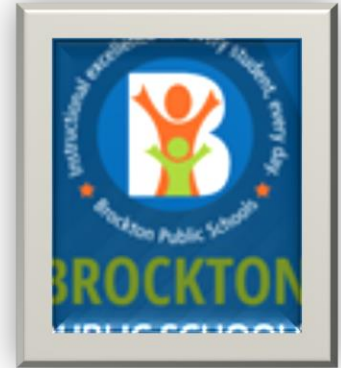


**Social Science Department
Freshman World History
June 8-19**



Greetings Freshman World Students! We hope you are safe and well with your families! Below is the lesson plan for the next two weeks! These will be your final World History assignments of the 2019-2020 School Year!

Content Standard: Content Topic 5: United States and globalization :
Cold war Flashpoints: Berlin, Cuba, Vietnam

Practice Standard(s):

1. Develop focused questions or problem statements and conduct inquiries.
2. Organize information and data from multiple primary and secondary sources.
3. Argue or explain conclusions, using valid reasoning and evidence.

Weekly Learning Opportunities:

Week of June 8:

1. Newsela Text Set: Cold War Hot Spots
2. Cold War Annotated Timeline

Week of June 15:

1. Cold War Guided Readings
2. Cold War Primary Source Analysis

Additional Resources:

- **The Cold War-CNN-The Complete Series:**
<https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL3H6z037pboGWTxs3xGP7HRGrQ5dOQdGc>
- **California History Social Science Project:**
<https://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint/coldwar>
- **American Experience: Cold War Road Show on PBS.org:**
<https://www.pbs.org/wgbh/americanexperience/films/roadshow/>

Note to students: Your Social Science teacher will contact you with specifics regarding the above assignments in addition to strategies and recommendations for completion. Please email your teacher with specific questions and/or contact during office hours.

The Cuban Missile Crisis, October 1962

By Office of the Historian, U.S. State Department on 11.30.16

Word Count **1,297**

Level **MAX**



TOP: A briefing is given to President John F. Kennedy (center) at the Cape Canaveral Missile Test Annex in Florida, September 11, 1962, at the height of the Cuban Missile Crisis. Also seen are Vice President Lyndon Johnson (second from left) and Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara (second from right). Photo: NASA. BOTTOM: Distances of major cities from Cuba from a newspaper during the crisis. Map courtesy of Getty Images.

The Cuban Missile Crisis of October 1962 was a direct and dangerous confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union during the Cold War, and was the moment when the two superpowers came closest to nuclear conflict. The crisis was unique in a number of ways, featuring calculations and miscalculations as well as direct and secret communications and miscommunications between the two sides. The dramatic crisis was also characterized by the fact that it was primarily played out at the White House and the Kremlin level with relatively little input from the respective bureaucracies typically involved in the foreign policy process.

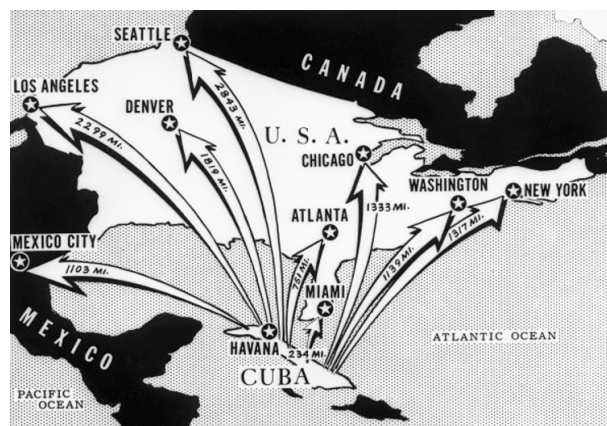
After the failed U.S. attempt to overthrow the Castro regime in Cuba with the Bay of Pigs invasion, and while the Kennedy administration planned Operation Mongoose, in July 1962, Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev reached a secret agreement with Cuban premier Fidel Castro to place Soviet nuclear missiles in Cuba to deter any future invasion attempt. Construction of several missile sites began in the late summer, but U.S. intelligence discovered evidence of a general Soviet arms build-up in Cuba, including Soviet IL-28 bombers, during routine surveillance flights, and on

September 4, 1962, President Kennedy issued a public warning against the introduction of offensive weapons into Cuba. Despite the warning, on October 14 a U.S. U-2 aircraft took several pictures clearly showing sites for medium-range and intermediate-range ballistic nuclear missiles (MRBMs and IRBMs) under construction in Cuba. These images were processed and presented to the White House the next day, thus precipitating the onset of the Cuban Missile Crisis.

Kennedy summoned his closest advisers to consider options and direct a course of action for the United States that would resolve the crisis. Some advisers — including all the Joint Chiefs of Staff — argued for an air strike to destroy the missiles, followed by a U.S. invasion of Cuba; others favored stern warnings to Cuba and the Soviet Union. The President decided upon a middle course. On October 22, he ordered a naval "quarantine" of Cuba. The use of "quarantine" legally distinguished this action from a blockade, which assumed a state of war existed; the use of "quarantine" instead of "blockade" also enabled the United States to receive the support of the Organization of American States.

That same day, Kennedy sent a letter to Khrushchev declaring that the United States would not permit offensive weapons to be delivered to Cuba, and demanded that the Soviets dismantle the missile bases already under construction or completed, and return all offensive weapons to the U.S.S.R. The letter was the first in a series of direct and indirect communications between the White House and the Kremlin throughout the remainder of the crisis.

The president also went on national television that evening to inform the public of the developments in Cuba, his decision to initiate and enforce a "quarantine," and the potential global consequences if the crisis continued to escalate. The tone of the president's remarks was stern, and the message unmistakable and evocative of the Monroe Doctrine: "It shall be the policy of this nation to regard any nuclear missile launched from Cuba against any nation in the Western Hemisphere as an attack by the Soviet Union on the United States, requiring a full retaliatory response upon the Soviet Union." The Joint Chiefs of Staff announced a military readiness status of DEFCON 3 as U.S. naval forces began implementation of the quarantine and plans accelerated for a military strike on Cuba.



On October 24, Khrushchev responded to Kennedy's message with a statement that the U.S. "blockade" was an "act of aggression" and that Soviet ships bound for Cuba would be ordered to proceed. Nevertheless, during October 24 and 25, some ships turned back from the quarantine line; others were stopped by U.S. naval forces, but they contained no offensive weapons and so were allowed to proceed. Meanwhile, U.S. reconnaissance flights over Cuba indicated the Soviet missile sites were nearing operational readiness. With no apparent end to the crisis in sight, U.S. forces were placed at DEFCON 2 — meaning war involving the Strategic Air Command was imminent. On October 26, Kennedy told his advisors it appeared that only a U.S. attack on Cuba would remove the missiles, but he insisted on giving the diplomatic channel a little more time. The crisis had reached a virtual stalemate.

That afternoon, however, the crisis took a dramatic turn. ABC News correspondent John Scali reported to the White House that he had been approached by a Soviet agent suggesting that an agreement could be reached in which the Soviets would remove their missiles from Cuba if the United States promised not to invade the island. While White House staff scrambled to assess the validity of this "back channel" offer, Khrushchev sent Kennedy a message the evening of October 26, which meant it was sent in the middle of the night Moscow time. It was a long, emotional message that raised the specter of nuclear holocaust, and presented a proposed resolution that remarkably resembled what Scali reported earlier that day. "If there is no intention," he said, "to doom the world to the catastrophe of thermonuclear war, then let us not only relax the forces pulling on the ends of the rope, let us take measures to untie that knot. We are ready for this."

Although U.S. experts were convinced the message from Khrushchev was authentic, hope for a resolution was short-lived. The next day, October 27, Khrushchev sent another message indicating that any proposed deal must include the removal of U.S. Jupiter missiles from Turkey. That same day a U.S. U-2 reconnaissance jet was shot down over Cuba. Kennedy and his advisers prepared for an attack on Cuba within days as they searched for any remaining diplomatic resolution. It was determined that Kennedy would ignore the second Khrushchev message and respond to the first one. That night Kennedy set forth in his message to the Soviet leader proposed steps for the removal of Soviet missiles from Cuba under supervision of the United Nations, and a guarantee that the United States would not attack Cuba.

It was a risky move to ignore the second Khrushchev message. Attorney General Robert Kennedy then met secretly with Soviet ambassador to the United States, Anatoly Dobrynin, and indicated that the United States was planning to remove the Jupiter missiles from Turkey anyway, and that it would do so soon, but this could not be part of any public resolution of the missile crisis. The next morning, October 28, Khrushchev issued a public statement that Soviet missiles would be dismantled and removed from Cuba.

The crisis was over but the naval quarantine continued until the Soviets agreed to remove their IL-28 bombers from Cuba and, on November 20, 1962, the United States ended its quarantine. U.S. Jupiter missiles were removed from Turkey in April 1963.

The Cuban missile crisis stands as a singular event during the Cold War and strengthened Kennedy's image domestically and internationally. It also may have helped mitigate negative world opinion regarding the failed Bay of Pigs invasion. Two other important results of the crisis came in unique forms. First, despite the flurry of direct and indirect communications between the White House and the Kremlin — perhaps because of it — Kennedy and Khrushchev, and their advisers, struggled throughout the crisis to clearly understand each others' true intentions, while the world hung on the brink of possible nuclear war. In an effort to prevent this from happening again, a direct telephone link between the White House and the Kremlin was established; it became known as the "Hotline." Second, having approached the brink of nuclear conflict, both superpowers began to reconsider the nuclear arms race and took the first steps in agreeing to a nuclear Test Ban Treaty.

The Vietnam War: Tragic Conflict in Asia Affected an American Generation

By History.com on 05.02.17

Word Count 2,338

Level MAX



Hovering U.S. Army helicopters pour machine gun fire into a tree line to cover the advance of South Vietnamese ground troops in an attack on a Viet Cong camp in March 1965. AP Photo

The Vietnam War was a long, costly armed conflict that pitted the communist regime of North Vietnam and its southern allies, known as the Viet Cong, against South Vietnam and its principal ally, the United States. The war began in 1954 (though conflict in the region stretched back to the mid-1940s), after the rise to power of Ho Chi Minh and his communist Viet Minh party in North Vietnam, and continued against the backdrop of an intense Cold War between two global superpowers: the United States and the Soviet Union. More than 3 million people (including 58,000 Americans) were killed in the Vietnam War; more than half were Vietnamese civilians.

By 1969, at the peak of U.S. involvement in the war, more than 500,000 U.S. military personnel were involved in the Vietnam conflict. Growing opposition to the war in the United States led to bitter divisions among Americans, both before and after President Richard Nixon ordered the withdrawal of U.S. forces in 1973. In 1975, communist forces seized control of Saigon, ending the Vietnam War, and the country was unified as the Socialist Republic of Vietnam the following year.

Roots of the Vietnam War

During World War II, Japan invaded and occupied Vietnam, a nation on the eastern edge of the Indochina Peninsula in Southeast Asia that had been under French administration since the late 19th century. Inspired by Chinese and Soviet communism, Ho Chi Minh formed the Viet Minh, or the League for the Independence of Vietnam, to fight both Japan and the French colonial administration. Japan withdrew its forces in 1945, leaving the French-educated Emperor Bao Dai in control of an independent Vietnam. Ho's Viet Minh forces rose up immediately, seizing the northern city of Hanoi and declaring a Democratic Republic of Vietnam (DRV) with Ho as president.

