WORLD HISTORY
THE BIG ERAS

GLOBALIZATION

1945–Present

Ross E. Dunn *General Editor*

Paradoxes of Global Acceleration

NATIONAL CENTER FOR HISTORY IN THE SCHOOLS, UCLA

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BIG ERA NINE

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The units in this book are drawn from the Landscape Teaching Units of World History for Us All, a web-based model curriculum for world history (http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu). The website is continuously evolving with new content being added. If a topic is not included here, please visit the website to see if it is currently available.

A Companion to World History for Us All
A Model Curriculum for World History
http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu

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Contents

Publisher's Note

BACKGROUND

The Big Era lessons emphasize the relationships between particular subject matter and larger patterns of historical meaning and significance. This inclusive, context-focused approach is primarily concerned with forging connections on a global scale, thereby encouraging students to construct the globally integrated chronological framework essential to achieving deeper historical understanding. The lessons may be used flexibly, depending on interest, school curriculum requirements, and instructional time available.

This volume brings together the Landscape Teaching Units of Big Era Nine in World History for Us All, a web-based model curriculum for world history available online at http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu. The nine Big Eras constitute the periodization plan and the basic organizational structure of the World History for Us All curriculum. Many teachers have requested a printed version of the Big Era units, or lessons, to help guide them and their students in exploring historical developments, continuities, and turning points on a larger scale than textbooks or content standards lists offer.

GENERAL APPROACH

Chapters begin by explaining the educational value of their particular historical moment, identifying the topic's relevance and positioning it within the context of the global landscape. Outlining salient information in a written description and visually situating the era on a time line, the chapter's introductory section foreshadows the content and underlying themes of the chapter, preparing students to draw informed connections among historical events.

The Three Essential Questions and Key Themes encourage students to engage in critical, higher-order thinking as they solidify their comprehension of major world trends. (See below for further description.) Additional introductory material enumerates the chapter's learning objectives, estimates the time commitment required, and lists the materials necessary to complete the lessons.

The lessons offer a varied selection of activities, readings, primary source documents, discussion questions, assessments, and extension activities. The teacher's guides, containing instructions for lesson preparation, procedure, and background information, are followed by each lesson's reproducible student handouts. Charts, graphs, and maps referenced in the lesson are also provided.

Correlations to National History Standards are listed to enhance convenience for teachers designing their curricula to align with these content recommendations. All the lessons in this volume support learning and practice of critical-thinking skills. By teaching these lessons, instructors will help students develop the skills charted in both the Common Core State Standards Initiative and the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards*. Extensive correlations for this volume to Common Core State Standards are found on the web-based product page at http://www.socialstudies.com/c/product.html?record@TF45334. The resource sections recommend books, articles, and digital content selected as means to further explore the chapter's historical concepts and expand the scope of understanding for both educators and students.

This book and the World History for Us All model curriculum use the secular designations BCE (Before the Common Era) and CE (Common Era) in place of BC and AD. This usage follows the format of the National Standards for History and the Advanced Placement World History course. It in no way alters the conventional Gregorian calendar. We also use BP (Before Present) for historical periods approximately prior to 10,000 BP.

GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS

Afroeurasia

Afroeurasia is the landmass made up of Africa and Eurasia combined. Afroeurasia was formed during the last forty million years by the collision of the tectonic plates containing Eurasia and those containing Africa and Arabia. This geographical expression serves as a helpful tool in discussing large-scale historical developments that cut across the traditionally defined continental divisions of Africa, Asia, and Europe. Even though Africa is separated from both Europe and Asia by the Mediterranean and Red seas (except at the Isthmus of Sinai where modern Egypt meets Israel), these bodies of water have historically been channels of human intercommunication, not barriers to it. Therefore, we may think of both the Mediterranean and the Red Sea as "lakes" inside Afroeurasia.

America, the Americas

The Americas are made up of the continents of North America and South America, including neighboring islands, notably the islands of the Caribbean Sea. Until the twentieth century, most geography books classified North and South America together as a single continent, labeling them the "New World" ("new" to Europeans beginning in the late fifteenth century CE) as opposed to the "Old World," that is, Afroeurasia. In the twentieth century, school children in the United States and most other countries (though not in some Latin American states) were taught to see the "Western Hemisphere" as comprising two distinct continents, joined only by the narrow Isthmus of Panama. However, humans in North and South America have never been entirely disconnected from one another. As far as we know, humans first migrated from North to South America 14,000 years ago, or longer, by advancing along either the Isthmus or its coastal waters. Also, it is not hard to perceive the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea as two "internal seas" of a single American landmass, much the way we may think of the Mediterranean and Red seas as "inside" Afroeurasia. The Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico are bounded on three sides by land and on the west by a long string of closely clustered islands.

Australasia

The continent of Australia, plus New Guinea, New Zealand, Tasmania, and other neighboring islands make up Australasia. During the last Ice Age, when sea levels were lower, Australia, New Guinea, and Tasmania comprised a single landmass known as Sahul. Human settlement of Australasia began as many as 60,000 years ago, although Polynesian mariners did not reach New Zealand until about 1000 CE.

Eurasia

Eurasia is the landmass made up of Asia and Europe. Today, this term is widely used in history and geography education. The idea that Europe and Asia are separate continents goes back many centuries, but scholars who accept the definition of a continent as "a large landmass surrounded, or nearly surrounded, by water" know that the definition applies to neither Europe nor Asia because these two landmasses are conjoined. Moreover, the Ural Mountains, designated by eighteenth century European geographers as the proper boundary between the European and Asian continents, have never been a serious obstacle to the flow of migrants, armies, trade goods, or ideas. In this book, Europe is defined as a subcontinent of Eurasia (or Afroeurasia), analogous to South Asia or the Indochinese peninsula.

Great Arid Zone

A climatic map of Afroeurasia shows that a good part of the landmass is a belt of dry or semi-dry country that extends all the way from the Atlantic coast of Africa in a generally northeasterly direction to the northern interior of China. This enormous tract comprises a chain of interconnected deserts, mountains, and semi-arid steppes. A steppe may be defined as flat or rolling grassland, equivalent to what Americans call "prairie" and Argentineans call "pampas." The main climatic characteristic of the Great Arid Zone is low annual rainfall, which may range from an average of less than 5 inches in the driest of deserts to 20 inches or so in better watered steppes. For several millennia the Great Arid Zone has been home to pastoral nomadic peoples. Where water has been available from rivers, springs, or wells, it has also been home to farming societies and even large cities.

Indo-Mediterranea

The region of lands and seas extending from the Atlantic coasts of Europe and North Africa to North India is known as Indo-Mediterranea. This expression includes the Mediterranean basin as a whole and extends eastward across Southwest Asia to northern India as far as the Bay of Bengal. In the long term of human history from at least the third millennium BCE to modern times, this region has been characterized by a proliferation of clusters of dense population (notably in river valleys) and by intense commercial and cultural interchange.

Inner Eurasia

The huge interior landmass of Eurasia, whose dominant features are flat, semi-arid regions of steppe and forest, is known as Inner Eurasia. David Christian defines Inner Eurasia as the territories ruled by the Soviet Union before its collapse, together with Mongolia and parts of western China. Poland and Hungary to the west and Manchuria (northeastern China) to the east may be thought of as Inner Eurasia's borderlands. The northern margins are boreal forest and Arctic tundra. The southern boundaries are the Himalayas and other mountain chains.

Oceania

The basin of the Pacific Ocean and its approximately 25,000 islands make up Oceania. Human settlement of this enormous region, sometimes called the Island Pacific, began in western islands near New Guinea about 1600 BCE. Polynesian mariners reached both Hawaii to the northeast and Easter Island to the far southeast around 500 CE. The majority of the islands lie in the tropical belt south of the Equator. The first peoples of Oceania spoke mostly Polynesian languages. Some geographers include both the large island of New Guinea and the continent of Australia as part of Oceania.

Southwest Asia

Southwest Asia is the designation of the region extending from the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea to Afghanistan. It includes Turkey and the Arabian Peninsula, but not Egypt or any other part of Africa. This region is often referred to as the Middle East, but this book uses the term "Middle East" only in the context of history since the start of the twentieth century. (For earlier periods, "Middle East" causes confusion because it is used sometimes as a synonym for Southwest Asia, sometimes to encompass Southwest Asia plus Egypt, and sometimes to embrace the entire region from Afghanistan to Morocco.)

THREE ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

The Three Essential Questions introduce overarching thematic questions that stand at the crux of historical understanding. These questions provide three distinct lenses through which to examine the constantly evolving relationships that shape human civilization: the relationships between humans and the environment, humans and other humans, and humans and ideas. The study of these relationships—which have proven to be enduring aspects of the human experience—and their corresponding questions function as guides for organizing classroom activities and discussion. Prompted by the Three Essential Questions, students identify how the content of each chapter relates to these themes and utilize this information to predict future patterns of activity and thought.

Humans and the Environment

These questions require students to consider how humans have lived, how they have treated the earth, and how their power over the earth has grown, while relating each chapter's content to the underlying question, "How has the changing relationship between human beings and the physical and natural environment affected human life from early times to the present?"

Humans and Other Humans

These questions explore the relationships among humans themselves and how those relationships have evolved, while relating each chapter's content to the underlying question, "Why have relationships among humans become so complex since early times?"

Humans and Ideas

These questions push students to examine how ideas influence historical development and how events shape ideas, while relating each chapter's content to the underlying question, "How have human views of the world, nature, and the cosmos changed?"

KEY THEMES

The lessons in this volume address a number of historical themes. A theme is defined here as a topic that addresses a particular sphere of human activity over time. Themes are concerned with broad aspects of change of enduring importance in the human experience. Historical learning usually works best when students begin their investigations in world history with distant eras and move forward, connecting patterns of cause and effect over time. Nevertheless, attention to thematic issues offers ways to connect the study of particular periods and regions of the world to enduring aspects of the human condition. This encourages students to think more coherently, systematically, and comparatively about the past. Teachers may wish to emphasize one or more of the key themes suggested here in connection with any of the chapters and lessons in this book.

Key Theme 1: Patterns of Population

Key Theme 2: Economic Networks and Exchange

Key Theme 3: Uses and Abuses of Power

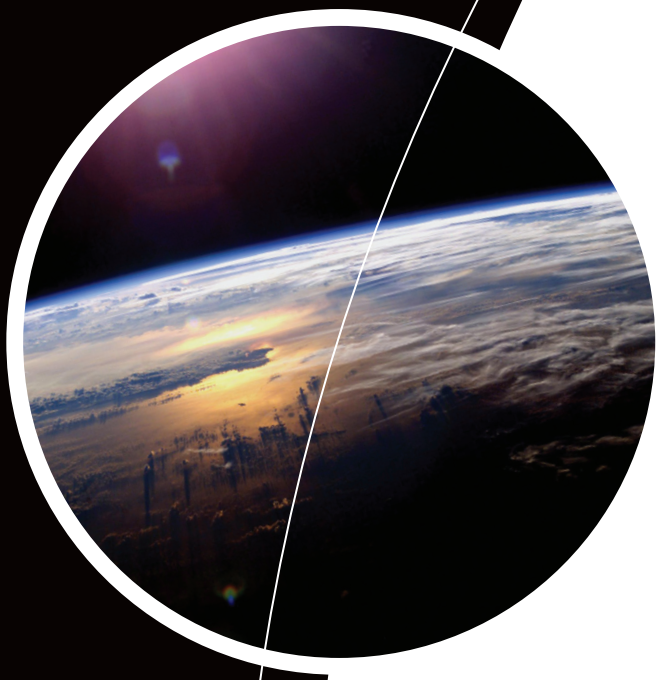
Key Theme 4: Haves and Have-Nots

Key Theme 5: Expressing Identity

Key Theme 6: Science, Technology, and the Environment

Key Theme 7: Spiritual Life and Moral Codes

For in-depth discussion of these themes and for investigative questions that link them to the Three Essential Questions, go to World History for Us All (http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu, Questions and Themes, The Seven Key Themes).



Introduction

Big Era Nine is different from earlier eras because we do not yet know where it is leading. Nevertheless, we can distinguish some key world historical processes that have been especially important in shaping the current era. Their interactions, sometimes unforeseen, have given rise to major new challenges to humanity. Others as yet unknown lie in the future. Here we can at least suggest some key trends to watch:

- Human population has reached 6.4 billion, shattering all previous records and posing major challenges for the future. Already more than 50 percent of humans live in cities, a trend that seems certain to increase. The basic demographic patterns raise major questions about how to feed, clothe, house, and provide meaningful lives for so many people. They also pose significant environmental questions.
- The environmental effects of human actions have accumulated drastically during this era. Already manifest in previous eras, environmental damage since 1950 has become progressively more severe and widespread. In some areas, it has become potentially irreversible. It includes massive deforestation, land degradation, atmospheric pollution, the extinction of species, the fouling of the world's oceans and rivers, and global warming. For the first time, anthropogenic—that is, human-generated—environmental change threatens the future of our species, if not the entire planet.
- The ability of humans to extract more energy and resources from a given area of the earth has decisively increased during Big Era Nine. A key feature of this era has been the accelerating use of petroleum and natural gas, the continuation of a trend that began with the fossil fuel revolution in the eighteenth century. Petroleum, natural gas, coal, and, to a much lesser extent, atomic power have vastly increased the amount of energy for human use, even as some parts of the world continue to enjoy disproportionate access to it.

- Politically, the period witnessed the Cold War (1947–1989) and its aftermath, the rise of the United States to global dominance, and the end of European colonial empires in Asia and Africa. The world has been affected by great political turbulence and wars in which the risk of nuclear confrontation has been present. The period has also seen the founding of the United Nations and numerous international political and economic structures, for example, the World Bank.
- Since 1950, the global economy has grown faster than ever before in history. Indeed, by some measures, more economic growth has occurred in this era than in all previous eras of human history combined. Yet the ability of economic globalization to deliver better lives for all has been deeply compromised by its contradictions, especially boom and bust cycles and wider social inequality. Is it possible to develop a more just as well as a more productive and profitable global economy? The record so far is not encouraging.
- New technologies of transportation and communication have made it possible not only to link all parts of the world in real time but also to connect individuals more intimately and inexpensively via mobile phones, chat rooms, texting, and group web sites. Due to the new electronic technologies of this era, governments and corporations have acquired unprecedented capacities to intervene in the lives of citizens, the better to observe, document, control, and organize multiple aspects of life. For better or worse, humans have been forced into closer interdependence than ever before.
- The continued escalation in the costs of military technology and its increasing development have made warfare vastly expensive for all states. Simultaneously, the costs of basic administrative, educational, and welfare services to unprecedented numbers of people have driven many states in the less developed world to the brink of collapse. In the gap between the capacity of states to organize and the growing global instability have come all sorts of private mercenaries, terror groups, and criminal syndicates. The race between order and disorder can be observed widely around the world.

In sum, the world has become increasingly contradictory and paradoxical. For some, rapid economic growth and globalization have offered opportunities. For others, they have meant the destruction of cherished lifeways and ancient traditions. While many people got wealthier, many more experienced declining standards of living, nutrition, and health. The varied and often contradictory impact of change explains why Big Era Nine has been an era of constant military, political, and cultural conflict.

CHAPTER 1

By Andrew Pass

World Politics and Global Economy after World War II

WHY STUDY WORLD POLITICS AND THE GLOBAL ECONOMY?

World War II stands as one of the worst human tragedies in history. Though estimates vary greatly, some say that as many as 62 million people died during the war. It ended with the first and only use of atomic bombs in history. Though the war was full of horror, the world continued to advance, at least technologically, if not morally. In order to understand the current world in which we live, it is imperative that we understand the foundations of this world that were laid during and immediately after this war. It is conceivable that global leaders might have agreed to far less than they did and that another world-scale conflict might have ensued. This did not happen. It is imperative that students understand what did happen, so they may gain a deep knowledge of our contemporary world, including its key economic, social, and political developments.

OBJECTIVES

Upon completing this chapter, students will be able to:

1. Explain the effect that the events of World War II had on the international community's understanding of illegal war practices.
2. Describe the impact that the Marshall Plan had on European nations.
3. Describe the basic structure and early accomplishments of the United Nations.
4. Report on the events that led to a communist government in China.

TIME AND MATERIALS

This chapter should take five class periods.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

On May 8, 1945, the Allied troops celebrated V-E Day, or Victory in Europe Day, the official victory over Nazi Germany and Adolf Hitler's Third Reich. The Russians celebrated the event a day later. The Allies held their last conference in Potsdam near Berlin from July 17 to August 2. During that conference, the various nations reached agreements on the administration of occupied Germany. A little more than three months later, on August 15, 1945, the Allies celebrated V-J Day, or Victory over Japan Day

Though the war had ended, Europe lay in ruin. Millions of refugees were homeless. Many of them, including both survivors and perpetrators of the Holocaust, were not only homeless. They also lacked home countries to which they could or wanted to return. Many Eastern European nations expelled Germans after the conclusion of the war. Many of those expelled had never lived in Germany. Western nations forcibly returned thousands of Soviet citizens to the Soviet Union. Those refugees typically lacked sufficient sustenance.

Jewish refugees surviving the Holocaust were thrust into an even more uncertain situation. Many tried to immigrate to the land of Palestine. However, the British government, which controlled Palestine at the time, issued very few entrance visas. Consequently, many Jews ended up living in displaced persons, or DP, camps. Essentially, those Jews moved from concentration or death camps, to DP camps, which were also fenced-in and guarded. Though nobody intentionally killed the Jews in those camps, the living conditions were very cramped and food was in short supply. Many survivors, already weak from their war experience, did not make it through the DP experience.

National economies, particularly those in Germany and the Soviet Union, were struggling to produce enough food to avoid starvation. Certainly, it was even more difficult and time-consuming to reconstruct the transportation and other physical infrastructures.

Regarding the major powers, the British Empire had the world's strongest military at the beginning of the twentieth century. It also had a very strong economy. During World War II,

Britain managed to prevent the Germans from conquering England after surviving the German Blitzkrieg in the summer of 1940. After the war, however, the British and Americans both recognized that the British no longer had the military or economic strength to lead the free world. Consequently, the reins of leadership were figuratively passed from the British to the Americans.

The Soviet Union had fought as an ally with Britain and the United States during the war. However, an old saying states, "The enemy of my enemy is my friend." Since both the Soviets and the Western allies viewed Germany as an enemy during the war, it made sense to fight alongside one another. With the defeat of Germany, however, the fundamental tensions between the communist ideals of the Soviet Union and the democratic ideals of Britain and the United States came to the fore again. Significantly, before the Cold War fully engulfed the world's superpowers, they agreed to form the United Nations. This world organization ensured that the states of the world would continuously have a place to discuss their differences, even if it did not always prevent a hot war.

World War II had devastated much of Europe. The Americans and the Soviets both sought to support the reconstruction of many of the worst hit countries, recognizing that financial aid would provide the two powers with the opportunity to ideologically influence the governments and peoples of those states. While the Soviets hoped to encourage as much communism as possible, the Americans obviously wanted to promote democracy. While the Americans helped rebuild Western Europe with funding from the Marshall Plan, the Soviet's Eastern European allies refused to accept this support. Interestingly, as late as the 1980s, after Western Europe had long been rebuilt, damage from World War II was still evident in Eastern European nations.

The Japanese surrender at the conclusion of the war had a great impact on China. After all, the Chinese and Japanese had engaged one another in conflict for many years before World War II. The final conflict, which ended with the Japanese surrender in 1945, had begun in 1937, three years before the rest of the world engaged in war. Prior to 1937, the Chinese had fought a civil war among themselves, with the nationalists taking one side and the communists taking the other. While this war halted so that the Chinese could unite to battle Japan, it began again, immediately after the Japanese surrender. By 1949, the communists kicked the nationalists out of mainland China, thus establishing the People's Republic of China.

Hitler's Nazi regime murdered more than twelve million people during the Holocaust. Those murders did not occur on the battlefield but in gas chambers and firing pits. Of the twelve million killed, six million were Jews. The Jewish people had long sought a return to the land of Israel, which historically corresponded generally to Palestine. The British controlled Palestine through World War II as a result of the division of Southwest Asian territories formerly part of the Ottoman Empire into several League of Nations Mandates administered by either Britain or France. People of several languages and religions lived in Palestine. Britain was quite happy to relinquish direct (and expensive) rule of that part of the world. In November 1947, therefore, the United Nations voted to partition Israel, offering half of the land to Arab residents and half of the land to Jews. On May 14, 1948, Israel's Independence Day, war broke out between those two groups.

THREE ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Humans and the Environment

Research and discuss the question of how World War II affected the earth's physical and natural environment. What sort of environmental impact had short-term consequences, that is, in the few years following the war? What sort of impact had long-term consequences that we might still be experiencing today?

Humans and Other Humans

Construct two world political maps, designating on each the countries of the world that could properly be labeled democracies in 1940 and 1950, respectively. Analyze characteristics that would qualify a country as a democracy. How would you explain changes in the number and location of democratic states between 1940 and 1955? Also, consider whether any states that could be labeled "fascist" existed as of 1955.

Humans and Ideas

Research and discuss the development of computer technology and use during World War II and in the following twenty years or so. In what ways did the war advance computer science? How did the computer technology of about 1950 differ from the technology of today?

KEY THEMES

This chapter addresses the following historical themes:

Key Theme 3: Uses and Abuses of Power

Key Theme 4: Haves and Have-Nots

Key Theme 7: Spiritual Life and Moral Codes

CORRELATIONS TO NATIONAL HISTORY STANDARDS

National Standards for World History
Era 9: The 20th Century since 1945. 1B: The student understands major political and economic changes that accompanied post-war recovery.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Cronkite, Walter. *Listening in on the Nuremberg Trials*. All Things Considered, National Public Radio, 2006. http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=5225486. Famed CBS reporter Walter Cronkite recalls covering the Nuremberg war crimes trials in 1945.

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Mazower, Mark. *Dark Continent: Europe's Twentieth Century*. New York: Viking, 2000.

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LESSON 1

The Rules of War

1. To begin this lesson, write on the board, "Imagine that Germany under Adolf Hitler, together with Germany's ally Japan, won World War II. How would the world be different today?" Ask students to do a quick-write in which they explain how the world might be different today if Germany had won World War II. After students have finished writing, invite several of them to share their answers with the class. Students might consider how this victory would have affected democratic government, movements for civil and human rights, attitudes about race, the international power and status of the United States, the existing colonial empires of Britain and France, communism in the Soviet Union, and so on. Remind students that, even if the Germans had won World War II, historical changes would certainly have occurred between the conclusion of that war and today. Help students understand that history is not predetermined. Changes that occur today will affect tomorrow.

2. Ask students to complete Student Handout 1.1.1 in groups of two or three. After students have completed this handout, invite several of them to share their answers with the class. Students should recognize that the Potsdam Conference was significant because the leaders of the Allied Nations decided the fate of post-war Germany. They should recognize that after a war, the victors usually gain the right to dictate the terms of peace. Ask students how they think that the decisions made at the Potsdam Conference might have affected the rest of the twentieth century. Ask if students think that the Potsdam Conference had a significant impact on the course of world history. Encourage them to support their opinions.

3. In groups of two or three, ask students to complete Student Handout 1.1.2. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class and invite students to share their answers. Encourage them to discuss whether or not rules of war should exist. As students share their rules with the class, make a list on the board. Encourage students to briefly explain why they believe that each rule that they offer should exist. If students offer more than five different rules of war, remind them that, sometimes, too many rules might negate the importance of fewer specific rules. Tell them that as a class they should seek to limit the number of rules to five. Lead a discussion in which they try to winnow down the number of rules.

4. Ask students what should happen to a state that violates these rules of war. Inquire as to what should happen if states, as a whole, do not violate these rules of war, but individuals in states do violate them. Encourage students to support their opinions.

5. Now ask students to explain, in a quick-write, if they can think of any time when an individual should not get in trouble for violating a rule of war. After students have completed this quick-write, call on several of them to share their answers. One or more students might suggest that soldiers who violate these rules because a commanding officer ordered them to do so should not be prosecuted. Facilitate a discussion in which students consider whether or not soldiers should be prosecuted for doing something wrong that a commanding officer ordered them to do.

6. Explain that after World War II ended, the Allies charged that the Germans had committed crimes against humanity. If students did not offer examples related to the Holocaust and World War II in the previous step, ask them to do so now. Inform students that the Allies decided to prosecute individuals who had committed atrocious crimes. Tell them that in order to successfully prosecute somebody for committing crimes, it is imperative to know what counts as a crime of war. Explain that, between 1945 and 1949, the Allied Forces held a special tribunal to prosecute war crimes.

7. In groups of three or four, ask students to answer the questions from Student Handout 1.1.3. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class and invite students to share their answers. Tell students that many of the defendants at the Nuremberg Trials claimed that they were just following orders. The Nuremberg judges dismissed these defenses as inconsequential. Many of the defendants at Nuremberg were found guilty and sentenced to death.

8. Now ask students to complete the assignment explained on Student Handout 1.1.4. This assignment asks students to write a letter to somebody living one thousand years into the future, explaining the significance of Nuremberg to world history. After students have completed this work, invite them to share their letters with two other students. Then call on a few students to share their opinions with the entire class. Allow time for a brief discussion incorporating different perspectives.

9. Tell students that today there is a formal treaty among many states called the Geneva Convention which governs appropriate behavior and treatment of prisoners during the time of war. Provide each student with a copy of Student Handout 1.1.5 and read the text aloud to students. Then ask students to share with a classmate one thing that they have learned in this lesson.

The Potsdam Conference

1. When was the Potsdam Conference held?

2. What world leaders attended the Potsdam Conference?

3. What decisions were made at the Potsdam Conference?

4. Do you think that the Potsdam Conference is worthy of being mentioned in a class on world history? Why or why not?

Rules of War

Civilized society has long had rules for war. According to international law, not everything goes. Imagine that you are sitting on a committee responsible for developing three rules that all nations must abide by during times of war. What three rules would you insist upon and why?

1.

2.

3.

Nuremberg

At the conclusion of World War II, the Allies established a court within the city of Nuremberg to convict officers and soldiers who had behaved in ways that the Allies considered illegal, even for wartime. The following statements were incorporated within the Charter for the International Military Tribunal that convened as this court.

Read the description of this behavior and answer the questions that follow:

> (b) War Crimes: namely, violations of the laws or customs of war. Such violations shall include, but not be limited to, murder, ill-treatment, or deportation to slave labor or for any other purpose of civilian population of or in occupied territory, murder or ill-treatment of prisoners of war or persons on the seas, killing of hostages, plunder of public or private property, wanton destruction of cities, towns, or villages, or devastation not justified by military necessity;
>
> (c) Crimes against Humanity: namely, murder, extermination, enslavement, deportation, and other inhumane acts committed against any civilian population, before or during the war, or persecutions on political, racial, or religious grounds in execution of or in connection with any crime within the jurisdiction of the Tribunal, whether or not in violation of domestic law of the country where perpetrated.
>
> Leaders, organizers, instigators, and accomplices participating in the formulation or execution of a Common Plan or Conspiracy to commit any of the foregoing crimes are responsible for all acts performed by any persons in execution of such plan.
>
> Source: Charter of the International Military Tribunal, http://www.law.umkc.edu/faculty/projects/ftrials/nuremberg/NurembergIndictments.html.

1. Explain the above text in your own words.

2. Do you think that this text is important? Why or why not?

3. Which of the above statements is most important, in your opinion? Why?

The Influence of Nuremberg

Imagine that you had access to a time machine and could deliver a message one thousand years into the future. Write a letter into the future explaining the effect that Nuremberg has had on the course of world history.

> Note: This assignment asks you to speculate on the effect that the trials at Nuremberg will have on future events. We cannot really know what is going to happen in the future.

The Geneva Convention

The following statement comes from the Geneva Convention adopted in 1949 by the United Nations Committee on Human Rights.

Article 3

In the case of armed conflict not of an international character occurring in the territory of one of the High Contracting Parties, each Party to the conflict shall be bound to apply, as a minimum, the following provisions:

1. Persons taking no active part in the hostilities, including members of armed forces who have laid down their arms and those placed *hors de combat* by sickness, wounds, detention, or any other cause, shall in all circumstances be treated humanely, without any adverse distinction founded on race, color, religion or faith, sex, birth or wealth, or any other similar criteria.

To this end, the following acts are and shall remain prohibited at any time and in any place whatsoever with respect to the above-mentioned persons:

(a) Violence to life and person, in particular murder of all kinds, mutilation, cruel treatment, and torture;

(b) Taking of hostages;

(c) Outrages upon personal dignity, in particular humiliating and degrading treatment;

(d) The passing of sentences and the carrying out of executions without previous judgment pronounced by a regularly constituted court, affording all the judicial guarantees which are recognized as indispensable by civilized peoples.

2. The wounded and sick shall be collected and cared for.

An impartial humanitarian body, such as the International Committee of the Red Cross, may offer its services to the Parties to the conflict.

The Parties to the conflict should further endeavor to bring into force, by means of special agreements, all or part of the other provisions of the present Convention.

The application of the preceding provisions shall not affect the legal status of the Parties to the conflict.

LESSON 2

Refugees

1. To begin this lesson write the word "refugee" on the board and ask students to define it in a quick-write. After students have completed this writing, invite several to share their answers with the class. Then post the following definitions for the whole class to see:

    a. Refugee: One who flees in search of refuge, as in times of war, political oppression, or religious persecution.

    b. Refuge: Protection or shelter as from danger or hardship; a place providing protection or shelter; a source of help, relief, or comfort in times of trouble.

    Read them aloud to students. Ask students why they think people are likely to take refuge during and after wars. Facilitate a discussion in which students consider this idea.

2. Now distribute Student Handout 1.2.1. Ask students to complete this handout in groups of two or three. This handout presents students with demographic information about the number of refugees that existed in Europe after World War II. It asks students to consider the consequences of so many refugees. After students have completed this work, invite several to share their answers with the class.

3. Now distribute Student Handout 1.2.2. Ask students to complete the work on this sheet in groups of two or three. This handout asks students to consider whether or not it is appropriate, in a study of world history, to consider the problem of Jewish refugees, after the Holocaust and World War II, separately from other refugees. After students have completed this work invite several to share their answers with the class. Facilitate a discussion in which students consider whether or not they should consider the experiences of individual groups of people. Teachers may remind students that world history is comprised of the experiences of many different groups, among other phenomena. Students should also recognize that historians can develop hypotheses from the history of a single group to test against the experiences of other groups.

4. Now provide each student with a copy of Student Handout 1.2.3. Ask students to respond to the prompt on this handout in groups of three or four. This prompt asks students to write a song relaying the feelings that they might have as refugees after World War II. After students have completed this work, divide the class in half, keeping each group together. Each group should perform its song in front of one half of the class. Ask all students who are not performing to write down one response to each group's presentation.

5. Distribute Student Handout 1.2.4 and ask students to respond to the prompt on it in groups of two or three. This prompts ask students to consider the responsibilities the world had toward refugees. After students have completed this work, facilitate a discussion in which students consider the positive and negative consequences of helping refugees secure food and shelter.

Refugees in Europe

In the years before and during World War II, millions of Germans left Germany and settled in the countries of Eastern Europe. Remember that during World War II, the Nazi regime in Germany conquered most of those Eastern European countries. After the war, millions of Germans were expelled from those nations and forced to return to Germany. Significantly, many expelled Germans had never lived in Germany. Their parents or grandparents had left Germany before they were even born. At the Potsdam Conference, the Allies recognized that Germans living in Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary would have to be transferred back to Germany.

Respond to the following prompts in your groups:

1. If you had been the leader of an Eastern European nation controlled by Germany during World War II, would you have wanted Germans to remain in your country after the war? Why or why not?

2. What problems and/or challenges do you think that those Germans encountered after they were forced to leave their temporary homes in the Eastern European nations?

Jewish Refugees

The Nazis killed the vast majority of the Jewish population of Europe during the Holocaust. The Allied Forces, however, liberated hundreds of thousands of Jews from concentration camps and death camps as they defeated the Germans. After liberation, these "survivors" had nowhere to go. Non-Jewish people had moved into the homes of Jews after they were forced into ghettos when Nazi rule began. Those occupants saw no reason to move out when the original residents returned. While many of those survivors hoped to move to Palestine, the British Empire, which controlled the Palestinian territory at the time as a League of Nations Mandate, greatly limited the number of Jews that could enter. Consequently, many survivors ended up in Displaced Persons (DP) camps. As with concentration and death camps, barbed-wire fences surrounded those DP camps. The camps' residents lacked sufficient food. Though the camps served to house individuals with no homes, many died as a result of the terrible conditions in them. In your group, respond to the following prompt:

Do you think that DP camps that housed Jewish refugees are significant enough to the development of world history to be included in a one-year world history course? Why or why not? (Please be sure to support your answer thoughtfully, articulating the criteria that you weighed in considering the importance of this topic in relation to other material you have studied this year.)

If I Were a Refugee

- In your groups, imagine that you are refugees and compose a song about the refugee experience.
- Your song should have at least three stanzas, including one chorus.
- The song should reflect the information presented in this lesson.

The World's Responsibility

1. Do you think that the countries of the world had any responsibilities toward refugees after World War II? Why or why not?

2. What kinds of responsibilities did the countries of the world have toward refugees? What kinds of responsibilities did they not have toward refugees?

3. Do you think that the countries of the world have a responsibility toward refugees today? Why or why not? (Identify at least three places in the world where refugees exist today.)

LESSON 3

Cleaning Up Wartime Destruction

1. Ask students to read Student Handout 1.3.1 in groups of two or three and complete the assignment explained on the page. The assignment asks students to pretend that they are television reporters in Central Europe immediately after World War II. Their editors have assigned them to develop a one-minute news clip explaining the destruction that has occurred. After students have completed this work, divide the class in half. Ask the groups to present their one-minute news clip to their half of the class. Request that students who are not presenting write down one idea in each presentation that made them ponder the issue. After both groups have completed sharing their news clips, reconvene the class. Invite a few students to share the ideas they thought about during the different presentations.

2. In groups of two or three, ask students to complete Student Handout 1.3.2. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their answers with the class. Lead a discussion in which students consider whether it is fair to state that the victors have a responsibility to help the losers redevelop their infrastructure after a war. Encourage students to explain why it might be difficult for either the victor or the loser to help the other. Students might argue that it would be difficult because of social, civic, and economic factors.

3. Now distribute Student Handout 1.3.3. Divide students into five (or ten) equally sized groups and assign each of them one section of text. Ask them to answer the questions associated with the five text selections. Inform students that after they have answered the questions for their particular section, they will form new groups with a representative from each section. In these new groups, students will explain their sections to each other.

4. After students have finished answering the questions in their first group, reconvene students into groups with a representative from each of the sections of text. Each student should explain his section of text to the remainder of the group. After students have finished explaining their portion of the text, post the following prompt for the whole class see: "In no more than four sentences, explain the Marshall Plan." Then ask students to respond to this prompt in their groups.

5. Invite students to discuss the sentences explaining the Marshall Plan that they wrote in response to this prompt. Facilitate a discussion in which students consider the meaning of the message. Help students recognize that Secretary George Marshall emphasizes the importance of confidence to help rebuild the European economy. Ask students why they think confidence may have been important to Europe's recovery.

6. Now ask students to complete the questions on Student Handout 1.3.2 in groups of two or three. After students have completed this work, invite several of them to share their answers with the class. Lead a discussion with students in which they consider whether or not they think it is fair to say that wealthier nations helped poorer nations because they realized that people were starving to death and needed help. Why did these nations help their less fortunate, and typically smaller, neighbors?

The Aftermath of World War II

The year is 1945. World War II has finally ended. You are a television broadcaster on location in one of the following states:

- France
- Germany
- Poland
- Russia
- United Kingdom

Your news program's producer has asked you to develop a one-minute clip in which you report on the devastation in your country caused by the war.

Where Does the Responsibility Lie?

Please respond to the following prompts in groups of two or three:

1. Define the word "responsibility."

2. As you know, the fighting in World War II destroyed or damaged much of the European infrastructure. Do you believe that the United States had a responsibility to financially support reconstruction? Why or why not?

3. Even if the United States did not have a responsibility to finance European reconstruction, was it acceptable for the US government to have done so? Why or why not?

The Marshall Plan

On June 5, 1947, George Marshall, the US Secretary of State, delivered an address at the Harvard University graduation ceremony. In this speech, he laid out his plan for reconstructing Europe. The plan was in operation for four years, beginning in July 1947. Your group has been assigned one of the following text selections from Marshall's speech. Please read the excerpt and answer the following three questions:

1. What main points is Marshall making? (Explain in your own words.)

2. If you were graduating from Harvard in the ceremony that Secretary Marshall addressed, what would you have thought about this message? Explain.

3. In what way is this text relevant to your own life?

Section 1

I need not tell you gentlemen that the world situation is very serious. That must be apparent to all intelligent people. I think one difficulty is that the problem is one of such enormous complexity that the very mass of facts presented to the public by press and radio make it exceedingly difficult for the man in the street to reach a clear appraisement of the situation. Furthermore, the people of this country are distant from the troubled areas of the earth and it is hard for them to comprehend the plight and consequent reaction of the long-suffering peoples, and the effect of those reactions on their governments in connection with our efforts to promote peace in the world.

Section 2

In considering the requirements for the rehabilitation of Europe, the physical loss of life, the visible destruction of cities, factories, mines, and railroads was correctly estimated, but it has become obvious during recent months that this visible destruction was probably less serious than the dislocation of the entire fabric of European economy. For the past 10 years conditions have been highly abnormal. The feverish maintenance of the war effort engulfed all aspects of national economics. Machinery has fallen into disrepair or is entirely obsolete. Under the arbitrary and destructive Nazi rule, virtually every possible enterprise was geared into the German war machine. Long-standing commercial ties, private institutions, banks, insurance companies, and shipping companies disappeared, through the loss of capital, absorption through nationalization or by simple destruction. In many countries, confidence in the local currency has been severely shaken. The breakdown of the business structure of Europe during the war was complete. Recovery has been seriously retarded by the fact that, two years after the close of hostilities, a peace settlement with Germany and Austria has not been agreed upon. But even given a more prompt solution of these difficult problems, the rehabilitation of the economic structure of Europe quite evidently will require a much longer time and greater effort than had been foreseen.

Section 3

There is a phase of this matter which is both interesting and serious. The farmer has always produced the foodstuffs to exchange with the city dweller for the other necessities of life. This division of labor is the basis of modern civilization. At the present time it is threatened with breakdown. The town and city industries are not producing adequate goods to exchange with the food-producing farmer. Raw materials and fuel are in short supply. Machinery is lacking or worn out. The farmer or the peasant cannot find the goods for sale which he desires to purchase. So the sale of his farm produce for money which he cannot use seems to him an unprofitable transaction. He, therefore, has withdrawn many fields from crop cultivation and is using them for grazing. He feeds more grain to stock and finds for himself and his family an ample supply of food, however short he may be on clothing and the other ordinary gadgets of civilization. Meanwhile people in the cities are short of food and fuel. So the governments are forced to use their foreign money and credits to procure these necessities abroad. This process exhausts funds which are urgently needed for reconstruction. Thus a very serious situation is rapidly developing which bodes no good for the world. The modern system of the division of labor upon which the exchange of products is based is in danger of breaking down.

The truth of the matter is that Europe's requirements for the next 3 or 4 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.

Section 4

The remedy lies in breaking the vicious circle and restoring the confidence of the European people in the economic future of their own countries and of Europe as a whole. The manufacturer and the farmer throughout wide areas must be able and willing to exchange their products for currencies the continuing value of which is not open to question.

Aside from the demoralizing effect on the world at large and the possibilities of disturbances arising as a result of the desperation of the people concerned, the consequences to the economy of the United States should be apparent to all. It is logical that the United States should do whatever it is able to do to assist in the return of normal economic health in the world, without which there can be no political stability and no assured peace. Our policy is directed not against any country or doctrine but against hunger, poverty, desperation, and chaos. Its purpose should be the revival of working economy in the world so as to permit the emergence of political and social conditions in which free institutions can exist. Such assistance, I am convinced, must not be on a piecemeal basis as various crises develop. Any assistance that this Government may render in the future should provide a cure rather than a mere palliative. Any government that is willing to assist in the task of recovery will find full cooperation, I am sure, on the part of the United States Government. Any government which maneuvers to block the recovery of other countries cannot expect help from us. Furthermore, governments, political parties, or groups which seek to perpetuate human misery in order to profit therefrom politically or otherwise will encounter the opposition of the United States.

Section 5

It is already evident that, before the United States Government can proceed much further in its efforts to alleviate the situation and help start the European world on its way to recovery, there must be some agreement among the countries of Europe as to the requirements of the situation and the part those countries themselves will take in order to give proper effect to whatever action might be undertaken by this Government. It would be neither fitting nor efficacious for this Government to undertake to draw up unilaterally a program designed to place Europe on its feet economically. This is the business of the Europeans. The initiative, I think, must come from Europe. The role of this country should consist of friendly aid in the drafting of a European program so far as it may be practical for us to do so. The program should be a joint one, agreed to by a number, if not all European nations.

An essential part of any successful action on the part of the United States is an understanding on the part of the people of America of the character of the problem and the remedies to be applied. Political passion and prejudice should have no part. With foresight, and a willingness on the part of our people to face up to the vast responsibilities which history has clearly placed upon our country, the difficulties I have outlined can and will be overcome.

Source: OECD, http://www.oecd.org/general/themarshallplanspeechatharvard university5june1947.htm.

The Soviet Union Comes to the Aid of Eastern European Nations

In your group, study the map below of Post–World War II Europe and then respond to the questions that follow.

Post–World War II Europe

Questions:

1. Imagine that you were an adviser to Joseph Stalin, the Premiere of the Soviet Union immediately after World War II. Would you have advised Stalin to trust the intentions of European states or the United States? Why or why not?

2. Would you have recommended inviting the United States to financially support the reconstruction of small states bordering your own state on the west? Why or why not?

3. If Stalin asked you what benefits the USSR or the US would derive from financial support of these smaller states, how would you have responded?

LESSON 4

China

1. Display the sentence, "Bill Gates is the Britney Spears of China." Ask students to do a quick-write, explaining what the sentence means. After students have explained this phrase, tell them that Thomas Friedman, an award-winning columnist at the *New York Times*, has written a book explaining that "the world is flat." Ask students what they think this phrase means. Help them understand that, according to Friedman, jobs can just as easily be done in China, or anywhere else in the world, as in the United States. Therefore business owners will have their products produced in countries where they can have the smartest work done at the lowest cost. According to Thomas Friedman, China has this capacity. Ask students what they think this means for job opportunities in the United States.

2. Ask students to complete Student Handout 1.4.1 in groups of two or three. Explain to students that, in order to understand the present situation in the world, we should seek to understand the course of events that led to this situation. It is important to understand the values that both the Chinese government and the Chinese people hold dear. We should seek to understand their national experiences.

3. Now, pose the following question to students. Human beings and their biological ancestors have lived in China for as much as 1 million years. If a student's goal is to understand the present context of the world, from when should the person begin considering China's history—1 million years ago? Ten thousand years ago? Five hundred years ago? Since 1900? Ask students to explain their answers. One logical starting point might be to consider China from the time that its current form of government came to power. Explain to students that, in order to understand why the current form of government came into existence, they would have to consider events that occurred earlier—but how much earlier?

4. Ask students to complete the questions on Student Handout 1.4.2 in groups of two or three. After students have completed this work, divide the class in half. First, have students share their answers. Then facilitate a discussion in which students consider if they would have supported the Nationalists or the Communists. Be sure to challenge students to explain their ideas thoughtfully.

5. If sufficient time exists, ask students to imagine that they worked as evangelists for the two warring political parties. Challenge them to create campaign posters or advertisements advocating for one of the two political parties. One half of the class could support the Nationalists while the other half supports the Communists. After students complete this work, they should present their projects to the entire class.

6. Inform students that on October 1, 1949, the Communist Party of China, having defeated the nationalists, established the People's Republic of China as the sole government on mainland China. By then, the Nationalist Party had retreated to Taiwan, where it reformed the Republic of China. The Communist Party of China continues to govern the People's Republic of China today.

7. As a communist state, China has a very different ideology from that of European democracies or the United States. China's ideology highly values the community, all of the people assembled together. Unlike the prevailing ideology in the United States, which elevates the rights of the individual, the Chinese value the safety and security of the group. This means that individuals can be deprived of rights if it is deemed to be in the best interest of the whole. Ask students to complete Student Handout 1.4.3 in groups of two or three. After students have completed this work, invite several to share their answers with the class.

8. Inform students that, in the last few years, China's economy has grown dramatically. In fact, it has been the fastest growing economy in the world. In recent years, the largest migration in world history has taken place as Chinese people have migrated from the countryside to urban centers. The Chinese government has invested in many international companies, including US companies, in order to secure important financial resources. Many human rights advocates complain that democratic nations should not work with the Chinese because, according to these advocates, the Chinese violate human rights. For example, the Chinese government sometimes arrests people who speak negatively about the government. In a quick-write, ask students to explain if they think that democratic states should work with Communist China. After students have completed this work, invite several to share their answers with the class. Facilitate a discussion on the topic.

Assessment

Ask students to respond to the following statement in writing: "The Marshall Plan and the founding of the United Nations demonstrate that after an international conflict, human society has the ability to reunite and work toward world peace." Challenge students to consider the content of this chapter as a whole before they respond to this statement.

Why Should We Understand Chinese History?

Respond to the following prompts in groups of two or three:

1. What kinds of information do you think it is important to have about your friends?

2. Can you really understand somebody if you don't have this information? Why or why not?

3. Do you think that it is important to understand Chinese history? Why or why not?

A Chinese Dispute

Until the conclusion of World War II in 1945, China and Japan had a long history of fighting between them. Japan's imperialist policies prompted much of this fighting. Simply put, Japan wanted to control China and its natural resources.

Tensions had existed between nationalist and Communist forces in China prior to 1937. However, as we learned in the first lesson of the chapter, "the enemy of my enemy is my friend." Therefore, during this war, China's different political factions united to fight Japan.

