

Modern History

2018

L.C.G

Exam Components

	<i>My Suggested Time</i>	<i>Marks Available</i>
Source Analysis One	40 minutes	25
Source Analysis Two	40 minutes	25
Extended Response One	50 minutes	25
Extended Response Two	50 minutes	25

Extended Response: Marking Guide

Introduction:

Clearly related to topic of question, containing understanding of focus and key terms of question giving clear sense of direction of essay – 3 marks

Narrative:

Demonstrates understanding of inter-relationship between, events, people and ideas, continuity, and change – 4 marks

Argument:

Develops sustained and sophisticated argument showing depth of analysis throughout essay which is analytical, logical, and coherent – 6 marks

Supporting Evidence:

Detailed, accurate, relevant evidence used in manner which assists analysis and evaluation. Historical evidence used to argue for/against proposition. Uses/cites accurately modern sources to strengthen argument. Coherently cited statistics and quotations used – 9 marks

Conclusion:

Draws essay points/arguments together in summary – 3 marks

Source Analysis 1: Marking Guide

Compare and contrast messages (sources 1 and 2): (4)

Identify individual messages of each source – 2 marks

Similarities in messages – 1 mark

Differences in messages – 1 mark

Evaluate usefulness (sources 1 and 2): (5)

Identify strength of each source – 2 marks

Identify weaknesses of each source – 2 marks

Evaluate overall usefulness, individually and as a pair – 1 mark

Historical context (source 3): (4)

Identify focus of source – 1 mark

Outline causes and events leading to focus of source – 1 mark

Provide specific details (dates/events/people/places/attitudes) – 2 marks

Authors perspective (sources 3 and 4): (6)

Identify perspective of source 3 – 1 mark

Identify perspective of source 4 – 1 mark

Analysis of reasons for perspectives (motives/bias/context) – 4 marks

Extent of accuracy of insight (all sources): (6)

Identify ideas depicted – 2 marks

Identify key ideas omitted – 1 mark

Evaluate extent to which sources reflect events accurately – 3 marks

Source Analysis 2: Marking Guide

Historical context (source 1): (4)

Identify focus of source – 1 mark

Outline causes and events leading to focus of source – 1 mark

Provide specific details (dates/events/people/places/attitudes) – 2 marks

Compare and contrast purposes (sources 1 and 2): (5)

Identify individual purposes of each source – 2 marks

Similarities in purpose – 1.5 marks

Differences in purpose – 1.5 marks

Message (source 3): (3)

Identify focus of source – 1 mark

Identify possible biases – 1 mark

Use specific evidence from source – 1 mark

Contestability (sources 3 and 4): (6)

Identify perspective of source 3 – 1 mark

Identify perspective of source 4 – 1 mark

Identify why sources contestable (motives/bias/context/missed info) – 4 marks

Importance of ideas represented (all sources): (7)

Identify ideas depicted (do NOT reiterate message) – 1 mark

Evaluate importance of ideas within time period – 1 mark

Identify short and long-term effects of ideas depicted – 4 marks

Discuss historical context of ideas using evidence from source – 1 mark

Soviet Russia

Unit 3: Russia 1914-1945

Keywords:

Autocracy: government in which one person has absolute power.

Orthodoxy: Tsar's mutually beneficial relationship with church.

Tsar: emperor of Russia (existed prior to 1917 revolutions).

Russification: cultural assimilation where foreigners must give up language and practices in favour of Russia's.

Capitalism: economic system where business controlled by individual rather than government.

Liberalism: political philosophy that emphasises individual freedoms, capitalism and parliamentary rule.

Socialism: worker's control of the state, everybody equal.

Collectivism: ownership of land and the means of production by the people or state, as a political principle.

Communism: system of social organization in which all property is owned by the community and each person contributes and receives according to their ability and needs. Last in Marx's notion of evolution of history where there would be no state.

Marxism: political and economic theories of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, later developed by their followers to form the basis of communism. Theory that human history is story of class struggle through various stages and that this will be superseded by a classless society.

Mensheviks: moderate non-Leninist wing of Russian Social Democratic Workers' Party. Mensheviks opposed to Bolsheviks but defeated after overthrow of Tsar Nicholas II in 1917.

Leninism: form of Communism as taught by Lenin, with emphasis on the dictatorship of the proletariat (working class).

Stalinism: the ideology and policies adopted by Stalin, based on centralization, totalitarianism, and the pursuit of communism.

Bolshevik: member of majority faction of Russian Social Democratic Party, which seized power in the October Revolution of 1917.

Soviets: worker's councils formed from 1905 which held no real power until 1917.

Duma: Russia's elected parliament created after the revolution of 1905, the legislative body in the ruling assembly of Russia and of some other republics of the former Soviet Union.

February Revolutions 1917 - produced democratic, republican government, with de facto separation of powers between Duma and Soviets (More liberal revolution).

The main aim of the Provisional government was to hold elections to Russia's first powerful parliament, the Constituent Assembly. The provisional government also instituted a number of reforms in its brief tenure including the abolition of capital punishment, reaffirmed freedom of speech and of the press. There was lots of support for the February Revolutions which occurred more spontaneously.

October Revolutions 1917 - produced communist dictatorship the USSR laboured under for the 70 years following the Provisional Government (more socialist revolution).

Lenin's government transferred "all power to the soviets" and made them supreme arbiters of decision making (though claimed lot of power for himself under "dictatorship of the proletariat"). Government shut down Russian Constituent Assembly after it met for only a few hours, ending hopes of parliamentary democracy in Russia for another 70 years. He also implemented War Communism and started Cheka.

Cheka: secret police who killed at least 12,000 people between 1917 and 1922, started by Lenin.

Mobilisation: action of government preparing and organizing troops for active service

Propaganda: information, especially of a biased or misleading nature, used to promote a political cause.

The Great Terror (and The Purges): Joseph Stalin, paranoid of opposition, led the Great Purge, a campaign of repression where millions of people were executed or sent to labour camps in Siberia between 1936 to 1938.

USSR: Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (in Russian: СССР). Also known as Soviet Union (informally still Russia).

Five Year Plans: government plan for economic development over five years. The first such plan in the Soviet Union was inaugurated in 1928.

War Communism: Bolshevik introduced economic system of USSR, with following policies:

1. Nationalization of all industries and the introduction of strict centralized management
2. State control of foreign trade
3. Strict discipline for workers, with strikes forbidden
4. Obligatory labour duty by non-working classes
5. Prodrazvyorstka – requisition of agricultural surplus for centralized distribution among remaining population
6. Rationing of food and most commodities, with centralized distribution in urban centres
7. Private enterprise banned
8. Military-style control of the railways

Brest-Litovsk Treaty: peace treaty signed on 3 March 1918 between the new Bolshevik government of Soviet Russia and the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire), that ended Russia's participation in World War I.

Bolshevik Takeover

Tsarist Government: Autocratic government run by decree of Tsar Nicholas II under power of orthodoxy. No democratic qualities whatsoever unlike most other governments of its time.

Provisional Government: Established immediately following Tsar's abdication in March. Recognised internationally as official governing body.

Bolsheviks: Member of Russian Social Democratic Party, which looking for political reform through revolution, seized power in 1917.

February Revolution: produced democratic, republican government; de facto separation of powers between Duma and Soviets.

- Strikes/demonstrations (hungry citizens/workers in Petrograd)
- 27th Feb Petrograd garrison mutinied (Tsar no longer has military power)
- Petrograd Soviet and Provisional Government come out of revolution
- Abdication of Tsar (no real effort made to continue Monarchy)
- Spontaneous nature (Bolsheviks would later take credit however)

The main aim of the Provisional government was to hold elections to Russia's first powerful parliament, the Constituent Assembly. The provisional government also instituted a number of reforms in its brief tenure including the abolition of capital punishment, reaffirmed freedom of speech and of the press. There was lots of support for the February Revolutions which occurred more spontaneously.

July Days:

- Period before October Revolution
- Demonstrations against Provisional Government
- Bolsheviks helped cause instability with propaganda: "all power to the soviets"
- Prime Minister Lvov resigns, Kerensky takes his place
- New Coalition Government formed with soviet cooperation under Kerensky

Kornilov Affair: August 1917 - confused episode where Provisional Government seemed under threat from own army. Attempted military coup by Commander-in-Chief of Russian Army, General Kornilov.

October Revolution: produced communist dictatorship USSR laboured under for 70 years following Provisional Government.

- Takeover of government by Lenin (and Bolsheviks)
- Military coup (rather than popular uprising)
- Marxist ideals used to justify actions and legitimise takeover
- Claimed to do so on behalf of peasants and workers
- Lenin directed ideology to opposing war
- Successful staging of revolution established Bolshevik authority

Lenin's government transferred "all power to the soviets" and made them supreme arbiters of decision making (though claimed a lot of power for himself under a "dictatorship of the proletariat"). His government shut down the Russian Constituent Assembly after it had met for only a few hours, ending any hopes of parliamentary democracy in Russia for another 70 years. He also implemented War Communism and started the Cheka (secret police who killed at least 12,000 people between 1917 and 1922, started by Lenin).

Reasons for Revolution:

- Disinterest of Tsar in people's problems
- Failure to act on promises of October Manifesto (from 1905 uprising)
- Lack of actual power of Duma, then Duma's abandonment of Tsar
- World War Two
- Military abandonment

Outcomes:

- Provisional Government made changes including better civil rights
- Stayed in World War Two
- Eventually allowed soviets to seize control in dictatorship

Role of leadership:

- Lenin gave speech criticising cooperation with Provisional Government
- April Theses demanded as second stage of revolution
- Soviets to be only form of government
- July, Lenin recruits Trotsky
- Lenin persuades Bolshevik leaders to participate in takeover
- Party disciplined by Lenin's centralised authority

Civil War

Powers fighting for governmental control following October Revolution (Nov 1917 – 1921). Lenin negotiated peace with Germany ending Russia's participation in WW1 however faced domestic governmental fights.

Main Participants:

- Red Army (communists/Bolsheviks)
- White Army (tsarist loyalists/Britain/France)

NEP

After civil war, Lenin revised economic policy by introducing New Economic Policy (NEP). Through this, peasants were allowed to sell some of their produce for profit and small traders were allowed to run businesses.

- 1921: Kronstadt sailors - previously Bolsheviks fiercest supporters - mutinied, demanding end to War Communism
- Trotsky put down the rebellion
- Lenin worried (if Kronstadt sailors pushed too far, how long would it be before rest of country rose up and threw out Bolsheviks?)
- Using reasoning that civil war was won, Lenin decided time to pull back
- Brought in what he called the New Economic Policy
- Peasants who'd been forced to hand over produce to war effort allowed to keep some to sell for profit - some (kulaks) became rich
- Small traders called Nepmen were allowed to set up businesses
- Local nationalities forced to follow strict Communism allowed own language/customs back (churches/mosques/bazaars re-opened)
- Economy picked up, and people happier
- Many old Bolsheviks said Lenin had sold out to capitalism and left the party

Effects:

- Kulaks were profiting more than peasants
- Economic output increases exponentially

Bolshevik Decrees/Reforms

Some of the immediate laws introduced by the Second Congress of Soviets were:

- Russia to make a swift exit from WW1, Bolshevik gov and the people of Russia to announce that they believed in peace to all nations.
- There would be an immediate transfer of land to the peasants.
- The workers would take control over the means of production and the distribution of goods.
- Bolshevik government would take control of the banks, foreign trade, large industries and railways.
- Any form of inequality based on class, sex, nationality or religion was made illegal.

In December 1917 a decree on education was issued that stated:

"Every genuinely democratic power must, in the domain of education, in a country where illiteracy and ignorance reign supreme, make its first aim in the struggle against this darkness. It must acquire in the shortest time universal literacy, by organising a network of schools answering to the demands of modern pedagogics: it must introduce universal, obligatory, and free tuition for all. However needful it may be to curtail other articles of the people's budget, the expenses on education must stand high. A large educational budget is the pride and glory of a nation."

In the same month a decree called 'On Social Insurance' was issued. This had four parts to it:

1. There would be insurance for all wage earners without exception, as well as for all urban and rural poor.
2. There would be insurance to cover all categories of loss of working capacity, such as illness, infirmities, old age, child birth, widowhood, orphanage and unemployment.
3. All the cost of insurance would be charged to employers.
4. There would be compensation of at least full wages in all loss of working capacity and unemployment.

December 1917 also saw a decree that affected the army titled 'On the Equality of Rank of all Military Men'. This decree stated that:

1. All ranks and grades in the army, beginning with the rank of corporal and ending with the rank of general are abolished. The Army of the Russian Republic consists now of free and equal citizens, bearing the honourable title of Soldiers of the Revolutionary Army.
2. All privileges connected with the former ranks and grades, also all outward marks of distinction, are abolished.
3. All addressing by titles is abolished.
4. All decorations, orders, and other marks of distinction are abolished.

Reactions:

- Speed of so many major changes did not receive the support of everyone
- Those remaining in Russia with aristocratic background as well as intelligentsia disagreed with them
- French diplomat based in Russia at the time, Louis de Robien, wrote that Russia was a "madhouse" drowning under "an avalanche of decrees"
- Main complaint was the plan to remove children from middle class families and have them brought up in "establishments" where they would receive a proper working-class education and where their parents could visit them on stated days in the year
- Other political parties angry as believed when Lenin achieved power they would be allowed to continue
- Other political parties and their newspapers closed down within days of the Bolsheviks taking power

Lenin Vs Trotsky Power Struggle

<i>Contenders (L to R)</i>	<i>Pros</i>	<i>Cons</i>
Trotsky	Intellectual, large role in Oct Rev, close to Lenin	Made no attempts to charm, uncompromising, Jewish ancestry, wanted to avoid party splits, sickly 1923-6
Zinoviev	Old Bolshevik, good orator,	Fell out with Lenin, favoured coalition, not intellectual, unpopular, seen as cowardly, vain and incompetent, unpopular
Kamenev	Lenin regarded as able and reliable, good debater, contributed lots to party doctrine, liked, well regarded	Opposed Lenin's April Theses in favour of coalition (like Zinoviev), 'soft', lacked vision or desire to lead
Stalin	Held variety of government positions, Lenin seemed close to him, cunning, charming, manipulative	Towards end of Lenin's life he drifted from Stalin
Rykov	Strong supporter of NEP	Not endearing (outspoken, frank, direct), notorious drinker
Tomsky	Genuine worker	Opposed Lenin in trade union debate
Bukharin	Theorist, close to Lenin, intellectual, popular, likeable, fierce arguer	Young (a decade Stalin's junior), not politically cunning, ideology not entirely marxist

Five Year Plans

The five-year plans contributed to Stalin's cultural revolution as a facilitator of the necessary gradual change:

- Development of national economy of the Soviet Union
- Series of nationwide centralized economic plans in Soviet Union beginning in late 1920s
- Stalin realised that if Russia was to become a key player in the global market, the country needed to *industrialise rapidly and increase production*.
- Women were given more opportunities in workforce (creches set up)
- Kulaks from the gulags used (slavery)
- Forced rural collectivisation, state-created famine and modernisation also played a role

Improvements (in production between 1928 and 1937):

- Coal - from 36 million tonnes to 130 million tonnes
- Iron - from 3 million tonnes to 15 million tonnes
- Oil - from 2 million tonnes to 29 million tonnes
- Electricity - from 5,000 million to 36,000 million kilowatts

Infrastructure Achievements:

- Turkestan-Siberian Railroad
- The Dnieper Dam
- The Belomor Canal

Stalin's Cultural Revolution:

Defined:

- Process of gradual ideological transformation (Leninist theory)
- Neither sudden nor violent, instead occurring over long period beginning after Bolshevik Revolution
- According to soviet historians continuing from 1917 to Stalin's death
- Seen as necessary part of transition to socialist society
- Cultural change implemented by political and economic reforms and decrees
- Influenced by other movements such as modernisation and five-year plans
- Soviet historians derive their concept of cultural revolution from Lenin
- Cultural/ social change seen in Russia under Stalin's rule in movement to affirm leadership's ideology

Background:

- Term used by Lenin to describe development of socialism as part of Russia's culture
- Transformation away from tsarist values
- Used in 1920's by communist cultural militants in context of 'class war' who sought party leaders' approval for assault on "bourgeois hegemony"; the cultural establishment, and the values of the old Russian intelligentsia in the name of the proletariat
- Inspiration from Lenin, not forgotten/suppressed (discreditable) militant episodes (1928 – 1931)
- Cultural revolution eventually seen as a unique process associated with socialist revolution
- For first time, made culture the property of the whole people
- Emphasis on civilizing mission of Soviet power in Russia's "backward" non-Slavic republics/regions

