This set of cards is designed for you to use as the final step in your revision program. The author has carefully selected the most important facts of the course for you to focus on just before your exam or test. You can use your *Excel* Year 12 Pass Cards:

**ON THE GO.** If you are by yourself, read over each card again and again until you completely master its content. If you’re with a friend, revise as a team by turning the bullet points into questions and quizzing each other on key points. Your answers will be there on the cards.

**AT HOME.** Read each card thoroughly and make sure you understand all the points. You should also know more detailed information on each topic—if you are not completely sure of a topic, revise it in your *Excel* Year 12 study guide.

**ON YOUR DIGITAL DEVICE.** Download a FREE digital copy of these cards at [www.pascalpress.com.au/free](http://www.pascalpress.com.au/free)
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A range of conditions enabled dictators to rise to power after World War One. These included:

- economic instability
- a need to rebuild nations devastated by war
- a desire for firm and decisive leadership.

Dictatorships, as seen in Italy, Russia and Japan, have distinctive features, including:

- intense nationalism
- a single leader
- power concentrated in the hands of one political party
- the restriction of individual liberties.
After the collapse of Wall Street and the subsequent depression, the Weimar Republic became vulnerable.

Many Germans regarded democracy as unstable and ineffective.

The ideology and policies of the Nazi Party appealed to large numbers of ordinary Germans. These included:

- the reversal of the Treaty of Versailles
- the expansion of the German nation
- major economic reforms.

As leader of the party Hitler surrounded himself with powerful and influential men and built up the brand of the Nazi Party.
The Nazi regime to 1939 2

- Following his appointment as Reich chancellor, **Hitler worked quickly to consolidate his power by announcing new elections.**
- **Meanwhile, the Reichstag fire of 27 February 1933** gave him the opportunity to suspend basic rights by an emergency decree.
- **Hitler arrested opponents**, including thousands of communists, and closed down their offices and newspapers.
- **On 23 March the Reichstag authorised Hitler to enact laws in his own right** through the *Enabling Act*, which was passed with support from all parties except the SPD and KPD, who had either been arrested or had fled the country.
- **Hitler’s destruction of the rule of law** was accompanied by a **takeover of the police.**
The Nazi regime to 1939

→ Nazi ideology promoted the idea of a master race. The party wished to:
  - end the Treaty of Versailles
  - unite Germans into a greater Reich
  - restore Germany’s position of greatness
  - gain Lebensraum (living space).

→ Prominent individuals in the Nazi Party included:
  - Herman Göring, head of the Luftwaffe
  - Joseph Goebbels, Minister for propaganda
  - Heinrich Himmler, head of the SS
  - Reinhard Heydrich, one of the main architects of the Holocaust.
The Nazi regime to 1939

- The Nazi regime **exercised control over most facets of life.**
- **Hitler was a supreme dictator** and the party ideology almost acted as a kind of religion.
- **The use of terror, propaganda and a centralised party bureaucracy** ensured their grip on power.
- **The activities of the SA, SS, Gestapo and concentration camps such as Dachau were advertised** so that people knew the price of opposition.
The Nazi regime had a major impact on most aspects of life for German people:

- Cultural expression was tightly controlled.
- Most Nazi policies towards girls and women were aimed at strengthening traditional roles, as summarised in the slogan *Kinder, Küche, Kirche* (children, kitchen, church).
- Laws were passed and on 25 March 1939 membership of the Hitler Youth was made compulsory.
- Soon after the seizure of power in 1933 members of the Nazi Party were quick to launch their own anti-Jewish campaign.

Opposition to the Nazis failed because the Nazis quickly eliminated sources of opposition during the Gleichshaltung phase:

- Political parties were banned.
- Non-Nazi organisations were dissolved.
- Opponents were killed or arrested.
Germany and Japan were both looking to expand their nations and conquer foreign territories.

Germany sought political supremacy and a new order in Europe while Japan required resources and raw materials that it lacked on home soil.

The intention of the League of Nations was to:

- resolve disputes
- deter invasions
- prevent forceful occupations.

Although the League of Nations lacked military power it was able to achieve a number of outcomes that contributed to peacekeeping during the wars.
The Bolsheviks wanted to lead the industrial working class to revolution. They wanted to create a centralised, disciplined group of activists who would redistribute land and wealth out of the hands of a few.

Lenin’s Bolsheviks seized power in November 1917.

Organised by Trotsky, Red Guards seized key parts of Petrograd in an almost totally bloodless revolution.

A new government called SOVNARKOM (the Council of People’s Commissars) was established.

The 1918 Soviet Constitution established the Russian Socialist Federative Soviet Republic.
Bolshevik consolidation of power 2

➤ Social and economic reforms were introduced. These included:
  ▪ an eight-hour day
  ▪ better working conditions
  ▪ civil marriage
  ▪ People’s Courts
  ▪ a marriage code giving women equality
  ▪ state ownership of factories
  ▪ workers’ control.

➤ The new government’s first measure was the peace decree which led to the signing of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany, and also to Russia formally withdrawing from the war.
RUSSIA AND THE SOVIET UNION 1917–1941

Bolshevik consolidation of power 3

→ During the Civil War the Bolsheviks implemented the policy of War Communism. This involved:
  ▪ state control of industry, land and labour
  ▪ the dismantling of a market economy.

→ A brutal policy of forcing peasants to give their produce to the Red Army and Bolshevik workers was introduced.

→ War Communism was unpopular.

→ It led to widespread starvation and in 1921 to the Kronstadt Revolt, which was brutally put down by Trotsky.

→ However, War Communism was ultimately effective as it enabled the Bolsheviks to survive.
By 1921 economic policy had to change if the new Soviet regime was to survive.

Lenin introduced the New Economic Policy, which allowed small-scale capitalism while the state kept control of the ‘commanding heights’ of major industry.

In 1923 the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (Russia, Ukraine, Byelorussia and Transcaucasia) —the USSR—was established.

Based in Moscow, the central government used its new powers in these areas to dominate the individual member Republics:

- foreign policy
- foreign trade
- economic planning
- defence and social insurance.
RUSSIA AND THE SOVIET UNION 1917-1941

The Bolsheviks and the power struggle following the death of Lenin

➔ **Following the death of Lenin** there was a power struggle in the Bolshevik party.

➔ **Trotsky:**
  - wanted a democratic Bolshevik Party
  - was suspicious of dictatorial tendencies
  - called for free discussion on problems facing the state.

➔ **Stalin warned against factionalism** but Trotsky openly attacked him.

➔ **Stalin retaliated with his ‘Six Points’** in which he condemned Trotsky.

➔ There were a **number of reasons for the emergence of Stalin**, including the way he:
  - reigned in his personality when required
  - took control of the running of the party
  - promoted himself as Lenin’s natural successor
  - made simple public statements, which allowed him to reach the common people.
Stalin’s concentration of power in his own hands merely extended the process that had started under Lenin.

Through his control of the Party organisational machinery, the Orgbureau, Stalin made personal appointments which secured his total control of the Party and ultimately the state.

In 1928 Stalin launched a massive campaign of industrialisation aimed at creating a modern Soviet state.

Stalin wanted to build up the country’s defensive strength and overcome food shortages and economic stagnation.

Through a series of five-year plans the Soviet Union’s economy was revolutionised.

