

Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan

A. Baitursynov Kostanai regional University

Department at History of Kazakhstan

**Educational and Methodological Complex of "History of Social and Political
Relations of Foreign Countries" course
(EMC)**

Speciality 5B050500 - Regional Studies

Kostanai, 2020

Content EMCD

№	№ List of documents	Note
1	Typical training program (copy)	Nomenclature folder 08 - ____ The department with.
2	Working curriculum discipline	in the folder for the work rams of the specialty
3	To courses (Syllabus) for the student	+
4	Timetable for implementation and delivery tasks for the discipline	+
5	Map educational-methodical maintenance of ipline	+
6	Lecture Complex (lecture abstracts, trations, and handouts, list of recommended ature)	+
7	Plans practical (seminar) lessons	+
8	Guidelines for the study of the discipline	+
9	Guidelines and instructions on standard calculations, laboratory works, settlement and graphic works, course projects (works)	-
10	Materials for students' independent work (homework sets of texts, self-materials, assignments for the implementation of the current types of work, essays and other homework assignments, indicating the complexity and literature)	+
11	Proceedings of the monitoring and evaluation of educational achievements of students (written control tasks, tests, questions to the boundary control, exam fees, etc.).	+

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

NAO "Kostanai Regional University
named after A. Baytursynov"
Institute of economic and law

APPROVE

Director

_____ A. Tabuldenov

_____._____2020.

Department **at History of Kazakhstan**

WORK CURRICULUM

(SYLLABUS)

course	The history of social and political relations of foreign countries
speciality	5B050500 - Regional Studies
course credits	5

Kostanai, 2020

The working curriculum was compiled by Ibrayev E.E., assistant professor of History of Kazakhstan

28.05. 2020

Considered and recommended at the meeting of the Department of History of Kazakhstan from 24.06. 2020. Protocol № 6

Head

D. Toimatayev

Approved by the Methodological Council of the Institute of Economics and Law from 25.06. 2020. Protocol № 6

Chairman of the Methodological Council

N. Korytnikova

1. Course description

The course “History of Social and Political Relations of Foreign Countries” discloses the peculiarities of the system of social and political relations in foreign countries in XX-XXI centuries. The course studies evolution stages and national identity of domestic relations of states, gives some idea of factors and causes of different historic events as well as of their consequences.

Prerequisites of the course

New and Recent History of Europe and America

New and Recent History of Asia and Africa

Post requisites of the course

Historiography of Foreign Countries’ History.

Objectives and tasks of the course

The objective of the course is the study of the system of social and political relations of foreign countries.

The course tasks:

- * to determine the basic factors that influenced the formation of the political system of states;
- * to highlight the periodization, the contents, the nature of the evolution of social and political relations;
- * to give a general description of the system of interethnic and interclass relations;
- * to identify policy tools and factors shaping national policies of states;
- * to identify and describe the main social contradictions in the countries studied.

While studying the course a student should

know

- the general and specific in world politics,
- history of domestic relations,
- terminological definitions and terminological aspects (realism, utopianism, geopolitical and geographical variations, system analysis, decision making, integration, conflict resolution, communication approaches, content analysis),
- basic interpretation of the most important problems in the history of social and political relations viewed from the perspective of different historical concepts,

be able to

- understand the conditions and laws governing the development of the history of social and political relations in the given period,
- highlight key problems of the development of social and political relations in the given period,
- resist attempts of various forces to manipulate his mind,
- refer to the history of social and political relations of new and recent times,
- represent historiographical analysis of the studied scientific problem based on preliminary review of scientific literature,
- use methods of comparisons and analogies based on international experience in the study of the courses related to this course.

During the course to acquire

- the skills of self-education,
- the skills of independent work with scientific literature and sources on the issues suggested by a teacher,

- skills of analysis of historic events; scientific literature and sources' (documents, official papers, statistical data, etc.) analysis,
- skills to resist the attempts of various forces to manipulate his mind,
- proficiency in the use of scientific language, monologue and dialogue speech.

be competent in

the history of social and political relations while analyzing contemporary events in foreign policy.

2 Course outline

Module 1: The United States in 1919-1939.

- 1.1. The economic and political consequences of World War II for the United States. The economic crisis of 1920-1921. and its consequences.
- 1.2. Domestic and foreign policy of the USA in the years of stabilization. Era in the United States of "prosperity" and the theory of "American exceptionalism."

Module 2. Britain, France and Spain in 1919-1939.

- 2.1. United Kingdom. Results of the First World War for the UK. Domestic and foreign policy of the government Lloyd George.
- 2.2. Features stabilization in the UK. The first Labour government. The general strike in 1926, its results. Politics Conservative government S. Baldwin. The economic crisis in the UK. Policy of the second Labour government.

Module 3. Subject Asian countries in the period between the world wars

- 3.1. China. Features of economic and political development of China. Sun Yat-sen and the Kuomintang. Three "Principles of the People." Start of the national liberation movement, its nature and characteristics. Northern Expedition People's Revolutionary Army.
- 3.2. Adoption of the Kuomintang government and the struggle for the unification of the country. The position of the Chinese Communist Party: the creation of the Soviet areas and the Red Army.

Module 4: The United States of America in the postwar period 1945-2008.

- 4.1. Results of the Second World War for the United States. The socio-political situation. Start the "cold war". Election 1948 offensive forces of reaction: McCarthyism. Policy President D. Eisen-Hauer.
- 4.2. The victory of the Democratic Party in the elections 1960 Domestic and foreign policy of President John. F. Kennedy. The Cuban missile crisis and its resolution.

Module 5. Asian and African countries in the postwar period

5.1. The difficulties of economic development of the country, "Japanese economic miracle", its essence, results.

5.2. Political and financial crises, to overcome them. Economic and political development of Japan in the 90s. Problems of Russian-Japanese relations. Japan at the beginning of the XXI century.

3. Recommended sources

Required books:

- 1 World history in a new and contemporary period. , Almaty, 1997.
- 2 Dolutsky II, VI Zhuravlev World history of the twentieth century. Part 1. End of 1 century-1945 god.-M., 2002.
- 3 History of modern times / R.Yu.Vipper, I.P.Reversov, A.S.Trachevskiy.-M., 1995.
- 4 Kostykin MI The history of modern times in Europe and Amerika.-Kursk, 1996.
- 5 Zabolotnyi VM The recent history of Europe and North America, the end of the twentieth-early twenty-first century. The manual for students-M.: AST, 2004.
- 6 The history of Russia from ancient times to the 1861 Book 1. Ed NI Pavlenko M. et al, 2004.
- 7 History of Russian twentieth-early twenty-first centuries. Ed L. Milov Moscow, 2006.
- 8 AI Stroganov The recent history of Latin America. M., 1995.
- 9 Al'perovich MS, LY Sliozkin History of Latin Ameriki.1 ed. Moscow, 1981.

Supplementary books:

- 10 Barg MA, Cherniak, EB The great social revolution, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in the structure of the transition period from feudalism to kapitalizmu.-M., 1990.
- 11 Barg, MA The English Revolution in the portraits of her figures.-M., 1991.
- 12 J. Boorstin American democratic experience. -M. 1993.
- 13 World War II. Discussion. Major trends. Findings research.-M. 1997.
- 14 IS Galkin Establishment of the German Empire. 1815-1871.-M., 1986.
- 15 Europe from Napoleon to the present day. -M. 1995.
- 16 Europe in the modern and contemporary time.-M., 1966.
- 17 Europe in international relations, was Max 1917-1939, 1990.
- 18 Historical and cultural foundations of European civilization. - Moscow, 1992.
- 19 U.S. History: In 4 Vols - Moscow, 1984-1987.
- 20 A Brief History of the United States. -M. 1993.
- 21 world political development: the twentieth century / N.V.Zagladin and others.-M., 1995.
- 22 The political history of the mid-nineteenth century. - 1917 / Ed. VA Kuvshinov. -M. 1992.
- 23 Revolution and reform in the twentieth century and their role in the history of society.-M., 1990.

4. Appendix

The training program (Syllabus)