Following Japan's defeat in World War II, the Sino-Japanese struggle also concluded. The different political factions no longer had a common enemy to unite them. When Japan surrendered to the United States, the US dictated that the Chinese should turn over their bases and supplies to the nationalist forces in China. But, during the concluding years of war, Chinese communist forces remained intact throughout the countryside, while nationalist forces stopped fighting. Consequently, in many places throughout Manchuria, a vast region in northeastern China, the Japanese had to surrender to the Communists. There were no Nationalists to whom they could surrender. The communist forces thus had a significant military advantage over the Nationalists.

Despite this military advantage, both the Nationalists and the Communists tried to convince the people of China to support their side in this fight. Essentially, there was a campaign in which the Communists ran against the Nationalists.

As you know, there is a great deal of information to know about history. A single handout, such as this one, cannot possibly contain all the information about a historical event or time period that one should know.

Therefore, write three questions based upon the information presented above that you would like to investigate further in order to obtain a deeper understanding of the topic.

Once you have written these three questions, conduct the necessary research to answer the questions.

Tiananmen Square

Please read the following article, and then respond to the prompts below:

New York Times

June 4, 1989

Troops Attack and Crush Beijing Protest Thousands Fight Back, Scores Are Killed
By Nicholas D. Kristof

Hundreds of thousands of Chinese troops retook the center of the capital early this morning from pro-democracy protesters, killing scores of students and workers and wounding hundreds more as they fired submachine guns at crowds of people who tried to resist.

Troops marched along the main roads surrounding central Tiananmen Square, sometimes firing in the air and sometimes firing directly at crowds of men and women who refused to move out of the way . . .

Casualties Reports Sketchy

Reports on the number of dead were sketchy. Three Beijing hospitals reported receiving at least 68 corpses of civilians and said many others had not been picked up from the scene. Four other hospitals said they had received bodies of civilians but declined to disclose how many. Students said, however, that at least 500 people may have been killed in the crackdown . . .

The official news programs this morning reported that the People's Liberation Army had crushed a "counter-revolutionary rebellion" in the capital. They said that more than 1,000 police and troops had been injured and some killed, and that civilians had been killed, but did not give details . . .

The (National People's Congress) . . . has the power to revoke martial law and oversee the Government, and many members of the panel are known to be deeply upset by the crackdown. The announcement by the Beijing news program suggested that Prime Minister Li Peng, who is backed by hard-liners in the Communist Party, was still on top in his power struggle for control of the Chinese leadership. The violent suppression of the student movement also suggested that for now, the hard-liners are firmly in control, and that those who favor conciliation, like party leader Zhao Ziyang, at least temporarily have little influence on policy . . .

Many Troops Reported Hurt

Clutching iron pipes and stones, groups of students periodically advanced toward the soldiers. Some threw bricks and firebombs at the lines of soldiers, apparently wounding many of them. Many of those killed were throwing bricks at the soldiers, but others were simply watching passively or standing at barricades when soldiers fired directly at them.

It was unclear whether the violence would mark the extinction of the seven-week-old democracy movement, or would prompt a new phase in the uprising, like a general strike. The violence in the capital ended a period of remarkable restraint by both sides, and seemed certain to arouse new bitterness and antagonism among both ordinary people and Communist Party officials for the Government of Prime Minister Li Peng . . .

"Maybe We'll Fail Today"

"Our Government is already done with," said a young worker who held a rock in his hand, as he gazed at the army forces across Tiananmen Square. "Nothing can show more clearly that it does not represent the people . . ."

"Maybe we'll fail today," he said. "Maybe we'll fail tomorrow. But someday we'll succeed. It's a historical inevitability . . ."

Changing View of the Army

"In 1949, we welcomed the army into Beijing," said an old man on the Jianguomenwai bridge, referring to the crowds who hailed the arrival of communist troops at the end of the communist revolution. Then he waved toward a line of 50 army trucks that were blocked in a sea of more than 10,000 angry men and women, and added, "Now we're fighting to keep them out . . ."

"The situation in Beijing at present is very serious," the Government warned in another urgent notice read on television. "A handful of ruffians are wantonly making rumors to instigate the masses to openly insult, denounce, beat, and kidnap soldiers in the People's Liberation Army, to seize arms, surround and block Zhongnanhai, attack the Great Hall of the People, and attempt to gather together various forces. More serious riots can occur at any time . . ."

Source: http://www.nytimes.com/specials/hongkong/archive/89tiananmen.html.

Questions

1. Summarize the article in your own words.

2. Do you think that the Chinese government was acting within its rights to kill the student protesters? Why or why not?

3. How do you think that the leadership of the Communist Party justified these killings?

LESSON 5

The Formation of the United Nations

1. To begin this lesson, tell the students that they sit on a committee representing every nation in the world. Tell half the students that they represent poor states that lack much military power. Tell the other half that they represent stronger, wealthier nations. In groups of three or four, comprised of students representing the same half of the class, ask students to complete Student Handout 1.5.1. This handout asks students to decide if it is in their nation's best interest to accept the authority of an international body that grants each nation equal authority and to explain their rationale. After students have completed this handout, hold a debate in the class. Students representing large states may argue that every nation does not deserve equal representation. On the other hand, representatives from smaller nations may favor equal representation. Ask students if they think it is important to have an international organization that represents different sovereign states. Encourage them to explain why. Ask them to think about whether an international organization might better represent different ethnic or language groups, different religions, or different social classes. Urge them to explain their ideas.

2. Now ask students to answer the questions on Student Handout 1.5.2 in groups of two or three. After students have completed these questions, invite several to share their answers with the class. Ask students how they think that World War II might have influenced the creation of the UN and its initial organization and membership.

3. Distribute Student Handout 1.5.3. Ask students to read the information on this page and respond to the prompts on it in groups of two or three. After students have completed this work, invite several of them to share their answers with the class. Then, ask students how the actual UN resolved the tension that existed between large and small nations over the rights of representation. Inquire as to whether students would have supported the compromise that was developed between the General Assembly and the Security Council. Encourage them to support their opinions thoughtfully.

4. Ask students if they agree that the United Nations has not fulfilled its purpose of saving "succeeding generations from the scourge of war . . ." Challenge students to support their opinions thoughtfully. Inquire as to whether students believe that the UN has in some significant ways promoted world peace today. In groups of two or three, ask students to find newspaper articles discussing the UN's role in the world today. Ask students to answer the question on Student Handout 1.5.4. After students have completed this work, ask the groups to share their answers with one other group. Then, reconvene the class, and facilitate a discussion considering the power of the UN today. Do students think that any organization could prevent war from erupting in the world? Why or why not?

World Governance after World War II

Your group serves as an advisory board to the leader of your nation. As your teacher has assigned, your nation is either a wealthy, powerful state or a weak, powerless one.

In your group, determine if it would be in your nation's best interest to join an international organization in which every nation of the world has an equal vote. Justify your answer thoughtfully.

The UN's Charter

Please read the following text from Chapter 1, Article 1 of the United Nation's charter. Then, respond to the prompts that follow:

The Purposes of the United Nations are:

1. To maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of the peace;
2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;
3. To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and
4. To be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

Source: http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter1.shtml.

Questions

1. Explain each of the above clauses in your own words.

2. If you had been a citizen of the United States living in 1945, after the UN charter had been adopted, how would you have felt about it? Why?

3. Now look at these clauses from your real perspective today. What kind of meaning do you think these clauses have? Explain.

The Security Council

The following text comes from Chapter V of the Charter of the United Nations, "Security Council." Read the text and respond to the prompts that follow.

Article 23:

1. The Security Council shall consist of fifteen Members of the United Nations. The Republic of China, France, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America shall be permanent members of the Security Council. The General Assembly shall elect ten other Members of the United Nations to be non-permanent members of the Security Council, due regard being specially paid, in the first instance to the contribution of Members of the United Nations to the maintenance of international peace and security and to the other purposes of the Organization, and also to equitable geographical distribution.

2. The non-permanent members of the Security Council shall be elected for a term of two years. In the first election of the non-permanent members after the increase of the membership of the Security Council from eleven to fifteen, two of the four additional members shall be chosen for a term of one year. A retiring member shall not be eligible for immediate reelection.

Article 24:

1. In order to ensure prompt and effective action by the United Nations, its Members confer on the Security Council primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, and agree that in carrying out its duties under this responsibility the Security Council acts on their behalf.

2. The Members of the United Nations agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council in accordance with the present Charter.

Article 27:

1. Each member of the Security Council shall have one vote.

2. Decisions of the Security Council on procedural matters shall be made by an affirmative vote of nine members.

3. Decisions of the Security Council on all other matters shall be made by an affirmative vote of nine members including the concurring votes of the permanent members; provided that, in decisions under Chapter VI, and under paragraph 3 of Article 52, a party to a dispute shall abstain from voting.

Source: http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter5.shtml.

Questions

1. Identify five things that you learned about the Security Council from the above text.

2. In your own words, explain how countries possessing different levels of power compromised when they created the United Nations.

3. If you had been a leader of a powerful nation in 1945, when the United Nations was founded, would you have supported this compromise? Why or why not?

4. If you had been a leader of a weaker nation in 1945 would you have supported this compromise? Why or why not?

A Newspaper Article and the UN

In your group, find a recent newspaper article about the United Nations and respond to the prompts that follow.

1. Cite the newspaper article.

2. Summarize the newspaper article.

3. According to this article, does the United Nations appear to possess a great deal of influence on the world stage? Why or why not?

CHAPTER 2

By Lauren McArthur Harris and Tamara Shreiner

The Two Big Powers and Their Cold War

WHY STUDY THE COLD WAR?

The Cold War was a post–World War II ideological struggle between the United States and the Soviet Union that helped shape the world we live in today. In the battle to become *the* dominant superpower in the world, the two big powers set their sights on what became known during the Cold War as the "Third World"—that is, colonial or newly independent countries that might be subjected to political and economic domination or influence. The United States' and the Soviet Union's battle for the "hearts and minds" of people who were not yet committed to either power's ideology had a large impact on political, cultural, and economic developments throughout the Third World.

This chapter falls in Big Era Nine after a chapter on post–World War II world politics and global economy and is therefore designed to build upon students' previous knowledge of that era, including World War II outcomes, the establishment of the United Nations, and the unstable economic and political conditions of nations across the globe. The chapter starts with students forming definitions of "Cold War" and "Third World" and framing the problem they will work on throughout the chapter: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World? The first lesson focuses on reading and discussion of three primary documents that will shed light on the values underlying the competing ideologies and the reasons why they stood in such strong opposition to each other. At the end of the lesson, a suggested assessment has students answering the following questions: What ideas and values underlie capitalism and communism? Why were the ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union in opposition? How might these opposing ideologies

result in political, economic, and cultural developments in the Third World? These questions set the context for the remaining lessons in the chapter.

In Lesson 2, students look at a case of competing ideologies, the Korean War. In this lesson, students examine the interests and actions of the players involved in the escalating conflict on the Korean peninsula. Students examine primary and secondary sources and fill in a chart that asks how the interests of countries and organizations in the Korean peninsula changed over time. Students are encouraged, through individual work and discussion, to link understandings of the Korean War to larger global patterns.

Lesson 3 also looks closely at a case of competing ideologies during the Cold War, asking students to recreate the thirteen days of the Cuban Missile Crisis and present their findings to classmates.

The fourth and final lesson asks students to investigate the big picture by creating an annotated map of the Cold War and its impact on Third World countries. Students then choose one of those countries to investigate in depth by creating a poster and short presentation. The poster will include a timeline and information on the consequences of the Cold War on cultural, political, and economic developments within the country.

The suggested final assessment synthesizes the material in the chapter by asking students to construct a response to the chapter question using the evidence they have gathered in the four lessons: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World?

OBJECTIVES

Upon completing this chapter, students will be able to:

1. Describe major differences in the political ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union.
2. Explain the causes of the Korean War and how they connect to global patterns during the Cold War.
3. Explain the causes and consequences of the Cuban Missile Crisis.
4. Explain how competition between the United States and the Soviet Union affected developments in Third World countries such as Egypt, Iran, the Congo, Chile, Afghanistan, and Vietnam.

TIME AND MATERIALS

This chapter will take approximately 8–10 one-hour class periods to complete all four lessons. You may need markers, poster board, and other supplies for Lessons 3 and 4.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

At the end of World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union were the two dominant powers in the world. They were the only two nations in a position economically and politically to exert their influence on the nations all over the world that had come out of the war in relative upheaval. This was particularly true in what became known, in Cold War terms, as the Third World, that is, those colonial and post-colonial countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America that were less technologically and economically advanced than the major industrialized states. Just as those countries were trying to adapt politically, socially, and economically to their post-World War II predicaments, the United States and the Soviet Union repeatedly intervened in their affairs and through those interventions shaped the politics, economics, and ideologies that dominate world affairs today. In addition, some Third World countries used "non-alignment" policies to play the powers off each other in order to expand their own autonomy.

Underneath US and Soviet politics, and driving their Third World interventions, were two very different, opposing ideologies. The United States was an "empire of liberty," seeking to spread their ideas of capitalism and liberalism, and the Soviet Union was an "empire of justice," hoping to improve and equalize the conditions of the working poor throughout the world. Their interventionist policies were not an effort to colonize other lands in the traditional sense but to prove the practicality of their ideas, promote advancement, and secure their own futures. So intense was the ideological rivalry between the two big powers that it resulted in the formation of two major military alliances: the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), which was created by the Western powers in 1949 to contain the Soviet Union and communism, and the Soviet-dominated Warsaw Pact, which was established in 1955 as a reaction to West Germany's rearmament and entry into NATO.

Although the beginnings of the Cold War focused on the fate of Eastern European countries, 1950 marked the beginning of the United States' and the Soviet Union's full involvement in Third World countries as well. This was when the Soviet-backed attack on South Korea by communist-led North Korea engaged the United States in a full military conflict with North Korean and Chinese forces. Third World states not initially aligned with either nation or ideology found that they could get military or economic aid from one side or another by offering allegiance. In Congo, for example, the United Nations' refusal to use force to put down an attempted secession by Belgian-supported forces in the province of mineral-rich Katanga led Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba in 1960 to seek the support of the Soviet Union. Lumumba's actions made the United States fearful of a leftist regime being established in a resource-rich region of the world and lent their support to his removal from office.

In some cases, a Third World country's alignment was a game of "my enemy's enemy is my friend." In Cuba, for example, Fidel Castro's hatred of the United States because of its efforts to control Cuba's economy and to overthrow his leadership resulted in his outright acceptance of socialism and his subsequent alignment with Khrushchev and the Soviet Union. The Cuban-Soviet relationship led to the most intense moment in the Cold War when, in 1962, the US government discovered Soviet missile bases in Cuba.

The Cold War ended in 1991 with the collapse of the Soviet Union. The reasons offered for the Soviet fall are many but, without a doubt, the country's communist economic tactics proved unable to keep up with capitalism, and it could no longer support a strong, competitive military. The United States emerged from the Cold War as the dominant superpower in the world.

Despite the outcome of the Cold War, the Soviet Union proved a worthy enemy to the United States during the Cold War. Soviet achievements in the "space race," for example, left the United States in a state of shock and urgency, and the Russian build-up of nuclear arms was a real and constant threat to US security. Because of the seemingly equal competition between the United States and the Soviet Union during the Cold War, the conflict became more than a battle for military and economic might. In the words of John F. Kennedy, it was "a battle for the hearts or minds of the underdeveloped and undercommitted peoples of the world." That battle and the resulting interventionist policies of the two big powers largely determined the course of change throughout the Third World and can still be seen in the politics, economics, and culture of Third World countries today.

THREE ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Humans and the Environment

In what ways do you think competition between the two Cold War superpowers around the world might have affected environmental changes such as deforestation, air pollution, or progress in fighting infectious diseases?

Humans and Other Humans

Why do you think the United States and the Soviet Union thought it was in their interest to intervene in the political and economic affairs of Third World countries? How might their interventions have affected the everyday lives of people in particular countries?

Humans and Ideas

Why do you think the ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union stood in such opposition to each other? What were the main differences in these ideologies, and how did they develop in the century or so preceding the Cold War?

KEY THEMES

This chapter addresses the following historical themes:

Key Theme 3: Uses and Abuses of Power

Key Theme 4: Haves and Have-Nots

Key Theme 5: Expressing Identity

CORRELATIONS TO NATIONAL HISTORY STANDARDS

National Standards for World History
Era 9: The 20th Century since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes. 1B: The student understands why global power shifts took place and the Cold War broke out in the aftermath of World War II.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Cumings, Bruce. *The Korean War: A History*. New York: Modern Library Chronicles, 2011.

Dobbs, Michael. *One Minute to Midnight: Kennedy, Khrushchev, and Castro on the Brink of Nuclear War*. New York: Vintage Books, 2009.

LaFeber, Walter. *America, Russia, and the Cold War, 2945-2006*. 10th ed. Boston: McGraw Hill, 2008.

Lewis, John. *We Now Know: Rethinking Cold War History*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1997.

———. *The Cold War*. New York: The Penguin Press, 2005.

"Resolutions of the General Assembly Regarding the Problem of the Independence of Korea, November 14, 1947." *International Organization* 2, 1 (February 1948): 196–8.

Westad, Odd Arne. *The Global Cold War: Third World Interventions and the Making of Our Times*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2005.

The Cold

War. The Avalon Project, Yale Law School, 2008. http://avalon.law.yale.edu/subject_menus/coldwar.asp. An excellent repository of primary source documents.

LESSON 1

Capitalism versus Communism

Ideological Foundations of the Cold War

Preparation

Locate the section in your textbook or other source that deals with the foundation and beginning of the Cold War. Ask students to read for background knowledge. Because this lesson involves a lot of reading, you might first consider your students' reading level and break up the lesson accordingly. The lesson procedure is divided by subtitles to help you. Finally, prepare copies of all student handouts for this lesson.

Introduction

This lesson frames the problem that will be addressed throughout the chapter, "How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World?" To begin to answer this question, students will explore the ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union, which were grounded in the social and economic theories of capitalism and communism, respectively. What ideas and values underlie capitalism and communism, and why did the two ideologies stand in such opposition to one another, effectively dividing the globe into two dominant "worlds"? This lesson explores these questions, beginning with an overview of the Cold War to set the context of study and continuing with the reading and discussion of excerpts from the *Communist Manifesto* and the *Wealth of Nations* in order to help students understand communist versus capitalist ideologies and the competition that drove the Cold War. The lesson ends with the reading and discussion of the *Truman Doctrine* to frame the problem for the chapter.

Activities

Defining Terms and Framing the Chapter Problem

1. Write two terms on the board for students: "Cold War" and "Third World." Ask students to write down what they know about these terms.

2. Ask students to share what they know about the Cold War and jot down their answers on the board: What was the Cold War? How long did it last? Who won the war? How? Why? Try to form a class definition of the Cold War. Then introduce other definitions of Cold War. For example:

    - Cold War "means the period in which the global conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union dominated international affairs, roughly between 1945 and 1991."

Source: Odd Arne Westad, *The Global Cold War: Third World Interventions and the Making of Our Times* (New York: Cambridge UP, 2005), 3.

- Cold War is a "term used to describe the post-World War II struggle between the United States and its allies and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and its allies. During the Cold War period, which lasted from the mid-1940s until the end of the 1980s, international politics were heavily shaped by the intense rivalry between these two great blocs of power and the political ideologies they represented: democracy and capitalism in the case of the United States and its allies, and Communism in the case of the Soviet bloc."

Source: "Cold War," Microsoft® Encarta® Online Encyclopedia 2006; http://encarta.msn.com (site discontinued).

- Ask students to modify the definition they already formed based on these definitions. It is important that your definition clearly shows that the opposing political ideologies of capitalism and communism served to divide the world or create a "bipolar" world during this time.

3. Segue into a discussion of the Third World, explaining to students that this term arose out of the Cold War because of the dominations of the "First World" of the United States and its allies and the "Second World" of the Soviet bloc. Ask them what they know about the Third World and then provide definitions such as:

- Third World "means the former colonial or semi-colonial countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America that were subject to European (or rather pan-European, including American and Russian) economic or political domination."

Source: Odd Arne Westad, *The Global Cold War: Third World Interventions and the Making of Our Times* (New York: Cambridge UP, 2005), 3.

- "When two opposing blocs—one led by the United States (first), the other led by the USSR (second)—appeared to dominate world politics. . . . The Third World consisted of economically and technologically less developed countries belonging to neither bloc."

Source: "Third World," Microsoft® Encarta® Online Encyclopedia 2006; http://encarta.msn.com (site discontinued).

- Modify the class definition based on these definitions.

4. Tell students that this chapter will explore the relationships among the three "worlds" of the Cold War. You will explore the question: "How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World?"

Capitalist Ideology

1. Pose the guiding question for this lesson: Why were the ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union in opposition? What ideas and values underlie capitalism and communism?

2. Ask students what they know about the ideas underlying capitalism. Make sure that the following principles of capitalism arise from your discussion:

    a. Land and capital (that is, buildings, machines, and other equipment used to produce goods and services) are privately owned.

    b. Economic activity is regulated by buyers and sellers in markets in what is termed a market economy.

    c. Owners and the workers they employ are free to pursue their own self-interests and seek maximum gain for their resources and services. In seeking their own self-interest, consumers are free to spend their incomes as they wish. This will, in turn, produce competition between producers to turn out better goods and services in order to yield maximum gain.

    d. Government intervention should be minimal; competition is key in the regulation of the economy.

3. Introduce *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* and divide students into reading groups. Distribute Student Handouts 2.1.1, 2.1.2, and 2.1.3. Ask each group to concentrate on reading and analyzing a different excerpt and summarizing it for the class.

4. Discuss *The Wealth of Nations* and the principles of capitalism as an ideology. Try to tie capitalism to liberalism and discuss the importance of personal freedom. How do the principles of capitalism drive people's actions and their interactions with one another?

Communist Ideology

1. Turn to communism, asking students what they know about it. Make sure the following principles of communism arise in your discussion:

    a. It establishes a system in which property is owned by the community rather than the individual.

    b. It seeks to establish a classless society with all people enjoying economic and social equality.

    c. Government intervention should be minimal or non-existent.

Remind students that you are trying to figure out what beliefs and values formed the foundation of capitalism and communism and why the two ideologies stood in opposition to one another. What do they notice so far? What are the differences between capitalism and communism? Are there similarities? Why might they be so incompatible?

2. Read and discuss the excerpts from Student Handout 2.1.4, *The Communist Manifesto*. Invite students to build upon the discussion of capitalism versus communism either at the end or as you read. Call students' attention to places where Marx speaks directly to some of the ideas put forth by Smith. Try to fold into the discussion the idea of *liberty* in capitalism and *equality* in communism.

The Opposing Ideologies and the Beginnings of the Cold War

1. Explain to students that fear of Soviet domination and the spread of communist ideology to other countries led the United States to develop a foreign policy of "containment." Containment was aimed at preventing the spread of communism by diplomatic, political, and economic means.

2. Finally, ask students to read excerpts from Student Handout 2.1.5, The Truman Doctrine. Discuss the document in light of what students now know about capitalist versus communist ideologies. How does the Truman Doctrine represent the emerging Cold War? Although the Truman Doctrine was concerned with developments in Eastern Europe, how might the policy of containment it outlines affect United States policy toward Third World countries? Consider the definition of the Third World and economic, political, and cultural factors.

Assessment

Throughout the lesson, students' understanding can be assessed through the discussion of communism versus capitalism and possibly through individual written summaries of the readings. At the end of the lesson, ask students to write a 1–2 page essay addressing the questions: What ideas and values underlie capitalism and communism? Why were the ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union in opposition? How might these opposing ideologies result in political, economic, and cultural developments in the Third World? Students should use evidence from the Student Handouts to support their arguments.

Excerpts from An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations: On the Division of Labor *by Adam Smith*

Adam Smith (1723–1790), a Scottish philosopher and economist, is widely credited with originating the key principles of capitalism. Published in 1776, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* is Smith's treatise outlining those principles. In it, he argues that the combination of individual property, self-interest, and competition would regulate the economy with minimal government intervention—"as if by an invisible hand." In the excerpt below, consider: What is Smith's argument? What capitalist economic principle is he describing?

Book I, Chapter 1. *Of the Division of Labor:* THE greatest improvement in the productive powers of labor, and the greater part of the skill, dexterity, and judgment with which it is anywhere directed, or applied, seem to have been the effects of the division of labor. . . .

The division of labor, so far as it can be introduced, occasions, in every art, a proportionable increase of the productive powers of labor. . . . This great increase of the quantity of work which, in consequence of the division of labor, the same number of people are capable of performing, is owing to three different circumstances; *first*, to the increase of dexterity in every particular workman; *secondly*, to the saving of the time which is commonly lost in passing from one species of work to another; and *lastly*, to the invention of a great number of machines which facilitate and abridge labor, and enable one man to do the work of many. . . .

It is the great multiplication of the productions of all the different arts, in consequence of the division of labor, which occasions, in a well-governed society, that *universal opulence* which extends itself to the lowest ranks of the people. Every workman has a great quantity of his own work to dispose of beyond what he himself has occasion for; and every other workman being exactly in the same situation, he is enabled to exchange a great quantity of his own goods for a great quantity, or, what comes to the same thing, for the price of a great quantity of theirs. He supplies them abundantly with what they have occasion for, and they accommodate him as amply with what he has occasion for, and a general plenty diffuses itself through all the different ranks of the society. . . .

Book I, Chapter 2. *Of the Principle which gives occasion to the Division of Labor:* THIS division of labor, from which so many advantages are derived, is not originally the effect of any human wisdom, which foresees and intends that universal opulence to which it gives occasion. It is the necessary, though very slow and gradual consequence of a certain propensity in human nature which has in view no such extensive utility; the propensity to truck, barter, and exchange one thing for another. . . . Man has almost constant occasion for the help of his brethren, and it is in vain for him to expect it from their benevolence only. He will be more likely to prevail if he can interest their self-love in his favor, and show them that it is for their own advantage to do for him what he requires of them. Whoever offers to another a bargain of any kind, proposes to do this. Give

me that which I want, and you shall have this which you want, is the meaning of every such offer; and it is in this manner that we obtain from one another the far greater art of those good offices which we stand in need of. It is not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer, or the baker that we expect our dinner, *but from their regard to their own interest*. . .

Book I, Chapter 4. *Of the Origin and Use of Money:* WHEN the division of labor has been once thoroughly established, it is but a very small part of a man's wants which the produce of his own labor can supply. He supplies the far greater part of them by exchanging that surplus part of the produce of his own labor, which is over and above his own consumption, for such parts of the produce of other men's labor as he has occasion for. Every man thus lives by exchanging, or becomes in some measure a merchant, and the society itself grows to be what is properly a *commercial society*. . . .

Source: *Modern History Sourcebook*, Internet History Sourcebook Project, ed. Paul Halsall, http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/adamsmith-summary.html.

Excerpts from An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations *by Adam Smith, On Commodities*

Adam Smith (1723–1790), a Scottish philosopher and economist, is widely credited with originating the key principles of capitalism. Published in 1776, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* is Smith's treatise outlining those principles. In it, he argues that the combination of individual property, self-interest, and competition would regulate the economy with minimal government intervention—"as if by an invisible hand." In the excerpt below, consider: What is Smith's argument? What capitalist economic principle is he describing?

Book I, Chapter 5. *Of the Real and Nominal Price of Commodities, or their Price in Labor, and their Price in Money:* EVERY man is rich or poor according to the degree in which he can afford to enjoy the necessaries, conveniences, and amusements of human life. But after the division of labor has once thoroughly taken place, it is but a very small part of these with which a man's own labor can supply him. The far greater part of them he must derive from the labor of other people, and he must be rich or poor according to the quantity of that labor which he can command, or which he can afford to purchase. The value of any commodity, therefore, to the person who possesses it, and who means not to use or consume it himself, but to exchange it for other commodities, is equal to the quantity of labor which it enables him to purchase or command. Labor, therefore, is the real measure of the exchangeable value of all commodities. . . .

The real price of everything, what everything really costs to the man who wants to acquire it, is the toil and trouble of acquiring it. What everything is really worth to the man who has acquired it, and who wants to dispose of it or exchange it for something else, is the toil and trouble which it can save to himself, and which it can impose upon other people. What is bought with money or with goods is purchased by labor as much as what we acquire by the toil of our own body. That money or those goods indeed save us this toil. . . .

Book I, Chapter 6. *Of the Component Parts of the Price of Commodities:* . . . It is natural that what is usually the produce of two days' or two hours' labor, should be worth double of what is usually the produce of one day's or one hour's labor. If the one species of labor should be more severe than the other, some allowance will naturally be made for this superior hardship; and the produce of one hour's labor in the one way may frequently exchange for that of two hours' labor in the other. . . .

As soon as stock has accumulated in the hands of particular persons, some of them will naturally employ it in setting to work industrious people, whom they will supply with materials and subsistence, in order to make a profit by the sale of their work, or by what their labor adds to the value of the materials. In exchanging the complete manufacture either for money, for labor, or for other goods, over and above what may be sufficient to pay the price of the materials, and the wages of the workmen, something must be given for the profits of the undertaker of the work who hazards his stock in this adventure.

The value which the workmen add to the materials, therefore, resolves itself in this ease into two parts, of which the one pays their wages, the other the profits of their employer upon the whole stock of materials and wages which he advanced. . .

In this state of things, the whole produce of labor does not always belong to the laborer. He must in most cases share it with the owner of the stock which employs him. Neither is the quantity of labor commonly employed in acquiring or producing any commodity, the only circumstance which can regulate the quantity which it ought commonly to purchase, command, or exchange for. An additional quantity, it is evident, must be due for the profits of the stock which advanced the wages and furnished the materials of that labor. . . . The real value of all the different component parts of price, it must be observed, is measured by the quantity of labor which they can, each of them, purchase or command. Labor measures the value not only of that part of price which resolves itself into labor, but of that which resolves itself into rent, and of that which resolves itself into profit. In every society the price of every commodity finally resolves itself into someone or other, or all of those three parts; and in every improved society, all the three enter more or less, as component parts, into the price of the far greater part of commodities. . . .

Source: *Modern History Sourcebook*, Internet History Sourcebook Project, ed. Paul Halsall, http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/adamsmith-summary.html.

Excerpts from An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations: On the Wages of Labor *by Adam Smith*

Adam Smith (1723–1790), a Scottish philosopher and economist, is widely credited with originating the key principles of capitalism. Published in 1776, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* is Smith's treatise outlining those principles. In it, he argues that the combination of individual property, self-interest, and competition would regulate the economy with minimal government intervention—"as if by an invisible hand." In the excerpt below, consider: What is Smith's argument? What capitalist economic principle is he describing?

Book I, Chapter 8. *Of the Wages of Labor:* THE produce of labor constitutes the natural recompense or wages of labor. . . .

. . . A man must always live by his work, and his wages must at least be sufficient to maintain him. They must even upon most occasions be somewhat more; otherwise it would be impossible for him to bring up a family, and the race of such workmen could not last beyond the first generation. . . .

When the landlord, annuitant, or monied man, has a greater revenue than what he judges sufficient to maintain his own family, he employs either the whole or a part of the surplus in maintaining one or more menial servants. Increase this surplus, and he will naturally increase the number of those servants. When an independent workman, such as a weaver or shoemaker, has got more stock than what is sufficient to purchase the materials of his own work, and to maintain himself till he can dispose of it, he naturally employs one or more journeymen with the surplus, in order to make a profit by their work. Increase this surplus, and he will naturally increase the number of his journeymen. The demand for those who live by wages, therefore, necessarily increases with the increase of the revenue and stock of every country, and cannot possibly increase without it. The increase of revenue and stock is the increase of national wealth. . . .

Is this improvement in the circumstances of the lower ranks of the people to be regarded as an advantage or as an inconvenience to the society? The answer seems at first sight abundantly plain. Servants, laborers, and workmen of different kinds, make up the far greater part of every great political society. But what improves the circumstances of the greater part can never be regarded as an inconvenience to the whole. No society can surely be flourishing and happy, of which the far greater part of the members are poor and miserable. It is but equity, besides, that they who feed, clothe, and lodge the whole body of the people, should have such a share of the produce of their own labor as to be themselves tolerably well fed, clothed, and lodged.

The liberal reward of labor, as it encourages the propagation, so it increases the industry of the common people. The wages of labor are the encouragement of industry, which, like every other human quality, improves in proportion to the encouragement it receives.

A plentiful subsistence increases the bodily strength of the laborer, and the comfortable hope of bettering his condition, and of ending his days perhaps in ease and plenty, animates him to exert that strength to the utmost. Where wages are high, accordingly, we shall always find the workmen more active, diligent, and expeditious than where they are low.

Source: *Modern History Sourcebook*, Internet History Sourcebook Project, ed. Paul Halsall, http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/adamsmith-summary.html.

Excerpts from The Communist Manifesto *by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels*

Written by Karl Marx in collaboration with Friedrich Engels, the *Communist Manifesto* was published in 1848 and, although it did not have an immediate impact, it became one of the most widely read and discussed documents of the twentieth century. In it, Marx attempts to separate communism, what he views as an advanced form of socialism, from earlier utopian forms of socialism. He sees communism as a natural historical offspring of capitalism, just as capitalism was the natural historical offspring of feudalism. Marx's logic served as a rationale for communist leaders like Vladimir I. Lenin, Joseph Stalin, and Mao Zedong to spread the ideology of communism. As you read, consider the following: What is Marx's defense of communism? How does the ideology of communism stand in opposition to capitalism?

Prologue

A specter is haunting Europe—the specter of communism. . . . Two things result from this fact:

I. Communism is already acknowledged by all European powers to be itself a power.

II. It is high time that communists should openly, in the face of the whole world, publish their views, their aims, their tendencies, and meet this nursery tale of the specter of communism with a manifesto of the party itself.

Part I: Bourgeois and Proletarians

The history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles.

Freeman and slave, patrician and plebeian, lord and serf, guildmaster and journeyman, in a word, oppressor and oppressed, stood in constant opposition to one another, carried on an uninterrupted, now hidden, now open fight, a fight that each time ended, either in a revolutionary reconstitution of society at large, or in the common ruin of the contending classes.

In the earlier epochs of history, we find almost everywhere a complicated arrangement of society into various orders, a manifold gradation of social rank. In ancient Rome we have patricians, knights, plebeians, slaves; in the Middle Ages, feudal lords, vassals, guild-masters, journeymen, apprentices, serfs; in almost all of these classes, again, subordinate gradations.

The modern bourgeois society that has sprouted from the ruins of feudal society has not done away with class antagonisms. It has but established new classes, new conditions of oppression, new forms of struggle in place of the old ones.

Our epoch, the epoch of the bourgeoisie, possesses, however, this distinctive feature: It has simplified the class antagonisms. Society as a whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other—bourgeoisie and proletariat. . . .

Modern industry has established the world market, for which the discovery of America paved the way. This market has given an immense development to commerce, to navigation, to communication by land. This development has, in its turn, reacted on the extension of industry; and in proportion as industry, commerce, navigation, railways extended, in the same proportion the bourgeoisie developed, increased its capital, and pushed into the background every class handed down from the Middle Ages.

We see, therefore, how the modern bourgeoisie is itself the product of a long course of development, of a series of revolutions in the modes of production and of exchange.

Each step in the development of the bourgeoisie was accompanied by a corresponding political advance of that class. An oppressed class under the sway of the feudal nobility, it became an armed and self-governing association in the medieval commune; here independent urban republic (as in Italy and Germany), there taxable "third estate" of the monarchy (as in France); afterwards, in the period of manufacture proper, serving either the semi-feudal or the absolute monarchy as a counterpoise against the nobility, and, in fact, cornerstone of the great monarchies in general—the bourgeoisie has at last, since the establishment of modern industry and of the world market conquered for itself, in the modern representative state, exclusive political sway. The executive of the modern state is but a committee for managing the common affairs of the whole bourgeoisie.

The bourgeoisie has played a most revolutionary role in history.

The bourgeoisie, wherever it has got the upper hand, has put an end to all feudal, patriarchal, idyllic relations. It has pitilessly torn asunder the motley feudal ties that bound man to his "natural superiors," and has left no other bond between man and man than naked self-interest, than callous "cash payment." It has drowned the most heavenly ecstasies of religious fervor, of chivalrous enthusiasm, of philistine sentimentalism, in the icy water of egotistical calculation. It has resolved personal worth into exchange value, and in place of the numberless indefeasible chartered freedoms, has set up that single, unconscionable freedom—Free Trade. In one word, for exploitation, veiled by religious and political illusions, it has substituted naked, shameless, direct, brutal exploitation.

Part II: Proletarians and Communists

What else does the history of ideas prove, than that intellectual production changes its character in proportion as material production is changed? The ruling ideas of each age have ever been the ideas of its ruling class.

When people speak of ideas that revolutionize society, they do but express the fact that within the old society the elements of a new one have been created, and that the dissolution of the old ideas keeps even pace with the dissolution of the old conditions of existence.

When the ancient world was in its last throes, the ancient religions were overcome by Christianity. When Christian ideas succumbed in the eighteenth century to rationalist ideas, feudal society fought its death-battle with the then revolutionary bourgeoisie. The ideas of religious liberty and freedom of conscience, merely gave expression to the sway of free competition within the domain of knowledge.

"Undoubtedly," it will be said, "religion, moral, philosophical, and juridical ideas have been modified in the course of historical development. But religion, morality, philosophy, political science, and law, constantly survived this change."

"There are, besides, eternal truths, such as Freedom, Justice, etc., that are common to all states of society. But communism abolishes eternal truths, it abolishes all religion, and all morality, instead of constituting them on a new basis; it therefore acts in contradiction to all past historical experience."

What does this accusation reduce itself to? The history of all past society has consisted in the development of class antagonisms, antagonisms that assumed different forms at different epochs. But whatever form they may have taken, one fact is common to all past ages, viz., the exploitation of one part of society by the other. No wonder, then, that the social consciousness of past ages, despite all the multiplicity and variety it displays, moves within certain common forms, or general ideas, which cannot completely vanish except with the total disappearance of class antagonisms.

The Communist revolution is the most radical rupture with traditional property relations; no wonder that its development involves the most radical rupture with traditional ideas.

Part IV: Position of the Communists in Relation to the Various Existing Opposition Parties

In short, the Communists everywhere support every revolutionary movement against the existing social and political order of things.

In all these movements they bring to the front, as the leading question in each case, the property question, no matter what its degree of development at the time.

Finally, they labor everywhere for the union and agreement of the democratic parties of all countries.

The Communists disdain to conceal their views and aims. They openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communist revolution. The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win.

Workingmen of all countries, unite!

Source: *Modern History Sourcebook*, Internet History Sourcebook Project, ed. Paul Halsall, http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/modsbook33.html.

Excerpts from The Truman Doctrine (March 12, 1947)

Issued March 12, 1947, by President Harry S. Truman, the Truman Doctrine aimed to offer $400,000,000 in aid to anti-communist forces in Greece and Turkey. Its more significant impact, however, was to lay out the US policy of "containment," which would define the country's foreign policy throughout the Cold War. As you read, consider the Truman Doctrine as an example of how the opposing ideologies of capitalism and communism were manifested in political and economic action.

Mr. President, Mr. Speaker, Members of the Congress of the United States:

The gravity of the situation which confronts the world today necessitates my appearance before a joint session of the Congress. The foreign policy and the national security of this country are involved.

One aspect of the present situation, which I present to you at this time for your consideration and decision, concerns Greece and Turkey.

The United States has received from the Greek Government an urgent appeal for financial and economic assistance. Preliminary reports from the American Economic Mission now in Greece and reports from the American Ambassador in Greece corroborate the statement of the Greek Government that assistance is imperative if Greece is to survive as a free nation.

I do not believe that the American people and the Congress wish to turn a deaf ear to the appeal of the Greek Government. . . .

The very existence of the Greek state is today threatened by the terrorist activities of several thousand armed men, led by Communists, who defy the government's authority at a number of points, particularly along the northern boundaries. A Commission appointed by the United Nations Security Council is at present investigating disturbed conditions in northern Greece and alleged border violations along the frontier between Greece on the one hand and Albania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia on the other. . . .

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.

I believe that we must assist free peoples to work out their own destinies in their own way.

I believe that our help should be primarily through economic and financial aid, which is essential to economic stability and orderly political processes.

The world is not static, and the status quo is not sacred. But we cannot allow changes in the status quo in violation of the Charter of the United Nations by such methods as coercion, or by such subterfuges as political infiltration. In helping free and independent nations to maintain their freedom, the United States will be giving effect to the principles of the Charter of the United Nations.

It is necessary only to glance at a map to realize that the survival and integrity of the Greek nation are of grave importance in a much wider situation. If Greece should fall under the control of an armed minority, the effect upon its neighbor, Turkey, would be immediate and serious. Confusion and disorder might well spread throughout the entire Middle East.

Moreover, the disappearance of Greece as an independent state would have a profound effect upon those countries in Europe whose peoples are struggling against great difficulties to maintain their freedoms and their independence while they repair the damages of war.

It would be an unspeakable tragedy if these countries, which have struggled so long against overwhelming odds, should lose that victory for which they sacrificed so much. Collapse of free institutions and loss of independence would be disastrous not only for them but for the world. Discouragement and possibly failure would quickly be the lot of neighboring peoples striving to maintain their freedom and independence.

Should we fail to aid Greece and Turkey in this fateful hour, the effect will be far reaching to the West as well as to the East. We must take immediate and resolute action. I therefore ask the Congress to provide authority for assistance to Greece and Turkey in the amount of $400,000,000 for the period ending June 30, 1948. . . .

In addition to funds, I ask the Congress to authorize the detail of American civilian and military personnel to Greece and Turkey, at the request of those countries, to assist in the tasks of reconstruction, and for the purpose of supervising the use of such financial and material assistance as may be furnished. I recommend that authority also be provided for the instruction and training of selected Greek and Turkish personnel.

Finally, I ask that the Congress provide authority which will permit the speediest and most effective use, in terms of needed commodities, supplies, and equipment, of such funds as may be authorized. . . .

The seeds of totalitarian regimes are nurtured by misery and want. They spread and grow in the evil soil of poverty and strife. They reach their full growth when the hope of a people for a better life has died. We must keep that hope alive. The free peoples of the world look to us for support in maintaining their freedoms.

If we falter in our leadership, we may endanger the peace of the world—and we shall surely endanger the welfare of this nation.

Great responsibilities have been placed upon us by the swift movement of events. I am confident that the Congress will face these responsibilities squarely.

Source: *Modern History Sourcebook*, Internet History Sourcebook Project, ed. Paul Halsall, http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/1947TRUMAN.html.

LESSON 2

The Korean War

A Case of Competing Ideologies

Preparation

Prepare copies of Student Handouts 2.2.1, 2.2.2, and 2.2.3. Note: depending on how much information you want students to gather during this lesson, you may want to create a bigger chart (Student Handout 2.2.2). Locate the section in your textbook or other source that covers Korea during and after World War II and the Korean War. Write the page numbers for the pertinent sections on the board. Alternatively, print and copy online encyclopedia entries for the history of the Korean War and the Cold War.

Introduction

In this lesson, students use primary and secondary materials to complete a chart outlining the various interests that countries and organizations had in the Korean peninsula during and after World War II. Students will also connect those interests and the events of the Korean War to the larger Cold War patterns by developing a persuasive argument about the significance of the Korean War in the history of the Cold War and in world history. The goal of this lesson is to have students delve a little more in depth into one Cold War event—a case of the United States and the Soviet Union clashing over influence in a Third World region—and then connect that event to larger Cold War patterns.

Activities

1. To introduce the lesson, distribute Student Handout 2.2.1 showing United Nations troops retreating southward across Korea's 38th Parallel in September 1950 following the entry of Chinese forces into the war on the side of North Korea. Before telling students what the image represents, ask them what they see in the picture and if they know what event the picture represents. (Students may have prior knowledge of the 38th Parallel in the history of the Korean War, or they might know that Korea is still divided along the 38th Parallel). Ask students if they are familiar with the term *containment*. Explain to students that containment was a US policy for limiting Soviet expansion during the Cold War. Explain to students that the Korean War was one instance of the United States engaging in the policy of containment and that they will be researching more about the origins of the Korean War during this lesson.

2. Point to a map of Asia (either in the classroom or in the textbook). Ask students to locate the Korean peninsula and the 38th Parallel. Explain to students that in this lesson they will be studying the origins and events of the Korean War as a case study of the Cold War and how the competing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union led to

conflict over Third World regions. You may want to ask students to summarize what they learned in Lesson 1.

3. Divide students into groups of three or four. Explain to students that each will fill in a chart in consultation with group members. Distribute Student Handouts 2.2.2 and 2.2.3. Explain that the first handout contains the chart and some questions, and the second handout contains primary and secondary sources that they will use to fill out their charts. Explain to students that they should take care to note the date and country of origin of each of the primary documents. Point out the textbook page numbers on the board. Suggest to students that they follow these steps in completing their charts:
    a. Read all materials individually, including the Student Handouts and the sections in the text. Students may want to read the sections in the text first to get an overview before analyzing the Student Handout.
    b. Discuss and complete the chart with group members.
4. After students have completed the charts, call the students together as a class. Ask each group to discuss one country or organization's interest in the Korean peninsula. Discuss any discrepancies between groups. Ask students to discuss connections between these interests, the events of the Korean War, and larger Cold War patterns. Prompt students to include specific examples from the previous lesson and/or the previous chapter (Chapter 1: World Politics and Global Economy after World War II). Tell students that they may want to take notes during the discussion. Students may use these notes to complete the final chapter assessment. In addition, students may continue to fill in the right-hand column of the chart as they move through the remainder of the chapter. Conclude the lesson by discussing the outcomes of the Korean War.

Assessment

Charts may be collected and evaluated.

