublin, (D6)		290638
<b>ITALY</b>		
Bologna, (G9)		152009
Catania, (H12)		149295
Florence, (G10)		205589
Genoa, (F9)		234710
Messina, (H11)		149778
Milan, (F9)		493241
Naples, (G11)		563540
Palermo, (G11)		309694
Rome, (G10)		462743
Turin, (F9)		335656
Venice, (G9)		151840
<b>NORWAY</b>		
Kristiania, (G4)		227626
<b>POLAND</b>		
Krakow, (J8)		104836
Lemberg, (K8)		159877
Lodz, (J7)		351370
Posen, (H7)		136806
Vilna, (K6)		162633
Warsaw, (J7)		756426
<b>PORTUGAL</b>		
Lisbon, (B10)		356009
Oporto, (B9)		167955

<b>RUMANIA</b>		
Bukharest, (K9)		276178
Kichenef, (L8)		125787
<b>RUSSIA</b>		
Astrakhan, (P8)		121580
Kazan, (O5)		143707
Moscow, (M5)		1359254
Petrograd, (L4)		1678000
Riga, (K5)		282230
Rostof, (N8)		119476
Saratov, (O6)		137147
Tula, (M6)		114733
<b>SCOTLAND</b>		
Aberdeen, (E5)		153503
Dundee, (E5)		162982
Edinburgh, (E5)		317459
Glasgow, (D5)		789413
<b>SPAIN</b>		
Barcelona, (D10)		533000
Madrid, (C10)		539835
Malaga, (C11)		130109
Murcia, (C11)		111539
Seville, (B11)		148315
Valencia, (D10)		213530
<b>SWEDEN</b>		
Goteborg, (H5)		160523
Stockholm, (J4)		337460
<b>SWITZERLAND</b>		
Basel, (F8)		129370
Geneva, (F8-9)		118256
Zurich, (F8)		180999
<b>UKRAINE</b>		
Ekaterinoslaf, (M8)		135552
Kharkof, (M7)		173989
Kief, (L7)		319000
Odessa, (L9)		449673
<b>INDEPENDENT CITIES</b>		
Constantinople, (L10)		1106000
Danzig, (J6)		159648
Trieste, (H9)		205136





**PARCEL POST SCALE**

ZONES	1st. & 2nd.		3rd.		4th. Zone		5th. Zone		6th. Zone		7th. Zone	
	1st. lb.	2nd. lb.	1st. lb.	2nd. lb.	1st. lb.	2nd. lb.	1st. lb.	2nd. lb.	1st. lb.	2nd. lb.	1st. lb.	2nd. lb.
ADD. LBS.	50	100	150	200	250	300	350	400	450	500	550	600
MILES	50	100	150	200	250	300	350	400	450	500	550	600
STANDARD RULE	1/2 IN.	1 IN.	1 1/2 IN.	2 IN.	2 1/2 IN.	3 IN.	3 1/2 IN.	4 IN.	4 1/2 IN.	5 IN.	5 1/2 IN.	6 IN.

**TO FIND THE RATE FOR A PACKAGE**  
 Measure the distance in a straight line from the town from which the package is sent, to the town to which package goes. Then use the Rate Scale and standard inch rule to find Zone and rate.  
**EXAMPLE.**—To find the rate on a four pound package sent from Cleveland, Ohio, to Houston, Tex. By laying a rule on the map you will find that the distance is 81-8 inches. The rate scale shows this number of inches to come within the 6th Zone. For that Zone the first pound costs 9 cents, each additional pound is 8 cents; therefore the rate for 4 lbs. is 33 cents.

When the postage on a package amounts to twenty-five cents, a one cent revenue stamp is required; one cent for each additional twenty-five cents or fraction thereof.





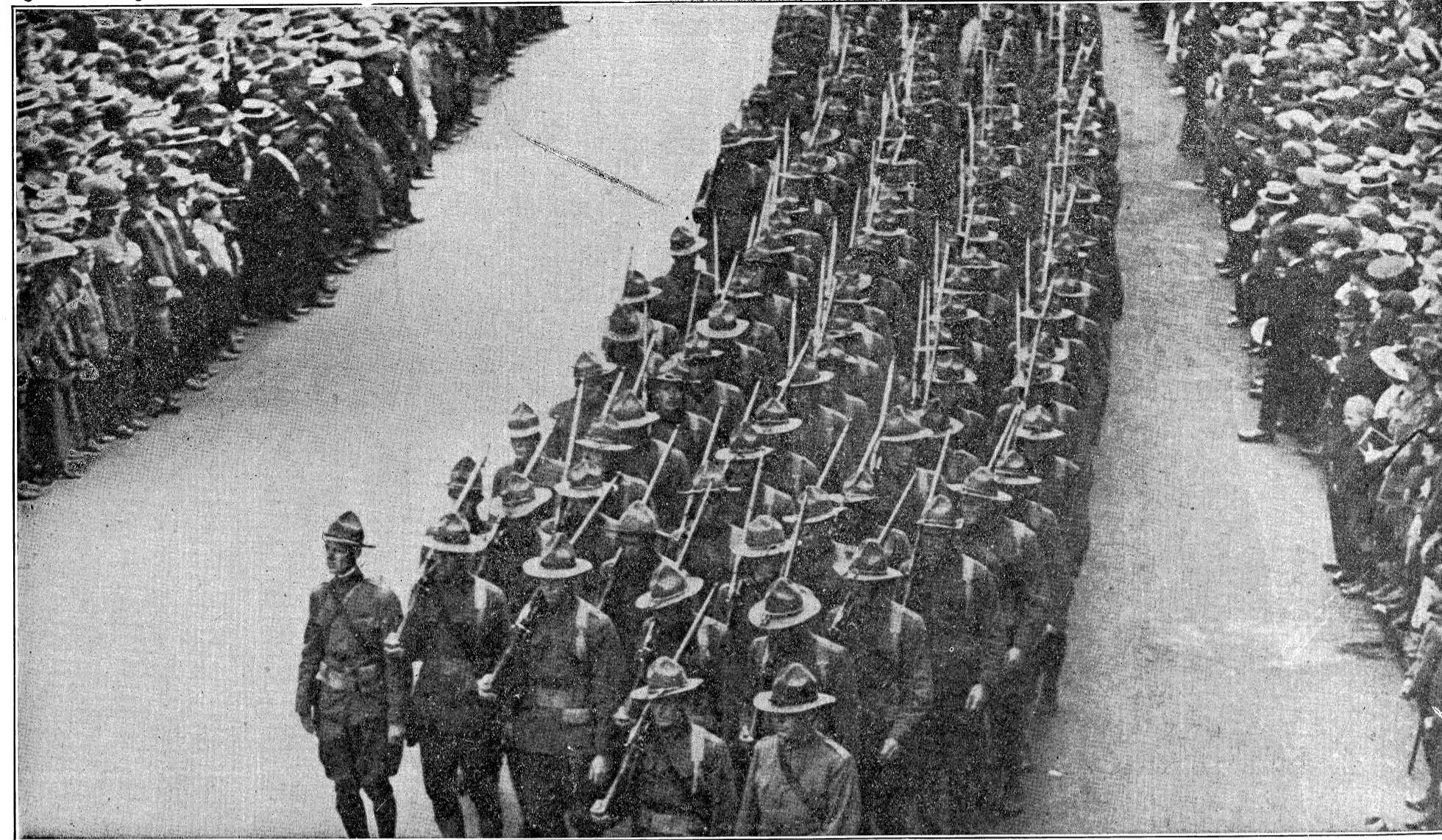


## VIEWS TAKEN ALONG WESTERN BATTLE FRONT



**DUG-OUT IN A FRENCH TRENCH AT THE FRONT**

The four French Officers shown in this picture are playing a game of "Bridge," but are compelled to wear "Gas Masks" because at any time the Germans may loose the fumes that mean certain death.

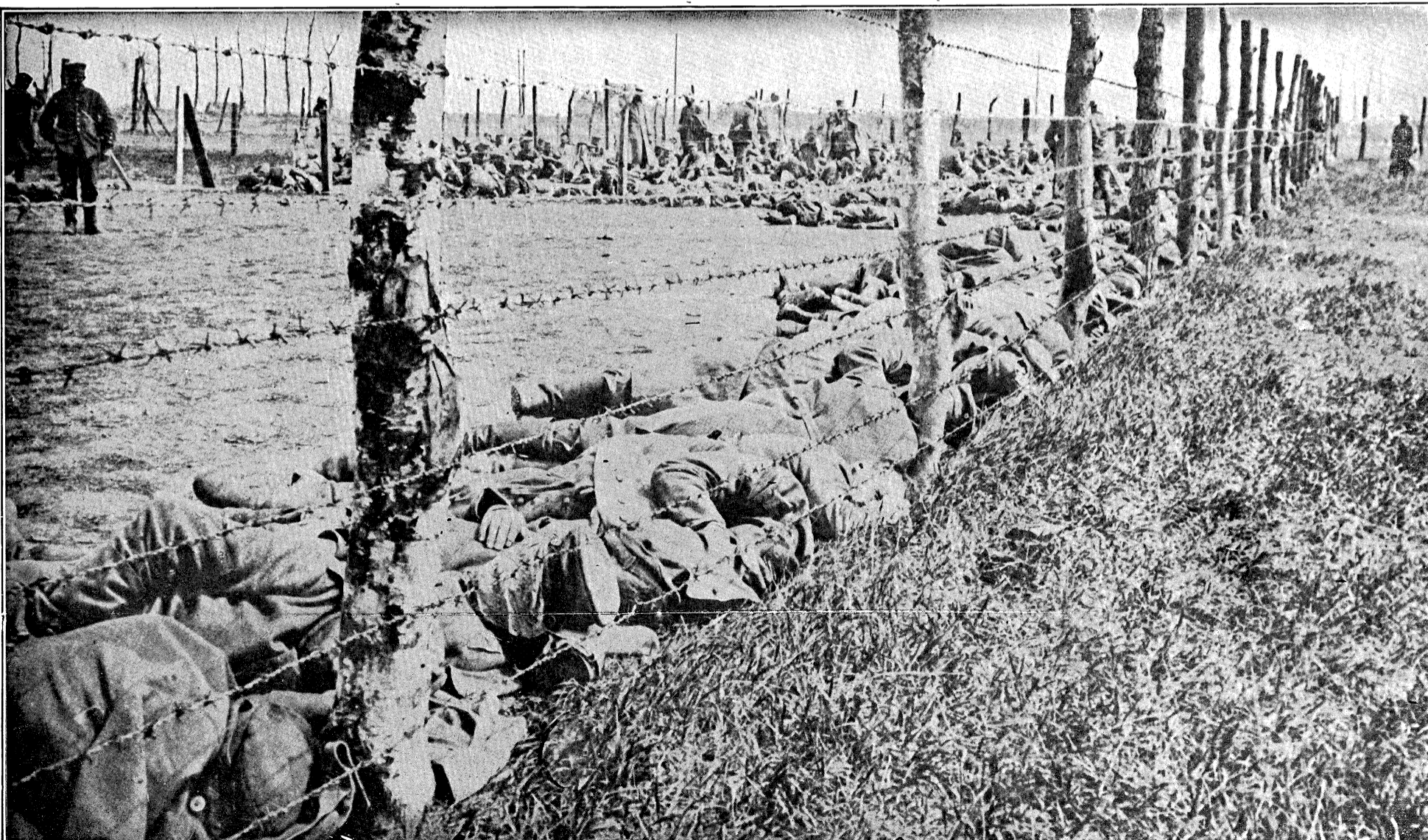


**AMERICAN TROOPS MARCHING THROUGH LONDON**

This picture shows "a halt in Cockspur street, London," during one of the famous parades of American troops through the streets of London. These American troops were reviewed by King George, Premier Lloyd George and other English Notables.

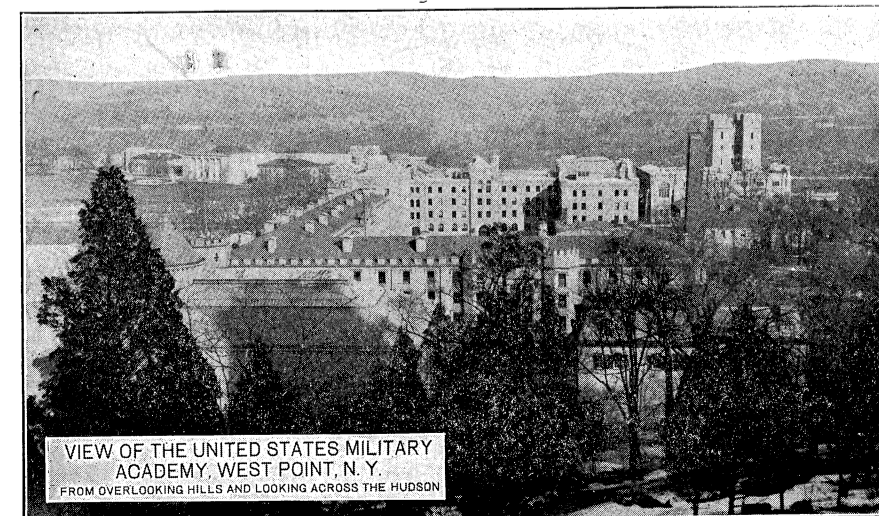
## NATIONAL CHANGES IN RECONSTRUCTED EUROPE SHOWN IN RED ON NEXT PAGE

- |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| <p>(1) <b>PROVINCES OF ALSACE &amp; LORRAINE</b>—ceded to France by Germany.</p> <p>(2) <b>THE BASIN OF THE SAAR VALLEY</b>—ceded to France for fifteen years, then subject to Plebiscite.</p> <p>(3) <b>PORTION OF POLAND</b>, formerly part of Germany.</p> <p>(4) <b>THE PORTION OF POLAND</b> that formerly belonged to Austria-Hungary, being the Province of Galicia.</p> <p>(5) <b>PORTION OF POLAND</b>, formerly part of Russia.</p> <p>(6) <b>THE CITY OF FIUME</b>—to be a free Seaport under protection of the Allies.</p> <p>(7) <b>THE PROVINCE OF SCHLESWIG</b>—Owned and governed by Germany prior to the Armistice. On Feb. 10th, 1920, a majority vote gave the portion north of Flensburg to Denmark. On March 15th, a vote gave the southern portion (including the City of Flensburg) to Germany.</p> <p>(8) <b>EAST PRUSSIA</b>—which remains part of Germany, although separated from her by Poland.</p> <p>(9) <b>PORTION OF EAST PRUSSIA</b> to decide by Plebiscite whether it goes to Poland or Germany.</p> <p>(10) <b>CITY AND TERRITORY OF DANZIG</b>—permanently Internationalized under the protection of the Allies. (Territory 729 square miles.)</p> <p>(11) <b>MEMEL</b>—to be a free Seaport under the protection of the Allies. (Territory 40 square miles.)</p> <p>(12) <b>THE WEST BANAT</b>—claimed by both Jugo-Slavia and Rumania.</p> <p>(13) <b>THE PROVINCE OF UKRAINE</b>—fighting for Independence from Russia.</p> <p>(15) <b>THE PART OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY CEDED TO ITALY</b> consisting of the provinces of Trieste, Goritz and part of the Tyrol.</p> | <p>(16) <b>TWO SMALL DISTRICTS</b> between Holland and Luxemburg—ceded to Belgium, (328 square miles.)</p> <p>(17) <b>THE STRONG GERMAN FORTRESS OF HELGOLAND</b>, which is to be dismantled, entirely.</p> <p>(18) <b>THE PROVINCE OF BOHEMIA</b>, formerly part of Austria-Hungary.</p> <p>(19) <b>THE PROVINCE OF MORAVIA</b>, formerly part of Austria-Hungary. These two Provinces form the principal part of the Republic of Czecho-Slovakia.</p> <p>(20) <b>THE REPUBLIC OF FINLAND</b>, formerly part of the Empire of Russia.</p> <p>(21) <b>THE SOVIET REPUBLIC</b> of Russia.</p> <p>(22) <b>THE FORMER KINGDOM OF MONTENEGRO</b> now part of Jugoslavia.</p> <p>(23) <b>THE KINGDOM OF SERBIA</b>, united with Montenegro and several former Austrian Provinces to form the new Nation of Jugoslavia.</p> <p>(24) <b>THE PORTION OF THRACE</b> ceded to Greece under the Peace Terms.</p> <p>(25) <b>THE NOTED KIEL CANAL</b> opened to the commerce of all nations under the German Peace Terms. (See map in upper right corner.)</p> <p>(26) <b>THE REPUBLIC OF POLAND</b>—formed from portions of Russia, Austria, and Germany. These three countries crushed Poland in 1781 until which time she had been one of the leading nations of Europe.</p> <p>(27) <b>THE REPUBLIC OF CZECHO-SLOVAKIA</b> inhabited by the Czechs and formed from parts of the former Empire of Austria-Hungary.</p> | <p>(28) <b>THE REPUBLIC OF HUNGARY</b>. Hungary was at one time an independent nation, but since the fourteenth century has formed part of the former Empire of Austria-Hungary.</p> <p>(29) <b>THE REPUBLIC OF JUGOSLAVIA</b>. This new nation is formed of several former Austrian Provinces and the former Kingdoms of Montenegro and Serbia. Albania may also join her.</p> <p>(30) <b>PALESTINE</b>—to be self-governing under a protectorate of one of the Great Powers.</p> <p>(31) <b>SYRIA</b>—to be self-governing under France.</p> <p>(32) <b>MESOPOTAMIA</b>—to be self-governing under English protection.</p> <p>(33) <b>ARMENIA</b>—to be self-governing under Protectorate.</p> <p>(34) <b>CONSTANTINOPLE</b>—the former Capital of Turkey and adjacent territory to be permanently internationalized.</p> <p>(35) <b>PROVINCE OF ANATOLIA</b>—which is all that is left of the former Great Turkish Empire.</p> <p>(36) <b>A SMALL FREE STATE CUT OUT OF TURKEY</b> and under the League of Nations.</p> <p>(37) <b>PROVINCE OF LITHUANIA</b>, struggling for freedom from Russia.</p> <p>(38) <b>PROVINCE OF LATVIA</b>, struggling for freedom from Russia.</p> |
|---|---|---|

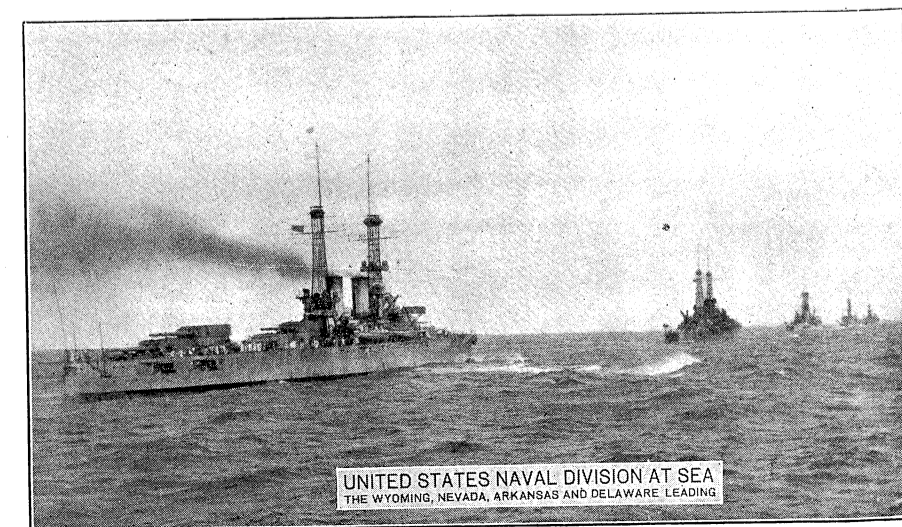


**"NOT DEAD BUT SLEEPING"**

German Prisoners of War Lying Behind Barbed Wire Fence Enclosure, Somewhere in France.



VIEW OF THE UNITED STATES MILITARY ACADEMY, WEST POINT, N.Y.  
FROM OVERLOOKING HILLS AND LOOKING ACROSS THE HUDSON



UNITED STATES NAVAL DIVISION AT SEA  
THE WYOMING, NEVADA, ARKANSAS AND DELAWARE LEADING





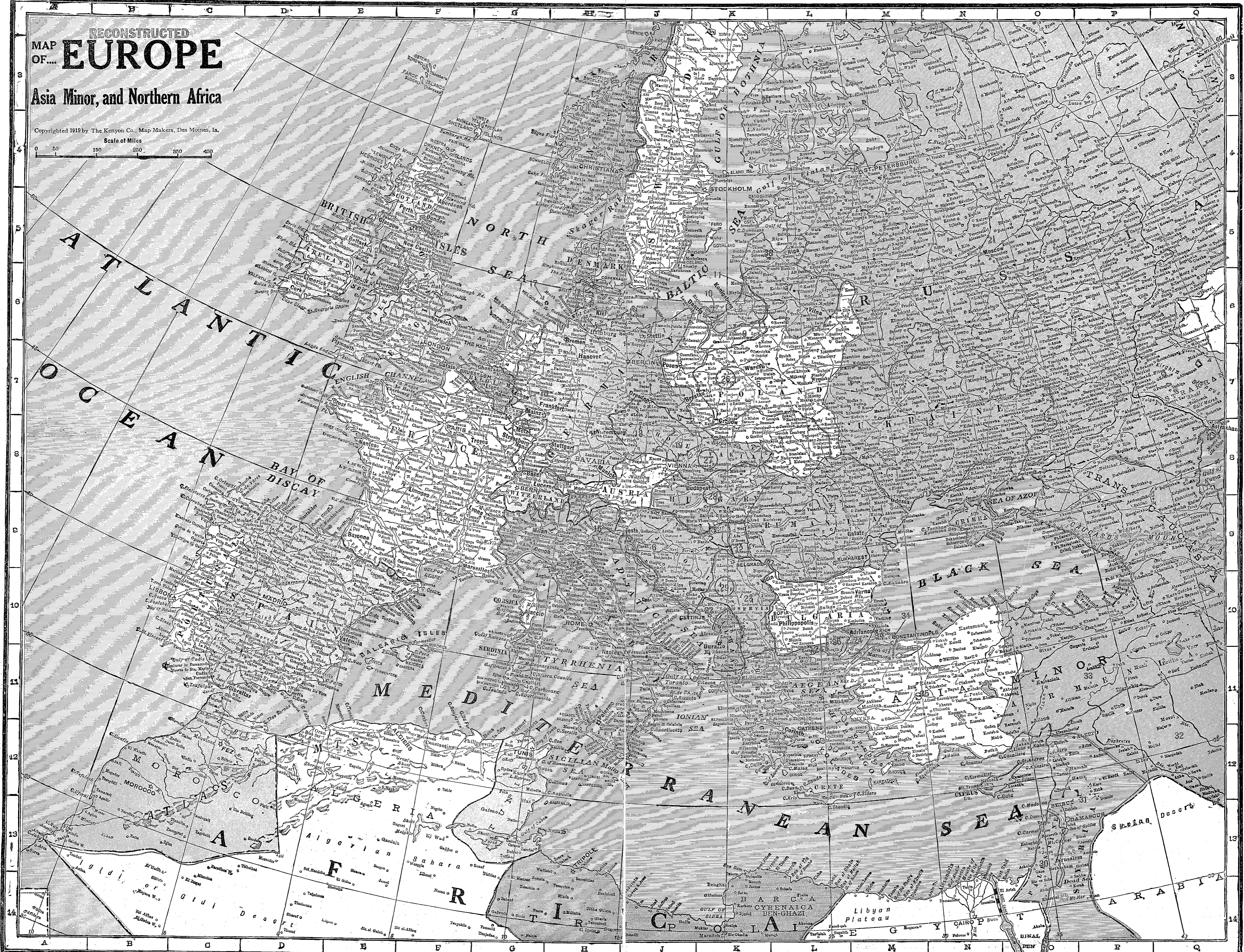


# RECONSTRUCTED MAP OF EUROPE

## Asia Minor, and Northern Africa

Copyrighted 1919 by The Kenyon Co., Map Makers, Des Moines, Ia.

Scale of Miles



RED NUMBERS SHOW NATIONAL BOUNDARY CHANGES.

FOR EXPLANATION OF NUMBERS, SEE PRECEDING PAGE.



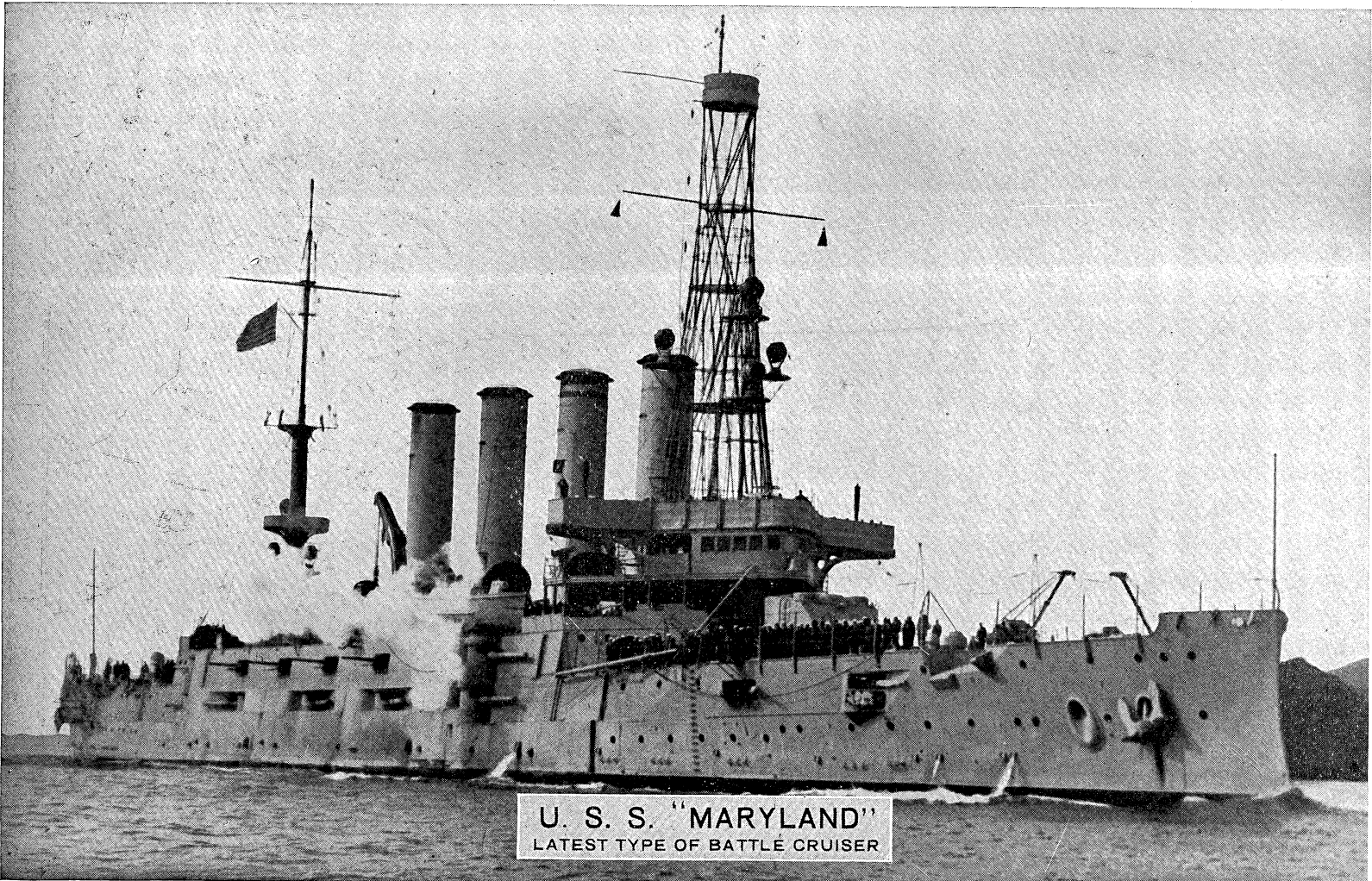


**"OUR FIRST LINE OF DEFENSE"**



**SUPER-DREADNAUGHT "PENNSYLVANIA"**  
ONE OF OUR NEW FIRST-CLASS BATTLESHIPS

The Pennsylvania is the very latest type of naval efficiency. It is the largest war vessel in the United States navy, having a tonnage of 31,400. It is 600 feet long, 95 feet wide and has a draft of 28 feet. Her engines are of the Turbine type and her speed is 21 knots an hour. She carries 12 14-inch guns and 25 5-inch guns. Her coal supply is 2,400 tons.

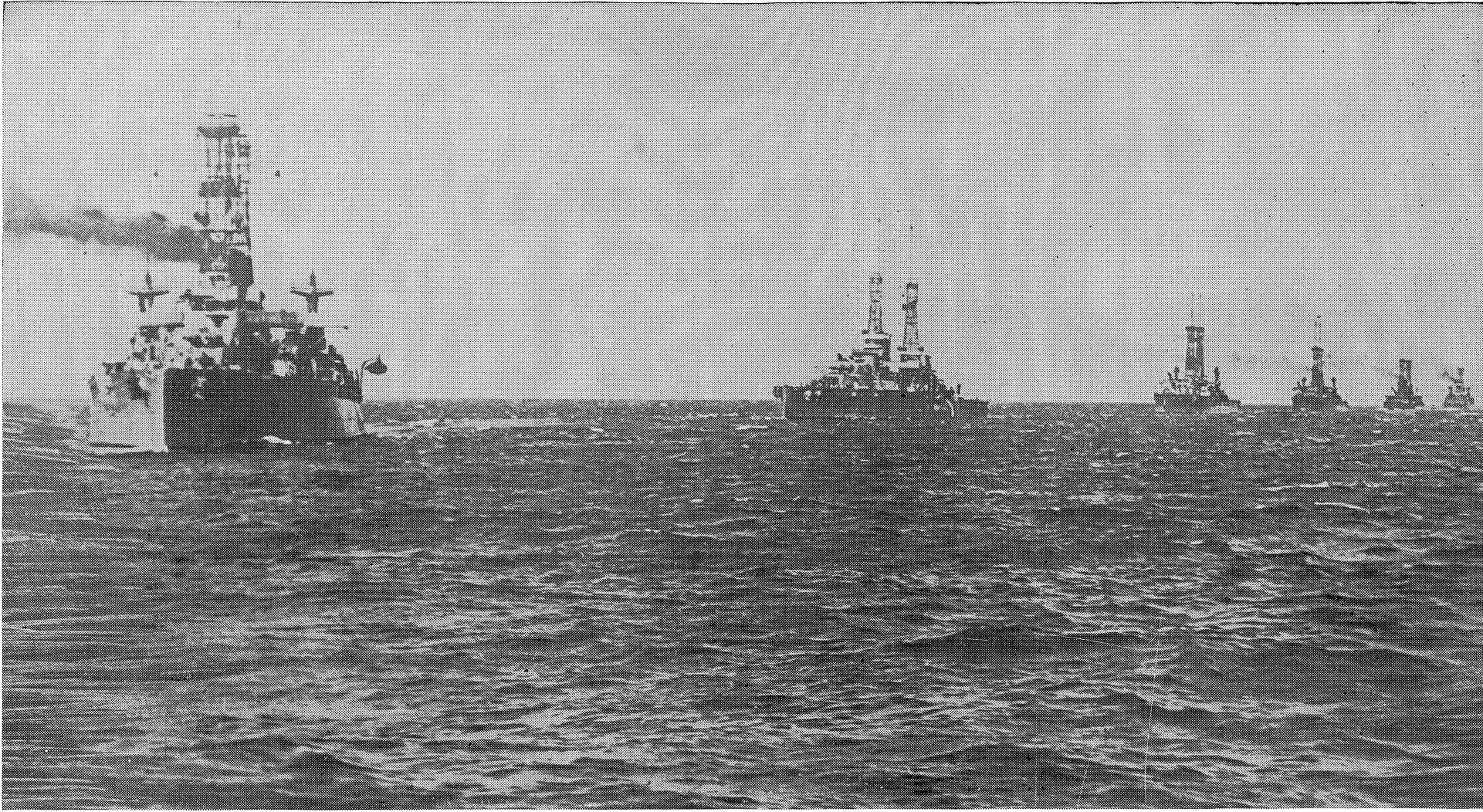


**U. S. S. "MARYLAND"**  
LATEST TYPE OF BATTLE CRUISER

The United States Navy has at present 12 fine armored cruisers of the type and armament of the Maryland, as shown above. They average 14,000 tons, 500 feet long, 70 feet wide and have a draft of 24 feet. Their speed is 23 knots an hour and have the twin screw type of engine. Their armament consists of 5 to 8 10-inch guns and about 14 6-inch guns.

