

YEAR 12 – BRIDGING UNITS

A-LEVEL HISTORY



ST HILDA'S
COLLEGE

The 6th Form
@ St Hilda's

bridging
units

Name:

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SECTION 1 – Britain 1930 – 1997

The aim of this bridging work is for you to have gained an overview of who the key political leaders are, which political party they belong to and any significant events that have happened during this period of British history we will be studying in year 12. You will also gain an understanding of who Winston Churchill was and why he was an important political figure in the 1930s.

DUE DATE - You will need to bring the following work to your first A level history lesson with MRS RAY in September.

Task 1 - An overview of Britain 1930 - 1997

You will need to make a timeline for this period 1930 to 1997. You will need to do your own independent research. The link below may be helpful:

<https://www.gov.uk/government/history/past-prime-ministers>

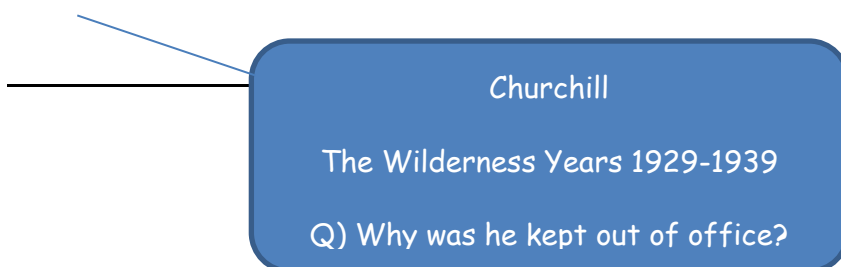
On your time line you need to include:

- **All the prime ministers from 1930 to 1997 and the dates they were in office** (Your first prime minister is James Ramsay Macdonald 1929 - 1935)
- Any **dates or events which you think are important** because of how they impacted Britain socially, economically or politically. For example, World War 2, the introduction of NHS, the Winter of Discontent etc..
- Finally colour code:
 - Your prime ministers to show which political party they belonged to (Labour or Conservatives).
 - Your events for social, political and economic impact on British history.

Task 2 – Churchill the Wilderness years 1920 – 1939

The first part of our course is an in-depth study of Winston Churchill. This will include; his wilderness years, being a wartime prime minister and his role in foreign affairs when he was no longer in office. In preparation for our first lesson on Churchill watch the following video (link below) and complete your own mind map picking out facts to explain why he was kept out of office (For example, why he did not become prime minister or hold a ministerial role in the cabinet during the 1930s).

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TWSoxhCZbNE&t=1020s>



Think about:

1. His early life.
2. His views on India and the Empire.
3. The abdication crisis.
4. His views on appeasement.

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SECTION 2 – The Cold War in Asia 1945 – 1993

TASK 1

DUE DATE – FIRST HISTORY LESSON IN SEPTEMBER WITH MISS WEST:

- Using your knowledge from GCSE (or google) create a timeline of the key events of the Cold War. Include the following events:

Building of the Berlin Wall	Yalta Peace Conference	Cuban Missile Crisis
Fall of Eastern Europe to Communism	Detente	Berlin Blockade & Airlift
Long Telegram	Assassination of JFK	Formation of the Warsaw Pact
Hungarian Uprising	Potsdam Peace Conference	Formation NATO
Truman Doctrine	Gorbachev's New Thinking	Marshall Aid
Prague Spring	Fall of the Berlin Wall	End of WW2
Bay of Pigs invasion	Collapse of the Warsaw Pact	Russians in Afghanistan

- Now add the American Presidents and the dates they were in office and their Russian counterpart.
e.g. Roosevelt 1933 – 1945
- Now in a different colour find out when the following events happen and add them to your timeline

Chinese Civil War	Malayan Emergency	Assassination of Diem
China goes communist	Operation Rolling Thunder	Formation of SEATO
Division of Korea into North and South	Japan granted independence	Bandung Conference
Pol Pot becomes the leader of Cambodia	Formation of north and South Vietnam	Gulf of Tonkin Incident and Accords
Tet Offensive	Korean War	My Lai Massacre
Paris Peace Accords	French defeat at Dien Bien Phu	The Killing Fields

TASK 2 – How were decision of foreign policy made in the USA?

DUE DATE – SECOND HISTORY LESSON IN SEPTEMBER WITH MISS WEST:

Read the text, below, about the different spheres of influence (different groups) that affected decision making linked to foreign policy. Make notes about each group in the space below.

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US Foreign Policy Making during the Cold War

Much of this book is about the US foreign policy between 1945 and 1963 and this brief section is intended to give an insight into the American foreign policy making in this period.

