Chapter 10 -- World War I and Beyond
1914-1920

Section 1: From Neutrality to War

Why It Matters  In 1914, nationalism, militarism, imperialism, and entangling alliances combined with other factors to lead the nations of Europe into a brutal war. The war quickly stretched around the globe. The United States remained neutral at first but ended up abandoning its long tradition of staying out of European conflicts.

Section Focus Question: What caused World War I, and why did the United States enter the war?

What Caused World War I?

Until 1914, there had not been a large-scale European conflict for nearly one hundred years. However, bitter, deep-rooted problems simmered beneath the surface of polite diplomacy. Europe was sitting on a powder keg of nationalism, regional tensions, economic rivalries, imperial ambitions, and militarism.

Nationalism and Competition Heighten Tension  Nationalism, or devotion to one’s nation, kick-started international and domestic tension. In the late 1800s, many Europeans began to reject the earlier idea of a nation as a collection of different ethnic groups. Instead, they believed that a nation should express the nationalism of a single ethnic group. This belief evolved into an intense form of nationalism that heightened international rivalries. For example, France longed to avenge its humiliating defeat by a collection of German states in 1871 and regain Alsace-Lorraine, the territory it lost during that conflict. Nationalism also threatened minority groups within nation-states. If a country existed as the expression of “its people,” the majority ethnic group, where did ethnic minorities fit in?

The spread of the theory of Social Darwinism did not help soothe the competitive instinct. Social Darwinism applied biologist Charles Darwin’s ideas of natural selection and “survival of the fittest” to human society. Social Darwinists believed that the best nation would come out ahead in the constant competition among countries. Nationalism also destabilized old multinational empires such as Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman Empire. This was particularly true in the Balkan region of southeastern Europe. For example, when Serbia emerged as an independent nation in 1878, it challenged the nearby empire of Austria-Hungary in two ways: by trying to gain territory controlled by the empire, where Serbs lived, and by the example it offered to Austria-Hungary’s diverse peoples. The nationalist sentiments of the period sometimes spilled over into the economic goals of each nation. Industrial output, trade, and the possession of an overseas empire were the yardsticks of wealth and greatness. The leading industrial nations competed for lands rich in raw materials as well as for places to build military bases to protect their empires. Britain already had a large empire, and France commanded a smaller one. But Germany, Italy, Belgium, Japan, and the United States also rushed to join the imperial race. Together, industrialized nations jostled among themselves as they carved colonies out of Africa, claimed islands in the Pacific, and began to nibble away at China.

Militarism Produces an Arms Race  For some European leaders, the question was not so much “if” a great war would start but “when.” To prepare, leaders increased the size of their armies and stockpiles of weapons. No nation readied its machinery more than Germany. By 1914, it had a huge standing army and the largest, deadliest collection of guns in the world. It also built up its navy enough to rival Britain’s, the world’s strongest at that time. To keep up, Britain, too, increased the size of its navy. A spirit of militarism, or glorification of the military, grew in the competing countries and fueled this arms race even more. The contest between Germany and Britain at sea and between Germany, France, and Russia on land guaranteed one important thing: The next major war would involve more troops and more technologically advanced weapons than ever before. Machine guns, mobile artillery, tanks, submarines, and airplanes would change the nature of warfare.

Alliances Make Nations Overconfident and Reckless  European leaders also prepared for war by forming alliances. Before 1914, two major ones emerged. Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy joined together in the Triple Alliance (although Italy never fought with it). Opposed to the Triple Alliance was the Triple Entente, made up of France, Russia, and Great Britain. Alliances emboldened leaders to act recklessly. They knew that if they did declare war, powerful allies were obligated to fight along with them. No country wanted to be seen as an unreliable partner. As years passed, European leaders thought less of the advantages of peace and more of the possible benefits of war. Some also hoped that a foreign war would help to smooth over domestic problems.

Assassination Hurts Europe Toward World War  On June 28, 1914, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, and his wife Sophie left for what they thought would be a routine visit to Sarajevo (sar uh YAY voh), the capital city of the Austro-Hungarian province of Bosnia. But a handful of young Bosnians had other plans for the archduke and his wife. These men were ethnic Serbs who believed that Bosnia rightfully belonged to Serbia, and they saw Francis Ferdinand as a tyrant. After the archduke’s driver made a wrong turn, Gavrilo Princip, one of the conspirators, noticed the couple in the car, pulled a pistol from his pocket, and fired it twice. First Sophie and then Francis Ferdinand died. People around the world were shocked by the senseless murders. But no one expected that they would lead to a great world war.

 ✓Checkpoint  How did nationalism and militarism both work to push Europe toward war?
The Fighting Begin

Everything was in place for a great conflict—nationalist ambitions, large armies, stockpiles of weapons, alliances, and military plans. The nations of Europe were hurtling like giant trains toward a great collision. Archduke Francis Ferdinand’s assassination was the incident that triggered this conflict.

Alliances Cause a Chain Reaction Soon after the assassination, Kaiser William II, the German emperor, assured Austria-Hungary that Germany would stand by its ally if war came. Confident in Germany’s support, Austria-Hungary then sent a harsh ultimatum to Serbia demanding Serbia’s total cooperation in an investigation into the assassination. When Serbia did not agree to all the demands, Austria-Hungary declared war on July 28, 1914.

Because of the alliance system, what otherwise might have been a localized quarrel quickly spread. In early August, Russia mobilized for war to help its ally Serbia against Austria. This caused Germany to declare war against Russia. France, Russia’s ally, promptly declared war against Germany. The very next day, Germany declared war against neutral Belgium, so that it could launch an invasion of France through that small country. Great Britain, which had treaties with France and Belgium, immediately declared war against Germany. In less than one week, the Central Powers of Germany and Austria-Hungary were at war against the Allied Powers of Britain, France, Russia, and Serbia. The Ottoman Empire later joined the Central Powers.

German soldiers fought through Belgium and moved southwest into France, toward Paris. Then in September, with the German advance only 30 miles from Paris, the French and the British counterattacked and stopped the German forces near the Marne River.

Deadly Technology Leads to Stalemate After the Battle of the Marne, the Germans settled onto high ground, dug trenches, and fortified their position. When French and British attacked, the German troops used machine guns and artillery to kill thousands of them. The French and British then dug their own trenches and used same weapons to kill thousands of counterattacking Germans. Soon, 450 miles of trenches stretched like a huge scar from the coast of Belgium to the border of Switzerland. Although fighting went on in Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and in other parts of the world, this Western Front in France became the critical battle front. The side that won there would win the war.

The war dragged on for years, and it was hideously deadly—much more so than anyone had expected. The primary reason for the length of the war and its deadly nature was the simple fact that the defensive weapons of the time were better and more devastating than the offensive ones. Generals on each side threw their soldiers into assaults against the enemy without fully considering the new technology. Charging toward trenches that were defended by artillery, machine guns, and rifles was futile. In virtually every battle on the Western Front, the attacking force suffered terribly. Even the use of poison gas did nothing to benefit the offense, except by horrific effects. Ineffective offensives and effective defensives produced only a deadly stalemate.