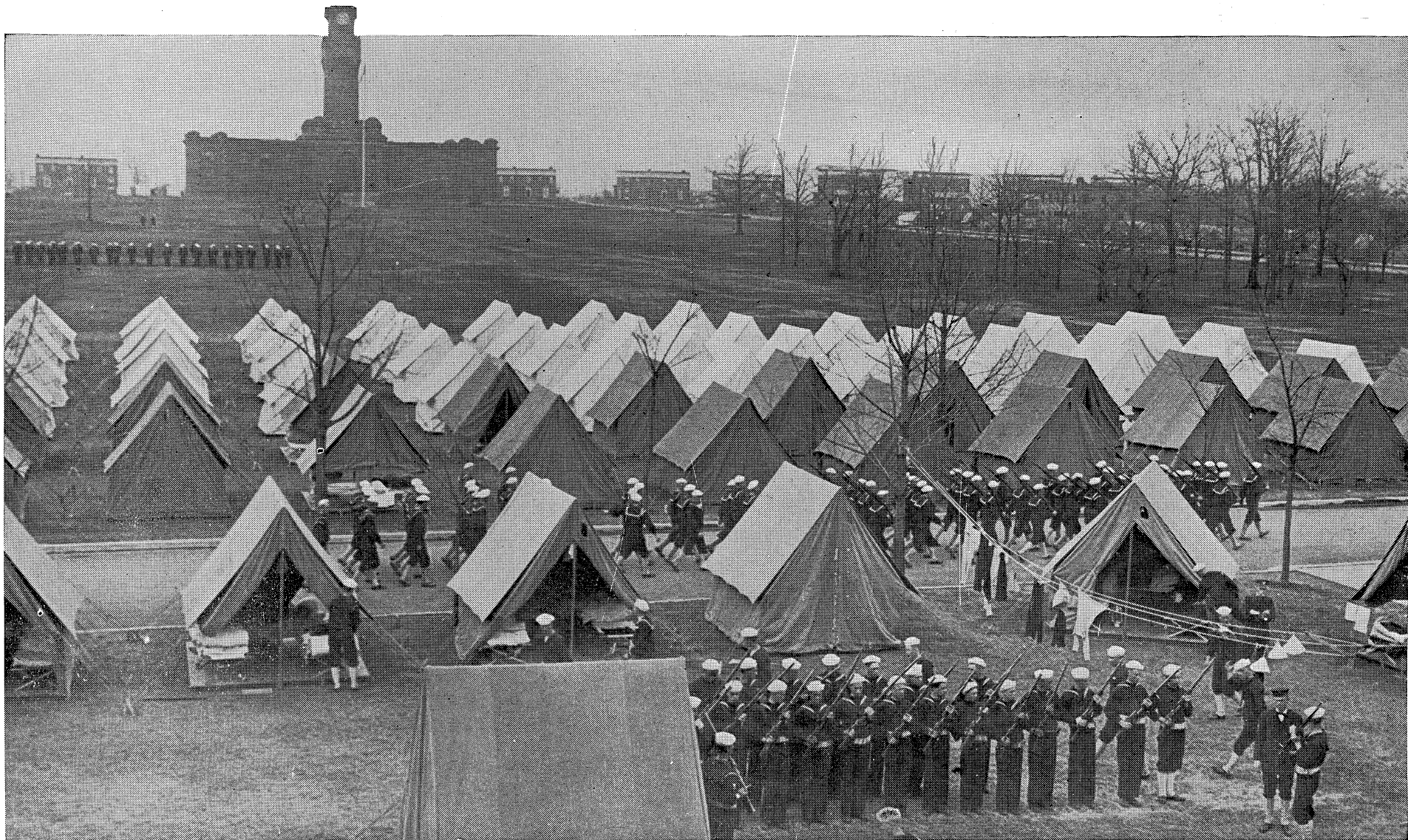


**"OUR FIRST LINE OF DEFENSE"**



**UNITED STATES SUPER DREADNAUGHTS IN BATTLE FORMATION**

This remarkable picture was photographed from the deck of the Flagship Pennsylvania. Reading from left to right are the New York, Delaware, Oklahoma, Texas, Florida, Utah, with the Wyoming, South Carolina, Michigan and Connecticut following just out of the picture.



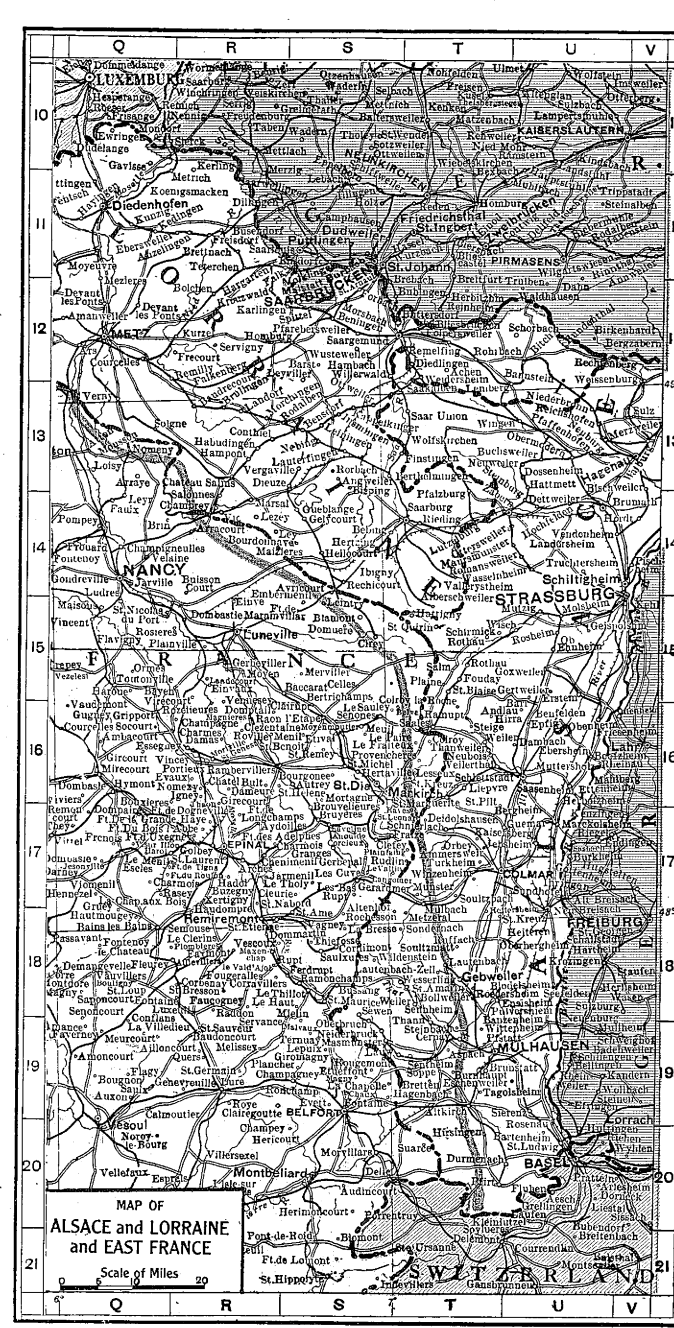
**GREAT LAKES NAVAL TRAINING STATION**

About 33 miles north of Chicago. This station contains at present 35,000 men. They have a naval band of 1,000 pieces. The men are styled Apprentice Seamen. Leave is granted twice a week for visiting nearby cities, but the men are only allowed to draw \$4.00 a month, the balance being placed to their credit.



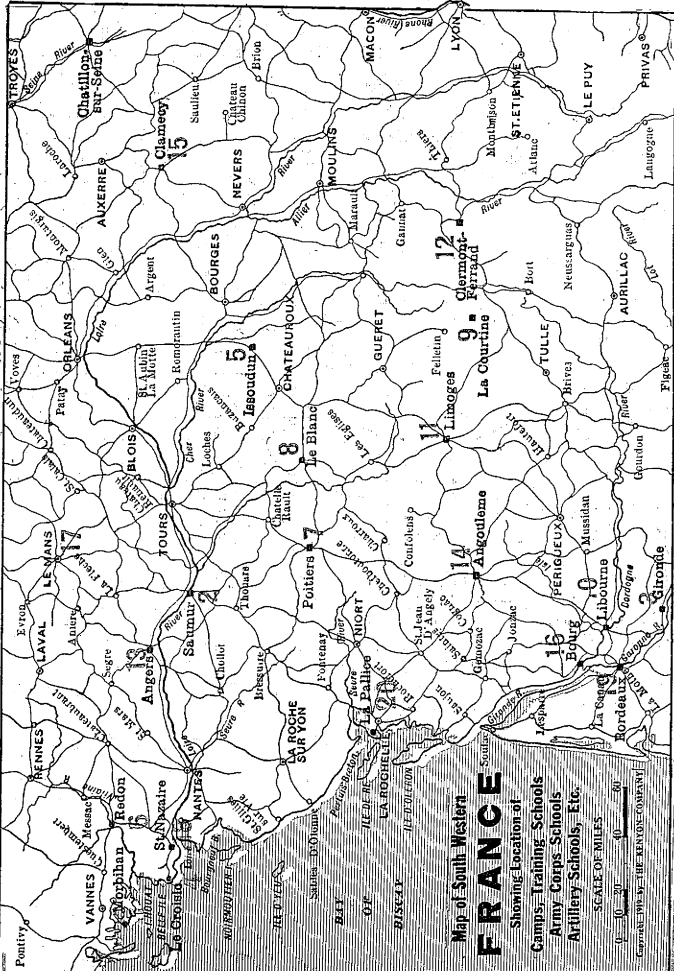


A. Farthest advance of Germans in 1918.  
 B. Hindenburg Line, where the great spring offensive was started March 21st, 1918.  
 C. Shows extent of territory gained by the Germans from March 21st to July 18th, 1918.  
 D. Shows Battle Line early part of September, 1918, showing territory regained by the Allies since July 18th, 1918.  
 E. Final Battle Line November 11th, 1918.



MAP OF ALSACE and LORRAINE AND EAST FRANCE  
 The Line in Red Shows The Final Allied Battle Line November 11, 1918.

- FORMER AMERICAN CAMPS IN Southwestern France**  
 Shown by Red Figures.
1. AMERICAN CAMPS IN FRANCE.
  2. SAUMUR—Cavalry and Artillery.
  3. GRONDE—Cavalry.
  4. LE CROISIC—Aviation.
  5. AMERICAN TRAINING SCHOOLS.
  6. REDON—Artillery.
  7. FORTIERS—Artillery.
  8. LA COURAINE—Artillery.
  9. AMERICAN TRAINING CENTERS FOR ARTILLERY.
  10. LIMOUES.
  11. CLEMONT-FERRAND.
  12. ANGERS.
  13. AMERICAN ARMY CORPS SCHOOLS.
  14. CLAMBOIS—(3d Army Corps).
  15. BOURG—First American Brigade.
  16. LOUVECIENNE—near Le Mans—School for Chaplains, DEBARKATION.
  17. ST. NAZAIRES.
  18. ROUBAIX.
  19. LA PALICE.
  - 20.



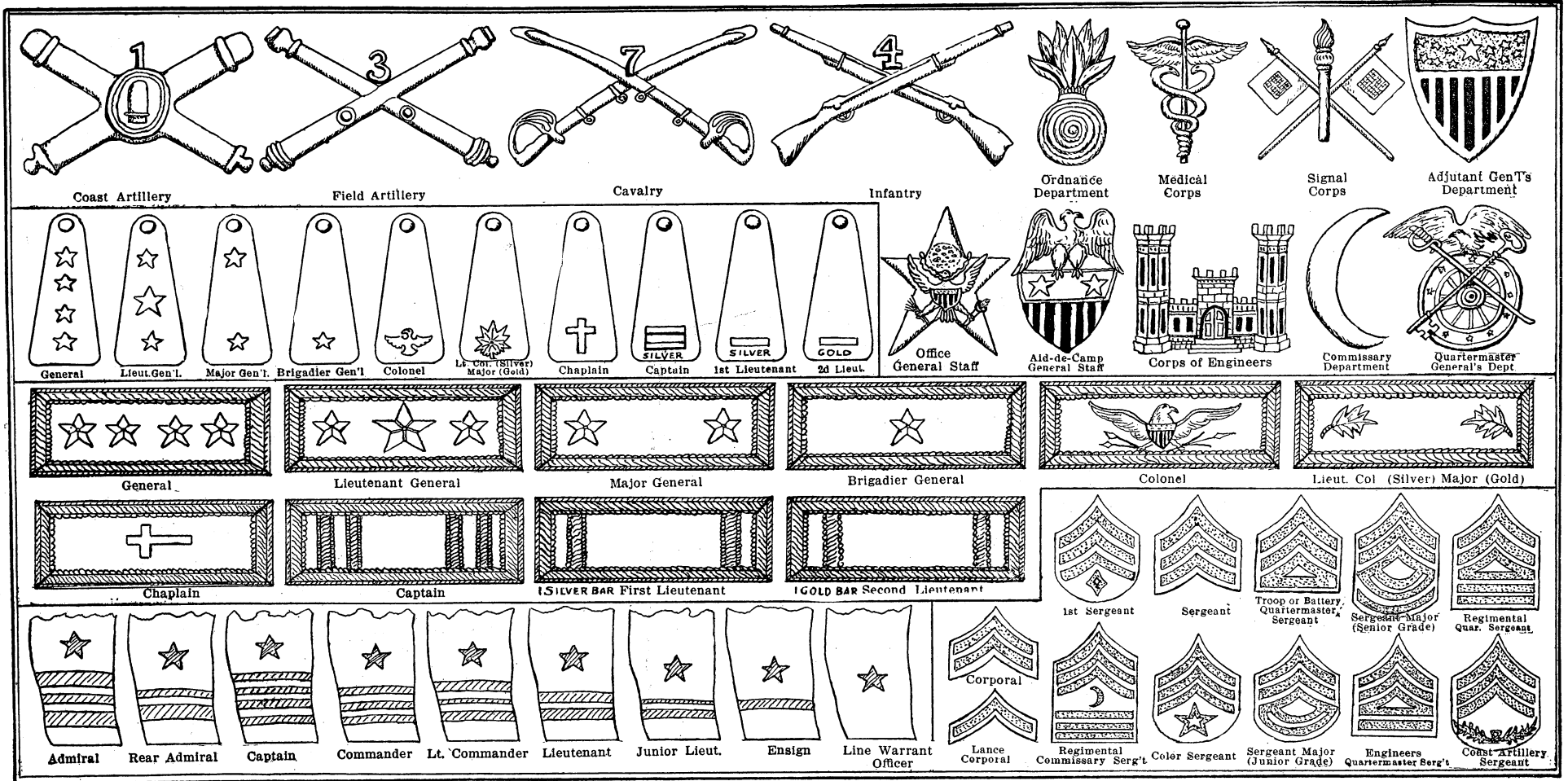
Map of Southwestern France  
 Showing Location of Former American Camps, Artillery Schools, etc.  
 SCALE OF MILES







# INSIGNIA OF RANK IN THE UNITED STATES ARMY AND NAVY



## HOW TO TELL THE RANK AND SERVICE OF ARMY AND NAVY OFFICERS

**COLLAR DEVICES** showing class of service. In the militia bronze initials of the state are added to the devices shown in these illustrations. Numerals indicate the regiment of the service. Members of volunteer regiments also wear the initials U. S. V. Thus, the crossed swords as here shown indicate the 7th regiment of U. S. regular cavalry; the addition of U. S. V. would indicate 7th Regiment of Volunteer Cavalry, while Ill., would indicate 7th Illinois State Cavalry.

**SHOULDER STRAPS**, indicating commissioned officers, are the same in both dress and service uniform, except that in the former the strap is braided. All designs are in silver except that of Major, which is in gold to distinguish it from that of Lieutenant Colonel, which is in silver. The Second Lieutenant, in service uniform, wears a bronze U. S. coat of arms on both hat and belt, and a gold and black braided hat cord.

**SLEEVE AND COLLAR DEVICES** of the non-commissioned officers are in cloth. Service designs are added to these chevrons to denote the rank of service. A Sergeant of the Com-

missary Department, for example, will have added the crescent, or of the Signal Corps the design of crossed flags and the torch, in addition to the three chevrons of his rank.

**NAVAL SLEEVE DESIGNS** show the star only in the executive ranks. Other services of the navy are shown by colors between the sleeve stripes as follows: Constructors—purple; Civil Engineers—light blue; Paymasters—white; Medical—dark maroon; Professors of mathematics—olive green.

**HAT CORDS** indicate by color the branch of service. These are: Cavalry—yellow; Infantry—light blue; Artillery—red; Medical Corps—maroon; Staff departments—black; Engineers Corps—red, piped with white; Ordnance—black, piped with red; Signal Corps—Salmon with white edge; Quartermaster Corps—buff.

Gold and black braided hat cords are worn by commissioned officers.

THE U. S. COAT OF ARMS is on the hats, caps, and belts of all commissioned officers.

## Statistics Relating to United States Forces, Casualties, Shipping and Cost of Operations from April 6, 1917, to April 6, 1919.

Regular Army .....	127,588	Army .....	3,764,000
National Guard in Federal service....	80,466	Navy .....	497,030
Reserve corps in service.....	4,000	Marine Corps .....	78,017
<b>Total of soldiers.....</b>	<b>212,034</b>	<b>November 11, 1918—</b>	
Personnel of Navy.....	65,777	<b>Total armed forces.....</b>	<b>4,339,047</b>
Marine Corps .....	15,627		
<b>April 6, 1917—</b>			
<b>Total armed forces.....</b>	<b>293,438</b>		

Soldiers transported overseas.....	2,053,347
American troops in action, November 11, 1918.....	1,338,169
Soldiers in camps in the United States, November 11, 1918.....	1,700,000
Casualties, Army and Marine Corps, A. E. F.....	282,311
Death rate per thousand, A. E. F.....	.057
German prisoners taken.....	44,000
Americans decorated by French, British, Belgian and Italian armies, about.....	10,000
Number of men registered and classified under selective service law.....	23,700,000
Cost of thirty-two National Army cantonments and National Guard camps.....	\$179,629,497
Students enrolled in 500 S. A. T. C. camps.....	170,000
Officers commissioned from training camps (exclusive of universities, etc.).....	80,000
Women engaged in Government war industries.....	2,000,000

### BEHIND THE BATTLE LINES

Railway locomotives sent to France.....	967
Freight cars sent to France.....	13,174
Locomotives of foreign origin operated by A. E. F.....	350
Cars of foreign origin operated by A. E. F.....	973
Miles of standard gauge track laid in France.....	843
Warehouses, approximate area in square feet.....	23,000,000
Motor vehicles shipped to France.....	110,000

### ARMS AND AMMUNITION

Persons employed in about 8,000 ordnance plants in U. S. at signing of armistice .....	4,000,000
Shoulder rifles made during war.....	2,500,000
Rounds of small arms ammunition.....	2,879,148,000
Machine guns and automatic rifles.....	181,662
High explosive shells.....	4,250,000
Gas shells .....	500,000
Shrapnel .....	7,250,000
Gas masks, extra canisters and horse masks.....	8,500,000

### UNITED STATES NAVY AND MERCHANT SHIPPING

Warships at beginning of war.....	197
Warships at end of war.....	2,003
Small boats built.....	800
Submarine chasers built.....	355
Merchant ships armed.....	2,500
Naval bases in European waters and the Azores.....	54
Shipbuilding yards (merchant marine) increased from 61 to more than.....	200
Shipbuilding ways increased from 233 to more than.....	1,000
Ships delivered to Shipping Board by end of 1918.....	592
Deadweight tonnage of ships delivered.....	3,423,495

### UNITED STATES FINANCES OF THE WAR

Total cost, approximately.....	\$24,620,000,000
Credits to eleven nations.....	8,841,657,000
Raised by taxation in 1918.....	3,694,000,000
Raised by Liberty Loans.....	14,000,000,000
War Savings Stamps to November, 1918.....	834,253,000
War relief gifts, estimated.....	4,000,000,000

FROM "COMMERCE AND FINANCE," NEW YORK.

## STEAM VESSELS LOST IN THE WORLD WAR.

FROM AUGUST 4, 1914, TO OCTOBER 31, 1918.

	War	Marine	Total
Great Britain .....	7,753,311	1,032,779	8,786,090
Dominions of Great Britain .....	169,712	99,866	269,578
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>7,923,923</b>	<b>1,132,645</b>	<b>9,055,668</b>
U. S. A. (seagoing).....	343,090	187,948	531,038
Belgian .....	85,842	19,239	105,081
Brazilian .....	20,328	10,951	31,279
Danish .....	210,880	34,422	245,302
Dutch .....	201,797	27,244	229,041
French .....	722,939	84,138	807,077
Greek .....	349,661	65,014	414,675
Italian .....	745,766	115,669	861,435
Japanese .....	119,764	150,269	270,033
Norwegian .....	976,516	195,244	1,171,760
Spanish .....	157,527	80,335	327,862
Swedish .....	180,415	83,586	264,001

**Grand Total .....** 12,038,448 2,186,704 14,314,251  
From "Commerce and Finance," New York City.

### COST OF THE WORLD WAR IN MONEY.

Germany .....	\$28,400,000,000
Great Britain .....	31,500,000,000
Russia .....	23,400,000,000
France .....	20,000,000,000
United States .....	20,000,000,000
Austria-Hungary .....	12,500,000,000
Italy .....	6,200,000,000
Turkey .....	100,000,000

### DEBTS OF THE CHIEF POWERS.

Jan. 1, 1919	Before the War		More Recent Date	
		Dollars		Dollars
<b>Allies</b>				
Great Britain.....	1914, Aug. 1	3,458,000,000	1918, Nov. 1	33,000,000,000
Australia.....	1914, June 30	93,000,000	1918, March 31	1,212,000,000
Canada.....	1914, March 31	336,000,000	1918, July 31	1,172,000,000
New Zealand.....	1914, March 31	446,000,000	1917, March 31	611,000,000
France.....	1914, July 31	6,598,000,000	1918, Nov. 1	26,000,000,000
Italy.....	1914, June 30	2,792,000,000	1918, March 31	10,328,000,000
Russia.....	1914, Jan. 1	5,092,000,000	1917, Sept. 1	25,383,000,000
United States.....	1917, March 31	1,208,000,000	1918, Nov. 1	18,000,000,000
<b>Central Powers</b>				
Germany.....	1913, Oct. 1	1,165,000,000	1918, April 30	28,922,000,000
Austria.....	1914, July 1	2,640,000,000	1918, July 1	15,422,000,000
Hungary.....	1913, July 1	1,345,000,000	1918, July 1	6,316,000,000
<b>Neutrals</b>				
Denmark.....	1914, March 31	96,716,000	1917, March 31	157,875,000
Holland.....	1914, Jan. 1	469,538,000	1918, Jan. 1	762,527,000
Norway.....	1914, June 30	95,782,000	1916, June 30	133,574,000
Spain.....	1914, Jan. 1	1,888,442,000	1918, Jan. 1	1,987,454,000
Sweden.....	1914, Jan. 1	166,846,000	1917, June 30	260,120,000
Switzerland.....	1914, Jan. 1	28,230,000	1917, Nov. 30	187,876,000

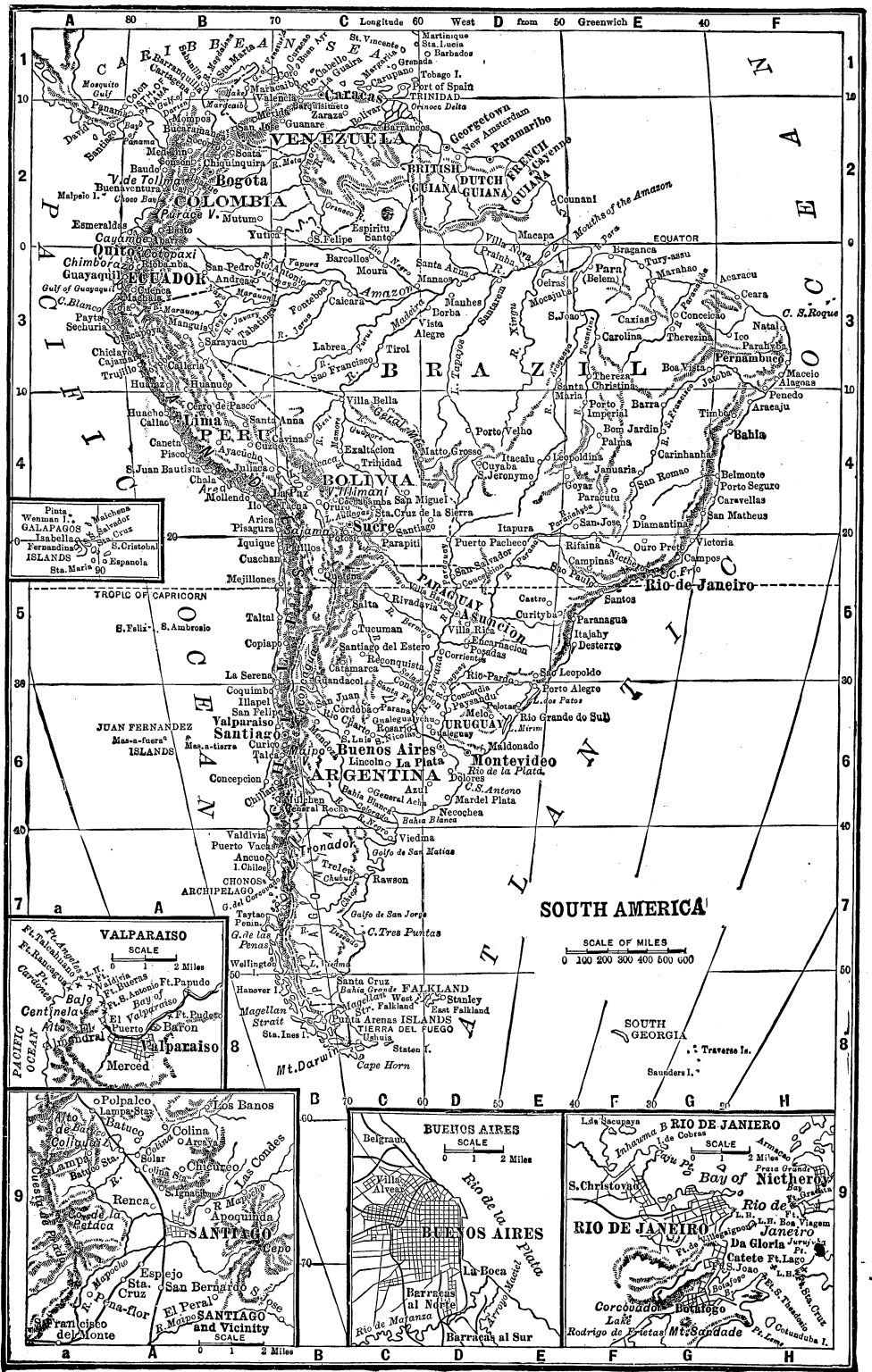
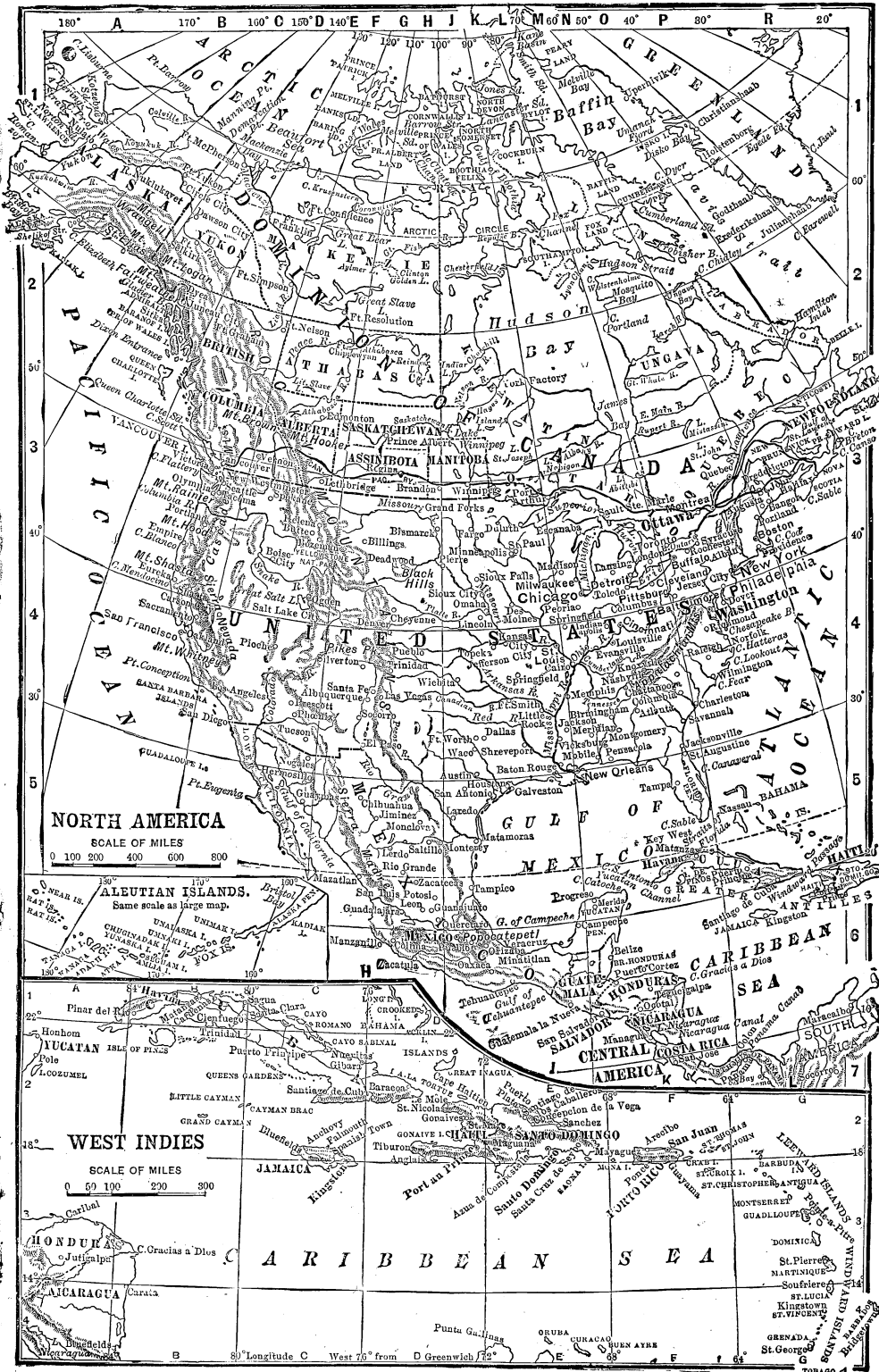
In the case of the United States debt, over \$8,000,000,000 in loans to Allies is a partial offset. Great Britain, France and Germany also have made large loans to their allies.