Seeking to regain control of the region, France backed Bao and set up the state of Vietnam (South Vietnam) in July 1949, with Saigon as its capital. Armed conflict continued until a decisive battle at Dien Bien Phu in May 1954 ended in French defeat by Viet Minh forces. The subsequent treaty negotiations at Geneva split Vietnam along the latitude known as the 17th parallel (with Ho in control in the North and Bao in the South) and called for nationwide elections for reunification to be held in 1956. In 1955, however, the strongly anti-communist Ngo Dinh Diem pushed Bao aside to become president of the Government of the Republic of Vietnam (GVN).

U.S. intervention begins

With the Cold War intensifying, the United States hardened its policies against any allies of the Soviet Union, and by 1955 President Dwight D. Eisenhower had pledged his firm support to Diem and South Vietnam. With training and equipment from American military and police, Diem's security forces cracked down on Viet Minh sympathizers in the south, whom he derisively called Viet Cong (or Vietnamese Communist), arresting some 100,000 people, many of whom were tortured and executed. By 1957, the Viet Cong and other opponents of Diem's repressive regime began fighting back with attacks on government officials and other targets, and by 1959 they had begun engaging South Vietnamese army forces in firefights.

In December 1960, Diem's opponents within South Vietnam — both communist and non-communist — formed the National Liberation Front (NLF) to organize resistance to the regime. Though the NLF claimed to be autonomous and that most of its members were non-Communist, many in Washington assumed it was a puppet of Hanoi. A team sent by President John F. Kennedy in 1961 to report on conditions in South Vietnam advised a build-up of American military, economic and technical aid in order to help confront the Viet Cong threat. Working under the "domino theory," which held that if one Southeast Asian country fell to communism, many would follow, Kennedy increased U.S. aid, though he stopped short of committing to a large-scale military intervention. By 1962, the U.S. military presence in South Vietnam had reached some 9,000 troops, compared with fewer than 800 during the 1950s.

The war escalates

A coup by some of his own generals succeeded in toppling and killing Diem and his brother, Ngo Dinh Nhu, in November 1963, three weeks before Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas. The ensuing political instability in South Vietnam persuaded Kennedy's successor, Lyndon B. Johnson, and Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara to further increase U.S. military and economic support. The following August, after DRV torpedo boats attacked two U.S. destroyers in the Gulf of Tonkin, Johnson ordered the retaliatory bombing of military targets in North Vietnam.

(Historians today believe the events in the Gulf of Tonkin were largely falsified by the U.S.) Congress soon passed the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, which gave Johnson broad war-making powers, and U.S. planes began regular bombing raids, codenamed Operation Rolling Thunder, the following February.

In March 1965, Johnson made the decision — with solid support from the American public — to send U.S. combat forces into battle in Vietnam. By June, 82,000 combat troops were stationed in Vietnam, and General William Westmoreland was calling for 175,000 more by the end of 1965 to shore up the struggling South Vietnamese army. Despite the concerns of some of his advisers about this escalation, and about the entire war effort as well as a growing anti-war movement in the U.S., Johnson authorized the immediate dispatch of 100,000 troops at the end of July 1965 and another 100,000 in 1966. In addition to the United States, South Korea, Thailand, Australia and New Zealand also committed troops to fight in South Vietnam (albeit on a much smaller scale).

A strategy of attrition

In contrast to the air attacks on North Vietnam, the U.S.-South Vietnamese war effort in the south was fought on the ground, largely under the command of General Westmoreland, in coordination with the government of General Nguyen Van Thieu in Saigon. In general, U.S. military forces in the region pursued a policy of attrition, aiming to kill as many enemy troops as possible rather than trying to secure territory. By 1966, large areas of South Vietnam had been designated as "free-fire zones," from which all innocent civilians were supposed to have evacuated and only enemy remained. Heavy bombing by B-52 aircraft or shelling made these zones uninhabitable, as refugees poured into camps in designated safe areas near Saigon and other cities. Even as the body count (at times exaggerated by U.S. and South Vietnamese authorities) mounted steadily, DRV and Viet Cong troops refused to stop fighting, encouraged by the fact that they could easily reoccupy lost territory. Meanwhile, supported by aid from China and the Soviet Union, North Vietnam strengthened its air defenses.

By November 1967, the number of American troops in Vietnam was approaching 500,000, and U.S. casualties had reached 15,058 killed and 109,527 wounded. As the war stretched on, some soldiers came to mistrust their government's reasons for keeping them there, as well as Washington's claims that the war was being won. The later years of the war saw increased physical and psychological deterioration among American soldiers, including drug use, mutinies and attacks by soldiers against officers and noncommissioned officers.

Bombarded by horrific images of the war on their televisions, Americans on the home front turned against the war as well: In October 1967, some 35,000 demonstrators staged a mass antiwar protest outside the Pentagon. Opponents of the war argued that civilians, not enemy combatants, were the primary victims and that the United States was supporting a corrupt dictatorship in Saigon.

The Tet Offensive

By the end of 1967, Hanoi's communist leadership was growing impatient as well, and sought to strike a decisive blow aimed at forcing the better-supplied United States to give up hopes of success. On January 31, 1968, some 70,000 DRV forces under General Vo Nguyen Giap launched the Tet offensive (named for the lunar new year), a coordinated series of fierce attacks on more

than 100 cities and towns in South Vietnam. Though taken by surprise, U.S. and South Vietnamese forces managed to strike back quickly, and the communists were unable to hold any of the targets for more than a day or two. Reports of the attacks stunned the U.S. public, however, especially after news broke that Westmoreland had requested an additional 200,000 troops. With his approval ratings dropping in an election year, Johnson called a halt to bombing in much of North Vietnam in March (though bombings continued in the south) and promised to dedicate the rest of his term to seeking peace rather than re-election.

Johnson's new tack, laid out in a March 1968 speech, met with a positive response from Hanoi, and peace talks between the U.S. and North Vietnam opened in Paris that May. Despite the later inclusion of the South Vietnamese and the National Liberation Front (the political arm of the Viet Cong) the dialogue soon reached an impasse, and after an election campaign marred by violence, Republican Richard M. Nixon defeated Hubert Humphrey to win the White House.



From Vietnamization to U.S. withdrawal

Nixon sought to deflate the antiwar movement by appealing to a "silent majority" of Americans whom he believed supported the war effort. In an attempt to limit the volume of American casualties, he announced a program of withdrawing troops, increasing aerial and artillery bombardment, and giving the South Vietnamese control over ground operations. In addition to this policy, which he called "Vietnamization," Nixon continued public peace talks in Paris, adding higher-level secret talks conducted by Secretary of State Henry Kissinger beginning in the spring of 1968. The North Vietnamese continued to insist on complete U.S. withdrawal as a condition of peace, however, and the next few years would bring even more carnage, including the horrifying revelation that U.S. soldiers had massacred more than 400 unarmed civilians in the village of My Lai in March 1968.

Anti-war protests continued to build as the conflict wore on. In 1968 and 1969, there were hundreds of anti-war marches and gatherings throughout the country. On November 15, 1969, the largest anti-war protest in American history took place in Washington, D.C., as over 250,000 Americans gathered peacefully, calling for withdrawal of American troops from Vietnam. The anti-war movement, which was particularly strong on college campuses, divided Americans bitterly. For some young people, the war symbolized a form of unchecked authority they had come to resent. For other Americans, opposing the government was considered unpatriotic and treasonous.

As the first U.S. troops were withdrawn, those who remained became increasingly angry and frustrated, exacerbating problems with morale and leadership. Tens of thousands of soldiers received dishonorable discharges for desertion, and about 500,000 American men from 1965-73 became "draft dodgers," with many fleeing to Canada to evade conscription. Nixon ended draft calls in 1972, and instituted an all-volunteer army the following year.

In 1970, a joint U.S.-South Vietnamese operation invaded Cambodia, hoping to wipe out DRV supply bases there. The South Vietnamese then led their own invasion of Laos, which was pushed

back by North Vietnam. The invasion of these countries, in violation of international law, sparked a new wave of protests on college campuses across America, including two at Kent State in Ohio and at Jackson State in Mississippi where National Guardsmen and police killed six student protesters. By the end of June 1972, however, after another failed offensive into South Vietnam, Hanoi was finally willing to compromise. Kissinger and North Vietnamese representatives drafted a peace agreement by early fall, but leaders in Saigon rejected it, and in December Nixon authorized a number of bombing raids against targets in Hanoi and Haiphong. Known as the Christmas Bombings, the raids drew international condemnation.



The legacy of the war

In January 1973, the United States and North Vietnam concluded a final peace agreement, ending open hostilities between the two nations. War between North and South Vietnam continued, however, until April 30, 1975, when DRV forces captured Saigon, renaming it Ho Chi Minh City. (Ho himself died in 1969.) The long conflict had affected an immense majority of the country's population; in eight years of warfare, an estimated 2 million Vietnamese died, while 3 million were wounded and another 12 million became refugees. War had decimated the country's infrastructure and economy, and reconstruction proceeded slowly. In 1976, Vietnam was unified as the Socialist Republic of Vietnam, though sporadic violence continued over the next 15 years, including conflicts with neighboring China and Cambodia. Under a broad free market policy put in place in 1986, the economy began to improve, boosted by oil export revenues and an influx of foreign capital. Trade and diplomatic relations between Vietnam and the U.S. were resumed in the 1990s.

In the United States, the effects of the Vietnam War would linger long after the last troops returned home in 1973. The nation spent more than \$120 billion on the conflict in Vietnam from 1965-73; this massive spending led to widespread inflation, exacerbated by a worldwide oil crisis in 1973 and skyrocketing fuel prices. Psychologically, the effects ran even deeper. The war had pierced the myth of American invincibility, and had bitterly divided the nation. Many returning veterans faced negative reactions from both opponents of the war (who viewed them as having killed innocent civilians) and its supporters (who saw them as having lost the war). They also suffered physical damage including the effects of exposure to the harmful chemical herbicide Agent Orange, millions of gallons of which had been dumped by U.S. planes on the dense forests of Vietnam. In 1982, the Vietnam Veterans Memorial was unveiled in Washington, D.C. On it were inscribed the names of 57,939 American armed forces killed or missing during the war; later additions brought that total to 58,200.

Overview: The World Community from 1945–1990

By Encyclopaedia Britannica on 06.15.17

Word Count **1,783**

Level **MAX**



During the Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia in 1968, Czechoslovakians carry their national flag past a burning tank in Prague. Photo by the CIA.

Unfortunately for the world community, the United States and the Soviet Union emerged from World War II in a state of mutual distrust and hostility. Each was wary of the other's intents. The United States was concerned that the Soviet Union would expand its influence by incorporating eastern Europe into its political system, and this is, in fact, what happened. The presence of the Soviet Army in Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Romania, East Germany and Bulgaria resulted in these nations becoming Soviet satellites — that is, they fell within the Soviet sphere of influence.

The Soviet Union itself, however, was left in ruins by the war. That country was fearful that the United States, which at the time was the only nation possessing atomic weapons, would attempt to destroy the Soviet system.

Out of this situation of mutual superpower hostility there developed the Cold War, with each of the two nations seeking to enlarge its sphere of influence around the world by forming alliances, offering foreign aid, selling massive quantities of arms and undermining the governments of smaller nations. The Cold War never became a hot war between the superpowers, probably only because of the awesome threat of nuclear weapons.

U.S. anxieties over Soviet power were greatly increased by the success of the communist revolution in China. After Mao Zedong and his followers came to power in 1949, evincing great hostility toward the United States, there was a general fear that the might of international communism would be impossible to contain.