The Reality of Trench Warfare The stalemate led to gruesome conditions for the men in the trenches of the Western Front. The soldiers battled the harsh conditions of life often as fiercely as they attacked the enemy. They developed “trench foot” from standing for hours in wet, muddy trenches. They contracted lice from the millions of rats that infested the trenches. Dug into the ground, the soldiers lived in constant fear, afraid to pop their heads out of their holes and always aware that the next offensive might be theirs last.

Even on a quiet day, soldiers could be killed by snipers or a surprise gas attack, like the one described by French officer Paul Truffaut at Verdun:

> “The special shells the men call “shells on wheels” [shells filled with poison gas] are whizzing by continuously. They explode silently and have no smell but can be deadly. They killed several men yesterday. One of my men refused to put his mask on because he couldn't smell anything. All of a sudden, he was dizzy, foaming at the mouth and his skin went black, then he went rigid and died.”

---Paul Truffaut, March 5, 1917

In between enemy lines was an area known as “no man's land.” Artillery barrages had blasted no man’s land until any fields, trees, or homes, that had once existed there, were charred beyond recognition. Soldiers went “over the top” of their trenches into this muddy, nearly impassable wasteland when they attempted to attack the entrenched enemy. Casualties—soldiers killed, wounded, and missing—mounted first in thousands, then hundreds of thousands, and finally in millions. Almost one million French soldiers were killed or wounded in just the first three months of the war. The Germans lost only slightly fewer. In two battles in 1916—Verdun (ver DÜHN) and the Somme (suhm)—the British, French, and Germans sustained more than 2 million casualties. The British suffered 60,000 casualties on the first day alone at the Somme and achieved virtually nothing. And still the stalemate dragged on.

### Deadly Technology of World War I

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deadly Technology of World War I</th>
<th>⚫ Quick Study</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Machine Guns</td>
<td>Improved machine guns could fire 600 bullets per minute.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Artillery field guns</td>
<td>These long-range cannons caused more causalities than any other type of weapon.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poison gas</td>
<td>Gases such as chlorine, phosgene, and mustard gas could kill, blind, or burn their victims.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Submarines</td>
<td>German U-boats, or submarines used torpedoes as well as on-deck guns to sink ships.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tanks and armored cars</td>
<td>Both sides tried to develop vehicles that could go over the rough ground and barbed-wire barricades of no man’s land, with limited success.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Airplanes</td>
<td>Planes were used for reconnaissance, bombing, and fighting but did not prove decisive.</td>
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Wilson Urges Neutrality

As the war spread in Europe, President Woodrow Wilson called for Americans to be “impartial in thought as well as action.” In a “melting pot” nation that tried to make Americans of peoples from diverse origins, Wilson did not want to see the war set Americans against one another. At first, most Americans viewed the conflict as a distant European quarrel for land and influence. Unless the nation’s interests were directly threatened, Americans wanted no part of it. They preferred to maintain what they viewed as traditional American isolation from European disputes. Still, many Americans felt the war’s effects and few were truly impartial in thought. Most held a preference for one or another combatant, and many businesses benefited from the increased demand by warring nations for American goods.

Americans Have Divided Loyalties

In 1914, one third of Americans were foreign-born. Many still thought of themselves in terms of their former homelands—as German Americans, Irish Americans, Polish Americans, and so on. With relatives in Europe, many people supported the nation in which they were born.

Some German Americans in the Midwest and some Irish Americans along the East Coast felt strongly that the Central Powers were justified in their actions. Many Americans had emigrated from Germany or Austria-Hungary. Millions of Irish Americans harbored intense grudges over the centuries of Great Britain’s domination of their homeland. They hoped that Ireland would gain its independence as Britain became entangled in the war. Many Jewish Americans who had fled Russia to escape the Czarist regimes’ murderous pogroms against Jews hoped for Russia’s defeat.

Most Americans, however, sided with Britain and France, both of which had strong historic ties with the United States. America’s national language was English, its cultural heritage was largely British, and its leading trading partner was Britain. France had aided the American cause during the Revolutionary War.

American Opinion Crystallizes

No event at the beginning of the war swayed American opinion more than the vicious German invasion of neutral Belgium. German soldiers marching through Belgium committed numerous atrocities, killing unarmed civilians and destroying entire towns. British journalists and propagandists stressed, and sometimes exaggerated, the brutality of the Germans’ actions. Americans might have only dimly understood the causes of the war, but they clearly perceived the human cost of the war for Belgium.

Eventually, three distinct positions on the war crystallized among Americans. One group, the isolationists, believed that the war was none of America’s business and that the nation should isolate itself from the hostilities. A second group, the interventionists, felt that the war did affect American interests and that the United States should intervene in the conflict on the side of the Allies. A third group, the internationalists, occupied the middle ground. Internationalists believed that the United States should play an active role in world affairs and work toward achieving a just peace but not enter the war.

Checkpoint Why did President Wilson fear that the war would set Americans against one another?

Neutrality Gives Way to War

An internationalist, President Wilson sincerely desired peace in his country and around the world. Between the start of the war in 1914 and America’s entry into it in 1917, Wilson attempted to use his influence to end the conflict among the warring countries. He failed in this great effort. Ultimately, he also failed to keep the United States out of the war.

Britain Blockades Germany

Early in the war, British leaders decided to use their navy to blockade Germany to keep essential goods from reaching the other country. International law generally allowed contraband goods, usually defined as weapons and other articles used to fight a war, to be confiscated legally by any belligerent nation. Noncontraband goods, such as food, medical supplies, and other nonmilitary items, could not be confiscated. Britain, however, contested the definition of noncontraband articles. As the war continued, Britain expanded its definition of contraband until it encompassed virtually every product, including gasoline, cotton, and even food—in spite of international law.

German Submarines Violate Neutral Rights

Germany responded by attempting to blockade Britain—even though it lacked the conventional naval forces to do so. Instead, in February 1915, Germany began sinking Allied ships using its U-boats, or submarines. The reality of the German blockade struck America on May 7, 1915, when a German U-boat sank the British passenger liner Lusitania off the coast of Ireland. German officials correctly claimed that the ship was carrying ammunition and other contraband. Americans protested that an unarmed and unresisting ship should not be sunk without first being warned and provided with safety for its passengers. President Wilson was stunned but still wanted peace. “There is such a thing as a man being too proud to fight,” he told his fellow citizens. “There is such a thing as a nation being so right that it does not need to convince others by force that it is right.”

Germany helped to keep the United States out of the war by eventually promising not to sink any more passenger ships. But in 1916, Germany violated that promise by sinking the unarmed French passenger ship Sussex. Another storm of protest erupted in America. Again, Germany pledged not to sink unarmed ships. This promise, called the Sussex Pledge, would not last long.
**Wilson Prepares for War**  President Wilson wanted to remain at peace, but even he must have realized the futility of that hope. At the end of 1915, Wilson began to prepare the nation for war. Many believed that “preparedness” was a dangerous course that could actually provoke war. Even so, Congress passed two pieces of legislation in 1916 to prepare for the possibility of U.S. involvement. The National Defense Act expanded the size of the army, and the Naval Construction Act ordered the building of more warships.