1. Основная информация							
Faculty		Economic and Law					
Speciality		Regional Studies					
Year	3	Semester	6	Training form	Full time	Training program	required
Course cycle		BD		Component		EI	
Credit hours		5		Hours		150	
Course meeting place		Building 1					
Program supervisor		Ibraev Erden Ernazarovich					
Instructor		Ibraev Erden Ernazarovich					
Tutorial time (SIW ind.)		First week		Second week		Third week	
		Monday 13.30-14.20		Monday 13.30-14.20		Monday 13.30-14.20	
2 Prerequisites and postrequisites							
Prerequisites		History of World Religions History of the Middle Ages Modern and Contemporary History of Europe and America Modern and Contemporary History of Asia and Africa Chronology					
postrequisites		Sources on the history of foreign countries					
3 Course objectives							
Purpose	The objective of the course is the study of the system of social and political relations of foreign countries.						
Tasks	to determine the basic factors that influenced the formation of the political system of states; to highlight the periodization, the contents, the nature of the evolution of social and political relations; to give a general description of the system of interethnic and interclass relations; to identify policy tools and factors shaping national policies of states; to identify and describe the main social contradictions in the countries studied.						
4 Distribution of academic hours							
Total		Pract.	Lab. (Stud.)	SIW	STIW	Form of an assessment	
3 credit (-s), 135 hours		40		5	60	Exam, term paper	
5 Course outline							
The course “History of Social and Political Relations of Foreign Countries” discloses the peculiarities of the system of social and political relations in foreign countries in XX-XXI centuries. The course studies evolution stages and national identity of domestic relations of states, gives some idea of factors and causes of different historic events as well as of their consequences.							
6 Course policy							
1 The course must be active, not passive, so the student should be regularly and systematically prepare for the classes to perform all the tasks of SROs. The student should come prepared for lectures and seminars. Preparing for classes will be checked by an oral examination or test. 2 All types of control can be retaken only once when receiving a negative evaluation. On the positive assessment they cannot be relet. 3 A student shouldn't miss classes, without reasonable excuse. On seminars omission submit the tasks required. 4 In class students must observe safety, not get distracted and use cell phones.							
7 Recommended sources' list							
Required books		1. World history in a new and contemporary period. , Almaty, 1997. 2. Dolutsky II, VI Zhuravlev World history of the twentieth century. Part 1. End of 1 century-1945 god.-M., 2002. 3. History of modern times / R.Yu.Vipper, I.P.Reversov, A.S.Trachevskiy.-M., 1995. 4. Kostykin MI The history of modern times in Europe and Amerika.-Kursk, 1996. 5. Zabolotnyi VM The recent history of Europe and North America, the end of the twentieth-early twenty-first century. The manual for students-M.: AST, 2004.					
Supplementary books		10 Barg MA, Cherniak, EB The great social revolution, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in the structure of the transition period from feudalism to kapitalizmu.-M., 1990. 11 Barg, MA The English Revolution in the portraits of her figures.-M., 1991.					

	12 J. Boorstin American democratic experience. -M. 1993. 13 World War II. Discussion. Major trends. Findings research.-M. 1997.
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Course calendar							
№ weeks	Modules	Topics of lectures	Hours	Topics of practical lessons	Hours	STIW (group) topics	Hours
1	Module 1: The United States in 1919-1939.	European social and international relations at the beginning of the XX century	1	United States of America in the 1919-1939	3		
2				United States of America in the 1919-1939	3		
3	Module 2. Britain, France and Spain in 1919-1939.			Germany during the interwar period 1919-1939	2	Social and International Relations in the periodical review Prepare orally	1
4		The social and international relations in Europe in the 20-30-ies. the twentieth century	1	Britain, France and Spain in the 1919-1939	3		
5	Module 3. Subject Asian countries in the period between the world wars			Asian countries in the period between the world wars	3		
6				Latin American countries in the interwar period	2	The diplomat's memories, statesmen with oral defense	1
7	Module 4: The United States of America in the postwar period 1945-2008.	The social and international relations in the post-war period	1	United States of America in the 1945-2014	3		
8				Germany in 1945-2014; from split to unite	3		
9				France in 1945-2014	2	Tutorial. Create an annotation in writing	1
10		The world in the era of the "cold war"	1	Great Britain in 1945-2014 years	3		
11				The countries of Central and Eastern Europe in 1945-2014	3		
12				Latin American countries in the 1945-2014	2	Social and International Relations in periodicals in the periodical review Prepare orally	1
13	Module 5. Asian and African countries in the postwar period	Social and International Relations in 1980-2000-ies	1	The leading Asian countries in 1945-2014	3		
14				The leading Asian countries in 1945-2014	3		
15				African countries in the post-colonial period	2	The diplomat's memories, statesmen with oral defense	1
			5		40		5

9. Schedule of tasks fulfillment and accomplishment on the course

Types of assessment	Forms of assessment	Grades	Weeks														
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
CA	Interview	100	*	*		*		*		*	*	*		*		*	
	control work	100			*		*							*			
	Analysis of the literature	100		*					*						*		
	Compilation of test	100						*								*	
	work with sources	100					*						*				
MA	Tests	100									*						
	Colloquiums	100															*
FA	Examinations	40															

Note 1. A student, who got at least 50% out of 100% and the positive marks for all types of tasks at the end of a semester, is allowed to take an exam. To obtain a positive assessment result it is necessary to get at least 50% out of 100% at the exam.

Note 2. In case of non-attendance of practical classes, one must fulfil the required curriculum tasks.

Evaluation criterion

Traditional evaluation	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Poor
Grades (maximum = 100)	90-100	75-89	50-74	0-49

** All the educational achievements of students are evaluated according to 100 point scale for each completed task (answer, homework, test, etc.), the final result of the assessment is calculated by adding them together and dividing by the number of marks got.

Translation Table ratings points-rating alphabetic system by ECTS grades

Based on letter system	A	A-	B+	B	B-	C+	C	C-	D+	D	F
% Content	95-100	90-94	85-89	80-84	75-79	70-74	65-69	60-64	55-59	50-54	0-49
Based on the traditional system	Excellent		good	good		satisfactorily	satisfactorily			satisfactorily	unsatisfactorily
Based on ECTS	A		B	C			D			E	FX, F

10 SIW tasks

№	Topic, task, types of work	Hours	Sources	Reporting form	Date of completion, week (deadline)
1	Abstract on the textbook	5	Required: 1,3,4 Supplementary: 1, 2	Setting draw on A4 sheets (volume 1 p.)	1-2
2	Review: Memoirs	5	Required: 1-5 Supplementary: 1, 12, 18, 20	Setting draw on A4 sheets (volume 1 p.)	3-15
3	Browse journals	5	Required: 1, 2, 5, 6	Prepare for the colloquium	3-15
4	Final colloquium	2	Required: 1, 2, 5, 8	Summary notebook	7, 15
	Other types of SIW				
5	Preparation for lectures (0,5 x number of classes)	2,5			
6	Preparation for practical classes (1 x number of classes)	22, 5			
7	Preparation for laboratory (studio) classes (1 x number of classes)	19			
8	Preparation for current final activities (1 hour x type of control)	4			
	Total hours of SIW	65			

The program was designed by Ibraev EE - senior lecturer
15.05. 2020.

Examined and recommended at the department session the History of Kazakhstan protocol from 24.06.2020. № 6

Head of the Department

D. Toymatayev

6. LECTURE COMPLEX DISCIPLINE “HISTORY OF SOCIAL AND POLITICAL RELATIONS OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES”

Lecture 1. European social and international relations at the beginning of the XX century.

Plan:

1. Triple block
2. Entente
3. Results of the First World War

In addition, you should have considered and be able to discuss the following topics:

In what way did the First World War set the pattern for most of the rest of the twentieth century?

Why were the common people of Europe so agreeable about going to war in 1914?

What was the effect of the First World War upon the peoples of Africa and Asia?

How did the financial policies of the victorious powers in the First World War contribute to the coming of the Great Depression?

How important was German culture in American society before 1917? What happened to this culture?

What was "The Red Scare" in America, and what was its long-term effects?

What were the differences between the Ku Klux Klan of the 1860's and 1870's, and that which arose in the 1920's? Which of them was the more dangerous and why?

How did the United States fare during the First World War? How did Japan fare?

The First World War was another of those watersheds in History. Although the fighting occurred between 1914 and 1918, it led directly into a period known in the United States as *The Jazz Age*, 1922-1929, an era of unprecedented prosperity, cultural vitality, and decay of traditional social values; and the *Roaring 'Twenties* led in turn to the collapse of world markets and the economic collapse known as *The Great Depression*, 1929-1939; which was a major reason for the rise of the *fascist* dictatorships in Germany, Italy, and Japan that brought on *The Second World War*, 1939-1945; which left two great powers, The United States and the Soviet Union, locked in a struggle known as the *Cold War*, 1946-1987. There is so much that one could say about the First World War that an entire course would not provide enough time to do much more than survey those four years. And so, rather than attempting to provide a summary so brief as to be virtually useless, this essay will discuss a few aspects of *The War to End All Wars* that it might be worth your while to know and think about.

Europe had enjoyed relative peace for a hundred years when the war broke out. There had been conflicts, naturally, but nothing as devastating or global as the Napoleonic Wars had been. During that period, basically conservative governments had protected the position of their privileged classes and had nurtured their own economic growth. The mass of the people did not object all that much, at least not after about 1850. A wave of new inventions and the expansion of the economies of the Western nations brought about a more or less steady improvement in living standards -- partly because the economic growth of the industrial nations was being paid for by the exploited labor of Africans, Indians, Chinese and other native peoples. Europeans paid little attention to the growing hatred of the residents of their new empires, partly because they were caught up in the emotions of *nationalism*, the proposition that the individual finds fulfillment only within his or her *nation*, an entity that is sacred, without fault, and more important than the individuals who comprise it.

This was one of the reasons that people flocked with joy and song to go to war once the complex series of alliances that been supposed to keep the peace had become unraveled. It may also have been because no one expected a long war. The nations were mobilizing armies many times larger than Napoleon's *Grand Armee*, and it was inconceivable to most that such armies could be kept in the field for more than a matter of a few months. All sides expected and hoped for a quick and decisive battle, but that never occurred. Barbed wire made cheap and almost impenetrable fortifications, and two men with a single

machine gun possessed greater fire power than an elite regiment of Napoleon's time. The war dragged on through the years with incredible losses of men by all of the opponents. France and England drew on their colonial peoples to serve as ammunition carriers, trench diggers, and the like, and these "inferior" peoples were allowed to see that British sahibs and French messieurs could be killed just as easily as anyone. Meanwhile, in a theater of war little noted by the Europeans, the Japanese Imperial Navy seized all of Germany's Asian and Pacific possessions, and so announcing to the native peoples of that part of the world that Asians could beat the Europeans at their own game. In the midst of its conflict, Europe scarcely recognized that their overseas empires had become to crumble.

