

Program	History and Heritage Management
Course code:	HiHm2048
Course title	Global Developments since the 1945
Degree program	BA in History and Heritage Management
Module Name	Global History
Module code	HiHm2041
ECTS (CP)	4
Target group	2rd year History and Heritage Management students
Year/Semester	Year II, semester II

Course Description:

This course covers history of the world since 1945 to the contemporary world. It deals with the historical developments that took place during this period. Accordingly, it gives much focus to the situations after the Second World War such as the UNO, the Cold War, Post – WWI World, (Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and Decolonization in Asia, Africa and Latin America)

Generally the major topical issue that are going to be covered in this course are: The consequences of WWII (the UN, War crime trials, the cold War, Military Blocks, Economic Groupings), Post WWII Western World (Europe and USA), Eastern Europe, Peoples Democracies and the USSR; Decolonization, Wars, Revolutions, economy in Asia: Japan, Vietnam, India, china, Korea, the Middle East since 1945 ;Arab-Israeli conflicts, The Arab League, OPEC; Politico-economic and social situations of South American countries, the dissolution of the communist bloc, Causes and consequences. In addition, the course also treats the major contemporary global issues such as terrorism, Gender mainstreaming, Human and environmental security.

Course Objectives: At the end of this course students will be able to: -

- Describe the consequences of the WWII
- Evaluate the Scio-economic features of the world in the post-world war two.
- Examine the political condition of the world during the cold war.
- Assess the sweeping changes that took place in the contemporary world.
- Identify and discuss the major contemporary historical issues of the world.
- Identify the major problems facing the contemporary world.

Course outline

Conceptual Focus	Activities/Tasks	Readings
Chapter One: The Aftermath and consequences of W. W. II 1.1. The Aftermath of WWII	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	Wayne C. McWilliams and Harry Piotrowski, The World since 1945 A History of International Relations. PP.11-29
1.2. The consequences of WWII	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	
1.3. Peace agreement such as Potsdam and Yalta conferences; the Atlantic Charter	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking	
Chapter Two: The Cold War Realities: The relation between the capitalist and community blocks. 2.1. Major features such as economic and political principles between the West and the East blocks.	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	Wayne C. McWilliams and Harry Piotrowski, The World since 1945 A History of International Relations. 1997 pp.30-104 and 105-142
2.2. Which side to blame: views on the origin of the cold war 2.3. Formation of Military blocs 2.4. Formation of Economic groupings	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	

2.5. Western Europe and the USA during the cold war 2.6. Eastern Europe and the USSR during the cold war 2.7. Situations in Asia during the cold war such as in Japan, Indo-china (Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia), India, China, Korea.	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	
2.8. The United Nations Organization 2.8.1. Formation: differences and similarities with the League of Nations 2.8.2. Mission: its political, cultural, social, economic and diplomatic missions 2.8.3. The Organs of the UNO 2.8.3.1 The General Assembly 2.8.3.2 The Security Council 2.8.3.3 The secretariat and the general secretariat 2.9. Decolonization	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	
Chapter Three: The Middle-East 3.1. Arab – Israeli Conflicts	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	Wayne C. McWilliams and Harry Piotrowski, The World since 1945 A History of International Relations. 1997. PP. 143-168
3.2. The Arab League 3.3. OPEC	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	
Chapter Four: South American Countries 4.1. Political,	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation	Wayne C. McWilliams and Harry Piotrowski, The World since 1945 A History of International Relations. 1997.

	and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	PP.300-323
4.2. Social, 4.3. Economic and cultural conditions	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	
Chapter Five: Contemporary world: globalization, terrorism, feminism, human and environmental security nuclear energy, information technology etc.	Teacher: - Delivering lecture and giving class activities Students: - Active class participation and class activities, note taking and assignment presentation by.	

Chapter One

Cause, Aftermath and Consequences of WWII

World War II was a war of global scale that took place between 1939 and 1945, fought between the Allied countries and the Axis countries. The Allies were made up of the United Kingdom, China, the United States, and the Soviet Union. Among the countries of the Axis are the Empire of Japan, Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany. It is one of the most global wars in history, as it took action in 30 countries and involved more than 100 million people. During the war, all the great powers of the planet used their military, economic, industrial, scientific and human resources in a strategic effort, thus changing the course of history in all these areas. Among its attacks and consequences are the Holocaust and the explosion of atomic bombs in Hiroshima and Nagasaki. An estimated total of 50-85 million deaths were accumulated, making World War II the bloodiest conflict in history.

1.1 Causes of World War II

The Second World War was an extremely complicated event, which was triggered by multiple events from the end of World War I in 1918. Among these are:

Failures of Versailles Treaty: At the end of World War I was signed the Treaty of Versailles proposed by the United States, where Germany had to assume responsibility for the war. Colonies were abolished, the use of the air force and also had to pay an economic remuneration to the victorious countries. This stripped Germany of its territory and destabilized its economy strongly, making its citizens not trust their rulers and their ability to lead the consequences.

Fascism and the National Socialist Party: In the early 1920s, the fascist party of Benito Mussolini ascended to power in Italy. This nation moved under the idea of nationalism, a form of government that imposed rigidity on the economy, industrial control and control of its citizens. The empire of Japan was also strongly driven by nationalism and its promises of wealth and development. This movement reached the north of Germany, where it was taken

over by the union of workers and created the National Socialist party or Nazi Party, in which Adolf Hitler ascended to the power.

Failures in the Peace Treaty: The peace treaties seek to establish a just resolution, but the penalties imposed on Germany by the United States were seen as very severe; Nations such as Britain and France saw just that Hitler had protested. The new Prime Minister of Great Britain, Neville Chamberlain, proposed new terms with Germany in the Treaty of Munich. In this, he promised to yield to Hitler's demands to prevent a new war, but his actions were not enough.

Failed Intervention of the League of Nations: In 1919 the League of Nations was created. The plan was for all nations to unite, and if a problem arose, they would settle their differences with diplomacy and not with the use of military force. But with the crisis of the decade of 1930 many countries stopped to trust in her. Nations like Japan and the USSR strengthened their military forces, because they did not trust in diplomacy, since the League did not have the support of all the countries, had no army at their disposal and did not act immediately.

Militarization of Germany and the invasion of Poland: From 1935, Hitler began to violate the Treaty of Versailles with the militarization of Germany and the annex of territories like Austria. This was easy because the economic crisis further encouraged its citizens, who saw the treaty unfair from the beginning. Just after signing the Munich Agreement with Neville Chamberlain, Hitler decides to invade Poland, thus violating any peace treaty and starting the armed conflict.

1.2 The Aftermath of WWII

World War II, global military conflict that, in terms of lives lost and material destruction, was the most devastating war in human history. It began in 1939 as a European conflict between Germany and an Anglo-French coalition but eventually widened to include most of the nations of the world. It ended in 1945, leaving a new world order dominated by the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR).

The aftermath of World War II was the beginning of an era defined by the decline of the old great powers and the rise of two superpowers: The Soviet Union (USSR) and the United States

of America (U.S.), creating a bipolar world. Allied during World War II, the U.S. and USSR became competitors on the world stage and engaged in the Cold War, so-called because it never boiled over into open war between the two powers but was focused on espionage, political subversion, and proxy wars. Western Europe and Japan were rebuilt through the American Marshall Plan whereas Eastern Europe fell in the Soviet sphere of influence and rejected the plan. Europe was divided into a U.S.-led Western Bloc and a Soviet-led Eastern Bloc.

Economic Aftermath, by the end of the war, the European economy had collapsed and 70% of the industrial infrastructure was destroyed. The property damage in the Soviet Union consisted of complete or partial destruction of 1,710 cities and towns, 70,000 villages, and 31,850 industrial establishments. The strength of the economic recovery following the war varied throughout the world, though in general it was quite robust. In Europe, West Germany declined economically during the first years of the Allied occupation but later experienced a remarkable recovery, and had by the end of the 1950s doubled production from its prewar levels. Italy came out of the war in poor economic condition, but by the 1950s, the Italian economy was marked by stability and high growth. France rebounded quickly and enjoyed rapid economic growth and modernization under the Monnet Plan. The UK, by contrast, was in a state of economic ruin after the war and continued to experience relative economic decline for decades to follow.

Following Germany's invasion of the USSR in June 1941, Britain and the Soviet Union became allies. Both turned their attention to Iran. In addition to their suspicions about the role of German technicians in Iran, Britain and the USSR saw the newly opened Trans-Iranian Railroad as an attractive route for transporting supplies from the Persian Gulf to the Soviet Caucasus region. However, Iran's neutrality ruled out this option. In August 1941, after Reza Shah again refused to expel all German nationals, Britain and the USSR invaded Iran. They swiftly defeated the Iranian army, arrested Reza Shah and sent him into exile, and took control of Iran's communications and coveted railroad. In 1942 the United States, an ally of Britain and the USSR during the war, sent a military force to Iran to help maintain and operate sections of the railroad.