Within a decade it had become the world’s second largest economic power.
The Soviet State under Stalin 2

- To provide capital for industrialisation, agriculture was collectivised.
- Private peasant ownership was replaced with collective and state farms.
- The aim was to:
  - increase output
  - export surpluses
  - earn the capital for modernisation.

- Though achievements were great, the cost was high: living conditions plummeted and the USSR was plunged into a state of virtual civil war.

- Cultural life was overhauled under Stalin:
  - No music, art, literature or newspaper output was allowed unless it was in accordance with Stalinist thinking.
  - Writers even tried to copy Stalin’s style of writing.
Under Stalin a complex secret police system developed.

The Cheka was formed in 1917 and evolved through various stages into the NKVD by the late 1930s.

The secret police used informants, arrests and torture to deal not only with alleged opponents of the regime but also potential centres of opposition to Stalin’s power within the party.

Nobody was safe: Stalin made this clear when former secret police chiefs Yagoda and Yezhov were arrested.

Stalin established a system of labour/concentration camps based in the Arctic and Siberia. This was the GULAG, or Main Administration of Corrective Labour Camps.

Millions of Soviet citizens were sent to the camps and many died after enduring forced labour.
RUSSIA AND THE SOVIET UNION 1917-1941

Soviet foreign policy 1

- Soviet foreign policy sought normal state-to-state relations, as seen in the establishment of diplomatic relations with many countries and entry into the League of Nations.
- Yet it also promoted revolution in these same countries through the activities of the Comintern (Communist International).
- During the depression Stalin believed revolution was imminent in the West and ordered Western communist parties to seek this end and not cooperate with parties against fascism.
- This had disastrous consequences in Germany and was a key factor leading to Hitler’s success.
- The Nazi threat changed this policy: Stalin sought Western military cooperation.
- Stalin tried to forge military alliances with the West and encouraged communist parties to join popular front governments.
Soviet foreign policy 2

- The West was lukewarm to Stalin’s overtures which led to the signing of a non-aggression pact with Germany in August 1939.
- Ideological differences caused Stalin to view Britain and France with suspicion.
- However, he made several attempts to establish diplomatic relations with western nations.
- Stalin labelled the League of Nations the ‘organisational centre of imperialist pacifism’.
- In turn the West viewed Bolshevism as a kind of cultural disease and the existence of the Comintern as evidence of the USSR’s attempts to undermine democracy.

See Excel Year 12 Modern History p. 78
The USA in the aftermath of World War 1 and politics in the 1920s 1

- **Involvement in the First World War** forced the USA to consider its place in the world.
- The war brought about fundamental changes to society and government, yet many Americans longed to return to ‘normalcy’.
- This meant limiting involvement in foreign affairs and finding comfort in the familiar.
- After years of high government spending, the Republican Government’s aim was to bring the budget under control to steer the economy into recovery.
The USA in the aftermath of World War 1 and politics in the 1920s

- The Wall Street Stock Exchange crashed in October 1929.
- The share index fell from 275 to 58 in three years, resulting in economic depression.
- The causes of the Great Depression were deep rooted:
  - Overproduction in the 1920s and an unequal distribution of income led to market saturation.
  - Mass production techniques had made possible the production of more goods at lower prices.
- However, income remained concentrated in fewer and fewer hands, a situation assisted by Republican economic policies.
- As goods could not be sold, employers laid off workers to join the already two million unemployed long before 1929.
By 1933, 15 million people were unemployed and probably as many underemployed.

With little social welfare, the unemployed had to resort to charity.

Mortgages and rents could not be paid which led to evictions and the creation of shanty towns known as ‘Hoovervilles’.

Men who only a few years earlier had fought for their country now faced the humiliation of not being able to feed their families.

For some the psychological impact resulted in suicide.

Women were often left to keep the family together as men went on the road seeking work.
USA 1919–1941

US society 1919–1941

➔ Black Americans suffered the most, always being the first to be fired and the last to be hired.
➔ The suffering of rural Americans worsened during the Depression as dustbowl conditions in states such as Kansas and Oklahoma destroyed livelihoods.
➔ President Hoover’s policies allowed government spending and borrowing to rise.
➔ His administration ran up a huge deficit in a bid to reinflate the economy.
➔ Hoover’s economic policies helped farmers, businesses, workers and the banking system.
Reacting to the ultimate failure of Hoover’s administration to slow down the effects of the Depression, the American public voted overwhelmingly in favour of the Democratic promise of a ‘new deal’ and a new president in Franklin D Roosevelt.

The first New Deal focused on improving the USA’s business and agricultural communities and most of the changes were implemented within the first three months of Roosevelt’s Presidency.

The New Deal didn’t end the Depression: unemployment figures were still at eight million in 1938.

However, it provided a nation with hope and for all its state interventionist policies, the free-enterprise nature of American capitalism remained.
The US survived the Depression with its democracy intact while other nations ended up with dictatorships.

In the 1920s many people moved from farms to cities as a result of the collapse of farm incomes.

This move towards urbanisation was mirrored in other parts of the world.

Between 1921 and 1929 industrial output doubled as the economy experienced another period of industrial and technical change.
Coolidge’s presidency brought growing prosperity.

From 1921 to 1929 there was almost a hundredfold increase in national income.

Mass consumption, promoted by clever advertising, brought about fundamental changes in the way Americans lived and worked.

By 1930 most urban homes had luxuries like electric lighting, a telephone and an electric stove.

1920s America was a conservative, nationalistic place where bigotry and intolerance thrived.

The US sought a return to traditional white, protestant Anglo-Saxon values of 19th century rural, god-fearing America.
Immigrants were seen as a threat to the American way.

This led to severe immigration restrictions, e.g. the Johnson Act 1924, which banned Asian immigration.

Religious fundamentalism spread during the inter-war period.

This was in part a desire to return to a purer, earlier time but also a reaction to the crass materialism of the 1920s.

Conservative values were clearly seen in the introduction of prohibition in 1919.

Alcohol was seen as a city problem caused by immigrants, particularly groups like the Irish Catholics, who were destroying the values of 19th-century America.
Mitchell Palmer, Woodrow Wilson’s Attorney-General, was a powerful and forceful advocate of anti-communism.

He wanted to ensure that the USA was clear of communist influence.

The popular belief of the time that communism was behind the trade union movement led to an increase in anti-unionism.

The coming of war was the most significant reason for the lifting of the Depression era in the USA.

US businesses played a key role in mobilising the US economy for war.

Industry ramped up war production, funded by government through large military contracts.

This provided millions of new jobs and higher incomes than had been available during the Great Depression.
US foreign policy

» US foreign policy after World War I was isolationist.

» The US sought to avoid overseas entanglements while still maintaining its Western Hemisphere dominance.

» This was a return to traditional 19th-century foreign policy objectives.

» The US rejected the Treaty of Versailles and never joined the League of Nations.

» Isolationist feeling strengthened in the 1930s due to preoccupation with the Depression and the publication of the Nye Report, suggesting the US entered the war for base economic motives.

» This culminated in the Neutrality Acts 1935–37.

» The US did get involved in international economic affairs, as seen in the 1924 Dawes Plan, and in disarmament matters, as seen in the 1922 Washington Conference.

