



HISTORY BOOKLET

COLEGIO ALAS



COLEGIO ALAS 2020

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Student's full name:

Course:

2020

GENERALITIES OF THE WORLD

1. Given the following definitions match them with the word they define.

- a. The study of people in society and how individuals relate to one another and to the group. Any of the disciplines within social science that study a particular area of human society such as sociology, psychology, economics, political science, history, or ethics.
- b. The study of all the physical features of the Earth's surface, including its climate and the distribution of plant, animal, and human life.
- c. The study of moral standards and how they affect conduct.
- d. The branch of knowledge that records and analyses past events.

ETHICS

SOCIAL STUDIES

HISTORY

GEOGRAPHY

2. On a world map locate the following items:

- North, Central and South America.
- Africa.
- Europe.
- Asia.
- Oceania.
- Antarctica.
- Tropic of Cancer.
- Tropic of Capricorn.
- Pacific Ocean.
- Atlantic Ocean.
- Indian Ocean.
- North and South Pole.
- The Equator.
- The Prime Meridian.

2b. With different colours mark all the English-speaking countries and write their capital cities.

3. Given the following definitions put them in order so as to get coherent sentences.

CONTINENT: of landmass/largest continuous units/one of the earth's

OCEAN: that covers nearly three-fourths of/the surface of the earth/great body of salt water

POLE: the axis around which/one of two extremities of/the earth revolves

EQUATOR: that divides the earth into/an imaginary circle on the surface of the earth/the northern hemisphere and the southern hemisphere

MERIDIAN: and the Eastern hemisphere/that goes from pole to pole/and divides the world into the Western hemisphere/an imaginary line on the earth's surface

4. On a UK map locate the following:

- England and its capital city.
- Scotland and its capital city.
- Wales and its capital city.
- Northern Ireland and its capital city.
- Republic of Ireland and its capital city.
- The Atlantic Ocean.
- The North Sea.
- The Irish Sea.
- The Continent.
- The English Channel.

MAIN GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES OF THE BRITISH ISLES

2

1 Look at the map of the British Isles. Draw a line between the Bristol Channel and The Wash.

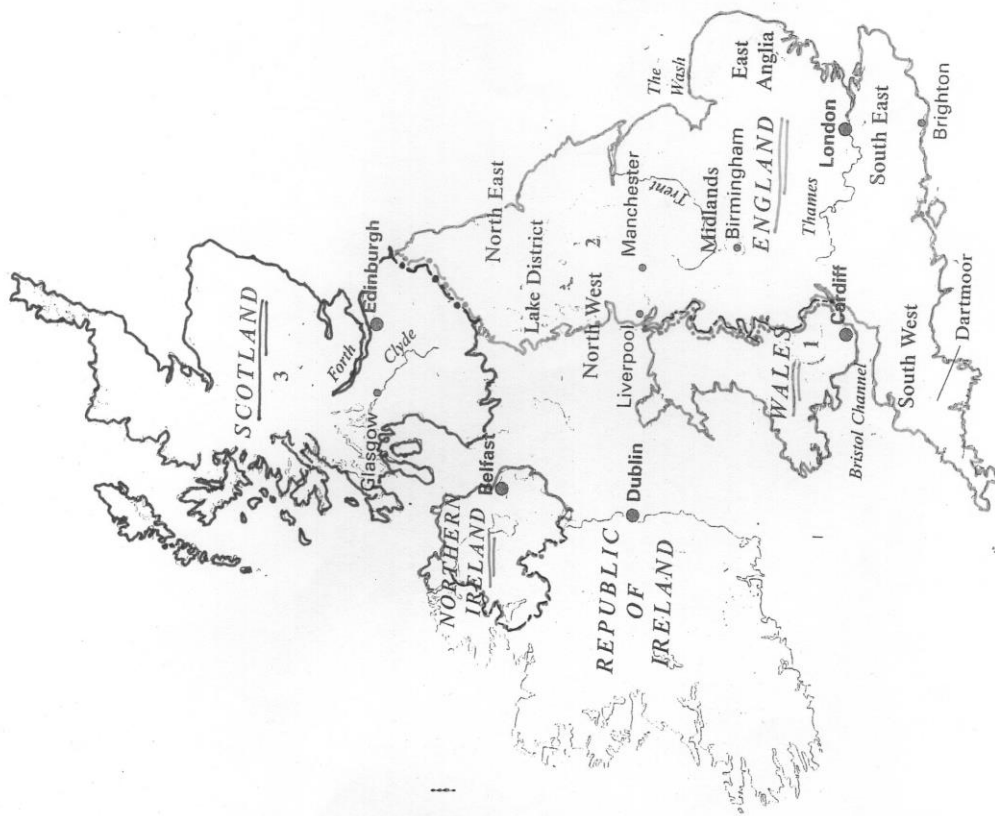
T.36a Listen to the description of the main geographical features of the British Isles.

- What can we find to the north of the line?
- What can we find to the south of the line?
- Match the numbers on the map to these place:

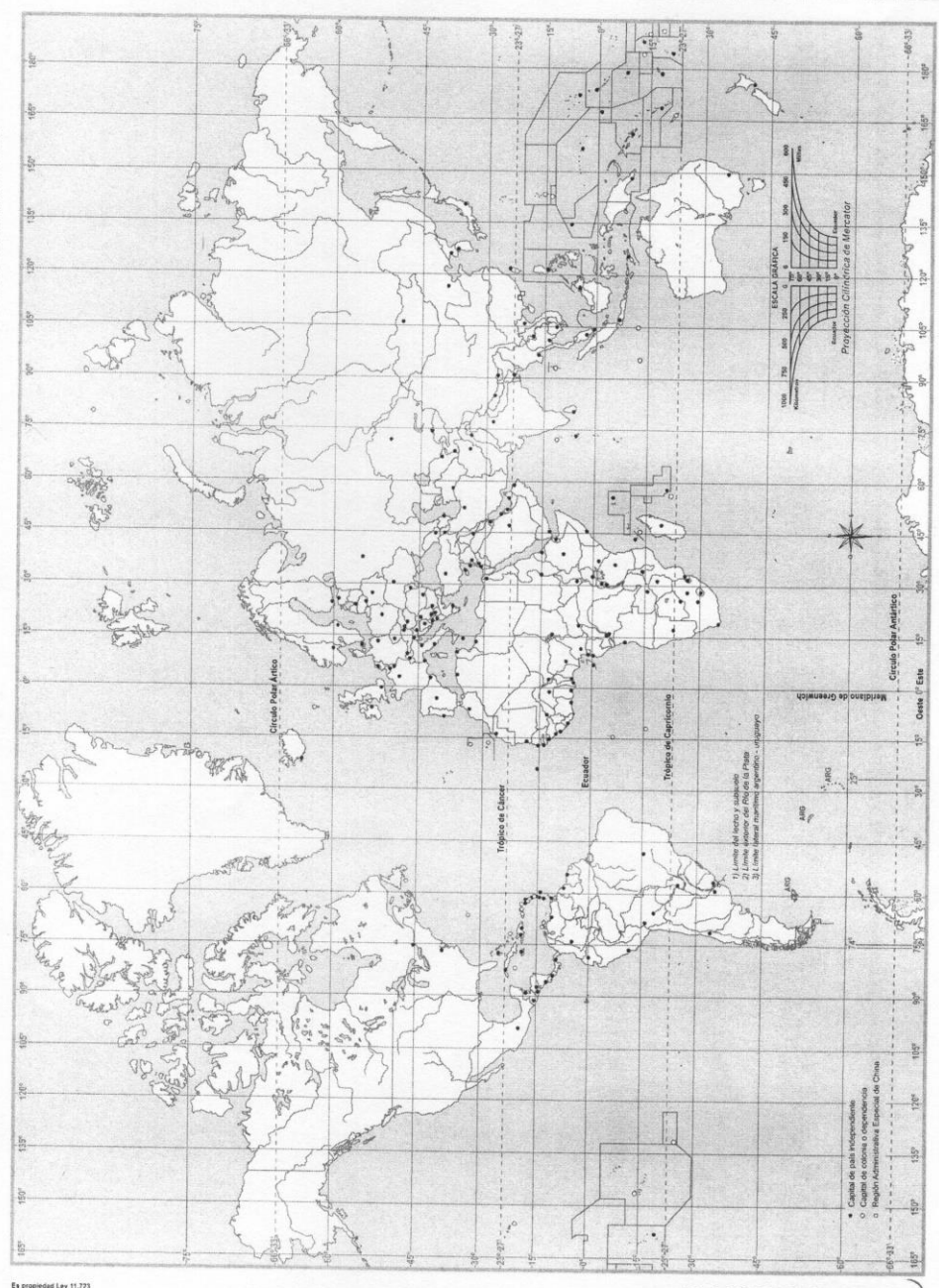
the Pennines the Welsh Mountains
the Scottish Highlands

2 T.36b Listen to the second part and take notes about the following areas and places.

the South West the South East East Anglia
the Midlands the North West Wales
the North East Scotland Ireland



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What Is History?

BASIC
NOTIONS

What is history? There are at least two answers.

First, in everyday talk, 'history' is another word for times gone by — for the past. We say things like, "That pleasant weekend is just part of history now — all past and gone." or, "The Stone Age was when people used stone tools like stone axes and stone arrow heads." So what is the past? The past is every single thing that has happened before this moment — before now. The historic moment shown in Fig. A is just one of the countless millions of events from the past.

The past has happened whether we like it or not. We cannot change what has happened in the past and we cannot make it come back. But we can choose to ignore it, like the boy in Fig. B, or we can choose to study it, like the girl. This is the second meaning of 'history'. It means the study and recording of the past.



Fig. B

People who study history in great detail are called **historians**. They are experts in studying the past.

Time

Time is very important in history. We use it to *measure* when things happened in the past. To make measuring easy, we divide time up into chunks of different size, such as seconds, minutes, hours, days, years and centuries. *Christian countries* also divide time up into the years before the birth of Jesus Christ and the years after His birth. The years before His birth are called BC (Before Christ). The years after, are called AD (Anno Domini — which are Latin words meaning 'in the year of Our Lord'). Cultures based on other religions use different events as their 'zero' year.

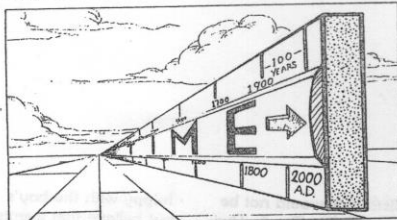


Fig. B.

But we need to do more than just measure time. We have to try to understand it too. This can be quite difficult. Why? Here are four reasons:

1. Time is immense. It is almost impossible to understand how much time there has been. The Earth is about 4000 million years old. Since Jesus was born, less than one million days have passed.
2. Although time moves forward at a regular pace, it sometimes *seems* to move at different speeds. When you are frightened or embarrassed, five seconds can seem like five hours. When you are happy or excited, an hour can seem to go by in a few minutes. Sometimes, time can drag. Sometimes, it can fly.
3. Often, long stretches of time in our lives, and in history, can go by without anything very important happening. And then, several big events can happen all at once, in a very short space of time. That means that some periods in history can be more significant than others.
4. The biggest problem about time is that it never stops. It has no clear beginning and no definite end. We can never catch a moment of time and make it stand still. We cannot put time in a box so that we can look at it and study it easily. Time keeps moving on.

Change and Continuity

'Change' and 'continuity' are words with opposite meanings. *Change* means that things become different as time goes by. *Continuity* means that things stay the same through every age.

Change

Many things change. The world around us changes. Other people change. And we ourselves change. We cannot stop this happening. Study this quotation.

"During my life the world has seen many changes. Here are just a few:

- men have walked on the moon
- video recorders have been invented
- the school leaving age has changed from 15 to 16
- my local cinema has become a supermarket

Continuity

Change is a vital part of history. But if we say that history is *only* about change, we are mistaken. We are overlooking *continuity*.