The Cold War, while perhaps the dominant feature of international relations in the late 20th century, was by no means the only important development. All over the world, former colonies were gaining independence. A new world structure was emerging because these new nations were demanding a role in international politics and were slowly becoming integrated into a growing world economy. Revolutions, some homegrown and some fomented from the outside, were going on in Asia, Africa, the Middle East and Latin America. And the United States lost its monopoly on nuclear weapons; the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, France, China, India, Pakistan and others joined the international “atomic club.”

With the new political order that emerged in the 1950s came a new terminology. A common way of classifying countries at the time was to identify them with one of four fairly distinct groups, or “worlds.” The First World consisted of the United States and its allies, primarily western Europe and Japan. The Second World denoted the Soviet Union and its satellites in eastern Europe. The term Third World was coined in French (*tiers monde*) in 1952 to describe a group of countries that chose to stay out of the Cold War rivalry. Among these nations were Yugoslavia, Egypt, India, Ghana and Indonesia. By the mid-1950s, the meaning of the term had broadened to refer to all non-industrialized or developing countries. The meaning of Third World, therefore, had changed to an economic one. The term Fourth World was applied to countries that were desperately poor.

The Third World

The number of poverty-stricken and underdeveloped nations was great in the 1950s. Many were just emerging from colonialism. Others had been badly governed for decades. After 1960, the number of worst-case economies diminished. Africa remained, for the most part, underdeveloped. Parts of Latin America, however, experienced some dramatic changes as dictatorships gave way to democracies. Mexico proved to be one of the economic miracles of the late 20th century. Brazil, Chile and Argentina, after decades of misrule, began making significant progress after 1985. Many areas of Southeast Asia experienced rapid economic development. China, long considered the largest Third World society, experienced striking economic growth. The states of the Middle East prospered if they had petroleum reserves.

In the early years of the Cold War, the leaders of the Third World realized that, acting independently, they could have little impact in international relations. To remedy this, they organized. In April 1955 at Bandung, Indonesia, delegates from 29 countries met in a conference organized by Indonesia, India, Burma (now Myanmar), Pakistan and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka). These delegates formed an association of nations not aligned with either of the two superpowers, though they tended to identify more with the Soviet Union and China than with the democracies.

This policy of nonalignment, or neutralism, was strengthened and advanced by President Tito of Yugoslavia. In September 1961, he hosted a conference of nonaligned nations in Belgrade. The conference, convened by India’s Jawaharlal Nehru, Egypt’s Gamal Abdel Nasser, and Tito, denounced colonialism, demanded an end to armed action against dependent peoples, endorsed the Algerians in their war for independence from France and called for a policy of perpetual

neutralism between the great powers. As Cold War tensions eased in the 1980s, the nonaligned movement began fading. Many member countries were undergoing economic transformation and wanted to strengthen ties to the industrialized regions — the United States, Japan and western Europe.

The industrialized North

At the end of World War II, the United States stood alone in industrial might. All of Europe and Japan had been devastated by the war. The Soviet Union was an economic shambles. To rebuild the West and Japan, the United States launched a massive foreign aid program called the Marshall Plan, named after George C. Marshall, who proposed the plan in 1947. During the four-year life of the plan, western Europe was provided with more than \$17 billion in aid for economic reconstruction. Japan also was assisted in rebuilding.

The result of these efforts was an era of unprecedented affluence in the industrialized societies. After the war-torn nations got back on their feet, however, the efforts also produced an era of economic rivalry. As long as the prosperity lasted, the rivalry was little noticed. But when the oil-producing countries of the Middle East instituted marked increases in prices during the 1970s, the economic scene darkened. A worldwide recession, coupled with perpetual inflation, set in.

By the early 1980s, the solidarity of the industrial West had weakened as each nation tried to maintain economic stability amid unfavorable conditions. What did keep them together was their distrust of the Soviet Union. The Eastern bloc nations, led by the Soviet Union, also faced the task of rebuilding after the war. The process took longer because they chose not to be recipients of Marshall Plan funds. And they had been poorer and less industrialized than the nations of western Europe before the war as well.

Worlds in turmoil

The conclusion of World War II ended the drive by Germany, Italy and Japan for world domination, but the seed of smaller conflicts had already been planted. Even as Japan was evacuating Southeast Asia, Vietnam, under the leadership of Ho Chi Minh, was planning to get rid of French colonialism for good. Vietnam's effort resulted in a long war, a conflict that ended in 1975 with a communist victory. Instead of rebuilding the region, however, the victors went on to fight among themselves and to leave Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos in desolation.

The Vietnam War was only one of several conflicts that erupted out of the Cold War. Soviet and U.S. power confronted each other in several places, especially in Europe and Korea. The settlement in Europe after World War II not only divided the continent into two hostile factions, but it also divided Germany into two countries and Berlin into two cities. This was a source of strife in 1948, when the Soviets instituted a blockade of West Berlin, geographically in the heart of Soviet-occupied territory. An airlift of U.S. and British goods and services into West Berlin thwarted the blockade, which was abandoned in mid-1949. The hostilities, though, endured until 1989.

In Cuba, forces led by Fidel Castro staged a successful communist revolution in the late 1950s. Cuba then became a Soviet dependency. In 1962, the threat of nuclear war escalated when the Soviet Union placed guided missiles aimed at the United States in Cuba. U.S. President John F. Kennedy blockaded Cuba to prevent more missiles from entering the country, and eventually

Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev ordered the removal of the weapons. In the early 1980s, much of Central America was torn by conflict, with guerrillas supplied by the Soviet Union and Cuba fighting soldiers armed and trained by the United States.

Not all of the global trouble spots owed their origin to the Cold War, though most of them were affected by it. One of the most persistent areas of conflict since the founding of the State of Israel in 1948 has been the Middle East. There has been relentless hostility, and several wars were fought between the Arab states and Israel. The Cold War injected itself into the Middle East, when the Soviet Union started supplying some Arab states with weapons; Syria and Iraq were notable examples. Other Muslim nations — Saudi Arabia and Jordan among them — tried to maintain neutrality in the Cold War.

Development of international organizations

In the complicated arena of the modern global community that followed World War I and II, the need to work through international organizations became as urgent as ever. Each of the conflicts described thus far immediately drew, or were caused by, the involvement of global powers.

To meet the needs of international cooperation, or confrontation, a vast number of organizations of all types were created. The most comprehensive international organization was founded in 1945 —the United Nations and its many affiliates. Regional associations include the Organization of American States (1948), the African Union (founded as the Organization of African Unity in 1963), the Arab League (1945), and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, or ASEAN (1967). These organizations deal with the whole range of political and economic issues in their areas.

The Cold War spawned a number of regional mutual-defense alliances. The best known were the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), formed in 1949, and the Warsaw Pact, signed in 1955 and dissolved in 1991. NATO is a military alliance that was originally formed to defend western Europe from the Soviet Union; the Warsaw Pact was the Soviet counter-alliance. ANZUS—a security treaty between Australia, New Zealand and the United States—was signed in 1951. The Southeast Asia Treaty Organization was formed in 1954 and disbanded in 1977.

Many international and regional organizations have evolved to deal with the financial needs of the global community. There are too many to be able to list them all, but some of the leading ones include the International Monetary Fund, the European Union, the Caribbean Community, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, the World Bank, the International Finance Corporation, the African Development Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank and the Asian Development Bank.

The Korean War

By Allan R. Millett, The Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History on 12.02.19

Word Count **1,921**

Level **MAX**



Image 1. A column of troops and armor of the 1st Marine Division move through communist Chinese lines during their successful breakout from the Chosin Reservoir in North Korea. The Marines were besieged when the Chinese entered the Korean War on November 27, 1950, by sending 200,000 shock troops against Allied forces. Photo from: Wikimedia Commons.

The Korean War was three different conflicts from the perspective of the disparate groups who fought in it. For North and South Korea, the conflict was a civil war, a struggle with no possible compromise between two competing visions for Korea's future. To the north was a coalition led by three dictators — Josef Stalin, Mao Zedong and Kim Il-sung — devoted to creating a communist Korea, a single-party state that controlled all economic assets and all aspects of the people's lives. To the south, the Republic of Korea (ROK) had a Western-style constitution and Christian-capitalist orientation and the support of the United States and the United Nations. Within Asia the war was a regional conflict over the future security of two Chinas, one communist and one Nationalist, and the containment of Japan, while for the United States and the Soviet Union, the war for Korea was a limited part of a post-1945 global competition for power.

For each member of the communist coalition — the Chinese, Russians and North Koreans — the war was one more step toward destroying Japanese imperialism on the mainland of Asia. Japan had defeated the Chinese in 1895 and the Russians in 1905, and then incorporated Korea into the Japanese empire in 1910. The Koreans had continued to struggle against Japan in China and

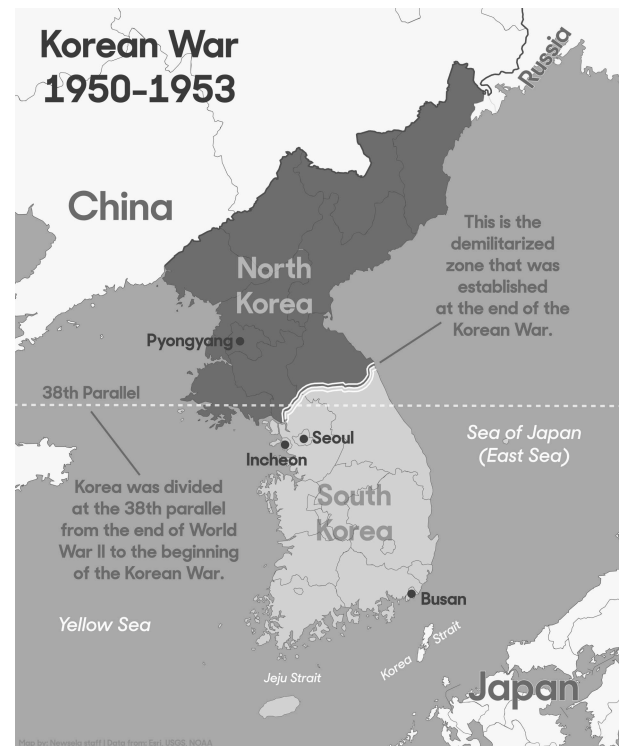
Manchuria and in a series of uprisings and guerrilla raids within Korea until Japan's defeat by the Allies in World War II.

With Soviet assistance, the Chinese communists defeated the Chinese Nationalists between 1945 and 1950. In February 1950, the People's Republic of China and the Soviet Union signed a comprehensive alliance to oppose any intervention by the Chinese Nationalists, the Japanese and the Americans that might reverse the Chinese Revolution. The Russians had been excluded from the Allied occupation of Japan after World War II, and Stalin and Mao Zedong thought a new Japanese-American conspiracy was afoot to mount a counteroffensive against Asian communism. The first theater of that war would be Korea.

The United States had recognized Korean independence in 1882 but did nothing to stop the annexation of Korea by the Japanese. Only a handful of Americans, either Christian missionaries or educators, knew very much about Korea at all, let alone the Koreans' struggles against Chinese and Japanese imperialism or of the growth of Christianity in Korea. Koreans suffered along with the Chinese and Japanese from Americans' anti-Asian racial prejudices. Whenever the United States dealt with Korea as a foreign policy issue, it was always within the broader context of relations with Japan. The Koreans resented this approach and continue to do so.

After the Japanese surrender in August–September 1945, the United States under an agreement with the Soviet Union sent an expeditionary force of three U.S. Army divisions to Korea to disarm and repatriate 400,000 Japanese soldiers and civilians. The Soviets had already invaded and occupied northern Korea in their August 1945 campaign against Japan in Manchuria. To limit conflict between the allies, the U.S. and USSR agreed to divide Korea at the 38th Parallel as a temporary control measure. The Americans recognized that the division put two-thirds of the 30 million Koreans under U.S. protection. The southern zone included Seoul and the Han River Valley, as well as much of mountainous Korea's scarce arable land. The Soviets took over Korea's industrial heartland, gold and coal mines, fertilizer and concrete plants and hydroelectric power system. This division, intended to be temporary, destroyed Korea's economic viability.