It was a hard war, and governments had to promise their disillusioned people a great deal to keep them fighting. So it was that, when an Armistice had been declared and the fighting men began returning home, the victorious governments shied away from adopting the traditional methods of beginning to retire their war debts and, instead, began to manipulate their currency to pay for the good things they had promised their people. Most of these governments proposed to avoid the problem of war debts by expecting the defeated nations, primarily Germany since the other states had been more or less dismantled, to pay for the entire war. This was an impossible dream, however, since Germany did not have the resources to pay. After a few years of trying to pay indemnities, the German economy collapsed and, one after the other, the other industrialized nations followed. This was not the only cause of *The Great Depression*, of course, but it contributed significantly to that collapse.

I would like to turn my attention to one curious aspect of the United States during The First World War, and that is the prevailing pattern of hate that sprang up within the nation. First, let us consider German culture in America.

Many, if not most, American scholars of the latter half of the nineteenth century wishing to study abroad, looked to Heidelberg and Frankfurt rather than Oxford and Cambridge. In the same way, more American artists studied in Munich than in Paris. American scholars adopted the German seminar system as their standard for graduate education and consequently continued to look to Germany for their models of research and theory. Since so many Americans were of German ancestry more American tourists went to Germany than to England.

There was also the fact that the German population of the United States was large, active, and successful in keeping German language and culture alive and well. There were a number of flourishing German language newspapers and publishing houses in the country, virtually every town had its German band that gave free public concerts, German bakeries, and, of course, German breweries. Early in the nineteenth century, there had been some thought of establishing an official language for the United States, but the plan was abandoned when it was discovered that the official language might very well turn out to be German.

America still has reminders of how German culture was to American ways. We put up Christmas trees, give presents on Christmas Day, and talk of Santa Claus rather than Father Christmas. We eat cookies, not biscuits as do the English, drink coffee rather than tea, prepare gravy pretty regularly, and do and say a host of other things that mark the German and Dutch influence on our ways. This dynamic German element of American culture was virtually eradicated during the period in which the United States fought in the First World War (1917-1918). A wave of hysteria not unlike the early modern European witch hunts swept across America. Many states passed laws forbidding the teaching of the German language in public schools; it became dangerous to speak German at all in public; German clubs and Turner halls were closed down, some only after being gutted and torched by angry crowds; establishments owned by people of German descent or even German-sounding names (including German Jews) were boycotted or vandalized; and many German citizens sought to change their names or to claim that they were in fact of Dutch descent. It seemed to make little difference that hundreds of thousands of German-Americans had joined the armed forces and that thousands would die fighting, as they believed, for their country. The printing presses of German newspapers were smashed, German books were burned in bonfires, and more. One could go on at much greater length, but it should be sufficient to say that German culture and the pride of Germans in their origins and traditions never recovered from the attacks of this period. It is almost a comic relief to note that at least some historians feel that the American adoption of *prohibition*, making the sale or consumption of *any* alcoholic

beverages illegal (1920-1933), was intended, at least partly as a punishment of German Americans (such as Anheuser-Busch, Pabst, Schlitz, and others).

One of the effects of the long and grueling war had been the collapse of Tsarist Russia and its takeover by a *communist*-led revolution (1917). The governments of the capitalist nations feared that the "infection of Bolshevism" would spread to their own people, but none reacted with the violence of the United States. Congress had passed a *Treason Act of 1918* that permitted the government to dispense with many constitutional protections of individuals on the grounds that, in time of war, civil rights cannot protect the individual who commits treason. Of course, this left it up to the government to define treason, and, beginning almost immediately, the federal government began to use the Treason Act to jail "left-wing", that is, radical liberal, dissidents, including labor organizers, pacifists, people who questioned the government's handling of the war and the peace, often without trial. Mobs chased down some such people and lynched them without much in the way of official interference.

An interesting aspect of all of this is that, in the days before the War, the *Industrial Workers of the World*, the IWW, or "Wobblies", a militant labor organization attempting to create something similar to the modern *CIO* (*Congress of Industrial Organizations*), had been achieving some success in organizing working men's unions. During this *Red Scare*, most of the leaders of this group were either jailed or executed, and a sufficient number of members lynched or beaten that the growth of trade unionism in the United States never reached the level of the other industrialized nations of the world.

All of this happened in a relatively short time. Within five years, the Red Scare was over, but had been replaced by something more insidious and pervasive. In the aftermath of the American Civil War, the former Confederate general, Nathan Bedford Forrest, organized the *Ku Klux Klan*, a supposedly secret group that spread throughout the states of the old Confederacy, using violent means to regain political control of those states from "carpet-bagger" politicians and the newly-freed and enfranchised Blacks whose votes they organized to gain power for themselves. By 1876, the Northern occupation of the Southern states came to an end, and the Ku Klux Klan slowly declined. In the early 1920's, however, a new Klan arose, this one centered in Indiana, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, and other Midwestern states, but gradually spreading into the South. The pervasiveness of this new Klan and its political power did much by the thirties to create an atmosphere that permitted the resumption of lynchings of Blacks, and more. The new Klan was not only anti-negro, but also anti-semitic, anti-Catholic, anti-immigrant, anti-labor, and opposed to many other peoples and things. It would seem, in fact, that it was the raw material of a native American Fascist movement and was only waiting for a leader to unite. It is probable that only the onset of the Great Depression, and perhaps the assassination of Senator Huey Long of Louisiana, averted the growth of a powerful reactionary party in America. So, perhaps even the Great Depression had a bright side to it.

One could say much more about the First World War and its effect upon the world's peoples, but it is difficult enough to find a reasonable conclusion to what we have already discussed. Indeed, these observations already raise more questions than they answer. One must remember that United States did not really suffer during the war. For most of the conflict Americans grew rich selling food, clothing, medicines, and war materials to the allied powers of Great Britain, Italy, and France, and ended the war a wealthier and more powerful country than she had entered it. What war debt it had incurred was wiped out in the inflation of the 'twenties, and its war casualties, compared to those of other combatants were quite few. One can understand the disillusionment of the Europeans since their governments had led them into a war from which they seemed unable to extricate them, and their generals were uninterested in preventing or lessening the slaughter of their men. The fact that many of the survivors seemed intent on enjoying life as excessively as possible and that others began to question the supposed superiority of Western culture is not surprising.

But what was it in America that caused it people to turn on each other in the hysterical waves of hate and to deny to each other the very rights that they were supposedly fighting for? There were obviously great social and economic tensions within American society, but what were these tensions, and do they still exist?

Lecture 2. The social and international relations in Europe in the 20-30-ies. the twentieth century.

Plan

1. The United States in 1919-1929: "era of prosperity".
2. "New Deal" of President FD Roosevelt and its results.
3. "The Great Depression" and its impact on American society.

You should also be able to discuss the following topics:

- How did the Great Epidemic of 1918-1919 arise and what were its effects? What does this tell us about the dynamics of global interaction? What do you think would happen if a similar mutation took place in some common illness today?
- Why was the death rate in the United States higher than it perhaps need have been?
- How did "the Stockmarket Crash" occur and what was its effect?
- More specifically, how did "the Stockmarket Crash" lead to "the Great Depression"?
- What were the characteristics of Fascism, and what caused it rise during the 1930's?
- In what sense was it "an extreme form of Romanticism"?
- Who was John Maynard Keynes, and what was his strategy for maintaining a balanced economy?
- How did the Western nations attempt to implement Keynesian strategies? With what effect?
- What was the New Deal and what was it planned to do?
- What finally brought the Great Depression to an end?

The World War was itself bad enough, but the returning troops brought back a deadly disease -- *influenza*. The best estimates of total mortality from this epidemic range around fifty million, greater than the battle casualties of all the combatants combined. Even though it could not be compared to anything like the Black Death of the 14th century, for instance, *the Great Epidemic of 1918-1919* was the most recent great epidemic to sweep the world and, if only for that reason, it is worth examining more closely.

Influenza was not new to Europe. The first clearly identifiable and datable epidemic had been in 1743 and the most recent had been in 1890, the latter being an outbreak that spread throughout the world, passing through the United States in 1892. The Great Epidemic evolved in a process that took the form of three waves, each lasting no more than a few weeks.

The first wave began in May/June 1918 and coincided with the arrival of the first U.S. troops in Europe. There had already been cases of this influenza in the U.S. training camps, and historians believe that the first outbreak can be dated to March, 1918, and traced to Camp Funston, Kansas. The disease spread quickly among the troops in the cramped and unsanitary quarters of the trans-Atlantic troopships, and, as a consequence, many were carriers when they disembarked in France. They carried the first wave of the influenza epidemic of 1918-1919 to Europe. That first wave spread quickly through Europe, affecting Allied troops first and only then the soldiers of the Central Powers, thus making it clear that the origin of the first wave had been the newly-arrived American doughboys. That first wave was unusual because it attacked the young, rather than the elderly as was usually the case. When it was seen that very few people over thirty fell ill, it was concluded that it was simply a recurrence of the strain that had caused the 1890 epidemic. Those under twenty-eight years of age had been born after the 1890 outbreak and had no acquired immunity. Its symptoms were identical to those of 1890 and, since the 1890 epidemic had not been all that deadly, most people simply waited for the outbreak to work itself out by infecting, and thus conferring immunity upon, a sufficient portion of the population to arrest the further spread of infection.

