

Introduction

1

This book is designed to prepare students taking the Paper 2 topic, Causes and Effects of 20th Century Wars (Prescribed Subject 11) in the IB History examination. The book is focused on five key conflicts: two of them major international wars; in addition, two civil wars, and one regional war – all of which had some input from other countries – are examined. Each war is considered in terms of:

- Causes, both long- and short-term, of the war
- Practice of the war – the main events, how the war was fought and the role of technology
- Effects and results of the war – military, political, social and economic.

Each of the detailed case-study chapters will have units dealing with these three themes, to help you focus on the main issues. This approach will allow you to compare and contrast the wars and to identify similarities and differences. Each of the case studies is divided into a number of key questions, which focus on the issues that you need to study in order to answer the Paper 2 questions.

IB History and regions of the world

The wars covered by the five case studies are:

- Chapter 2 – The First World War 1914–18 (all regions)
- Chapter 3 – The Spanish Civil War 1936–9 (European region)
- Chapter 4 – The Second World War 1939–45 (all regions)
- Chapter 5 – The Chinese Civil War 1927–49 (Asian region)
- Chapter 6 – The Iran–Iraq War 1980–8 (Africa and the Middle East region)

Remember, when answering a question that asks you to select examples from **two** different regions, you must be careful – failure to comply will result in limited opportunities to score high marks.

You may well, of course, study some other examples of civil or limited wars identified in the IB History Guide, such as the Nigerian Civil War or the limited wars between India and Pakistan.

For the purposes of study, IB History specifies four regions of the world. Where relevant, you need to be able to identify these regions.

Fact: The Nigerian Civil War (1967–70) was caused by the breakaway of southern provinces to form the new republic of Biafra.

Fact: India and Pakistan fought wars in 1947–8, 1965 and 1971. The two countries dispute ownership of Jammu and Kashmir, which are ruled by India but have a largely Muslim population.

