

Historical Committee Booklet

Part 1- Work in the Historical Committee

A Historical Committee is a specialized committee that will be part of CFMUNESCO 2017. Its rules of procedure are slightly different from those of other MUN committees and so this Booklet is necessary to future delegates to understand them well.

1. How will the Historical committee work?

A Historical Committee is a committee focused on historical events, which occurred in past times. For this reason, throughout the conference, delegates will have to pretend they are taking a step back into the past.

During CFMUNESCO 2017, delegates will work in an assembly that resembles UN conferences and will discuss about crises that involved many countries and endangered the stability of our world in the past.

The events discussed will be real crises that happened during World War I, in the period of time between April 1917 and 1919, and that involved all the world. These crises occurred in different years and, during the debate, they will be discussed following their chronological order.

Each delegate will not represent a country in general, as it happens in other MUN committees, but a character, a sovereign or a prime minister, that guided a state during the period of time which the assembly will work on. Delegates will have to imitate the behaviour of that person and to operate always keeping in mind the real decisions (or plausible ones, if finding the real decisions is impossible) taken by their countries in a precise occasion.

Delegates have to follow the reality of facts that occurred and their speeches and actions must reflect the policy of their countries in those years. Every initiative of delegates to rewrite the history with fantastic and personal proposals will be stopped by Chairs.

2. Rules of procedure

The work of the Assembly will be slightly different from the one of other UN committees.

The purpose of the Assembly is to create, at the end of the conference, a final treaty, a big document that will chronologically trace the work of the assembly during the three days of the conference and so the progress of history during the period discussed, from April 1917 to 1919.

As delegates do not know exactly which events of World War I will be taken into consideration, they will not arrive at the committee with already written resolutions or clauses.

Before the conference (by the end of October), each delegate will be asked by Chairs to send a Position Paper regarding the situation of her/his country up to April 1917. The Position Papers will be the basis for the future discussions and will guarantee the Chairs that delegates are well prepared for the conference.

During the debate, some crises will be presented to delegates and they will try to face them the way their Countries did in past times. They will send the Chairs some drafts containing proposals that will be discussed and voted by the Assembly. If the drafts are passed, they will become part of the final treaty.

During the time of debate a form of moderated caucus will be used together with short periods of non-moderated caucus decided by Chairs when needed.

During a moderated caucus each delegate can speak in front of the Assembly for a time decided by Chairs.

During a non-moderated caucus delegates can leave their seats, speak, share ideas and write drafts in groups with other delegates.

3. Characteristics of a perfect HC delegate

As the Historical Committee is focused on history, delegates must love this subject.

This is also a very small and specialized committee and so delegates, who want to be part of it, should have previous MUN experience.

They also have to be flexible, curious, brave and open to new experiences.

Above all, delegates must cooperate and love working in groups, because the purpose is not to prevail against the others, but to find a solution together and together try to historically reconstruct the discussed period of time.

4. Chairs

Chairs are the maximum authorities in the committee.

They are present to make sure that all the rules of procedures are respected by delegates.

They control and moderate the debate, trying to guarantee a smooth activity.

They have the authority to decide which delegate will make a speech or a point of information and can accept or reject motions proposed by delegates.

They can decide if a draft submitted by a delegate should be discussed on the grounds that it must follow the historical events and the policy of the country which submitted it.

They can stop the speech of a delegate if he/she does not respect historical events thus bringing the discussion back to the correct line.

5. Language

English is the only working language allowed in CFMUNESCO 2017, as it is the international language of all MUN conferences. English should be formal and dialectal forms and slangs are not allowed.

Delegates must speak clearly, keeping a polite behaviour, and should not offend any other person in the room.

Unlike in the other committees and to better imitate the character they have been assigned, delegates will have to speak in 1st person singular, and not in 3rd person singular or 1st person plural.

6. Dress code

In the Historical Committee in CFMUNESCO 2017 the delegates' dress code must resemble the one of real UN delegates. An elegant western dress code is demanded and every folkloristic and sport outfit is forbidden.

7. Delegates' preparation

Delegates have to work passionately to find as much information as possible regarding the period of time they will work on even becoming part of it.

They do not have to learn the events from the point of view of the state they belong to, but from the point of view of the governor, and so of the country they will represent.

Before the beginning of CFMUNESCO 2017, delegates will have to send the Chairs a Position Paper regarding the situation of the country they represent up to April 1917 to attest their preparation for the debate.

If all the above formalities have frightened you, do not worry! During the last day of CFMUNESCO 2017 delegates will have the opportunity to debate more freely and to show their creativity in an *ad hoc* activity.

8. Useful links

- <http://teimun.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/TEIMUNHistoricalCrisisRoPs.pdf>
- www.unausa.org/global-classroom-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/caucusing
- www.unausa.org/global-classroom-model-un/how-to-participate/getting-started/model-un-glossary

Part 2- Historical Background

1. Introduction

Entire historical committees in past MUN conferences have been focused on the causes of World War I. Although on the 28th of July Archduke Franz Ferdinand of the Austro-Hungarian Empire was assassinated and a subsequent chain of events led to the July crisis and to the ignition of World War I, there had been several previous disagreements and situations that escalated into the Great War. The following chapter will attempt to convey some of the phenomena that now are commonly seen as among the most relevant causes of World War I.