THE HARBOR OF MANNHEIM ON THE RIVER RHINE, GERMANY.

**NORTH AMERICA**

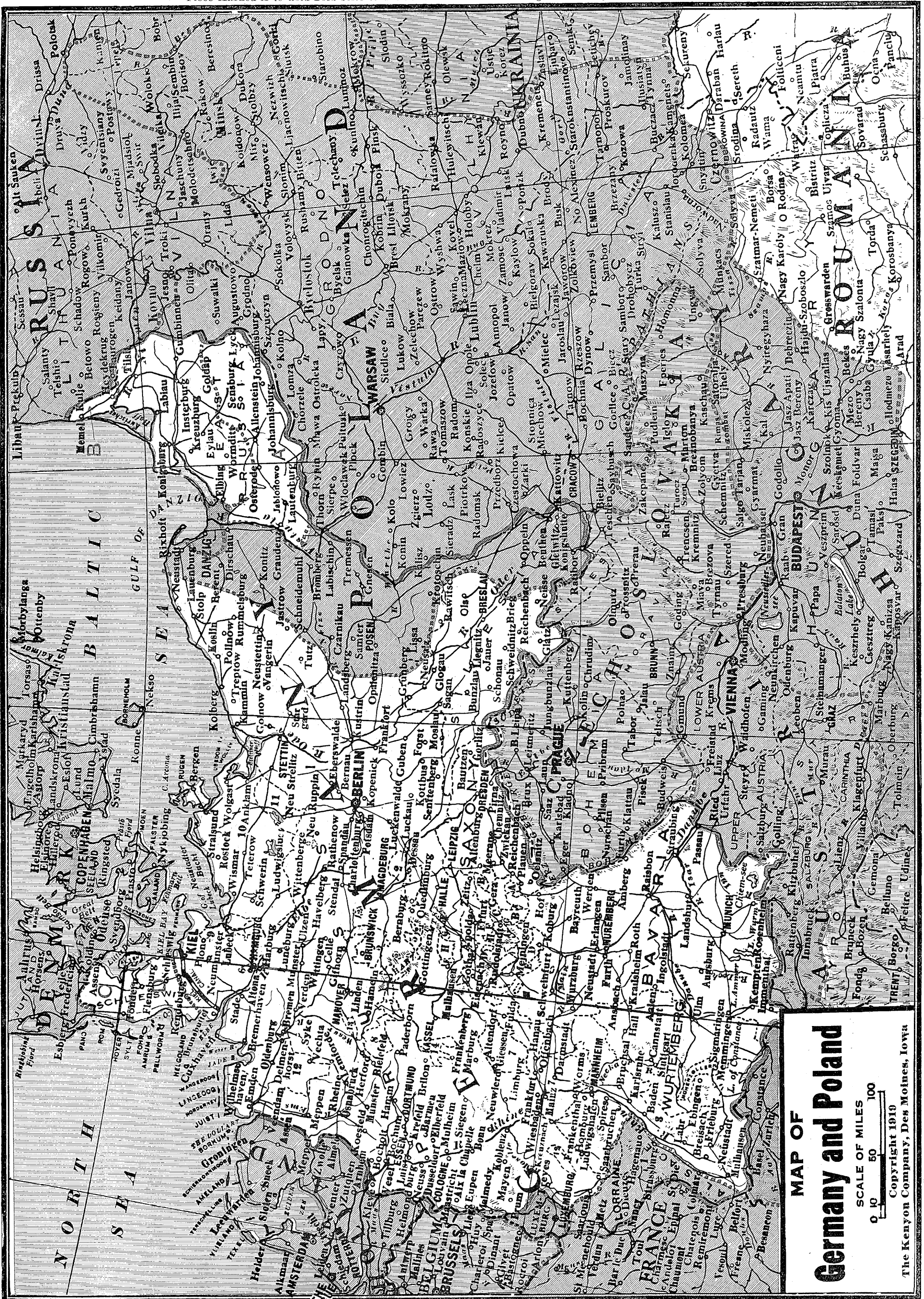
**SOUTH AMERICA**





# MAP OF GERMANY AND THE NEW NATION OF POLAND

The Red Lines on This Map Show the Old Boundaries of Germany in 1914 at the Beginning of the World War.  
 Piece Marked A to hold Plebiscite to decide whether it shall belong to Germany or Poland.



**MAP OF**  
**Germany and Poland**  
 SCALE OF MILES  
 0 10 50 100  
 Copyright 1919  
 The Kenyon Company, Des Moines, Iowa

B. City of Memel free, under Allied Control.  
 C. Portion of Schleswig voted to Denmark Feb. 10, 1920.

D. Portion of Schleswig voted to Germany March 15, 1920.  
 The dotted lines in Red show the boundaries between the several Countries.



MAP OF THE  
NEW NATIONS OF

# CZECHOSLOVAKIA, AUSTRIA, HUNGARY AND JUGOSLAVIA

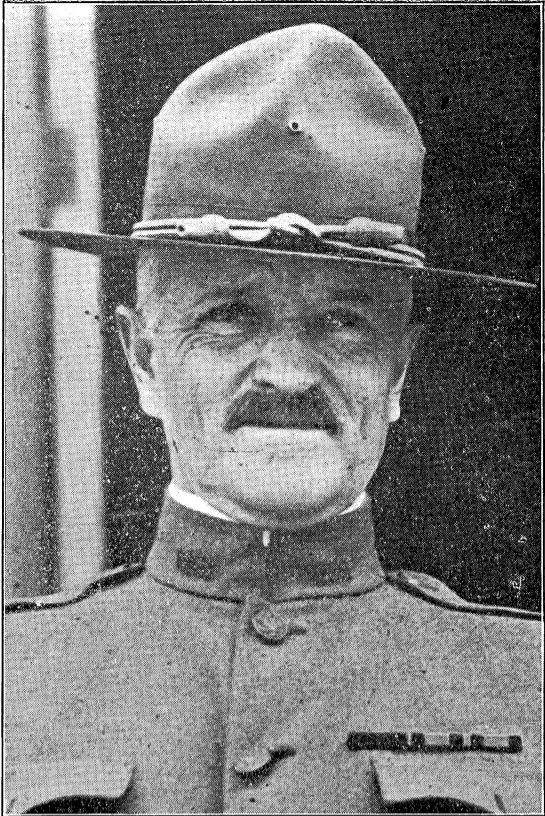
The Red Lines on This Map Show the Old Boundaries of Austria-Hungary in 1914 before the Great War



A. Southern portion of Albania in doubt. It may be given to Greece or stay with Albania.



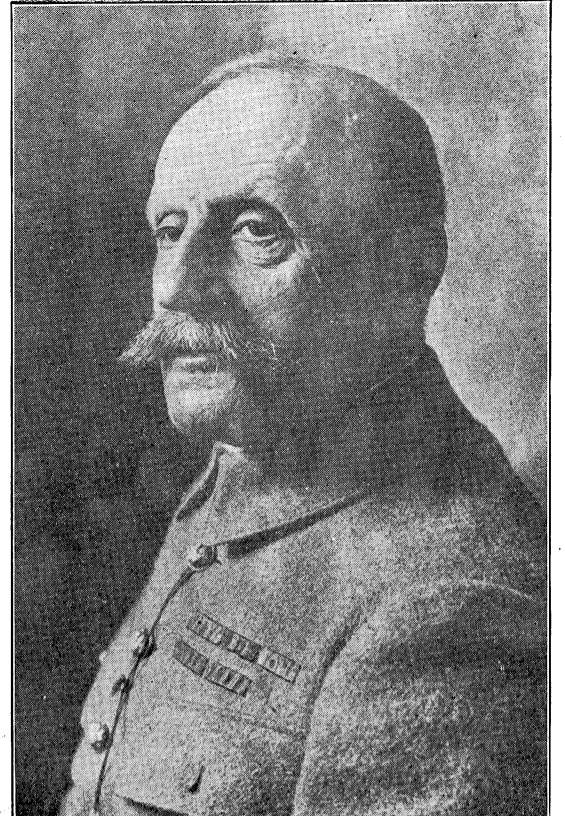
**THE GREAT LEADERS**



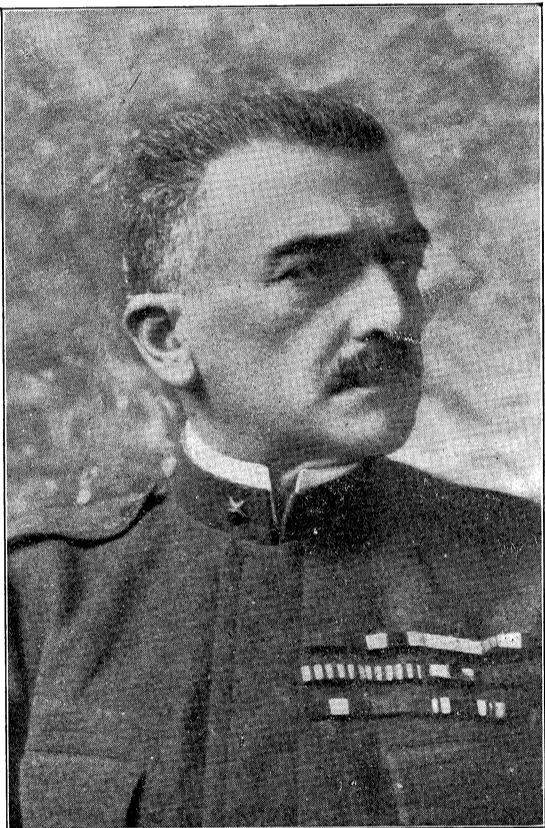
**GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING**  
Commander-in-Chief of the American Forces in France



**SIR DOUGLAS HAIG**  
Commander-in-Chief of British Forces



**GENERAL FOCH**  
Marshal of France  
Commander in Chief of Allied Armies



**GENERAL ARMANDE DIAZ**  
Commander-in-Chief of Italian Armies



**GENERAL PETAIN**  
Commander-in-Chief of the French Armies

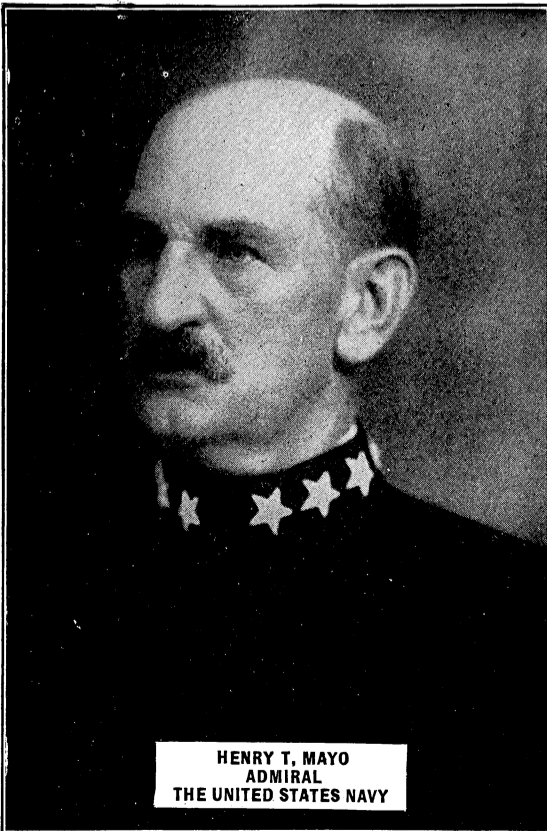


**REAR ADM. SIR DAVID BEATTY**  
Commander of England's Grand Fleet



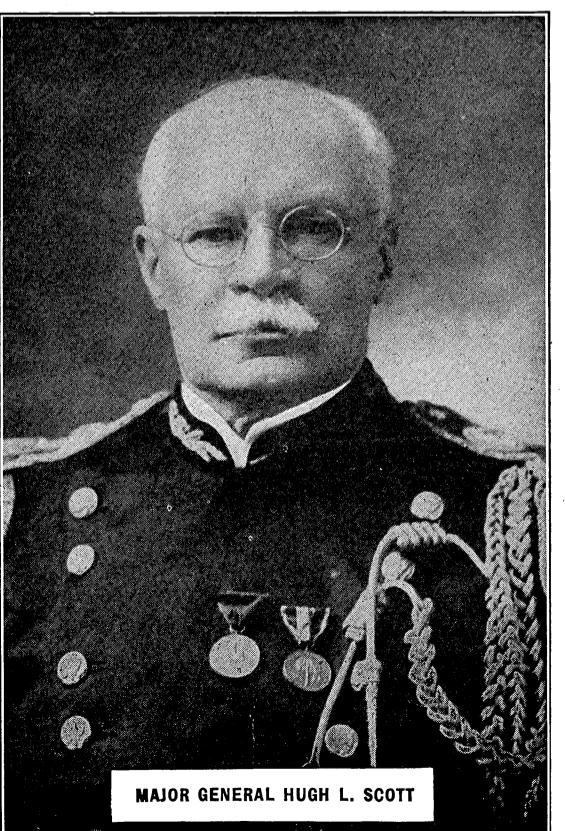
**ADMIRAL W. S. BENSON**

**ADMIRAL W. S. BENSON**  
Chief of Naval Operations



**HENRY T. MAYO**  
ADMIRAL  
THE UNITED STATES NAVY

**HENRY T. MAYO**  
Admiral the United States Navy

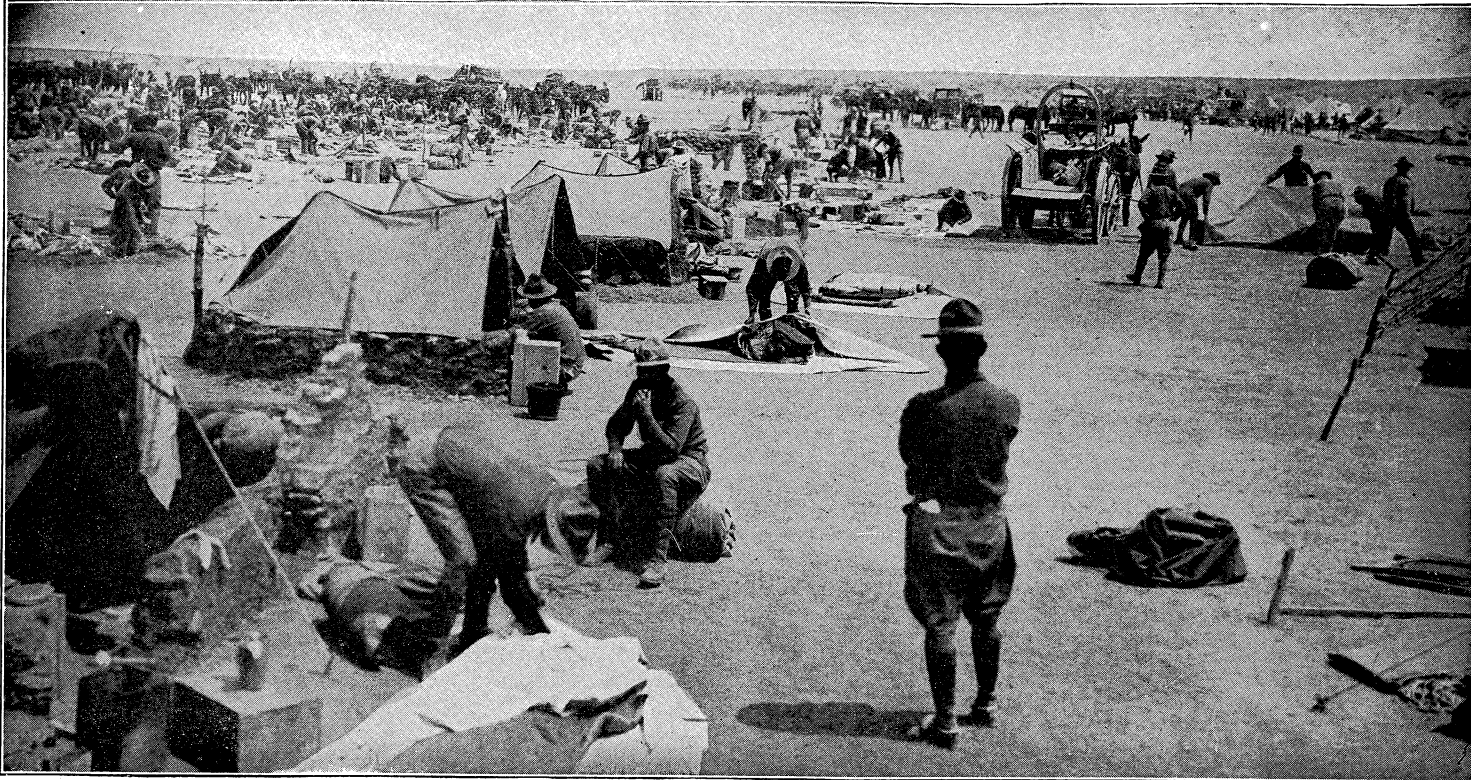


**MAJOR GENERAL HUGH L. SCOTT**

**MAJOR GEN'L HUGH L. SCOTT**  
National Army



# "PREPAREDNESS"



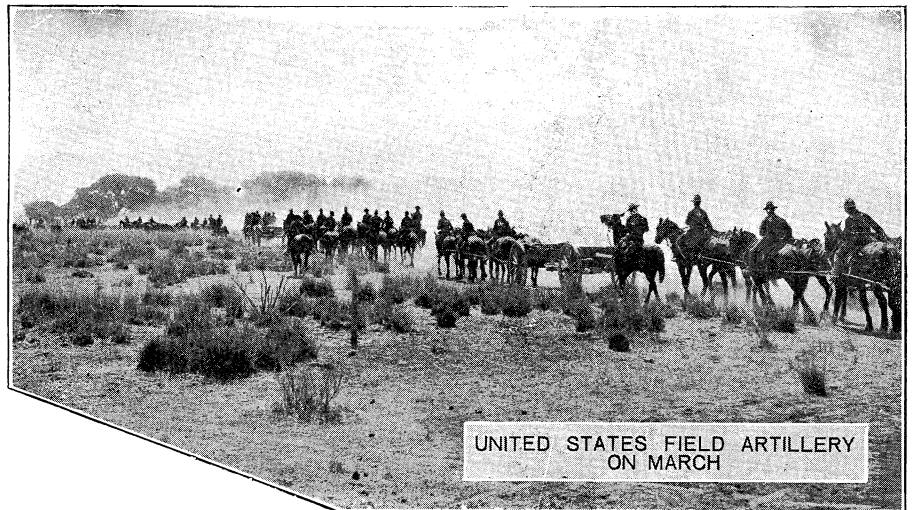
AMERICAN TROOPS BREAKING CAMP

## CHIEF ARMIES OF THE GREAT WAR

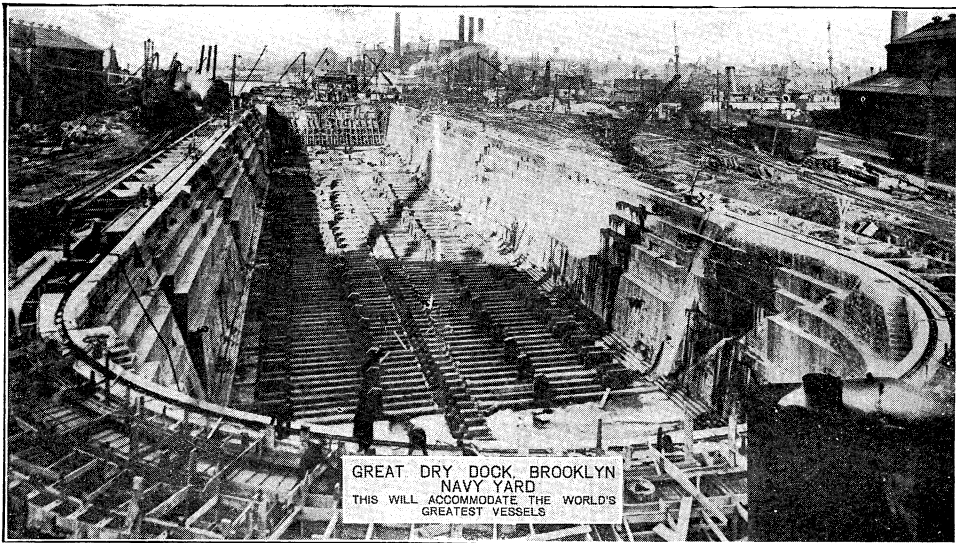
	Men Enlisted
United States	3,000,000
British Empire	7,500,000
France	6,000,000
Russia	14,000,000
Italy	2,500,000
Belgium, Serbia,	
Portugal	1,000,000
Roumania	500,000
Germany	10,500,000
<hr/>	
Entente Allies	34,500,000
Austria-Hungary	7,000,000
Bulgaria	500,000
Turkey	2,000,000
<hr/>	
Teutonic Allies	20,000,000
<hr/>	
Total all	54,500,000



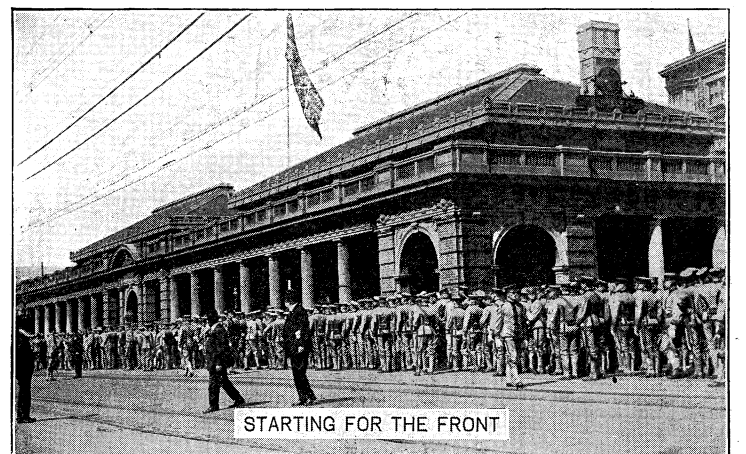
CAVALRY ON MARCH



UNITED STATES FIELD ARTILLERY ON MARCH



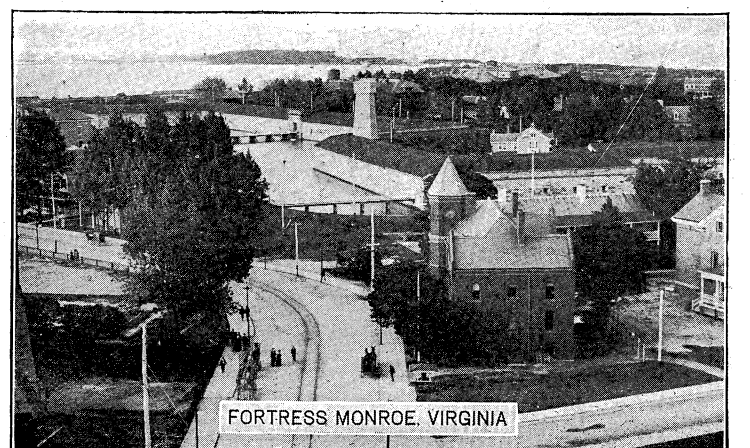
GREAT DRY DOCK, BROOKLYN NAVY YARD  
THIS WILL ACCOMMODATE THE WORLD'S GREATEST VESSELS



STARTING FOR THE FRONT



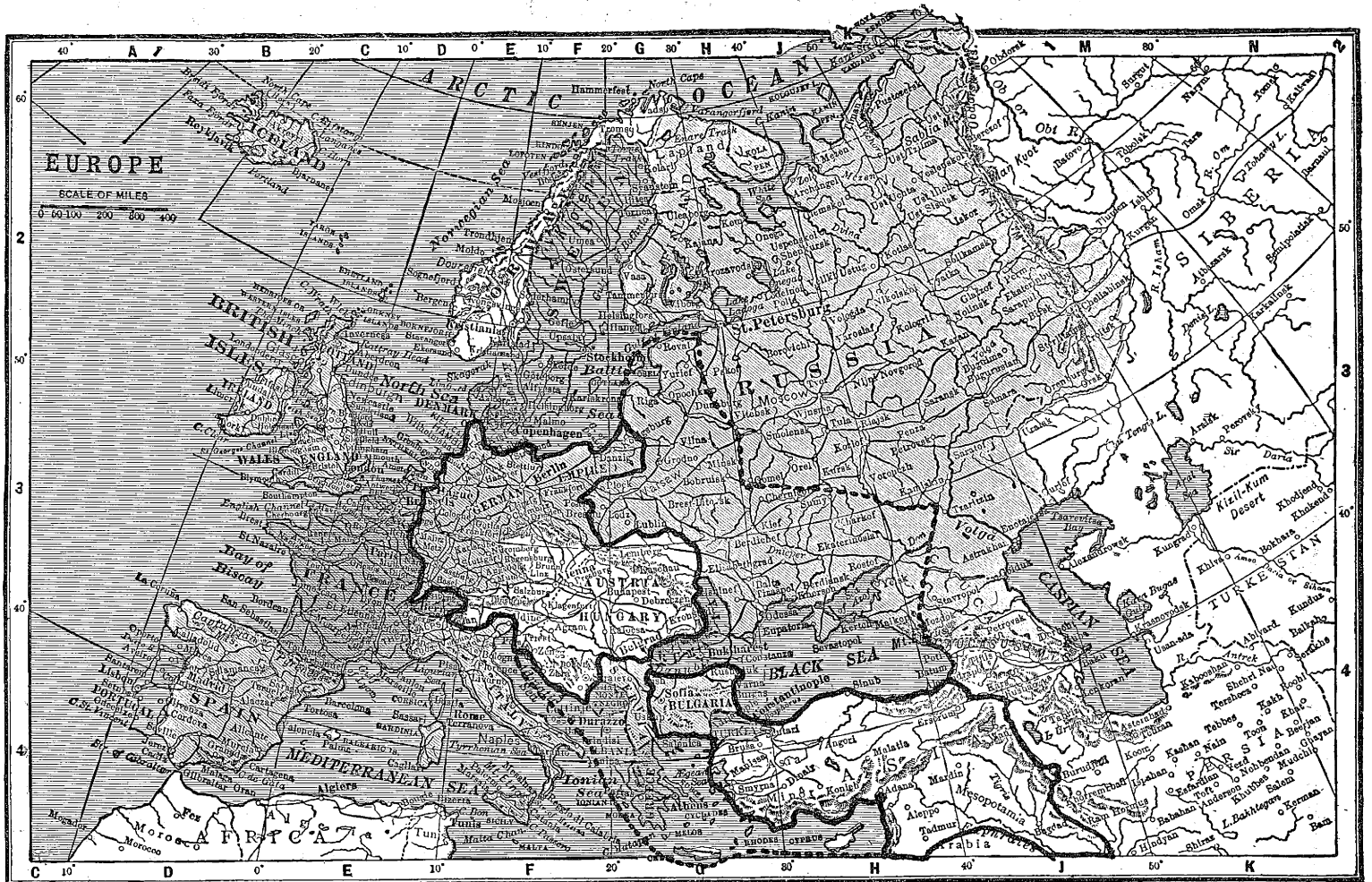
IN THE UNITED STATES ARSENAL, WATERVLIET, N. Y.  
GREAT LATHES FOR BORING LARGE GUNS



FORTRESS MONROE, VIRGINIA



MAP OF  
**EUROPE**  
 IN  
 1914  
 JUST BEFORE THE WAR  
 SHOWING  
 "MITTEL-EUROPA"



"MITTEL-EUROPA" or territory controlled by Germany until the Spring of 1918. SOLID lines show Boundaries of Central Powers. DOTTED lines show outside territory controlled by them.

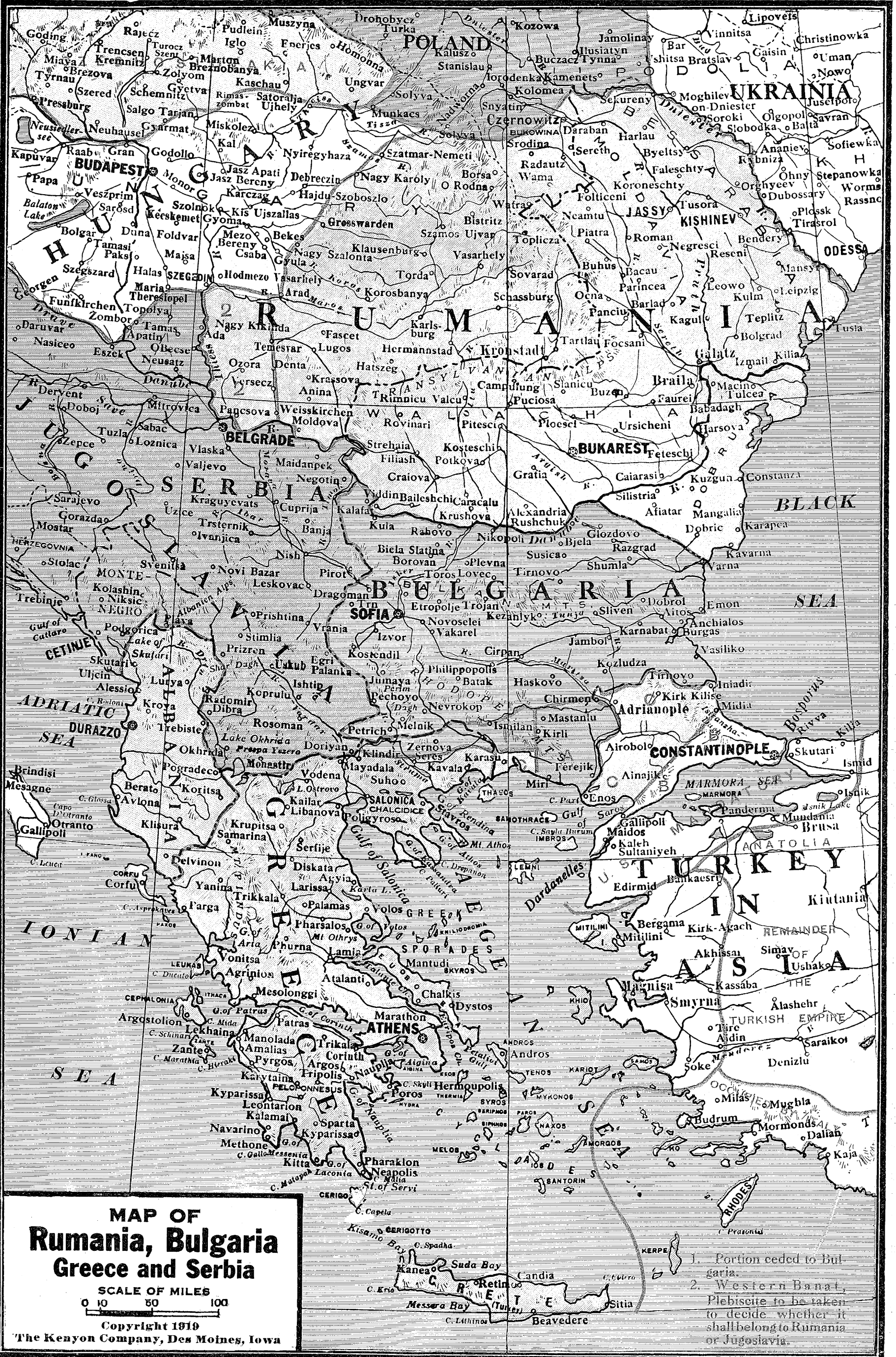


**MAP OF ITALY**  
 The Red Lines on Italy show the Territory Ceded to Her by Austria at the end of the World War.  
 A—FIUME  
 B—ZARA  
 C—SEBENECO  
 These Three Seaports become Free Cities.



