Unit 15
Global Politics:
USA and the World

Learning Objectives

After completing this session, you will be able to:

• Describe some alternative versions of America's role in the world.
• Outline some of the new challenges that globalization has brought.
• Identify and illustrate the principal tools of international diplomacy.
• Describe the rise of non-governmental organizations as actors on the world stage.

Topic Overview

Unit 15 discusses the ever-changing subject of the United States and its place in the larger world. As the unit demonstrates, the rapid pace of globalization, the easy flow across national borders of capital and even enterprises, and the rise of sometimes powerful world actors know as non-governmental organizations, have created a new and rapidly changing political environment.

With the collapse of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s, the United States became the sole superpower among the world's nations. Superpower status confers on the U.S. opportunities to shape world events in ways that promote our interests and the interests of our allies, but it also obligates us to act responsibly. As such, the U.S. cannot simply withdraw from the world stage.

Like all nations, the U.S. has long used its diplomatic relations with other nations and international organizations to formulate and implement foreign policy. As binding agreements among nations, treaties remain a central tool among representatives of the world's nations to uphold shared interests and obligations. Specific treaties, including those that created international organizations like the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), continue to be a mainstay of foreign policy.

Another tool available to the U.S. foreign policy establishment, particularly the president and his Secretary of State, is diplomatic recognition. By recognizing and receiving their ambassadors, the U.S. confers on other countries a degree of legitimacy and support. The cost of such recognition includes those countries' minimum adherence to the precepts of international law and the normal relations among recognized nation-states.

A third tool of foreign policy is foreign aid, in which the U.S. supports other countries monetarily through gifts, grants, and loans, and through technical and human resource assistance. Polls show that a majority of the American public overestimates the total amount of foreign aid provided by the U.S. to other countries. The actual total is less than one percent of the whole U.S. yearly budget. Many who think we give too much in foreign aid question what the U.S. gets in return for its investment.
Military force, or the threat of military force, is a fourth tool of foreign policy. During the Cold War, the U.S. relied heavily on a policy of containment, which used military and economic pressure to hold Soviet power in check. On several occasions, including Korea in the 1950s and Vietnam in the 1960s through middle 1970s, the U.S. resorted to massive military force to check communist insurrections backed by the Soviet Union and China. The Cold War's end brought new challenges and uses for U.S. military power, and on several occasions the military was committed to peacekeeping and nation-building activities.

An increasingly important tool of foreign policy is international trade, in which nations participate in a market system of imports and exports with other nations. For most of our history, nations erected high tariffs, or taxes, to lessen the effects of foreign products on domestic economies. However, the world economy has become far more interdependent and the health of the U.S. economy depends increasingly on the health of its trading partners. Trade policy remains critical as the U.S. seeks ways to reduce trade barriers through regional and international agreements such as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Still, substantial barriers remain in the form of tariffs, quotas, and production subsidies, as nations seek to protect their own domestic economies from the effects of lower-cost production of goods in other nations.

In the post Cold War era, U.S. foreign policy has accommodated and responded to the growth of internationally based non-governmental organizations (NGOs), many of which deal with human rights or environmental issues. Sometimes these NGOs work with governments to pursue common objectives, and sometimes they oppose the policies of nation-states.

Pre-Viewing Activity and Discussion (30 minutes)

Before viewing the video, discuss the following questions:

• What, according to Monroe, are the differences between the interests of Europe and those of the Western Hemisphere? Is this still the case?
• What was Mark Twain trying to convey about war?
• In this era of globalization, what are the lines between domestic and international policy?
• Is the traditional nation-state becoming a historic relic?

Watch the Video (30 minutes) and Discuss (30 minutes)

The video includes three segments. If you are watching on videocassette, watch each segment and then pause to discuss it, using the questions below. If you are watching a real-time broadcast on the Annenberg/CPB Channel, watch the complete video and then discuss.

1. New World Orders: U.S. Role in NATO Peacekeeping in Bosnia

The primary mission of our military has always been to protect and defend the United States against its enemies. But today our military is used to pursue a variety of national interests. As a world leader, the U.S. often intervenes in overseas conflicts, not only to address threats to our nation but also to keep peace, maintain economic stability, and promote democracy in other regions. A recent example is the U.S. involvement with international peacekeeping and nation-building operations in the former region of Yugoslavia.