Many things continue to be important to us year after year. They are the same for you and me as they were for people thousands of years ago. Here are some examples:

- the world spins through space
- people need to eat
- spring follows winter
- animals reproduce themselves by having babies
- all animals, including humans, die

Empathy

Do you know what empathy is?

When you really feel what it must be like to be someone else — you are empathising. Empathy is important in history because you have to be able to put yourself in the place of individual people in the past. You have to be able to do more than just describe what people's lives were like. You have to be able to put yourself through their experiences; to take on their roles. For a moment or two, you have to try to be someone else.

Empathy helps us to know the past from the inside. It helps us to understand the way that people from the past have acted. Why, for example, did people in the Middle Ages allow horrific public punishments to happen? Why did the Romans permit slavery? Why did the Aztecs sacrifice human beings to their gods?

You can only answer such questions properly by leaving your own world and travelling back through the centuries.

empathy (em pu thee — th as in thing) n. Empathy is the identification of yourself with the feelings or attitudes of another person, so that you fully understand what's going on in his mind. When you empathise with someone, you identify with him to the extent of experiencing his thoughts or feelings. Sometimes, you can empathise with someone without necessarily agreeing with him: 'I know how you feel and why you feel that way, though I don't agree with you.'

Fig. A. From 1000 Most Practical Words by N. W. Schur (Facts on File, 1983).

What will you need to do this? First, you will need a good imagination. Second, you will need quite a lot of good historical information. If you empathise without any factual knowledge of the past, you are not doing proper history — you are just making up a fictitious story. Third, you have to remember that different people from the past reacted to events in different ways — just as people in the present do. What seems important or right to one individual may seem unimportant or wrong to another. Fourth, you will have to try to forget that as a modern person, you know how historical events actually worked out. People from the past didn't know. For them, such events were still in the future.

Causation

When you are trying to explain past events, one of the questions you will ask is, 'What caused these things to happen?' The boy in Fig. A has an answer to the question.



Fig. A

fate (often with capital 'F') the power or force which is supposed to be the cause of and in control of all events, in a way which is beyond human control.

Fig. B. From the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1987).

Historians would not be happy with the boy's statement in Fig. A. They do not believe that events have been planned out in advance by Fate. Instead, they see events in history as the consequences of definite causes, which we can discover.

Cause	Consequence
a Abdication of Edward VIII in 1936	b George VI (Edward's younger brother) became King of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.
c Death of George VI in 1952, at the age of 57.	d Queen Elizabeth II came to the throne.

Fig. C

Sometimes it's not hard to work out what makes something happen — perhaps there's just one simple, obvious cause (see Fig. C). Usually, it's more difficult. There may be many possible causes. It's the historian's job to sort them out and decide which he or she thinks were the most important.

Short-term and long-term causes

Historians often talk about long-term and short-term causes. Long-term causes build up over a long period of time. Short-term causes happen rapidly. Long-term causes make a particular historical event likely to happen. Short-term causes actually start it happening. Here are some examples.

Sources

A lot of evidence is left behind by the past. Some of it is easy to see. Some of it is very hard to find. Historians get their evidence from lots of different sources. A source is a thing or a place where historical evidence can be found, or where it is stored. There are many possible sources of information. Sometimes we may stumble across a brand new source that no-one else has discovered. Sometimes, one source may lead on to another.

Imagine, for instance, that in Unit 4.1, one of the pieces of wreckage that you picked out of the sea had the name of the sunken ship on it. This clue would certainly lead you to other sources that would tell you a lot more about the lost vessel.

Remember: collecting historical evidence is a bit like doing a jigsaw. Another good comparison is

As we move from source to source, more evidence builds up. Evidence from one source can also be used to check evidence from another. Gradually, using the sources, we arrive at a picture of what the past was like.

Those things about the past we can prove through evidence, we call historical facts. A history book is a large collection of facts based on historical evidence.

Secondary Sources

Remember that 'primary' means 'first'. Primary sources are sources that come from the time they describe. They are 'original' sources.

As their name tells you, 'secondary' sources come after primary sources. This does not mean that secondary sources are not as reliable as primary sources. 'Secondary' simply means that these sources came *after* the events they describe.

You are all much more used to secondary sources rather than primary sources. The most common kind of secondary source is a book. Bookshops and libraries are full of history books.

Primary Sources

Primary sources are often eye-witness accounts. They come to us from people who actually lived through the very historical events that we want to study. We can never travel back in time to see these events for ourselves. But the next best thing is to read the words — or look at the pictures — of someone who was actually there at the time. As we do this, we can see the past through their eyes.

There are two important things to understand about primary sources. First, the further back into the past you go, the fewer are the primary sources that have survived into the present. Second, though you may stumble across exciting primary sources in an attic or at a jumble sale, most of the really important primary sources have been collected up and stored in collections called archives (see Fig. C).

Sometimes, priceless primary sources are put on display in museums for all of us to examine. Primary sources have to be treated with the greatest care. They cannot be replaced. They are the only surviving links we have with some parts of the past.

Some of the most common types of primary sources are old manuscripts (documents written by hand); letters; diaries; newspapers; government reports; paintings and drawings; maps; photos and film recordings; recordings of conversations; objects recovered by archaeological digs.

from: "Core Skills in History 1/2/3"
by Gardner & Boteman

Learning Skills

All subjects allow you to learn certain skills. For example, arithmetic teaches you the skill of calculating numbers, woodwork teaches you the skill of shaping pieces of wood into useful objects, and so on. We have seen that history allows us to understand individuals and societies in the past. But what skills does history offer us? Here is a list of the most important ones. These are skills that you will all be learning during the next few years.

1. Handling time

Historians have to get dates and events in the right order (Fig. A). They must not get time mixed up. The word historians use for putting dates in the right order is chronology (spoken to sound like kron-ol-oj-ee). My chronology is correct if I say that the Battle of Hastings happened in 1066 or that King Charles I could not have made a telephone call. My chronology is wrong if I say that World War 2 ended in 1946 or that Queen Victoria liked watching television.

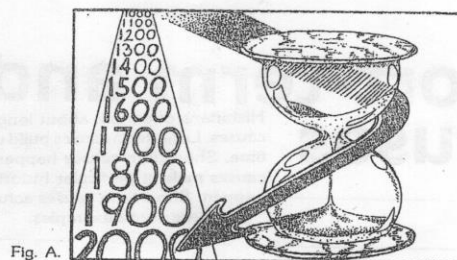


Fig. A.

2. Gathering and recording evidence

Evidence is information that helps to prove or disprove something. History needs evidence to prove things about the past. For example, the Domesday Book, written in the 11th century, gives us evidence of the possessions of people in England at that time. Historians need to know how to find such evidence, how much of it to collect, and how to record it all.

3. Interpreting evidence

Even more important, we need to know how to judge or analyse evidence (Fig. B). We have to be able to see whether evidence is true or false: whether it is relevant or irrelevant. We also need to



Fig. B. The need for evidence.

4. Understanding causation

It is one thing to describe what happened, such as the building of a great wall by the Roman general, Hadrian. In history we also try to say how that event was caused. Historians have found out the cause. The Pict tribes kept raiding into Roman-held Britain so Hadrian built the wall to keep the Picts from raiding southwards.

5. Writing clearly and logically

Historians have to think clearly and logically about the past. Then they communicate their thoughts in clear and logical writing. We should all try to speak and write about history in this way.

6. Learning to be critical

Historians learn not to accept everything they are told. They will only accept a piece of information if it can be proved clearly by evidence. They are not easily fooled or misled. They are very critical of guesses, rumours or half-truths (Fig. D).

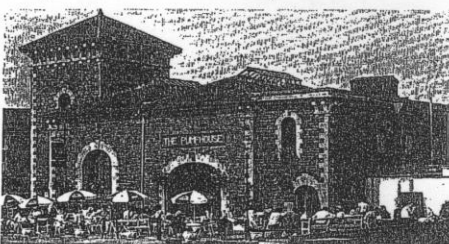


Fig. C. The Pumphouse, Bristol.



Fig. D.

New Skills

Anyone can find out a simple historical fact. All you need is a source — a history book for example — and the wish to learn. But if you want to get more than this from your study of the past, you will need something extra — you will need new skills.

The following chapters will introduce you to some new skills and show you how to use them. But before we look at these, let's remind ourselves of some of the skills you can find in Books 1 and 2. They are set out in the diagram in Fig. A.

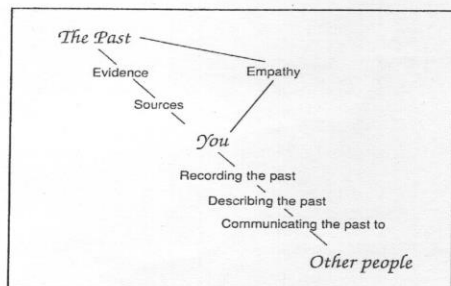


Fig. A

The skills in Fig. A allow you to do several things: to find suitable sources; to use them to discover evidence and information; to record that information; to imagine what it might have been like to lead a different life in a different time; and to communicate knowledge about the past to other people.

If you think about these skills, you will see that they mostly help you to *describe* the past. They allow you to

say *what* happened in the past. But there is always another question that you may want to ask. That question is *why*? Why did events happen when they did? Why did they happen in the way they did? Why do people today often disagree about which were the most important happenings in the past?

When you ask questions like these, you are starting to move beyond simple descriptions of the past. You are beginning to try to *explain* it.

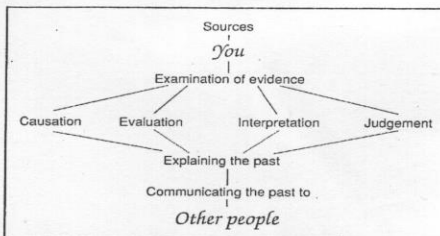


Fig. B

What new skills will you need in order to explain past events? Here are the most important ones.

1. Analysing evidence. Analysis means breaking something down into smaller parts in order to explain and understand it better. This means that instead of just looking at a piece of evidence and automatically

accepting what it seems to tell you, you will have to examine it very carefully. The main skills of analysis to practise are

- (a) **Evaluation:** this means examining evidence and testing a source to find out if it is genuine, reliable, accurate and important.
- (b) **Interpretation:** this means explaining carefully what we think our sources tell us. As you will see, people do not always interpret sources in the same way. For example, in the 19th century, many poor people signed marriage documents with a mark instead of a signature. Some historians interpret this as a sign that such people were illiterate. Other historians aren't so sure. They suggest that a failure to sign does not necessarily mean that people could not *read*. Others have suggested that some people may have made a mark so that they would not embarrass a partner who could not write. Perhaps you can put forward an interpretation of your own?

2. Understanding causation. This means explaining what caused events in the past to happen. Studying causation will allow you to explain why things happened how they did and when they did. It will also help you to think about how the present *might* have turned out differently.

3. Judgement. This means giving our own view of past events. It is quite possible, for example, that one person may decide that Napoleon was a 'good' man, whilst another may believe he was a 'bad' man; or that two people may disagree about whether the European voyages of discovery were beneficial to the world, or not.

Fig. B summarises the new skills we are going to look at.

(a) Think of any event that has happened to you in the recent past. Write a simple description of the event.

Divide a full page of your note-book like this —

Description	
Causation	
Evaluation	
Interpretation	
Judgement	

Making notes

Reading history books is an excellent way of learning about the past. The trouble is, it is so easy to forget something you have read. How can you make sure that you remember as much as you can?

The answer is to keep a *record* of what you read. This is called *making notes*. Some people make very long and detailed notes; others make very short outline notes. Some keep their notes in a note-book; some use a loose-leaf file; some use blank postcards. But to make good notes of any kind, you have to have one vital skill. You have to

be able to look at a page in a book and pick out the key words on it. Fig. A shows a passage from 'Accounts of the First World War' by John Simkin. The key words have been picked out for you.

Picking out key words is a skill you will have to practise over and over again. As you practise, keep asking yourself the question, 'What is the main thing the writer is trying to tell us here?' Fig. B shows a chart for listing key words.

