

**MYP Year 5**  
**Subject: History**

**AssessPrep 2020**

**Unit 1: Geopolitical Chess Match and Ideological Tension of the 20th Century**

**Global Context: Identities and Relationships**

**Key Concepts: Global Interactions**

**Related Concepts: Power**

**Key Pointers to Remember:**

1. Always every question more than once. For the final Assessprep exam, read each question **2 Times**. The first time to read the literal text and the second time to understand the inherent meaning/context of the question.
2. All your responses (Essay type Questions) should be based on higher order thinking. Avoid any simplistic answers. Be critical and analytical.
3. Always use key terminology and relevant specific examples to substantiate your responses.
4. Specific details of any event must be used to demonstrate your content and conceptual knowledge.
5. Use bullet points/numbers to organise your response. If a question is divided into two questions like this:  
Q1. a). -----  
    b). -----

Attempt your answers in the same way rather than answering in one chunk. By dividing your response according to the parts, you are demonstrating clarity to the examiner to read your responses rather than hunt for it.

6. Time management is key. Keep a check on the time left and the number of questions unattempted. It is best to attempt all questions in some way if not fully (in the case of running short of time) than leaving them unattempted fully.

**Where:** All the necessary resources have been shared in ManageBac as we have progressed along with the syllabus. This booklet is a sum of the same and an extension of necessary materials. The resources shared in ManageBac will not be repeated here.

- *ManageBac Resources*
- *MYP by Concept Year 4 and 5: History (Jo Thomas and Keely Rogers)*
- Chapters as given in handout-outs in class from “*History Option B: the 20th Century Coursebook*” Cambridge IGCSE and 0 Level

**IMPORTANT:**

- All past papers of History in MYP e-Assessment is grounded on the Key Concepts of MYP.
- For this purpose, below is a list of key concepts of MYP. You must absolutely be thorough with the meaning of each key concept.
- For all conceptual questions on the key concepts, we will study the MYP Year 4&5 Chapters 1-13. For this purpose and practice, a separate folder “Past QPs/Marking Scheme” has been created which has the past papers. We will use that as practice.
- The MYP Concept Based Topics/Chapters from the MYP Year 4&5 Book are:
  1. How revolutionary was the Industrial Revolution?
  2. What impact have pioneers, innovators and developers had on societies?
  3. Does trade and exchange promote cooperation or lead to exploitation/
  4. Why have our daily lives changed over the past century/
  5. How have health and medicine improved over time?
  6. Do social and cultural and artistic movements reflect the era in which they take place?
  7. How have ideas reflected change in the last 200 years?
  8. Why do nations go to war and why is peacemaking difficult?
  9. Why do nations build empires and form supra-national alliances and organisations?
  10. Why have nationalist movements been successful?
  11. How have civil rights and social protests groups brought about change?
  12. Can individuals make a difference in shaping the world?
  13. What are the consequences of inaction?
- You must also be absolutely thorough with the meaning of Global Contexts.
- MYP Key Concepts
- The MYP identifies 16 key concepts to be explored across the curriculum. These key concepts, shown in the table below represent understandings that reach beyond the eighth MYP subject groups from which they are drawn.

Aesthetics	Change	Communication	Communitie s
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Connections	Creativity	Culture	Development
Form	Global interactions	Identity	Logic
Perspective	Relationships	Time, place and space	Systems

- Teachers use key concepts from their own subject group(s)—as well as key concepts from other subject groups—to plan disciplinary and interdisciplinary units of inquiry. Teachers identify one key concept that drives the unit’s development.
- These concepts are not only “key” in the sense of being important; they also provide a key— a way into a body of knowledge through structured and sustained inquiry. They place no limits on breadth of knowledge or on depth of understanding, and therefore provide access to every student, regardless of individual aptitudes and abilities.
- Inquiry into MYP key concepts will further develop (and lead to debate on) the meaning of these significant ideas. The following are definitions for the 16 key concepts used for inquiry in the MYP.
- • **Aesthetics** deals with the characteristics, creation, meaning and perception of beauty and taste. The study of aesthetics develops skills for the critical appreciation and analysis of art, culture and nature.
- • **Change** is a conversion, transformation or movement from one form, state or value to another. Inquiry into the concept of change involves understanding and evaluating causes, processes and consequences.
- • **Communication** is the exchange or transfer of signals, facts, ideas and symbols. It requires a sender, a message and an intended receiver. Communication involves the activity of conveying information or meaning. Effective communication requires a common “language” (which may be written, spoken or non-verbal).
- • **Communities** are groups that exist in proximity defined by space, time or relationship. Communities include, for example, groups of people sharing particular characteristics, beliefs or values as well as groups of interdependent organisms living together in a specific habitat.

- • **Connections** are links, bonds and relationships among people, objects, organisms or ideas.
- • **Creativity** is the process of generating novel ideas and considering existing ideas from new perspectives. Creativity includes the ability to recognize the value of ideas when developing innovative responses to problems; it may be evident in process as well as outcomes, products or solutions.
- • **Culture** encompasses a range of learned and shared beliefs, values, interests, attitudes, products, ways of knowing and patterns of behaviour created by human communities. The concept of culture is dynamic and organic.
- • **Development** is the act or process of growth, progress or evolution, sometimes through iterative improvements.
- • **Form** is the shape and underlying structure of an entity or piece of work, including its organization, essential nature and external appearance.
- • **Global interactions**, as a concept, focuses on the connections among individuals and communities, as well as their relationships with built and natural environments, from the perspective of the world as a whole.
- • **Identity** is the state or fact of being the same. It refers to the particular features that define individuals, groups, things, eras, places, symbols and styles. Identity can be observed, or it can be constructed, asserted and shaped by external and internal influences.
- • **Logic** is a method of reasoning and a system of principles used to build arguments and reach conclusions.
- • **Perspective** is the position from which we observe situations, objects, facts, ideas and opinions. Perspective may be associated with individuals, groups, cultures or disciplines. Different perspectives often lead to multiple representations and interpretations.
- • **Relationships** are the connections and associations between properties, objects, people and ideas— including the human community’s connections with the world in which we live. Any change in relationship brings consequences—some of which may occur on a small scale, while others may be far-reaching, affecting large networks and systems such as human societies and the planetary ecosystem.
- • The intrinsically linked concept of time, space and place refers to the absolute or relative position of people, objects and ideas. Time, place and space focuses on how we construct and use our understanding of location (“where” and “when”).

- **Systems** are sets of interacting or interdependent components. Systems provide structure and order in human, natural and built environments. Systems can be static or dynamic, simple or complex.

## Related concepts

Related concepts promote deep learning. They are grounded in specific disciplines and are useful for exploring key concepts in greater detail. Inquiry into related concepts helps students develop more complex and sophisticated conceptual understandings. Related concepts may arise from the subject matter of a unit or the craft of a subject—its features and processes.