Soviet Historian View:

- Necessary part of transition to socialist society
- Party is initiator of cultural revolution characterised by democratization of culture, equalisation of cultural opportunity, rapid rise of educational level, and formation of new popular intelligentsia
- Unlike political movement, is neither sudden nor violent; process of gradual ideological transformation
- Cultural traditions and the Leninist principle of cultural continuity are respected

Cultural Revolution in Practice:

- Period in Russia after Stalin came to power following Lenin's death
- Cultural change and social evolution under Stalin's rule
- Occurring as a result of many political reforms/decrees
- Drastic cultural change in a reaction against the Tsar's previous rule
- Separation of government from church and more freedoms for women
- Modernisation and mechanisation contributed to social change
- Bolshevik propaganda and glorification of leadership in 'Cult of Stalin'
- Based upon Lenin's writings

Affected Groups:

Kulaks:

- Russian peasants wealthy enough to own a farm and hire labour
- Emerging after emancipation of serfs in 19th century
- Resisted Stalin's forced collectivization with millions arrested, exiled, or killed
- Used as slave labour (along with other groups such as political opponents)
- Built infrastructure facilitating Stalin's modernisation attempt

Women:

- Given more opportunities in work force; liberated
- Allowed to pursue professions which had previously been off-limits
- Creches created to look after children so that mothers could work
- Stalin understood that in order to facilitate the rapid industrialisation he hoped for, he would need as many people in work force as possible
- Trying to create a society that revolved around shared ideology rather than the family unit

Religious Members:

- Counterrevolution in a way reacting against previous Tsarist orthodoxy
- Tried to vindicate previous privileges the church had possessed
- Equality in the work force, anti-discrimination reforms putting clergy on same level

Bolshevism

- Communist government adopted in Russia following Bolshevik revolution of 1917
- Faction of Marxist Russian Social Democratic Labour Party
- Split from Menshevik faction at Second Party Congress in 1903
- Reaction to Tsar's rule of Bourgeoisie excess with starving peasantry population
- Power seized in February Revolution leading to coalition with Provisional Government
- Prov. Gov. overthrown in October Revolution following July days and Kornilov Affair
- Red Army win Civil War affirming Bolshevik power

Groups in Society

Women Overview:

- Women generally allowed more freedoms
- Political reforms including suffrage granted (although little effect due to dictatorship)
- Encouraged to participate in workforce (creches created to help facilitate this)
- Equality reinforced in ideology and supported by Lenin and others such as Alexandra Kollontai
- Propaganda encouraged equality between women and men and inspired gratitude in people
- Domestic family vs communist family

Women's Roles in Society:

Greater freedoms:

- Lenin: "To effect [woman's] emancipation and make her the equal of man," he wrote in 1919, two years after the Revolution, following the Marxist theories that underlaid Soviet communism, "it is necessary to be socialized and for women to participate in common productive labour. Then woman will be the equal of man."
- Soviet ideology stressed gender equality in labour and education
- Many Soviet women held jobs and advanced degrees

Propaganda Falsehoods:

- Did not participate in core political roles and institutions
- Above middle levels, political and economic leaders remained overwhelmingly male
- Propaganda claimed more women sat in the Supreme Soviet than in most democratic countries legislative bodies combined, which, although technically true was only two women
- Yekaterina Furtseva and (in last year of existence) Galina Semyonova; Politburo members

Family:

- Movement away from family in favour of communist family as a nation with Stalin as father
- Women sexually freer (facilitated by political reforms)
- Women still encouraged to have children and a family and perform domestic duties
- Domestic role vs industrious role

Feminist Groups:

- League for Women's Equal Rights
- Russian Women's Mutual Philanthropic Society
- Focus on education, social welfare, and equal rights for women (suffrage, equal inheritance, and an end to passport restrictions)
- Revolution, catalysed in part by women workers' demonstrations, generated membership surges
- Suffrage granted however had little effect owing to Communist Party's monopoly on power
- Many independent feminist organizations eventually shut down once communist power established

Political Decrees Affecting Women:

- Women got voting rights in 1917 (first major power to grant Women's suffrage)
- Divorce legalised
- Abortion legalised in 1920 (first country to do so however, banned again between 1936 and 1955)
- Birth control legalised
- Prostitution decriminalised and legal concept of illegitimacy banished
- All-women unions among female factory workers formed, who had previously tended to be ignored or marginalized by male socialists
- Generous maternity leave legally required
- National network of child-care centres established
- USSR's first constitution recognized the equal rights of women

Alexandra Kollontai: A Case Study

- Russian Communist revolutionary; member of the Mensheviks, then from 1915 on, a Bolshevik
- In 1923 appointed Soviet Ambassador to Norway (one of first women to hold such a post)
- Significant figure in the Bolshevik party during the revolution
- Most influential female in new Soviet society
- Originally belonged to family of liberal aristocrats
- Precocious and rebellious from early age, married young to a struggling engineer Vladimir Kollontai
- After touring a massive textiles factory in 1896, a young Mrs Kollontai chose to leave husband and infant child and devote herself to Marxist politics
- Barbaric living and labour conditions of the mostly female workers later led her to write that "women, their fate, occupied me all my life; the lot of women pushed me to socialism."
- Considered processes of socialist revolution and women's liberation to be inseparable
- Fought for equal participation of women in society and to achieve this understood that their second-class standing as workers must be eliminated
- This view aligned with others including Lenin, Trotsky, Inessa Armand and Nadezhda Krupskaya
- Bolshevik commitment to elevating status of women was passed in large part to Kollontai, who helped write many Soviet laws legalising abortion, divorce, birth control, even homosexuality
- Prostitution decriminalized, while the legal concept of illegitimacy was banished
- USSR one of first countries to grant women voting rights
- Became critical of Communist Party - heavy-handed factory management and treatment of workers
- Joined friend (Alexander Shlyapnikov: Commissar for Labour), formed faction known as Workers' Opposition
- 1921 pamphlet The Workers' Opposition called for members of the party to be allowed to freely discuss policy issues, while it demanded greater political freedom for trade unionists
- Advocated that before the government attempts to "rid Soviet institutions of the bureaucracy that lurks within them, the Party must first rid itself of its own bureaucracy."
- This attack on the Bolshevik hierarchy ended her political career
- At 1922 10th Party Congress, Lenin proposed resolution that would ban all factions within the party
- Argued factions within party were "harmful" and encouraged rebellions such as the Kronstadt Rising
- Party Congress agreed with Lenin and the Workers' Opposition was dissolved
- Kollontai shipped off by Stalin to serve in a diplomatic post abroad
- Survived Stalin's purges and show trials, perhaps because of gender, popularity and prominence within party
- Retired to Moscow where she died in 1952

Youth Overview:

- Educational reforms catapulting population into modern age
- Rise in literary rate (meant more people understood propaganda)
- More vocational subjects rather than academic (engineers needed for expanding infrastructure)
- Political bias in schools, historical inaccuracies and communist indoctrination
- Youth programs such as Komsomol

Komsomol:

- The All-Union Leninist Young Communist League, usually known as Komsomol
- Political youth organization in Soviet Union
- Recruited children into communism and used propaganda to entice membership
- Before Soviet Union was established in 1922, the Russian Communist Party decided to involve the Russian youth in its efforts toward political domination
- 1918, the All-Union Leninist Communist League of Youth, known as Komsomol, was born
- Ensured youth fully supported communism, and inspired desire to join political mission
- To join Komsomol, children had to be at least 14 years old
- a new purpose was set in 1922—to engage the members in health activities, sports, education, publishing activities, and various service and industrial project

Mikhail Khodorkovsky: A Case Study

- Today sits in Siberian prison as an outspoken opponent to Russia's premier Vladimir Putin
- Khodorkovsky once held great power in Russia and the world
- Started to build fortune as a member of Komsomol where party leaders took a liking to him
- Acquired right business contacts, which allowed him to start up extremely lucrative businesses, including a bank and an oil company
- By 2004, Russia's richest man, the 16th richest man in the world (according to Forbes magazine)
- His oil company, Yukos, mass produced two percent of the world's oil supply
- His success started with Komsomol

Cult of Personality

- Press presented Stalin as all-knowing, all-powerful leader
- Lenin used to strengthen faith in Stalin (doctored images)
- Glorification of Stalin (pictures up in houses); name and face became omnipresent (big-brother)

Indoctrination:

- Indoctrinated students with Communist ideologies and facilitated exposure to Communist ideas
- Students inundated with propaganda in schools
- Some argue goal of promoting literacy was that literate could understand propaganda messages
- Students were funnelled into young Communist groups and eventually Communist party itself
- Children presented with Communist heroes, children who stood as role models for Communist objectives and values (eg: reported a parent for kulak collaboration; putting state before blood)

Education:

Literacy Levels:

- According to 1897 Population Census, literate people made up only 28.4 percent of the population
- After Bolshevik uprising schools left to own devices
- From Oct 1, 1918 all schools came under Commissariat for Education; Uniform Labour Schools
- Divided into two standards: children from 8 to 13, and children from 14 to 17
- Destruction of economy during Civil War and War communism led to drop in the number of schools and enrolled students
- In 1914, 91% of the children were receiving instruction in schools
- In 1918 figure dropped to 62%, in 1919 to 49% and in 1920 to 24.9% leading to more illiteracy
- Sovnarkom decree (Dec 26 1919) by Lenin introduced new policy of likbez ("liquidation of illiteracy")
- New system of universal compulsory education was established for children
- Millions of illiterate adults, including residents of small villages, enrolled in special literacy schools
- Komsomol members and Young Pioneer detachments played important role in education
- Most active phase of likbez lasted until 1939
- In 1926, literacy rate 56.6% of the population (according to census data)
- By 1937, literacy rate was 86% for men and 65% for women, (total literacy rate of 75%)

Curriculum Change:

- Independent subjects, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, the mother tongue, foreign languages, history, geography, literature or science abolished
- School programmes subdivided into "complex themes", such as "the life and labour of the family in village and town" for the first year or "scientific organization of labour" for the 7th years
- System was complete failure, and was completely abandoned in 1928
- All students required to take same standardized classes
- Inflexible and suppressive (1930-50's especially)
- Research/ education (especially social sciences) dominated/supervised by Marxist-Leninist ideology
- Stalin was anti-history preferring an emphasis on the now and history books biased

Lenin:

- Had other problems such as civil war and economy so did not focus on schooling so much
- Adopted more relaxed/lenient school system
- Attempted change but failed and went back to old curriculum

Stalin:

- Sought to increase production by schooling children in new scientific and engineering developments, so as to increase their value to the industry
- Emphasized vocational training
- Made school compulsory to combat illiteracy to improve efficiency in the workplace
- The aim of his policy is stated in "Rule One" of a set of standard rules of education all children had to learn: "It is the duty of each school child to acquire knowledge persistently so as to become an educated and cultured citizen and to be of the greatest possible service to his country."
- Setbacks in advanced education as many scientists purged; ideas suppressed - deemed "bourgeois"
- Flawed education in many of the social sciences and in biology (genetics)
- Primary focus, engineering (infrastructure)

Reasons for Reforms:

- Support for the state
- Propaganda
- Indoctrination
- Raising literacy rates
- Increasing political consciousness
- Training for military/careers

Education Aims:

- 1928 - 65% of higher technical education to be of working class
- 1929 - 70%, with 14% women
- REALITY: 30% in 1928/9 to 58% in 1932/3

Main Changes:

- Specialist courses in schools and universities encouraged
- Only state-prescribed textbooks used
- Uniforms
- Traditional and Marxist theory subjects emphasized
- Higher education was no longer free
- Primary education compulsory for 4 years, in 1930 and then later 7
- Adult classes to improve literacy
- Reintroduction of tests and examinations
- Komsomol and other youth groups/camps after school

Other Attempts to Improve Education:

- Newspapers available at low prices and free to factory workers
- Yearning created to become like the Soviet role models created
- Classics and other literature at low prices and accessible

Religious Groups Overview:

- Church separated from state (in radical change from Tsarist regime)
- Atheism taught in schools with suppression and discrimination against religion
- Many clergy members sent to labour camps (particularly Russian Orthodox leaders)
- Allowed Religion during World War Two as a way to provide hope for struggling people/ low morale
- Generally, most religious activity persecuted

Separation of Church and State:

- Soviet Union; first state to have ideological objective of elimination of religion
- Communist regime confiscated church property, ridiculed religion, harassed believers, and propagated atheism in the schools
- Actions toward religions determined by State interests - most organized religions never outlawed

Russian Orthodox Church:

- Target of anti-religious campaign in 1920/30s was Russian Orthodox Church
- Had the largest number of faithful which posed threat to communism regime
- Nearly all of its clergy, and many of its believers, were shot or sent to labour camps
- Theological schools closed, and church publications prohibited
- By 1939 only about 500 of over 50,000 churches remained open

World War Two:

- After Nazi Germany's attack on USSR in 1941, Stalin revived the Russian Orthodox Church
- Intensified patriotic support for war effort
- By 1957 about 22,000 Russian Orthodox churches had become active

Other Campaigns:

- Movements against other religions closely associated with particular nationalities (especially if they recognized a foreign religious authority such as the Pope as it threatened Stalin's leadership)
- By 1926, Roman Catholic Church had no bishops left in Soviet Union
- By 1941 only two of almost 1,200 churches that existed in 1917 (mostly in Lithuania) were still active
- The Ukrainian Catholic Church (Uniate), linked with Ukrainian nationalism, was forcibly subordinated in 1946 to the Russian Orthodox Church
- The Autocephalous Orthodox Churches of Belorussia and Ukraine were suppressed twice, in the late 1920s and again in 1944
- Attacks on Judaism common; organized practice of Judaism became almost impossible
- Protestant denominations and other sects also persecuted
- The All-Union Council of Evangelical Christian Baptists (established by gov. in 1944), forced to confine activities to act of worship; denied most opportunities for religious teaching and publication
- Fearful of a pan-Islamic movement, regime systematically suppressed Islam by force, until 1941
- Nazi invasion of Soviet Union that year led government to adopt a policy of official toleration of Islam while actively encouraging atheism among Muslims

Historical Perspectives

Marxist/Soviet

Legitimises communist party rule and triumphs of Bolshevik revolution by holding position that authoritarian rule necessary to reform Russia from large peasantry population. View held by communist party and a few far-left Marxist western historians

Liberal/western

Dominant view held by historians; hostile to socialism, Marxist theory and communist rule.

Richard Pipes:

- October Revolution seen as Bolshevik coup ("classic coup") in which real aim of one-party dictatorship was disguised
- The ease with which the Bolsheviks toppled the Provisional Government has persuaded many historians that the October coup was "inevitable". But it can appear as such only in retrospect. Lenin himself thought it an extremely chancy undertaking."
- "Marxism and Bolshevism ... were products of an era in European intellectual life that was obsessed with violence. No-one embraced this philosophy more enthusiastically than the Bolsheviks: "merciless" violence, violence that strove for the destruction of every actual and potential opponent, was ... the only way of dealing with problems."
- "Stalin was a true Leninist in that he faithfully followed his patron's political philosophy and practices. Every ingredient of what has come to be known as Stalinism save one – murdering fellow Communists – he had learned from Lenin."

Dmitri Volkogonov:

- Previously a soviet, changed his view in last decade of life
- "The only thing I can be proud of—the greatest merit of my life—is that I was able to fundamentally alter my views."
- "We rarely know who our ancestors were. Who can even remember the names of their great-grandparents? They have vanished into the dim and distant past"

Revisionist

Emphasises key role masses play and holds view that Bolshevism more based upon utopian idealism than deceitful power.

Orlando Figes:

- presents revolution not as a march of abstract social forces and ideologies but as "a human event of complicated individual tragedies"
- "the Romanov regime fell under the weight of its own internal contradictions. It was not overthrown." "With the Russian Empire teetering on the brink of collapse, the tsarist regime responded to the crises with its usual incompetence and obstinacy. The basic problem was that Nicholas himself remained totally oblivious to the extremity of the situation"
- "The worst violence was reserved for the Jews. There were 690 documented pogroms -- with over 3,000 reported murders -- during the two weeks following the deceleration of the October Manifesto."
- "It was not Marxism that made Lenin a revolutionary but Lenin who made Marxism revolutionary."
- "To the less privileged it was this arbitrariness that made the regime's power feel so oppressive. There were no clear principles or regulations which enabled the individual to challenge authority or the state."
- "The idea was to initiate the children into the practices, cults and rituals of the Soviet system so that they would grow up to become loyal and active Communists."