Sometimes you will want to make more detailed notes from part of a book. Fig. C shows an example of more detailed notes.

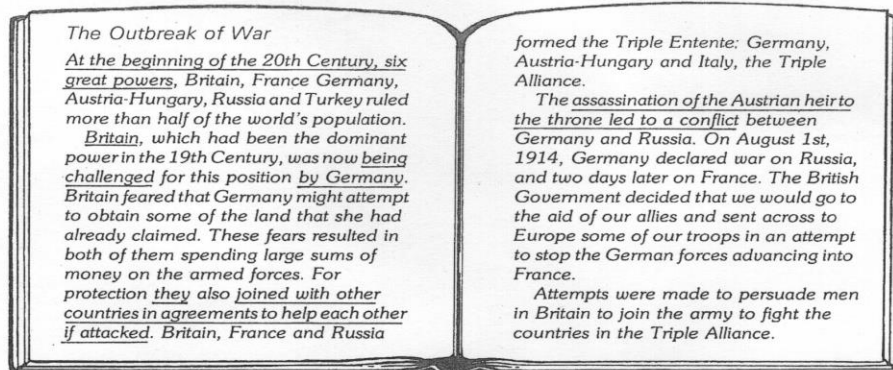


Fig. A. Text from 'Contemporary Accounts of the First World War' by John Simkin (Brighton, 1981).

FINDING AND REMEMBERING

1

- When you study a history book, it is a good idea to have another sort of book close to hand. What sort of book?
- Copy the following, unscrambling the word in italics. 'A good history book will teach you a lot of new words, increasing your *coabaryluu*.'
- List three sources other than books from which you might make notes.

DESCRIBING AND PRESENTING

2

- Describe two common mistakes made when people take notes from books.
- Describe two possible ways of making notes. What do you think might be the advantages and disadvantages of each method?
- Copy the chart in Fig. D. Make similar charts for at least three history books that you find for yourself.

Book: John Simkin, 'Accounts of the First World War'
 Page: 2

Key words:

- At beginning of 20th century
- Six great powers
- Britain was challenged by Germany
- Britain and Germany joined with other countries

An assassination led to a conflict (= a war)

Fig. B. A chart for listing key words.

Notes on: John Simkin, 'Accounts of the First World War'

At the beginning of the 20th century there were six great world powers, including Britain, France and Germany. Britain had been the most important power for a long time but now Germany was challenging Britain's position. Britain and Germany each built up their armies and joined with other countries for protection.

Fig. C. More detailed notes made from the text in Fig. A.

It is hard to make good notes. Sometimes you will write too much; sometimes you will write too little. But keep practising. Remember, the trick is to get the real message of the book into the briefest, clearest and most accurate notes possible.

Don't try to make notes on a whole book. Give yourself small targets, like a paragraph, a page or a section. Keep your notes neat and well set out so that you can understand them when you look back through them. Always have a dictionary close at hand for checking the meaning of difficult words and making your vocabulary grow.

It is a good idea to keep a record of the books you have looked at. Fig. D shows a chart that will help you to do this quickly and neatly.

Once you have learned the trick of making good notes from books, you will be able to use the skill to take notes from other sources — from the teacher, the blackboard, a magazine or even the television.

Title of book: _____ Date: _____

Author: _____

Source: _____

Subject of book: _____

Date read: _____ Interest rating (1-10): _____

Other comments: _____

Notes made? _____

Fig. D. A chart for keeping a note of books referred to.

HOW TO STUDY BETTER

A. Tips to consider at the moment of studying.

These are important tips to take into account at the moment of studying. Tick all those which you actually consider.

- a. Make sure you have a quiet place to study.
- b. Have comfortable chairs and desks.
- c. Work with good light, preferably natural light.
- d. Avoid noises: silence will help you concentrate better.
- e. The ideal temperature to concentrate is about 20° C. Make sure the room you choose is not colder or hotter than that.
- f. Find a moment in the day when you feel more comfortable to study, and always try to study or do homework at the same time.
- g. When you choose that moment make sure it's the time when you feel more relaxed.
- h. Sleep enough each night (between 7 and 10 hours are recommended.)
- i. Don't make great physical or mental efforts before studying.
- j. Before starting your study or work take a few minutes to plan what you're going to do. Planning means knowing exactly what to do, how to do it and what is the objective of your work.
- k. Don't start with the easiest work, start with the most important things. In that way you'll reduce the levels of stress and anxiety.
- l. Always have a diary in which you can write down activities and ideas connected with your work.
- m. Do work every day. (This doesn't mean sitting in front of your books three hours a day after school. It simply means revising what you did at school and check any difficulties, so that when the exam comes you are more prepared.)
- n. Before studying for a test, make sure you have all the material you need: books, class-notes, dictionaries, copies, etc.
- o. Every one hour of study, have a ten-minute break.

B. Tips to read and understand better.

These are the steps you have to take when doing reading comprehension activities.

- a. **Exploration:** This means knowing what the text is about. It implies reading the title and subtitles, and scanning the text very quickly to pick up important ideas.
- b. **Questioning:** This phase is for questioning the text. We have to ask ourselves some questions that we know we will be able to answer later. (What is the main idea of the text? Who are the characters involved? When and where does the main action occur?, etc.)
- c. **Reading:** This is the reading phase itself. We have to read the text carefully making sure that we understand the main concepts in it. Having a dictionary at hand is always useful.
- d. **Answering:** Once the first reading is over, we have to try and answer the questions that we asked in the questioning step. If it is necessary we can ask more specific questions and answer them, too.
- e. **Revision:** This would be a last quick reading to revise the text and to make sure the topic is understood.

TECHNIQUES

UNDERLINING

The objective when underlining is to highlight the most important ideas. Afterwards, if you have to refer to the text again, you can just read what is underlined and that should be enough to understand the text. The underlining should take place in the *third step (reading)*.

To put this technique into practice follow these steps:

- Read each sentence and circle two or three key words. Key words are generally nouns, adjectives, verbs and names.
- Use red to underline the most important ideas. (The key words are going to be included here). Try not to underline complete sentences but important parts of the sentences.
- Use blue to underline secondary ideas (examples, explanations, etc).
- Read what you have underlined and make sure it contains all the important ideas.

THE SUMMARY

This technique can follow the underlining. The summary should be done in the *revision step*. To write a summary you have to transcribe only the main ideas that you have underlined. To connect the ideas, use *text organizers*. In your summary you can include some words or expressions if you think they can express the idea in a shorter form; but it is important that you keep the summary short and easy to read. You can also choose to write easy words instead of difficult ones.

A good summary depends a lot on how well you have understood the text. Remember that it's always recommended to read the text three times: quickly the first time, more slowly and underlining the second time, and summarising the third time.

SIDE NOTES

Side notes are really short sentences or ideas that you write next to each paragraph in order to have a quicker visual image of the text. In other words, this technique implies giving a title to each paragraph.

EXAMPLE:

Saint Valentine:
Origins

Valentine's Day is named in honor of Saint Valentine, who lived during the Roman times. There is a belief that when Valentine died, he left a note to his jail keeper's daughter which was signed, "Your Valentine." People have been sending similar messages to their loved ones since then.

St Valentine in
Britain, Denmark
and Italy

On Valentine's Day in Great Britain women used to dream of their future husbands, in Denmark lovers send notes in code, in Italy many couples get engaged.

You can also use side notes when you find an interest idea that you would like to enlarge later.

Websites consulted:

<http://www.geocities.com/jorgecovis/tecnicas.html>
<http://www.xtec.es/~cdorado/cdora1/esp/classif.htm>
<http://www.psicopedagogia.com/articulos/?articulo=194>
http://www.internet-at-work.com/hos_mcgrane/holidays/2_melissa.html

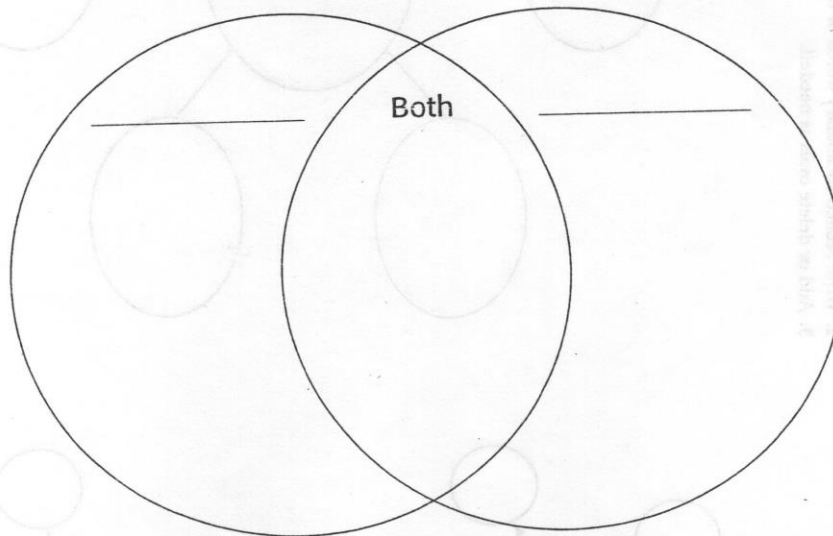
MORE TECHNIQUES

Venn Diagram

Compare and Contrast

► Use a Venn Diagram for listening and speaking, writing, and viewing activities.

1. Write the two things you are comparing on the lines in the two circles.
2. List ways the two things are different under the lines.
3. List ways the two things are alike in the space where the circles overlap.



Three-Column Chart

Categorize or Classify

► Use this chart for analyzing characters, style, mood and tone, or for vocabulary words and their connotative and denotative meanings.

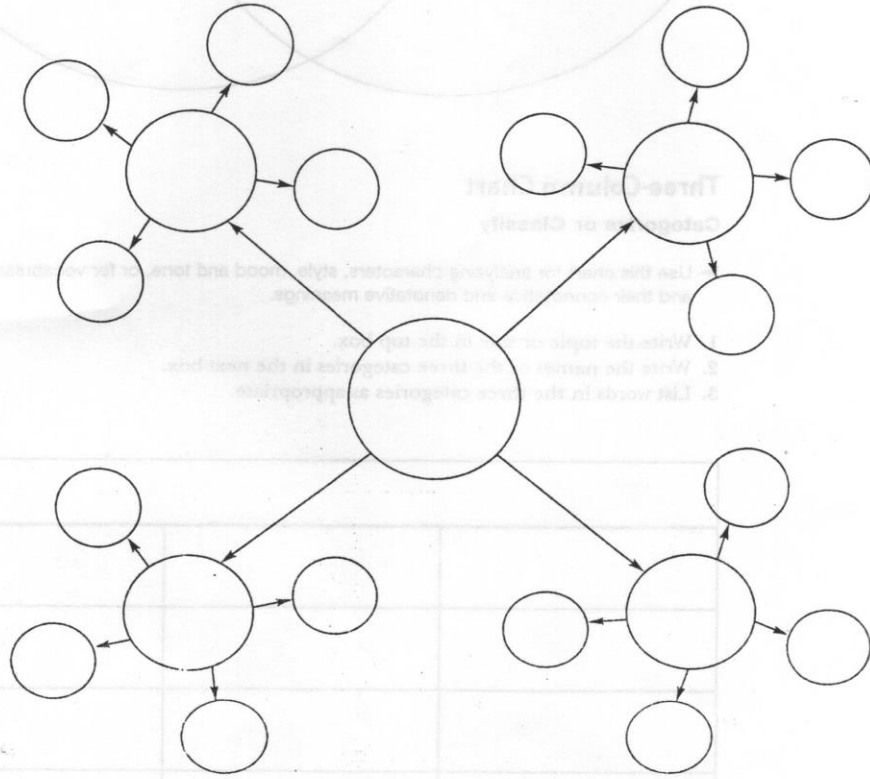
1. Write the topic or title in the top box.
2. Write the names of the three categories in the next box.
3. List words in the three categories as appropriate.

