Introduction

When the U.S. dropped the first atomic bomb in 1945, signaling the birth of the Atomic Age, it transformed global politics. Once again, it changed in 1953 when the USSR tested its first thermonuclear weapon, motivating the experts behind the 'Doomsday Clock,' a symbolic measure of how close humanity was to global catastrophe, to move it a minute closer to midnight. The U.S. was no longer the only nation with nuclear weapons, meaning global leaders now had to navigate the politics of deterrence via "mutually assured destruction," and the security dilemma, or the downward spiral of nuclear armament. This emerged a new challenge for superpowers and non-superpowers alike—how do we shape global politics without contributing to the end of the world? How can we continue to wage a war of ideologies between capitalism and communism (and occasionally, the divisions within them) without resorting to nuclear war?

Source: Frank Miller (Des Moines Register), 1962[1]

For non-superpowers, this generally meant one of two strategies: (1) bandwagoning onto a side or (2) joining India and Yugoslavia in a non-aligned movement. This also meant investing in new tactics to propel national agendas and foreign policy for superpowers and non-superpowers alike. For the U.S. in 1961, this looked like committing billions towards Latin America via the anti-communist Alliance for Progress, founding the Peace Corps program, and continuing multilateral trade negotiations in the Dillon Round of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), among other strategies.

Delegates of this body will be challenged to adapt to the volatility of political brinkmanship, among other global transformations, in order to advocate for the interests, values, and priorities

[1]https://digital.lib.uiowa.edu/islandora/object/ui%3Atestingmiller2_93

of their country. They will be occupied by a set of general objectives to (1) promote peaceful coexistence or, at a minimum, help prevent the end of the world as we know it, (2) advocate for certain values and ideologies on the world stage (whether that be capitalist or communist, or something else), and (3) practicing new tactics of Cold War politics to accomplish these two items.

State of the World: October 15th, 1962

Each passing year recently has brought with it a list of newly independent countries, the majority based in Africa and former colonies, such as Algeria which became independent from France back in March. There is a growing number of seats represented at the table of global discussions—echoing additional voices and accounting for more interests—but this movement has not come without new issues. Civil conflict may erupt from power vacuums created in transitions of decolonization, and newly independent nations may be volatile sites of conflict, as has been seen with the crisis in Congo. Divisions in developing countries have become an opportune breeding ground for intensifying factionalism, weaponized in the battle of influences between communism and capitalism, escalated by proxy warfare, external intervention, and foreign aid. For this reason, Southeast Asia in particular has become an international battleground for—as well as against—communism.

Indeed, conflicts between communist and anti-communist groups have broken out across Indochina. In South Vietnam, Ngo Dinh Diem's anti-communist regime struggles to keep the ever-increasing numbers of Viet Cong at bay. Tensions remain high in the highly fragmented and impoverished state of Laos where the communist Pathet Lao competes for power with the US-backed Royal Lao Army, even following the state's commitment to neutrality earlier this year. Korea has remained divided and has actually seen a recent escalation of tensions following the seizure of power by military dictator Park Chung Hee in South Korea last year, soon responded to by increased militarization from North Korea. The battle for or against communism is also being waged in other regions of the world, for instance, in the German city of Berlin where a wall was constructed last year—quite literally dividing the city by political lines—or in Cuba where communist leader Fidel Castro has remained in power for several years, despite attempts to overthrow his regime.

The U.S. is increasingly uneasy about Soviet ties to Cuba and the possibility of its nuclear armament, especially since a Cuban nuclear base would be within reach of attacking American soil. On the other hand, in light of the Sino-Soviet split, the USSR is all the more pressured to create and maintain allies such as Cuba. Meanwhile, India continues to spearhead a movement of non-alignment, trying to avoid escalating tensions between superpowers as well as avoid alienating potential allies. Skirmishes at the border of China and India threaten to bloom into a

full-blown war, currently stalemated with the "armed coexistence" of outposts across the disputed territory. These issues, the solutions delegates develop, and the decisions they make in these defining moments—minutes to the brink of disaster according to the Doomsday Clock—will shape how the rest of 1962 will unfold and will pave the future of the Atomic Age.