» The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor finally ended US isolationism and brought the country into World War II.
Winston Churchill and Joseph Stalin announced that their two nations would jointly occupy Iran for the duration of the Second World War.

In January 1942 Britain, Persia and the Soviet Union concluded a treaty whereby the two powers agreed to respect the territorial integrity of Iran.

In September 1943 Iran declared war on the Axis powers.

Vast quantities of Allied aid flowed north to the Soviet Union on the newly improved road and rail systems.

The British war effort also relied heavily on energy supplied by the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company.
The Soviet Union’s influence over Iran continued with their support of the left-wing Tudeh (Workers’) Party and their encouragement of insurgency in other minority parties.

The Soviet Union had a strategic interest in the country as well as an economic interest as it wanted oil concessions.

During the late 1940s, the US government supported Mohammed Reza Pahlavi as an important partner in the informal anti-Soviet alliance emerging in the Middle East.

During the period of the Cold War Iran’s relationship with the Soviet Union changed, with the Shah of Iran working with the USA and Britain to restrict the power and influence of the Soviet Union in Iran.
In October 1949 Muhammad Mosaddeq founded the National Front, a broad coalition that included both middle-class moderates as well as activists from the Tudeh Party.

Mosaddeq was a critic of the reigning dynasty and insisted that Iran had a right to control its own oil industry.

In May 1951 Mosaddeq became Prime Minister and announced plans to take control of the country’s oil fields and refineries from Britain.

Intelligence agencies in Britain and the USA wanted to overthrow Mosaddeq and were quite willing to intervene in the internal affairs of Iran or any other nation vulnerable to Soviet subversion.
The rule of the Shah of Iran 1953–1979

The government of Mohammed Reza Shah Pahlavi initially allowed parliament to exercise power and hold elections, although electoral corruption was endemic.

He increased his political power by convening the Iran Constituent Assembly in 1949, which finally formed the Senate of Iran.

Under his rule the Prime Minister introduced a package of reforms built on the Shah’s earlier land distribution program known as the White Revolution, an aggressive campaign of social and economic Westernisation.

In mid-1973 the Shah returned the oil industry to national control.
The rule of the Shah of Iran 1953–1979

- **Following the Arab-Israeli War of October 1973** Iran did not join the Arab oil embargo against the West and Israel.
- **Instead it used the situation to raise oil prices**, using the money gained for modernisation and to increase defence spending.
- **Under the Shah the SAVAK was blamed for** the torture and murder of thousands of political prisoners and the violent suppression of dissent.
- **The Shah:**
  - banned the Tudeh
  - suppressed the National Front and other parties
  - muzzled the press
  - progressively strengthened the horribly brutal SAVAK.
The Iranian revolution was driven by a number of factors including the fact that many Iranians:
- did not like the secular state imposed on them
- felt that the Shah had become a puppet of the west
- felt that the country’s oil wealth only benefited a few.

The revolution actually began with the first major demonstrations in January 1978 and ended with the approval of the new theocratic constitution.

At this point, in December 1979, Ayatollah Khomeini became Supreme Leader of the country.

In January 1978 police opened fire on unarmed demonstrators.

As protests against the Shah continued he declared martial law.
The Revolution of 1979

- In September 1978 the middle classes joined the revolt against the Shah and another huge massacre took place.
- This provoked a strike by oil workers, the key event that finally brought down the Shah.
- The Shah fled Iran for exile in Egypt, where he died in July 1980.
- Ayatollah Khomeini returned to Tehran after being exiled to France.
- Several million Iranians greeted him as the symbolic ‘leader of the opposition’ and he encouraged the growing revolt against the government and authorities.
- On 1 April 1979 Iran was officially proclaimed an Islamic Republic when Iranians overwhelmingly approved a national referendum and renamed the country the Islamic Republic of Iran.
Iran under Khomeini 1979–1989

- Khomeini served as leader of the revolution or Supreme Leader of Iran from 1979 to his death on 3 June 1989.
- At first Khomeini moved with caution, carefully managing a coalition of left-wingers, Islamists, intellectuals, nationalists and liberals.
- The next decade was dominated by the consolidation of the revolution into a theocratic republic under Khomeini, and by the costly and bloody war with Iraq.
- On 4 November 1979 thousands of Iranian Islamic students stormed the US embassy, taking 66 people hostage, the majority of them Americans. They demanded the return of the Shah from the USA in order to put him on trial.
- The students were surprised when Khomeini and the Islamic Revolutionary Republic threw its weight behind them.
- The hostage situation ignited a crisis between the United States and Iran, and in April 1980 Iran and the USA severed diplomatic ties over the crisis.
In the early 1970s Iran was one of the biggest power players in the Middle East but there was growing tension with its neighbour Iraq over territory in the mouth of the Persian Gulf.

Saddam Hussein, the ruler of Iraq, wanted to reclaim territories and have greater access to the area’s wealth of oil resources.

As well as fighting an external war, there was growing unrest in Iran.

Starting on 19 July 1988, and lasting about five months, the government systematically executed thousands of political prisoners across Iran.

In the years following the death of Khomeini, differences over economic policy and ideology fed growing discontent and disillusionment.
Decolonisation in Indochina 1

➤ The Vietnamese were resentful of the French occupation of Vietnam.

➤ France had not helped Vietnam rebuild after the Japanese occupation.

➤ War broke out when French forces bombarded a Northern Vietnamese port and the following month Viet Minh troops attacked French troops in Hanoi.

➤ The Vietnamese were victorious against the French for a number of reasons, including:
  ▪ their strong motivation in fighting for their country’s independence
  ▪ better mobility than their opponent
  ▪ the aid they received from communist China.
On 8 May 1954, the day after the French defeat at Dien Bien Phu, the Geneva Peace Talks commenced.

In the aftermath of defeat, the French lacked the will or the capability to impose terms and conditions.

In the north the lull in fighting after the Geneva accord allowed Ho Chi Minh to consolidate his hold on the North and concentrate on social and economic issues, much needed after years of war in the region.

The threat of persecution under communist rule prompted 900,000 Vietnamese Catholics to flee south.

Land was redistributed by the new regime to try to make the region more self-sufficient, a goal which it gradually achieved.
As part of the Geneva agreement of 1955 the VPLA were ordered back across the 17th parallel although some stayed behind and set about destabilising the regime in South Vietnam.

These forces formed the National Liberation Front of South Vietnam, commonly known as the Viet Cong (VC).

The Viet Cong fought a guerrilla war, gaining support and members due to the general unhappiness in the South with the repressive rule of Diem.

In the south of Vietnam in 1955 a referendum replaced the emperor with President Ngo Dinh Diem.

Diem was nationalist and anti-communist.

The US saw him as a reliable ally and poured in thousands of military ‘advisors’ and millions of dollars in support.
Diem’s regime began to develop totalitarian features:
- It had a secret police.
- It used torture.
- It allowed no political opposition.

Diem trusted only his close family and the government became riddled with nepotism.

His key advisor was his brother Nhu, who ran the security forces.

Diem’s heavy-handedness led to growing opposition from students, peasants and Buddhists, whose self-immolation protests caught worldwide attention.

In November 1963 Diem was assassinated, an action sanctioned by the US.
US foreign policy sought the containment of communism.

US support of South Vietnam after 1954 was all about the US preventing another country falling to communism.