# MAP OF RUMANIA, BULGARIA, GREECE AND SERBIA

The Red Lines on this Map show the Territory ceded to Greece and Bulgaria. They also show the manner in which Turkey has been divided up. A—New Free State established by The Peace Congress. B—City and Territory of Constantinople Internationalized. C—Portions ceded to Greece.



# IMPORTANT FACTS CONCERNING PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF EUROPE

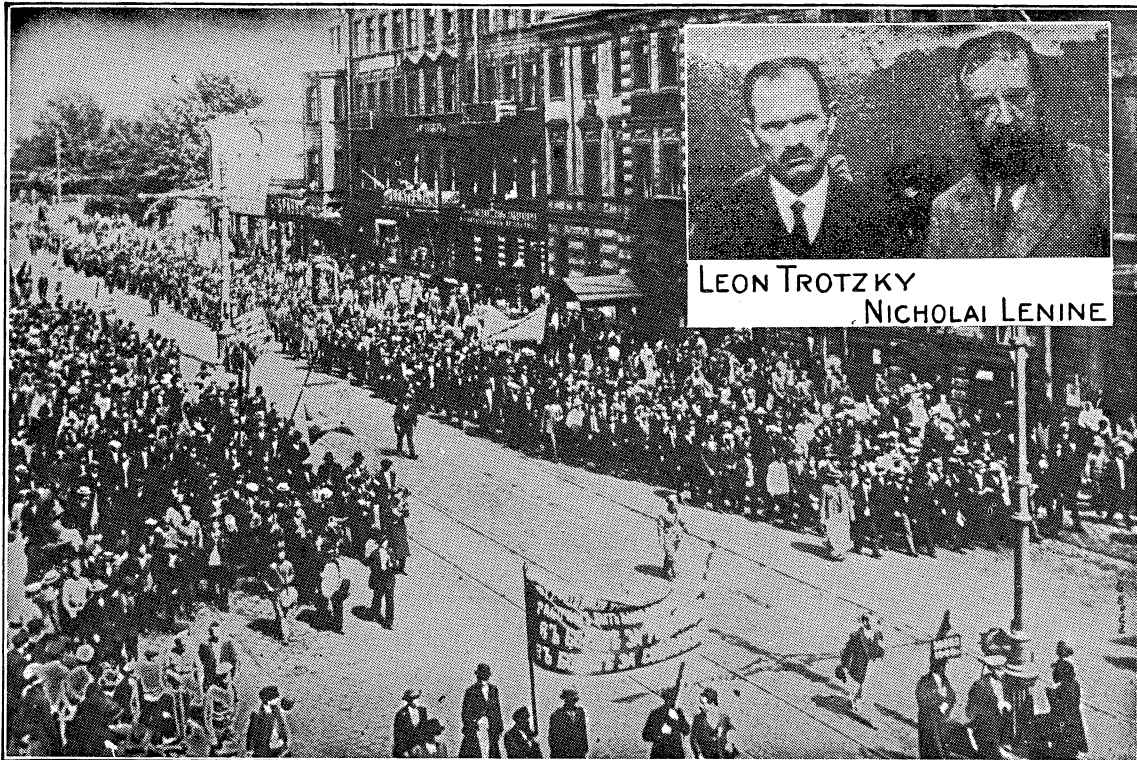
Countries	Are in Sq. Miles	Population	Form of Government	Pres-ent Con-stit-ution Adopt-ed	Present Ruler	Title of Ruler	Capital	National Debt 1914	Annual Revenue	Annual Expenditures	Imports	Exports	R. R. Mileage	No. of Post-offices	No. of Mer-chant Ships	ARMY		
																Peace Footing	War Footing	
Albania	24,460	1,050,000	Adm. by Italy	1917			Durrazzo											
Andorra	160	6,000	Republic				Andorra											
Austria	37,245	6,429,198	Kingdom	1919	Dr. Carl Reuner	Acting Pres.	Vienna	1,043,675,000	84,897,702	160,487,000	582,570,000	483,100,000	26,523	15,124	15,480	307,129	2,000,000	
Belgium	11,373	7,074,910	Kingdom	1831	Albert	King	Brussels	823,518,000	119,505,782	155,704,000	714,933,000	542,277,000	2,942	1,519	1,519	42,870	180,000	
Bulgaria	43,310	4,284,844	Principality	1878	Boris 3rd	King	Sofia	176,554,000	29,561,704	49,174,000	30,963,000	21,507,000	1,269	2,070	1,011	57,800	235,000	
Czechoslovakia	15,592	2,385,660	Republic	1918	Thomas G. Masaryk	President	Prague	96,716,000	25,020,261	29,856,000	152,993,000	119,740,000	2,115	1,073	4,439	14,070	50,000	
Denmark	145,000	2,750,000	Kingdom	1849	Christian X	King	Copenhagen	6,346,129,000	852,399,350	1,001,987,000	1,205,500,000	1,103,584,000	30,028	13,631	17,376	638,500	1,300,000	
Finland	207,054	38,961,945	Republic	1919	K. J. Stahberg	President	Helsingfors	1,194,052,000	678,303,308	879,656,000	2,152,295,000	1,866,777,000	37,026	40,769	4,658	622,483	3,260,000	
France	208,830	64,908,423	Republic	1919	A. Millerand	President	Paris	206,640,000	27,781,034	49,014,000	29,844,000	21,385,000	844	1,147	1,143	29,000	50,000	
Germany	25,014	2,433,806	Kingdom	1864	Carl Ebert	President	Athens	461,649,000	73,583,688	101,845,000	261,235,000	986,810,000	1,908	1,908	1,729	34,289	68,850	
Greece	12,648	5,898,429	Kingdom	1815	Wilhelmina	Queen	The Hague											
Holland	109,000	15,232,159	Republic	1919	Karl Huszar	President	Budapest	2,921,153,000	452,668,984	505,841,000	600,560,000	360,310,000	10,640	9,823	5,327	238,617	2,000,000	
Hungary	110,646	32,473,253	Kingdom	1848	Victor Emmanuel III	King	Rome	1,921,153,000	700,000,000	850,000,000	1,305,000,000	280,000,000	40	21	21	5,327	50,000	
Italy	5,603	250,000	Kingdom	1905	Nicholas I	King	Cetinje	97,215,000	38,749,682	42,800,000	108,613,000	70,889,000	1,912	3,099	8,552	80,000	110,000	
Montenegro	124,130	2,302,698	Kingdom	1814	Haakon VII	King	Christiana											
Norway	135,367	2,000,000	Republic	1918	Gar I Jos. Pilsudski	President	Lisbon	947,603,000	66,699,631	80,909,000	69,943,000	33,448,000	1,758	3,682	640	30,000	300,000	
Poland	35,490	5,423,132	Republic	1918	Manuel de Arriaga	President	Bukharest	316,693,000	90,509,232	103,507,000	79,913,000	73,230,000	2,207	2,968	520	113,642	170,000	
Portugal	53,689	7,200,000	Kingdom	1866	Ferdinand	King	Petrograd	4,536,939,000	1,348,613,945	1,860,988,000	470,020,000	514,099,000	44,550	13,983	3,419	1,200,000	4,000,000	
Rumania	8,647,657	160,095,200	Republic	1918	Vladimir Lenin	Dictator	Borjo	126,232,000	20,008,312	42,838,000	14,192,000	17,945,000	430	1,502	1,502	35,605	200,000	
Russia	32	8,500	Republic	1889	Peter I	King	Belgrade	1,814,270,000	205,655,000	219,941,000	167,471,000	162,033,000	9,020	4,845	855	115,432	250,000	
San Marino	33,891	2,493,770	Kingdom	1876	Alfonso XIII	King	Madrid	166,810,000	55,414,147	73,352,000	165,304,000	126,759,000	8,451	3,739	2,938	69,081	350,000	
Serbia	194,783	5,476,441	Kingdom	1809	Dr. G. Moutier	President	Stockholm	23,614,000	28,446,489	20,350,000	309,213,000	211,849,000	3,131	1,953	1,953	208,726	350,000	
Sweden	172,876	3,741,971	Republic	1-48	George 5th	King and Em.	Bern	166,810,000	28,446,489	20,350,000	309,213,000	211,849,000	3,131	1,953	1,953	208,726	350,000	
Switzerland	15,976	3,741,971	Republic	1-48	George 5th	King and Em.	Bern	23,614,000	28,446,489	20,350,000	309,213,000	211,849,000	3,131	1,953	1,953	208,726	350,000	
United Kingdom	121,391	45,216,665	Kingdom				London	3,443,799,000	737,655,773	961,100,000	3,040,127,000	1,840,415,000	23,280	23,925	21,189	742,086	802,074	

## WORLD WAR COSTS OF THE PRINCIPAL NATIONS IN TREASURE AND MEN

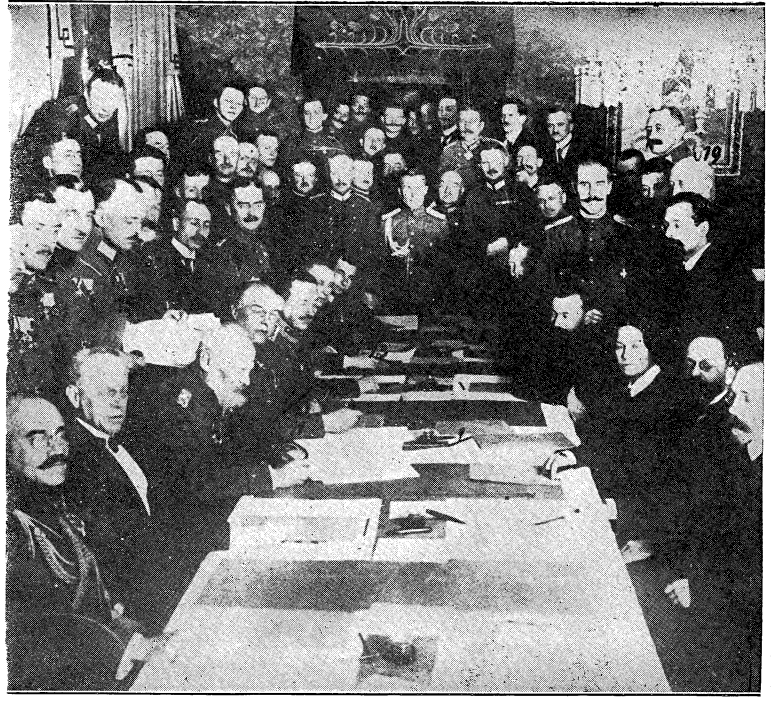
Countries	Treasure in Dollars	Population	Wealth per capita	National Income	Income per capita	National Debt	Debt per capita	Debt per cent of wealth	Debt per cent of wealth before war	Interest on national debt	Interest on national debt before war	Interest ratio to national income	Interest ratio to national income before war	Total cost in dollars	Total cost per capita	Total cost per cent of wealth	Total cost per cent of annual income	Original man power ages 18-45	Mobilized	Men killed	Per cent of total enlistments	Wounded	Percent of total enlistments	Captured or missing	Per cent of total enlistments	MEN	
																										Grand Total	Entente Allies & Cen. Powers
United States	107,000,000	100,000,000	2,804	15,500,000,000	155	1,282,044,346	12.33	8.11%	12.33%	1,176,500,000	24,512,000	1.96%	0.0611%	35,000,000,000	357.10	11.67%	58.33%	22,000,000	4,272,521	78,520	1.77%	201,847	4.72%	8,668	0.20%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Great Britain (not including colonies)	46,000,000	90,000,000	2,609	12,000,000,000	133	36,133,000,000	36.13	30.15%	73.36%	1,575,000,000	122,500,000	10.16%	1.11%	40,000,000,000	442.86	33.33%	28.06%	22,000,000	7,500,000	692,065	9.23%	2,018,477	4.72%	8,668	0.20%	132,700,000	132,700,000
France	40,000,000	60,000,000	2,250	7,000,000,000	116	2,448,000,000	21.07	40.00%	160.23%	1,558,000,000	212,200,000	22.26%	2.12%	23,000,000,000	386.67	31.11%	23.33%	34,000,000	12,000,000	1,385,300	18.47%	2,018,477	4.72%	8,668	0.20%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Russia	175,000,000	120,000,000	1,416	28,000,000,000	231	4,816,000,000	4.18	47.08%	160.23%	1,558,000,000	212,200,000	22.26%	2.12%	23,000,000,000	192.17	41.67%	35.71%	34,000,000	12,000,000	1,385,300	18.47%	2,018,477	4.72%	8,668	0.20%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Italy	36,000,000	40,000,000	1,111	7,500,000,000	187	2,815,000,000	3.76	31.50%	78.19%	548,000,000	93,300,000	7.31%	2.07%	10,000,000,000	277.78	25.00%	133.33%	8,000,000	5,500,000	400,000	7.27%	947,000	17.22%	1,293,000	25.33%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Japan	56,000,000	28,000,000	500	2,600,000,000	93	1,300,000,000	1.50	4.64%	23.21%	65,000,000	18,000,000	7.31%	2.50%	10,000,000,000	477.78	25.00%	133.33%	8,000,000	5,500,000	400,000	7.27%	947,000	17.22%	1,293,000	25.33%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Portugal	6,000,000	5,000,000	833	500,000,000	100	560,000,000	112	11.20%	93.33%	90,000,000	35,000,000	3.90%	3.60%	1,000,000,000	120.00	12.00%	120.00%	1,500,000	267,000	20,000	7.49%	60,000	22.47%	10,000	3.75%	1,500,000	1,500,000
Belgium	7,500,000	7,500,000	266	100,000,000	13	800,000,000	106.67	15.00%	106.67%	75,000,000	20,000,000	7.50%	20%	950,000,000	126.67	47.50%	20%	1,500,000	267,000	20,000	7.49%	60,000	22.47%	10,000	3.75%	1,500,000	1,500,000
Rumania	7,500,000	2,000,000	266	100,000,000	13	390,000,000	166.66	62.50%	40%	75,000,000	20,000,000	7.50%	20%	950,000,000	126.67	47.50%	20%	1,500,000	267,000	20,000	7.49%	60,000	22.47%	10,000	3.75%	1,500,000	1,500,000
Montenegro and Serbia	5,000,000	5,000,000	130	500,000,000	100	500,000,000	100	100%	100%	500,000,000	500,000,000	100%	100%	500,000,000	100	100%	100%	5,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000	100%	5,000,000	100%	5,000,000	100%	5,000,000	5,000,000
Greece	5,000,000	5,000,000	130	500,000,000	100	500,000,000	100	100%	100%	500,000,000	500,000,000	100%	100%	500,000,000	100	100%	100%	5,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000	100%	5,000,000	100%	5,000,000	100%	5,000,000	5,000,000
Germany	65,000,000	10,000,000	1,231	5,000,000,000	50	3,989,000,000	39.89	60.90%	75.26%	1,950,000,000	200,000,000	19.50%	1.90%	10,000,000,000	615.38	50.00%	47.09%	11,000,000	11,000,000	1,611,104	14.65%	3,653,143	33.48%	772,522	7.02%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Austria-Hungary	53,000,000	4,000,000	132.5	400,000,000	40	513,000,000	128.25	13.63%	33.96%	950,000,000	165,700,000	19.00%	3.45%	2,000,000,000	513.25	25.65%	12.67%	12,000,000	6,500,000	800,000	12.31%	3,200,000	49.23%	1,211,000	18.63%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Bulgaria	4,755,000	8,000,000	841	400,000,000	40	171,000,000	114.62	13.63%	33.96%	950,000,000	165,700,000	19.00%	3.45%	2,000,000,000	420.61	50%	500%	1,000,000	400,000	101,224	25.31%	152,399	38.10%	10,825	8.12%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Turkey	21,274,000	645,000,000	376	105,258,000,000	164	10,027,000,000	15.46	4.60%	63.20%	119,000,000	6,574,500,000	5.44%	1.14%	71,000,000,000	111.02	50%	133.33%	101,700,000	33,676,864	4,817,485	12.14%	7,605,542	39.00%	6,983,785	11.90%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Entente Allies	491,000,000	132,000,000	1,314	16,359,000,000	124	10,027,000,000	15.46	4.60%	63.20%	119,000,000	6,574,500,000	5.44%	1.14%	71,000,000,000	111.02	50%	133.33%	101,700,000	33,676,864	4,817,485	12.14%	7,605,542	39.00%	6,983,785	11.90%	132,700,000	132,700,000
Central Powers	144,020,000	777,000,000	917	121,558,000,000	151	2,815,000,000	3.76	31.50%	78.19%	548,000,000	93,300,000	7.31%	2.07%	10,000,000													



## VIEWS IN RUSSIA



LEON TROTSKY  
NICHOLAI LENINE



IN THE COUNCIL CHAMBER AT BREST-LITOVSK, WHERE PEACE NEGOTIATIONS BETWEEN RUSSIA AND THE CENTRAL POWERS WERE DISCUSSED

CROWD OF BOLSHEVIK SYMPATHIZERS MARCHING THROUGH THE STREETS OF PETROGRAD. IN THE RIGHT HAND UPPER CORNER ARE PICTURES OF PREMIER LENINE, AND TROTSKY, LATE FOREIGN MINISTER OF THE BOLSHEVIK GOVERNMENT

### DIVISIONAL INSIGNIA OF EACH UNITED STATES ARMY CORPS

(FURNISHED BY THE ADJUTANT GENERAL OF THE WAR DEPARTMENT)

NO. OF DIVISION	NAME	DESIGN	NO. OF DIVISION	NAME	DESIGN
1st	"First Division"	Crimson figure "1" on khaki background.	33rd		Yellow cross on black circle.
2nd		Indian head, with background, star and shield; colors varying according to unit.	34th	"Sandstorm Division"	Black circle encircling a red bovine skull, reminiscent of Camp Cody, New Mexico, where division trained.
3rd	"Marne Division"	Three white stripes diagonally superimposed upon a square field of royal blue.	35th	None	Santa Fe Cross within two circles of varying colors, the outer one divided into four arcs.
4th		Four green leaves of ivy superimposed upon a diamond of olive drab.	36th	"Lone Star Division"	Circular disk of olive drab cloth upon which is superimposed an arrow head of cobalt blue and within the arrow head is an olive drab block letter "T." The block letter "T" represents Texas and the arrowhead Oklahoma.
5th	"Red Diamond"	Red diamond.	37th	None	Red circle with a white border.
6th	None	Six pointed star of bright red.	38th		Shield of blue and red upon which is superimposed the monogram "C. Y."
7th	None	Two black equilateral triangles with a base of three centimeters superimposed upon a red circle with a diameter of six centimeters.	39th		
8th	"Pathfinder"	Dark blue shield on which is superimposed a silver figure "8" pierced by a gold arrow.	40th	"Sunshine Division"	
9th	None	None.	41st	"Sunset Division"	Golden sun superimposed on field of red setting behind blue hills.
10th	None	Roman numeral X, in gold, centered in and enclosed by, but not in contact with a circular ring of the same color both imposed upon a field of marine blue contained in a square.	42nd	"Rainbow Division"	Parti-colored quadrant, suggesting, in conventional design, the arc of a rainbow.
11th	"Lafayette Division"	Head of Lafayette in circle.	76th		
12th	"Plymouth Division"	Figure "12" in red on blue ground, pierced by bayonet. Gold border and two gold stars.	77th	"Metropolitan Division"	Gold Statue of Liberty on blue background.
13th	None	Circular disc of blue cloth 3 1/2" in diameter on which is superimposed a red horseshoe with the opening to the top in said opening the figure of a cat in black and underneath such figures the numerals 13 in white block figures.	78th		Red cloth semicircle 3" in diameter crossed diagonally from upper right hand edge of circumference down to opposite corner by a white bolt of lightning.
14th	"Wolverine Division"	Shield shaped panel of deep green upon which is superimposed a disk of yellow with black rim, containing a black silhouette of the head, shoulders and paw of a wolverine. Across the shield above the disk is the word "WOLVERINE" in yellow block letters.	79th	"Liberty Division"	Gray Lorraine Cross on blue shield. Symbol of liberty, justice and freedom.
15th	None	None.	80th	"The Blue Ridge Division"	Shield of olive drab cloth upon which are superimposed three blue hills, representing the Blue Ridge Mountains.
16th	None	None.	81st	"Stonewall Division"	Wildcat of varying color.
17th	None	None.	82nd	"All American Division"	Red square with blue circle superimposed. With the letters "A. A." embroidered in the circle, gold for officers and white for enlisted men.
18th	"Cactus"	Figure "18" in white superimposed on green cactus plant, with motto—"Noli me tangere."	83rd	None	Golden monogram "O. H. I. O." on black triangle.
19th	"Twilight Division"	None.	84th	"Lincoln Division"	Red hatchet with blue handle inside red circle. Word "Lincoln" in blue letters and numerals "84" also in blue.
20th	None	None.	85th	"Custer Division"	Scarlet letters "C. D." mounted on circle of khaki cloth.
26th	"Yankee Division"	Diamond of khaki cloth with monogram "YD" of dark blue superimposed.	86th	"Black Hawk"	A red shield upon which is superimposed a black hawk with spread wings and the letters "BH" in black on a small red shield on its breast.
27th	"New York"	Circle of black with band of red inside of which on a black field are seven stars and "N. Y." in monogram. The seven stars represent the constellation of Orion which was adopted in honor of the commander, Gen. J. F. O'Ryan.	87th	None	Acorn superimposed on dark green circle.
28th	"Keystone Division"	Red keystone.	88th	None	Two figures "8" crossing at right angles to each other giving the appearance of Maltese cross made of loops. Colors varying.
29th	"Blue & Gray"	Korean symbol of good luck in blue and gray. The colors represent union in arms of North and South.	89th	"Middle West Division"	Black letters "M. W." surrounded by circle of black.
30th	"Old Hickory Division"	Monogram in blue, the letter "O" surrounding the letter "H" with three "X's" (Roman numerals for 30) forming the cross bar of the letter "H," all on a maroon background.	90th	"Alamo Division"	Conventionalized "TO" in red—Texas and Oklahoma.
31st	"Dixie Division"	Letters "D. D." superimposed on a triangle of red and blue.	91st		Green fir tree.
32nd	"Iron Jaws"	Barred arrow of red.	92nd		Buffalo. Color varying.
			93rd		Blue helmet on black circle.



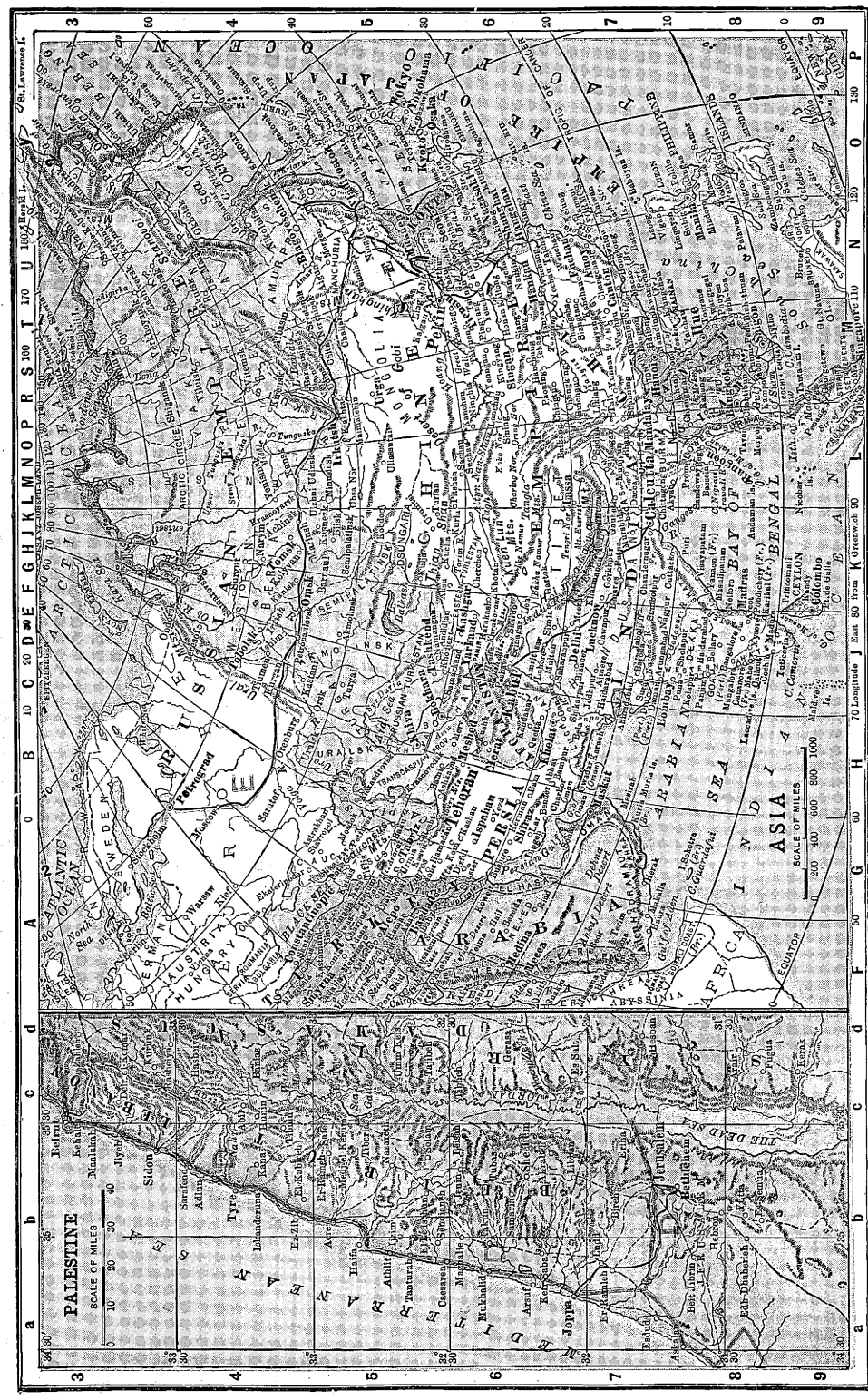
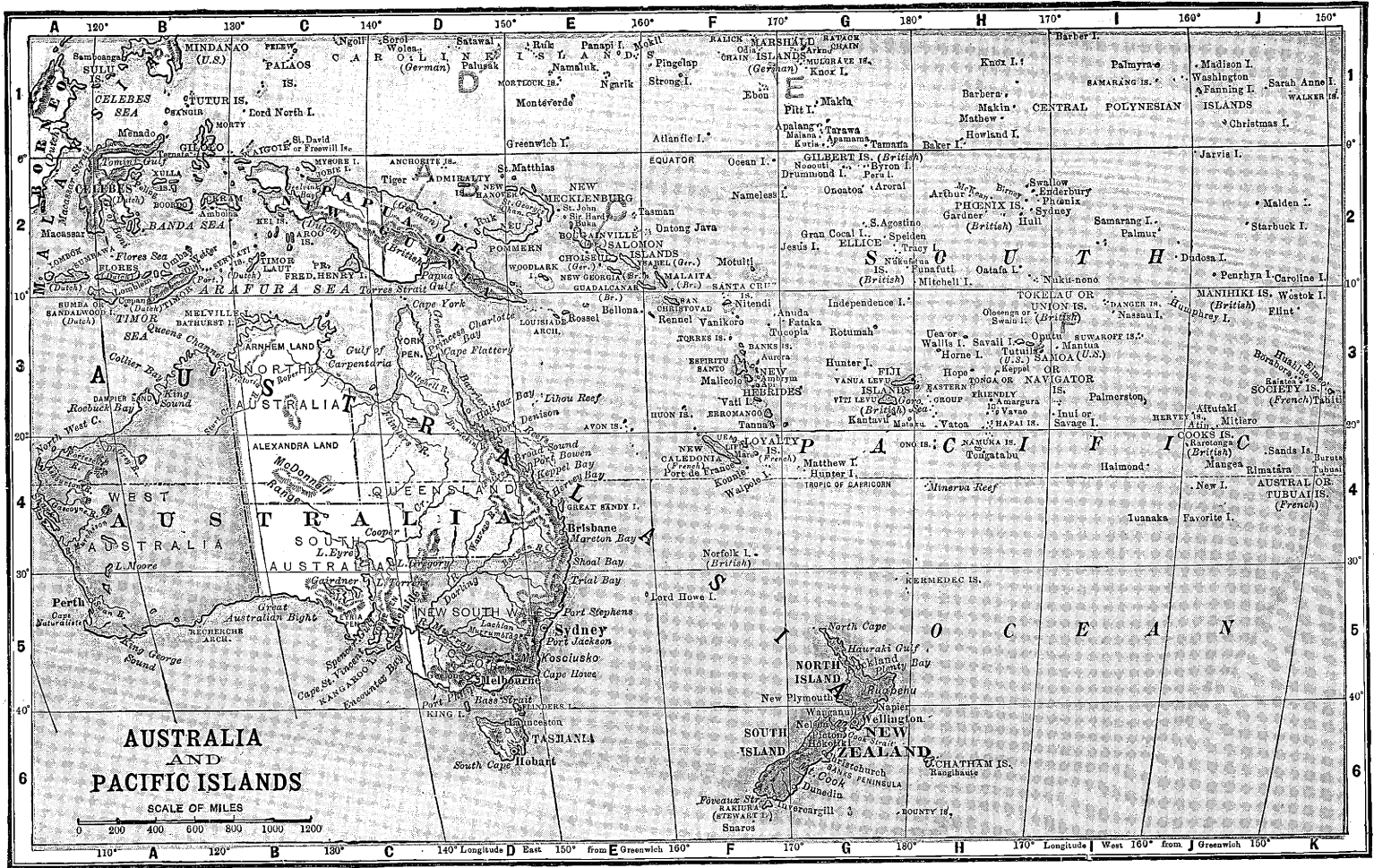
# WORLD WAR CHANGES IN THREE CONTINENTS

## Map OF Australia

On the Map of Australia the Letters in Red show former German Possessions.

- (A) German New Guinea—70,000 square miles (to Australia).
- (B) Bismark Archipelago—20,000 square miles (to Australia).
- (C) Solomon Islands—4,200 square miles.
- (D) Caroline Islands—560 square miles.
- (E) Marshall Islands—150 square miles.
- (F) Samoan Islands—1,000 square miles.

(Note)—All rights to these Islands ceded to the Allied Governments. Total Population 600,000. Area about 96,000 square miles.