The teacher may assess student understanding of the Korean War as a case of larger Cold War patterns with the summative chapter assessment, which asks the students to formulate an answer to the chapter problem: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World? To prepare students for the final essay, have them complete the following prompts:

- The Korean conflict represents a significant case of the clash of Cold War ideologies because . . .
- I know this because . . .

You Are Now Crossing the 38th Parallel

Origins of the Korean War

Directions to students:
Using your textbook and additional resources, fill in the following chart to describe the interests that various countries and organizations had in the Korean peninsula before and during the Korean War. You should note if these interests changed over time or if certain individuals or groups in these countries had varying or competing interests. Be sure to note your sources when you fill in the chart. In the right-hand column, use what you have learned so far in this chapter to describe connections between the interests and actions of countries in the Korean conflict and larger Cold War patterns.

Country	Interest in Korea during WWII	Interest in Korea after WWII	Actions Taken in Korea in 1950–1951	Connections to Cold War Patterns
Soviet Union				
United States				
China				
United Nations				

Questions

1. What were Kim Il-Sung's goals before and during the Korean War?

2. What were Syngman Rhee's goals before and during the Korean War?

Origins of the Korean War

SOURCE 1

Dean Rusk, Department of State, Office of United Nations Affairs employee in 1945
Rusk was US Secretary of State, 1961–1969.

> During a meeting on August 14, 1945, Colonel Charles Bonesteel and I retired to an adjacent room late at night and studied intently a map of the Korean peninsula. Working in haste and under great pressure, we had a formidable task: to pick a zone for the American occupation. . . . Using a National Geographic map, we looked just north of Seoul for a convenient dividing line but could not find a natural geographic line. We saw instead the 38th parallel and decided to recommend that. . . . [The State and War Departments] accepted it without too much haggling, and surprisingly, so did the Soviets. . . . [The] choice of the thirty-eighth parallel, recommended by two tired colonels working late at night, proved fateful.

Source: "The Korean War." *Harry S. Truman Museum and Library,* 2006, http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/korea/large/world.htm.

SOURCE 2

Resolutions of the United Nations General Assembly regarding the problem of the independence of Korea, November 14, 1947

> *Inasmuch as* the Korean question which is before the General Assembly is primarily a matter before the Korean people itself and concerns its freedom and independence, and *Recognizing* that this question cannot be correctly and fairly resolved without the participation of representatives of the indigenous population, The General Assembly
>
> 1. *Resolves* that elected representatives of the Korean people be invited to take part in the consideration of the question;
>
> 2. *Further resolves* that in order to facilitate and expedite such participation and to observe that the Korean representatives are in fact duly elected by the Korean people and not mere appointees by military authorities in Korea, there be forthwith established a United Nations Temporary Commission on Korea, to be present in Korea, with right to travel, observe, and consult throughout Korea. . . .
>
> *Hundred-and-twelfth plenary meeting, 14 November 1947.*

Source: "Resolutions of the General Assembly Regarding the Problem of the Independence of Korea, November 14, 1947," *International Organization* 2, 1 (Feb. 1948): 196–8.

SOURCE 3

General Douglas MacArthur. Congressional testimony, May 3, 1951

> My mission was to clear out all North Korea, to unify it and to liberalize it.

Source: "The Korean War." *Harry S. Truman Museum and Library,* 2006, http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/korea/large/world.htm.

SOURCE 4

Secretary of State Dean Acheson. Congressional testimony, June 1, 1951

> At the end of September, there were reports which were sent out through the Government of India that statements that had been made to their representatives by Chinese officials that if we crossed the thirty-eighth parallel, they would intervene.
>
> Those were important matters to be considered, and they were considered; and on the 3rd of October, for instance, the Chinese Communist Foreign Minister [Chou En-lai] informed the Indian Ambassador [K. M. Pannikar], at Peiping [Beijing], that if the United States forces, or UN forces crossed the thirty-eighth parallel, China would send troops to the Korean frontier to defend North Korea.
>
> That was a cryptic statement made by him. He said that this action would not be taken if only South Korean troops crossed the parallel.
>
> That was a matter which had to be given very considerable attention, and information to that effect was given to General MacArthur.
>
> At the time this statement was made, the United Nations was preparing to vote on its resolution, finally adopted by the General Assembly on October 7. It was acted on by Committee One, on October 4, so that you also have to keep in mind that perhaps this statement was put out to have some effect on that vote.

Source: "The Korean War." *Harry S. Truman Museum and Library,* 2006, http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/korea/large/world.htm.

SOURCE 5

Excerpt from *U.S. Policy in the Korean Conflict, July 1950–February 1951,* US Department of State Publication No. 4263 (Washington: U.S.G.P.O., 1951), 14–16

This report covers the period from December 15, 1949, to September 4, 1950.

> Analysis and Conclusions
>
> *A. Responsibility for the aggression.* The invasion of the territory of the Republic of Korea by the armed forces of the North Korean authorities, which began on June 25, 1950, was an

act of aggression initiated without warning and without provocation, in execution of a carefully prepared plan.

This plan of aggression, it is now clear, was an essential part of the policy of the North Korean authorities, the object of which was to secure control over the whole of Korea. If control could not be gained by peaceful means, it would be achieved by overthrowing the Republic of Korea, either by undermining it from within or, should that prove ineffective, by resorting to direct aggression. As the methods used for undermining the Republic from within proved unsuccessful, the North Korean authorities launched an invasion of the territory of the Republic of Korea.

B. Origin and nature of the conflict. The origin of the conflict is to be found in the artificial division of Korea and in the failure, in 1945, of the occupying Powers to reach agreement on the method to be used for giving independence to Korea. This failure was not due to anything inherent in the attitude of the people of Korea themselves, but was a reflection of those wider and more fundamental differences of outlook and policy, which have become so marked a feature of the international scene.

This artificial division was consolidated by the exclusion from North Korea of the United Nations Temporary Commission, which had been charged by the General Assembly to observe the holding of elections on a democratic basis in the whole of Korea. In the circumstances, it was decided to hold such elections in South Korea alone.

Had internationally supervised elections been allowed to take place in the whole of Korea, and had a unified and independent Korea thereby come into existence, the present conflict could never have arisen. . . .

E. Korean needs and aspirations. Serious problems of reconstruction and rehabilitation, particularly the grave refugee problem, already confront the country. To these problems will be added problems of yet greater magnitude when the military conflict comes to an end. It will be quite beyond the capacity of the country to provide from its own resources means for rehabilitation. A healthy and viable democracy in Korea cannot come into being unless very considerable aid and assistance are provided from outside Korea.

Finally, as the division of the country and the resulting antagonisms were artificial, the Commission believes that, when the conditions under which they arose disappear, it will be possible for the Korean people of both North and South to come again together, to live in peace and to build the strong foundations of a free, democratic Korea. . . .

Source: *Modern History Sourcebook*, 1998. Modern History Sourcebook Project, Paul Hasall, ed., http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/1950-korea-un1.html.

SOURCE 6

Andrei A. Gromyko. On American intervention in Korea, July 4, 1950

The events now taking place in Korea broke out on June 25 as the result of a provocative attack by the troops of the South Korean authorities on the frontier areas of the Korean People's Democratic Republic. This attack was the outcome of a premeditated plan.

From time to time Syngman Rhee himself and other representatives of the South Korean authorities had blurted out the fact that the South Korean Syngman Rhee clique had such a plan.

As long ago as October 7, 1949, Syngman Rhee, boasting of success in training his army, stated outright, in an interview given to an American *United Press* correspondent, that the South Korean Army could capture Pyongyang in the course of three days.

On October 31, 1949, Sin Sen Mo, Defense Minister of the Syngman Rhee Government, also told newspaper correspondents that the South Korean troops were strong enough to act and take Pyongyang within a few days. Only one week before the provocative attack of the South Korean troops on the frontier areas of the Korean People's Democratic Republic, Syngman Rhee said, in a speech on June 19 in the so-called "National Assembly" where Mr. Dulles, adviser to the US State Department, was present: "If we cannot protect democracy in the cold war, we shall win in a hot war."

It is not difficult to understand that representatives of the South Korean authorities could only make such statements because they felt that they had American support behind them. One month before the present developments in Korea, on May 19, 1950, Mr. Johnson, chief American administrator of aid to Korea, told the American Congress House of Representatives' Appropriations Committee that 100,000 officers and men of the South Korean Army, equipped with American weapons and trained by the American Military Mission, had completed their preparations and could begin war at any time.

It is known that only a few days before the Korean events, the United States Defense Secretary, Mr. Johnson, the Chief of the General Staff of the United States Armed Forces, General Bradley, and the State Department adviser, Mr. Dulles, arrived in Japan and had special conferences with General MacArthur, and that afterwards Mr. Dulles visited South Korea and went to frontier areas on the 38th Parallel.

Only one week before the events—on June 19—Mr. Dulles, adviser to the State Department, declared in the above-mentioned "National Assembly" of South Korea that the United States was ready to give all necessary moral and material support to South Korea, which was fighting against Communism.

These facts speak for themselves and need no comment. . . .

The United States Government tries to justify armed intervention against Korea by alleging that it was undertaken on the authorization of the Security Council. The falsity of such an allegation strikes the eye.

What really happened? It is known that the United States Government had started armed intervention in Korea before the Security Council was summoned to meet on June 27, without taking into consideration what decision the Security Council might take. Thus the United States Government confronted the United Nations Organization with a *fait accompli,* with a violation of peace.

The Security Council merely rubber-stamped and back-dated the resolution proposed by the United States Government, approving the aggressive actions which this Government had undertaken. . . .

The illegal resolution of June 27, adopted by the Security Council under pressure from the United States Government, shows that the Security Council is acting, not as a body which is charged with the main responsibility for the maintenance of peace, but as a tool utilized by the ruling circles of the United States for unleashing war. This resolution of the Security Council constitutes a hostile act against peace.

If the Security Council valued the cause of peace, it should have attempted to reconcile the fighting sides in Korea before it adopted such a scandalous resolution. Only the Security Council and the United Nations Secretary-General could have done this. However, they did not make such an attempt, evidently knowing that such peaceful action contradicts the aggressors' plans.

Source: *Modern History Sourcebook*, Internet History Sourcebook Project, Paul Halsall, ed., http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/1950-gromyko-korea.html.

SOURCE 7

CIA Report on the likelihood of Soviet or Chinese intervention in the event of an invasion of North Korea. September 27, 1950

Despite statements by Chou En Lai and troop movements in Manchuria . . . there are no convincing indications of an actual Chinese Communist intention to resort to full-scale intervention in Korea. . . . From a military standpoint the most favorable time for intervention in Korea has passed. . . .

While full-scale Chinese Communist intervention in Korea must be regarded as a continuing possibility, a consideration of all known factors leads to the conclusion that barring a Soviet decision for global war, such action is not probable in 1950. During this period, intervention will probably be confined to continued covert assistance to the North Koreans. The consensus of the US top military is that the Russians are not ready for global war while China is not militarily capable of unilateral intervention—namely, there will be no Soviet or Chinese communist intervention in Korea.

Source: *TeachingAmericanHistory.Org,* 2006. Ashbrook Center for Public Affairs, http://teachingamericanhistory.org/library/index.asp?documentprint=911.

SOURCE 8

Excerpt from broadcast on Radio Peking, October 10, 1950

> The American War of intervention in Korea has been a serious menace to the security of China from the very start. . . . The Chinese people cannot stand idly by with regard to such a serious situation—created by the invasion of Korea by the United States and its accomplice countries and to the dangerous trend toward extending the war. The Chinese people firmly advocate a peaceful resolution to the Korean problem and are firmly opposed to the extension of the Korean War by America.

Source: *TeachingAmericanHistory.Org,* 2006. Ashbrook Center for Public Affairs, http://teachingamericanhistory.org/library/index.asp?documentprint=912.

SOURCE 9

Stalin's meeting with Kim Il Sung, March 5, 1949

Kim Il Sung asks for economical aid over a period of six years, reports on the status of American soldiers in South Korea, and mentions his country's lack of trade with other Southeast Asian countries.

> . . . Kim Il Sung says that after the liberation of Korea by Soviet troops, the Soviet Government and the Soviet Army rendered aid to Korea in the matter of economic development, in the matter of the development of Korea along the democratic path, and that the Korean government understands that without further economic and cultural aid from the Soviet Union it will be difficult for the DPRK [Democratic People's Republic of Korea] to restore and develop its national economy and culture. The assistance of the Soviet Union is required for the further development of the Korean economy and culture.
>
> Stalin asks what kind of aid.
>
> Kim Il Sung answers—economic and cultural. Stalin asks what precisely is needed. Kim Il Sung says that they have confirmed a two year plan for the restoration and development of the national economy. They need economic assistance to fulfill this plan and to strengthen the foundation of the economy. They need machines, equipment, and spare parts for industry, communications, transport, and also for other branches of the national economy. They also need technical assistance: sending Soviet specialists to Korea, drafting plans for the construction of new objects (factories and plants), conducting geological exploratory work. . . .
>
> . . . Kim says that in the south of Korea there are still American troops and that intrigues against North Korea by the reactionaries are increasing, that they have infantry troops but sea defense almost does not exist. The help of the Soviet Union is needed in this.
>
> Stalin asks how many American troops are in South Korea. Kim answers that there

are up to 20,000 men. Shtykov—approximately 15–20 thousand men. Stalin asks if there is a national Korean army in the south. Kim answers that there is, the number is around 60,000 men. Stalin asks if this number includes only regular army or also police. Kim answers that it includes only regular army.

Stalin (joking) asks, and you are afraid of them?

Kim—No, we are not afraid, but we would like to have naval units. Stalin asks which army is stronger—north or south. Pak Hon-Yong answers that the northern army is stronger.

Stalin asks if there are dry docks in Korea left by the Japanese, for example, in Seisin or in other places of Korea.

Kim answers that there are none.

Shtykov reports that there are dry docks, but only small ones.

Stalin says that it is possible to render assistance in this, and that Korea needs to have military planes. . . .

Source: *Cold War International History Project,* 2006. The Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars, http://digitalarchive.wilsoncenter.org/document/112127.

SOURCE 10

Telegram from Stalin to Roshchin with message from Zhou Enlai, July 5, 1950

In this telegram Stalin agrees with China regarding Indian intermediation on incorporating the People's Republic of China into the United Nations and denies authorizing Soviet planes over Manchurian territory. Stalin also advocates sending nine Chinese divisions to North Korea while providing Soviet air cover for these divisions.

Ciphered Telegram, Filippov (Stalin) to Soviet Ambassador in Beijing (N. V. Roshchin) with message for Zhou Enlai, 5 July 1950

CIPHERED TELEGRAM # 3172

Coded, only by wire

Submitted at 23:45 p.m. on 07/05/50

Distribution List—3 copies: Stalin—2, Molotov—1

To BEIJING, [SOVIET] AMBASSADOR Re Your ciphered telegrams ## 1112-1126

Tell Zhou Enlai the following:

1. We agree with the opinion of Chinese comrades regarding the Indian intermediation in the matter of admitting the People's [Republic of] China into the UN membership.

2. We consider it correct to concentrate immediately 9 Chinese divisions on the Chinese-Korean border for volunteers' actions in North Korea in the event of the enemy's crossing the 38th parallel. We will do our best to provide the air cover for these units.

3. Your report about the flights of the Soviet aircraft over the Manchurian territory has not been confirmed. But we have issued an order not to permit such overflights.

F I L I P P O V [STALIN]

_373/sh

5.7.50 [5 July 1950]

Typed by Stepanova at 0:55 a.m. on 07/06/50

Source: *Cold War International History Project,* 2006. The Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars, http://digitalarchive.wilsoncenter.org/document/110689.

LESSON 3

Three "Worlds" Collide

The Cuban Missile Crisis

Preparation

Locate the section on the Cuban Missile Crisis in your textbook or other resource. Make copies of Student Handouts 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. To help students complete both handouts, compile a list of resources on the Cuban Missile Crisis. For example, the *Avalon Project* website about the Cuban Missile Crisis (http://avalon.law.yale.edu/20th_century/msc_cuba044.asp) has the primary sources students will need to complete the task described in Student Handout 2.3.2. It may be helpful for students if you present the first day of the Cuban Missile Crisis so they understand your expectations. You may need to provide materials like markers and poster board to help students create their presentations, depending on what they choose to do.

Introduction

The ideological conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union nearly resulted in nuclear war over the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962. This lesson asks students to construct a timeline of events leading up to the crisis in an effort to understand the immediate causes of Cuba's involvement and the crisis itself. The lesson then "zooms in" on the thirteen days known as the Cuban Missile Crisis, asking students to reconstruct the events and political decision-making process pertaining to those events through primary and secondary documents.

Activities

1. Ask students to read the section in their textbooks that describes the Cuban Missile Crisis.
2. Distribute Student Handout 2.3.1 and give students time to complete it individually, in pairs, or in groups. Discuss students' answers. Explain to students that the 13 days known as the Cuban Missile Crisis began on the day that Kennedy was shown the photographs of missiles in Cuba, October 16, 1962.
3. Distribute Student Handout 2.3.2. Explain to students that they will reconstruct the 13 days of the Cuban Missile Crisis using primary and secondary sources. At this point you may direct them to the websites, books, etc., you have compiled in preparation for this lesson. Assign pairs or groups of students to a day of the Cuban Missile Crisis.
4. After students have had time to prepare their presentations, allow time in class for them to present. Assess student understanding by asking students to tie each day together into a single story of the Cuban Missile Crisis, written or oral.
5. To conclude the lesson, ask students to compare the Korean War with the Cuban Missile Crisis. They may refer to their charts from Lesson 2.

Cuban Missile Crisis Time Line

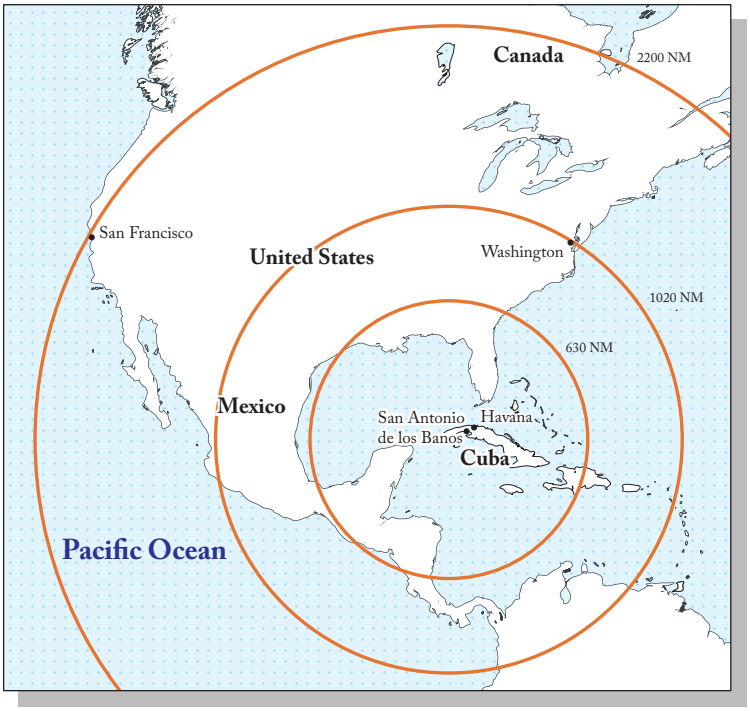
The terms below represent significant events leading up to the thirteen days known as the Cuban Missile Crisis. Using the resources your teacher has provided, complete the chart below.

Event	Date	Briefly describe the event	Briefly explain the event's significance
Cuban Revolution			
Cuba's Agrarian Reform Law and the Urban Reform Law Passed			
US Embargo of Cuba			

Event	Date	Briefly describe the event	Briefly explain the event's significance
Khrushchev begins plans to supply Cuba with missiles			
Bay of Pigs Invasion			
US spy planes spot missiles in Cuba			
President Kennedy is shown photographs of the missiles in Cuba			

Reconstructing the Cuban Missile Crisis

Background: On October 16, 1962, National Security Advisor McGeorge Bundy revealed to President John F. Kennedy photographic evidence of both Soviet medium-range ballistic missiles (MRBMs) and intermediate-range ballistic missiles (IRBMs) in Cuba. If fired, the MRBMs could reach Washington, DC, and the IRBMs could reach major U.S. cities like New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles. Realizing the urgency of the situation, President Kennedy immediately gathered his closest advisors, who together became known as the Executive Committee of the National Security Council, or simply, EX-COMM. With the help of EX-COMM, Kennedy had to make a decision about what action to take in response to the Soviet placement of missiles in Cuba. The thirteen days including October 16 through October 28, 1962, are now referred to in the United States as the Cuban Missile Crisis. The Cuban Missile Crisis was one of the most intense chapters in the Cold War, and one in which the "three worlds"—the US and Soviet superpowers, and a part of what became known as the Third World—collided.



The Task: Your task is to help reconstruct the thirteen days of the Cuban Missile Crisis. You and your group members will be assigned ONE of the thirteen days. Using primary and secondary sources, you will reconstruct the events of the day to present to your classmates in *no more than 10 minutes*. Your goal is to better understand, and help your classmates better understand, the urgency of the "crisis" for all parties involved. You can represent the day through a PowerPoint presentation, a dramatic presentation, or a narrative, as long as you include the following:

- A synopsis of the day, either at the beginning or end of your presentation.
- Consideration of both the United States and Soviet points of view.
- Evidence from primary sources and, when appropriate, an explanation of each primary source
- A bibliography including primary and secondary sources used.

LESSON 4

Mapping the Cold War

Investigating the Role of Third World Countries

Preparation

Prepare copies of Student Handouts 2.4.1 and 2.4.2. You may choose to enlarge the map or find a blank world map for students to use. Locate the sections in your text or other source that cover Asia, South and Central America, the Middle East, and Africa during the Cold War era. Write the page numbers for the pertinent sections on the board. Optional: Print and copy online encyclopedia entries for the history of the Cold War and/or the histories of specific countries during the Cold War era.

Introduction

This lesson is designed to allow students to explore both the big picture of Cold War events in Third World countries, and the history of one Third World country during the Cold War. In the first part of this lesson, students will create an annotated map of the world during the Cold War, focusing specifically on the influence of the United States and Soviet Union on Third World countries and regions. In the second part of the lesson, students will choose one country to research in depth and ask: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in this country? The lesson concludes with students presenting their findings to classmates.

Activities

1. Distribute Student Handout 2.4.1. Review the definitions from Lesson 1 on Third World countries. Point out that the map contains alliances of the United States and the Soviet Union during the Cold War, but it is incomplete. It does not provide information on the influence of the United States and Soviet Union on non-allied countries. Explain to students that they are going to complete the map by labeling and annotating information about Third World countries that were influenced by the Soviet Union and/or the United States.

2. Distribute Student Handout 2.4.2. Review directions for the mapping assignment (Part A). Note: you may want to modify the list of countries based on available resources. Students can work individually or in groups to complete the maps. You may want to post an example for the whole class see. For example, in East Africa, you could label and annotate information about Ethiopia and Somalia:

   > Late 1970s: Soviet Union supported Ethiopia in conflict with Somalia, which was supported by the United States. Somalia had previously been supported by the Soviet Union. This further increased tensions between the two superpowers.

3. In addition, many textbooks have examples of annotated maps, which will help students visualize the assignment.

4. Once students have completed their maps, bring the class together. Ask students to compare maps with their neighbors or other groups to check for discrepancies. Ask students if they saw any trends or patterns in this exercise and how these might relate to what they have learned so far in the chapter about North and South Korea and Cuba. Explain to students that they are now going to study one Third World country in depth by creating a poster about the economic, cultural, and political effects that the United States and Soviet Union had on these countries. Review directions for the poster (Part B). Assign countries to individuals and groups. Suggested countries: Afghanistan, Chile, Cuba, Egypt, Ethiopia, Iran, Iraq, Nicaragua, and Vietnam.

5. After students have researched and completed their posters, they should briefly present information to their classmates and display their posters. Presentations should focus on the chapter problem: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World? Students should take notes during the presentation to prepare for the final chapter assessment.

Assessment

Maps and posters may be collected and evaluated.

The teacher may assess student understanding of this lesson with the summative chapter assessment, which asks the students to formulate an answer to the chapter problem: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World?

Additional Resources for the Map and Poster

Gaddis, John Lewis. *The Cold War.* New York: The Penguin Press, 2005.

Stearns, Peter N. *Gender in World History.* London: Routledge, 2000.

Westad, Odd Arne. *The Global Cold War: Third World Interventions and the Making of Our Times.* New York: Cambridge UP, 2005.

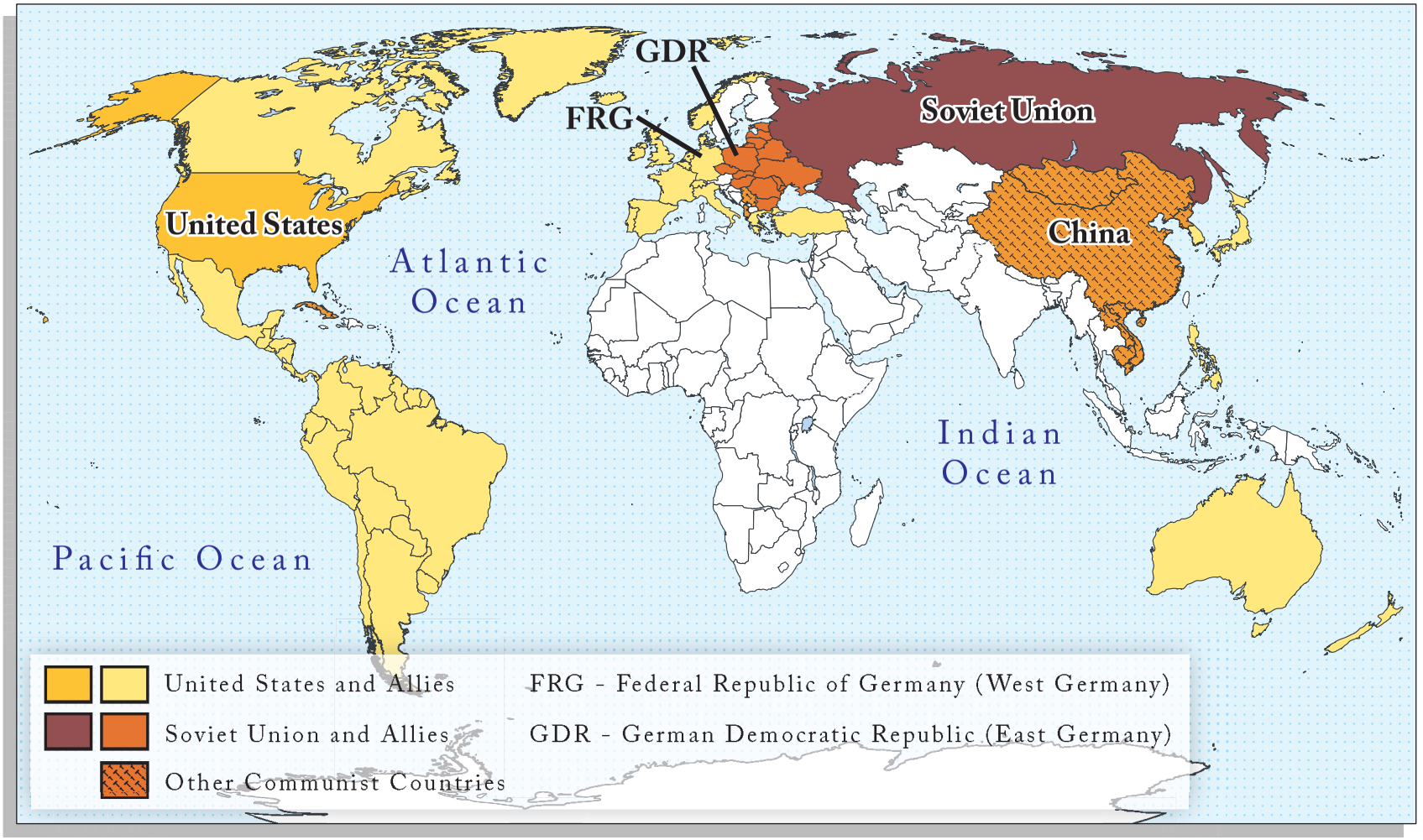
Assessment

Ask students to write an essay based on the chapter problem. Students should use specific evidence from the chapter materials to back up their claims. This evidence should include the charts that students completed in Lessons 2 and 3, the annotated map completed in Lesson 4, and the posters in Lesson 4. Students should be directed to cite specific primary and secondary sources to justify their claims.

Essay prompt: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in the Third World?

Mapping the Cold War

This map shows how the United States and its allies and the Soviet Union and its allies formed opposing blocs of power during the Cold War. Europe was split between the communist allies of the Soviet Union in Eastern Europe and the non-communist allies of the United States in Western Europe. Other communist countries, such as China and Cuba, sided with the Soviet Union during parts of the Cold War.



Directions for the Map and Poster

Part A: Annotated Map of United States and Soviet Influences on Third World Countries during the Cold War

Directions: Using your text and other sources, label and write a couple of sentences about each of the following countries during the Cold War. Focus on the influence that the Soviet Union and/or the United States had on the country during the Cold War, and connections to larger global patterns.

For each annotation include:

- The country's name
- Date(s) if applicable
- A 2–3 sentence description of the country within the Cold War context
- Color-code the countries by their associations with the United States, the Soviet Union, or both.

Countries:

- Afghanistan
- Chile
- Cuba
- Egypt
- Ethiopia
- Iran
- Iraq
- Nicaragua
- Vietnam

Part B: Investigating a Third World Country during the Cold War

Directions: Using your text and other sources, create a poster about one country during the Cold War. Be prepared to present your poster for five minutes. Your poster and your presentation should help your classmates answer the following question about your country: How did the opposing ideologies of the United States and the Soviet Union affect political, cultural, and economic developments in your country?

Your poster should include the following:

- A time line of events related to the Cold War (1945–1989) in your country. You should include a short description of *how* each event relates to the Cold War.
- A section on the impact of the United States and/or the Soviet Union on the culture of your country. Include how Cold War events shaped the lives of everyday people.
- A section on the impact the United States and/or the Soviet Union had on the economic situation in your country. Include information on the environment and access to natural resources if applicable.
- A section on the impact of the United States and/or the Soviet Union on the political climate in your country.

CHAPTER 3

By Andrew Pass

A Multitude of Sovereign States

WHY STUDY SOVEREIGN STATES?

The second half of the twentieth century witnessed the creation of more than fifty independent sovereign states. Many of these states achieved their independence as consequences of nationalist movements and decolonization. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, these states comprise a significant part of the membership of the United Nations. Although many of these new states are economically developing and are facing tremendous social and economic challenges, their very existence as sovereign states influences the powerful industrialized states. For example, in recent years, "first world" states have contemplated offering debt-forgiveness programs to newly independent nations. Human rights abuses, including mass killings, have also focused world attention on these new states. As citizens of the world, our students must understand the geopolitical transformation that occurred throughout the world, predominantly in Africa and Southeast Asia, during the second half of the twentieth century. In order to understand current events that involve these regions, students should possess an awareness of the processes that shaped these regions' political terrains.

OBJECTIVES

Upon completing this chapter, students will be able to:

1. Identify states that gained their independence during the third quarter of the twentieth century.

2. Evaluate the ways in which nationalistic impulses have benefited and impeded social and economic advances in newly independent states.
3. Analyze the influence that the Soviet Union and the United States of America held over new states during the Cold War.
4. Present research findings explaining the specific contexts of one newly independent African state and one newly independent Southeast Asian state.

TIME AND MATERIALS

This chapter should take five class periods (three classes at 40 minutes and two classes at 60 minutes). You will need markers or crayons, multi-colored construction paper, and unlined white paper.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

At first glance, the words "nation" and "country" might appear synonymous. These two words, however, have very different meanings. On the one hand, nations are groups that share important characteristics such as religion, language, culture, and ethnicity. On the other hand, countries, or states, are simply sovereign lands that typically have their own governments, constitutions, administrations, police forces, militaries, taxes, and laws. Though some nations come close to coinciding with sovereign states, constituting "nation-states," other nations lack their own sovereignty. At times, independent sovereign states have sought to expand their territories and resources by colonizing other lands and the nations that inhabit them.

Sovereign states that have colonized other lands have justified their behavior in several different ways. These imperial nations have often claimed that under their control, individual citizens living in colonies gained social and economic advantages, including security against invaders or barbaric governments. The British consistently justified colonization of other nations by claiming that they "civilized" the people who lived under their rule. Despite these claims, colonizers have often treated individuals living in their colonies poorly.

Whereas individuals have sought independence and power throughout history, national groups living in colonized lands have also long struggled for independence. This struggle for sovereignty, however, is deeper than a desire for independence. As an ideology, nationalism holds that nations form the central components of human social life. As such, nations have an absolute right to possess their own sovereign states. In fact, some adherents of the nationalist philosophy, such as Jean-Jacques Rousseau, argue that a state is illegitimate if it does not represent a nation. According to this argument, imperialist countries are illegitimate in their desire for control. The various nations controlled by these imperialists have a moral right to push back.

Students of history may view the twentieth century in part as a period of colonization and decolonization. Between 1945 and 2000, more than fifty nations, primarily located in Africa and Southeast Asia, gained independence, including the Philippines, Burma, Laos, Cambodia,

Vietnam, Singapore, Indonesia, India, Pakistan, Israel, Libya, Sudan, Tunisia, Morocco, Algeria, Senegal, Mauritania, Ghana, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Mali, Chad, Niger, Togo, Madagascar, Uganda, Jamaica, Trinidad, and many others.

These nations gained their independence in a variety of ways. Some violently deposed their colonial overlords, others fought for freedom with the tools of strike, boycott, mass demonstration, and constant pressures for negotiations. Still others were granted independence through the United Nations. Other nations followed the lead of Mohandas K. Gandhi (Mahatma Gandhi), who led the Indian independence movement against Britain in the first half of the twentieth century. Gandhi passionately opposed violent initiatives. Instead, he argued in favor of non-violent civil disobedience. Although Gandhi died in 1948, his beliefs continued to influence, but not always determine, many other nationalist movements in the second half of the twentieth century.

Faced with the threat of both violent and non-violent resistance in nations they had colonized, many imperial nations pulled out of their colonies during the third quarter of the twentieth century. For example, during the 1950s, the Mau Mau in Kenya facilitated an armed uprising against their British overlords. Not all Kenyans favored this armed conflict. The Mau Mau killed nearly 2,000 Kikuyu for refusing to swear allegiance to the rebellion. In the 1950s in the Gold Coast, Kwame Nkrumah incited strikes against the British, which eventually led to independence. At times, the imperial nations struggled to maintain their footholds in their colonies. More often than not, however, colonized peoples won independence before 1975.

Newly independent states and their citizens often faced tremendous obstacles. These included economic, social, and political turbulence. Different factions often competed with one another for political authority, even as most citizens lived in poverty. In many of these new states, infrastructures such as railways, roads, and telephone lines were underdeveloped and therefore slowed economic progress and national integration. One may look at a list of the poorest nations in the world to realize that even today, many nations that became independent in the third quarter of the twentieth century continue to face deep economic and social problems.

These new states not only dealt with internal challenges. They also had to make their way on the world stage. Having come into existence in the midst of the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union, these states had to grapple with the challenges of foreign relations. Both superpowers sought to influence new states, sometimes aggressively. Although these influences were often unwanted, rulers of new states often concluded that allying with one superpower or the other was often a better option than remaining neutral because, in exchange for allegiance, superpowers offered social and economic support.

A multitude of independent states exist at the beginning of the twenty-first century. Some of them constitute solid national communities. Others are multi-ethnic and multi-linguistic and continue to struggle with the problem of transforming the state into a nation-state. In order to effectively understand the landscape of the contemporary world, one should consider the period in which these nations came into existence, the third quarter of the twentieth century.

THREE ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Humans and the Environment

In what ways do you think the efforts of new states to develop economically might have affected their physical and natural environments?

Humans and Other Humans

View all or parts of the film *The Battle of Algiers*. Place the events of the film in the chronological framework of the Algerian Revolution (1954–62). How did the presence of a large group of French settlers in Algeria affect the course of the war? What tactics did the French and Algerian Nationalists use against one another to win the battle of Algiers? Were these tactics justified on either side? Explain why the revolutionaries lost the battle of Algiers but nevertheless won the revolution. To which side in the struggle does the filmmaker seem to be sympathetic? How does he show this in his move-making? How do recurring musical themes enhance the drama of the film? (*The Battle of Algiers*, directed by Gillo Pontecorvo, appeared in 1966. It is in French and Arabic with English subtitles. The film includes scenes of torture and street violence, though these are fairly restrained. The film has no sex or nudity. The running time is 121 minutes. The film is available on DVD.)

Humans and Ideas

When the British withdrew from their West African territories of Sierra Leone, Ghana, and Nigeria, they left those new countries with parliamentary democratic governments modeled on that of Britain. High court judges even wore British-style wigs! These parliamentary governments, however, did not last long. Research the question of why those governments soon devolved into civilian or military autocracies. Why did two-party parliamentary systems not develop? Which of those countries have democratic governments today?

KEY THEMES

This chapter addresses the following historical themes:

Key Theme 3: Uses and Abuses of Power

Key Theme 4: Haves and Have-Nots

Key Theme 5: Expressing Identity

CORRELATIONS TO NATIONAL HISTORY STANDARDS

National Standards for World History
Era 9: The 20th Century since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes. 1C: The student understands how African, Asian, and Caribbean peoples achieved independence from European colonial rule; 3A: The student explains the changing configuration of political boundaries in the world since 1900 and analyzes connections between nationalist ideology and the proliferation of sovereign states.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Ansprenger. Franz. *The Dissolution of the Colonial Empires*. London: Routledge, 1989.

Barnett, Donald L., and Karari Njama. *Mau Mau from Within: An Analysis of Kenya's Peasant Revolt*. New York: Modern Reader, 1966.

Baylis, John, Steve Smith, and Patricia Owens. *The Globalization of World Politics: An Introduction to International Relations*. 5th ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 2011.

Betts, Raymond F. *Decolonization*. London: Routledge, 2004.

Birmingham, David. *The Decolonization of Africa.* Athens: Ohio University Press, 1995.

Cooper, Frederick. *Africa since 1940: The Past of the Present*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002.

Freedom Now: 1947–1990. *People's Century, PBS Online*. 22 May 2006. http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/peoplescentury/episodes/freedomnow/index.html. An online resource about nationalistic independence movements aligned to the video *Freedom Now*.

Kenyatta, Jomo. *Facing Mount Kenya*. London: Secker and Warburg, 1959.

Shipway, Martin. *Decolonization and Its Impact: A Comparative Approach to the End of Colonial Empires*. Malden, MA: Blackwell, 2008.

Smith, Anthony D. *The Ethnic Origins of Nations*. New York: Blackwell, 1987.

Smith, Charles D. *Palestine and the Arab-Israeli Conflict: A History with Documents*. 8th ed. Boston: Bedford St. Martins, 2012.

Springhall, John. *Decolonization since 1945: The Collapse of European Overseas Empires*. New York: Palgrave, 2001.

Tarling, Nicholas. *Nationalism in Southeast Asia: "If the People Are with Us."* New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2004.

LESSON 1

Nationalism and Nation-States

Activities

1. To begin this lesson, ask students to define the words *state*, *nation-state,* and *country* using available dictionaries. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their answers. Students should understand that a *state* is a type of political unit, a territory and population that has a central government and that regards itself as sovereign, that is, independent of other states. A *nation* is a group of people who regard themselves as sharing a common culture, heritage, and destiny and who typically believe that they should, if they do not already, constitute a sovereign state. The word *nation-state*, then, means a state that coincides with, or at least claims to coincide with a national community, or nation. Students should understand that *sovereign*, or *sovereignty* refers to the exclusive right of the state to exercise supreme political (legislative, judicial, and executive) authority over a geographic region and its inhabitants. Therefore a nation-state, through its government, has the right to exert political authority over its people. *Country* is generally used as a synonym for either *state* or *nation-state*, that is, a sovereign territory such as France, Thailand, Mexico, or the United States of America.

   Students should understand that a *nation* may be defined primarily as a cultural group. Ask them what they think the word *culture* means. In 2002, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization published the Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity which defined culture as a "set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual, and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions, and beliefs." Ask students what they think *ethnicity* and *ethnic group* mean. An *ethnic group* is a population whose members identify with each other because of common genealogy or ancestry. Though *country* and *nation-states* are often used as synonyms, help students understand that, technically speaking, countries need not only contain one nation. Ask students if they think that it is fair to refer to the United States of America as a nation-state. Encourage them to support their opinions.

2. Ask students to complete Student Handout 3.1.1 in groups of two or three. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class. Invite the groups to share their answers. During this step of the lesson, students should develop a general understanding of the empires that existed in 1945 and the colonies that they controlled. The principal western Western imperial systems in 1945 were those of Britain, France, Portugal, Belgium, the Netherlands, Spain, Italy, and the United States. Some students may also define the Soviet Union as a colonial empire because Russian-speaking people ruled over diverse ethnic nationalities. Other students will likely note that both Germany and Japan had colonial empires until the end of the war.

3. Ask students to form groups of two or three and complete Student Handout 3.1.2. After students have completed this worksheet, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their answers. Lead a discussion within which students consider how nationalistic sentiments might influence common individuals living within a colony of an imperial power whose nationality is different than their own. Help students understand that, though imperialist nations might not have controlled every aspect of a person's life, they did control the structure of life in their colonies. For example, they controlled political rights, such as freedom of speech, and civic obligations, such as the amount of taxes that people had to pay.

   Encourage students to consider the fact that, although common individuals might not gain significant power if the leaders of their own nation gained political power, their lives might be different in meaningful ways. For example, on the one hand, they might gain the right to select their own leaders. On the other hand, if the imperial authority withdrew from their land, these commoners might face new insecurities. Ask students if they think that they would have supported a nationalist ideology if they had lived in a colonized land around 1950. Encourage students to support their answers with high-quality reasoning skills.

4. Now ask students to complete Student Handout 3.1.3. This worksheet asks students to consider the difference between more peaceful and more violent nationalist movements. Students are asked to consider excerpts from the leaders of both types of movements. After they have completed this work, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their answers. Lead a discussion in which students analyze the meanings of each text. Encourage them to examine closely the intentions of each speaker. Ask them to explain whether or not they agree with each statement and why.

5. Now distribute Student Handout 3.1.4. This worksheet asks students to write a paragraph, explaining when and why it is appropriate to revolt against an imperial overlord and when and why it is appropriate to stage a violent revolution, as opposed to non-violent resistance. After students have completed this work, invite them to form groups of three or four. In each group, students should share their work with one another. Tell students that when they are not presenting their own work, they should write down either one point they agree with about their groupmate's paragraph or one point they disagree with about the paragraph. Remind students that these points should be related to substantive ideas expressed by their groupmate. If possible, post these projects around the classroom.

6. After all of the groups have completed their work, reconvene the class. Lead a discussion in which students consider whether or not they believe that it is ever appropriate to participate in a violent revolution. Based on their projects from the previous step, urge them to consider when it might be appropriate to participate in a violent revolution, if ever. Encourage students to challenge one another's ideas. Then ask students if they believe it is fair for them to judge whether or not individuals from the past behaved

appropriately. Although it is sometimes natural to judge behavior, tell students that as historians, or students of history, it is their responsibility to try to understand the motivations for the behavior of others, instead of judging those behavior. Tell students that in the remainder of this chapter, they will develop additional knowledge that will help them analyze the behavior of those who supported nationalist movements.

Empires and Colonies in 1945

Using your textbook or other sources, answer the following questions:

1. Identify four imperial states that possessed imperial colonies in 1940, that is, just at the start of World War II.

2. For each empire, list as least two colonies that they controlled.

3. Which two continents had the largest number of colonies?

Nationalism: What Is It?

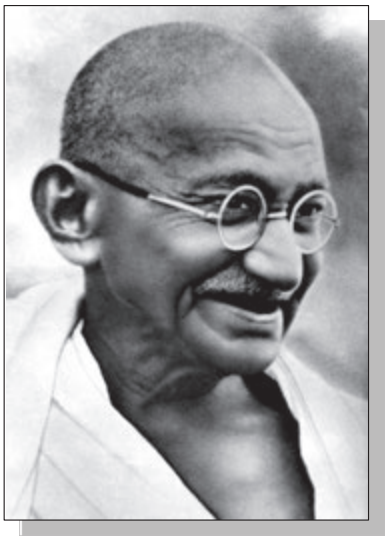
1. Use a dictionary to define the term *nationalism*.

2. What do you think it would mean for the members of a nation to have "nationalist attitudes and feelings"?

3. In what ways do you think that nationalist attitudes and feelings might promote peaceful interactions toward a common objective?

4. In what ways do you think that nationalist attitudes and feelings might promote conflict?

Revolution: Peaceful or Violent?



Mohandas K. Gandhi

Mohandas K. Gandhi (1869–1948) led India's movement for independence from Britain. India became a sovereign state in 1947. Please read the following statements and complete the questions that follow:

> Civil disobedience becomes a sacred duty when the state has become lawless or corrupt. And a citizen who barters with such a state shares in its corruption and lawlessness.
>
> Source: Mary King, *Mahatma Gandhi and Martin Luther King Jr: The Power of Nonviolent Action* (Paris: UNESCO, 1999), 286–7.

Questions

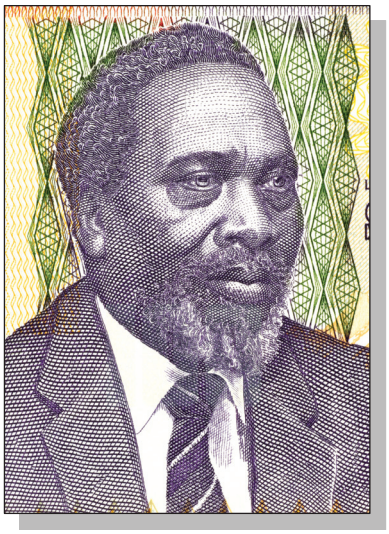
1. Explain this statement in your own words.