Discussion Questions

• Is the role being performed in Bosnia by the U.S. military one for which they are trained?
• Should the military be involved in nation building?
• Why are these activities so controversial?
2. International Trade and Foreign Policy: The Case of South Korea

International trade remains one of America’s most important foreign policy tools. In general, the U.S. seeks to reduce trade barriers through regional and international agreements. Trade policy also remains a tool to promote democracy, secure allies, and create new trading partners in an increasingly interdependent world. One of the most sustained efforts to use trade policy to build a strong ally and, at the same time, promote democracy was the Food for Peace program that the U.S. maintained with South Korea.

Discussion Questions
• Can trade policy promote democracy?
• What are the advantages of reducing trade barriers? What are the disadvantages?
• What did the Food for Peace program in South Korea entail?
• Did the Food for Peace program work?

3. NGOs and the Campaign Against Landmines

Like all nations, the U.S. uses its diplomatic relations with other national and international organizations to shape and implement its foreign policy. Treaties with other nations, and those creating international organizations like the UN or NATO, remain an important foreign policy tool. But in the post-Cold War era, NGOs are increasingly pushing their causes, some of which clash with express aims of the traditional nation-states. The effort of Jody Williams to oppose the use of landmines represents a case in which the aims of an NGO clashed with U.S. foreign policy.

Like most of us, Jody Williams found the images of children maimed by landmines abhorrent, but unlike most of us, she sprang into action to do something about the problem. Williams started an NGO with the goal of banning the use of landmines worldwide, and eventually she succeeded in getting over 1,000 NGOs from around the world to join her cause, which became known as The International Campaign To Ban Land Mines. Williams’s primary battle was with the military bureaucracies of the world; her primary weapons were a gutsy attitude, a telephone, and a fax machine. Through the efforts of Williams and others, the anti-landmine movement gained ground. By 1997, more than 120 countries had signed a treaty banning the distribution of landmines, but the U.S. was not among them.

According to U.S. policy-makers, if used properly, landmines are viable defensive weapons, as the border experiences involving North and South Korea prove. Williams remained unconvinced by such reasoning, even after she visited the de-militarized zone between those two countries. President Clinton, in contrast, maintained that landmines were an unfortunate necessity. As Jerry White, co-founder of the Landmine Survivors Network, sees it, the difference of views between the U.S. and anti-landmine forces is an example of the “love-hate” relationship that often prevails between NGOs and nation-states: “I would say governments love us and love to hate us. But it’s a dance that works both ways. They want to have the resources and work done by NGOs who very often are the experts on a particular issue. At the same time they want distance from [our] strong advocacy points.” In the end, Jody Williams and her International Campaign To Ban Land Mines were awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for their efforts. Despite their failure to get the U.S. to sign the treaty banning landmines, the efforts of Williams and others are now being analyzed by other NGOs that want to enhance their own success in a number of other causes.

Discussion Questions
• How has The International Campaign To Ban Land Mines become effective?
• Why does the U.S. continue to oppose the treaty?
• Are NGOs a threat to national sovereignty?
• What is the relationship between NGOs and nation states?
Post-Viewing Activity and Discussion (30 minutes)

1. A Timeline of Key Events in the History of U.S. Foreign Policy (20 minutes)

George Santayana's classic statement that "he who forgets the past is condemned to repeat it," is a good lesson for those who must steer U.S. foreign policy in the twenty-first century. Today, the United States stands as the sole superpower among nations, and few people believe we can avoid playing a leading role on the world stage. But U.S. policy-makers must continually grapple with the complex issues of foreign policy in an increasingly interdependent and dangerous world. As citizens, we must also think about—and through voting and other forms of participation weigh in on—the question of America's future role in world affairs.

To thoughtfully consider our future, we must remain aware of our past. The following timeline presents many important events, actions, and turning points in America's evolving foreign policy. While the timeline identifies some pivotal events and actions, it necessarily leaves out other equally important occurrences. As you review the timeline, think about the events that are not included, but should be. Also think about the possible lessons the past might teach us. What commitments from the past should we continue to honor? Which policies or commitments should we discontinue? What actions from our past should still guide us today?

