The Great War

Hofstra Model United Nations Spring Conference 2018
Dear Delegates,

Welcome to HUMUNC 2018, and to our Historical Crisis Committee. I hope that all of you become immersed in the experience. I am Nick Zotto, a junior at Hofstra University, and I will be your Committee Chair. I have been with Model UN (MUN) for three years, and have seen first-hand how enriching and educating involvement in MUN can be, and I’m certain I will pass on to you my enthusiasm during our conference. I am a double major in Political Science and Global Studies with a triple minor in Russian, International Relations, and European Studies (which is not as difficult as you might think). Some of my hobbies are collecting flags, watching *Rick and Morty*, and visiting New York City. Besides MUN, I was also a member of the Resident Hall Association for two years (including one year on the e-board), and am the current secretary for Hofstra College Republicans.

The motivation for our topic, The Great War, as World War I is also known, is one of reflection and appreciation. Since 2014, the hundredth anniversary of the start of World War I, there has been a revival of interest in World War I in many respects. In popular culture, we see this with recent movies such as *Wonder Woman* and with video games like *Battlefield 1*, whose stories both take place during the “war to end all wars”. Educating the public about World War I has also been important, as seen through the YouTube show “The Great War” featuring Indiana Niedell, which releases episodes of every significant event in World War I on the hundredth anniversary of its occurrence. In addition, Hofstra has had many lectures in recent years on the war, and more have been scheduled for this academic year. The Great War is important in understanding our present world. The global role of the United States, World War II (often overshadowing the first in terms of attention), the Cold War, and even the conflicts in the Middle East can all be traced back to the events of World War I. To better understand our world, we will explore the first conflict of the modern age. Our decisions may change the course of the war, so we must always be mindful of the many realms of conflict we are concerned with. I look forward to meeting you and chairing this crisis committee.

Sincerely,

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**Introduction to the Crisis**

The involvement of all countries of the Triple Entente during World War I was crucial for the success of these allies—Great Britain, France and Russia. The war was fought between two factions, the allies, formally the Entente (which would include the aforementioned countries as well as countries of the British Commonwealth and the United States), and the Central Powers, composed of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and eventually Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire. During World War I, Great Britain and France coordinated their military tactics to fight the German Empire on the Western Front. This campaign was vital for defending Paris and liberating Britain’s ally, Belgium. The men in the British war cabinet held a variety of offices very relevant to the crisis. Their historical roles would enable the carrying out of military campaigns not just on the Western Front, but also in the North Sea and Arabia. These positions included Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Minister of Blockade, and the First Lord of the Admiralty. While individuals would come and go, the focus on the war would be maintained.

On the Western Front, the front lines in Flanders and France involved the infamous trench warfare where it was difficult for soldiers to advance forward. Regardless, there were always battles and bloodshed across the front, and thousands of soldiers perilously operating in “no man’s land”. Likewise, fighting occurred all throughout the continent, on the Western Front, the Eastern Front, Italy, and in the Balkans. In addition, fighting was just as strong in the Middle East, which entailed British and French forces fighting the Ottomans and supporting the Arab revolts. The colonial presence of Germany in Africa and the Pacific further extended the scope of the war, and brought emerging powers like Japan into action. Even in Britain the effects of the
war were present, including the cities bombed by the Germans and the crisis of the Easter Rising in Ireland.

The British naval campaigns were just as important to the war, and were active everywhere; the British Navy blockaded German ports in the North Sea, transported troops to the Dardanelle Straight and supported the Gallipoli campaign, and fought to establish supply lines to the Russian army. With new inventions such as the machine gun, chemical warfare, submarines, airplanes, and tanks, the war was transformative, as well as bloody. There will be many issues to cover, and not one can be ignored if we are to properly understand the crisis of the Great War.

**Setting**

*A World Ready for War*

Leading up to 1914, all major powers had engaged in wars and conquests that would make the war a truly global one. From the 1830s to the 1860s, European powers would fight the Chinese Qing dynasty in the Opium Wars, seizing port cities and establishing spheres of influence. In the 1870s, Italy and Germany transformed from divided, squabbling kingdoms into unified nation states. Later in that decade, several Western countries such as Great Britain, France, Belgium, Germany, and Italy would explore and colonize the African continent in the historical “Scramble for Africa”. From here, the Allies would recruit soldiers to fight for their empires in Europe. In 1903, the Russo-Japanese War would symbolize two major developments; the rise of the Japanese Empire and the fall of the Russian Empire. Japan, a country modernized only less than a century ago, had defeated a European empire and
established itself on the Asian continent. Russia, on the other hand, was wrought with economic turmoil and technological inadequacy.

