

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SUMMER OF 1914: THE HAPSBURG EMPIRE MEETS SERBIAN WARFARE

Chapter 1 : World War I: in the beginning

The summer of the Hapsburg empire meets Serbian warfare; 2. Eradicating national politics in occupied Serbia; 3. Legal severity, international law, and the tottering empire in occupied Serbia; 4.

Share via Email A strange, lost world Corbis I first visited Vienna 20 years ago. Visiting the War Museum, I remember meeting a wizened old Austrian gentleman, who put on a great show explaining all the weapons and how they worked. My Austrian weapons man took particular relish in swords, and in the captured Ottoman war booty from the siege of Vienna in 1683. But I came away with an enduring fascination with the strange, lost world of Austria-Hungary. These are the books which bring me back to the world of the Habsburg dynasty, wherever I happen to be. Europe Transformed by Norman Stone It might seem strange to begin with what sounds like a simple history textbook. But Europe Transformed is anything but. Stone is best known as a Turcophile who cut his teeth on Russian history. And yet his first and to my mind truest love was for the ill-fated Dual Monarchy uniting Austria and Hungary. The essay on Austria-Hungary is the centerpiece of the book, and well worth the price. It was written, I am told on good authority, under the influence of champagne, which must be why the tone so perfectly matches the subject: A wonderful memoir, which perfectly captures the textures and rhythms of life in the Dual Monarchy. One can almost taste the strudel. Thunder at Twilight is the best kind of popular history, marked by brilliant character sketches, brimming with lively anecdotes, and yet treating an extremely important subject – the outbreak of the first world war – with the gravity it deserves. Der Tod des Doppeladlers: Verlag Styria, A real doorstopper of a book. The House of Wittgenstein. Reads like a highbrow version of The Sound of Music, though with a truer-to-life ending. Set in the pre-war period, when Budapest was still the capital of an enormous state, the stories deal with the affairs in all senses of the Hungarian aristocracy: Albertini, an Italian journalist who edited the Corriere della Sera before Mussolini forced him out in 1922, spent much of the last two decades of his life on this project, interviewing and corresponding with many key policymakers of July while they were still alive, including the two most important diplomats of Austria-Hungary, foreign minister Leopold von Berchtold and his chief of staff, Alexander Hoyos. The title is more or less self-explanatory. Will mostly interest those with a pressing interest in getting to the bottom of the Sarajevo assassinations of 28 June 1914. At its best, it reads like a detective novel, blending together historical erudition with forensic science.

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Chapter 2 : The Spirit of in Austria-Hungary | Contributions to Contemporary History

On 28 July , Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Within days, long-standing mobilization plans went into effect to initiate invasions or guard against them and Russia, France and Britain stood arrayed against Austria and Germany in the "Great War", World War I.

Early Years Europeans were fighting heavily on two fronts before the U. This assurance was confirmed in the week following the assassination, before William, on July 6, set off upon his annual cruise to the North Cape , off Norway. Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife, Sophie, riding in an open carriage at Sarajevo shortly before their assassination, June 28, When the delivery was announced, on July 24, Russia declared that Austria-Hungary must not be allowed to crush Serbia. Though Serbia offered to submit the issue to international arbitration, Austria-Hungary promptly severed diplomatic relations and ordered partial mobilization. Home from his cruise on July 27, William learned on July 28 how Serbia had replied to the ultimatum. At once he instructed the German Foreign Office to tell Austria-Hungary that there was no longer any justification for war and that it should content itself with a temporary occupation of Belgrade. But, meanwhile, the German Foreign Office had been giving such encouragement to Berchtold that already on July 27 he had persuaded Franz Joseph to authorize war against Serbia. War was in fact declared on July 28, and Austro-Hungarian artillery began to bombard Belgrade the next day. Russia then ordered partial mobilization against Austria-Hungary, and on July 30, when Austria-Hungary was riposting conventionally with an order of mobilization on its Russian frontier, Russia ordered general mobilization. On July 31 Germany sent a hour ultimatum requiring Russia to halt its mobilization and an hour ultimatum requiring France to promise neutrality in the event of war between Russia and Germany. Both Russia and France predictably ignored these demands. On August 1 Germany ordered general mobilization and declared war against Russia, and France likewise ordered general mobilization. The next day Germany sent troops into Luxembourg and demanded from Belgium free passage for German troops across its neutral territory. On August 3 Germany declared war against France. In the night of August 3â€”4 German forces invaded Belgium. Thereupon, Great Britain , which had no concern with Serbia and no express obligation to fight either for Russia or for France but was expressly committed to defend Belgium, on August 4 declared war against Germany. Romania had renewed its secret anti-Russian alliance of with the Central Powers on February 26, , but now chose to remain neutral. Italy had confirmed the Triple Alliance on December 7, , but could now propound formal arguments for disregarding it: Thenceforth, they could be called the Allied , or Entente, powers, or simply the Allies. The outbreak of war in August was generally greeted with confidence and jubilation by the peoples of Europe, among whom it inspired a wave of patriotic feeling and celebration. The war was welcomed either patriotically, as a defensive one imposed by national necessity, or idealistically, as one for upholding right against might, the sanctity of treaties, and international morality.