Robert Service:

- totalitarian nature of Bolsheviks is questionable (liberal and revisionist)
- "Morality is entirely subordinate to the interests of class war. And everything is moral that is necessary for the annihilation of the old, exploiting social order and for uniting the proletariat."

Sheila Fitzpatrick:

- explores cultural revolution on idealist aspects
- "This was an age of utopianism. Political leaders had utopian visions, and so did many citizens, especially the younger generation. The spirit is hard to capture in an age of skepticism, since utopianism, like revolution, is so unreasonable."
- "Political leaders had utopian visions, and so did many citizens, especially the younger generation."

Stakhanovsk Movement

Originated in USSR, referred to workers who modelled work after Alexey Stakhanov (aka Stakhanovite/ Stakhanovism).

Alexey Stakhanov:

- Russian Soviet miner
- Broke records with his labour; reported to have set a new record by mining 227 tonnes of coal in a single shift
- His example was held up in newspapers and posters as a model for others to follow, and he appeared on the cover of Time magazine in the United States
- Became celebrity in 1935 as part of what became known as the Stakhanovite movement; a campaign intended to increase worker productivity and to demonstrate the supposed superiority of the socialist economic system
- Workers who exceeded production targets could become "Stakhanovites"
- Became deputy of Supreme Soviet of the USSR of the first convocation
- Awarded two Orders of Lenin, Order of the Red Banner of Labour, and numerous medals
- Last Sunday of August designated "Coal Miner's Day", in his honour.
- Town of Kadievka in eastern Ukraine where he started his work renamed Stakhanov in 1978, after his death



WW2

Course of War:

- 22nd June 1941: Operation Barbarossa – Code name for Axis invasion of USSR which created a two front war (Eastern front). Attacked from west (occupied Poland).
- September 1941: Leningrad – Siege of industrial city as well as political capital.
- 1942: Stalingrad - Largest confrontation of WW2 with aim of reducing Russian morale.
- 1943: Battle of Kursk – Tank dominated battle; in order to get industry.
- 1944: D-day – Allied landings on Normandy beach; beginning of Europe's liberation.
- 8th May 1945 – Victory in Europe day – Allies acceptance of Nazi Germany's surrender.

Great Patriotic War: term used in USSR to describe the conflict fought during the period from 22 June 1941 to 9 May 1945 when the Axis forces first invaded Russia beginning the two-front war.

Impact of WW2

Social:

- Harshness of previous years prepared population for hardships of war
- Women, children and elderly filled vacant places in workforce and society
- Half of soviet population under German occupation
- By 1941 40% of nation's railway system no longer usable

Political:

- Conscription introduced (women participated in war too having a 100g greater soap ration)
- By 1944 over 2 million women serving in Red Army
- Lend-lease program of USA mean allied nations which extended to USSR provided with armaments/ military aid
- Stalin's ruthlessness leadership (for example Leningrad siege)

Economic:

- Planned economy, industrialisation/modernisation, five-year plans and NEP meant nation more prepared
- 13 years of war footing in economy
- Central government meant economical decisions easier to organise
- Attempted to move industry East away from invasion; ambitious and difficult process
- By 1941 iron and steel production dropped by 60% and grain-stock reduced by 40%
- By 1942 over half the national income was being devoted to producing war armaments

Reasons for USSR Victory:

- Stalin's Ruthlessness – tactical and unfeeling
- German mistakes – two front war, battle of Stalingrad, overconfidence
- 'General Winter' – German soldiers unprepared for Russian winter (expected quick victory); ill-equipped, and ill-supplied as weather stopped transport. Over 734 000 casualties in first 5 months before winter even begun.
- Russia's Planned Economy – meant USSR was economically prepared for war and producing armaments

Notable Conflicts:

Leningrad siege:

- Lasted 900 days (September 1941 to January 1944)
- Over a million people died, one third of the population – wounds/hunger/cold
- Over 100 000 German bombs fell and 20 000 shells fired
- 226 people arrested for cannibalism

Battle of Stalingrad:

- 1942 – February 2nd 1943
- Largest confrontation of WWII in which German troops fought Soviet Union for control of city
- Bloody battle with 19 000 deaths a day
- Soviet victory resulting in destruction of German 6th Army (one of Germany's strongest)
- 200 000 German troops died in battle
- 91 000 became prisoners of war with only 6000 surviving captivity

Significant Individuals

Tsar Nicholas II

- Ruling: November 1894 - 15 March 1917.
- Leader of autocratic orthodoxy with Russian Orthodox Church
- Last Emperor of Russia, ending with a revolution and forced abdication
- Reasons for revolution included poor leadership, the choice to enter WW1 and then to leave Tsarina in charge to go to front, ignoring advisors, as well as Rasputin's influence over the royal family
- The Tsar, his wife and their five children (along with others who chose to accompany them) kept in secure house until their assassination by order of Lenin on night of July 16th 1918 (although never publicly admitted)



Trotsky

- Main competitor with Stalin in power struggle following Lenin's death
- Helped greatly as leader in October and February revolutions
- Did not want to cause party divisions and ultimately lost to Stalin
- Removed from positions of authority within party and exiled from USSR
- Assassinated on 1 August 1940 in Mexico City, killed with an ice pick



Lenin

- Ruling: October 1917 – 21 January 1924
- Leader of soviet Russian government (later USSR)
- Led February and October Revolutions of Bolshevik party to overthrow Tsar
- Followed Marxist theory in a bid to create communist regime
- Implemented early Bolshevik decrees including War Communism and later NEP
- Died unexpectedly in January 1924 from a stroke leaving no clear successor (his testament went unpublicised)



Stalin

- Became Lenin's successor ruling: mid 1920's – 1953
- Ruthless leader becoming Russia's dictator for over three decades
- Sent political opponents to labour camps called gulags
- Implemented harsh policies reforming Russia in 'Stalin's Cultural Revolution'
- Catapulted Russia into modern era of industrialisation with five-year plans
- Led USSR successfully through WW2 though faced many casualties
- Died from stroke and was mourned throughout Russia
- Succeeded by Nikita Khrushchev (who won a mini power struggle against Georgy Malenkov) and shortly thereafter commenced destalinization



Tl;dr

Timeline

- 1917:
 - February: February Revolution
 - 27th February: Petrograd Garrison Mutinied
 - March 15th: Abdication of Tsar Nicholas II
 - July: July Days (resulting in coalition government)
 - August: Kornilov Affair
 - October: October Revolution
 - December: Bolshevik Reforms:
 - 'On the Equality of the Rank of all Military Men'
 - Education Decrees
 - Women's Suffrage
 - December 20th: Cheka founded
 - November: Civil war begins (-1921)
- 1918:
 - March 3rd: Treaty of Brest-Litovsk signed (ending Russia's participation in WW1)
 - October 29th: Komsomol formed
- 1920:
 - October: Abortion Legalised
- 1921:
 - March: Kronstadt Rebellion
 - March: NEP introduced at tenth party congress
- 1922:
 - December 1922: Unification of USSR
 - December: Komsomol reformed
- 1924:
 - January 21st: Lenin's death
- 1934:
 - July 10th: NKVD founded
- 1939:
 - August 23rd: German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact
 - September: World War Two begins
- 1941:
 - March: Lend-Lease Act passed (USA to provide armaments to allies)
 - June 22nd: Operation Barbarossa (Great Patriotic War begins)
 - September: Siege of Leningrad
- 1942:
 - July: Battle of Stalingrad (-2nd February 1943)
- 1943:
 - July 5th: Battle of Kursk (-23rd August 1943)
- 1944:
 - June 6th: D-Day Landings
- 1945:
 - May 8th: Victory in Europe Day

Facts

Literacy Rates: 1920 to 1937 from 25% to 75%

Komsomol Case Study: Mikhail Khodorkovsky:

- By 2004 16th richest man in world
- His company, Yukos, produced 2% of world's oil

Production Levels between 1928 and 1937:

- Coal from 36 billion to 130 million tonnes
- Iron from 3 million to 15 million tonnes
- Oil from 2 million to 29 million tonnes
- Electricity from 5,000 million to 36,000 million kilowatts

Infrastructure Achievements:

- Turkestan-Siberian Railway
- The Dneiper Dam
- The Belamor Canal

Propaganda Case Study: Stakhanovsk Movement

- Alexey Stakhanov rose to fame in 1935
- Record of 227 tonnes of coal in one shift
- Cover of Time magazine in USA
- Last Sunday of August 'Coal Miner's Day' in his honour

Russian Orthodox Church: By 1939 about 500 churches remained from 50,000

Roman Catholic Church: No Bishops left in Soviet Union

Leningrad:

- Lasted 900 days
- Over a million died (1/3 of population)
- Over 100 000 German bombs fell
- Over 20 000 shells fired
- 226 people arrested for Cannibilsim

Stalingrad:

- Largest confrontation of WW2
- 19 000 deaths a day
- Destruction of Hitler's 6th Army
- 200 000 German deaths
- 91 000 German prisoners of war (6000 surviving captivity)

WW2 Impacts:

- Over 734 000 German casualties in first five months before winter began
- By 1941 40% of nation's railway system no longer usable
- Conscriptio (women's soap ration 100g more than men)
- By 1944 over 2 million women served in red army
- By 1941 iron and steel production dropped by 60% and grainstock by 40%
- By 1942 over half national income devoted to producing armaments

Quotes

Russia is a “madhouse” drowning under “an avalanche of decrees” – Louis de Robien (French diplomat living in USSR)

“You may not be interested in strategy, but strategy is interested in you.” – Trotsky

“to effect [women’s] emancipation and make her the equal of man” – Lenin

“A lie told often enough becomes the truth.” – Lenin

“The death of one man is a tragedy. The death of millions is a statistic.” – Stalin

“Education is a weapon, whose effect depends on who holds it in his hands and at whom it is aimed.” – Stalin

“In the Soviet army it takes more courage to retreat than advance.” – Stalin

“the idea was to initiate the children into the practices, cults and rituals of the soviet system” – Orlando Figes (Revisionist)

“Political leaders had utopian visions and so did many citizens, especially the younger generation” – Shelia Fitzpatrick (Revisionist)

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Essay Drafts

1. Assess the extent of change experienced by the peasantry in Russia during the time period.

Thesis: Between 1917 and 1945 a multitude of events irrevocably transformed the landscape of Soviet Russia for its majority peasant population particularly.

P1: 1917 Revolution (political ideals supporting workers)

P2: Civil War (opportunity to fight)

P3: Five Year Plans (modernisation and jobs)

P4: World War Two (occupation and conscription)

2. Identify at least one economic initiative implemented in Russia during the time period and analyse its impact on Russian society.

Thesis: The NEP (New Economic Policy) had a considerable impact on Russian society catapulting the nation into the modern era and reforming the roles of particular groups.

P1: NEP on women (women into workforce)

P2: NEP on religious groups (tolerance encouraged; churches re-opened, happier)

P3: NEP on peasants (NEPmen and richer 'kulaks')

P4: NEP on party (divisions 'giving in to capitalism')

3. Evaluate the role and impact of Joseph Stalin as a wartime leader.

Thesis: Although leadership played a significant role with Stalin's ruthlessness and military tactics ensuring Russia's victory in WW2, it was not the only factor which impacted the countries wartime experience.

P1: USSR's planned economy (five-year plans and industry move)

P2: Stalin's ruthlessness (Leningrad)

P3: Stalin's eventual resignation of total control (listened to advice)

P4: German mistakes (Stalingrad and winter)

4. Assess the proposition that "World War 1 was the most important reason for Tsar Nicholas II's abdication in 1917"

Thesis: A variety of reasons led to Tsar Nicholas II's eventual abdication, a few of which can be interpreted as a result of his leadership in WW1.

P1: Poor population (peasant starvation, disinterest of Tsar in people's problems)

P2: Internal political instability (Rasputin, Bolshevik popularity)

P3: World War One (choice to enter and go to front line)

P4: October Manifesto (failure to act on 1905 promises)

5. Analyse the ways in which the Bolsheviks overcame challenges to their authority between 1917 -1921.

Thesis: In order to cement their one-party dictatorship, the Bolsheviks utilised a variety of tools such as leadership, tactical political moves, secret police and propaganda to overcome challenges to their authority.

P1: Lenin's leadership (rallying support)

P2: October Revolution (overthrowing prov. gov)

P3: Secret Police (Cheka, violence, repression)

P4: Propaganda (indoctrinate masses)

6. Evaluate the impact of Stalinism on soviet culture and society.

Thesis: Soviet Russia experienced much change over the course of Stalin's leadership with the development of the 'cult of Stalin' which saw the glorification of the nation's leader who catapulted the nation into the modern era, reshaping the political and societal landscape for certain groups.

P1: Stalinism on women (more equality)

P2: Stalinism on youth (Komsomol, propaganda)

P3: Stalinism on religious groups (discrimination and persecution)

P4: Stalinism on peasantry (industrialisation)

7. Evaluate the extent to which Stalin was the architect of the soviet victory of the Great Patriotic War.

Thesis: Although Stalin played a significant role in the soviet victory of the 'Great Patriotic War' with his implementation of a planned economy and ruthlessness as a leader, other factors were also involved.

P1: USSR's planned economy (five-year plans and industry move)

P2: Stalin's ruthlessness (Leningrad)

P3: Stalin's eventual resignation of total control (listened to advice)

P4: German mistakes (Stalingrad and winter)

Middle East

Unit 4: Middle East

Geography:

Arab States: *Arabia, Peninsula, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Oman, Kuwait, Qatar, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Levant, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran, Jordan, Lebanon, Palestine, Turkey*

Gulf States: *United Arab Emirates, Yemen, Kuwait, Qatar*

Maghreb Arabic States: *North African Arab States; Libya, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia*

Mandatory Palestine: 1920-48 - geopolitical entity under British administration, carved out of Ottoman Syria after World War I.

Participants: Arab/Palestinian VS Jewish/Zionist/Israeli

Keywords:

Zionism: political movement for re-establishment of a Jewish nation.

Arab: Middle eastern people, found in Arab states, the majority of which are Muslim.

Holy Lands: regions (including the city of Jerusalem and other places such as the town of Bethlehem, south of Jerusalem) valued by certain religious groups including Jews, Christians and Muslims.

Imperialism: policy of extending country's power/influence through colonization, use of military force, or other means.

Arab nationalism: political nationalist ideology asserting Arabs are a nation and promoting unity of Arab people, celebrating the glories of Arab civilization.

Fundamentalism: indicates unwavering attachment to set of irreducible religious beliefs, upholding them in strict, literal interpretation of scripture.

Terrorism: unlawful use of violence and intimidation, especially against civilians, in the pursuit of political aims.

Specific Paramilitary Groups:

- Haganah: 1921-48
Jewish paramilitary organization in Mandatory Palestine, which became core of Israel Defence Forces (IDF).
- Irgun: 1931- 48
Zionist paramilitary organization operating in Mandatory Palestine and offshoot of older larger organization, Haganah.
- Stern Gang: 1940-48
Zionist paramilitary organization founded by Avraham ("Yair") Stern in Mandatory Palestine with avowed aim to evict British authorities from Palestine by resort to force, allowing unrestricted immigration of Jews and the formation of a Jewish state ("new totalitarian Hebrew republic").
- Israel Defence Forces (IDF): 1948-present
Official Israeli military force, set up by order of Defence Minister David Ben-Gurion on 26 May 1948 as conscript army formed out of paramilitary group Haganah, incorporating militant groups Irgun and Lehi.
- Fatah: 1959-present
Palestinian political and military organization founded by Yasser Arafat to work toward the creation of a Palestinian state; during the 1960s and 1970s trained terrorist and insurgent groups, the largest faction of the Palestinian Liberation Organisation.

Other Players:

United States - consequences of US involvement include:

Continuing Conflict: arms race and cold war with soviets meant some countries protected by default making the conflict more international.

Peace: played large part in peace negotiations due to their role in the UN; USA also saw selves as 'policeman' of world so heavily involved in peace talks such as those at Came David.

Britain - consequences of British involvement include:

Continuing Conflict: failure to properly negotiate peace before releasing as British Mandate and also involved in Suez Crisis along with France.

Peace: national pride and history (fact that Palestine used to be a British mandate) meant Britain played large part in trying to negotiate peace but were not always successful.

Soviet Union - consequences of Soviet involvement include:

Continuing Conflict: arms race/cold war and tensions with USA led soviets to supply arms to Middle Eastern countries, continuing conflict.