That first wave subsided in July/August of 1918, and only a few medical statisticians noticed that the death rate among those who contracted the virus had been much higher at the end of the outbreak than it had been at the beginning. Moreover, those statisticians were among the medical personnel of the Central Powers (Germany, Austria, and Turkey) and did not share their information with their opponents.

Looking back, Historians now can see that a mutation in the virus had occurred and given rise to a new strain. This mutation must have occurred somewhere far from the point of introduction of the original strain. It may have occurred somewhere in Eastern Europe but, in any case, took some time to work its way back to the heavy concentration of population on the western war front. The new infection reached the Western Front in September/October 1918 and spread quickly through the troops in the area. The fighting ended on 11 November 1918, and many of those troops began returning home. Needless to say, they carried the influenza virus with them. It is clear that this virus was a quite different animal from its predecessor and something quite new to the world. There seemed to be no place where the population had an acquired immunity to this new strain. Its symptoms were now different from the contagion that had preceded it. The disease had become primarily a respiratory infection, and the death rate was much greater than in either 1890 or during the first wave of 1918.

This second wave subsided in December 1918/January 1919, and a third wave arose in March 1919. This third wave was not as dramatic or destructive as the Winter contagion. It seemed to be simply a recurrence, attacking those who had been weakened by infections during the second wave. It tended to linger, however, and caused a number of deaths among a more vulnerable population.

The title of "The Great Influenza Epidemic of 1918-1919" should be probably restricted to the second wave. It was a mutation of the 1890 strain of influenza that had been reintroduced to Europe by troops newly-arriving from the United States. The mutation most likely occurred somewhere in eastern Europe, spread to the western front at a time when troops were heading home, and so was quickly carried throughout the world. The fact that so few people in the United States had an acquired immunity is a very strong argument that the epidemic that began in the United States in the Autumn of 1918 was new to the American population.

In 1977 or 1978 (I'm sorry, but my memory fails me), epidemiologists noted that the human antibodies generated by the 1918-1919 strain of influenza were very similar to those of pigs that had survived swine flu. When an outbreak of swine flu occurred, some people got very upset by the possibility that the 1918-1919 strain of influenza had mutated out of or into the virus responsible for swine flu, and that the outbreak of swine flu somehow or another signalled the possible return of the 1918-1919 strain of human influenza. The federal government initiated an almost hysterical crash program to develop a human vaccine against swine flu and to vaccinate everyone in the country, and a great deal of popular concern was generated. There were lots of stories and statistics about the epidemic of 1918-1919, and the subject began to assume the character of a Billy Goat Gruff story. It became a popular topic for uninformed speculation, and many articles and accounts that appeared at the time resurface periodically. I suspect that a history of this entire episode would make very interesting reading.

It is difficult to estimate the total death toll. Supposedly, thirty million people died of influenza during the outbreak, but the virus of the second wave affected the respiratory system and broke down the mucus membrane of the bronchial tubes and lungs. This laid people open to contracting pneumonia, bronchitis, tuberculosis, strep and yeast infections, and a number of other debilitating or deadly organisms. No one can tell how many died of these secondary infections, especially since numerous ex- combatants had suffered respiratory damage from poison gas and contracted the same illnesses, and because the deaths from these secondary infections were often the result of prolonged illnesses and took place long after the Great Epidemic was over.

What is certain is that the death toll would have been much greater had it not been discovered that a recently developed pharmaceutical, acetosalicylic acid (*aspirin*), acted to dull pain and discomfort and also was effective as an anti-inflammatory. It allowed patients to rest more easily and lessened the high fevers that were characteristic of the disease. It was, for these reasons, quite effective in the treatment of the infection. The patent for aspirin was owned by Bayer, a German firm, and most nations ignored Bayer's attempts to maintain an artificially high price for their medication during this time when the need for it was the greatest. The United States was, to the best of my knowledge, the only country willing to sacrifice the lives of its citizens to protect the property interests a company that had been a prominent contributor to its enemy's war effort. Aspirin was sold in the United States for about 2.5 cents per tablet, the equivalent of about fifty cents each in today's currency, a rather high price for someone sick and so

without work. It has been estimated that mortality in the United States was ten to twenty percent higher than it would have been if aspirin had been reasonably priced.

This, coupled with the beginning of the so-called *Red Scare* and fears of generalized labor violence such as that of the *Molly Maguires* a generation earlier, and a sudden burst of inflation, started the post-war era off somewhat ominously in the United States. Things were much worse elsewhere. The Allies had blockaded Germany during the war, and starvation among the civilian population of Central Powers had been one of the reasons for the Powers' decision to capitulate. Famine continued in eastern and central Europe. The Bolsheviks under the leadership of *Lenin* had seized control of Russia, but several Royalist insurrections broke out, and the Allied powers tried to aid the insurgents in overthrowing the *Communist* regime. The result was a prolonged and ghastly civil war. At the close of the First World War and the struggles that followed, both the victors - except for the United States and Japan - and the vanquished were exhausted and their treasuries drained.

Nevertheless, some of the Western nations contrived, by using their accumulated capital reserves, confiscating the remaining wealth of the defeated nations, and by continuing the deficit spending that had financed their war effort, to make the 1920's a period of extravagance, even if such extravagance was enjoyed only by a small portion of the world's population. This era of artificial plenty came to an abrupt end with the collapse of the world's stock markets -- *the Stock Market "Crash" of August 1929* -- and the resultant disappearance of a significant portion of the world's "wealth".

In order to understand how this occurred, one should understand the curious way in which stock markets work. Let us consider an example. There is a new company that needs \$1000 to begin operations, so it sells one thousand shares of stock for one dollar each. You pay one dollar and become the proud owner of one share of stock worth one dollar. You must remember that a share of stock is worth either what you paid for it or what someone else is willing to pay you for it. Let us say someone comes up to you and offers you five dollars for your share of stock and you accept. The worth of a share of stock is whatever that stock can be sold at, so the value of all of the shares of stock in that company is now five dollars. Although only five dollars has changed hands, \$4000 of additional wealth has been created. If you then begin to regret having sold such fine stock, you might take an extra five dollars of your own money and buy a share of that stock for ten dollars. The market value of all thousand shares of stock is now ten dollars and all stock holders are becoming rich quite rapidly. As long as everyone is confident and does not wish to lose out in the general enrichment, this sort of thing is well and good. But all of this wealth is merely "paper wealth" that has been created by the transfer of very small sums of real money. Suppose that the person who now holds the ten dollars that you paid for your share of stock decides that it would be unwise to buy any further stock. And further suppose that one of your fellow stock holders decided to try to sell his share at ten dollars. He would find that there were no buyers for ten dollars, or five dollars or even one dollar. Your stock and that of your fellow stock holders would have become worthless and \$10,000 of wealth would have vanished.

This sort of thing happens all of the time on a less dramatic scale. The person who is willing to buy stock because he believes that people will soon be willing to buy the stock for even more than he spent is called a *bull* and someone who has decided that the value of stocks will not increase and that he should not buy anything is called a *bear*. What happened in 1929 is that some stock market investors who had been bulls for the previous five or six years began to worry that the good times might be coming to an end and turned into bears. Once the prices of stock started falling, investors sold stock for whatever price they could get, grabbed what money they could and held onto it. This meant that stock prices continued to fall. The Stock Market is more than a financier's guessing game, though. It is one the means by which companies obtain the money they need. In 1929, many firms that needed money in order to keep running found it impossible to borrow any from banks and could not sell stock in their companies. Without funds or the hope of acquiring funds, many companies went bankrupt. They were unable to pay back any money they might have borrowed, and the banks that loaned them the money, suddenly finding that they owed more money to their investors than they were likely to receive from their debtors, also went bankrupt. The bankrupt companies were forced to lay off their employees at exactly the same time that their banks took away their savings. So these workers now had neither a job nor an income nor any savings, and so they could no longer buy anything. The businesses that depended on selling to them no longer had a market,

and so they went bankrupt also and more people lost their jobs. The whole situation was a very vicious circle.

Throughout the world, new leaders arose to replace those discredited or overthrown as a result of the war, while leaders who saw an opportunity in the weakening of Europe's resources and will arose among non-Western peoples. Certainly there were ample signs among Europeans of dissatisfaction with the way things had been, and were being, done, and many were willing to embrace radical changes. Some among the intellectuals turned to eastern religions, mystical cults, or praise of a life of indolence and self-gratification. Among the working classes, some turned to Communism, while others threw themselves into *fascist* movements of one sort or another.

Fascism is difficult to define, but it was an important force in the world between the wars. There were fascist parties in almost every country, at least every Western country in the world, and the Second World War was essentially a struggle between the fascist and non-fascist powers. In a broad sense, Fascism seems as if it were an extreme form of *Romanticism*, rebelling against the *Realist* doctrines of the Communist nations and the middle class "democratic" states that were, in spite of the changes wrought by the War, still only continuations of the conservative regimes of the Congress of Vienna. Fascist movements were centered upon charismatic leaders such as Mussolini in Italy, Adolf Hitler in Germany, Francisco Franco in Spain, Salazar in Portugal, Tojo in Japan, Peron in Argentina, men who promised simple solutions to the complex problems of the day. These solutions usually involved a return to a past glory based upon social and racial purity, a concentration of power in the central government, an exaltation of the state above the individual and an enforced return to some vaguely-defined set of "virtues." The Fascist leaders usually ascribed their people's sorry condition to a betrayal by former leaders, and they led popular attacks upon those who had "conspired" against the state. They viewed war as a positive good that would weed out the unworthy from the population and exalt the "meritorious" survivors. The unstable nature of the fascist states provided a constant background of uncertainty to the efforts by many countries to recover from what amounted to economic paralysis. In the end, it was the fascist powers that would lead the West out of the Great Depression.