1

Introduction

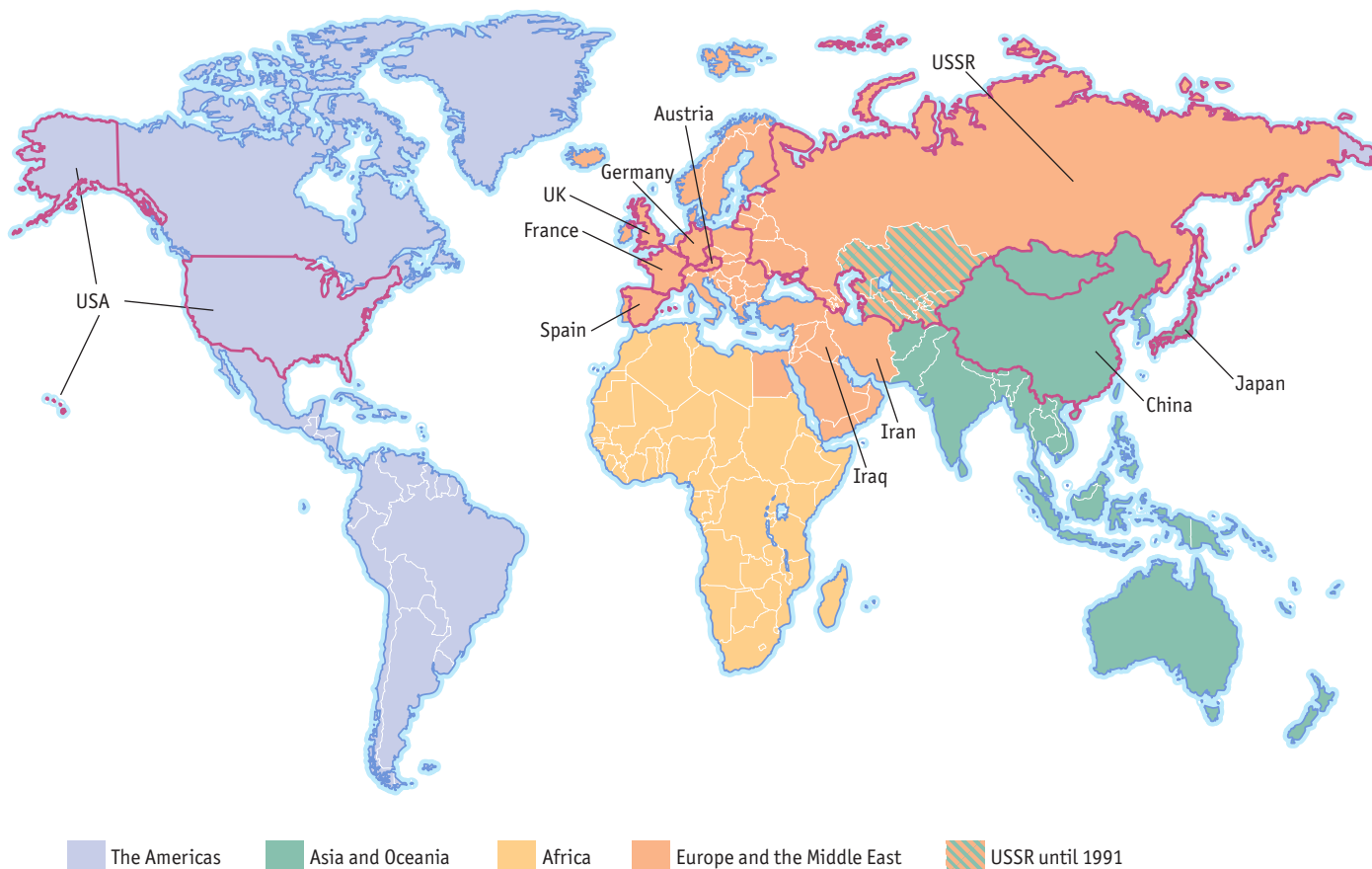


Figure 1.1 The four IB regions are shown on this map, along with some of the states covered by this book

Exam skills needed for IB History

Throughout the main chapters of this book, there are various activities and questions to help you develop the understanding and the exam skills necessary for success. Before attempting the specific exam practice questions at the end of each chapter, you might find it useful to refer to Chapter 7 first. This suggestion is based on the idea that if you know where you are supposed to be going (in this instance, gaining a good grade) and how to get there, you stand a better chance of reaching your destination!

Questions and mark schemes

To ensure that you develop the necessary understanding and skills, each chapter contains a number of comprehension questions in the margins. In addition, three of the main Paper 1-type questions (comprehension, value/limitations, and cross-referencing) are dealt with at the end of Chapters 2–6. Help for the longer Paper 1 judgement/synthesis questions, and the Paper 2 essay questions, can be found in Chapter 7 – the final exam practice chapter.

For additional help, simplified **mark schemes** have been put together in ways that should make it easier to understand what examiners are looking for in examination answers. The actual IB History mark schemes can be found on the IB website.

Mark schemes: These are drawn up by IB for examiners to ensure that the same standards are applied to each question. It is important to know what qualities your answers are expected to have to gain the best possible marks.

Finally, you will find examiners' tips and comments, along with activities, to help you focus on the important aspects of the questions and answers. These should help you avoid simple mistakes and oversights which, every year, result in even some otherwise good students failing to gain the highest marks.

Terminology and definitions

When studying the background to and consequences of wars, you will need to understand the meaning of terms used by military historians and also more general historical terminology. Words like 'strategy' and 'mobilisation' are important, as are general terms like 'left' and 'right', 'communism', 'anarchism' and 'fascism'. You will then be able to focus on the similarities and differences between the causes, course and consequences of different wars.

The key definitions are those of 'total war', 'civil war' and 'limited war'.