1700s

1776: Thomas Paine publishes Common Sense, an incendiary tract written to convince British colonists in America that revolution against British rule was just. Common Sense articulates ideas that dominate debates over U.S. foreign policy for the next 200 years, including the idea that America's destiny of freedom is the world's destiny as well. 1776: The Second Continental Congress passes the Declaration of Independence, written by Thomas Jefferson. The Declaration asserts that a "decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that [the colonists] should declare the causes that impel them to separation [from Great Britain]," and articulates "universal principles" of equality, basic individual rights, popular consent to governmental rule, and the right of people to revolt against tyrannical rule. The Declaration of Independence remains a profound source of inspiration for oppressed peoples around the globe. 1781: The French forces under Rochambeau and American forces under Washington compel the surrender of British forces under Cornwallis at Yorktown, Virginia. 1783: The Treaty of Paris is signed by the United States and Great Britain. Congress ratifies the treaty on January 14, 1784. 1789: The U.S. Constitution gains ratification. It provides for a strong central government with enhanced foreign policy-making powers, including a president who is "commander in chief" and can negotiate treaties with foreign nations (subject to two-thirds ratification in the Senate), and who can recognize and receive ambassadors from other nations. Under the Constitution, Congress is responsible for declaring war, for regulating commerce with foreign nations, and for funding executive branch departments and initiatives. 1793: Congress creates the Department of Foreign Affairs, which later becomes the State Department, and the position of "Secretary of Foreign Affairs." Thomas Jefferson reluctantly accepts President Washington's appointment as our nation's first Secretary of State. 1796: The French Revolution begins. By 1793, the revolution becomes an international struggle, with a French declaration of war against England, Holland, and Austria. 1796: President George Washington presents his Farewell Address in a newspaper article dated September 17, 1796. In it, he expresses frustration at French meddling in U.S. politics. Washington warns the nation against engaging in permanent alliances with foreign nations. Instead, alliances should only be used temporarily for emergencies.

1800s

1801: Newly elected President Jefferson proclaims in his inaugural address that American expansion should be considered unlimited, and declares, "peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none." 1801: President Jefferson builds a flotilla of gunboats to fight the Barbary States. 1803: The Louisiana Purchase doubles the size of the United States, and later provides 13 of the United States' eventual 50 states. 1812: U.S. Declares War on Great Britain. In the previous years, the United States became ensnared in a European conflict that pitted Napoleonic France against Great Britain and her continental allies. President Madison asks Congress for a declaration of War on Great Britain on June 1. Many who supported war considered the British and Spanish territory in North America as potential prizes to be won by battle or negotiations after an American victory. 1814: British troops land at Washington and burn the city, forcing President Madison and his wife Dolley to flee the city. The British are later beaten at Baltimore, and peace terms were outlined in the Treaty of Ghent, signed in December, 1814. 1823: In an address to Congress, President James Monroe articulates United States' policy on the new political order, later called the Monroe Doctrine, which became a
major guidepost for U.S. foreign policy. The doctrine warns European powers against interfering in the affairs of the newly independent Latin American states or potential United States territories in the Western Hemisphere. Although credit (or blame) for the Monroe Doctrine is given to President Monroe, the doctrine was actually the work of Monroe's Secretary of State, John Quincy Adams, whom many historians credit as our nation's greatest secretary of state. 1845: Democratic newspaper editor John L. O’Sullivan of New York coins the term “manifest destiny” in describing America’s opposition to European attempts to prevent the U.S. from annexing Texas. O’Sullivan states that such European opposition was an act against God, and therefore against “the fulfillment of our manifest destiny to overspread the continent allotted by Providence for the free development of our yearly multiplying millions.” O’Sullivan later ties the fate of Mexicans in disputed territories with the fate of Native Americans. 1846: President Polk sends a war message to Congress, and Congress approves it with an overwhelming majority. U.S. war with Mexico officially begins. 1848: U.S. war with Mexico ends. As a result, the U.S. territories increased by nearly 50 percent, including the addition of California.