Overwhelmed by almost 1 million Korean refugees returning from Japan and its wrecked empire, the U.S. Army Military Government in Korea (USAMGIK) and the State Department watched political events unfold with dismay. In the Soviet zone, the Red Army looted and expropriated everything of value. It defined all property as "Japanese" and had the assistance of a communist Korean security force led by an anti-Japanese partisan, Kim Il-sung. By 1948, Kim Il-sung dominated a new Korean Communist party and the Korean People's Army or KPA, created on the pretext of defending the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) from an American-South Korean-Japanese invasion.



In southern Korea, the USAMGIK faced growing nationalist hostility to a long occupation and a trusteeship approved at a U.S.-USSR conference in Moscow in December 1945. There was no obvious successor regime in South Korea, the choices being too close to the Chinese Nationalists. The Americans also faced an internal revolutionary communist movement, the South Korean Labor Party (SKLP).

From the Korean perspective, the war began in 1946 with a nationalist anti-foreign uprising against the American occupiers, the Autumn Harvest Rebellion. Conflict continued into 1947 with strikes and terrorist attacks and broke out into a national insurgency in 1948. This resistance, led by the SKLP, did not prevent U.N.-sponsored elections and the creation of the Republic of Korea (August 1948) under a returned exile nationalist leader, Syngman Rhee. To the Americans, the autocratic, messianic Rhee was the least objectionable option. He was anti-Japanese, anti-Chinese, anti-communist and even anti-American when it served his purposes. He was neither pro-democracy nor pro-human rights.

The Republic of Korea with the assistance of American weapons and advisors won the war of 1948–1950, a classic "people's war of national liberation" like the civil wars in China and Indochina. The South Korean army and police fought 600 engagements with communist guerrillas in the ROK's four southern provinces and Cheju Island. The same forces fought 200 engagements with the North Korean security forces along the 38th Parallel. In this guerrilla war, 7,500 Korean security forces and at least 34,000 other Koreans died violent deaths before June 25, 1950. Kim Il-sung wanted to invade the ROK in 1949, but Josef Stalin demanded a stronger KPA and a Chinese communist commitment to help Kim Il-sung. Kim and Stalin (with Mao Zedong's weak assurance) decided an invasion in 1950 would succeed. They believed the Americans would not intervene or would be too late to save the Rhee government. The South Koreans did not have the aircraft, tanks, artillery or enough trained troops to stop the North Korean army.

The U.S. government under President Harry S. Truman did not make a unilateral commitment to defend South Korea from invasion but did pledge to protect the ROK through the United Nations. The communists simply did not believe this pledge because the U.S. had withdrawn its last combat units in 1949, which was one of Stalin's preconditions for an invasion. Instead of keeping the units in South Korea, the United States focused on defending Japan with four army divisions, 800 aircraft, plus a small naval force stationed in Japan and the Philippines. The communists assumed that, since the United States had not used its own forces to save the Chinese Nationalists or to protect Taiwan, it would not defend Korea. In fact, the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff did regard the ROK as a strategic liability in a possible future war with the USSR. The State Department, however, believed Korea had to be defended to give credibility to U.S. Cold War alliances and the role of the U.N. in collective security. Defending Korea would help correct the impression of American weakness in Asia left by the Chinese Nationalist defeat. It might discourage communists fighting in Malaya, Indochina and the Philippines.

The internationalized Korean War, from June 25, 1950, through July 27, 1953, went through four phases, shaped by different levels of commitment to unifying Korea by force. For Kim Il-sung and Syngman Rhee, the only victory could be the creation of one Korea, either communist or ultra-nationalist. The North Koreans almost succeeded that first summer, but the Rhee government and half its army survived and rallied in the southeastern part of the ROK, known as the "Pusan Perimeter." The United States committed the Eighth Army of four U.S. Army divisions and a Marine brigade, supported by Air Force and naval aviation. The Inchon amphibious landing on

September 15 and the recapture of Seoul on September 29, planned by U.S. General Douglas MacArthur, the U.N. commander, delivered the final blow to the North Korean army.

The U.S.-U.N.-ROK alliance seized the opportunity to unify Korea by invading North Korea against weakened communist resistance. From October 7 until November 26, the U.N.-ROK armies occupied much of North Korea under U.N. approval to unify the country. The ROK government tried to extend its authority by supporting an anti-communist uprising in North Korea and hunting down and killing communist officers, police and party officials. The North Korean leaders fled north, knowing that China would send support.

Mao Zedong decided to use the Chinese People's Volunteers Army (CPVA) to save North Korea, sending in a quarter of a million troops. The campaign began in late October 1950 as a desperate counterattack and continued in two offensives in November 1950 and January 1951. These unexpected offensives, marked by clever nighttime operations, drove the U.N. forces south of Seoul and the Han River Valley. The U.N. forces again rallied with reinforcements from the United States, Korea and other U.N. nations. Using massed artillery and airstrikes, the Eighth Army halted the CPVA in several seesaw battles, February–March 1951. The Chinese then launched their largest offensive, designed to unify Korea as a communist nation in April–May 1951. The U.N. forces defeated this offensive with concentrated firepower and sound maneuver, and a U.N. counteroffensive drove the communists back across the 38th Parallel. At that point, all the belligerents accepted negotiations that ensured the survival of the ROK and DPRK. The U.S. and USSR had global concerns, and the PRC now believed its northern flank was secure against a U.S.-ROK-Japan anti-communist alliance. Both Koreans had to accept the leadership of their more powerful allies.

The purpose of the extended negotiations between July 1951 and July 1953 for both sides was to build up the DPRK and ROK armies and economies to a level that ensured the survival of both North and South Korea. Major battles for marginal advantages occurred in those two years. Neither side claimed great victories, although the CPVA believed it showed it could defend against future U.S.-ROK attacks with deep mountain fortifications and new Russian weapons. The U.S. learned that major bombing campaigns against North Korea would not win the war but could stop Chinese offensives. After the U.S. ensured that Syngman Rhee would accept an armistice, the fighting stopped along the current Demilitarized Zone.

The cost of the war was horrific: 3 million Koreans and Chinese died, 2 million of them Korean civilians. U.S.-U.N. deaths from all causes were about 40,000 with 100,000 wounded. Despite a series of internal crises, both the ROK and DPRK have survived as Cold War anachronisms and are still enemies. The United States has a mutual security alliance with the ROK and maintains 20,000 troops there.

Allan R. Millett is the Ambrose Professor of History and director of the Eisenhower Center for American Studies at the University of New Orleans.

Cold War Timeline

Instructions: You will be creating an annotated timeline covering important events that occurred during the Cold War.

Instructions:

- Create a timeline from 1940 to 2000 and Label it Cold War Timeline
- Define the term Containment in terms of the Cold War under the title
- Pick at least 1 event from each decade of the Cold War and place it in the appropriate spot on the time line. You should have an event from the 40's, 50's, 60's, 70's, 80's, and 90's.
- CP should complete 6 events, CPA should complete 9 events and Honors should complete 12 events.

For each of the events, you will need to incorporate all of the following on your timeline:

- Name of the Event
- Dates the Event occurred (beginning and end dates- include month, day, and year)
- 2-4 Sentence summary of what occurred during this event (What happened, if it was a conflict who was the conflict between? Who won the conflict? etc.)
- Picture of something related to the event (in color)

You can complete the assignment with paper and pencil, on PowerPoint, by creating a video, or another method of your choice. If you choose to use a non Office 365 program for this assignment check with your teacher first.

No matter how you complete the assignment, colorful creativity is a must.

If you complete the assignment by hand you can draw the pictures or double the length of the written description in lieu of a picture. DO NOT waste resources by printing out large color pictures!

If you make a video and appear on screen you must follow the BHS Dress code.

Pick events from this list

1. Formation of the Eastern bloc
2. Greek Civil war
3. Berlin Blockade and Airlift
4. NATO vs Warsaw Pact
5. Enactment of Marshall Plan
6. Chinese Communist Revolution
7. Korean War
8. Overthrow of the Mossadegh Government in Iran
9. Overthrow of the Guatemalan Government
10. Hungarian uprising
11. Cuban Revolution
12. Bay of Pigs Invasion
13. Vietnam War
14. Building of the Berlin Wall
15. Cuban Missile Crisis
16. Prague Spring
17. Overthrow of Allende government in Chile
18. Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty
19. Soviet War in Afghanistan
20. Solidarity Movement in Poland
21. *Glanost* and *Perestroika*
22. Tiananmen Square Massacre
23. Fall of the Berlin wall
24. Fall of the Soviet Union

CHAPTER 33 Section 1 (pages 965–971)

Cold War: Superpowers Face Off

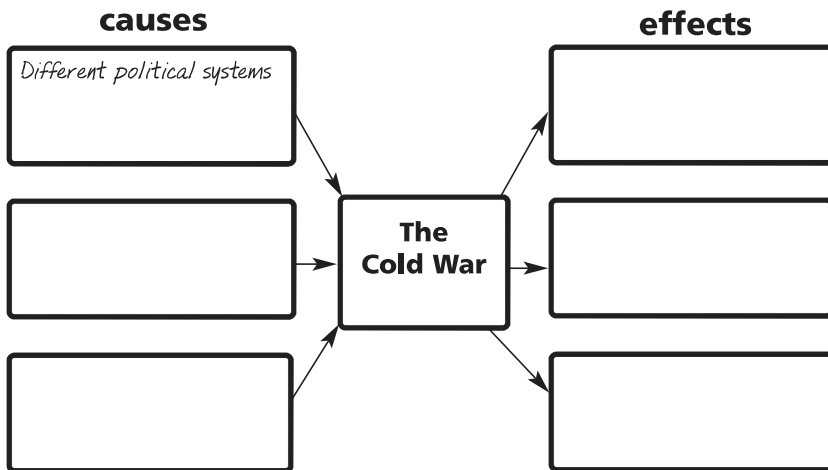
BEFORE YOU READ

In the last section, you learned about the end of the Second World War.

In this section, you will learn about the international tensions that followed the war.

AS YOU READ

Use the chart below to take notes on causes and effects of the Cold War.



TERMS AND NAMES

United Nations World organization formed to prevent war

iron curtain Division between Eastern and Western Europe during the Cold War

containment Policy aimed at preventing the spread of communism

Truman Doctrine Policy of giving aid to countries threatened by communism

Marshall Plan Plan to give aid to European countries to help them recover from the war

Cold War State of tension and mistrust between the United States and the Soviet Union after World War II

NATO Military alliance including the United States, Canada, and several countries in Western Europe

Warsaw Pact Military alliance between the Soviet Union and the countries of Eastern Europe

brinkmanship Willingness on the part of the superpower to go to the brink, or edge, of war

Allies Become Enemies (pages 965–966)

What caused the Cold War?

The United States and the Soviet Union were allies during World War II. In February 1945, they agreed to divide Germany into separate zones. Each zone was occupied by the soldiers of one of the Allies. The Allies also helped form the **United Nations** (UN) in 1945. The UN pledged to prevent war.

The United States and the Soviet Union had important differences after the war. The United States suffered few casualties and was the richest nation in the world. The Soviet Union suffered enormous loss of life and damage to its cities.