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Chapter 3 : World War I | Facts, Causes, & History | calendrierdelascience.com

The outbreak of war: Summer Militarism, nationalism, and the desire to stifle internal dissent may all have played a role in the coming of WWI, but the decisions made by European leaders in the summer of directly precipitated the conflict.

From certain angles this seems an apt judgement. Many of the leading policy-makers of the dual monarchy hoped and believed that decisive action against their unruly South Slav neighbour would reinvigorate the Habsburg Empire and restore it to its rightful place as one of the foremost of the European great powers. It would have no less dramatic consequences for the rest of Europe. It is this divergence between misplaced hope and actual outcome that is at the crux of why July 28 matters. That Austria-Hungary should have wanted to tame Serbia in the summer of was hardly a secret. But it was also a serendipitous opportunity for Austria, allowing them to take the matter in hand and deal with Serbia once and for all. The formidable Austrian ultimatum delivered to Serbia on 23 July was an expression of this thinking. And so the declaration of war on the 28th was in a sense just the realisation of an action that had been heavily prefigured. So it was no mere frivolity. The Serbian problem would be excised by force of arms, restoring the prestige of the Habsburg Empire in the process. It goes without saying that it had occurred to nobody in Vienna that Serbia, with an army hardened by recent combat experience, would be able to fight back successfully or that the Habsburg forces might be humbled by it on the battlefield; that was to be an unpleasant surprise reserved for later. Austria expected victory and pushed for a confrontation on that basis. One country had already made its choice: Berlin would back Vienna because the situation offered a chance to enhance the prestige of their alliance, either with an easy diplomatic victory or with a war in supposedly favourable circumstances. If Serbia capitulated or was defeated by Austrian arms while the other powers stood aside for fear of German intervention, then Berlin would reap the political rewards. A problem might only arise if Russia proved unwilling to countenance the subjugation of Serbia, but that was a risk that most in Berlin were willing to take. Russian response For Russia the Austro-Hungarian action posed a problem. St Petersburg was, therefore, effectively being asked to see its influence and prestige decline, have this underlined in full public gaze by the military nature of the process and to stand aside passively while this happened. But even if this was very far from being acceptable, the alternative policy, namely intervention, threatened a confrontation with Germany. It was hardly a palatable choice and yet, like all good traps, there was no obvious way out. For those powers eager to prevent a conflagration, the solution was negotiation. But the very idea of such discussions cut against the Austro-German strategy, which was to present the humbling of Serbia as a *fait accompli* and dare a response. Mediation was, therefore, rejected, leaving only opposition or surrender as the options for other powers. Successive days would show that many regarded this as no choice at all.

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Chapter 4 : HISTORY OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

In July the Habsburg monarchy went to war with Serbia declaring it sought no territorial gain from the struggle. Soon discussions of possible territorial acquisitions, along with economic and political aims, started among the governing elite and continued until the monarchy collapsed.