The individuals and societies subject group is integrated by a rich array of disciplines and the experience of students within the subject group can be structured in very different ways. Table 2 lists related concepts for the study of individuals and societies. For modular courses, teachers should select the relevant related concepts from the disciplines that are central for each unit. The definitions for integrated humanities courses, economics, geography and history are included at the end of this guide. The definitions for suggested related concepts for additional disciplines in individuals and societies can be found in the *MYP Individuals and societies teacher support material*.

Related concepts in individuals and societies		
Integrated humanities course		
<b>Causality</b>	<b>Choice</b>	<b>Culture</b>
<b>Equity</b>	<b>Globalization</b>	<b>Identity</b>
<b>Innovation and revolution</b>	<b>Perspective</b>	<b>Power</b>

<b>Processes</b>	<b>Resources</b>	<b>Sustainability</b>
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<b>History</b>		
<b>Causality (cause/consequence)</b>	<b>Civilization</b>	<b>Conflict</b>
<b>Cooperation</b>	<b>Culture</b>	<b>Governance</b>
<b>Identity</b>	<b>Ideology</b>	<b>Innovation and revolution</b>
<b>Interdependence</b>	<b>Perspective</b>	<b>Significance</b>

### **Global contexts for teaching and learning**

**Global contexts direct learning towards independent and shared inquiry into our common humanity and shared guardianship of the planet. Using the world as the broadest context for learning, MYP individuals and societies can develop meaningful explorations of:**

**identities and relationships  
orientation in time and space  
personal and cultural expression  
scientific and technical innovation  
globalization and sustainability  
fairness and development.**

**1. TOPIC: *Theories of Balance of Power Theory Vs. Balance of Threat as an explanation for increasing incidences of War(Kenneth Waltz Vs. Stephen Walt)***

**TYPE: CONTENT/CONCEPT.**

**For example, the question can be content based such as • Discuss the core assumptions of the BOP theory of Kenneth Waltz.**

**The question can also be concept based such as • How is the context of the BOP theory pushing states to operate with the aim of survival? Or How does this theory explain the increasing incidences of War?**

**SOURCE:** A document titled “SDL\_BOP\_BOT” was shared with you at the beginning of the term. Use the same. However, the details of the same are added below.

**Assessment Possibilities:**

- **Criteria A: Knowing and Understanding**
- **Criteria C: Communicating**
- **Criteria D: Thinking Critically**

The balance of power is arguably the oldest and most familiar theory of international politics.

**KENNETH WALTZ:** was an American political scientist who was a member of the faculty at both the University of California, Berkeley and Columbia University and one of the most prominent scholars in the field of international relations. He was a veteran of both World War II and the Korean War.

This theory was propounded by Kenneth N. Waltz, Ford Professor of Political Science. Waltz was a towering figure in the field of international politics, arguably the leading international relations theorist of the last half century. He established himself as a prominent scholar early in his career with the publication of his first book in 1959, *Man, the State, and War. Theory of International Politics*, published in 1979, further defined the field for the next decade. The most important factor defining the states’ environment and affecting the stability of the international system for Waltz was the distribution of power. The broad patterns of relations among states are largely determined by their position in the hierarchy of power.

**The BOP Theory: Core Assumptions and the Relevance of Polarity**

1. We should first understand the logic that gave rise to the BOP theory. Two assumptions are of central relevance. First, the international system is considered to be **anarchic, with no system-wide authority being formally enforced on its agents** (Waltz 1979, 88). Because of this “**self-help**” nature of the system, states do not have a world government to resort to in a situation of danger, but they can only try to **increase their capabilities relative to one another through either internal efforts of self-strengthening, or external efforts of alignment and realignment with other states** (Waltz 1979, 118).
2. Second, **states are the principal actors in the international system, as they “set the terms of the intercourse”** (Waltz 1979, 96), monopolize the “legitimate use of force” (Waltz 1979, 104) within their territories, and generally conduct foreign policy in a “single voice” (Waltz 1959, 178-179). Hence states are also considered to be **unitary actors in the international system**.
3. They operate with the aim of survival and their interactions with other states reflect their desire to survive. Given this context, states will try to balance against each other because they will try to increase their chance of survival. Balancing can take two forms: Internal and external. Internal balancing refers to the investment of military power to match up with other states. External balancing refers to the alliance of states to counter a stronger power, or a hegemon. States will choose the weaker of the available coalitions because of the understanding that the stronger side is the one threatening their security. The structure of the system is mainly based on the distribution of power. In other words, the distribution of power is the main (and sometimes the only) determinant of international outcomes. Since states are concerned with their own security, they try to maximize their relative power with respect to other states.

### **Let's Reflect:**

1. **What do you think Power means in the theory of Balance of Power?**
2. **How is Balancing practiced according to the BOP theory?**
3. **How is the context of the BOP theory pushing states to operate with the aim of survival?**

**Balance of Threat Theory:** When we look throughout world history, we notice that even countries that don't always get along can quickly create strong alliances. For example, France and Britain spent centuries fighting, but in World War II became instant and inseparable allies.



Why? This has been an important question in foreign policy for many years. One answer that has become popular is the balance of threat theory.

**STEPHEN WALT:** Developed by Harvard professor Stephen Walt in his 1987 book "The Origins of Alliances", the theory outlines the reasons that nations form alliances against a perceived threat. It's an intriguing idea to help explain the behavior of states throughout the world. He belongs to the realist school of international relations. He made important contributions to the theory of defensive neorealism and has authored the balance of threat theory. Books he has authored (or co-authored) include *Origins of Alliances*, *Revolution and War*, and *The Israel Lobby and U.S. Foreign Policy*.

### **The BOT Theory: Core Assumptions**

#### **Balance of Power v. Balance of Threat**

Walt's balance of threat theory emerged in the 1980s. At the time, the dominant model to explain states' behaviors was known as the balance of power theory. The basic idea was that states defined their goals by the power of others. In essence, countries try to build their power to match the power of the strongest state, regardless of whether or not that state is acting aggressively. By maintaining this balance of power in which no single country is drastically more powerful than all the others, everyone assures mutual security.

That's the balance of power theory. It was accepted for a long time until Stephen Walt began arguing that history didn't really support it. Instead, Walt saw countries accepting the rise of non-aggressive powers while working to balance much less

#### **Elements of Threat**

According to Stephan Walt, states associate their own security with perceived threats and seek to balance this through international relations. The question we now have to ask is: what defines a threat?

According to Walt, there are four elements that define perceived threat. **The four elements of threat are aggregate power, geographic proximity, offensive capabilities, and offensive intentions.** Basically, how powerful is it, how close is it, how much military might is it capable of, and is it acting aggressively? Those are the four criteria that states use to evaluate the threat posed by other states.