There were also striking political differences. The United States wanted to create new markets for its goods. It also wanted to encourage democracy. The Soviet Union wanted to set up Communist governments and make sure it did not get attacked again from the west. These differences caused tensions between the two countries.

1. How did U.S. goals and Soviet goals differ after World War II?

Eastern Europe's Iron Curtain

(page 967)

How did the Soviet Union gain control of Eastern Europe?

At the end of World War II, Soviet forces occupied lands along its western border. After the war, Stalin made sure Communist governments were in place in these lands: Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Romania, Poland, and Yugoslavia. This divided Europe between East and West. Winston Churchill called this division the “**iron curtain.**”

2. What countries were separated from the West by the iron curtain?

United States Tries to Contain Soviets

(pages 967–969)

How did the United States respond to communism?

Truman began a policy of **containment**—blocking the Soviets from spreading communism. Under the **Truman Doctrine**, the United States helped nations that were threatened by communism. The United States also adopted the **Marshall Plan** in 1947. This plan gave food and other aid to European countries to help them recover from the war.

In 1948, the Soviets and Americans *clashed* over Germany. France, Britain, and the United States agreed to pull their troops out of Germany. They let the three zones that they occupied unite. But the Soviets refused to leave their zone. Then they cut off all highway and train traffic into Berlin, which was deep within the Soviet zone. The United States and Britain responded with the *Berlin airlift*. They flew food and supplies into the city for 11 months. Finally, the Soviets lifted the *blockade*.

3. What was the Berlin airlift?

Cold War Divides the World

(pages 969–971)

Why did tensions between the superpowers increase?

The struggle between the United States and the Soviet Union was called the **Cold War**. Many countries supported one superpower or the other.

The United States, Canada, and several countries in Western Europe formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (**NATO**). NATO was a military *alliance*. Each nation promised to defend any other member that was attacked. The Soviets and the countries of Eastern Europe made a similar agreement. It was called the **Warsaw Pact**.

In 1949, the Soviet Union announced that it had developed an atomic bomb. Three years later, both superpowers had an even more deadly weapon—the hydrogen bomb. Soon both nations were involved in an arms race. They produced more and more nuclear weapons and developed new ways to deliver them. Both sides were willing to go to the brink, or edge, of war. This became known as **brinkmanship**.

In 1957, the Soviet Union launched *Sputnik*, the world's first human-made satellite. Many people were shocked. Americans felt that the Soviets were far ahead in science and technology. The United States then began spending huge amounts of money to improve science education.

The U-2 incident brought more tension. The United States sent planes, called U-2 planes, to spy over Soviet territory. One was shot down in 1960.

4. What are three developments or events that increased tensions during the Cold War?

CHAPTER 33 Section 2 (pages 972–975)

Communists Take Power in China

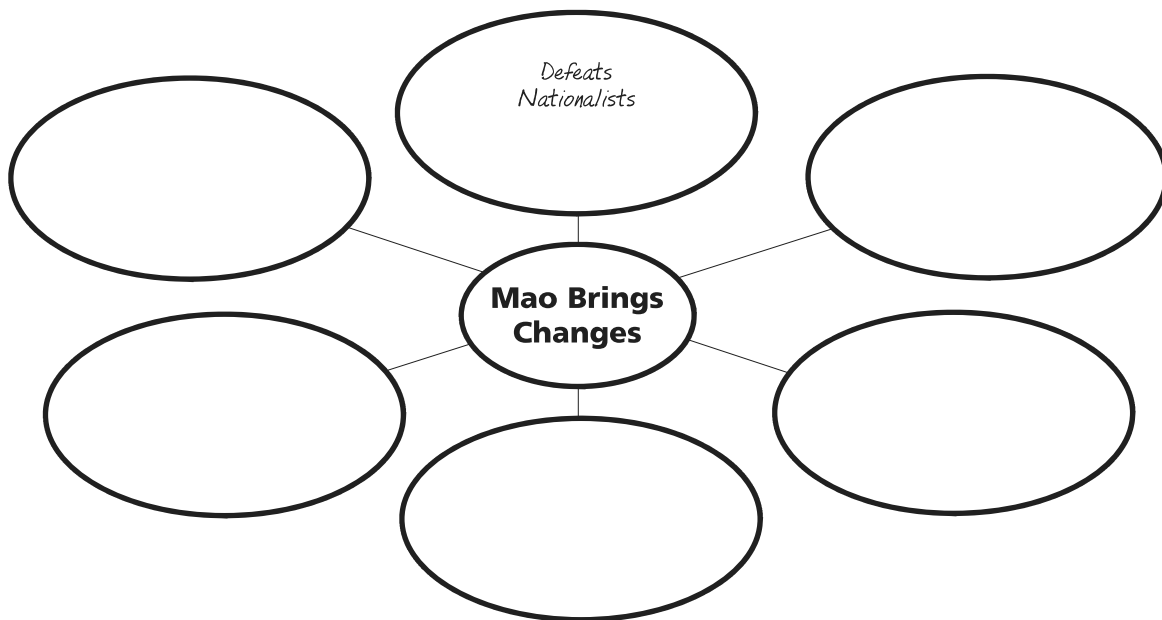
BEFORE YOU READ

In the last section, you read about tensions between the superpowers.

In this section, you will read about civil war and the rise of communism in China.

AS YOU READ

Use the chart below to take notes on changes in China.



TERMS AND NAMES

Mao Zedong Communist leader who defeated the Nationalists and led the People's Republic of China

Jiang Jieshi Nationalist leader who set up a new government in Taiwan

commune Large farm setup in China in which many families work the land and live together

Red Guards Young Chinese students who carried out the Cultural Revolution

Cultural Revolution Uprising in China between 1966 and 1976 that aimed to establish a society of peasants and workers in which all were equal

Communists vs. Nationalists

(pages 972–973)

Who fought the civil war?

Nationalists and Communists fought for control of China in the 1930s. During World War II, they joined forces to fight against the Japanese. The Communists, led by **Mao Zedong**, organized an army of peasants in northwestern China. From there they fought the Japanese in the northeast.

The Nationalists, led by **Jiang Jieshi**, controlled southwestern China. The Nationalists

were protected from the Japanese by mountains. The United States sent the Nationalists large amounts of money and supplies, but corrupt officers took much of it. The Nationalists built a large army, but they only fought a few battles against the Japanese.

After the Japanese surrendered, the Communists and Nationalists resumed their civil war. The war lasted from 1946 to 1949. The Communists won because their troops were well-trained in *guerrilla war*. They also enjoyed the backing of the peasants to whom they had

promised land. In 1949, Jiang Jieshi and other Nationalist leaders fled to the island of Taiwan.

1. What two groups fought the civil war, and who led them?

The Two Chinas Affect the Cold War (pages 973–974)

How did the two Chinas participate in the Cold War?

The United States helped the Nationalists set up a new government. The Nationalists called their land the Republic of China. Meanwhile, the Soviets helped Mao Zedong and his government, the People’s Republic of China.

The Chinese and the Soviets promised to help defend each other if either country were attacked. The United States responded by trying to halt Soviet expansion in Asia. Communist China also tried to expand its power. The Chinese invaded Mongolia, Tibet, and India.

2. How did the superpowers take sides with the two Chinas?

The Communists Transform China (pages 974–975)

How did Mao change China?

Mao set out to rebuild China. He seized land and gave it to the peasants. But he also forced the peasants—in groups of 200 to 300 households—to join *collective farms*, or **communes**. On these farms, the land belonged to the group. Mao also took control of China’s industries. Under Mao’s plan, production of industrial products went up.

With this success, Mao launched the “Great Leap Forward.” He wanted to make the communes larger and more productive. The plan failed. People did not like strong government control. The government did not plan effectively. Between 1958 and 1961, famine killed millions.

In 1966, Mao tried to revive the revolution. He encouraged young people to revive the revolution. Students formed groups called **Red Guards**. This was the beginning of the **Cultural Revolution**. The Red Guards struck at teachers, scientists, and artists. They shut down schools and sent intellectuals to the country to work on farms. They killed thousands of people who resisted. China was in chaos. Factories shut down and farm production dropped. Eventually, Mao put an end to the Cultural Revolution.

3. What are three changes Mao made?

CHAPTER 33 Section 3 (pages 976–981)

Wars in Korea and Vietnam

BEFORE YOU READ

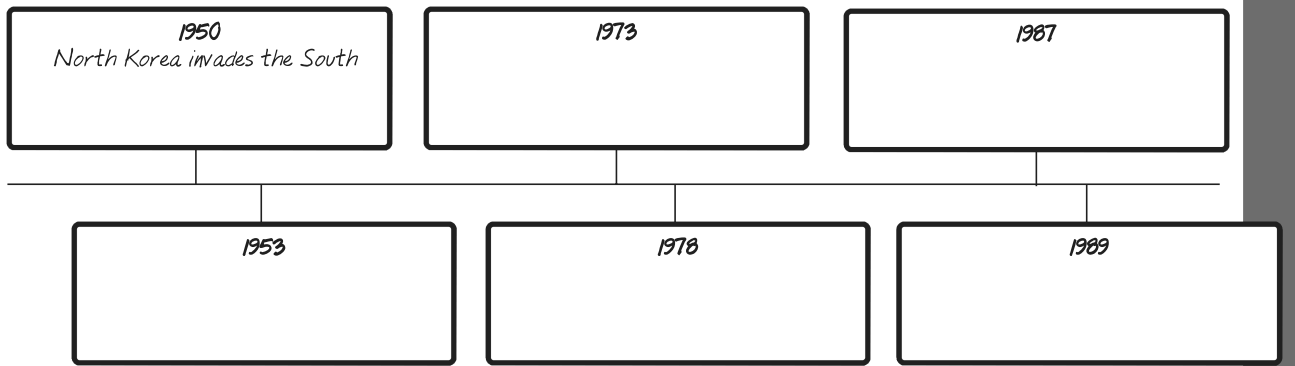
In the last section, you read about the civil war in China. In this section, you will read about wars in Korea and Vietnam.

AS YOU READ

Use the time line below to take notes on important events in Korea, Vietnam, and Cambodia.

TERMS AND NAMES

- 38th parallel** Line that separated North Korea and South Korea
- Douglas MacArthur** Leader of United Nations forces during the Korean War
- Ho Chi Minh** Vietnamese nationalist who drove the French out of Vietnam and who led North Vietnam
- domino theory** Theory that nations were like a row of dominoes: if one fell to communism, the others would fall, too
- Vietcong** Communist rebels in South Vietnam who were supported by North Vietnam
- Ngo Dinh Diem** Leader of the anticommunist government of South Vietnam
- Vietnamization** Nixon’s plan for gradually withdrawing U.S. troops from Vietnam and replacing them with South Vietnamese troops
- Khmer Rouge** Communist rebels who set up a brutal government in Cambodia



War in Korea (pages 976–978)

How was Korea divided?

When World War II ended, Korea became a divided nation. North of the **38th parallel**, a line that crosses Korea at 38 degrees north *latitude*, the Japanese surrendered to the Soviets. South of that line, the Japanese surrendered to the Allies.

As in Germany, two nations developed. The Soviet Union supported a Communist government in North Korea. The United States supported a

non-Communist government in South Korea. On June 25, 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea. President Truman fought this move with help from the UN. The United States and other countries sent troops to assist South Korea. At first, the North Korean army captured almost all of South Korea.

Then the UN army made a bold *counterattack*. The attack was led by General **Douglas MacArthur**. In 1953, the two Koreas agreed to a *cease-fire*. The earlier boundary splitting North and South Korea remained the same.