The general staff maintained plans for major wars against neighboring powers, especially Italy, Serbia and Russia. According to historians John Keegan and Andrew Wheatcroft: Much of the Austrian failure in the First World War can be traced back to his long period of power. His power was that of the bureaucrat, not the fighting soldier, and his thirty years of command over the peacetime Habsburg Army made it a flabby instrument of war. The Empire would be restructured three-ways instead of two, with the Slavic element given representation at the highest levels equivalent to what Austria and Hungary now had. Hungarian leaders had a predominant voice in imperial circles and strongly rejected Trialism because it would liberate many of their minorities from Hungarian rule they considered oppressive. Defeating Serbia would effectively destroy what Vienna saw as a potentially menacing, Russian-inspired Balkan league, because such a league without Serbia would simply be a non-starter. It was a dazzling prospect. However these were undermined by espionage, propaganda, and hostile diplomacy by France. Russian foreign minister Sergey Sazonov supported detente with Austria but was under attack by a faction led by Nicholas Hartwig, who was intensely supportive of the South Slavs against Austria. After the war started they remained far apart. The other assassins failed to act as the cars drove past them quickly. About an hour later, when Franz Ferdinand was returning from a visit at the Sarajevo Hospital, the convoy took a wrong turn into a street where Gavrilo Princip by coincidence stood. With a pistol, Princip shot and killed Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie. The reaction among the Austrian people was mild, almost indifferent. Zeman notes, "the event almost failed to make any impression whatsoever. On Sunday and Monday [June 28 and 29], the crowds in Vienna listened to music and drank wine, as if nothing had happened. His plans were kept secret from his own diplomatic and political leadership-- he promised his secret operations would bring quick victory. Conrad assumed far more soldiers would be available, with much better training. The Austrian army had not been experienced a real war since, whereas by contrast the Russian and Serbian armies had extensive up-to-date wartime experience in the previous decade. His plans were based on railroad timetables from the 1870s, and ignored German warnings that Russia had much improved its own railroad capabilities. Conrad assumed the war would result in victory in six weeks. He assumed it would take Russia 30 days to mobilise its troops, and he assumed his own armies could be operational against Serbia in two weeks. When the war started, there were repeated delays, made worse when Conrad radically changed plans in the middle of mobilization. Russia did much better than expected, mobilizing two thirds of its army within 18 days, and operating trains a day compared to trains a day by the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Germany vehemently demanded an immediate invasion of Serbia, but Conrad delayed for over a month. Many Army units were on leave to harvest crops and not scheduled to return until 25 July. Meanwhile Emperor Franz Joseph went on his long-scheduled three week summer vacation. Austria depended entirely on Germany for support they had no other allies [17] but the Kaiser had lost control of the German government. German Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg had repeatedly rejected pleas from Britain and Russia to put pressure on Austria to compromise. German elite and popular public opinion also was demanding mediation. He now reversed himself, and pleaded, or demanded, that Austria accept mediation, warning that Britain would probably join Russia and France if a larger war began. The Kaiser made a direct appeal to Emperor Franz Joseph along the same lines. However, Bethmann-Hollweg and the Kaiser did not know that the German military had its own line of communication to the Austrian military, and insisted on rapid mobilization against Russia. On 22 August he launched an even larger campaign to the east against Russia through Galicia, leading to catastrophic defeats in the loss of 1,000,000 Austro-Hungarian soldiers. He blamed his railroad experts. Austria acted like a great power making its own decisions based on its plan to dominate

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the Balkan region and hurl back the Serbian challenge. The most important event was the ultimatum that was designed by Vienna to start a war. It ignored protests from Berlin and everywhere else.

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Chapter 5 : Austro-Hungarian entry into World War I - Wikipedia

Austria and the Origins of the Great War: A Selective Historiographical Survey Austria and the Origins of the Great War: A Selective Historiographical Survey (pp.) Samuel R. Williamson Jr. On 28 July Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia and began mobilization for Plan B against Belgrade.