The British and Soviet authorities allowed Reza Shah's system of political and press repression to collapse and constitutional government to evolve with minimal interference. They permitted Reza Shah's son, Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, to succeed to the throne after he promised to reign as a constitutional monarch. In January 1942 the two occupying powers signed an agreement with Iran to respect Iran's independence and to withdraw their troops from the country within six months of the war's end. A U.S.-sponsored agreement at the 1943 Tehrān Conference reaffirmed this commitment. In late 1945, however, the USSR refused to announce a timetable for its withdrawal from Iran's northwestern provinces of East Azerbaijan and West Azerbaijan, where Soviet-supported autonomy movements had developed. Although the USSR withdrew its troops in May 1946, tensions continued for several months. The dispute, which became known as the Azerbaijan crisis, was the first case to be brought before the Security Council of the United Nations. This episode is considered one of the precipitating events of the emerging Cold War, the postwar rivalry between the United States and its allies and the USSR and its allies.

1.3 Consequences of the War

Compared to World War I, the Second World War caused far more damage to material property, and even greater loss of human life. Several factors accounted for this. First of all, the Second World War was fought in several theatres (areas). Secondly, in addition to the deaths in the fighting, there were mass killings in concentration camps. Thirdly, air raids, starvation and disease made civilian casualties very high. Finally, the air raids caused serious destruction on material property.

It has been estimated that more than 70 million people fought in the war. It is impossible to give a conclusive figure about war deaths, but probably about 50 million might have died in action. The USSR lost over 20 million of its population and China probably several millions but the figure for China is uncertain.

Creation of the United Nations: The consequences of this massive event affected all the countries of the world from the political, social, economic and even geographic reach. After the fall of the failed league of nation the allied countries formed the United Nation Organizations in October 1945, in the end of the war for international cooperation and diplomacy. The UN would be stronger and would have more scope than its predecessor. In 1948, the organization adopted the United Declaration of Human Rights, since then it had been dedicated to maintaining the collective peace and security of nations.

End of colonialism and imperialism: with fall of Japanese empire, Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy become democracies. Due to the global consequences of the war, the vast empire seized to exist and the state nations spread.

Economic crisis: Material destruction caused by the Second World War was far greater than in the First World War. As a result of an exorbitant standing on military power and resources, the warring countries were hit by a severe economic crisis. Almost all ports in Germany, France and other countries were destroyed and filed for bankruptcy. This in turn caused that France and England had to give up their colonies (like India or Algeria), thus creating multiple independent new nations that today are part of the denominated third world thanks to its history of economic and territorial despojo.

Roads and railways were damaged by repeated bombings. Many bridges were destroyed together with a large number of locomotives and railway waggons. Many cities and towns and industrial centres such as the Ruhr were ruined. Warsaw had to be totally built anew. In general, material damages to property have been estimated at more than two thousand billion dollars (\$ 2,000,000,000,000).

Geopolitical changes in Europe: All Axis countries lost extensions of their territory to pay compensation to the Allies. This caused a re-ordering of the world map. The USSR, for example, took countries from Eastern Europe and communism. In these territories. Germany also underwent changes and was separated into two nations: East Germany and West Germany; the first under a socialist government and the second, a democratic nation.

Emergence of the powers of the block: USA vs USSR: at the end of the war, the US and the USSR benefited because they did not suffer financial damage or damage to infrastructure, and managed to increase their industrial power and thus become world powers. This would initiate a new stage called the Cold War, where these two nations competed for decades in the political, economic, social, scientific and even sports. This rivalry would last almost 50 years

1.4. Peace agreement such as Potsdam and Yalta conferences; the Atlantic Charter

The Potsdam Conference, 1945

The Big Three—Soviet leader Joseph Stalin, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill (replaced on July 26 by Prime Minister Clement Attlee), and U.S. President Harry Truman—met in Potsdam, Germany, from July 17 to August 2, 1945, to negotiate terms for the end of World War II. After the Yalta Conference of February 1945, Stalin, Churchill, and U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt had agreed to meet following the surrender of Germany to determine the postwar borders in Europe. Germany surrendered on May 8, 1945, and the Allied leaders agreed to meet over the summer at Potsdam to continue the discussions that had begun at Yalta.

The major issue at Potsdam was the question of how to handle Germany. At Yalta, the Soviets had pressed for heavy postwar reparations from Germany, half of which would go to the Soviet Union. While Roosevelt had acceded to such demands, Truman and his Secretary of State, James Byrnes, were determined to mitigate the treatment of Germany by allowing the occupying nations to exact reparations only from their own zone of occupation. Truman and Byrnes encouraged this position because they wanted to avoid a repetition of the situation created by the Treaty of Versailles, which had exacted high reparations payments from

Germany following World War I. Many experts agreed that the harsh reparations imposed by the Versailles Treaty had handicapped the German economy and fueled the rise of the Nazis.

Despite numerous disagreements, the Allied leaders did manage to conclude some agreements at Potsdam. For example, the negotiators confirmed the status of a demilitarized and disarmed Germany under four zones of Allied occupation. According to the Protocol of the Conference, there was to be “a complete disarmament and demilitarization of Germany”; all aspects of German industry that could be utilized for military purposes were to be dismantled; all German military and paramilitary forces were to be eliminated; and the production of all military hardware in Germany was forbidden. Furthermore, German society was to be remade along democratic lines by repeal of all discriminatory laws from the Nazi era and by the arrest and trial of those Germans deemed to be “war criminals.” The German educational and judicial systems were to be purged of any authoritarian influences, and democratic political parties would be encouraged to participate in the administration of Germany at the local and state level.

One of the most controversial matters addressed at the Potsdam Conference dealt with the revision of the German-Soviet-Polish borders and the expulsion of several million Germans from the disputed territories. In exchange for the territory it lost to the Soviet Union following the readjustment of the Soviet-Polish border, Poland received a large swath of German territory and began to deport the German residents of the territories in question, as did other nations that were host to large German minority populations.

In addition to settling matters related to Germany and Poland, the Potsdam negotiators approved the formation of a Council of Foreign Ministers that would act on behalf of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China to draft peace treaties with Germany’s former allies. Conference participants also agreed to revise the 1936 Montreux Convention, which gave Turkey sole control over the Turkish Straits. Furthermore, the United States, Great Britain, and China released the “Potsdam Declaration,” which threatened Japan with “prompt and utter destruction” if it did not immediately surrender (the Soviet Union did not sign the declaration because it had yet to declare war on Japan).

The Yalta Conference, 1945

The Yalta Conference took place in a Russian resort town in the Crimea from February 4–11, 1945, during World War II. At Yalta, U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin made important decisions regarding the future progress of the war and the postwar world.

The Allied leaders also discussed the future of Germany, Eastern Europe and the United Nations. Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin agreed not only to include France in the postwar governing of Germany, but also that Germany should assume some, but not all, responsibility for reparations following the war. The Americans and the British generally agreed that future governments of the Eastern European nations bordering the Soviet Union should be “friendly” to the Soviet regime while the Soviets pledged to allow free elections in all territories liberated from Nazi Germany. Negotiators also released a declaration on Poland, providing for the inclusion of Communists in the postwar national government. In discussions regarding the future of the United Nations, all parties agreed to an American plan concerning voting procedures in the Security Council, which had been expanded to five permanent members following the inclusion of France. Each of these permanent members was to hold a veto on decisions before the Security Council.

Initial reaction to the Yalta agreements was celebratory. Roosevelt and many other Americans viewed it as proof that the spirit of U.S.-Soviet wartime cooperation would carry over into the postwar period. This sentiment, however, was short lived. With the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt on April 12, 1945, Harry S. Truman became the thirty-third president of the United States. By the end of April, the new administration clashed with the Soviets over their influence in Eastern Europe, and over the United Nations. Alarmed at the perceived lack of cooperation on the part of the Soviets, many Americans began to criticize Roosevelt’s handling of the Yalta negotiations. To this day, many of Roosevelt’s most vehement detractors accuse him of “handing over” Eastern Europe and Northeast Asia to the Soviet Union at Yalta despite the fact that the Soviets did make many substantial concessions.

The Atlantic Conference & Charter, 1941

The Atlantic Charter was a joint declaration released by U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill on August 14, 1941 following a

meeting of the two heads of state in Newfoundland. The Atlantic Charter provided a broad statement of U.S. and British war aims.

The meeting had been called in response to the geopolitical situation in Europe by mid-1941. Although Great Britain had been spared from a German invasion in the fall of 1940 and, with the passage of the U.S. Lend Lease Act in March 1941, was assured U.S. material support, by the end of May, German forces had inflicted humiliating defeats upon British, Greek, and, Yugoslav forces in the Balkans and were threatening to overrun Egypt and close off the Suez Canal, thereby restricting British access to its possessions in India. When the Germans invaded the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941, few policymakers in Washington or London believed that the Soviets would be able to resist the Nazi onslaught for more than six weeks. While the British Government focused its efforts on dealing with the Germans in Europe, they were also concerned that Japan might take advantage of the situation to seize British, French, and Dutch territories in Southeast Asia.