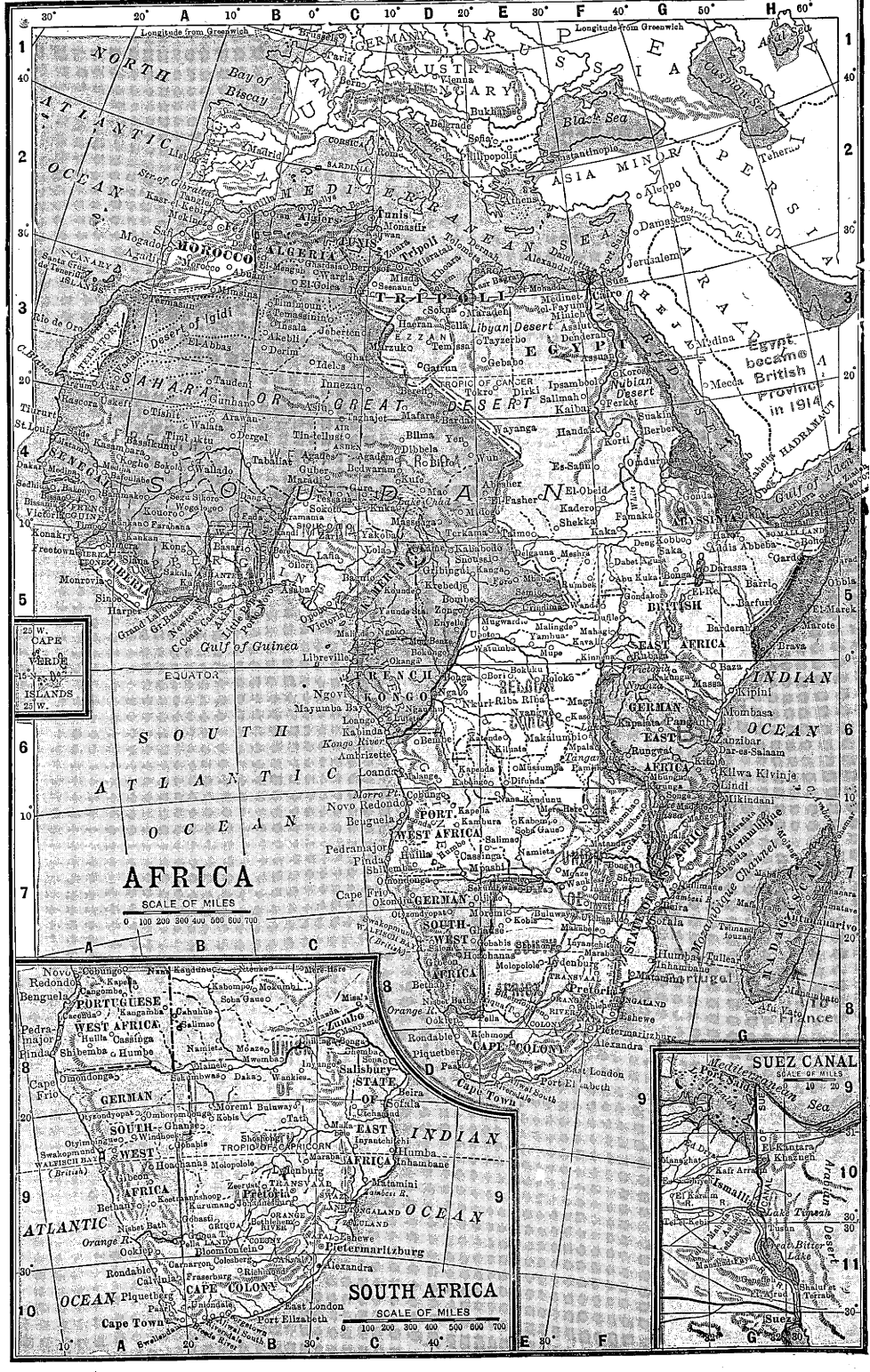


## Map of Asia

(With special Map of PALESTINE)

On the above Map Letters in Red show changes as follows:

- (A) Kiao Chau and Shantung Peninsula (All German interests ceded to Japan).
- (B) Tiensin (All German rights ceded to China).
- (C) Hankau (All German rights ceded to China).
- (D) Solid Red Line through Palestine shows course of British Army on its route from Suez to Beirut.
- (E) Trans-Siberian Railroad from Vladivostok to Petrograd.



## Map of Africa

(Former German Possessions are Shown in Green)

- (A) German Southwest Africa—area 322,450 square miles. Population 400,000.
  - (B) German East Africa—area 384,180 square miles. Population 7,000,000.
  - (C) German Kamerun—area 191,130 square miles. Population 4,000,000.
  - (D) German Togo Land—area 33,660 square miles.
- All these German Colonies with an area of over 900,000 square miles and population of about 9,000,000 people ceded to Allied Powers.



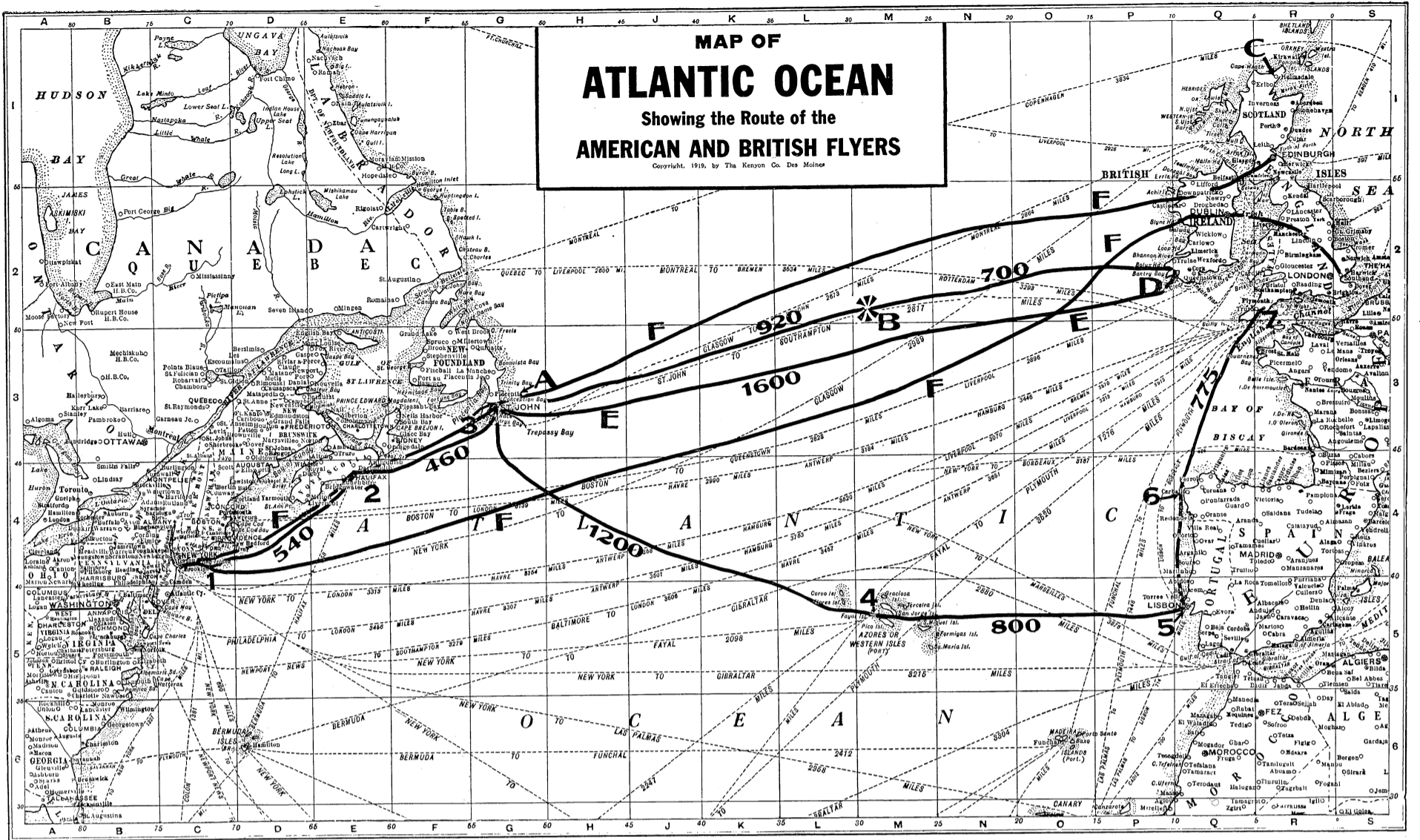
# MAP OF WESTERN RUSSIA AND THE UKRAINE REPUBLIC

SCALE 75 MILES TO 1 INCH.





# AIRSHIP FLIGHTS OVER THE ATLANTIC



## AN AMERICAN MADE THE FIRST SUCCESSFUL FLIGHT IN AN AIRSHIP ACROSS THE ATLANTIC OCEAN



THE NAVAL SEAPLANE N. C. 4, READY TO START ON ITS TRIP ACROSS THE ATLANTIC OCEAN

## AN AMERICAN MADE FIRST SUCCESSFUL FLIGHT IN AN AIR-SHIP ACROSS THE ATLANTIC OCEAN

Commander A. C. Reed of the American Navy, with five companions, started May 8th from Rockaway Beach, New York, landed at Plymouth, England, May 31st, 1919, in the sea-plane N. C. 4. His course as shown on the map was:

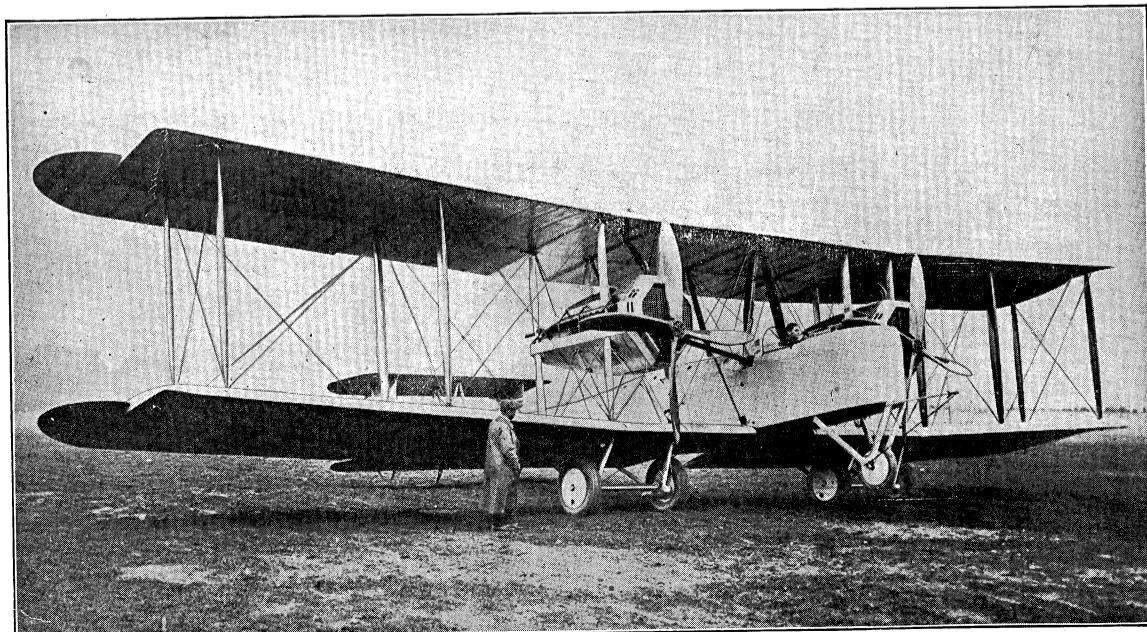
1. Rockaway Beach.
2. Halifax 1st stopping place.
3. Trepassy Bay 2nd stopping place.
4. Ponta Delgado 3rd stopping place.
5. Lisbon 4th stopping place.
6. Half way between Lisbon and Plymouth.
7. Plymouth.

May 18th, 1919. Harry Hawker, an Australian, accompanied by Lt. Com. Grieve of the British Air Service, started from St. John, Newfoundland, for the Coast of Ireland. They flew over 800 miles when engine trouble compelled them to descend. They were picked up on May 19th and landed in Scotland on May 26th.

- A. St. John, Newfoundland.
- B. Spot where Hawker descended.
- C. Thurso, where Hawker was landed.

England's successful attempt was made by Captain John Alcock and Lt. A. W. Brown of the English Air Service, who made the first non-stop flight across the Atlantic, June 14 and 15, 1919, in sixteen hours and twelve minutes. They started from St. John, Newfoundland, and landed at Clifden, Ireland, 1,600 miles as shown by E on the map.

The second successful attempt was made by the English dirigible R-34, which completed the longest voyage of its kind in history. The distance covered was 3,200 miles in 108 hours. She carried 31 persons. The air craft started from Edinburgh, Scotland on July 2, 1919, and landed at Roosevelt Field, Mineola, N. Y., July 6th. She left on her return journey July 9th and reached England July 13th. Route shown on map by letter F.



VICKERS' VIMY AIRPLANE, USED BY CAPTAIN ALCOCK IN HIS NON-STOP FLIGHT ACROSS THE ATLANTIC



COMMANDER A. C. REED  
Of the American Airship NC-4. The first man to cross the Atlantic in the race between the Americans and English.



Continued From Page Eight

ean and Red Seas. In the first week of February, 1916, a Turkish force of about 15,000 attempted to attack the canal. The British troops were helped by the gunfire of British and French war ships in the canal and the Turks were soon in full retreat.

In December, 1916, after a period of preparation, the British began a new advance along the Tigris. Lieut-General F. S. Maude, with 120,000 men and a large flotilla of river war craft, did not meet with any serious resistance until January 9, 1917, when there was two days' sharp fighting with the Turks entrenched northeast of Kut-el-Amara. During the next seven weeks a series of engagements took place for the possession of the different positions on the two sides of the Tigris river and in the bends, where the Turks had many excellent vantage points. But one by one the British succeeded in driving the Turks out, and on February 26 they had the satisfaction of again occupying Kut-el-Amara.

They continued to make rapid headway, and on March 11, 1917, occupied the historic city of Bagdad. An important result of their success was that Turkish resistance to the Russians collapsed, and with small opposition the Russians advanced into Mesopotamia and effected a junction with the British. In the process a considerable portion of the Turkish army was cut off.

That Palestine should once more be the scene of great events was another surprise produced by the war, but since the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire was one of the aims of the Allies, it seemed a matter of course that a British army from Egypt, under the command of General Sir Archibald Murray, should march into ancient Judea. Having laid down a military railway from Suez across the Sinai Desert to Rafa, on the Turkish border, the British began the invasion of Palestine, where heavy but indecisive fighting occurred during the summer of 1917. In June, 1917, Gen'l Sir E. H. H. Allenby took command of the expeditionary force.

After a long postponement, their advance was resumed in October, 1917. Under cover of heavy artillery fire the British took Beersheba on October 6. An advance on Jerusalem now followed. On the 11th of December, Jerusalem itself fell, the Holy City passing from the domination of the Mohammendan Turks to the Christian British. The Turks fled with the British in close pursuit, and the year ended with the important places of the Holy Land wrested from "the unspeakable Turk."

**THE ITALIAN REVERSE**—In the middle of May the Italians initiated an exceedingly fierce offensive. It lasted eighteen days, despite the fact that the Austrians, against whom it was directed, had been able to strengthen their lines with troops drawn from the Russian front. The Italian drive was made on a front extending from Tolmino, just across the frontier in Austria, to the Adriatic sea. A foothold had been gained on the Carso Plateau, in 1916, after the capture of Gorizia. By attacking unexpectedly the Italians succeeded in gaining considerable ground in May, 1917. They were handicapped, however, by lack of shells, and the advance was soon halted by the reinforced Austrians.

On August 19 the Italians launched another great offensive, along a thirty-seven-mile front, from the region of Tolmino to near the head of the Adriatic sea. On August 24 they gained a great success by occupying Monte Santo, one of the great mountain defenses. A week later they had pushed ahead seven and one-half miles on a front of eleven miles, occupying more than forty Austrian towns and villages.

Here their advance was held and the Austrians, strongly reinforced by German veterans from the western front, made a fierce attack on October 24 upon the Italian lines along the Isonzo river. The Italian line broke. On October 28 the Huns entered Gorizia. The Italians fell back in disorderly retreat to northern Italy.

Their first attempt to hold the onrushing invaders was made behind lines along the Tagliamento river in Venetia. On November 4 this river was reached by the Austrians and Germans, who swept over the new defenses. The Italians were pushed back to the Piave river by November 9. Here a real stand was made. The Teutons effected several crossings and bade fair to sweep down upon the famous city of Venice, which was especially fortified for the anticipated attack. On November 19 the Central Powers reached the line on Monte Tamba and Monte Monfenera, the last defensive positions before the Venetian plain, only eight miles distant. The Italians made one final, desperate stand and held the invaders there for the balance of the year. Venice was imperiled, but it had not fallen, and winter mercifully settled down to save the Italians from what appeared to be a complete defeat. German propaganda and money undoubtedly played a large part in this sudden and surprising reverse of a strong and apparently successful army.

**RUSSIA DROPS OUT OF THE WAR**—Important and far-reaching events occurred in Russia in 1917, eliminating that country from the fighting ranks of the Allies. The greatest political and social change since the French Revolution, in 1789, was brought to pass in Russia in March, 1917, when the greatest autocracy in the world was overthrown and the people took the reins of government into their own hands.

The Russian revolution began in the industrial field, with a strike paralyzing the life of Petrograd, the capital. On March 2, the revolutionary note was struck in the Duma, the Russian Congress, when one of the members boldly asserted that the government was irresponsible. The first act of the revolution seemed to be little more than a bread strike. But the disaffection grew, spreading among the army as well as the hungry civilians. The government resorted to its usual methods of brutal repression, but they failed. The soldiers made it clear that they did not longer propose to support the old despotism. The workingmen and the soldiers united against the Czar. On March 15 the Duma and the Workmen's Council appointed a provisional government, selecting two of their number to demand of the Czar that he abdicate, along with his son and heir. The Czar signed the decree of abdication and autocracy was at an end in Russia. Anarchy supplanted it. The first great issue which divided the Russian nation was the question of peace. The split came when the new foreign minister, in a note to the Allies on May 1, tried to commit the provisional Russian government to a continuance of the war policy of the Czar. His resignation was demanded. The socialists were in the saddle. They secured the adoption of their "peace at any price" ideas. Alexander Kerensky became the man of the hour, as minister of war. The United States recognized the provisional government; other allies followed. Kerensky was magnetic; he became the military leader of his country as well as the political. He rallied the remnants of the Russian armies to him and proposed an offensive against the Central Empires. It was a great effort, but not destined to last more than a couple of weeks. Soon there was a complete reversal of fortune and the advancing Russian troops mutinied, retreated and finally fled in a rout. From that time on the Russian army was no longer a fighting force.

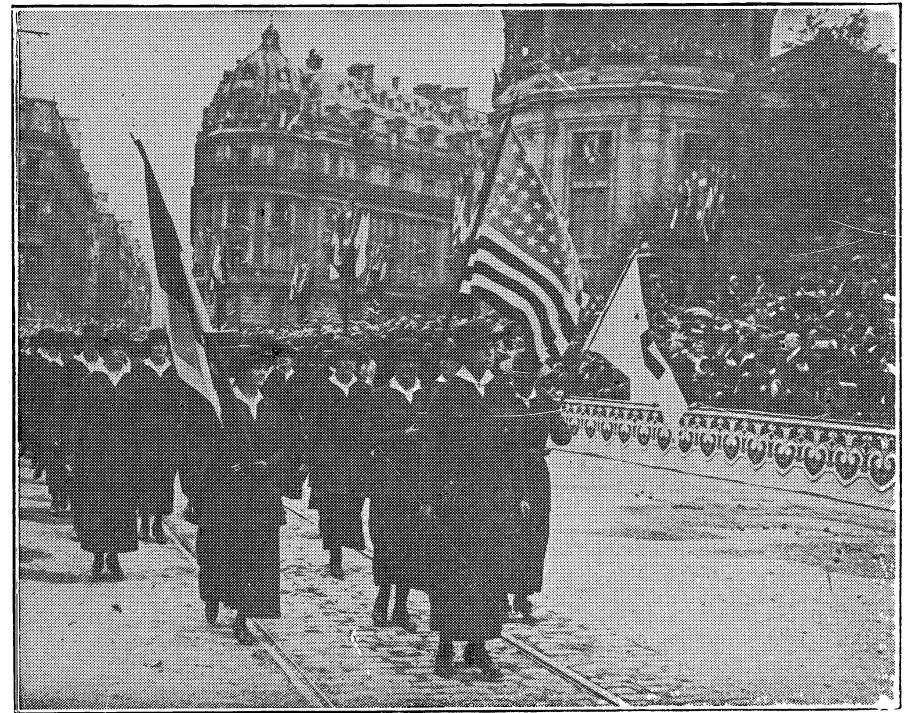
The object of the Russian offensive, which was launched on July 1, with Kerensky leading, was Lemberg, the capital of Galicia. By July 11, Halicz, the strategic key to Lemberg, was occupied by the Russians, and a week later the drive reached its farthest point, forty miles east of Lemberg. On July 21 the Russian army was in a mutinous condition and the retreat in Galicia was in full swing, extending in a couple of days to the whole 150-mile front. The pursuing Austro-German armies swept everything before them. But this was not the last of Russia's misfortunes. Toward the end of August the Germans began to make a thrust at Riga, in western Russia. The Russians abandoned Riga and fled in a rout. Thereafter they were to make no serious stand against any of the Teutonic forces, but either fled, surrendered or fraternized with the enemy. Russia was definitely out of the war. German diplomatic intrigue and German force of arms had broken down the great Russian monarchy and army. Russia sued for peace, and a humiliating treaty was signed at Brest-Litovsk, March 3, 1918. Germany had won the greatest victory of the war by removing Russia from the ranks of the Allies.

**SUMMARY OF 1917 CAMPAIGNS**—Neither side could consider with unmixed satisfaction the results of 1917. The Allies saw with deep sorrow the disastrous defeat of Italy, who only by the most strenuous exertions was holding the foe away from her richest provinces. The loss of Russia and her vast man power and great resources—all now open to Germany—was another and most severe blow. The expenditure of tens of thousands of brave men on the west front had made little change there. France was war weary and bled white, yet the German foe still held tenaciously to their lines.

The entrance into the war on the side of the Allies of the United States of America was, however, as staggering to the Central Powers as the defeat of Italy and defection of Russia had proved to their opponents. The vast resources, abounding energy and militant man power of the great Republic was being rapidly mobilized for the great work to which she had set her hand; and Germany waited with ill-disguised dread the opening of the campaign of 1918, when this new, fresh and most powerful of foes would show her real metal.

## CHAPTER VI.

**THE CAMPAIGN OF 1918**—The first three months of the closing year of the war saw little actual fighting. They were important months, however. Two of the nations which had been aligned with the Allies—Russia since the very beginning of the war, Roumania, the other, since the late summer of 1916—were decisively defeated; and were suing for a separate peace. The opposing armies were apparently deadlocked in Flanders, northern France and northern Italy. The armies and the generals had been trying each other out for four years. Each knew the metal of the other. Each hoped for a strategic advantage, but both realized that this might not come soon. The Allies were pinning their faith to the United States, whence a steady stream of well-trained and finely-officered troops was flowing across the Atlantic ocean. The manner of warfare was new to these Americans; the United States troops must be trained to the minute before they



AMERICAN RED CROSS NURSES MARCHING THROUGH THE STREETS OF PARIS ON JULY 4TH.

entered the fray. Germany pretended to look contemptuously upon the men from overseas. But they had looked contemptuously on Britain's first hundred thousand, and Britain was now represented by four million men, as good soldiers as the sun ever shone on. America was shortly to give Germany another great lesson in what an aroused democracy could do.

Russia and Roumania were put out of the fighting in the first quarter of the new year. With the downfall of the Czar in 1917, a condition approaching anarchy resulted. In an official proclamation issued on February 10, 1918, the Russian government announced its decision to withdraw from the war. The declaration was "no war, but no peace"—Russia simply proposed to drop out of actual hostilities. This declaration did not meet with Germany's approval. Accordingly, on February 15, Germany announced that it had decided to resume military operations against Russia. On February 18 this drive began, the Germans crossing the bridges over the Dvina river, which the retreating Russians had failed to blow up. All along a front stretching from the Baltic coast to Volhynia the invading German troops marched eastward. The Russian forces were demoralized and fled in complete rout. On March 3 a preliminary peace treaty was signed at Brest-Litovsk by the thoroughly whipped Russians and the victorious Germans. At that time the Germans reported the capture of 6,800 Russian officers, 57,000 men, 2,400 guns, innumerable machine guns and motor vehicles, 800 locomotives and enormous quantities of munitions and supplies. Russia was obliged to surrender territory in the western part of the empire equal in area to all of Germany and Austria-Hungary. In addition it was obliged to agree to pay an indemnity of over \$4,500,000,000.

Because of the collapse of Russia, Roumania found itself obliged to sue for peace. It was completely hemmed in by the Central Powers. Field Marshal von Mackensen, of the German army, sent an ultimatum to the Roumanian government, on February 6. He demanded an immediate surrender. On March 5, at Bucharest, a preliminary peace treaty was signed by Germany and Roumania. Within two days (March 3 and March 5) Germany had signed peace treaties with two of the enemy: Russia and Roumania. The Allied war conference, consisting of the prime ministers and foreign ministers of Great Britain, France and Italy issued a declaration, on March 19, refusing to recognize these peace treaties and pledging their countries to continue fighting until they had "finished once for all the Germany policy of plunder and established in its place the peaceful reign of organized justice."

**CZECH-SLOVAKIA DECLARES INDEPENDENCE**—In the meantime, important political events had been occurring in other parts of the war-stricken area. A declaration in favor of complete independence for Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia (provinces of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy) and forming them into a unified Czech-Slovak state was adopted at Prague, Bohemia, on January 6, 1918. It created a new nation, unified according to language, rather than geographical lines. The Austro-Hungarian empire was beginning to crumble.

No important military events occurred on any of the battle fronts in January. In France and Flanders there were frequent isolated raids in many sectors, but no general engagements. In Palestine the British advanced several miles beyond Jerusalem and firmly secured their conquest of that city. On the Italian front the Austrians were driven back across the lower Piave river, strengthening the belief that the Venetian plain would be safe from further invasion.

The chief military engagement in February occurred in the invaded region of Italy. In co-operation with British and French batteries, the Italians drove the Austrians from the positions which threatened the Venetian plains and captured several thousand prisoners. The pressure by the Teutonic invaders on the critical fronts was relieved and immediate danger of a further offensive by the Austrians was removed. The British made further advances beyond Jerusalem. On the western front, in France, there were numerous skirmishes and trench raids, but no operations of consequence. The movement of troops by Germany from the east to the west deepened the conviction that this concentration was preliminary to an offensive on a wider scale than any since the first invasion.

American troops were flowing steadily into France. The embarkation of American troops, since the declaration of war on April 6, 1917, and prior to the opening

of the big drive in March, 1918, was as follows:

1917	November .....	23,016
May .....	December .....	48,840
June .....	1918	
July .....	January .....	46,776
August .....	February .....	48,027
September .....	March .....	83,811
October .....	Total .....	366,542

**THE GREAT GERMAN OFFENSIVE**—The most desperate and bloody battle in history began with the great German offensive against the allied lines in northern France on March 21, 1918. No less than 4,000,000 men were engaged along a front of 150 miles. The action is commonly called the battle of Picardy, taking its name from the old French province in which it occurred. General Ferdinand Foch, of France, was made commander-in-chief of the allied armies on March 28, so that the major part of this great and sanguinary battle found the troops of Great Britain, France and United States acting as one unit under one centralized command.

The Germans struck the allied lines from points where their railways allowed them the greatest possible concentration of troops and where the lines of the Allies, owing to the failures at Lens, St. Quentin and LaFere the year before, were relatively weak. They were aiming at three objectives: The British channel ports, Amiens and Paris. They were prepared to sacrifice a million of men to win these objectives. They continued their old time policy of hurling immense forces in direct frontal attacks. Their men were mowed down, but line succeeded line in a seemingly never-ending stream.

After three and one-half years of terrific fighting, Germany still had a vast force of trained men on whom to rely. In September, 1917, the Allies made this estimate of German man power:

Men actually employed in army on the front, behind lines and in interior	5,500,000
Permanent losses .....	4,000,000
Permanently unfit .....	2,100,000
Men in treatment in hospital.....	500,000
Men required in interior for life of country.....	500,000
Miscellaneous .....	1,500,000

Total .....

In the first phase of the battle the enemy swept everything before them down the Somme river and its southern tributary, the Avre, to within six miles of Amiens, and to within forty-six miles of the English Channel. They eliminated the remainder of the Cambrai salient, won by the British the preceding November, at great cost. The Huns then concentrated their attack between St. Quentin and LaFere, near where the British and French armies joined. On March 24 the Germans succeeded in crossing the Somme river, south of Peronne. On the same day the towns of Chauny and Ham were captured by them. On March 27 the British began a retreat on a wide front on both sides of the Somme. On that day the city of Albert was evacuated. On the 29th, the French counter attacked and recovered eight square miles between Lassigny and Noyon. West of this, however, the Germans, operating on a twelve-mile front, penetrated seven miles, enveloping the town of Montdidier.

The first phase of the battle was a decided German success. Within four days they had gained an area of about 550 square miles. During this first rush the Germans claimed to have captured 75,000 British soldiers and 600 large guns. The forces operating were enormous. The British troops numbered 675,000 on the advanced line, the French 1,575,000, the Germans 1,165,000, with heavy reserve forces ready for any emergency. No battle in all history found so many men concentrated in such a small area.

The second phase of this great battle began on April 9. By that time the Germans had concentrated their positions on a front which had expanded from 75 miles to 125 miles. They had regained about 700 square miles of ground. The Germans struck between the important British depots of Arras and Ypres, forty miles apart, concentrating on a twelve-mile front. During the two following days the concentration moved forward five miles, penetrating between Armentieres and Messines. After eight days of terrific fighting the Germans had won 825 square miles of territory.

**THE SECOND BATTLE OF THE MARNE**—On May 27, General Ludendorff, in command of the German armies, began what is known as the second battle of the Marne. The engagement was on a forty-mile front. Ludendorff hurled enormous bodies of troops against the Allied forces in bloody frontal attacks. He forced the Aisne river on an eighteen-mile front on May 28. On May 31 he reached the Marne on a six-mile front, having penetrated thirty miles to the south. He had occupied about 650 square miles of French territory and had reduced his nearest approach to Paris from sixty-two to forty-four miles, and from the Forest of St. Gobain the German long range guns fired directly into Paris. Ludendorff reached the Marne between Dormans and Chateau Thierry, at the identical spot where the Germans had made their first crossing on August 25, 1914. In the first three days of the 1918 Marne drive the Germans attacked with 225,000 men. By the time the Marne was reached they were using 400,000 men. When the drive slowed down, in the first days of June, they had lost fully thirty per cent of their number in casualties. Their victories were being dearly bought. On the other hand, the Germans claimed to have captured over 45,000 prisoners and 400 guns. General Foch was following his characteristic policy of holding his reserves in check and luring the enemy on, waiting for the psychological moment when he could strike, unexpectedly, with the larger force and to the best advantage.

On June 9, Ludendorff made a fierce attack on a twenty-mile front between Montdidier and Noyon in the direction of Compiègne. He gained seven miles, but later lost six, in French and American counter attacks. American marines and French troops not only held him in a vise for three succeeding days, but caused him tremendous losses. By June 12 Ludendorff's failure was an established fact. On June 15, this failure was acknowledged by the sudden launching of an Austrian offensive in Italy. Ludendorff was plainly attempting to divert a large force of the Allies from the French front to the relief of the Italians. His drive toward Paris had come perilously near to success, but the Germans were held at Chateau Thierry, within forty-four miles of the French capital.

**THE VICTORY AT CHATEAU THIERRY**—The noble victory gained by the Americans and French in the salient at Chateau Thierry on June 6 undoubtedly marks the turning point of the 1918 campaign—the date on which the Allies took the offensive on a great scale and started the marvelous advance which terminated on November 11 with the unconditional surrender of the German armies. The credit for the beginning of this great advance at this time belongs unquestionably to the Americans. It was an American division, consisting largely of American marines, that by a magnificent attack on June 6 halted the German advance and started them back toward their own lines. They drove the Germans back for nearly two miles along a front of several miles, captured over a thousand prisoners and put to rout two crack divisions of Prussian troops that had been picked especially to oppose the "Dogs of Americans," as the Germans affectionately called our troops.