The most important economist of this period was *John Maynard Keynes* (rhymes with "rains"). His view of economics was rather simple. The economy consisted of people passing wealth from one to the other. If they have too much wealth or pass it back and forth too rapidly, the economy "heats up." Money and credit become worth less and so the prices of commodities rise. If there is too little money and credit or if it moves too slowly from hand to hand, the value of money and credit increases and the price of commodities fall. The first situation is called *inflation* and the second called *recession* or *depression*, depending on how severe the drop in prices is and how long the situation lasts.. Keynes's view was that it was that government was responsible for keeping the right amount of money and credit in circulation and the rate of circulation such that the economy would neither "heat up" nor "cool off".

The problem was that government could not control this matter directly. If people chose to keep their money and not buy anything, government should not force them to do otherwise. Keynes understood this problem and felt that the government had to use *deficit spending*, putting more money into the economy than it took out, during recessions or depressions. The government could do this by reducing taxes, but this would not be effective in a situation in which people were simply hoarding all of the money they could. So, said Keynes, the government should print more money and so go into debt. The money should be used, if possible, for public works and economic infrastructure (such as improved railroads, hydroelectric dams, flood control projects, bridges, irrigation canals, and the like) that would increase production in the long run and should get money into the hands of the consumers so that they would begin to buy again in the short run.

Those of you who have drawn water by using hand-pump probably remember that one often has to pour some water into the top of the pump before it will work effectively. This is called "priming the pump", and deficit spending by governments in order to start a flagging economy moving again is called *pump-priming*. How is one to pay for pump-priming? Keynes said that the government would get the money back by raising taxes when the economy was too "hot", and would be able to retire its pump-priming debt and cool down the economy at the same time by taking money out of circulation. Furthermore, he noted,

the government would be "buying" capital improvements when the price of such things was low and would be paying off its debts with money that had been made "cheap" by inflation.

This was, and is, an attractive approach to controlling the national economy, but Keynes had no idea how much deficit spending would be necessary to start a modern industrial economy working again. Most nations used variations of Keynes's strategy. *Benito Mussolini*, the Fascist dictator of Italy (1922-1945), built new highways and modernized the nation's railroads. *Adolf Hitler*, the dictator of Germany (1932-1945), built a magnificent new highway system (the *Autobahn*, which is still in use) and subsidized a new auto company (Volkswagen) that was to revolutionize Germany as Henry Ford's Model T had revolutionized the United States. In America, *President Franklin Delano Roosevelt* (1931- 1945) implemented a broad scheme of recovery called *The New Deal*, involving social works (such as social security, workman's compensation, the Writers Project, and the like) and extensive programs of public works (Hoover Dam; Grand Coulee Dam; the Tennessee Valley Authority, Lone Star Lake Dam in Douglas County, Kansas and many other things), all accompanied by federal regulations to ensure their proper application.

Despite the efforts to "reboot" the economy and the tremendous sums being spent in this effort, the recovery of the world economy was agonizingly slow. Hitler, for one, was not inclined to wait since he felt that Germany's recovery was being unnecessarily slowed by the lack of territories that the Allied Powers had taken away from Germany in the aftermath of the First World War. He began to build an army, navy, and airforce to regain territories by force if necessary. It took the other Western nations quite a while before they realized that Germany's investment in military power was too great to be justified merely by the return of the "lost" territories it demanded.

When they finally did so, about 1938, they began feverishly expanding their own military forces. The immense deficit spending on preparing for and waging war was, in the end, the "pump-priming" that ended the Great Depression. There was yet another flaw in Keynes's view of things, however. Neither he nor other academics could have imagined how difficult it would be for elected politicians to raise taxes even when post-war inflation began. Besides, no one had asked how a nation was to finance a state of war that would last forty years and more.

Lecture 3. The social and international relations in the post-war period

Plan:

1. The origins of world conflict
2. The beginning of the Cold War
3. The nuclear standoff

In 1945, the United States was a far different country than it subsequently became. Nearly a third of Americans lived in poverty. A third of the country's homes had no running water, two-fifths lacked flushing toilets, and three-fifths lacked central heating. More than half of the nation's farm dwellings had no electricity. Most African Americans still lived in the South, where racial segregation in schools and public accommodations were still the law. The number of immigrants was small as a result of immigration quotas enacted during the 1920s. Shopping malls had not yet been introduced.

Following World War II, the United States began an economic boom that brought unparalleled prosperity to a majority of its citizens and raised Americans expectations, breeding a belief that most economic and social problems could be solved. Among the crucial themes of this period were the struggle for equality among women and minorities, and the backlash that these struggles evoked; the growth of the suburbs, and the shift in power from the older industrial states and cities of the Northeast and upper Midwest to the South and West; and the belief that the U.S. had the economic and military power to maintain world peace and shape the behavior of other nations.

The Cold War

After World War II, the United States clashed with the Soviet Union over such issues as the Soviet dominance over Eastern Europe, control of atomic weapons, and the Soviet blockade of Berlin. The establishment of a Communist government in China in 1949 and the North Korean invasion of South Korea in 1950 helped transform the Cold War into a global conflict. The United States would confront Communism in Iran, Guatemala, Lebanon, and elsewhere. In an atmosphere charged with paranoia and anxiety, there was deep fear at home about “enemies within” sabotaging U.S. foreign policy and passing atomic secrets to the Soviets.

Postwar America

During the early 1970s, films like *American Graffiti* and television shows like “Happy Days” portrayed the 1950s as a carefree era--a decade of tail-finned Cadillacs, collegians stuffing themselves in phone booths, and innocent tranquility and static charm. In truth, the post-World War II period was an era of intense anxiety and dynamic, creative change. During the 1950s, African Americans quickened the pace of the struggle for equality by challenging segregation in court. A new youth culture emerged with its own form of music--rock ‘n’ roll. Maverick sociologists, social critics, poets, and writers--conservatives as well as liberals--authored influential critiques of American society.

The 1960s was a decade when hundreds of thousands of ordinary Americans gave new life to the nation's democratic ideals. African Americans used sit-ins, freedom rides, and protest marches to fight segregation, poverty, and unemployment. Feminists demanded equal job opportunities and an end to sexual discrimination. Mexican Americans protested discrimination in voting, education, and employment. Native Americans demanded that the government recognize their land claims and the right of tribes to govern themselves. Environmentalists demanded legislation to control the amount of pollution released into the environment.

Summary:

Early in the decade, African American college students, impatient with the slow pace of legal change, staged sit-ins, freedom rides, and protest marches to challenge segregation in the South. Their efforts led the federal government to pass the Civil Rights Act of 1964, prohibiting discrimination in public facilities and employment, and the 24th Amendment and the Voting Rights Act of 1965, guaranteeing voting rights.

The examples of the civil rights movement inspired other groups to press for equal rights. The women's movement fought for equal educational and employment opportunities, and brought about a transformation of traditional views about women's place in society. Mexican Americans battled for bilingual education programs in schools, unionization of farm workers, improved job opportunities, and increased political power. Native Americans pressed for control over their lands and resources, the preservation of native cultures, and tribal self-government. Gays and lesbians organized to end legal discrimination based on sexual orientation.

In a far-reaching effort to reduce poverty, alleviate malnutrition, extend medical care, provide adequate housing, and enhance the employability of the poor, President Lyndon Johnson launched his Great Society Program in 1964. But the Vietnam War, ghetto rioting, and the rise of a militant antiwar movement and the counterculture, contributed to a political backlash that would lead the Republican Party to control the presidency for 10 of the next 14 years.

Lecture 4. The world in the era of the "cold war"

Plan:

1. The height of the Cold War
2. The Third World Countries
3. The escalation of conflict
4. The end of the Cold War

During World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union fought together as allies against the Axis powers. However, the relationship between the two nations was a tense one. Americans had long been

wary of Soviet communism and concerned about Russian leader Joseph Stalin's tyrannical, blood-thirsty rule of his own country. For their part, the Soviets resented the Americans' decades-long refusal to treat the USSR as a legitimate part of the international community as well as their delayed entry into World War II, which resulted in the deaths of tens of millions of Russians. After the war ended, these grievances ripened into an overwhelming sense of mutual distrust and enmity. Postwar Soviet expansionism in Eastern Europe fueled many Americans' fears of a Russian plan to control the world. Meanwhile, the USSR came to resent what they perceived as American officials' bellicose rhetoric, arms buildup and interventionist approach to international relations. In such a hostile atmosphere, no single party was entirely to blame for the Cold War; in fact, some historians believe it was inevitable.

The Cold War: Containment

By the time World War II ended, most American officials agreed that the best defense against the Soviet threat was a strategy called "containment." In 1946, in his famous "Long Telegram," the diplomat George Kennan (1904-2005) explained this policy: The Soviet Union, he wrote, was "a political force committed fanatically to the belief that with the U.S. there can be no permanent *modus vivendi* [agreement between parties that disagree]"; as a result, America's only choice was the "long-term, patient but firm and vigilant containment of Russian expansive tendencies." President Harry Truman (1884-1972) agreed. "It must be the policy of the United States," he declared before Congress in 1947, "to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation...by outside pressures." This way of thinking would shape American foreign policy for the next four decades.

Did You Know?