The US believed in the ‘domino theory’: if one country fell to communism then others in the region would also fall, ‘like a row of dominoes’.

When China fell to communism many in the US were alarmed as they feared that South-East Asia could also fall to communism as it did in Eastern Europe.

The US had invested much in South Vietnam and wanted to deny the Soviet Union the economic resources of the region.
The Second Indochina War 1

- US prestige was at stake.
- The US felt it had to prove itself and President Johnson said he did not want to be the first American president to lose a war.
- The US and ARVN forces sought to take advantage of the enormous technological and economic advantages it had over the Viet Cong and the NVA.
- The US fought in a conventional style using sophisticated weaponry.
- US forces set out on ‘search and destroy’ missions, to ‘pacify’ an area and then return to base.
- As a result of US personnel being attacked, US bombers began to attack targets in the demilitarised zone on 7 February 1965. This became a sustained campaign that was given the name ‘Operation Rolling Thunder’.
CONFLICT IN INDOCHINA 1954-1979

The Second Indochina War 2

- The US made great use of air power.
- B52 bombers could carpet bomb large areas from 40,000 feet and helicopters gave US/ARVN forces enormous mobility.
- The US also made use of chemical weapons, such as:
  - napalm, a form of liquid petroleum which could incinerate entire villages
  - Agent Orange, an insecticide which destroyed jungle vegetation and exposed the VC on the ground.
- The North Vietnamese Army (NVA):
  - enlisted, armed and trained a guerrilla force
  - set up bases
  - created an intelligence network
  - conducted acts of terrorism and sabotage against the forces of Diem.
The Tet offensive began on 30 January 1968 when 36 major South Vietnamese cities and towns were attacked.

While the offensive set out to destroy America’s will to fight and encourage an insurgency in the south, it was not a complete success.

It did, however, convince many in the US that the insurgency in the south could not be crushed.

The lives of many Vietnamese civilians would be changed forever as a result of the war.

The major impacts of the war included:

- significant numbers of deaths and injuries
- psychological harm
- displacement.
In 1965 most Americans backed the war in Vietnam, believing that the spread of communism had to be contained.

Anti-war feeling grew in America and Australia for the following reasons:

- failure to achieve a quick victory
- the scenes on TV of death and destruction
- the perceived futility of the war
- the increasing US and Australian casualties
- the impact of the Tet Offensive.

There was also a growing feeling that the government had been lying to its people.
CONFLICT IN INDOCHINA 1954-1979

The Second Indochina War 5

- Black Americans were angry at the overrepresentation of their people in Vietnam.
- Americans and Australians began to question their presence in Vietnam and the morality of what they were doing.
- In the US there were early protests by small-scale pacifist and religious groups.
- By 1968 protests had become violent, as seen at the Democratic Convention in Chicago.
- By 1969 there were mass peaceful protests, culminating in the Moratorium Movement in Australia.
- The incoming President Nixon’s campaign was based on a promise to withdraw troops from Vietnam.
- There was also increasing pressure to restore law and order on the home front.
The Second Indochina War 6

- In October 1974 Congress made deep cuts to US military aid to South Vietnam and the ability of the ARVN to resist the North was badly affected.

- Without fear of US intervention the North Vietnamese advanced on the South.

- There were many reasons for the Communist victory. These included:
  - their commitment to fight for as long as it took to reunify Vietnam
  - the material support received from China and the Soviet Union
  - the inability of US forces to sustain a war of attrition.
The conflict in Indochina spread to Cambodia and Laos.

Cambodian leader Prince Sihanouk tried to stay neutral in the conflict in Vietnam.

By 1969 Viet Cong forces had bases in eastern Cambodia and Sihanouk suspected them of assisting his communist enemies.

Sihanouk allowed US forces to secretly bomb them.

US and ARVN troops had been secretly entering Cambodia to destroy North Vietnamese sanctuaries and staging areas. From 29 April to 30 June 1970 there were ground attacks in Cambodia in which 15 000 US and 5000 ARVN troops tried to weed out Viet Cong who had taken sanctuary there.

In March 1970 Sihanouk was overthrown by the pro-US Lon Nol.

In May US/ARVN forces invaded Cambodia in pursuit of the Viet Cong and the VC went deeper into Cambodia.
CONFLICT IN INDOCHINA 1954–1979

The spread of the conflict to Cambodia and Laos 2

➔ Cambodian–Vietnamese conflict broke out with savage fighting on both sides.

➔ By 1973 the VC were out of the country but the conflict had stimulated the growth of the communist Khmer Rouge.

➔ In 1973 the US launched huge bombing campaigns against Khmer Rouge positions.

➔ The withdrawal of the US from South-East Asia left Lon Nol’s regime helpless.

➔ In April the Khmer Rouge completed their takeover of the country with the capture of Phnom Penh.
The Khmer Rouge was a radical communist movement that ruled Cambodia from 1975 to 1979.

It was led by an obsessive and secretive elite of intellectuals who had taken power through a guerrilla war.

The leaders of the Khmer Rouge wanted to create a socialist, peasant society of agricultural workers.

Over the next four years their horribly brutal rule resulted in the death of over 1.5 million Cambodians.

The country’s professional and technical class was virtually exterminated.

After gaining independence from France there were regular clashes over the years between the royal forces and communist insurgents in Laos.

Soon after the fall to communist forces of South Vietnam and Cambodia, in 1975 Laos met the same fate.
Growth of Pacific tensions 1

- Towards the end of the 19th century growing awareness of Japan’s military and industrial power led the country’s leaders to extend its influence by expanding its empire.
- Over a long period of time Japan sought to expand its imperialist ambitions in the Pacific.
- At the same time the USA was also emerging as a force to be reckoned with.
- The US continued to expand its power and influence in the area.
- Japan’s desire to expand its territories was a driving force behind its foreign policy in the lead-up to World War Two.
- Japan’s invasion of Indochina and its war with China reflected this expansionism.
CONFLICT IN THE PACIFIC 1937-1951

Growth of Pacific tensions 2

➔ After World War I and working closely with Great Britain, the USA pushed for more of a neutral and isolationist approach.

➔ With Japan’s invasion of Indochina Great Britain imposed economic sanctions but did not take it any further so as not to further antagonise Japan.

➔ Japanese forces attacked Pearl Harbor for a number of reasons. Japan felt that:
  ▪ the USA was Japan’s only real threat to expansion in the Pacific
  ▪ the destruction of the US Pacific fleet would cripple the USA’s ability to respond to increasing Japanese expansionism in the Pacific
  ▪ it would highlight the vulnerability of the west to attack.

➔ The attack on Pearl Harbor was largely responsible for drawing the United States into the theatre of war.
CONFLICT IN THE PACIFIC 1937–1951

The outbreak and course of the Pacific War

- **With the Japanese advancing** further in the Pacific and the fall of the Philippines, Singapore, Burma and the Dutch East Indies, the Allies realised the dire need to pour resources into the war in the Pacific.

- **Britain’s loss in Singapore was a complete humiliation**, especially because Singapore was supposed to be ‘impregnable’ and the British were defeated by a numerically inferior force.

- **To strengthen their position in the South Pacific**, Japanese forces landed on the Solomon Islands.

- **A second invasion force** sailed towards Port Moresby in New Guinea.