## Power and Threat

Balance of threat theory modified realism by separating power from threat. In balance of power theory, which had previously dominated realist analyses, states balance against others whose power (i.e., military capabilities) was rising—greater power was assumed to reflect offensive intentions. Walt argues that this is not borne out by empirical evidence, and that balance of threat theory—in which states will not balance against those who are rising in power but do not display offensive intentions—gives a better account of the evidence. For instance, the United States was the most powerful of the two superpowers during the Cold War, but, contrary to the balance of power theory, more states (e.g., the NATO nations) allied with it than with the Soviet Union because the United States

### Let's Reflect:

1. What are the perceived elements of threats?
2. Engage in a comparative study of BOP and BOT.
3. How is Power and Threat related to each other?

### Sources:

1. <https://study.com/academy/lesson/balance-of-threat-theory-assumptions-example.html>
2. <https://www.e-ir.info/2014/02/12/balance-of-power-theory-in-todays-international-system/>

2. TOPIC: *Concept of War (First World War, Second World War and the Cold War)*

TYPE: CONTENT/CONCEPT.

**For example, the question can be concept based such as • Why do nations resort to war? Or content based such as • What were the key factors/events that led to the outbreak of the First World War/Second World War?**

**SOURCE:** All resources shared in ManageBac and all those provided to you in class as handouts.

**Find out** about why there were two world wars in the twentieth century

**Explore:**

- The nature of total war and its impact
- The attempts at peacemaking

**Assessment Possibilities:**

- **Criteria A: Knowing and Understanding**
- **Criteria B: Investigating**
- **Criteria C: Communicating**
- **Criteria D: Thinking Critically**

## **2.1 FIRST WORLD WAR (WW1)**

**Meaning of War:** In functional terms, war can be seen as organised large-scale violence, both organised and large-scale.

**Definitions of War:** Karl von Clausewitz, "war is the continuation of politics by other means". 'War' defined by *Webster's Dictionary* is a state of open and declared, hostile armed conflict between states or nations, or a period of such conflict. This captures a particularly political-rationalistic account of war and warfare, i.e., that war needs to be explicitly declared and to be between states to be a war.

War is *a state of organized, open-ended collective conflict or hostility*. It is a conflict carried on by force of arms, as between nations or between parties within a nation; warfare, as by land, sea, or air.

### **IMPORTANT QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER:**

The questions will be divided into Factual, Conceptual and Debatable for your reference.

Remember:

- Factual questions will mostly assess Criteria A (Knowing and Understanding) and Criteria C (Communicating)
  - Conceptual and Debatable questions will mostly assess Criteria D (Thinking Critically) and maybe all four criteria as well.
  - **Factual:** What were the key factors that led to the outbreak of the First World War? **Or** What were the causes of the First World War?
  - **Factual:** What were the challenges to making a lasting peace?
  - **Conceptual:** Why do nations resort to war?
  - **Conceptual:** Why is lasting peace so difficult to maintain?
  - **Conceptual:** Why do historians have different perspectives on the causes of war?
  - **Debatable:** To what extent can war be prevented and peace be established and maintained?
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- **Factual:** What were the key factors that led to the outbreak of the First World War? **Or** What were the causes of the First World War? **(Use the handout given to you on First World War)**

The First World War began in Europe in August 1914 and lasted until November 1918. It was one of the most brutal, horrific and destructive wars in human history. It had an appalling death toll of 9 million people. The key factors which created tension are as follows:

**a). Imperialism: The rest of the points that must be included are: Prussia (previously Germany), Alsace-Lorraine, and Anglo-German Rivalry from the hand-out - VERY IMPORTANT**

Imperialism is when a country increases their power and wealth by bringing additional territories under their control. Before World War I, several European countries had made competing imperialistic claims in Africa and parts of Asia, making them points of contention. Because of the raw materials these areas could provide, tensions around which country had the right to exploit these areas ran high. The increasing competition and desire for greater empires led to an increase in confrontation that helped push the world into World War I. The key term is “predatory shared imperialism”. **The rest of the points that must be included are: Prussia (previously Germany), Alsace-Lorraine, etc from the hand-out.**

**b). Mutual Defence Alliances (Secret):** Countries throughout the world have always made mutual defense agreements with their neighbors, treaties that could pull them into battle. These treaties meant that if one country was attacked, the Allied countries were bound to defend them. Before World War 1 began, the following alliances existed:

Russia and Serbia  
Germany and Austria-Hungary  
France and Russia  
Britain and France and Belgium  
Japan and Britain

When Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, Russia got involved to defend Serbia. Germany, seeing that Russia was mobilizing, declared war on Russia. France was then drawn in against Germany and Austria-Hungary. Germany attacked France by marching through Belgium pulling Britain into war. Then Japan entered the war. Later, Italy and the United States would enter on the side of the allies.



Source:

<https://www.thoughtco.com/causes-that-led-to-world-war-i-105515>

An alliance is an agreement made between two or more countries to give each other help if it is needed. When an alliance is signed, those countries become known as Allies.

A number of alliances had been signed by countries between the years 1879 and 1914. These were important because they meant that some countries had no option but to declare war if one of their allies declared war first. (the table below reads clockwise from the top left picture)

<b>1879</b>  <b>The Dual Alliance</b>  Germany and Austria-Hungary made an alliance to protect themselves from Russia	<b>1881</b>  <b>Austro-Serbian Alliance</b>  Austria-Hungary made an alliance with Serbia to stop Russia gaining control of Serbia	<b>1882</b>  <b>The Triple Alliance</b>  Germany and Austria-Hungary made an alliance with Italy to stop Italy from taking sides with Russia
<b>1914</b>  <b>Triple Entente (no separate peace)</b>  Britain, Russia and France agreed not to sign for peace separately.		<b>1894</b>  <b>Franco-Russian Alliance</b>  Russia formed an alliance with France to protect herself against Germany and Austria-Hungary
<b>1907</b>  <b>Triple Entente</b>  This was made between Russia, France and Britain to counter the increasing threat from Germany.	<b>1907</b>  <b>Anglo-Russian Entente</b>  This was an agreement between Britain and Russia	<b>1904</b>  <b>Entente Cordiale</b>  This was an agreement, but not a formal alliance, between France and Britain.

## Alliances

A web of alliances developed in Europe between 1870 and 1914, effectively creating two camps bound by commitments to maintain sovereignty or intervene militarily – the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance.

- The Triple Alliance of 1882 linked Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy.
- The Triple Entente of 1907 linked France, Britain and Russia.

A historic point of conflict between Austria Hungary and Russia was over their incompatible Balkan interests, and France had a deep suspicion of Germany rooted in their defeat in the 1870 war.