Peace: more focussed on personal profit and ideological spread that gaining peace.



The State of Palestine

Background:

- Following dissolution of Ottoman Empire after WW1, victorious European states divided many of its component regions into newly created states under League of Nations mandates according to deals that had been struck with other interested parties
- In Middle East, Syria (including areas relating to Lebanon) came under French control, and Mesopotamia/Palestine allotted to British
- Most states achieved independence during following three decades without great difficulty, though in some regimes, the colonial legacy continued through the granting of exclusive rights to market/manufacture oil and maintain troops to defend it, however, the case of Palestine remained problematic
- Arab nationalism rose after WW2, following example of European nationalism
- Pan-Arabist beliefs called for the creation of a single, secular state for all Arabs whilst the Jews hoped for 'next year in Jerusalem'

McMahon-Hussein Correspondence: October 24th 1915

- In early years of WW1, negotiations occurred between British High Commissioner in Egypt, Henry McMahon, and Sharif of Mecca Husayn bin Ali for alliance between Allies and Arabs in Near East against the Ottomans
- McMahon sent to Hussein a note which the Arabs came to regard as their "Declaration of Independence"
- Letter declared Britain's willingness to recognise independence of Arabs, both in the Levant and the Hejaz, subject to certain exemptions
- Sated on behalf of the Government of Great Britain that "Subject to [previously indicated] modifications, Great Britain is prepared to recognize and support the independence of the Arabs in all the regions within the limits demanded by the Sherif of Mecca."

Sykes-Picot Agreement: May 16th 1916

- Officially known as Asia Minor Agreement; negotiations occurred between November 1915 and March 1916
- Secret agreement between the United Kingdom and France, to which the Russian Empire assented
- Defined mutually agreed spheres of influence and control in Southwestern Asia based on premise that the Triple Entente would succeed in defeating the Ottoman Empire during WW1
- The deal, exposed to the public in Izvestia and Pravda on 23 November 1917 and in the British Guardian on November 26, 1917, is still mentioned when considering the region and its present-day conflicts
- Agreement effectively divided the Ottoman Arab provinces outside the Arabian Peninsula into areas of British and French control and influence, and led to subsequent partitioning of Ottoman Empire following Ottoman defeat in 1918

Balfour Declaration: November 2nd 1917

- Public statement issued by British government during WW1 announcing support for establishment of a "national home for the Jewish people" in Palestine.
- Declaration enthusiastically received by many Jews worldwide
- Opposed by Palestinian and Arab leaders, who claimed its objective breached promises made to Sharif of Mecca in 1915, in exchange for Arab help fighting the Ottoman Empire during WW1

Peel Commission: July 7th 1937

- During 1936–39 Arab revolt in Palestine, British government formed the Peel Commission, which recommended formation of a Jewish and an Arab state
- Called for small Jewish state (region <1/5 total area of Palestine) in the Galilee and maritime strip, a British enclave stretching from Jerusalem to Jaffa, and an Arab state covering the rest (to be joined to Transjordan)
- Arab population in Jewish areas to be removed, by force if necessary, and vice versa, although this would mean the movement of far more Arabs than Jews
- Zionist Congress rejected the proposal, while allowing the leadership to continue negotiating with the British
- Arab leadership rejected the proposal outright
- All came to nothing, as British government shelved the proposal altogether by the middle of 1938

WW2 and White Paper: May 23rd 1939

- Boosted Jewish nationalism as holocaust reaffirmed call for homeland
- Britain pooled energy into winning over Arab opinions by abandoning Balfour Declaration and the terms of the League of Nations mandate which had been entrusted to it in order to create a "Jewish National Home"
- Britain issued 1939 white paper which officially allowed a further 75,000 Jews to move over five years (10,000 a year plus an additional 25,000) which was to be followed by Arab majority independence
- British would later claim quota had already been fulfilled by those who had entered without its approval

UN Partition Plan: November 29th 1947

- 1947: United Nations created United Nations Special Committee on Palestine (UNSCOP) to find immediate solution to the Palestine question, which British had handed over to the UN
- Resolution noted Britain's planned termination of British Mandate for Palestine
- Recommended partition of Palestine into two states; one Arab and one Jewish, with Jerusalem-Bethlehem area under special international protection, administered by United Nations
- Resolution included highly detailed description of recommended boundaries for each proposed state
- Leaders of Jewish Agency for Palestine accepted parts of the plan, while Arab leaders refused it

Jewish Exodus from Arab/Muslim Countries: 1948

- Departure/flight/expulsion/evacuation/migration of 850,000 Jews, from Arab and Muslim countries since 1948 (-70s)
- Last major migration wave took place from Iran in 1979–80, as a consequence of the Islamic Revolution
- First large-scale exoduses took place in the late 1940s and early 1950s, primarily from Iraq, Yemen and Libya
- Over 90% of Jewish population left, despite necessity of leaving their property behind
- 260 000 Jews from Arab countries immigrated to Israel between 1948 and 1951, accounting for 56% of the total immigration to the newly founded state
- Following establishment of State of Israel, plan to accommodate 600,000 immigrants over four years, doubling the existing Jewish population, however, were those within Jewish Agency and government who opposed promoting a large-scale movement among Jews whose lives were not in danger
- Peak of the exodus from Egypt occurred in 1956 following the Suez Crisis
- In total, of 900,000 Jews who left Arab and other Muslim countries, 600,000 settled in the new state of Israel, and 300,000 immigrated to France and the United States
- Reasons for exodus include push factors (persecution, antisemitism, political instability, poverty, and expulsion) and pull factors, (desire to fulfil Zionist yearnings or find better economic status and a secure home in Europe or Americas)
- History of exodus has been politicized, given proposed relevance to historical narrative of the Arab–Israeli conflict

Creation of Israel

Reasons:

- Zionists gaining support over many years since 1800's
- Holocaust created more incentive for Jewish homeland
- Partition that had been seen as solution to ongoing violence was unsuccessful

Results:

- Massive refugee problem
- Expulsion of Jews from some Muslim countries
- Arab nations become disunited
- First Arab-Israeli War
- New state emerges; Israeli leadership highly suspicious (convinced Arab neighbours aimed on destruction of new state) and Palestinians still fighting for land back therefore Israel must be prepared to defend itself

Events:

- British Mandate handed to UN
- UNSCOP created to examine issue; recommends partition plan to UN general assembly which receives majority vote on 27th November 1947
- Arab Higher Committee threatens war over partition
- USA suggests partition postponed (due to ongoing violence)
- Britain announces intention to leave Palestine
- Ben-Gurion declares State of Israel on May 14 (the day before Britain leaves)

Key Conflicts and Movements:

Deir Yassin Massacre: April 9th 1948

- ~ 120 fighters from Zionist groups Irgun and Lehi attacked Deir Yassin, a Palestinian Arab village of roughly 600 people near Jerusalem
- Jewish militia sought to relieve blockade of Jerusalem during civil war that preceded end of British rule in Palestine
- Over 107 Palestinians killed, including women and children (shot and hand grenades thrown into homes)
- According to International Red Cross Report, deaths were brutal; decapitation, disembowelment, mutilation and rape
- Four of the attackers were killed, with around 35 injured
- Killings condemned by the leadership of Haganah (Jewish community's main paramilitary force)
- Pivotal event in Arab-Israeli conflict for demographic and military consequences
- Embellished narrative used by various parties to attack each other: Palestinians against Israel; Haganah to downplay role in affair; Israeli's to accuse Irgun/Lehi of blackening Israel's name (violating Jewish principle of purity of arms)
- Utilised as propaganda; news of killings sparked terror among Palestinians, encouraging them to flee in face of Jewish troop advances, strengthening resolve of Arab governments to intervene (Palestinian Diaspora)

Palestinian Diaspora: 1947-49

- Mass migration of Arabs out of Palestine to other Arab nation in response to Jewish-Palestinian violence (over 750 000)
- Many refugees ended up in UN run and international aid camps as were poorly assimilated by neighbouring countries
- These camps ended up in the West Bank and Gaza, and even fewer went to Transjordan, Lebanon and Syria
- Israel refused to allow Palestinians back in, building Jewish settlements on deserted Arab villages and farms
- Diaspora causes controversial; some argue propaganda and Jewish hostility main cause; ongoing debate on degree of Israeli responsibility
- Reasons for poor assimilation of fleeing Arabs elsewhere are unclear as the language/religion was the same
- One Israeli view is they were left to be embittered minority to be used as political pawns against Israel

Civil War: November 30th 1947 – May 14th 1948

- First phase of 1948 Palestine war which broke out after General Assembly adopted partition plan resolution
- Tension between Arabs and Jews, and between each of them and the British forces, ever since 1917 Balfour Declaration and 1920 creation of British Mandate of Palestine whose policies dissatisfied both Arabs and Jews
- Arab opposition developed into 1936–39 Arab Revolt in Palestine, and Jewish into Jewish insurgency in Palestine (1944–1947)
- In 1947 these ongoing tensions erupted into civil war, following the 29 November 1947 adoption of the United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine, which planned to divide Palestine into three areas: an Arab state, a Jewish state and the Special International Regime for the cities of Jerusalem and Bethlehem
- During war, Jewish and Arab communities of Palestine clashed (latter supported by the Arab Liberation Army) while British, who had obligation to maintain order, organized their withdrawal, intervening only on occasional basis
- When British Mandate of Palestine expired (14 May 1948) and with Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel, the surrounding Arab states—Egypt, Transjordan, Iraq and Syria—invaded what had just ceased to be Mandatory Palestine, immediately attacking Israeli forces and several Jewish settlements
- Conflict then turned into the 1948 Arab-Israeli War

Arab-Israeli War: May 15th 1948 – March 1949

- The 1948 Arab-Israeli War, or the First Arab-Israeli War, was fought between the State of Israel and a military coalition of Arab states over control of Palestine, forming second stage of the 1948 Palestine war
- On 15 May 1948, ongoing civil war transformed into an inter-state conflict between Israel and the Arab states, following Israeli Declaration of Independence the previous day
- Combined invasion by Egypt, Jordan and Syria, together with expeditionary forces from Iraq, entered Palestine – Jordan having declared privately to Yishuv emissaries on 2 May that it would abide by decision not to attack the Jewish state
- Invading forces took control of the Arab areas, immediately attacking Israeli forces and several Jewish settlements
- 10 months of fighting, interrupted by several truce periods, took place mostly on the former territory of the British Mandate and for a short time also in the Sinai Peninsula and southern Lebanon
- As a result of the war, the State of Israel controlled both the area that the UN General Assembly Resolution 181 had recommended for the proposed Jewish state as well as almost 60% of the area of Arab state proposed by the 1948 Partition Plan, including West Jerusalem and some territories in the West Bank
- Transjordan took control of remainder of former British mandate, which it annexed, and Egyptian military took control of the Gaza Strip, meanwhile no state was created for the Palestinian Arabs
- Around 700,000 Palestinian Arabs fled or were expelled from their homes in the area that became Israel (Palestinian Diaspora)
- In the three years following the war, about 700,000 Jews immigrated to Israel, with many of them having been expelled from their previous countries of residence in the Middle East (Jewish Exodus)

Suez Crisis: October 1956

- Also known as the Second Arab–Israeli War, or the Tripartite Aggression and Operation Kadesh or Sinai War
- Invasion of Egypt in late 1956 by Israel, followed by the United Kingdom and France (who collaborated with Israel)
- Aim to regain Western control of Suez Canal and remove Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser, who had just nationalized canal
- After fighting started, political pressure from the United States, the Soviet Union and the United Nations led to a withdrawal by the three invaders (humiliating the United Kingdom and France and strengthening Nasser)
- The UN (and USA) did not support French/British invasion

Six Day War: June 5th – 10th 1967

- Aka 1967 Arab–Israeli War, or Third Arab–Israeli War, was fought between Israel and the neighboring states Egypt, Jordan, and Syria.
- Israel started war with pre-emptive strike on Egyptian air force on 5th June but were provoked by Egypt.
- During 1960's Egypt involved in war in Yemen (North Yemen Civil War) which was very expensive resulting in a suffering economy.
- Took aggressive stances against Israel (not wanting to start a war but) hoping they'd turn to UN who'd offer economic aid a bribe.
- Israel had been looking for excuse to start war thus did not turn to UN, instead initiating war (consequences of which still felt today).

Israeli Response:

- Jewish population overjoyed by easy victory however stuck governing parts of Arabic territory they didn't want to be responsible for.
- Occupied territories included the Gaza Strip, Golan Heights and West Bank (Jerusalem).

Palestinian Response:

- Worsened already-bad refugee crisis with many Palestinians humiliatingly occupying now-Israeli governed areas.
- Israelis would even come and acquire property to further Zionist expansion.
- Palestinian nationalism and terrorism grew with leadership changing (militant Fatah became largest part of PLO – Palestine Liberation Organisation, led as a whole by Yasser Arafat as of 1969)

Arab States' Response:

- Arabic countries remained defiant while it was obvious they could not defeat Israel in a war.
- Most Arab nations had a policy of no-peace towards Israel with no diplomatic recognition and no negotiations.
- Jordan maintained occasional secretive relationship but all others still, unrealistically, continued to demand a Palestinian state.

International Response:

- USSR began rearming Syria and Egypt almost immediately.
- USA did not attempt to establish peace with either side however as a result of their Cold War victory in which they had Israel as an ally, they effectively protected Egypt as they would not let the soviets destroy the country as USA would then appear weak.
- Main official international response: UN resolution 242 which was very vague and stated peace should be exchanged for territory.

Yom Kippur War: October 6th - 25th 1973

- Nasser resigned after failure at six-day war however country remained supportive so he stayed in power but was never quite the same.
- Died in 1970 and was succeeded by Anwar Sadat who over his eleven year as president departed from socialist nasserism, reintroducing multi-party system and regaining some Egyptian pride following failure of 1967 including taking back Sinai Peninsula in Yom Kippur War.
- 1972, Sadat expelled 20,000 Soviet advisers from Egypt and opened new diplomatic channels with Washington, D.C., which, as Israel's key ally, would be an essential mediator in any future peace talks
- Formed new alliance with Syria, and a concerted attack on Israel was planned
- Arab nations attack Israel on holy holiday winning early victories but Israel fights back and war ends with a cease fire.
- Aka Ramadan War, also 1973 Arab–Israeli War, fought by a coalition of Arab states led by Egypt and Syria against Israel.
- In Suez region 500 Israeli soldiers faced 80, 000 Egyptian, and on Golan Heights alone 150 Israeli tanks faced 1400 Syrian tanks.
- In just two days Egyptians had made it across Suez Canal and gained 15 miles inland.
- Bolstered by reserves, Israel fought back and also received military aid from USA, although delayed for week to indicate Egyptian sympathies.
- with American sponsored 'Camp-David' peace talks and UN help (which faced own crisis; Secretary-General Kurt Waldheim implicated in Balkans war crimes during WW2) reached ~agreement to use diplomatic lanes instead.
- October 22 the United Nations Security Council adopted resolution 338 but fighting continued until 26th.
- Unexpected Egyptian-Israeli cease-fire exposed Syria to military defeat, and Israel seized even more territory in the Golan Heights.
- In 1979, Syria voted with other Arab states to expel Egypt from the Arab League.
- Various intifada's have since occurred, meanings uprising-fighting by the Palestinians against Israeli occupation.
- Anwar Sadat was eventually assassinated largely due to his peace efforts (Camp David) which he won a joint Nobel prize for.
- October 6, 1981, Anwar Sadat was assassinated by Muslim extremists in Cairo while viewing a military parade commemorating the anniversary of Egypt's crossing of the Suez Canal at the start of the Yom Kippur War.

Israeli Military Intervention in Lebanon: 1978, 1982

- 1978 South Lebanon conflict code-named Operation Litani by Israel, was an invasion of Lebanon up to the Litani River.
- Carried out by the Israel Defense Forces in 1978 in response to the Coastal Road massacre.
- In response to invasion, UN Security Council passed Resolution 425 and 426 on March 19th 1978 calling for withdrawal of Israel.
- Resolution 425 didn't result in immediate end to hostilities with UN Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) created to enforce mandate.
- Although Israel withdrew in late 1978, conflict flared up again with Israel calling its 1982 invasion "Operation Peace for Galilee."
- Caused deaths of tens of thousands of people and led to the massacre of Palestinians in the Sabra and Shatila refugee camps.
- Stated aim was to force the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) out of Lebanon.