Total war

In a total war, all the resources of a nation – human, economic, even spiritual – are used by the state to achieve complete victory. There is no real distinction between the 'home front' – where people produce war materials and food to supply troops, as well as providing the soldiers for mass armies – and the 'fighting fronts' where the war is waged. Increasingly, the state has to take over, or at least control, production, imports and exports, and the allocation of resources – for instance, by rationing food and raw materials. The whole nation is encouraged by **propaganda** to support the war. It becomes difficult to oppose the conflict, as total commitment is needed to win total victory. Every means is used to portray the war as vital to the survival of the nation. There is an expectation that the spirit of the people will be totally behind the war. There can be no compromise for peace; total war is fought until the enemy surrenders. To achieve that, almost any means become justified: any new weapon, for example an **atomic bomb** or poison gas; economic warfare to starve the enemy; bombing raids to destroy their means of production, or just to kill the people who are producing the means to go on fighting. There may still be limits – for example, taking prisoners rather than simply killing those captured – but these are only observed under some circumstances and for fear that the enemy may retaliate in the same way. In some areas of conflict in total war, no prisoners are taken and sometimes states may even resort to genocide (the murder of whole peoples or racial/national groups whom they see as threatening survival).

In 1943, the German propaganda minister Josef Goebbels announced that Germany would need to wage total war (Source A).

Propaganda: The means used by a state to persuade its citizens to support it or its policies. In the 20th century this included posters, leaflets, state newspapers and press, state-sponsored films, radio and TV.

Atomic bomb: The most destructive weapon ever used. It is derived from the power created by splitting uranium atoms and has been used only twice – in August 1945 on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

SOURCE A

The total war effort has become a matter of the entire German people. The people are willing to bear any burden, even the heaviest, to make any sacrifice, if it leads to the great goal of victory. [*Lively applause*]

Rich and poor, high and low must share the burdens equally. Everyone must do his duty in this grave hour, whether by choice or otherwise. The alarm must sound throughout the

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1

Introduction

SOURCE A (continued)

nation. Millions of hands must get to work throughout the country. The individual may have to make great sacrifices, but they are tiny when compared to the sacrifices he would have to make if his refusal brought down on us the greatest national disaster.

Extract from 'Nation, Rise Up, and Let the Storm Break Loose', a speech by Josef Goebbels delivered at the Sports Palace in Berlin, broadcast to a large but carefully selected audience on 18 February 1943. Quoted at www.calvin.edu.

The idea of a total war dates from before the 20th century, but can only really be applied to the First and Second World Wars. In these conflicts, the entire population was expected to contribute to the war effort, and the war affected both soldier and civilian alike. By the Second World War, mass bombing of civilians brought the front line to ordinary people. The civilian deaths by bombing in Germany between 1939 and 1945 were four times the number of British soldiers killed during the First World War. Increasingly, the line between combatant and non-combatant was blurred.

Civil war

Civil wars are not fought between people of different countries, but between people within the same country. A civil war may have characteristics of total war and, in practice, few civil wars end in compromise, but rather are fought until one side or the other is victorious or gains its aim. This may be the break-up of a 'country' – for example, when East Pakistan broke away from Pakistan in 1971 to become a new country, Bangladesh, leaving just West Pakistan as 'Pakistan'.

The civil wars of the 20th century have been fought with the same ferocity and involvement of whole peoples as international total wars. In a civil war, bitterness may be much greater and the distinction between soldier and civilian is often less clear. If people in a country fight between themselves, then the enemy is likely to be the whole of the opposing side, not merely its troops. In both civil wars covered in this book, civilians suffered greatly, both during the war and in its aftermath. In both cases, the result of war was prolonged **dictatorship**.

This is not unusual in history, as civil war has often resulted in the militarisation of communities and the rise to power of a strong leader. Many past civil wars have also seen intervention by other countries – sometimes to take advantage of the divisions in a neighbouring country, at other times to support the side that might prove favourable if it emerged victorious. What was unusual in the case of the Spanish and Chinese Civil Wars was the degree of political ideology involved, which was far greater than in other civil wars. In Nigeria in the 1960s, for example, war was fought less for political principles than for reasons of hostility between different peoples in different regions. Civil war can arise:

- because people in certain regions of a country feel oppressed or neglected;
- because of political divisions;
- because of different religious ideas in a country.