The European powers, alarmed as ever by unrest in the Balkans, attempt to mediate but without success. In July the emperors of the two powers most closely involved in the region, Austria-Hungary and Russia, meet in Reichstadt and come to a secret agreement for a mutual settlement after the war. The terms of the eventual peace settlement, agreed at an international congress in Berlin in July , include the occupation and administration of Bosnia-Herzegovina by Austria-Hungary. The region is to remain nominally part of the Ottoman empire. This has advantages from the Austrian point of view. The unruly Slavs of Bosnia-Herzegovina can be kept under control by Austrian troops, but their number will not be added to the Slav population of Austria-Hungary - avoiding any change in an already uneasy pattern of ethnic rivalries. The Young Turks insist that the region must be represented in the new parliament in Istanbul. Nationalists in Bosnia welcome this demand, seeing the chance of an international forum in which to air their grievances and undermine the grip of Austria-Hungary. The Austrian response is brisk. Bosnia-Herzegovina is annexed before the end of the year. A separate constitution is provided for the provinces so that they need not be incorporated in either of the two monarchies, Austria or Hungary. This development, intensely unpopular in Bosnia and among Slavs in all parts of Austria-Hungary, turns out to have repercussions very much wider than the local issue. There is a strong indication of danger when the emperor Francis Joseph makes a state visit to Bosnia in 1908. During it, at the formal opening of the diet, a student makes an assassination attempt on the governor of the province. In spite of this another royal event is planned for 1913. The archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, takes part in military manoeuvres in Bosnia in June. Towards the end of the month he visits Sarajevo with his wife. He provides them with weapons and spirits them across the border from Serbia into Bosnia. The visit is taking place against the advice of the Serbian foreign ministry, which has urged that Serb nationalism makes Sarajevo too dangerous. On the day itself the Austrians prove positively foolhardy. The archduke and his wife are on their way to the town hall when a bomb is thrown at their car. They are unhurt but an officer, wounded by the blast, is taken to the local hospital. After the official visit, the archduke decides to visit the injured man in hospital. As he leaves the town hall, another bomb is thrown at him but fails to explode. In spite of this he and his wife continue through the streets in their car. The chauffeur, uncertain where the hospital is, takes a wrong turning and reverses. By sheer chance the car stops beside one of the conspirators, a year old Bosnian Serb student, Gavrilo Princip. Princip draws a pistol and fires twice at the car. The two shots mortally wound the archduke and his wife. This disaster, depriving the aged Austrian emperor of his heir, is interpreted in Vienna as a conspiracy by the Serbian government. And the Serbian prime minister, hearing of a possible plot at Sarajevo, has even sent a veiled warning to the Austrian authorities - too veiled and of no avail, as it turns out. Sections are as yet missing at this point. War in the east: As a result early gains are made, with Russian armies advancing into east Prussia and into Galicia the northeast corner of Austria-Hungary. This move has the desired short-term effect, causing the Germans to withdraw four divisions from Belgium for the eastern front. But events soon suggest that Russia has entered the field unprepared. Disaster strikes before the end of the month. The large Russian army in east Prussia is ill-fed and exhausted. And Russian commanders incautiously send each other uncoded radio messages which are intercepted by the Germans. The result is that a much smaller German force is able to effect a devastating pincer movement during August to encircle the Russians at Tannenberg the site also of a famous medieval battle. About half the Russian army is destroyed, including the capture of 92,000 men. The Russian general, Aleksandr Vasiliyevich Samsonov, shoots himself. Further south the Russians have slightly more lasting success in their invasion of Austria-Hungary. By the end of August much of Galicia is still in their hands. Further south again, the Austrians prove

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ineffective in their attempts to crush their tiny neighbour Serbia in the regional dispute which sparked the wider conflict. The local campaign begins in mid-August when an Austrian army invades Serbia, but within a fortnight - and with a loss of some 50, men - they are driven back by the Serbs. Another invasion is more successful, three months later, when the Austrians succeed in occupying Belgrade for two weeks from Nov. But by the end of the year the Serbs have again recovered all their territory. Although there is more movement on the eastern front, particularly on the open plains between Germany and Russia, the outcome at the end of the first calendar year of the war suggests that here too there will be no easy or quick victory. Both sides begin to look for new allies. This History is as yet incomplete.

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Chapter 6 : World War I: In the Beginning - The Good Men Project

With the exquisite turn of phrase for which she was so highly regarded, Barbara Tuchman once likened the Austro-Hungarian declaration of war against Serbia of 28 July to an example of "the.

It seeks to explain how far this mood was spontaneous or directed from above by the state authorities, and finds that both interacted with each other as mobilization occurred. It also seeks through a range of voices to show the actual diversity of emotion in these early weeks of hostilities. The strict censorship of news from the start of the war obscured these negative voices, but we find them in diaries and memoirs of the time. These also suggest that the early excitement was short-lived. Many soldiers quickly experienced the horror of war, especially in the east, and felt changed utterly by the trauma. On the home front, the shock came more slowly as casualty lists and refugees surfaced. The state had to face the prospect of total war, where its ability to protect its population was fatally put to the test. The Catholic Church in Slovenia Harvard University Press, Cambridge University Press, Public Opinion on War during the July Crisis Nationalism and the Crowd in Liberal Hungary Woodrow Wilson Center Press, Hungary in the First World War. Ein General im Zwielficht: Die Erinnerungen Edmund Glaises von Horstenau. Glaise-Horstenau, Edmund von, ed. Vienna and the Fall of the Habsburg Empire: Klaus Eisterer and Rolf Steiniger, Der Reichsbund der deutschen katholischen Jugend in der Tschechoslowakei Bauvolk der kommenden Welt: Austro-Hungarian Newspapers and the Outbreak of War in Der Erste Weltkrieg und das Ende der Habsburgermonarchie Columbia University Press, Die Kriegserinnerungen , ed. Architect of the Apocalypse. Culture and Catastrophe in Habsburg Vienna. Yale University Press, The End of Austria-Hungary. The Spirit of Militarism, Myth and Mobilization in Germany. Germany and Austria-Hungary at War, Schnitzler, Hofmannsthal and the Austrian Theatre. The Burning of the World: A Memoir of , trans. New York Review of Books,