The Charter they drafted included eight “common principles” that the United States and Great Britain would be committed to supporting in the postwar world. Both countries agreed not to seek territorial expansion; to seek the liberalization of international trade; to establish freedom of the seas, and international labor, economic, and welfare standards. Most importantly, both the United States and Great Britain were committed to supporting the restoration of self-governments for all countries that had been occupied during the war and allowing all peoples to choose their own form of government.

While the meeting was successful in drafting these aims, it failed to produce the desired results for either leader. President Roosevelt had hoped that the Charter might encourage the American people to back U.S. intervention in World War II on behalf of the Allies; however, public opinion remained adamantly opposed to such a policy until the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941. Churchill’s primary goal in attending the Atlantic Conference was “to get the Americans into the war.” Barring that, he hoped that the United States would increase its amount of military aid to Great Britain and warn Japan against taking any aggressive actions in the Pacific.

While the Atlantic Charter of August 1941 was not a binding treaty, it was, nonetheless, significant for several reasons. First, it publicly affirmed the sense of solidarity between the

U.S. and Great Britain against Axis aggression. Second, it laid out President Roosevelt's Wilsonian-vision for the postwar world; one that would be characterized by freer exchanges of trade, self-determination, disarmament, and collective security. Finally, the Charter ultimately did serve as an inspiration for colonial subjects throughout the Third World, from Algeria to Vietnam, as they fought for independence.

CHAPTER 2

The Cold War Realities: The relation between the capitalist and community blocks.

2.1. Major features such as economic and political principles between the West and the East blocks.

The Cold War (1947/1991) is known as the "ideological" war between the WesternBlock (leadby the USA) and the Eastern Block (lead by USSR). USA and its allies, the members ofNATO (1949) defended Capitalism. Capitalism is a system in which economy is the prime concern. The economy has to be left to the hands of the market, without the intervention of the state. The means of production are privatized (meaning they are owned by companies and not by the states). USSR and the members of the Warsaw Pact (1955) followed a Communist system. In Communism, the means of production are in the hands of the workers. It founds a society without social classes. It starts with a revolution that has to be lead by the proletariat against the rich aristocrats. Wealth is equally distributed among the people. The main thinker of Communism is Karl Marx. There is also a Third World, or the non-aligned, which were the countries that refused to, choose between the two Blocks. To name a few India, Brazil, and Tunisia.

A General Overview of the Cold War

The Cold War was an ideological war between the two world superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union, beginning after World War Two. After the war, Germany was left defeated, and Britain and France were left drained and exhausted. The United States and the Soviet Union, though also drained, held considerable power, and both soon rose to superpower status. The two became rivals through "conflicting ideologies and mutual distrust", and constantly competed for power.

The Soviet Union wanted to spread Communism in Eastern Europe and create a "buffer zone" of friendly governments as defense against Germany. In 1946, with Eastern Europe under Soviet control and influence, Europe was divided into a West (western democracies and the United States) bloc and East (Soviet Union and Soviet occupied territory) bloc. An "iron curtain" separated Europe.

Capitalism VS. Communism during the Cold War

The Cold War consumed almost half a century of global history; the end of World War II was only the beginning of this 45 year-long international crisis. America's defeat of Japan in 1945 marked the beginning of this turbulent era, which only ended upon the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991. This ongoing global conflict, based on the fight between Capitalism and Communism, was centered on the relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union. Fundamental disagreements over government power and social structure divided the formerly allied nations and sparked an intense battle for world supremacy. These two superpowers were the major players in the Cold War; however their battles were fought like a game of chess with smaller third-world countries being used as pawns by the careful chess masters of the United States and Soviet Union, who never actually directly confronted each other in battle.

2.2. Eastern Europe and the USSR during the cold war

The first phase of the Cold War began in the first two years after the end of the Second World War in 1945. The USSR consolidated its control over the states of the Eastern Bloc, while the United States began a strategy of global containment to challenge Soviet power, extending military and financial aid to the countries of Western Europe. After World War II ended in 1945, Europe was divided into Western Europe and Eastern Europe by the Iron Curtain. Eastern Europe fell under the

influence of the Soviet Union, and the region was separated from the West. The collapse of Communism and the Soviet Union led to upheaval and transition in the region of Eastern Europe in the 1990s. Each country in the region was under Communist rule. The countries bordering Russia were once part of the Soviet Union, and those countries not part of the Soviet Union were heavily influenced by its dominant position in the region.

When the Soviet Union collapsed in 1991, the bordering countries declared independence and began the process of integration into the European community. Moldavia changed its name to Moldova. The countries of Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia each broke into multiple countries and, because of the diverse ethnic populations, organized around the concept of nation-states. Czechoslovakia peacefully agreed to separate into two states: The Czech Republic and the Republic of Slovakia. Yugoslavia was not so fortunate.

Governments that had been controlled by Communist dictators or authoritarian leaderships before 1991 were opened up to democratic processes with public elections. With the fall of Communism came economic reforms that shifted countries from central planning to open markets. Under central planning, the governments dictated which products were produced and how many of each was to be produced. The open markets invited private capitalism and western corporate businesses. The power of the state was transferred from the Communist elite to the private citizen. People could vote for their public officials and could choose businesses and work individually.

The stage for the transition from communism to capitalism was further set by Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, who began to liberalize the Soviet Union by allowing multiparty elections and encouraging economic reform and societal openness (concepts known throughout the world by the Russian words **perestroika** and **glasnost**, respectively). At the same time, the world watched as the Chinese government violently cracked down on student protests in the Tiananmen Square protests of 1989, which strengthened the revolutionary sentiments and intentions of many people in the Eastern bloc, the former Communist countries of Eastern Europe.

Then in the mid-1980s Mikhail Gorbachev came to power in the USSR. Gorbachev was determined to halt the increasing decay of the Soviet system and to shed some of his country's foreign policy burdens. Between 1986 and 1989 he brought a revolution to Soviet foreign policy, abandoning long-held Soviet assumptions and seeking new and far-reaching agreements with the West. Gorbachev's efforts fundamentally altered the dynamic of East-West relations. Gorbachev and Reagan held a series of summit talks beginning in 1985, and in 1987 the two leaders agreed to eliminate a whole class of their countries' nuclear missiles—those capable of striking Europe and Asia from the USSR and vice versa. The Soviet government began to reduce its forces in Eastern Europe, and in 1989 it pulled its troops out of Afghanistan. That year Communist regimes began to topple in the countries of Eastern Europe and the wall that had divided East and West Germany since 1961 was torn down. In 1990 Germany became once again a unified country. In 1991 the USSR dissolved, and Russia and the other Soviet republics emerged as independent states. Even before these dramatic final events, much of the ideological basis for the Cold War competition had disappeared. However, the collapse of Soviet power in Eastern Europe, and then of the USSR itself, lent a crushing finality to the end of the Cold War period.

In the late 1950s the Cold War (period of tension between the United States and its allies and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, or USSR, and its allies) intensified in Asia. In this climate, foreign powers, including the United States, the USSR, and China, courted Sihanouk. Cambodia's importance to these countries stemmed from events in neighboring Vietnam, where tension had begun to mount between a Communist regime in the north and a pro-Western regime in the south. The USSR supported the Vietnamese Communists, while the United States opposed them, and China wanted to contain Vietnam for security reasons. Each of the foreign powers hoped that Cambodian support would bolster its position in the region. Sihanouk pursued a policy of neutrality that drew substantial economic aid from the competing countries.

1942: United Nations

The term refers to the combination of nations opposed to those designated as Axis Powers in World War II. More technically, the United Nations are the twenty-six signatories to the 'Joint Declaration' signed in Washington Jan. 1, 1942, and those who subsequently adhered to it. The

original signatories were 'the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, China, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Poland, South Africa, Yugoslavia.' Mexico adhered on June 5; the Philippines on June 10; Ethiopia on Oct. 9, 1942.

By the terms of this agreement (not a ratified treaty) the signatories accept the 'Atlantic Charter' of August 14, 1941. They are convinced that 'complete victory over their enemies is essential to defend life, liberty, independence and religious freedom, and to preserve human rights and justice in their own lands as well as in other lands; they assert that they are 'engaged in a common struggle against savage and brutal forces seeking to subjugate the world;' and each pledges itself; (1) 'to employ its full resources, military or economic, against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such government is at war;' and (2) to 'cooperate with the governments signatory hereto and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemies.'