Please note that the topic of the Historical Committee is not the causes of World War I or its early stages, but covers a time span that starts with April the 6th of 1917 and ends around the time of the Paris Conference. The notions that the booklet provides in parts 2 and 3 refer mostly to the period previous to April the 6th, 1917, but are nonetheless essential in order to understand the dynamics of the period that will be discussed during the conference. Delegates are asked to research and inform themselves autonomously as for the period that will be discussed.

2. Nationalism

A strong political ideology arose during the 19th century. Nationalism is the view which endorses the strong importance and the prevalence of a nation and its national identity conveyed through culture, language and traditions. This phenomenon was partially born as a response to the Napoleonic dominion over Europe, when in most of the dominated countries the importance of their national identities was being considered and, in some cases, resistance movements were organised against the foreign domination. There are various facets of nationalism such as ethnical nationalism, in which ethnicity prevails over other aspects; civic nationalism, in which the allegiance to the state and the government is the most relevant aspect; expansionist nationalism, which legitimates a nation's right to expand territory-wise, an ideology which will be adopted by the Axis powers during World War II. In philosophy, nationalism and patriotism were among the values Romanticism gave importance to in opposition to the previous Age of Enlightenment.

Several of the great revolutions of the 19th century occurred in the name of nationalism: the 1820s and 1830s disorders, the insurrections of 1848, the unification of Italy and of Germany or the liberation of Greece, among others. These movements thus shaped the political setting of Europe circa 1914, and they are partially responsible for the beginning of World War I, together with imperialism, due to a greater importance given to the fatherland's hegemony and interests even if that could harm other nations.

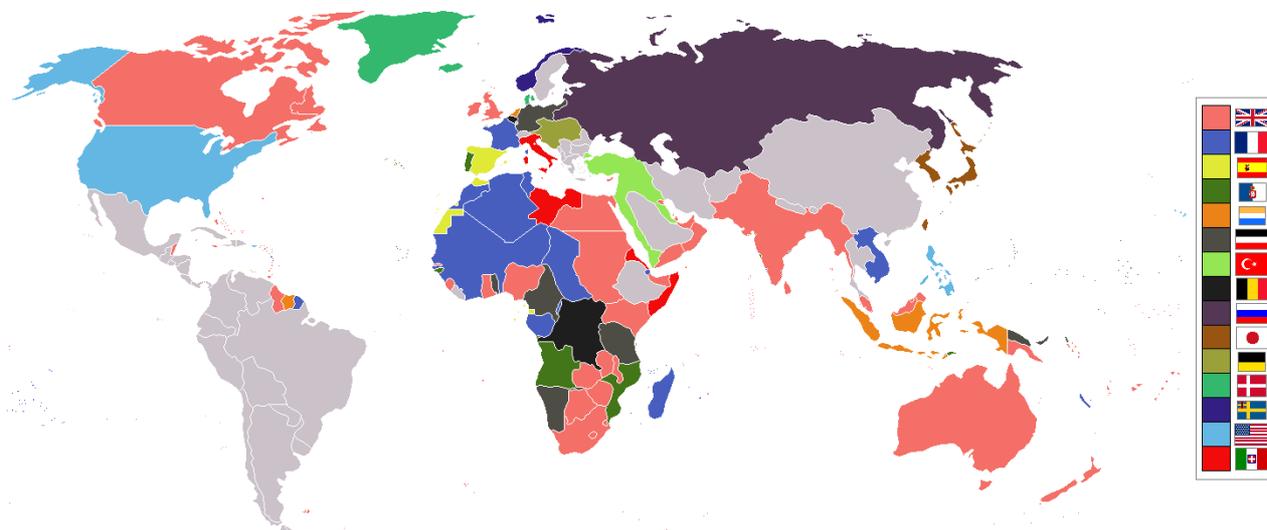
3. Imperialism

The roots of Imperialism (and, in certain aspects, of modern nationalism) lie in the period defined as the Age of Discovery. The discovery of new civilisations, new lands and new merchant routes led, between the 16th and 17th century, to the phenomenon of colonialism: the colonisation and conquest of most of the known lands by a few European countries. Colonialism is the consequence of a political system called Imperialism which consisted mainly in obtaining political and economical hegemony over as many territories as possible. Despite some of the American colonies obtained independence in the 18-19th century, most of the world was dominated by few European countries.