Intifadas: 1987, 2000

- First Intifada: 1987 – 1994: Palestinian uprising against the Israeli occupation of the West Bank and Gaza.
- Resulted in many casualties, and brutal violence which killed civilians including children.
- Uprising lasted December 1987 until Madrid Conference in 1991, though some date conclusion to 1993, with the signing of the Oslo Accords.
- Second Intifada: 2000 -2005: Period of intensified Israeli–Palestinian violence, which Palestine described as uprising against Israel.

Terrorism:

- Grew following conflicts, especially after 1967 six-day war
- Arab failure bolstered terrorism efforts as previously believed they would get Palestine back eventually
- Lost faith in Nasser's idea of Pan-Arab agenda and government war so turned to self-made violence
- Black September Organization – front for Yasser Arafat's Fatah made terrorist statement internationally at Munich Olympic games
- Leaderless Palestinian refugees and minority Palestinians in Israeli-occupied territory turned to terrorism
- Continued cross-border attacks on Israel but world-media paid less and less attention
- Israel hit down on Jordan government for them to crack down on Palestinian presence leading Jordan to bloodily expel people
- Led to huge influxes of refugees to Lebanon
- Did draw media attention so was in part successful however made nations less likely to negotiate

Other Conflicts in the Middle East

Lebanese Civil War: 1975-1990

- Multifaceted civil war resulting in an estimated 120,000 fatalities (as of 2012, approx. 76,000 people remain displaced in Lebanon).
- The main reason conflict erupted due to the Phalangists, a Christian militia, who clashed with Palestinian factions over latter's armed struggle against Israel from Lebanese territory, but conflict changed rapidly into fight over Lebanese state and its political system.
- Exodus of almost one million people from Lebanon as a result of war with many areas of the nation damaged.
- Ended after document known as the Taif agreement was signed, which changed some of Lebanon's politics.
- Before the war, Maronite Catholics almost dominated political system whereas after, the government considered the many religious sects in the country, especially Muslims, who were a growing religious group in Lebanon.
- Agreement aimed more at the Christians and Muslims in the country and called for peace and equality between all religious sects.

Iran/Iraq War: 1980-1988

- Armed conflict between Iran and Iraq, beginning on 22 September 1980, when Iraq invaded Iran, and ending on 20 August 1988, when Iran accepted the UN-brokered ceasefire.
- Then Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein claimed reason for invasion was territorial dispute over Shatt al-Arab, the waterway which forms the boundary between the two countries, however likely actual reason is regional dispute leaving Sunni Saddam feeling threatened.
- Though Saddam Hussein did not use weapons of mass destruction nor set fire to Iraq's oil fields nor attack Israel with rockets, and though the conflict was relatively short, the war has had many serious results ranging from death and destruction in Iraq to regional instability to a weakened world economy.

Iranian Revolution: 1979

- Refers to events involving the overthrow of the 2,500 years of continuous Persian monarchy under Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, who was supported by the United States, and eventual replacement with an Islamic Republic under the Grand Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, the leader of the revolution, supported by various Islamist and leftist organizations (including student movements).
- Unusual for the surprise it created throughout the world; it lacked many of the customary causes of revolution (defeat at war, a financial crisis, peasant rebellion, or disgruntled military) and occurred in a nation that was experiencing relative prosperity
- Replaced pro-Western authoritarian monarchy with an anti-Western authoritarian theocracy based on concept of Guardianship of the Islamic Jurists (or velayat-e faqih).
- Believed main cause of uprising which was a desire to remain strongly Islam rather than give in to westernisation.
- Relatively non-violent revolution, and it helped to redefine the meaning and practice of modern revolutions (although there was violence in its aftermath).

First Gulf War: 1990-1991

- War waged by coalition forces from 35 nations led by the USA against Iraq in response to Iraq's invasion and annexation of Kuwait.
- Resulted in decisive victory for the coalition forces, who liberated Kuwait and advanced into Iraqi territory.
- Coalition ceased its advance and declared a ceasefire 100 hours after the ground campaign started.
- Aerial and ground combat confined to Iraq, Kuwait, and areas on Saudi Arabia's border with Kuwait and Iraq suffering most damage.
- Saddam Hussein was not forced from, and thus remained, in power.
- Intended by coalition leaders to be a "limited" war fought at minimum cost, it would have lingering effects for years to come.
- In the years that followed, U.S. and British aircraft continued to patrol skies and mandate a no-fly zone over Iraq, while Iraqi authorities made every effort to frustrate the carrying out of the peace terms, especially United Nations weapons inspections.
- This resulted in a brief resumption of hostilities in 1998, after which Iraq steadfastly refused to admit weapons inspectors. In addition, Iraqi force regularly exchanged fire with U.S. and British aircraft over the no-fly zone.

Arab-Israeli Peace Attempts

1949 Armistice

- Set of armistice agreements signed between Israel and neighbouring Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan, and Syria to formally end official hostilities of 1948 Arab-Israeli War.
- Established armistice lines between Israeli forces and Jordanian-Iraqi forces (also known as the Green Line).
- United Nations established supervising and reporting agencies to monitor created armistice lines.
- Discussions related to armistice enforcement led to signing of the separate Tripartite Declaration (1950) between United States, Britain, and France, in which they pledged to take action within and outside UN to prevent violations of frontiers or armistice lines.
- Also outlined commitment to peace and stability in area with opposition to the use or threat of force, and reiterated opposition to the development of an arms race (these lines held until the 1967 Six-Day War).

Security Council Resolution 242 (1967)

- Attempt to secure a just and lasting peace in the wake of the Six-Day War, (fought primarily by Israel and Egypt, Jordan, and Syria).
- USSR began rearming Syria and Egypt almost immediately following Six-Day War and USA did not attempt to establish peace with either side, but as a result of their Cold War victory in which they had Israel as an ally, they effectively protected Egypt as they would not let the Soviets destroy the country as USA would then appear weak.
- Main official international response to Six-Day War thus UN resolution 242 which was very vague and stated peace should be exchanged for territory (Israel would give back unwanted land if Arabs were peaceful) but did not indicate who was supposed to initiate and what territory.
- Palestinians not directly referenced in UN solution and proposed solution to refugee crisis extremely poorly defined.
- Israel, Jordan and Egypt all accepted resolution but each interpreted it differently thus war inevitable (arms race) and peace not had.
- Simple acceptance by Jordan and Egypt indirectly meant they recognised Israel as a state.

Camp David Accords (1978)

- November 1977, Egyptian president, Anwar Sadat, initiated peace negotiations that led to agreement known as the Camp David Accords in September 1978 and to the Egyptian-Israeli peace treaty signed on March 26, 1979.
- Signed by Egyptian President Anwar Sadat and Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin on 17 September 1978, following twelve days of secret negotiations at Camp David.
- Two framework agreements which were signed at White House, witnessed by United States President Jimmy Carter.
- Second of these frameworks (A Framework for the Conclusion of a Peace Treaty between Egypt and Israel) led directly to the 1979 Egypt-Israel Peace Treaty.
- Due to the agreement, Sadat and Begin received shared 1978 Nobel Peace Prize.
- First framework (A Framework for Peace in the Middle East), which dealt with Palestinian territories, was written without participation of the Palestinians and was condemned by the United Nations.
- Accords also prompted disintegration of a united Arab front in opposition to Israel.

1979 Peace Treaty

- March 26, 1979, in a ceremony hosted by U.S. President Jimmy Carter at the White House, Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin and Egyptian President Anwar Sadat signed the Israel-Egypt Peace Treaty, the first peace treaty between Israel and an Arab country.
- Egypt's realignment created a power vacuum that Saddam Hussein of Iraq, at one time only a secondary power, hoped to fill.
- Because of vague language concerning the implementation of Resolution 242, the Palestinian problem became primary issue in the Arab–Israeli conflict immediately following the Camp David Accords (and, arguably, until today).
- Many Arab nations blamed Egypt for not putting enough pressure on Israel to deal with Palestinian problem in satisfactory way.
- Syria informed Egypt that it would not reconcile with the nation unless it abandoned the peace agreement with Israel.
- As part of agreement, USA began economic and military aid to Egypt, and political backing for its subsequent governments.
- From Camp David peace accords in 1978 until 2000, the United States has subsidized Egypt's armed forces with over \$38 billion worth of aid.
- Peace often described as a "cold peace", with many in Egypt sceptical about its effectiveness.
- Treaty received with enormous controversy across the Arab world, where it was condemned and considered a stab in the back.
- Sense of outrage particularly strong amongst Palestinians, with the leader of the Palestine Liberation Organization, Yasser Arafat, stating: "Let them sign what they like. False peace will not last".
- Egypt suspended from the Arab League in 1979–1989, and Sadat assassinated on 6 October 1981 by members of Egyptian Islamic Jihad.
- Treaty led both Egyptian president Anwar Sadat and Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin to share the 1978 Nobel Peace Prize for bringing peace between the two states.

Oslo Accords (1993)

- Peace plan signed by PLO (Palestinian Liberation Organisation) and Israel; first plan between the two.
- Set of agreements; Oslo I Accord, signed in Washington, D.C., in 1993; and the Oslo II Accord, signed in Taba, Egypt, in 1995.
- Officially called the Declaration of Principles on Interim Self-Government Arrangements or short Declaration of Principles (DOP).

Camp David Summit (2000)

- Summit meeting at Camp David with president Clinton, Israeli prime minister Ehud Barak and Palestinian Authority chairman Yasser Arafat.
- U.S. President Bill Clinton announced invitation to Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak and Yasser Arafat on 5 July 2000, to come to Camp David, Maryland, in order to continue negotiations on the Middle East peace process (hopeful precedent in the 1978 Camp David Accords).
- Took place between 11 and 25 July 2000 and was an effort to end the Israeli–Palestinian conflict but ended without an agreement.
- Clinton's initiative led to Taba negotiations in January 2001, where two sides published statement saying they had never been closer to agreement (though such issues as Jerusalem, the status of Gaza, and the Palestinian demand for compensation for refugees and their descendants remained unresolved), but Israel's Barak, facing elections (which he lost), re-suspended the talk.
- Palestinian public supported the talks more than the Israeli public.
- Negotiations based on an all-or-nothing approach, such that "nothing was considered agreed and binding until everything was agreed."
- Proposals were mostly verbal and as no agreement was reached and there is no official written record of the proposals, some ambiguity remains over details of positions of the parties on specific issues however talks ultimately failed to reach agreement on final status issues: Territory; Jerusalem and the Temple Mount; Refugees and Palestinian right of return; Security arrangements; and Settlements.

Role of United Nations

- Main UN interventions include failed security council resolution 242, and public condemnation of certain actions such as in the Suez Crisis.
- Acted as mediators and peace keepers, although often unsuccessfully.
- Used to broker peace to bring particular wars (such as Six-Day War) to end.

Main Barriers to Peace:

- Jerusalem - who would get control?
- Palestinian refugees – where would they go?
- Jewish Settlements in Palestinian lands – when would they stop?

Notable People

- David Ben-Gurion: primary national founder of the State of Israel and the first Prime Minister of Israel.
- Meir Pa'il: colonel in Israel Defence Forces, an Israeli politician, and military historian who served in Arab-Israeli War.
- Yasir Arafat: founder and president of PLO, led terrorist attacks against Israel, but in 1990's worked for peace with Israel, won the Nobel Peace Prize and died in 2004.
- Lawrence of Arabia: colonel Thomas Edward Lawrence, was a British archaeologist, military officer, diplomat, and writer who fought with the Arabs in the Arab Revolt against the Ottoman Empire during WW1.
- King Farouk: tenth ruler of Egypt from Muhammad Ali dynasty and penultimate King of Egypt and the Sudan from 1936.
- Gamal Abdel Nasser: second President of Egypt, serving from 1956 until his death in 1970; led 1952 overthrow of monarchy.
- Anwar Sadat: president of Egypt from 1970 who oversaw peace talks at Camp David winning a joint Nobel prize in 1978.
- Saddam Hussein: President of Iraq from 16 July 1979 until 9 April 2003.
- Osama bin Laden: founder of al-Qaeda (responsible for the 9/11 attacks in USA and many other mass-casualty attacks worldwide).

Key Facts and Evidence

State of Palestine:

- 1910 population of Jerusalem: approx. 69,900: 45,000 Jews (64.4%), 12,000 Muslims (17%), 12,900 were Christians (18.4%).
- Peel Commission recommended creation of small Jewish state in a region less than 1/5 of the total area of Palestine
- Prior to creation of Israel in 1948, approximately 800,000 Jews were living in lands that now make up the Arab world
- Over 750 000 Arabs left Israel in Palestinian Diaspora
- Over 107 Palestinians killed and four attackers (out of 120) killed in Deir Yassin (village of 600) Massacre
- Approx. 700 000 Jews moved to Israel during Arab-Israeli War after Palestinian Diaspora.
- "Next Year in Jerusalem";
- McMahon-Hussein Correspondence: "Subject to [previously indicated] modifications, Great Britain is prepared to recognize and support the independence of the Arabs in all the regions within the limits demanded by the Sherif of Mecca."
- Balfour declaration: support for establishment of "national home for the Jewish people"

Six-Day War:

- Israel Defense Forces launched preemptive air strike
- War ended with a U.N.-brokered ceasefire
- Mid-1960s, Syrian-backed Palestinian guerillas had begun staging attacks across Israeli border
- April 1967, Israel/Syria skirmishes worsen; fought ferocious air/artillery engagement where 6 Syrian fighter jets destroyed
- June 5, 1967, Israel Defense Forces initiated 'Operation Focus'
- Assaulted 18 different airfields and eliminated roughly 90 percent of Egyptian air force
- Decimated the air forces of Jordan, Syria and Iraq
- End of the day on June 5, Israeli pilots had won full control of the skies over the Middle East
- Egypt fell into disarray after Field Marshal Abdel Hakim Amer ordered a general retreat
- June 7, Israel captured Old City of Jerusalem; celebrated by praying at the Western Wall.
- Last phase of fighting took place along Israel's northeastern border with Syria; June 10 Golan heights captured
- Jordan surrendered by day 3, agreeing to UN
- June 10, 1967, a United Nations-brokered ceasefire
- Some 20,000 Arabs and 800 Israelis had died in just 132 hours of fighting
- Israel captured Sinai Peninsula and Gaza Strip from Egypt, West Bank and East Jerusalem from Jordan, and the Golan Heights from Syria
- Egyptian President Nasser resigned in disgrace, promptly returning after citizens showed support with massive street demonstrations
- Surge of national pride in Israel, which had tripled in size
- "no peace, no recognition and no negotiation"
- over one million Palestinian Arabs
- 264 000 including reservists (but reservists unsustainable); Israel deployed about 40,000 troops and 200 tanks
- Egyptian Army; 160 000 including reservists with most impressive Arab air force with 420 planes

Terrorism:

- 1968-1976, Palestinian groups hijacked 16 planes
- Palestinian groups also attacked other aviation targets such as El Al offices
- 1972 Black September killed 11 athletes and a German policeman at Munich Olympics
- After 1948 ~one million Palestinians remained leaderless in Israel
- Cross border operations peaked at 1500 in 1968 plummeting to less than 200 by 1972
- Palestinians labelled it Black September where ~2000 Palestinians died and thousands expelled by Jordan regime
- PLFP leader George Habash "to kill a Jew far from the battlefield has more effect than a hundred of them in battle"
- PLO's UN observer noted "hijackings aroused the consciousness of the world and awakened media and works attention much more – and more effectively – than twenty years of pleading at the United Nations"
- October 6, 1981, Anwar Sadat assassinated by Muslim extremists in Cairo while viewing military parade commemorating anniversary of Egypt's crossing of Suez Canal

Yom Kippur:

- U.S. airlift of arms aided Israel's cause, but delayed for week by President Richard Nixon as tacit signal of U.S. sympathy for Egypt
- Suez region 500 Israeli soldiers faced 80, 000 Egyptian, and on Golan Heights alone 150 Israeli tanks faced 1400 Syrian tank
- In just two days Egyptians had made it across Suez Canal and gained 15 miles inland
- Israel seized more territory in the Golan Heights
- October 25, Egyptian-Israeli cease-fire was secured by the United Nations
- April 1974, the Israel's prime minister, Golda Meir (1898-1978), stepped down
- 1979, Syria voted with other Arab states to expel Egypt from the Arab League

First Intifada:

- First year in Gaza Strip alone, 142 Palestinians were killed, while no Israelis died
- Out of 142, 77 were shot dead, 37 died from tear-gas inhalation and 17 died from beatings at the hand of Israeli police or soldiers
- In first 13 months, 332 Palestinians and 12 Israelis were killed
- During whole six-year intifada, the Israeli army killed ~1200 Palestinians, around 300 of which were children
- From 57,000 to 120,000 were arrested and 481 deported
- Save the Children estimated that "23,600 to 29,900 children required medical treatment for their beating injuries in the first two years of the Intifada", one third of whom were children under the age of ten years.