The term "cold war" first appeared in a 1945 essay by the English writer George Orwell called "You and the Atomic Bomb."

The Cold War: The Atomic Age

The containment strategy also provided the rationale for an unprecedented arms buildup in the United States. In 1950, a National Security Council Report known as NSC-68 had echoed Truman's recommendation that the country use military force to "contain" communist expansionism anywhere it seemed to be occurring. To that end, the report called for a four-fold increase in defense spending.

In particular, American officials encouraged the development of atomic weapons like the ones that had ended World War II. Thus began a deadly "arms race." In 1949, the Soviets tested an atom bomb of their own. In response, President Truman announced that the United States would build an even more destructive atomic weapon: the hydrogen bomb, or "superbomb." Stalin followed suit.

As a result, the stakes of the Cold War were perilously high. The first H-bomb test, in the Eniwetok atoll in the Marshall Islands, showed just how fearsome the nuclear age could be. It created a 25-square-mile fireball that vaporized an island, blew a huge hole in the ocean floor and had the power to destroy half of Manhattan. Subsequent American and Soviet tests spewed poisonous radioactive waste into the atmosphere.

The ever-present threat of nuclear annihilation had a great impact on American domestic life as well. People built bomb shelters in their backyards. They practiced attack drills in schools and other public places. The 1950s and 1960s saw an epidemic of popular films that horrified moviegoers with depictions of nuclear devastation and mutant creatures. In these and other ways, the Cold War was a constant presence in Americans' everyday lives.

The Cold War Extends to Space

Space exploration served as another dramatic arena for Cold War competition. On October 4, 1957, a Soviet R-7 intercontinental ballistic missile launched Sputnik (Russian for "traveler"), the world's first artificial satellite and the first man-made object to be placed into the Earth's orbit. Sputnik's launch came as a surprise, and not a pleasant one, to most Americans. In the United States, space was seen as the next frontier, a logical extension of the grand American tradition of exploration, and it was crucial not to lose too much ground to the Soviets. In addition, this demonstration of the overwhelming power of the R-7 missile—seemingly capable of delivering a nuclear warhead into U.S. air space—made gathering intelligence about Soviet military activities particularly urgent.

In 1958, the U.S. launched its own satellite, Explorer I, designed by the U.S. Army under the direction of rocket scientist Wernher von Braun, and what came to be known as the Space Race was underway. That

same year, President Dwight Eisenhower signed a public order creating the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), a federal agency dedicated to space exploration, as well as several programs seeking to exploit the military potential of space. Still, the Soviets were one step ahead, launching the first man into space in April 1961.

That May, after Alan Shepard became the first American man in space, President John F. Kennedy (1917-1963) made the bold public claim that the U.S. would land a man on the moon by the end of the decade. His prediction came true on July 20, 1969, when Neil Armstrong of NASA's Apollo 11 mission, became the first man to set foot on the moon, effectively winning the Space Race for the Americans. U.S. astronauts came to be seen as the ultimate American heroes, and earth-bound men and women seemed to enjoy living vicariously through them. Soviets, in turn, were pictured as the ultimate villains, with their massive, relentless efforts to surpass America and prove the power of the communist system.

The Cold War: The Red Scare

Meanwhile, beginning in 1947, the House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC) brought the Cold War home in another way. The committee began a series of hearings designed to show that communist subversion in the United States was alive and well.

In Hollywood, HUAC forced hundreds of people who worked in the movie industry to renounce left-wing political beliefs and testify against one another. More than 500 people lost their jobs. Many of these "blacklisted" writers, directors, actors and others were unable to work again for more than a decade. HUAC also accused State Department workers of engaging in subversive activities. Soon, other anticommunist politicians, most notably Senator Joseph McCarthy (1908-1957), expanded this probe to include anyone who worked in the federal government. Thousands of federal employees were investigated, fired and even prosecuted. As this anticommunist hysteria spread throughout the 1950s, liberal college professors lost their jobs, people were asked to testify against colleagues and "loyalty oaths" became commonplace.

The Cold War Abroad

The fight against subversion at home mirrored a growing concern with the Soviet threat abroad. In June 1950, the first military action of the Cold War began when the Soviet-backed North Korean People's Army invaded its pro-Western neighbor to the south. Many American officials feared this was the first step in a communist campaign to take over the world and deemed that nonintervention was not an option. Truman sent the American military into Korea, but the war dragged to a stalemate and ended in 1953.

Other international disputes followed. In the early 1960s, President Kennedy faced a number of troubling situations in his own hemisphere. The Bay of Pigs invasion in 1961 and the Cuban missile crisis the following year seemed to prove that the real communist threat now lay in the unstable, postcolonial "Third World." Nowhere was this more apparent than in Vietnam, where the collapse of the French colonial regime had led to a struggle between the American-backed nationalist Ngo Dinh Diem in the south and the communist nationalist Ho Chi Minh in the north. Since the 1950s, the United States had been committed to the survival of an anticommunist government in the region, and by the early 1960s it seemed clear to American leaders that if they were to successfully "contain" communist expansionism there, they would have to intervene more actively on Diem's behalf. However, what was intended to be a brief military action spiraled into a 10-year conflict.

The Close of the Cold War

Almost as soon as he took office, President Richard Nixon (1913-1994) began to implement a new approach to international relations. Instead of viewing the world as a hostile, "bi-polar" place, he suggested, why not use diplomacy instead of military action to create more poles? To that end, he encouraged the United Nations to recognize the communist Chinese government and, after a trip there in 1972, began to establish diplomatic relations with Beijing. At the same time, he adopted a policy of "détente"—"relaxation"—toward the Soviet Union. In 1972, he and Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev (1906-1982) signed the Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT I), which prohibited the manufacture of nuclear missiles by both sides and took a step toward reducing the decades-old threat of nuclear war.

Despite Nixon's efforts, the Cold War heated up again under President Ronald Reagan (1911-2004). Like many leaders of his generation, Reagan believed that the spread of communism anywhere threatened freedom everywhere. As a result, he worked to provide financial and military aid to anticommunist

governments and insurgencies around the world. This policy, particularly as it was applied in the developing world in places like Grenada and El Salvador, was known as the Reagan Doctrine.

Even as Reagan fought communism in Central America, however, the Soviet Union was disintegrating. In response to severe economic problems and growing political ferment in the USSR, Premier Mikhail Gorbachev (1931-) took office in 1985 and introduced two policies that redefined Russia's relationship to the rest of the world: "glasnost," or political openness, and "perestroika," or economic reform. Soviet influence in Eastern Europe waned. In 1989, every other communist state in the region replaced its government with a noncommunist one. In November of that year, the Berlin Wall—the most visible symbol of the decades-long Cold War—was finally destroyed, just over two years after Reagan had challenged the Soviet premier in a speech at Brandenburg Gate in Berlin: "Mr. Gorbachev, tear down this wall." By 1991, the Soviet Union itself had fallen apart. The Cold War was over.

Lecture 5. Social and International Relations in 1980-2000-ies.

Plan:

1. Discharge of International Relations

2. The fall of the socialist camp

3. The world in a new era

The three decades of the 20th century were shaped by three fundamental challenges that arose in the late 1960s and early 1970s. The first was a crisis of political leadership. Public cynicism toward politicians intensified, political party discipline declined, and lobbies and special interest groups grew in power. The second challenge involved wrenching economic transformations. Economic growth slowed, productivity flagged, inflation and oil prices soared, family income stagnated, and major industries faltered in the face of foreign competition. The third challenge involved growing uncertainty over America's proper role in the world. A major challenge facing policymakers was how to preserve the nation's international prestige and influence in the face of mounting public opposition to direct overseas interventions.

The 1980s

Presidents Nixon, Ford, and Carter attempted to strengthen the United States' influence in foreign affairs through détente and arms control negotiations. President Reagan emphasized sharp increases in military spending and an assertive foreign policy. Reagan addressed economic stagnation and inflation through deregulation, tax cuts, reductions in government budget deficits, and the development of new computer and communication technologies. The collapse of Eastern European Communism and the Soviet Union made the United States the only superpower.

The 1990s

During the last decade of the 20th century, the United States became the world's sole superpower. It possessed the world's most productive economy and most mighty military. It dominated global trade and banking, and its popular culture was influential across much of the globe. During the 1990s, the U.S. economy grew rapidly due to a sharp fall in interest rates and the price of oil, the growth of new computer and communication technologies, globalization, and the expansion of international trade, finance, and entertainment. The end of the Cold War unleashed violent ethnic, religious, and national conflicts, especially in the Balkans, the Middle East, and Africa. The first important foreign policy crisis of the post-Cold War era involved Panama, which the United States invaded in 1989 to safeguard American lives and to protect the Canal Zone. This was followed in 1990 by Iraq's invasion and occupation of Kuwait, which was reversed by the Gulf War. The breakup of the former Yugoslavia resulted in U.S. intervention in Bosnia and Kosovo.

Events since 2000 underscore the utter unpredictability of the future. The 2000 election was the first in 112 years in which a president lost the popular vote but captured enough states to win the electoral vote. It took five weeks to determine the election's outcome, which hinged on a few hundred votes in Florida. By a 5-4 majority, the U.S. Supreme Court halted a recount ordered by the Florida Supreme Court on the

grounds that it violated the principle that all votes must be treated equally and that there was not enough time to conduct a new manual recount that would meet constitutional muster.