Imperialism led to the so-called "Scramble for Africa" during the second half of the 19th century, following the mapping of the continent, which occurred about 1850. The contest for African territories was mainly due to the vast resources the territories could provide, and arose dramatically until 1884-5, when the Conference of Berlin occurred. This conference, to which participated, among other countries, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, the Ottoman Empire, the Russian Empire, the United Kingdom and the United States, settled an almost overwhelming control over Africa. If in the 1870's only ten percent of Africa was under European control, by 1914 this tendency inverted, and, with the exception

of Ethiopia and Liberia, Africa was entirely under European control. Needless to say that Imperialism does not deem fundamentally important the right of the subjugated populations, and that the borders settled during the Berlin Conference didn't consider the ethnical and traditional history of Africa, which will lead to the numerous civil wars that occurred in African countries in the past decades.

As for the European inter-country politics, the Berlin Conference and the issues bond to imperialism once again provided evidence for the conflicting relationship between the principal European countries. Rather obviously, the conflicts which occurred because of the quest for hegemony over territories would be another of the main causes of World War I.



Above: map of the world circa 1914, with highlight on the colonial powers. The represented countries are, from bottom to top: Italy, United States of America, Norway-Sweden, Denmark, Austria-Hungary, Japan, Russian Empire, Ottoman Empire, Belgium, German Empire, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, France and the United Kingdom.

4. Militarism

Deeply influenced by Nationalism and Imperialism, militarism is the acquirement of the military power a country would require to protect its interests and eventually expand those, thus imposing himself over other countries. The period that preceded the Great War was full of arms races between countries, mainly through their naval strength. The British Empire and the German Empire unleashed a decade-long naval arms race between 1898 and 1912. The German Empire intended to construct a fleet that would be almost the size of the British naval fleet, at the time the biggest in the world. This led in 1905 to the building of the HMS Dreadnaught, a true technological and military achievement of the British fleet. Germany abandoned the race in the years previous to World War I in order to secretly focus on the building of submarines, which would have a crucial role during both World Wars. Next to the naval race we have just illustrated, many smaller ones took place between the Russian Empire and the Ottoman Empire, United States and Japan, France and Italy.

Machine guns, which will be largely used during the Great War, are developed in this era as well, together with some of the vehicles (among these, planes) which will have a military use during the war. It is also during this period that starts the development of those infamous toxic gas weapons that will be gradually introduced during the war. Larger concerns on the use of chemical weapons rose during the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907, which both condemned the use of such weapons as a war crime.

The first decade of the 20th century saw some of those conflicts which would contribute to the diplomatic asset of Europe in 1914. Among these, the Russo-Japanese war (1904-5), the First Moroccan crisis (1905-6), which would lead to a conflicting relationship between Germany and both France and the United Kingdom, the Bosnian crisis (1909), through which Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, thus ruining the relationship between the Empire and Serbia, the Italian-Turkish war (1911-2), during which the first ever aerial bombing in history occurred.

These direct or indirect conflicts will lead during the years to the formation of two main coalitions, the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente.

5. Triple Alliance

In 1882 the German Empire, Austria-Hungary and Italy signed the Triple Alliance, an agreement in which each country granted help to each other in case of an attack. In 1883 Romania joined this agreement. The original alliance was renewed several times, and at a point in 1891, there were failed attempts to persuade Britain in joining the Alliance. With the 1902 renewal, Italy secretly signed an agreement of neutrality with France. Due to interest conflicts in the Balkans, and a history of conflict against Austria-Hungary, when World War I started, Italy at first declared its neutrality and joined the Triple Entente in 1915 thus entering the war. Similarly, due mainly to disputed territories with Austria-Hungary, Romania at first declared its neutrality in the conflict and afterwards joined the Entente in 1916, with the promise of gaining Romanian-inhabited lands at the time under Austro-Hungarian control.

6. Triple Entente

Through the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907 concerning the control of Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet, the British and the Russian Empires, together with France, settled a set of agreements in counter-position with the Triple Alliance. The Entente was enhanced through agreements with Portugal and Japan. Rather than a single agreement like the Alliance, the Entente was composed by bilateral agreements between the three main countries which would ensure their allegiance.

The Anglo-Russian agreement was one of these, and settled the rivalry between the two countries for the control of near-eastern territories, also disputed by the common enemy, Germany.

The agreement was preceded by the 1894 Franco-Russian Alliance and the 1904 Entente Cordiale between the British Empire and France. These three powers together entered the war against the German Empire and the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1914, and were later joined by other allies, among them the Kingdom of Italy. Italy entered the war in 1915 after the Treaty of London, a secret agreement between Italy and the three other principal members of the Entente that promised, if Italy entered the war on the Entente's side, extensive territorial gains. This agreement was published only after November 1917.

7. Sources

- <https://static1.squarespace.com/static/548f79dfe4b010469cd74f37/t/5512f794e4b0cb429e20149e/1427306388807/HCC+Background+Guide.docx>
- http://www.binghamtonschools.org/Downloads/July_Crisis.pdf
- <http://www.u.arizona.edu/~salvador/Spring%20thru%20February/World%20War%20I/Causes%20of%20World%20War%20I,%20Militarism.pdf>

Part 3 - Timeline of World War I

World War I occupied a period of time of more than four years, from the Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo on June 28th 1914 to the Armistice of November 11th 1918. During these four years all the countries involved fought almost every day transforming a "blitzkrieg" in a "war of attrition" with a loss of more than 41 million of lives, ranking the First World War among the deadliest conflicts in human history.