The Powder Keg Ignites

Of all ethnic and national tensions in Europe, some of the most volatile had been found in the Balkans. Austria-Hungary, an empire already ruling over several disgruntled nations, administered Bosnia and Herzegovina, which Bosnian Serbs desired to separate from the empire. Gavrilo Princip, a member of the Young Bosnians (a terrorist organization), was involved in a plan to kill Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand. On June 28, 1914, the Young Bosnians waited in Sarajevo (the capital of Bosnia) for their opportunity. Although the first attempt to kill the Archduke that day failed, Princip would be fortunate to encounter the car carrying him again. As soon as he saw the car break down, Princip took out his gun and shot Franz Ferdinand and his wife, Sofia.

This assassination sparked immediate outrage in Austria-Hungary, as leaders contemplated how to respond to this assault on their royal family. Serbia was seen as responsible for the event, and an ultimatum was issued requesting Austrian police be able to operate in Serbia to investigate and prosecute the individuals involved. At this time, Germany had “issued a blank check” to Austria-Hungary, guaranteeing military support no matter what action was taken. German support was vital in the situation, as it was possible that Russia would intervene to preserve the sovereignty of a fellow Slavic, Orthodox nation.1 Serbia, believing this ultimatum to be unreasonable, rejected it. Austria would respond by declaring war on Serbia, still with the full backing of the Germans. In response to Austria’s declaration, Russia declared war
on Austria, and Germany declared war on Russia. Germany would also declare war on France, another ally of Russia. Great Britain entered the war after Germany invaded neutral Belgium in order to conduct a wider campaign in France. By the end of August 1914, Europe would be consumed by war, and would remain that way for the next four years.

**Timeline**

June 28, 1914: The heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, is assassinated in Sarajevo by Gavrilo Princip. The driving force behind Princip’s actions comes from his association with the Black Hand and the Young Bosnians, Serbian and Bosnian Serb nationalist organizations.

July 28, 1914: After the Serbian government rejects the ultimatum issued by the Austro-Hungarians regarding the assassination, Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia with the full backing of Germany.

August 29, 1914: By this time, all major contributors to the war have joined, including Russia, Great Britain, France, and Belgium. At this time, the United States declared neutrality.

September 5-9, 1914: The First Battle of the Marne, where the German advance towards Paris is halted by the French Army and British Expeditionary Force. This ultimately ends the Schlieffen Plan (Germany’s strategy of quickly defeating France so they could focus on Russia).

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* This timeline was adapted from the History.com’s "Outbreak of World War I". Information was added to the original text, as needed, for clarification.
December 1914: Across the Western Front, soldiers engage in an informal ceasefire and celebrate Christmas with enemies in the opposing trenches. This is known as the Christmas Truce.

April 25, 1915: The beginning of the Gallipoli Campaign, where allied forces launched amphibious attack on the coastal territories of the Ottoman Empire to secure naval passage to the Black Sea to enable aid to be sent to the struggling Russian Empire.

May 7, 1915: A German submarine sinks the RMS Lusitania, generating outrage, but the US maintains its neutrality.

August 1915: The Armenian Genocide taking place in the Ottoman Empire’s territory becomes known across the globe and is met with condemnation.

January 9, 1916: (The date that the Crisis Committee will begin) The last of the Allied soldiers are evacuated from the Gallipoli campaign, which was abandoned as a failure.

February 21-December 18, 1916: The Battle of Verdun, the longest and largest-scale fight of the war, was fought on the Western Front mainly by the French and German armies.

April 23, 1916: The Easter Rising in Ireland begins, as a result of severe dissatisfaction towards the British prohibiting Irish Home Rule.

May 16, 1916: The Sykes-Picot agreement is signed between the British and French, carving up Ottoman-ruled Arabia for annexation after the war.

May 31, 1916: The Battle of Jutland, a major naval battle between the German and British fleets takes place. Hoping to break the British blockade, the German fleet fought the British for two days. With heavy casualties on both sides, it is difficult to declare a winner.
June 5, 1916: Arab Revolt begins in Hejaz, led by Sharif Hussein of Mecca, to free the Arab world from Ottoman rule.