In the age of imperialism prior to World War I, countries throughout Europe had created alliances. The alliances promised that each country would support the other if war ever broke out between an ally and another Great Power. Prior to WWI, the alliances of Russia and Serbia; France and Russia; Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary; Britain, France and Belgium; France, Britain and Russia; and Japan and Britain were firmly in place. The alliance, between France, Britain and Russia, formed in 1907 and called the Triple Entente, caused the most friction among nations. Germany felt that this alliance surrounding them was a threat to their power and existence. As tensions continued to rise over alliances, the preexisting alliances fed into other countries declaring war against one another in the face of conflict. These conflicts over alliances — which forced nations to come to the defense of one another — led to the formation of the two sides of World War I, the Allied and Central Powers. By the start of the war, Italy and the United States entered on the side of the Allied Powers, which consisted of Russia, France and Great Britain. The Central Powers, alternately, consisted of Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria.

The alliance system primarily came about because after 1870 Germany, under Bismarck, set a precedent by playing its neighbours' imperial endeavours off one another, in order to maintain a balance of power within Europe.

### **The System of Alliances**

Before 1914 Europe's main powers were divided into two armed camps by a series of alliances. These were

- The Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy (1882)
- The Triple Entente of Britain, Russia and France (1907)

Although these alliances were defensive in nature, they meant that any conflict between one country from each alliance was bound to involve other countries. **The fact that Germany faced a war on two fronts greatly influenced her actions during the July Crisis.**

By 1914 Italy was only a **nominal** member of the **Triple Alliance**. She had concluded a secret treaty with France by which she promised to stay neutral if Germany attacked France and when war broke out she stayed out. This meant that Germany had only one dependable ally, Austria-Hungary.

**The main rivalries between the powers were:**

- Germany and France over Alsace. This division made an alliance between both countries impossible.
- Russia and Austria over the Balkans.
- Britain and Germany over their navies and economic power.

*“The alliances created an excessively rigid diplomatic framework, within which relatively small detonators could produce huge explosions” (A.J.P. Taylor)*

**c). Militarism: The rest of the points that must be included from the hand-out such as increase in MILITARY SPENDING (use quantitative data) and THE NEED TO PLAN FOR WAR (Schlieffen Plan etc) - VERY IMPORTANT**

Militarism is a concept where military personnel and ideas are incorporated into a civilian government. It is also the belief that military power is integral to national strength.

- The German Kaiser relied heavily on his military and the civilian legislature, known as Reichstag, as he had little control over the military.
- Experiences and failures in previous wars, for example, the Crimean War, Boer War, and Russo-Japanese War, drove militarists.
- A European arms race in the late 1800s and early 1900s was militarism fuelled by new weapons, emerging technologies and developments in industrial production.
- European governments increased military spending purchasing new weaponry and increasing the size of armies and navies due to the effect of nationalism.

“Domination of the military man over the civilian, an undue preponderance of military demands and an emphasis on military considerations” was the definition given by Alfred Vagts, a German historian who served in World War I.

Militarism was an important force in several European nations before World War I. Military leaders had influence over civil governments and placed their interests and priorities first. Generals and admirals even acted as ministers and advisors. They influenced domestic policies



and demanded increases in defence and arms spending. This trend led to an arms race, which gave rise to new military technologies. Militarism also shaped national culture, the media and public opinion. The press represented military leaders as heroes while painting rival nations as aggressors.

Militarism on its own could not start World War I but it created an environment where war could occur. Diplomacy and negotiations that could have resolved these disputes could not take place in this environment.

Militarism, nationalism and imperialism were all inherently connected as they complemented each other to start the First World War. Militaries in the 19th and early 20th centuries were considered a measure of national and imperial strength. A powerful nation needed the backing of a powerful military in order to protect its interests. To protect the homeland and imperial and trade interests abroad, strong armies and navies were needed but war was avoided where possible. If unavoidable, a war could be waged to advance a nation's political or economic interests. In the 19th century, Europeans believed that politics and military power were inseparable, and one could not exist without the other, just like the modern world where politics and economic management are co-dependent. Nationalism made governments and leaders who failed to maintain armies and navies look weak and incompetent.

The Origin: European militarism is thought to have originated from the northern German kingdom of Prussia.

Prussia (Germany)	Britain
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Germany's government and armed forces were designed on the Prussian model and many German generals and politicians were land-owning Prussian nobles, also known as Junkers. Prussia was the most powerful German state prior to the unification of Germany in 1871 as Field Marshal von Moltke had reformed and modernised its army in the 1850s. New strategies and improved training for its officers were implemented under von Moltke's leadership. He also introduced advanced weaponry and a more efficient means of command and communication. France's massive defeat in 1871 by this army was a testament to its strength and efficiency solidifying its status as the most formidable army in Europe.</li> <li>● Subsequently, Germany unified in allowing Prussian militarism and German nationalism to become closely intertwined. Prussian commanders and their methodologies became the core of the new German</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● militarism played an integral part in maintaining the nation's imperial and trade interests, though more subdued than its German counterpart. Britain's pride was the Royal Navy, which was, by far, the world's largest naval force. It helped protect shipping and trade routes and colonial ports. Order was kept, and imperial policies implemented by British land forces in British colonies which included India, Africa, Asia and the Pacific.</li> <li>● British attitudes to the military underwent a transformation in the 19th century. Being a part of the British forces was depicted as a noble vocation and a selfless act of duty to one's country. Just like in Germany, British soldiers were glorified and romanticised, both through the media and popular culture. This went against Britain's initial thinking in the 18th century where they considered armies and navies an unnecessary evil. The ranks had been filled with the dregs of the lower class and most of their</li> </ul>
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<p>imperial army. The German Kaiser acted as its supreme commander and was advised by a military council, which was made up of Junker aristocrats and career officers. The civilian government did not have a major role to play as they were only advisors.</p>	<p>officers had not received sufficient training. This praise lauded on the soldiers was epitomised by Tennyson's 1854 poem The Charge of the Light Brigade and was also reflected in popular novels about wars, both real and imagined.</p>
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Military victories, whether in colonial wars or major conflicts like the Crimean War (1853-56) or the Franco-Prussian War (1870-71) only served to increase the effect that militarism had and intensified nationalism. Conversely, military defeats like Russia losing to Japan in 1905 or the costly victory of Britain in the Boer War (1899-1902) exposed problems of militarism and heightened calls for military reform and decreased spending. Virtually every major European nation was involved in some form of military rejuvenation in the late 1800s and early 1900s. In Germany, the newly crowned Kaiser Wilhelm II fully endorsed military expansion and modernisation as he claimed to retain his country's "place in the sun".