In the following table you can find the most important facts of the first three years of War until the declaration of war of the United States of America against Germany (April 6th 1917), that will be the starting point of the discussion in CFMUNESCO Historical Committee.

DATE		FACT	NATIONS INVOLVED
1914	June 28 th	Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne. He was killed in Sarajevo with his wife, Duchess Sophie, by Bosnian Serb Gavrilo Princip. His death is the event that sparks World War I	Austro-Hungarian Empire, Bosnia, Serbia
	July 23 rd	The "Black Week". The Austro-Hungarian Empire gives an ultimatum to Serbia. The response is considered satisfactory and effective everywhere but in Vienna.	Austro-Hungarian Empire, Serbia
	July 28 th	Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia	Austro-Hungarian Empire, Serbia
	August 1 st	Germany declares war on Russia	Germany, Russian Empire
		Italy, Denmark, Sweden and Norway officially declare their neutrality	Italy, Denmark, Sweden, Norway
		Germany and the Ottoman Empire form a secret alliance	Germany, Ottoman Empire
	August 2 nd	Germany invades Luxembourg	Germany, Luxembourg
	August 3 rd	Germany declares war on France	Germany, France
	August 4 th	Germany invades Belgium to attack the French army	Germany, Belgium, France
		Britain reports the violation of Belgian neutrality by the German Army and declares war on Germany	United Kingdom, Belgium, Germany
	August 5 th	The first shot of World War I is fired by Allied troops in Melbourne, Australia	Australia
		Montenegro declares war on Austria-Hungary	Montenegro, Austro-Hungarian Empire
		The Ottoman Empire closes the Dardanelles	Ottoman Empire
	August 6 th	Austria-Hungary declares war on Russia	Austro-Hungarian Empire, Russia
		Serbia declares war on Germany	Serbia, Germany
	August 7 th – September 13 th	With the Battle of the Frontiers the German Army obtains a partial and limited victory against the British Expeditionary Force in France and against the French Fifth Army (Main Battles: Battle of Mulhouse, Battle of Haelen, Battle of Lorraine, Battle of Morhange, Battle of Sarrebourg, Battle of Charleroi, Battle of Ardennes, Battle of Mons, Battle of the Mortagne, Battle of Grand	Germany, United Kingdom, France

		Couronne)	
1914	October 29 th	The Ottoman Empire starts a surprise attack on the Russian Black Sea coast	Ottoman Empire, Russia
	November 1 st	Russia declares war on Ottoman Empire	Ottoman Empire, Russia
	November 2 nd	The United Kingdom begins the naval block of Germany	United Kingdom, Germany
	December 24 th -25 th	In some areas of the Western front, an unofficial Christmas truce is observed between German and British armies	Germany, United Kingdom
1915	January 2 nd	The Russian Army starts the offensive in the Carpathians. This attack will continue until April 12 th	Russia
	January 31 st	Battle of Bolimov, the first German use of chemical weapons	Germany
	February 19 th	The naval attack of the British and French Army starts the Gallipoli Campaign	United Kingdom
	April 22 nd – May 25 th	Germany first uses the poison gas during the Second Battle of Ypres	Germany
	May 7 th	The British ocean liner Lusitania is sunk bt a German U-Boat	United Kingdom, Germany
	May 23 rd	Italy declares war on Austria-Hungary	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	June 23 rd – July 7 th	First Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	July 18 th – August 3 rd	Second Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	August 5 th	The Germans occupy Warsaw	Germany, Poland
	October 7 th – December 4 th	Serbia is invaded by Germany, Austro-Hungarian Empire and Bulgaria	Serbia, Germany, Austro-Hungarian Empire, Bulgaria
	October 18 th – November 4 th	Third Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
November 10 th – december 2 nd	Fourth Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire	
1916	January 5 th - 17 th	Montenegro succumbs after an Austro-Hungarian offensive	Moontenegro, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	January 9 th	The Ottoman victory against the Allies ends the Gallipoli Campaign	Ottoman Empire, France, United Kingdom
	February 21 st	The Battle of Verdun begins	Germany, France
	March 1 st -15 th	Fifth Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	August 6 th - 17 th	Sixth Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	August 28 th	Italy declares war on Germany	Italy, Germany
	September 14 th - 17 th	Seventh Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	October 9 th - 12 th	Eighth Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire

	November 1 st - 4 th	Ninth Battle of the Isonzo	Italy, Austro-Hungarian Empire
	November 25 th – December 3 rd	With the Battle of Bucharest the conquest of Romania begins	Austro-Hungarian Empire, Romania
1917	February 1 st	Germany resumes its unrestricted submarine warfare	Germany
	March 15 th	Zar Nicholas II abdicates and a provisional government is appointed	Russia
	April 6 th	The Congress of the United States authorizes a declaration of war against Germany because of the Zimmerman Telegram. The United States enters World War I on the side of France and Britain.	United States, Germany, United Kingdom, Mexico

Sources

- www.theworldwar.org
- www.historylearningsite.com
- www.greatwar.co.uk
- www.historyonthenet.com/world-war-one-timeline/

Part 4- Nations and Characters represented

1. List of Nations and Characters

Here is the list of the 15 Nations represented in CFMUNESCO Historical Committee with the names of the 16 Representatives; each delegate will impersonate one of them. Austro-Hungarian Empire will be represented by two characters, one for Austria and one for Hungary.