What is the Security Council?

The United Nations Security Council (UNSC) was created in 1946 and consists of six nonpermanent, rotating members and five permanent members with veto power: the United States, France, the United Kingdom, the United Soviet Socialist Republics, and the Republic of China.[2] Following in line with the goals stated in the UN Charter, the Security Council's purpose is to maintain peace and security. The UNSC tries to accomplish this objective first and foremost through peaceful means, including but not limited to sending envoys and special missions, conducting investigations, and facilitating mediations. If hostilities break out, the Security Council tries to end them as soon as possible by conducting actions including but not limited to issuing a call for a ceasefire and dispatching military observers of peacekeeping forces. If these measures do not work, the Security Council can elect to use enforcement mechanisms such as issuing sanctions, embargos, and restrictions; severance of diplomatic relations; blockades; and, in extreme cases, collective military action.[3]

As a member of the Security Council, your main task is to use the unique powers granted to the UNSC to ensure and promote global peace while keeping the interests of your country in mind. These abilities and powers include everything mentioned above and the special veto rights of the UNSC's five permanent members. Due to the UNSC's status, any actions taken by this committee will be highly influential. Thus, the decisions made by the Security Council have the potential to change the world and set guidelines and rules for how the international community will handle crises.

Topic A - Contending the Emerging Threat of Nuclear Armament.

In 1962, the topic of nuclear armament and proliferation is at the forefront of peoples' minds globally. In 1960, the Bulletin of Atomic Scientists placed their Doomsday Clock at seven minutes to midnight, in other words—the end of the world. While this is a large step back from 1953, when the clock was a mere two minutes from midnight,[4] it still represents the fear amongst top nuclear scientists that nuclear weapons may lead to a conflict that would be disastrous for human civilization. Now, four countries in the world possess nuclear weapons. The United States

[2]https://www.britannica.com/topic/United-Nations-Security-Council
[3]https://www.un.org/securitycouncil/content/functions-and-powers
[4]https://thebulletin.org/doomsday-clock/timeline/

developed nuclear weapons in 1945, the Soviet Union by 1949, the United Kingdom in 1952, and France in 1960.[5] While all four of these countries own nuclear weapons, by far the United States and the Soviet Union have the most.

Tensions between Washington and Moscow began almost immediately after the surrender of Nazi Germany in 1945. After the United States detonated the first (and so far only) nuclear bombs used in the war over the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, a race to develop nuclear weapons ensued in the Soviet Union. In 1949, the Soviet Union tested its first atomic weapon, and in 1953 its first hydrogen bomb.[6] This positioned the United States and Soviet Union, geopolitical and ideological rivals, as the only countries in the world with nuclear weapons. Since then, both countries have sought to create blocs of like-minded nations, competing in cultural, diplomatic, economic, and scientific spheres. Behind all of these other competitions, however, has been the steady accumulation of nuclear and conventional weapons by each superpower to be used in the case of war.

The nuclear arms race functions along two lines of strategic thinking. The first is brinkmanship, the use of credible threats of massive retaliation to achieve policy goals. In the case of nuclear weapons, the threat is global thermonuclear war, which hangs as a sword of Damocles over all of the interactions between the superpowers. These threats tie into the second line of strategic thinking, which is Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD). MAD has been described as "the principle of deterrence founded on the notion that a nuclear attack by one superpower would be met with an overwhelming nuclear counterattack such that both the attacker and the defender would be annihilated."[7] Under MAD, each side is aware that a conflict of any kind will result in the complete destruction of both sides. Even if one side might "win," any such victory would be purely pyrrhic if it could be called a victory at all. These two currents—constant high tension and the knowledge that a nuclear war will destroy both sides—have kept the superpowers seeking advantages over each other and stockpiling weapons to ensure that the other side does not gain a decisive advantage.