- Public interest and the press drove the arms race in Britain as the monarchy took a back seat. In 1884, W. T. Stead, a prominent journalist, published a series of articles suggesting that Britain was unprepared for war, particularly in its navy. This caused pressure groups like the British Navy League to voice their concerns and press for more ships and personnel. By the early 1900s, the Navy League and the press were calling on the government to commission more battleships. There was even a song composed, called We want eight and we won't wait!, to drive this point home.
- This pressure coupled with other factors caused European military expenditure between 1900 and 1914 to sky-rocket. The combined military expenditure of the six great powers (Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia and Italy) totalled 94 million pounds in 1870 but it had increased by over four times to 398 million pounds by 1914. Germany's expenditure during this period increased by over 73 percent, compared to France's 10 percent and Britain's 13 percent. Russia's embarrassing defeat by the Japanese (1905) prompted the tsar to order massive changes in the form of a rearmament programme, causing Russian defence spending to increase by more than 33 percent. Around 45 percent of Russian government spending was allocated to the armed forces by 1910 with only five percent allocated to education.
- Every major European power apart from Britain had introduced or increased conscription to expand their armies. This was mostly achieved by youth being forced to join the army. Germany added 170,000 full-time soldiers to its army in 1913-14, which in turn increased the size of its navy and the construction of 17 new vessels was ordered in 1898. Berlin was also exemplary in the construction of military submarines (U-boats) and by 1914 the German navy had 29 operational submarines. The British were highly suspicious of this and responded by adding 29 new ships to the Royal Navy.
- There were changes in the quality and quantity of military weapons and equipment. Perhaps the most notable improvements were the calibre, range, accuracy and portability of heavy artillery and weapons. During the American Civil War (1861 – 1865), a type of heavy artillery was invented that could

fire up to 2,500 metres and by early 1900, it had been further improved. The invention of explosive shells was also significant. They had greater killing power as they would explode wherever they landed. These inventions caused artillery attacks to become standard practice along the Western Front during World War I.

- First developed in 1881, over time machine guns became smaller, lighter, more accurate, more reliable and faster with some capable of firing up to 600 rounds per minute. Small firearms also improved during this period. The effective range of a rifle in the 1860s was only about 400 metres. Barbed wire, an invention of the 1860s was also embraced by military strategists as it prevented enemies from getting past a defensive line.

Historians often disagree on the reasons for the arms race but there is no mistaking that the development of new weaponry changed the face of modern warfare and the term 'superpower' as we know it.

## **MILITARISM AT SEA**

For any of the European Empires to be strong, they had to have a strong Navy. Large boats, armed with destructive cannons could help them colonise smaller nations and intimidate larger ones from attacking them. The British Empire was biggest in the world specifically because it had the biggest and most technologically advanced Navy in the world at the time.

Germany was jealous of Britain's Navy. Specifically it was jealous of the English ship the *HMS Dreadnaught*. This ship was the fastest, most powerful and strongest in the world. It had guns that could fire and blow up an enemy ship from 32 kilometres away. No German ship could possibly compete with it.

In response, Germany designed the *Rheinland in 1900*, a copy of the Dreadnaught. Not being outdone, Britain responded by building a *Super Dreadnaught, The Neptune* that was bigger and faster than the *Rheinland*.

By 1914, both countries were sucked into a *Naval Arms Race* where each one was trying to out-do the other. Millions were poured into developing the biggest and strongest Navy. If war was to break out at sea, it would be catastrophic for both sides. Both Germany and Britain were getting nervous in 1914.

## **MILITARISM ON LAND**

Nine years before WW1 began, a German General, Alfred von Schlieffen began designing The Schlieffen Plan. There was no threat of war in 1905, however Schlieffen began designing a plan to fight the enemies Germany was likely to face. Russia and France. As you know from the Alliance System, if Germany attacked France in the west, then Russia would attack from the east (see Map 1). Germany would have to split its army in half to fight both.

The Schlieffen Plan was to attack France first in the west and capture the country in 2 weeks. Germany knew that Russia had the bigger army, but they also knew it would take at least 6 weeks for Russia to get ready. By that time, Germany would be ready to fight in the east.

The Schlieffen Plan was so extensive that 16 railway lines leading to the Belgian border were built. If war broke out, Germany could act quickly.

### **Map 1:**





**Map 2:**



In general, militarism showed the rivalry that existed between the nation of Europe in the years for the outbreak of World War I. Also, militarism created the large forces that easily allowed the European nations to go to war in 1914. If they had not built such large armies then the war may not have been so easy to begin and so devastating.

In all of the Great powers, military spending increased greatly in the years prior to the war. All except Britain had conscription. Over 85% of men of military age in France and 50% in Germany had served in the army or navy. France had the highest proportion of its population in the army.

Percentage Increase in Military Spending	1890-1913	Size of Peacetime Army 1914
Britain	117	430,000
France	92	970,000
Russia	19	1,500,000
Germany	158	760,000
Austria Hungary	160	480,000

The armies of both France and Germany had more than doubled between 1870 and 1914. The rivalry between the powers led to a building up of weapons and an increase in distrust.

Colonial rivalry had led to a naval arms race between Britain and Germany. This had seriously worsened relations between both countries. The British-German dispute also led to greater naval cooperation between Britain and France.

In 1880 Germany had 88,000 tonnes of military shipping, Britain 650,000; by 1910 the figures were 964,000 and 2,174,000 respectively.

The launch of HMS Dreadnought in 1906 made matters worse. This ship was fast, heavily armoured with powerful guns and it made all previous battleships obsolete.

**d). Nationalism:** Much of the origin of the war was based on the desire of the Slavic peoples in Bosnia and Herzegovina to no longer be part of Austria-Hungary but instead be part of Serbia. This specific essentially nationalistic and ethnic revolt led directly to the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand. But more generally, nationalism in many of the countries throughout Europe contributed not only to the beginning but to the extension of the war across Europe and into Asia. As each country tried to prove their dominance and power, the war became more complicated and prolonged.

**Possible Questions: (Refer to the hand-out given in class)**

1. What are the short term causes of WW1?

The answer to this question is all the events below. In case it comes in this form, make your answer covers the crux of all the events below.

2. Moroccan Crisis of 1905 and 1911 (Hand-out given in class)
3. The Agadir Conference (Hand-out given in class)
4. The Bosnian Crisis (Hand-out given in class)
5. The Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913 (Hand-out given in class)
6. The Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand (Hand-out given in class)
7. Refer to *MYP Year 4&5 History Course Book* - Chapter - Why do nations go to war and why is peacemaking difficult? Pg (148-159)

The Balkan Region:



The **Balkans** is a region that includes countries on the Balkan Peninsula in the southeast of Europe, including most of the former Yugoslavia. The Balkan peninsula lies east of Italy, separated from it by the Adriatic Sea. The Balkans are bordered by parts of the Mediterranean Sea, the Adriatic and the Ionian Sea in west and by the Aegean Sea in south. The Sea of Marmara south of the peninsula connects the Mediterranean with the Black Sea.

Geographically (by convention), the Balkan Peninsula is separated from Central Europe in north by the Danube and Sava Rivers. This excludes some portions of Serbia and some of Montenegro and much of Romania, but historically and politically they are considered to be Balkan states; the other eight nations are Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Republic of Macedonia, Albania, Bulgaria, continental Greece, and European Turkey.