United Nations (UN), international organization of countries created to promote world peace and cooperation. The UN was founded after World War II ended in 1945. Its mission is to maintain world peace, develop good relations between countries, promote cooperation in solving the world's problems, and encourage respect for human rights. It brings together countries that are rich and poor, large and small, and have different social and political systems. Member nations pledge to settle their disputes peacefully, to refrain from using force or the threat of force against other countries, and to refuse help to any country that opposes UN actions. UN membership is open to any country willing to further the UN mission and abide by its rules. Each country, no matter how large or small, has an equal voice and vote. Each country is also expected to pay dues to support the UN. As of 2007 the UN had 192 members, including nearly every country in the world.

Creation of the United Nation

The UN is the result of a long history of efforts to promote international cooperation. In the late 18th century, German philosopher Immanuel Kant proposed a federation or "league" of the

world's nations. Kant believed that such a federation would allow countries to unite and punish any nation that committed an act of aggression. This type of union by nations to protect each other against an aggressor is sometimes referred to as collective security. Kant also felt that the federation would protect the rights of small nations that often become pawns in power struggles between larger countries.

Kant's idea came to life after World War I (1914-1918). Horrified by the devastation of the war, countries were inspired to come together and work toward peace. They formed a new organization, the League of Nations, to achieve that goal. The League would last from 1920 to 1946 and have a total of 63 member nations through its history, including some of the world's greatest powers: France, the United Kingdom, Italy, Japan, Germany, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). But the League had two major flaws. First, several of the world's most powerful countries were not members, most notably, the United States. Second, the League required consensus among its members to oppose aggression. Dissent by any one member could prevent consensus and render the League impotent. When Japan, Italy, and Germany undertook military aggression in the 1930s, they would not agree to censure themselves, thus preventing the consensus necessary for League action. This aggression ultimately led to World War II (1939-1945). In the end, the League failed in its most basic mission, to prevent another world war.

The UN officially came into existence on October 24, 1945, with 51 members' countries-the 50 represented at the conference and Poland, which had not been able to send a delegate. Another major strength of the UN, unlike the earlier League of Nations, is that virtually every territory in the world is a member, or a province, or a colony of a member. Some nonmember political entities, such as the Vatican City and the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), also have permanent observer mission status at the UN.

Structure of the UN

The UN's charter established six distinct bodies that serve different functions: (1) the General Assembly, (2) the Security Council, (3) the Secretariat, (4) the Economic and Social Council, (5) the International Court of Justice, and (6) the Trusteeship Council.

The General Assembly is made up of all 192 member countries, each with one vote. It undertakes all major discussions and decisions about UN actions. It is like a global town hall, providing a powerful medium for countries to put forward their ideas and debate issues. The Assembly can discuss and make recommendations on any issue covered by the UN's charter. However, the recommendations are not binding and the Assembly has no authority to enforce them

The General Assembly meets annually in regular sessions that generally run from mid-September to mid-December. Recently the General Assembly has been meeting year round. It also convenes for special sessions every few years on specific topics, such as economic cooperation or disarmament. In addition, the Assembly can meet in emergency session to deal with an immediate threat to international peace. At the beginning of each regular session, Assembly members elect a president to preside over the assembly. The Assembly sessions, like most UN deliberations, are simultaneously translated into many languages so that delegates from around the world can understand any speaker.

The General Assembly has the power to admit new members to the UN. It approves the budget for UN programs and operations. The Assembly can establish agencies and programs to carry out its recommendations. It elects members to serve on certain agencies and programs, and it coordinates those programs through various committees.

2.3. U.N. General Assembly

The General Assembly meeting in Paris in September was destined to be a testing ground in the relations of the United States and the Soviet Union. Early in the session Secretary of State Marshall warned the Russians not to mistake American patience for weakness. Deputy Foreign Minister Vishinsky replied that his country sought co-operation with all nations, but could not accept the policy of the United States, which was one of 'expansion and realization of plans for world domination.' There was considerable disagreement among the delegates whether the Berlin question should be put before the Assembly. As the deliberations progressed, however, it became increasingly clear that although East-West relations might become more acute, the cold war was not likely to being open hostilities in the near future. The European Recovery

Plan, of course, remained the center of the difficulty, with the Russians unshaken in their determination to sabotage it if possible. As tempers flared in the U.N. meetings, presaging little hope of an understanding, the foreign ministers of the Western European nations met to implement plans for a common defense. They also discussed the possibility of a formal military alliance which would include the United States.

Security Council

The Security Council is the most powerful body in the UN. It is responsible for maintaining international peace, and for restoring peace when conflicts arise. Its decisions are binding on all UN members and have the force of international law. The Security Council has the power to define what is a threat to security, to determine how the UN should respond, and to enforce its decisions by ordering UN members to take certain actions. For example, the Council may impose economic sanctions, such as halting trade with a country it considers an aggressor. The Council convenes any time there is a threat to peace. A representative from each member country who sits on the Council must be available at all times so that the Council can meet at a moment's notice. The Security Council also frequently meets at the request of a UN member—often a nation with a grievance about another nation's actions.

The Security Council has 15 members, 5 of which hold permanent seats. The General Assembly elects the other 10 members for rotating two-year terms. The 5 permanent members—the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Russia (formerly the Soviet Union), and China—have the most power. These nations were the winning powers at the end of World War II, and they still represent the bulk of the world's military might.

Decisions of the Council require nine votes. But any one of the permanent members can veto an important decision. This authority is known as the *veto right of the great powers*. As a result, the Council is effective only when its permanent members can reach a consensus. This created problems during the Cold War, the post-1945 struggle between the United States and Soviet Union that ended when the Soviet Union dissolved in 1991. During that time, the council was frequently deadlocked because the United States and Soviet Union could not

agree. Beginning in the 1990s, increased cooperation between the United States and Russia enabled the council to become more effective.

The Council has a variety of ways it can try to resolve conflicts between countries. Usually the Council's first step is to encourage the countries to settle their disagreements without violence. The Council can mediate a dispute or recommend guidelines for a settlement. It can send peacekeeping troops into a distressed area. If war breaks out, the Council can call for a ceasefire. It can enforce its decisions by imposing economic sanctions on a country, or by authorizing joint military action.

2.4. Secretariat and the General Secretariat

Secretariat

The Secretariat is the UN's executive branch. It oversees the administration of the UN's programs and policies and carries out day-to-day operations. This branch is headed by the secretary general, who acts as the UN's spokesperson. The UN's staff includes administrators, experts on technical issues such as environmental protection, and economic advisors working on various programs and projects in the member countries. These workers have a variety of responsibilities, such as overseeing the operations of peacekeeping missions, preparing studies on world issues, organizing international conferences, surveying economic and social trends, and providing translations of speeches. They perform the day-to-day work necessary for basic UN operations. The largest concentration of staff outside New York City is in Geneva, Switzerland, where several UN programs and agencies have headquarters.

One purpose of the Secretariat is to develop an international civil service of diplomats and bureaucrats whose loyalties are not tied to any one country. The staff answers only to the UN and takes an oath not to obey any outside authority.

In the early 1990s the UN bureaucracy came under increasing criticism for inefficiency and even corruption. Much of this criticism came from the United States, which believed it was

bearing an unfair share of the costs of supporting the UN. By the mid-1990s, these criticisms had led to a series of reforms, including budget and staff reductions.

Secretary General

The secretary general is a powerful public figure who oversees the daily operations of the UN and plays a major role in setting the organization's agenda in international security affairs. The secretary general can bring to the Security Council any matter that might threaten world peace. The secretary general has the authority to serve as a neutral mediator in international conflicts and to bring hostile parties together to negotiate. The secretary general's personal attention to a problem can often help bring about a resolution. For example, in the 1990s Secretary General Boutros Boutros-Ghali personally mediated conflicts in Somalia, the former Yugoslavia, and elsewhere. In the 1980s, Secretary General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar mediated conflicts in Central America. The secretary general also works to build consensus among the five permanent members of the Security Council, knowing that without it the Council cannot act.

The secretary general is formally chosen by the General Assembly. But the secretary general must first be nominated by the Security Council and win the consent of all five of its permanent members. The secretary general serves a five-year term, which may be renewed.

The secretary general, like the rest of the UN staff, is supposed to be independent. In reality, the secretary general must rely on member countries, especially the five permanent Security Council members, to get anything done. As a result, the secretary general often struggles with the Security Council over what direction the UN should take. Since the Security Council chooses the secretary general, there is a limit on how independent the position can be.

Kofi Annan of Ghana was elected by the General Assembly to be secretary general from 1997 through 2001. In 2001 the General Assembly unanimously elected him to a second term, running from 2002 through 2006. He was the first secretary general from sub-Saharan Africa and the first to rise through the UN staff to the top job. Before becoming secretary general, Annan served as undersecretary general for peacekeeping operations. He was credited with doing the best job possible with difficult peacekeeping missions in Somalia and Bosnia in the early 1990s. Annan was educated in the United States and knew the UN bureaucracy well. As

secretary general, Annan reformed the UN secretariat's finances and management and significantly improved relations between the UN and the United States. He also worked to improve human rights worldwide and to slow the spread of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), particularly in developing countries.