Tl;dr

Timeline

- 1915:
 - October 24th: McMahon-Hussein Correspondence
- 1916
 - May 16th: Sykes-Picot Agreement
- 1917:
 - November 2nd: Balfour Declaration
- 1937:
 - July 7th: Peel Commission
- 1939:
 - WW2 and White Paper (May 23rd)
- 1947:
 - November 29th: UN Partition Plan
 - November 30th Civil War begins
- 1948:
 - April 9th: Deir Yassin Massacre
 - Palestinian Diaspora peaks
 - May 14th Civil War ends turning into Arab-Israeli War
 - May 15th Arab-Israeli War begins
- 1949:
 - March Arab-Israeli War ends
 - 149 Armistice
- 1956:
 - October Suez Crisis
- 1967:
 - April: Israel/Syria fought ferocious air/artillery engagement
 - June 5th: 1967, IDF initiated 'Operation Focus'
 - June 5th – 10th: Six-Day War
 - June 7th: Israel captured Old City of Jerusalem
 - June 10th: Golan heights captured by Israel
 - November 22nd: Security Council Resolution 242
- 1972:
 - September 5th – 6th: Black September Munich Massacre
- 1973:
 - October 6th-25th: Yom Kippur War
 - October 22nd: Security Council Resolution 338
 - October 25th: Egyptian-Israeli cease-fire was secured by UN
- 1975:
 - April: Israel's PM, Golda Meir (1898-1978), stepped down
 - Lebanese Civil War begins (1990)
- 1978:
 - Israeli Military Intervention in Lebanon
 - September 5th: Camp David Negotiations
 - September 17th: Camp David Accords Signed
 - October 27th: Sadat/Begin awarded Nobel Peace Prize
- 1979:
 - Arab states vote to expel Egypt from Arab League
 - March 26th: Egypt-Israel Peace Treaty
 - Iranian Revolution
- 1980:
 - Iran/Iraq War begins (1988)
- 1981:
 - October 6th: Assassination of Anwar Sadat
- 1982:
 - Israeli Military Intervention in Lebanon again with 'Operation Peace for Galilee'
- 1987:
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- 1988:
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- 1990:
 - Lebanese Civil War ends
 - First Gulf War begins (1991)
- 1991:
 - First Gulf War ends
- 1993:
 - Oslo I Accord (Washington, D.C)
- 1995:
 - Oslo II Accord (Taba, Egypt)
- 2000:
 - Second Palestinian Intifada
 - July 5th: Camp David Summit

acts

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Quotes

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Clinton in 2005 on Camp David 2000 “Someday peace will come, and when it does, the final agreement will look a lot like the proposals that came out of Camp David and the six long months that followed.”

“This [fundamentalism] is not religion. It is obscenity. These are lies, the criminal use of religious power to misguide people.” – Anwar Sadat

Draft Essays

1. Assess the effectiveness of the formal attempts to settle the conflict between Arabs and Israelis during the time period.
Thesis: Most formal attempts to settle conflict were overwhelmingly ineffectual, besides a few notable examples such as the Camp David Accords and resulting peace treaty.

- P1: Security Council Resolution 242 (vague and ineffectual)
- P2: Camp David Accords (most effective peace negotiations)
- P3: 1979 Treaty (formalisation of Camp David Accords)
- P4: Oslo Accords and Camp David Summit (largely ineffectual)

2. Analyse the short-term and long-term consequences of the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948.
Thesis: Although the establishment of Israel in 1948 provided a long-anticipated homeland for the historically disenfranchised Jewish people, its creation was a violent and controversial affair resulting in the displacement of millions of Palestinian-Arabs, as well as continuing war and political instability across the Middle East.

- P1: Jewish Homeland (following WW2, provided Zionists with home state)
- P2: Political Tension (legitimacy of Israel questioned)
- P3: Palestinian Diaspora (continued displacement of millions of Arabs)
- P4: Violence (terrorism and war as conflict over state's establishment continues)

3. Evaluate the impact of Sadat's leadership in both working for and opposing peace in the region.
Thesis: Anwar Sadat, Egypt's President in the 1970's, was a complex figure who had his nation's best interests at heart and although, at times opposed the peace process, ultimately contributed more towards it than any other Arab leader.

- P1: Yom Kippur War (bid to retrieve 'stolen' land from six-day-war and restore Arab pride)
- P2: Peace with Israel (Camp David Accords and 1979 Treaty)
- P3: Fracturing of United Arab Front (kicked out of Arab League)
- P4: Assassination (caused discomfort in more extremist factions)

4. Evaluate the changing nature and consequences of the role played by Britain in the Middle East over the time period.
Thesis:

- P1: Conflicting Promises (Sykes-Picot Agreement: Balfour Declaration and McMahon-Hussein Correspondence)
- P2: Peel Commission (recommendation to create small Jewish state but dissolved by start of WW2)
- P3: WW2 and White Paper (Jewish immigration; created anger in Palestine)
- P4: UN Partition Plan (Britain resigning British Mandate and influence shrinking with no clear geopolitical answer)

5. Assess the significance of one key idea of the time period.

Thesis: Terrorism was a significant idea utilised by some organisations, particularly on the anti-Zionist Arab side to bring attention to their movement.

- P1: Six-Day War failure (terrorism increase after pan-Arab failure)
- P2: Black September and Munich Games (international media attention)
- P3: Plane hijackings (continuing terrorism)
- P4: Focus of negotiations (successful tactic inasmuch as public uproar to stop it)

6. Analyse the reasons for and consequences of key conflicts in the Middle East during the 1950s and 1960s.

Thesis: The two most significant Middle-Eastern conflicts in the 50's/60s were the Suez Crisis which involved international interests bringing the conflict global, and the Six-Day War which revealed the true severity of the Middle-Eastern situation.

- P1: Suez-Crisis Reasons (Nasser's bold move to regain control)
- P2: Suez-Crisis Consequences (USA publicly humiliated and Egypt heading Arab nations)
- P3: Six-Day War (Arab-Zionist tensions and Nasser's bid to receive UN payoff)
- P4: Six-Day War Consequences (Egypt humiliated and Israeli power known)

Philosophy and Ethics

2018

L.C.G

Exam Components

	<i>My Suggested Time</i>	<i>Marks Available</i>
Critical Reasoning	30 minutes	30
Passage Analysis	45 minutes	20
Dialogue Analysis	45 minutes	20
Argument Construction	60 minutes	30

Important Words

Metaphysics – explores fundamental nature of reality; what is real?

Epistemology – on knowledge; possibility of something; justified belief vs opinion; what/how can we know?

Ethics/Morality/Politics – on moral responsibility and human action; how should we live?

Aesthetics – nature of beauty; what makes something beautiful?

Deductive – if premises accepted, conclusion *must* be true.

Inductive – premises do not necessarily infer conclusion.

a priori – claims knowable before and independent of sense-experience.

Rationalism – argues for a priori.

a posteriori – claims knowable only after/ on basis of sense-experience.

Empiricism – argues for a posteriori.

Analytic – proposition is true/false simply due to meaning of words used.

Synthetic - proposition is true/false not simply by meaning of words used but by reason.

Inferential Indicator – links premise to conclusion. Common examples= include: since, because, for, as, in that, for the reason that, therefore, so, it follows that, consequently, accordingly, hence, as a result.

Premise Acceptability – whether premises are reasonably acceptable.

- Acceptable
- Not acceptable

Inferential Strength – whether premises support conclusion.

- Nil
- Weak
- Moderate
- Strong
- Deductively Valid

Cogency – whether premises are true and support conclusion

- Not Cogent
- Moderately Cogent
- Cogent

Critical Reasoning

If a passage is not an argument it could be a:

- **Description**: gives information about a topic.
- **Explanation**: truth of a statement is already accepted but we try to say how it came about.
- **Narrative**: a story.

Arguments must have a **conclusion**, **inference** (indicator) and **premise**.

A good argument should be:

- **Valid**: deductive argument (if premises are true, impossible for conclusion to be false).
- **Sound**: valid argument that has true premises.
- **Cogent**: argument with acceptable premises that support conclusion.

Conditional: statement in form "If P then Q", that does not assert P or Q but establishes a connection between them.

Modus Tollens: If P then Q. Not Q therefore not P.

Modus Ponens: If P then Q. P therefore Q.

Antecedent: statement that follows if in a conditional (or something that comes first).

Consequent: statement that follows then in a conditional (or something that comes after).

Passage Analysis

Marking Guide

Identifies topic – 1 mark

Identifies main conclusion – 1 mark

Explains core concepts using illustrative examples – 3 marks

Identifies the arguments in the texts and clarifies the premises and inferences – 5 marks

Identifies major premises and evaluates their acceptability using illustrative examples – 4 marks

Identifies inferential moves and evaluates inferential strength using illustrative examples – 4 marks

Assesses overall cogency of argument based on evaluation of premises and inferential strength – 2 marks

Procedure

Premise-led

Introduction:

Identify topic of argument

State and clarify relevant philosophical concepts

The Argument can be listed as follows:

List premises identified from argument

Identify conclusion

The argument can be thus mapped:

Map Argument

Paragraph 1,2,3,4 etc:

Clarify premise (using examples to demonstrate assumed knowledge/understanding)

Clarify inferential moves leading to premise and to conclusion

State and justify premise acceptability (examples)

State and justify inferential strength (linking to conclusion)

Look for fallacies

Conclusion:

State overall cogency of argument based on inferential strength and premise acceptability

Dialogue Analysis

Marking Guide

Identifies main position of each participant – 2 marks

States philosophical concepts behind each participant's argument -2 marks

Explain each argument using examples – 4 marks

Explains relevance of examples of each participant – 2 marks

State premise acceptability and justify choice – 4 marks

State inferential strength and justify choice – 4 marks

Asses cogency of each argument – 2 marks

Procedure

Introduction:

Identify topic of argument and participants

Identify main position of each participant

States philosophical concepts behind each participant's argument (including branch of philosophy)

Paragraph 1, 3 etc:

Evaluate first contribution of participant one (using examples)

Identify propositions which could support overall argument (relevance)

For each proposition state and justify premise acceptability and inferential strength

Explain how contribution advances overall argument

Identify any assumptions necessary to hold position

Look for fallacies

Paragraph 2, 4 etc:

Evaluate first contribution of participant two (using examples)

Identify propositions which could support overall argument (relevance)

For each proposition state and justify premise acceptability and inferential strength

Explain how contribution advances overall argument

Identify any assumptions necessary to hold position

Look for fallacies

Conclusion:

Evaluate overall cogency of each argument

State which argument was better (if any) and justify choice

Argument Construction

Marking Guide

Demonstrates critical understanding of philosophical topics relevant to question using sophisticated philosophical language and concepts – 10 marks

Constructs a relevant, cogent argument which demonstrates originality and a deep understanding of philosophical method (relies on plausible assumptions, demonstrates logical insight, and effectively uses examples/counter examples where appropriate) – 15 marks

Writes with structure and clarity (clarifies key terms, logical ordering of topics) – 5 marks

Procedure

Premise-led

Introduction:

Identify philosophical position clarifying key terms in process

Summarise main arguments relevant to question

Paragraph 1,2,3,4 etc:

State each premise ensuring cogency and demonstrating originality and logical insight

Make sure all knowledge assumed for argument is plausible

Discuss and shutdown any counter-arguments

Conclusion:

Summarise main arguments mentioned

Restate position linking to arguments

Critical Reasoning

Argument Parts

- Premise – reasons/justification.
Not Acceptable → Reasonably Acceptable (*on conditions*)
- Inference – links premise and conclusion.
Not Valid → Weak Validity → Moderate Validity → Valid
- Conclusion – point being argued.
Argument: Not Cogent → Moderately Cogent → Cogent

Formal Fallacies

- Affirming the Consequent (if P then Q, P therefore Q)
- Denying the Antecedent (If P then Q, not P therefore not Q)

Informal Fallacies

(FAB CHAINSAW GASPED)

- **False Dichotomy** – wrong options (either/or).
- **Appeal to Adverse Consequence** – ‘scare tactics’.
- **Begging the Question** – circular argument.

- **Confusion of correlation and causation** – a caused b because a and b exist.
- Hasty Generalisation – small sample.
- Ad Hominem – attacks person.
- Irrelevant Authority – wrong expert.
- **Non Sequitur** – ‘does not follow’.
- **Straw Man** - attacks something not said/implied.
- **Argument from Ignorance** - if no, not yes.
- **Weasel words** – words implying justification not had.

- Genetic – attacks origin.
- Ad Populum – if popular, not yes.
- **Slippery slope** – if a, b; if b, c; if c, d; don’t want d therefore can’t have a.
- **Post hoc ergo propter hoc** – draws conclusion of causation because it happened first.
- **Equivocation** – wrong word.
- **Definist** – redefining words to suit argument.

Logically Equivalent Statements

Statements which have the same logical meaning.

Standardising

Replace any personal pronouns with specific names and use square brackets when appropriate (optional).

Occam’s Razor – simplest conclusion should be conclusion.

Branches of Philosophy

- Epistemology
- Ethics/Morals
- Politics

Phenomenology

Metaphysics

Phenomenology: attempt to study experience itself objectively and scientifically; science of experience.

Natural Attitude: belief the world exists and our experience of it is true.

Phenomenological Reduction: bracketing/suspending (epoché) our belief in the natural attitude to describe something only as we experience it.

Eidetic Reduction: considering variations of experience-aspects to understand which are necessary to make it an experience of that kind.

Intentionality: how mental states are directed onto objects to understand its meaning or intention; the way an object is perceived.

Intersubjectivity: collective subjectives in attempt to come as close to objective as possible.

Descartes: "I think, therefore, I am"

- Thoughts are taking place, not necessarily 'I's (only proves that thinking is taking place)
- Only proves that 'I' exists in that moment
- Relies on assumption that thoughts require a thinker

Dream Argument: senses in dream seem real (don't realise dreaming), thus proof senses cannot be trusted.

Husserl:

- suspend natural belief
- examines world through reductionist techniques
- 'encountering water'
- noetic (noesis – intention) and noematic (noema - object) analysis

Heidegger:

- can never separate human experience from perception of world
- examines world through our consciousness
- 'how we perceive water'

Sceptic: someone who questions whether anything can be known with certainty.

Empirical Belief: formed through use of senses.

Local Doubt: doubt over particular sense-experience or some other occurrence in a particular point in time.

Global Doubt: doubting everything (i.e. not local).

Idea of a Good Society

Ethics

Plato's Just State:

- Plato's definition of justice: "To do one's own business and not to be a busybody is justice." Meaning justice consists in fulfilling one's proper role - realizing one's potential without overstepping it; "the having and doing of one's own and what belongs to oneself".

Ideal State - consists of three major classes:

- Guardians - philosophers that govern city.
- Auxiliaries - soldiers who defend city.
- Producers – workers such as farmers and craftsmen.

Other aspects include:

- Censorship of the arts for educational purposes.
- People only allowed one occupation – that which they were born to do and which by nature suits them best.
- Men should have women and children in common.
- Children to be taken from mothers at birth.
- Women to receive same education as men (best of them assisting in war and governance).
- No private property or money except insofar as is necessary.

Everyone is everyone's family - "best of either sex should be united with the best as often [as possible]" and "rear the offspring of the one sort of union" with "these goings-on must be a secret which only the rulers know".

Thus Plato's ideal state seems to be totalitarian, aligning itself with laws which Socrates suggests are repressive yet comments, are a useful base for criticizing existing institutions, stating it is a worthy task to formulate social ideals.

Conceptions of Ultimate Reality

Politics

Social Norms:

- Socialization Theory: individual's peer-groups influence behaviour which is introjected into personality.
- Rational Choice Model: choose to conform to social norms to avoid negative consequence.
- Equilibria and Self-fulfilling Expectations Model: considers compliance with social norms in respect to game theory; same as rational choice model but also acknowledges when deciding how to act, how each other member of the community is likely to act must also be considered (known as a Nash equilibrium: each individual forms a strategy - such as a pattern of behaviours - as a best reply to the strategies of others.

Relationship between social conformity and individuality; can a person be one without the other?

Links to morality: cultural relativism; right and wrong is relative to the culture and the majority opinion.

Marginalisation: treatment of a person, group, or concept as less significant.

Eg: Kurdish Turks who have experienced extreme marginalisation in turkey (language ban, denial of existence etc).