June 24 - November 1, 1916: The Battle of the Somme takes place, an Allied offensive to draw German troops away from Verdun. The battle is won by the British, but very little land is taken. With casualties intensified by artillery and machine guns, the death toll on both sides added up to over half a million men killed. This is also the first battle of the war in which the British use tanks on the battlefield.

January 31, 1917: Germany resumes their policy of unrestricted submarine warfare after temporarily suspending this policy to avoid provoking the US. By February 3rd, the US cuts all diplomatic ties with Germany.

March 1, 1917: The US is informed of the Zimmerman Telegram, a message from the German foreign minister to Mexico promising that Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona would be returned to Mexico if they joined a potential war against the US.

April 6, 1917: The US declares war on Germany and officially enters the war.

November 7, 1917: The Bolsheviks gain power in Russia and replace Alexander Kerensky’s provisional government.


March 3, 1918: Lenin’s Russia signs the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with the Central Powers. Though terms of peace were harsh, an end to involvement was popular with the public.
March 21, 1918: German general Ludendorff initiates the St. Michael Offensive, planning to overrun front lines and advance all the way to Paris through shock attacks. However, the offensive was constantly challenged by strained supply lines.

July 15, 1918: The Bolsheviks, fearing the potential power of the Romanov family if combined with the White movement, murder Tsar Nicholas II, his wife Alexandra, and their children.

July 18 - August 5, 1918: The Aisne-Marne Offensive is conducted by the French and US armies.

September 12 - 18, 1918: The US army confronts the German St. Michael Offensive, using their recently developed tank divisions.

September 26, 1918: The Meuse-Argonne Offensive begins, with Entente forces pushing through the Argonne forest and breaking the Hindenburg Line.

November 11, 1918: Germany signs an armistice, thus ending the war.

June 28, 1919: The Treaty of Versailles is signed, imposing harsh conditions on Germany, including the return of Alsace-Lorraine back to France and the creation of Poland.

August 20, 1920: The Treaty of Sevres officially ends the war between the Allies and the Ottoman Empire. This would manifest the decisions of Sykes-Picot into the actual political borders of the Middle East.
Actors

David Lloyd George: Secretary of State for War

Appointed as head of government in 1916, David Lloyd George inherited a major war crisis, the disaster at Gallipoli being just one aspect. George had previously served as Chancellor of the Exchequer, Minister of Munitions, and Secretary of State for War. After the failed Gallipoli campaign, he was elected prime minister, led the British to victory in the war, and governed until 1922. Some of his most prominent moments were serving as Britain’s chief delegate at the French peace conference, helping draft the Treaty of Versailles, and working to establish the Irish Free State in 1921.5

Winston Churchill: Minister of Munitions

The famous iconic prime minister of Britain during World War II, like many of his contemporaries, previously served in World War I. He started off the war as First Lord of the Admiralty, a position he would lose after the disasters in the Dardanelles and Gallipoli. During his brief time as an officer on the Western Front, he would gain a reputation of bravery and see a new perspective on the legislation he had opposed in Parliament beforehand. His appointment to Minister of Munitions was made possible by his connection to Lloyd George, a political ally from Parliament. This decision was controversial though, as many opposed the appointment of Churchill for his earlier, failed campaigns. In his new position, Churchill overhauled the department, producing war supplies at a far more efficient rate, thus allowing soldiers on the front to be supplied more easily and giving them better odds against the Germans.6
Arthur Balfour: Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs

The first earl of Balfour is best known for lending his name to the official statement declaring British support for a Jewish state, the Balfour Declaration. He also saw British expansion into the Middle East as vital to the security of the British Empire. With his outright support of Zionism, he hoped to use his friendly relationship with the Jewish population to persuade Jewish Americans to support US entry into the war and establish good ties with the Bolshevik government in Russia. Concerning the period of the war, Balfour is also noted for his staunch opposition to Irish Home Rule, though he wished to preserve British governance diplomatically.