NATION	CHARACTER
The Ottoman Empire	Mehmed V; from 4 July 1918, substituted by Mehmed VI
Austria-Hungary (2 representatives)	1. Emperor Karl I 2. Mihály Károly
Germany	Paul Von Hindenburg, Germany's Chief of the General Staff
Romania	Ferdinand I, King of Romania
Poland	Roman Stanislaw Dmowski
Russia	Alexandr Fedorovic Kerenskij, 2nd Minister-Chairman of the Provisional Government; from 7 November 1917 substituted by Leon Trotsky
France	George Clemenceau, Prime Minister
Italy	Vittorio Emanuele Orlando, Prime Minister
United States of America	Woodrow Wilson, President
United Kingdom	David Lloyd George, Prime Minister
British Commonwealth	sir Robert Laird Borden, Prime Minister of Canada
Japan	Saionji Kinmochi, former Prime Minister and leader of the Japanese delegation at the Paris Peace Conference
Kingdom of Serbia	Nikola Pasic, Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Serbia (1912-1918) and Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia (1918)
Holy See	Pope Benedict XV

2. Biographical notes of the characters

Mehmed V (2 November 1844 – 3 July 1918) was the 35th and penultimate Ottoman Sultan. He was succeeded by his half-brother Mehmed VI. His nine-year reign was marked by the cession of the Empire's North African territories and the Dodecanese Islands, including Rhodes, in the Italo-Turkish War, the traumatic loss of almost all of the Empire's European territories west of Constantinople in the First Balkan War, and the entry of the Empire into World War I, which would ultimately lead to the end of the Ottoman Empire. Under Mehmed V, the Ottoman Empire lost all its remaining territory in North Africa to Italy in the Italo-Turkish War and nearly all its European territories in the First Balkan War. The Ottoman Empire entered World War I on the side of Germany and Austria-Hungary, and, as a caliph, Mehmed declared holy war and invited all Muslims, especially those under the rule of the Allies, to rally to the support of Ottomans. By the time of Mehmed's death, most of the empire had fallen to the Allies, and six months later Constantinople was under military occupation.

(from 1918) **Mehmed VI**, (born Jan. 14, 1861—died May 16, 1926), the last sultan of the Ottoman Empire. Clever and perceptive, Mehmed VI became sultan July 4, 1918, and attempted to follow the example of his elder brother Abdülhamid II (reigned 1876–1909) by assuming personal control of the government. After the Armistice of Mudros (Oct. 30, 1918) and the establishment of the Allied military administration in Istanbul on Dec. 8, 1918, the nationalist–liberal Committee of Union and Progress had collapsed, and its leaders had fled abroad. The Sultan, opposed to all nationalist ideologies and anxious to perpetuate the Ottoman dynasty, acceded to the demands of the Allies. On December 21 he dissolved Parliament and undertook to crush the nationalists.

Emperor Karl I of Austria (1887-1922), known as Charles IV of Hungary, was Austria-Hungary's last emperor.

He became heir to the throne with the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand on 28 June 1914. A cavalry officer until the outbreak of war in late July 1914, he subsequently took up an appointment as liaison officer, in which capacity he served during the opening Galician campaign. Following promotion he was recalled to court in mid-1915, but returned to active duty in May 1916. On the Italian Front he was given command of a corps before being transferred back to Galicia following the Russian Brusilov Offensive. His military career was ended by the death of Franz Josef in late 1916; he became Austrian Emperor (Kaiser) on 21 November, and King of Hungary on 30 December. Acutely aware that Austria-Hungary's entry into the First World War (having essentially brought it about) was likely to prove the undoing of the empire, Karl quickly sought a means of negotiating a separate peace with the allies.

Count Mihály Ádám György Miklós Károlyi de Nagykároly (4 March 1875 – 19 March 1955) was briefly Hungary's leader from 1918 to 1919 during the short-lived First Hungarian People's Republic. He served as Prime Minister between 1 and 16 November 1918 and as President between 16 November 1918 and 21 March 1919. In 1910, Károlyi was elected to Parliament as a member of the opposition Party of Independence. During the First World War, Károlyi had started out as supporter of the war, but as the war continued, Károlyi had become the most notable critic of the war in Parliament. In 1916 Károlyi broke with his party, which had found him to be too radical, to form a new party, called the United Party of Independence and of 1848, and generally known as the Károlyi Party.