North Korea had a Communist government. It had a strong army and tight government control, but it also had many economic problems. For more than 30 years, dictators ruled South Korea. But its economy grew, in part because it received U.S. aid. Free elections were held in South Korea after a new constitution was adopted in 1987.

1. How did the Korean War change the way Korea was divided?

War Breaks Out in Vietnam; The United States Get Involved; Postwar Southeast Asia (pages 978–981)

How did the United States get involved in Vietnam?

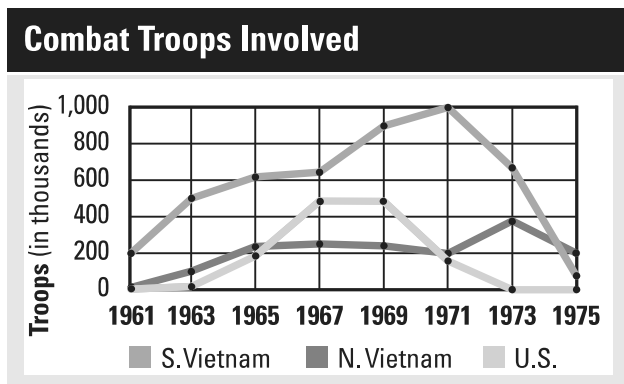
A nationalist named **Ho Chi Minh** drove the French out of Vietnam. This worried the United States because Ho had turned to the Communists for help. Many Americans thought if one country became Communist, others would also, like a row of dominoes. This idea is known as the **domino theory**. A peace conference split Vietnam in two, with Ho taking charge of North Vietnam. The country had a Communist government. Communist rebels—the **Vietcong**—stayed active in the South.

The non-Communist government of the South had been set up by the United States and France. Its leader was **Ngo Dinh Diem**. When his government was threatened by Communists, the United States began to send troops. When they could not win the war on the ground, they tried bombing. Many people in the United States came to oppose the war.

In the late 1960s, President Richard Nixon began a plan called **Vietnamization**. This plan called for a gradual pullout of U.S. troops. At the same time, the South Vietnamese increased their combat role. The last American troops left in 1973. Two years later, North Vietnam overran the South and made Vietnam one country again. Today, Vietnam remains Communist but is looking for other nations to invest in its economy.

Fighting in Vietnam spilled over into Vietnam's neighbor, Cambodia. Rebels there were known as the **Khmer Rouge**. They set up a brutal Communist government. The Khmer Rouge killed 2 million people. In 1978, the Vietnamese invaded the country. They overthrew the Khmer Rouge. Vietnam withdrew in 1989. In 1993, Cambodia held free elections for the first time.

2. What happened in Vietnam after the United States withdrew?



Skillbuilder

Use the graph to answer these questions.

1. In which year was the number of U.S. troops in Vietnam the highest?

2. What is the greatest number of troops the South Vietnamese army had at one time?

CHAPTER 33 Section 4 (pages 982–987)

The Cold War Divides the World

BEFORE YOU READ

In the last section, you read about wars in Korea and Vietnam.

In this section, you will learn about Cold War struggles in other parts of the world.

AS YOU READ

Use the chart below to take notes on Cold War conflicts.

TERMS AND NAMES

Third World Developing nations in Africa, Asia, and Latin America

nonaligned nations Countries that did not take sides with either the United States or the Soviet Union

Fidel Castro Communist leader of Cuba

Anastasio Somoza Nicaraguan dictator

Daniel Ortega Leader of Communist rebels in Nicaragua

Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini Muslim leader who overthrew the Shah of Iran

COUNTRY	CONFLICT OR CHANGE
Cuba	Castro takes power

Fighting for the Third World

(pages 982–983)

How were developing nations affected by the Cold War?

After World War II, the world's nations were grouped into three "worlds." The First World included the United States and its allies. The Second World consisted of Communist nations led by the Soviet Union. The **Third World** was composed of developing nations in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

Many Third World nations had serious problems. These problems were often due to a long history of colonialism. Some Third World nations faced *political unrest* that threatened the peace. Other problems included poverty and a lack of education and technology. Some of these countries tried to stay *neutral* in the Cold War. They met to form what they called a "third force." It consisted of **nonaligned nations**, or countries that did not take sides between the Soviets and Americans. Others actively sought American or Soviet aid.

1. What problems did Third World nations face?

Confrontations in Latin America

(pages 984–985)

What happened in Latin America?

In Cuba, the United States supported a dictator in the 1950s. In 1959, a young lawyer, **Fidel Castro**, led a successful revolt. Castro received aid from the Soviet Union. In 1962, the Soviets and Americans almost went to war over nuclear missiles that the Soviets placed in Cuba. The Soviets finally pulled the missiles out. Over time, the Cuban economy became more dependent on Soviet aid. When the Soviet Union collapsed in 1991, this aid stopped. It was a serious blow to Cuba's economy.

The United States had also backed a dictator, **Anastasio Somoza**, in Nicaragua. Somoza's government fell to Communist rebels in 1979. The rebels were led by **Daniel Ortega**. When the new government began helping leftist rebels in nearby El Salvador, the United States struck back. It began to support Nicaraguan rebels that wanted to overthrow the Communists. The civil war in Nicaragua lasted more than a decade. Finally, the different sides agreed to hold free elections.

2. Where did Communists gain power in Latin America?

Confrontations in the Middle East

(pages 986–987)

What happened in Iran and Afghanistan?

The Middle East often saw conflict between those who wanted a more modern, Western-style society and those who wanted to follow traditional *Islam*. Such a struggle took place in Iran. In the 1950s, a group tried to take control of the government from Iran's ruler, **Shah Mohammed Reza Pahlavi**. The United States helped the Shah defeat them.

Over time, the Shah tried to weaken the influence of Islam in Iran. A Muslim leader, the **Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini**, led a successful revolt. In 1979, the Shah was forced to leave the country. Khomeini made Islamic law the law of the land. He followed a foreign policy that was strongly against the United States. He also led his country in a long war against its neighbor Iraq.

The Soviets gained influence in Afghanistan after 1950. In the 1970s, Islamic rebels threatened the country's Communist government. The Soviets sent in troops to support the government. The United States felt its Middle East oil supplies were in danger and supported the rebels. In 1989, after a costly occupation, Soviet troops left Afghanistan.

3. How did Khomeini change Iran?

CHAPTER 33 Section 5 (pages 988–991)

The Cold War Thaws

BEFORE YOU READ

In the last section, you read about Cold War struggles around the world.

In this section, you will read about the major events of the Cold War from the 1950s to the 1980s.

AS YOU READ

Use the time line below to show key events that decreased or increased tensions between the superpowers.

TERMS AND NAMES

Nikita Khrushchev Leader of the Soviet Union after Stalin

Leonid Brezhnev Soviet leader after Khrushchev

John F. Kennedy President of the United States from 1961 to 1963

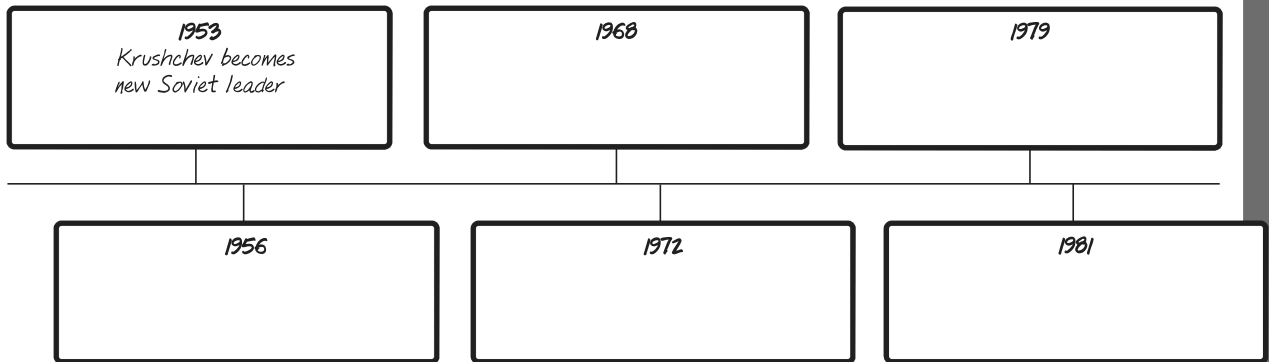
Lyndon Johnson President of the United States from 1963 to 1969

détente Policy to decrease tensions between the superpowers

Richard M. Nixon President of the United States from 1969 to 1974

SALT Talks to limit nuclear arms in the United States and the Soviet Union

Ronald Reagan President of the United States from 1981 to 1989



Soviet Policy in Eastern Europe and China

 (page 988)

How did the Soviets keep control over Eastern Europe?

Nikita Khrushchev became the Soviet leader after Stalin died in 1953. Khrushchev began a process of “destalinization.” This meant getting rid of Stalin’s memory. Khrushchev also believed that the Soviet Union should have “peaceful competition” with the capitalist nations.

In Eastern Europe, many people still resented Soviet rule. Eastern Europeans took part in protest

movements against Soviet control. In 1956, protesters and the army overthrew the Communist government of Hungary. Khrushchev sent Soviet tanks to put the Communists back in power. In 1964, **Leonid Brezhnev** replaced Khrushchev. When Czechoslovakians began to reform their Communist government in 1968, Brezhnev sent in tanks to stop them.

The Soviets did not have the same control over their larger neighbor, China. Although the Soviet Union and China enjoyed friendly relations at first, they gradually grew apart. The split became so wide that the Soviet Union and China sometimes

fought along their border. The two nations now have a peaceful relationship.

1. In what two European countries did the Soviets put down revolts against Soviet control?

**From Brinkmanship to Détente;
The Collapse of Détente** (pages 990–991)

Did tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union change?

Tensions between the Soviets and the United States had been very high during the presidency of **John F. Kennedy**. They remained high during the presidency of **Lyndon Johnson**. The war in Vietnam helped keep relations tense.

In the early 1970s, the United States began to follow a policy called **détente** under President **Richard M. Nixon**. Détente was a policy of lowering tensions between the superpowers. Nixon made

visits to both Communist China and the Soviet Union. In 1972, he and Brezhnev held meetings called the Strategic Arms Limitations Talks (**SALT**). They signed a treaty to limit the number of nuclear missiles each country could have.

The United States retreated from détente when the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan in 1979. In 1981, **Ronald Reagan**, a fierce anti-Communist, became president. He proposed a costly anti-missile defense system to protect America against Soviet missiles. It was never put into effect. But it remained a symbol of U.S. anti-Communist feelings.

The Soviets grew angry over American support for the rebels fighting against the Communists in Nicaragua. Tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union increased until 1985 when a new leader came to power in the Soviet Union.

2. Name two actions or events that got in the way of détente.

CHAPTER
33

Section 4

GEOGRAPHY APPLICATION: REGION

The Cuban Missile Crisis

Directions: Read the paragraphs below and study the map carefully. Then answer the questions that follow.

In 1962, the world narrowly escaped nuclear holocaust during the Cuban Missile Crisis. The United States and the Soviet Union faced each other in a dispute over Soviet placement of nuclear missiles in Cuba, 90 miles off the coast of Florida.