Field Marshall Douglas Haig: Commander of the British Expeditionary Force

Starting off as an organizer for the British Expeditionary Force (BEF) before the outbreak of the war, Haig would come to be commander-in-chief by the end of 1914. One of his most notable decisions was launching an offensive on the German army to relieve the French army in Verdun, leading to the Battle of the Somme. This decision would cost the British over 60,000 casualties and 20,000 deaths on the first day of the attack. Haig would launch another significant attack in the Third Battle of the Ypres, which, while also casualty-heavy, helped damage the German Army and set his army and Allies on a path of victory on the Western Front. It was difficult for Haig to cooperate with Prime Minister Lloyd George, since George rejected Haig’s notion that victory in the war could only be achieved on the Western Front.
General Phillipe Petain: Commander in Chief of the French Army

Though infamous for his collaboration with the Nazis in World War II, his anti-Semitic views, and leadership of the puppet state of Vichy France later in his career, Phillipe Petain first well-known for his leadership in the Battle of Verdun and his solutions to the disruptive mutinies in the French Army. Petain was also remembered for his controversial theories at the War College, where he shared his theory of defense, and preferred firepower over the costly offensives embraced by his colleagues.\(^9\)

John Jellicoe: Admiral of the Fleet/ First Sea Lord

Under Admiral Fisher, who was in charge of British naval campaigns early in the war, Jellicoe had proved himself to be an influential force in the navy, making great strides in its modernization. During the war, he was responsible for naval activities in the North Sea, including the blockade of Germany. Unlike his colleagues, Jellicoe was cautious and defensive, always avoiding the enemy when possible. This tactic was helpful in the blockading campaign, but proved to be unpopular and impotent with his decision to withdraw ships at the height of the Battle of Jutland (see the timeline). Jellicoe also opposed the introduction of convoys, or military escorts for merchant ships, which was a decision that would cost him his position in late 1917.\(^{10}\)
Andrew Bonar Law: Chancellor of the Exchequer

Encouraged to become Prime Minister by King George V, Andrew Bonar Law opted instead for Lloyd George to head the next government. When Lloyd George came to office, Law became Chancellor of the Exchequer, effectively becoming second-in-command, as well as a prominent member of the House of Commons and member of the War Cabinet. In his position, Law was in charge of the sale of war bonds and war loans. A member of the Imperialist faction of the Conservative party and man of Ulster ancestry, Law opposed the notion of Irish Home Rule, and strong tariffs to maintain British trade.11

Jules Cambon: Secretary General for French Foreign Affairs

Cambon had already been reputable for negotiating the treaty that ended the Spanish-American War and for being a diplomat to Germany until 1914. In his last year in Germany, he worked diligently to try and avoid war. That same year, Cambon became Secretary-General for French Foreign Affairs and would oversee enforcement of the treaty of Versailles on the Council of Ambassadors in 1919.12 He also issued France’s recognition of a Jewish state in Palestine even before the Balfour Declaration.13
Marshal Joseph Joffre: General in Chief of the French Armies

Joseph Joffre had a great deal of military experience before World War I. Joffre’s was honored as a national hero in 1914 for leading the French army to victory in the First Battle of the Marne, the first time France had defeated Germany on the battlefield in over a century. Joffre was slow to attack on the battlefield, tending to proceed with caution. Unfortunately, this would mean lost opportunities at the battles of Artois (1915), Champagne (1915), and a failure to confront the German army building up at Verdun (1916). Later in 1916, Joffre would be promoted to the position of Marshal of France.  

King Albert I: Commander of the Belgian Military

Having only been on the throne since 1909, Albert had very little time to prepare his country for a large-scale conflict. Still, he improved the army and passed a conscription bill one year before the outbreak of the conflict. After rejecting German demands for military access in an attempt to reaffirm Belgian neutrality, Germany invaded. For four years, Albert would lead a country almost completely overrun by enemy armies, and inspire his army to fight in defense of Belgium.
**General Sir Edmund Allenby: Commander of the Egyptian Expeditionary Force**

General Allenby is most remembered for his role in capturing Jerusalem from the Ottoman Empire during the Sinai and Palestine campaign. He went on to capture Damascus and Aleppo, effectively ending Ottoman control of its Arab provinces. His campaign against the Ottomans was greatly helped by the concurrent Arab Revolt, which was fomented by Sharif Husayn ibn Ali with some assistance from Lieutenant T.E. Lawrence (aka Lawrence of Arabia).