Annan's immediate predecessor, Boutros Boutros-Ghali of Egypt, was secretary general from 1992 through 1996. He tried to expand the UN's role as peacekeeper and peacemaker. He was outspoken with the Security Council, a trait that got him into trouble with its members, particularly the United States. For example, he scolded the Council for giving him big projects without enough money to carry them out. In 1996 the United States vetoed his candidacy for a second term. Since both Annan and Boutros-Ghali represented African nations, Annan's selection preserved the tradition of keeping the secretary general's post in the same geographic region for two terms. Annan was succeeded in 2007 by Ban Ki Moon, former foreign minister of South Korea.

Secretaries general have come from various regions of the world, but it is an unwritten rule that they never should come from one of the most powerful countries. This tradition is a response to concerns that a secretary general selected from such a country would not be perceived by other nations as objective or neutral. There is also a fear that such a selection would give the world's most influential nations that much more power. Past secretaries general include Trygve Lie of Norway, who served from 1946 to 1953; Dag Hammarskjöld of Sweden, 1953 to 1961; U Thant of Burma (now Myanmar), 1961 through 1971; Kurt Waldheim of Austria, 1972 to 1982; and Javier Pérez de Cuéllar of Peru, 1982 through 1991. No woman has yet served in this position.

League of Nations

League of Nations was international alliance for the preservation of peace. The league existed from 1920 to 1946. The first meeting was held in Geneva, on November 15, 1920, with 42 nations represented. The last meeting was held on April 8, 1946; at that time the league was superseded by the United Nations (UN). In 1918, as one of his Fourteen Points summarizing Allied aims in World War I, United States president Woodrow Wilson presented a plan for a

general association of nations. The plan formed the basis of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the 26 articles that served as operating rules for the league. The covenant was formulated as part of the Treaty of Versailles, which ended World War I, in 1919.

Although President Wilson was a member of the committee that drafted the covenant, it was never ratified by the U.S. Senate because of Article X, which contained the requirement that all members preserve the territorial independence of all other members, even to joint action against aggression. During the next two decades, American diplomats encouraged the league's activities and attended its meetings unofficially, but the United States never became a member. The efficacy of the league was, therefore, considerably lessened.

The league structure

The machinery of the league consisted of an assembly, a council, and a secretariat. Before World War II (1939-1945), the assembly convened regularly at Geneva in September; it was composed of three representatives for every member state, each state having one vote. The council met at least three times each year to consider political disputes and reduction of armaments; it was composed of several permanent members—France, Britain, Italy, Japan, and later Germany and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)—and several nonpermanent members elected by the assembly. The decisions of the council had to be unanimous. The secretariat was the administrative branch of the league and consisted of a secretary general and a staff of 500 people. Several other bodies were allied with the league, such as the Permanent Court of International Justice, called the World Court, and the International Labor Organization.

2.9 Decolonization

Like the Cold War, decolonization—or the loss of colonial possessions—gave rise to great changes in global politics. World War II set the stage for the rapid collapse of European and Japanese empires. On the eve of World War II, the countries of Western Europe, with the notable exception of Spain, still ruled or otherwise controlled immense territories in Asia, Africa, and the Pacific. In 1941 British Prime Minister Winston Churchill confidently

announced, “I have not become His Majesty’s Chief Minister in order to preside over the liquidation of the British Empire.” But Churchill was decidedly mistaken in his optimism.

German and Japanese victories in Europe and Asia had dealt a devastating blow to the military might of the European colonial powers and shattered their aura of invincibility. As nationalist independence movements in the colonies and protectorates arose, the public back home began to view overseas empires as liabilities. Continued imperial rule loomed as an unappealing financial burden as the prolonged war also seriously sapped the economic strength of imperial societies. Beginning in 1945 decolonization accelerated rapidly. As European imperialism expired, more than 90 independent nations joined the global community of national states, and some 800 million people became responsible for their own destinies.

The special committee on colonialism was one of the most active UN organs in 1964. It considered the problems and progress toward the elimination of colonialism in some 55 colonial territories. Major attention was focused on the situations in Southern Rhodesia, South-West Africa, Aden, British Guiana, and the Portuguese territories in Africa, but many other areas were discussed. A number of resolutions were passed on Southern Rhodesia directed to ensuring that independence would not be achieved under a white minority government. The situation in the Portuguese African territories was condemned as oppressive, and a change in Portuguese policy was urged. Efforts to prod the South African administration of South-West Africa included an investigation of mining interests from other countries in order to determine the economic interests preventing a change in the colonial status of this area.

By the 1990s the process of decolonization had essentially run its course. European empires either are extinct or are now miscellaneous claims to scattered real estate. Likewise, the resurgence of democracy in Eastern Europe, the collapse of the USSR, and the unification of Germany ended the Cold War. World War II gave rise to decolonization and the Cold War, and together they were responsible for forging the political and economic contours of the postwar world.

Chapter Three: The Middle-East

3.1. Arab – Israeli Conflicts

The Creation of Israel

in the year 70 AD the romans sacked Jerusalem and drove the Hebrews or Jews from their land. from then until 1948, the Jews were scattered throughout the world. there was no country they could call home.

Zionism and the Balfour Declaration

In 1897, Theodor Herzl, a journalist and Jewish intellectual founded modern Zionism, a political movement to establish a Jewish home land Palestine, Zionists claimed that the Jewish people had lived in Palestine during ancient times, and needed a refuge in case of anti-Semitic persecutions. In 1917 the British government gave support to Zionist movement by the Balfour declaration, in which the British government agreed the establishment of such a homeland for Jewish people in Palestine. To fulfil the Balfour Declaration, England in 1920 received the league of nation mandate over Palestine.

The British then allowed Jewish immigration in to Palestine. Tens to thousands of Jews immigrated to Palestine, Jews who had lived there for centuries. By 1938 over 500,000 Jews has migrated to Palestine. This Jewish immigration was bitterly opposed by the Arab Nationalist Who desired an Arab Palestine. At the end of the World War II, large numbers of Jewish refugees from Europe poured into Palestine. At the end of the World War II, large numbers of Jewish refugees from Europe poured into Palestine. Many of them were homeless survivors of the Nazi Holocausts. They looked to Palestine as their ancient homeland, a place Where They

Would no longer suffer from the persecution they had endured for so long in Europe. The Arabs in Palestine were afraid of being outnumbered in their own country. They blamed the British for letting in too many Jews. The Jews blamed the British for not letting in enough. Both Jewish and Arab organization in Palestine used guerrilla warfare against the British and against each other. In 1947 England turned the Palestine problem over to the United Nations. The UN proposed to partition Palestine into separate Arab and Jewish States. The Arabs refused to accept this and heavy fighting broke out between Jews and Arabs in Palestine. On May, 14, 1948, Jewish settlers in Palestine proclaimed the establishment of the new state of Israel. David Ben-Gurion was to be the first Prime Minister.

The Arab-Israel Conflict

There have been four wars between Israel and Arabs since 1948.

The First Arab-Israel War (1948-49)

As soon as the state of Israel was proclaimed, five Arab countries, who opposed the setting up of the new state of Israel, attacked the new Jewish Republic. Troops from Egypt, Transjordan, Syria, Lebanon and Iraq crossed into Palestine and invaded the new Jewish state.

The war lasted from May 1948 to February 1949. Despite their numerical superiority, the Arabs were defeated and were driven back. As a result, Israel not only survived but actually increased her share of Palestine territory. In 1948 the war came to an end following an armistice agreement arranged by the UN.

Although fighting stopped with the armistice, no Arab state was willing to sign a peace treaty recognizing the existence of Israel. Now Israel controlled the large part of what had been Palestine, including part of Jerusalem. During the fighting many thousands of Palestinian Arabs fled their homes and became refugees in the neighboring Arab countries of Syria, Lebanon and Jordan. The Palestinians became more militant and in 1964, the refugees created the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO). The PLO said it was a government in exile and it refused to recognize the existence of Israel. It also demanded that an independent Palestine state be established on the west bank of the Jordan River.

The Second Confrontation: The Suez Crisis of 1956

Gamal Abdel Nasser, head of Egyptian government, wanted to build the Aswan Dam on the river to provide irrigation and power for the whole of Egypt. The USA had offered money to build the Aswan Dam. However, in July 1956, when it was learned that Egypt had purchased Soviet military equipment, the United States withdrew the offer. This action humiliated Nasser. In response, Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal in Egypt to get the income from it. The canal belonged to the Suez Canal Company in which the British and the French government held shares. This led to the Second War in which Israel was involved.

Israel forces invaded Sinai and fought their way to the canal. They had planned the whole operation in secret meeting with the British and the French ordered both Egyptian and Israelis out of the canal Zone and the Egyptian air force was destroyed on the ground.

The British and the French sought to regain control of the Suez Canal, using the Israel invasion as an excuse. Israel also wanted to gain the Sinai area as far as west as the canal. Nasser sank ships in the entrance to the canal, blocking it completely.