2. What do you think the phrase "civil disobedience" means?

3. What do you think it means for a citizen to "barter" with a state?

Jomo Kenyatta (1894–1978) was the most renowned leader of Kenya's movement for independence from Britain. He served as Kenya's first Prime Minister (1963–1964) and President (1964–1978).

> By driving the African off his ancestral lands, the Europeans have reduced him to a state of serfdom incompatible with human happiness. The African is conditioned, by the cultural and social institutions of centuries, to a freedom of which Europe has little conception, and it is not in his nature to accept serfdom forever. He realizes that he must fight unceasingly for his own complete emancipation; for without this he is doomed to remain the prey of rival imperialisms, which in every successive year will drive their fangs more deeply into his vitality and strength.



Jomo Kenyatta

Source: Jomo Kenyatta, *Facing Mount Kenya* (London: Secker and Warburg, 1953), 317–18.

Questions

1. Explain this statement in your own words.

2. What do you think Jomo Kenyatta's purpose was in making this statement? Explain why.

3. Do you agree with the ideas presented in this statement? Why or why not?

4. Do you think that Mahatma Ghandi would have agreed with Jomo Kenyatta's statement? Why or why not?

Developing a Manifesto

In your group write a paragraph explaining when you think it is appropriate for a nation to revolt against an imperial ruler. Explain when and if you believe that it is ever appropriate to undertake military resistance as opposed to non-violent resistance. Share your ideas with other students.

LESSON 2

Social and Economic Conditions: Pre- and Post-Decolonization

Activities

1. To begin this lesson, ask students to complete the questions on Student Handout 3.2.1 in groups of two or three. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their answers. Students should recognize that it is far easier to measure economic conditions than social conditions. Tell students that economic conditions can be measured in a variety of ways. For example, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) identifies the sum total of all income produced in a particular country, including wages, profits, rents, and interest. Gross National Product (GNP), on the other hand, identifies the sum total of all income produced in a particular country plus all transfers of income into the country from other countries minus all transfers of income out of the country to other countries.

   To help students understand the meaning of these two terms, post the following definitions for the whole class to see:

   a. GDP (Gross Domestic Product): The total market value of all the goods and services produced within the borders of a nation during a specified period.
   b. GNP (Gross National Product): The total market value of all the goods and services produced by a nation during a specified period. Includes GDP, plus any income earned by residents from overseas investments, minus income earned within the domestic economy by overseas residents.

Ask students which economic concept would better illuminate the wealth of a particular country or colony, GDP or GNP. Urge students to support their ideas logically. Students should understand that GDP might more effectively describe the wealth of a particular country or colony, because if a great deal of wealth is produced in a colony but then transferred out to imperial rulers, the colony remains poor. Help students understand that social conditions might be measured by criteria such as the occupations in which individuals can work, the type of education and cultural opportunities that are available to them, the amount of power they can wield in society, the amount of respect they receive from others in society, and their opportunities to buy and own property.

Challenge students to define the terms “per capita GDP” and “per capita GNP.” Ask students to discuss the importance of these statistics. What do these statistics reveal that aggregated GDP and aggregated GNP do not reveal? Challenge students to explain their thoughts.

2. Now ask students to complete Student Handout 3.2.2 in groups of two or three. This handout asks students to consider the responsibilities that imperialist nations assumed for their colonies. The worksheet prompts students to reflect on the fact that some imperialist nations simply lacked the capacity to promote social and economic advancement in their colonies. Portugal, for example, was itself not an advanced European nation, so the government of Portugal certainly could not promote advancement in its colonies when it could not even promote such advancements in its own nation. After World War II, France, for example, had to rebuild itself after the Nazi occupation. It had limited resources to spend on its colonies. The point of this step is for students to understand that colonizers often treated colonies and the people living in them as inferior beings. Ask students to consider why colonizers often wanted to hold on to their colonies even though they could not afford to help them advance socially and economically.

3. Ask students to complete Student Handout 3.2.3 in groups of two or three. This handout asks students to examine social and economic conditions in the former Portuguese colony of Angola. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their answers. Lead a discussion in which students consider the social and economic conditions of Angola. Help students understand that Angola has been a developing nation, which means that the social and economic conditions in which the people of Angola have lived have been dismal for many. Students should recognize that these conditions are typical of those found in many former colonies. Ask students if they think that the people of Angola might be happier living in their own independent nation than they would have been living in a colony of another nation besides Portugal.

4. Tell students that although people living in colonies and newly independent nation-states often sought and gained independence, this liberty sometimes caused unforeseen difficulties. Ask students if they can think of some of these difficulties. Although colonizers sometimes treated the indigenous people living in colonies badly, they did provide stable authority. Once the stable authority of the imperial nation ended, different factions sometimes fought to fill the vacuum. Indigenous people living in the colonies could typically look to their imperial overlords for basic supplies, such as enough food to survive. However, after independence, the newly independent nations had to borrow money from other nations.

   In a quick write, ask students to develop a metaphor for explaining the difficulties that newly independent nations encountered after decolonization. One such metaphor might be a child leaving home for the first time. After students have written their metaphors, invite them to share them with the class. Encourage students to explain their metaphors.

5. Remind students that not all former colonies encountered horrible social and economic conditions. Ask students if they can think of any examples of former colonies that have thrived. Without much prodding, students should be able to cite the United States, Canada, and numerous South American countries.

6. Now ask students to respond to Student Handout 3.2.4 in groups of two or three. This handout asks students to pretend that they are an advisory council to the leader of their colony. The leader has asked them to develop a proposal explaining whether or not they should seek independence, explaining both the positive and negative aspects of gaining freedom, and the reasons why it might be so desirable. After students have completed this task, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their proposals. Lead a discussion in which students examine the positive and negative aspects of both seeking and achieving independence. Students should recognize that nationalist sentiments drove many colonies to seek independence. Hopefully, students recognized that although they would likely face challenges on their road to independence, other countries successfully overcame these challenges. Therefore, an advisory council might have been very optimistic, though it should also have been realistic.

Social and Economic Conditions

1. Explain the following term: "social conditions of a society."

2. How do you think that the social conditions of a society can be measured?

3. Explain the following term: "economic conditions of a society."

4. How do you think that the economic conditions of a society can be measured?

5. Do you think that it is would be easier to measure the social conditions of a society or the economic conditions of a society? Why?

Considering Colonies from the Perspective of the Colonizers

1. Explain two reasons why an imperialist nation might want colonies. Be sure to explain each reason in detail.

2. Do you think that the leaders of imperial states would value the importance of social and economic conditions in their colonies? Why or why not?

Social and Economic Conditions in Colonies

Using the CIA's *The World Factbook* (https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/index.html), answer the questions below:

1. In what year did Angola gain its independence and from what country?

2. Describe three aspects of the social conditions in post-independence Angola.

3. Describe three aspects of the economic conditions of post-independence Angola.

4. What effect did independence have on social and economic conditions in Angola? Explain how you know this.

Advising the Leader

Your group has been asked to develop a proposal to submit to the leader of the nationalist movement in your colony. This proposal should contain three parts:

1. Explain at least two positive reasons why your colony should seek independence.

2. Explain at least two reasons why your colony should not seek independence.

3. Conclude by presenting an opinion as to whether or not your colony should seek independence.

LESSON 3

Newly Independent States and the Cold War

Activities

1. To begin this lesson, ask students to complete Student Handout 3.3.1 in groups of two or three. This handout asks students to consider a hypothetical school that is dominated by two cliques, whether they might like to join one of these cliques, and why. After students have completed this work, invite them to share their answers with the class. Then ask students how the scenario presented on this worksheet relates to the Cold War. Chapter 2 provided an opportunity for students to learn about the Cold War. Ask students if they think that comparing the Cold War to two cliques in a school is a reasonable comparison. Encourage them to support their opinions thoughtfully.

2. Now ask students to complete Student Handout 3.3.2 in groups of two to three. This handout asks students to consider why both the Soviet Union and the United States wanted to attract newly independent nations to join their side in the Cold War confrontation. After students have completed this work, invite them to share their answers with the class.

3. Ask students to complete Student Handout 3.3.3 in groups of two or three. After students have completed this work, reconvene the class. Invite students to share their answers. Lead a discussion in which students consider how newly independent states might have perceived the role of the superpowers in the world. Ask students if they think that it would be fair to compare the superpowers to bullies in a school yard.

4. Write the following prompt on the board:

    a. Is there a significant difference between being within the sphere of influence of a superpower and being a colony of an imperial state? State your answer and support it.

    In groups of two or three, ask students to take a side on the issue. Remind students to justify their positions. After students have completed this preliminary work, invite them to participate in a class debate. This debate will consider the validity of the statement appearing on the board. If you find that students are supporting one side over the other, play devil's advocate.

5. Tell students that few countries remained neutral during the Cold War. Ask them why they think that was the case. Give them the examples of Finland and Austria, which were not newly independent nations but remained neutral. Encourage students to consider the types of challenges that neutral states might have faced during the Cold War.

6. Now inform students that they are going to construct an art project in which they develop a symbolic representation of the relationship between a newly independent nation and the superpowers. Tell students that they should use construction paper to develop this symbolic representation. Encourage them to use a variety of different colors. Tell students that they can only tear this construction paper and glue it. Explain that some people have more skill at drawing then others. Few people, however, have experience tearing construction paper and gluing it. Therefore, this project places everybody on an equal footing. They don't have to worry about their artistic skills; they only have to think symbolically about the relationship between newly independent states and the superpowers. Provide students with time to complete their projects. After they have completed them, reconvene the class. Invite students to present their projects to their classmates. Encourage students to explain why they thought about the relationship between the superpowers and the newly independent states the way they did.

A Cuba-Russia friendship poster showing Fidel Casto and Nikita Krushchev states, "Long live the eternal, indestructible friendship and cooperation between the Soviet and Cuban peoples."

Two Cliques in the School

1. What is a clique?

2. Imagine a fictional school that has two major cliques. What types of influence would the leaders of each of these cliques have on the student body? Explain.

3. Would you want to belong to one of these cliques? Why or why not?

4. Explain an advantage and a disadvantage of not belonging to a clique.

The Superpowers' Attitudes toward Newly Independent States

1. During the Cold War, what was the attitude of the United States and the Soviet Union with regard to newly independent nations?

2. Why do you think that the superpowers had this attitude toward newly independent nations?

Newly Independent States' Attitudes toward the Superpowers

1. If you were a member of the government in a newly independent nation, how would you think about your relationship toward the superpowers? Explain why you would think this way.

2. What benefits do you think might go to newly independent nations from aligning themselves with one of the superpowers?

3. Explain some of the negative factors that might stem from newly independent nations aligning themselves with one of the superpowers.

LESSON 4

Case Study of a Newly Independent State in Africa

Activities

1. Ask students why they think that so many countries in Africa gained independence during the third quarter of the twentieth century. Encourage them to consider if they think that one colony gaining independence might have prompted independence movements in other colonies. Help students understand that movements, or attempts to accomplish specific objectives, often spread from one colony to others. Ask students if they can think of any other movements that began in one country and spread to others. One example might be women's liberation. Throughout history, women were often subjugated and treated as inferior to men. Certainly, this phenomenon continues to exist in certain parts of the world. Once women began gaining rights in certain parts of the world, however, this phenomenon spread to other parts of the globe.

2. Now tell students that in this lesson they are going to work in groups to research the characteristics of a particular state in Africa, including how it gained independence and what its political, social, and economic conditions have been since gaining independence. Explain that they are going to use their research to develop an informational brochure about their state. In groups of two or three, students should research one of the following countries:

    - Angola
    - Botswana
    - Gambia
    - Ghana
    - Guinea
    - Sierra Leone
    - Sudan

    Make sure that a state is being investigated by only one group. Distribute Student Handout 3.4.1, which contains the directions for this project. Students should have access to markers and unlined white paper.

3. After students have completed their projects, distribute Student Handout 3.4.2 to each student. Tell each group that it needs to show its travel brochure to every other group. This handout asks students to identify one new thing about each state investigated by a group in the class. Ask students to complete their charts as they see each informational brochure.

4. After students have completed filling in their worksheets, reconvene the class. Ask students what they consider to be the most interesting facts that they have learned about the African states. Help students recognize the ways in which states are similar and those ways in which states are different.

5. In a quick-write, ask students to explain why it might be important to know details about African states. Remind students that with the current structure of our world, events in one state can certainly influence events in others. Therefore, intelligent people should know as much as possible about different parts of the world.

Africa

Developing an Informational Brochure on an African State

Using the CIA's *The World Factbook* (https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/index.html) and the United Nations' *The Cyber School Bus* (http://cyberschoolbus.un.org/), research the state that your group has been assigned. Then answer the following questions:

Your group has been assigned an African state that gained its independence between 1940 and 1975. Please develop an informational brochure about this state that answers the following questions:

a. What year did the state gain its independence?
b. From which imperial state did this newly independent state gain its independence?
c. How did this state gain its independence? (Was there civil disobedience? A mostly peaceful constitutional change? A revolution?)
d. What languages are primarily spoken in this state?
e. What religions are primarily observed in this state?
f. What type of government does this state have today?
g. Would you characterize this state as a "nation-state?"
h. What is this state's Gross National Product?
i. What social conditions exist in this state?

You should seek to make your informational brochure artistically creative and pleasing.

Information about African Countries

Name of country							
a. Year independence gained							
b. Imperial state from which it gained independence							
c. Way that independence was gained							
d. Primary languages							
e. Primary religions							
f. Government structure							
g. A nation-state?							
h. GNP							
i. Social Conditions							

LESSON 5

Case Study of a Newly Independent State in Southeast Asia

Activities

1. Remind students that Lesson 4 considered newly independent states in Africa. Tell them that they will examine newly independent states in Southeast Asia in this chapter. Ask students how they think that African states might differ from states in Southeast Asia. Encourage students to think about the various components of culture: language, religion, clothing, food, music, dance, etc. Tell students that, despite these differences, newly independent states in both Africa and Southeast Asia have been known for high poverty and poor social conditions.

2. Tell students that in this lesson they will develop an interview with a leader in a Southeast Asian state. Divide students into groups of two or three, and assign each group one of the following countries:

    - Burma
    - Cambodia
    - Indonesia
    - Philippines
    - Singapore
    - Vietnam

    Be sure that each state is being considered by at least one group. Distribute Student Handout 3.5.1 to students. Provide students with time to research their state.

3. After students have completed their research, check over and approve their completed handouts. Once this handout has been approved, provide them with a copy of Student Handout 3.5.2. Provide students with time to both develop and research their interviews. As students work on their interviews, ensure that each student in the group has a role to play. If a student does not have a role, help the group develop a role for him or her.

4. After the groups have finished preparing their interviews, reconvene the class. Invite each group to present its interview to the class. As each group presents, ask students who are not presenting to write down one idea that strikes them as particularly interesting about the interview. Tell students that these ideas should be substantive. After each group completes the presentation, invite a few students to share the ideas they wrote down.

5. Now ask students if they know what state in the world has the largest shopping centers and the fastest-growing economy. If students do not know the answer to this question, tell them it is China. Remind them that at one time, the Japanese controlled much of China, treating it as a colony. Ask students if they know of anyone who has ever phoned a "call center" and had their call picked up by somebody in India. Inform students that the Indian economy is growing quickly as Indians do much work for people from European and the United States.

6. Remind students that at one time India was a colony of Great Britain. Ask students what the stories of China and India make them think about the potential for economic and social success of former colonies. Ask students what they think it would take to ensure that former colonies have the opportunity to realize economic and social success. Encourage them to support their ideas thoughtfully.

Southeast Asia

Assessment

Ask students to analyze and assess the following statement in writing:

"Nationalism and decolonization were pointless, for former colonies were unable to achieve economic and social success. Indeed, unable to survive at even the most basic levels, many people living in former colonies starved to death."

Research Preparation for Your Interview

Look up the state that your group has been assigned in an encyclopedia and a newspaper. You might try the online Encyclopaedia Britannica if available. For newspapers consider the *New York Times*, www.nytimes.com. Then answer the following questions:

1. Identify at least two significant leaders from this state and explain the role that each of these individuals has played in society.

2. Describe the current economic and social conditions in your state.

3. In what ways has each of the individuals identified in question 1 sought to improve social and economic conditions within the state?

4. What challenges have these individuals grappled with while seeking to improve the social and economic conditions of the state?

5. How have the citizens of this state accepted the efforts of each of these individuals?

Developing Your Interview

Your group should now develop a two-minute segment of a mock news show featuring an interview with one of the leaders you investigated in the earlier part of this lesson. Be sure to explain why this individual is significant, as well as their ideas for improving the social and/or economic conditions in the country where they live. You should seek to discuss this individual's ideas in as much depth as possible in a two-minute time period.

CHAPTER 4

By Anne Chapman

Wealth and Poverty since 1950

WHY STUDY WEALTH AND POVERTY?

This chapter examines global trends in wealth and poverty developing since 1950. Their effects touch many aspects of the lives of the current generation and will continue to the next. They offer splendid opportunities and pose difficult problems. Acquaintance with their causes, nature, and extent will help us to live with and make decisions about the issues they raise.

Globalization and technology have brought about enormous increase in total world wealth. They have both stimulated and benefited from the forging of new globally oriented economic institutions, such as the World Bank and multinational corporations. These institutions created wealth; some worked to reduce poverty. But a number of their policies, paradoxically, caused increased poverty.

Among the results of globalization and technical advancement was a rise in standards of living in many countries. But others not only remained poor, they even became poorer. Both between and within countries the gap between the haves and the have-nots grew. It did so increasingly and had negative consequences.

This chapter examines causes of wealth and poverty, and the influences on differing definitions of both. It provides case histories and encourages analysis of reasons why some countries have managed the shift from extreme poverty to higher standards of living but others remain stuck in extreme poverty. Several different kinds of poverty-reduction efforts are presented for assessment of their pluses and minuses, as well as their suitability to different circumstances.

Some questions posed for students based on the documents in the student handouts ask them to make and defend decisions concerning poverty-related issues in simulated real-life situations. This may help students appreciate their complexity and some of the factors involved in dealing with them.

OBJECTIVES

Upon completing this chapter, students will be able to:

1. Explain what poverty and wealth have meant to different people and how the definition of each has varied at different times and in different contexts.
2. Describe changes during the period in the wealthy and the poor globally and in developed and developing countries, identifying causes.
3. Explain globalization, and analyze its influence on wealth and poverty during the period.
4. Identify the nature of increasing economic inequality.
5. Trace changes that led some countries out of poverty, and identify conditions that kept others from doing so.

TIME AND MATERIALS

This chapter is versatile. The number and variety of documents, discussion questions, and activities provided is meant to give teachers the choice to use what most suits their interests and circumstances.

Depending on time available and other circumstances, teachers may choose to forgo

- Parts of the lessons
- Some of the student handouts within lessons
- Some of the discussion questions and activities

To facilitate teachers' decisions, discussion questions and activities are keyed to specific student handouts.

Time taken will vary: two to four days for each lesson, depending on teachers' selections from the materials provided, on how much detail is covered, and on whether the student handouts and thinking about the discussion questions can be assigned as homework. No materials are needed other than copies of the student handouts, and pencil and paper.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

After the end of World War II, several trends emerged concerning wealth and poverty. Among them were:

- Growing wealth based on a transnational flow of capital, goods, people, technology, and ideas, often called globalization
- Persistence of dire poverty (living on the equivalent of $1.25 a day) for a billion or more people, and additional billions remaining considerably poorer than most people in economically developed countries
- Economic inequality, which grew and spread rapidly from about 1980, both between and within countries
- Increasing aid from richer to poorer countries, for political and economic, as well as moral, reasons

The principal prelude to these trends was World War II, which had left economies in Europe and Asia devastated and millions impoverished. The United States' economy, on the other hand, expanded enormously during the war. At its end, the U.S. accounted for two-thirds of the world's industrial production, and its exports were three times greater than they had been before the war. With Cold War tensions rising and concern that economic problems in Western Europe would benefit the Soviets, American Secretary of State George Marshall in 1947 invited Europeans to cooperate in a reconstruction plan financed by the United States.

Nearly all European countries took part in the Marshall Plan except for those in the Soviet bloc, which, though invited, declined to participate. The plan was crafted to increase productivity, stimulate economic growth, promote trade, and counter Soviet influence in Europe. It would provide some $13 billion to sixteen participating Western European countries and last four years. It was not prompted by benevolence alone. The United States also aimed to benefit economically. It needed customers for the increasing volume of consumer products flowing out of factories converted from wartime to civilian use. The Marshall Plan was a success. In just three years both industrial production and trade grew by 40 percent in the participating countries.

International collaboration also grew after the war. In 1947, two dozen countries signed the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). With it, industrial countries reduced trade barriers and freed up international trade. A year later the United Nations General Assembly ratified the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This document asserted that "everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family." Establishing poverty reduction as an obligation under a global human rights agreement provided an incentive for doing so. Attention to poverty issues grew, both domestically and in economically developing nations, notably those that achieved independence from colonial rule in the three decades after the war. In 1949, President Harry Truman recommended that the United States help to bring about the "improvement, growth, and industrial progress" of "underdeveloped areas." Achieving this economic and social benefit became known as "development."

The division between the West (the United States and countries in Europe and elsewhere politically and economically allied with it) and the Soviets widened. Western countries wanted to combine economically integrated markets with social reforms leading toward the welfare state. They held that global capitalism was good for the growth of both development and equity. The Soviets held that capitalism had to be totally rejected in order to achieve the combination of economic growth and equity.

Soon after the war's end, many economies grew with amazing speed. Between 1948 and 1973, the combined production of the major industrial nations (Western Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand and Japan) more than tripled. Those countries benefited from the pent-up demand at home following the war and from government support of manufacturing with tax breaks, subsidies, and low interest loans. Foreign corporations and especially American multinationals were eager to invest in the booming European economies and in Japan. Their investments in those places rose from two to forty-one billion dollars between 1950 and 1973. Western countries came to expect continuing rates of growth. When this led to a labor shortage, foreign workers were invited in. "Guest workers" from eastern and southern Europe, and with decolonization, from other parts of the world, flowed into western Europe.

Within Western industrial societies, both economic inequality and poverty declined. In the United States, one of the less aggressively welfare-oriented states, the population below the official poverty line went from more than one third in 1950 to ten percent in 1973. It seemed that modern industrial societies could be successful by combining global economic integration, market capitalism, and generous social policies. The welfare state grew. Governments put in place, or expanded, policies like unemployment insurance, social security, and redistribution of wealth through progressive taxation. There was, however, little concern for, and sometimes hostility to, policies that sought to ameliorate poverty among the world's majority.

An exception to the movement toward freer flow of trade and investment across national borders was Latin America. There, after 1950, the generally accepted policy, known as import substitution industrialization (ISI), was turning inward and erecting higher barriers to trade. Fast growing domestic industrial production, government subsidized and promoted, was substituted for buying from abroad. In some Latin American countries, importing goods was outright forbidden in order to protect production at home from foreign competition. By the 1970's, Latin America succeeded in becoming much more heavily industrialized. But one fifth to one half of its workforce was still in agriculture, a level higher than in Europe forty years earlier. Poverty was widespread, and there was no sign of its declining. Income in the region was one third that of the developed world.

There were substantial changes after 1950 in the communist and socialist economies, notably in the Soviet Union and the new "people's democracies" under Soviet control. Steps to collectivize agriculture met with only partial success. Farming remained the weakest part of national economies. This, and an emphasis on heavy industry at the expense of consumer products, limited the improvement of popular living standards.

By the 1970s, some features of a market-like economy had crept into the still authoritarian and planning-based Soviet economy. Foreign trade was increased dramatically. By 1973, it was three times as important as it had been in 1950. Foreign investment began to be welcomed.

During the 1990s, however, the difficulties of accelerated change toward a market economy, combined with the political turmoil around the dissolution of the Soviet Union, led to an explosion of poverty from 2 percent to 50 percent of the population in most of the former Soviet Union.

After the proclamation of the People's Republic in 1949, Communist China's economy went through something like a roller coaster under Mao Zedong. He focused with unrelenting ruthlessness on rebuilding the economy that had been laid waste by war and transforming China into an industrial powerhouse. The several decades following could serve as a case study for how far-reaching the effects of government policy could be for wealth and poverty. During China's first five-year plan after 1947, there were significant gains in heavy industry, and the Gross Domestic Product per person grew impressively. But collectivizing agriculture could not produce enough both to raise farm incomes and to fund industrialization. In an attempt to hasten a rise in production, Mao proclaimed the "Great Leap Forward" in 1957. This plan organized peasants into huge communes, where they shared labor, machinery, leadership, housing, dining halls, and bathrooms. It did not make for effective farming. Nor was it acceptable to the largely uncooperative farmers. Combined with two years of poor harvests, the good intentions of eradicating hunger and want were negated by one of the worst famines on record. Between 15 and 30 million people starved to death. The economy's output declined precipitously.

The government then backpedaled. Private family lands and part-time private businesses were allowed, and a tentative move back to private market trading on the local level got underway. The government focused its efforts on ensuring the food supply by making available machinery, irrig-ation, and fertilizer to the most productive regions. These developments increased agricultural production. Growth leaped forward but was also accompanied by increased inequality between richer and poorer farmers.

In the mid-1960s, Mao and his radical communist followers unleashed the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution. The radicals objected not just to "bourgeois tendencies" and the taint of capitalism in the permission of markets but to the wide inequality in wages between skilled and unskilled workers and to economic inequalities in the countryside. Mao enlisted millions of teenage students and other young people into his cultural revolution. Armed as Red Guards and their excesses left virtually uncontrolled, they roamed the country to eradicate every last trace of a bourgeois taint. White-collar workers, teachers, and government officials were forcibly relocated to labor in the fields. Opposition was ruthlessly purged. The economy broke down, armed conflict tore the country, and production plummeted. It took almost a decade to return to the more moderate policies of the early 1960s. Then, from 1968 to 1973, the economy grew again, by one third.

By the latter date, China had achieved many of the goals of development. From an agrarian, underdeveloped country, it had become a modern, industrial one. Life expectancy, education, women's status, health care, and communications all improved substantially.

A change of policy in the 1980s (Mao died in 1976) embraced the importance of imports, exports, and foreign capital as promoters of economic development. China became integrated into the world economy. During the quarter century following the liberalization, GDP grew on average by a very rapid 9 per cent per year. China also ranked at the top among developing nations in poverty reduction. Their population living on the equivalent of $1.25 a day dropped

from 85 percent in 1981 to 27 percent in 2001, though inequality rose and the exact figures are debated. In terms of wealth, its per person GDP doubled during the decade after 2000. By 2010, it was becoming the second largest economy in the world.

For the first quarter century after 1950, the world had been divided into about 1 billion more-or-less rich people and about 5 billion poor people. Since then, the great majority of that 5 billion poor were climbing the ladder toward joining the rich, developed, industrialized world, some with amazing speed. This happened, among other factors, owing to their benefiting from increasing trade, growing foreign investment, economic grants and loans, industrialization, an expanding service sector, and technological innovation Among the successful states were South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong, and most recently China, India, and Brazil. A bottom billion people, heavily concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa with scattered areas elsewhere, were not only not climbing the ladder of development but falling off it altogether. Their incomes were stagnant or actually fell (the average income of forty-three African nations declined by a quarter between 1990 and 2000). These are the people who still live on the equivalent of $1.25 a day or less, and they remain vulnerable to famines, diseases, endemic violence, and hopelessness. Their leaders, who unfortunately include crooks and psychopaths as well as brave reformers battling against formidable odds, have not so far consistently succeeded in improving the lot of their own citizens. Nor did the citizens' poverty always respond as hoped to international aid.

The great post–World War II economic boom came to an end in the early 1970s.
Both internal and international economic problems unfolded. In the industrialized world, conflicts broke out between labor and capital. Workers' dissatisfaction with the failure of wages to rise led to more strikes. Wages were badly lagging behind economic growth. Inflation was also heating up. It burst into flames globally with the steep rises in the price of oil imposed twice by the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). This happened twice during the 1970s. There was also a widespread backlash against multinational corporations, who earlier had been warmly welcomed. These firms were much faster than the domestic firms who were their competitors. The latter complained that the foreign giants dominated local markets and that their managers were not sensitive to local and national culture and values. They hired foreign workers who took the lowest wages. This led to a lowering of wages or unemployment for local labor. Moreover, large foreign corporations came to acquire political clout that was especially problematic for developing nations.

While opinions in developed capitalist countries were increasingly divided about how far global economic integration should go, developing ones questioned their focus on protecting their economies with high trade barriers. The faster the latter economies grew, the more they needed at least some imports. Some governments devalued their currencies to raise the price of imports and make exports more attractive, which tended to create recessions when companies cut wages and laid off workers. The strong bias of ISI countries against agriculture and for industry (in order to substitute domestic products for imports) tended to worsen poverty in countries still largely rural and dependent on agriculture. Farmers migrated to the cities looking for jobs that were not available because the new industries were capital-intensive and used little low-skilled labor. Struggling farmers and urban poor were frozen out of ISI countries' modern economy. Many were unemployed or lived on subsistence wages.

The world faced a hard decade after the oil shocks. Inflation soared, and industrial output dropped by 10 percent in the developed world. Unemployment and poverty rose, and there were widespread strikes as workers and their unions tried to protect wages and employment. Governments in the advanced capitalist countries shoveled money they printed or borrowed into social spending like unemployment benefits, subsidies to businesses, and public sector job creation. Globalization continued, supported and promoted by the new transport and communication technologies, such as jumbo jets, computers, and cell phones. The developments that transcended national boundaries and spread globally were not, however, always desirable. They included diseases, pests, pollution, and financial crises.

The end of the century was bad for developing countries. Stagnation in the West, as the governments of developed countries began to pile up deficits, reduced demand for the exports of developing states. Inflation also raised the prices of the manufactured goods they needed to import. Those states in good enough shape to borrow money from abroad, threw it into intensified industrialization. Some succeeded. For others, protracted and systematic misrule, whether owing to error, ignorance, or corruption, negated the positive possibilities of this move. Inequality among and within countries skyrocketed, until in some countries the richest 1 percent of the population earned more than the poorest half. Systematic inequalities also continued for minorities and women.

Organizations devoted to ending poverty emerged. Some targeted individuals or families, others whole countries. A particularly ambitious initiative was the Millennium Project, whereby developed countries pledged each to contribute 0.7 percent of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to be used for the benefit of developing countries. That such a burden might not be excessive was suggested by the calculation that meeting basic nutrition and health needs throughout the world would cost less than the amount Europeans and Americans spent on pet food in an average year. Endorsed by 189 member states in 2000, the project's aims included halving poverty, achieving universal primary education, promoting women's equality, reducing child and maternal death, and combating disease, all by 2015. The latest projections suggest that poverty among the populations of developing countries will decline from 46 per cent in 1990 to 15 percent by 2015, overshooting the target. Other goals lag behind. Some member states achieved some of the goals by 2011, others of them none. Among the donors, only five member states have contributed the full amounts promised. Among recipients, misuse of aid for funding armies or lining leaders' pockets have been serious problems.

During the first decade of the twenty-first century, globalization continued to spread. National boundaries were not disappearing but were increasingly transcended by transnational institutions. An important part was played by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), whose scope was often beyond the national and regional. Their concerns were not only economic but also included promotion of global exchanges in a wide variety of fields, such as ecological, medical, and scientific.

Late in that decade, there were repeated though intermittent global explosions of prices, especially in oil, food, and housing. Parts of Asia and Africa were hit especially severely, and developing countries were pushed deeper into poverty. A global recession was related to the food, fuel, and financial crises. Financial crisis was influenced by steep rises in home prices

owing to overvaluation, excessive borrowing, and reckless lending. It led to mortgage defaults and problems for banks and financial organizations worldwide. It also triggered steep declines in consumer wealth and economic activity and the need for government bailouts.

Three sets of remarkable figures illustrating current global wealth and poverty indicate a global challenge for the next half-century or so.

- According to an admittedly rough estimate, the total of the GDP of all the nations of the world rose by a remarkable 800 percent between 1950 and 2008.
- Early in the twenty-first century, the richest 1 percent of adults owned 40 percent of global assets. The bottom half of the world's adult population owned barely 1 percent of global wealth. And the three richest people in the world had more money than the poorest forty-eight nations combined.
- More than a billion people in the world in 2008 lacked the resources that would ensure them a life without habitual or intermittent hunger.

Introduction

Some important terms:

- Beginning in the 1950s the term "Third World" referred to those countries in Africa, Latin America, Asia, and the Pacific that did not belong to, or align themselves with, either the First World of the North American/European "Western Bloc" or the Second World of the Soviet-led "Eastern Bloc." Third World countries were less powerful, less "modern," and poorer. Among them were the new countries that freed themselves from colonial rule in the following decades. With the end of the Cold War, political identification gave place to an economic one, and the labels "Third World" and "non-aligned" came gradually to be replaced with "southern," "underdeveloped," "poor," and "low-income." More recently still, "developing" has come into increasing use for poor, and "developed" for rich countries.
- The term "development" has been applied since World War II to a process whereby developing countries would achieve economic growth, increases in per-person income, and progress to a standard of living comparable to that of developed industrialized countries. Economic development typically results in improvements in life expectancy, poverty rates, literacy, and employment rates. To achieve it, a shift from agriculture to manufacturing and service industries was recommended, along with increasing foreign trade, greater variety in what was produced, increasing education, embracing change, and focusing on profit.

Some pedagogical information:

- Students can work on most activities and questions as a whole class, as individuals, or in groups. It is helpful to share results of individual and group work with the whole class.
- Giving students questions they are going to be asked to answer and activities they will be asked to do *before* they read the documents on which the questions and the activities are based can help their concentration, comprehension, and performance.
- Many of the questions have two or even several parts, starting with the relatively simple and gradually becoming more demanding. For example: "Name some actions that . . . Which had the greatest effect? Why?" or "Compare . . . Which were better off? In what ways? Explain your reasons for your opinion." The intention is to allow tailoring many of the questions to different age and ability levels. Some entire questions are deliberately geared to be of different levels of difficulty.
- More documents, questions, and activities are provided than need be used in order to allow choices to be made based on teacher and student interests and circumstances. Besides those identified as assessments, some of the other questions and activities could so serve as well.
- Encouraging students to keep notes of answers to discussion questions and results of activities will help them to organize and make sense of unfamiliar and extensive information. Reviewing notes will help toward success on assessments.
- At the end of each lesson, or of all lessons, consider asking:
    a. Of all you have read and discussed, what did you find most interesting? Most boring? Most confusing? Why?
    b. What, if anything, would you like to find out more about? Why?

Introductory Activities

Students may be asked to do the following Introductory Activities before reading any of the student handouts. They alert students to some of the core issues to be dealt with. If time is limited, they may be omitted without detracting from students' ability to deal with the rest of this chapter, or from fulfilling its objectives.

Ask students to brainstorm the following.

1. Construct a definition of poverty, and one of wealth. Do either or both of your definitions work equally well no matter where one lives? Why or why not?
2. What do you think are causes of individuals' poverty? What about nations' poverty? In what way(s), if at all, are the two related?
3. What reasons can you suggest for the overall increase of the world's wealth from about 1950 to now? For the increasing economic inequality between and within countries?

THREE ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Humans and the Environment

What environmental problems are being caused by developing countries' shift from agriculture toward manufacturing, the huge increase in long-distance trade, and the increasing consumption of consumer products by newly wealthy people in developing nations?

Humans and Other Humans

How did governments influence who became, or stayed, rich, and who became, or stayed, poor?

Humans and Ideas

What influences the different ways that globalization is perceived?

KEY THEMES

This chapter addresses the following historical themes:

Key Theme 2: Economic Networks and Exchange.

Key Theme 3: Uses and Abuses of Power.

Key Theme 4: Haves and Have-Nots.

CORRELATIONS TO NATIONAL HISTORY STANDARDS

National Standards for World History

Era 9: The 20th Century Since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes. 2B: The student understands how increasing economic interdependence has transformed human society. 3: The student understands major global trends since World War II.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Acemoglu, Daron, and James A. Robinson. *Why Nations Fail: The Origins of Power, Prosperity, Poverty*. New York: Crown Business, 2012.

Collier, Paul. *The Bottom Billion: Why the Poorest Countries Are Failing and What Can Be Done About It.* New York: Oxford University Press, 2007. Insightful presentation of interesting information in support of clearly outlined theses about causes of problems and suggested solutions, in unusually readable prose.

Ellwood, Wayne. *The No-Nonsense Guide to Globalization*. Oxford and London, UK: New International Publications Ltd. in association with Verso, 2001. Emphasizes the negative consequences of corporate-led globalization and the focus of the most wealthy on maximizing profits often at the expense others.

Frieden, Jeffry A. *Global Capitalism: Its Fall and Rise in the Twentieth Century*. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 2006. Formidably thorough and insightful economic and political history, only some half of it about the post-World War II period. Heavy on detail.

Lardner, James, and David A. Smith, eds. *Inequality Matters: The Growing Economic Divide in America and Its Poisonous Consequences.* New York: The New Press, 2005. Twenty-three essays present factual information and personal views about the rich/poor divide in America. Sometimes outspokenly indignant, it raises relevant economic and moral issues. Easy reading.

Nair, Kusum. *Blossoms in the Dust: The Human Factor in Indian Development*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1961. Sensitive reporting of the lives, attitudes, and concerns of women and men from various regions, castes, and economic levels in rural India of the 1950s. Striking excerpts from her recorded interviews of interviewees' own accounts.

Pinker, Steven. *The Better Angels of Our Nature: Why Violence Has Declined*. New York: Penguin, 2012.

Reich, Robert B. *Aftershock: The Next Economy and America's Future.* New York: Vintage Books, 2011. Unusually clear, thorough, and readable account of the American economy since the end of World War II.

Sachs, Jeffrey D. *Common Wealth: Economics for a Crowded Planet.* New York: The Penguin Press, 2008. Summarizes a mass of data into an organized and lucid report on the current state of the world and its major challenges. He readably covers the standard issues of population growth, sustainable development, climate change, economic inequality, and so on.

———. *The End of Poverty: Economic Possibilities for Our Time*. New York: Penguin Group, 2005. Specific, concrete examples are used to illustrate arguments. Enlightening chapter-long case histories on differently developing countries: Russia, China, India. Account of non-developing Africa discusses causes of poverty there and actions against it.

Wilkinson, Richard, and Kate Pritchett. *The Spirit Level: Why Greater Equality Makes Societies Stronger.* New York: Bloomsbury Press, 2009. Abundant factual information illustrates that economic inequality has wide-ranging consequences. Documents that the greater the inequality in a country, the worse are a wide range of social problems there; such as poor school performance, obesity, teenage births, mental illness, infant mortality, and homicide.

LESSON 1

Who Are the Poor, and Who Are the Wealthy?

Discussion Questions and Activities

Based on information in Student Handout 4.1.1:

1. Which of the definitions of poverty do you find most satisfactory? Why?
2. Explain the differences between absolute and relative poverty.
3. Give an example of each of the following aspects of poverty:
    a. Physical/material
    b. Psychological (how poverty makes the poor feel)
    c. Social (how they are treated by others)
    d. Cultural (in what features of their culture are they disadvantaged)
    e. Environmental (nature of the environment they live in)
4. In what way(s) do you think definitions of poverty and wealth are useful? For what? To whom? What questions would you ask, the answers to which could support your opinions?
5. How, if at all, would a definition of poverty have differed in 1950, from those between 1995 and 2009 shown in Student Handout 4.1.1? How about in 1900? Explain.
6. Where would you judge that poverty ends, and where does wealth begin? Which is easier to judge, and why? Explain on what your judgment is based.
7. Which is more difficult to define satisfactorily: poverty or wealth? Why?
8. How would you account for differences in the definitions of wealth and poverty?
9. It has been claimed that absolute poverty could be defined in a way that allows drawing a clear line, valid globally, between those who are and are not living in absolute poverty. Construct a parallel definition for absolute wealth. What difficulties are you finding in doing so? Why?
10. Compare the advantages and disadvantages of using an absolute or a relative definition of poverty.
11. **This question could serve as assessment.** Give an example of each of the following: the physical, psychological, social, economic, and environmental disadvantages that are cited in the definitions of poverty in Student Handout 4.1.1. In what order should these be tackled for poverty reduction by a government? Why?

12. **This question could serve as assessment.** Assume you are a city council member in a high income, developed country, and have been asked to help draft legislation that would provide free school lunches to children of the poor in your city. How would you recommend the law should identify who qualified—that is, how would you distinguish who was "poor"? Would your recommendation be the same in a low-income developing country? Why or why not? If not, what alternative would you recommend? What additional information would have helped you to make your decisions? Explain your reasons for your recommendation.

Based on information in Student Handout 4.1.2:

1. Besides the relative degrees of inequality between top and bottom incomes, between nations, and between regions, what other kinds of inequalities can you give evidence for from the documents?
2. Give the best evidence-based argument you can in favor of the claim that conclusions about the growth of a nation's or a region's economy and about changes in income, depend on what beginning and ending dates you choose to look at.
3. What connections can you make between the information in Student Handout 4.1.2, Document A, and what happened in history during 1820 to 1998?
4. Compare the changes in American women's and men's earnings in the bottom level of earners between 1979 and 2007. From history you know, what explanation might you give for some of what you find?
5. Assess how much influence on a scale of 10 (a lot) to 1 (very little) each of the following had on wealth inequality in the U.S. during the last quarter century or so:
   - class
   - race
   - wealth
   - gender

   Give evidence to support your assessment.
6. **This question could serve as assessment.** Give what evidence you can to support the claim that the world's prosperity grew since 1950, and that inequality of that growth both among and within countries increased.

Based on information in Student Handout 4.1.3:

1. What features of globalization could lead to increased poverty for low-skilled workers in developed countries and farmers in developing countries? How?
2. What part did multinational corporations play in the process of globalization?
3. Create a conversation between a supporter and an opponent of globalization. In it, make clear the advantages and disadvantages of globalization for developing and for developed nations.
4. Evaluate the claim that globalization puts the interests and values of global corporations (basically, profits) ahead of the concerns of labor, environmental protections, and human rights. What moral grounds, if any, might corporations give in their own favor? Give what evidence you can to support your evaluation.
5. What effect(s) did globalization have on wealth and on economic inequality in developed, and in developing, countries? How?
6. What features of globalization favor the increase of environmental problems? How?
7. Explain how government policies resulted in increased inequality.
8. Which two or three of the causes suggested for wealth inequality among individuals do you find most persuasive? Why? Can you suggest any other causes? If so, what?
9. What moral issues can you think of that might be raised by the information in Student Handout 4.1.2? In what way(s) were they "moral" issues?
10. If you were asked to join a government task force considering economic inequality in a developed country, what arguments would you make in favor of reducing them? Whom might you count on to support you? Why? Who would be likely to oppose you, and on what basis?
11. **This question could serve as assessment.** Write an editorial for a local newspaper in a developed country in favor of globalization, pointing out its advantages as well as identifying and countering arguments against it.

How Do You Decide Who Is Poor, Who Rich?

DOCUMENT A

Poverty

Relative poverty. With this definition, people are considered poor if their income falls below a level (usually called the "poverty line") that provides a standard of living high enough to satisfy basic needs but is still significantly lower than that of the majority of the population in a particular place and time. Definitions of basic needs varied across time and place, so each country uses poverty lines considered appropriate to its level of development and values.

Absolute or extreme poverty applies to people lacking the resources to consistently ensure healthy survival. When World Bank researchers noticed that national poverty lines in many developing countries clustered around the dollar-a-day mark, and since bare survival takes essentially the same basic life necessities across the world, that sum was adopted in 1990 by the Bank as the globally used poverty line. It continues to be widely used by governments and other planners. It was adjusted in 2008 to $1.25 a day, a figure that continues to be generally accepted and widely used. Other definitions:

By the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen in 1995

Poverty is a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs . . . unsafe environments, social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision-making, and in civil, social and cultural life. It occurs in all countries: as mass poverty in many developing countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth in developed countries, loss of livelihoods as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster or conflict, the poverty of low-wage workers, and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support systems, social institutions and safety nets . . . [The] absolute poverty threshold is equal to 2 or more severe deprivations of basic human need, defined as follows:

- Food—Body Mass Index [a measure of body fat based on height and weight] of 16 or below [this is severe underweight; normal weight is 18.5 and above].
- Water—access only to surface water (rivers, ponds) for drinking; . . . the nearest source of water more than a 30 minute roundtrip away; . . . [unsafe] water quality.
- Shelter—house with a dirt, mud, or clay floor; 4 or more people per room.
- Education—never having attended school; also, being illiterate.
- Information—no home access to newspapers, radio, television, computers

Source: http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/ydiDavidGordon_poverty.pdf.

By the United Nations, June 1998:

Fundamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion . . . It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living on marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation.

Source: http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/ydiDavidGordon_poverty.pdf

By Poor People Interviewed in 47 Countries as Part of a World Bank Project in 1999

Many factors converge to make poverty a complex, multidimensional phenomenon . . . Poverty is routinely defined as the lack of what is necessary for material well-being—especially food but also housing, land, and other assets. Poverty is the lack of multiple resources leading to physical deprivation . . . Poor people's definitions [also] reveal important psychological aspects of poverty. Poor people are acutely aware of their lack of voice, power, and independence, which subject them to exploitation. Their poverty also leaves them vulnerable to rudeness, humiliation, and inhumane treatment by both private and public agents of the state from whom they seek help. Poor people also speak about the pain brought about by their unavoidable violation of social norms and their inability to maintain cultural identity through participating in traditions, festivals, and rituals . . . The absence of basic infrastructure—particularly roads, transport, water, and health facilities—emerged as critical. While literacy is viewed as important, schooling receives mixed reviews, occasionally highly valued but often notably irrelevant in the lives of poor people. Finally, poor people focus on assets [possessions of economic value that can be converted to cash], rather than income; and link their lack of physical, human, social, and environmental assets to their vulnerability and exposure to risk.