Still, Wilson hoped to avoid the conflict. In 1916, he ran for reelection with the slogan, “He kept us out of war.” It was a close election, but Wilson won a narrow victory over Republican Charles Evans Hughes.

**America Enters the War**  Wilson did not have much time to enjoy his victory. In early 1917, two events occurred that helped to push the United States into the war. American trade with the Allies had sustained Britain and France in the war, while the British blockade of Germany had stopped the flow of American goods to the Central Powers. As far as Germany was concerned, desperate times demanded desperate measures.

In January 1917, suffering severe supply shortages due to the blockade, Germany took action. First, German Foreign Minister Arthur Zimmermann sent a telegram to Mexico. The Zimmermann note proposed an alliance with Mexico, stating that if the United States declared war on Germany, Mexico should declare war on the United States. In return, after a German victory, Mexico would get back the states of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, which it had lost in 1848 after its defeat in the Mexican-American War. The telegram was intercepted by the British, who gave it to American authorities. Next, Germany once again announced unrestricted submarine warfare against Britain.

Although most leaders knew Mexico had no intention of attacking the United States, Americans were shocked by the publication of the Zimmermann note. Even Wilson no longer called for peace. On April 2, 1917, he asked Congress for a declaration of war against Germany:

> “The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty... We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.”
> —Woodrow Wilson, April 2, 1917

Congress responded on April 6, 1917, with a declaration of war. Wilson’s long struggle to keep America at peace was over.

**Checkpoint**  What German actions led the United States to enter World War I?

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<th>Comprehension</th>
<th>Progress Monitoring Online For: Self-test with vocabulary practice Web Code: nea-0603</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Terms and People</strong>  For each item below, write a sentence explaining its significance to the outbreak and course of World War I.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- militarism</td>
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<td>- Francis Ferdinand</td>
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<td><strong>2. Notetaking Reading Skill:</strong>  Identify Causes  Use your chart to answer the Section Focus Question: What caused World War I, and why did the United States enter the war?</td>
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<td><strong>3. Quick Write: Identify Causes</strong>  List each cause of U.S. entry into World War I, and then organize them in order of importance. Finally, turn you list into a paragraph describing the causes of U.S. involvement in the war.</td>
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<td><strong>Critical Thinking</strong></td>
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<td><strong>4. Draw Conclusions</strong>  Why did a stalemate develop on the Western Front?</td>
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<td><strong>5. Compare Points of View</strong>  Compare the three positions Americans took on the issue of whether or not the United States should enter the war.</td>
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<td><strong>6. Synthesize Information</strong>  Why did the United States decide to enter the war and fight on the side of the Allies?</td>
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**Section 2: The Home Front**

**Why It Matters**  Before the war, the federal government played a minor role in the daily lives of most Americans. But during World War I, the government assumed new powers. It regulated industrial and agricultural production, worked to shape public opinion, and established a new military draft. While war required sacrifice, it also brought new economic opportunities and many Americans migrated to other parts of the country in search of these opportunities. The war permanently changed Americans’ relationship with their government.

**Section Focus Question:**  How did the war affect Americans at home?

**America Mobilizes for War**
War affects many things, but its greatest impact is on the lives of ordinary people. People fight, sacrifice, and sometimes die in war. People work to produce the food that soldiers eat and the guns that soldiers fire. People shape the information that others receive about the war. War may be the result of conflicts between nations, but it touches the lives of millions of individuals.

**Building an Army** When the United States entered World War I, the United States Army was only a fraction of the size of European armies. To build the army, President Wilson encouraged Americans to volunteer for service and pushed Congress to pass the Selective Service Act. The act, which Congress passed in May 1917, authorized a draft of young men for military service in Europe. On the first day of its enactment, June 5, 1917, more than 9.6 million Americans registered for the draft and were assigned a number. The government held a “great national lottery” in July to decide the order in which the first draftees would be called into service. Blindfolded, Secretary of War Newton D. Baker pulled number 258 out of a jar. The group of men assigned that number became the very first draftees.

Over the course of the war, more than 24 million Americans registered for the draft. Of these, about 2.8 million were actually drafted into the armed forces. Including volunteers, the total number of American men in uniform during World War I reached nearly 4.8 million. More than 4 million of these were sent to help the Allies in France.

**Constructing a War Economy** While the Selective Service Commission raised an army, President Wilson worked to shift the national economy from peacetime to wartime production. This process proved slow and frustrating. First, the Council of National Defense, which was formed in August 1916, created an array of new federal administrative agencies to oversee different phases of the war effort. Individual agencies regulated food production, coal and petroleum distribution, and railway use. In practical terms, this meant that the government determined what crops farmers grew, what products industries produced, and how supplies moved around on the nation’s trains.

Problems and administrative overlap soon led to the creation of the War Industries Board (WIB). The WIB eventually became independent of the Council of National Defense. Headed by Bernard Baruch (buh ROOK), an influential Wall Street investment broker who reported directly to the President, the WIB regulated all industries engaged in the war effort. Baruch’s agency determined what products industries would make, where those products went, and how much they would cost. The system of free enterprise was curtailed to fulfill the nation’s acute need for war materials. Americans realized that they had to cooperate rather than compete in order to defeat the Central Powers.

What Baruch did for industry, future U.S. President Herbert Hoover achieved for agriculture. As head of the Food Administration, he set prices high for wheat and other foodstuffs to encourage farmers to increase production. He also asked Americans to conserve food as a patriotic gesture. If the American people ate less, then more food could be shipped to American and other Allied soldier fighting the war overseas. To this end, Hoover instituted wheatless Monday and Wednesdays, meatless Tuesdays, and porkless Thursdays and Saturdays.

**Shaping Public Opinion** Hoover’s efforts would have been fruitless if the American people did not believe in supporting the war. Most Americans did not understand the reasons for the war in 1914, and many questioned why the United States became involved in 1917. It was the job of the Committee on Public Information (CPI) to educate the public about the causes and nature of the war. The CPI had to convince Americans that the war effort was a just cause.

Wilson appointed George Creel as the director of the CPI. A former journalist and a passionate admirer of American institutions, Creel combined education and a widespread advertising campaign to “sell America.” The CPI distributed 75 million pamphlets and 6,000 press releases, and it assembled an army of 75,000 speakers who gave lectures and brief speeches on America’s war aims and the nature of the enemy. In addition, the CPI designed, printed, and distributed millions of posters that dramatized the needs of America and its allies. The CPI also stressed the cruelty and wickedness of the enemy, particularly Germany, which in some cases aggravated resentment toward German Americans. Still, using these methods, Creel and the CPI earned widespread support for the American war effort.

**Checkpoint** How did the United States ready its military, economy, and people for war?

**Opposition and its Consequences**

The CPI’s work was important because Americans did not always peacefully agree with one another about the war. Members of two large ethnic groups, German Americans and Irish Americans, tended to oppose the Allies for different reasons. Swept up in patriotic fervor, some people treated German Americans with prejudice, or intolerance. Other Americans were pacifists who opposed war for any reason. To quiet dissent, or differing opinions, the government acted in ways that sometimes trespassed on individual liberties.