The new president, George W. Bush, described himself as a "compassionate conservative" committed to the principles of limited government, personal responsibility, strong families, and local control. He proposed to improve public schools by insisting on competency testing. Under his proposed "faith-based initiative," religious institutions would be able to compete for government funds to provide social services. A major legislative success involved cutting taxes. But terrorist attacks that took place on September 11, 2001, would reshape the direction of his presidency.

On September 11, hijackers turned commercial airlines into missiles and attacked key symbols of American economic and military might. These hideous attacks leveled the World Trade Center towers in New York, destroyed part of the Pentagon, and left Americans in a mood similar to that which the country experienced after the devastating Japanese attack on the American fleet at Pearl Harbor in 1941.

In retaliation for the attacks, a U.S.-led coalition overthrew the Taliban government of Afghanistan, which harbored al-Qaeda, the terrorist networks that had staged the assaults. Congress enacted legislation giving law enforcement agencies broader authority to detain or deport aliens and to conduct wiretaps. It also created a cabinet-level Department of Homeland Security to reduce the country's vulnerability to terrorism.

On March 20, 2003, the United States and a coalition of Allies went to war against Iraq, one of the countries (along with Iran and North Korea) that President Bush regarded as part of an "axis of evil." The invasion did not receive United Nations' backing, which might have provided greater international legitimacy to take out Hussein's regime. Iraq's military, severely weakened during the 1991 Persian Gulf War, quickly collapsed before coalition forces. On May 1, 2003, Bush told the American people that "major combat operations in Iraq have ended." At that juncture, 137 American military personnel had been killed.

More than three years after toppling Hussein's government, U.S. and coalition troops were fighting insurgent forces, made up of remnants of the old regime, disgruntled Sunni and Shiite Iraqis, and terrorists who had infiltrated the country. By March 2006, more than 2,300 American troops had died in Iraq.

In 2004, as in the election of 2000, a single state decided the outcome of the presidency, based on the distribution of electoral votes. Ohio's 20 votes gave Bush the margin of victory over Sen. John Kerry of Massachusetts. Still, with a 3.5 million popular vote margin, Bush won the first outright majority in the popular vote for president in 16 years, and the Republican Party succeeded in expanding GOP majorities in the House and Senate.

The Republicans succeeded by galvanizing more supporters than did the Democrats, especially among religious conservatives concerned about moral values. It seemed likely that the decision by the Massachusetts Supreme Court to legalize gay marriage--which led 11 states to vote on initiatives banning gay marriage--helped the Bush campaign mobilize religious voters.

President Bush's top priority in his second term was to end the insurgency in Iraq. He also announced an aggressive domestic policy agenda that included promoting energy production and allowing younger workers to divert part of their Social Security taxes into personal investment accounts, making permanent the \$1.9 trillion tax cuts he won in his first term. Although he had several successes, including a revamping of bankruptcy laws, placing restrictions on class-action lawsuits, and proposing energy legislation, many of his other proposals, especially his plan to reform Social Security, faced stiff resistance from Democrats in Congress.

7. PLANS seminars on the History of Social and Political Relations of Foreign Countries

Lesson 1: The United States in 1919-1939.

Main questions

1. The United States in 1919-1929: "era of prosperity".
2. The Great Depression" and its impact on American society.
3. "New Deal" of President FD Roosevelt and its results.
4. Franklin D. Roosevelt - a man and a politician.

Main literature

1. *Novejshaja istorija zarubezhnyh stran. Evropa i Amerika. 1917-1945... S. 209-228.*
2. *Novejshaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. HH vek. S. 138-150.*

additional literature

1. *Dzhonson, P. Sovremennost': mir s dvadcatyh po devjanostye gody...*
2. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1918-1945. S. 104-112, 172-177, 275-284.*

Lesson 2: Germany in the interwar period (1919-1939).

Main questions

1. The Weimar Republic in Germany: from the creation to the fall.
2. The fascist dictatorship in Germany. The essence of fascism.
3. A. Hitler: The path to power.

Main literature

1. *Novejshaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. XX vek. S. 280-326.*

additional literature

2. *Galkin, A. A. Germanskij fashizm...*
3. *Dzhonson, P. Sovremennost': mir s dvadcatyh po devjanostye gody...*
4. *Drabkin, Ja. S. Stanovlenie Vejmarskoj respubliki...*

Lesson 3: Britain, France and Spain in 1919-1939.

Main questions

1. Conservatives and the Labour Party in power in the UK.
2. France in the interwar period. The historical experience of the Popular Front.
3. Revolution and the Spanish Civil War.

Topics posts

1. The struggle of parties and classes in France in the 1920s - 30s.
2. Stanley Baldwin and his era.
3. The Spanish Civil War and the policy of "non-interference".

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1918-1945.*

additional literature

1. *Dzhonson, P. Sovremennost': mir s dvadcatyh po devjanostye gody...*
2. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1918-1945.*
3. *Novejshaja istorija zarubezhnyh stran. Evropa i Amerika. 1917-1945...*

Lesson 4 Asian countries in the period between the world wars

Main questions

1. China in 1919-1925. The Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist Party
2. The Chinese revolution of 1925-1927 and its value.
3. China in 1927-1937. "Nanjing Decade".
4. Japan: internal and external policies.

Topics posts

1. Sun Yat-sen and the Kuomintang.
2. "Soviet areas" of China and its role in the liberation war.
3. Foreign policy of Japan in the 1930.

Main literature

1. Vasil'ev, L. S. *Istorija Vostoka. T. 2. S. 208-225.*
2. *Novejšhaja istorija stran Azii i Afriki. XX vek. Ch. 1: 1900-1945. S. 51-123.*
3. *Rodriges, A. M. Istorija stran Azii i Afriki v novejshee vremja. S. 181-186, 214-218.*

additional literature

1. *Istorija Kitaja / pod. red. A.V. Meliksetova. S. 427-525.*
2. *Istorija Japonii / otv. red. A. E. Zhukov... T. 2.*

Lesson 5: The Latin American countries in the interwar period

Main questions

1. Latin America in the first postwar decade (1918-1929).
2. Latin American countries in the 1929-1939 years.

Topics posts

1. "Revolutionary kaudilizm" in Mexico: the essence of the phenomenon.
2. Revolutions and reforms in Latin America in 1920-30-ies. (Nicaragua, Cuba, Brazil, Mexico)

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1918-1945. S. 197-202; 230-235; 305-315.*
2. *Novejšhaja istorija zarubezhnyh stran: Evropa i Amerika. 1917-1945. S. 229-275.*
3. *Stroganov, A. I. Novejšhaja istorija stran Latinskoj Ameriki. S. 26-73.*

additional literature

1. *Korolev, Ju. N. Latinskaja Amerika: Revoljucii HH veka.*
2. *Latinskaja Amerika: jenciklopedicheskij spravocnik.*

Lesson 6: The United States in the 1945-2014's.

Main questions

1. The United States in 1945-1960-ies: basic trends.
2. The United States in the 1970 - 2014: domestic and foreign policy.

Topics posts

1. The technological revolution and their impact on American society.
2. The United States and military conflicts.
3. The Democrats, from John F. Kennedy to Bill Clinton.
4. Republicans from Richard Nixon to George W. Bush.

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1945-2000.*
2. *Novejšhaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. XX vek. Ch. 2. S. 58-76.*

additional literature

1. *Ambroz, S. Jejzenhaujer. Soldat i prezident..*
2. *Gromyko, A. A. Brat'ja Kennedi...*

Lesson 7. Germany in 1945-2014: from split to unite

Main questions

1. Germany after World War II. The formation of two German states.
2. The Federal Republic of Germany in 1950-70-ies: domestic and foreign policy.
3. "The era of Helmut Kohl": German neoconservatism and the unification of Germany.
4. The Government of Schroeder: internal and external policies.

Topics posts

1. Konrad Adenauer and the revival of Germany.

2. Willy Brandt and his Ostpolitik.
3. The unification of Germany: the chronicle of events.

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1945-2000. S. 95-104, 186-193, 303-311*
2. *Novejshaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. HH vek. Ch. 2. S. 269-330.*

additional literature

1. *Brandt, V. Vospominanija...*
2. *Zarickij, B. E. Ljudvig Jerhard. Sekrety «jekonomicheskogo chuda»...*
3. *Kal'vokoressi, P. Mirovaja politika posle 1945 goda...*

Lesson 8. France in 1945-2014.

Main questions

1. Fourth Republic in France.
2. Charles de Gaulle and the Fifth Republic in France.
3. France in the 1970s - 90s. Francois Mitterrand and Jacques Chirac.
4. France at the beginning of the XXI century.

Topics posts

1. Charles de Gaulle as a statesman.
2. "Red May" 1968 in France.
3. Features of the migration policy of the French Republic.

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1945-2000.*
2. *Novejshaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. HH vek. Ch. 2. S. 187-268.*

additional literature

1. *Arzakanjan, M. C. De Goll' na puti k vlasti...*
2. *Arzakanjan, M. C. Politicheskaja istorija Francii...*
3. *Bunin, I. M. Socialisty i obshhestvenno-politicheskaja bor'ba vo Francii v 80-e gody...*

Lesson 9. Kingdom in 1945-2014.

Main questions

1. The Labour Party and the Conservatives in power in the 40-70-ies: a comparative analysis of domestic and foreign policy.
2. Margaret Thatcher and the British neo-conservatism.
3. "New Labour" E. Blair.

Topics posts

1. Winston Churchill in Britain's history.
2. Margaret Thatcher: a man and a politician.
3. The British Commonwealth at the beginning of the XXI century.