In Spain, where all three factors contributed, the civil war was particularly intense (see Chapter 3). In China, regional differences were less significant than political ideas (see Chapter 5).

Dictatorship: The rule of one person, uncontrolled by parliaments or democratic elections. Before the 20th century, most European dictators had been military leaders, but the most famous of the European dictators came to power through radical political groups, such as Hitler's Nazis in Germany and Mussolini's fascists in Italy.

However, behind the ideas there is often a considerable amount of social conflict: to fight one's own countrymen is a major step, and one that usually results from significant social pressure. In the world wars, once the decision to fight had been taken by the leaders of a country, the people had to follow. A civil war, however, is more 'personal' and often involves people choosing a side and making a commitment for a variety of reasons.

Limited war

The two world wars spread to include a large number of countries in different continents. Not all 20th-century wars spread in this way, and some were limited to a small group of countries – sometimes just two participants, as in the case of the Iran–Iraq War (1980–8). One of the issues covered in this book is why, in the world wars, conflict did not remain limited and why it spread. The opposite question could be asked of limited wars – why, for instance, did the wars between Iran and Iraq, or between India and Pakistan (1947–8, 1965 and 1971), not turn into world wars, despite both sides having links with other powers? Why did Austria's decision to invade Serbia in 1914 lead to a world war, while Britain's decision to send a military force to contest Argentina's occupation of the Malvinas (the Falklands) in 1982 remained a war fought between just two countries? Iran and Iraq fought a very costly and bitter war between 1980 and 1988, but it remained limited in the sense that it did not develop into a regional or international conflict (see Chapter 6). The struggle between Poland and Germany in 1939, however, led to a war that involved millions worldwide.

Differences in fighting methods

Within different types of war – total, civil, limited – fighting can take different forms. Wars fought mainly with soldiers are known as 'conventional wars'. There may also be fighting on foot (infantry). A war can take the form of sieges – where the enemy attempts to surround, cut off and starve strong points before attacking. Battles can be fought in open-order warfare, in which both sides move their forces until they meet in conflict. Armies can fight using combined arms – infantry, vehicles (or cavalry) and aircraft. For an army:

- the main fighting may be defensive (holding positions) or offensive (attacking positions);
- they may use different strategies – the whole concept and planning of wars and campaigns (the 'big picture');
- they may use different tactics – methods to make the strategy a success.

Thus the strategy (grand plan) of Germany in 1914 was to defend on the Eastern Front and attack rapidly in the West. To achieve this, Germany used the tactic of bringing up forces rapidly by railway, dividing its forces and attacking with infantry supported by cannon (field artillery). When the strategy became more defensive, the tactics of using machine guns, barbed wire and heavy big guns (artillery) were used to defend the lines. However, sometimes both strategy and tactics required the use not of mass armies or sieges, but of smaller groups operating independently to attack the enemy wherever possible – sometimes behind its own lines. These groups could not achieve a massive victory, but could attack essential communications and supply lines, and unsettle enemy forces by lightning raids. Sometimes these groups were units of regular soldiers; sometimes they were groups of civilians who took up arms to attack the enemy. These non-military groups were called, among other things, 'partisans'. This type of warfare is known as guerrilla warfare – from the Spanish *guerra* ('war').

Fact: The Malvinas, off the coast of Argentina, are known in Britain as the Falkland Islands. They were occupied by Britain after an armed invasion in the 18th century. When the Argentinian military Junta pressed a historic claim to the islands in 1982, the British prime minister, Margaret Thatcher, sent a task force to recapture the islands. They remain a British possession.

Fact: Guerrilla warfare became famous when Spanish irregular forces attacked the regular armies of France in the Peninsular War (1808–14), fought when Napoleon I of France invaded Spain. This type of warfare has been practised since ancient times.