Source: Adapted from Deepa Narayan et al. *Can Anyone Hear Us? Voices from 47 Countries*. Poverty Group, PREM; Bank, December 1999, Chapter 2, p.26. At: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPOVERTY/Resources/335642-1124115102975/1555199-1124115187705/ch2.pdf.

By The Fraser Institute in Canada, 1992, Updated 2006: The Fraser Institute is an Independent Non-profit Research and Educational Organization.

The basic-needs approach determines the cost of a list of household necessities (food, shelter, clothing, health care, personal care, essential furnishings, transportation and communication, laundry, home insurance, and miscellaneous) for various communities across Canada and then determines how many households have insufficient income to afford those necessities . . . The list is limited to items required for long-term physical well-being and . . . reflect[s] the standards that apply in the individual's own society at the present time . . . The basic-needs approach has been criticized as being too stringent

and even "mean-spirited" . . . It excludes a number of amenities that other lines (explicitly or implicitly) include—items such as cable TV, meals at restaurants, and tickets to movies and sports events.

Source: Fraser Institute. "Poverty in Canada: 2006 Update."
http://www.fraserinstitute.org/research-news/display.aspx?id=13293

By the U.S. Government, Issued In January 2009

The official poverty rate for a single person was set at a money income of $10,830 a year. Each additional member in a family added 34 percent of the single rate. Persons with money incomes below the poverty line were counted as poor. In December of 1965, the official poverty line for a single person had been $1540.

Source: adapted from http://www.census.gov/hhes///www/poverty/about/overview/index.html
http://www.ssa.gov/policy/docs/statcomps/supplement/2009/ [Table 3E].

DOCUMENT B

Wealth

"Wealth" applies to an abundance of possessions with economic value or to the state of possessing such items. Such valuable items most commonly consist in today's society of money, real estate, and personal property. Society defines a rich, affluent, or wealthy person as one who has accrued a quantity of wealth that is significantly above average. The attraction of accumulating wealth is the fact that it allows one to lead a high-quality, comfortable lifestyle, while also providing a reliable cushion to fall back on should one's economic circumstances change suddenly and personal income decrease.

Ideas of what constitutes wealth differ among societies. The concept can vary even within the same society or region. For example, if an American with a personal net worth of US $10,000 is compared with an American cohort, he would by no means stand out as particularly wealthy. If his net worth is compared to those of individuals in a less affluent region, however, these relatively modest earnings start to look like extravagant wealth in comparison.

A 2003 Gallup poll found that although only 2 percent of Americans describe themselves as rich, 31 percent said they thought it was very or somewhat likely they would be rich one day. That number jumped to 51 percent for 18 to 29-year-olds—and plunged to a sobering 8 percent for Americans 65 and older.

According to Gallup, the public's median definition of "rich" was an income of $120,000—or assets of $1 million. We asked the same question of money-savvy MSN Money readers, and a majority of the more than 11,000 who responded felt that they would need at least $5 million to consider themselves rich . . .

- Those who earned less than $30,000 thought that a household income of $74,000 would qualify as rich.
- Those who made $30,000 to $50,000 said an income of $100,000 would be rich.
- And people in the top half of earners were more likely to say that an income of $200,000 earns you the right to the R word.

Source: Based on http://articles.moneycentral.msn.com/RetirementandWills/EscapeTheRatRace/JustHowRichIsRichReally.aspx (site discontinued).

The three richest people in the world—Microsoft Chairman Bill Gates, investor Warren Buffett, and Mexican telecom mogul Carlos Slim Helú—have more money than the poorest 48 nations combined . . . The richest 2 percent of the population owns more than half the world's household wealth . . . [U.N.] research indicates that assets of just $2,200 per adult place a household in the top half of the world's wealthiest. To be amongst the richest 10 percent of adults in the world, just $61,000 in assets is needed. If you have more than $500,000, you are part of the richest 1 percent, the United Nations study says . . . [In December 2006].

Overall, wealth is mainly concentrated in North America, Europe, and high-income Asia-Pacific countries. People in these countries collectively hold almost 90 percent of total world wealth.

Many people in high-income countries have negative worth [more debts than assets] and—somewhat paradoxically—are among the poorest in the world in terms of household wealth [due to high debt]. The average American credit card holder in 2007 owed $9,149 on his or her card. Most ran interest rates at 18.5 percent. [The poor do not carry high debt, being seen as high risks by lenders, who therefore are unwilling to make loans to them] . . . Although North America has only 6 percent of the world's adult population, it accounts for 34 percent of household wealth.

Sources: Credit card debt: http://www.newswithviews.com/Wooldridge/frosty232.htm

http://articles.moneycentral.msn.com/News/StudyRevealsOverwhelmingWealthGap.aspx?page=all (site discontinued).

Economic Inequality: Some Are More Unequal Than Others

DOCUMENT A

Long-term Changes Regionally in Global Wealth Inequality

Shown are shares of the World Gross Domestic Product, the total market value of all the goods and services produced in a year in a country or region. It is used as an indication of how well or poorly the economy is doing, to measure its economic progress, and to reflect its standard of living. It does not take into account issues such as social justice, political freedom, or environmental quality.

	1820	1870	1913	1950	1973	1990	1998
A.	23.6%	33.6%	33.5%	26.3%	25.7 %	22.3%	20.6%
B.	1.9%	10.2%	21.7%	30.6%	25.3%	24.6%	25.1%
C.	3.0%	2.3%	2.6%	3.0%	7.7%	8.6%	7.7%
D.	56.2%	36.0%	21.9%	15.5%	16.4%	23.3%	29.5%
E.	2.0%	2.5%	4.%	7.9%	8.7%	8.3%	8.7%
F.	8.8%	11.7%	13.1%	13.0%	12.9%	9.8%	5.3%
G.	4.5%	3.6%	2.7%	3.6%	3.3%	3.2%	3.1%
H.	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

A: Western Europe; **B:** U.S., Australia, New Zealand, Canada; **C:** Japan; D: Asia (excluding Japan); **E:** Latin America & Caribbean; **F:** Eastern Europe & Former USSR; **G:** Africa; **H:** Total World GDP.

Source: http://www.globalpolicy.org/images/pdfs/Z/regional1820–1998.pdf (site discontinued).

DOCUMENT B

Wealth Inequalities in the U.S.: Class, Ethnicity, Gender

The wealth of United States households varies depending on race, sex, education, and geographic location. As baby boomers reach the apex of their careers, a greater number of wealthier households are appearing in the United States. However, the wealth is not distributed equally. In 2007, it was reported that 35 percent of all privately held wealth was controlled by households in the top 1 percent. The following tier of wealth—the next 19 percent, which comprised managers, professionals, and small business owners—owned slightly more than 50 percent of all privately held wealth. This means that a combined 20 percent of the United States population had 85 percent of all of the privately held wealth in the nation. The remaining 80 percent of the population (generally wage and salary workers) possessed a mere 15 percent of privately held wealth.

> In 2009, the median wealth of an average white family in the U.S. was 20 times greater than that of an average black family, and 18 times greater than the average Hispanic family. This gap is twice what it was before the recent recession, and largest since the government began to collect the data a quarter century ago. The average Hispanic family lost two-thirds of its wealth between 2005 and 2009. Black families lost more than half of theirs. White households lost wealth, but only about 16 percent on average.
>
> Source: http://www.npr.org/2011/07/26/138688135/study-shows-racial-wealth-gap-grows-wider.

> From 1995 to 2004, there was tremendous growth among household wealth, as it nearly doubled . . . but the wealthiest . . . made up 89 percent of this growth. During this time- frame, wealth became increasingly unequal, and the wealthiest 25 percent became even wealthier. The ratio of CEO [Chief Executive Officer in a corporation] pay to factory worker pay rose from 42:1 in 1960 to 344:1 in 2007. Between 1990 and 2005, CEO pay rose by 300 percent; production workers gained 4 percent.
>
> Source: Domhoff, G. William. "Wealth, Income, and Power." September 2005 (updated January 2011), at http://sociology.ucsc.edu/whorulesamerica/power/wealth.html.

U.S. Earnings in 2007 Dollars

		1979	1989	2000	2007
Men	**Bottom 10%**	15,000	12,200	15,300	14,600
	Top 10%	75,000	79,500	96,300	100,000
Women	**Bottom 10%**	2,600	4,400	7,100	8,000
	Top 10%	39,700	9,700	61,500	68,000

Source: Adapted from U.S. Congressional Budget Office. *Changes in the Distribution of Workers' Annual Earnings Between 1979 and 2007*, October 2009.

DOCUMENT C

Inequality of the Inequality within Countries

The following is based on how much higher the incomes are of those in the top 20 percent of the income distribution than of the bottom 20 percent, considering household income after taxes and benefits, adjusted for the number of people in each household.

> Most unequal (as of 2009) are Singapore and the USA, where the top 20 percent get about nine times as much income as the bottom twenty percent, followed by Portugal and the United Kingdom. Least unequal are Japan, Finland, Norway, and Sweden in that order, all of them with top 20 percent incomes less that four times higher than the bottom 20 percent.

Source: Text by the author, based on Wilkinson, Richard and Kate Pickett. *The Spirit Level: Why Greater Equality Makes Societies Stronger.* New York: Bloomsbury Press, 2009, pp. 15–19.

Causes and Consequences of Economic Inequality

DOCUMENT A

Why Are Some People Richer (Or Poorer) Than Others?

The wealthy possess greater financial opportunities to allow their money to make more money. Earnings from the stock market are reinvested to produce a larger return. Income from a business can be used to expand it. Over time, the sum that is reinvested becomes progressively more substantial. [Poor families, on the other hand, have to], after debt payments . . . spend the remaining income on items that will not produce wealth, and become less valuable over time [such as a car or refrigerator, roof repair, or clothes]. Wealthy families pass down their assets [possessions of economic value that can be converted to cash], allowing future generations to develop even more wealth . . . They organize their money so that it will produce profit. [This is the largest reason for the continuation of wealth inequality in America]: the rich are accumulating more assets, while the middle and working classes are just getting by . . .

[Economic inequality has been explained by some, although this is disputed by others, as being based on discrimination along racial, gender, religious, and ethnic/cultural lines; competition for jobs at home from immigrants, and abroad from the cheap labor used by American businesses when "outsourcing" production; reduced taxes on the wealthy; the growing use of technology leading to lower pay and/or higher unemployment for low-skilled workers; differences in educational levels; and the lack of a strong union presence to advocate for higher wages. (For instance, in the U.S. in 2006 the median income of those with a master's degree was twice that of someone with a high school diploma. While in 1955 over one-third of private sector workers were unionized, in 2011 fewer than 7 percent were).]

There remains to this day a large wealth gap [in the U.S.] between whites and African Americans. [It has been reported that] one in three white households will receive a substantial inheritance during their lifetime compared to only one in ten black households . . . There is increased fertility and family size among African Americans compared to whites. Since more resources [are needed] in the present, [there would be fewer for each family member in the future.] Any left over would be divided between a larger group of people.

Although women now earn 78 cents for every dollar men earn, they own only 36 percent as much wealth. Men are more likely to have jobs with stock options, favorable tax codes, and higher pay [engineers and executives rather than nurses and secretaries] and are less likely to work part time. There are more female-headed families, who have lower incomes than either two-earner or male-headed families.

DOCUMENT B

Globalization Created a Bigger, But More Unequally Divided, Pie

Globalization is complex. Its basis is encouragement of free trade and free flow of capital between countries; a search for cheap labor at home and abroad; a focus on profit and increasing material wealth as the economies of nations become connected through trade, communication, and transport. It has a long history, but from the mid-twentieth century was greatly speeded up by international agreements, new technologies, the expansion of multinational corporations and the spread of mass media.

Income per head in the West rose fourfold from 1950 to 2001; in Asia fivefold; in Latin America, over twofold. Trade has been globalization's lifeblood; and world trade has increased twenty-seven fold between 1950 and 2005. Globalization spread, as did an increasingly integrated worldwide economy. Total global wealth increased by 72 percent during just the ten years after 2000.

Many in local communities associated globalization with "development," meaning modernization, the transformation of "traditional," largely agricultural, societies into "Western-style" industrialized ones.

Some of the results of globalization have been positive, although selectively so. International trade and spreading technological innovation have spurred tremendous economic growth across the globe: raising incomes, creating jobs, reducing prices for consumers, and increasing some workers' earning power. There were new economic opportunities for local businesses, and encouragement of exports to world markets. (For instance, Nokia, a small producer of rubber boots in rural Finland, turned itself into a worldwide mobile telephone giant.) Tariffs on imports were lowered, and investment by foreign businesses made easier.

Governments and companies in poor countries could take advantage of the rich world's demands for cheap products. The opportunity to sell to and borrow from the whole world, rather than just their own nation, ensured larger numbers of customers and more sources of credit. The result was a burst of growth in parts of the developing world.

The presence in developing countries of rich-world investors and the staffs of multinational corporations made possible informal learning there of cutting-edge technology and new management methods. Some saw this as positive, increasing a poor country's chances to reduce poverty. Others saw danger to poor countries in getting used to depending on rich country help. A danger to the West was seen in sharing Western know-how with potential competitors. In any case, the result was increased wealth for (mostly but not only) Western corporations and entrepreneurs. Some of them benefited exaggeratedly. For example, by 1999, the combined annual incomes of the biggest 200 corporations were greater than the combined incomes of the 182 nation-states that contained 80 percent of the world's population. There were considerable disadvantages also. Corporations could make bigger profits by moving factories and businesses to countries that had the lowest costs and the fewest regulations. By "outsourcing" their jobs to low-wage countries that had little or no protection of labor rights, multinational corporations could pay workers less, sell more at lower prices, and yet increase their profits. At the same time, consumers could benefit from the lower prices.

But some workers, and some countries, were disadvantaged by globalization. The focus on profit and wealth-creation led to competition about who accepted the lowest pay, between low-skilled workers in the West and those in developing countries on the one hand; and low-skilled Western workers and immigrants to the West on the other. As a result, the poor were likely to get poorer; or unemployed, and poorer still.

Developing countries' domestic markets were subject to flooding by cheaper (because governmentally subsidized), products from abroad. Farm products especially were heavily supported financially in the U.S., Europe, and some Asian countries. When they dumped their surplus cheaply in developing countries' markets, local farmers' own products had to be sold for prices so low they might not even cover expenses. The result: increased poverty.

Countries like Haiti, Afghanistan, and El Salvador did not benefit from globalization. They were poorer in 1980 than in 1960; and between 1990 and 2000, the average income in 43 African nations declined by one quarter. Among other things, globalization was blamed for:

- exploitation of labor
- putting the interest in profits of rich corporations before the needs of the disadvantaged for social safety nets like unemployment insurance
- focusing mainly on increasing GDP, at the expense of raising living standards for all and fostering sustainable development
- replacing traditional values with materialistic ones
- allowing independent cultures to be swamped and distorted by Western, and specifically American, culture
- damaging the environment by their investment in mining, logging, and polluting industries in developing nations that had little environmental regulation
- the unfavorable ecological consequences of the greatly increased long-distance trade carried by pollusion-causing transport

Multinational corporations began to be feared for acquiring increasing power not only economically but politically as well. They could heavily influence governmental policies, and some had budgets rivaling those of small nation-states. Northern activists wanted to raise protective labor, health, and environmental standards in southern poor countries. Governments and corporations in those countries saw such insistence on standards as disguised attempts to keep developing nations' products out of rich developed-world markets, and thereby hurting the people of the developing country. In the 1990's, an antiglobalization movement with members mostly from labor unions, human rights activists, environmentalists, and students arose.

There were other things besides globalization that could strongly influence poverty and wealth. Economic and political disruption could cause poverty. Due to the rapid conversion to a market economy and the dissolution of the Soviet Union, the population in poverty in most of the former Soviet Union increased from 2 percent to over 50 percent during the decade of the 1990's.

Internal government policies could result in both increased poverty for some, and increased wealth for others. Leaders of ex-colonies often tried to industrialize on the backs of farmers.

They taxed farmers heavily and kept farm prices low to have cheap food for their people in cities. Impoverished farmers, unable to make a living, drifted into urban slums that had no jobs to offer, nor any relief from poverty. And instead of investing the money gained from farm taxes in roads, ports, factories, or worker training as a basis for industrialization, it all too often went to line rulers' pockets or for bribes to fatten the purses of the powerful and rich.

Lowering the top income tax rate and the corporate tax rate in developed countries advantaged the already rich, and corporations. In the U.S. for instance, in the 1950s through the 1970s the top income tax rate was in the 70 to 90 percent range; and corporate taxes accounted for 30 percent of government funds. In the 1980s, the top income tax rate ranged around 28–50 percent, and corporate taxes accounted for less than 12 percent. From 2003 on, the top income tax rate was 35 percent.

Sources: Text by the author, based Frieden, Jeffry A. *Global Capitalism: Its Fall and Rise in the Twentieth Century*. New York: W.W.Norton, 2006, pp. 415, 436, 439, 442, 449, 450–452, 466, 468, 473.

Ellwood, Wayne. *The No-Nonsense Guide to Globalization*. Oxford, U.K., 2001, p. 63.

DOCUMENT C

Between Countries, Small Differences Could Produce Large Ones Over Time

The total gross global GDP between 1820 and 1998 rose nearly fifty fold. The rising tide, however, did not lift all ships equally. A small difference in the annual rate of growth in different countries during almost 180 years added up to a very big difference. For instance, the twenty fold gap in the early 2000's between the GDP of U.S. and of Africa resulted from an original threefold gap, combined with the more or less consistent annual growth rates of 0.7 percent a year in Africa and 1.7 in the U.S.A.

Source: Text by the author, based on Sachs, Jeffrey. *The End Of Poverty*. New York: Penguin Group, 2005, pp. 30–31.

DOCUMENT D

Some Results of Wealth Inequality

Recent evidence shows that health and social problems are more common in societies where inequality is high than in those that have greater economic equality. High economic inequality within a country is shown to be connected with the following:

- Children's lower educational performance
- More obesity and drug and alcohol addiction
- More teenage births
- Lower life expectancy and higher infant mortality
- More murders
- Higher imprisonment rates

The bigger the income inequality, the more frequent the health and social problems are shown to be.

On the other hand, growing equality was favorably associated with rapid economic growth in a number of East Asian countries in the early 1990s, according to a World Bank report.

Source: Text by the author, based on Wilkinson, Richard and Kate Pickett. *The Spirit Level: Why Greater Equality Makes Societies Stronger*. New York: Bloomsbury Press, 2009, p.19.

LESSON 2

What Difference Does Place on the Development Ladder Make?

Discussion Questions and Activities

Based on information in Student Handout 4.2.1:

1. Compare the lives of Moumouni and his people with the lives of Chieftainess Chiyaba's people about twenty or so years ago (when the original source documents were written). Which people were better off? In what way(s)?
2. According to one common definition of development, it is a shift from a low-income to a higher-income economy; helped along by a shift from agriculture and mining to industry, trade, and services; a decline in unemployment; and an increase in trade and education. If a plan were approved to help introduce development in Moumouni's area when the situation there was as described in Document A, what actions would you recommend and in what order? Why?
3. If the Chieftainess Chiyaba wanted to help the poorest among her people by delivering to them the carcass of some large, tasty animal once a month, how might she try to decide who the poorest among her people were? Would "living on the equivalent of $1.25 a day or less" work in making the decision? Why or why not? What difficulties do you foresee with her plan? What alternative could you recommend, and in what way(s) would it be preferable?
4. **This question could serve as assessment.** Describe those features of Burkina Faso that would have made, and still make, development there difficult; and explain why.
5. **This question could serve as assessment.** List all the causes of poverty you can identify among Moumouni's and Chiyaba's peoples. Explain what effect, and how, they had on the lives of the people at the end of the last century. What, if anything, changed about poverty there by now?

Based on information in Student Handout 4.2.2:

1. What features of Kerala in the 1950s do you think would have been likely to help development, and how? What features would have held it back?
2. Trace the process whereby India, from being one of the poverty-stricken, least-developed nations, changed into one among the developed high income nations of the world.
3. Identify events that were significant in India's successful reduction of poverty, and gains in wealth. What do you consider the most significant turning point(s)? Why?

4. Which seem to you to be the three most meaningful of those markers of a "developed" nation that are mentioned in Document B:

    - Consumer technology (air conditioning, refrigerators)
    - Ownership of means of communication (cars, telephones)
    - Electronics
    - Girls' education to high school level
    - Ties with the international economy
    - Presence of familiar American businesses
    - Membership in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

What other markers might allow a nation to think of itself as "developed?" To have "developed" nations accept them as one of their number? Explain your choices.

1. Compare the experience of development in India and South Korea. Which came closer, and how, to what are commonly described as typical features of development: a shift from agriculture to manufacturing and service industries; increasing foreign trade; greater variety in what was produced; increasing education; improvements in life expectancy, poverty rates, literacy, and employment rates?
2. Using your school's grading system, what grade for development during the period 1950 to 2011 would you give India, and what to South Korea? For each, write a comment explaining your reasons for the grade.
3. What features of development favor the increase of environmental problems? How?
4. The author of Document C is described as "well up the ladder." People in what occupations in the U.S. would you describe as higher than her, as "at the top?" On what are you basing your judgment?
5. Compare the temporary Wal-Mart "sales associate's" description of her fellow workers with poverty's definitions in Student Handout 4.1.1. What do they have in common? How do they differ? Would you agree that the Wal-Mart employees were poor? Why or why not?
6. Would Moumouni's people in 1980's Burkina Faso consider the fellow workers described by the Wal-Mart "sales associate" poor? Would people in 2011 South Korea? Why or why not?
7. **This question could serve as assessment.** How did government action, education, and technology contribute to economic growth in India? By what events, actions, or conditions outside India was its economy influenced? How?
8. **This question could serve as assessment.** Give an example of a country that emerged from poverty, and explain what changes helped it do so; and compare it to a country that did not do so. What do you consider were the decisive differences? Why?

At the Bottom of the Development Ladder

DOCUMENT A

Floundering in Poverty in Upper Volta

Re-named Burkina Faso in 1984, this African country is among the world's poorest and least developed. The economy is 80 percent based on subsistence farming. Imports (including much of its food) outstrip its exports of low value products: livestock and textiles. Manufacturing is limited to cotton and food processing, and is heavily protected with taxes on imports. It accounts for 20 percent of GDP, but employs only about one percent of the work force. Emigration in search of jobs is common.

In 2009, life expectancy was 57 years (up from 45 in 1980), literacy was 29 percent. The birth rate in 2010 was 6.2 children per woman, and the GDP per person was $550 (up from $211 in 1980).

Since 1991, with World Bank help, it has been trying to improve its economy by increasing gold mining; making its agricultural and livestock sectors more productive and competitive; and stabilizing the supplies and prices of food. Annual per-person foreign aid was estimated in 2009 at $81. However, in 2011 it was still on the U.N.'s least developed nations list. Gross national income per person was US $188, though the percentage living on the equivalent of $1.25 a day or less was reduced from 51 percent in 1994 to 46 percent in 2004.

The author of the following was a freelance writer. His research took him to the Upper Volta for some time about 1980.

> The head of the family was Moumouni Ouedraogo, a lanky sixty-year-old, his skin scarred with deep wrinkles and tribal markings. [His] compound was subdivided into living areas for each of the five brothers who lived here with a total of nine wives and twenty-five children. The younger children were completely naked, with dry, powdery faces. One or two of them had eyes half closed up with sticky yellow matter . . .
>
> Moumouni remembered that, when he was a child, only twelve people lived in his father's compound. Now there were thirty-four, with five young men working away from home in the Ivory Coast. The bigger the family, the more land they are given [by the chief] to cultivate. So Moumouni, with his ever-expanding brood, was now farming a bigger area than ever before, as was every other family in the village. Yet the village's traditional lands on every side . . . were bounded by other villages. The additional land needed had been taken out of the five sixths that usually lay fallow [unplanted]. Fallow periods were now only four or five years, when at least twelve would have been needed to restore the exhausted fertility to the soil . . . Consistently using a plough and fertilizer, which many African farmers do not yet do, could compensate for this . . .

Even close to the compound, the soil looked poor enough, stony and dusty . . . and this was the only area they ever fertilized, with the droppings of a donkey and a couple of goats. Outside [that area], the ground was a dark red, baked hard, [with] nothing to break the rain's impact, beating down the soil and taking away the precious topsoil . . . Ten years ago . . . some government people had come to help. They had built dykes and mounds to slow down the run-off. But they had been wrongly aligned, and if anything speeded it up. Moumouni himself had stacked up a few pathetic rows of stones across the main channels . . .

Water is as scarce as rationed petrol in the dry season. Many village wells dry up, and women have to walk . . . to the nearest source. The average walk to water is five miles each way, a two or three hour haul with twenty-five kilos of water on your head for half of it. That eats up nearly four hundred precious calories every day . . .

There is no irrigation, and the agricultural surplus is too small to support industry . . . For two thirds of the year the men have little to do except patch up mud walls the rains have battered down, or plait ropes, mats, and roofing out of the tough stalks of millet and sorghum. The dreadful unpredictability of the rain has its effect too in keeping men poor. Even in the fat years a farmer has to bear the lean years in mind. He will rarely grow cotton or groundnuts to earn extra cash, with which he could buy better tools or fertilizer. Instead, he will grow more grain and store it in his granary as insurance.

Source: Boxed text from Harrison, Paul. *Inside the Third World: The Anatomy of Poverty*. London: Penguin Books, 1979, Third Edition 1993, pp. 65–69.

DOCUMENT B

On One of the Lowest Rungs: the Goba Tribe, Zambia

Zambia is composed of seven main and seventy-five minor tribes, of which the Goba is one. Zambia is among the least developed countries in the world. In 2010, 85 percent of total employment was in agriculture, which contributed only 22 percent to the GDP. Only 6 percent worked in industry, which added 35 percent to GDP and grew by 11 percent in 2010, the year per-person gross national income was $1070. Exports rely almost entirely on copper, the price of which in world markets fluctuates widely and unpredictably. The country's low rate of economic growth cannot support the rapid population growth with a fertility rate (in 2009) of 5.7 children per woman. Life expectancy in 2009 was 46 years, and the literacy rate 71 percent. The selection below is from an interview with Chieftainess Chiyaba of the Goba Tribe in the early 1990's.

In most rural areas, people traditionally value the land and natural resources as they depend on them. In my own area, there are no grocery stores or butcheries. A housewife will mainly depend on going to the bush to get some wild vegetables to prepare her meal. The same applies to her husband, who may go into the bush for game meat or to the river for fish. The huts the majority of rural people live in are made of poles and grass . . .

[Traditionally], all the hunters were known to the headman and the chief. It was also known which animals were killed, and how many. It was an important custom to offer special parts of the animal killed to the chief . . .

Today circumstances are changed. If an animal is killed, say a hippopotamus, I do not insist on receiving my customary right to parts of the animal. My people are poor. There are not so many animals left for them . . .

As to tradition concerning crops, sorghum is very important to us. It is basic. There are new varieties of sorghum which have been given to us that grow and ripen much more quickly than our own. We use them, but we still use the traditional kind of sorghum. This is most important to us, because the traditional kind of sorghum is essential to make beer for our ceremonies.

I am very surprised you introduced the matter of family planning. In Africa, this is nothing new for us . . . When a young woman got pregnant and had a child, she was told it was taboo to get pregnant again too soon . . . Their child must grow first. The mother must regain her strength … An ideal period of two years was advised, though less might be acceptable. Yet this kind of planning was not done because of land management and population problems. It was for the welfare of the mother . . . I am not sure that, if you explained things to them in your terms, village people would understand you. Among rural people, it is necessary to continue the lifeline or the bloodline. I think six children, but not more, is suitable for people in the villages.

Sources: Boxed text from Dale Lewis and Nick Carter eds. *Voices from Africa: Local Perspectives on Conservation*. Washington, D.C.: World Wildlife Fund, 1993, pp. 148–151, 153, 155.

On the Way Up the Development Ladder

DOCUMENT A

From Working in the Fields to Working with Computers

When India became independent in 1947, it was a seriously underdeveloped country. Its population was growing fast: the birth rate was 6 children per woman. Its average crop yields were among the lowest in the world. Industrialization had been neglected in favor of exploiting raw materials for export to Britain. Only 17 percent of its population was literate, and life expectancy was 33 years. Per-person economic growth up to independence was just 0.2 percent a year, India qualified as one of the least developed nations in the world.

The new Indian government decided to use state planning to raise living standards. President Nehru put in place the first of several Five Year Plans in 1950. He promised an "ending to poverty and ignorance and disease and inequality of opportunity," and worked to do so for fifteen years. The author of the selection below spent a year in the late 1950s walking among the villages in several Indian states to report on the lives of people there.

About Kerala on the south-west coast of India, she had this to say:

> There is a network of excellent roads . . . Most of the villages have electricity . . . the people are . . . accustomed to bathing twice a day . . . There is a school within walking distance of almost every child . . . Adult literacy is widespread: 75 percent of the men and 55 percent of the women [who enjoyed more freedom, and more respect in the family, than was general in India] are literate, [compared with 18 percent on the average for India's population as a whole.] Many a street sweeper, even, reads a newspaper before he goes to work . . . Almost every village has a genuine library with anything from 1,000 to 4,000 books . . .
>
> There is, however, also the high pressure of population, low productivity, wasteful under-exploitation of available resources and above all a serious lack of enterprise. For example, when the State government built a number of "industrial estates" . . . to encourage the growth of small and medium industries to relieve unemployment, a sufficient number of people could not be found in Kerala to . . . [take part in the opportunity] even though the government offered to provide buildings, power, and the necessary machinery [on an installment plan], working capital on easy credit, as well as training . . . a marketing organization, and in some cases the promise to [buy] the entire output.
>
> In spite of the plentiful resources and the presence of so many of the [features considered to be promoters of development], the . . . budget of the State is always in deficit; the rural population is 84 per cent of the State's total; and the unemployment figures, for the educated and for agricultural labor, are among the highest in India . . . [Finding work is difficult. In one of the richest rice-growing areas], this is the house of a landless laborer . . . The land on which it stands belongs to another. It is made entirely of dry

> coconut leaves sewn together with coconut fiber. The door is low and leads into a very small room. It has no chairs . . . or even a bed. The man has gone to look for work. The woman . . . also works whenever she can find any work. Five children, almost naked, stand around with big hungry eyes. "We manage somehow to eat one meal a day, all year round. We can never be sure of the second meal and usually we have to do without it."
>
> . . . As she speaks her eyes are wet. This season she has been able to get some employment, but none for the last two days . . . The measure of paddy [rice] she last earned in wages "will finish tonight after we have had our supper. There will be none for to-morrow."

In the two decades after 1950, the overall Indian economic growth rate grew to 1.9 percent per person. This resulted partly from the Green Revolution: the growth in crop yields due to the government's introduction of improved seeds originally developed in Mexico. Their drawback was the need to use fertilizer and irrigation, and to buy the improved seed for planting. This disadvantaged small farms and poor farmers, who were driven into debt and deeper poverty.

In the early 1990s India had to ask the International Monetary Fund for a bail-out loan. With the collapse of the Soviet Union—which had been India's main trading partner—and the Gulf War raising oil prices, the country had run into debt. Following the conditions of the loan, India's government promoted trade by lowering tariffs on imports, making it easier for foreign businesses to invest in India; and by encouraging exports to world markets, leading to growing globalization. The value of India's international trade increased sharply.

There was a new focus on rapid development of heavy industry. However, roads were mostly still potholed and in poor shape; ports crowded, badly managed, and hard to access. About 60 percent of the population still depended on agriculture. Farmers held back the transition to industry by voting heavily against allowing land to be used for higher-income industrial projects instead of agriculture.

But increasingly, Indian Institutes of Technology, founded during the first Five Year Plan by Nehru, graduated high quality engineers, computer experts, and entrepreneurs who sparked an information technology (IT) revolution. They became business leaders in foreign firms in India, and in firms internationally. Information could be, and was, exported by way of high-tech satellite link-ups and fiber optic cable that bypassed the underdeveloped low-tech infrastructure. Industry and services grew by double digits.

Major companies internationally began looking to India for software engineering, data processing, computer graphics, and other IT-based services. New jobs developed in the IT field. Girls' enrollment in primary school had risen to 44 percent by 2005, up from 28 percent in 1950. Female literacy by 2011 was up to 65 percent from 9 percent in 1950. Overall literacy was at 74 percent. Young women who worked in the new IT service industry had taken special courses in computer uses; they earned between one third and one tenth of what their salary for similar work would have been in the U.S., but more than twice what an Indian low skilled industrial worker earned and perhaps eight times the wage of an agricultural worker. Their mothers were typically the first in the family to become literate and move to cities; their grandmothers would have been rural laborers in the overwhelmingly village economy of their time. Information

technology- related services in 2011 accounted for 40 percent of GDP and 25 percent of the workforce.

A long-term government-supported drive to reduce the birthrate succeeded in halving it to three children per woman by 2008.

Poverty in India, the percentage of people living on $1.25 a day or less, declined from 60 percent in 1981 to 37 percent in 2010. (There is considerable disagreement about the exact numbers, but no disagreement that poverty had declined significantly). Per-person income tripled from $423 in 2003 to $1219 in 2011.

Consumers in increasing numbers could afford to buy. In 2003 there were five times as many motor scooters and motorbikes (cheaper and with lower gas consumption) than cars in India. However, the number of automobiles produced in India doubled from 1992 to 2009. While pockets of underdevelopment and poverty remained, by 2004 India was growing by around 7 percent a year. Literacy in 2008 was 63 percent, and life expectancy in 2009 was 64 years (up from 49 years in 1970). In 2011, the chief of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, founded in 1961 by 34 high income, developed nations, said that the group would be "very honored" to welcome India as a member.

Source: Nair, Kusum. *Blossoms In the Dust: The Human Factor in Indian Development*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1961, pp. 38–40, 44–45.

DOCUMENT B

From Grilled Grasshoppers to McDonald's

South Korea's GDP per person grew from $103 in 1962 to $7,967 in 1990 and $17,074 in 2009. The manufacturing sector doubled in importance from 1962 to 1987. In 2010, it accounted for 39 percent of GDP, and employed 24 percent of the labor force (68 percent worked in services, and only 7 percent in agriculture). Most important for the rapid industrialization was government promotion of foreign capital inflow, and the export of manufactured goods. In 2010, the country was eighth in the world in exports. Its less extensive imports concentrated on technology and raw materials.

The result was fast, though debt-financed industrial growth in the 1970s favored heavy industry, consumer electronics, and cars. In 1990, there was a shift in manufacturing toward diversified high technology industries such as bioengineering and aerospace. The country survived a financial crisis during that decade with help from the International Monetary Fund. Since 2000, it became more open to foreign investment and imports.

In the 1960s the government, concerned that the high birthrate (6.2 children per woman) threatened the economy, took measures so successful that by 2010 it was below the replacement rate at 1.2. The concern now is with encouraging more births.

South Korea was the first country in the world to provide high-speed Internet access to every primary, junior, and high school. Its literacy rate in 2010 was 99 percent; in 1945, it had been 22 percent. Life expectancy rose rapidly in the past several decades, from 63 in the 1970s to 79 in 2009.

In 1961 Seoul, the capital city of South Korea, was a pitiful sight. Its inhabitants, an American visitor wrote, "live in miserable jerry-built shacks, and few of them have been able to find jobs. Beggars, some apparently only two or three years old, are commonplace, along with vendors who squat for hours on the sidewalks, offering passersby cigarettes, chewing gum, combs, cheap jewelry, toys, whistles . . . and live dogs. The dogs bark constantly; they sound hungry too . . . "

[A South Korean who visited Japan frequently wrote:] Seoul in the early 1960s was my childhood conception of backwardness. While I marveled at traffic jams in Tokyo, I was horrified by the oxcarts tottering along on Seoul's dusty roads. Tokyo seemed indisputably modern with its international-style high-rises, electronic toys, flush toilets, air conditioners and refrigerators. Seoul, in contrast, appeared unmodern with its Japanese colonial period architecture, wooden toys, non-flush toilets without toilet paper, and, at best, electric fans and ice blocks . . . In Tokyo, I gorged on caramels and chocolates sold in tidy stores; in Seoul, I gagged on grilled grasshoppers peddled on the street . . . " [In the late 1980's, he wrote of Seoul]: "Clean and well-lit coffee shops had replaced the dark and dingy cafes; McDonald's and Pizza Hut, the noodle shops and cheap eateries . . . These changes and contrasts occurred during a mere generation . . . "

By 1996, the OECD [Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, founded in 1961 by 34 high income, developed nations] . . . made [South Korea] a member of this international club of rich nations. South Korea had "graduated" from the developing to the developed world. It had gone from a level of development lower than that of the Philippines and Thailand, of Ghana and the Congo to one higher than that of Greece and Portugal, comparable to that of Spain, New Zealand, or Ireland . . .

In the early 1960's there was one motor vehicle for every 830 Koreans, and one telephone for every 250. Thirty years later, there was one car for every Korean, and one telephone for every 2. In the early 1960's, the average Korean girl got less than three years of schooling; in the mid-1990's, more than nine years.

Taiwan, Singapore, and Hong Kong grew roughly as fast, or faster . . . In all these cases, the extraordinary pace of the economic catch-up was directly related to ties with the international economy . . .

Source: Frieden, Jeffry A. *Global Capitalism: Its Fall and Rise In the Twentieth Century*. New York: W.W.Norton & Company, 2006, pp. 413–415.

DOCUMENT C

Looking Down the Ladder: At Least They Are Not In the Street

Herself well up the ladder, the author of the selection below worked for a while between 1998 and 2000 at various low-wage jobs, among them as a Wal-Mart "sales associate" [her quotation marks]. She was gathering material for her book *Nickel and Dimed* about how very low-income working people lived in America.

> Note: the U.S. minimum hourly wage was highest in 1968 at $10.04 in 2010 dollars, and had declined since. Congress raised it to $5.85 in 2007, $6.55 in 2008, and $7.25 in 2009.
>
> Among my fellow "associates," who were making $7 to $8 an hour on the sales floor, there was hardly a whisper of talk about Wal-Mart's CEO [Chief Executive Officer] who, according to one news account, was pulling down $60 million [a year]. I remember calculating that I would have to put in another five thousand years of work in order to earn what [he] got in one year . . .
>
> We think of low-wage work and unskilled work as almost identical. But take a moment to look at who these people are and what they are doing. We're talking about nurse's aides, home health aides, child-care workers, teachers' assistants, call-center operators, bank tellers, meat processors and data-entry clerks. All these jobs take effort, intelligence, and concentration . . .
>
> Low-income workers are presumed to have secret strategies for making $7 an hour stretch further than the rest of us . . . One of my tasks [in my research] was to find out just what those secret strategies are . . . They aren't nearly as secret as they are cracked up to be. Or as effective.
>
> One strategy is to juggle multiple jobs. But even working two jobs at a time, I could not cover basic living expenses . . .
>
> I worked alongside women most of us would consider homeless; that's not how they viewed themselves however, because if you are a low-wage worker with a vehicle to sleep in, you tell yourself that at least you are not in the street. These distinctions are important in America today.
>
> Quite a few of my co-workers were on diets—or such was my quaint middle-class assumption when I saw people skipping lunch. In fact, they were simply trying not to spend money they didn't have . . .
>
> Looking back, I am struck by the absurdity of the way we define poverty today. Officially, about 12 percent of Americans fall below the poverty line. That threshold, however, makes no allowances for the soaring cost of housing and childcare. The Economic Policy Institute calculated, in 2001, that some 27 percent of Americans living with children under twelve were not earning enough to make ends meet. Officially, the percent of Americans below the poverty line was 15.1 percent in 2010; up from 13.2 in 2008.

Source: Ehrenreich, Barbara. "Earth to Wal-Mars." In Lardner, James and David A. Smith eds. *Inequality Matters: The Growing Economic Divide in America and Its Poisonous Consequences.* New York: The New Press, 2005, pp.43–48, passim.

LESSON 3

Putting an End to Poverty?

Study or Discussion Questions and Activities

Based on information in Student Handout 4.3.1:

1. If you were asked to explain what contributed to developing countries' economic problems after independence, which are the main points you would need to make? What were your reasons for choosing these as your main points?
2. Explain how demographic problems (births, deaths, disease) influence poverty.
3. What were causes of the widespread decline in the rate of rapid population growth in developing nations? Why was the change important?
4. In what ways are conflict and poverty related?
5. **This question could serve as assessment.** Which of the causes of poverty given in Student Handout 4.3.1 do you consider the most important? Why? On what are you basing your judgment of importance?

Based on information in Student Handout 4.3.2:

1. Would Johnson's war on poverty work as well in a developing, as in a developed, country? Why or why not?
2. In what way(s) are the following programs similar, and in what way(s) do they differ: the U.S. War on Poverty, Bangladeshi Microfinance, and Latin American cash payments for schooling?
3. In what way(s) do programs providing foreign aid to developing countries differ from the other three programs in Student Handout 4.3.2?
4. What advantages were there to a donor country in providing development aid to developing nations? Would you describe such foreign aid as charity, an investment, a bribe on the part of the donor country, or as something else—if so, what? Explain your reasons for your choice.
5. Trace the process whereby the suggestion in 1949 on the part of U.S. President Truman that "we" should make "the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas" gradually grew to a very specific set of goals, a concrete action plan on how to achieve them by 2015, and global collaboration by 189 countries on doing so in the Millennium Development Plan. What, if anything, changed during the process?

6. On what do you think judgment should be based about how successful an aid program was? Why?

7. Which of the aid programs on page 55 named as "usually highly effective" would "put an end to poverty," and how? How long would it take? Why? How could it be known that poverty was ended?

   Which would, though not putting an end to their poverty, improve the lives of the poor—temporarily? Or permanently? If all of these programs could not be put in place at the same time, in what order should they be given to the poor? Explain your reasons for the choices you made.

8. [**Divide the class into groups, and assign one of the four poverty-reduction programs described in Student Handout 4.3.2 to each group.**] Analyze the advantages and disadvantages for poverty reduction in a developing country of the program you were assigned. What features of the developing country where your program would be used might influence what the advantages and disadvantages of the program are? How? Keep notes of the advantages and disadvantages.

9. [**Reconstitute the groups so that each of the four poverty reduction programs in Student Handout 4.3.2 is represented in each group by at least one student who had analyzed it in question 8.**] Briefly list the advantages and disadvantages of the four programs you had dealt with in question 8. (Use your notes.) Then, by discussion, try to arrive at a consensus about which program would be the best choice for Burkina Faso, which for South Korea, and why.

10. Assume you are the concerned citizen of a high income country in 2011 who is trying to convince your reluctant government to give to one of the least developed counties (Burkina Faso or Zambia) a development grant not requiring repayment. (Choose the one you can make the more convincing case for.) On what main points, (economic, moral, political, religious, and/or some other—what?) would you base your argument? What opposing arguments would you expect from your government, and how would you counter them?

11. If you were a member of the government in a developing country with a GDP per person of about $1,500, and the World Bank in 2011 was offering you a large development loan repayable with interest, what reservations would you have? What questions would you ask of the Bank's officials? Whom else would you want to consult and about what? What would persuade you to approve taking on the debt, or to refuse it?

12. **This question could serve as assessment.** Identify the advantages and disadvantages of any two of the poverty-reduction methods described in Student Handout 4.3.2, Documents A to D. Would the same advantages and disadvantages apply in a least developed, a developing, and a developed country? Why or why not?

13. **This question could serve as assessment.** Imagine that you have been asked by the government of a developing country to recommend which of the four methods of poverty-reduction described in Student Handout 4.3.2's Documents A to D the country should undertake. Your recommendation should identify in what way(s) the advantages of your chosen method outweigh those of the alternatives, and how its disadvantages are less serious. What features of the developing country you are working with did you have to assume to make your recommendation realistic?

Causes: What Contributes to Making or Keeping Countries Poor?

DOCUMENT A

Legacies of Colonialism

Arbitrary boundaries drawn by colonizers resulted in diverse ethnic, cultural, and religious groups being thrown together into a single country on the one hand; and homogeneous groups being distributed among different countries on the other. These situations both threatened and created conflict.

Focus on primary resources. Colonial economies were based on colonies exporting to the "mother country" so-called primary and relatively inexpensive resources: raw materials such as cocoa, copper, bananas, and rubber, and in return importing more expensive manufactured, industrial goods. (Home governments discouraged industrialization in their colonies to avoid competition with their own country's manufacturing).

Continued focus on raw materials, and a lack of variety in production and exports were serious drawbacks when an ex-colony was competing in the world market. Because the governments of Europe, the U.S., and Japan subsidized farming, they could sell cheaply. Developing countries competing with the foreigners' artificially low prices might have to sell their own farms' products at below cost prices if they wanted to sell abroad. Those living on the edge would have to sell, even at a loss, to meet deadlines for paying taxes or debts to moneylenders. This created poverty. Moreover, it meant that there were not enough profits from the exports of raw materials to finance the start-up of industries. And a limited variety of products offered by a developing country on the world market was a disadvantage when prices of those particular exports dropped.

Debt and "Structural Adjustment": Some colonies on becoming independent started out already burdened with debt. This was because colonizing states transferred some of their own high interest debts to their ex-colonies. The latter took on their own debts when offered large loans by international organizations such as the World Bank or the International Monetary Fund for development during the 1970s. During the same decade, results of actions by oil-producing countries caused the price of oil to multiply; and there was double-digit inflation worldwide.

With inflation, interest on loans rose almost overnight, and the debt of non-oil producing countries increased fivefold between 1973 and 1982. Indebtedness of poor countries grew and many could not keep up with repayments. This led the international lenders to impose "structural adjustments" on debtor countries. They demanded that debt repayment be a priority for loan-recipients. This meant that loan-receiving governments had to reduce spending on other things. Among these, the following became subject to being cut or discontinued entirely: food subsidies, education, public health, and development projects. The lenders required open competition, even with the more powerful and established industrialized nations, and that exports be increased, even when foreign markets were not favorable. To attract foreign investment, poor countries felt as though they were forced to enter a race to see who could provide the fewest regulations, the most reduced wages, and the cheapest resources.