The president was the pivotal figure in the foreign policy process. All important decisions were made by him and a few aides. The authors of the constitution (written in 1787) had endowed the president with substantial powers in the field of foreign policy making. He was the commander-in-chief of the armed forces, appointed and received ambassadors, appointed other key personnel such as the Secretary of State, and made treaties with other states (although these had to be ratified subsequently by a two-thirds majority of the Senate). The president's position as head of state also tended to elevate him above party politics during foreign policy crises. At such times he was regarded as the figurehead of the nation and could draw on the patriotism and goodwill of the people.

The president was not a lone decision-maker in foreign policy matters. He relied on a small group of advisers from inside and outside government chosen because they enjoyed his trust and confidence. The Secretary of State (head of the State Department, which was responsible for US external relations and was the equivalent of the Foreign Office in the United Kingdom) was an especially important figure. The relationship between a president and his Secretary of State was vital in the conduct of foreign policy. The Defence Secretary, the Director of Central Intelligence (head of the CIA) and the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, who gave the views of the armed services, were also usually members of the inner circle. The opinions of the latter were especially important when the president was considering the use of military force. The State Department, the Central Intelligence Agency, the National Security Council and the Defence Department (the last three all established in 1947) formed the second circle of the foreign policy establishment. All were responsible for funneling information and advice to the president, implementing the decisions taken by the inner circle and, in the case of the State Department, for the day-to-day transaction of American foreign policy.

Congress, the American legislature, was the third important player in the making of foreign policy. Congress consisted of two chambers. The upper chamber was called the Senate. Each state elected two representatives to the Senate regardless of difference in population between states. The lower house was the House of Representatives. There each state was represented according to population. The powers of Congress over foreign policy had been clearly defined in the constitution. Only Congress had the right to declare war. In addition all foreign treaties concluded by the president were subject to approval by a two-thirds majority in the Senate. A network of committees existed in Congress whose function was to scrutinise the executive. One of the most important of these committees was the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, which had wide-ranging powers to call foreign policy-makers before it and question them on the conduct of policy. All the president's nominees to important foreign posts also had to be confirmed by the Senate.

The limits imposed on presidential powers by Congress had much to do with the historical background against which the constitution was produced. The constitution was intended as the basis for the government of a nation which had just liberated itself from British rule in a revolutionary war. It was essential that a president must not exercise the same wide-ranging executive powers as a British monarch. In particular he must not enjoy sole authority to take the United States into war. Hence

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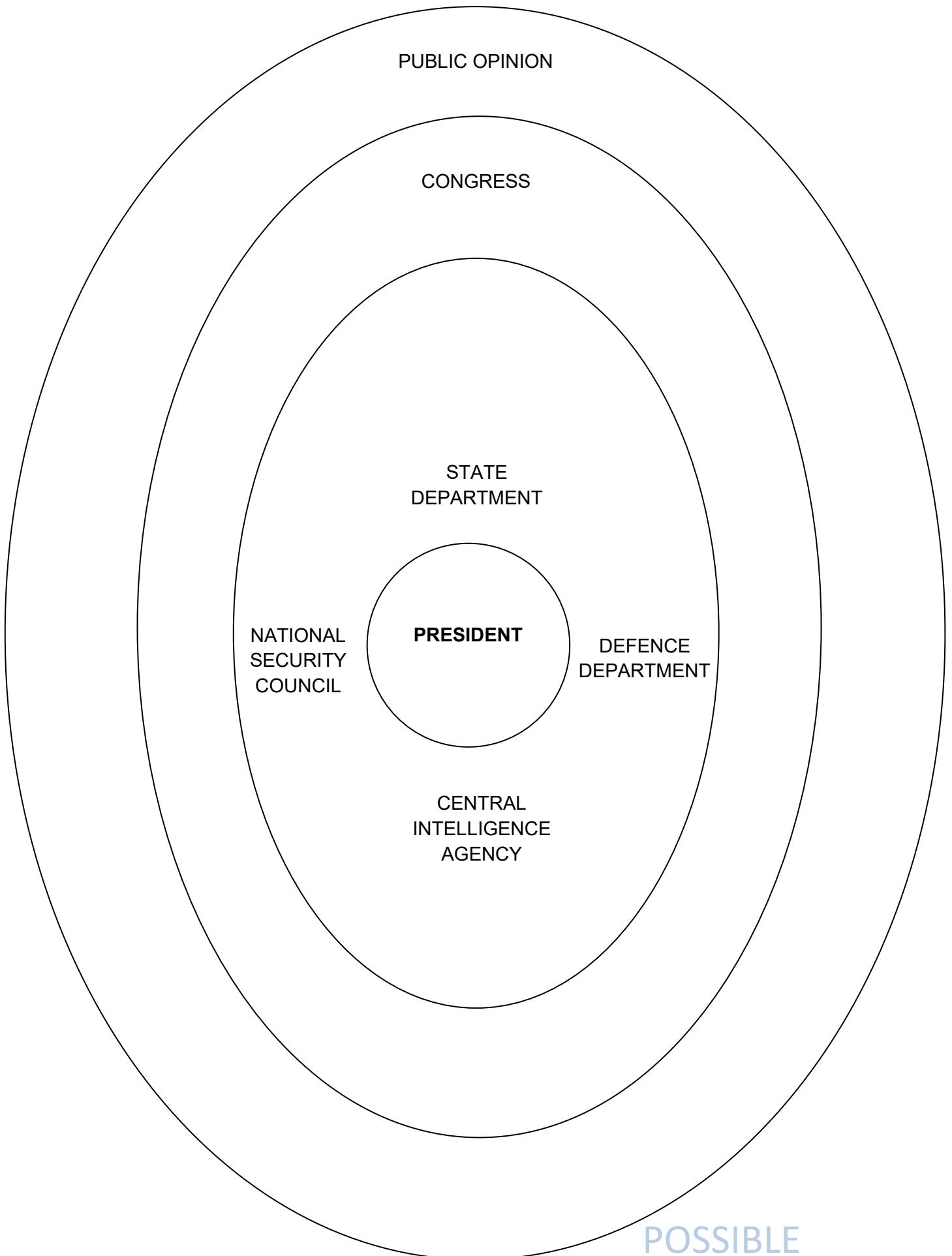
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the power to declare war was exclusively vested in the legislature. The Founding Fathers also feared that a president might independently make alliances with foreign powers which might entangle the new nation in wars which were not in its interest. Thus the Senate, must exercise an effective right of veto over any foreign treaties. Classically this was how the constitution was supposed to work, but the Cold War changed the balance of power between executive and legislative. After 1945 presidents wrested more and more control over war and treaty-making from Congress.