The Balkans is at the crossroads of two continents, Europe and Asia, and of two major religions Christianity and Islam. It is a melting pot of European and Asian civilizations, a boiling mix of cultures, races, languages, and religions, and considered to be the stage of constant wars, civil wars, conquests, revolts, and lawlessness. Nationalism, religious tensions and age-old rivalry for territory and supremacy have often created a climate of mistrust and hostility.

**The Balkan Powder Keg:** The continuing collapse of the Ottoman Empire coincided with the rise of nationalism in the Balkans, which led to increased tensions and conflicts in the region. This “powder keg” was thus a major catalyst for the outbreak of World War I.

#### KEY POINTS

- By the early 20th century, Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, and Serbia had achieved independence from the Ottoman Empire, but large elements of their ethnic populations remained under Ottoman rule. In 1912 these countries formed the Balkan League and declared war on the Ottomans to reclaim territory.
- Four Balkan states defeated the Ottoman Empire in the first war; one of the four, Bulgaria, suffered defeat in the second war.
- The tensions and conflicts in this are often referred to as the “Balkan powder keg” and had implications beyond the region.
- There were a number of overlapping claims to territories and spheres of influence between the major European powers, such as the Russian Empire, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the German Empire and, to a lesser degree, the Ottoman Empire, the United Kingdom, and Kingdom of Italy.
- Relations between Austria and Serbia became increasingly bitter and Russia felt humiliated after Austria and Germany prevented it from helping Serbia.
- The powder keg eventually “exploded” causing the First World War, which began with a conflict between imperial Austria-Hungary and Pan-Slavic Serbia.

#### KEY TERMS

## **irredentism**

Any political or popular movement intended to reclaim and reoccupy a “lost” or “unredeemed” area; territorial claims are justified on the basis of real or imagined national and historic (an area formerly part of that state) or ethnic (an area inhabited by that nation or ethnic group) affiliations. It is often advocated by nationalist and pan-nationalist movements and has been a feature of identity politics and cultural and political geography.

## **Balkans**

A peninsula and a cultural area in Southeastern Europe with various and disputed borders. The region takes its name from the Balkan Mountains that stretch from the Serbia-Bulgaria border to the Black Sea. Conflicts here were a major contributing factor to the outbreak of WWI.

## **Pan-Slavism**

A movement which crystallized in the mid-19th century concerned with the advancement of integrity and unity for the Slavic people. Its main impact occurred in the Balkans, where non-Slavic empires—the Byzantine Empire, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, and Venice—had ruled the South Slavs for centuries.

The “Balkan powder keg,” also termed the “powder keg of Europe,” refers to the Balkans in the early part of the 20th century preceding World War I. There were a number of overlapping claims to territories and spheres of influence between the major European powers, such as the Russian Empire, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the German Empire and, to a lesser degree, the Ottoman Empire, the United Kingdom, and Kingdom of Italy.

In addition to the imperialistic ambitions and interests in this region, there was a growth in nationalism among the indigenous peoples, leading to the formation of the independent states of Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, Romania, and Albania.

Within these nations, there were movements to create “greater” nations: to enlarge the boundaries of the state beyond those areas where the national ethnic group was in the majority (termed irredentism). This led to conflict between the newly independent nations and the empire from which they split, the Ottoman Empire. Additionally, it led to differences between the

Balkan nations who wished to gain territory at the expense of their neighbors. Both the conflict with the Ottoman Empire and between the Balkan nations led to the Balkan Wars, discussed below.

In a different vein, the ideology of Pan-Slavism in Balkans gained popularity; the movement built around it in the region sought to unite all of the Slavs of the Balkans into one nation, Yugoslavia. This, however, would require the union of several Balkan states and territory that was part of Austria-Hungary. For this reason, Pan-Slavism was strongly opposed by Austria-Hungary, while it was supported by Russia which viewed itself as leader of all Slavic nations.

To complicate matters, in the years preceding World War I, there existed a tangle of Great Power alliances, both formal and informal, public and secret. Following the Napoleonic Wars, there existed a “balance of power” to prevent major wars. This theory held that opposing combinations of powers in Europe would be evenly matched, entailing that any general war would be far too costly to risk entering. This system began to fall apart as the Ottoman Empire, seen as a check on Russian power, began to crumble, and as Germany, a loose confederation of minor states, was united into a major power. Not only did these changes lead to a realignment of power, but of interests as well.

All these factors and many others conspired to bring about the First World War. As is insinuated by the name “the powder keg of Europe,” the Balkans were not the major issue at stake in the war, but were the catalyst that led to the conflagration. The Chancellor of Germany in the late 19th century, Otto von Bismarck, correctly predicted it would be the source of major conflict in Europe.

The powder keg “exploded” causing the First World War, which began with a conflict between imperial Austria-Hungary and Pan-Slavic Serbia.

Balkan Troubles: Germany, France, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Britain attempting to keep the lid on the simmering cauldron of imperialist and nationalist tensions in the Balkans to prevent a general European war. They were successful in 1912 and 1913 but did not succeed in 1914, resulting in the outbreak of World War I.

**Balkan Wars:** The continuing collapse of the Ottoman Empire led to two wars in the Balkans, in 1912 and 1913, which was a prelude to world war. By 1900 nation states had formed in Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro and Serbia. Nevertheless, many of their ethnic compatriots lived under the control of the Ottoman Empire. In 1912, these countries formed the Balkan League. There were three main causes of the First Balkan War. The Ottoman Empire was unable to reform itself, govern satisfactorily, or deal with the rising ethnic nationalism of its diverse peoples. Secondly,

the Great Powers quarreled among themselves and failed to ensure that the Ottomans would carry out the needed reforms. This led the Balkan states to impose their own solution. Most importantly, the members of the Balkan League were confident that it could defeat the Turks, which would prove to be the case.

The First Balkan War broke out when the League attacked the Ottoman Empire on October 8, 1912, and was ended seven months later by the Treaty of London. After five centuries, the Ottoman Empire lost virtually all of its possessions in the Balkans. The Treaty had been imposed by the Great Powers, dissatisfying the victorious Balkan states. Bulgaria was dissatisfied over the division of the spoils in Macedonia, made in secret by its former allies, Serbia and Greece, and attacked to force them out of Macedonia, starting the Second Balkan War. The Serbian and Greek armies repulsed the Bulgarian offensive and counter-attacked into Bulgaria, while Romania and the Ottoman Empire also attacked Bulgaria and gained (or regained) territory. In the resulting Treaty of Bucharest, Bulgaria lost most of the territories it had gained in the First Balkan War.