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Chapter 7 : Serbian Campaign of World War I - Wikipedia

At the start of the war, the army was divided in two, the smaller part attacked Serbia while the larger part fought against the massive Russian army. The invasion of Serbia was a disaster. By the end of the year the Austro-Hungarian Army had taken no territory and had lost , men (out of a total force of , men); see Serbian.

Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. After some weeks of deadlock, the Austrians began a third offensive, which had some success in the Battle of the Kolubara, and forced the Serbs to evacuate Belgrade on November 30, but by December 15 a Serbian counterattack had retaken Belgrade and forced the Austrians to retreat. Mud and exhaustion kept the Serbs from turning the Austrian retreat into a rout, but the victory sufficed to allow Serbia a long spell of freedom from further Austrian advances. The Turkish entry The entry of Turkey or the Ottoman Empire , as it was then called into the war as a German ally was the one great success of German wartime diplomacy. Since Turkey had been under the control of the Young Turks , over whom Germany had skillfully gained a dominating influence. The ships were ostensibly sold to Turkey, but they retained their German crews. The Turks began detaining British ships, and more anti-British provocations followed, both in the straits and on the Egyptian frontier. Russia declared war against Turkey on November 1; and the western Allies, after an ineffective bombardment of the outer forts of the Dardanelles on November 3, declared war likewise on November 5. In the winter of 1915 Turkish offensives in the Caucasus and in the Sinai Desert , albeit abortive, served German strategy well by tying Russian and British forces down in those peripheral areas. The war at sea, 1915 In August Great Britain, with 29 capital ships ready and 13 under construction, and Germany, with 18 and nine, were the two great rival sea powers. Neither of them at first wanted a direct confrontation: The first significant encounter between the two navies was that of the Helgoland Bight , on August 28, , when a British force under Admiral Sir David Beatty , having entered German home waters, sank or damaged several German light cruisers and killed or captured 1, men at a cost of one British ship damaged and 35 deaths. For the following months the Germans in European or British waters confined themselves to submarine warfare not without some notable successes: For four months this fleet ranged almost unhindered over the Pacific Ocean , while the Emden, having joined the squadron in August , was detached for service in the Indian Ocean. The Germans could thus threaten not only merchant shipping on the British trade routes but also troopships on their way to Europe or the Middle East from India, New Zealand , or Australia. The Emden sank merchant ships in the Bay of Bengal , bombarded Madras September 22; now Chennai, India , haunted the approaches to Ceylon Sri Lanka , and had destroyed 15 Allied ships in all before it was caught and sunk off the Cocos Islands on November 9 by the Australian cruiser Sydney. On November 1, in the Battle of Coronel, it inflicted a sensational defeat on a British force, under Sir Christopher Cradock, which had sailed from the Atlantic to hunt it down: But the fortunes of the war on the high seas were reversed when, on December 8, the German squadron attacked the Falkland Malvinas Islands in the South Atlantic, probably unaware of the naval strength that the British, since Coronel, had been concentrating there under Admiral Sir Doveton Sturdee: The German ships were suffering from wear and tear after their long cruise in the Pacific and were no match for the newer, faster British ships, which soon overtook them. The British ships, which had fought at long range so as to render useless the smaller guns of the Germans, sustained only 25 casualties in this engagement. It was just beginning by German submarines, however. The belligerent navies were employed as much in interfering with commerce as in fighting each other. Immediately after the outbreak of war, the British had instituted an economic blockade of Germany, with the aim of preventing all supplies reaching that country from the outside world. The two routes by which supplies could reach German ports were: A minefield laid in the Strait of Dover with a narrow free lane made it fairly easy to intercept and search ships using the Channel. To the north of Scotland, however, there was an area of more than , square miles , square kilometres to be patrolled, and the task was assigned to a squadron of armed merchant cruisers. During the early months of the war, only absolute contraband such as guns and