Another potential constraint on the powers of a president was the belief of the constitution-makers in the clear separation of the function of government. The legislative and the executive were created as separate entities. The president was not a member of Congress and was elected separately from members of Congress. Such a system could produce a situation where the president might belong to one party, while the majority in Congress belonged to another. A Republican president might have to deal with a Democrat Congress and vice versa. Unlike a British Prime Minister, an American president did not necessarily have a majority at his command in the legislature, prepared to vote as a bloc and willing to endorse government legislation. Consequently, securing the support of the opposition in Congress for his foreign policy was often a test of a president's political skills as he tried to assemble a majority behind his policies.

Often, however, foreign policy was not a matter of dispute between the two main parties, the Republicans and the Democrats, and a Republican Congress willingly co-operated with a Democratic president and vice versa. There was a tacit understanding that party politics stopped at the water's edge. The result was the foreign policy was very often the product of co-operation between legislature and executive. This partnership between Congress and presidency was most apparent in the years 1946 and 1948 when a majority Republican Congress voted in favour of assistance to Greece and Turkey, dollar grants to western Europe and American membership NATO, even though these were all foreign policy initiatives of a democratic president, Harry Truman. Between 1954 and 1960 there were also harmonious relations between a Democrat Congress and a Republican president, Dwight Eisenhower. The only exception was the period 1949 – 52 when a Republican Congress often fiercely criticise Truman's policies towards the Soviet Union and China.

The fourth and remotest influence on foreign policy was public opinion. This is not to suggest that public opinion was unimportant. One reason for Roosevelt's insistence on free elections in Poland throughout 1944 was his anxiety not to lose the support of Polish-Americans in the presidential election of that year. He believed that they would not vote for a candidate who had been seen to abandon Poland to the Soviet Union. Yet, in general, the American public responded positively to presidential leadership on foreign policy issues. In the period 1945 to 1963 there was broad public support for the anti-communist foreign policy pursued by successive administrations. Most Americans, for example, favoured intervention by US troops in Korea in 1950. Even when an American-backed invasion of communists Cuba in 1961 went disastrously wrong – the Bay of Pigs fiasco – the public rallied around President Kennedy. Instinctive popular anti-communism was undoubtedly a factor in public support for American foreign policy, but America history of isolationism meant that many Americans were simply uninterested in or poorly informed about world events, and so were willing to be led by their president in such matters. In our period public opinion definitely had a limited impact on the formulation of foreign policy.



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Make brief notes on the structure of US Foreign Policy Making, under the following headings. If you need more space, use lined paper:

President:

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State Department:

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National Security Council:

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Defence Department:

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Central Intelligence Agency:

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Congress:

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Public Opinion:

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