Cluster Map

Compare and Contrast

- Use a Cluster Map to help you organize your ideas.

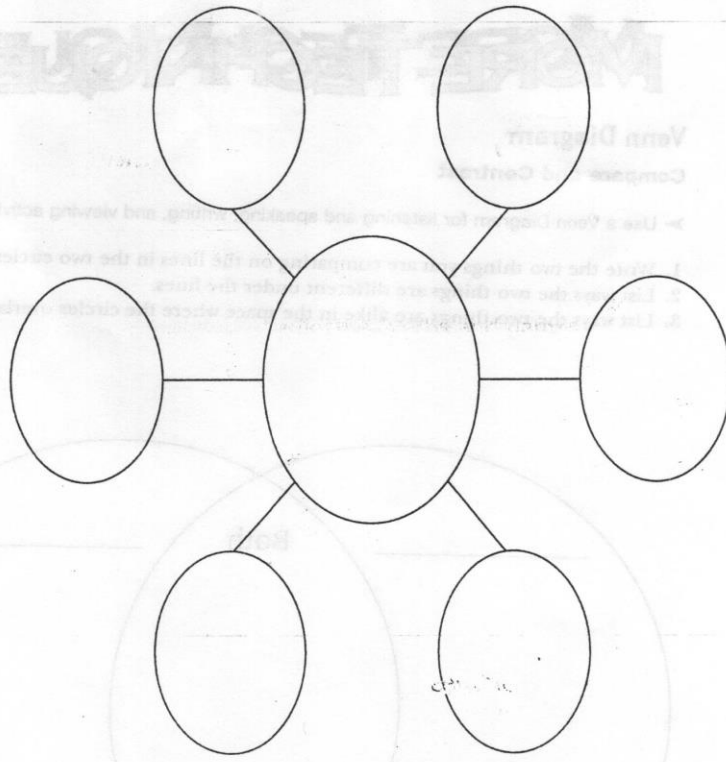
1. Write the topic in the largest circle.
2. Write the main ideas about the topic in the medium circles.
3. Write details about the main ideas in the smallest circles.



Web

- A Web is useful for building vocabulary or for main idea and details.

1. Write the main vocabulary word or main idea in the large oval in the middle.
2. Write related vocabulary words or details in the smaller ovals.
3. Add or delete ovals as needed.



How to design a good cluster map

A cluster map is useful when you can give it a quick look and rapidly have a general idea of the topic it illustrates.

Here are some suggestions to make your cluster map clearer and more efficient:

- 1. Make sure the main topic of your cluster map stands out in relation to the other ideas.*
- 2. Use only main CONCEPTS inside the bubbles, keep the verbs and prepositions as connectors (remember that connectors should be placed on the arrows that connect ideas).*
- 3. You can use bubbles, squares or any other shape to differentiate main ideas from secondary ones.*
- 4. Don't include two different concepts in the same bubble.*
- 5. Don't write full sentences and avoid mentioning the subject if it has been previously mentioned or if it is understood.*
- 6. Don't repeat concepts, connect them!*
- 7. Show hierarchies.*

Examples

Storyboard

- Use a Storyboard to summarize, outline, and show sequence with pictures and words.

1. Write a sequence of the most important events in a story.
2. Put the events in the order in which they happened.
3. Draw a simple picture above each sentence if you wish.

1.	First, _____ _____ _____
----	--------------------------------

3.	Third, _____ _____ _____
----	--------------------------------

5.	Fifth, _____ _____ _____
----	--------------------------------

2.	Second, _____ _____ _____
----	---------------------------------

4.	Fourth, _____ _____ _____
----	---------------------------------

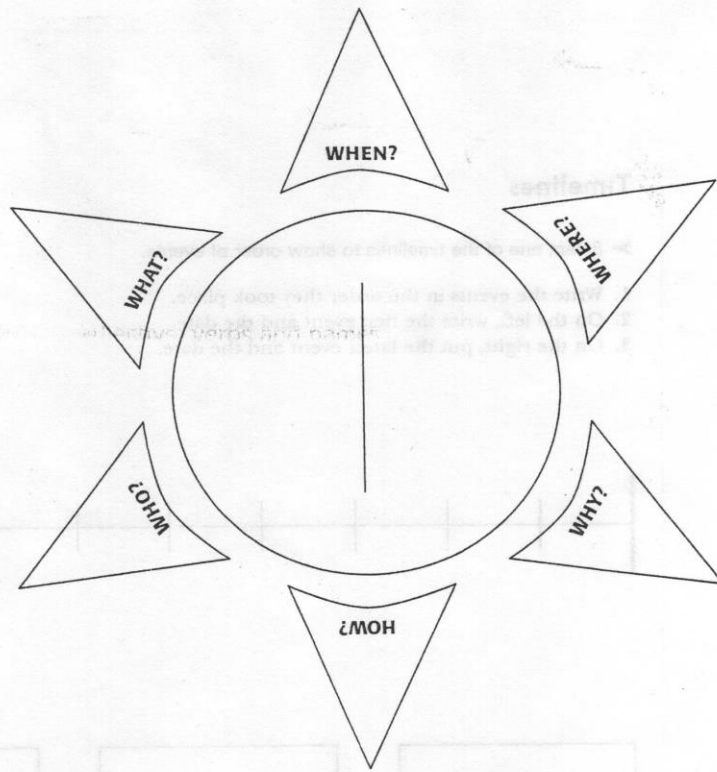
6.	Finally, _____ _____ _____
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Sunshine Organizer

Reporting

- Use a Sunshine Organizer to help you answer questions about a story or to write a report.

1. Write the topic in the circle in the middle.
2. Write answers to the *wh*-questions next to the triangles.



INTRODUCTION: THE WORLD IN 1900

What was the world like in 1900?

Monarchies

In 1900 most of the world was dominated by the rulers of Europe. Many of these rulers were related to each other. Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany and Tsar Nicholas II of Russia were cousins. King Edward VII of Great Britain was their uncle.

Empires

Vast areas of Africa and Asia had been colonised by Europeans. Europeans obtained raw materials for industries from these colonies but they also built railways and schools for the people they ruled. These empires made Europe rich, but they also caused the European countries to be suspicious of each other.

Class

Europe in 1900 was divided by class. The upper class owned the land; the middle class controlled industry or ran shops and offices; the working class worked in factories or in the fields. They also worked as servants for richer people. Many working-class people lived in dreadful poverty.



King Edward VII.



Kaiser Wilhelm II.



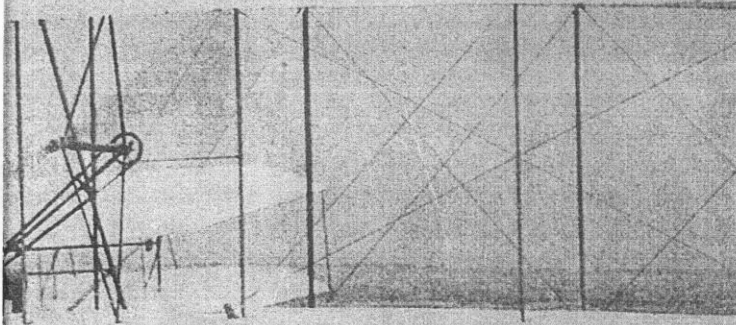
Tsar Nicholas II.

Railways and motor cars

In 1900 it was possible to travel across Europe, America or Africa by train. The first motor cars had recently been developed. Within a few years, the Model T Ford was produced, which was cheap enough for many people to buy.

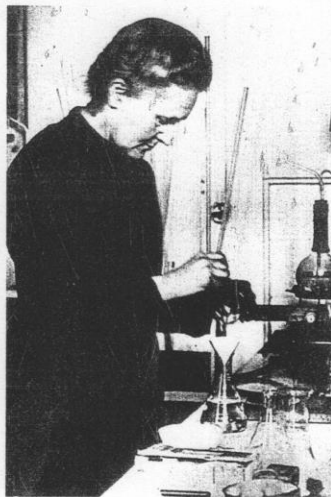
Air and sea travel

The American brothers, Wilbur and Orville Wright, were the first to fly a few hundred metres in an aeroplane in 1903. Within six years, the Frenchman Louis Blériot was to fly across the English Channel. At sea, great luxury ocean liners competed to cross the Atlantic in the fastest time.



Medicine

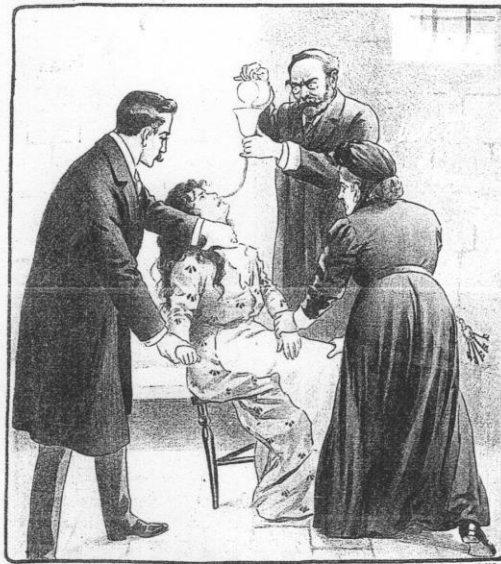
In medicine, the bacillus that causes tuberculosis (TB) had been discovered, and more people were being vaccinated against smallpox. Pierre and Marie Curie had worked on developing X-rays. But many people still died when ordinary wounds became infected.



Marie Curie at her microscope.

Wilbur and Orville Wright's aeroplane.

TORTURING WOMEN IN PRISON



VOTE AGAINST THE GOVERNMENT

Suffragettes were often arrested and sent to prison. This poster shows a suffragette being force-fed by prison guards, while on hunger strike.

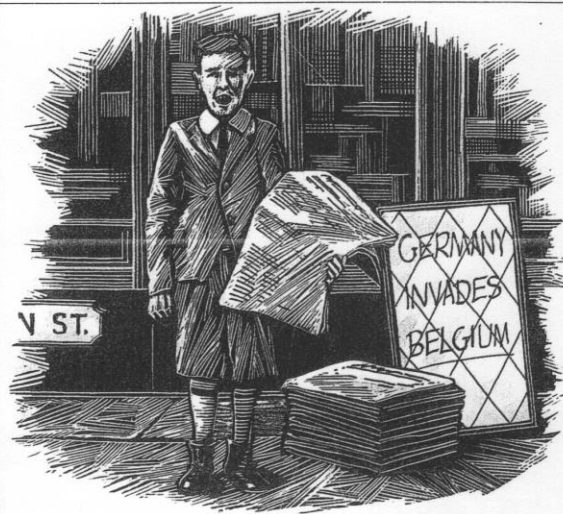
Votes for women!

In 1900, no woman, anywhere in the world, had the right to vote. Norwegian women were to win the vote in 1913. In Britain, suffragettes led by Mrs Emmeline Pankhurst often staged violent demonstrations demanding the vote.

Revolutionaries

There were many revolutionary groups in Europe who wanted to bring down governments by force. Russian revolutionaries had already blown up Tsar Alexander II in 1881, and in 1911 they shot the Russian prime minister. In 1914, a Bosnian revolutionary was to assassinate the son of the Austrian Emperor in Sarajevo. This act sparked off the First World War.

THE FIRST



1914: The outbreak of war

After the Archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated in Bosnia, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Tied by their alliances, other countries quickly joined in. Russia and France supported Serbia; Germany supported Austria-Hungary. When German troops invaded Belgium, Britain declared war on Germany.



1914: Tannenberg and the Marne

In the first few months of the war, the Germans surrounded and crushed a huge Russian army at Tannenberg. In the west, German troops swept through Belgium towards Paris. The Paris garrison left the city and stopped the Germans at the River Marne. After that, the sides fought each other from two lines of trenches.