Up to date the French and British, tired out by four years of warfare and weakened by the tremendous blows of the Germans, had stood strictly on the defensive. Encouraged, however, by this success, and by the constantly increasing number of fresh and vigorous American troops now arriving, they commenced the great offensive which terminated in November in the complete defeat of Germany. While we are not to forget that the vastly greater part of that defeat is attributable to the great French and English armies, yet we may ever remember that the beginning of that defeat, and the fact that it did begin on June 6, is attributable to the splendid courage and dash of the American troops, who, almost against the will of the Allied generals, attacked the Prussian Guards at Chateau Thierry on June 6, 7 and 8, and forced them back.

**CANTIGNY**—The success at Chateau Thierry was followed up by the Americans, who attacked the German line northwest of the town during the night of

June 19. They advanced more than half a mile. Cantigny, on the Montdidier sector, was the scene of another fierce struggle on the morning of June 20, when American troops stormed the German trenches and machine gun nests in front of the village. Most of the German troops, acting under orders to hold their positions at all costs, were killed.

By far the most complete operation planned and executed by American troops in the early summer fighting, was the American advance in the Marne valley on July 1, resulting in the capture of Vaux. The advance was on a two-mile front to a depth of about a mile. The Australians in their advance at Hamel of one and one-half miles on a four mile front, on July 4, had the assistance of the Americans.

**THE GERMANS ARE HELD**—While the Germans had been successful in pushing ahead and capturing French territory, their failure to reach any of their objectives (the Channel ports, Amiens, or Paris), coupled with the frightful price they had paid in killed and wounded, constituted a German defeat almost approaching a disaster. The Germans had lost between 300,000 and 400,000 men and were no nearer victory than they had been when the offensive was begun on March 21.

**PERSHING'S REPORT ON THE FIGHTING**—In his report to Secretary of War Baker, General John J. Pershing, in command of the American troops in France, pays high tribute to his men who fought so gallantly at Chateau Thierry, Cantigny, Belleau Wood and Vaux. General Pershing states that when matters were the most critical for the Allies, in the first few days of the tremendous German drive, he placed at the disposal of Marshal Foch all of the American forces, "to be used as he might decide." This was one of the great turning points of the war. It made practicable the unified command, without which the Allies, fighting enemies under a unified command, could hardly have hoped to win. Marshal Foch accepted the offer and the American troops were employed to the best advantage, with undying credit to themselves and their country.

General Pershing makes this official report of the action of the American troops in the battle of Picardy, and the second battle of the Marne, between April 26 and July 4:

"On April 26 the first division of Americans (30,000) had gone into the line in the Montdidier salient on the Picardy battle front. Tactics had been suddenly revolutionized to those of open warfare, and our men, confident of the results of their training, were eager for the test. This division attacked the commanding German division in its front, taking with splendid dash the town of Cantigny and all other objectives, which were organized and held steadfastly against vicious counter attacks and galling artillery fire. Although local, this brilliant action had an electrical effect, as it demonstrated our fighting qualities under extreme battle conditions, and also that the enemy's troops were not altogether invincible."

There followed the German thrust across the Aisne river toward Paris—known as "the second battle of the Marne," and General Pershing continues:

"The Allies faced a crisis equally as grave as that of the Picardy offensive in March. Again every available man was placed at Marshal Foch's disposal, and the third division, which had just come from its preliminary training in the trenches, was hurried to the Marne. Its motorized machine gun battalion preceded the other units, and successfully held the bridgehead at the Marne opposite Chateau Thierry.

"The second division, in reserve near Montdidier, was sent by motor trucks and other available transport to check the progress of the enemy toward Paris. The division attacked and retook the town and railroad station at Bouresches and sturdily held its ground against the enemy's best guard divisions.

"In the battle of Belleau Wood which followed, our men proved their superiority and gained a strong tactical position, with far greater loss to the enemy than to ourselves. On July 1, before the Second was relieved, it captured the village of Vaux with most splendid precision."

From this brief recital, it can be seen that the American troops stood between the enemy and his goal—Paris—like the proverbial stone wall. "They shall not pass" was their watchword, as it was of the French at Verdun. The heroes of Chateau Thierry, of Cantigny and of Vaux, held up the crack Prussian guards, and autocracy's doom was sounded in the roar of the heavy guns.

**AMERICA TO THE RESCUE**—While these great battles were going on, American soldiers were reaching France in a constantly widening stream. In April, 117,212 had embarked from the United States; in May, 244,345; in June, 276,372; in July, 305,000. By the time the summer campaign was at its height America was landing soldiers in France at the rate of 10,000 a day. Germany now began to see the handwriting on the wall; began to realize that she was doomed.

On April 6, 1918, at the end of the first year of the United States' participation in the war, this country had an army of 1,652,725 officers and men. Casualties in the first year of the war amounted to 2,368, distributed as follows: Killed in battle, 163; died of disease or accident, 957; lost at sea, 237; died of wounds, 52; other causes, 47; missing and prisoners, 63; wounded, 829. By midsummer there were fully 1,500,000 Americans abroad; by the time the war came to an end, in November, the number had increased to nearly 2,000,000. The other nations were wearied with four years of fighting; the United States came in fresh and strong. It turned the tide of battle and brought victory to the cause of the Allies.

**GERMANY'S LAST OFFENSIVE**—When Germany, on July 15, began her last offensive, she attempted to hurl through the Allied lines a mighty army which she had been preparing for a month. Save for a costly attempt to carry Rheims by a prodigious assault on June 18, the German armies had been on the defensive for a month on the three fronts—in France, in Italy and in the Balkans. They had lost a total of almost a half million men since March 21. During the same time the loss of the Allies had been around 150,000. On July 15, General Ludendorff risked everything on one more drive. He opened it up along a sixty-mile front from Chateau Thierry on the Marne, up the river beyond Dormans, then northward across the Vesle and around Rheims, then due east to a few miles west of the Argonne forest. For this he had well on toward 800,000 men. On the 15th he attacked the Americans northwest of Chateau Thierry, at Vaux. Twenty-five thousand Germans crossed the Marne. The Americans counter attacked and drove 15,000 back across the river. The rest remained as casualties or prisoners. That night General Foch is reported to have said: "I am content."

**FOCH OPENS HIS GREAT OFFENSIVE**—It was at this juncture that General Foch, who had been biding his time with characteristic patience, seized the opportunity to deal a crushing blow. He suddenly assumed the offensive. On July 18 he ordered an advance along a twenty-eight mile front between the Marne, near Chateau Thierry, and the Aisne, west of Soissons. It was a complete success. The entire line advanced from four to six miles, thousands of prisoners were taken, and a blow of far-reaching effect was delivered. From that day on the tide never turned; the Allies swept on to ultimate victory, a victory in which the stars and stripes played a most heroic and important part.

The exact number of German troops in action when Marshal Foch began his advance can be estimated with fair accuracy. On March 21, 1918, when General Ludendorff began his offensive, there were 1,430,000 German soldiers, together with 299,000 reserves, a total of 1,729,000 men. Approximately one half of these men were on the casualty lists by the last of May. Reinforced, however, by troops brought from other French lines and from Russia, it is probable that the Germans had around 1,750,000 men under arms on the French front when Marshal Foch began his offensive. With these men the German general was attempting to defend a line 250 miles long. This meant an average of 7,180 men to the mile, whereas, with a line only 175 miles in length and with more men at his command, Ludendorff had an average of 8,666 men to the mile when he launched his spring offensive. For the first time in the four years of the war the Allies were able to assemble a greater army of men and a larger supply of guns, shells and munitions of all kinds than their opponents.

The Allies' offensive was begun on the morning of July 18. American and French detachments under General Mangin, of the French army, attacked the Germans under the Crown Prince. The attack extended from Ambleny, six miles west of Soissons, south to Bouresches, five miles northwest of Chateau Thierry—a front of about twenty-eight miles. The troops advanced six miles the first day. In two days the Allies took 17,000 prisoners and more than 360 large guns. By



July 23 the Soissons-Chateau Thierry line was almost entirely in the hands of the Americans and French. The Americans had advanced to six miles beyond Chateau Thierry. The booty amounted to nearly 25,000 prisoners, over 400 guns and vast stores of supplies. The Allies for the second time forced the Germans back across the Marne. The end of the first week of Foch's offensive found the German Crown Prince using every effort to save his armies from being surrounded and his guns and supplies from being captured, by hurrying them to the north.

On August 1, the official French report gave the total number of prisoners taken since July 15 on the Marne and Champagne fronts at 33,400, of whom 674 were officers. On August 2, the French occupied the important manufacturing and strategic city of Soissons, which the Germans had captured in their advance on May 29, 1918. The Crown Prince retreated along three lines: on the River Lys salient north of LaBasse, in the region of Albert, and between the Avre river and the town of Montdidier.

While these events were transpiring in the Marne sector, Marshal Foch launched another offensive on the Picardy salient, between Albert and Montdidier. The Allies' objective was the line between Peronne and Roye. The attack was launched as a surprise, the Germans being taken unawares. Americans, British and French pushed determinedly ahead. On August 10 Montdidier was captured, 25,000 prisoners being taken. The total casualties of the Allies were less than 6,000. Over 100,000 German soldiers had been pushed back. By August 12 the region known as the Massif of Lassigny had been taken and the number of prisoners had increased to 40,000. By the 18th, British, under General Rawlinson, were only one mile from Roye. Artillery, infantry and cavalry (used whenever possible in open fighting) were augmented by aeroplanes and tanks. In the first month of Foch's offensive, the Germans were outgeneraled and outfought by the Allies, and had lost much valuable territory previously conquered, which in the spring they had squandered hundreds of thousands of lives in taking.

**THE BEGINNING OF THE END**—The ensuing sixty days were unquestionably the darkest in Germany's history. One defeat followed another, until the whole campaign took on the appearance of a continuous disaster. Every day throughout August and September victory rested with the Allies. Over 200,000 German prisoners and 2,250 big guns were captured; all territory up to the Hindenburg line (established by the German commander and fortified so as generally believed to be impregnable) was taken from the enemy, and at numerous points the line was penetrated to a depth of from five to fifteen miles.

On August 29 the American and French troops drove the Germans out of Juvigny, a village of strategic importance. Here, for the following five days, one American division (30,000) fought four of the best divisions Germany had, beating them decisively. The Americans captured 2,000 prisoners and on a narrow front of two miles made an advance of four miles. Meantime the Allies had taken Lassigny on the 21st, Roye on the 27th, Noyon and Chaulnes on the 29th. The troops were moving eastward and northward in an uninterrupted progress. North of the Somme the British began a drive which gave them the town of Albert on August 22. They pressed ahead and occupied Bapaume the same day that the French and Americans took Noyon. The Hindenburg line was pierced on August 25; it had been found to be vulnerable, and the Allies were well on toward their goal—France clear of the invader.

All these operations were of vital importance. In the north they opened up the Bapaume-Cambrai road as far as Beugny and the Roye-Peronne-Cambrai highway to a point north of Peronne, taken by the British on September 1. In the south they delivered the whole of the Roye-Noyon-Soissons railway into the hands of the Allies. The Allies were securing possession of the railways and highways the Germans had used so successfully for the moving of troops and supplies.

**THE AMERICANS AT ST. MIHIEL**—On September 12 the first American army to be mobilized in France, commanded by General Pershing, began an assault on the famous St. Mihiel salient, which for four years had stood an impenetrable barrier between the Allies and the great iron fields to the north. Its presence, together with the German fortresses around Metz, prevented any attempt to invade German Lorraine from the lines held by the French when they withdrew, in September, 1914, after their short-lived invasion of the "lost provinces" of Alsace and Lorraine.

General Pershing preceded his attack with a tremendous bombardment, said to have been the most scientifically concentrated on record. He was aided by 1,000 tanks, which had cleared the way for the infantry and later for the cavalry. In a week the Americans had recovered an area of nearly 200 square miles, menacing the Briey region (which provided the Germans with eighty per cent of their steel) on the north, and the forts of Metz, on the east. They had released the Verdun-Toul-Nancy railroad and were less than fifteen miles from the great German trunk line which runs from Metz to Mezieres. They had captured over 20,000 prisoners and 100 big guns.

In the first day of the attack, the Americans overran the new railroad which the Germans had built from Thiaucourt down to St. Mihiel as a branch to that from Metz. In the second day they crossed the angle of the salient, leaving the space within, some 100 square miles, to be threshed out by the American cavalry. On September 15 the German guns at Metz opened fire on the Americans. The Americans pushed ahead, regardless of all opposition, winning one of the most notable engagements of the war in a decisive manner.

In his official report of this battle, General Pershing tells of the preliminary troop concentration, aided by the French, involving the movement of 600,000 men, mostly at night. He describes the subsequent fighting of the Americans in this manner:

"After four hours' artillery preparation the seven American divisions in the front line (217,000 men) advanced at 5 a. m. on September 12, assisted by a limited number of tanks manned partly by Americans and partly by the French.

"Three divisions, accompanied by groups of wire cutters and others armed with bangalore torpedoes, went through the successive bands of barbed wire that protected the enemy's front line and support trenches, in irresistible waves on schedule time, breaking down all defense of an enemy demoralized by the great volume of our artillery fire and our sudden approach out of the fog.

"Our First Corps advanced to Thiaucourt, while our Fourth Corps curved back to the southwest through Nonsard.

"A rapid march brought reserve regiments to a division of the Fifth Corps into Vigneulles in the early morning, where it linked up with patrols of our Fourth Corps, closing the salient and forming a new line west of Thiaucourt to Vigneulles and beyond Fresnes-en-Woevre.

"At the cost of only 7,000 casualties, mostly light, we had taken 16,000 prisoners and 443 guns, a great quantity of material, released the inhabitants of many villages from enemy domination, and established our lines in a position to threaten Metz.

"This signal success of the American First Army in its first offensive was of prime importance."

**FOCH CHANGES HIS STRATEGY**—In the last week of September, Marshal Foch changed his policy of indirect attack and resorted to direct frontal attacks on a large scale, first in Champagne and then in Flanders. He was eminently successful, sweeping everything before him and losing a remarkably small number of men, considering the territory freed, the prisoners and guns captured and the disaster wrought upon German arms and morale.

On September 29 the Americans and British pressed forward on a thirty mile front in the neighborhood of St. Quentin, which was occupied on October 1. It was the key to the trunk line between France, Belgium and northern Germany, a position of the utmost strategic importance. Before its capture by the Allies, the Germans deported almost the entire population of 50,000.

On October 9, Cambrai, another important city, was captured in an advance over a thirty mile front. Cambrai is thirty-two miles southeast of Lille, toward which the advance was subsequently directed. On October 11 the British made a thrust toward Douai, the Germans evacuating strong positions to the north of the Seneze river. On October 17 the British carried the whole front south of Le Cateau (where they had encountered the Germans in the opening month of the war, in 1914), and established themselves on the railroad beyond the town, taking 3,000 prisoners.

In the meantime the French advance upon the important city of Laon was making steady progress. Laon was an important observation post, the junction of two German lines of supplies. It was taken on October 13, after a severe fight. Thus the advancing lines of the Allies, to the east and the west, were connected. After that the advance from the Oise river to the Aisne was rapid.

In the Champagne district the American and French attack began on September 26. In the first day the French advanced from three to four miles and the Americans from five to six. By the end of the second day 10,000 Germans had been taken prisoners. The Americans were advancing down the Meuse and the Aire rivers taking town after town. Meantime the Germans were concentrating their forces behind what they called their second, or Kriemhilde line.

On October 4 the Americans went over the Kriemhilde line, the last enemy organized line of defense south of the Belgian border, cutting through 30,000 Prussian Guards on their way. The next day the Germans retreated before the Americans and French. The French immediately took advantage of this retreat and pursued the Germans on a broad front north and northeast of Rheims, driving the enemy back eight miles. On October 12 it was officially announced that the French had taken thirty-six towns and villages, 21,567 prisoners and 600 guns. On October 16 the Americans occupied the important strategic point of Grand Pre, on the northern bank of the Aire river. Between September 26 and November 6 the Americans took 26,059 prisoners and 468 guns on this front.

**BELGIUM CLEARED OF GERMANS**—Still another great offensive was being waged in Flanders at this time. On September 28, while the British fleet bombarded the coastal defenses from Nieuport to Zeebrugge on the North Sea, the Belgian army, under King Albert, and the British army, under General Plumer, went over the German lines on a ten mile front between Dixmude and Passchendaele Ridge, north of Ypres. They advanced five miles and captured 4,000 prisoners and an immense amount of supplies. On the following day the Belgians took Dixmude, Passchendaele and other Flemish towns, adding 1,500 prisoners to the list. On September 30 Roulers was taken by the Belgians. The French army joined this sector on October 2, and a great enveloping movement, with the city of Lille as its objective, was begun. The remnants of the Lys salient established by the Germans in Flanders were obliterated. The Allies quickly recaptured Armentieres, which had been taken by the enemy on April 9. For ten days there was a consolidation of positions by the Allies. Then they began a furious attack from Comines to the sea, in the general direction of Ghent and Courtrai.

**THE GREAT GERMAN RETREAT**—On October 16 the great retreat of the Germans from western Belgium began. Belgian infantry, assisted by French cavalry, attacked all along the line. The British surrounded the large French city of Lille, which the Germans evacuated on October 17. The Germans evacuated Ostend and Zeebrugge, their submarine bases on the Belgian coast. They likewise gave up such towns as Bruges, Thielt, Courtrai and Turcoing, over a front of more than fifty miles. The number of prisoners taken by the Allies on this front was over 15,000. October closed with the German retreat from Belgium being conducted on a vast scale. The Germans retreated so rapidly they did not have time to carry out their usual policy of destruction of all towns.

The approaching end was now visible to all; German military power was crushed. On October 6 the Kaiser's government appealed to President Wilson for an immediate armistice and peace on the terms laid down by the president on January 8, 1918. In the meantime, however, important and far-reaching events were occurring elsewhere.

**BULGARIA BEATEN**—Allied operations were actively begun on the Balkan front on September 16, after months of preparation. Bulgaria had sent troops to France. It was under the leadership of General d'Esperey of the French army, who had a force of 350,000 (consisting of British, French, Serbian, Montenegrin, Italian and Russian forces) and the new army of Greece, numbering around 200,000.

From the Greek base at Saloniki the British and Greek troops struck at the enemy in the region of Lake Doiran, while the Serbians and French drove forward along a twenty-five mile line across the Czerna river, where the enemy's lines extended west into Albania. By September 23 the British held Doiran, the Serbians had captured Prilep and the First Bulgarian army, cut off from the Second, fled in disorder. On September 24, the Second Bulgarian army was likewise in flight.

Within two weeks from opening the campaign, the Bulgarian forces had been split in two, the Bulgarian government had been compelled to surrender and make a separate peace with the Allies, King Ferdinand had abdicated in favor of his son, Boris, and Germany, confronted by the first break in the Central Powers, saw Turkey isolated and helpless, and her own dream of empire shattered.

Veles, the principal railway center of Serbia, was retaken from the Bulgarians on September 25. The British and Greeks invaded Bulgaria, near the fortress of Strumitza, capturing it handily. This opened a way for the Allies to Sofia, the Bulgarian capital. The Bulgarian First army was caught in a trap and its destruction was inevitable. King Ferdinand of Bulgaria appealed frantically to Germany, but the Germans were then in full retreat in France and Flanders and were in no position to give aid to their ally. Nothing remained but for Bulgaria to surrender. King Ferdinand assembled his grand council on September 23. Five days later emissaries were dispatched to the Allies' headquarters to sue for peace. On the 29th an armistice was signed. Fighting ceased on the 30th. Under the terms of the armistice Bulgaria agreed to evacuate all the territory she occupied in Greece and Serbia, to demobilize her army immediately and to surrender all means of transport to the Allies. Bulgaria was immediately occupied by the Allied troops. She had been an ally of Germany three years—lacking nine days. She was the first of the four Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria) to sue for peace, and to acknowledge defeat at the hands of the Allies. Bulgaria's defeat was astonishing in its completeness. Her natural defenses were of the best and the Allies had feared a long and arduous campaign.

**THE DOWNFALL OF TURKEY**—The defeat of Bulgaria was quickly followed by the downfall of Turkey. The campaign against the Turks in Palestine, begun September 18, was a brilliant success for the Allies, and developed into such a serious disaster for the Turks, that by October 1, it was semi-officially reported that the Turkish government had opened negotiations for peace. The British drive in Palestine was an unbroken succession of victories. In close union with the Arabs, the British advanced rapidly on a line from the Mediterranean to Haifa, extending across Palestine to the Arabian desert. Damascus, the capital of Syria, the most beautiful and (after Bagdad) the most historic city of Asiatic Turkey, was taken on October 1. On October 3 a French naval division entered the important port of Beirut, 160 miles northwest of Damascus. The Allies thereby had an unbroken front from Beirut to the desert and rapidly advanced toward Aleppo, the main base of the Turks in Asia Minor. The capture of Aleppo was inevitable, as the Turkish forces were retreating rapidly and in great disorder. The British forces along the Euphrates and the Tigris rivers, in Mesopotamia, also began a forward movement, with a prospect of soon uniting with their army in Palestine, thus establishing an unbroken and victorious front from the Mediterranean across Mesopotamia to Persia. On October 8 it was reported that Persia was being evacuated by the Turks.

The British forces captured more than 71,000 prisoners and 350 guns, while the Arabs captured 8,000 prisoners, between September 18 and October 5. During the advance in Palestine, Nazareth was captured, thus freeing another holy spot from the clutches of the Mohammedan. As a result of the continuous disasters in Palestine and Mesopotamia, Enver Pasha, for years the commanding and controlling figure in Turkey, was overthrown on October 8. Revolution broke out in Turkey and it was evident that the Ottoman empire must soon follow the example of Bulgaria and sue for peace. This was done on October 31, the Allies imposing terms upon Turkey fully as severe as those which had been imposed upon Bulgaria. They were described as "complete and unconditional surrender," and Turkey was at once reduced to military impotence. The Dardanelles and the Bosphorus with their fortifications were opened to the Allies, who entered Constantinople a few days later. All allied prisoners were handed over to the Allies without reciprocity; the Turkish army was demobilized and her navy surrendered. Turkish troops were to withdraw from northern Persia and other occupied non-

Turkish territory. The Allies were given the use of all means of transportation and communication; all garrisons in Arabia, Syria and Mesopotamia were at once surrendered. Turkey was to cease all relations with the Central Powers; the Allies were given such rights and facilities as were necessary to enforce all the provisions of the armistice. Thus, within the same month (October), two of the four countries fighting the Allies were beaten to their knees. The downfall of the other two was near at hand.

**ITALY WINS OVER AUSTRIA**—Italy decisively defeated Austria shortly after Bulgaria and Turkey had crumbled. The breakdown of Austro-Hungary on the battlefield was complete. Before the Italian offensive came to an end the Austrians had lost 300,000 men in prisoners alone and not less than 5,000 guns. The week between October 26 and November 3 brought about the Austrian undoing.

The Italian army was led by General Diaz, a skillful commander. Pretending to the enemy that he proposed to advance against the mountain line between the rivers Piave and Brenta, where range after range lay before him, Diaz swiftly threw his attack against the line of the Piave river in the Montello region. Complete collapse of so large and well-equipped an army as that of Austria was unprecedented, but it occurred almost immediately. The Austrians were soon in headlong flight back past the Livensa and Tagliamento (where they had pushed the Italians the year before, when they swept down into Italy) toward the boundary line of the Isonzo.

While this phase of the battle was going on, General Diaz threw strong forces northward from the Piave and Brenta, seized the important mountain passes and was in a position to overrun the whole Trentino (between Italy and Austria-Hungary) as rapidly as the difficulties of transportation in the mountainous region could be overcome. His victories of October 30 and 31 cost the Austrians fully 83,000 men. On the latter date Austrian envoys, carrying the white flag, entered the Italian lines. The dual monarchy realized that the end had come. In the last few days of the terrific drive (which ended November 3) the Italians occupied Trieste and Trent. Italian land and sea forces were landed on the 3d at the former place. Entire Austrian regiments surrendered in the Italian advance on Trent on November 2. On the morning of the 3d the entire Italian front was pushing forward. On that day, the armistice was signed, hostilities to cease the following day. When the terms of surrender were announced they were found to be severe in the extreme. They included, in addition to the cessation of hostilities, the demobilization of the Austrian army, the withdrawal of all forces on the Italian front, and the surrender of half the Austrian military equipment. Besides evacuating invaded territory, Austria was to withdraw from the Trentino and part of the Tyrol, and from Istria, Dalmatia and most of the Adriatic islands. The armistice gave the Allies free use of all roads, railways, and waterways in Austria, and the control of all necessary strategic points. As in the case of Turkey, Austria was obliged to give up all allied prisoners without reciprocity. The naval conditions of the armistice included the surrender of most of the Austrian navy and the laying up of the rest, and the freedom of allied navigation in Austrian waters, without any modification of the allied blockade.

**GERMANY BEGS FOR PEACE**—While Bulgaria, Turkey and Austria-Hungary were being decisively defeated on the field of battle and were suing for peace, Germany's military pride was humbled by the forced retreat of her armies along the whole front in Belgium and France. Further humiliation came when she hurriedly evacuated the entire Belgian coast, on October 17, to avoid the capture of all her forces there, and quit the important industrial district of northern France, surrendering the cities of Lille, Douai, Cambrai, Roubaix, LaFere, Laon, St. Quentin and the forest of Argonne, won by the Americans. On October 6, forced alike by military disasters and domestic revolution, the German government appealed to President Wilson for an immediate armistice and peace on the terms repeatedly laid down by him. On October 8 President Wilson sent a reply refusing to grant the armistice. A week later (October 15) the British and Belgian troops crossed the Lys river, taking 12,000 prisoners and 100 guns. On October 21 the Allies crossed the Oise and threatened the city of Valenciennes. On the following day the British, under General Haig, crossed the Scheldt river, which flows north past Cambrai and Valenciennes, then through Belgium past Ghent and Antwerp.

On October 31 the British, French and Belgian armies launched an attack along a wide front on the Scheldt, pushing their way east of Tournai. The enemy fell back rapidly. Every objective was carried and 1,000 prisoners taken by the British alone. The same day the American troops advanced their line north of Grand Pre. On November 1 the Aisne river was crossed by a large force of the Allies, while west of the Meuse river the Americans advanced three miles and took 3,000 prisoners. In the course of the operations west of Valenciennes the British captured about 3,000 Germans.

On November 2, under combined French and American attacks between the Aisne and the Meuse rivers, the Germans broke into full retreat. Pursuing them, the Allies advanced four miles in the center of a fourteen-mile front. The Americans captured eight villages, sixty cannon and many prisoners. The same day the British, under Haig, captured Valenciennes. On November 3 the Americans and French swept ahead on a fifty-mile front above Verdun. The Argonne forest was cleared by this date and additional prisoners and store captured. The Belgians advanced thirty miles along the Dutch border and reached the approaches to Ghent. General Pershing announced that in driving forward three miles west of the Meuse, the Americans had taken 4,000 prisoners, including four battalion commanders and their staffs. Since the great offensive began on July 18, the allied armies had captured 362,355 men, including 7,990 officers, as well as 6,217 cannon, 38,622 machine guns and 3,907 mine throwers.

On November 4 the British broke deeply into the enemy positions along a thirty mile front, capturing more than 10,000 prisoners and 200 guns. Clearing the last of the wooded defenses west of the Meuse, the Americans started a new attack against the enemy's lines east of the river. The American first army, commanded by General Liggett, struck at Sedan, the historic city where Napoleon III and a French army of 86,000 surrendered, on September 2, 1870, to the Germans in the Franco-Prussian war. Of this engagement General Pershing says in his official report:

"The meeting of the French and Americans at this historic spot signalized the defeat of the German arms, a defeat as decisive and humiliating as that forced upon France forty-seven years before at the same spot. If there had been question before as to the acceptance of the armistice terms the Allies' advance, culminating in this meeting at Sedan, left no choice in the matter."

On November 5 it was announced that General Pershing had taken over 5,000 prisoners and occupied about forty villages in the country reconquered from the Germans. On the 6th the Germans were retreating on a seventy-five mile front from the Scheldt to the Aisne. Two days later, November 7, German emissaries were dispatched to Marshal Foch to beg for an armistice. Germany had lost the war. She had lost also in diplomatic encounter, for President Wilson, while outlining the terms on which he hoped to see peace made, referred the Kaiser's officials to Marshal Foch, plainly stating that the peace must be a military and a decisive one.

On the morning of November 11, in the little village of Senlis, the nearest point to Paris reached by the Germans in their great drive of 1914, the armistice was signed. The Allies fought up to the last moment. They had driven the enemy practically out of all the conquered parts of Belgium and France. They were victorious on every front. Germany was beaten to her knees. The great war was over.

## CHAPTER VII.

**THE ARMISTICE—AND AFTER**—The terms of the armistice which ended the war were the most severe imposed upon a defeated nation by a triumphant one. They put an end to Prussian militarism. They took from Germany the weapons with which it had been enabled to build up its supremacy. They made a resumption of the war by Germany impossible, although subsequent events disclosed that nothing was further from Germany's wishes than to carry on a losing war at a time when revolution was causing the empire to crumble at home.

Under the terms of the armistice Germany was obliged to surrender all of the occupied portions of Belgium, France and Luxemburg, together with Alsace-

Lorraine, the former French provinces which Germany had taken away from France after the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71. They were obliged to surrender 5,000 cannon, 30,000 machine guns, 2,000 aeroplanes, 5,000 locomotives, 50,000 railway cars and 10,000 motor trucks. They were obliged to surrender all their submarines, numbering around 200, fifty destroyers, six battle cruisers, ten battleships and eight light cruisers. All ports of the Black Sea occupied by the Germans were given up, together with all the Russian vessels captured by the Germans. All merchant vessels in the hands of Germany were surrendered, without reciprocity. The Allies demanded the right to occupy all of the country on the west bank of the Rhine river and the principal crossings, at Mayence, Coblenz and Cologne, the Germans to evacuate within nineteen days. The Germans agreed to withdraw and create a neutral zone on the east bank of the Rhine, from twenty to thirty miles wide, extending from Holland to the Swiss border. The Germans agreed to retire from all territory held by Russia, Roumania and Turkey before the war. The treaties of Brest-Litovsk and Bucharest, ending the war with Russia and Roumania, were abrogated. Full restitution must be made for all damage done by German soldiers. All allied prisoners in Germany (military, naval and civilian) were given their liberty at once, without reciprocal action by the Allies.

The territory west of the Rhine which the Germans evacuated is roughly 20,000 square miles in extent, with a population of about 9,000,000. It includes some of the most important mining and manufacturing districts of Germany, and such great centers as Cologne, Strassburg, Metz, and Essen, home of the Krupp works. The territory consists of Alsace-Lorraine, the Palatinate, the Rhine province, Birkenfeld, and about one-third of Hesse.

**THE KAISER ABDICATES**—By the time the armistice was signed, on the morning of November 11, 1918, the Kaiser and the Crown Prince of Germany had abdicated. Both fled to Holland, where they were interned as military refugees. Later, the Allies united in demanding that Holland surrender the Kaiser to them to stand trial for his many crimes in connection with the war. A British high court has already returned an indictment against him for murder.

The peace conference, which will definitely close the war—although the armistice had the effect of stopping all hostilities—will be held at Paris as early as possible in 1919. In the meantime Allied troops occupy the west bank of the Rhine, as agreed upon by the armistice. On December 4 President Wilson sailed from New York to attend the preliminary peace conference of the Allies in Paris.

**THE GREATEST OF ALL WARS**—This, the most frightful of wars was fought out at a cost of approximately \$200,000,000,000 and 10,000,000 lives. In the following table is shown the men in arms, the lives lost, and the total casualties of the leading nations involved in the war. The totals of the United States, Great Britain, Italy and Germany are official. The others are from unofficial returns.