**Resistance to the Draft** Without a doubt, the draft created controversy. Some Americans believed it was an illegal intrusion of the federal government into their private lives. Some men refused to cooperate with the Selective Service process. They were often court-martialed and imprisoned. Others simply tried to avoid the draft. Perhaps as many as 12 percent of men who received draft notices never responded to them.

Another group resisted the draft by becoming conscientious objectors, people whose moral or religious beliefs forbid them to fight in wars. In theory, the Selective Service Act exempted from combat service members of “any well recognized religious sect.
or organization... whose existing creed or principles forbid its members to participate in war.” In practice, this policy was widely ignored. Some conscientious objectors were treated badly by their local draft boards, and others were humiliated in training camps. As America’s participation in the war increased, however, the government improved its treatment of conscientious objectors.

**Women Work for Peace** Some American women also opposed the war. Before the war, a number of leading American feminists, including reformer Jane Addams, formed the Women’s Peace Party and, with pacifist women from other countries, the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom. Jeannette Rankin, the first woman to serve in the U.S. House of Representatives, voted against the declaration of war. After America joined the Allies, some women continued to oppose the war, but most supported American war efforts. For example, the influential National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA) dropped its initial peace initiatives and supported America’s war objectives. After adopting this new policy, NAWSA doubled in size.

**The Government Cracks Down on Dissent** The work of the CPI created a mood in America that did not welcome open debate. Some felt the CPI stifled the free expression of controversial opinions and worried about the impact of a rigorous military campaign on democracy. They did not want the freedoms that Americans held most dear to become victims of the conflict. As in previous and future wars, the government navigated a difficult path between respecting and restricting individual rights. Authorities tended to treat harshly individuals who worked against the goal of winning the war.

In June 1917, Congress passed the Espionage Act, allowing postal authorities to ban treasonable or seditious newspapers, magazines, or printed materials from the mail. It also enacted severe penalties for anyone engaged in disloyal or treasonable activities. Anyone found obstructing army recruiters, aiding the enemy, or generally interfering with the war effort could be punished with up to a $10,000 fine and 20 years of imprisonment.

In 1918, Congress limited freedom of speech even further with the passage of the Sedition Act. The act made it unlawful to use “disloyal, profane, scurrilous, or abusive language” about the American form of government, the Constitution, or the military forces. The government employed the Sedition Act to prosecute socialists, political radicals, and pacifists. Eugene V. Debs, the leader of the Socialist Party in America, was imprisoned under the act. For his crime—giving a mildly antiwar speech to a convention of socialists in Canton, Ohio—he was sentenced to a 10-year term in a federal prison.

The Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the Sedition Act in the case of Schenck v. United States (1919). The Court ruled that there are times when the need for public order is so pressing that First Amendment protections of speech do not apply. The Debs case and others like it show that the war did lead to some suppression of personal freedoms and individual rights.

**Prejudice Against German Americans** Sometimes, the war enthusiasm created by the CPI and other groups took an ugly turn. Some German Americans were treated harshly during the war. Americans regarded Germany—with its arrogant kaiser, ruthless generals, and spike-helmeted soldiers—as the primary foe among the Central Powers. Popular movies, such as The Kaiser, the Beast of Berlin, as well as some CPI posters and speeches intensified this feeling by portraying Germany as a cruel enemy. Some Americans wrongly generalized that if Germany was cruel, then all German people were cruel.

As a result, Americans stopped teaching German in public schools and discontinued playing the music of Beethoven and Brahms. They renamed German measles “liberty measles,” cooked “liberty steaks” instead of hamburgers, and walked their “liberty pups” instead of dachshunds. German Americans were pressured to prove their loyalty to America by condemning the German government, giving up speaking German and reading German-language newspapers, and participating enthusiastically in any patriotic drive. Occasionally, hatred of the German enemy boiled over into violence against German Americans. Some German Americans were harassed, others were beaten, and a few were killed for no other reason than they were born in Germany or spoke with a German accent.

**Checkpoint** Compare and contrast the reasons some Americans did not support the war.

**The War Changed American Society** The war not only changed the economic and political lives of Americans, but it also brought substantial social changes. New opportunities opened up for women, African Americans, and Mexican Americans. Some left their homes to seek new ones where they could take advantage of these opportunities.

**Women Embrace New Opportunities** Before the war, some American women campaigned for women’s suffrage. They won the vote in several western states and still hoped to gain the franchise nationally. Many feared that the war would draw attention away from their efforts. In fact, the war gave women new chances and won them the right to vote.

As men entered the armed forces, many women moved into the workforce for the first time. Women filled jobs that were vacated by men who had gone to fight. They worked in munitions factories, on the railroads, as telegraph operators and trolley conductors, and in other jobs that were previously open only to men. Others labored on farms. Some joined the Red Cross or the American Women’s Hospital Service and went overseas. They worked as doctors, nurses, ambulance drivers, and clerks. Thousands enlisted when the Army Corps of Nurses was created in 1918. Women proved that they could succeed in any type of job, regardless of difficulty or risk.

By their efforts and sacrifices during the war, women convinced President Wilson to support their suffrage demands. He contended that granting the vote to women was “vital to winning the war.” If women could do the work of men, they certainly
desired the same voting privileges as men. Finally, in 1919, Congress passed the Nineteenth Amendment giving the vote to women. The required two thirds of states ratified the amendment in the summer of 1920, a victory more than 70 years in the making.

**African Americans Follow Opportunity North** The war similarly presented new opportunities to African Americans. From the outset, most African American leaders supported the war. “If this is our country, then this is our war,” wrote African American leader W.E.B. Du Bois. He viewed the struggle as an excellent opportunity to show all Americans the loyalty and patriotism of African Americans. Thousands of them enlisted or were drafted into the army and sailed for the battlefields of France. On the battlefield, they fought in segregated units under the command of white officers. Altogether, 367,000 African Americans served in the military. Hundreds died for their country.

Meanwhile, a great movement of African Americans from the rural South to the industrial North was taking place. This movement to the “Land of Hope,” as many African Americans referred to the North at that time, is called the **Great Migration.** African Americans left their homes in the South for many reasons. Some hoped to escape the violent racism of the South. Others desired better jobs and a chance for economic advancement, which wartime industry in the North offered. Still others dreamed of a better future for their children. Between 1910 and 1920, more than 1.2 million African Americans moved to the North. Some whites in the South tried to get blacks to stay in the region of their birth, using methods that ranged from persuasion to violence. Meanwhile, African Americans who already lived in the North encouraged migration. Newspapers in the North, such as the **Chicago Defender,** an African American newspaper that was widely read in the South, pushed home this point:

**Primary Source**

“I beg you, my brother, to leave the benighted land... Get out of the South... Come north then, all you folks, both good and bad.... The Defender says come.”

—Chicago Defender

African Americans moved to Chicago, as the **Defender** encouraged, where they found work in meatpacking plants. They migrated to Detroit, where they obtained jobs in auto factories. They traveled to smaller industrial towns in the Midwest and to the giant cities of the Northeast. Millions eventually made the exodus, and although they did not entirely escape discrimination, many did forge better futures. The **Great Migration** was one of the most important episodes in African American history.