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ammunition was restricted, but the list was gradually extended to include almost all material that might be of use to the enemy. The prevention of the free passage of trading ships led to considerable difficulties among the neutral nations, particularly with the United States, whose trading interests were hampered by British policy. Nevertheless, the British blockade was extremely effective, and during the British patrols stopped and inspected more than 3,000 vessels, of which 1,000 were sent into port for examination. Outward-bound trade from Germany was brought to a complete standstill. In 1914, however, with their surface commerce raiders eliminated from the conflict, they were forced to rely entirely on the submarine. The Germans began their submarine campaign against commerce by sinking a British merchant steamship *Glitra*, after evacuating the crew, on October 20, 1914. A number of other sinkings followed, and the Germans soon became convinced that the submarine would be able to bring the British to an early peace where the commerce raiders on the high seas had failed. On January 30, 1915, Germany carried the campaign a stage further by torpedoing three British steamers *Tokomaru*, *Ikaria*, and *Oriole* without warning. They next announced, on February 4, 1915, that from February 18 they would treat the waters around the British Isles as a war zone in which all Allied merchant ships were to be destroyed, and in which no ship, whether enemy or not, would be immune. During the first week of the campaign seven Allied or Allied-bound ships were sunk out of 11 attacked, but 1,000 others sailed without being harassed by the German submarines. In the whole of March 1915, during which 6,000 sailings were recorded, only 21 ships were sunk, and in April only 23 ships from a similar number. For the Germans, a worse result than any of the British countermeasures imposed on them was the long-term growth of hostility on the part of the neutral countries. Certainly the neutrals were far from happy with the British blockade, but the German declaration of the war zone and subsequent events turned them progressively away from their attitude of sympathy for Germany. The hardening of their outlook began in February 1915, when the Norwegian steamship *Belridge*, carrying oil from New Orleans to Amsterdam, was torpedoed and sunk in the English Channel. The Germans continued to sink neutral ships occasionally, and undecided countries soon began to adopt a hostile outlook toward this activity when the safety of their own shipping was threatened. Much more serious was an action that confirmed the inability of the German command to perceive that a minor tactical success could constitute a strategic blunder of the most extreme magnitude. This was the sinking by a German submarine on May 7, 1915, of the British liner *Lusitania*, which was on its way from New York to Liverpool: The loss of the liner and so many of its passengers, including the Americans, aroused a wave of indignation in the United States, and it was fully expected that a declaration of war might follow. Despite this, the Germans persisted in their intention and, on August 17, 1915, sank the *Arabic*, which also had U.S. Following a new U.S.

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Chapter 8 : World War I - The Serbian campaign, | calendrierdelascience.com

It fomented dissent within the Empire, promoted separatism in Austria's Slav-populated southern provinces and generally undermined the prestige of the Habsburg Empire in the Balkans. Europe in

From certain angles this seems an apt judgement. Many of the leading policy-makers of the dual monarchy hoped and believed that decisive action against their unruly South Slav neighbour would reinvigorate the Habsburg Empire and restore it to its rightful place as one of the foremost of the European great powers. It would have no less dramatic consequences for the rest of Europe. It is this divergence between misplaced hope and actual outcome that is at the crux of why July 28 matters. That Austria-Hungary should have wanted to tame Serbia in the summer of was hardly a secret. But it was also a serendipitous opportunity for Austria, allowing them to take the matter in hand and deal with Serbia once and for all. The formidable Austrian ultimatum delivered to Serbia on 23 July was an expression of this thinking. And so the declaration of war on the 28th was in a sense just the realisation of an action that had been heavily prefigured. The Serbian problem would be excised by force of arms, restoring the prestige of the Habsburg Empire in the process. It goes without saying that it had occurred to nobody in Vienna that Serbia, with an army hardened by recent combat experience, would be able to fight back successfully or that the Habsburg forces might be humbled by it on the battlefield; that was to be an unpleasant surprise reserved for later. Austria expected victory and pushed for a confrontation on that basis. One country had already made its choice: Berlin would back Vienna because the situation offered a chance to enhance the prestige of their alliance, either with an easy diplomatic victory or with a war in supposedly favourable circumstances. If Serbia capitulated or was defeated by Austrian arms while the other powers stood aside for fear of German intervention, then Berlin would reap the political rewards. A problem might only arise if Russia proved unwilling to countenance the subjugation of Serbia, but that was a risk that most in Berlin were willing to take. Russian response For Russia the Austro-Hungarian action posed a problem. St Petersburg was, therefore, effectively being asked to see its influence and prestige decline, have this underlined in full public gaze by the military nature of the process and to stand aside passively while this happened. But even if this was very far from being acceptable, the alternative policy, namely intervention, threatened a confrontation with Germany. It was hardly a palatable choice and yet, like all good traps, there was no obvious way out. For those powers eager to prevent a conflagration, the solution was negotiation. But the very idea of such discussions cut against the Austro-German strategy, which was to present the humbling of Serbia as a *fait accompli* and dare a response. Mediation was, therefore, rejected, leaving only opposition or surrender as the options for other powers. Successive days would show that many regarded this as no choice at all. Become a supporter and enjoy The Good Men Project ad free Matthew Seligmann does not work for, consult to, own shares in or receive funding from any company or organisation that would benefit from this article, and has no relevant affiliations. This article was originally published on The Conversation.