1861: The Civil War begins. The Confederate States fail to gain diplomatic recognition from a single European power. 1865: The Civil War ends. 1867: The U.S. purchases Alaska from the Russians, which marks the end of Russian efforts to expand trade and settlements to the Pacific coast of North America. The purchase is widely considered an important step toward the U.S. becoming a great power in the Asia-Pacific region. 1890: Sitting Bull, who was among the great tribal leaders who resisted white American expansionism, and whose warriors defeated Custer and his forces at the Battle of Little Bighorn in 1876, is killed by U.S. Army forces. 1898: The U.S. annexes Hawaii, which extends U.S. territory into the Pacific and contributes to the rise of the United States as a Pacific power. 1898: The Spanish American war begins. The war removed Spain from the Caribbean, and made the United States the leading power in the hemisphere. During the conflict, the U.S. gains control of Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines. President McKinley then turns his attention to China.

1900s

1901: On September 1, President McKinley is assassinated in Buffalo, New York, and Vice President Theodore Roosevelt becomes president. Roosevelt embarks on a series of “interventions” in Cuba, Panama, Nicaragua, Mexico, and the Dominican Republic. 1903: The Panama Canal is completed. 1904: The Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine states that the United States would intervene as a last resort to ensure that other nations in the Western Hemisphere fulfill their obligations to international creditors. The corollary serves as justification for U.S. intervention in Cuba, Nicaragua, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic. 1909-1913: President William Howard Taft and Secretary of State Philander C. Knox begin an era of foreign policy characterized as “dollar diplomacy,” which describes efforts to create stability and order abroad that best promote American commercial interests. 1913: Woodrow Wilson becomes president. Upon entering office, he declares that he wants an “orderly process” in Latin America and stability in U.S. markets. He eventually orders the U.S. Marines into Nicaragua and Haiti. 1914: World War I begins, but Wilson and other policy-makers are initially reluctant to take sides. 1915: A German submarine sinks the British liner, Lusitania, killing nearly 1,200 people. Anti-German sentiment in the U.S. heats up. 1917: After a long struggle to maintain U.S. neutrality in the conflict, Wilson asks Congress to declare war against Germany and its allies. In his War Message to Congress, he declares that America’s purpose “is to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world.” 1917: The Russian Revolution overthrows the Russian monarchy and creates the world’s first communist state. 1918: Wilson presents his Fourteen Points speech to a joint session of Congress on January 8. Five points assert general principles for a peaceful world. The fourteenth point proposes a “general association of nations” that would later become the League of Nations. 1919: The Treaty of Versailles is signed. The U.S. Senate refuses to ratify the treaty in part because of opposition to the proposed League of Nations.