Another major part of this conflict has been the contentious issue of where nuclear weapons are deployed. The presence of American nuclear missiles in Italy and Turkey has caused increasing tensions with the Soviet Union, which views these missiles as a threat, especially because it does not have missiles deployed similarly close to the United States. In nations where nuclear weapons are deployed, there are also domestic concerns. While nuclear arms serve as a deterrent against foreign aggression, they also mean that a host nation will become a target if the superpowers ever engage in nuclear war against each other.

[5]https://www.icanw.org/nuclear_weapons_history
[6]Ibid.
[7]https://www.britannica.com/topic/mutual-assured-destruction

The conflict between the superpowers can be described along ideological lines. The Soviet Union and its allies, often referred to as the Eastern Bloc, are led by communist and socialist governments. The Soviet Union has continued to support communist and socialist movements abroad, such as the government of Fidel Castro in Cuba, bringing them into its sphere of influence. The United States, on the other hand, helms the so-called "Western Bloc" of capitalist nations, supporting governments and forces around the world that will support these ideals.

Source: Atlantic Council, 2022[8]

The ideological conflict between the superpowers has led to proxy wars where Washington and Moscow back different sides in a conflict. These "hot" conflicts are fought by local forces, often taking the form of civil wars, such as the ongoing conflict in Laos between communist and royalist forces, the Korean War in 1950, or the war in Vietnam between Ho Chi Minh's communist forces, and the Southern Vietnamese forces backed by France and the United States.[9] These conflicts have so far been fought only with conventional weapons, but some worry that superpower involvement exacerbates conflict and may lead to further, possibly even nuclear, escalation.

As nuclear weapons have become an increasingly dominant geopolitical reality, conversations about if and how to deal with nuclear proliferation have been ongoing. These conversations have to contend with two competing facts. On one hand, in the atomic age, nuclear weapons are sometimes considered the ultimate sign of what makes one country more powerful than another. On the other, the massive threat that these weapons pose to human life means that they are a danger even to countries that have no nuclear weapons.[10] Now, the question on many people's minds is how to prevent nuclear weapons from spreading to other nations, and how to create a framework for nuclear disarmament between the superpowers. Nikita Khrushchev's policy of "peaceful coexistence" seems to signal that he would be willing to negotiate with the United States, but almost a decade into his leadership of the Soviet Union, little progress has been made.

> Premier Nikita Khrushchev in an Interview Given to I. McDonald (1958):[11]
> "Doctors at first treat a man emaciated by a grave illness gradually and prescribe

[8]https://www.atlanticcouncil.org/blogs/ukrainealert/lessons-from-the-cuban-missile-crisis-putin-is-no-khrushchev/
[9]https://www.jfklibrary.org/learn/about-jfk/jfk-in-history/the-cold-war
[10]https://world101.cfr.org/global-era-issues/nuclear-proliferation/history-nuclear-proliferation
[11]https://www.marxists.org/archive/khrushchev/1959/for-victory-in-peaceful-competition-with-capitalism.pdf

> food for him in small doses. If more were given to the patient, it might kill him. And so we want to begin disarmament not with a full dose, although we are prepared even for a full dose. I have said already that the Western Powers have shown great distrust of us and we, too, do not trust them in everything. And so, in order not to wreck something of great and vital importance to mankind—disarmament—we suggest beginning not with a cardinal but with a gradual solution of disarmament problems, beginning with what offers hope, inspires confidence. Thus, step by step, gradually, it would be possible to reach the main goal, that is, the full solution of the disarmament problem."

> President John F. Kennedy in an Address Before the General Assembly (1961):[12] "For in the development of this organization [the United Nations] rests the only true alternative to war—and war appeals no longer as a rational alternative. Unconditional war can no longer lead to unconditional victory. It can no longer serve to settle disputes. It can no longer concern the great powers alone. For a nuclear disaster, spread by wind and water and fear, could well engulf the great and the small, the rich and the poor, the committed and the uncommitted alike. Mankind must put an end to war—or war will put an end to mankind."