**Mexican Americans Move North** Some of the same reasons that led African Americans to move north caused Mexicans to cross the border into the United States. Many Mexicans also faced violence and desperate poverty, and they also wanted better lives for themselves and their children. Most immigrated to the American West, where they sought work on large ranches and farms in Texas and along the Pacific Coast. Increased demands for food and a decrease in American farmworkers created jobs that Mexican migrants filled.

Some of the Mexican migration was seasonal. Many workers crossed the border to harvest fruits or grains or to pick cotton while each crop was in season, then crossed back into Mexico. But others stayed and made the United States their home. Some Mexican workers migrated first to the Southwest and then to the northern states in search of factory jobs, but a large population stayed in California. They formed **barrios** (BAHR ee ohz), or Hispanic neighborhoods, in Los Angeles and in smaller cities in California’s **Imperial Valley.** California had always had a rich Hispanic heritage, but these new immigrants added an important economic dimension to that heritage.

**Checkpoint** How did the war provide new opportunities for women, African Americans, and Mexican Americans?

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**SECTION 2 Assessment**

**Comprehension**

1. **Terms and People** For each item below, write a sentence explaining how it affected the American home front during World War I.
   - Selective Service Act
   - Bernard Baruch
   - CPI
   - George Creel
   - conscience objector
   - Espionage Act
   - Great Migration

2. **NoteTaking** **Reading Skill:** **Summarize** Use your chart to answer the Section Focus Question: How did the war affect Americans at home?

3. **Quick Write:** **Identify Multiple Effects** Write a paragraph describing three effects that World War I had on the American home front. Think about economic and social changes caused by the war. Be sure to include at least one example of each effect to support your statements.

**Progress Monitoring Online**

For: Self-test with vocabulary practice

Web Code: nea-0604

**Critical Thinking**

4. **Categorize** In what ways did Americans support the war effort?

5. **Identify Point of View** How did the Supreme Court justify the restrictions of the Sedition Act?

6. **Predict Consequences** How do you think returning soldiers reacted to changes at home when the war ended?
Landmark Decisions of the Supreme Court

What Are the Limits of Free Speech?

The First Amendment guarantees that each person has the right to free speech, both spoken and written. It protects the right of people to have their say and to hear what other have to say. But can the government limit freedom of speech in order to protect the rights or safety of individuals and the nation?

Schenck v. United States (1919)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Facts</th>
<th>The Issue</th>
<th>The Decision</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• During World War I, Charles Schenck was convicted of violating the Espionage Act of 1917, which made it a crime to cause refusal of duty in the military.</td>
<td>Schenck’s appeal to the Supreme Court argued that his actions were protected by the First Amendment.</td>
<td>The Court unanimously upheld Schenck’s conviction and said that in times of war the government may place reasonable limitations on freedom of speech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Schenck had distributed pamphlets urging men to resist the military draft.</td>
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Why It Matters

The Supreme Court reasoned that there are limits to freedom of speech. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes pointed out that one does not have the right to falsely shout “Fire!” in a crowded theater and cause a panic. He then set his famous “clear and present danger” test for determining the limits of the First Amendment protection of speech.

“The question in every case is whether the words used are used in such circumstances and are of such a nature as to create a clear and present danger that they will bring about the substantive evils that Congress has a right to prevent.”

Over the years, the Supreme Court has protected the individual’s right to express unpopular ideas. But the Court has also said that free speech is limited. Restricted speech includes obscenities, libel, slander, words that incite violence, and words that pose an immediate threat to the rights of individuals or national security.

Connect to Your World

What are the limits of free speech in schools? Select one of the cases below. Research and summarize the facts of the case, the Court’s decision, and the reasoning behind the decision. Explain why you agree or disagree with the decision.


**For:** Supreme Court cases
**Web Code:** nee-0613
Section 3: Wilson, War and Peace

Why It Matters  When the United States entered World War I in the spring of 1917, the conflict had become a deadly, bloody stalemate. The war would be won or lost on the Western Front in France. Since 1914, both sides had tried desperately to break the stalemate there—and failed. The American entry into the war would play a key role in the Allied victory.

Section Focus Question: How did Americans affect the end of World War I and its peace settlements?

America Gives the Allies the Edge

To European leaders, the United States was a great unknown. Ethnic divisions in America raised questions about how committed American troops would be in combat. Some doubted that the United States could raise, train, equip, and transport an army fast enough to influence the outcome of the war. Desperate German military leaders renewed unrestricted submarine warfare, hoping to end the conflict before the Americans could make a difference.

Allied Convoys Protect Shipping  The Allies immediately felt the impact of the renewed unrestricted submarine warfare. German U-boats sank merchant ships in alarming numbers, faster than replacements could be built. As one merchant ship after another sank to the bottom of the sea, the Allies lost crucial supplies.

Together, the Allies addressed the problem of submarine warfare by adopting an old naval tactic: convoying. In a convoy, groups of merchant ships sailed together, protected by warships. The arrangement was designed to provide mutual safety at sea. Convoys made up of British and American ships proved to be an instant success. Shipping losses from U-boat attacks fell as sharply as they had risen. Germany’s gamble had failed.

The Allies Struggle  Meanwhile, the situation on land began to swing in favor of the Central Powers. The Allies were exhausted by years of combat. Russia was torn by revolutions. In March 1917, a moderate, democratic revolution overthrew Czar Nicholas II but kept Russia in the war. In November 1917, radical communists led by Vladimir Lenin (LEHN ihn) staged a revolution and gained control of Russia. Russia stopped fighting in mid-December, and on March 3, 1918, the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk ended the war between Russia (soon to become the Soviet Union) and Germany. The end of the war on the Eastern Front allowed Germany to send more soldiers to the Western Front.

In the spring of 1918, Germany launched an all-out offensive on the Western Front. The fierce attacks threatened to break through Allied defenses and open a path to Paris. The hard-pressed Allies organized a joint command under French General Ferdinand Foch (fawsh).

American Troops Join the Fight  General John J. Pershing, the commander of American forces in Europe, arrived in France in June 1917, with a small American force. However, it was not until early 1918 that American troops began arriving in larger numbers. At about the same time, the German offensive began to stall. By the end of March 1918, Allied counterattacks and German exhaustion ended the great German offensive.

More fighting followed, and with each passing week, American troops assumed more of the burden on the battlefield. Germany launched several more offensives. Allied defenses buckled and stretched but did not break. Each failed offensive weakened Germany a bit more and raised Allied hopes.

American Troops Distinguish Themselves  American troops called “doughboys,” saw significant action in the late spring and summer of 1918. Americans fought on the defensive along with the French at the Second Battle of the Marne and on the offensive at the Battle of Cantigny (kahnt tee NYEE), where they dislodged a large German force from fortified positions. They battled valiantly at Chateau-Thierry (sha TOH tir EE) and Belleau (beh LOH) Wood, Meuse-Argonne (myooz ahr GAHN) and Saint-Mihiel (mee YEHHL). Although it took some time, American troops learned quickly and fought bravely.