1930s and early 1940s: Polls showed that most Americans favor the U.S. staying out of European conflicts. 1930: The Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act is passed. The Act raises U.S. tariffs to historically high levels, and represents the high-water mark of U.S. protectionism in the twentieth century. 1933: Franklin Roosevelt becomes president as America is reeling from economic crisis. In his inaugural address on March 4, he articulates his Good Neighbor Policy that emphasizes cooperation and expanded trade rather than military force to maintain stability in the Western Hemisphere. 1941: On December 7, the Japanese attack Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, jolting a reluctant American public into action. Congress quickly approves a declaration of war with only one dissenting vote. World War II ushers in a generation of increasing American involvement in world affairs. 1942: Representatives of 26 nations at war with the Axis powers meet in Washington to sign the Declaration of the United Nations endorsing the Atlantic Charter. The nations pledge to use their full resources against the Axis, and agree not to make a separate peace. 1943: In a November meeting in Egypt with Chinese leader Chiang Kai-shek, President...
Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill of Great Britain agree to a pre-eminent role for China in postwar Asia. 1944: Conferences at Bretton Woods and Dumbarton Oaks lay the foundation for international cooperation and economic trade in the postwar world. 1944: The International Monetary Fund and the World Bank are created. 1945: Leaders of the U.S., Great Britain, and the Soviet Union, also known as the “Big Three” meet at Yalta. Churchill and an ailing Roosevelt agree to a number of compromises with Stalin that allowed the Soviets to exercise hegemony over Poland and other Eastern European countries. The Soviet Union would declare war on Japan within six months. 1945: On July 28, the UN Charter is approved by the U.S. Senate by a vote of 89 to 2. The United Nations officially comes into existence on October 24, after 29 nations ratify the Charter. 1945: Roosevelt dies from a massive stroke. Vice President Truman, who concedes he knows little about foreign policy, becomes president. 1945: President Truman directs U.S. forces to drop two atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Over 145,000 civilians die from the immediate blasts, and hundreds of thousands more die from the bombs’ aftereffects. Truman later declares that he ordered the atomic bomb attacks to prevent the half-million American deaths it was estimated it would take in an invasion of Japan’s home islands. 1945-1946: The Department of State conducts loyalty investigations of its employees, resulting in many dismissals, often on no more than rumors and innuendo of Communist leanings. 1947: The National Security Act mandates a major reorganization of the U.S. foreign policy and military establishments. The act creates the National Security Council, the Central Intelligence Agency, and the Department of Defense. 1947: George F. Kennan, a career Foreign Service Officer, first articulates the U.S. policy of “containment,” in an anonymous article in the journal, Foreign Affairs (since known simply as the “X Article”). Containment is the strategy that will be used to fight the Cold War against the Soviet Union from 1947-1989. 1947: In a June speech, Secretary of State George C. Marshall issues a call for a comprehensive program to rebuild Europe. This program, later called the Marshall Plan, eventually provides over $12 billion for the rebuilding of Western Europe. The Marshall Plan also ushers in the use of a longer-term set of foreign aid programs, which become an integral part of U.S. foreign policy. 1948: The Soviet Union blockades Berlin to protest Western efforts to integrate their zones of influence in Western Germany. The United States and its allies respond with a massive airdrop of supplies to Berlin that generates overwhelming popular support. By the time the Soviets lift the blockade in 1949, the Allies had established both the Federal Republic of Germany and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. 1949: Prevailing in a prolonged civil war, the Communists establish the People’s Republic of China on the mainland. Chiang Kai-shek, America’s anti-Communist ally, retreats to the island of Taiwan.

1950: North Korea attacks South Korea, almost conquering the entire peninsula. The U.S. leads a United Nations-authorized force to push the North’s army back above the 38th parallel and beyond. The People’s Republic of China enters the war in late 1950. 1953: The two sides in the Korean conflict reach an uneasy truce that remains tense for the next 40 years. The U.S. and South Korea sign a mutual security treaty of defense against the North. 1961: Under Soviet domination, the East German government seals the border between East and West Berlin by erecting a wall. 1961: The Kennedy administration authorizes a clandestine invasion of Cuba by a brigade of Cuban exiles, at the Bay of Pigs. The operation collapses and Kennedy fails to support the exiles. Kennedy takes public responsibility for the fiasco, but remains determined to oppose the Castro regime. 1961: U.S. intelligence gains evidence that the Soviets recently introduced medium-range nuclear missiles into Cuba. Kennedy issued a public warning against the introduction of offensive weapons into Cuba. After 13 tense days that caused the Soviets and Americans to confront the possibility of nuclear war, the Soviets agree to remove the missiles from Cuba. The U.S. secretly agrees to remove its Jupiter missiles from Turkey. 1961: The Alliance for Progress is created to counter Soviet efforts to increase its influence in the Western Hemisphere. In essence, the program is a Marshall Plan for Latin America. The United States pledges $20 billion in assistance and calls upon Latin American governments to provide an additional $80 billion in investment funds. It is the biggest U.S. aid program toward the developing world to date. The Alliance ultimately falls short of its goals amid charges that most of the funds never reached the poor. This contributes to a deterioration of relations between the U.S. and Latin America. 1961: The U.S. Peace Corps is started. It sends talented young people to other countries to work on social and economic programs. Since then, more than 165,000 men and women have served in 135 countries through the Peace Corps. 1963: In November, President Kennedy is assassinated. By this time, he had dispatched more than 16,000 U.S. troops to South Vietnam. 1964: Congress passes the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, which gives President Johnson the authorization to take “all necessary measures to repel any armed attack against the forces of the United States in Vietnam and to prevent further aggression.”
Post-Viewing Activities and Discussion, cont’d.