Types (from least to most severe):

- A (generic) X is at a disadvantage with respect to a (generic) non-X in a common context C.
- A (generic) X is A-marginalised (with respect to Y and C) because she is an X.
- A (generic) X that passes as Y is less marginalised than a (generic) X.
- Xness is devaluated (over Yness in a common context C). Eg: Kurdish Turks

Intentionality also plays a role.

Social Identity Theory:

- Originated in 1979 from Henri Tajfel and John Turner, British social psychologists
- Part of person's concept of self comes from groups to which person belongs
- An individual has multiple selves (identities) associated with their affiliated groups

Ingroup: group a person perceives themselves as part of.

Outgroup: other comparable groups that person is not part of ("us" vs. "them" mentality between in/outgroup).

Three processes that create ingroup/outgroup mentality:

1. Social Categorization – associating individuals with certain groups.
2. Social Identification – adoption of identity of that group.
3. Social Comparison – compare ingroup favourably against outgroups.

Social Contract

Politics

State of Nature: chaotic state without social order (Hobbes thought particularly brutish).

- **Aristotle:** society is like organism and man is by nature political.
- **St. Augustine** of Hippo: government is a punishment for 'original sin'.
- **Thomas Hobbes** and **John Locke:** Social Contract Theory
- **Burke:** original sin and social contract, but not just for protection, also to meet material/scientific/artistic/moral needs and due to fallibility of individual judgement.

Social Contract Theory:

- Society entered into by choice
- Best way to meet mutual needs
- Guarantees own protection

Jacques Rousseau: Social contract can be broken at any time depending on will of people (French Revolution).

Burke: Opposed idea of abrupt/sweeping political change arguing it needed to occur naturally over time.

Justice Theories

Politics

Types of Justice:

- Justice as Merit: people get what is due according to merit (worthiness). (Plato)
- Justice as Equality: what is just is equal; everyone in a society should be given the same amount of benefits and burdens.
- Justice as Social Utility: what is just is whatever creates the most benefits for the greatest number of people with the least amount of harm.
- Justice Based on Need and Ability: a socialist view; society's wealth should be shared.

Hobbes: no such thing as justice in the state of nature; comes from society.

Locke: natural justice; right to protection of personal property (including life).

Rawls: A Theory of Justice, from the Original Position (behind veil of ignorance) with two main principles:

1. First Principle - Greatest Equal Liberty Principle: people have equal right to the most extensive system of equal basic liberties.
2. Second Principle - Social and economic inequalities are to be arranged so that they are both:
 - a) Difference Principle: to the greatest benefit of the least advantaged
 - b) Equal Opportunity Principle: attached to positions open to all under conditions of fair equality of opportunity

Security and communication a necessary aspect:

- Tolerance: ability/ willingness to tolerate existence of opinions/behaviour that one dislikes or disagrees with.
Eg: Jehovah's Witnesses who refuse blood transplants for their children or Muslim women wearing hijab.
- Rights: moral or legal entitlement to have or do something.
- Justice: fair/just behaviour or treatment.

Health and welfare important:

- Equality: state of being equal, especially in status, rights, or opportunities.
- Fairness: impartial and just treatment or behaviour without favouritism or discrimination.

Socialism: political/ economic theory that tries to implement these aspects of social organization, advocating means of production, distribution, and exchange should be owned/regulated by community as whole.

Social Responsibility: ethical framework that suggests entity, be it organization or individual, has obligation to act for the benefit of society at large. Successful socialism relies on idea of social responsibility however argument that humans are inherently selfish which is why socialism can never work.

Education, Parenting and the Family

Politics

Family Structures:

- Choice Based Model: allows individuals to determine what kind of family they want to create.
- Equality Based Model: the fairest division of labour in a family, regardless of choice or societal standards.
- Interests of the Child Model: basic interest standard for legitimising non state-intervention.

Parental Rights:

- Child-Centred/ Fiduciary Model: rights based on parental responsibilities.
- Proprietarian Model: parents own their children.
- Irreplaceable Good: rights based on parental interests.

Questions raised by certain models of parental rights include the viability of the right to raise children with religion?

Parental Responsibilities:

- Custodial Relationship: duties set/justified by welfare of child.

Some philosophers argue for parental licences but problems with this include the inaccuracy and inability to judge whether a parent will be good or not. Another problem is how you would prevent prospective parents from having children. Would forced sterilization occur? Or would fines be given? If so, this may affect the children the policy was set out to protect. Also, policies such as forced abortion would disproportionately affect women more than men.

Feminist Perspectives: argue against pre-/non-political views.

Pre-political – some argue institute of family pre-political, resulting from facts of biology and psychology.

Arguments against:

- Social Constructivists: deny any essential differences between male and female psychologies which explain their place in the family.
- Difference Feminists: accept there are differences but challenge normative/social implications of differences, aiming to revalue and celebrate characteristics of both men and women.
- Anti-subordination Feminist: differences do not justify social structures (which leave women more vulnerable and entail social subordination of women).

Non-political – argues circumstances of politics (such as scarcity/conflict/power) not relevant in family.

Arguments against: families based on ties of love and affection as opposed to justice and regulation.

Libertarianism, Democracy and Republicanism

Politics

Liberty: consists of the social and political freedoms to which all community members are entitled.

Coercion: the action or practice of persuading someone to do something by using force or threats.

Anarchy: a state of disorder due to absence or non-recognition of authority (in favour of total liberty).

Whilst Liberty involves freedom, anarchy only involves freedom from governmental control. Arguably a state of anarchy may limit liberty as without government control individuals would be more likely to infringe upon another individual's liberty.

Harm Principle: "The only purpose for which power can be rightfully exercised over any member of a civilized community, against his will, is to prevent harm to others." – John Stuart Mill

Strengths of this principle include the fact that it attempts to justify government rule as a mechanism to protect the population and therefore making it morally correct and necessary. It attempts to regulate governmental power in a way which is beneficial for the overall population allowing it to be used as a tool for protection, which is what society should after all prioritise. A weakness of this principle, however, is that 'harm' is especially hard to define. Where should the line be drawn? For this reason, some dismiss it.

Forms of Democracy:

- Direct: no intermediate representatives; citizens vote for policies directly.
- Indirect/ Representative: people choose to vote for representatives to make decisions on policy.
- Lottery: (such as what is seen in ancient Greek) involves a random choice out of a selection of people.
- Authoritarian: only certain elites are part of the parliamentary voting process to elect a decision maker.

Majority Rule: decision rule that selects alternatives which have a majority (more than half the votes); it is the binary decision rule used most often in influential decision-making bodies, including the legislatures of democratic nations.

The relationship between liberty and democracy is that democracy is a form of government which attempts to provide as much liberty as possible whilst still maintaining a functioning society. It is an attempt to govern a society based upon liberty, without falling into anarchy.

Self and Others

Ethics

Branches of Ethics:

Utilitarianism - outcome based (Jeremy Bentham/ John Stuart Mill)

- Best action; one that maximizes utility (well-being of most sentient entities as possible).

Deontology – duty based (Emmanuel Kant)

- Normative ethical position that judges morality of action based on rules. Sometimes described as "duty-" or "obligation-" or "rule-" based ethics, because rules "bind you to your duty". Deontological Ethics focuses on rightness/wrongness of actions themselves, as opposed to the rightness/wrongness of consequences (Consequentialism) or to character and habits of the actor (Virtue Ethics).

Jews in the attic thought experiment: two conflicting duties – protect lives of Jews or be truthful? Kant would argue that you cannot have two opposing duties thus you must be mistaken and one must not be a duty.

Virtue Ethics (Aristotle)

- Focuses on what makes a person good rather than what makes an act good.

For example, in deontology killing someone is wrong even if it is self-defence whereas in utilitarianism it depends on the context, mainly who and how many benefits and in virtue ethics it depends on the “golden mean” again depending on the context. Slavery is another example. Thus deontology relies on idea of objective right and wrong (not relativism).

Obligations to...

Other Societies:

- Spaceship Earth: world considered as possessing finite resources common to all humankind.
- Lifeboat Ethics (Garett Hardin 1974): metaphor for resource distribution; describes lifeboat bearing 50 people, with room for ten more. Lifeboat is in an ocean surrounded by a hundred swimmers. "Ethics" of situation stem from dilemma of whether (and under what circumstances) swimmers should be taken aboard. Metaphor presents individual lifeboats as rich nations and the swimmers as poor nations.
 - Tragedy of the commons: term used in social science to describe situation in shared-resource system where individual users acting independently according to their own self-interest behave contrary to the common good.

The Drowning Child and The Expanding Circle Thought Experiment: obligation to save a drowning child compared to obligation to help starving child in another country.

Future: do we have an obligation to future generations?

Non-humans:

Peter Singer: argument for animal rights.

1. The only criterion of moral importance that succeeds in including all humans, and excluding all non-humans, is simple membership in the species *Homo sapiens*.
2. However, using simple membership in the species *Homo sapiens* as a criterion of moral importance is completely arbitrary.
3. Of the remaining criteria we might consider, only sentience—the capacity of a being to experience things like pleasure and pain—is a plausible criterion of moral importance.
4. Using sentience as a criterion of moral importance entails that we extend to other sentient creatures the same basic moral consideration (i.e. “basic principle of equality”) that we extend to (typical, sentient) human beings.
5. Therefore, we ought to extend to animals the same equality of consideration that we extend to humans.

Existentialism
Metaphysics/Ethics

Nihilistic Response

Nihilism: the belief that nothing in the world has a real existence; life is meaningless.

Schopenhauer: (early 1800s, German)

- Life has more pain than enjoyment
- We are a compound of needs that are hard to satisfy
- When we do satisfy all our needs, all that we achieve is freedom from pain and boredom.
- Boredom is “nothing other than the sensation of the meaninglessness of existence”
- The boredom of having satisfied our needs is therefore proof that life has no meaning.

Taylor: (late 1900s, Canadian)

- We spend our life working to achieve goals.
- Most of these goals have only transitory significance (not permanent).
- Our achievements do not last, or if they do, become mere curiosities of no real importance.
- Since in the end nothing we do has lasting significance, our life has no meaning.

A Critique of Nihilism

Hare: (late 1900s, English)

- Nihilism argues against idea of life having objective meaning (Eg: theistic/human progress).
- Fails to consider possibility that life may have subjective meaning for people if they make choice to dedicate life to some goal important for them.

Existentialism

Existentialism: emphasizes existence of individual persons as free and responsible agents determining their own development through acts of will.

Atheistic Response

Jean-Paul Sartre: (mid 1900s, French)

“Existence precedes essence”.

- If God does not exist then there is nothing prior to us that could create meaning or value.
- Therefore, life has no a priori meaning, instead:
- First you exist, you have no nature or purpose, and there is nothing outside of yourself that gives your life meaning or value.
- It is up to you to give life meaning by choosing a cause/goal.
- The value of your life is just the meaning you choose for yourself.

“If God does not exist there is at least one being whose existence comes before its essence, a being which exists before it can be defined by any conception of it. That being is man...”

“Man, first of all exists, encounters himself, surges up in the word – and defined himself afterwards.”

“There is no human nature, because there is no God to have a conception of it... Man is nothing other than that which he makes of himself.”

“...man, primarily exists – that man is, before all else something which propels itself towards a future and is aware that it is doing so. Man is, indeed, a project which possesses a subjective life, instead of being a kind of moss, or a fungus or a cauliflower”

Responsibility:

"If, however, it is true that existence is prior to essence, man is responsible for what he is. Thus, the first effect of existentialism is that it puts every man in possession of himself as he is and places the entire responsibility for his existence squarely upon his own shoulders. And, when we say that man is responsible for himself, we do not mean that he is responsible only for his own individuality, but that he is responsible for all men."

"When we say that man chooses himself, we do mean that every one of us must choose himself; but by that we also mean that in choosing for himself he chooses for all men. For in effect, of all the actions a man may take in order to create himself as he wills to be, there is not one which is not creative, at the same time, of an image of man such as he believes he ought to be."

"If, moreover, existence precedes essence and we will to exist at the same time as we fashion our image, that image is valid for all and for the entire epoch in which we find ourselves. Our responsibility is thus much greater than we had supposed, for it concerns mankind as a whole."

The Existential Crisis

Refers to the negative emotions that we experience as a result of existentialism.

Sartre explains this crisis as having three elements:

- Anguish: complete responsibility –
 - *"When a man commits himself to anything, fully realising that he is not only choosing what he will be but is thereby at the same time a legislator deciding for the whole of mankind – in such a moment a man cannot escape from the sense of complete and profound responsibility."*
- Abandonment: without guidance/excuse –
 - *"God does not exist, and that it is necessary to draw the consequences of his absence right to the end... This is what is meant by the term, 'man is condemned to be free'... every man, without any support or help whatever, is condemned at every instant to invent man."*
- Despair: limited by ourselves –
 - *"It merely means that we limit ourselves to a reliance upon that which is within our wills, or within the sum of the probabilities which render our actions."*

Theistic Response

Kierkegaard: (mid 1800's, Danish)

The starting point for giving your life meaning is choosing something for which you are willing to live or die.

The core of Kierkegaard's Existentialism was three ways of living:

- Aesthetic: Life dedicated to pursuing that which is immediately pleasurable.
 - Living aesthetically, we will choose only that which brings pleasure.
- Ethical: Life dedicated to living with moral integrity and honesty.
 - Living ethically, we will choose that which we judge to be right or good.
- Religious: Life dedicated to a relationship with God.
 - Living religiously, we will make a leap of faith and choose what feels right for us without reference to an ethical weighing of options.

Authenticity

- Authenticity is about being true to one's self - we are all constantly in a process of "becoming who we are."
- To live an authentic life is to accept responsibility for choosing who and what you will be. Another way of saying this is to accept the responsibility for giving your life meaning.
- To live an inauthentic life is to deny this responsibility. To allow yourself to believe that it is not you but something external to you that dictates the kind of life that you live and who you become.

Theories of God

Epistemology

Faith: a strong belief in the doctrines of a religion, based on spiritual conviction rather than proof.

Rational and Irrational Faith (German Psychologist Erich Fromm)

- irrational faith is based on submission to irrational authority (acceptance of something as true only because an authority or the majority say it is).
- rational faith is based on one's own convictions (rooted in experiences, thoughts, observations, judgments).

Theories of Knowledge:

- Rationalism: knowledge can be known independent of sensory experience (a Priori).
- Analytic: true by virtue of the meaning.
- Imperialism: all knowledge only knowable based on sensory experience (a Posteriori).
- Synthetic: truth determinable by experience.

Metaphysical Theories on Truth:

- Idealism: any of various systems of thought in which the objects of knowledge are held to be in some way dependent on the activity of mind.
- Positivism: philosophical system recognizing only that which can be scientifically verified or which is capable of logical or mathematical proof, and therefore rejecting metaphysics and theism.
- Intuitionism: theory that primary truths (especially those of ethics and metaphysics) are known directly by intuition (knowledge based on intuition and mental construction, rejecting certain modes of reasoning).
- Postmodernism: questions importance of power relationships, personalization, and discourse in 'construction' of truth (many deny that an objective truth exists).

There is an obvious possibility of misinterpretation with regard to religion and scientific methodologies to be aware of. Positivism is the metaphysical method used in science which relies mainly on hard scientific evidence whereas religion lacks this kind of metaphysical support.

- Naturalism: belief that only natural (as opposed to supernatural/spiritual) laws/forces operate in the world.
- Materialism: theory or belief that nothing exists except matter and its movements and modifications.

Scientific Method

The Scientific Method vs Religious Experience

Strengths of Scientific Experience:

- Falsifiable – does not act to prove things right, but to prove other things wrong in to get closer to the truth.
- Under constant revision – thus stays relevant and up to date.

Weaknesses of Religious Experience:

- Often only a single observer – only one witness to success.
- Often only occurs once – no way to repeat experience.
- Often only involves one sense – common aspect of illusion/hallucination.
- Presupposition – generally occurs in religious people.

Problems with Scientific Method:

- Subject to the practical limitations of the practitioner (for example, if you are blind, you cannot consider hypotheses that require you to have sight). (Criticism: applies to everything).
- Scientific Method generally assumes that the test environment is static. (if used to find keys, you cannot find your keys if someone keeps moving them).
- Even the scientific method is not unaffected by bias.
- Sceptics (such as Hume): questions possibility of certainty of knowledge including that of scientific method.