- **Japan’s aim** was to gain full control over the Coral Sea; this conflict later became known as the Battle of the Coral Sea.
The outbreak and course of the Pacific War 2

- **The Battle of Midway** was fought from 4–7 June 1942.
- **Plans were made by the Japanese** to capture Midway Island, north-west of Hawaii.
- **This was to be used as a base** to block further US activity in the Pacific.
- **A Japanese Admiral had plans to draw US forces away from the area** by launching a trick manoeuvre in the Aleutian Islands and later by sending a midget sub into Sydney Harbour. The US code breakers became aware of the plan and this allowed the US Navy to concentrate its forces at suspected points of attack.
- **The battle was not a success for Japan**: the cumulative attrition of Midway, combined with the inconclusive Battle of the Coral Sea, reduced Japan’s ability to wage major offensives.
The outbreak and course of the Pacific War 3

In May 1942 Japanese construction troops landed unopposed on the southern island of Guadalcanal.

Their aim was to build an airstrip from which they could launch attacks on the French colony in New Caledonia and Allied shipping moving between the US and Australia.

Despite eventual defeat at Guadalcanal, Japanese forces proved difficult to drive out of New Guinea and the campaign turned into a war of attrition.

This was the first breach by the allies of the perimeter that the Japanese had established months before. Capturing and declaring the island secure gave the Allies renewed confidence.
CONFLICT IN THE PACIFIC 1937–1951

The outbreak and course of the Pacific War

- Allied forces had to take a strategic approach in the fight against Japan as resources were focused on the war in Europe:
  - Only islands seen as being strategically important were targeted.
  - Bombing became an important way to help troops on the ground.
  - Intelligence was used effectively
  - The use of naval blockades was also successful.

- The Japanese were unaware of the ability of US intelligence to decipher Japanese codes. Details released by Japanese personnel were soon discovered by a US Admiral and a decision was made to seek revenge for Pearl Harbor.
Civilians at war 1

**Civilians in Japanese-occupied territories in South-East Asia were deeply affected by:**
- Japanese repression of civilians took many forms, including:
  - enslavement and abuse of all kinds, such as work gangs and sexual slavery
  - the use of torture and massacres.

**Many people on the Japanese home front were hugely affected by the war:**
- Censorship was heavy handed.
- The economy was focused on the war effort.
- Police agencies in Japan wielded enormous power and were widely feared.
- Women and children were expected to contribute to the war effort.
On 27 December 1941 Prime Minister Curtin issued a statement saying that Australia was now wholly dependent on the USA for protection. Turning away from Britain was a dramatic point in Australia’s foreign relations.

With the fall of Singapore and the bombing of Darwin, Australia’s involvement in the war became all too real.

Citizens in Australia were either directly or indirectly affected by the war:

- Censorship was seen as essential.
- Propaganda was disseminated.
- Austerity was encouraged and enforced.
- Bomb shelters were built.
End of the conflict

- The US decided to use the A-bomb for the following reasons:
  - The Japanese were not a spent force.
  - The US believed that there needed to be decisive action that would bomb the Japanese into submission and ensure a quick victory.

- There were a number of reasons for the Japanese defeat. Japan:
  - underestimated the US reaction to Pearl Harbor
  - failed to use radar technology
  - possessed a much smaller supply of raw materials
  - had a weaker industrial base
  - had a smaller population.
The Tokyo War Crimes Tribunals commenced on 29 April 1946 as Allied authorities were determined to prosecute those responsible for atrocities against civilians and POWs.

The Emperor was not tried but most Allied leaders believed he bore significant responsibility for the events leading up to the war in the Pacific and for the conduct of the war itself.

From 1945 to 1948 the priority was to:
- demilitarise Japan
- purge militarists
- impose reforms that would create a democracy.

Troops at home and abroad were disarmed and repatriated.

The Allies imposed the following conditions on the defeated nation:
- Land reforms
- Economic reforms
- Constitutional reforms.
CONFLICT IN EUROPE 1935–1945

Growth of European tensions 1

➡️ The overall purpose of the League of Nations was to prevent disputes from ending in war.

➡️ One major test for the League during the mid-1930s was Italy’s invasion of Abyssinia (Ethiopia), situated in the Horn of Africa.

➡️ The invasion and occupation ended the country’s independence and it became part of Italy’s empire under Mussolini.

➡️ This was a spectacular failure for the League of Nations.

➡️ The Spanish Civil War was another significant event in European affairs and was a mortal blow to the integrity of the League.

➡️ From July 1936 to March 1939 the country was involved in a bloody civil war between supporters of the legitimate and elected left-wing Republican government and a coalition of Nationalists including the Fascist Falange, Catholics, monarchists and the army.
CONFLICT IN EUROPE 1935–1945

Growth of European tensions 2

- The policy of appeasement, which basically involves inaction so as not to provoke an aggressor, was applied by Britain and France in the lead-up to World War Two.

- Britain was seen by many as capitulating to Germany’s demands, giving Germany increased power and confidence.

- Britain and her allies were seen as weak bystanders.

- Another contributory factor to increasing tensions in Europe was the Nazi-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact. This:
  - secured territory for both Russia and Germany
  - ensured Russia’s neutrality in the event of a war and allowed Russia time for rearmament.
German foreign policy 1

- German foreign policy was a major contributor to the outbreak of World War Two.
- When Hitler came to power he set his sights on rearmament in order to rebuild Germany into a force on the world stage once again.
- Hitler saw a need to reunite German people and German territory to make Germany strong once again.
- Hitler’s aggressive foreign policy and the allies’ reactions and inaction towards it steered the course of the European war.
The influence of Nazi ideology on foreign policy fused with the economic interests of the Nazi state, so that it is almost impossible to know where one began and the other ended.

Hitler’s ideology encouraged the German Army, which was intent on rearmament and expansionism abroad.

It also encouraged:

- the German Foreign Ministry, which was anxious to overturn the European order
- German industrialists, who saw economic opportunities, markets and profits created by military conquest
- the Nazi faithful, who wanted to restore Germany’s might and glory.
Course of the European war 1

- Germany lacked resources to fight a prolonged war.
- In September 1939 Hitler and his commanders planned to defeat Poland and its inferior armed forces before British and French armies could intervene.
- In early April 1940 Germany invaded Norway and Denmark.
- This was the precursor to an all-out attack on France, the Netherlands and Belgium, otherwise known as the Low Countries.
- In late July 1940, the Battle of Britain began with the Luftwaffe bombing ports and shipping.
- From 13 August the attack was switched to airfields and aircraft factories.
- The attacks were then concentrated on non-essential targets, such as factories and the city of London.
- The bombing of cities became known as ‘The Blitz’.
- The allies retaliated by bombing German cities.
- Some of the most destructive raids obliterated the historic cities of Cologne, Hamburg and Dresden.
On 18 December 1940 Hitler issued the secret ‘Direction 21’, Operation Barbarossa, for the invasion of the Soviet Union.

The Battle of Stalingrad was launched on 28 June 1942 and its initial success exceeded even the Führer’s expectations.

About 90% of Stalingrad had been captured when stubborn Soviet resistance halted the German advance.

On 2 February German troops laid down their arms and were finally defeated by Russian forces.