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Chapter 9 : The top 10 books about Austria-Hungary | Books | The Guardian

The Serbian nationalists knew well of Franz Ferdinand's ideas for political reform and feared that any concessions made by Austria-Hungary towards the empire's Slavic population could potentially undermine Serbian attempts at fomenting discontent and inciting Slavic nationalists to rise up against their Habsburg rulers.

Within the War Ministry, the Navy enjoyed considerable autonomy through the Naval Section with its own staff and headquarters, while the Ministry itself concentrated more on quarter master and administrative functions that close operational control of its respective services. The organisation of units and forces among a plethora of different commands and bodies had the effect of instilling a number of organisational cultures, diffusing responsibility, creating competition between agencies, failing to develop inter-organisational efficiencies and meaning that no one body had overall control of all military forces below the Emperor in preparing for war. Below the Minister for War, separate staffs and commanders-in-chief oversaw the training, planning, and operations responsibilities of their respective service branches. In terms of the Army, by it was divided among 16 Military Districts and comprising , active troops at all levels as well as 40, Austrian Landwehr and 30, troops of the Hungarian Honved. The Austro-Hungarian Navy maintained a number of naval facilities in the Adriatic, most importantly that at Pola , and possessed some 3 modern dreadnought class battleships in as well as 3 modern pre-dreadnoughts and 9 older battleships and a range of other craft including cruisers , destroyers and submarines in various states of combat readiness. The Austro-Hungarian air force remained embryonic in with a few German built planes having been added to the Army balloon service in , but was to see marked expansion during the early years of the war. History and operations[edit] Origins[edit] The Austro-Hungarian military was a direct descendant of the military forces of the Habsburg sections of the Holy Roman Empire from the 13th century and the successor state that was the Austrian Empire from For years, Habsburg or Austrian forces had formed a bastion defending the continent against repeated Ottoman campaigns to overrun Europe with the Turks being turned back twice only after reaching the gates of Vienna in and again in Wars fought with the Prussia of Frederick the Great over Silesia in 1748 the War of the Austrian Succession and 1763 were less successful. Austria was prominent in the coalitions that tried to contain Napoleon but was defeated in , again in when Napoleon occupied Vienna after the Battle of Austerlitz , and finally after the Battle of Wagram in Armies displayed their loyalty to the monarchy in and , suppressing the revolutionary regimes that had swept into power in Vienna, Budapest , Milan , and Prague. The Austro-Piedmontese War lasted only three months, but both sides mobilized large armies. The Austrians were defeated after bitter fighting at Magenta and Solferino , the young Emperor Franz Joseph assuming personal command during the Battle of Solferino. The Austrians armed with muzzle-loading rifles sustained 20, casualties and lost 20, prisoners. In spite of their size and distinction in individual engagements, Habsburg armies of the nineteenth century had mostly known defeat in encounters with European major powers. They were often handicapped by uninspired or timid battlefield leaders. The principal cause of their failure was that Austria allocated the lowest proportion of its revenue to its military. Various political groups continuously blocked adequate expenditures on the army. For example, the Prussian infantry, using breech-loading rifles in , had four to five times the effective firepower of the Austrian infantry. The constant economizing was also reflected in the poor training of conscripts and in the quality of the notoriously underpaid company-grade officers. Tactics, based on frontal assault with fixed bayonets, were outdated. The quartermaster corps had a reputation for inefficiency and corruption. The standing army consisted of twelve corps with , men in When mobilized it expanded to over , and was the largest army in Europe. However, the speed of mobilization and the capacity to move troops to the scene of battle was worse than that of the Prussians, who made full use of their growing rail system. As a matter of policy, conscripts were assigned to regiments far from their homes. A call-up involved slow train journeys for reservists; mobilization required eight weeks, nearly twice as long as mobilization of the Prussian army , which was organized by region. Only the army, foreign affairs, and related