One of America’s greatest war heroes was Alvin York of Tennessee. On October 8, 1918, York was one of thousands of Americans fighting in the Meuse-Argonne region of northeastern France. Trapped behind enemy lines, York and 16 other Americans took cover from blistering machine-gun fire. As half of the American force fell to German bullets, York took aim with his rifle and silenced a nearby German machine-gun nest. He then dodged a flurry of bullets to attack several other machine gunners and even charged one German position with only a pistol! When the firefight died down, York and the surviving Americans had taken the German position against amazing odds. York’s battlefield heroics earned him a Congressional Medal of Honor.

Alvin York was only one of thousands of heroes, many of whom died and most of whom were never recognized for their deeds. They followed orders, fought bravely, and made great sacrifices. Although African American soldiers often faced discrimination in the United States Army, they demonstrated their patriotism in dozens of engagements. For example, an entire African American unit the 369th Infantry Regiment, received the Croix de Guerre, a French award for bravery, for its members’ actions in the Meuse-Argonne campaign. By the end of the war, 1.3 million American soldiers had served on the front, more than 50,000 had lost their lives, and about 230,000 had been wounded.
The War Ends  The American troops, added to those of France, Britain, and Italy, gave the Allies a military advantage. By the fall of 1918, the German front was collapsing. Both the German and Austro-Hungarian armies had had enough. Some men deserted, others mutinied, and many refused to fight. Their leaders faced little choice but to surrender. On November 11, 1918, Germany surrendered to the Allies in a railway car in Compiegne (kohn PYEHN), France.

The war was over. Of the millions of soldiers who mobilized to fight, almost 5 million Allied and 8 million Central Power troops were dead. Nearly 6.5 million civilians were also dead, victims of the terrible conflict. It was left to the peacemakers to determine whether the results would justify the costs.

✓Checkpoint  How did American involvement help the Allies win World War I?

Wilson Promotes Peace Without Victory
Vladimir Lenin, leader of the communist revolution in Russia, maintained that the entire war was nothing more than an imperialistic land-grab. Once in power, he exposed secret treaties that Russia had made with the other Allies in which they agreed to divide among themselves the empires of their enemies. These revelations undercut the morality of the Allied cause in the war. For President Woodrow Wilson, however, the war was not about acquisitions and imperialism—it was about peace and freedom. In January 1917, Wilson had introduced the idea of a “peace without victory” in an address to Congress:

<table>
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| “Only a tranquil Europe can be a stable Europe... [There] must be a peace without victory... Victory would mean peace forced upon the loser, a victor’s terms imposed upon the vanquished. It would be accepted in humiliation... and would leave a sting, a resentment, a bitter memory upon which terms of peace would rest, not permanently, but only as upon quicksand.”
---Woodrow Wilson, “Peace Without Victory” speech, January 22, 1917 |

In another address to Congress in January 1918, Wilson answered Lenin’s charges about the nature of the conflict by outlining America’s war aims in what became known as the Fourteen Points. At the heart of the Fourteen Points was his idea of “peace without victory.” Wilson proposed a peace inspired by noble ideals, not greed and vengeance.

The Fourteen Points sought to fundamentally change the world by promoting openness, encouraging independence, and supporting freedom. Critical of all secret treaties, Wilson called for open diplomacy. He insisted on freedom of the seas, free trade, a move toward ending colonialism, and a general reduction of armaments. He also championed national self-determination, or the right of people to choose their own form of government. This would lead to the creation of several new, independent states, but also raised many questions of which populations would achieve statehood and under what circumstances.

Finally, he asked for a League of Nations to secure “mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.”

In early 1919, the victorious Allies held a peace conference in Versailles (ver st), a suburb of Paris, in the former palace of Louis XIV. President Wilson believed that the peace conference was too important to be left to career diplomats and lesser politicians, so he crossed the Atlantic Ocean himself to represent the United States at the conference, something no President had ever done.

Wilson did not invite any leading Republicans to join him in his peace delegation. Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, a Republican foreign policy expert, was left behind because Wilson disliked him intensely. Wilson’s decision angered Republicans, who had won control of Congress in the 1918 elections. However, when the American President arrived in France, adoring crowds greeted him. “Never has a king, never has an emperor received such a welcome,” wrote one journalist.

✓Checkpoint  Why did Wilson believe that a “peace without victory” would help avoid future wars?

Wilson at the Paris Peace Conference
Wilson’s idealism did not inspire the other Allied leaders at the peace conference. They blamed Germany for starting the war, reminded Wilson that they had suffered more in the war than the United States, and insisted that Germany make reparations, or payment for war damages. They wanted to weaken Germany so that it would never threaten Europe again.

Allied Leaders Reject Wilson’s Ideas  British prime minister David Lloyd-George and French premier Georges Clemenceau (klay mahn SOH) knew that the citizens of their countries expected both peace and victory. Lloyd-George insisted on protecting the existing colonial status quo and punishing Germany. Clemenceau wanted to make Germany pay dearly for what it had done to France. In addition to reparations, he demanded the return of Alsace-Lorraine and several key German colonies. Besides Britain and France, other Allies also had goals of their own and were skeptical of Wilson’s grand vision.

Allies Create a League of Nations  Once the Versailles conference began, Clemenceau, Lloyd-George, Italian Premier Vittorio Orlando, and other Allied leaders started to chip away at Wilson’s Fourteen Points. Onto the scrap heap of failed proposals they piled freedom of the seas, free trade, the liberation of colonial empires, a general disarmament, and several other ideas.

Wilson lost a number of battles but kept fighting to salvage a League of Nations, a world organization where countries could gather and peacefully resolve their quarrels. On this point, Wilson refused to compromise. The other delegates finally voted to make the League of Nations part of the treaty.
Problems With the Peace In the end, the various peace treaties created almost as many problems as they solved. In the new map that emerged from the conference, national self-determination was violated almost as often as it was confirmed. In Europe, several populations of Germans found themselves attached to non-German nations. The same was true of several Austrian populations.

Furthermore, in the Middle East, the breakup of the Ottoman Empire led to new states in which ethnic groups were clustered together randomly. To form Iraq, for example, the Versailles peacemakers threw together three provinces of the defeated Ottoman Empire—Basra, Baghdad, and Mosul. But Basra had natural links to the Persian Gulf and India, Baghdad to Persia, and Mosul to Turkey and Syria. The various regions had no sense of Iraqi nationalism. In addition, Iraq, like other holdings in the Middle East, Asia, and Africa, was not allowed to practice self-determination. It was attached to Britain as a mandate, or territory overseen by another nation.

✓Checkpoint How did the decisions at the Paris Peace Conference violate the Fourteen Points?

America Rejects the Treaty

When Wilson left Versailles to return to the United States, he knew the treaty was not perfect. But he believed that over time the League could correct its problems. He still thought that a lasting peace could emerge.

Wilson Faces Troubles at Home Wilson did not leave his problems in France when he boarded a ship bound for the United States. German Americans thought the treaty was too harsh toward Germany, especially the “war guilt clause” that suggested that Germany had caused the war. Irish Americans criticized the failure to create an independent Ireland. Most importantly, however, the treaty would need to be submitted to the Republican-controlled Senate Foreign Relations Committee and then ratified, or approved, by the Republican-controlled Senate. In both bodies, as well as in his own Democratic Party, Wilson faced stiff opposition.