Between the strong incentives for countries to develop nuclear weapons and the danger that those weapons pose to the world at large, many argue that some kind of international framework is necessary. The fate of humanity as a whole may hang in the balance of how a few individuals handle the immense responsibility of these weapons. In light of this fact, many look towards the United Nations to create a global framework for how nuclear weapons should be handled and how the international community should react to their existence.

Topic B - Promoting Peaceful Transitions of Power During Decolonization.

The process of European nations decolonizing after the Second World War is unprecedented in world history. Never before have nations peacefully relinquished their colonial holdings, much less in the volume that nations have been gaining independence since the end of the war. Between 1945 and 1956, sixteen countries gained their independence from European colonial rule. Since then, another twenty-six countries have joined the international community, more than four new countries each year. So far, the peak of this batch was in 1960, the so-called "Year

[12]https://www.jfklibrary.org/archives/other-resources/john-f-kennedy-speeches/united-nations-19610925

of Africa" when seventeen countries gained their independence.[13] Even now, there are independence movements in many countries still colonized by the European powers.

Despite the national aspirations of many colonized peoples, decolonization has been far from a peaceful or easy process. Though the Allied powers agreed, in principle, to decolonization before the end of the Second World War in the Atlantic Charter, the colonial powers had a very different view of what decolonization would mean as compared to colonized peoples. Most imperial powers thought that decolonization would be a gradual process, perhaps taking generations, where the colonies would slowly be granted independence. Meanwhile, anti-colonial movements, particularly in nations such as Indonesia and The Philippines where resistance to the Japanese Empire was largely fought by native forces, expected immediate and unconditional independence.

Throughout Southeast Asia, there have been decolonial wars between European powers and nationalist movements. In Indonesia, a war was fought from 1945 to 1949 between Indonesian nationalist forces and a government loyal to the Dutch. While the Dutch hoped to establish multiple states in the region that were aligned with the colonial power, pan-Indonesian national identity proved strong enough to create a unified state. In Vietnam, the declaration of independence by Ho Chi Minh led to a long and bloody war between Vietnamese Republicans, and French forces hoping to reestablish the monarchy.

In both of these cases, a crucial component of the conflict's resolution was the intervention of a superpower. In Indonesia, the United States backed the nationalists and their leader, Sukarno, after Sukarno put down a communist revolt within the nationalist movement. With this intervention showing Sukarno as a potential ally against communism, the US forced The Netherlands to the negotiating table to establish a stable, capitalist power in Indonesia. In Vietnam, Ho Chi Minh's alignment with communism has led to military aid from other communist powers, as well as the United States funding French efforts to defeat Ho Chi Minh's forces. The war in Indochina reached a tenuous peace in 1954 when the shocking victory of Vietnamese forces at the battle of Dien Bien Phu led the French government to negotiate peace in the 1954 Geneva Accords.

In Algeria, French desires to maintain control of the region as an integrated part of France led to a bloody decolonial war that only ended earlier this year. Though the rest of France's African holdings were granted independence more peacefully, some have criticized the continued influence of France over the governments of its former holdings as a continuation of colonialism under a different guise, particularly regarding the fact that these nations' currencies are still

[13]https://www.brooklynmuseum.org/features/africa_timeline

pegged to the French Franc. In both cases, French decolonization in Africa shows the difficulty of successful and peaceful transitions away from colonialism.

The 1956 Suez Canal Crisis also shows the conflicts that can arise from decolonization. In response to American and British withdrawal from funding the construction of the Aswan Dam on the Nile, Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal, formerly held by the French and British governments. In response, Britain, France, and Israel secretly plotted a surprise attack against Egypt, which resulted in the Suez Crisis. During the crisis, Israel took the Sinai Peninsula, while Britain and France retook the Suez Canal. The conflict was only resolved by united opposition to the war by the United States and the Soviet Union, as well as calls by the United Nations for a ceasefire. The outcome of this crisis was a victory for Nasser and Egypt, but the crisis also shows the role of the international community in resolving the conflicts that arise when the legacy of colonialism continues to create tension in formerly colonized regions.