1970: President Nixon sends U.S. and South Vietnamese troops into Cambodia to destroy communist camps. His actions trigger major protests as students at 450 colleges and universities go on strike. In May, Ohio National Guard troops fire on anti-war protesters at Kent State, killing four students. Thousands of construction workers in New York parade in support of Nixon’s policies, while others, including leaders of Wall Street, fly to New York to warn Nixon that a wider war threatens the stability of the stock market. 1972: Nixon travels to China and meets with Mao Tse-tung, becoming the first U.S. president to step on Chinese soil. 1972: Nixon travels to the Soviet Union to meet with Soviet leader Leonid Brezhnev. The summit produces several agreements involving nuclear arms reduction and control. 1973: Through secret efforts involving the CIA, the U.S. helps overthrow the elected government of Salvador Allende in Chile. 1973: OPEC nations enforce an oil embargo to force higher prices for crude oil. The U.S. is surprised and badly shaken by the realization that it is vulnerable to the policies of small oil-producing countries of the Middle East. 1973: The U.S. and South Vietnamese sign a peace agreement in Paris. Ultimately, only America honors the cease-fire. A little over two years later, 30 North Vietnamese divisions conquer the South. 1977-1978: President Carter negotiates the Panama Canal Treaty, which is meant to rectify a long-term, contentious issue in United States-Latin American relations, and the Senate ratifies. 1979: Prime Minister Begin of Israel, President Sadat of Egypt, and President Carter sign the Egyptian-Israeli Peace Treaty, which formalizes arrangements agreed to the previous year at Camp David, Maryland. The Camp David Accords and the subsequent treaty don’t include a comprehensive peace framework among Israel, its other Arab neighbors, and the Palestinian Liberation Organization. 1979: Followers of Ayatollah Khomeini in Iran take over the American Embassy in Tehran and kidnap 53 Americans. Carter spends his last year in office trying to manage the crisis, including launching a botched rescue mission and negotiating for their release. The hostages are finally released on the day Ronald Reagan is inaugurated President. 1979: Soviet troops invade Afghanistan and soon find themselves in a costly war they cannot win.

1980: In his State of the Union speech, President Carter articulates the Carter Doctrine, which states that any attempt by outside forces to control the Persian Gulf would be repelled by any means necessary, including force. 1981: President Reagan takes office, articulates the Reagan Doctrine, his policy of supporting anti-Communist insurgents wherever they might be. He states, “we must stand by all our democratic allies. And we must not break faith with those who are risking their lives—on every continent, from Afghanistan to Nicaragua—to defy Soviet-supported aggression and secure rights which have been ours from birth.” This is a break with the Truman Doctrine’s policy of containment. Over the eight years of his presidency, Reagan will commit U.S. troops or resources to support insurgent anti-Communist movements in Latin America, including conservative right-wing groups in El Salvador and Nicaragua, and in Afghanistan. 1983: President Reagan announces the Strategic Defense Initiative to build a ballistic missile defense, also known as “Star Wars.” 1985: The Reagan Administration secretly sends anti-tank missiles to Khomeini’s regime in Iran in an effort to win release of American hostages held in Lebanon. The funds from missile sales were then secretly diverted to the Contras in Nicaragua, despite Congress’s ban on sending of lethal aid to that group. Later termed the “Iran-Contra affair,” this episode highlights the dangers of making and conducting foreign policy solely within the White House, outside of the normal constitutional checks of power. 1987: At their third summit, held in Washington, President Reagan and Soviet Leader Gorbachev sign an agreement that for the first time reduces the number of nuclear weapons and eliminates a whole class of nuclear arms. 1985: In his State of the Union address, President Ronald Reagan calls upon Congress and the American people to stand up to the Soviet Union, which he characterizes as the “Evil Empire.” 1989: The Berlin Wall is brought down, capping the revolutionary changes sweeping East Central Europe in 1989. By fall, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Poland have overthrown their Communist rulers. 1989: President Bush sends U.S. troops to overthrow Panamanian dictator General Manuel Noriega.