1915: Gallipoli

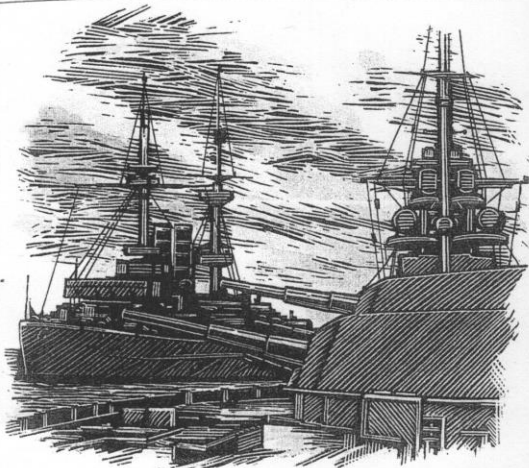
Turkey supported Germany. In 1915, Australian, New Zealand and British troops attacked her at Gallipoli but they were pinned down on the coast and had to withdraw. The British also helped the Arabs rise up against Turkish rule in the Middle East.



1916: Verdun and the Somme

The Germans and French became involved in a desperate and bloody battle at Verdun. The British launched their own attack on the Germans near the River Somme, but it went disastrously wrong. On the first day alone, the British lost 60,000 men.

WORLD WAR



1916: Jutland

In a naval battle in 1916, off Jutland, in Denmark, the British lost more ships than the Germans, but the German fleet returned to port and never went to sea again. After this, the Germans relied on attacks by U-boats (submarines).



1917: America goes to war; Revolution in Russia

Exasperated by German U-boat attacks on her ships, the USA declared war on Germany in April 1917. In the meantime, revolution broke out in Russia and Vladimir Ilyich Lenin's new Bolshevik government made peace with Germany.



1918: Breakthrough in the West

In 1917 the British tried to break through the German lines at Passchendaele, in Belgium, but they got hopelessly stranded in the appalling mud. In 1918 a German attack broke through the British lines, but was finally driven back with massive American help.



1918: Armistice

Exhausted by the war, the German people rebelled and overthrew the Kaiser. The new German government signed an armistice (cease-fire) with the Allies. Germany surrendered and the war was over.

1

The outbreak of the First World War

The war began when the heir to the Austrian-Hungarian Empire was shot dead by a Bosnian Serb, in Sarajevo, in 1914.

Why did a quarrel between the Austrians and the Serbs cause a world war?

Austria and Serbia

Bosnia has a mixed population, which includes many Serbs. In 1908, the Austrians marched into Bosnia. The Bosnian Serbs wanted them to leave. In June 1914, the heir to the Austrian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife were visiting the Bosnian capital, Sarajevo. A group of Bosnian terrorists, the Black Hand, gunned them down. The assassin was a schoolboy called Gavrilo Princip; his gun came from Serbia.

The Austrian government decided the time had come to crush Serbia once and for all.

War

The Austrians demanded that Serbia should apologise for the Archduke's murder and allow the Austrian police into Serbia to hunt down the culprits; Serbia had forty-eight hours to agree or there would be war.

The Serbs offered to help find the assassins but Austria was not satisfied. On 28 July 1914, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Both sides turned to their allies for help.

Source A

Archduke Ferdinand and his wife during their visit to Sarajevo in 1914.



Alliances

An alliance is an agreement between countries to help if one of them is attacked. The map shows how the European countries were allied to each other. In 1914, each side declared war on the other.

All these great powers brought their empires into the war with them. British territories like India, South Africa, Canada and the British West Indies sent troops to Europe, and so did French colonies like Senegal and Algeria. Although the war began in Europe, it was a world war from the start.

Source B

A senior British official thought the quarrel between Austria and Serbia was not the real reason war started:

'This struggle ... is not for the possession of Serbia, but one between Germany aiming at a political dictatorship in Europe, and the Powers who desire to retain individual freedom.'

Sir Eyre Crowe, 1914

Declarations of war

1914

28 July

Austria declares war on Serbia

30 July

Russia calls up her troops to help Serbia

31 July

Germany tells Russia to disband her troops

1 August

Germany declares war on Russia

France calls up her troops

3 August

Germany declares war on France

Great Britain warns Germany not to invade Belgium

4 August

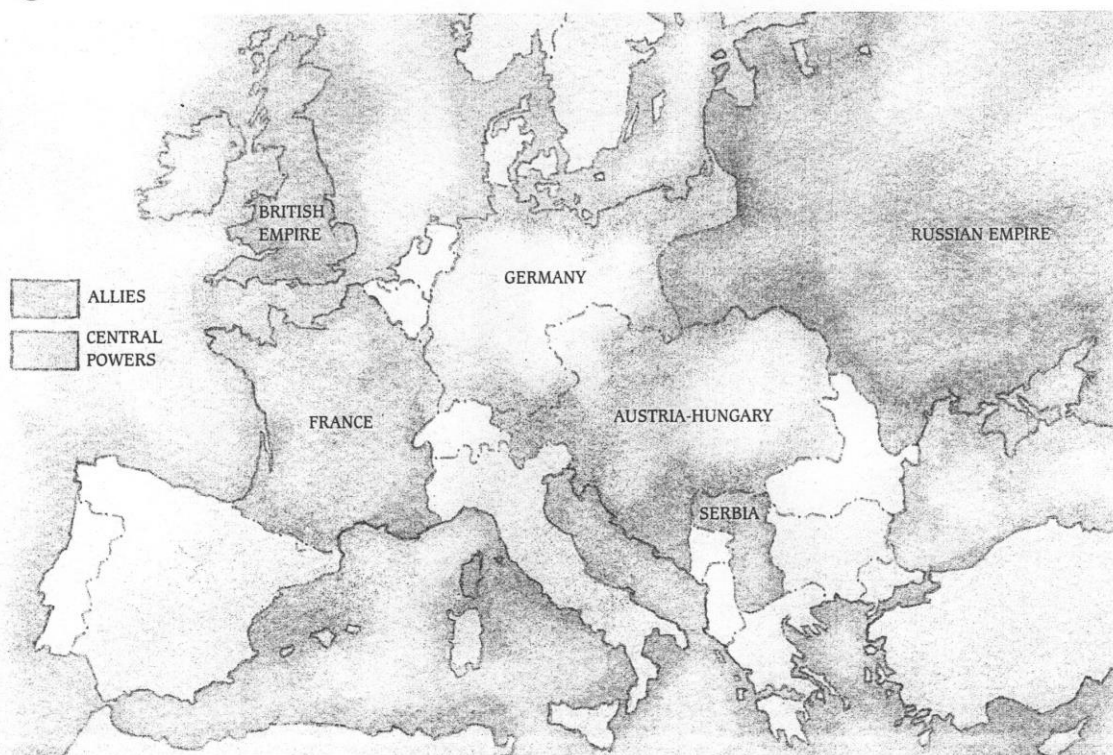
Germany invades Belgium

Great Britain declares war on Germany

QUESTIONS:

1 Why did the Black Hand kill Archduke Ferdinand?

2 Look at the map carefully. Using the map and other information in this unit, explain in your own words how the assassination led to a European war.



Alliances between the Great Powers in 1914.

2 War in the trenches

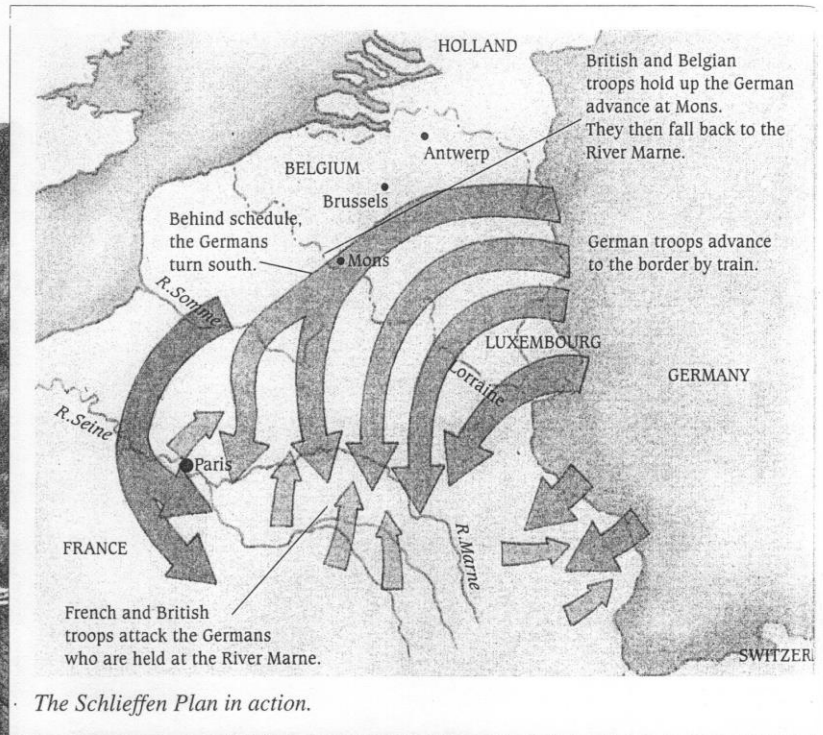
Both sides were expecting a short war in 1914; instead the conflict soon got down bogged down in a stalemate and the appalling slaughter of trench warfare.

What went wrong?

The Schlieffen Plan

In 1914, the Germans had a plan to defeat the French quickly with a rapid knock-out attack. It was named the Schlieffen Plan, after the war minister who designed it.

The French army stopped the German attack at the Battle of the Marne and so saved Paris. Neither side could get past the other, so they dug themselves in. The line of trenches stretched from the Swiss border to the sea.



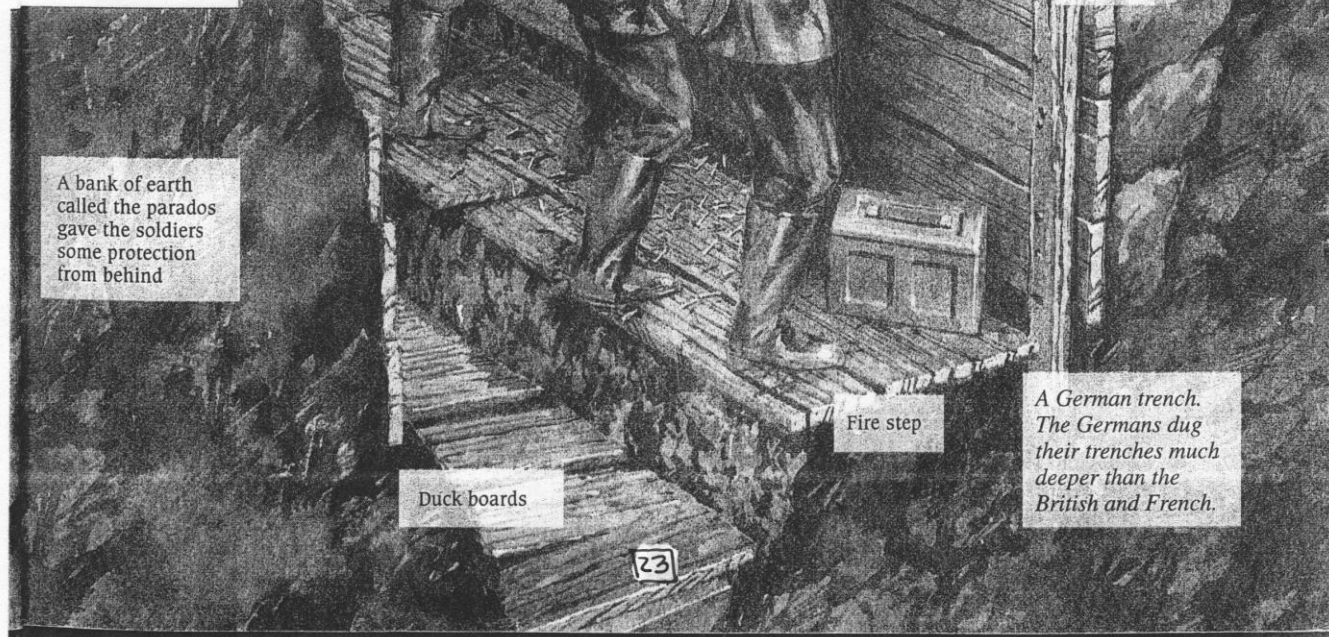
The soldiers lived and slept in underground dugouts

Trench warfare resulted from the threat of the machine gun. A single gun could cut down huge numbers of men, so they were forced to take refuge from the danger of enemy machine guns in trenches. After the autumn and winter rains, these soon became waterlogged. The mud was so thick that men could drown in it.