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budgetary matters remained with the emperor, who held supreme command of all forces in time of war. A new army law decreed universal three-year conscription followed by a ten-year reserve obligation. In practice, only about one in five of those liable to service were called up, and many were sent on leave after two years. The army of Austria-Hungary has been described as a state within a state. Nevertheless, Austria-Hungary gave the impression of being a highly militarized nation. According to British historian Edward Crankshaw who noted that not only the emperor but most males in high society never wore civilian clothes except when hunting. Select regiments of the army were splendidly outfitted, but, with a few dedicated exceptions, the officers, so magnificent on the parade ground, "shrank In reality, Austro-Hungarian military spending remained the lowest among the Great Powers. More of its GDP went to wine, beer and tobacco than to the armed forces. Ethnic factors did not prevent recruitment of non-German speakers to the officer corps or their regular promotion. In the more prestigious units, most field-grade officers owed their ranks to birth or wealth. During the late 19th and early 20th century leading up to World War One, the Austro-Hungarian Military underwent a process of modernisation in all service branches in terms of training, equipment and doctrine, although many traditions and old practices remained in force. As a result of the efforts chief-of-staff Montecuccoli and heir to the throne Franz Ferdinand the navy underwent considerable modernisation with the commission of a number of new units, and specifically three up-to-date battleships delivered by Although sometimes dismissed as fanciful and lacking touch with the realities confronting the forces at his disposal, as a chief of General Staff Conrad had ensured the army had remained vigilant and planning for war was at an advanced stage by , although it has been argued that reorganisation and redeployment should have been sweeping in the aftermath of the Redl affair. During the period of "â€", Austro-Hungarian forces were stationed on a number of national and international assignments. Although the empire exhibited no colonial aspirations, forays abroad including the military occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina , the Novi Pazar , the expedition to Crete and involvement in the Boxer Rebellion. The invasion of Serbia was a disaster. By the end of the year the Austro-Hungarian Army had taken no territory and had lost , men out of a total force of , men ; see Serbian Campaign World War I. On the Eastern front, things started out equally badly. The Austro-Hungarian Army was defeated at the Battle of Lemberg and the mighty fort city of Przemyśl was besieged it would fall in March The bloody but indecisive fighting on the Italian front would last for the next three and a half years. It was only this front that the Austrians proved effective in war, managing to hold back the numerically superior Italian armies in the Alps. In the summer, the Austro-Hungarian Army, working under a unified command with the Germans, participated in the successful Gorlice-Tarnow Offensive. In , the Russians focused their attacks on the Austro-Hungarian Army in the Brusilov Offensive , recognizing the numerical inferiority of the Austro-Hungarian Army. The Austrian armies took massive losses losing about 1 million men and never recovered. The huge losses of men and material inflicted on the Russians during the offensive contributed greatly to the causes of their Communist revolution of The Austro-Hungarian war effort became more and more subordinate to the direction of German planners, as it did with the standard soldiers. The Austrians saw the German army positively, but by the general belief in Germany was that they were "shackled to a corpse". Supply shortages, low morale, and the high casualty rate seriously affected the operational abilities of the army, as well as the fact the army was of multiple ethnicity, all with different race, language and customs. The last two successes for the Austrians: Assessment[edit] Although performance in the initial months of the war against Serbia and Russia is often seen as poor, Austro-Hungarian forces were not helped by internal division and indecision among the army high command and possession by Serbian and Russian forces of highly detailed versions of Austro-Hungarian war plans. Imperial forces performed with both great proficiency "â€" the Otranto Raid , Caporetto , and the dogged defence of the Isonzo ; and with appalling effect "â€" the Galicia Campaign , the Brusilov Offensive and Vittorio Veneto ; as well as at a variety of standards in between. Legacy[edit] Some of the traditions of the old Austro-Hungarian Army continue to be carried on in the modern Austrian Army.