A handful of senators believed that the United States should not get entangled in world politics or involved in world organizations. Known as “irreconcilables,” these isolationist senators opposed any treaty that had a League of Nations folded into it. They particularly disliked Article 10 of the League covenant. Article 10 called for mutual defense by the signers of the treaty, a pledge that each nation would “respect and preserve... the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all the Members of the League.”

A larger group of senators, led by Henry Cabot Lodge and known as “reservationists,” were opposed to the treaty as it was written. Some wanted only small changes, while others demanded larger ones. For example, many felt Article 10 could lead the United States into a war without the consent of Congress, which was unconstitutional. Reservationists believed that the language of the article was too vague and demanded that it not contradict the power of Congress to declare war. But with some changes, the reservationists were prepared to vote for the Treaty of Versailles. They knew that polls indicated that the American people favored the League of Nations.

Wilson had compromised in Versailles, but he was not ready to compromise in Washington, D.C. When the Senate delayed its ratification vote, Wilson took his case directly to the people. The League of Nations had become his personal crusade. Even though he was ill and weak, he set himself the grueling task of crossing the country and giving 32 addresses in 33 days. But his health failed on September 25, 1919, in Pueblo, Colorado. He was rushed back to Washington, D.C., but suffered a debilitating stroke a few days later. As the Senate prepared to vote on the treaty, Wilson lay close to death, barely able to speak.

The Senate Rejects the Versailles Treaty In November 1919, one year after the war ended, a treaty revised to eliminate the complaints of the reservationists reached the Senate for a vote. Wilson would not compromise and told his Democratic supporters to vote with the irreconcilables against it. They did, and it was defeated. Next, the Senate voted on the treaty without any changes, the Democrats voted for it, but the combined strength of the irreconcilables and reservationists defeated it. Once more it was voted on, this time with only modest changes. Again, Wilson told his followers to vote against it. Although some Democrats voted for it, the combination of Wilson Democrats and irreconcilables defeated the treaty.

The problem was not that most of the Senate was isolationist. Except for the irreconcilables, most senators wanted the United States to participate in world affairs. They differed slightly on what form that participation would take. However, at a moment that demanded compromise, Wilson and his opponents refused to put aside personal and political differences for the good of the country. The tragedy of the failed votes was that without full American support, the League of Nations proved unable to maintain peace among nations.

✓Checkpoint What reservations did Henry Cabot Lodge and his followers have about the peace treaty?
why it is significant to the end of World War I.
- convoy
- Fourteen Points
- self-determination
- League of Nations
- Henry Cabot Lodge
- reparations
- “irreconcilables”
- “reservationists”

Question: How did Americans affect the end of World War I and its peace settlements?

Writing About History
3. Quick Write: Create an Effects Diagram Predict at least three problems that could stem from the Treaty of Versailles. Create a diagram showing these effects.

4. Summarize Describe America’s contribution to the Allied war effort?

5. Express Problems Clearly What problems did the peace treaties solve? What problems did they create?

6. Draw Conclusions Why did the United States Senate ultimately reject the peace treaty and the League of Nations?
Woodrow Wilson: The Fourteen Points

In a speech to Congress on January 8, 1918, President Wilson laid out America’s war aims and his vision for peace after the war. His speech included fourteen key points upon which he believed that the peace following the war must be based. However, not all of Wilson’s ideas were adopted at the Paris Peace Conference.

What we demand in this war, therefore, is nothing peculiar to ourselves. It is that the world be made fit and safe to live in; and particularly that it be made safe for every peace-loving nation which, like our own, wishes to live its own life, [and] determine its own institutions... The program of the world’s peace, therefore, is our only program; and that program, the only possible program as we see it, is this:

1. Open covenants1 of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view.
2. Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas, outside territorial waters, alike in peace and in war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.
3. The removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers and the establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all the nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.
4. Adequate guarantees given and taken that national armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.
5. A free, open-minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the government whose title is to be determined...
14. A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

Summary of the Fourteen Points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Point</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Make no secret diplomatic agreements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Allow freedom of the seas in peace and war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Remove as many economic trade barriers as possible between countries.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Reduce stockpiles of military armaments to lowest point needed for domestic safety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Adjust colonial claims, giving more weight to the views of the colonized peoples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Evacuate and restore Russian territories seized during the war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Restore and protect Belgium’s sovereignty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Restore French territory and settle the debate over Alsace-Lorraine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Adjust Italy’s boundaries according to the nationalities of populations living there.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Allow the peoples of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire to choose their own governments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Redraw boundaries of Balkan states based on nationalities and historical allegiances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Separate the Ottoman Empire into independent countries according to nationality; guarantee all nations access to the Dardanelles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Restore and protect Poland as a sovereign state with access to the sea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Establish an association of nations to provide collective security and to ensure peace.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Thinking Critically

1. **Make Inferences** Why does President Wilson think that the Fourteen Points are “the only possible program” for the world’s peace?
2. **Synthesize Information** Which of the Fourteen Points introduced the idea of the League of Nations?

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1. covenant (KUHV uh nuhnt) n. formal agreement.
Section 4: Effects of the War

Why It Matters The end of World War I produced an unstable international order. The loss of territory and the harsh reparations imposed by the Allies encouraged a strong desire for revenge in Germany. Meanwhile, Lenin’s Soviet Russia threatened revolution throughout the industrial world. In the United States, the horrors of the war along with widespread fear of communists and radicals led Americans to question their political, if not their economic, role in the world.

Section Focus Question: What political, economic, and social effects did World War I have on the United States?

America Adjusts to Peace

World War I produced significant economic, social, political, and cultural changes in America and throughout the world. This led to important, occasionally painful, adjustments.

Flu Epidemic Grips the Nation The movement from war to peace would have been difficult even in the best of times. But the end of 1918 and 1919 were not the best of times. In September 1918, an unusually deadly form of the influenza, or flu, virus appeared. Research in recent years shows that the 1918 influenza virus was originally a bird flu that mutated to spread to humans. Many historians now believe that the virus originated in the United States, then traveled around the world. Once the virus began, it spread like a wildfire and killed millions worldwide like a predator feasting on its prey. The great influenza pandemic, coming on the heels of the Great War, gave a sense of doom and dread to people around the globe.

Women and African Americans Confront New Realities Women and African Americans made significant advances during the war. However, the end of the war also spelled the end of wartime economic opportunities for both groups. A postwar recession, or economic slowdown, created a competitive job market. By 1920, there were fewer women in the workforce than there had been in 1910.

In northern industrial cities, African American workers vied with returning soldiers for jobs and housing. During the hot summer of 1919, race riots erupted in cities throughout the country. The worst, in Chicago, was triggered by the lynching of a young black man by whites, and went on for 13 days. In 1921, violence erupted in Tulsa, Oklahoma, when armed African American men—many of them returning veterans—tried to protect a young black man from lynching. By the time the Tulsa race riots were over, at least 10 whites and 26 African Americans were dead. In one African American neighborhood, white rioters burned 35 city blocks to the ground.