The Cold War also impacts the discourse around decolonization because the rhetoric of colonialism has been weaponized by Cold Warriors. In the East, American rhetoric espousing freedom, liberty, and national self-determination is called into question by pointing to Jim Crow laws and the ongoing reality of unequal treatment towards African Americans. From the West, the communist states of Eastern Europe were labeled “Captive Nations,” questioning the Soviet Union’s support for decolonial struggles by accusing the USSR of establishing its own empire behind the Iron Curtain. In both cases, the ideological struggle of the Cold War has taken on the guise of decolonization as the superpowers jockey for influence on the global stage.

Finally, it is important to note the prevalence of post-colonial conflicts. Even when decolonization may occur peacefully, the legacy of ethnic conflict, often stoked by colonialist governments, has led to conflicts within and between newly independent nations. The borders these states inherited were often drawn by European politicians who had little knowledge of the peoples they were dividing up, or else drew borders specifically to break up strong pre-colonial groups.

The Congo Crisis

In the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), these many forces are coming to a head. Since declaring its independence from Belgium in 1960, the country has been racked by an ongoing conflict between various ethnic groups. Immediately after the declaration of independence, Belgian troops were sent to the DRC, which led the DRC to appeal to the United Nations for support, and to the establishment of the United Nations Operation in the Congo, also known by

its French name "Opération des Nations Unies au Congo," or ONUC.[14] Peacekeepers from UN member states have been deployed in the region ever since, to maintain the territorial integrity of the state, and of working to get foreign mercenaries out of the region.[15] Belgium has backed the secession of the resource-rich regions of South Kasai and Katanga, and the armed forces of the breakaway state in Katanga have received training from Belgian soldiers, as well as the direct participation of Belgians in mercenary groups such as the "Katangese Gendarmerie" paramilitary operating in the region.

Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba called for and received support from the Soviet Union, causing a growing rift within the Congolese government, leading to him being overthrown in a coup by a lieutenant colonel named Mobutu in 1960. On September 18th, 1961, while en route to negotiate a ceasefire in this ongoing conflict, United Nations Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld was killed in a plane crash, the cause of which is unknown. In December 1961, UN Peacekeeping forces took part in fighting for Katanga's capital, Elizabethville, during which Swedish peacekeepers were captured. These peacekeepers were freed in January of 1962 as part of a negotiated prisoner exchange with the Katangese Gendarmerie. Afterward, the paramilitary underwent a process of "Africanization," and the Native Katangan, Colonel Norbert Muké took over its leadership. Despite this, the group remains heavily influenced by European mercenaries.

Figure 3. Refugee Camp Clearance Programme in Elizabethville (Congo)[16]

Source: U.N., 1962

[14]https://peacekeeping.un.org/sites/default/files/past/onucB.htm
[15]Ibid.
[16]https://dam.media.un.org/Package/2AM9LOT_4

Currently, UN forces remain engaged in efforts to remove foreign mercenaries from the Katangan breakaway state, and many wonder how the role of the United Nations will continue to evolve in the region. Since Secretary General U Thant was appointed, the UN has been more aggressive in its efforts against the breakaway states in the region. Some support this move, while others say that the United Nations should more strictly limit its actions to defensive and humanitarian concerns. Regardless of how this question is answered, it will surely set a precedent for how the United Nations is expected to conduct peacekeeping missions in the future.

The Laos Crisis

In Laos, a similar crisis is ongoing. A Civil War, originally fought along Cold War lines, has increasingly taken on an ethnic dimension. Partly intertwined with the war in Vietnam, a war between the neutralist Royal Lao Army and communist Pathet Lao forces, aligned with Ho Chi Minh's North Vietnam, battle for control of the country. Over time, Western-backed guerillas from the Hmong ethnic group have increasingly become the backbone of anti-communist forces in Laos, threatening to transform an ideological conflict into a simultaneous ethnic conflict. In the past years, the involvement of the superpowers in this crisis has deepened, and the conflict between different forces within the nation continues to heighten.