An officer in the Devonshire Regiment described life in the trenches.

'The conditions were terrible. Imagine the agony of a fellow standing for twenty-four hours, sometimes to his waist in mud ... Many men got trench feet and trench fever. With trench fever a fellow had a very high temperature and constant diarrhoea. It left him weak and listless. Trench feet was owing to the wet sogging through your boots. In many cases your toes nearly rotted off in your boots. We lost more that way than we did from wounds.'

Captain Ulick Burke, 1917



A bank of earth called the parados gave the soldiers some protection from behind.

*A German trench.
The Germans dug
their trenches much
deeper than the
British and French.*

The Battle of the Somme: 1916

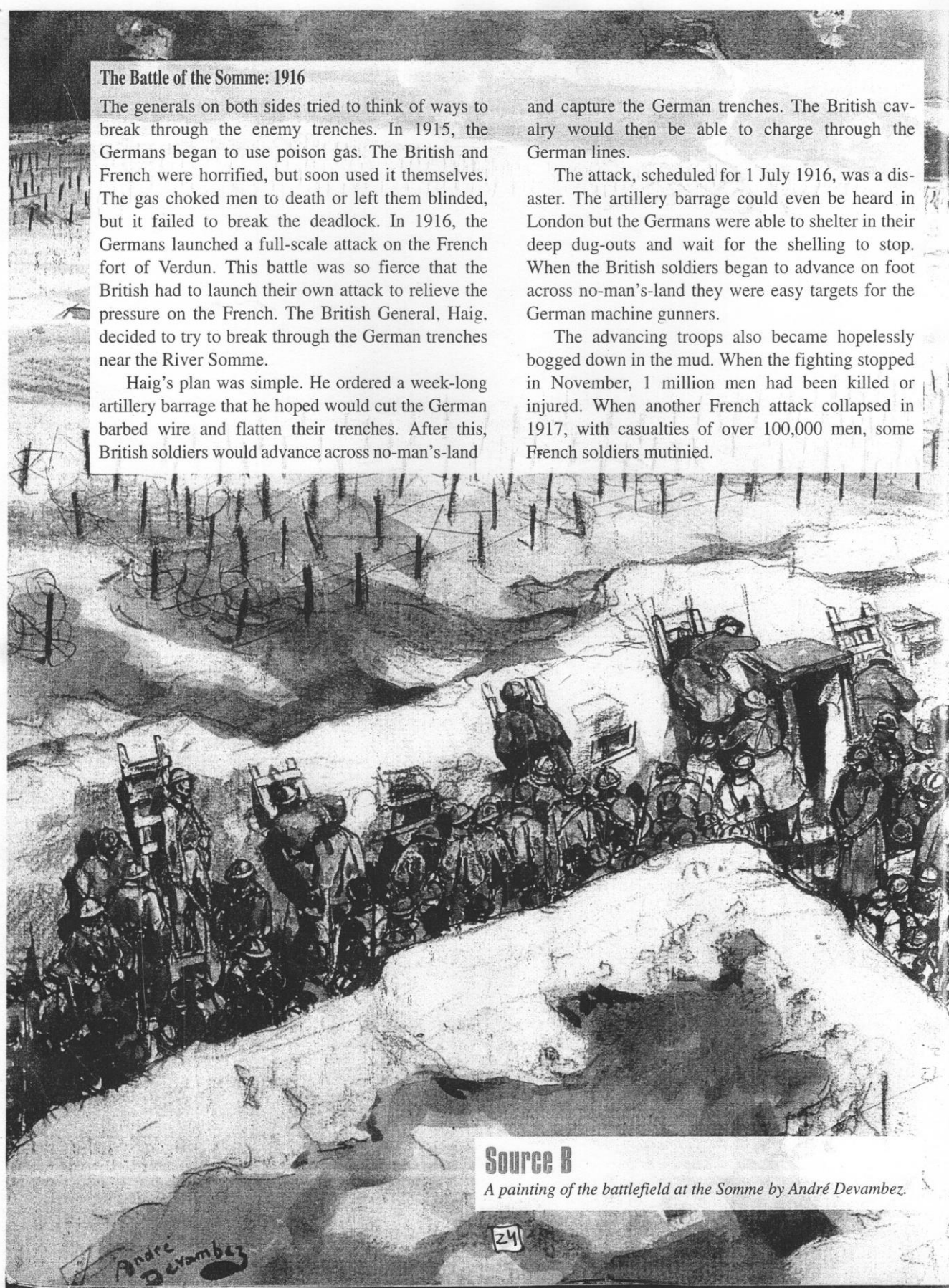
The generals on both sides tried to think of ways to break through the enemy trenches. In 1915, the Germans began to use poison gas. The British and French were horrified, but soon used it themselves. The gas choked men to death or left them blinded, but it failed to break the deadlock. In 1916, the Germans launched a full-scale attack on the French fort of Verdun. This battle was so fierce that the British had to launch their own attack to relieve the pressure on the French. The British General, Haig, decided to try to break through the German trenches near the River Somme.

Haig's plan was simple. He ordered a week-long artillery barrage that he hoped would cut the German barbed wire and flatten their trenches. After this, British soldiers would advance across no-man's-land

and capture the German trenches. The British cavalry would then be able to charge through the German lines.

The attack, scheduled for 1 July 1916, was a disaster. The artillery barrage could even be heard in London but the Germans were able to shelter in their deep dug-outs and wait for the shelling to stop. When the British soldiers began to advance on foot across no-man's-land they were easy targets for the German machine gunners.

The advancing troops also became hopelessly bogged down in the mud. When the fighting stopped in November, 1 million men had been killed or injured. When another French attack collapsed in 1917, with casualties of over 100,000 men, some French soldiers mutinied.



Source B

A painting of the battlefield at the Somme by André Devambez.

24

Source C

Canadian machine gunners sheltering in a shell hole during the Battle of Passchendaele in 1917.



Tanks

The British first used tanks against the German trenches in the Battle of the Somme, but most broke down. A larger number of British tanks finally broke through the German trenches at the Battle of Cambrai in 1917, but it was found that they went too fast for the British infantry to keep up. Many tanks were captured when they stopped after developing engine trouble.



Source D

Tanks carried a bundle of sticks, called a fascine, that could be dropped into shell holes to allow the tank to cross. Even so, this tank has become stuck in deep mud during the fighting at Cambrai. You can clearly see its machine guns and the caterpillar tracks that allow it to cross muddy ground more easily.

War with Turkey

Turkey fought on the German side in the war. In 1915, the Allies landed troops in Turkey, at Gallipoli. Many of the troops came from the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (Anzac). The Turks fought back so fiercely that the Allies had to dig in on the beaches, and then found it hard to advance very far inland. After eight months, it was decided to withdraw and sail home.

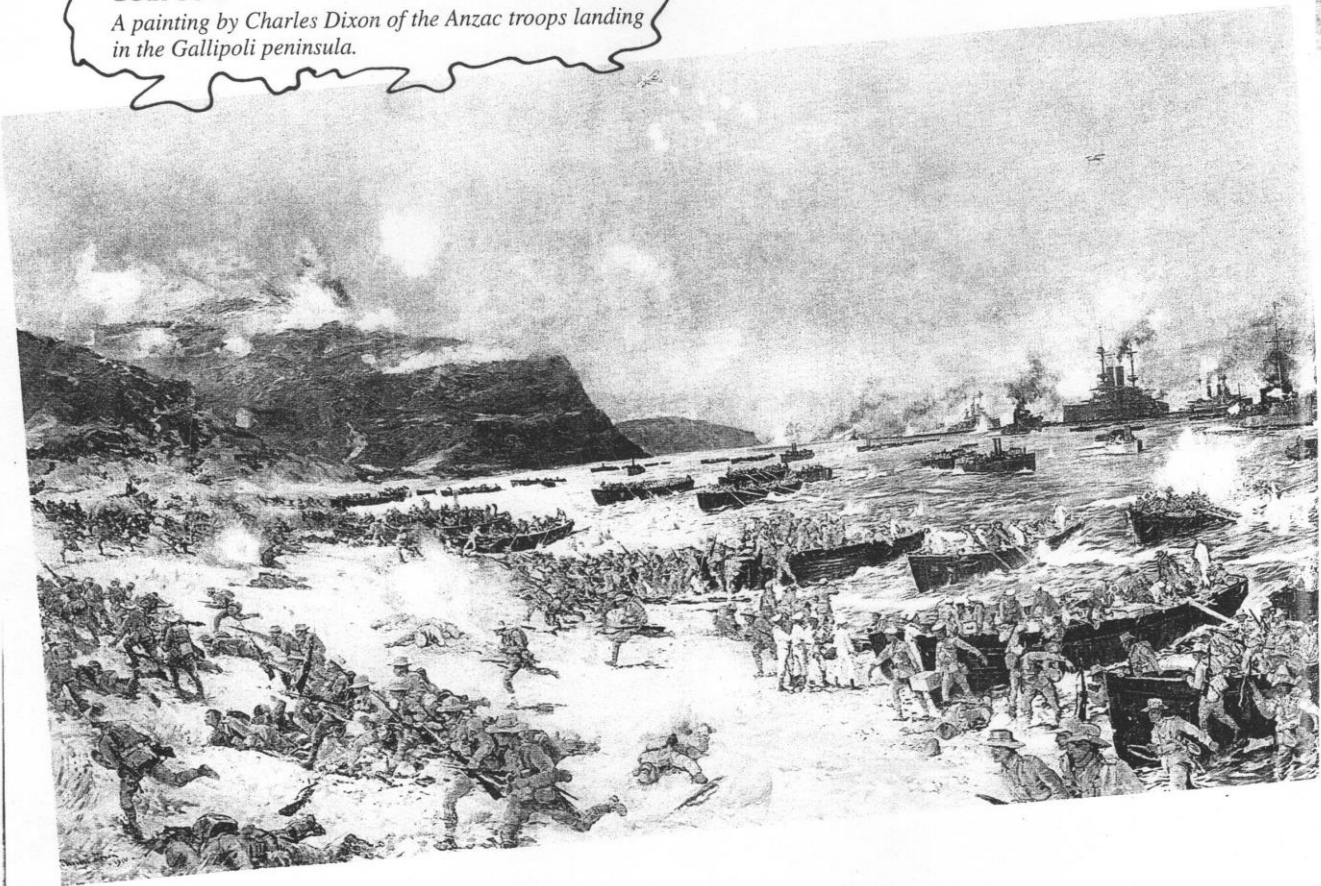
In 1914, the Turks ruled over a large empire which included the Middle East. In 1916, the Arabs, led by Sherif Hussein of Mecca, revolted against the Turks, helped by a British officer, T. E. Lawrence (Lawrence of Arabia). The British and the Arabs drove the Turks out of Palestine and Syria.

1917: America joins in

At first the USA kept out of the war, even after the Germans sank the passenger liner, *Lusitania*, killing over a thousand people, including 124 Americans. But, in 1917, the Americans learned that the Germans were encouraging Mexico to attack the USA. On 2 April 1917 the USA declared war on Germany. Thousands of fresh American troops were sent to help the French and British repel the last German attacks in 1918.

Source E

A painting by Charles Dixon of the Anzac troops landing in the Gallipoli peninsula.





Source F

Russian troops captured during the Brusilov offensive. This was very successful at first but, eventually, Brusilov's advance was stopped by the Germans and thousands of Russians were taken prisoner.