QUESTION

Why has 20th-century warfare seen much less of a distinction between soldiers and civilians than the warfare of previous centuries? For example, one reason could be technology, i.e., the development of aircraft and bigger bombs. Pool your ideas and explanations, and think about which you find most convincing. You could return to this after you have finished studying the book to see if your conclusions are still the same.

1

Introduction

Guerrilla warfare was a notable feature of the war in Russia from 1941 to 1945, and German forces faced guerrilla armies in several of the countries they occupied in the Second World War. Guerrilla warfare could also be a feature of civil wars, notably in the Chinese Civil War, where much communist success was due to small-scale fighting rather than large, open-order conflict. The Chinese communist leader Mao Zedong felt that guerrilla warfare played an important part in achieving revolutionary goals (Source B).



Figure 1.2 Modern guerrillas – the Mujahedin in Afghanistan in 1980

SOURCE B

What is the relationship of guerrilla warfare to the people? Without a political goal, guerrilla warfare must fail, as it must, if its political objectives do not coincide with the aspirations of the people and their sympathy, co-operation, and assistance cannot be gained. The essence of guerrilla warfare is thus revolutionary in character. On the other hand, in a war of counter-revolutionary nature, there is no place for guerrilla hostilities. Because guerrilla warfare basically derives from the masses and is supported by them, it can neither exist nor flourish if it separates itself from their sympathies and co-operation.

Mao Zedong. 1937. 'On Guerrilla Warfare'. From Selected Works of Mao Tse-Tung. Vol. IX. Quoted at www.marxists.org.

Guerrilla warfare also featured heavily in the Algerian War (1954–62), in which Algerian guerrillas (freedom fighters from one point of view, terrorists from another) fought French troops. Guerrilla warfare was of vital importance in

Fact: Algeria had been a French colony since 1830, but a liberation movement among its native North African inhabitants (as opposed to European colonists) demanded independence and fought French forces from 1954 to 1962. A civil war took place in Algeria from 1992 to 1999 between Islamic and secular groups.

the Vietnam War. It took a heavy toll on civilian populations, who were often punished by regular forces for sheltering guerrillas – and by guerrillas for refusing aid and shelter.

This book cannot deal with every war in the 20th century, but the questions it raises will help you consider individual wars in a wider context, and to make comparisons that help you understand that few historical events can be understood simply by looking at them in isolation.

Activities

- 1 The table shows the wars specified for study by IB. Decide whether each one is total, limited or civil.

War	Total, limited, civil?
First World War, 1914–18	
Chinese Civil War, 1927–49	
Spanish Civil War, 1936–9	
Second World War, 1939–45	
Indo–Pakistan Wars, 1947–8, 1965, 1971	
Algerian War, 1954–62	
Nigerian Civil War, 1967–70	
Nicaraguan Revolution, began 1978	
Falklands/Malvinas War, 1982	
Iran–Iraq War, 1980–8	
Gulf War, 1990–1	

- 2 Explain briefly the difference between the following:
- total war and limited war
 - national war and civil war
 - conventional war and guerrilla war
 - strategy and tactics
 - defensive and offensive warfare.

War and historical debate

In order to score highly in Paper 2 you will need to show awareness and understanding of the **historiography** surrounding the wars you have studied. Historians – like most other people – are rarely completely neutral when dealing with important or controversial issues. Debates about the causes of both world wars have divided historians. This book refers to a major discussion that has divided opinion since the time of the First World War itself – the responsibility of Germany. Germany was officially blamed for the First World War by the victors in 1919. German historians were eager to show that the war came about for many different reasons, and that blame could not be placed with a single nation. In the inter-war period, German nationalists attributed

Historiography: This is literally the study of the writing of history, but the term has also come to be used to describe the different ways that historians have written about particular aspects of the past.

1

Marxist historians: Marx saw class struggle as determining history, with communist revolution being possible in developed countries. Marxist historians focus on economic factors and class conflict, and relate other elements in history to underlying economic issues. For some Marxists, therefore, the First World War was the result of contradictions in capitalism rather than diplomatic decisions.