While the development loans have in individual cases been very helpful to low-income nations trying to become higher income ones, in other cases these "adjustments" have resulted in continued indebtedness and an increase in loan-recipient nations' poverty.

From the 1980s on, citizens' groups, churches, some governments, and other organizations led worldwide campaigns to cancel or at least reduce the poorest countries' debt obligations, repayments on which were crippling their economies. Appeals for debt relief have continued. They have achieved some ongoing, but mostly limited, success.

Source: Text by the author, based on Ellwood, Wayne. *The No-nonsense Guide to Globalization*. Oxford, New Internationalist Publications Ltd., 2001, pp.41–51.

DOCUMENT B

High Birth Rates, High Death Rates

From 1950 to 2005 the rich world's population grew by some 50 percent; the developing world's, by some 200 percent. Africa's overall birth rate averaged around 5 children per woman during 2001 to 2005; in a number of individual countries, it was over 6, and in Niger, 7.5.

High birth rates lead to problems for fast-growing populations. They outgrow the food supply. Where cultivable land is limited, and farms are divided between the children inheriting in each generation, the size of farms and therefore the amount of food that can be produced on each farm shrinks over time. So does the product of individual fields, since farmers owning less and less land can't afford to leave fields unplanted to recover their fertility. Living with the situation leads to cutting down of forests, overfishing of lakes and rivers, fighting over food and land, famine, and political instability.

The Green Revolution, begun by an American in Mexico, developed high-yield varieties of cereal grain. From the 1950s on, it spread to farmers across the world, helping to decrease hunger. But sometimes it increased poverty, because marginal farmers had to go into debt to buy the seed and the fertilizer needed.

India's president Nehru in 1951 began the first government family-planning program to reduce the number of children a woman gave birth to. It became a worldwide, policy-led effort, with occasionally heavy involvement by governments, and has been called "one of the great success stories of modern times."

Slowing population growth was not the only reason for a reduction in poverty. Yet there was a relationship. In India, the proportion of the population living on about a dollar a day was almost halved from 1985 to 2005, while the birthrate was also halved to three children per woman by 2008. But the poverty rate was still 37 percent in 2010.

China's one-child government policy, begun in 1978, fined those having more than one child. In 1970, the childbearing rate had been 5.8. By 2010, it was estimated to be between 1.6 and 1.9. Between 1981 and 2005, the poverty rate in China fell from 85 percent to 15 percent.

Note that the actual numbers above for India and China have been disputed. That there were substantial drops has not.

In the Middle East, population quadrupled between 1950 and 2005. But in recent decades, the number of children born per mother was about halved, to just under 3 by 1985. Such rapid and substantial change in childbearing happened elsewhere also: in Thailand, for instance.

In addition to government actions, the following are known to have helped to voluntarily slow population growth:

- The death rate of children dropped significantly. Having many children as insurance so that at least some would survive was no longer necessary.
- The population living in cities grew; half did so globally in 2007. To farmers, having many children had been valuable because their work was actually useful from a very young age— scaring birds, collecting firewood, pulling weeds. In cities however, children were an expense, unable to contribute to their upkeep.
- Increased emphasis on girls' education led to their staying longer in school and marrying later. Learning raised girls' value as potential earners. Women's working for pay outside the home could become more attractive for the family than her having more children.

High death rates in the adult population remained in poor countries, due to disease, persistent armed conflict, and occasional famine. Life expectancy in sub-Saharan Africa in 2008 was 47 years. Globally in the 58 poorest countries it was 50 years, and 67 years in other developing countries. In high-income countries, people could expect to live for 79 years.

Illnesses widespread in developing countries, like malaria, tuberculosis, and HIV/AIDS, result not only in early death. While ill, people suffer progressively from fatigue, loss of energy, reduced productivity, and inability to work. Early deaths reduce the time in which to acquire both education and experience and reduce the proportion of productive workers relative to unproductive children and their caretakers. Health workers, financed mostly by developed-country foundations, public/private partnerships and charitable organizations, are working with some success to reduce deaths and new infections from the most widespread diseases.

Sources: Text by the author, based on Sachs, Jeffrey D. *Common Wealth*. New York: The Penguin Press, 2008, pp. 31, 162–164; 169–192, passim, 179, 185, 225, 247.

Frieden, Jeffry A. *Global Capitalism: Its Fall and Rise In the Twentieth Century*. New York: W.W.Norton & Company, 2006, p.436.

DOCUMENT C

Conflict

The inhabitants of some 58 consistently poor countries have been called the "bottom billion." Among them, hardcore poverty is a typical characteristic. Conflict contributes to this, and it is a two-way street. In 2007, nearly three quarters of the bottom billion had recently been through a civil war, or are still in one. In recent decades, about two new civil wars have started each year. Such conflict costs, and not only in the heartbreak of people killed. It interferes with growth and adds to poverty. War is expensive. Armies, even of child soldiers, have to be paid or at

least provisioned. Looting makes for noncombatant losses. Equipment costs, and is destroyed in fighting. The consequences of armed conflict do not stop when the shooting does. A civil war typically comes close to doubling the military budget, and during the post-conflict decade, it is reduced by only about 10 percent. A substantial part of foreign aid money intended to ease poverty is misused by being diverted to financing the military in some developing countries.

Death puts an end to whatever might have been produced by a live worker. Loss of life is high in combat, and higher still as a result of illness. In conflict situations, public health systems collapse; disruption of agriculture shrinks the food supply and weakens resistance to infection; refugees spread disease. There are costs beyond economics also. Lawlessness increases during conflict and leads to suffering of the civilian population. And the violence accompanying conflicts raises issues of morality, justice, and human rights.

Poverty increases the risks of conflict through multiple paths. Poor countries are more likely to have weak governments, making it easier for would-be rebels to grab land and vital resources. Resource scarcity (especially lack of water) can provoke population migrations and displacements that result in conflicts between social groups and nations. Without productive alternatives, young people may turn to violence for material gain or encounter feelings of hopelessness, despair, and rage. Poor farmers who lack basic infrastructure such as roads, wells, irrigation, and access to agricultural markets may turn in desperation to narcotics production and trade, such as growing poppy in Afghanistan or coca in the Andes. Gangs of drug traffickers and traders, who create a vicious cycle of insecurity and poverty, control many slums. The lack of available economic choices (other than criminal activity) creates the seedbed of instability—and increases the potential for violence.

Source: Text by the author, based on Collier, Paul. *The Bottom Billion: Why the Poorest Countries Are Failing and What Can Be Done About It.* Oxford University Press, 2007, pp. 3, 17, 21, 28, 30, 32.

Who Tackled Poverty and How

DOCUMENT A

The U.S. War on Poverty

In 1950, 30 percent of American families lived in poverty. The official poverty rate in 1960 was 22 percent. When President Johnson left office in 1969, it was 13 percent, same as in 2008. (The lowest rate between 1950 and 2008 was 11.1 percent in 1973.)

Under Johnson's administration, federal social spending had more than doubled. In a special message to Congress in 1964, Johnson had proposed a "Nationwide War on the Sources of Poverty," introducing the Economic Opportunity Act. This, he said, would "strike at the causes, not just the consequences, of poverty." Among other plans, the Act would:

- Create a new national Job Corps aiming to enlist 100,000 young men "drawn from those whose background, health and education make them least fit for useful work . . . " They would get a blend of basic education, vocational training, and work experience.
- Provide federal funds to help 140,000 young Americans to go to college who otherwise could not afford to.
- Offer loans and guarantees as incentive for those who will give jobs to the unemployed.
- Make available re-training to prepare workers for new jobs.

However, recognizing that "poverty is deeply rooted and its causes are many," the President warned against expecting poverty to yield to a "single attack on a single front," or to be "conquered by government alone," or to be completely eliminated "in a few months or a few years."

Results

The programs introduced by Johnson's war on poverty created a lot of controversy, which endured well beyond his presidency. During it, however, the U.S. poverty rate was almost halved. How much of this was due to the programs he put in place cannot be pinned down.

By 2010, the program had served over 2 million youths. Some three-quarters of its graduates have gone on into jobs; another 10 percent into further education.

Critics of the programs claimed that governmental assistance weakened poor families, and contributed to an increase in welfare dependence, family break-ups, and illegitimacy. These claims continue to be disputed.

DOCUMENT B

Microfinance: Small Loans Help the Poor Create Profitable Businesses

Mohammed Yunus was an economics professor. He worked at a Bangladeshi university. In 1976, during visits to the poorest households in a village nearby, he discovered that very small loans could make a very large difference to a poor person.

The local women, who made bamboo furniture, had to buy the bamboo with loans from moneylenders at excessive interest rates that ate up their profits. Yunus loaned US $27 to 42 of the women out of his own pocket, on which they made 2 cents of profit each instead of staying in debt. He then started a pilot lending project with a government bank-loan.

In 1983 the project became the Grameen (Village) Bank, making loans to the poor who could offer no collateral and were considered high repayment risks. Microfinance programs are funded by loans, grants, guarantees and investments from individuals, local banks, foundations, governments, and international institutions.

To ensure repayment, the bank uses a system of "solidarity groups." These small informal groups apply together for loans. Its members act as co-guarantors of repayment, and support one another's efforts at economic self-advancement.

For example, a woman could borrow $50 to buy chickens so that she can sell their eggs. As the chickens reproduce, she can sell more eggs and eventually sell the chicks. As her business grows and diversifies, she begins to earn enough to improve the living conditions for her and her family.

Results

Microfinance clients boast very high repayment rates, usually within six to twelve months. Averaging between 95 and 98 percent, the repayment rates are better than those of student loan and credit card debts in the United States.

As of 2006, Grameen Bank branches numbered over 2,100 and it has inspired projects in more than 40 countries. As of 2007, it had issued US $6.38 billion to 7.4 billion borrowers, over 90 percent of them women. There are a number of similar banks, some of them for-profit, devoted to microfinance in nearly two dozen developing nations. There is doubt about whether microfinance results in reduction in the percentage of poor in a country. But it seems clear that it can end poverty for many individuals and reduce its severity for others.

Recently, newly growing opposition to the earlier very popular micro-lending industry has accused lenders of cynical exploitation of the poor by persuading borrowers into taking out larger loans than they could afford to repay. Borrowers on the other hand are accused of cheating by spending their loan money on things, from televisions to healthcare, other than using it, as intended, as seed money for business. The situation is still being debated.

DOCUMENT C

Cash Payments to the Poor—with Conditions Attached

In 1997, Mexico introduced a program that offered poor mothers in marginal rural communities cash that they could use however they wished. But they only got the money if their children went to school, missing no more than three days of classes a month, and also turned up for regular check-up visits at a health center. This *Oportunidades* program covered 5.8 million families in 2011, roughly one third of the population. Families in the Mexican program with one child in primary and one in middle school, who fulfill all the conditions set, can get about $123 in grants. The payment is more for older than younger children, and for girls than boys. Students can also get money for school supplies, and on graduating from high school, get a one-time payment of $330. No repayment is expected.

The main aims were education and health for disadvantaged children. But over a hundred research studies by independent academics indicate that the program, known as "conditional cash transfers," has been successful in reducing poverty. According to the World Bank it has, with slight variations, been introduced in 14 Latin American and some 26 other countries.

The Brazilian government introduced a program very similar to that in Mexico. It has technical and financial support from the World Bank. In 2011 it covered some 50 billion Brazilians, about a quarter of the country. Between 2003 and 2009 poverty in Brazil has fallen from 22 percent of the population to 7 percent. However, not all of that change can be claimed as due to this *Bolsa Familia* (Family Grants) program (the U.S. poverty rate in 2009 was 14.3 percent).

The amount of the grants is tied to grade level and gender. Students in primary school get $70 a year in the third grade, $135 in the sixth. In secondary school at the third level, the grants are $220 for boys and $255 for girls. The theory is that it takes more money to convince parents to keep older children and girls in school.

The government payments work. They increase students continuing past primary into secondary school from 64 percent to 76 percent.

Note, however, that 24 percent of the children that qualified for the program and were offered the payment failed to participate.

Outside of Mexico and Brazil, conditional cash transfer programs are newer and smaller, but there is some research evidence that they too lower poverty and increase school enrolment, use of health services, and consumption.

Results

Analysis of the program's treatment in the media suggests very little criticism of or opposition to it. Issues that did get mentioned concerned insufficiency of schools and teachers, the possibility of grantees developing welfare dependency, and whether the use of funds some other way (for instance, supporting the shift from agriculture to industry as part of nation-wide development) might not be more valuable or effective.

DOCUMENT D

International Aid to Developing Countries—Charity or Investment?

After 1950, various national governments, international bodies, and non-governmental organizations introduced policies and programs concerned with poverty. Some targeted countries, some individuals. Various aspects of poverty were tackled by individual governments for the benefit of their own people, by rich countries to aid poor ones, and by international organizations for several reasons. Some was temporary relief to people who were experiencing time-limited emergencies, like earthquakes, floods, or hurricanes.

Different was development aid, a larger and longer commitment, intended to bring about major, lasting changes in the country aided. The aim was to help them become well-enough off so they no longer needed aid.

Development has been understood since World War II to produce economic growth, increases in per-person income, and progress to a standard of living comparable to that of industrialized countries. Other terms used for it have been modernization and Westernization. Economic development typically results in improvements in life expectancy, poverty rates, and literacy rates. To achieve it, a shift from agriculture to manufacturing and service industries was recommended, along with increasing foreign trade, greater variety in what was produced, competitiveness, increasing education, embracing change, and focusing on profit.

Aid, "a voluntary transfer of resources from one country to another," has been used not only as poverty relief or stimulus for development. It served, among other things, to show diplomatic approval, to strengthen a military ally, to reward a government for behavior desired by the donor and to extend the donor's cultural influence. In return for aid, recipient countries made promises such as elimination of corruption; governmental, economic, and policy changes, such as removal or reduction of various regulations, environmental and labor standards and safeguards in order to attract the foreign investment needed for development; and loyalty to the donor in international affairs. Fulfilment of some of the promises made was difficult to verify.

Development aid went mostly to middle-income rather than the poorest countries, since aid was more effective where governments were relatively stable, policies relatively reasonable, and risk of violence relatively less high. Moreover, it was middle-income countries that mostly got outright grants. Loans requiring repayment with interest usually went to the poorest countries, which were at higher risk of failing to repay.

Large-scale systematic aid for development began in 1948 with the United States' European Recovery Program. This became also known as the Marshall Plan, after the Secretary of State who received the Nobel Prize for having been its architect and promoter. The plan was meant to help with reconstruction of war-torn European countries. Its aims were increasing production, especially in the iron/steel and power industries; growing international trade; and containing the influence of the U.S.S.R. by strengthening ties to the West. The average annual American grant in the Marshall Plan countries was about $85 per European per year, in 2004 dollars. This represented on the average one percent of U.S. GDP during the life of the plan. In 1949,

President Truman extended this aid beyond Europe. In his inaugural speech, he said: "We must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas." When funding ended after three years, the economies of all the states in the program were better than they had been before the war.

In 1964, the concerns of developing countries over the international market, multinational corporations, and the great inequality between developed and developing nations led to the creation of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. As a permanent intergovernmental body with 193 members, its goals continue to be to "maximize the trade, investment and development opportunities of developing countries and assist them in their efforts to integrate into the world economy on an equitable basis."

In a 1970 U.N. General Assembly resolution, and in several renewals of that commitment since, most developed countries agreed to give 0.7 percent of their Gross Domestic Product as aid to developing countries. But by 1990, contributions ran at only about 0.35 percent, and by 2000 were down to 0.2 percent. In 2005, only five countries met or exceeded the target 0.7 percent of GDP contribution: Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands. Adding up all the development aid from all countries during the last 50 years or so, the average aid recipient among the billions of poor people in low-income countries received an estimated $15 per year. According to the Millennium Project's cost estimate, about $75–$150 per person per year until 2015 could achieve all the Millennium Development Goals (for the goals, see below).

To mark the arrival of a new century, the Secretary-General called together a summit of the United Nation's member states in September 2000 to adopt the Millennium Declaration, which set out eight goals to improve the lives of the world's poor. The Millennium Development Goals, endorsed by 189 member states, set out the following priority development targets to be achieved by 2015:

- End extreme poverty and hunger
- Achieve universal primary education
- Promote gender equality and empower women
- Reduce child mortality
- Reduce mothers' death rate
- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases
- Ensure environmental stability
- Build a global partnership for development

In 2002, the United Nations Secretary-General commissioned ten task forces to work out a concrete action plan for the world to achieve the Millennium Development Goals and to reverse the grinding poverty, hunger, and disease affecting billions of people. Two hundred fifty experts from around the world served on the task forces, which included researchers and scientists, policymakers, and representatives of non-governmental organizations, UN

agencies, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and private businesses. The same year, world leaders met and agreed on a global development partnership in which developed and developing countries agreed to take joint actions for poverty reduction.

In 2011, twenty-seven international organizations and UN agencies, a number of national statisticians, and outside expert advisors collaborated in preparing that year's Millennium Development Goals report, suggesting that a global development partnership continued to function.

The Millennium Development Goals are the most broadly supported poverty reduction targets ever set by the world. The joint responsibility of developing and developed nations for achieving them increases the likelihood of their success, though it does not ensure it.

Results to 2010

Positive results of the above goals' general adoption have been rousing world attention, mobilizing support for reducing poverty, and putting a discussion of global development needs on the agenda of the world's leaders.

But progress toward achieving the goals has been mixed. In general, overall success is behind schedule. Reasons vary. From the start, inability to hold both rich and poor countries accountable has been a problem. Increasingly important is under-funding. In 2007, again only five countries met the official target for development assistance that they had agreed to. Since about 80–85 percent of foreign aid for development comes from government sources and the rest from private organizations, foundations, charities, and money sent home by emigrant workers, the recent global financial downturn is likely to further reduce overall contributions to development aid.

Yet worldwide, there has been substantial success toward achieving the target of reducing by half the number of people living with hunger in extreme poverty. In developing regions overall, that percentage declined from 46 percent in 1990 to 27 percent in 2005. Much less progress has been achieved, though, on other goals, such as reduction of infants' and mothers' death rates. (A woman living in sub-Saharan Africa has a 1 in 16 chance of dying in pregnancy; a woman from North America, a 1 in 3,800 risk.)

Some countries, especially China, have made great progress toward many of the goals. Others, especially in Africa, are not on track to realize any.

The Millennium Development Goals have been criticized for the following:

- Not enough justification for the choice of goals.
- Important ideals (such as stopping human trafficking—that is, carrying people off against their will in order to exploit them, striving for equality, working for security of person and property, and focusing on local participation) are not included.
- The difficulty of tracking progress toward some of the goals.
- That gifts of aid are like giving hungry people fish (a temporary measure), instead of teaching them to fish for themselves (a permanent solution).

- That aid had negative effects: it created dependency, increased corruption, and caused postponement of needed economic and democratic reforms.
- Projects that development aid has paid for were sometimes appealing to Western project managers rather than useful to aid recipients.
- Development aid often found its way into rulers' pockets, or was used for warfare rather than for welfare and development. (40 percent of Africa's military spending is estimated to be financed with aid money.)
- Monitoring and enforcing any fulfillment of the promises made by recipients in return for the aid received had a poor track record. (The following were among typical promises: to use aid money only for development; to buy goods and services needed for development only from the donor country; to curb corruption; to establish free trade, reducing or removing tariffs and restrictions; and loyalty to the donor country in international affairs.)

Independent evaluations of aid programs in general suggested that the following are "usually highly effective forms of aid in normal circumstances":

- Grants given to families to be spent on children's education and health
- Education vouchers for school uniforms and textbooks
- Teaching selected illiterate adults to read and write
- De-worming drugs and vitamin/nutritional supplements
- Vaccination and HIV/AIDS prevention programs
- Indoor sprays against malaria, and anti-mosquito bed netting
- Suitable fertilizers
- Clean water supplies

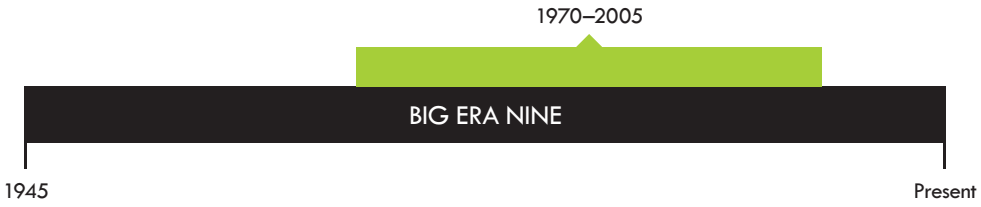
Source: Text by the author, based on Sachs, Jeffrey D. *Common Wealth*. New York: Penguin Press, 2008, pp. 48, 342.

CHAPTER 5

By William Bowles

The World at Warp Speed

Science, Technology, and the Computer Revolution



WHY STUDY SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY, AND THE COMPUTER REVOLUTION?

Scientific and technological change over the past thirty-five years has accelerated at an ever-increasing pace. This change brings advances that spread around the world, increasing global interaction and, for many, improving the quality of life. This chapter highlights two main ideas: (1) specific achievements in communications, transportation, health, medicine, and agriculture; (2) how the confluence of these achievements has transformed and challenged traditional economic, social, and political structures, often in unexpected ways.

The economic and social dislocations of the 1970s convinced many commentators at the time that we were entering an era where increasing world population and diminishing resources would lead to a downward spiral. These fears did not come to pass, however, owing in large part to many of the developments in science and technology that began during the 1970s. The first personal computer, the Altair 8800, was introduced in 1975. The first programming language for this computer was also the first product of Microsoft (then Micro-Soft). Although the development of the Internet and the information-sharing world that came with it had to wait another twenty years to emerge, the seeds of change were planted in the 1970s.

Scientific developments in the sciences, medicine, and agriculture did not have to wait so

long. Technological advances in these areas began improving the quality of life for millions of people by the late 1970s. Advances in cardiac technology, critical care, medical imaging, health care computers, and the use of genetic engineering have brought rapid change to the world of medicine. More accurate and quicker diagnoses, more effective treatments, and increased life expectancies were just some of the obvious benefits.

This chapter will challenge students to consider the moral and ethical issues that have emerged as a result of these advances in science and technology. In addition, the uneven dissemination of the technological and communications revolutions has resulted in great disparities in who has access to these new tools.

OBJECTIVES

Upon completing this chapter, students will be able to:

1. Analyze how revolutions in communication and information technology have contributed to the acceleration of social change.
2. Assess the impact of biotechnology on human society and ecology.
3. Trace the development of the new physics and its implications.
4. Identify key medical advances over the past two decades and their implications for longevity and social policy.
5. Identify new trends in the twenty-first century and analyze divergent opinions regarding them.

TIME AND MATERIALS

This chapter is best done in one week of 45-minute classes. If time is limited, students can do any of the lessons on their own. Materials required are included in this chapter.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

World War II stimulated scientific research and technological innovations that greatly advanced human well-being and standards of living. The sponsorship of research by governments and the military during World War II created a new scientific model. Teams of scientists working on large-scale, government-funded projects became the norm in the period from 1945 to 1970. The development of the transistor to replace the large and cumbersome vacuum tubes (the ENIAC computer of 1946 used 18,000 of them) is considered by many to be one of the greatest inventions in modern history. The further development of the silicon chip, or integrated circuit, helped to set the stage for Intel, which brought these advances together with the introduction of the microprocessor in late 1971. The late 1970s and 1980s saw the emergence of Apple Computer and the Microsoft Corporation and a shift from the hobbyists who had helped shape the early personal computer movement, giving it a more commercial and business-oriented focus.

The scientific and technological advances that the power of the microchip allowed were critical to the computer revolution. The rapid social changes of the 1960s and early 1970s, however, also factored into this revolution. While seen by many as a distraction from the large-scale scientific developments of the era—such as the space race that culminated in the first moon landing in 1969—the counterculture helped to plant the seeds for the computer revolution. During the 1960s, computers were machines created to solve mathematical equations, for "computing." How that impersonal world of IBM mainframe computers gave way to the accessible, user-friendly technology of today owes as much to counterculture influences as it does to the expensive interventions of government and large corporations. Computer technology has turned out to be a creative and freeing tool for individuals around the world.

In medicine, new technologies using laser and ultrasound were developed, helping to advance surgical techniques, while CAT scans and MRI technologies helped doctors to build multi- dimensional images of organs or of different regions of the body. Doctors have come to use these new tools to detect tumors, diagnose injuries, and collect other specific medical information. The Human Genome Project (HGP) began in October 1990 and was completed in 2003. The goal, still unfolding, has been to discover all the estimated 20–25,000 human genes and make them accessible for further biological study. The implications for further transforming health and medicine are tremendous.

Along with this freedom, however, have come many challenges. Legal and ethical questions about intellectual property rights have a relatively long history in computer culture. The legal entitlement that enables someone to exercise exclusive control over the use of intellectual property has been challenged by both the open source and the free software movements. Although philosophical differences separate these two approaches, both propose that projects should be open to anyone and everyone for contributions, before or after the actual programming. Both also hold that this more open style of licensing allows for a superior software development process and, therefore, that pursuing it is in line with rational self-interest.

Closeup of a stone sign bearing the Microsoft logo at an entrance to Microsoft's Redmond campus

Science and medicine have also seen their fair share of controversies. Medical ethics issues relating to death and dying, reproductive rights, research, the distribution and utilization of research and care, and the questions about alternative approaches to medical care have emerged and, in many cases, have posed unforeseen challenges to the advancement of new technologies in medicine.

THREE ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Humans and the Environment

We know that new technologies have had a huge impact on the earth's natural and physical environment. In what ways do you think new technologies have the ability to limit or reverse the negative impact of globalization on the environment?

Humans and Other Humans

What are some of the social implications of advanced health-care technology? Should all patients have a legal right to either demand or refuse advanced health-care technology?

Humans and Ideas

What are "intellectual property rights?" Should intellectual property rights be sacrosanct, or should people have the right to access, use, modify, or remix material such as software programs, as long as they give credit to the creator of the source?

KEY THEMES

This chapter addresses the following historical themes:

Key Theme 2: Economic Networks and Exchange

Key Theme 4: Haves and Have Nots

Key Theme 6: Science, Technology, and the Environment

CORRELATIONS TO NATIONAL HISTORY STANDARDS

National Standards for World History

Era 9: The 20th Century since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes. 3A: The student will understand major global trends since World War II.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Ceruzzi, Paul E. *Computing: A Concise History*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2012.

Friedman, Thomas L. *The World Is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty-First Century*. New York: Farrar, Straus, and Giroux, 2005.

Johnson, Steven. *Everything Bad Is Good for You: How Today's Popular Culture Is Actually Making Us Smarter.* New York: Riverhead, 2005.

Markoff, John. *What the Dormouse Said: How the 60's Counterculture Shaped the Personal Computer Industry.* New York: Viking, 2005.

McElheny, Victor K. *Drawing the Map of Life: Inside the Human Genome Project*. New York: Basic Books, 2010.

"Stephen Hawking's Universe." PBS Online. http://www.pbs.org/wnet/hawking/html/home.html.

Stearns, Peter N. *Globalization in World History*. New York: Routledge, 2010.

Weiss, Gregory L., and Lynne V. Lonnquist. *The Sociology of Health, Healing, and Illness*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2000.

LESSON 1

Is It Always Nice to Share?

Preparation

Ask students if they have ever downloaded music or software from the Internet. Discuss whether it is ever okay to download copyrighted material without paying a fee—in other words, to download illegally.

Introduction

Read the brief background essays in Student Handouts 5.1.1 and 5.1.2 and discuss the points of view of both Bill Gates and the members of the Homebrew Computer Club.

Activities

Students working in groups begin to create a timeline called "Advances in Science and Technology" using the information from Student Handout 5.1.1 that will be worked on in the course of the chapter.

Read the essay in Student Handout 5.1.3 and discuss music file sharing and the ethical issues related to doing it illegally.

Debate the following proposition: Profit-seeking corporations should always be able to require payment from users of copyrighted material available on the Internet. After assigning debate teams, students should carefully research both sides of the topic.

- List arguments in favor or against the idea being debated.
- List likely arguments that the opposing team might make either for or against.
- List counter-arguments that discredit the arguments of the other side.

The debate should include an affirmative and a negative team and follow a sequence similar to the one listed below:

Affirmative team	Time	Negative team	Time
Opening statement	3 min.	Opening statement	3 min.
Rebuttal	3 min.	Rebuttal	3 min.
Questions	5 min.	Questions	5 min.
Summary	3 min.	Summary	3 min.

Assessment

Ask students to write a brief reflective essay discussing their viewpoints about the topic before the debate and after, and evaluating which evidence they found to be most compelling.

An Early History of the Personal Computer Industry

In 1968, Doug Engelbart and his group of researchers at the Stanford Research Institute presented a live public demonstration of the online computer system, NLS, on which they had been working since 1962. The public presentation at the Convention Center in San Francisco, which author John Markoff called "the computing world's Woodstock," saw the public debut of the computer mouse and other innovations including hypertext, object addressing, and dynamic file linking. These developments, though not immediately pursued, eventually formed the basis of the personal computers in use today.

During the 1970s, groups of hobbyists, many of whom were involved in the field of electrical engineering or computer programming, began to meet regularly to exchange ideas. The first meeting of the legendary Homebrew Computer Club was held in March 1975 in Menlo Park, California, in the garage of one of its members. Fred Moore, the founder of the club and a counterculture activist, believed that his club "should have nothing to do with making money." The important thing was to share ideas in an atmosphere of openness and personal growth. This was part of the 1960s social idealism in which Moore and many Homebrew members believed. Club members came to the meetings to talk about the first true personal computer, the Altair 8800, and other technical topics. From its ranks came the founders of many microcomputer companies, including Steve Jobs and Steve Wozniak, the famous Apple founders.

The Altair 8800 was sold as a kit through *Popular Electronics* magazine and, though the designers intended to sell only a few hundred to hobbyists, they were pleasantly surprised to sell over ten times that many in the first month. Today the Altair is widely recognized as the spark that led to the personal computer revolution of the next few years. The internal design became the standard, and the first programming language for the machine was Microsoft's founding product, Altair BASIC. Developed primarily by Microsoft co-founders Paul Allen and Bill Gates, Altair BASIC became the most-used computer programming language in the world by the early 1980s.

In 1975, however, Altair BASIC set off a controversy that continues today. When Gates and Allen finished Altair BASIC, they wanted to sell it. But just before it was shipped, an engineer made copies of the program and sent them off to friends at the Homebrew Computer Club. This made the twenty-year old Bill Gates furious, and in February 1976 he wrote the famous "Open Letter to Hobbyists," which was aimed at the computer community and which denounced piracy. The hobbyists, for their part, were outraged because they thought he was charging too much for software that should be inexpensively or freely available. The division between profit-seeking publishers and supporters of free software really began at this point.

Sources: John Markoff, *What the Dormouse Said: How the 60's Counterculture Shaped the Personal Computer Industry* (New York: Viking, 2005).

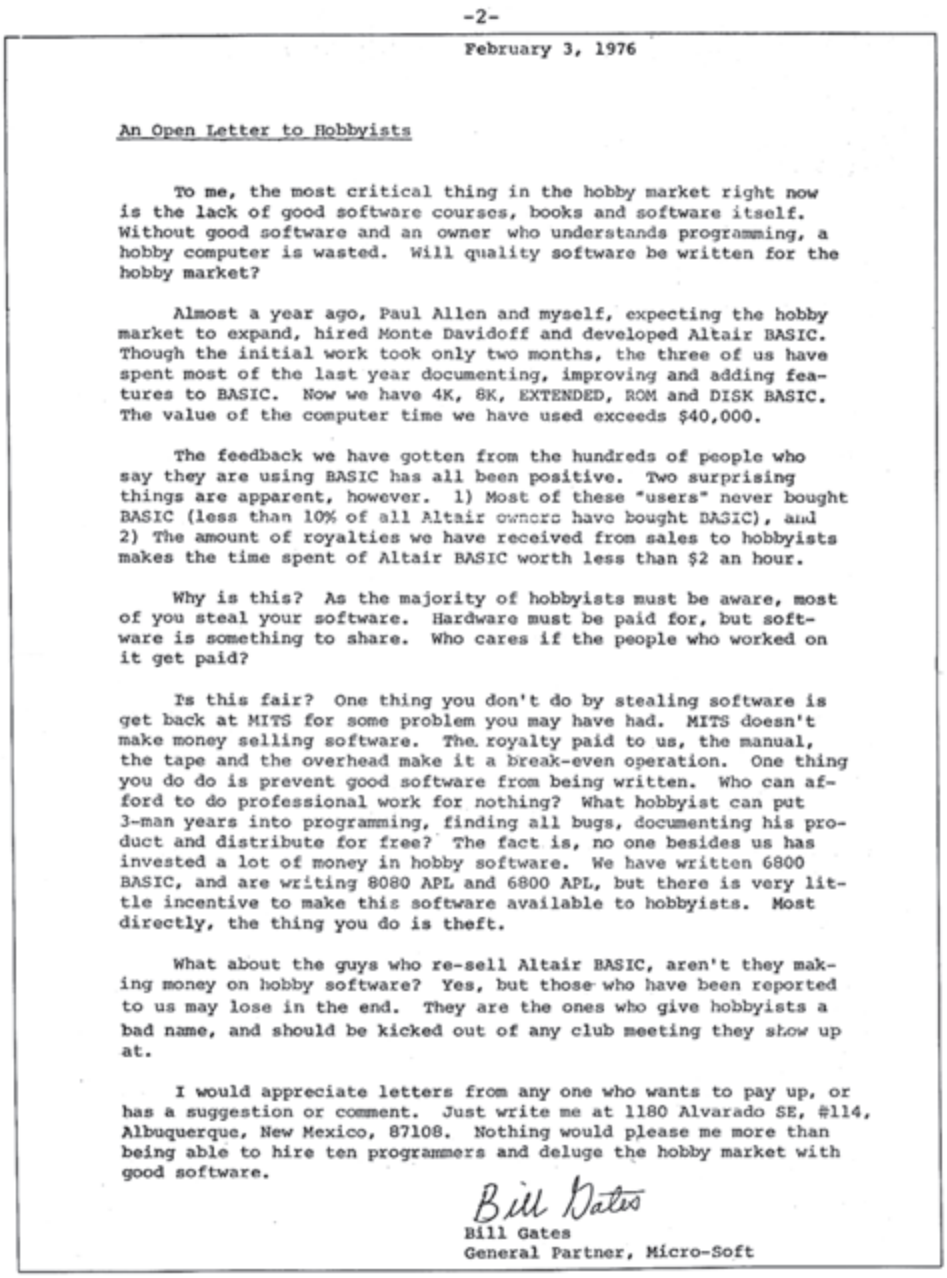
MouseSite, The Demo, http://sloan.stanford.edu/MouseSite/1968Demo.html.

Richard Koman, "An Interview With John Markoff," The O'Reilly Network, 20 July 2005, http://www.oreillynet.com/pub/a/network/2005/07/20/johnmarkoff.html.

Bill Gates, Open Letter to Hobbyists, February, 1976

As the majority of hobbyists must be aware, most of you steal your software. Hardware must be paid for, but software is something to share. Who cares if the people who worked on it get paid? . . . Who can afford to do professional work for nothing? What hobbyist can put 3 man-years into programming, finding all bugs, documenting his product and distribute for free? The fact is, no one but us has invested a lot of money in hobby software. . . . Most directly, the thing you do is theft. . . .

Bill Gates, General Partner, Micro-Soft



-2-

February 3, 1976

An Open Letter to Hobbyists

To me, the most critical thing in the hobby market right now is the lack of good software courses, books and software itself. Without good software and an owner who understands programming, a hobby computer is wasted. Will quality software be written for the hobby market?

Almost a year ago, Paul Allen and myself, expecting the hobby market to expand, hired Monte Davidoff and developed Altair BASIC. Though the initial work took only two months, the three of us have spent most of the last year documenting, improving and adding features to BASIC. Now we have 4K, 8K, EXTENDED, ROM and DISK BASIC. The value of the computer time we have used exceeds $40,000.

The feedback we have gotten from the hundreds of people who say they are using BASIC has all been positive. Two surprising things are apparent, however. 1) Most of these "users" never bought BASIC (less than 10% of all Altair owners have bought BASIC), and 2) The amount of royalties we have received from sales to hobbyists makes the time spent of Altair BASIC worth less than $2 an hour.

Why is this? As the majority of hobbyists must be aware, most of you steal your software. Hardware must be paid for, but software is something to share. Who cares if the people who worked on it get paid?

Is this fair? One thing you don't do by stealing software is get back at MITS for some problem you may have had. MITS doesn't make money selling software. The royalty paid to us, the manual, the tape and the overhead make it a break-even operation. One thing you do do is prevent good software from being written. Who can afford to do professional work for nothing? What hobbyist can put 3-man years into programming, finding all bugs, documenting his product and distribute for free? The fact is, no one besides us has invested a lot of money in hobby software. We have written 6800 BASIC, and are writing 8080 APL and 6800 APL, but there is very little incentive to make this software available to hobbyists. Most directly, the thing you do is theft.

What about the guys who re-sell Altair BASIC, aren't they making money on hobby software? Yes, but those who have been reported to us may lose in the end. They are the ones who give hobbyists a bad name, and should be kicked out of any club meeting they show up at.

I would appreciate letters from any one who wants to pay up, or has a suggestion or comment. Just write me at 1180 Alvarado SE, #114, Albuquerque, New Mexico, 87108. Nothing would please me more than being able to hire ten programmers and deluge the hobby market with good software.

Bill Gates

Bill Gates
General Partner, Micro-Soft

Freedom or Property Rights? Napster and the Question of Digital Rights

Napster is an online music service that was originally a file-sharing service created by Shawn Fanning. He wanted an easier method of finding music and devised a clever method to do so. Fanning first released the original Napster in the fall of 1999. It was the first widely used peer- to-peer music (or P2P) sharing service, and it made a major impact on how people, especially university students, used the Internet. A P2P computer network is a network that relies on the computing power and bandwidth of the participants in the network rather than concentrating it in relatively few servers. The power it gave to individual users and the community-building features of Napster made it an overnight success.

At the time Napster was released, there was a general belief that the quality of new music albums had decreased. Many people said that albums contained only one or two good songs, along with many low-quality "filler" songs.

People praised Napster because it enabled them to obtain hit songs without having to buy an entire album. Napster also enabled people to obtain older songs, copies of music they had already paid for in another format, unreleased recordings, and songs from concert bootleg recordings. With the files obtained through Napster, people frequently made their own compilation albums on recordable CDs for free, without paying any royalties to the artist/composer or the estate of the artist/composer.

Its technology allowed music fans to easily share MP3 format song files with each other, thus leading to the music industry's accusations of massive copyright violations. "We love the idea of using technology to build artist communities, but that's not what Napster is all about. Napster is about facilitating piracy, and trying to build a business on the backs of artists and copyright owners," said Cary Sherman, senior executive vice-president and general counsel for the Record Industry Association of America (RIAA). In December 1999, the RIAA sued Napster for copyright infringement. The recording industry accused Internet piracy of causing a drop in CD sales, but a survey by Forrester Research in August 2002 reached a different conclusion. The company said that frequent digital music consumers were not buying fewer CDs and that the 15% drop in music sales over the previous two years owed more to the recession and competition from the booming markets of video games and DVDs.

The publicity and word-of-mouth attracted more Napster users and inspired the web community to start building its successor if Napster should be shut down. Although the original service was shut down by court order, it paved the way for decentralized P2P file-sharing programs, which have been much harder to control. The ever-widening availability of broadband has made file sharing even more prevalent, since, with increasing download speeds, the distribution of entire movies and other large files is possible.

While most people agree that artists should receive compensation for their creative labors, others see the battles waged between advocates of open access to music and the power of the record industry as a reflection of a much larger battle emerging in modern society. Lawrence Lessig, a professor of law at Stanford Law School and founder of its Center for Internet

and Society, argues that, while new technologies always lead to new laws, never before have the corporations used fear created by new technologies, specifically the Internet, to shrink the public domain of ideas. At the same time, corporations use the same technologies to control more of what we can and cannot do with culture. As culture becomes increasingly digitized, more and more becomes controllable. According to Lessig, "As life moves increasingly onto the Net and the capacity to control every aspect of our cultural capital increases almost to perfection, the question is whether there is an affirmative right of access, to use and remix." He believes that in the future we will see more copyright limitations. In addition, computer codes will be legally able to limit the number of copies people make and digital rights management technology will allow corporations to charge fees for the most basic Internet activities we now use freely and take for granted, unless people fight for open access.

Sources: Lawrence Lessig, Stanford University Law School, http://www.lessig.org/.

Jeffrey Rosen, "Roberts v. The Future," *New York Times Magazine*, 28 Aug. 2005: 24–50.
Sean McManus, "A Short History of File Sharing," http://www.sean.co.uk/a/musicjournalism/var/historyoffilesharing.shtm.

LESSON 2

Everything Bad Is Good for You

Preparation

Read Student Handout 5.2.1 and discuss video games with students and how they affect our lives. Ask what they like best or least about them. Then have students complete Student Handout 5.2.2 on their use of various media.

Introduction

Analyze the data from the previous day's survey (Student Handout 5.2.2) and interpret and evaluate the results with students. Then read Student Handout 5.2.3 with students and discuss.

Activities

After researching the topic, students should write an editorial about whether limits should be put on access to various forms of media. They might argue for/against government controls or for more parental controls. Remind them that the editorial page is where the facts of our complex world are synthesized into analysis and opinion to help society figure out solutions to its problems. The goal of a good editorial is both to educate and to persuade. Teachers may wish to review some online or newspaper editorials with them before they begin.

Students continue work on "Advances in Science and Technology" timeline.

Assessment

A Scoring Guide should be used that examines:

1. The quality of research evident in the editorial
2. Use of editorial voice (not first person—I, me, my)
3. If the editorial explained the issue and was persuasive
4. If the editorial supported opinions with facts
5. If the editorial used transitional words and phrases and had an introduction, body, and conclusion

The History of Video Games

A Brief Overview

In 1966, Ralph Baer, an American engineer, created a simple video game called *Chase* that could be displayed on a standard television set. In 1968, he developed a prototype that could play several different games, including versions of table tennis and target shooting. In 1972, the first video game console for the home market, the Magnavox Odyssey, was released. Built using mainly analog electronics, it was based on Ralph Baer's earlier work and licensed from his employer. The console was connected to a home television set. It was not a large success.

It was not until Atari's home version of *Pong* in Christmas of 1975 that home video games started to take off. The success of *Pong* sparked hundreds of clone games, including *Telstar*, which went on to be a success in its own right, with over a dozen models. The coin-operated arcade video game craze had begun.

The arcade game industry entered its golden age in 1978 with the release of *Space Invaders*. This game was a runaway blockbuster that inspired dozens of manufacturers to enter the market and produce their own video games. The golden age was marked by a prevalence of arcades and new color arcade games that continued until the 1980s or 1990s.

If the 1980s were about the rise of the industry, the 1990s were about its maturing into a Hollywood-style landscape of ever-increasing budgets and increasingly consolidated publishers, with the losers slowly being crushed or absorbed. As this happened, the wide variety of games that existed in the 1980s faded away, with the larger corporations desiring to maximize profits and to lower risk. With the increasing computing power and decreasing cost of processors, the 1990s saw the rise of 3-D graphics, as well as "multimedia" capabilities through sound cards and CD-ROMs.

Corner arcades, where many video games had been played up to this time, declined in the 1990s, giving way to large amusement centers dedicated to providing clean, safe environments and expensive game control systems not available to home users. These are usually based on sports, like skiing or cycling, as well as rhythm games like *Dance Dance Revolution*, which have carved out a large slice of the pie.

In 1989, Nintendo released the Game Boy, the first major handheld console. Several rival handhelds also made their debut around that time, including the Sega Game Gear. But, while some of the other systems remained in production until the mid-90s, the Game Boy remained at the top spot in sales throughout its lifespan.

The North American market in video games was dominated by the Sega Genesis after its debut in 1989, with the Nintendo Super NES proving a strong, roughly equal rival in 1991. *Super Mario 64* became a defining title for 3-D platformers. In 1994–1995, Sega released Sega Saturn, and Sony made its debut to the video gaming scene with the PlayStation. Both consoles using 32-bit technology, the door was open for 3-D games. By the end of this period, Sony had dethroned Nintendo, the PlayStation outselling the Nintendo 64. The Sega Saturn was successful in Japan but a failure in North America, leaving Sega outside of the main competition.

Continuing its dominance of the market, Sony launched the PlayStation 2 in Japan in 2001, but the powerful Microsoft soon challenged it with its new system, the Xbox.

Trends in the Video Game Industry

The current industry consensus is that the popularity of computer and video games as a whole has been increasing steadily. The average age of the video game player is now 29, indicating that video games are not largely a diversion for teenagers, as many non-gamers assume. Each year, the theory goes, the generation of kids familiar with arcade and console games becomes one year older (and one year larger). With more disposable income available to the group as a whole, sales should continue to grow, presumably until the entire population has grown up with easily available video games.

The four largest markets for computer and video games are the United States, Japan, Canada, and the United Kingdom. Other significant markets include Germany, South Korea, France, and Italy. China is not considered a significant market, probably because an estimated 95 percent of video games sold in the country are pirated.

Sales of different types of games vary widely between these markets due to local preferences. Japanese consumers avoid computer games and instead buy video games, with a strong preference for games created in Japan that run on Japanese consoles. In South Korea, computer games are preferred, especially MMORPGs (massively multiplayer online role-playing games) and real-time strategy games. There are over 20,000 PC bang Internet cafes where computer games can be played for an hourly charge. A MMORPG is a multiplayer computer role-playing game that enables thousands of players to play in an evolving virtual world at the same time over the Internet. MMORPGs are a specific type of massively multiplayer online game.