Paul von Hindenburg was born on 2 October 1847 in Posen, Prussia (now Poznan, Poland) into an aristocratic German family. During an honourable but undistinguished military career, he served in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 and in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71, retiring in 1911. However, in 1914 he was recalled as the nominal superior of Erich Ludendorff, a talented military strategist. Credit for Ludendorff's invasion of Russia was misdirected to Hindenburg, who was appointed field marshal and commander of all German land forces, with Ludendorff at his side. Hindenburg oversaw the mobilisation of the whole

German state for war, and became immensely popular throughout the country. Kaiser Wilhelm II was sidelined. After Germany's defeat in 1918 Hindenburg retired, but in 1925, largely because of his status as a war hero, he was elected president of Germany.

Ferdinand I (1865-1927) king of Romania from 1914 to 1927, who, though a Hohenzollern and a believer in German strength, joined the Allies in World War I. The son of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Ferdinand was adopted as crown prince of Romania in 1889 by his uncle, King Carol I, whose only child had died. Ferdinand showed considerable interest in Romanian military affairs and commanded the army during the Second Balkan War (1913). When his uncle died he succeeded to the Romanian throne in October 1914. Early in World War I he waited on events before finally casting his lot with the Allied powers (August 1916). With the occupation of Bucharest by the Germans late in 1916, he moved his beleaguered government to Iași. In April 1917 he averted a potentially revolutionary situation when he promised land reform and the right to vote to an assemblage of Romanian peasant troops, but he failed to arrive at definitive solutions for either the agrarian problem or the shortcomings of democracy in the post-war years.

Roman Dmowski, (born Aug. 9, 1864, died Jan. 2, 1939), Polish statesman, a leader of Poland's struggle for national liberation, and the foremost supporter of cooperation with Russia as a means toward achieving that goal. During the early months of World War I, Dmowski helped form a "National Committee" that sought to achieve Polish national aims through cooperation with Russia and its Western allies. From the summer of 1915, however, he looked solely to the Western powers for deliverance and discarded his autonomist program for one demanding full national sovereignty for Poland. In August 1917 he formed a National Committee at Lausanne, Switz., which later was recognized by the Allies as the official representative of Polish interests.

After the war Dmowski represented the new Polish national government at the Paris Peace Conference, and in June 1919 he signed the Treaty of Versailles.

Aleksandr Fedorovič Kerenskij (1881-1970) born in the family of director of a Simbirsk gymnasium; moved with his family to Turkestan where his father had been appointed the main inspector of public schools; attended a gymnasium in Tashkent ; graduated from the law faculty of St. Petersburg University; was briefly detained on suspicion of belonging to a militant group of the Socialist Revolutionary Party (Partija Socialistov-revoljucionerov); resumed legal practice; earned a reputation for specialising in defending cases involving political offences; was elected to the State Duma where he became a principal leader of the Trudoviks; served as a member of the Provisional Committee of the State Duma; was elected deputy chairman of the Petrograd Council of Workers' Deputies ; was appointed minister of justice of the Provisional Government; joined the Socialist Revolutionary Party; was appointed minister of war and navy in a coalition government; took strong measures to restore discipline in the army to continue the war against Germany; following the resignation of knjaz' Georgij L'vov, he was approved as the Minister-Chairman of the Provisional Government; also continued as minister of war and navy; after the suppression of the July uprising, he led the second coalition government; suppressed the attempted coup of General Lavr Kornilov; assumed the office of Commander-in-Chief and formed a government composed of five ministers (the so-called "Directory"); signed a resolution of the Provisional Government, proclaiming Russia a republic; after the failure of the government to subdue the All-Russian Democratic Council (Pre-Parliament), he formed the third coalition government; on the eve of the armed uprising in Petrograd, he left the capital and went to Pskov; members of the Provisional Government were arrested during the storming of the Winter Palace; together with General Petr Krasnov unsuccessfully tried to regain power, but their march to Petrograd ended in failure; left Russia in June 1918; lived in France; moved to the United States in 1940; settled in New York City; taught graduate courses at Stanford University.

(from 1917) **Leon Trotsky** was born on 7 November 1879 in Yanovka, Ukraine, then part of Russia. Trotsky became involved in underground activities as a teenager. He was soon

arrested, jailed and exiled to Siberia where he joined the Social Democratic Party. Eventually, he escaped Siberia and spent the majority of the next 15 years abroad, including a spell in London. In 1903, the Social Democrats split. While Lenin assumed leadership of the 'Bolshevik' (majority) faction, Trotsky became a member of the 'Menshevik' (minority) faction and developed his theory of 'permanent revolution'. After the outbreak of the revolution in Petrograd in February 1917, he made his way back to Russia. From 7 November 1917 he substituted Aleksandr Fedorovič Kerenskij. Despite previous disagreements with Lenin, Trotsky joined the Bolsheviks and played a decisive role in the communist take-over of power in the same year. His first post in the new government was as foreign commissar, where he found himself negotiating peace terms with Germany. He was then made war commissar and in this capacity, built up the Red Army which prevailed against the White Russian forces in the civil war.