The numerous battles with Russian forces and the extreme conditions had weakened and drained the German army.

The battle to hold the line against German forces in the area of El Alamein had enormous implications for the war in the Mediterranean.

A victory in North Africa meant the allies had a secure base from which to invade Southern Europe.
CONFLICT IN EUROPE 1935–1945

Civilians at war

- **Conscription was introduced in Britain** and citizens were also affected by rationing, censorship and propaganda.
- **In Britain, Germany and the Soviet Union** battles and bombing occurred on home soil.
- **Citizens were deeply affected** as more resources were poured into the war effort.
- **Throughout the war the Nazis organised the mass murder** of Jews, Slavs and Eastern European gypsies.
- **The full details were known by only a few Nazi bureaucrats**, who referred to it as the ‘Final Solution’.
- **D Day, the invasion of Northern France by the Allies**, was a huge feat of military planning and engineering.
- **Great secrecy underscored the preparations** and, on several fronts, the German army was taken by surprise.
End of the conflict

- On Christmas Eve 1943 Russian forces attacked German forces, regaining lost territory.
- On 12 January 1945 a major Soviet offensive under the command of Marshal Zhukov demolished the entire German front in central Poland, cutting off East Prussia from the Reich.
- By mid-April 1945 it became apparent to Hitler that Allied and Soviet armies would split Germany in two.
- Thirteen separate trials of war criminals were held in Nuremberg between 1945 and 1947. These trials were presided over by judges from all four major Allied powers: the US, Britain, France and the Soviet Union.
The Cold War 1945-1991

Origins of the Cold War 1945–1953

- In the conferences that followed World War Two, the USA and Russia collaborated in order to discuss postwar Europe. Despite relatively friendly relations, mutual suspicions grew.

- Stalin was under the impression that his goals would be fulfilled during the conferences and, as this began to appear unlikely, suspicions and tensions grew.

- Many differences began to emerge between the two superpowers.

- Russia continued to hold resentment towards the Allies during World War Two as they bore the brunt of Nazi forces and were severely depleted.

- Truman took a hard line as he had been suspicious of the Soviet Union for a number of years.
Stalin’s desire to establish ‘defensible’ borders and Soviet expansion into central and eastern Europe became a deep concern for the USA.

When the Soviet Union delayed the return of American prisoners of war that they had liberated the USA began to understand that they were being held hostage, which created further antagonism.

The Truman Doctrine, named after President Harry S Truman, established that the US would provide political, military and economic assistance to any democratic nations under threat from external or internal authoritarian forces.

Winston Churchill stated in 1946 that Europe was divided by an ‘iron curtain’.

In 1947 President Truman introduced the Truman Doctrine of ‘containment’, the policy of the US to prevent the spread of communism.
In 1948 Stalin blockaded Berlin, cutting off West Berlin.

An 11-month airlift kept West Berlin alive until Stalin eventually ended the blockade.

Containment had prevented the loss of West Berlin to communism.

In 1949 China became a communist country with the victory of Mao Zedong.

After 1945 Korea was divided at the 38th parallel into communist North Korea and non-communist South Korea.

In June 1950 the North invaded the South and an American-led UN force pushed communist North Korea back.

The Korean War finally ended in 1953 with Korea still divided at the 38th parallel.
The policy of containment was a response to the growing moves to increase communist influence in Eastern Europe, China, Korea, Africa and Vietnam.

The domino theory held that if one country in a region came under the influence of communism, then the surrounding countries would fall.

Following the death of Stalin in 1953, the Soviet leadership considered the possibility of peaceful coexistence.

For a while it seemed that relations between the western world, particularly between the United States and NATO countries and the nations of the Warsaw Pact, might improve.
In 1959 revolution brought Castro to power in Cuba, ending decades of US domination.

A failed US-backed invasion by Cuban exiles at the Bay of Pigs in 1961 pushed Castro towards the Soviet Union.

In 1962 U2 spy planes discovered Soviet missiles on Cuba.

US President Kennedy blockaded Cuba and ordered the Soviets to remove the missiles.

The world came close to nuclear war.

The crisis ended with Khrushchev removing the missiles and the US promising not to invade Cuba.

In 1968 the Soviet Union invaded Czechoslovakia to bring down the reform-minded government.

This action became part of the Brezhnev doctrine, a Truman Doctrine in reverse.
West Berlin lay inside East Germany, allowing disgruntled citizens from the communist East an easy way to defect.

When Khrushchev proposed new ways of administering Berlin, the number defecting escalated.

On 13 August Soviet and East German police placed barbed wire along the border between East and West Berlin.

It was subsequently backed up by a wall, guard posts and minefields, and extended to 120 km to completely encircle West Berlin.

The late 1940s and 50s witnessed a race to achieve supremacy in firepower and in the skies beyond.

The arms race and the space race were closely related. Both would prove to be an enormous financial strain for the USA and the Soviet Union.
Détente 1

➡️ **Détente** was a term given to the periods of time when the Soviet Union and the USA coexisted somewhat peacefully and there were attempts at a working arrangement between the two sides.

**Both sides:**
- were reluctant to begin a war
- were looking to build relations
- wanted to put a halt to the excessive spending on arms, which was negatively affecting their economies.

➡️ **At various points** there was also pressure from citizens to look for ways to cooperate with each other.

➡️ **During 1962 international events** caused the final split between the Soviet Union and China.
Détente 2

- The split between the two former communist allies was of great concern to the Soviet Union in particular.
- It believed the rift would encourage China to look to the US as an ally and so create a Sino-American alliance.
- The Middle East was important for strategic, economic, religious and ethnic reasons.
- Despite détente in the 1970s, superpower rivalry overshadowed attempts to solve the problem due to the competing interests of Israel and its Arab neighbours.
- The conflict in Vietnam was another example of competing superpower ambitions.
- Like the Middle East during the years of détente, Vietnam remained a battleground of conflicting ideologies.
Renewal and end of the Cold War 1

- The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 saw an end to the period of détente.
- Reagan’s aggressive ‘New Cold War’ policies confronted Soviet ambitions.
- Reagan publicly condemned the Soviet Union’s ideologies and it was his belief that communism would soon come to an end.
- His new approach involved countering Soviet influence in places like Angola and Afghanistan by supporting indigenous rebels.
- The President announced the ‘Strategic Defence Initiative’ (SDI, otherwise known as ‘Star Wars’) which stepped up the arms race.
- At first the behaviour of the new Soviet leader Gorbachev continued in the same way as previous Soviet leaders.
- Despite his initial hardline stance on assuming the leadership, Gorbachev’s pacifist intentions were evident to careful observers.
Renewal and end of the Cold War 2

- Gorbachev needed to encourage domestic economic development so he attempted to relieve the financial pressure on the Soviet Union caused by the spiralling arms race.

- His policies of Glasnost and Perestroika were about openness to negotiations with the US and restructuring the economy.

- Reagan and Gorbachev met several times in order to work towards disarmament.

- One example was the 1987 INF Treaty, which for the first time actually reduced the number of nuclear warheads rather than just limiting the extent of their growth.

- In 1991 Bush and Gorbachev signed the START 1 Treaty which further reduced missile numbers.

- When the Soviet economy began to collapse many people believed this brought about the collapse of the Soviet Union and the eventual end of communism.