Inflation Leads to Labor Unrest During the war, inflation, or rising prices, had been held in check. After the conflict, Americans rushed to buy consumer goods rather than war bonds. The scarcity of these goods, coupled with widespread demand, caused inflation. During the war, the price of corn, wheat, cotton, cattle, and other agricultural goods had risen, encouraged by Hoover’s policies. After the war, prices fell sharply, making it difficult for farmers to pay their mortgages or buy what they needed for the next growing season. This began a period of tough times for farmers.

Industrial workers also felt the pain of inflation when their wages did not buy much as they had during the war. In 1919, more than 4 million workers, or 20 percent of the workforce, went on strike at one time or another. Demanding rewards for their wartime patriotism, workers struck for higher wages and shorter workdays. In Boston, even the police force struck. The workers won some of the strikes, but they lost far more. When some strikes turned violent, the pro-management press blamed the presence of radicals among the strike leaders.

✓Checkpoint How did the economic situation after the war lead to labor unrest?

The Red Scare

The reaction against labor was partly spurred by a wave of fear of radicals and communists. The emergence of the Soviet Union as a communist nation, which began in 1917, fed these fears. Communist ideology called for an international workers’ revolution as a prelude to the death of capitalism. To this end, Soviet leader Vladimir Lenin encouraged and supported revolutions outside of his country. In Central and Eastern Europe, a series of communist revolts did break out, making it seem like the worldwide revolution was starting.

Fear of Communism Starts the Red Scare This revolutionary activity abroad, coupled with strikes against the United States, prompted the first American Red Scare, a wave of widespread fear of suspected communists and radicals thought to be plotting revolution within the United States. Real revolutionary activity inside America gave substance to the scare. Authorities discovered bombs mailed to important industrialists and government officials, including Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer. Suspected anarchists, members of a radical political movement, exploded bombs in cities across America.

As the leading law-enforcement official, Palmer mounted a broad offensive against radicals in the United States in 1919 and 1920. In a series of raids in early 1920, known as the Palmer Raids, police arrested thousands of people, some who were radicals and some who were simply immigrants from southern or Eastern Europe. Most were never charged or tried for a crime. The government then deported hundreds of radicals.

To many, these actions seemed to attack the liberties that Americans held most dear. A group of people in New York City formed the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) in 1920 to protect these liberties. The ACLU tried to do this by becoming
involved in important court cases. To this end, the ACLU became involved in one of America's most controversial court cases: the trial of Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti.

**Sacco and Vanzetti Are Executed** Nicola Sacco (SAH koh) and Bartolomeo Vanzetti (van ZEHT ee) were Italian immigrants and known anarchists. They were charged with shooting and killing two men during a holdup at a shoe factory in a town near Boston. Eyewitnesses of the event said the robbers “looked Italian.” Sacco and Vanzetti were arrested and charged with the crime. Even though the ACLU provided defense counsel, the two men were found guilty in a swift and decisive trial, despite the fact that there was little hard evidence against them. Some prominent legal scholars, intellectuals, and liberal politicians charged that the convictions were based more on Sacco and Vanzetti’s ethnicity and political beliefs than on the facts of the crime.

Nevertheless, on August 23, 1927, the two men were put to death in the electric chair.

At its worst, hysteria accompanied by violence characterized the Red Scare. Mobs attacked suspected radicals, abused immigrants, and committed crimes in the name of justice. But eventually, the great fear ended. Americans saw that democracy and capitalism were more powerful in the United States than Lenin’s call for worldwide revolution. By the summer of 1920, the Red Scare hysteria, like the great influenza, had run its course.

✔ **Checkpoint** How did the rise of communism in the Soviet Union contribute to the Red Scare?

**Americans Embrace Normalcy**

Woodrow Wilson hoped that the presidential election of 1920 would prove that Americans supported both the League of Nations and his vision of the role the United States should play in the world. He suggested that electing Democratic presidential candidate James M. Cox of Ohio would show support for the League. The election of Republican candidate Warren G. Harding of Ohio would serve as a final rejection of the League.

Harding had a different view of the presidential race. He knew that national elections seldom turned on a single issue. Harding campaigned for a rejection of Wilsonian idealism. He was tired of progressive reforms and foreign crusades. Harding called for a return to “normalcy,” by which he meant the “normalcy” of what he believed had been a simpler time before Wilson took office in 1913. Harding won in a landslide, and Republicans won control of Congress, as well. Americans had decisively rejected Wilson’s ideas.

**A Quiet American Giant** Despite Harding’s election and all it implied, the United States did not plan to totally withdraw from world affairs. By 1920, the United States was an economic giant. It was the richest, most industrialized country in the world. Even before the war, America led all other nations in industrial output. Now, British and French demands for American goods created an immense trade imbalance. Europeans had to borrow money from American bankers and obtain lines of credit with American business firms to pay for the goods.

This situation fundamentally changed America’s economic standing in the world. The United States was now the largest creditor nation in the world, meaning that other countries owed the United States more money than the United States owed them. World War I shifted the economic center of the world from London to New York City. The United States embraced its new role as a quiet giant. A world without America playing a major economic role had become simply impossible to conceive.

**The World Adjusts to a New Order** World War I had caused sweeping changes around the globe. German and Russian monarchies toppled, and new forms of government were created. The Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires ceased to exist. Britain and France emerged from the war victorious but economically and politically weakened. In contrast, the victorious United States came out of the war strong, confident, and prosperous.

An old order five hundred years in the making had collapsed in just a few years. It was as if the world’s compass was out of whack and no one knew where to turn for directions. The United States was unsure of the requirements of its new status. Could America retreat into isolationism in political but not economic affairs? After rejecting the League of Nations, how could it exert its moral authority in the world? Americans would wrestle with these questions—and many others—in the decades ahead.

✔ **Checkpoint** Why did the United States become the leading economic power after World War I?

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**SECTION 4 Assessment**

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<th>Comprehension</th>
<th>Progress Monitoring Online</th>
<th>Critical Thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Terms and People</td>
<td>For: Self-test with vocabulary practice</td>
<td>4. Analyze Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For each item below, write a sentence explaining its significance to events in the United States after World War I.</td>
<td>Web Code: nea-0608</td>
<td>How did the influenza pandemic make the transition from war to peace more difficult?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• influenza</td>
<td>2. NoteTaking Reading Skill: Summarize Use your concept web to answer the Section Focus Question: What political, economic, and social effects did World War I have on the United States?</td>
<td>5. Determine Relevance How does the Sacco and Vanzetti case demonstrate the mindset of the Red Scare?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• inflation</td>
<td>3. Quick Write: Write a Thesis</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Red Scare</td>
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<td>• Palmer Raids</td>
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<td>• Nicola Sacco</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bartolomeo Vanzetti</td>
<td><strong>Statement</strong> Write a thesis statement for a cause-and-effect essay on the effects of World War I on the United States. Your thesis statement should state a point you will argue.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warren G. Harding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. **Draw Inferences** How did American both reject and embrace the new global influence of the United States?