Breakthrough

In 1916, the Russian General Brusilov had shown that it was possible to break through the trenches. He simply attacked the Austrians without any previous artillery bombardment and caught them by surprise. In March 1918, the Germans did the same to the British. The British line broke and the Germans rushed on towards Paris. By then, American troops had begun to arrive in France. Together with the Americans, the French and British stopped the German advance and broke through the German lines in several places. On 11 November 1918, the Germans realised they were defeated and asked for peace.

QUESTIONS:

- 1 Look carefully at the diagram on page 10. Explain in your own words how the Schlieffen Plan should have worked. Why do you think it failed?
- 2 Look at the drawing of the trench. List at least three advantages the men in the trenches had over anyone attacking them.
- 3 Why did the attack on the Somme fail?
- 4 The generals on each side tried many different ways to break through the trenches. Find at least *four* in this unit, and say why each failed.

3 The war at sea and in the air

*Before 1914, Germany invested vast sums in a huge fleet and built a number of airships.
How far did these preparations really affect the course of the war?*

Dreadnoughts

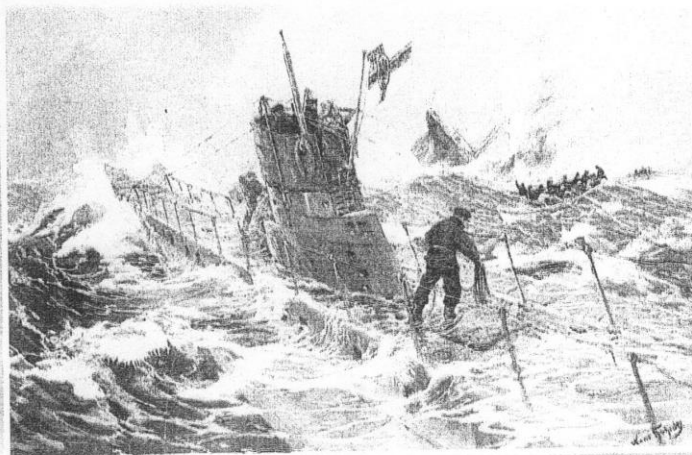
In 1903, an Italian journalist suggested that it should be possible to design a battleship with thicker armour plating, heavier guns, and more of them, than anyone had thought possible. Within three years, the British had launched the world's first super-battleship, HMS *Dreadnought*. The Germans quickly copied the design.

Blockade and raiders

The dreadnoughts' main role was to attack enemy merchant shipping, and so stop food and war supplies getting through. One German raider, the *Emden*, sank or captured 25 Allied ships before it was sunk. The British blockaded Germany's ports, to stop her bringing in any food. British and German dreadnoughts also fought each other. In November 1914, the German Admiral, Graf Spee, sank several British warships off the Chilean coast at Coronel. In December, the British were able to sink most of his fleet near the Falkland Islands.

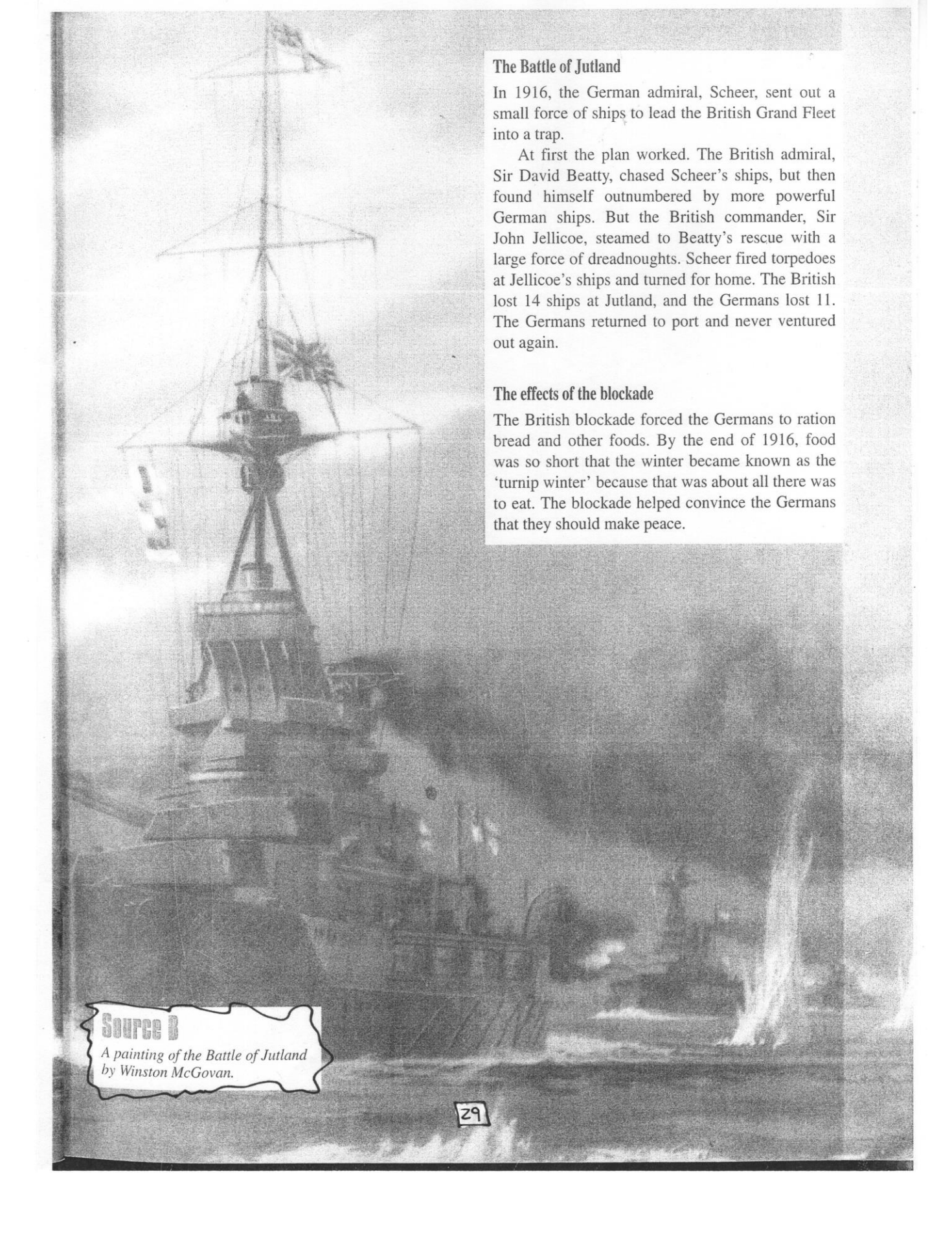
U-boats

The Germans also used submarines called U-boats (Unterseeboote) to attack Allied shipping. U-boats also attacked passenger ships, like the *Lusitania*, if they suspected them of carrying war supplies.



Source A

A painting of a German U-boat on the surface, after sinking an Allied merchant ship.



The Battle of Jutland

In 1916, the German admiral, Scheer, sent out a small force of ships to lead the British Grand Fleet into a trap.

At first the plan worked. The British admiral, Sir David Beatty, chased Scheer's ships, but then found himself outnumbered by more powerful German ships. But the British commander, Sir John Jellicoe, steamed to Beatty's rescue with a large force of dreadnoughts. Scheer fired torpedoes at Jellicoe's ships and turned for home. The British lost 14 ships at Jutland, and the Germans lost 11. The Germans returned to port and never ventured out again.

The effects of the blockade

The British blockade forced the Germans to ration bread and other foods. By the end of 1916, food was so short that the winter became known as the 'turnip winter' because that was about all there was to eat. The blockade helped convince the Germans that they should make peace.

Source B

A painting of the Battle of Jutland
by Winston McGovan.

Aircraft and Zeppelins

At first, both sides photographed enemy trenches from aeroplanes. Soon pilots started shooting pistols and rifles at each other in the air. After a Dutch engineer, Anthony Fokker, worked out a system by which machine gun bullets could be made to miss the rotating propeller blades, each side set out to shoot the enemy down. Many successful fighter pilots, like the Red Baron, the German Baron Manfred von Richthofen, with his red aeroplanes, became very famous.



Source C

A London house damaged by bombs dropped during a Zeppelin raid.

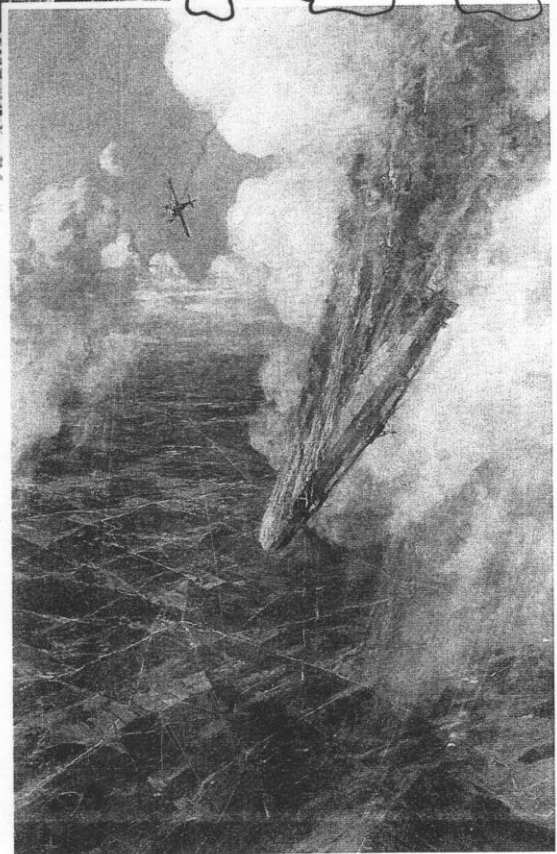
Zeppelins

The Germans had also developed very large airships, called Zeppelins after their inventor, Count Zeppelin. In 1915, the first Zeppelins started bombing British towns and factories.

The Zeppelins could create enormous damage. One raid destroyed half-a-million pounds' worth of property. Angry mobs attacked shops with foreign-sounding names. Anti-aircraft guns could not shoot high enough to harm the airships but, in 1916, British aircraft were equipped with incendiary bullets. These were able to set light to the gas inside the Zeppelins' balloons.

Source D

A painting by Gordon Crosby of a Zeppelin on fire after being shot at by a British fighter pilot.



QUESTIONS:

- 1 What did each side use its dreadnoughts for? How useful were they?
- 2 Who won the Battle of Jutland? (Think carefully about this.)
- 3 Which do you think proved more effective: the Zeppelin attacks on Britain or the Allied blockade of Germany?

4 The Home Front

The First World War directly affected civilians at home and some of the changes that came about would be very important after the war.

How deeply did the war change civilian life?

Recruitment

When, in August 1914, the war began, young men on both sides rushed to join the army. Everyone assumed the war would be over by Christmas. But once trench warfare started and casualties became heavy, both sides became short of men. In 1916, Britain introduced conscription. Any young man could be called up to serve in the armed forces.

Source A

A British recruiting poster showing the popular hero, the British General, Lord Kitchener.



Conscientious objectors

Not everyone agreed with the war. People who objected to fighting were known as conscientious objectors. They were generally very unpopular, and nicknamed 'conchies'. Some of them were prepared to serve as ambulance drivers or stretcher-bearers, but others refused to have anything to do with war at all.

Source B

A soldier, Private A. E. Hollingshead, recalls how he was able to enlist.

'I was only fifteen and every time I tried to join up in London it was no good, they wouldn't have me. So I went by rail to Birmingham, on a penny platform ticket. I went into a recruiting office there and told them I was seventeen. The sergeant said, 'Why don't you go out and have something to eat? When you come back you might be a bit older'. I told him I had no money and he gave me two bob. When I came back he spoke to me as though he had never seen me before. I said I was eighteen and, this time, I got in all right.'

Martin Middlebrook, The First Day on the Somme, 1984

Source C

A conscientious objector explains to a military tribunal why he cannot serve in a military ambulance unit.