There is a mistaken belief that video game sales now exceed the revenues of the movie industry. This is untrue. In the United States, video game sales have exceeded the movies' total box office revenue each year since about 1996, but the movie studios trounce the video game publishers when the movies' "ancillary revenue" is counted, meaning sales of DVDs and sales to foreign distributors, cable TV, satellite TV, and broadcast television networks. The game and film industries are also becoming increasingly intertwined, with companies like Sony having significant stakes in both. A large number of summer blockbuster films spawn a companion game, often launched at the same time in order to share the marketing costs.

Survey on Student Media Use

Media has a great effect on our everyday lives. Briefly complete the survey below. It is designed to find out approximately how much time you spend each week using various media. Estimate your weekly use by thinking about the differences between your use of media on school days as compared to your use on weekend days.

1. How many hours a week do you spend watching television or movies?
2. How many hours a week on the phone?
3. How many hours a week on the Internet?
4. How many hours a week do you spend playing video games?
5. How many hours a week do you spend listening to music?
6. How much of the time that you spend on these activities is related to education?
7. How much for entertainment?
8. How much to communicate with friends?
9. If you had to give up permanently the use of one of these media, which one would you choose? Why?

Everything Bad Is Good for You?

Author Steven Johnson's 2005 book, *Everything Bad Is Good for You*, has raised considerable controversy. His argument is that, contrary to the many studies about the dangerous effects of too much television-watching and video game-playing, today's popular culture is actually making us smarter. He has obviously struck a chord, particularly with parents, and his argument is compelling.

Johnson believes that over the last thirty years, video games and television shows have grown more complex and they have forced us, as a consequence, to use the higher-order thinking skills within our brains, much more so than if we were doing something else, like reading. According to Johnson, games teach abilities in pattern recognition, probability, and understanding relations of cause-and-effect that can be widely applied. He believes that our brains are drawn toward systems that reward exploration of particular kinds of environments. As far as television shows go, Johnson believes many have grown increasingly challenging. The number of plot threads in television dramas has increased and become more complex. "Flashing arrows" or hints to help viewers follow complex plot twists are also used regularly. Even bad TV—reality shows, for example—is much better than the bad shows people watched in the 1960s and 1970s. Following the strategies of the participants in reality shows and their emotional shifts and turns requires much more emotional intelligence than that required for watching simple sitcoms.

Needless to say, Johnson's argument has found many detractors. Sex and violence permeate popular culture, particularly in video games and films. Study after study has shown that extensive TV viewing is associated with violent or highly aggressive behavior, poor school performance, obesity, early experiments with sex, and the use of drugs or alcohol. In addition, reading has become a less important part of people's daily lives, particularly the kind of reading needed to follow a difficult book. Johnson does not deny these concerns, but he feels that values issues about the content of the media should be addressed by parents, families, schools, and communities. The actual media themselves are not to blame and, in fact, can be valuable in sharpening our mental skills and make us smarter.

The debates about the potentially harmful effects of the media are likely to continue for years to come. Explore these issues in depth by researching on the Internet.

LESSON 3

Health Care: A Right or a Privilege?

Preparation

Ask students if they believe the idea that if we have the technological ability to do something we should do it. Discuss with them the idea of "the technological imperative" described in Student Handout 5.3.1 in relationship to death and dying. Would students want to be kept alive if their quality of life was totally diminished? Students might discuss the Terry Schiavo case that was in the news in 2005.

Introduction

Reread the brief background essays in Student Handout 5.1.1.

Activities

Students will research and complete Student Handout 5.3.2. They will also continue work on the "Advances in Science and Technology" timeline.

Assessment

After reading Student Handout 5.3.3, students should brainstorm the controversial topics and choose one in which they are most interested. Then, have them research and write a persuasive essay on the topic. Encourage students to use facts to support their opinions (perhaps including the opposing viewpoint for comparison and contrast), to avoid the first person ("I," "me," or "my"), and to use transitional words to link paragraphs together.

Growth of Health-Care Technology

In the past thirty years, health-care systems have seen rapid technological innovation throughout the industrialized world. Advocates see technology as a way to create a better life and believe that technological advancements continue because they benefit society, giving citizens healthier and longer lives. Others, particularly in the US, see society as being controlled by a "technological imperative." This is the inclination to use a technology that has potential for some benefit, however marginal or unsubstantiated, based on a fascination with the technology itself, the expectation that new is better, and financial and other professional incentives. While the debate continues, medical technology continues to advance at an astounding rate. The development and use of modern health-care technology over the last few decades has been phenomenal. This can be seen particularly in cardiac technology, critical care medicine, reproductive technology, medical imaging, and the use of health-care computers.

Important innovations in cardiac technology include the cardiac pacemaker that helps keep the heart's electrical activity paced properly, and the defibrillator, which maintains the rhythmic contractions of the heart to help avoid a heart attack. The first heart transplant was performed by Dr. Christian Barnard in 1967. Heart transplants, as well as numerous other organ transplants, are now performed on a routine basis.

Critical care medicine has seen significant advances, notably in treatment of cardiopulmonary patients, that is, those with insufficient heart and lung capacity. An estimated 20 percent of hospital patients require some form of respiratory therapy or support. Systems for maintaining adequate oxygen levels and mechanical ventilation for patients who are unable to breathe on their own are used routinely in hospitals.

Medical imaging techniques such as nuclear medicine, ultrasound, computer tomography (CT or CAT scans), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), allow pictures to be taken of internal bodily organs. MRI has become of fundamental importance in the medical field. In 2003, Paul Lauterbur and Sir Peter Mansfield were awarded the Nobel Prize in Medicine for their discoveries concerning MRI. Lauterbur discovered that gradients in the magnetic field could be used to generate two-dimensional images. Mansfield analyzed the gradients mathematically.

Computers have also changed the way health care is delivered. The Internet has produced numerous opportunities for sharing, obtaining, and discussing information. Some examples of medicine on the Internet are digitized medical journals, public health education, discussion groups, and education. In fact, many patients often research their own medical conditions on the Internet and feel free to question or challenge health care professionals based on their newfound knowledge. This change in access to medical information may have long-term implications for doctor and patient relationships.

Three areas of health-care technology that have received much attention in recent years but do not deal with issues of acute care are reproductive technology, plastic surgery, and eye surgery. The problem of infertility in both males and females has been partially eased in the past few decades owing to innovative techniques such as artificial insemination and *in vitro* fertilization (a technique in which egg cells are fertilized outside the woman's body). Increasingly, plastic

surgery, which was originally developed as reconstructive surgery to treat disfigured soldiers from World War I, has given way to cosmetic surgery. Cosmetic surgery is a popular avenue for personal enhancement, as demonstrated by the 11.7 million cosmetic procedures performed in 2007 in the US alone. Eye surgery has also become quite popular, especially refractive surgery, which aims at correcting errors of refraction in the eye, reducing or eliminating the need for corrective lenses.

MRI machine

Medical Technology Chart

Directions: Complete the chart below by listing key inventions in three fields of medical technology that have transformed medicine over the last few decades.

	Technology	Inventor	When First Used	Purpose	Effects On Treatment and Care
Cardiac Care	1.				
	2.				
Critical Care Medicine	1.				
	2.				
Medical Imaging	1.				
	2.				
	3.				

Medicine in the Twenty-First Century

The Human Genome Project

This $3 billion project was formally founded in 1990 by the US Department of Energy and the US National Institutes of Health, and was expected to take 15 years. The task was to find the sequence of DNA for every single gene in a complete set of human chromosomes. We call this sequence the human genome. Owing to widespread international collaboration between research laboratories in the US, Europe, Asia, and Australia, and to advances in the field, the task was completed in 2003.

The instructions for an entire human are held in 30,000 to 40,000 different genes and all but a small percent of these are common to our nearest relatives, the chimpanzees. The risk of developing many disorders, such as Alzheimer's, diabetes, and heart disease, may well be influenced by our genetic make-up. Greater understanding of the human genome will direct the development of medicines to help treat and prevent diseases over the next hundred years. Advances in genetics will allow treatments to target the genes or specific proteins that cause disease. Gene therapies are being developed that aim to replace faulty genes and so reverse the effects of inherited disorders, such as cystic fibrosis.

Ethics and Medicine

Advances in medical science will not come without a great deal of controversy. New technologies will create many social consequences. While they will create new options for people, they will also stimulate reflection on values and raise social policy questions that must be resolved. Two primary areas of concern focus upon privacy rights and access to care.

In the wake of the attacks on the World Trade Center and the London terrorist bombings, new forms of surveillance technology have been given a greater impetus. Biometric cameras that capture the details of someone's face and other similar scanning devices are already in use. Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging, or the so-called "brain fingerprinting technique," could be used as a sort of high-tech lie detector. But, if suspects' mental privacy were invaded, would not they have been forced to testify against their will? Does this sort of self-incrimination violate their Fifth Amendment rights?

As medical technology improves, individuals will be able to develop a medical profile based on genetic and environmental factors. This would allow them to be warned of diseases that they are likely to develop in older age. But this profile could also be used to assess a person's suitability for insurance or employment. How can we protect the health rights of the individual?

Many believe that genetic engineering and stem cell therapies may provide cures for diseases such as cancer, leukemia, and Parkinson's, but tampering with genetic materials brings with it great controversy. For instance, genetic screening already allows parents to test for certain abnormalities that embryos might possess and then decide whether or not to terminate a pregnancy based on the information received. In the case of in vitro fertilization, scientists could help prospective parents implant in the woman's womb an embryo with a specified range of desired characteristics—a "designer baby," in other words.

As life expectancy rises, a major challenge will emerge in the treatment of the elderly, but economics will continue to shape access to care. The question already affects millions of people worldwide: Who gets treatment and who does not? Those who have money have an ever- increasing number of options for treatment, while people throughout the world continue to suffer from diseases of poverty.

Modern medicine will continue to face new challenges and find new solutions for the twenty-first century, while the ethical and moral concerns of society will continue to shape the development of new medicines and treatments.

Sources: Jeffrey Rosen, "Roberts v. The Future," *New York Times Magazine*, 28 Aug. 2005: 24–50.

Gregory L Weiss and Lynne V. Lonnquist, *The Sociology of Health, Healing, and Illness* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2000).

LESSON 4

A History of Space and Time

Preparation

If these can be made available, watch segments from the PBS series "Stephen Hawking's Universe." The website to accompany the series is at http://www.pbs.org/wnet/hawking/html/home.html.

Introduction

Read Student Handout 5.4.1. Discuss the new discoveries in scientists' understanding of space and time.

Then, if it can be made available, show the segment from the film *Apollo 13* showing how the people of the US and much of the world were transfixed by the drama of this legendary, near-disastrous space flight. Ask students to discuss these questions: Do space flight and exploration capture the public imagination as much today as they did during the 1970s? Why or why not?

Activities

Read Student Handout 5.4.2 and discuss. What have been the main achievements of the space program? Why is it important that manned space exploration continue, when non-human flights can achieve many of the same goals?

Sequence Mapping

After students read Student Handout 5.4.2, have them work in groups to trace the advances in space exploration through sequence mapping. Students should decide which events to include on their maps and then organize them in the order in which they occurred. Students can use words, pictures, or diagrams to show how the order of events took place. Groups should present their maps to the class.

Assessment

Students should continue work on their "Advances in Science and Technology" timeline, including key events in space exploration and the work of Stephen Hawking.

Stephen Hawking's Universe

Stephen Hawking

What existed at the beginning of space and time? Where did the universe come from—and where is it headed? What is our place in the universe? Throughout history, imaginative mathematicians and scientists have sought the answers to these fundamental questions. Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, Einstein, and others used direct observation, reasoning, applied mathematics, and new technologies to overturn ideas about cosmology that were once deemed fundamental truths.

Their breakthroughs reshaped science's understanding of the nature and structure of the universe. Their work, and that of other important cosmologists, not only provided new explanations of the universe but also raised seemingly paradoxical questions. Did the vast variety and mass of matter that make up the cosmos evolve from nothing but energy? If so, where did the energy that created all of the matter in the universe come from? The history of cosmology is a detective story in which each discovery leads to even more puzzles. Yet each step brings scientists closer to cosmology's ultimate goal—a single theory that takes into account all the forces shaping the universe.

Stephen Hawking is one of the great contemporary physicists working in the area of cosmology. In many ways he stands on the shoulders of his predecessors Albert Einstein and Edwin Hubble. Einstein is most famous for his general theory of relativity and the equation $E=mc^2$. Published in 1915, it proposed a new way to look at gravity and the operations of the universe on a large scale in relation to space and time. Working from Einstein's theory, Edwin Hubble arrived at the conclusion that at some point in space and time there was a physical beginning to the universe, the "Big Bang," and that the universe has been expanding ever since.

Scientists generally agree on the Big Bang origin of the universe as we see it today. Fifteen billion years ago there was a momentous event whose nature is uncertain, and the details remain murky. Recently, new theories in relativity and quantum mechanics have been proposed that seem to shed light on these earliest times. The physicist generally credited with bridging the gap between these new theories and the earlier work of Einstein and Hubble is Steven Hawking.

Stephen Hawking was born January 8, 1942, in Oxford, England. He was drawn to cosmology, he has said, because it asked "the really big question: where did the Universe come from?" In 1971, he provided mathematical support for the Big Bang theory of the origin of the universe. While studying at Cambridge, Hawking developed amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, more commonly known as Lou Gehrig's disease. The illness attacks and disables skeletal muscles and affects such basic functions as speech and swallowing. Today Hawking depends on a motorized wheelchair for mobility and, because a tracheotomy injured his vocal chords, he "speaks" through a voice-processing program that responds to words he keys into a specialized portable computer.

Source: "Stephen Hawking's Universe," PBS Online, http://www.pbs.org/wnet/hawking/html/home.html.

A Short History of the Space Program

The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), which was established in 1958, is the agency responsible for the public space program of the United States. It is also responsible for long-term civilian and military aerospace research. Following the success of the Mercury and Gemini programs in the early 1960s, the Apollo program was launched to try to do interesting work in space and possibly put humans around (but not on) the moon. The direction of the Apollo program was radically altered following President John F. Kennedy's announcement on May 25, 1961, that the US should commit itself to "landing a man on the moon and returning him safely to the Earth" by 1970. Thus, Apollo became a program to land humans on the moon. The Gemini program was started shortly thereafter to provide an interim spacecraft to prove techniques needed for the now more complicated *Apollo* missions.

After eight years of preliminary missions, including NASA's first loss of astronauts with the *Apollo 1* launch-pad fire, the program achieved its goals with *Apollo 11*. The spacecraft landed Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin on the moon's surface on July 20, 1969, and returned them to earth safely on July 24. Armstrong's first words upon stepping out of the *Eagle* lander captured the momentousness of the occasion: "That's one small step for [a] man, one giant leap for mankind." Twelve men set foot on the moon by the end of the Apollo program in December 1972. NASA had won the moon race with the USSR, and in some ways this left it without direction, or at the very least without the public attention and interest necessary to guarantee large budgets from Congress.

Plans for ambitious follow-on projects to construct a space station, establish a lunar base, and launch a human mission to Mars by 1990 were proposed, but with the end to procurement of *Saturn* and *Apollo* hardware there was no capability to support these plans. The near-disaster of *Apollo 13,* where an oxygen explosion nearly doomed all three astronauts, helped to recapture attention and concern. But although missions up to *Apollo 20* were planned, *Apollo 17* was the last mission to fly under that program's banner. The program ended because of budget cuts (in part due to the Vietnam War) and the desire to develop a reusable space vehicle.

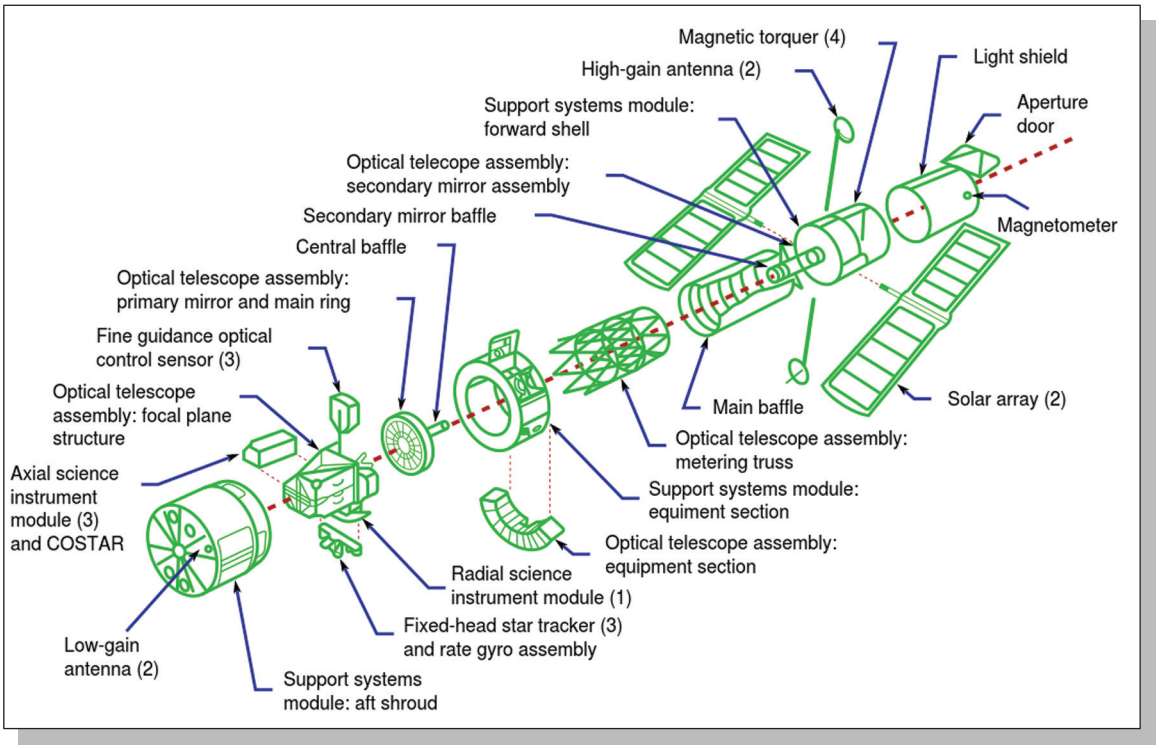
The space shuttle became the major focus of NASA in the late 1970s and the 1980s. Planned to be a frequently launchable and mostly reusable vehicle, four space shuttles were built by 1985. The first to launch, *Columbia*, did so on April 12, 1981. The shuttle was not all good news for NASA: flights were much more expensive than initially projected. After the 1986 *Challenger* disaster highlighted the risks of space flight, the public again lost interest. Nonetheless, the shuttle has been used to launch milestone projects like the Hubble Space Telescope (HST). The HST was created with a relatively small budget of $2 billion but has continued to operate since 1990 and has delighted both scientists and the public. Some of the images it has returned have become near-legendary, such as the groundbreaking Hubble Deep Field images. The HST is a joint project between NASA and the European Space Agency (ESA), spearheaded by Russia. Its success has paved the way for greater collaboration between the agencies.

In 1995, Russian-American collaboration was again achieved as the Shuttle-Mir missions began. Once more, a Russian craft (this time a full-fledged space station) docked with an American vehicle. This cooperation continues to the present day, with Russia and America the two biggest partners in the International Space Station (ISS), the largest space station ever built. The strength of their cooperation was even more evident when NASA began relying on Russian launch vehicles to service the ISS following the 2003 *Columbia* disaster, which grounded the shuttle fleet for more than two years.

Costing over one hundred billion dollars, the ISS has at times been difficult for NASA to justify. The population at large has historically been hard to impress with details of scientific experiments in space, preferring news of grand achievements. Even now, the ISS cannot accommodate as many scientists as planned. During much of the 1990s, NASA was faced with shrinking annual budgets. In response, NASA's ninth administrator, Daniel S. Goldin, pioneered the "faster, better, cheaper" approach that enabled NASA to cut costs while still delivering a wide variety of aerospace programs (Discovery Program). That method was criticized and re- evaluated following the twin losses of the Mars climate orbiter and the Mars polar lander in 1999.

The Space Shuttle program has continued to be plagued with problems. A piece of debris broke off the external fuel tank on *Discovery* upon its July 26, 2005 launch. A similar problem is blamed for setting off the chain of events that led to *Columbia*'s disintegration in 2003. NASA announced on July 27 that the shuttle fleet would be grounded until investigations were completed and the problem of foam debris solved. NASA sent a mission to service the telescope in October 2008, the last repair mission envisioned.

Source: NASA, The Hubble Space Telescope, http://hubble.nasa.gov/missions/intro.php; "Space Shuttle," Wikipedia, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Space_shuttle.



Exploded diagram of the Hubble Space Telescope

LESSON 5

The World Is Flat

Preparation

Have students brainstorm a list of the five biggest challenges facing the US today. List the challenges on the board and briefly discuss.

Introduction

Explain to students that many people believe the greatest challenge facing the US is the economic challenge of globalization. Discuss the meaning of globalization. (It is a term used to describe the changes in societies and the world economy that result from dramatically increased international trade and cultural exchange. It describes the increase of trade and investing due to the falling of barriers and the interdependence of countries.)

Introduce Thomas Friedman's *The World Is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty-First Century*. The book focuses on how technological advances have recently affected globalization by leveling the economic playing field for many areas of the world. Have students read Student Handout 5.5.1 and discuss.

Activities

Assign students to work in groups to analyze one of Friedman's ten flatteners. Each group should research its flattener by collecting, evaluating, and employing information from multiple sources. Some flatteners work better than others. In particular, Friedman's definition of "insourcing" (flattener 8) is at odds with some other definitions of the term.

Students should continue work on their "Advances in Science and Technology" timeline, including Friedman's ten flatteners.

Assessment

You may want to give students the option of presenting their information in a variety of formats. Oral presentations might be done as simple reports or as a skit or other dramatic recreation of the events. Individuals should be responsible for brief written reports that feature analysis, solid documentation, and accuracy.

Source: Thomas L. Friedman, *The World Is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty-First Century* (New York: Farrar, Straus, and Giroux, 2005).

The World Is Flat

The World Is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty-First Century by Thomas L. Friedman analyzes the progress of globalization in the early twenty-first century. His central theme is the "flattening" of the world, a metaphor for the global leveling of competition and capability through globalization. The author analyzes how accelerated change is made possible by technological advances like cell phones, the Internet, open source software, and so on. He emphasizes the inevitability of a rapid pace of change and the ways in which emerging abilities of individuals and developing countries (like China and India) are creating many pressures on businesses and individuals in the US. In the book, Friedman identifies ten forces that have "flattened" the world. Below is a listing of the ten flatteners and the ways in which each has helped to flatten the world.

1. 1989. The fall of the Berlin Wall unlocked the economic potential of millions of people who had been stymied by the state-controlled economies characteristic of the communist political system.

2. 1995. The first true Internet browser, Netscape, offered its shares to the public. The excitement of this innovation led to the rapid growth of the Internet. Perhaps most importantly, it led to the massive investment in technology, known as the dot-com stock bubble, that brought massive investment in the fiber-optic cable needed to carry all the digital information.

3. Late 1990s. Work flow software was created to maximize computer use. In particular, software called transmissions protocols was developed to allow people to connect software programs together.

4. Late 1990s. The open source movement began with software creators whose source code was made freely available, end-users having various degrees of rights to modify and redistribute the software, as well as the right to use the software for commercial purposes. It has made software and information freely available to people around the world and, in the process, leveled the playing field.

5. Late 1980s. Outsourcing is the contracting-out of jobs from internal production to an external entity. It also implies transferring jobs to another country or building a facility in an area where labor is cheap. While it originally referred to manufacturing jobs, it increasingly includes more high technology jobs.

6. Late 1980s. Offshoring is the relocation of business processes to a lower cost location, usually in a different country from where the business is headquartered.

7. Early 1990s. Supply chaining refers to creating a network of facilities and distribution options that buys materials, transforms them into intermediate and finished products, and then distributes the finished products to customers. Friedman sees Wal-Mart as the most efficient company at improving its supply chain.

8. Early 1990s. According to Friedman, insourcing is when a business takes over certain unwanted functions of a corporation (like UPS does for transportation) and sells the corporation this service so that both companies profit.

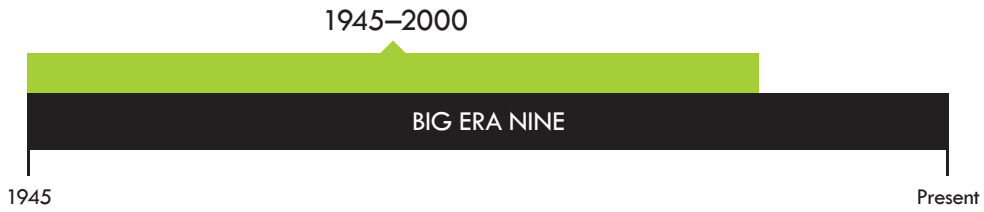
9. Mid-1990s. Friedman calls in-forming the search engines like Google that allow masses of people to find out an unlimited amount of information about many things.

10. Late 1990s. "Steroids" is the term Friedman uses to describe wireless technologies, like cell phones, personal digital assistants (PDAs), etc., that amplify all the other flatteners.

CHAPTER 6

By Lori D. Shaller

Population Explosion and Environmental Change



WHY STUDY POPULATION AND THE ENVIRONMENT?

What were the consequences to the natural environment from exponential population and economic growth that were set in motion in the first half of the century and peaking in the second half?

In this chapter, students will investigate the effects on the global natural environment of population increase, shifting land and water priorities, and energy use in the second half of the twentieth century. They will also investigate these same factors and outcomes for their local areas. Students will consider the various ways in which their own lifestyles can be altered to live more sustainably, as they investigate citizens' and governmental groups working in their area on such issues as land and habitat conservation; locally grown, sustainable food sources; and sustainable energy initiatives.

OBJECTIVES

Upon completing this chapter, students will be able to:

1. Interpret charts and graphs to use as evidence of environmental change.

2. Construct diagrams or models showing the relationship between the historical data and their contemporary communities.
3. Analyze possible relationships between economic growth and environmental sustainability in the second half of the twentieth century.
4. Analyze possible relationships between economic development and environmental costs.
5. Explain examples of effects of human action in the period on the global environment.

TIME AND MATERIALS

This chapter should take five to six class periods, with homework.

Materials:

- Large floor maps of the world and of the students' local area. (See Lesson 1 for additional materials needed for this activity.)
- Drawing paper and pencils, colored pencils and markers (or paint and brushes), cardboard, glue, string, metal fasteners, and other model construction supplies teachers may wish to use.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The years 1950–2000 saw a nearly threefold increase in the world's population, from 2.5 billion to 6.1 billion people. This enormous demographic change can be seen as the factor largely responsible for the global environmental history of that half-century. Increased birth rates and age expectancies, improved medicines, and astonishingly increased farm yields meant that more people were living, and living longer. The period was also one of drastically increased wealth globally. The increases in both population and wealth—even as millions more people than ever fell into the depths of poverty—resulted in the reality we face today: for so many to live as well as they do, all of humanity can no longer be fully sustained on the earth's resources.

Late twentieth-century environmental history is an intricate web of interconnected factors and conditions. Unraveling the tangle to see the individual constituents that form the web is helpful in understanding the larger structure. Each of the following sections will be connected to the others at various points: demographics, land and water use, energy, international movements and cooperation, and economics and politics.

Population

Thirteen percent of all humans that ever lived have lived between 1950 and 2000.[1] The populations of Asia doubled, Latin America tripled, and Africa almost quadrupled. Taken together, Europe's and North America's populations tripled.[2] Increased food production was made possible by the increased use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides, as well as more irrigation and astronomic amounts of petrol, the latter being used not only in food production but

1 John R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 8.

2 Ibid., 271.

also in its distribution and storage. Increasingly over the period, however, there was not enough farming globally to meet food demands, due to changes in land and water use and loss of farm land to accommodate increased population.[3] By 1998, almost half of the world's population lived in urban areas. In 1990, urban populations accounted for as much as 75 percent of total US and 78 percent of total European populations.[4]

Land and Water Use

Between 1950 and 1990, the amount of land under cultivation grew to be one third of the earth's land cover, and it was able to feed an extra 4 billion people. Since land was limited, the focus was on getting greater yields out of the same amount of land under cultivation. This was done with fertilizers, pesticides, specialization (growing fewer types of crops) and the development of genetically engineered and virally resistant grains. Nineteen ninety-eight, however, was the first year in which using more fertilizer to grow more food did not increase crop yields.[5] While there was less and less land available worldwide for cultivation, the land under cultivation was increasingly reaching its limits, with soil erosion and compaction also eating into yields.

There was an intensification of fossil fuel use for producing food in this period. It was taking one calorie of energy for every calorie of food produced, including the fuel that went into the fertilizer, powered the farm machinery, got the food to market, and kept it fresh. Moreover, the chemicals in the soil and the runoff into fresh water supplies were beginning to make people sick.

Amounts of forest and woodland also dropped in the period, each giving way to urban sprawl, but grassland and desert land covers increased. Because of the enormous growth in the number of grazing animals in the period, increased amounts of land were needed for grazing. And increasingly over the half century, this put people in conflict with one another. For example, in Sudan, where the Sahara creeps inches farther south every year, northern herders have been encroaching on southern farmers' lands, resulting in a horrible war affecting the civilian population.

Similar conflicts over water use have increased over the last fifty years. Increased irrigation, another boon to crop yields, meant the rerouting and damming of rivers and the using-up of aquifers faster than they were being replenished. Water was also being lost to contamination from both agricultural and industrial run-off or dumping and to increased levels of evaporation due to rising global temperatures. Lake Chad has decreased 96 percent in the last forty years, and the Aral Sea, having lost two-thirds of its volume and fifteen meters of its depth, became two seas in the same period. Each of these bodies supplies water to multiple nations and millions of people. Half the lakes in Qinhai Province in China have disappeared in the last twenty years, as did 969 of 1,052 lakes in Hebei Province surrounding Beijing.[6]

The contamination of the world's oceans, rising global temperatures, over-fishing, and the dwindling of new ocean fishing grounds, accounted for the collapse of more than

3 Lester R. Brown, *Plan B 3.0: Mobilizing to Save Civilization* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2008), 117.
4 McNeill, *Something New*, 283.
5 Ibid., 213; Brown, *Plan B 3.0,* 176.
6 Brown, *Plan B 3.0,* 68; McNeill, *Something New*, 164.

two-thirds of the world's fisheries by the last decade in the period.[7] Species are being lost as water temperatures rise. Those species most adaptable are nosing out local fish as the former expand their ranges. As poor countries sell their coastal fishing rights to richer countries, these fisheries are also being used up with the added problems of lost lease revenues and fish supplies.[8]

Sources: Lester R. Brown, *Plan B 3.0: Mobilizing to Save Civilization* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2008), 74, 118.

John R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 30, 35, 47, 154, 180, 213, 264.

Michael Pollan, *The Omnivore's Dilemma* (New York: Penguin Books, 2006), 45.

Energy

Demand for energy increased exponentially in the period owing to the enormous population increase, a huge increase in the world Gross Domestic Product, and technological innovation. As David Christian has written,

> Total human energy consumption multiplied many more times in the twentieth century than in all of previous human history. At the end of the twentieth century, the total amount of energy consumed by humans may have been 60,000 to 90,000 times that used by humans early in the Neolithic Period. As a result of these changes, human societies became, in the twentieth century, a major force acting on the biosphere.

Source: David Christian, *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2005), 459.

Indeed, "at any given time after 1970, about five gallons of oil were in transit at sea for every man, woman, and child on the face of the earth."[9]

There was a shift in the uses of energy midway through the period as well. Whereas agriculture accounted for most energy use earlier in the period, electrical generators accounted for more use later in the period.

Energy demands for transportation also increased, with more people driving greater distances and more vehicles occupying the roads. Between 1948 and 1973 and again after 1984, oil prices dropped and more uses were found for it, for example, in plastics manufacture.[10] Even so, refrigeration accounts for the single greatest consumer use of energy. Global oil prices are tied to global grain prices; if oil is cheap, so is food, and vice versa.[11] One-fifth of the petrol used in the US today is to bring food to market.[12] Both agriculture and energy production are subsidized in rich countries, making for inequalities in ability to enter world markets for poor countries that do not use subsidies.

7 McNeill, *Something New*, 250; Brown, *Plan B 3.0,* 97.
8 Brown, *Plan B 3.0,* 99, 146. Brown also notes the leasing of waters by poor countries to the richer nations for garbage dumping.
9 McNeill, *Something New*, 304.
10 Ibid, 305.
11 Ibid., 38.
12 Pollan, *Omnivore's Dilemma,* 83.

The results of the use of coal and fossil fuels have been harmful to both the earth's land and water. For example, the coal burned in Britain damages Norway's thin soils; China's air pollution affects Japan's air quality. The release of toxic chemicals into the air, such as sulfur from coal burning and chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) from the burning of fossil fuels, has created unsurpassed climatological change, four times what it was in 1950.[13] This has meant rising seas, which will eventually mean mass migrations of coastal- and island-living peoples. Between 1989 and 2000, Mt. Kilimanjaro lost 33 percent of its ice cap, resulting in local rivers becoming seasonal. Warmer seas will also mean the loss of additional fish species.[14]

Sources: Vaclav Smil, *Energy in World History* (Boulder: Westview Press, 1994), 230.

Brown, *Plan B 3.0*, 36, 48, 146, 228.

McNeill, *Something New* , 60, 99, 103.

International Agreements and Cooperation

Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring*, a watershed book on pesticides published in 1962, changed forever humans' attitudes toward the environment and their relationship to it. In 1970, 20 million Americans came out to celebrate Earth Day, and in 1990, 200 million people in 140 countries celebrated the earth.[15] In 1971, the UN started the Man and the Biosphere research program, "and by 1990 most rich countries had global-change science programs. Taken together, by 1998 these amounted to the largest research program in world history."[16]

The western nations, led by the US, were the major signers of the Montreal Protocol on Chlorofluorocarbons in 1987, whose amounts in the atmosphere have dropped 60 percent since their peak in 1988.[17] And then there was the Earth Summit in Rio in 1992, which demonstrated the intractability of some nations on some issues, making international agreements difficult to organize. Yet citizens' environmental groups grew, as evidenced by the burgeoning Green Parties in Europe and actions such as those in Japan where, in the 1960s, citizens succeeded in winning damages and legislative changes to guarantee an end to industrial pollution. Lester Brown suggests that this was unprecedented before there had been experiences of international cooperation.[18]

Economics and Politics

The strength of the global economy—unprecedented growth to the tune of a twenty fold increase between the beginning and end of the century—created demand for goods ever further away. For example, wealthy Americans' taste for beef has meant the loss of increasing amounts of forest to grazing land, notably in the Amazon basin. World Gross Domestic Product per capita was $100 in 1500 CE, $2,238 in 1950, and $11,664 in 1992.[19] Economic growth helped take people out of poverty in places such as China. But economic growth also caused serious

13 Brown, *Plan B 3.0,* 50.
14 Brown, *Plan B 3.0*, 55.
15 McNeill, *Something New,* 339.
16 Ibid., 340.
17 Ibid., 354.
18 Brown, *Plan B 3.0,* 352.
19 McNeill, *Something New,* 6.

global environmental problems. "While the economy is growing exponentially, the earth's natural capacities, such as its ability to supply fresh water, forest products, and seafood, have not increased . . . Today, global demands on natural systems exceed their sustainable yield capacity by an estimated 25 percent."[20] Some suggest that our future as a species, and the earth's future as well, depend on a new way of understanding economics and politics with respect to the environment. Lester Brown suggests that taxing the costs of pollution, resource depletion, and energy consumption involved in producing goods would help to pay for the clean-up that is needed immediately.[21] Similarly, David Christian suggests the following:

> If environmental constraints do not bring the capitalist world system crashing down—if, instead, it manages to find new markets by selling to the poor as well as to the rich, by seeking profits in ecologically sustainable production, and by trading more in services and information than in materials—then we can envisage further transformations generated by technologies we can only glimpse at present.
>
> Source: David Christian, *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2005), 483.

Politically, conflict zones exist in pockets throughout the world, and some of the battles have become more severe as natural resources are more heavily taxed. The aforementioned issues of the loss of fresh water sources and changing demands on the land account for many of the violent conflicts in play today.

Sources: Brown, *Plan B 3.0,* 118, 131, 320.
McNeill, *Something New*, 7.

THREE ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Humans and the Environment

Since the middle of the twentieth century, have human exploitation and management of the natural environment been more beneficial than destructive to the planet and its life forms, or the other way around? What criteria would you develop to answer this question?

Humans and Other Humans

List five specific human-generated events since 1940 that you think caused significant change to the natural or physical environment on a large regional or a global scale. What factors did you consider in selecting your events? Why do you think your choices had a significant impact on the natural or physical environment? Was the impact short-term, long-term, or both?

20 McNeill, *Something New*, 11.
21 Ibid., 7.

Humans and Ideas

David Christian has written: "In the course of the twentieth century, human beings have caused changes so decisive, so rapid, and so vast in their scale that they force us to see human history, once again, as an integral part of the history of the biosphere" (*Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History*, 462). Consider these questions:

- Is the history of human relationship to the environment basic to understanding all other history—political, social, cultural, and so on?
- Might humans look back a hundred years from now and conclude that environmental change was the single most important development of the twentieth century?

KEY THEMES

This chapter addresses the following historical themes:

Key Theme 1: Patterns of Population

Key Theme 7: Science, Technology, and the Environment

CORRELATIONS TO NATIONAL HISTORY STANDARDS

National Standards for World History

Era 9: The Twentieth Century since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes. 2A: The student understands how population explosion and environmental change have altered conditions of life around the world.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Adams, F. Gerard. *Globalization, Today and Tomorrow*. New York: Routledge, 2011.

Brown, Cynthia Stokes. *Big History: From the Big Bang to the Present*. New York: New Press, 2007. The author sets the history of humankind within the environmental context, not only of the earth but of the entire cosmos as well.

Burke, Edmund III, and Kenneth Pomeranz. *The Environment and World History*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 2009. This volume includes eleven essays by eight scholars on issues of environmental change from ancient times to today.

Castles, Stephen, and Mark J. Miller. *The Age of Migration: International Population Movements in the Modern World*. 4th ed. New York: Guilford Press, 1993.

Christian, David. *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 2004.

McNeill, J. R. *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World.* New York: W. W. Norton, 2000. The major comprehensive text on this topic.

Penna, Anthony N. *The Human Footprint: A Global Environmental History.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell, 2009. One of the first environmental histories to embrace the entire world and all of human history.

Radkau, Joachim. *Nature and Power: A Global History of the Environment*. Translated by Thomas Dunlap. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2008.

Smil, Vaclav. *Energy in World History.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1994.

Turner, Billie L. II, William C. Clark, Robert W. Kates, John F. Richards, Jessica T. Mathews, and William B. Meyer, eds. *The Earth as Transformed by Human Action: Global and Regional Changes in the Biosphere over the Past Three Hundred Years.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990. This collection of essays covers topics from population and migration to technology and chemicals, as well as covering changes in the atmosphere, hydrosphere, and biosphere of the earth.

LESSON 1

Think Globally: Mapping Environmental Change in the Last Half Century

Introduction

This lesson is intended to have students "create" and "witness" the impact of an additional four billion people inhabiting the planet, with global wealth increasing exponentially. Students will interpret and analyze graphs, charts, and quotations to understand the effects of human action on the environment in the second half of the twentieth century. This lesson can be used alone or as the first one in the chapter.

Preparation

Teachers should use the largest laminated map of the world they can get and be able to lay it out on the floor or over desks in the classroom. This activity will also require dry-erase markers and the following materials:

- Several boxes of Cheerios=people
- Pine needles, acorns, leaves=forest and woodland cover
- Small twigs=range land
- Grass=grassland
- Sand=desert

Prepare copies of Student Handout 6.1.1, figures 1–15, which includes data the students will need to do the activities in Lesson 1.

Activities

1. Give students time to read the data presented in Student Handout 6.1.1. This may be done as homework the night before. You may also choose to have students read the "Historical Context" essay for this chapter.
2. Have students arrange themselves around the map with the Cheerios, pine needles, sand, and other materials. Have them use a dry-erase marker to draw circles around large urban areas. Then, have them place the Cheerios on the map in populated areas, more in city areas, as per the year 1950. Have the students arrange the greenery and sand for the approximate year 1950.

3. Do this again and again for each of the ten-year increments through the year 2000. After each decade, ask students what they notice and what kinds of implications there may be for what they notice. For example, if more people are taking up more cropland, what does that mean for food cultivation? If cities are expanding into cropland, what kinds of effects could be expected in terms of pollution and the distances it travels? Have students refer to the tables and charts in Student Handout 6.1.1 to inform their suppositions. Write these down.
4. Have students complete Student Handout 6.1.2 and discuss as a class.
5. Have students complete the activities in Student Handout 6.1.3.

Figure 1

World Gross Domestic Product 1950–1992

Year	World GDP
1950	2,238
1973	6,693
1992	11,664

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 6. These are index numbers relative to 1500, index number 100.

Figure 2

World per Capita Gross Domestic Product 1950–1992

Year	Per Capita World GDP (1990 dollars)	Index Numbers (1500 CE = 100 World GDP)
1950	2,138	378
1992	5,145	942

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 7.

Figure 3

"Technological changes are what made it possible to support such huge populations."

—David Christian, *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2005), 442.

World Energy Use 1900–1990

Year	Total (millions of metric tons of oil equivalent)	Index Numbers (1900 = 100)
1900	800	100
1990	10,000	1,250

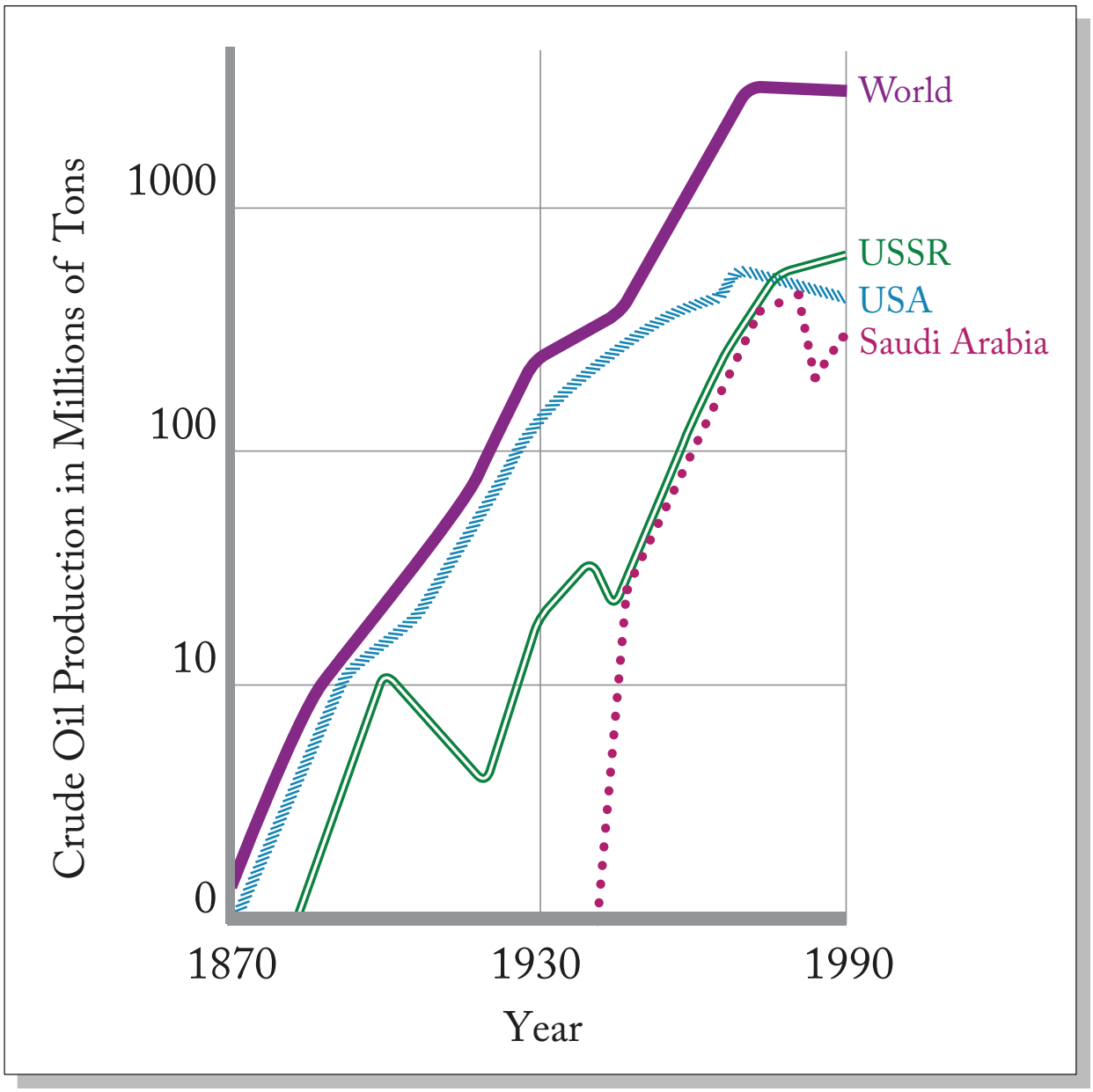
Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 15.

Figure 4

"Technological changes are what made it possible to support such huge populations."

—David Christian, *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2005), 442.