Almost every nation condemned the aggression. Even the USA joined in the condemnation, the weight of hostile opinion in the United Nations forced Britain and France to accept a ceasefire and withdraw their forces out of the Canal Zone. The Israel also withdrew to their old boundaries. UN forces quickly replaced the British and the French, and once again UN peace was restored in the Middle East.

The Third Confrontation: The Six Day War, 1967

Trouble in the middle East flared up again in 1967. At Nasser request, the United Nations withdrew its peace keeping forces from the Egyptian-Israel borders and the Sinai Peninsula. Soon afterward, Arab forces began to assemble Israel's borders.

In June 1967, thinking that Egypt, Syria and Jordan were planning to attack, Israel struck first. In a short war that lasted six days, the Israel's destroyed the Egyptian air forces and defeated the armies of all three Arab states. As the result of the War the Israelis occupied the Gaza strip and the Sinai Peninsula up to the Suez Canal. They also captured the Jordanian sector of the city of Jerusalem, Syrians Golan height, and the West Bank of the Jordan River a Cease-fire urged by the United States and provided by the United Nations temporarily halted the fighting.

The Fourth Confrontation: YOM KIPPUR WAR, 1973

In 1973 Egypt and Syria attacked Israel on **YOM KIPPUR**, the most solemn Jewish religious day, Winning some early success. The Arabs had Russian Weapons. Israel was supplied by the USA and within a week was able to turn the tide. After a fierce tank battles, the Israel drove the Arabs back and advanced a little further into Egypt and Syria.

The two super powers, the USA and the USSR, saw more advantage in co-operation. With the help of the United Nations, a cease-fire was arranged by the super Powers and the fighting ended. Since the Yom Kippur War, the USA and the USSR have assisted in trying to bring peace's in the Middle East.

The Arab League

The Arab league, formally the league of states, is a regional organization in the Arab world, which is located in Africa and western Asia. The Arab league was formed in Cairo on 22 march 1945 initially with six members: Egypt, Iraq, Transjordan, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia and Syria. The state purposes of the Arab League are to strengthen ties among the member states, coordinate their policies, and promote their common interests. The Arab league is formed to foster economic growth in the region, resolve disputes between its members, and coordinate political aims, members of the Arab league formed a council, with each state receiving one vote. Fifteen more Arab nations eventually joined the organization, which established a common market in 1965.

The organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)

Is an Inter-Governmental Organization of 14 Nations, founded on 14 September 1960 in Baghdad by the First Five Members and headquartered Since 1965 in Vienna, Austria.

Members: Saudi Arabia, Iran, Indonesia, Venezuela, Iraq, Nigeria Libya

Founders: Juan Pablo Perez Alfonzo. Abdullah Jariki

What Does OPEC Do?

The Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) is a Group Consisting of 14 of the World's Major Oil-exporting Nations.

OPEC was Founded in 1960 to Coordinate the Petroleum Policies of its Members and to Provide Member States with Technical and Economic Aid.

How Many Countries Are in OPEC?

OPEC Countries 2020, the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries or OPEC as it is frequently Known, is an Organization Made up of 15 Countries. The 15 Nations that are a Members of OPEC produce about 44% of the World's Oil and own over 81.5% of the World's oil Serves.

Who Control OPEC

Saudi Arabia- OPEC 12 Oil Barons Who Control the Worlds Energy Supply, Ali Bin Ibrahim al naimi, Saudi Arabians Minister of Petroleum and Natural Resources is the most powerful voice within OPEC.

What Is the Main Goal of OPEC?

The Purpose of OPEC for Members is to Coordinate and Unity the Petroleum Policies of its Members Countries and ensure the Stabilization of oil Market in order to Secure un Efficient, Economic and Regular Supply of Petroleum to Consumers.

Who Is the Current President of OPEC?

Mohammed Bin Saleh Al-sada Qataris Minister of Energy and Industry President of the OPEC Conference at the OPEC and Non-OPEC Ministerial Meeting, 10 December 2016, Vienna, Austria.

Who is the Largest Oil producer in the World?

America is now the World's Largest Oil Producer. More Over Russia and Saudi Arabia. America has reclaimed its Throne a Top World the oil World. For the First Time Since 1973, the United States is the World's Largest Producer of Crude oil.

Who Control the Oil Price in the World?

Probably the Single Biggest Influencer of oil price is OPEC, Made up of of 15 countries (Algeria, Angola, Ecuador, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Republic of Congo, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates and Venezuela) Collectively, OPEC Control 40% of the World's Supply of oil.

Is OPEC a Monopoly

OPEC is not a Monopoly, as non-Members have always Produced oil too. It is a Carter the Used to Control a Very Large Slice of the World Wide Oil Production, so if They cut Production, Prices Would go up. OPEC sure has no Monopoly in the Strictest sense as a Monopoly Would Mean that they can Deny on Competitor its Market.

Chapter 4: south America countries

South American is the fourth largest continent in the World and covers an area of 6.89 million square miles. The continent is made up of 12 sovereign countries. Colombia, Bolivia, Argentina, Chile, Peru, Uruguay, Brazil, Paraguay, Venezuela, Guyana, Suriname and Ecuador. In South America Brazil is the largest country. In fact, occupying half off the continents landmass.

South America is the Southern Continent of the two Americas, situated entirely in the Western Hemisphere and mostly (about $\frac{3}{4}$) in the Southern hemisphere. It lies between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans.

The Continent is culturally, Ethnically and Racially diverse, home to indigenous peoples and to Descendants of Settlers from Europe, Africa and Asia.

Due to its history of colonialism most South Americans speak Spanish or Portuguese and its Societies and states are Commonly Modeled after Western Traditions.

Economic: - when countries in south America switched over to the system of free-market Economy. This eventually pulled countries in South America out of the debt crisis. Now major Economic activities include Agriculture, Industry, Forestry and Mining.

Cultural Conditions: - the culture of south America draws on diverse cultural tradition from the continent of South America. These include the native cultures of the People that Inhabited the continents prior to the arrival of the Europeans, cultures, brought mainly by the Spanish, the Portuguese and the French. Roman Catholicism is the dominant religion in this hemisphere.

South American Nations have a rich variety of music some of the most famous genres include samba from Brazil, tango from Argentina and Uruguay, and Cumbia from Colombia.

Beyond the rich tradition of indigenous art, the development of South American visual art owed much to the influence of Spanish. In general, this artistic Eurocentrism began to fade in the early twentieth century. As south Americans began to acknowledge the uniqueness of their condition and started to follow their own path.

Chapter 5 Contemporary world

Terrorism

Terrorism is the deliberate creation and exploitation of fear for bringing about political change. All terrorist acts involve violence or—equally important—the threat of violence. These violent acts are committed by nongovernmental groups or individuals—that is, by those who are neither part of nor officially serving in the military forces, law enforcement agencies, intelligence services, or other governmental agencies of an established nation-state.

Terrorists attempt not only to sow panic but also to undermine confidence in the government and political leadership of their target country. Terrorism is therefore designed to have psychological effects that reach far beyond its impact on the immediate victims or object of an attack. Terrorists mean to frighten and thereby intimidate a wider audience, such as a rival ethnic or religious group, an entire country and its political leadership, or the international community as a whole.

Terrorism as a political Act

Terrorism is by nature political because it involves the acquisition and use of power for the purpose of forcing others to submit, or agree, to terrorist demands. A terrorist attack, by generating publicity and focusing attention on the organization behind the attack, is designed to create this power. It also fosters an environment of fear and intimidation that the terrorists can manipulate. As a result, terrorism's success is best measured by its ability to attract attention to the terrorists and their cause and by the psychological impact it exerts over a nation and its citizenry. It differs in this respect from conventional warfare, where success is measured by the amount of military assets destroyed, the amount of territory seized, and the number of enemy dead.

Terrorists typically attempt to justify their use of violence by arguing that they have been excluded from, or frustrated by, the accepted processes of bringing about political change. They maintain that terrorism is the only option available to them, although their choice is a reluctant—even a regrettable—one. Whether someone agrees with this argument or not often depends on whether the person sympathizes with the terrorists' cause or with the victims of the terrorist attack.

At the same time terrorist acts—including murder, kidnapping, bombing, and arson—have long been defined in both national and international law as crimes. Even in time of war, violence deliberately directed against innocent civilians is considered a crime.

Governmental definitions of Terrorism

Legal statutes in most countries around the world regard terrorism as a crime. Yet there is considerable variation in how these laws define terrorism, even in countries whose laws derive from a common origin.

In the United Kingdom, for example, legislation titled Terrorist Act 2000 states that terrorism is “the use or threat of action designed to influence the government or to intimidate the public or a section of the public for the purpose of advancing a political, religious or ideological cause.” The legal system and code of law of the United Kingdom has influenced those of the United States, Canada, and Israel.