Problem of induction:

Popularised by Hume, philosophical question of whether inductive reasoning leads to knowledge understood in the classic philosophical sense, highlighting the apparent lack of justification for:

1. Generalizing about properties of class of objects based on some number of observations of particular instances of that class (e.g., the inference that "all swans we have seen are white, and, therefore, all swans are white", before the discovery of black swans) or
2. Presupposing that a sequence of events in the future will occur as it always has in the past (e.g., that the laws of physics will hold as they have always been observed to hold). Hume called this the principle of uniformity of nature.

The problem calls into question all empirical claims made in everyday life or through the scientific method, and, for that reason, the philosopher C. D. Broad said that "induction is the glory of science and the scandal of philosophy."

Karl Popper (20th century Austrian-English Philosopher of Science):

- Rejection of classical inductivist views on scientific method, in favour of empirical falsification (theories in the empirical sciences can never be proven, but it can be falsified, meaning can and should be scrutinized by decisive experiments).
- Also known for opposition to classical justificationist account of knowledge, which he replaced with critical rationalism.

Inductivist: traditional model of scientific method attributed to Francis Bacon, who in 1620 vowed to subvert allegedly traditional thinking. In the Baconian model, one observes nature, proposes modest law to generalize an observed pattern, confirms it by many observations, ventures a modestly broader law, and confirms that, too, by many more observations, while discarding disconfirmed laws.

Justificationist: used to support the claim and reduce or remove the doubt.

Criticism: regards justification of a claim as primary, while the claim itself is secondary. By contrast, nonjustificational criticism works towards attacking claims themselves. Popper seems to hold third position; critical rationalism (he has given up justification, but not yet adopted nonjustificational criticism). Instead of appealing to criteria and authorities, it attempts to describe and explicate them.

Critical Rationalism: that scientific theories and any other claims to knowledge can and should be rationally criticized, and (if they have empirical content) can and should be subjected to tests which may falsify them.

Belief Systems:

- Theism: belief in the existence of a god/s, specifically of a creator who intervenes in the universe.
- Atheism: disbelief or lack of belief in existence of a god/s.
- Agnostic: person who believes that nothing is known or can be known of the existence or nature of god/s.
- Igtheism: belief that existence of God is meaningless, because term "god" has no unambiguous definition.

Ideas of the Divine

Divine Simplicity:

- central to classical Western concept of God, denies any physical or metaphysical composition in divine being, meaning God is divine nature itself, having no accidents (unnecessary properties) accruing to his nature or real divisions or distinctions in this nature, making the entirety of God whatever is attributed to him.
- hallmark of God's utter transcendence of all else, ensuring divine nature to be beyond the reach of ordinary categories and distinctions, or at least their ordinary application.
- confers a unique ontological status that many philosophers find highly peculiar.

Divine Illumination:

- oldest and most influential alternative to naturalism in areas of mind and knowledge.
- doctrine holds that human beings require a special divine assistance in their ordinary cognitive activities.

Arguments for God's Existence

Ontological Argument:

Anslem (1000's):

Ontological argument which tries to prove God's existence by definition, listed thus:

- 1) It is a conceptual truth (true by definition) that God is a being than which none greater can be imagined (meaning [he] is the greatest possible being that can be imagined).
- 2) God exists as an idea in the mind.
- 3) A being that exists as an idea in the mind and in reality, is, other things being equal, greater than a being that exists only as an idea in the mind.
- 4) Thus, if God exists only as an idea in the mind, then we can imagine something that is greater than God (that is, a greatest possible being that does exist).
- 5) But we cannot imagine something that is greater than God (for it is a contradiction to suppose that we can imagine a being greater than the greatest possible being that can be imagined).
- 6) Therefore, God exists.

Gaunilo's Criticism (1000's):

- 'Island Objection': a thought experiment switching out God for the idea of a 'perfect island'
- Basically, says Anslem's argument flawed and worrying as can be used to prove existence of anything
- Says Anslem simply defines things into existence which cannot be done

Anslem's Response: the argument only works for necessary beings such as a God.

- Anslem's response is flawed as it is fallacious - 'begging the question' – it assumes God is a necessary being, assuming God exists in his argument.

Aquinas's Criticisms (1200's):

- First: since different people have different concepts of God, Anslem's argument works, if at all, only to convince those who define the notion of God in the same way.
- Second: even if we assume that everyone shares the same concept of God as a being than which none greater can be imagined, "it does not therefore follow that he understands what the word signifies exists actually, but only that it exists mentally."

Kant's Criticism (1700's):

- rejects premise 3 on the ground that, as a purely formal matter, existence does not function as a predicate.
- Basically means, existence is not a property, rather a precondition.

John Wisdom's Criticism (1900's):

The Parable of the Invisible Gardener (1944), which is used as an analogy to the ontological debate, it goes:

Two explorers come upon a clearing in the jungle, in which is growing many flowers and many weeds. One explorer says, "Some gardener must tend this plot." The other disagrees, "There is no gardener." So, they pitch their tents and set a watch. No gardener is ever seen. "But perhaps he is an invisible gardener." So, they set up a barbed-wire fence. They electrify it. They patrol with bloodhounds. But no shrieks ever suggest that some intruder has received a shock. No movements of the wire ever betray an invisible climber. The bloodhounds never give cry. Yet still the Believer is not convinced. "But there is a gardener, invisible, intangible, insensible, to electric shocks, a gardener who has no scent and makes no sound, a gardener who comes secretly to look after the garden which he loves. At last the Sceptic despairs, "But what remains of your original assertion? Just how does what you call an invisible, intangible, eternally elusive gardener differ from an imaginary gardener or even from no gardener at all?"

Cosmological Argument:

Aquinas:

Came up with five arguments in an attempt to prove the existence of God, the first four of which are known as the 'cosmological arguments'.

1. Argument from motion: *everything in universe is in motion and motion is caused by other motion, therefore there must be an original motion (God).*
2. Argument from causation: *everything in universe has cause thus must be an original cause (God).*
3. Argument from contingency: *everything is contingent (dependent) on something else, except those beings which are necessary, none of which we know to exist apart from God (anti-infinite regress view).*
4. Argument from degrees: *everything has degrees of perfection - a spectrum of good to bad - thus these degrees must be relative to something (God).*
5. Teleological argument: *same as the intelligent design argument.*

Criticisms of cosmological arguments:

- 1) Arguments don't seem to prove existence of any particular god, just that there is something that caused existence (by this definition, God could be the big bang, and that also holds the idea that God is responsible for this universe alone; we do not know that there weren't universes before the big bang such as in the 'Cycle of Universe's Theory'). It doesn't prove theism let-alone monotheism.
- 2) The arguments assume an infinite regress (things not having a cause) is impossible which may not be so.
- 3) His arguments are self-defeating; why is God not subject to same stipulations (why is God exempt from needing a cause if everything needs a cause and does that mean other things don't need a cause).
- 4) Aquinas' first three points seem to mean the same thing (causation).

Teleological Argument:

- also known as intelligent design argument, and one most often used in modern times.
- first versions of argument seem to be proposed by Socrates, later by Aquinas then popularised by Paley.
- Idea that "certain features of universe and of living things are best explained by an intelligent cause, not an undirected process such as natural selection."

William Paley (1700's English philosopher):

- Argument by analogy; Watchmaker analogy (complexities of watch indicates design)
- Teleology of watch implies watchmaker (as opposed to something natural like a rock)
- Comparison of watch to human body; human more like watch; purposeful

Counterargument: we can take a watch apart and see what each thing is for whereas with humans, and natural world, so much is unknown and doesn't make sense (eg: blind spots in eye).

Paley's response: doesn't matter that we don't know how it was created, the point is just that it was (for example we don't all know how our phone was created but we can recognise that it was). Also, just because we don't know that there is a purpose (blind spots), it doesn't mean that there isn't one.

Problem with this: leads people to search for purposes for things which might not necessarily be their purpose (for example saying that purpose of tales is for hunters to aim at) and by presenting such purposes we are creators of purpose (not God). Thus, we can't pick and choose purpose, it is inherent.

Main Problem: self-refuting: if God created everything, he created the rock too.

Hume: proposed world is full of cruelty thus flawed (cancer/chrysalis) and "flawed world implies flawed creator"

Richard Swinburne (contemporary British philosopher): Occam's razor argument, probability there is creator (so many specific things like distance from sun that creator is likely) however you can't really make this claim with only a sample size of ne. (Pen landing on a desk example).

Refining Theory: that cruelty and unexplained aspects was God refining his world however problem with this is if god is all-knowing, all-powerful and all-good, surely he would not need to refine anything.

The Problem of Evil:

- refers to the question of how to reconcile existence of evil with an omnibenevolent, omniscient, and omnipotent God (theism).
- argument from evil attempts to show that the co-existence of evil and such a God is unlikely or impossible.

Theodicy:

- an attempt to answer the question of why a good God permits the manifestation of evil, thus resolving the issue of the problem of evil.
- also addresses evidential problem of evil by attempting 'to make the existence of an all-knowing, all-powerful and all-good or omnibenevolent God' consistent with the existence of evil or suffering in the world.
- Main theodicy theories are the Augustinian and Irenaean accounts.

Augustinian Theodicy: argues God created world and was perfect, without existence of evil or suffering. He defined evil as the privation of goodness, just as blindness is a privation of sight (*privatio boni*).

- Counter argument: why would an all-powerful God create world with defect (such as blindness)?

Irenaean Theodicy (*collated by John Hicks*): "soul-making" theodicy in which he argued that God allows evil and suffering in the world in order to develop humans into virtuous creatures capable of following his will.

- Counter argument: why wouldn't an all-powerful God make humans inherently good? Is it all a game/test?

Finite God Theodicy: maintains that God is all-good (omnibenevolent) but not all-powerful (omnipotent).

Best of all Possible Worlds Theodicy: traditional theology, argues that the creation is the best of all possible worlds.

Original Sin Theodicy: holds evil came into the world because of humanity's original sin.

Degree of Desirability of a Conscious State Theodicy: argues that a person's state is deemed evil only when it is undesirable to the person.

Reincarnation Theodicy: believes that people suffer evil because of their wrong-doing in a previous life.

Contrast Theodicy: holds that evil is needed to enable people to appreciate or understand good.

The Warning Theodicy: rationalizes evil as God's warning to people to mend their ways.

Free Will Defence: an alternative to a theodicy, attempts to show that God's existence is not made logically impossible by the existence of evil; it does not need to be true or plausible, merely logically possible by free will; argues that human free will sufficiently explains the existence of evil while maintaining that God's existence remains logically possible.

Cosmodicy: attempts to justify the fundamental goodness of the universe in the face of evil.

Anthropodicy: attempts to justify fundamental goodness of human nature in face of the evils produced by humans.

Essential kenosis:

- form of process theology, (also known as "open theism")
- allows one to affirm God is almighty, while simultaneously affirming that God cannot prevent genuine evil.
- out of love God necessarily gives freedom, agency, self-organization, natural processes, and law-like regularities to creation, God cannot override, withdraw, or fail to provide such capacities.

Evolution: generally, universally accepted scientific theory discussing process by which different kinds of living organisms are believed to have developed from earlier forms during the history of the earth.

Religious Controversy: theory of evolution seems to directly conflict with religious creationism theories.

Theistic Evolution: view attempting to rationalise theism and evolution by regarding religious teachings about God as compatible with modern scientific understanding (that God is responsible for evolution). It is an example of scientific theorising.

Social Darwinism: theory that individuals, groups, and peoples are subject to the same Darwinian laws of natural selection as plants and animals, the now largely discredited, idea was advocated by Herbert Spencer and others in late 19th/early 20th centuries and used to justify political conservatism, imperialism, and racism and to discourage intervention and reform.

- Conflict Perspective: view that evolution and religion oppose each other.
- Harmonising Perspective: idea that God works through evolution; the two ideas do not conflict.
- Irrelevance Perspective: view that Darwinism and religion are unrelated

Social Relativism

Ethics

Absolutist Claim: Objectivism, aka Absolutism is the ethical belief that there are absolute standards against which moral questions can be judged, and that certain actions are right or wrong, regardless of the context of the act. Rational basis to ethics transcends society.

Kinds of Objective Morality:

1. Golden rule – ‘do unto others as you would have them do unto you’
2. Reciprocity – ‘tit for tat’; revenge/ law of retaliation
3. Utilitarianism – greatest happiness for greatest amount of people
4. Universalisability/ Categorical Imperative – deontology (rule-based ethics); act on your duties
5. Human Rights – UN declaration of human rights

Ethical Decisions of Life and Death:

- Capital punishment
- Murder and manslaughter
- Killing in War

Relativist Claim: relativism is the doctrine that knowledge, truth, and morality exist in relation to culture, society, or historical context, and are not absolute.

Radical Relativism: no rational basis for morality, morality is simply emotion (shared emotion).

Social Relativism: basis of morality relevant to belief of a society.

Ethical Issues of Life and Death:

- Abortion and euthanasia
- The killing of animals

Philosophy Essay Construction Drafts

1. The less government, the better.

Thesis: Government is necessary yet a fair government in which the people get a say is best such as democracy.

P1: Government protects people and prevents a state of anarchy by enforcing rules.

P2: Government needs to be powerful enough to enforce these rules.

P3: Democracy attempts to maximise liberty by responding to the needs of its people.

CP4: Time argument; democratic choices take time but means choices well thought out/discussed.

CP4: Corruption argument; revolutions and the power of the majority is a check on this.

2. The world is how it seems to me.

Thesis: The world is experienced through consciousness (Heidegger) so we cannot experience it the same way.

P1: Our consciousness cannot be separated from our perception of the world thus we all live in our own reality.

P2: We cannot see another person's perception (their thoughts) so we cannot know.

P3: The idea of an objective reality has never been proven therefore it is irrational to believe it exists.

CP4: Similar world argument: intersubjectivity - can relate to other people's perception of the world.

CP5: I think therefore I am (Descartes) argument; Relies on idea that thoughts require a thinker which we do not know to be true. It also assumes the origin of thoughts are the 'I' and it only proves the 'I' exists in that moment.

3. The moral worth of an action is determined by whether it maximises overall utility.

Thesis: Utilitarianism although nice in theory is flawed in implementation.

P1: Justifies immoral actions in consequentialist view (such as encouraging deterrence).

P2: It is extremely difficult to make judgements on overall utility (happiness).

P3: It is human nature to value some more than others therefore utility goes against selfish nature of humans.

CP4: Greatest happiness is a good base to aim for; yes, but utility works collectively and therefore limits autonomy as one needs the most authority to make choices thus it sets us on a dangerous path to a dictatorship.

4. A just society has to put limits on tolerance.

Thesis: A just society must put limits on tolerance.

P1: To be completely tolerant is to tolerate the intolerant facilitating racism and discrimination.

P2: The Harm principle should be considered in that we should be tolerance up until the point it is harmful.

P3: Tolerance limits freedom of speech which is required for social evolution.

CP4: Protects minorities argument; tolerance is still good but must have limits.

5. A just society is based upon merit.

Thesis: A just society is based on merit, as stated in Plato's Justice as merit theory.

P1: Justice as merit rewards work thus provides incentive to strive, creating efficiency and evolution.

P2: Any other system, other than justice as merit, is unfair as people would be rewarded for nothing.

P3: Justice as merit is inherently programmed in humans.

CP4: Slavery argument; utility counter that it does benefit more people.

6. It is unjust to tax the rich.

Thesis: Taking a stance of classical liberalism as opposed to welfare liberalism, it is unjust to tax the rich.

P1: Taxing the rich impedes on the natural rights of private property; it is stealing.

P2: Progressive tax means there is less incentive to work.

P3: Progressive tax punishes those that work hardest.

CP4: Poor/disabled argument; charities counter that people can choose to donate and do.

7. You should require a licence to become a parent.

Thesis: Taking a child-centred view of family units, it follows that restrictions on who can parent be put in place.

P1: Licensing parents would ensure better protection of the child.

P2: Licensing parents would mean less unwanted children are born.

P3: Other licensing precedents exist for less responsibility (need licence for driving, library etc).

CP4: Forced sterilization argument; not necessarily, fines and adoption.

8. Religious Experience and the scientific method are equally valuable.

Thesis: The Scientific Method is more valuable than religious experience.

P1: The scientific method requires constant revision.

P2: The scientific method is based on the idea of falsifiability.

P3: Religious views are based on presupposition that a God exists

P4: Science is a collective view which is able to transcend religion and unite society.

P5: Religious experiences have too many weaknesses such as their inability to be repeated.

CP1: Scientific method affected by bias; everything is but aims to be as least bias as possible.

CP2: Problem of induction; static snapshot still gives insight.