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## Cod world at war zombies mods

The traditional explanation for the start of World War I refers to a domino effect. Once a nation went to war, generally defined as Austria-Hungary's decision to attack Serbia, a network of alliances that tied europe's great powers into two halves dragged each nation inadvertently into a war that spiraled ever larger. This notion, taught to schoolchildren for decades, has largely been rejected. In The Origins of World War I, p. 79, James Joll concludes: The Balkan crisis showed that even seemingly firm formal alliances do not guarantee support and cooperation in all circumstances. This is not to say that the formation of Europe in two parts, achieved by the treaty in the late 19th/early 20th centuries, is not important, only that nations were not trapped by them. In fact, while dividing major European powers into two halves - The Central Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy, and the Triple Understanding of France, Britain and Germany - Italy actually switched sides. Moreover, the war was not caused, as some socialists and antimilitarists have suggested, by capitalists, industrialists or arms manufacturers seeking to profit from the conflict. Most industrialists suffered in a war as their foreign markets srank. Studies have shown that industrialists did not pressure governments to declare war, and governments did not declare war with an eye on the arms industry. Similarly, governments did not declare war simply to try to cover up internal tensions, such as independence from Ireland or the rise of socialists. Historians acknowledge that all major nations involved in the war, on both sides, had large proportions of their population who were not only in favor of going to war, but were agitating for it to happen as something good and necessary. In a very important sense, this must be true: as much as politicians and the military might have wanted war, they could only fight with the approval - very varied, perhaps idling, but present - of the millions of soldiers who went to fight. In the decades before the entry into war in 1914, the culture of major powers was split in two. On the one hand, there was a body of thought - the most remembered now - that the war had effectively been ended by progress, diplomacy, globalization and economic and scientific development. For these people, who included politicians, europe's large-scale war had not just been banished, it was impossible. No sensible person would risk war and ruin the economic interdependence of the globalizing world. At the same time, each nation's culture was fired up with strong currents pushing towards war: arms races, belligerent rivalry and fight for resources. These arms races were massive and expensive affairs and were nowhere clearer than the naval fighting between Britain and Germany, where each attempted to produce ever larger ships. Millions of men passed through the army in the army conscription, producing a substantial part of the population that had experienced military indoctrination. Nationalism, elitism, racism and other belligerent thoughts were widespread, thanks to greater access to education than before, but a fiercely biased education. Violence for political purposes was common and had spread from Russian socialists to British women's rights advocates. Before the war even began in 1914, Europe's structures were breaking and changing. Violence for their country was increasingly justified, artists rebelled and sought new ways of expression, new urban cultures were challenging the existing social order. For many, the war was seen as a test, a test ground, a way of defining itself that promised a masculine identity and an escape from the boredom of peace. Europe was essentially paramount to people in 1914 for welcoming war as a way to recreate their world through destruction. Europe in 1913 was essentially a tense and warm place where, despite a stream of peace and oblivion, many felt war was desirable. By the early 20th century, the Ottoman Empire was collapsing, and a combination of established European powers and new nationalist movements were competing to conquer parts of the Empire. In 1908 Austria-Hungary took advantage of an uprising in Turkey to take full control of Bosnia and Herzegovina, a region they had been running but was officially Turkish. Serbia was livi in this as they wanted to control the region, and Russia was also angry. However, with Russia unable to act militarily against Austria - they simply had not recovered enough from the disastrous Russo-Japanese war - they sent a diplomatic mission to the Balkans to unite the new nations against Austria. Italy sided with take advantage and fought Turkey in 1912, with Italy winning North African colonies. Turkey had to fight back that year with four small Balkan countries on land there - a direct result of Italy making Turkey look weak and Russia diplomacy - and when the other major European powers intervened no one ended up satisfied. In 1913 a new Balkan war broke out, when the Balkan states and Turkey again attacked the territory to try to make a better settlement. This ended once again with all partners unhappy, although Serbia had doubled in size. However, the patchwork of strongly nationalist new Balkan nations was largely considered Slavic, and seemed to Russia as a protector against nearby empires such as Austro-Hungary and Turkey: In turn, some in Russia looked to the Balkans as a natural place for a Russian-dominated Slav group. The region's great rival, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, was afraid that Balkan nationalism accelerated the breakup of its own Empire and was afraid that Russia would extend control over the region rather than it. Both were looking for a reason to extend their power to the region, and in 1914 a murder would give that reason. In 1914, Europe had been war for several years. The trigger was provided on June 28, 1914, when Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary was visiting Sarajevo in Bosnia on a trip designed to irritate Serbia. A loose supporter of the 'Black Hand', a Serbian nationalist group, was able to assassinate the Archduke after a comedy of errors. Ferdinand was not popular in Austria - he had only married a nobleman, not a royal - but they decided it was the perfect excuse to threaten Serbia. They planned to use an extremely unilateral set of demands to provoke a war – Serbia was never meant to accept the demands – and fight to end Serbian independence, thus strengthening the Austrian position in the Balkans. Austria had hoped for war with Serbia, but in the event of a war with Russia, they checked with Germany in advance whether it would support them. Germany answered yes, giving Austria a 'blank cheque'. The Kaiser and other civilian leaders believed austria's swift action would seem the result of excitement and the other Great Powers would be left out, but Austria prevaricated, sending its note too late to seem anger. Serbia accepted all but a few clauses of the ultimatum, but not all, and Russia was willing to go to war to defend them. Austria-Hungary had not deterred Russia by involving Germany, and Russia had not deterred Austria-Hungary by risking the Germans: bluffs were called on both sides. Now, the balance of power in Germany moved to the military leaders, who finally had what they had been coveting for several years: Austria-Hungary, which seemed loyal to support Germany in a war, was about to embark on a war in which Germany could take the lead and become the much larger war it desired , crucially maintaining Austrian aid. vital to the Schlieffen Plan. What followed were the five main nations of Europe – Germany and Austria-Hungary on the one hand, France, Russia and Britain on the other – pointing to their treaties and alliances to enter the war that many in each nation had wanted. Diplomats found themselves increasingly disassociated and unable to stop the events as the military took over. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia to see if they could win a war before Russia arrived, and Russia, which reflected only on attacking Austria-Hungary, mobilized against them and Germany, knowing that this meant Germany would attack France. This allowed Germany to claim casualty status and mobilize, but as its plans called for a swift war to kick out Russia's ally France before Russian troops arrived, they declared war on France, which declared war as a response. Britain hesitated and then joined, using the German invasion of Belgium to mobilize support doubts in Britain. Italy, which had an agreement with Germany, refused to do anything. Many of these decisions were increasingly taken by the military, which gained increasing control of events, even from national leaders who sometimes fell behind: it took a while to Tsar to be spoken to by the pro-war military, and the Kaiser waved as the military continued. At one point, the Kaiser instructed Austria to stop trying to attack Serbia, but people in Germany's army and government first ignored it, then convinced it was too late for anything but peace. Military advice dominated over the diplomat. Many felt powerless, others became unfaithful. There were people who tried to avoid war at this late stage, but many others became infected with jingoism and pushed. Britain, which had the least explicit obligations, felt a moral duty to defend France, wanted to end German imperialism, and technically had a treaty that guaranteed Belgium's security. Thanks to the empires of these key belligerents, and thanks to other nations entering the conflict, the war soon involved much of the world. Few expected the conflict to last more than a few months, and the audience was generally excited. It would last until 1918, and kill millions. Some of those hoping for a long war were Moltke, the head of the German army, and Kitchener, a key figure in the British establishment. Each nation's government had slightly different reasons to go, and these are explained below: Germany: A place in the sun and inevitability Many members of the German army and government were convinced that a war with Russia was inevitable given their competing interests on land between themselves and the Balkans. But they had also concluded, not without justification, that Russia was militarily much weaker now than it would be if it continued to industrialize and modernize its army. France was also increasing its military capacity – a law that made registration for the last three years against the opposition – and Germany had managed to get stuck in a naval race with Great Britain. For many influential Germans, his nation was surrounded and trapped in an arms race that he would lose if allowed to continue. The bottom line was that this inevitable war must be fought sooner, when it could be won, than later. The war would also allow Germany to dominate more of Europe and expand the core of the German Empire to the east and west. But Germany wanted more. The German Empire was relatively young and lacked a key element that the other important empires – Great Britain, France, Russia – had: colonial land. Britain owned much of the world, France also owned a lot, and Russia had expanded deep into Asia. Other less powerful powers owned colonial lands, and Germany coveted these resources and extra power. This desire for colonial land became known as them wanting 'A Place in the Sun'. The German government thought that a victory would allow them to gain some of the land from their rivals. Germany was also determined to keep Austria-Hungary alive as a viable ally in the and support them in a war if necessary. Russia: Slavic land and government survival Russia believed the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian empires were collapsing and that there would be a recount on who would occupy occupy Territory. For many Russia, this count would largely be in the Balkans between a pan-Slav alliance, ideally dominated by (if not fully controlled