1990: Iraq seizes Kuwait in a quick invasion. President Bush vows to defend Saudi Arabia and liberate Kuwait. 1991: Bush gains congressional authorization to use force to remove Iraq’s forces from Kuwait. He assembles an extensive alliance of nations to support the military effort. After an extensive bombing campaign of several weeks, the ground campaign is concluded in 100 hours. Hussein is left in power. 1991: Bush contends that with the end of the Cold War, a “new world order” is emerging, although the term remains largely undefined. 1991: Boris Yeltsin becomes the Russian Republic’s first elected president in its history. On December 25, he decrees that the Soviet Union ceased to exist. 1992: Bush and Yeltsin sign the Start II treaty that cut their countries’ nuclear weapons by two-thirds. 1992: President Bush, with President-elect Clinton’s support, sends 21,000 troops to Somalia to provide security for UN relief efforts. Later, a new mandate to disarm the Somali military factions passed by the UN goes beyond simply providing humanitarian relief, calling for the UN to facilitate “nation building” to get Somalia back on its feet. Later, during President Clinton’s term in office, 18 U.S. soldiers are killed and 84 are wounded in a 17-hour firefight. Clinton moves quickly to remove all U.S. forces from the country.
1993: Bill Clinton is inaugurated. Clinton states in his inaugural speech that “there is no longer division between what is foreign and what is domestic.” 1993: Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin of Israel and Yasir Arafat, chairman of the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) negotiate a treaty in which Israel will pull its troops out of Gaza and the city of Jericho, and later from other areas of the West Bank, and the PLO will renounce its pledge to destroy Israel. 1994: Former President Carter, former chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff General Colin Powell and Georgia Senator Sam Nunn fly to Haiti at President Clinton’s request. They negotiate terms of departure for Haiti’s de facto leaders and successfully avert a U.S.-led multinational invasion. 1995: NATO deploys nearly 60,000 troops in a multinational force to implement military provisions of the peace settlement. President Clinton pledges to contribute 8,500 U.S. troops to the Stabilization Force. 1998: President Clinton works with Protestants and Catholics in Northern Ireland to negotiate the Good Friday Peace Accords.

2000s

2001: George W. Bush is inaugurated. He vows to resist “nation building” and other inappropriate uses of U.S. forces. 2001: On September 11, terrorist attacks destroy the World Trade Center in New York, killing over 2,000 people, and kill 187 people at the Pentagon in Washington. President Bush declares a “war on terrorism” that he says will last years. Bush equates “those who harbor terrorists” with terrorists themselves. 2002: The U.S. Congress passes a resolution authorizing President Bush to use force against Iraq. 2003: After months of UN weapon inspections and unsuccessful diplomacy, President Bush orders American forces to invade Iraq. British forces join the effort, and other countries, including Australia, commit small numbers of troops. Bush declares that the purpose of war is to remove the regime of Saddam Hussein, destroy any weapons of mass destruction in Iraq, and to open the way for democratization in Iraq and the Middle East. Most Arab states condemn the invasion as an act of U.S. imperialism.

2. Who Should Be in Charge of Foreign Policy? (10 minutes)
The making of foreign policy in the United States has always involved the weighing of appropriate influence between the president and Congress. Although the president has historically been accorded the responsibility of representing the interests of our nation to other countries, Congress has nevertheless played an important role in foreign policy decisions. What are the appropriate roles for the president and Congress? Where should the locus of power reside? Does globalization and its concurrent shifts across national borders of capital and enterprises suggest that Congress should play a larger role?

Critical Thinking Activity: Go to the course Web site and try the Critical Thinking Activity for Unit 15. This is a good activity to use with your students, too.

www.learner.org/channel/courses/democracy
Classroom Applications

You may want to have your students do the post-viewing activities: A Timeline of Key Events in the History of U.S. Foreign Policy and Who Should Be in Charge of Foreign Policy? They are provided for you as blackline masters in the Appendix.

Web-Based Resources

www.state.gov—The U.S. Department of State’s Web site contains informative sections on history, education, and culture, and K–12 learning resources.

www.friendshipthrougheducation.org/—Friendship Through Education is a consortium of organizations committed to facilitating interaction among youth worldwide.