Conclusion

The role of the United Nations in preventing these conflicts, and de-escalating those that have already broken out is an important question. The Security Council must answer the question of if and when Peacekeeping forces might be deployed to address these conflicts, as well as what role those forces will play within the conflicts they are deployed to address. More broadly, the United Nations must establish norms and frameworks that will allow for decolonial power transitions to occur without leading to war or civil conflict during that process. Finally, the United Nations is the international body with the most direct reason to answer the question of what constitutes decolonization. Just as important as creating frameworks to resolve conflicts when they break out is to address the factors that lead to decolonial wars, chief among them being the conflict between the interests of decolonizing powers, and the legitimate desire of colonized people to seek their freedom.

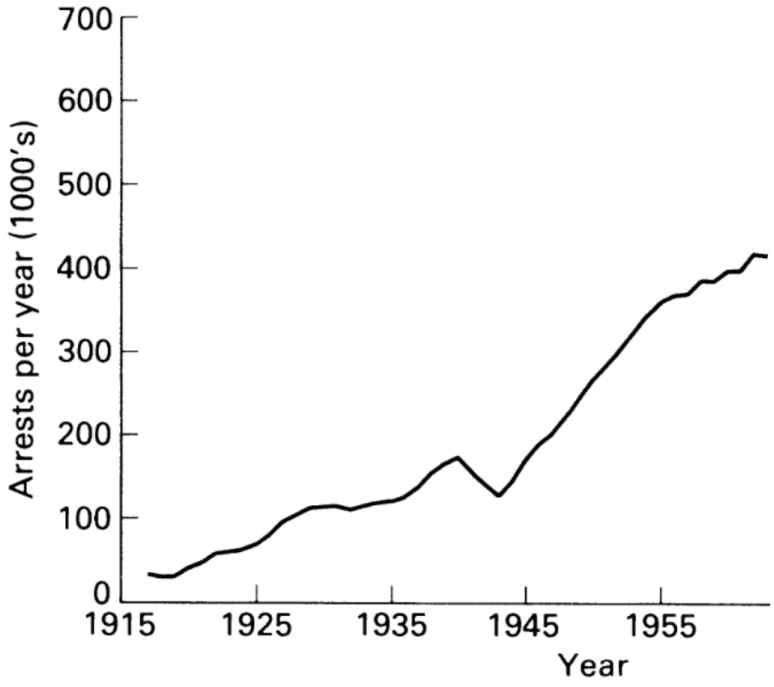
Topic C - Forced resettlement and apartheid in South Africa.

South Africa is entrenched in a deeply troubling period defined by the systematic and oppressive apartheid regime—a system of institutionalized racial segregation and discrimination. The dominating political party in power, the National Party (NP), made up almost entirely of white

officials, has spearheaded a number of racist policies. There is a history in the region of racial discrimination crossing centuries, including a colonial history, which has continued into the modern era.

Over the years, laws have been passed by the government to restrict and discriminate against Black South Africans, such as the Natives (Urban Areas) Act of 1923 and Group Areas Act of 1950, [17] contributing to the segregation of housing and mass forced resettlement of non-white South Africans into *Bantustans*,[18] their lands reclaimed and resold by the government. As a result of such policies, although over 80 percent of the population is Black, around 90 percent of the land is owned by white residents.[19] The Natives' Act also modernized a version of a 'pass system,' mandating Black South Africans to carry around pass books, bureaucratizing apartheid even further. These policies were highly contested and protested, responded to by the government subsequently with increased police crackdown and militarization of the state. Indeed, from 1956 to 1960, there were around 1.9 million legal prosecutions for violating pass laws, or around a thousand every single day.