United States federal statute defines terrorism as “violent acts or acts dangerous to human life that appear to be intended (i) to intimidate or coerce a civilian population; (ii) to influence the policy of a government by intimidation or coercion; or (iii) to affect the conduct of a government by assassination or kidnapping.” This definition appears in United States Code, Title 18, Section 2331 (18 USC 2331).

Canada’s Anti-terrorism Act (Bill C-36) designates “terrorist activity” as “an act or omission .that is committed in whole or in part for a political, religious or ideological purpose, objective or cause and in whole or in part with the intention of intimidating the public, or a segment of the public, with regard to its security, including its economic security, or compelling a person, a government or a domestic or an international organization to do or to refrain from doing any act, whether the person, government or organization is inside or outside Canada ”

Israeli law does not address terrorism specifically. But in the Prevention of Terrorism Ordinance No. 33, it defines a terrorist organization as “a body of persons resorting in its activities to acts of violence calculated to cause death or injury to a person or to threats of such acts of violence.”

Causes of Terrorism

Terrorism has occurred throughout history for a variety of reasons. Its causes can be historical, cultural, political, social, psychological, economic, or religious—or any combination of these. Some countries have proven to be particularly susceptible to terrorism at certain times, as Italy and West Germany were during the 1970s. Terrorist violence escalated precipitously in those two countries for a decade before declining equally dramatically. Other countries, such as Canada and The Netherlands, have proven to be more resistant, and have experienced only a few isolated terrorist incidents.

In general, democratic countries have provided more fertile ground for terrorism because of the open nature of their societies. In such societies citizens have fundamental rights, civil liberties are legally protected, and government control and constant surveillance of its citizens and their activities is absent. By the same token, repressive societies, in which the government closely monitors citizens and restricts their speech and movement, have often provided more difficult environments for terrorists. But even police states have not been immune to terrorism, despite

limiting civil liberties and forbidding free speech and rights of assembly. Examples include Russia under tsarist rule and the Communist-ruled Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as well as the People's Republic of China, Myanmar, and Laos.

In broad terms the causes that have commonly **compelled people to engage in terrorism** are grievances borne of political oppression, cultural domination, economic exploitation, ethnic discrimination, and religious persecution. Perceived inequities in the distribution of wealth and political power have led some terrorists to attempt to overthrow democratically elected governments.

National governments have at times aided terrorists to further their own foreign policy goals. So-called state-sponsored terrorism, however, falls into a different category altogether. State-sponsored terrorism is a form of *covert* (secret) warfare, a means to wage war secretly through the use of terrorist surrogates (stand-ins) as hired guns. The U.S. Department of State designates countries as state sponsors of terrorism if they actively assist or aid terrorists, and also if they harbor past terrorists or refuse to renounce terrorism as an instrument of policy.

The U.S. Department of State has designated seven countries as state sponsors of terrorism: Iran, Iraq, Syria, Libya, Cuba, North Korea, and Sudan. In the year 2000, it named Iran as the most active supporter of terrorism for aid to groups such as Hezbollah, Hamas, and Palestine Islamic Jihad. Although the former Taliban government in Afghanistan sponsored al-Qaeda, the radical group led by Saudi exile Osama bin Laden, the United States did not recognize the Taliban as a legitimate government and thus did not list it as a state sponsor of terrorism.

Characteristic of all terrorist attack

A. Planning and Organization

All terrorists share one characteristic: They never commit actions randomly or senselessly. Every terrorist wants an attack to generate maximum publicity because media attention helps achieve the intimidation needed for terrorism's success. Accordingly, terrorist acts are carefully planned. Testimony by a terrorist convicted in the 1998 bombing of the U.S. embassy in Kenya revealed that al-Qaeda spent nearly five years planning the attack.

Several essential elements go into planning a major terrorist attack. Planning begins with gathering detailed reconnaissance and intelligence about a target: its defenses, vulnerabilities, and patterns of daily activity.

All terrorist groups share another basic characteristic: secrecy about their operations. Terrorism operates underground, concealed from the eyes of the authorities and from potential informants among the populace. To maintain secrecy, terrorist groups are often organized into cells, with each cell separate from other cells in the organization but working in harmony with them. A terrorist cell can be as small as two or three people, with only one person knowing someone in another cell.

B. Targets of Terrorism

Terrorism often targets innocent civilians in order to create an atmosphere of fear, intimidation, and insecurity. Some terrorists deliberately direct attacks against large numbers of ordinary citizens who simply happen to be in the wrong place at the wrong time.

More selective **terrorist attacks target diplomats and diplomatic facilities such as embassies and consulates;** military personnel and military bases; business executives and corporate offices; and transportation vehicles and facilities, such as airlines and airports, trains and train stations, buses and bus terminals, and subways.

Despite variations in the number of attacks from year to year, one feature of international terrorism has remained constant: The United States has been its most popular target. Since 1968 the United States has annually led the list of countries whose citizens and property were most frequently attacked by terrorists. Several factors can account for this phenomenon, in addition to America's position as the sole remaining superpower and leader of the free world. These include the geographical scope and diversity of America's overseas business interests, the number of Americans traveling or working abroad, and the many U.S. military bases around the world.

Globalization

Globalization, comprehensive term for the emergence of a global society in which economic, political, environmental, and cultural events in one part of the world quickly come to have significance for people in other parts of the world. Globalization is the result of advances in communication, transportation, and information technologies. It describes the growing economic, political, technological, and cultural linkages that connect individuals, communities, businesses, and governments around the world. Globalization also involves the growth of *multinational corporations* (businesses that have operations or investments in many countries) and *transnational corporations* (businesses that see themselves functioning in a global marketplace). The international institutions that oversee world trade and finance play an increasingly important role in this era of globalization.

Although most people continue to live as citizens of a single nation, they are culturally, materially, and psychologically engaged with the lives of people in other countries as never before. Distant events often have an immediate and significant impact, blurring the boundaries of our personal worlds. Items common to our everyday lives—such as the clothes we wear, the food we eat, and the cars we drive—are the products of globalization.

Globalization has both **negative** and **positive** aspects. Among the negative aspects are the rapid spread of diseases, illicit drugs, crime, terrorism, and uncontrolled migration. Among globalization's benefits are a sharing of basic knowledge, technology, investments, resources, and ethical values.

Reasons for Globalization

Most experts attribute globalization to improvements in communication, transportation, and information technologies. For example, not only currencies, but also stocks, bonds, and other financial assets can be traded around the clock and around the world due to innovations in communication and information processing. Advances in communications instantly unite people around the globe. For example, communications satellites allow global television broadcasts to bring news of faraway events, such as wars and national disasters as well as sports and other forms of entertainment. The Internet, the cell phone, and the fax machine permit instantaneous

communication. The World Wide Web and computers that store vast amounts of data allow instant access to information exceeding that of any library.

Improvements in transportation are also part of globalization. The world becomes smaller due to next-day delivery by jet airplane. Even slow, oceangoing vessels have streamlined transportation and lowered costs due to innovations such as containerized shipping. Not only do goods, money, and information move great distances quickly, but also more people are moving great distances as well. Migration, both legal and illegal, is a major feature of this era of globalization. *Remittances* (money sent home by workers to their home countries) have become an important source of income for many countries. In the case of El Salvador, for example, remittances are equal to 13 percent of the country's total national income—a more significant source of income than foreign aid, investment, or tourism.

The Institutions of Globalizations

Three key institutions helped shape the current era of globalization: The World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the World Trade Organization (WTO). All three institutions trace their origins to the end of World War II (1939-1945) when the United States and the United Kingdom decided to set up new institutions and rules for the global economy. At the Bretton Woods Conference in New Hampshire in 1944, they and other countries created the IMF to help stabilize currency markets. They also established what was then called the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) **to help finance the rebuilding of Europe after the war.**

A. World Bank

Following Europe's postwar recovery, the IBRD became known as the World Bank. Its mission was redirected to help developing countries grow faster and provide a higher living standard for their people. The World Bank made loans to developing countries for dams and other electrical-generating plants, harbor facilities, and other large projects. These projects were intended to lower costs for private businesses and to attract investors. Beginning in 1968 the World Bank focused on low-cost loans for health, education, and other basic needs of the world's poor.

B. International Monetary Fund

The IMF makes loans so that countries can maintain the value of their currencies and repay foreign debt. Countries accumulate foreign debt when they buy more from the rest of the world than they sell abroad. They then need to borrow money to pay the difference, which is known as balancing their payments. After banks and other institutions will no longer lend them money, they turn to the IMF to help them balance their payments position with the rest of the world. The IMF initially focused on Europe, but by the 1970s it changed its focus to the less-developed economies. By the early 1980s a large number of developing countries were having trouble financing their foreign debts. In 1982 the IMF had to offer more loans to Mexico, which was then still a developing country and other Latin American nations just so they could pay off their original debts.