Crude Oil Production 1900–1950

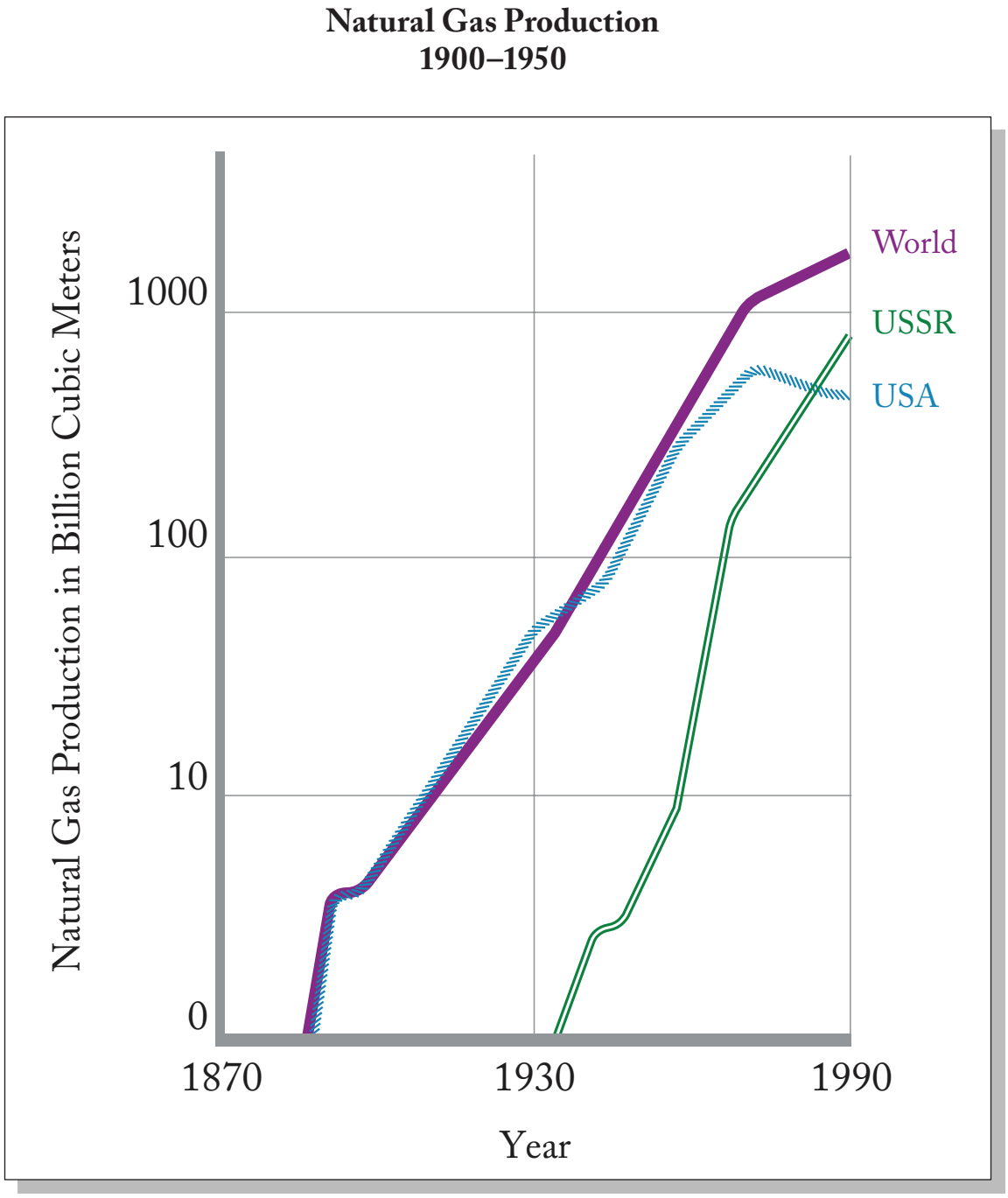


Source: Adapted from Vaclav Smil, *Energy in World History* (Boulder: Westview Press, 1994), 186.

Figure 5

"Technological changes are what made it possible to support such huge populations."

—David Christian, *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2005), 442.

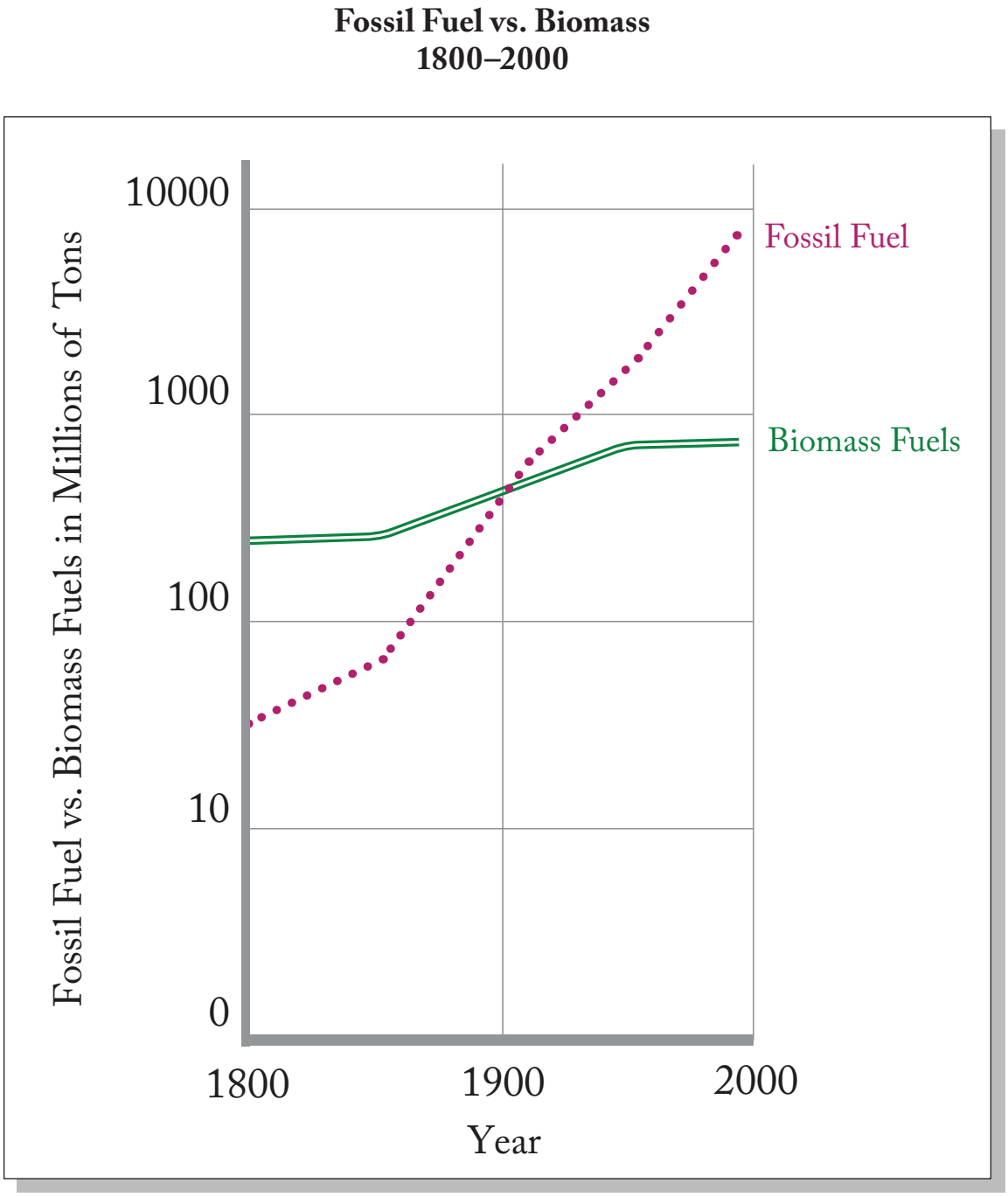


Source: Adapted from Vaclav Smil, *Energy in World History* (Boulder: Westview Press, 1994), 186.

Figure 6

"Technological changes are what made it possible to support such huge populations."

—David Christian, *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2005), 442.



Source: Adapted from Vaclav Smil, *Energy in World History* (Boulder: Westview Press, 1994), 187.

Figure 7

Estimated Fresh Water Uses 1950–2000

Year	Withdrawals (km 3)	Withdrawals (per capita)	Irrigation %	Industry %	Municipal %
1950	1,360	0.54	83	13	4
1970	2,590	0.70	72	22	5
1990	4,130	0.78	66	24	8
2000*	5,190	0.87	64	25	9

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 121.

* Numbers were projected at the time of the publication of the above source.

Figure 8

Approximate Global Vegetation Cover 1950–1990

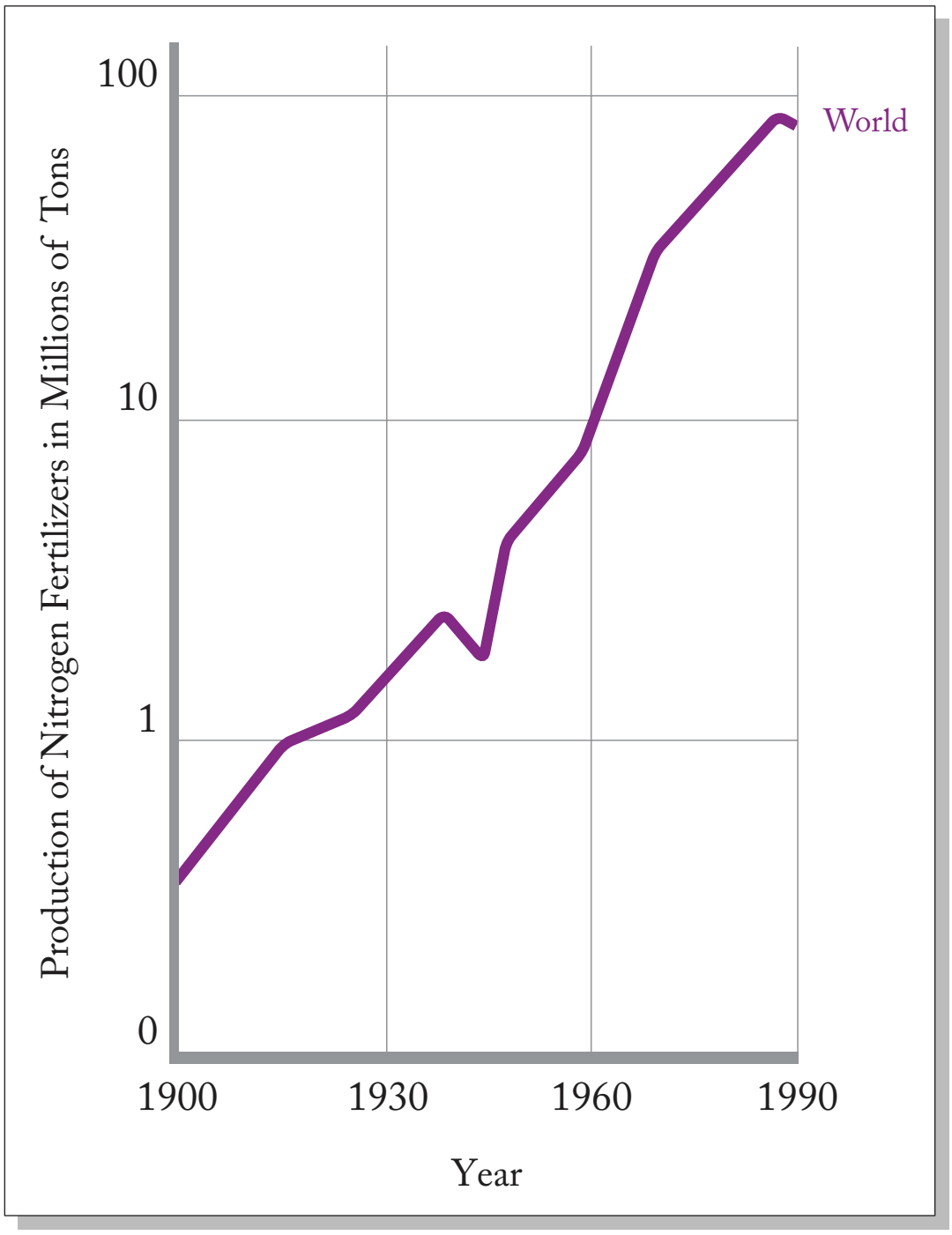
(Types of land cover in million square kilometers)

Year	Forest and Woodland	Grassland	Pasture	Cropland
1950	54	45	23	11.7
1960	53	41	27	12.8
1970	51	38	30	13.9
1980	51	35	33	15.0
1990	48	36	34	15.2

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 213.

Figure 9

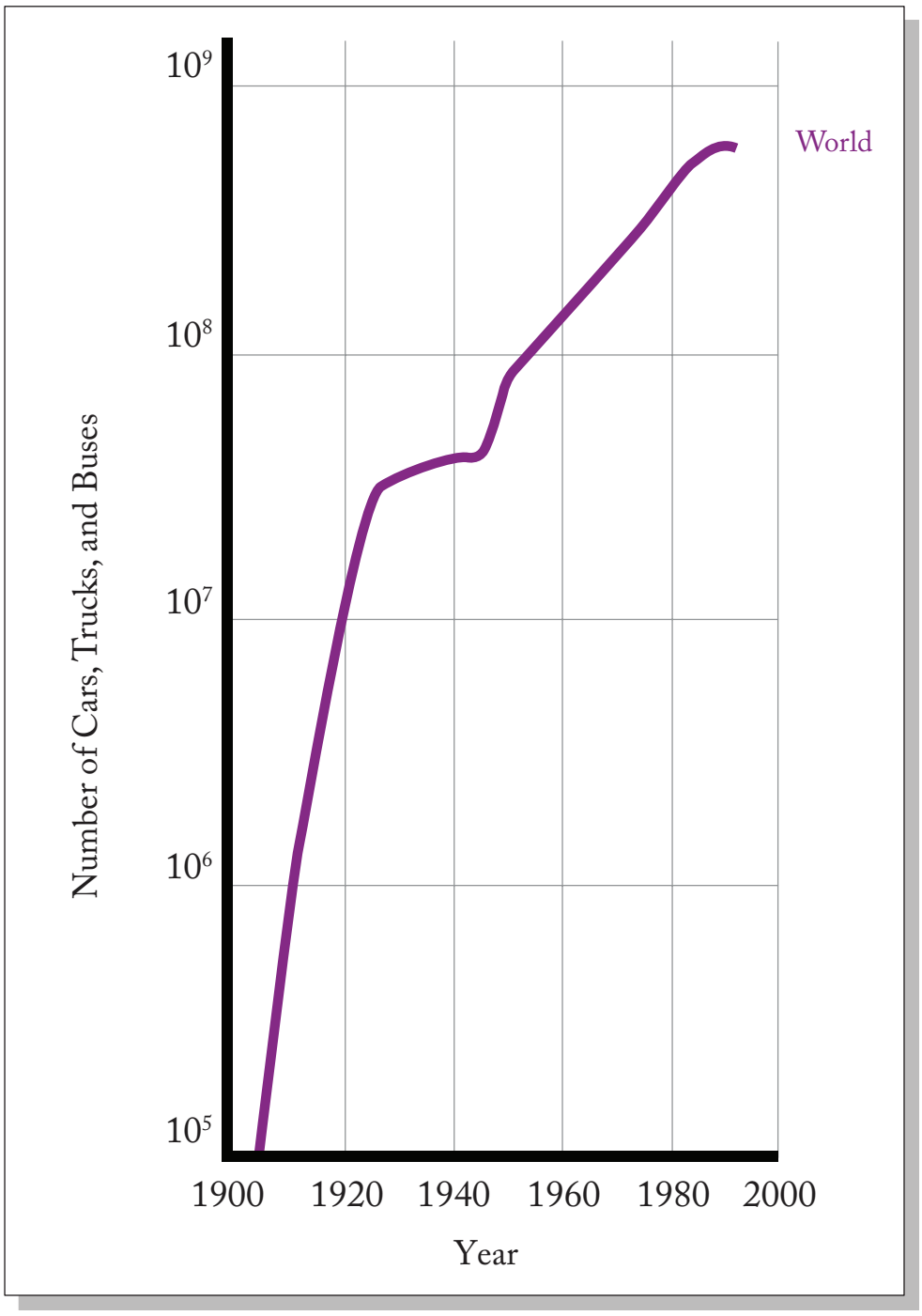
Production of Nitrogen Fertilizers
1900–1990



Source: Adapted from Vaclav Smil, *Energy in World History* (Boulder: Westview Press, 1994), 183.

Figure 10

Number of Cars, Trucks, and Buses
1900–2000



Source: Adapted from Vaclav Smil, *Energy in World History* (Boulder: Westview Press, 1994), 199.

Figure 11

Global Fish Catch 1900–1958 (in million metric tons)

Year	Marine Catch	Inland Catch	Aquaculture	Total
1950	15			
1958	29			
1961–1963	33			
1970–1972	51			
1985–1987	68	6	9	83
1988–1990	71	6	12	89
1991–1993	68	6	15	89
1994–1996	74	7	21	101

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 247.

Figure 12

Global Livestock Population 1950–1990 (in millions of heads)

Year	Cattle	Sheep	Goats	Pigs	Horses	Poultry
1950	644	631	187	300	69	1,372
1970	1,016	1,001	325	634	81	2,734
1990	1,294	1,216	587	856	61	10,770
% Increase 1890–1990	406	342	1,129	951	119	1,525

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton), 20.

Figure 13

"In the period 1850 to 1950, the populations of Africa, Asia, and Europe roughly doubled. Meanwhile numbers in the Americas, Australia, and Oceania grew much faster, five- or sixfold in 100 years."

—J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: Norton, 2000), 271–2.

Population by Region 1950–1996 (in millions)

	1950	1996
Asia	1,386	3,501
Europe	576	728
Africa	206	732
North America	167	295
Central and South America	162	486
Australia and Oceania	13	29

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 271.

Figure 14

"In the period 1850 to 1950, the populations of Africa, Asia, and Europe roughly doubled. Meanwhile numbers in the Americas, Australia, and Oceania grew much faster, five- or sixfold in 100 years."

—J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: Norton, 2000), 271–2.

Urban Population Proportions by Region 1950–1990
(in percent of total population)

	1950	1970	1990
United States	64	70	75
Japan	56	71	77
Western Europe	63	72	78
Latin America	41	57	71
USSR	39	57	66
Africa	15	23	34
China	11	17	33
South Asia	16	21	28
World	29	37	43

Source: Adapted from J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000), 283.

Figure 15

"In the period 1850 to 1950, the populations of Africa, Asia, and Europe roughly doubled. Meanwhile numbers in the Americas, Australia, and Oceania grew much faster, five- or sixfold in 100 years."

J. R. McNeill, *Something New under the Sun: An Environmental History of the Twentieth-Century World* (New York: Norton, 2000), 271–2.

World Population 1950–2000
(in billions)

Year	Billions
1950	2.515
1960	3.019
1970	3.698
1980	4.450
1990	5.292
2000	6.100

Sources: David Christian, *Maps of Time: An Introduction to Big History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2004), 443.

Robert W. Kates, Billie L. Turner, II, and William C. Clark, "The Great Transformation," in Billie L. Turner II, et al., eds., *The Earth as Transformed by Human Action: Global and Regional Changes in the Biosphere over the Past 300 Years* (Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 1990), 1.

Question Sheet

1. What do you notice as each billion humans is added to the earth's surface?

2. What kinds of direct human actions contributed negatively to the natural environment?

3. How do you think more wealth contributed to both the choices and the effects on the environment, in terms of use of natural resources and abuse of the natural environment?

4. What periods specifically would you call "tipping points" or points from which permanent change took place?

5. Attempt to calculate the amount of energy used and the cost to the environment of your favorite meal.

Performance Task and Assessment Rubric

Choose one area of global environmental impact, such as population increase, increased urbanization, reduced cropland, pollution at sea, or other. Construct an argument for an international cooperation action plan for either remedying the problem or preventing it from getting worse.

Find out what international agreements are already in place regarding the issue you choose and cite these in your argument.

Cite data from a variety of sources to support your argument.

Suggest leaders who would implement and oversee the plan and identify nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and citizens' groups with whom they would work.

Create a public service announcement and accompanying visual materials to explain your plan to the public.

Assessment Rubric

Awesome. The argument is based on a wide variety of data and is logically constructed. The action plan is creative. The public service announcement clearly and effectively explains the plan. It is artfully crafted.

Pretty darn good. The action plan is a good synopsis of the problem and a reasonable, if unoriginal, solution based on a variety of data. The public service announcement clearly and effectively explains the plan. It is neatly crafted.

Good enough. The action plan is based on limited data and presents a simple solution to the problem. The public service announcement is adequate and neatly crafted.

Not yet. Evidence is very limited. The proposal lacks clarity and depth. The public service announcement is incomplete or hard to understand.

LESSON 2

Act Locally: Planning for Sustainability

Introduction

Students will learn about their local natural environment. They will then investigate areas in which they can have an impact on sustainability and construct a personal plan for living more sustainably. A critical connection for students to make in this lesson is the effect of consumption on the environment.

Preparation

Teachers will need as large a laminated map of your local area as they can get, showing about fifty square miles. It does not matter if it is all farmland or mountain, all city blocks or suburbs. On it, draw roads and settled areas with buildings. Mark power plants and other utilities, as well as hospitals, schools, and other infrastructure.

Teachers will also need some statistical data of the local area that is comparable to the data given in Lesson 1 of this chapter on the global scale. This can be retrieved from town and state public records, as well as from the records of local conservation groups. If students have done the first lesson in this chapter, they will have a sense of how global population increase has affected land, water, and energy use in the last fifty years. However, their local area may not have been similarly affected. For example, they may be in an area that has been depopulated due to job loss.

Repeat the activity in Lesson 1 with the local area map, adding or removing Cheerios (people) and pine needles, leaves, and other materials to match the data.

After this activity, students will research an area critical to reducing or stabilizing population, reducing energy use, or increasing or stabilizing "green" space and clean water accessibility. Therefore, they will need to understand the environmental "big picture" in their area. Inviting a speaker to talk about conservation or alternative energy use would be a good addition to this chapter.

Materials

In addition to the big map, Cheerios, and plant matter (see Lesson 1 materials), students will need to create data charts for land use, population, energy use, etc., for their local area.

Procedure

Prepare students for the lesson by looking at the data gathered for them, either as homework or as the first activity in the lesson. Proceed as in Lesson 1, adding or taking away "people," "cropland," etc., for each decade for which data is available. Distribute Student Handout 6.2.1, with the Assessment Task and Scoring Rubric on it, and Student Handout 6.2.2. Give students one or two class periods to do their research and a period for presenting their findings.

Assessment

Performance Task

Based on the research on the global environment in the last fifty years and research on the natural environment where you live, construct a model plan to reduce energy and non-renewable resource use and to increase sustainable living. What is already being done? Investigate the organizations and citizens' groups in your area. What regulatory and legislative changes need to be made to implement your plan? How can you personally act to help your community?

It may be easiest to choose one area of focus, such as food production and distribution, energy sources and consumption, water pollution, etc. Or you may try to create an integrated plan that considers all of the environmental issues in your area.

Scoring Rubric

Awesome. The research is exhaustive and a wide variety of evidence is employed. The plan answers all of the questions above in detail and logically. The plan is original. The plan is presented to the local news media, the local government, and/or local environmental groups, as well as adopted by the student to whatever degree is feasible.

Pretty darn good. The research is thorough and a variety of evidence is employed. The plan logically answers all of the questions above in some detail. The plan presents some original ideas within the context of plans already in place in the area or elsewhere. The plan is adopted by the student to whatever degree is feasible.

Good enough. The research is limited, with some evidence employed. The plan logically answers the question of what is already being done and suggests a citizens' group or organization that does work in the area of the research. Some aspect of the plan is adopted by the student.

Not yet. Little or no evidence was employed. None of the above questions was answered. There is a recapitulation of a plan already in place. A citizens' group or organization is identified. The student does not know how to implement a piece of the plan in her/his own life.

Organizations and Groups that Work on Environmental Issues

Food Production and Distribution

- Community-sustained agricultural organizations
- Food cooperatives
- Slow food movement
- Anti-hunger initiatives
- Grange or agricultural societies
- Organic farming

Land and Water Conservation

Many of the groups listed here are national and have local chapters. All of the organizations listed below deal with land, and in some cases water, conservation issues.

- Land banks
- The Nature Conservancy
- The American Birding Association
- Audubon Society
- Sierra Club

Alternative Energy

- Energy cooperatives
- Wind farms
- Solar energy
- Plant fuel sources

LESSON 3

You Are What You Eat

Introduction

In this lesson, students are asked to calculate, roughly, the "real cost" of their favorite meal or individual food item. They are then asked to think about actions they could take to reduce the meal's real cost. In this lesson, "real cost" is the short-term cost of all of the components of production, distribution, and consumption of the food, as well as the long-term cost of the meal, considering the factors of loss of plant and animal habitat and species, use of non-renewable resources, air and water pollution, soil degradation, and loss of forest, crop, and pasture land.

This lesson could easily be done in groups instead of by individuals. Each student might research natural resource use and biological impact.

Students may not be able to research every component of a meal or even a single food item. The process of researching aims to a large extent to increase student awareness of environmental issues from a very personal perspective.

Materials

The teacher's facilitation of this research requires a good grounding in the resources available, to which students may be directed. Begin with the charts, graphs, and lists in Lesson 1 and then the resources in the list at the end of this chapter. Teachers will also need to help students to keep refining their lists, assumptions, and the conclusions toward which the data may be leading them. Creating charts for tracking data, resource lists, deadlines, work completion, and so on will also be important for particular students.

Preparation

Distribute Student Handout 6.3.1 and go over it carefully with the students. Because the pedagogy of the lesson is informed by the notion of student as either an inductive or a deductive thinker, it will be useful to help students assess this in themselves if they have not already done so.

Assessment Scoring Rubric

Awesome. You analyzed a meal. You researched using many sources, including the graphs and charts, monographs, government and NGO reports, print and electronic news media, and local experts. You answered all of the questions in depth showing clear analysis. Your assessment of what you would need to do to reduce the real cost of your favorite meal is based on the data and can be put into action.

Pretty Darn Good. You analyzed a meal or a food item. You researched using many sources, including the graphs and charts in Lesson 1, government and NGO reports, print and electronic news media, and a local expert. You answered most of the questions showing clear analysis. Your assessment of what you would need to do to reduce the real cost of your favorite meal or food is based on the data and can be put into action.

Good enough. You analyzed a food item. Your research included the graphs and charts in Lesson 1 and print and news media. You answered a few of the questions showing minimal analysis. Your assessment of what you would need to do to reduce the real cost of your favorite food is based on the data and can be put into action.

Not yet. You looked at an aspect or two of the real cost of a food item. Your research included the graphs and charts in Lesson 1. You answered an aspect of a few questions. Your assessment of what you would need to do to reduce the real cost of your favorite meal or food is simplistic and/or unrealistic.

The What, the Why, and the How

The task: Calculate the total real cost of your favorite meal or food. Then choose a course of action you can take to reduce the real cost of the meal or food.

Real cost: The total cost of production, distribution, and consumption, including short- and long-term consequences.

The why: There is action each of us can take individually and collectively to begin to reverse the damage that has been done to the earth's bio-, aqua-, and stratospheres. We need to start now.

The how: First, determine whether you are an inductive or a deductive thinker. Inductive thinkers go from part to whole; deductive thinkers go from whole to part.

Inductive thinkers: Start with your own energy expenditure—the amount of gas you need to use to go and get the meal. Then calculate the amount of energy used in your home to make the meal—the energy consumed in storing the food in your refrigerator until it is eaten, in making the food in the oven, on the stove, in the microwave, in disposing of the leftovers and trash. Next, find out how much energy the store used to keep the food, then how much the distributor used to get the food to the store. Next, calculate the total energy used to grow and manufacture the food. Finally, calculate the long-term effects on the environment, such as air and water pollution, plant and animal habitat loss, and so on. See Student Handout 6.3.3.

Deductive thinkers: Figure out the energy consumption of growing and manufacturing the food, then of the distribution of the food to the stores in which you buy it, then of getting it home, storing, and making it. Next figure out how much waste disposal there is from the meal: packaging that goes in the trash and ultimately into landfills, and water and air pollution. What are the long-term effects in terms of habitat loss?

Second, review the questions in Student Handout 6.3.2. Begin to note resources where you might find some of the information.

Third, review the materials you received for Lessons 1 and 2 of this chapter. Then visit some of the websites identified in Student Handout 6.3.3. Use links to other, useful websites you find there, and search in the print materials available on this topic. Be sure also to check with local experts, such as biologists, who work for local land banks or conservation organizations, as well as experts at food co-ops, farms, factories, and supermarkets. Once you have information on such items as the amount of oil and water used to produce the corn syrup or steak ingredient on your menu, you can begin to apply the same procedures to the other items. You may not be able to estimate down to the exact penny, gallon, or gram, but you can find good approximations of the real cost of your meal or food item.

Fourth, look at the list of possible actions on Student Handout 6.3.4. Consider the implications for choosing any of them and think of other possible actions that would achieve the desired goal: to reduce your impact on the environment by making different eating choices.

Questions to Guide Your Research

1. List all of the ingredients of your favorite meal or food item. Identify any ingredients that you are unfamiliar with.
2. What amount of energy do you expend to get them? Include: bringing home from the store, storing, cooking, and making and disposing of packaging and scraps.
    a. Your energy (gasoline) getting the food home
    b. The gas it took to get the food to the store (gasoline, oil, coal?)
    c. The energy to get the food to the processor
    d. The energy to produce the food, from the land/water and in manufacturing
3. What amount of energy is used in making and packaging the food?
    a. At the factories
    b. At your home: cooking—stove, oven, microwave, toaster oven; cleaning cooking utensils and dishes
    c. At the farms
4. What amount of energy is used in disposing of the meal's detritus?
    a. Dishwashing
    b. Trash removal and its destruction (incinerator? landfill? turned into compost?)
    c. Keeping leftovers—refrigerating or freezing
5. How far does the food travel to your table?
    a. Calculate miles from origin to home
    b. Multiply by dollars per gallon on the oil commodities exchange
6. How much oil, water, and other natural resources were used?
7. How long after and in what ways will the effects be felt?
    a. Plant and animal habitat loss
    b. Water and air pollution
    c. Effect of carbon dioxide on global climate change
    d. Desertification and deforestation
8. What would you need to do to reduce the meal's real costs? Brainstorm.

Resources

http://www.earth-policy.org/

This is your starting point where you should be able to find most of what you are looking for and from where you will be able to navigate.

http://www.350.org/

This is a site where you can take action to inform the public about what "350 parts per million" of carbon monoxide means for reversing the effects of climate change.

http://www.un.org/

Find documents such as the Kyoto Protocols and those mentioned in the introductory essay of this chapter.

Possible Actions

What would you need to do to reduce the total, real cost of your favorite meal or food item?

- Eat lower on the food chain—reduce meat and poultry, increase whole grains, legumes.
- Grow your own food.
- Preserve food—canning, salting, smoking.
- Participate in or help start a community garden, community-sustained agricultural group, food co-op.
- Only consume food produced in your region or within 250 miles from where you live.
- Choose where you can reduce portions of, if not complete, real cost.

Glossary

Afroeurasia: The land masses of Africa and Eurasia, together with adjacent islands, as a single spatial entity. The concept of Afroeurasia is useful in the study of both historical and contemporary social phenomena whose full geographical contexts overlap in one way or another the conventionally defined continents of Africa, Asia, and Europe. See also Afro-Eurasia.

agrarian society: A society where agriculture, including both crop production and animal breeding, is the foundation of both subsistence and surplus wealth. To be distinguished from hunter-forager and pastoral nomadic societies.

agriculture: The intentional cultivation of domesticated plants and animals. Beginning about 12,000 years ago, the development of agriculture permitted unprecedented growth of human population and the emergence of towns, cities, and the centralized state. Scholars generally agree that agricultural economies developed in several parts of Afroeurasia and the Americas independently of one another.

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome): A disease in which the immune system is weakened and less able to fight certain infections. AIDS is linked to the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV).

anti-Semitism: "Term coined in late nineteenth century that was associated with a prejudice against Jews and the political, social, and economic actions taken against them." Jerry Bentley and Herb Ziegler, *Traditions and Encounters: A Global Perspective on the Past,* 3rd ed., vol. 2 (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2006).

barter: The mutual transfer of goods or services not involving the exchange of money. Used as the common form of exchange before the invention of currency. The practice of bartering continues to one degree or another in all modern societies.

belief system: A combination of ideas, values, and practices that serve a society's cultural needs. Belief systems include all religions, as well as philosophical, ethical, and moral systems.

Big Bang theory: The cosmological theory that the universe began as an infinitesimally small, dense, and hot entity. About 13 billion years ago the universe began to expand and continues to expand today.

cartographer: A person who designs or constructs maps or charts.

cash crops: Crops grown for sale on the market rather than exclusively for local consumption and subsistence.

chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs): Industrial chemicals that have contributed to ozone depletion in the stratosphere.

civilization: See complex society.

clan: A form of social and political organization in which the fundamental principle of solidarity is kinship. Clans typically constitute two or more kinship groups within a tribe. Clan organization is common among pastoral nomadic and stateless societies.

Cold War: The ideological, political, and economic conflict and rivalry between the United States and its allies on one side and the Soviet Union and its supporters on the other side. Competition between the two alliances, which continued from the end of World War II in 1945 to the collapses of the Soviet Union in 1991, was carried on by strategies and tactics that did not involve sustained military conflict or, for the most part, the breaking of diplomatic relations.

colonialism: The systematic exercise of political and military authority of an intrusive group of foreign origin over the population of a given territory. Often involves the colonizer asserting social and cultural domination of the indigenous population.

complex society: A type of society characterized by all or most of the following features: dense population, agricultural economy, cities, complex social hierarchy, complex occupational specialization, centralized state, monumental building, a writing system, and a dominant belief system. To be distinquished generally from hunter-forager, pastoral nomadic, and small-scale agricultural societies. Civilization.

constitution: The fundamental laws, either written or unwritten, of a political body or state.

demography: The study of the size, growth, density, and other characteristics of human populations.

diaspora: The scattering of a people of distinct regional, ethnic, or religious identity from the original homeland to other parts of the world. A diaspora may result from either voluntary or forced migration. Examples include the Jewish diaspora and the dispersion of people of African descent to the Americas and other regions as a result of slave trade. See Commercial Diaspora.

DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid): The material inside the nucleus of a cell which carries genetic information for cellular reproduction.

ecology: The aspect of biology concerned with the relations between organisms and their environment.

El Niño (El Niño Southern Oscillation): The term describes both warming of the Pacific Ocean off Peru and Ecuador and the much more extensive interactions between sea and air that occur across the equatorial Pacific. An El Niño event involves warm changes in sea surface temperature combined with changes in sea level pressure across the tropical ocean. El Niño events typically last a year to eighteen months and may occur every few years. These events may bring torrential rains and floods to some regions of the world and prolonged droughts to others.

endemic: Prevalent in or peculiar to a certain area, region, or people, as an infectious disease.

entrepôt: A city whose commercial activity includes the transshipment or distribution of trade goods.

entrepreneur: An individual who organizes, runs, and takes responsibility of a business or other enterprise; a business person; an employer; from the French verb entreprendre, meaning "to undertake" some task.

epidemic: An outbreak of contagious disease affecting a significant portion of the population of a locality. See also Pandemic.

European Union: An institutional framework for achieving the economic, judicial, legislative, and social unification of Europe. Formally created in 1993, the European Union evolved from the European Community and earlier post-World War II institutions for cooperation among states.

farming: The process of growing and harvesting domesticated plants and animals for food, fiber, and other commodities. Farming is characteristic of agrarian societies.

fascism: A political philosophy, movement, or government that exalts the nation, and often a socially defined race, above the individual and that advocates centralized autocratic government, strict economic and social regimentation, and forcible suppression of opposition. Derived from the Italian fascismo and referring to a "bundle," "fasces," or "group," specifically to a bundle of birch or elm sticks used in ancient Rome as a symbol of penal authority.

fossil fuel revolution: The extensive use of substances extracted from organic fossils, especially coal, coke, crude oil, and gasoline, as sources of energy. The fossil fuel revolution may be closely associated with the Industrial Revolution, initially with large-scale burning of coal to generate steam and to produce iron and steel in England in the later eighteenth century. In the past century the combustion of fossil fuels has contributed to increasing atmospheric pollution and global warming.

globalization: The process by which peoples around the world have become increasingly interconnected through rapid communication and transport. Globalization involves the intensification of economic, social, cultural, political, and biological interchange worldwide, resulting on the one hand in a general acceleration of change and on the other in efforts to strengthen the bonds of identity and community on the local and regional levels.

global warming: An increase in the earth's surface temperature caused by a rise in atmospheric levels of carbon dioxide.

government: An organization having the power to make and enforce laws and to maintain social order over a territory or a group of people. A government may regulate society through a consensus of leaders, through democratic elections and decision-making, or through authoritarian force. In a state, the government is the central decision-making authority.

Great Arid Zone: The belt of arid and semi-arid land that extends generally northeastward across Afroeurasia from the Sahara Desert in the west to Manchuria (northern China) in the east. The Great Arid Zone has been home to both pastoral nomadic communities and to farming societies where water from rivers, wells, and periodic rainfall is available. In addition to the Sahara, the large deserts of the Great Arid Zone include the Arabian Desert, the Great Indian Desert, the Takla Makan Desert, and the Gobi Desert.

Great Depression: A period of global economic contraction that began in 1929 and that lasted in some regions until the late 1930s. The Great Depression affected production, trade, finance, employment, and standards of living throughout most of the world.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP): The total market value of the goods and services that a country produces during a specific period of time. It includes final goods and services, that is, those that are not resold in any form. Per capita GDP is the total value of goods and services divided by the country's population.

hunter-gatherers: Also hunter-foragers. Humans that rely on naturally occurring sources of food, obtained by scavenging, gathering, or hunting. Because hunter-gatherers require much more extensive land areas from which to secure food than do farmers or stock-raisers, their communities have necessarily been small. Hunter-gatherer communities were the exclusive form of human economic and social organization until the emergence of farming about 12,000 years ago. Today, hunter-gatherer groups account for only a tiny percent of the human population.

import substitution: An economic policy that promotes substituting locally made products for imported products, usually manufactured goods. National advocates of import substitution typically support domestic industrialization and protective tariffs.

industrialization: Also the Industrial Revolution. The process beginning in the eighteenth century CE whereby humans exploited fossil fuels and related technologies to mass produce goods with machines on an unprecedented scale and to distribute those goods worldwide. Industrialization is also associated with an accelerating global population growth rate, large-scale urbanization, complex technological advances, and great intensification of human intercommunication and interchange.

Inner Eurasia: The huge interior land mass of Eurasia, whose dominant features are flat, semi-arid regions of steppe and forest. Inner Eurasia generally corresponds to the territories ruled by the Soviet Union before its collapse, together with Mongolia and parts of western China. Poland and Hungary to the west and Manchuria (northeastern China) to the east may be thought of as Inner Eurasia's borderlands. The northern margins are boreal forest and Arctic tundra. To the south are the Black and Caspian seas and the Himalayas and other mountain ranges. A mountain-free corridor connects Inner Eurasia to Iran.

League of Nations: The predecessor of the United Nations, the League of Nations was created in 1919 in the aftermath of World War I for the purpose of mediating international disputes and preventing armed conflicts between countries.

liberalism: A political and social philosphy rooted in eighteenth-century Europe that champions civil liberties, property rights, self-determination, and the reduction of the state's political and economic power over the individual. In the twentieth century, however, liberalism became associated in the United States and to some extent in Europe with advocacy of the use of government power to achieve more equitable distribution of wealth and to further the political rights and economic status of both the poor and disadvantaged minorities.

life expectancy: The probable life span, or the expected age at death, of an individual; a statistical determination of the probable life span of an individual or category of persons.

lineage: A form of social and political organization in which the fundamental principle of solidarity is kinship. A lineage is typically a local kinship group of several generations, both living and deceased individuals. Several lineages may constitute a clan.

Manhattan Project: A secret operation undertaken in the United States in 1942 to develop atomic weapons for potential use in World War II. The U.S. dropped two atomic bombs on Japan in 1945.

Marxism: A variant of socialism based initially on the ideas of Karl Marx (1818–1883). A theory that economic interests fundamentally determine human behavior, that struggle among socio-economic classes is the drive-wheel of history, and that establishment of a "dictatorship of the proletariat" (working class) will lead to a classless society.

Modern Revolution: The profound changes for humankind and the earth's natural and physical environment associated primarily with unprecedented global population growth, industrialization, and the accelerating consumption of fossil fuels (fossil fuel revolution). The Modern Revolution got underway in the eighteenth century CE and continues today.

monopoly: Exclusive control of a product or service in a market; an exclusive privilege to undertake production or trade that is granted by a sovereign state; a firm or corporation that possesses exclusive control of a production process or commercial market, especially involving the ability to manipulate prices.

multinational corporation (MNC): A corporation or other business enterprise that has significant production facilities or other fixed assets in more than one country; also, transnational corporation.

nation: A community of people who believe they share a common culture, history, and future destiny. The members of the nation typically believe that they share rights, including the right to occupy a territory and to constitute a sovereign government to rule that territory.

nation-state: A sovereign state that generally coincides with, or aspires to coincide with, a single national community or nation. A state, on the other hand, may also be multinational, for example, an empire.

nationalism: The modern ideology based on the principle that an individual's loyalty and dedication to the national community or nation-state surpasses loyalty to any other group interest. The scholar Benedict Anderson characterized the national community as an "imagined community": its members do not for the most part know one another but nonetheless have common bonds of aspiration and loyalty.

natural philosophy: The study of nature and the physical universe. The intellectual discipline that prefigured modern science.

non-aligned state: A state that is not politically allied with any other state or bloc of states; politically neutral.

nongovernmental organization (NGO): A voluntary, non-profit citizens' group organized on a local, national, or international scale to undertake a wide variety of projects, including advancement of human rights, social progress, citizen political participation, environmental protection, community development, and international cooperation.

paleontologist: An expert on animal life of the distant past, studied mainly from evidence of fossilized remains.

pandemic: An outbreak of contagious disease that is not confined to a single locality but spreads from one locality to the next, possibly over a great distance. The Black Death of the mid-fourteenth century was a pandemic that reached across Afroeurasia. The influenza pandemic of 1918 was worldwide. See also Epidemic.

patriarchy: A society in which males are socially and politically dominant over women. All complex societies have been more or less patriarchal, though in the past two centuries women have in many parts of the world gained legal and civil rights that have helped to constrain patriarchal attitudes and behavior.

periodization: In the study of history, periodization is the dividing or categorizing of time into separate sections. Historians periodize the past for a number of reasons. "One is simply to identify and isolate chunks of time in order to study them one by one, since all periods cannot be studied simultaneously. A second is to distinguish one cluster of interrelated historical events from another in order to discover patterns of change. A third is to identify significant shifts in those patterns in terms of discontinuities or turning points, which serve as the start and end of periods. A fourth is to highlight trends or events that appear dominant or important during a particular span of time." (Ross E. Dunn, ed., *The New World History: A Teacher's Companion* [Boston: Bedford St. Martin's, 2000], 359.)

primary and secondary sources: Primary sources are items of historical evidence, including both written documents (legal contracts, government papers, personal letters, bills of sale, biographies) and artifacts (material objects, works of art, elements of language) that were generated during or relatively close to the historical period being studied. Secondary sources are documents, mainly books, articles, and illustrations, based on primary sources and generated some time after the historical event which they describe or interpret.

protectionism: An economic philosophy or policy advocating government protection of domestic agriculture and industries from foreign competition by institution of tariffs, quotas, or other restrictions on foreign imports.

revolution: A drastic change in a political system, institution, condition, or idea. A revolution may be political, social, economic, or cultural.

Scientific Revolution: The intellectual and cultural movement centered in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries that led directly to the emergence of the modern sciences; the method of scientific investigation was characterized by systematic observation of natural and physical phenomena, controlled experimentation, and the rendering of hypotheses and conclusions in mathematical formulas. The Scientific Revolution built on the great store of knowledge that had accumulated in Afroeurasia, notably in China, India, Southwest Asia, and North Africa, during preceding millennia.

secularism: Pertaining to worldly, as opposed to supernatural or religious, beliefs, values, and behavior. Any movement that questions or rejects religious faith or the social influence of religious organizations and hierarchies. Secularization is any social process that strives to imbue society with secular values. In the Christian tradition, the term "secular" is also used to refer to members of the clergy who live "in the world," that is, who have not taken monastic vows or live in a monastery.

sedentary: The practice of residing in a specific locality, as opposed to a mobile way of life centered on hunting and gathering or on pastoral nomadism. Farming societies are necessarily sedentary.

Southwest Asia: The region of Afroeurasia extending from the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea to Afghanistan, including Turkey and the Arabian Peninsula. The common term for this region has conventionally been the Middle East or Near East. Many scholars, however, now regard these expressions as obsolete, except in the context of the history of the past century or so, because these terms evoke a specifically European perspective on the world, that is, that all of Afroeurasia may be thought of as constituting two primal zones, the West (Europe) and the East (all lands east of Europe).

sovereignty: A state's authority, claimed to be absolute in matters of law within its own borders. Members of the United Nations, for example, are sovereign states. A monarch is also sometimes referred to as the "sovereign."

standard of living: The level of subsistence or comfort that a group or individual is able to maintain in daily life; an economy's ability to produce the material goods and services that individuals want or need; a society's average per capita Gross Domestic Product.

state: A population and territory over which a central government holds authority.

steppe: Flat or rolling grassland characterized by semi-aridity. Equivalent to what Americans call "prairie" and Argentineans call "pampas."

totalitarian: A form of authoritarian government in which the political and military leaders attempt to intervene in and control both the public and private lives of citizens, typically through coercion and violence. The Soviet Union under Stalin and Nazi Germany under Hitler are the prime examples of totalitarian government in the twentieth century.

tribe: A form of social and political organization in which the fundamental principle of solidarity is kinship. The members of a tribe claim to be descended from a common ancestor. A tribe is typically the largest group in a region claiming shared descent. Tribal organization is common among pastoral nomadic and stateless societies. In tribal societies, individuals identify primarily with kinship groups rather than with a specific geographical territory.

urbanization: The growth of urban areas, or cities; the movement of people from rural communities to cities.

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