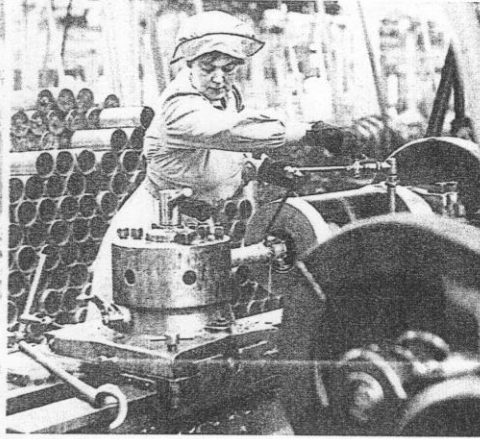
'To me, war is murder, murder in the mass. It is a crime, the greatest crime. I make no charge against other men. Most soldiers are following their consciences and I admire their courage ... I have refused service as an officer telegraphist in the Signal section of the Royal Engineers. I cannot assist others in the destruction of that which I hold sacred. I should be a coward if I assisted in passing on the ammunition which I could not use myself.'

James Jesson French, 7 August 1916

Women at war

With so many men being called up to fight, women had to keep the factories and farms going. Before the war, some women had been demonstrating for the right to vote. Now, many of these suffragettes volunteered for war work, and soon showed they could work lathes or drive buses just as well as men.

Some 900,000 British women worked in munitions factories filling shells with explosives. They became known as 'canaries', because the explosives stained their clothes, skin and hair bright yellow. It was dangerous work, and more than 300 women were killed in explosions or accidents. There were severe penalties for breaking the safety regulations. A woman who was found with even a single match in her pocket could be arrested for attempted sabotage.



Source D

A woman at work in a munitions factory.

Women also served at the front as nurses and ambulance drivers, where they shared many of the same dangers as the men. But perhaps the hardest thing for many women was having to scan the casualty lists, either on posters or in the newspapers, looking for the name of a loved one.



Food and drink

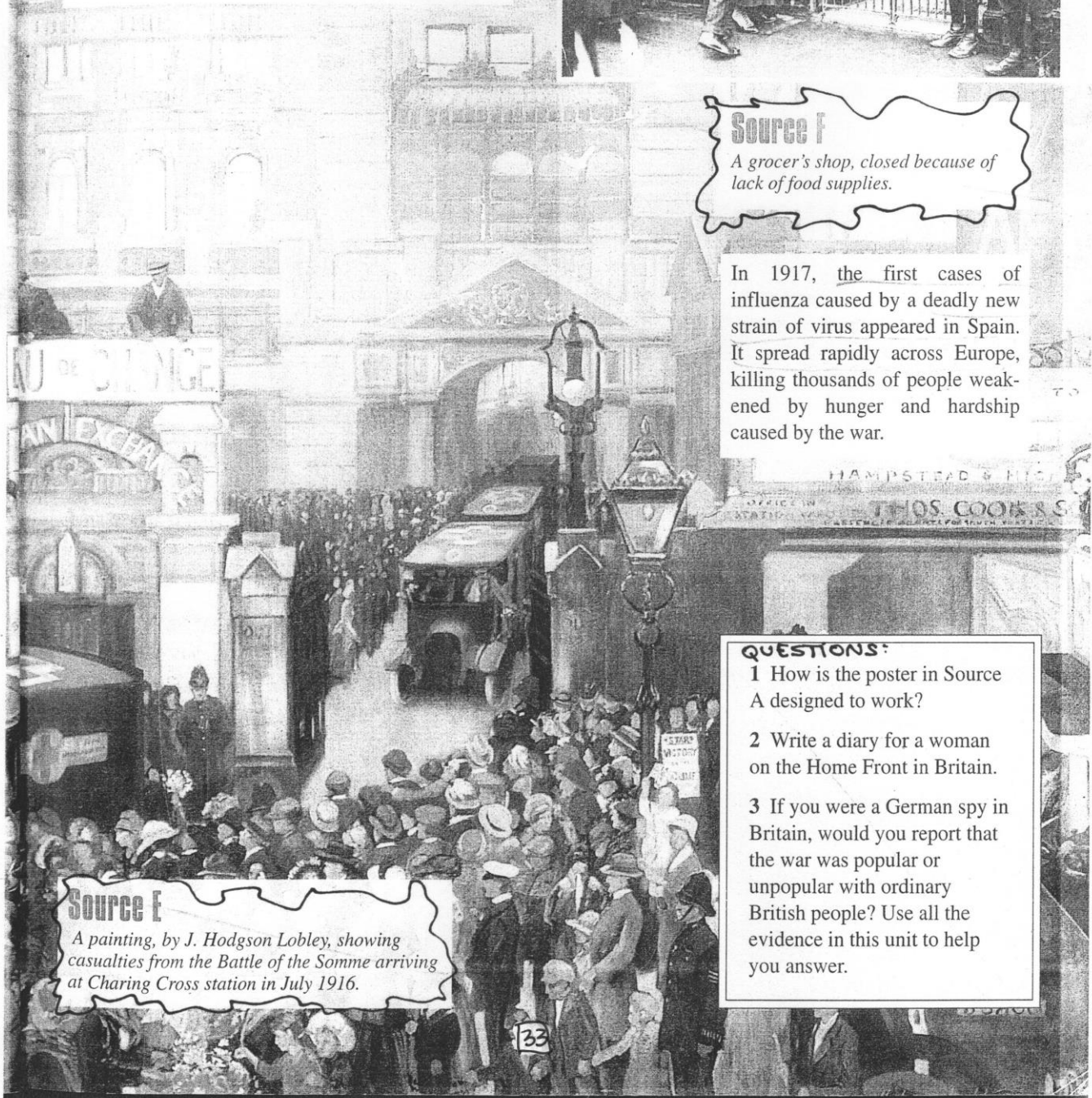
As Britain imported much of her food from abroad, the German U-boat campaign hit directly at Britain's food supply. At first this only meant that prices went up but, as the war went on, some foodstuffs became very scarce. The government encouraged people to grow their own vegetables. Many modern allotments date from the First World War. By 1918, supplies of meat were so short that cafés and restaurants were told to have two 'meat-less' days every week.



Source F

A grocer's shop, closed because of lack of food supplies.

In 1917, the first cases of influenza caused by a deadly new strain of virus appeared in Spain. It spread rapidly across Europe, killing thousands of people weakened by hunger and hardship caused by the war.



Source E

A painting, by J. Hodgson Lobley, showing casualties from the Battle of the Somme arriving at Charing Cross station in July 1916.

QUESTIONS:

- 1 How is the poster in Source A designed to work?
- 2 Write a diary for a woman on the Home Front in Britain.
- 3 If you were a German spy in Britain, would you report that the war was popular or unpopular with ordinary British people? Use all the evidence in this unit to help you answer.

5

The Treaty of Versailles

*In June 1919, the victorious Allies signed the Treaty of Versailles.
Between them, they were to decide the future of Europe.*

How was Germany treated by the victors?

The Armistice

In 1918, after the massive German attack in the west failed, the German people, tired of war, overthrew the Kaiser. The new German government asked for a cease-fire or armistice. The fighting stopped at 11.00 a.m. on 11 November 1918.



Earlier in 1918, US President Wilson had published 14 points he believed any peace settlement should include, if the world was to be kept safe for democracy. One key point was national self-determination – allowing people to rule themselves. The German government was encouraged by this and expected fair treatment from the victorious Allies.

Crowds celebrated in the streets in Britain and France but, amongst all the celebrations, there were calls to punish the Germans severely for the war. The British Prime Minister, David Lloyd George, promised to 'squeeze Germany till the pips squeak'.

The terms of the treaty

● Germany loses lands

In 1919 the Allied leaders met in Paris to draw up a peace settlement. The Germans were not invited. Wilson, Lloyd George and the French Prime Minister, Clemenceau, decided that Germany should give up land in Europe to her neighbours – France, Belgium, Denmark and Poland – and that all German overseas colonies should be taken over by the Allies.

● Army reductions

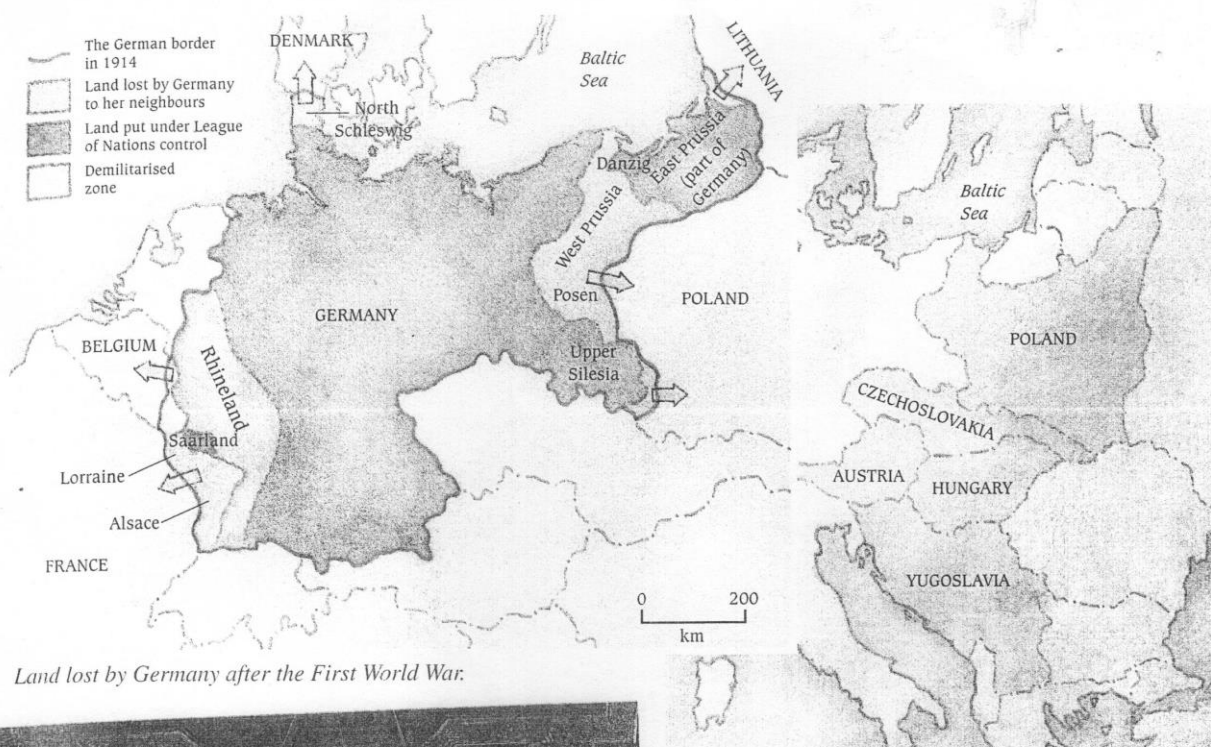
It was also decided that Germany's army should be cut down to 100,000 men. German tanks were to be destroyed and the airforce disbanded. The German fleet sailed to Scotland and sunk itself rather than surrender to the Allies.

● Reparations and war guilt

The final treaty was signed at Versailles. It blamed the Germans for starting the war, and forced them to pay reparations (damages) to the other powers. The Germans felt very bitter about this diktat (dictated peace) but they had no choice but to sign it.

Source A

Crowds celebrating on Armistice night.



Land lost by Germany after the First World War.



Source B

The signing of the Treaty of Versailles.

New states created in 1919.

New states in Central Europe

In 1919 other treaties dealt with Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. The Austro-Hungarian Empire was broken up and the new 'successor states' of Austria, Hungary, Poland and Czechoslovakia were created in its place.

The League of Nations

The Allies set up a League of Nations to try to solve problems through discussion, hoping to avoid future wars. But neither the Germans nor the Russians were allowed to join and the American government refused to take part. The League had no armed forces of its own and found it difficult to solve the problems of the following years.

QUESTIONS:

- 1 Explain why many Germans were so bitter about the Treaty of Versailles.
- 2 Why do you think the Allies were so anxious to punish Germany for the war?