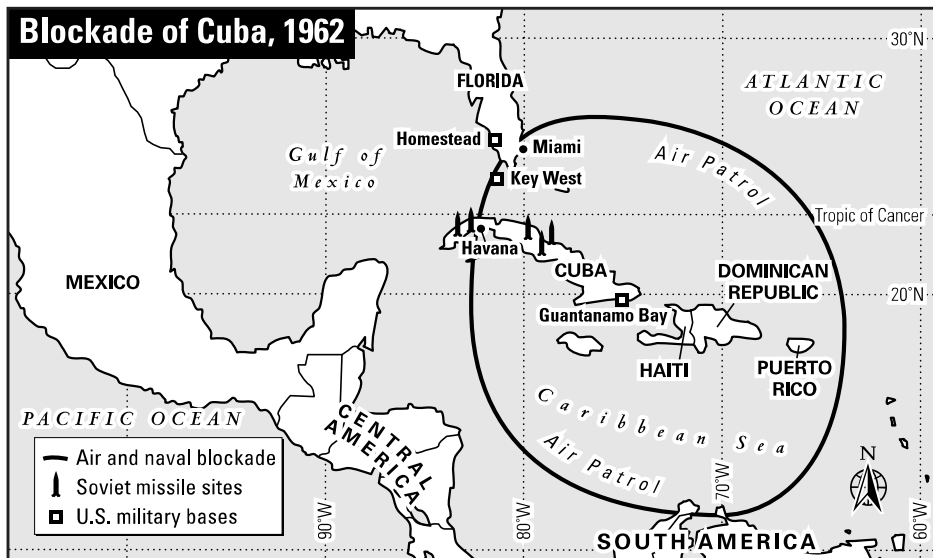
There are several possibilities why the Soviets placed nuclear missiles in Cuba. First, the missiles could protect Cuba from possible U.S. military aggression. Second, the Soviets would gain a strategic advantage on the United States in case of global nuclear war. Finally, the missiles would counter the U.S. installation of missiles in Turkey, near Soviet territory, in 1959.

The U.S. government had an idea Soviets wanted to place missiles in Cuba for some time. However, it was not until August 29, 1962, that a U-2 spy plane confirmed this to President John F. Kennedy. Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara proposed three courses of action for the United States. First, it could try to resolve the problem diplomatically by discussing it with the Soviets and the Cubans. Second, it could form an air and naval blockade around Cuba to prevent further shipments of mis-

siles. Finally, it could order an air strike to destroy the missiles and then invade Cuba.

On October 22, Kennedy announced a blockade of Cuba. The United States would seize “offensive weapons and associated matériel” that the Soviets were delivering to Cuba. After six tense days, Nikita Khrushchev, the Soviet leader, agreed to halt further shipments of missiles and to dismantle the existing ones in Cuba. He agreed to this only after Kennedy promised not to invade Cuba. Khrushchev also wanted the U.S. missiles removed from Turkey. In formal negotiations, Kennedy refused but then informally agreed to remove them and did so.

Documents released 35 years later reveal that, unknown to both U.S. and Soviet leaders, Soviet field commanders in Cuba had complete authority to fire their missiles. In addition, U.S. military officials undertook several secret sabotage missions in Cuba, and an American aircraft accidentally strayed into Soviet airspace at the height of the crisis. Any of these situations could have triggered a nuclear war.



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Interpreting Text and Visuals

1. Why do you think the U.S. government wanted to remove Soviet missiles in Cuba? _____

2. Describe the area of the U.S. blockade. _____

3. According to the map, how many military bases did the United States have in this area? _____

4. What are some of the reasons for the Soviet placement of missiles in Cuba? _____

5. What options did the United States have to counter the Soviet build-up of missiles in Cuba?

6. What were some of the unforeseen situations that might have started a nuclear war in 1962?

7. Why do you think Kennedy decided to remove U.S. missiles from Turkey? _____

CHAPTER 35 Section 3 (pages 1046–1051)

The Collapse of the Soviet Union

BEFORE YOU READ

In the last section, you read about political conflicts in Africa.

In this section, you will read about the fall of the Soviet Union and the rise of Russia.

AS YOU READ

Use the time line below to take notes on key events leading up to and following the collapse of the Soviet Union.

TERMS AND NAMES

Politburo Ruling committee of the Communist Party

Mikhail Gorbachev Leader of the Soviet Union from 1985 to 1991

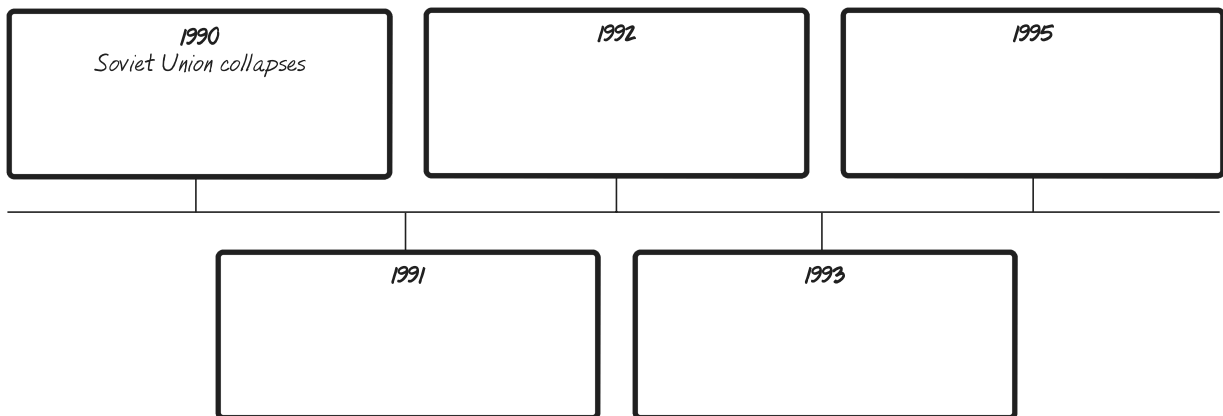
glasnost Gorbachev’s policy of openness

perestroika Gorbachev’s policy aimed at reforming the Soviet economy

Boris Yeltsin Political opponent of Gorbachev who became president of Russia

CIS Commonwealth of Independent States, a loose federation of former Soviet territories

“shock therapy” Yeltsin’s plan for changing the Soviet economy



Gorbachev Moves Toward Democracy (page 1046)

How did Gorbachev open up Soviet society?

During the 1960s and 1970s, the leaders of the Soviet Union kept tight control on society. Leonid Brezhnev and the **Politburo**—the ruling committee of the Communist Party—crushed all political dissent. In 1985, Communist Party leaders named **Mikhail Gorbachev** as the leader of the Soviet Union. He was the youngest Soviet leader since Joseph Stalin. He was expected to make minor reforms. But his reforms led to a revolution.

Gorbachev felt that Soviet society could not improve without the free flow of ideas. He started a policy called **glasnost**, or openness. He opened churches. He let political prisoners out of prison. He allowed books to be published that in the past had been *banned*.

1. What was Gorbachev’s policy of glasnost?

Reforming the Economy and Politics (page 1047)

What changes did Gorbachev make in the Soviet economy and politics?

Gorbachev began a policy called **perestroika**, or economic restructuring. It tried to improve the Soviet economy by lifting the tight control on all managers and workers.

In 1987, Gorbachev opened up the political system by allowing the Soviet people to elect representatives to a legislature.

Finally, Gorbachev changed Soviet foreign policy. He moved to end the arms race against the United States.

2. What was Gorbachev's policy of perestroika?

The Soviet Union Faces Turmoil

(pages 1048–1050)

What problems did the Soviet Union face?

People from many different ethnic groups in the Soviet Union began calling for the right to have their own nation. In 1990, Lithuania declared itself independent. Gorbachev sent troops. They fired on a crowd and killed 14 people. This action and the slow pace of reform cost Gorbachev support among the Soviet people.

Many people began to support **Boris Yeltsin**. Old-time Communists were becoming angry at Gorbachev. They thought his changes made the Soviet Union weaker. In August 1991, they tried to take control of the government. When the army refused to back the *coup* leaders, they gave up.

To strike back, the parliament voted to ban the party from any political activity. Meanwhile, more republics in the Soviet Union declared their independence. Russia and the 14 other republics each became independent states. Most of the republics then agreed to form the Commonwealth of Independent States, or **CIS**, a loose *federation* of former Soviet territories. By the end of 1991, the Soviet Union had ceased to exist.

3. Name three events that led up to the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Russia Under Boris Yeltsin (page 1050)

What happened when Gorbachev lost power?

After the coup failed, Gorbachev lost all power. Yeltsin became the most powerful Russian leader. As president of Russia, he faced many problems. He tried to change the economy. His economic plan was known as “**shock therapy**.” This move toward capitalism caused suffering.

In addition, rebels in the small republic of Chechnya declared their independence from Russia. Yeltsin refused to allow it. He sent thousands of troops to put down the Chechen rebels. As a bloody war raged, Yeltsin resigned and named Vladimir Putin as president.

4. What decisions did Yeltsin make about the economy?

Russia Under Vladimir Putin

(page 1051)

How did Putin handle the situation in Chechnya?

Putin dealt harshly with the rebellion in Chechnya but the rebellion dragged on for years. Chechen rebels seized a theater in Moscow and more than 100 people died.

Economic troubles continued as Russia dealt with social upheaval caused by years of change and reform. Social problems included homeless children, domestic violence, and unemployment, as well as declines in population, standard of living, and life expectancy.

5. What were some of the signs of social distress in Russia?

Cold War Source Analysis

Answer the following questions based on the resources provided. You should answer in complete sentences with evidence from the documents. Answer the questions in a new Word Document or handwrite the answers on a piece of paper. Send the file or a picture of your answers to your teacher.

Soviet-American Confrontation

★ Interpreting Primary Sources

- 1.) From Stettin on the Baltic to Trieste on the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the continent. Behind that line lie all the capitals of the ancient states of central and eastern Europe. Warsaw, Berlin, Prague, Vienna, Budapest, Belgrade, Bucharest, and Sofia, all these famous cities and the populations around them lie in the Soviet sphere and all are subject, in one form or another, not only to Soviet influence but to a very high and increasing measure of control from Moscow....Police governments are prevailing in nearly every case, and so far, except in Czechoslovakia, there is no true democracy.

Winston S. Churchill

- 2.) One cannot forget the following fact: the Germans carried out an invasion of the U.S.S.R. through Finland, Poland, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Hungary....One can ask, therefore, what can be surprising in the fact that the Soviet Union, in a desire to ensure its security for the future, tries to achieve that these countries should have governments whose relations to the Soviet Union are loyal?

Joseph Stalin

- 3.) How do American actions since V-J Day appear to other nations? I mean by actions the concrete things like \$13 billion for the War and Navy Departments, the Bikini tests of the atomic bomb and continued production of bombs, the plan to arm Latin America with out weapons, production of B-29's and planned production of B-36's, and the effort to secure air bases spread over half the globe....How would it look to us if Russia had the atomic bomb and we did not, if Russia had 10,000 bombers and air bases within a thousand miles of our coast lines and we did not?...Most of us are firmly convinced of the soundness of our position when we suggest the internationalization and defortification of the Danube or of the Dardanelles, but we would be horrified and angered by any Russian counter-proposal that would involve the internationalizing and disarming of Suez or Panama. We must recognize that to the Russians these seem to be identical situations.

Henry A. Wallace

- 4.) Today the ruling circles of the U.S.A. and Great Britain head one international grouping, which has as its aim the consolidation of capitalism and the achievement of the dominations of these countries over other peoples. The countries are headed by imperialist and anti-democratic forces in international affairs, with the active participation of certain Socialist leaders in several European states.

V.M. Molotov

5.) Whether it be the control of atomic energy, aggression against small nations, the German or the Austrian peace settlements, or any of the other questions, the majority of nations concerned have found a common basis for action. But in every case the majority agreement has been rejected, denounced, and openly attacked by the Soviet Union and her satellites whose policy she controls....What the world needs in order to regain a sense of security is an end to Soviet obstruction and aggression.