	Men in Arms	Lives Lost	Total Casualties
United States .....	3,764,700	48,900	286,000
Great Britain .....	7,500,000	900,000	3,049,991
France .....	6,000,000	1,385,300	4,000,000
Italy .....	5,000,000	330,000	1,620,000
Russia .....	12,000,000	1,700,000	3,800,000
Belgium .....	350,000	102,000	300,000
Servia .....	300,000	125,000	200,000
Roumania .....	600,000	100,000	300,000
Germany .....	10,000,000	1,600,000	4,000,000
Austria-Hungary .....	7,500,000	800,000	3,120,000
Turkey .....	1,500,000	250,000	750,000
Bulgaria .....	1,000,000	100,000	300,000
Totals .....	55,514,000	7,441,200	21,725,991

At such a frightful cost was the world made safe for democracy. It was a struggle between autocracy and democracy, and the latter was victorious. It was the greatest war in the history of the world, no matter from what angle it was viewed.

On the following pages will be found a complete chronology of the war

## CHAPTER VIII.

**THE PEACE CONFERENCE AND ITS WORK**—Since the signing of the armistice on November 11, 1918, the attention of the world has been chiefly centered upon the work of the Peace Conference at Paris.

President Wilson sailed for France December 4th and by conferences with the Inter-allied Supreme War Council and meetings with the prime Ministers and foreign Ministers of France, England, Italy and Japan, the preliminary plans for the organization of the Peace Conference were made. On January 18th the Conference was formally opened at Paris by President Poincare. Premier Clemenceau of France was made permanent chairman. It was the most extraordinary assembly known to history and confronted by the most difficult problems.

**THE PLAN OF REPRESENTATION FOR THE CONFERENCE** first decided on was as follows: Five delegates each from France, England, United States, Italy and Japan; two each from Australia, Canada, South Africa and India; one from New Zealand; three from Brazil; two each from Belgium, China, Greece, Portugal, Poland, the Czecho-Slovak Republic, Rumania and Serbia; one each from Cuba, Siam, Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Peru, Uruguay, Panama and Montenegro. This plan was somewhat changed later, admitting three delegates from Belgium, Serbia and India, and two from the Kingdom of the Hejaz in Arabia.

The list of delegates were as follows:

Pres. Woodrow Wilson.....	United States	Andrew Bonar Law.....	Great Britain
Robert Lansing.....	United States	George Nicoll Barnes.....	Great Britain
Hon. Henry White.....	United States	Roman Dmawsky.....	Poland
Edward M. House.....	United States	M. Van Den Heuvel.....	Belgium
General Tasker Bliss.....	United States	Emile Vandervelde.....	Belgium
Sir George Foster.....	Canada	Paul Hymans.....	Belgium
Premier Robt. Borden.....	Canada	Ante Trumbitch.....	Serbia
Premier Wm. M. Hughes.....	Australia	M. Zolger.....	Serbia
Sir Joseph Cook.....	Australia	Nikola Pashitch.....	Serbia
W. H. Ijuin.....	Japan	Dr. M. Vesnitch.....	Serbia
Baron Makino.....	Japan	Nicolas Politis.....	Greece
M. K. Matsui.....	Japan	Eleutherios Venizelos.....	Greece
Viscount Chinda.....	Japan	Charles Kramar.....	Czechoslovakia
General Jan. C. Smuts.....	South Africa	Dr. Edward Benes.....	Czechoslovakia
General Louis Botha.....	South Africa	Penha Garcia.....	Portugal
Premier Wm. F. Massey.....	New Zealand	Dr. Egaz Moniz.....	Portugal
Sir Wm. F. Lloyd.....	Newfoundland	Jean Bratiano.....	Rumania
Chengting Thomas Wing.....	China	Nicholas Misu.....	Rumania
Vikyuin Wellington Koo.....	China	Antonio Burgos.....	Panama
Sao Ke Alfred Sze.....	China	Epitacio Pessoa.....	Brazil
Lu Chieng Tsang.....	China	Olyntho De Magalhaes.....	Brazil
Suntchou Wei.....	China	S. A. L'Emir Feisal.....	Arabia
Premier Clemenceau.....	France	Rustem Haidar.....	Arabia
Jules Cambon.....	France	Don Y. De Alsua.....	Ecuador
Louis Lucien Klotz.....	France	Sir S. P. Sinha.....	India
Andre Tardieu.....	France	Edwin Samuel Montagu.....	India
Stephen Pichon.....	France	Maharajah of Bikaner.....	India
Premier Orlando.....	Italy	Prince Charoon.....	Siam
Baron Sonnino.....	Italy	Phya Bieadh Kosha.....	Siam
Salvatore Barzilai.....	Italy	Rafael Martinez.....	Cuba
Salvago Raggi.....	Italy	Antonio Sanchez Bustamante.....	Cuba
Antonio Salandra.....	Italy	Ismael Montes.....	Bolivia
Premier David Lloyd George.....	Great Britain	Francisco Garcia Calderon.....	Peru
Arthur James Balfour.....	Great Britain	Juan Carlos Blanco.....	Uruguay
Lord Robert Cecil.....	Great Britain	C. B. D. King.....	Liberia
		Certullian Guilbaud.....	Haiti



On January 19th it was decided that only delegates from the five principal powers were to be active in all sessions. The smaller allied states were to be represented only when questions in which they were essentially concerned were discussed, the neutrals only when invited for particular reasons.

**ADVISORIAL GROUPS**—In addition to the delegates there were in Paris large groups of advisors—experts in finance, trade, commerce and officers of the army and navy—men of varied and expert knowledge—through its committee system the Conference gave every question the benefit of all the knowledge available.

Some dissatisfaction appeared among the smaller states in the beginning, because of their small representation, this, however, put them to no serious disadvantage, as the decisions were not to be made by majority vote, but by the assent of the countries concerned.

The question of publicity provoked a storm of comment. Generally speaking, Great Britain and the United States favored publicity, while France, Italy and Japan desired secrecy. The result was a large amount of publicity. Newspaper men were present at most of the sessions and frequent official bulletins were issued.

Perhaps the foremost figure at the Conference was President Wilson. To many of his countrymen his departure seemed a doubtful experiment, but the character of his reception abroad has gradually been changing this opinion. The people of Europe welcomed him not only as the representative of the United States, but as a symbol of the promise of peace. "His arrival popularized the work of the conference and helped make it an affair of democracies rather than of prime ministers or ruling classes."

**THE TASK** which the Conference had before it was a gigantic one. No Conference was ever confronted by problems of such variety and perplexity. Besides the Americas and Europe, almost every country of Asia and Africa, and even the islands in the southern seas were affected. Questions regarding armament, commerce, trade, labor, international highways and waterways had to be decided. Questions dealing with indemnities, boundaries, the formation of new states, Germany and Russia had to be settled.

**THE THREE BIG PROBLEMS** at the outset had to deal first with peace with Germany and Austria, second with the redrawing of the Maps of Europe, Asia and Africa, and third, with the forming of some kind of an association of Nations which would dominate international relations and make another world war impossible.

The problem of Germany was complicated by the instability of its government following the Armistice. It was of the utmost importance to the Conference that there be formed a stable government with which to make peace, which would be able to comply with the peace terms and control the nation it represented.

During the first weeks of November, following the Armistice, Germany was torn by a revolution which threatened a repetition of events in Russia. When the Conference assembled in January she seemed a crushed and miserable object. Two months later the elements of disorder were largely crushed and the revolution over. On January 19th a general election provided for a National Assembly which met at Weimar February 6th and apparently was in control of the state. On February 11th, Ebert, leader of the Majority Socialists, was elected President of Germany, a constitution was adopted, a cabinet selected, and a renewal of the armistice signed. Germany now began to reassert herself, to renew her claims to Alsace-Lorraine, to mobilize an army and to try to destroy the hope of Polish liberation.

**IN REMAKING THE MAP** settlements of old disputes had to be made, and new nations formed.

To the first group of questions belonged the question of Alsace-Lorraine, the Italian frontier, the Danes of Schleswig, the Germans in Austria, the frontiers of the Jugo-Slavs and the Latins.

The problem of forming the new states was almost beyond measurement. It demanded that a new Poland be created, that Czechoslovakia and a Jugo-Slavia nation be made out of the Austro-Hungarian territory, that a new Latin state, including Rumania and parts of Russia, Austria and Hungary be made, that the question of Albania be settled, that the Greek claims be settled, that the question of German colonies be dealt with and the vexing problem of Turkey be solved.

**THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS**—The third big problem before the Conference was the formation of a League of Nations. President Wilson regarded this as the most important work of the Conference. On January 25th the Conference declared itself in favor of such a League, and during the first two months, largely under President Wilson's compulsion, the Conference devoted itself to discussions of this matter apparently neglecting the other questions. This caused in February some temporary misunderstanding with France, who, alarmed by the apparent resurgence of Germany felt that the settlement of certain specific questions should come first. She demanded that France be assured of quick aid in case of another war.

**THE FIRST DRAFT OF LEAGUE SUBMITTED**—On February 14th the constitution of the proposed League of Nations plan was read and explained to the Conference by President Wilson. It included 26 articles. It provided for a permanent executive council, a body of delegates from the member nations and a secretariat. President Wilson described it as "a moral force having an armed force in the background." On February 15th President Wilson sailed for the United States and the first phase of the Conference was over.

During President Wilson's absence the attention of the Conference was given to work on the preliminary peace treaty. This period was marked by a growing feeling of unrest and dissatisfaction in Paris, and of disorder and the spread of Bolshevism in the east.

On March 4th President Wilson arrived for the second time in Paris, and found the Conference in the act of completing the preliminary peace terms. His insistence on incorporating the League of Nations covenant in the Peace Treaty caused great excitement and practical paralysis on the peace terms work for a few days.

**THE ITALIAN WITHDRAWAL**—Further trouble was caused by the withdrawal of the Italian delegates on April 24th, because of disagreement over the Fiume question. Later, the delegation returned and harmony was restored.

On April 28th the revised form of the League of Nations Covenant was adopted by the Conference. **For the Final Form of the League**, see the inside back cover of this History.

**TREATY HANDED GERMANY**—On May 1st the German representatives to the Conference were received and credentials were exchanged. The names of the German delegates were as follows: Count Brockdorff-Rantzau, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Herr Landsberg, Minister of Publicity, Arts and Literature; Herr Giesberts, Minister of Posts; Herr Leinert, President of Prussian Assembly; Adolf Mueller, Minister to Berne; Walter Rathenau, Prominent Financier and Economic and Electrical Expert; Max Warburg, Shipbuilder and Financier; Herr Stegerwald, well-known Leader in the labor movement; Eduard David,

Minister of State in Scheidemann Cabinet; Dr. Theodor Melchior, Manager of Warburg Bank; Professor Schuecking, International lawyer. On May 7th in a great assembly, the Peace Treaty with the League of Nations covenant incorporated in it was presented. No oral discussion was allowed but a period of two weeks (later extended) was given to Germany to make written suggestions and criticisms.

**FOR THE GERMAN PEACE TERMS** see the inside back cover of this History.

The Peace Terms caused a storm of comment and disapproval in Germany. The last weeks in May were devoted by the Conference to the consideration of the German counter proposals and some modifications were made—particularly in the case of reparations. No considerable changes in the terms, however, were made by the Allies. The Allies' final draft of the terms was handed the German delegates at Versailles on June 16. The Delegation, headed by Count Von Brockdorff-Rantzau carried these Final Terms to the German general assembly sitting at Weimar. They were given until June 23 for acceptance or refusal. In case of refusal invasion of Germany was to at once follow.

**AUSTRIAN TERMS**—In the meantime work on other treaties and dealings with other nations have gone on. On May 8th work on the Peace terms for Austria, Hungary and Bulgaria was begun and by June 25th was practically complete. The Austrian peace terms provide for the reduction of the Austrian army to 15,000 men, the surrender of all war ships and virtually all military supplies, and the payment of an indemnity of one billion dollars.

On May 24th the Council of Four took up the consideration of the Bulgarian peace terms. At the same time China authorized her delegates to sign the Peace Treaty, with reservations regarding Shantung. On May 27th a special committee took up the drafting of a series of treaties with the newly created states. Many questions yet remain to be settled but it is felt that the chief work of the Peace Conference is drawing to a close.

**THE PROBLEM OF TURKEY** has practically been settled by dividing it into five or six parts. The chief difficulty is to so distribute the parts as not to cause religious war.

**THE PROBLEM OF RUSSIA** remains a complex one. Siberia, the Ukraine, the Baltic Provinces and the Caucasus have broken away, and there is no government for the whole country. The Bolsheviki control a large part of the country while in Siberia and the Caucasus region a government resisting the Bolsheviki is being aided by Allied money and council.

It has not been the policy of the Allies to interfere in Russian governmental affairs but to aid the Russians to establish peace and prevent the spread of Bolshevism to other countries.

Various attempts were made by the Peace Conference to get the various elements of Russia together but to no avail. On May 26th the Council of Four decided to recognize any non-Bolshevik government which would agree to convene a National Assembly and respect the frontiers determined by the League of Nations. The outcome is doubtful as the country is still in a state of anarchy and confusion.

**OTHER WAR CHANGES**—One of the chief results of the war was the break up of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire and its disintegration into a number of small states. The complete collapse of Austria made it easy to remove the Hapsburg power from Hungary as well as Austria. While Austria was becoming a republic, Hungary was going through a period of revolution. With the abdication of Emperor Charles the government in Hungary came into the hands of Count Karolyi, an ardent defender of liberty and independence. On November 16th Hungary was officially declared a Republic with Karolyi its President. There followed a state of political chaos and communist revolt. Food conditions and the protest against the boundaries set by the Conference for Hungary, aggravated the situation. On March 21st the Karolyi government was overthrown by a communist revolutionary element under Russian Bolshevik leadership. By April 1st altho riot and disorder still continued the Soviet government had been recognized and the Conference had invited it to send delegates to discuss peace terms.

**POLAND** became a republic on February 9th with Paderewski as President, and on February 21st was recognized as an independent state by the Peace Conference. It contains about 22,000,000 people and 85,000 square miles. Its rebirth as a nation rights an ancient wrong.

**JUGO-SLAVIA**, or the country of the Southern Slavs, has been formed of the Kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro, together with the former Austrian Provinces of Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, Dalmatia and Herzegovina. Its area is about 70,000 square miles; population about 8,000,000. Belgrade the capital of Serbia is the capital of the new nation.

**CZECHO-SLOVAKIA**, a new Republic, was formed from the old Austrian Provinces of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia. The Czechs also claim a portion of Hungary. The population of this new nation is about 10,511,444 and its area about 35,261 square miles.

**CAPTURED GERMAN VESSELS SUNK**: On June 21st, the German crews of the interned Battle Fleet located at Scapa Flow in the Orkney Islands, sunk the greater part of the Fleet by opening the watercocks in the bottom of the vessels.

The German crews made good their escape from the sinking vessels and are held as prisoners by the British Government. As the Allies had themselves seriously discussed the advisability of the sinking of these War Vessels, the news of their loss was received with a mingled feeling of regret and relief.

**GERMANS ACCEPT PEACE TERMS**: The Final Peace Terms submitted to the German Assembly at Weimar provoked—as of course was expected—a storm of protest. After bitter discussion the German Cabinet, headed by President Ebert and Philipp Scheidemann resigned on June 21st, declining to sign the Treaty.

A new Cabinet headed by Gustav Bauer as President, and Dr. Hermann Mueller as Minister of Foreign Affairs, took office immediately; and on June 22nd transmitted through their Representatives at Versailles, their agreement to the signing of the Treaty in the form finally presented by the Allies.

**THE GERMANS SIGN TREATY**: On Saturday, June 28th, at 12:00 o'clock noon in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles the Peace Terms were finally signed before an impressive assembly representing all the Allied Powers. The German representatives were: Dr. Hermann Mueller, Foreign Minister; and Dr. Bell, Chief of Colonial Office.

Thus finally closes the greatest war of all times. From it emerges a wiser if a sadder world, possessed with the hope and belief that the oceans of blood shed by brave men in the cause of freedom was not shed in vain; and with a League of Nations formed to maintain and perpetuate the liberties so dearly preserved during four and a half years of frightful carnage.

# AN HISTORICAL SUMMARY OF THE WORLD WAR

{ AUG. 1st, 1914  
{ NOV. 11th, 1918

WITH GAZETEER GIVING PRONUNCIATION OF NAMES OF TOWNS ON THE WESTERN FRONT

## 1914

June 28—Archduke Ferdinand and wife assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia.

July 28—Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.

Aug. 1—Germany declares war on Russia and general mobilization is under way in France and Austria-Hungary.

Aug. 2—German troops enter France at Cirey; Russian troops enter Germany at Schwidden; German army enters Luxemburg over protest and Germany asks Belgium for free passage of her troops.

Aug. 3—British fleet mobilizes; Belgium appeals to Great Britain for diplomatic aid and German ambassador quits Paris.

Aug. 4—France declares war on Germany; Germany declares war on Belgium; Great Britain sends Belgium neutrality ultimatum to Germany; British army mobilized and state of war between Great Britain and Germany is declared. President Wilson issues neutrality proclamation.

Aug. 5—Germans begin fighting on Belgium frontier; Germany asks for Italy's help.

Aug. 6—Austria declares war on Russia.

Aug. 7—Germans defeated by French at Altkirch.

Aug. 8—Germans capture Liege. Portugal announces it will support Great Britain; British land troops in France.

Aug. 10—France declares war on Austria-Hungary.

Aug. 12—Great Britain declares war on Austria-Hungary; Montenegro declares war on Germany.

Aug. 15—Japan sends ultimatum to Germany to withdraw from Japanese and Chinese waters and evacuate Kiaochow; Russia offers autonomy to Poland.

Aug. 20—German army enters Brussels.

Aug. 23—Japan declares war on Germany; Russia victorious in battles in East Prussia.

Aug. 24—Japanese warships bombard Tsingtao.

Aug. 25—Japan and Austria break off diplomatic relations.

Aug. 28—English win naval battle over German fleet near Helgoland.

Aug. 29—Germans defeat Russians at Allenstein; occupy Amiens; advance to La Fere, sixty-five miles from Paris.

Sept. 1—Germans cross Marne; bombs dropped on Paris.

Sept. 2—Government of France transferred to Bordeaux.

Sept. 4—Germans cross the Marne.

Sept. 5—England, France, and Russia sign pact to make no separate peace.

Sept. 6—French win battle of Marne;

Sept. 7—Germans retreat from the Marne.

Sept. 14—Battle of Aisne starts; German retreat halted.

Sept. 15—First battle of Soissons fought.

Sept. 20—Russians capture Jaroslau and begin siege of Przemysl.

Oct. 9-10—Germans capture Antwerp.

Oct. 12—Germans take Ghent.

Oct. 20—Fighting along Yser river begins.

Oct. 29—Turkey begins war on Russia.

Nov. 1—British cruiser fleet destroyed in action off coast of Chile.

Nov. 7—Tsingtao falls before Japanese troops.

Dec. 8—German fleet destroyed in battle off Falkland islands.

Dec. 11—German advance on Warsaw checked.

Dec. 14—Belgrade recaptured by Serbians.

Dec. 16—German cruisers bombard Scarborough, Hartlepool, and Whitby, on English coast, killing fifty or more persons; Austrians said to have lost upwards of 100,000 men in Serbian defeat.

Dec. 25—Italy occupies Avlona, Albania.

## 1915

Jan. 1—British battleship Formidable sunk.

Jan. 8—Roumania mobilizes 750,000 men; violent fighting in the Argonne.

Jan. 11—Germans cross the Rawka, thirty miles from Warsaw.

Jan. 24—British win naval battle in North sea.

Jan. 29—Russian army invades Hungary; German efforts to cross Aisne repulsed.

Feb. 1—British repel strong German attack near La Bassee.

Feb. 2—Turks are defeated in attack on Suez canal.

Feb. 4—Russians capture Tarnow in Galicia.

Feb. 8—Turks along Suez canal in full retreat; Turkish land defenses at the Dardanelles shelled by British torpedo boats.

Feb. 11—Germans evacuate Lodz.

Feb. 12—Germans drive Russians from positions in East Prussia, taking 26,000 prisoners.

Feb. 14—Russians report capture of fortifications at Smolnik.

Feb. 16—Germans capture Plock and Bielsk in Poland; French capture two miles of German trenches in Champagne district.

Feb. 17—Germans report they have taken 50,000 Russian prisoners in Mazurian lake district.

Feb. 18—German blockade of English and French coasts put into effect.

Feb. 19-20—British and French fleets bombard Dardanelles forts.

Feb. 21—American steamer Evelyn sunk by mine in North sea.

Feb. 22—German war office announces capture of 100,000 Russian prisoners in engagements in Mazurian lake region; American steamer Carib sunk by mine in North sea.

Feb. 28—Dardanelles entrance forts capitulate to English and French.

March 4—Landing of allied troops on both sides of Dardanelles straits

reported; German U-4 sunk by French destroyers.

March 10—Battle of Neuve Chapelle begins.

March 14—German cruiser Dresden sunk in Pacific by English.

March 18—British battleships Irresistible and Ocean and French battleship Bouvet sunk in Dardanelles strait.

March 22—Fort of Przemysl surrenders to Russians.

March 23—Allies land troops on Gallipoli peninsula.

March 25—Russians victorious over Austrians in Carpathians.

April 8—German auxiliary cruiser, Prinz Eitel Friederich, interned at Newport News, Va.

April 16—Italy has 1,200,000 men mobilized under arms; Austrians report complete defeat of Russians in Carpathian campaign.

April 23—Germans force way across Ypres canal and take 1,600 prisoners.

April 29—British report regaining of two-thirds of lost ground in Ypres battle.

May 7—Liner Lusitania torpedoed and sunk by German submarine off the coast of Ireland with the loss of more than 1,000 lives. 102 Americans.

May 9—French advance two and one-half miles against German forces north of Arras, taking 2,000 prisoners.

May 23—Italy declares war on Austria.

June 3—Germans recapture Przemysl with Austrian help.

June 18—British suffer defeat north of La Bassee canal.

June 28—Italians enter Austrian territory south of Riva on western shore of Lake Garda.

July 3—Tolmino falls into Italian hands.

July 13—Germans defeated in the Argonne.

July 29—Warsaw evacuated; Lublin captured by Austrians.

Aug. 4—Germans occupy Warsaw.

Aug. 14—Austrians and Germans concentrate 400,000 soldiers on Serbian frontier.

Aug. 21—Italy declares war on Turkey.

Sept. 1—Ambassador Bernstorff announces Germans will sink no more liners without warning.

Sept. 4—German submarine torpedoes liner Hesperian.

Sept. 9—Germans make air raid on London, killing twenty persons and wounding 100 others; United States asks Austria to recall Ambassador Dumba.

Sept. 20—Germans begin drive on Serbia to open route to Turkey.

Sept. 22—Russian army retreating from Vilna, escapes German encircling movement.

Sept. 25-30—Battle of Champagne, resulting in great advance for allied armies and causing Kaiser Wilhelm to rush to the west front; German counter attacks repulsed.

Oct. 5—Russia and Bulgaria sever diplomatic relations; Russian, French, British, Italian, and Serbian diplomatic representatives ask for passage in Sofia.

Oct. 10—German forces take Belgrade.

Oct. 12—Edith Cavell executed by Germans.

Oct. 13—Bulgaria declares war on Serbia.

Oct. 15—Great Britain declares war on Bulgaria.

Oct. 16—France declares war on Bulgaria.

Oct. 19—Russia and Italy declare war on Bulgaria.

Oct. 27—Germans join Bulgarians in northeastern Serbia and open way to Constantinople.

Oct. 30—Germans defeated at Mitau.

Nov. 9—Italian liner Ancona torpedoed.

Dec. 1—British retreat from near Bagdad.

Dec. 4—Ford "peace party" sails for Europe.

Dec. 8-9—Allies defeated in Macedonia.

Dec. 15—Sir John Douglas Haig succeeds Sir John French as chief of English armies on west front.

## 1916

Jan. 8—British troops at Kut-el-Amara surrounded.

Jan. 9—British evacuate Gallipoli peninsula.

Jan. 13—Austrians capture Cetinje, capital of Montenegro.

Jan. 23—Scutari, capital of Albania, captured by Austrians.

Feb. 22—German crown prince's army begins attack on Verdun.

March 8—Germany declares war on Portugal.

March 15—Austria-Hungary declares war on Portugal.

March 24—Steamer Sussex torpedoed and sunk.

April 10—President Wilson speaks to congress, explaining diplomatic situation.

April 18—President Wilson sends note to Germany.

April 24—Insurrection in Dublin.

April 29—British troops at Kut-el-Amara surrender to Turks.

April 30—Irish revolution suppressed.

May 3—Irish leaders of insurrection executed.

May 4—Germany makes promise to change methods of submarine warfare.

May 13—Austrians begin great offensive against Italians in Trentino.

May 31—Great naval battle off Danish coast. (Battle of Jutland.)

June 5—Lord Kitchener lost with cruiser Hampshire.

June 11—Russians capture Dubno.

June 29—Sir Roger Casement sentenced to be hanged for treason.

July 1—British and French begin great offensive on the Somme.

July 6—David Lloyd George appointed secretary of war.

July 9—German merchant submarine Deutschland arrives at Baltimore.

July 23—Gen. Kuropatkin's Russian army wins battle near Riga.

July 27—English take Delville wood; Serbian forces begin attack on Bulgars in Macedonia.



# A BRIEF HISTORICAL SUMMARY OF THE GREAT WORLD WAR

**Aug. 2**—French take Fleury.

**Aug. 3**—Sir Roger Casement executed for treason.

**Aug. 4**—French recapture Thiaumont for fourth time; British repulse Turkish attack on Suez canal.

**Aug. 7**—Italians on Isonzo front capture Monte Sabotino and Monte San Michele.

**Aug. 8**—Turks force Russian evacuation of Bitlis and Mush.

**Aug. 9**—Italians cross Isonzo river and occupy Austrian city of Goeritz.

**Aug. 10**—Austrians evacuate Stanislau; allies take Doiran, near Saloniki, from Bulgarians.

**Aug. 19**—German submarines sink British light cruisers Nottingham and Falmouth.

**Aug. 24**—French occupy Maurepas, north of the Somme; Russians recapture Mush in Armenia.

**Aug. 27**—Italy declares war on Germany; Roumania enters war on side of allies.

**Aug. 29**—Field Marshal von Hindenburg made chief of staff of German armies, succeeding Gen. von Falkenbain.

**Aug. 30**—Russian armies seize all five passes in Carpathians into Hungary.

**Sept. 3**—Allies renew offensive north of Somme; Bulgarian and German troops invade Dobrudja, in Roumania.

**Sept. 7**—Germans and Bulgarians capture Roumanian fortress of Tutra-kan; Roumanians take Orsova, Bulgarian city.

**Sept. 10**—German-Bulgarian army capture Roumanian fortress of Silistria.

**Sept. 14**—British for first time use "tanks."

**Sept. 15**—Italians begin new offensive on Carso.

**Oct. 2**—Roumanian army of invasion in Bulgaria defeated by Germans and Bulgarians under Von Mackensen.

**Oct. 4**—German submarines sink French cruiser Gallia and Cunard liner Franconia.

**Oct. 8**—German submarines sink six merchant steamships off Nantucket, Mass.

**Oct. 11**—Greek seacoast forts dismantled and turned over to allies on demand of England and France.

**Oct. 23**—German-Bulgar armies capture Constanza, Roumania.

**Oct. 24**—French win back forts near Verdun, in smash of two miles.

**Nov. 1**—Italians, in new offensive on the Carso plateau, capture 5,000 Austrians.

**Nov. 2**—Germans evacuate Fort Vaux at Verdun.

**Nov. 5**—Germans and Austrians proclaim new kingdom of Poland, of territory captured from Russia.

**Nov. 6**—Submarine sinks British passenger steamer Arabia.

**Nov. 7**—Cardinal Mercier protests against German deportation of Belgians; submarine sinks American steamer Columbian.

**Nov. 8**—Russian army invades Transylvania, Hungary.

**Nov. 9**—Austro-German armies defeat Russians in Volhynia and take 4,000 prisoners.

**Nov. 13**—British launch new offensive in Somme region on both sides of Ancre.

**Nov. 14**—British capture fortified village of Beacourt, near the Ancre.

**Nov. 19**—Serbian, French, and Russian troops recapture Monastir; Germans cross Transylvania Alps and enter western Roumania.

**Nov. 21**—British hospital ship Britannic sunk by mine in Egean sea.

**Nov. 23**—Roumanian army retreats ninety miles from Bucharest.

**Nov. 24**—German-Bulgarian armies take Orsova and Turnu-Severin from Roumanians.

**Nov. 25**—Greek provisional government declares war on Germany and Bulgaria.

**Nov. 28**—Roumanian government abandons Bucharest and moves capital to Jassy.

**Dec. 5**—Premier Herbert Asquith of England resigns.

**Dec. 7**—David Lloyd George accepts British premiership.

**Dec. 8**—Gen. von Mackensen captures big Roumanian army in Prohova valley.

**Dec. 12**—Chancellor von Bethman-Hollweg announces in reichstag that Germany will propose peace; new cabinet in France under Aristide Briand as premier, and Gen. Robert Georges Nivelle given chief of command of French army.

**Dec. 15**—French at Verdun win two miles of front and capture 11,000 men.

**Dec. 19**—Lloyd George declines German peace proposals.

**Dec. 23**—Baron Burian succeeded as minister of foreign affairs in Austria by Count Czernin.

**Dec. 26**—German proposes to President Wilson "an immediate meeting of delegates of the belligerents."

**Dec. 27**—Russians defeated in five-day battle in eastern Wallachia, Roumania.

## 1917

**Jan. 1**—Submarine sinks British transport Ivernia.

**Jan. 9**—Russian premier, Trepoff, resigns. Golitzin succeeds him.

**Jan. 31**—Germany announces unrestricted submarine warfare.

**Feb. 3**—President Wilson reviews submarine controversy before congress; United States severs diplomatic relations with Germany; American steamer Housatonic sunk without warning.

**Feb. 7**—Senate indorses president's act of breaking off diplomatic relations.

**Feb. 12**—United States refuses German request to discuss matters of difference unless Germany withdraws unrestricted submarine warfare order.

**Feb. 14**—Von Bernstorff sails for Germany.

**Feb. 25**—British under Gen. Maude capture Kut-el-Amara; submarine sinks liner Laconia without warning; many lost, including two Americans.

**Feb. 26**—President Wilson asks congress for authority to arm American merchantships.

**Feb. 28**—Secretary Lansing makes public Zimmerman note to Mexico, proposing Mexican-Japanese-German alliance.

**March 9**—President Wilson calls extra session of congress for April 16.

**March 11**—British under Gen. Maude capture Bagdad; revolution starts in Petrograd.

**March 15**—Czar Nicholas of Russia abdicates.

**March 17**—French and British capture Bapaume.

**March 18**—New French ministry is formed by Alexander Ribot.

**March 21**—Russian forces cross Persian border into Turkish territory; American oil steamer Healdton torpedoed without warning.

**March 22**—United States recognizes new government of Russia.

**March 27**—Gen. Murray's British expedition into the Holy Land defeats Turkish army near Gaza.

**April 2**—President Wilson asks congress to declare that acts of Germany constitute a state of war; submarine

sinks American steamer Aztec without warning.

**April 4**—United States senate passes resolution declaring a state of war exists with Germany.

**April 6**—House passes war resolution and President Wilson signs joint resolution of congress.

**April 8**—Austria declares severance of diplomatic relations with United States.

**April 9**—British defeat Germans at Vimy Ridge and take 6,000 prisoners; United States seizes fourteen Austrian interned ships.