The IMF and the World Bank usually impose certain conditions for loans and require what are called structural adjustment programs from borrowers. These programs amount to detailed instructions on what countries have to do to bring their economies under control. The programs are based on a strategy called neoliberalism, also known as the Washington Consensus because both the IMF and the World Bank are headquartered in Washington, D.C. The strategy is geared toward promoting free markets, including *privatization* (the selling off of government enterprises); *deregulation* (removing rules that restrict companies); and *tradeliberalization* (opening local markets to foreign goods by removing barriers to exports and imports). Finally, the strategy also calls for shrinking the role of government, reducing taxes, and cutting back on publicly provided services.

World Trade Organization

Another key institution shaping globalization is the World Trade Organization (WTO), which traces its origins to a 1948 United Nations (UN) conference in Havana, Cuba. The conference called for the creation of an International Trade Organization to lower *tariffs* (taxes on imported goods) and to encourage trade. Although the administration of President Harry S. Truman was instrumental in negotiating this agreement, the U.S. Congress considered it a violation of American sovereignty and refused to ratify it. In its absence another agreement, known as the

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), emerged as the forum for a series of negotiations on lowering tariffs. The last of these negotiating sessions, known as the Uruguay Round, established the WTO, which began operating in 1995. Since its creation, the WTO has increased the scope of trading agreements. Such agreements no longer involve only the trade of manufactured products.

Feminism

Although the word *feminism* was not used until the end of the 19th century, recognizably feminist beliefs began to emerge in the late 18th century. The earliest form of feminism was concerned with equal rights for women and men: this meant equal standing as citizens in public life and, to some extent, equal legal status within the home. These ideas emerged in response to the American Revolution (1775-1783) and the French Revolution (1789-1799), both of which advocated values of liberty and equality. Feminists in France argued that the revolution's values of liberty, equality, and fraternity should apply to all, while women activists in America called for an extension of the principles of the American Declaration of Independence to women, including rights to citizenship and property.

From the 1850s onward, the campaign for equal rights for women became focused on winning the right to vote, also known as woman suffrage. Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton led the campaign for women's suffrage in the United States. Suffrage movements also appeared in New Zealand, the Soviet Union, Germany, Poland, Austria, and Sweden.

Toward the end of the 19th century, another strand of feminist thinking appeared that questioned social attitudes toward women. These attitudes were expressed through representations of women in literature and other art forms and social rules for women's behavior. By the turn of the 20th century, the media in North America and Europe became preoccupied with the image of the "new woman." This woman challenged patriarchy not only by demanding equal civil rights but also by defying social conventions and choosing her own lifestyle and clothes.

By the 1920s, feminists began to turn their attention from questions of equality between women and men to issues that mainly concerned women. They called, for example, for improved welfare

provisions for mothers and children. These issues would become stronger in the second wave of feminism.

Second wave of feminism

The original impetus for the so-called second wave of feminism came from the civil rights movement and antiwar protests that emerged in the 1960s in North America and from social protest movements in Europe and Australasia. The women's liberation movement, which started in the United States, combined liberal, rights-based concerns for equality between women and men with demands for a woman's right to determine her own identity and sexuality. These two strands of ideology were represented in the seven demands of the movement, established between 1970 and 1978. These were equal pay; equal education and equal opportunities in work; financial and legal independence.

Central to second-wave feminism is the notion that the personal is political—that is, individual women do not suffer oppression in isolation but as the result of wider social and political systems. This ideology was greatly influenced by the writings of French philosopher Simone de Beauvoir and American feminist Kate Millett, who drew attention to ways in which women were oppressed by the very structure of Western society. In *The Second Sex* (1949) de Beauvoir **argued that Western culture regarded men as normal and women as an aberration** (“the other”), and she called for the recognition of the special nature of women.

Some Asian, Caribbean, and African American feminists have developed politics which draw on their ethnic origins as a source of strength. Feminism in Latin America has looked at oppression across gender, class, and racial lines, although it has recently begun to focus more closely on women's issues. In Islamic countries a secular, liberal feminism has developed that seeks to eliminate discrimination against women and to outlaw practices such as polygyny (multiple wives), purdah (seclusion in the home), and limitation of the right of divorce to the husband. In India, feminists have organized opposition to the dowry system and subsequent “dowry deaths,” where continuing demands of the groom's family are not met and result in the murder of the bride.

Another variety of feminist thought, particularly strong in the United Kingdom, is Marxist-feminist theory. This extends the theories of production expounded by German social theorists Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels to an examination of the economic and material exploitation of women, the sexual division of labor, especially in domestic work and childcare, and women's inequality within the workplace. In the United States a similar position is taken up by materialist feminists, who argue that women as a class are oppressed by material conditions and social relations.

Feminist Quotations

1. I have no hesitation in stating that they were exaggerated or slanted or untrue. We were united by one common bond of interest. We spoke each other's language—and that was the language of pioneer women of the air.

Ruth Rowland Nichols (1901 - 1961)U.S. pioneer aviator.

2. Women's Liberation is the liberation of the feminine in the man and the masculine in the woman.

Corita Kent (1918 - 1986)U.S. graphic artist.

3. Man is defined as a human being and woman as a female—whenever she behaves as a human being she is said to imitate the male.

Simone de Beauvoir (1908 - 1986)French writer and feminist theorist.

4. I am a warrior in the time of women warriors; the longing for justice is the sword I carry, the love of womankind my shield.

Sonia Johnson (1936 -)U.S. feminist and writer.

5. I feel angry that the righteous anger I did manage to express in the past was denigrated as unprofessional or self-defeating, or more subtly suppressed when others praised me as calm, reasonable, not one of those 'angry feminists'.

Gloria Steinem (1934 -)U.S. writer and feminist.

6. This is a woman's industry. No man will vote our stock, transact our business, pronounce on woman's wages, and supervise our factories. Give men whatever work is suitable, but keep the governing power.

Amanda Theodosia Jones (1835 - 1914) U.S. inventor, poet, businesswoman, and psychic.

7. To be a woman, if not a defect, is at least a peculiarity.

Simone de Beauvoir (1908 - 1986) French writer and feminist theorist.

8. Woman must not depend on the protection of man, but must be taught to protect herself.

Attributed to Susan B. Anthony (1820 - 1906) U.S. social reformer.

9. Women have been called queens for a long time, but the kingdom given them isn't worth ruling.

Louisa May Alcott (1832 - 1888)

U.S. novelist.

10. I am a feminist, and what that means to me is much the same as the meaning of the fact that I am Black: it means that I must undertake to love myself and to respect myself as though my very life depends upon self-love and self-respect.

June Jordan (1936 -) U.S. journalist, writer, and activist.

Nuclear energy

Nuclear energy is generated by the splitting, or fissioning, of atoms of uranium or heavier elements. The fission process releases heat, which is used to produce steam to drive a turbine to generate electricity. The operation of a nuclear reactor and the related electricity-generating equipment is only one part of an interconnected set of activities. The production of a reliable supply of electricity from nuclear fission requires mining, milling, and transporting uranium; enriching uranium (increasing the percentage of the uranium isotope U-235) and packing it in appropriate form; building and maintaining the reactor and associated generating equipment; and treating and disposing of spent fuel. These activities require extremely sophisticated and interactive industrial processes and many specialized skills.

In 2001 a total of 435 nuclear plants operated worldwide. Another 35 reactors were under construction. Eighteen countries generate at least 20 percent of their electricity from nuclear power. The largest nuclear power industries are located in the United States (104 reactors), France (59), Japan (52), Britain (35), Russia (29), and Germany (19). In the United States, no new reactors have been ordered for more than 20 years. Public opposition, high construction costs, strict building and operating regulations, and high costs for waste disposal make nuclear power plants much more expensive to build and operate than plants that burn fossil fuels.

In some industrialized countries, the electric power industry is being restructured to break up monopolies (the provision of a commodity or service by a single seller or producer) at the generation level. Because this trend is pressuring nuclear plant owners to cut operating expenses and become more competitive, the nuclear power industry in the United States and other western countries may continue to decline if existing nuclear power plants are unable to adapt to changing market conditions.

Asia is widely viewed as the only likely growth area for nuclear power in the near future. Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and China all had plants under construction at the end of the 20th century. Conversely, a number of European nations were rethinking their commitments to nuclear power.

France

France generates about 75 percent of its electricity from nuclear power. However, it has canceled several planned reactors and may replace aging nuclear plants with fossil-fuel plants for environmental reasons. As a result, the government-owned electricity utility, Electricité de France, plans to diversify the country's electricity-generating sources.

German

The German government announced in 1998 a plan to phase out nuclear power. However, as in Sweden, nuclear plant owners may take the government to court to seek compensation for plants shut down before the end of their operating lives.

Eastern Europe

A number of eastern European countries—including Russia, Ukraine, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania, and Slovakia—generate electricity from Soviet-designed nuclear reactors that have various safety flaws. Some of these reactors have the same design as the Chernobyl reactor that exploded in 1986. The United States and other western countries are working to address these design problems and to improve operations, maintenance, and training at these plants.