- As world trade increased, the Soviets fell even further behind. During 1990 Soviet economists laid plans to introduce a ‘semi-free’ market economy.
The position of African Americans at the start of the period

- **Prior to World War Two** African Americans faced an array of mistreatment at the hands of some white Americans including lynching, segregation and discrimination.

- **When the USA entered World War Two**, African Americans saw the contradiction in fighting for democratic rights on foreign soil while their own were being denied at home.

- **When serving in the defence forces** they encountered a huge gap in pay and conditions between white and black Americans.

- **African Americans were segregated from the rest of society**, forming their own church and school communities.

- **Discrimination** ranged from a lack of equal access to employment and education to outright violence and terror.
CIVIL RIGHTS IN THE USA 1945-1968

Struggles for civil rights 1

- Over time groups emerged whose purpose was to support civil rights and fight for change.
- One such group was the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC).
- The SCLC encouraged non-violent resistance and attempted to redress injustice and discrimination against African Americans.
- Martin Luther King Jr was a key individual who was able to achieve change for African Americans.
- Dr King believed in using peaceful means to redress social ills.
- As a talented orator he became a spokesperson for the Montgomery Bus Boycott.
The civil rights movement employed a number of methods including the boycott of institutions involved in discrimination against African Americans.

Many agitated for political change and were also involved in direct action such as sit-ins.

From 1960 to 1965 Malcolm X became a leading voice in the civil rights movement. He had huge influence as:
- orator
- organiser
- religious reformer
- inspirational figure.

Malcolm X gave African Americans a voice and was highly significant in the advancement of civil rights.
Civil Rights in the USA 1945-1968

Struggles for Civil Rights 3

- The civil rights movement faced opposition in a number of forms:
  - The Ku Klux Klan engaged in intimidation and violent acts against African Americans.
  - The White Citizen’s Council was a network of white supremacist organisations that slowed the process of desegregation and were a major obstacle to the civil rights movement.

- As a reaction to Rosa Parks being arrested for not giving up her seat in a white section of a bus, members of the community came together.

- They arranged the Montgomery Bus Boycott to protest her arrest and the continued segregation on Montgomery’s buses.
Key events of the civil rights movement 1

➡️ On 3 September 1957 Governor Orval Faubus mobilised the Arkansas National Guard in a bid to prevent integration of the school system.

➡️ Nine African-American students wanted to attend a local high school that had formerly been segregated.

➡️ The president ordered the federal takeover of the National Guard and on 25 September 1957 the students, now known as the Little Rock Nine, entered Central High School, an academically renowned school of about 2000 white students.

➡️ The Freedom Rides began on 4 May 1961 when an interracial group of about 1000 student activists left Washington DC by bus to test local compliance throughout the Deep South in two Supreme Court rulings banning segregated accommodation on interstate buses and in bus terminals that served interstate routes.
Key events of the civil rights movement 2

- On 28 August 1963 about 25 000 000 Americans from across the United States converged on Washington, the nation’s capital.

- The March highlighted the need to secure federal legislation banning segregation and racial discrimination and Dr King’s ‘I have a dream’ speech was delivered there.

- In the summer of 1964 hundreds of Northern college students, mostly whites, travelled to Mississippi to help register black voters and encourage participation in the Civil Rights movement.

- On 4 April 1968 Martin Luther King Jr was assassinated by a sniper’s bullet while standing on the second-floor balcony of his room.

- In over one hundred cities across the United States King’s death provoked violent riots in African-American neighbourhoods.
CIVIL RIGHTS IN THE USA 1945-1968

Achievements of the civil rights movement

➤ The Civil Rights Act 1964:
  ▪ outlawed segregation in theatres, restaurants, pools and libraries
  ▪ banned discriminatory practices in employment with the intent of giving African Americans equal access to jobs
  ▪ desegregated schools with the intent of providing African Americans with equal access to education.

➤ The Voting Rights Act 1965 gave African Americans one of their fundamental democratic rights.

➤ The Civil Rights Act 1968 banned discrimination in the rental, sale and finance of housing.

➤ Successive presidents, such as Truman, Kennedy and Johnson, worked towards achieving civil rights for all Americans to varying degrees.

➤ The civil rights movement helped to shape social justice advocacy by providing a clear roadmap for other social justice movements around the world to follow.
The emerging differences and clashes between the two great superpowers of the time, the United States and the Soviet Union, became known as the Cold War.

The US and the USSR had different ideologies and approaches to government and the economy, and both countries were rivals in the arms race and space race.

In 1945 the founders of the United Nations believed that it would act to prevent conflicts between nations and make future wars impossible.

The Cold War years from 1945 to 1991 were a huge challenge for the organisation as they were expected to deal with multiple crises.

The term ‘the American Century’ is used to describe the period after 1945 in which America’s power and dominance over other nations began to emerge.

The division of Germany in 1945 became the centrepiece of ideological tension and conflict between the Soviet Union and the west.

The collapse of the Berlin Wall marked the end of the Cold War.
The collapse of the USSR and the nature of post-Soviet societies

The collapse of the Soviet Union in December 1991, its dissolution and the break-up into successor states that emerged after the 70-year rule of communism, occurred just two years after the fall of the Berlin Wall.

There are many reasons for the collapse. These include:

- the failure of central planning
- the denial of free-market economic forces
- the financial burden of Soviet satellite states
- the failure of the Brezhnev Doctrine (giving aid to regimes in the third world that fit in with Soviet ideology)
- the collapse in oil prices which meant that as an oil producer the Soviet Union was hit hard
- the strain of the arms race and space race on the Soviet economy.
When Mikhail Gorbachev entered office in March 1985 he began to take Soviet foreign policy in a new direction.

Gorbachev was determined to withdraw the Soviet Union from a costly arms race that would bankrupt the country.

Gorbachev abandoned the Brezhnev Doctrine and announced that he would not interfere with the internal affairs of Eastern Europe.

The USSR dissolved in 1991.

This momentous event changed the world’s geopolitical balance and put an end to a superpower with resources that were the equal to more than a dozen countries combined.
The collapse of the USSR and the nature of post-Soviet societies

Vladimir Putin became acting president of the Russian Federation in 1999 and his rule continues today. **Putin:**

- signed into law liberal economic reforms such as a flat income tax of 13%
- reduced profits tax
- introduced new land and civil codes
- moved quickly to remove power from Russian oligarchs
- returned to the policy of expansionism of the former Soviet Union
- **Putin has consistently made decisions to further consolidate his power.** For example, in 2004 he signed a law allowing the president to appoint regional governors.
The US has been present on the world stage continuously since the end of the Second World War.

Regardless of the political party in office at the time, the US has chosen to exercise its power overseas using both ‘soft’ and ‘hard’ power.

Following the 9/11 attack in 2001, American foreign policy became strongly interventionist.

There have been foreign policy disputes, including:

- with Russia over independence movements in Ukraine and Georgia
- with China over disputed territorial claims to islands in the South China Sea
- with Saddam Hussein’s Iraq in two Gulf Wars
- in the Middle East over the Israeli-Palestinian conflict
- attempts to promote regime change in Egypt, Libya and Syria during the ‘Arab Spring’ which led to the rise of militant Islam.
The USA had both supporters and opponents of its foreign policy in Europe, Asia and the Middle East.