Fact: A.J.P. Taylor (1906–90) was a controversial British historian who offered deliberately challenging interpretations of diplomatic history, famously arguing that Hitler behaved like a normal, rational statesman, taking advantage of the mistakes of other leaders rather than following a plan. This view seemed to make Hitler less responsible for war and thus became very controversial.

Cabinet papers: These are the records of discussions between leading British government ministers, who sit in a committee called the Cabinet. The papers were not available to historians until 30 years had elapsed.

Introduction

blame to all the main powers involved. The post-Second World War work by historian Fritz Fischer caused a storm in Germany, by suggesting that there was continuity between Hitler's desire for nationalist expansion and the desire of his pre-1914 predecessors for a war that would open up valuable areas in Eastern Europe to Germany and remove restrictions on German growth.

The key element in considering such debates is to look at the evidence being offered by historians. **Marxist historians** saw the war as an inevitable consequence of the final phase of the development of capitalism (Lenin regarded imperialism as the final phase of capitalism, and assumed that the war stemmed from imperial rivalry over global markets). Diplomatic historians relish the detailed study of crises. Sceptical historical writers like A.J.P. Taylor saw Europe blundering into war as statesmen were led by over-optimistic military leaders obsessed with timetables.

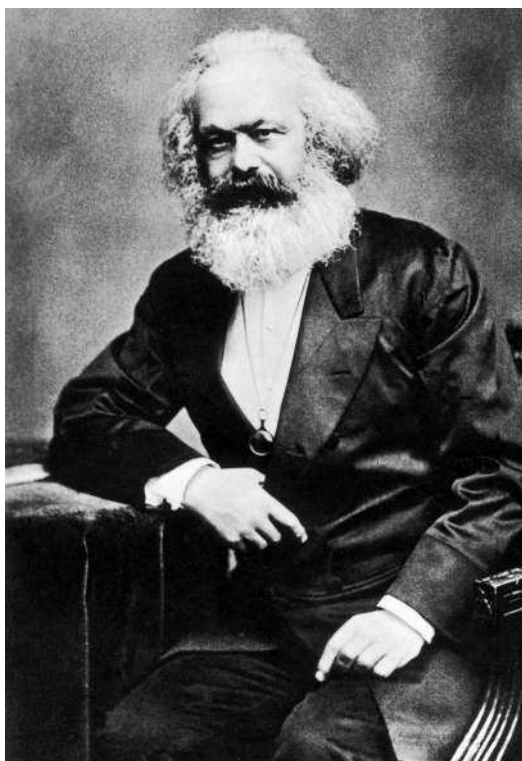


Figure 1.3 Karl Marx (1818–83)

After the Second World War, the situation seemed much more clear-cut. Blame was largely placed with Hitler and his pursuit of the ideological goals of conquest and racial supremacy. However, modern German historians have shown that Hitler was not a lone voice and that the Nazi ideology had more widespread support than was previously supposed.

Some historians have questioned whether Hitler's aims were dictated by mad ideas or a rational consideration of Germany's long-term interests. Again, A.J.P. Taylor, in his 1961 study *The Origins of the Second World War*, opened the way for a flood of debate.

There is no consensus on whether appeasement, for instance, was a disastrous policy that contributed directly to the outbreak of war, or a sensible course of action given the alternatives. The opening of British **cabinet papers** has shown why the policy was followed, but information on how decisions are taken cannot replace judgements about their effects.

Reputations in war wax and wane. The British generals of the First World War, particularly Sir Douglas Haig, were seen as incompetent and old-fashioned by many. However, **revisionists** have seen Haig as a thoughtful and educated soldier doing what he could in impossible circumstances, and developing the British army and its fighting techniques in such a way as to make victory possible in 1918. Mao Zedong, often seen as the architect of communist victory by his brilliant guerrilla warfare, is now viewed by revisionists as an erratic leader, motivated by personal ambition more than the good of his followers or his cause.