The long-term result was heightened tension in the Balkans. Relations between Austria and Serbia became increasingly bitter. Russia felt humiliated after Austria and Germany prevented it from helping Serbia. Bulgaria and Turkey were also dissatisfied, and eventually joined Austria and Germany in the First World War. **Attempt the Question below: Criteria A and Criteria C**



## ACTIVITY: Analysing key events

### ■ ATL

- Communication skills – Organize and depict information logically
- Critical-thinking skills – Gather and organize relevant information to formulate an argument

- 1 Create a timeline of the key events that caused tension between the European powers and ultimately led to the outbreak of the First World War. Your timeline should help you see when and where key events happened, and when there were periods of high tension.
- 2 You will need a pencil and a ruler. Decide on a scale and then label the dates on your timeline in pen: 1900, 1901, 1902, etc. Your heading is:  
**The Causes of the First World War**
- 3 You need to read to the end of page 157 before starting this timeline. Then review all of the events that caused tension between 1900 and 1914 and decide which ones to include. Mark them at the correct point/date on the timeline. Then read the next section on the short-term causes of the war, including

the July Crisis, and add the final key events that led up to the start of war.

- 4 Create a mind map or spider diagram of the causes you have looked at so far. Add 'connections' between events that are linked. Explain how and why each event caused more tension and hostility between the European powers.
- 5 Plan a response to the essay question below using the knowledge you have gained in this chapter.

'To what extent did nationalism cause the First World War?'

**Argument 1:** Choose the evidence/events from your timeline that show that nationalism caused tension and made war more likely.

**Argument 2:** Choose the evidence/events from your timeline that show that another theme, for example militarism, was responsible for causing tension and making war more likely.

### ◆ Assessment opportunities

- ◆ In this activity you have practised skills that are assessed using Criterion A: Knowing and understanding and Criterion D: Thinking critically.

- 8 Why do nations go to war and why is peacemaking difficult?





■ Figure 8.9 The assassination of Franz Ferdinand is announced in the Los Angeles Times

## THE JULY CRISIS, 1914

Although we have seen that the events of 1900–14 considerably increased tension between the Great Powers, in fact it should not be seen that war was 'inevitable'. By mid-1914, the naval race between Germany and Britain had calmed down and a Royal Navy Squadron even paid a

goodwill visit to Germany in June of that year. The crises that you have read about had also all been resolved. Thus the events of July 1914 in the Balkans and the actions of the Great Powers during this month can be seen as crucial in bringing about the major European war that started in August.

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## ACTIVITY: Causes of the First World War

### ATL

- Critical-thinking skills – Evaluate evidence and arguments

Look at Sources B–D.

- 1 Interpret the message of the cartoonist in Source B.
- 2 Identify the key points (at least five) made about the causes of the First World War in Sources C and D.
- 3 From their origin and purpose, evaluate the values and limitations of Sources B and D for historians studying the causes of the First World War.
- 4 Using the sources and your own knowledge, analyse the causes of the First World War.

### Assessment opportunities

- ◆ This activity can be assessed using Criterion A: Knowing and understanding and Criterion D: Thinking critically.

### SOURCE C

'... it seems very unlikely that the Russians positively desired a major war. Mobilisation for them meant preparation for a possible war. The Germans, however, interpreted mobilisation as the virtual equivalent to a declaration of war, and Germany's Schlieffen Plan meant that the German army would have to attack and defeat France before moving eastwards to combat Russian forces.'

Pearce, R. and Lowe, J. 2001. *Rivalry and Accord: International Relations, 1870–1914*. London, Hodder Education.

### SOURCE B

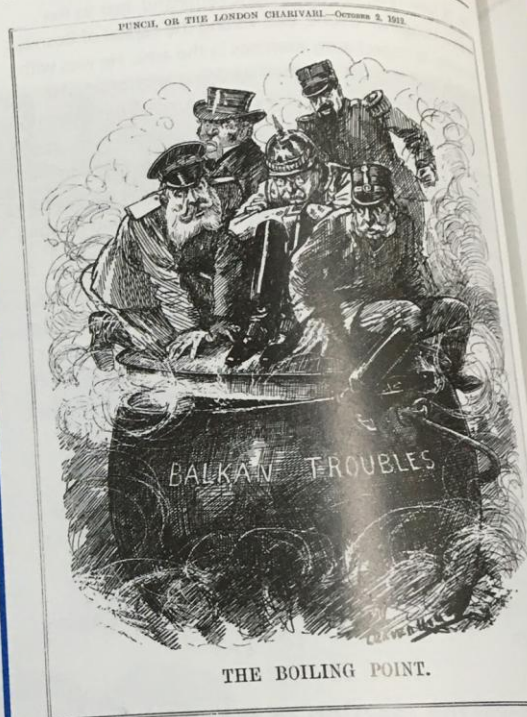


Figure 8.10 Cartoon published in the British magazine *Punch*, 2 October 1912

### SOURCE D

'All the mobilization plans had been timed to the minute, or even years before and they would not be changed. [A]ny attempt, for instance, by the Austrians to mobilise again would mean that they could not mobilise as well again because two lots of trains would be running against each other. Any alteration in the mobilization plan meant not a delay of 24 hours, but at least six months before the next lot were ready.'

Taylor, A.J.P. 1979. *How Wars Begin*. H

**Note: You need NOT study all these events in detail. However, you must have an overall conceptual and content knowledge of these events. You can use the same in your answers. A direct question on these events most likely will not be asked. The highlighted ones in red should be focused more on.**

**1.Assassination of Archduke Ferdinand 28th June, 1914 (Hand-out)**

- 2.Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia 28th July, 1914
- 3.Germany declares war on Russia 1st August, 1914
- 4.Germany declares war on France 3rd August, 1914
- 5.German troops enter Belgium 4th August, 1914
- 6.Great Britain declares war on Germany 4th August, 1914
- 7.Battle of Mons begins 23rd August, 1914
- 8.Turkey joins Central Powers 29th October, 1914
- 9.Christmas Truce on the Western Front 25th December, 1914

**10.Allied naval attack on the Dardanelles 18th March, 1915**

In March 1915, during World War I (1914-18), British and French forces launched an ill-fated naval attack on Turkish forces in the Dardanelles in northwestern Turkey, hoping to take control of the strategically vital strait separating Europe from Asia. The failure of the campaign at the Dardanelles, along with the campaign that followed later that year in Gallipoli, resulted in heavy casualties and was a serious blow to the reputation of the Allied war command, including that of Winston Churchill, the British first lord of the admiralty, who had long been a proponent of an aggressive naval assault against Turkey at the Dardanelles.

**Dardanelles Campaign: Background**

As the only waterway between the Black Sea in the east and the Mediterranean Sea in the west, the Dardanelles was a much-contested area from the beginning of World War I. The stakes for both sides were high: British control over the strait would mean a direct line to the Russian navy in the Black Sea, enabling the supply of munitions to Russian forces in the east and facilitating cooperation between the two sides. The Allies were also competing with the Central Powers for support in the Balkans, and the British hoped that a victory against Turkey would persuade one

or all of the neutral states of Greece, Bulgaria and Romania to join the war on the Allied side. Finally, as British Foreign Secretary Edward Grey put it, the approach of such a powerful Allied fleet toward the heart of the Ottoman Empire might provoke a coup d'état in Constantinople, leading Turkey to abandon the Central Powers and return to its earlier neutrality. Support from the rest of the British war command came none too soon for Winston Churchill (1874-1965), the British first lord of the admiralty (akin to the secretary of the U.S. Navy), who had long been a proponent of an aggressive naval assault against Turkey at the Dardanelles. Though others, especially the French military command, led by Joseph Joffre, argued that the navy should not strike until ground troops could be spared from the Western Front, Churchill pushed to begin immediately.