**Sam Hughes: Minister of Militia for the Dominion of Canada**

Canada had just recovered from economic turmoil, and by 1914, was being called on by the British to serve in the war. Hughes charismatically called upon Canadian men to do their part and fight in the army. The recruited divisions would be sent to the Western Front and get a bitter taste of war starting with the Second Battle of Ypres, where Germany first used poison gas on the battlefield. The politics of Sam Hughes combined with the sacrifice of the Canadian Army symbolized the first major conflict Canadians had participated in, and would instill in the memory of Europe that Canada protected Western Europe.
William Birdwood: Commander of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC)

Australians and New Zealanders remember Birdwood fondly for training the ANZAC forces and leading them into battle. Birdie, as his men called him, personally worked with soldiers on the front line during the Gallipoli campaign, treating them like equals and socializing with them. When the campaign ultimately failed, Birdwood oversaw the withdrawal, successfully evacuating the whole army. While not the best tactician, Birdwood was a symbol of inspiration for the ANZAC forces and their contribution to the Allied war effort.¹⁹

Aristide Briand: Premier of France

As a left-leaning progressive, Briand wrote for several political publications such as Petite Republique and La Laterne, and later became Secretary-General of the Socialist Party in 1901. He also worked in a commission that helped pass a noteworthy piece of legislation in the French Parliament, it established the separation of church and state in France. In 1915, after Rene Viviani’s cabinet began to fall apart, Briand became Premier and was immediately confronted with planning and executing France’s war effort. After the failure of the Balkan campaign in March 1917, Briand resigned from his position, though he would spend the next three years advocating for the establishment of the League of Nations.²⁰
Field Marshal Horatio Herbert Kitchener: Head of the British Army

Kitchener’s service on behalf of Great Britain began with the Royal Engineers in 1871. His experience in combat started with his Governorship of Sudan in the 1880s and 90s, where he defended the British colony from Mahdist and French incursion. He would go on to serve as Chief of Staff to the Commander-in-Chief of the Forces in the Second Boer War. At the start of the Great War, Kitchener was one of the few who correctly believed the war would last years, and so prepared the army, increasing the size from 20 divisions to 70. Though he was not popular in the war cabinet, he was very popular with the British public. When he was sent to Russia to aid the war on the Eastern Front, his ship was hit and sunk by a German mine before it could even leave British waters.21
Important Fields
(Note: events that take place and decisions made by the committee will affect these fields)

Western Front

From 1914 to 1918, the Allied and Central Powers fought along a network of trenches stretching from the North Sea to the Swiss border. Early fighting saw a massive German offensive that pushed deep into France and overran most of Belgium. The Schlieffen plan, implemented in this offensive, was meant to defeat the French army quickly so Germany could focus on fighting Russia. Due to an unexpected pace of Russian mobilization and Britain joining the war, the plan failed. This advancement would form the general front lines for most of the war. Some of the major battles fought on this front include the Battle of the Marne, Verdun, and the Somme. Front lines would become dynamic again after the German St. Michael offensive and consequent Allied Aisne-Marne and Meuse-Argonne offensives (both of which supported by the newly introduced US Army).
Eastern Front

The front spanned from the Baltic Sea to the Romanian border, pitting Russia against both Germany and Austria-Hungary. Fighting began after the Russian Army mobilized and attacked the Germans. In the first three years of the war, Russia fared well against the Central Powers on the battlefield, making several breakthroughs in the Austrian front lines. However, the Russian army would weaken after heavy losses, comparably inferior technology, a failed campaign in Romania, and growing opposition from Russian citizens. After the provisional government was supplanted by the Bolsheviks, Lenin signed the treaty of Brest-Litovsk, officially ending the war on the Eastern Front.  

Ireland

Discussions of Irish independence, referred to as the “Irish Question”, were active since the late 1880s. After the Government of Ireland Act, legislation for Home Rule failed due to the focus on the war in Europe, anger stirred among the Irish, frustrated with the apathy of the government in London. This would lead to a massive rebellion in 1916, known as the Easter Rising. The British were quick to execute individuals responsible for the movement,
which only further severed ties between Ireland and Britain. After a declaration of independence from the Irish Parliament in 1919, a truce was signed in 1921. Ireland is symbolic not only of Britain’s maintenance of imperial ambitions, but also of the importance of diplomacy as a substitute for conflict, as proper implementation of Home Rule may have avoided the following war.  