One of the USA’s most powerful alliances is the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO).

The organisation grew out of America’s post-war Marshall Plan.

The Marshall Plan helped to rebuild war-torn Europe and thereby create stable and secure political and economic conditions for growth.

NATO is the largest and most powerful military alliance in history.

Its core principle is mutual defence against possible invasion and has largely kept the peace in Europe since the end of the Second World War.

Following the invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq, terrorist threats have increased.
The European Union was established to achieve a united and peaceful Europe that would strengthen and prosper from a union of its member nations. One of its goals was to prevent violent conflicts on the European continent.

Another important centre for global power is BRIC, an acronym for the economies of Brazil, Russia, India and China combined.

It’s likely that by 2050 China and India will become the dominant suppliers of manufactured goods and services, respectively.

Brazil and Russia will likely dominate the supply of raw materials.

In recent times nationalism has reappeared, with ethnic rivalries and ambitions leading to a rise in serious conflicts.

Non-state actors have had an increasing influence on the world order as a result of globalisation. These are organisations that bring about change because they are sufficiently powerful to influence international relations.
In the post–Cold War period, the United Nations has been called upon to respond to threats to peace and security. However, its role and influence have been widely debated.

In the six years following the collapse of communism it has been estimated that between 200 and 500 thousand people died in the Bosnian War.

The major powers of Britain, France and the USA were determined to avoid military involvement.

However, under pressure from the global mass media and public opinion they compromised by sending UN peacekeeping troops into a situation where there was no peace to keep.

Unable to protect the local people, the UN force was widely regarded as biased, frightened or plain ineffective.
The birth of the Nuclear Age 1

- **From 17 July to 2 August 1945**, the leaders of Great Britain, the USA and the USSR met in Potsdam near Berlin.
- **They were Joseph Stalin, Winston Churchill** (replaced on 26 July by his successor as Prime Minister, Clement Attlee) and **Harry Truman**.
- **Many issues came to the fore at Potsdam** and they went beyond what to do with Germany.
- **From the outset the Allied leaders** failed to reach consensus about postwar reconstruction on the European continent.
- **The Soviet Union wanted huge reparations** from Germany, whereas Britain, France and the USA wanted to limit them.
The birth of the Nuclear Age 2

- The Manhattan Project was a secret US military project, starting in June 1942, to develop an atomic bomb.
- It was a race to beat the Germans who, according to intelligence reports, were building their own atomic bomb.
- A test site in New Mexico, called ‘Trinity’, was chosen because of its remoteness.
- America’s decision to drop bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki changed not only the course of the war, but also the course of the world forever.
- Secrecy prevents people from knowing how many nuclear weapons there are in the world.
- However, it is an established fact that the US and Russia have enough nuclear weapons to destroy the world many times over.
The first use of atomic weapons and nuclear deterrence

- In Hiroshima 237,000 people were killed by the bomb’s effects, with an estimated further 90,000–166,000 dying in the four-month period after the bomb.

- The city of Hiroshima was completely annihilated.

- In Nagasaki between 40,000 and 75,000 people died immediately following the atomic explosion and another 60,000 people suffered severe injuries.

- It is estimated that the total deaths by the end of 1945 may have reached 80,000.

- The radius of destruction from the atomic bomb was approximately one mile.

- The use of these weapons was catastrophic and the impact would be felt for many years to come.
The first use of atomic weapons and nuclear deterrence

When President Truman came to power he had four possible courses of action to end the war:
- continue the use of conventional bombing
- invade Japan
- demonstrate the A-bomb on an unpopulated island
- drop the A-bomb on a Japanese city.

Truman carefully chose two cities that had suffered little damage from conventional bombing to show the impact of the A-bomb.

He wanted to avoid a traditional Japanese city like Kyoto to avoid the perception of a US attack on Japanese culture. The intent was to destroy Japan’s ability to wage war.
President Eisenhower tried to reduce defence spending by investing in a system of massive retaliation.

He hoped that the prospect of mutually assured destruction from a large nuclear arsenal would deter potential aggressors.

President Kennedy explained the concept of mutually assured destruction between the US and the Soviet Union by saying that only when the superpowers’ respective nuclear arsenals were large enough to completely destroy their enemy would we be sure that these weapons would not be employed.

State programs were established in the US to aid survival in the event of a nuclear attack and its resulting nuclear fallout.
The nuclear threat and weapons testing

- In the 1950s American society and culture was gripped by real and imagined fears of nuclear warfare, nuclear testing and their effects.

- Worldwide nuclear testing increased rapidly until the 1970s, when it started to peak.

- A large amount of worldwide nuclear testing continued until the end of the Cold War in the early 1990s with the United States and the Soviet Union being the main perpetrators.

- At this point the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty was signed and ratified by the major nuclear powers and the number of worldwide nuclear tests began to decrease rapidly.
Between 1952 and 1963 the British Government carried out nuclear tests at three sites in Australia, including Maralinga, which was seen as ideal because of its use as a rocket-testing range for Britain’s missile program.

The Australian Government gave its consent to the use of Australian territory and was involved in the tests.

The tests were subject to extreme secrecy but by the late 1970s the Australian media brought the matter to the attention of the public.

Local Aboriginal people and Australian service personnel experienced long-term health impacts as a result of this testing.

Governments were initially reluctant to compensate people affected by the testing.
The nuclear threat and weapons testing

- Between 1966 and 1996 France conducted numerous atmospheric and underground tests at two Pacific island atolls.
- Contamination spread across the Pacific as far as Peru and New Zealand.
- Pressure from many countries obliged France to move to underground testing in 1974.
- Underground testing also had its risks: there was a major accident at Mururoa in 1979.
- There was more controversy when, on 10 July 1985, French secret agents set off a bomb on board the Greenpeace vessel, Rainbow Warrior, in the port of Auckland in New Zealand.
- The ship was on its way to a protest against a planned French nuclear test in Moruroa.
Towards nuclear disarmament

Over the years there have been attempts by governments themselves to reduce nuclear arms. These include:
- the Nuclear Non-proliferation Treaty of 1969

The United Nations and non-governmental organisations such as ICAN and Greenpeace, knowing the capabilities of nuclear arms, campaigned for disarmament.

The United States and the Soviet Union are known for the build-up of nuclear armaments.

However, there are a number of other nations who have also stockpiled nuclear weapons, including Israel, India, Pakistan, Iran and North Korea.
The benefits and risks of the Nuclear Age

There are a number of benefits to nuclear energy. These include its use in:
- medicine for imaging and scanning
- the creation of electricity.

Nuclear power is seen as being sustainable and environmentally friendly, primarily from its lack of air pollution.

It also offers countries energy independence as they would no longer be reliant on oil.

The waste generated by nuclear products can be potentially dangerous and its safe disposal can be challenging.

Over time there have been instances of reactors becoming compromised and causing ongoing damage and destruction to people and property.
Two critical nuclear incidents occurred in Chernobyl and Fukushima.

Both nuclear reactors were compromised, causing extreme damage immediately following the incidents and severe health problems due to radiation for years afterwards.

Our entire way of life depends on electricity but the world is struggling to cope with the energy production demands of a rapidly increasing population.

The question remains: Do governments place restrictions on the generation of nuclear energy or do we continue to promote research into its use?