Figure 4. Arrests in South Africa related to Pass Laws (Three-Year Moving Average)[20]



Source: Bureau of Census and Statistics, 1960

[17]https://www.sahistory.org.za/article/apartheid-legislation-1850s-1970s
[18]https://overcomingapartheid.msu.edu/multimedia.php?kid=163-582-19
[19]https://humanrights.ca/story/sharpeville-massacre
[20]https://www.jstor.org/stable/723012?seq=5

The country's history is marred by a legacy of violence and discriminatory practices, epitomized by the horrific Sharpeville Massacre of 1960.[21] Organized by the Pan African Congress (PAC) thousands showed up in an act of civil disobedience for this late March protest, refusing to carry mandated pass books. This tragic event saw peaceful protestors met with brutal police violence and unannounced open fire, resulting in the deaths of numerous unarmed civilians, sparking international outrage and underscoring the repressive nature of apartheid.

The government's response to dissent and opposition has been characterized by severe political suppression. Legislation such as the Unlawful Organizations Act of 1960 and the General Law Amendment Act of 1962 gave authorities vast powers to ban and restrict political organizations, silencing opposition voices and dissent against apartheid policies,[22] sometimes in the name of combating communism.[23] This suppression intensified with the arrest of notable activists such as Nelson Mandela in August, a long-sought fugitive, charged for starting an illegal strike and leaving the country.[24] The imprisonment of Mandela, a prominent anti-apartheid figure, symbolized the government's crackdown on those fighting for equality and justice.

Beyond political suppression, apartheid's humanitarian concerns are starkly evident as racial segregation divides the nation. Non-white populations face systemic discrimination in various aspects of life, from education to employment, perpetuating inequality and division. Peaceful protestors and activists challenging this system are met with severe retaliation, including arrests, violence, and further oppression, demonstrating the government's determination to maintain the apartheid regime at any cost. The UNSC has already publicly deplored these kinds of action and called for racial harmony in a resolution from April of 1960, but continued practices of discrimination and violence have persisted and might even be escalating.[25] In this regard, the Council must consider additional ways to denounce racist practices, apply pressure, and combat these issues in the face of varying sympathies and commitments across the board from member nations.

[21]https://humanrights.ca/story/sharpeville-massacre
[22]https://www.sahistory.org.za/archive/unlawful-organizations-act-act-no-34-1960
[23]https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201505/act-76-1962.pdf
[24]https://www.chathamhouse.org/publications/the-world-today/2022-08/date-history-arrest-nelson-mandela
[25]https://www.refworld.org/docid/3b00f1893c.html

Figure 5. Security Council Continues Debate on Apartheid Policies of South Africa[26]

Source: U.N., 1963

Additional Resources:

- Lessons from the Cuban Missile Crisis: Putin is no Khrushchev https://www.atlanticcouncil.org/blogs/ukrainealert/lessons-from-the-cuban-missile-crisis-putin-is-no-khrushchev/
- The Jupiter Missiles and the Endgame of the Cuban Missile Crisis: Sealing the Deal with Italy and Turkey https://www.wilsoncenter.org/blog-post/jupiter-missiles-and-endgame-cuban-missile-crisis-sealing-deal-italy-and-turkey
- Nuclear Superiority or Mutually Assured Deterrence: The Development of the US Nuclear Deterrent https://www.jstor.org/stable/40204064
- The Laos Crisis, 1960–1963 https://history.state.gov/milestones/1961-1968/laos-crisis
- The Congo, Decolonization, and the Cold War, 1960–1965 https://history.state.gov/milestones/1961-1968/congo-decolonization
- Dien Bien Phu & the Fall of French Indochina, 1954 https://history.state.gov/milestones/1953-1960/dien-bien-phu
- The Sharpeville Massacre

[26]https://dam.media.un.org/CS.aspx

https://humanrights.ca/story/sharpeville-massacre

- Apartheid South Africa 1940s to 1960s https://www.sahistory.org.za/article/grade-11-apartheid-south-africa-1940s-1960s
- 1960-1966: The genesis of the armed struggle https://www.sahistory.org.za/article/1960-1966-genesis-armed-struggle