### **Dardanelles Campaign: March 1915**

The attack, planned throughout the winter of 1915, opened on March 18, 1915, when six English and four French battleships headed toward the strait. The Turks were aware that an Allied naval attack on the strait was a strong possibility, and with German help, had greatly improved their defenses in the region. Though the Allies had bombarded and destroyed the Turkish forts near the entrance to the Dardanelles in the days leading up to the attack, the water was heavily mined, forcing the Allied navy to sweep the area before its fleet could set forth. However, the minesweepers did not manage to clear the area completely: Three of the 10 Allied battleships (Britain's *Irresistible* and *Ocean*, and France's *Bouvet*) were sunk, and two more were badly damaged. With half the fleet out of commission, the remaining ships were pulled back. Though Churchill argued for the attack to be renewed the next day, claiming, erroneously as it turned out, that the Turks were running low on munitions, the Allied war command opted to delay the naval attack at the Dardanelles and combine it with a ground invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula, which bordered the northern side of the strait.

### **11. Allied landings at Gallipoli 25th April, 1915**

On April 25, 1915, a week after Anglo-French naval attack on the Dardanelles end in dismal failure, the Allies launch a large-scale land invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula, the Turkish-controlled land mass bordering the northern side of the Dardanelles.

In January 1915, two months after Turkey entered World War I on the side of the Central Powers, Russia appealed to Britain to defend it against attacks by the Ottoman army in the Caucasus. Lord Kitchener, Britain's secretary of state for war, told Churchill, first lord of the Admiralty, that no troops were available to help the Russians and that the only place where they could demonstrate their support was at the Dardanelles, to prevent Ottoman troops from moving east to the Caucasus. First Sea Lord John Fisher advocated a joint army-navy attack.

The naval attack of March 18, 1915, was a disaster, as undetected Turkish mines sank half of the joint Anglo-French fleet sent against the Dardanelles. After this failure, the Allied command switched its focus to a landing of army troops on the Gallipoli Peninsula, with the objective of securing the Dardanelles so that the Allied fleet could pass safely through and reconnoiter with the Russians in the Black Sea.

On April 25, British, French, Australian and New Zealander troops landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The Turkish forces were well prepared to meet them, however, as they had long been aware of the likelihood of just such an invasion. The Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC) was devastated by some of the best-trained Turkish defenders, led by Mustafa Kemal, the future President Ataturk of Turkey. Meanwhile, the British and French also met fierce resistance at their landing sites and suffered two-thirds casualties at some locations. During the next three months, the Allies made only slight gains off their landing sites and sustained terrible casualties.

To break the stalemate, a new British landing at Suvla Bay occurred on August 6, but the British failed to capitalize on the largely unopposed landing and waited too long to move against the heights. Ottoman reinforcements arrived and quickly halted their progress. Trenches were dug, and the British were able to advance only a few miles.

In September, Sir Ian Hamilton, the British commander, was replaced by Sir Charles Monro, who in December recommended an evacuation from Gallipoli. On January 8, 1916, Allied forces staged a full retreat from the shores of the peninsula, ending a disastrous campaign that resulted in 250,000 Allied casualties and a greatly discredited Allied military command, including

Churchill, who resigned as first lord of the Admiralty and accepted a commission to command an infantry battalion in France.

12. Italy declares war on Austria-Hungary 23rd May, 1915

13. Start of Anglo-French Somme Offensive 1st July, 1916

14. Somme Offensive ends 18th November, 1916

**14. Zimmermann Telegram intercepted by Britain 19th January, 1917**

**15. United States declares war on Germany 19th January, 1917**

16. Greece declares war on the Central Powers 29th June, 1917

17. Paris Peace Conference 12th January, 1919

**18. Treaty of Versailles signed 28th June, 1919 (Hand-out) and MYP Coursebook Pg 164-173**

- **Terms of the Treaty**
- **France (George Clemenceau)**
- **USA (Woodrow Wilson)**
- **Britain (Lloyd George)**
- **Italy (Vittorio EO)**
- **Germany (Count Brockdorff R)**
- **Impact of the Treaty**
- **Why was it called “Diktat”**
- **14 Points**
- **To what extent was the Treaty of Versailles fair?**

**General Questions:**

**1. What brought the First World War to an end?**

**MYP Year 4&5 book Pg 162-163**

## **2. What is Trench Warfare**

## **3. What is the Western Front**

## **4. Role of Women**

### **2.2 SECOND WORLD WAR (WWII)**

- **Factual:** What were the key factors that led to the outbreak of the Second World War?  
**Or** What were the causes of the Second World War? (Use the handout given to you on Second World War)
- **Conceptual:** How does ideology create conflict?

**Source:** The hand-out on Second World War and Pg 174-185 of MYP Year 4&5 Book

- a). The Great Depression - Economic downturns
- b). Weakness of the LON
- c). Expansionist Ideologies in Europe (Hitler) - Nazi ideology and Lebensraum
- d). Impact of the Versailles Treaty - The Treaty of Versailles and the German desire for revenge
- e). New Alliances
- f). Failure of Appeasement
- g). Emergence of Militarism and Expansionism in Japan

**Short-Term Causes:** 174-185 of MYP Year 4&5 Book

- a). The Munich Agreement
- b). The Nazi-Soviet Pact
- c). The Policy of Appeasement
- d). Japan's Expansionism

### **Events of WW2: Hand-out on Second World War**

1. Invasion of Austria, Czechoslovakia etc under the concept of Anschluss
2. Blitzkrieg
3. Pearl Harbour
4. Atomic Bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki

### **General Question:**



**What peacemaking agreements were made after the Second World War? Pg 186-189**

## **2.3 COLD WAR**

**Factual Question:** (All answers in the Hand-out given on Cold War)

- 1. What was the Cold War? (Pg221-229)**
- 2. Why did the USA and the USSR become superpowers after the Second World War?**
- 3. Why did the superpowers develop spheres of influence?**
- 4. Why did the superpower confrontation go global?**
- 5. What was the Korean War?**
- 6. What was the Vietnam War?**
- 7. What was the Cuban Missile Crisis?**
- 8. What was the Berlin Wall and Blockade?**
- 9. What was the significance of Solidarity in Poland?**
- 10. Who was Gorbachev and how was he responsible for the collapse of the Soviet Union?**