Georges Benjamin Clemenceau was born on September 28, 1841. In 1870 became Montmartre's mayor: there he began his political path. He immediately entered the National Assembly and strongly opposed the peace conditions imposed by Germany at the end of the Franco-Prussian war. Like many of his French political colleagues, Clémenceau throughout his career had a strong hate for the Germans, following the military humiliation of 1871. His firm position makes him win the nickname "Tiger", giving him the party leadership as a radical, bound to the extreme left. His fame is that of a well-liked journalist and a ruthless political critic. In 1906 he was Home Secretary. Shortly afterwards he became prime minister: a decisive political turning point towards nationalism and state centralism, constantly opposed to socialists and trade unions. Thanks to his work he was able to bring the relationship between France and Great Britain closer, but also to increase frustration with Germany, the frequent target of his attacks. His term of office for Prime Minister's office was short, until 1909 when he was replaced by Aristide Briand. At the outbreak of World War I, Clemenceau strongly opposed Joseph Joffre's military command, claiming instead Ferdinand Foch. A fervent militarist, he opposed any hypothesis of diplomatic mediation, coming to accuse pacifism of the then home secretary Louis Malvy. In 1917 he became Prime Minister and Minister of War again: not even a year later, Louis Malvy was arrested for treason together with Ferdinand Foch, head of the inter-allied army. With Germany's defeat in 1918, Clemenceau's resentment towards Germany did not stop. At the Paris Conference in 1919, he wanted Germany to be politically and economically kneeling, through the imposition of strong compensation for war and the military occupation of the Rhine. For these positions he was in sharp contrast with the American delegation and President Woodrow Wilson.

Vittorio Orlando, in full Vittorio Emanuele Orlando (born May 1860, died December 1952.), Italian statesman and Prime Minister during the concluding years of World War I and head of his country's delegation to the Versailles Peace Conference.

He served as minister of education in 1903–05 and of justice in 1907–09, resuming the same portfolio in 1914. He favoured Italy's entrance into the war (May 1915), and in October 1917, in the crisis following the defeat of Italy's forces at the Battle of Caporetto by the Austrians, he became prime minister, successfully rallying the country to a renewed effort.

After the war's victorious conclusion, Orlando went to Paris and Versailles, where he had a serious falling out with his allies, especially President Woodrow Wilson of the United States, over Italy's claims to formerly Austrian territory. On the question of the port of Fiume, which was contested by Yugoslavia after the war, Wilson appealed over Orlando's head to the Italian people, a manoeuvre that failed. Orlando's inability to get concessions from the Allies rapidly undermined his position, and he resigned on June 19, 1919. On December 2 he was elected president of the Chamber of Deputies.

Woodrow Wilson (1856-1924), the 28th U.S. president, served in office from 1913 to 1921 and led America through World War I (1914-1918). An advocate for democracy and world peace, Wilson is often ranked by historians as one of the nation's greatest presidents. Once in office, he pursued an ambitious agenda of progressive reform that included the establishment

of the Federal Reserve and Federal Trade Commission. Wilson tried to keep the United States neutral during World War I but ultimately called on Congress to declare war on Germany in 1917. After the war, he helped negotiate a peace treaty that included a plan for the League of Nations. Although the Senate rejected U.S. membership in the League, Wilson received the Nobel Prize for his peacemaking efforts. When World War I broke out in Europe in the summer of 1914, Wilson was determined to keep the United States out of the conflict. On May 7, 1915, a German submarine torpedoed and sank the British ocean liner Lusitania, killing more than 1,100 people (including 128 Americans). Wilson continued to maintain U.S. neutrality but warned Germany that any future sinking would be viewed by America as “deliberately unfriendly.” Woodrow Wilson’s second term in office was dominated by World War I. Although the president had advocated for peace during the initial years of the war, in early 1917 German submarines launched unrestricted submarine attacks against U.S. merchant ships. Around the same time, the United States learned about the Zimmerman Telegram, in which Germany tried to persuade Mexico to enter into an alliance against America. On April 2, 1917, Wilson asked the Congress to declare war on Germany. America’s participation helped bring about victory for the Allies, and on November 11, 1918, an armistice was signed by the Germans. At the Paris Peace Conference, which opened in January 1919 and included the heads of the British, French and Italian governments, Wilson helped negotiate the Treaty of Versailles. The agreement included the charter for the League of Nations, an organization intended to arbitrate international disputes and prevent future wars. Wilson had initially advanced the idea for the League in a January 1918 speech to the U.S. Congress in which he outlined his “Fourteen Points” for a post-war peace settlement.