**April 20**—Turkey severs diplomatic relations with the U. S.

**April 28**—Congress passes selective service act for raising of army of 500,000; Guatemala severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

**May 7**—War department orders raising of nine volunteer regiments of engineers to go to France.

**May 14**—Espionage act becomes law by passing senate.

**May 18**—President Wilson signs selective service act. Also directs expeditionary force of regulars under Gen. Pershing to go to France.

**May 19**—Congress passes war appropriation bill of \$3,000,000,000.

**June 5**—Nearly 10,000,000 men in U. S. register for military training.

**June 12**—King Constantine of Greece abdicates.

**June 13**—Gen. Pershing and staff arrive in Paris.

**June 15**—First Liberty loan closes with large oversubscription.

**June 26**—First contingent American troops under Gen. Sibert arrives in France.

**June 29**—Greece severs diplomatic relations with Teutonic allies.

**July 9**—President Wilson drafts state militia into federal service. Also places food and fuel under federal control.

**July 13**—War department order drafts 678,000 men into military service.

**July 14**—Aircraft appropriation bill of \$640,000,000 passes house; Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg's resignation forced by German political crisis.

**July 18**—United States government orders censorship of telegrams and cablegrams crossing frontiers.

**July 19**—New German Chancellor Michaelis declares Germany will not war for conquest; radicals and Catholic party ask peace without forced acquisitions of territory.

**July 22**—Siam declares war on Germany.

**July 23**—Premier Kerensky given unlimited powers in Russia.

**July 28**—United States war industries board created to supervise expenditures.

**Aug. 25**—Italian Second army breaks through Austrian line on Isonzo front.

**Aug. 28**—President Wilson rejects Pope Benedict's peace plea.

**Sept. 10**—Gen. Korniloff demands control of Russian government.

**Sept. 11**—Russian deputies vote to support Kerensky. Korniloff's generals ordered arrested.

**Sept. 16**—Russia proclaims new republic by order of Premier Kerensky.

**Sept. 20**—Gen. Haig advances mile through German lines at Ypres.

**Sept. 21**—Gen. Tasker H. Bliss named chief of staff, U. S. army.

**Oct. 16**—Germans occupy islands of Runo and Adro in the Gulf of Riga.

**Oct. 25**—French under Gen. Petain advance and take 12,000 prisoners on Aisne front.

**Oct. 27**—Formal announcement made that American troops in France had fired their first shots in the war.

**Oct. 29**—Italian Isonzo front collapses and Austro-German army reaches outposts of Udine.

**Nov. 1**—Secretary Lansing makes public the Luxburg "spurlos versenkt" note.

**Nov. 9**—Permanent interallied military commission created.

**Nov. 24**—Navy department announces capture of first German submarine by American destroyer.

**Nov. 28**—Bolsheviki get absolute control of Russian assembly in Russian elections.

**Dec. 6**—Submarine sinks the Jacob Jones, first regular warship of American navy destroyed.

**Dec. 7**—Congress declares war on Austria-Hungary.

**Dec. 8**—Jerusalem surrenders to Gen. Allenby's forces.

## 1918

**Jan. 5**—President Wilson delivers speech to congress giving "fourteen points" necessary to peace.

**Jan. 20**—British monitors win sea-fight with cruisers Goeben and Breslau, sinking latter.

**Jan. 28**—Russia and Roumania sever diplomatic relations.

**Feb. 2**—United States troops take over their first sector, near Toul.

**Feb. 6**—United States troopship Tuscania sunk by submarine, 126 lost.

**Feb. 11**—President Wilson, in address to congress, gives four additional peace principles, including self-determination of nations; Bolsheviki declares war with Germany over, but refuse to sign peace treaty.

**Feb. 13**—Bolo Pasha sentenced to death in France for treason.

**Feb. 25**—Germans take Reval, Russian naval base, and Pskov; Chancellor von Hertling agrees "in principle" with President Wilson's peace principles, in address to reichstag.

**March 1**—Over 75,000 American troops in France by this date. Americans repulse Germans on Toul sector.

**March 2**—Treaty of peace with Germany signed by Bolsheviki at Brest-Litovsk.

**March 13**—German troops occupy Odessa.

**March 14**—All Russian congress of soviets ratifies peace treaty.

**March 21**—On West Front German spring Offensive starts on fifty mile front.

**March 22**—Germans take 16,000 British prisoners and 200 guns.

**March 23**—German drive gains nine miles. Long Range "Mystery gun" shells Paris.

**March 24**—Germans reach the Somme, gaining fifteen miles. American engineers rushed to aid British.

**March 25**—Germans take Bapaume.

**March 27**—Germans take Albert.

**March 28**—British counter attack and gain; French take three towns; Germans advance toward Amiens.

**March 29**—"Mystery gun" kills seventy-five churchgoers in Paris on Good Friday.

**April 4**—Germans start second phase of their spring drive on the Somme.

**April 10**—Germans take 10,000 British prisoners in Flanders.

**April 16**—Germans capture Messines ridge, near Ypres; Bolo Pasha executed.

**April 23**—British and French navies "bottle up" Zeebrugge.

**April 26**—Germans capture Mount Kemmel, taking 6,500 prisoners.

**May 5**—Austria starts drive on Italy.

**May 10**—British navy bottles up Ostend.

# BRIEF HISTORICAL SUMMARY OF THE GREAT WORLD WAR

**May 24**—British ship *Moldavia*, carrying American troops, torpedoed; 56 lost.

**May 27**—Germans begin third phase of drive on west front; gain five miles.

**May 28**—Germans take 15,000 prisoners in drive.

**May 29**—Germans take Soissons and menace Reims. American troops capture Cantigny.

**May 30**—Germans reach the Marne, fifty-five miles from Paris.

**May 31**—Germans take 45,000 prisoners in drive.

**June 1**—Germans advance nine miles; are forty-six miles from Paris.

**June 3**—Five German submarines attack U. S. coast and sink eleven ships.

**June 5**—U. S. marines fight on the Marne near Chateau Thierry.

**June 9**—Germans start fourth phase of their drive by advancing toward Noyon.

**June 10**—U. S. Marines capture Belleau Wood.

**June 12**—French and Americans start great counter attack.

**June 15**—Austrians begin another drive on Italy and take 16,000 prisoners.

**June 17**—Italians check Austrians on Piave river.

**June 19**—Austrians cross the Piave.

**June 22**—Italians defeat Austrians on the Piave.

**June 23**—Austrians begin great retreat across the Piave.

**July 18**—Gen. Foch launches allied offensive, with French, American, British, Italian and Belgian troops.

**July 21**—Americans and French capture Chateau Thierry.

**July 30**—German crown prince withdraws army from the Marne.

**Aug. 2**—Soissons recaptured by Foch.

**Aug. 4**—Americans take Fismes.

**Aug. 5**—American troops landed at Archangel.

**Aug. 7**—Americans cross the Vesle.

**Aug. 16**—Bapaume recaptured.

**Aug. 28**—French recross the Somme.

**Sept. 1**—Foch retakes Peronne.

**Sept. 12**—Americans launch successful attack in St. Mihiel salient.

**Sept. 28**—Allies win on 250 mile line, from North sea to Verdun.

**Sept. 29**—Allies cross Hindenburg line.

**Sept. 30**—Bulgaria surrenders, after successful Allied campaign in Balkans.

**Oct. 1**—French take St. Quentin.

**Oct. 4**—Austria asks Holland to mediate with allies for peace.

**Oct. 5**—Germans start abandonment of Lille and burn Douai.

**Oct. 6**—Germany asks President Wilson for armistice.

**Oct. 7**—Americans capture defenses in the Argonne.

**Oct. 8**—President Wilson refuses armistice.

**Oct. 9**—Allies capture Cambrai.

**Oct. 10**—Allies capture Le Cateau.

**Oct. 11**—American transport *Otranto* torpedoed and sunk; 500 lost.

**Oct. 13**—Foch's troops take Laon and La Fere.

**Oct. 14**—British and Belgians take Roulers; President Wilson demands surrender by Germany.

**Oct. 15**—British and Belgians cross Lys river, take 12,000 prisoners and 100 guns.

**Oct. 16**—Allies enter Lille outskirts.

**Oct. 17**—Allies capture Lille, Bruges, Zeebrugge, Ostend and Douai.

**Oct. 18**—Czecho-Slovaks issue declaration of independence and seize Prague.

**Oct. 19**—President Wilson refuses Austria peace plea and says Czecho-Slovak state must be considered.

**Oct. 21**—Allies cross the Oise and threaten Valenciennes.

**Oct. 22**—Haig's forces cross the Scheldt.

**Oct. 23**—President Wilson refuses latest German peace plea.

**Oct. 27**—German government asks President Wilson to state terms.

**Oct. 28**—Austria begs for separate peace.

**Oct. 29**—Austria opens direct negotiations with Secretary Lansing.

**Oct. 30**—Italians inflict great defeat on Austria; capture 33,000; Austrians evacuating Italian territory.

**Oct. 31**—Turkey surrenders; Austrians utterly routed by Italians; lose 500,000; Austrian envoys, under white flag, enter Italian lines.

**Nov. 1**—Allied Conference at Versailles fixes peace terms for Germany.

**Nov. 3**—Austria signs an armistice virtually amounting to unconditional surrender.

**Nov. 4**—Allied terms are sent to Germany.

**Nov. 7**—Germany's envoys enter allied lines by arrangement.

**Nov. 9**—Kaiser Wilhelm abdicates and crown prince renounces throne.

**Nov. 10**—Former Kaiser Wilhelm and his eldest son, Friedrich Wilhelm, flee to Holland to escape widespread revolution throughout Germany.

**Nov. 11**—Germany signs armistice, ending war.

1919

**June 22**—German Envoys sign Allied Peace Terms at Versailles.

**June 28**—German National Assembly at Weimar approve Peace Terms, thereby formally ending the World War.

# PRONUNCIATION OF NAMES OF TOWNS IN BELGIUM AND FRANCE

Belgium.	Heyst—Hiest	Ramillies—Rah-mee-yay	Arras—Arrah	Dunkerque—Daihn-keerk	Nanteuil—Nong-toy
Aerschot—Ahr-shot	Huy—Wee	Ramscapelle—Rahms-kek-pel-leh	Audruico—O-dree-ko	Eprenay—Ay-pair-nay	Neuilly—Noy-yee
Alost—Ah-lawst	Jodoigne—Zho-dwan-ye	Renaix—Reh-nay	Bailleul—Ba-yeul	Epinal—Ay-pee-nal	Nord—Nor
Andenne—Ahn-den	Jongres—Zhong-r	Roulers—Roo-lay	Barleduc—Bar-leh-duke	Etain—Ay-tang	Norvelles—No-vel
Antwerp—Ahnt-werp	Knocke—K'noc-keh	Sambre—Sahm-br	Beauvais—Bo-vay	Etappes—Ay-tapp	Noyon—Nwah-yong
Arlon—Ahr-long	La Belle Alliance—Law-Bell-Ah-lee-anz	Seraing—Seh-rang	Beaufort—Bo-for	Fontaine—Fong-ten	Oise—Wahz
Beaumont—Bo-mong	Laeken—Lah-ken	Soignies—Swahn-yee	Beauvais—Bo-vay	Fumay—Fee-may	Orleans—Or-lay-ong
Binche—Ban-jhe	La Roche—Lah Rosh	St. Trond—Sang Trong	Belfort—Bel-for	Givet—Zhee-vay	Oye—Waaah
Blankenberghe—Blan-ken-behr-yeh	Liege—Lee-ayzh	Tamise—Tah-meez	Bergues—Bairg	Gravelines—Grahv-leen	Pas de Calais—Pah-d-Kah-lay
Bouvigne—Boo-veen-ye	Lierre—Laa-air	Termonde—Tair-mond	Berlaimont—Bair-leh-mong	Havre—Av-r	Peronne—Pair-run
Braine l'Alleud—Brain-luh-leuh	Ligny—Leen-yee	Terveuren—Ter-voo-ren	Berry au Bac—Bair-ree-oh-bak	Hazebrouck—Ahz-bruk	Reims—Renh
Braine le Conte—Brain-luh-Cont	Limburh—Lam-bour	Thielt—Teelt	Besancon—Beh-zahng-song	La Bassee—Lah-Bah-say	Roubaix—Roo-bay
Bruges—Breezh	Lipramont—Leap-rah-mong	Thourout—Too-roo	Bethune—Bay-toon	Laon—Lohng	Rouen—Roo-ong
Brussels—Brus-elz	Lokeren—Lo-ker-yen	Tirlemont—Teer-leh-mong	Blamont—Blah-mong	Lens—Lahng	Sedan—Seh-dong
Charleroi—Shar-lah-rwah	Lombartzeyde—Lom-bart-zide	Tongres—Tong-r	Bordeau—Bor-do	Liancourt—Lee-ong-coor	Senlis—Song-tee
Chimay—Shih-may	Louvain—Loo-ven	Tournay—Toor-nay	Boulogne—Boo-loue-ye	Lille—Leel	Soissons—Swah-song
Cortemarck—Kort-mark	Malines—Mah-leen	Verviers—Vair-vee-ay	Bourbourg—Boor-boor	Longwy—Long-vee	Somme—Sum
Courtrai—Koor-tray	Manage—Mah-nahzh	Vilvorde—Veel-vort	Bourges—Boorz	Luneville—Leen-veel	St. Armand—San-Tar-mong
Diest—Deest	Mariembourg—Mah-ree-om-boor	Virton—Veer-tong	Brest—Brest	Lys—Lees	St. Die—Sang-Dee-ay
Dinant—Dee-nahng	Middelkerke—Middle-kerk	Vise—Vee-zay	Breteil—Bre-toy	Malplaquet—Mahl-plah-kay	St. Mihiel—Sang-Meal
Dyle—Deel	Mons—Mongs	Waremme—Wah-rem	Calais—Kah-lay	Marne—Marn	St. Omer—San-to-mair
Dixmude—Dee-meehd	Mont St. Jean—Mong Sang Zhong	Wavre—Wahv-r	Chalons sur Marne—Shah-long-seer-Marn	Marseilles—Mar-say-yeh	St. Pol—Sang-pohl
Eghezee—Egg-a-zay	Namur—Nah-muhr	Ypres—Eep-r	Cambrai—Kong-bray	Maubert—Mo-bair	St. Quentin—Sang-kong-tang
Enghien—Ahn-yang	Neerwinden—Nair-vin-den	Yser—Ee-say	Chambley—Shahm-blav	Maubeuge—Mo-berz	St. Remy—Sang-Ruh-me
Furnes—Feern	Neufchateau—Nuf-shah-to	Zeebrugge—Zay-bruggeh	Chantilly—Shang-tee-yee	Meaux—Mo	Toulon—Too-long
Gembloux—Ghon-bloo	Nieuport—New-port	<b>France</b>	Chaumont—Sho-mong	Meurthe et Moselle—Murt-ay-Mo-sel	Valenciennes—Val-long-s-yenn
Genappe—Zeh-napp	Nievelles—Nee-vel	Aire—Air	Cherbourg—Sher-boor	Meuse—Merz	Varennes—Vah-ren
Gheel—Gail	Nonove—No-nov	Aisne—Ain	Compeigne—Kong-pee-enn	Mezieres—May-shee-air	Verdun—Vair-dung
Grammont—Gram-mong	Ostend—Os-tend	Amiens—Ah-mee-ang	Conde—Kong-day	Montideer—Mong-tee-dyay	Vervins—Ver-vang
Haelen—Hah-len	Ottignes—Ot-teen-ye	Ardennes—Ahr-den	Crecy—Kray-see	Montfaucon—Mong-fokong	Vitry—Vee-tree
Hal—Hahl	Oudenard—Ood-n-ard	Ardres—Ahrd-r	Denain—Deh-neh	Montmedy—Mong-meh-dee	Vosges—Vohzh
Hamme—Hahm	Pervyse—Pair-voez	Argonne—Ahr-gon	Dieppe—Dee-epp	Montreuil—Mong-troy	Woevre—Wuh-vr
Hasselt—Hah-selt		Arieux—Ahr-yuh	Douai—Doo-ay	Nancy—Nahn-see	Zaycoote—Zaid-koht
Herenthals—Hehr-en-tals		Armentieres—Ahr-mahn-tee-air			

SEE FOLLOWING PAGE FOR THE PEACE CONGRESS TERMS — AND SUMMARY OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS



# A SUMMARY OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**The Proposed Signatories of the League**—are to be the Associated Powers which drew it up. Other states may later be invited to come in. The Powers, whose members prepared the League are as follows:

(A) The United States, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan described in the League Constitution as the five allied and associated powers, and (B) Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, the Hedjas, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Portugal, Rumania, Serbia, Siam, Czecho-Slovakia, and Uruguay. Germany may later be admitted.

**Membership**—The members of the league will be the signatories of the covenant and other states invited to accede, who must lodge a declaration of accession without reservation within two months. A new state, dominion, or colony may be admitted provided its admission is agreed to by two-thirds of the assembly. A state may withdraw upon giving two years' notice, if it has fulfilled all its international obligations.

**Secretariat**—A permanent secretariat will be established at the seat of the league which will be at Geneva.

**Assembly**—The assembly will consist of representatives of the members of the league, and will meet at stated intervals. Voting will be by states. Each member will have one vote and not more than three representatives.

**Council**—The council will consist of representatives of the five great allied powers, together with representatives of four members selected by the assembly from time to time; it may co-operate with additional states and will meet at least once a year. Members not represented will be invited to send a representative when questions affecting their interests are discussed. Voting will be by states. Each state will have one vote and not more than one representative. Decision taken by the assembly and council must be unanimous except in regard to procedure, and in certain cases specified in the covenant and in the treaty, where decisions will be by a majority.

**Armaments**—The council will formulate plans for a reduction of armaments for consideration and adoption. These plans will be revised every ten years. Once they are with any party to the dispute which complies with it, if a member fails to carry out the award, the council will propose the necessary measures. The council will formulate plans for the establishment of a permanent court of international justice to determine international disputes or to give advisory opinions. Members who do not submit their case to arbitration must accept the jurisdiction of the assembly. If the council, less the parties to the dispute, is unanimously agreed upon the rights of it, the members agree that they will not go to war with any party to the dispute which complies with its recommendations. In this case, a recommendation by the assembly adopted, no member must exceed the armaments fixed without the concurrence of the council. Programs will be revised every ten years. Once they are adopted no member must exceed the armaments text without concurrence of the council. All members will exchange full information as to armaments and programs, and a permanent commission will advise the council on military and naval questions.

**Preventing of War**—Upon any war, or threat of war, the council will meet to consider what common action shall be taken. Members are pledged to submit matters of dispute to arbitration or inquiry and not to resort to war until three months after the award. Members agree to carry out an arbitral award, and not to go to war with any party to the dispute which complies with it; if a member fails to carry out the award the council will propose the necessary measures.

The council will formulate plans for the establishment of a permanent court of international justice to determine international disputes or to give advisory opinions. Members who do not submit their cases to arbitration must accept the jurisdiction of the assembly. If the council, less the parties to the dispute, is unanimously agreed upon the rights of it, the members agree that they will not go to war with any party to the dispute which complies with its recommendations.

In this case if the necessary agreement cannot be secured the members reserve the right to take such action as may be necessary for the maintenance of right and justice. Members resorting to war in disregard of the covenant will immediately be debarred from all intercourse with other members. The council will in such cases consider what military or naval action can be taken by the league collectively for the protection of the covenants and will afford facilities to members co-operating in this enterprise.

**Validity of Treaties**—All treaties or international engagements concluded after the institution of the league will be registered with the secretariat and published. The assembly may from time to time advise members to reconsider treaties which have become inapplicable or involve danger of peace. The covenant abrogates all obligations between members inconsistent with its terms, but nothing in it shall affect the validity of international engagement such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe doctrine for securing the maintenance of peace.

**The Mandatory System**—The tutelage of nations not yet able to stand by themselves will be entrusted to advanced nations who are best fitted to undertake it. The covenant recognizes three different stages of development requiring different kinds of mandatories. Communities like those belonging to the Turkish empire which can be provisionally recognized as independent, subject to advice and assistance from a mandatory in whose selection they would be allowed a voice. Communities like those of Central Africa, to be administered by the mandatory under conditions generally approved by the members of the league where equal opportunities for trade will be allowed to all members; certain abuses, such as trade in slaves, arms and liquor, will be prohibited, and the construction of military and naval bases and the introduction of compulsory military training will be disallowed. Other communities, such as Southwest Africa, and the south Pacific islands, will be administered under the laws of the mandatory as integral portions of its territory. In every case the mandatory will render an annual report and the degree of its authority will be defined.

**The Monroe Doctrine**—is fully safeguarded by the League, which provides that no intervention in American affairs is to be allowed.

**General International Provisions**—Subject to and in accordance with the provisions of international conventions existing or hereafter to be agreed upon, the members of the league will in general endeavor, through the international organization established by the labor convention, to secure and maintain fair conditions of labor for men, women and children in their own countries and other countries, and undertake to secure just treatment of the native inhabitants of territories under their control; they will entrust the league with the general supervision over the execution of agreements for the suppression of traffic in women and children, etc.; and the control of the trade in arms and ammunition with countries in which control is necessary; they will make provision for freedom of communications and transit and equitable treatment for commerce of all members of the league, with special reference to the necessities of regions devastated during the war; and they will endeavor to take steps for international prevention and control of disease. International bureaus and commissions already established will be placed under the league, as well as those to be established in the future.

**Amendments to the Covenant**—Amendments to the covenant will take effect when ratified by the council and by a majority of the assembly.

**Regarding Germany**—The covenant of the league of nations constitutes section 1 of the peace treaty, which places upon the league many specific duties in addition to its general duties. It may penalize Germany at any time for a violation of the neutralized zone east of the Rhine as a threat against the world's peace. It will appoint three of the five members of the Saar commission, to oversee its regime and carry out the plebiscite. It will appoint the high commissioner of Danzig, guarantee the independence of the free city and arrange for treaties between Danzig and Germany and Poland. It will work out the mandatory system to be applied to the former German colonies, and act as a final court in part of the plebiscites of the Belgian-German frontier, and in disputes as to the Kiel canal and decide certain of the economic and financial problems. An international conference on labor is to be held in October under its direction, and another on the international control of ports, waterways and railways is foreshadowed.

## SUMMARY OF THE GERMAN PEACE TERMS

Signed by the German Peace Delegates on June 28, and Ratified by the German Assembly on July 9, 1919.

The treaty of peace between the twenty-seven allied powers on the one hand and Germany on the other is the longest treaty ever drawn. It totals about 80,000 words, divided into fifteen main sections, and represents the combined product of more than a thousand experts working continually through a series of commissions for the five and a half months since Jan. 18.

The treaty is printed in parallel pages of English and French, which are recognized as having equal validity. It does not deal with questions affecting Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey except in so far as binding Germany to accept any agreement reached with those former allies.

Following the preamble and deposition of powers comes the covenant of the league of nations as the first section of the treaty. The frontiers of Germany in Europe are defined in the second section; European political clauses are given in the third.

Next are the military, naval and air terms as the fifth section, followed by a section on prisoners of war and military graves and a seventh on responsibilities. Reparations, financial terms and economic terms are covered in sections eight to ten. Then comes the aeronautic section, ports, waterways and railways section, the labor covenant, the section on guarantees and the final clauses.

Germany by the terms of the treaty restores Alsace-Lorraine to France, accepts the internationalization of the Saar basin temporarily and of Danzig permanently, agrees to territorial changes toward Belgium and Denmark and in East Prussia, cedes most of upper Silesia to Poland, and renounces all territorial and political rights outside Europe as to her own or her allies' territories, and especially to Morocco, Egypt, Siam, Liberia and Shantung. She also recognizes the total independence of German-Austria, Czecho-Slovakia and Poland.

Her army is reduced to 200,000 men, including officers; conscription within her territories is abolished; all forts fifty kilometers east of the Rhine razed; and all importation, exportation and nearly all production of war and material stopped.

Allied occupation of parts of Germany will continue till reparation is made, but will be reduced at the end of each of three five-year periods if Germany is fulfilling her obligations.

Any violation by Germany of the conditions as to the zone fifty kilometers east of the Rhine will be regarded as an act of war.

The German navy is reduced to six battleships, six light cruisers and twelve torpedo boats, without submarines, and a personnel of not over 15,000 troops. All other vessels must be surrendered or destroyed.

Germany is forbidden to build forts controlling the Baltic, demolish Helgoland, open the Kiel canal to all nations and surrender her fourteen submarine cables. She may have no military or naval air forces except 100 unarmed seaplanes until Oct. 1 to detect mines, and may manufacture aviation material for six months.

Germany accepts full responsibility for all damages caused to allied and associated governments and nationals, agrees specifically to reimburse all civilian damages beginning with an initial payment of 20,000,000,000 marks (about \$5,000,000,000), subsequent payments to be secured by bonds to be issued at the discretion of the reparation commission. Germany is to pay shipping damage on a ton-for-ton basis by cession of a large part of her merchant coasting and river fleets and by new construction; and to devote her economic resources to the rebuilding of the devastated regions.

She agrees to return to the 1914 most-favored nation tariffs without discrimination of any sort; to allow allied and associated nationals freedom of transit through her territories, and to accept highly detailed provisions as to pre-war debts, unfair competition, internationalization of roads and rivers and other economic and financial clauses.

She also agrees to the trial of the former kaiser by an international high court for a supreme offense against international morality and of other nationals for violation of the laws and customs of war, Holland to be asked to extradite the former emperor, and Germany being responsible for delivering the latter.

The league of nations is accepted by the allied and associated powers as operative and by Germany in principle, but without membership; but membership is to be given her a little later after complying with the first of the Peace Term requirements.

Similarly an international labor body is brought into being with a permanent office and an annual convention.

A great number of international bodies of different kinds and for different purposes are created, under the league of nations, some to execute the peace treaty.

Among the former is the commission to govern the Saar basin till a plebiscite is held fifteen years hence; the high commissioner of Danzig, which is created into a free city under the league, and various commissions for plebiscites in Malmedy, Schleswig and East Prussia.

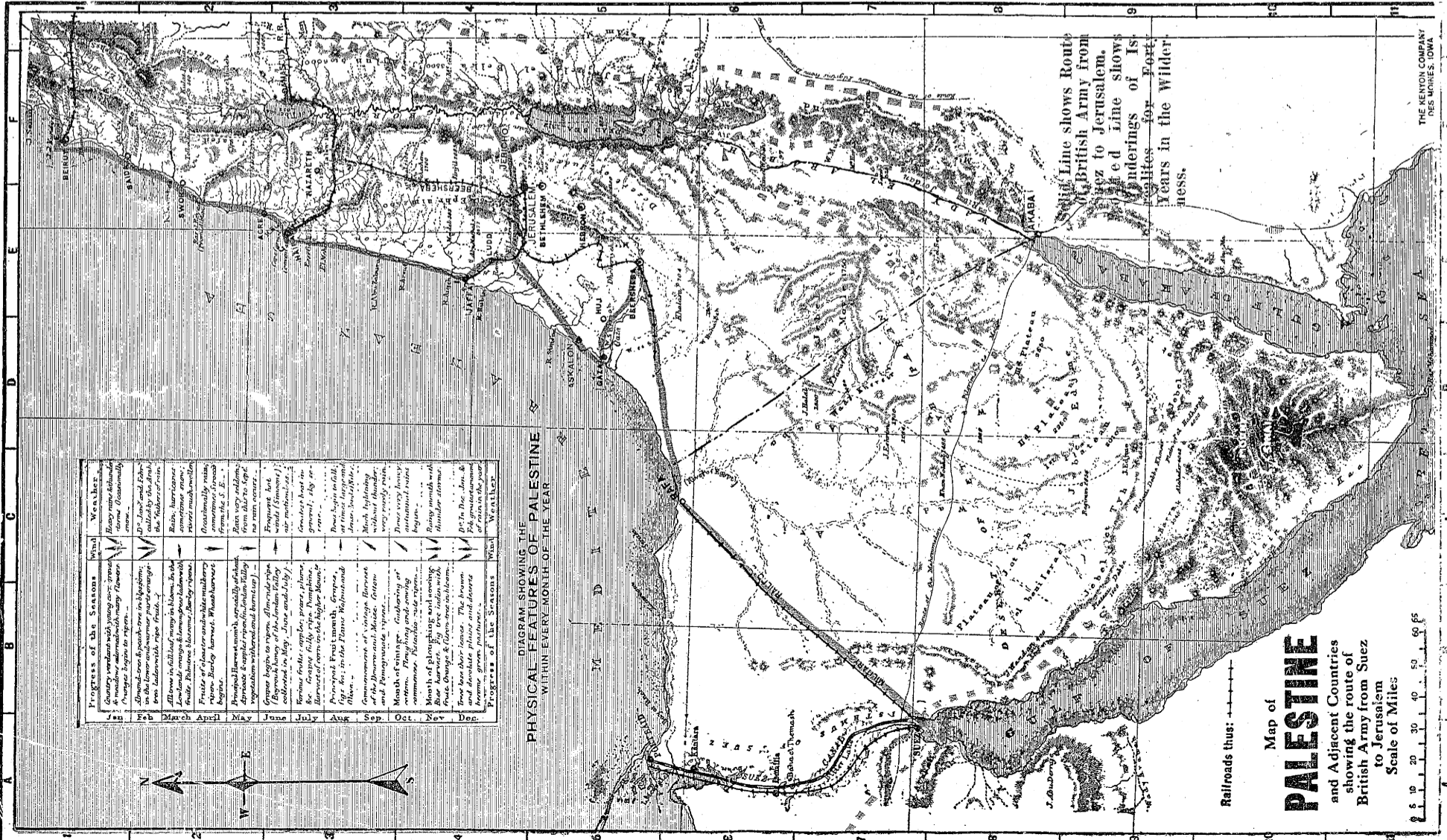
Among those to carry out the peace treaty are the reparations, military, naval, air, financial and economic commissions; the international high court and military tribunals to fix the responsibilities, and a series of bodies for the control of international rivers.

Certain problems are left for solution between the allied and associated powers, notably details of the disposition of the German colonies and the values paid in reparation. Certain other problems, such as the laws of the air, and the opium, arms and liquor traffic, are either agreed to in detail or set for early international action.

The preamble names as parties of the one part the United States, the British empire, France, Italy and Japan, described as the five allied and associated powers, and Belgium, Bolivia, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, the Hedjaz, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Serbia, Siam, Czecho-Slovakia and Uruguay, who with the five above are described as the allied and associated powers. and on the other part, Germany.

# THE FORMER EMPIRE OF TURKEY IN ASIA

Since the end of the War Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine have been taken from Turkey and placed under International control.



The line shows route of British Army from Haifa to Jerusalem. Dotted line shows boundaries of Israelites for forty years in the wilderness.

Map of PALESTINE and Adjacent Countries showing the route of British Army from Haifa to Jerusalem Scale of Miles





Conservator's Report  
Bentley Historical Library

Title: Atlas and Plat Book of Lenawee County, 1921

Received: Maps mounted to guards, stapled into paper covers with a cloth spine. Paper was acidic.

Treatment: Picked book to pieces. Removed staples. Washed pages in water, removing guards. Dried and pressed in blotter stack. Deacidified. Guarded pages stubbed for thickness. Laminated. Rebound in new scrapbook-style binding with laminated boards and internal canvas hinge.

Materials: Filtered water. Jade #834-403N PVA adhesive. Wei T'o deacidification solution. PROMATCO heavy duty endsheet paper. Ademco Cerex spun nylon heat tissue. Canvas cloth. Davey "Red Label" binder's board. Pyroxylin-impregnated library buckram. Aluminum screw-type binder posts.

Date work completed: Oct. 2001

Signed: James Craven and Bianna Borel