Arabia

The Middle East is significant to the history of World War I for several reasons. It was one of the last regions to still be ruled by the diminishing Ottoman Empire, and home to the Arab revolts supported by the Allies. The territory of Palestine was also seized by the British forces, which led to Israel being established there as a Jewish state. The Suez Canal in Egypt gave Britain access to its vast empire in Africa and Southern Asia. Another lasting impact came with the Sykes-Picot agreement, dividing the formerly Ottoman territories between the British and French (support for the Arabs notwithstanding).

Africa

In the 1870s, Africa had been carved up by several European powers in the “Scramble for Africa”. The Great War would be the first major conflict involving the fledgling nation of South Africa. This war would test the relations between the British and the Boer Afrikaans, and the place of South Africa in the British
Empire. The Germans had an impressive colonial dominion in Africa, including *Kamerun* (modern-day Cameroon), *Ostafrika* (Tanzania), and *Sudwestafrika* (Namibia).26

**North Sea**

The British conducted a blockade of German ports in an attempt to cripple their trade and cut them off to their overseas empire. The Germans, not capable of matching the British Navy on the seas, contested the blockade using submarines, or as they called them, unterseeboot. There were several naval confrontations, including the battle of Jutland, which saw massive casualties on both sides.27

**Technological Developments Pertinent to the War**

**Machine Guns**

Rapid fire weapons had been a theoretical concept for hundreds of years, but had not been created until the Gatling gun of the US Civil War. The first modern machine gun was created by Hiram Maxim and became the inspiration for Germany, France, and Britain’s first machine guns. By World War I they had been become fully automatic, and could fire hundreds of rounds per minute. When used in the trenches, they were incredibly effective and raised the death toll on both sides. In combination with other weapons, they would make advance through the trenches a seemingly impossible task.28
Trench Warfare

Trench warfare is easily the most infamous and recognizable distinction of the Western Front. By the end of 1914, there were trench networks all across the front, from the Swiss border up to the North Sea. By positioning soldiers behind ground, they were well defended, armed with rapid-fire machine guns and barbed wire, and could kill virtually all attacking enemies. This did not mean entrenched soldiers were safe, however as they would constantly be bombarded by artillery, poisonous gas, and troops armed with flamethrowers. Another challenge was flooding, as water would threaten to drown troops, breed disease, and cause the infamous “trench foot”. These seemingly impenetrable fortifications would be a catalyst for military innovations, bringing about the invention of the tank and the first military use of airplanes. One of the most effective forms of warfare for the time would give way to modern concepts of shock attacks and rapid invasion, including the blitzkrieg tactic implemented by Germany in World War II.\textsuperscript{29}

Tanks

With front lines difficult to push forward on the Western Front, and thousands of infantrymen dying in failed advances, there was a desperate need to create a machine that could penetrate the trenches. By late 1916, the British would use the Mark I Landship for this very purpose. These vehicles were referred to
as “tanks” so as to keep their existence inconspicuous, though they would soon be a game-changer to overcome the perils of trench warfare. Eventually, the French would create their own tank, the Renault, while the Germans created Sturmpanzerwagen A7V.

Airplanes

By World War I, airplanes had only been around for eleven years, and were still experimental in nature. At the beginning of the war, planes were only used for reconnaissance, scouting out troops in enemy territory. As they were developed, planes became capable of carrying more weight, and were thus weaponized. They would then be used for attacking enemy forces and engaging other airplanes in the iconic “dogfights”. The most notable of these pilots was German Manfred von Richthofen, also known as The Red Baron. Richthofen shot down eighty airplanes at a time when a pilot was deemed an “ace” for shooting down only five.

Submarines

In the century leading up to the Great War, submarines had been experimental contraptions used by countries to fight those with superior fleets. In the World War I, that stayed the same, as U-boats (undersea boats) were created by the Germans to fight the much larger British Navy. These U-boats would prey on both military and commercial ships, and with their superior payload of torpedoes, were able to devastate the Allies in the sea. Submarines were also the key weapon in Germany’s unrestricted submarine warfare (as one might imagine), which threatened any ships
which might attempt to aid the Allies. This led to the sinking of the Lusitania on May 7, 1915, which outraged the American public by killing 120 American passengers. Eventually, the British would develop weapons to counter these U-boats, such as the depth charge, as well as the development of sonar-based detection.\textsuperscript{32}

*** While this paper should be sufficient for the Crisis Committee, I strongly encourage you to do your own research into the First World War. Doing so will enhance the experience and give you a better insight into the actions we will undertake. See you in March! ***
Works Cited