President Harry Truman

★ Questions To Think About

- 1. What were the post-war goals of the United States and Soviet Union?**
- 2. Was post-war conflict between the United States and Soviet Union inevitable?**
- 3. What was the underlying source of international tension--an aggressive and intransigent Soviet Union or an overwhelmingly strong and uncompromising America?**

The Containment Policy

★ Interpreting Primary Sources

- 1) Soviet power...bears within itself the seeds of its own decay, and the sprouting of these seeds is well advanced...[If] anything were ever to disrupt the unity and efficacy of the Party as a political instrument, Soviet Russia might be changed overnight from one of the strongest to one of the weakest and most pitiable of national societies....This would...warrant the United States entering with reasonable confidence upon a policy of firm containment, designed to confront the Russians with unalterable counter-force at every point where they show signs of encroaching upon the interests of a peaceful and stable world.

George Kennan

- 2) At the present moment in world history nearly every nation must choose between alternative ways of life. The choice is too often not a free one. One way of life is based upon the will of the majority, and is distinguished by free institutions, representative government, free elections, guarantees of individual liberty, freedom of speech and religion, and freedom from political oppression. The second way of life is based upon the will of a minority forcibly imposed upon the majority. It relies upon terror and oppression, a controlled press and radio, fixed elections, and the suppression of personal freedoms. I believe that it must be the policy of the United States to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures.

Truman Doctrine, 1947

- 3) The truth of the matter is that Europe's requirements for the next three or four years of foreign food and other essential products--principally from America--are so much greater than her present ability to pay that she must have substantial additional help or face economic, social, and political deterioration of a very grave character.... Our policy is directed not against any country or doctrine but against hunger, poverty, desperation, and chaos. Its purpose should be the revival of a working economy in the world so as to permit the emergence of political and social conditions in which free institutions can exist.

The Marshall Plan, 1947

- 4) Article 5 The parties agree that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all; and consequently they agree that, if such an armed attack occurs, each of them...[will take] such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area.

The North Atlantic Treaty, 1949

- 5) Why, by inter-weaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and property in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humour, or caprice? It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world.

George Washington, 1796

- 6) The security of the United States would again be seriously endangered if the entire European continent were once more to come under the domination of a power or an association of powers antagonistic to the United States....Today, the weakened condition in which the nations of Europe find themselves as a result of the destruction and privation of war has afforded a golden opportunity for a new aggressor....It is believed essential to the security of the United States, therefore, that it consolidate the friendship and support which it now enjoys from free and friendly nations.

State Department

- 7) The pact destroys the chances of European recovery. A permanently militarized Europe is doomed to living on an American dole. The pact is not an instrument of defense but a military alliance designed for aggression. It bypasses the United Nations and violates its Charter in a most flagrant manner. It divides the world permanently into two armed camps. And it provocatively establishes military bases on the borders of the Soviet Union.

Henry Wallace

★ Questions To Think About

- 1. Describe the containment policy. What was its goal?**
- 2. Why did the United States decide to broaden its overseas commitments? Did the Soviet threat justify this expansion of America's commitments?**
- 3. Was the containment policy essentially offensive or defensive?**

The Korean War

★ Interpreting Primary Sources

In Korea the Government forces, which were armed to prevent border raids and to preserve internal security, were attacked by invading forces from North Korea....The attack upon Korea makes it plain beyond all doubt that communism has passed beyond the use of subversion to conquer independent nations and will now use armed invasion and war.

President Harry Truman

Once war is forced upon us, there is no other alternative than to apply every available means to bring it to a swift end. War's very object is victory--not prolonged indecision. In war, indeed, there can be no substitute for victory.

General Douglas MacArthur

It seems strangely difficult for some to realize that here in Asia is where the Communist conspirators have elected to make their play for global conquest, and that we have joined the issue thus raised on the battlefield; that here we fight Europe's war with arms while the diplomats there still fight it with words; that if we lose the war to communism in Asia the fall of Europe is inevitable, win it and Europe most probably would avoid war and yet preserve freedom.

General Douglas MacArthur

We do not want to see the conflict in Korea extended. We are trying to prevent a world war--not to start one....But you may ask why can't we take other steps to punish the aggressor. Why don't we bomb Manchuria and China itself? Why don't we assist Chinese Nationalist troops to land on the mainland of China? If we were to do these things we would be running a very grave risk of starting a general war....If we were to do these things, we would become entangled in a vast conflict on the continent of Asia and our task would become immeasurably more difficult all over the world.

I believe that we must try to limit the war to Korea for these vital reasons: To make sure that the precious lives of our fighting men are not wasted, to see that the security of our country and the free world is not needlessly jeopardized and to prevent a third world war. A number of events have made it evident that General MacArthur did not agree with that policy. I have, therefore, considered it essential to relieve General MacArthur so that there would be no doubt or confusion as to the real purpose and aim of our policy.

President Harry Truman

General MacArthur...would have us, on our own initiative, carry the conflict beyond Korea against the mainland of Communist China, both from the sea and from the air. He would have us accept the risk of involvement not only in an extension of the war with Red China, but in an all-out war with the Soviet Union. He would have us do this even at the expense of losing our allies and wrecking the coalition of free peoples throughout the world. He would do this even though the effect of such action might expose Western Europe to attack by the millions of Soviet troops poised in Middle and Eastern Europe.

George Marshall

★ Questions To Think About

- 1. What was America's mission in Korea?**
- 2. How far should the United States go in accomplishing that mission?**
- 3. Did President Truman improperly interfere in military operations in Korea?**

Anti-Communism at Home

★ Interpreting Primary Sources

Sec. 2: (a) It shall be unlawful for any person--

(1) to knowingly or willfully advocate, abet, advise, or teach the duty, necessity, desirability, or propriety of overthrowing or destroying any government in the United States by force or violence, or by the assassination of any officer of such government;

(2) with the intent to cause the overthrow or destruction of any government in the United States, to print, publish, edit, issue, circulate, sell, distribute, or publicly display any written or printed matter advocating, advising, or teaching the duty, necessity, desirability, or propriety of overthrowing or destroying any government in the United States by force or violence;

(3) to organize or help to organize any society, group, or assembly of persons who teach, advocate, or encourage the overthrow or destruction of any government in the United States by force or violence; or to be or become a member of, or affiliate with, any such society, group or assembly of persons, knowing the purposes thereof.

The Smith Act, 1940

Part I.

1. There shall be a loyalty investigation of every person entering the civilian employment of any department or agency of the executive branch of the federal government.

Part II.

2. The head of each department and agency shall appoint one or more loyalty boards...for the purpose of hearing loyalty cases....

Part V.

1. The standard for the refusal of employment or the removal from employment in an executive department or agency on grounds relating to loyalty shall be that, on all the evidence, reasonable grounds exist for belief that the person involved is disloyal to the government of the United States.

2. Activities and associations of an applicant or employee which may be considered in connection with the determination of disloyalty may include one or more of the following:

a. Sabotage, espionage, or attempts or preparations therefore, or knowingly associating with spies or saboteurs;

b. Treason or sedition or advocacy thereof;

c. Advocacy of revolution or force or violence to alter the constitutional form of government of the United States;

d. Intentional, unauthorized disclosure to any person, under circumstances which may indicate disloyalty to the United States, of documents or information of a confidential or nonpublic character obtained by the person making the disclosure as a result of his employment by the government of the United States.

f. Membership in, affiliation with or sympathetic association with any foreign or domestic organization, association, movement, group or combination of persons, designated by the attorney general as totalitarian, fascist, communist, or subversive, or as having adopted a policy of advocating or approving the commission of acts of force or violence to deny other persons their rights under the Constitution of the United States, or as seeking to alter the form of government of the United States by unconstitutional means.

Executive Order 9835, 1947

(1) There exists a world Communist movement, which, in its origins, its development, and its present practice, is a world-wide revolutionary movement whose purpose it is, by treachery, deceit, infiltration into other groups (governmental and otherwise), espionage, sabotage, terrorism, and any other means deemed necessary, to establish a Communist totalitarian dictatorship in the countries through the medium of a world-wide Communist organization.

(15) The Communist movement in the United States is an organization numbering thousands of adherents, rigidly and ruthlessly disciplined. Awaiting and seeking to advance a moment when the United States may be so far extended by foreign engagements, so far divided in counsel, or so far in industrial or financial straits, that overthrow of the Government of the United States by force and violence may seem possible of achievement, it seeks converts far and wide by an extensive system of schooling and indoctrination.

Sec. 8 (a) Any individual who is or becomes a member of any [communist] organization...[shall] register with the Attorney General as a member of such organization.

The McCarran Act

Sec. 2 The Congress hereby finds and declares that the Communist Party of the United States, although purportedly a political party, is in fact an instrumentality of a conspiracy to overthrow the Government of the United States. It constitutes an authoritarian dictatorship within a republic, demanding for itself the rights and privileges accorded to political parties, but denying to all others the liberties guaranteed by the Constitution. Unlike political parties, which evolve their policies and programs through public means, by the reconciliation of a wide variety of individual views, and submit those policies and programs to the electorate at large for approval or disapproval, the policies and programs of the Communist Party are secretly prescribed for it by the foreign leaders of the world Communist movement....Therefore the Communist Party should be outlawed.

Communist Control Act of 1954

Six years ago this summer America stood at what Churchill described as the "highest pinnacle of her power and fame."...What do we find in the summer of 1951? The writs of Moscow run to lands which, with its own, number upward of 900 millions of people--a good 40 percent of all men living....

During all this time the administration preaches a gospel of fear and [Secretaries of State] Acheson and Marshall expound a foreign policy in the East based upon craven, whimpering appeasement....

How can we account for our present situation unless we believe that men high in this government are concerting to deliver us to disaster? This must be the product of a great conspiracy, a conspiracy on a scale so immense to dwarf any previous such venture in the history of man....What can be made of this unbroken series of decisions and acts contributing to the strategy of defeat? This cannot be attributed to incompetence.

Senator Joseph McCarthy, 1951

★ Questions To Think About

1. Why were many post-war Americans concerned about the domestic threat posed by communism? Was fear of communism a response to

legitimate threats to national security or an irrational response to other tensions within American society?

2. Were the federal government loyalty programs intelligent and constitutional methods of preserving American values?

3. Can the government legitimately require employees to take loyalty oaths?

4. What, if anything, can society do about people who hold opinions that the majority finds abhorrent?

Postwar Society

★ Interpreting Statistics

United States in 1947	
Proportion of world's manufacturing	50 %
Proportion of world's steel production	57 %
Proportion of world's electricity usage	43 %
Proportion of world's oil production	62 %
Proportion of world's automobiles	75 %
Proportion of world's automobiles manufactured	80 %

★ Questions To Think About

1. What factors contributed to American industrial preeminence in 1947?
2. In your view, is it realistic to think that the U.S. could have maintained this preeminence in subsequent years?

★ Interpreting Statistics

Geographic Distribution of the U.S. Population			
	1950	1960	1970
Central Cities	32.3	32.6	31.4
Suburbs	23.8	30.7	37.6
Rural Areas	43.9	36.7	31.0

★ Questions To Think About

1. How did the geographic distribution of the U.S. population change after 1950?
2. What factors encouraged this shift?

★ Interpreting Statistics

Weekly Earnings of Manufacturing Workers, 1940-1960 (1967=100)		
	Index of Weekly Earnings	Index of Real Weekly Earnings (adjusted for inflation)
1940	21.9	53.1
1945	38.6	72.8
1950	51.6	72.8
1955	66.4	84.3
1960	78.1	89.5

★ Questions To Think About

1. Describe the changes that took place in earnings after the war?

2. How would you explain this increase?