by) Russia, against a panemic Empire. Many in the Russian court, in the ranks of the official military class, in the central government, in the press and even among the educated, felt that Russia should come in and win this clash. In fact, Russia was afraid that if they did not act in decisive support of the Slavs, as they had failed to do in the Balkan wars, that Serbia would take the Slavic initiative and destabilize Russia. In addition, Russia had barked over Constantinople and the Dardanelles for centuries, as half of Russia's foreign trade traveled through this narrow Ottoman-controlled region. War and victory would bring greater commercial security. Tsar Nicholas II was cautious, and a faction in court advised him against war, believing that the nation would implode and revolution would follow. But equally, the Tsar was being advised by people who believed that if Russia did not go to war in 1914, it would be a sign of weakness that would lead to a fatal contempt of the imperial government, leading to revolution or invasion. France: Revenge and re-conquest France felt it had been humiliated in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 - 71, in which Paris had been besieged and the French emperor had been forced to surrender personally with his army. France was burning to restore its reputation and crucially recover the rich industrial land of Alsace and Lorraine that Germany had won it. In fact, the French plan for war with Germany, Plan XVII, focused on winning this land above everything else. Great Britain: Global leadership of all European powers, Britain was arguably the least closely tied to the treaties that divided Europe into two sides. In fact, for several years in the late 19th century, Britain had consciously stayed out of European affairs, preferring to focus on its global empire while keeping an eye on the balance of power on the continent. But Germany had challenged it because it also wanted a global empire, and also wanted a dominant navy. Germany and Britain thus began a naval arms race in which politicians, spurred on by the press, competed to build ever stronger sailors. The tone was of violence, and many felt that Germany's initial aspirations should be forced. Britain was also concerned that a Europe dominated by an enlarged Germany, as victory in a great war would bring, would alter the balance of power in the region. Britain also felt the moral obligation to help France and Russia because, although the treaties they had all signed did not require Britain to fight, it had basically accepted, and if Britain was left out, its former they would end up victorious but extremely bitter, or beaten and unable to support Britain. Equally playing on their mind was a belief that they should be involved to maintain a great power status. As soon as the war began, war, he also had designs on German colonies. Austria-Hungary: Long-running Territory Austria-Hungary was desperate to project more of its crumbling power into the Balkans, where a power vacuum created by the decline of the Ottoman Empire had allowed nationalist movements to agitate and fight. Austria was particularly angry with Serbia, growing a Pan-Hungarian nationalism that Austria feared would lead to Russian domination in the Balkans, or the total expulsion of Austro-Hungarian power. The destruction of Serbia was considered vital to keeping Austria-Hungary together, as there were almost twice as many Serbs within the empire as serbia (more than seven million, versus more than three million). The avenging of Franz Ferdinand's death was low on the list of causes. Turkey: The Holy War for the Conquered Land Turkey entered into secret negotiations with Germany and declared war on the Entente in October 1914. They wanted to recover lands that had been lost in both the Caucasuses and the Balkans, and dreamed of winning Egypt and Cyprus from Britain. They claimed to be fighting a holy war to justify this. In 1919, in the Treaty of Versailles between the victorious allies and Germany, the latter had to accept a war guilt clause that explicitly stated that the war was Germany's fault. This issue – which was responsible for the war – has been debated by historians and politicians ever since. Over the years trends have come and gone, but the issues seem to have polarised like this: on the one hand, that Germany with its blank cheque in Austria-Hungary and fast, two frontal mobilizations was mainly to blame, while on the other was the presence of a war mentality and colonial famine among nations that rushed to extend their empires , the same mindset that had already caused repeated problems before the war broke out. The debate has not broken ethnic lines: Fischer blamed his German ancestors in the 1960s, and his thesis has largely become the main vision. The Germans were certainly convinced that war was necessary soon, and the Austro-Hungarians were convinced that they had to crush Serbia to survive; both were ready to start this war. France and Russia were slightly different as they were not ready to start the war, but went long term to make sure they benefited when it occurred, as they thought it would. The big five powers were ready to fight a war, all fearing the loss of their Great Power status if they stepped back. None of the Great Powers was invaded without the opportunity to take a step back. Some historians go further. David Fromkin's 'Europe's Last Summer' makes a powerful case that world war can be fixed on Moltke, head of the German General Staff, a man he knew he would be terrible and changing war of the world, but thought it was inevitable and started anyway. But Joll makes an interesting point: What is more important than the immediate responsibility for the actual outbreak of war is the mood that was shared by all belligerents, one the likely imminence of war and its absolute need in certain circumstances. (Joll and Martel, The Origins of World War I, p. 131.) The dates and order of declarations of war

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