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1945-2000.*
2. *Novejshaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. XX vek. Ch. 2. S. 96-186.*

additional literature

1. *Kal'vokoressi, P. Mirovaja politika posle 1945 goda...*
2. *Kennedi, P. Vstupaja v dvadcat' pervyj vek...*

Lesson 10. The countries of Central and Eastern Europe in 1945-2014 gg.

Main questions

1. The development of a "people's democracy" countries in the early postwar years.
2. "Socialist Commonwealth" in 1949-1989.

3. The anti-totalitarian revolution and the development of Eastern European countries in the 1990s. Problems and prospects.
4. The collapse of Yugoslavia and its consequences.
5. The countries of Central and Eastern Europe at the beginning of the XXI century.

Topics posts

1. Hungary 1956: revolution or counter-revolution?
2. The "Prague Spring" in 1968, to socialism with a "human face".
3. Polish "Solidarity" and its impact on the socio-political and economic life in the country.
4. The Balkan crisis and the problem of Kosovo.

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1945-2000. S. 105-110, 200-206, 322-332, 423-429.*
2. *Novejschaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. HH vek. Ch. 3. S. 96-190.*

additional literature

1. *Alekseev, V. M. Kratkaja politicheskaja istorija stran Central'noj i Jugo-Vostochnoj Ev-ropy (1944-1990 gg.)...*
2. *Byvshie «hozjaeva» Vostochnoj Evropy. Politicheskie portrety...*

Lesson 11 Latin American countries in the 1945-2014.

Main questions

1. Latin America in 1945-50-ies: economics and politics.
2. The Cuban revolution and its impact on Latin America.
3. "socialist experiment" in Chile and Nicaragua, and its failure.
4. Latin America in the 1980s - 90s: economics and politics.
5. The political transformation in the region at the beginning of the XXI century.

Topics posts

1. The phenomenon of E. Che Guevara yesterday and today.
2. Popular Unity government in Chile.
3. Fidel Castro as a political figure.
4. The neo-liberal model of economic development: the nature and results of the reforms.
5. Integration processes in Latin America.

Main literature

1. *Istorija novejshego vremeni stran Evropy i Ameriki. 1945-2000.*
2. *Novejschaja istorija stran Evropy i Ameriki. XX vek. Ch. 3. S. 191-252.*

additional literature

1. *Alekseev, V. A. Poslednij kondot'er: Fenomen Che Gevary...*
2. *Gavrikov, Ju. P. Che Gevara. Poslednij romantik revoljucii.*
3. *Gavrikov, Ju. P. Fidel' Kastro: neistovyj komandante Ostrova svobody...*
4. *Kal'vokoressi, P. Mirovaja politika posle 1945 goda...*

Lesson 12. The leading Asian countries in 1945-2014.

Main questions

1. China in 1949-1976. Mao Zedong and his role in the development of China.
2. Deng Xiaoping and policy reforms in the 1980s - 90s.
3. China at the beginning of the XXI century.
4. The Japanese model of economic development.

Topics posts

1. The "cultural revolution" in China: the nature and outcome.
2. "Socialism with Chinese characteristics": the main content.
3. Japan and the United States (1945-1951)/

Main literature

1. Vasil'ev, L. S. *Istorija Vostoka. T. 2.*
2. *Novejshaja istorija stran Azii i Afriki. HH vek. Ch. 3. S. 94-165.*

additional literature

1. Barach, D. *Djen Sjaopin...*
2. Buzov, V. I. *Novejshaja istorija stran Azii i Afriki (1945-2004). S. 76-135.*
3. Burlackij, F. M. *Mao Czjedun, Czjan Cinn i sovetnik Djen...*

Lesson 13 African countries in the post-colonial period

Main questions

1. Features of the liberation movement in Africa.
2. Formation of independent states and the problem of choosing the path of development.
3. Africa today: problems and prospects.

Topics posts

1. "socialist orientation" in Africa: Theory and Reality.
2. Africa: conflicts and problems of their settlement.

Main literature

1. *Novejshaja istorija stran Azii i Afriki. XX vek. Ch. 3 . S. 94-165.*
2. *Rodrigues, A. M. Istorija stran Azii Afriki v novejshee vremja. S. 468-496.*

additional literature

1. Vasil'ev, A. M. *Afrika — padcherica globalizacii...*
2. *Kal'vokoressi, P. Mirovaja politika posle 1945 goda. Kn. 2. S. 148-325.*
3. *Leont'ev, N. S. Ocherki novejshej istorii Afriki...*

10. Materials for independent work of students.

Reports:

1. The United States in 1919-1929: "era of prosperity".
2. "New Deal" of President FD Roosevelt and its results.
3. "The Great Depression" and its impact on American society.
4. Franklin D. Roosevelt - a man and a politician.
5. The Weimar Republic in Germany: from the creation to the fall.
6. The fascist dictatorship in Germany. The essence of fascism.
7. A. Hitler: The path to power.
8. The Conservatives and the Labour Party in power in the UK.
9. France in the interwar period. The historical experience of the Popular Front.
10. Revolution and the Spanish Civil War.
11. The struggle of parties and classes in France in the 1920-30.
12. Stanley Baldwin and his era.
13. The Spanish Civil War and the policy of "non-interference".
14. China in 1919-1925. The KMT and the CPC.
15. The Chinese revolution of 1925-1927 and its value.
16. China in 1927-1937. "Nanjing Decade".
17. Japan: internal and external policies.
18. Sun Yat-sen and the Kuomintang.
19. "Soviet areas" of China and its role in the liberation war.
20. The foreign policy of Japan in the 1930

Abstracts.

1. Organization of the Ku Klux Klan
2. Formation of the Triple Alliance and the Entente
3. Formation League of Nations
4. The Weimar Constitution
5. World economic crisis 1929-1933 years
6. Creation of the Triple Alliance
7. Features of German fascism
8. The emergence of Italian fascism
9. Establishment of the dictatorial regime in Spain F.Fravnko
10. "New Deal" Franklin D. Roosevelt
11. The emergence of the anti-fascist resistance movement
12. "Cold War" and American politics
13. "New Labour" E.Blera
14. Mitterrand era

11. Materials on the monitoring and evaluation of educational achievements of students.

Questions for mid-term control

Mid-term control №1- interview

1. "The Great Depression" and its impact on American society.
2. The Weimar Republic in Germany: from the creation to the fall.
3. The fascist dictatorship in Germany. The essence of fascism.
4. The Conservatives and the Labour Party in power in the UK in the XX century.
5. France in the interwar period. The historical experience of the Popular Front.
6. Revolution and the Spanish Civil War.

Mid-term control №2- interview

1. Fourth Republic in France.
2. Charles de Gaulle and the Fifth Republic in France.
3. France in the 1970 - 90. Francois Mitterrand and Jacques Chirac.
4. "Red May" 1968 in France.
5. Margaret Thatcher and the British neo-conservatism.
6. "New Labour" E. Blair.

Exam questions

1. The United States in 1919-1929: "era of prosperity".
2. "New Deal" of President FD Roosevelt and its results.
3. "The Great Depression" and its impact on American society.
4. The Weimar Republic in Germany: from the creation to the fall.
5. The fascist dictatorship in Germany. The essence of fascism.
6. The Conservatives and the Labour Party in power in the UK in the XX century.
7. France in the interwar period. The historical experience of the Popular Front.
8. Revolution and the Spanish Civil War.
9. Fight parties and classes in France in the 1920s - 30s.
10. The Spanish Civil War and the policy of "non-interference".
11. China in 1919-1937 gg. The KMT and the CPC.
12. Japan in the 1940s .: domestic and foreign policy.
13. The United States in 1945-1960: basic trends.
14. United States in 1970 - 2014 domestic and foreign policy.
15. The scientific and technological revolution and its impact on American society.
16. Germany after World War II. The formation of two German states.
17. The Federal Republic of Germany in 1950-70: domestic and foreign policy.
18. "The era of Nick": German neoconservatism and the unification of Germany.

19. Fourth Republic in France.
20. Charles de Gaulle and the Fifth Republic in France.
21. France in the 1970 - 90. Francois Mitterrand and Jacques Chirac.
22. "Red May" 1968 in France.
23. Margaret Thatcher and the British neo-conservatism.
24. "New Labour" E. Blair.
25. The British Commonwealth at the beginning of the XXI century.
26. Development of the "people's democracies" of countries in the early postwar years.
27. "Socialist Commonwealth" in 1949-1989.
28. The anti-totalitarian revolution and the development of Eastern European countries in the 1990.
29. The countries of Latin America in 1945-50-ies: economics and politics.
30. The Cuban revolution and its impact on Latin America.
31. "socialist experiment" in Chile and Nicaragua, and its failure.
32. China in 1949-1976. Mao Zedong and his role in the development of China.
33. Deng Xiaoping and policy reforms in the 1980-90.
34. The Japanese model of economic development.
35. Features of the liberation movement in Africa.
36. Organization of the Ku Klux Klan
37. Formation of the Triple Alliance and the Entente
38. Formation League of Nations
39. The Weimar Constitution
40. World economic crisis 1929-1933 years
41. Creation of the Triple Alliance
42. Features of German fascism
43. The emergence of Italian fascism
44. Establishment of the dictatorial regime in Spain F. Franco
45. "New Deal" Franklin D. Roosevelt
46. The emergence of the anti-fascist resistance movement
47. "Cold War" and American politics
48. "New Labour" E. Blair
49. Mitterrand era
50. Features of Italian fascism