Even where there is limited debate in the sense of deeply opposed positions, historians have to weigh the relative importance of different factors – they have to consider how to explain the outcome of the Spanish Civil War, for example, and decide what weight to give to different explanations. Historians must constantly assess evidence and test judgements. This book contains some accounts of major controversies, but it also invites you to consider what the best explanations are for wars and their outcomes by looking at the evidence.

Revisionists: Historians who challenge accepted views are sometimes called revisionists. For example, there was a generally accepted view that Stalin and the Soviet Union were to blame for the Cold War. This was challenged by historians who blamed the USA. This ‘revisionist’ view was then developed by those who saw it as a mixture of elements – these historians became known as ‘post-revisionists’. Generally, labelling views like this is of little real use in understanding the past, but you will come across these terms in historical writing.

Key Concepts

To perform well in your IB History examinations, you will often need to consider aspects of one or more of six important Key Concepts as you write your answers. These six Key Concepts are listed below:

- Change
- Continuity
- Causation
- Consequence
- Significance
- Perspectives.

Sometimes, a question might require you to address two – or more – Key Concepts. For instance: ‘Evaluate the reasons why the Spanish Civil War broke out, and explain the main consequences it had for European diplomacy during its duration.’

It is immediately clear with this question that the Key Concepts of Causation and Consequence must be addressed in your answer. However, it is important to note that although the word ‘cause’ doesn’t explicitly appear in the question, words such as ‘reasons’ or ‘why’ nonetheless are asking you to address Causation. To help you focus on the six Key Concepts, and gain experience of writing answers which address them, you will find a range of different questions and activities throughout these chapters.

Theory of Knowledge

Alongside these broad key themes, all chapters contain Theory of Knowledge links to get you thinking about aspects that relate to history, which is a Group 3 subject in the IB Diploma. The Route 2 topic Causes and effects of 20th century wars (Topic 11 of 20th century world history) has clear links to ideas about knowledge and history.

1

Introduction

Questions relating to the availability and selection of sources, and to interpretations of these sources, link to the IB Theory of Knowledge course. Issues are raised such as whether or not historians should approach interpretations of wars by considering the role of national leaders. The scope of historical writing on aspects of social history during periods of war is also discussed. There are interesting philosophical questions relating to causes and consequences, and there is some discussion about whether a historian should be drawn at all to consider ‘what if’, or counter-factual, history. This is very tempting when wars do seem to depend on key decisions and are often triggered by dramatic events.

For example, when trying to decide on aspects of the origins of wars, or why they turned out as they did, historians must decide which evidence to select and use – and which to leave out – to make their case. But in selecting what they consider to be the most important or relevant sources, and in making judgements about the value and limitations of specific sources or sets of sources, how important are these historians’ personal political views? Is there such a thing as objective ‘historical truth’? Or is there just a range of subjective historical opinions and interpretations about the past that vary according to the political interests and leanings of individual historians?

You are therefore encouraged to read a range of books offering different interpretations and, where revisionists are putting forward challenges to accepted views, to look critically at the bases for those views. If using contemporary evidence, are historians paying attention to its provenance? This is a major skill for any historian at every level, so practice is offered in considering a range of sources.

Summary

By the time you have read this book:

- You should be familiar with the causes, conduct and results of two major total wars; along with two civil wars, and one regional war, each from a different region.
- You should understand that the wars had some features in common and some that were very different, and you should be able to offer some explanation as to why this is the case.
- You should be aware of broad categories in which the causes and results of war have been seen – for example, political, social and economic.
- You should be aware of aspects of war over which there is historical controversy, as well as understanding the reasons for this. You should start to make judgements about disputed areas, as well as about the relative importance of varying explanations for the causes, outcomes and results of conflicts.
- You should understand key historical terms and concepts, and use them with confidence in writing answers that are genuinely analytical and focused on the question, rather than merely descriptions related to the general topic.
- You should have considered a range of different sources and developed an increasingly critical assessment of evidence.