David Lloyd George (1863-1945) was born in Manchester on 17 January 1863.. He became a lifelong Welsh nationalist. He qualified as a solicitor and in 1890 was elected Liberal member of parliament for Caernarvon, a seat he held until 1945. He quickly became known for his radicalism and earned notoriety for his opposition to the Boer War. In 1905, the prime minister, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, appointed Lloyd George as president of the Board of Trade. In 1908, he was named chancellor of the exchequer. Lloyd George remained chancellor of the exchequer through the early years of World War One. In 1915 he was appointed minister of munitions in Asquith's wartime coalition government. In July 1916 he became secretary of state for war, but was increasingly critical of Asquith. In December 1916, with the support of the Conservative and Labour leaders, he replaced Asquith as prime minister. Lloyd George's achievements in the last two years of the war included persuading the Royal Navy to introduce the convoy system and the unification of the Allied military command under the French general Ferdinand Foch. At the successful conclusion of the war, Lloyd George was Britain's chief delegate to the Paris Peace Conference that drafted the Versailles Treaty.

Sir Robert Borden, in full Sir Robert Laird Borden (born June 26, 1854, died June 10, 1937,), eighth prime minister of Canada (1911–20) and leader of the Conservative Party (1901–20), who played a decisive role in transforming the status of his country from that of colony to that of nation. He had long argued for the establishment of a Canadian voice in imperial policy. His naval policy before World War I was a mixture of opportunism and wishful thinking about the extension of Canada’s influence in the councils of empire. During the first two years of war Borden frequently referred to the necessity of Canadian participation in British decisions, but it was not until the British prime minister David Lloyd George created the Imperial War Cabinet (IWC) in 1917 that Borden was given a chance to express Canada’s point of view. At the meetings of the IWC in London and its subsequent sessions in Paris during the negotiation of the Treaty of Versailles, Borden supported the Fourteen Points of U.S. president Woodrow Wilson and argued that Canada’s interests demanded the closest possible alliance between the British Empire and the United States.

Saionji Kimmochi, (born December 7, 1849, died November 24, 1940.), the longest-surviving member of the oligarchy that governed Japan after the Meiji Restoration (1868),

which had brought an end to the Edo (Tokugawa) period and formally re-established the authority of the emperor. As prime minister and elder statesman (genro), he attempted to moderate his country's increasing militarism in the early 20th century. He became one of the principal organizers and later president (1903) of them "Friends of Constitutional Government", the major political party in Japan at that time, and he served as prime minister in 1906–08 and 1911–12. During his years in office he attempted to curtail military expenditures and pushed for party control of the cabinet. He retired from party politics and government office in 1912, although in 1919 he headed Japan's delegation at the Paris Peace Conference, which formally ended World War I.

Nikola Pašić, (born December 1845, died December 1926), prime minister of Serbia and prime minister of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes . He was one of the founders, in 1918, of the kingdom that would later (from 1929 to 2003) be called Yugoslavia. When the July crisis of 1914 broke out, Pašić was in the middle of a political campaign for the parliamentary elections. He immediately returned to Belgrade and prepared a response to the Austro-Hungarian ultimatum. Serbia accepted all the ultimatum demands except that Austrian police be allowed to travel independently throughout Serbia and conduct their own investigations. Serbia was also ready to discuss the problems in the Permanent Court of Arbitration in The Hague and to accept its ruling on all doubtful questions. According to Wilhelm II, German Emperor (1859-1941), the answer was written so wisely that any cause for war disappeared with it.

However, using the formal Serbian refusal as a pretext, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia on 28 July 1914. After the war broke out, one of the main problems facing Pašić was the situation in Albania. Pašić also played a predominant role in forming Serbia's war goals and creating Yugoslavia's unification program. He opposed the creation of "Greater Serbia" after the war, although the Allies supported it. Pašić was also mainly responsible for signing the Corfu Declaration on 20 July 1917 with the Yugoslav Committee – a political interest group formed by South Slavs that aimed to unify the south Slavic nations in an independent state – as a new step toward the creation of a future Yugoslav state. In the second half of 1918, when the Yugoslav program became part of the Allies' war goals, Pašić fought against the creation of two centres of Yugoslav unification and the possible federalization of a future state.

After the war, Pašić served as the chief Yugoslav delegate to the Paris Peace Conference and as the premier of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (Yugoslavia) – except for brief intervals – from 1921 to 1926. Due primarily to an abstention of the Croatian Republican Peasant Party, as premier Pašić was able to steer the new liberal, but centralist constitution through parliament on 28 June 1921.

Benedict XV, original name Giacomo Della Chiesa (born Nov. 21, 1854, died Jan. 22, 1922), pope from 1914 to 1922.

After graduating from the University of Genoa, he studied for the priesthood in the Collegio Capranica in Rome and entered the papal diplomatic service, later spending four years in Spain before being employed in the department of the secretary of state (1887). Pope Pius X made him archbishop of Bologna, (1907), and cardinal (1914). He was elected pope a month after the outbreak of World War I, and the greater part of his papacy was occupied with war problems.

Trying to follow a policy of strict neutrality, Benedict abstained from condemning any action of the belligerents. He concentrated the church's efforts initially toward the alleviation of unnecessary suffering. Later he made positive efforts toward re-establishing peace, though hampered by the pro-Austrian sentiments of the majority of cardinals. When the United States entered the war and took up the Allies' attitude that peace could not be restored to Europe until Germany had been defeated, his principal attempt to mediate (1917) failed.