



2024

Joint: Soviet & United States



RMUN

Table of Contents

<u>Table of Contents</u>	2
<u>Letters from the Chairs</u>	3
<u>How JCCs Work</u>	5
<u>Cold War Introduction</u>	9
<u>Soviet Space Program</u>	11
<u>United States Space Program</u>	14
<u>Issue at Hand</u>	19
<u>Important Events</u>	21
<u>Breakdown of Portfolio Powers</u>	25
<u>Your Mission</u>	28
<u>Bibliography</u>	29

Letters from the Chairs

Hello US Delegates!

My name is John Cotter, and I am thrilled to serve as your US chair for RMUN III! I am incredibly excited to be chairing this committee and working with you all for this day of debate. This topic and committee will be fast-paced, thrilling, and super fun, and you all will be leading the course of debate (with some nudges, of course). The topic at hand is a tricky one, and I sincerely hope that from 1955 on, the US will reach the moon first, and through whatever means necessary. However, for this committee to be as fun and exciting as possible, you must research and thoroughly understand your character. Each person has a role to play and you never know how important that role may be. Be bold! Any idea for your crisis arc is welcomed, and I look forward to hearing your ideas and tactics in debate. RMUN is a learning experience; any address you make, directive you contribute to, or crisis note you write will further your understanding of MUN and Crisis committees.

The topic at hand requires the best of solutions, the fastest of debates, and the best crisis arcs you can muster. I believe in you all!! Do your best and put in the work, and I can guarantee that this committee will be a blast.

A few notes on how this committee will work. I know how competitive MUN can be, and I am here for the competition, but you must be respectful to other delegates. Due to the fast-paced nature of this committee, cross-talk and other means of disrespect will not be tolerated. Parliamentary Procedure will be followed to an extent, but again this committee sometimes needs to make decisions quickly and by chair's discretion, we sometimes may not always follow perfect parli-pro.

If you have any questions at all, please do not hesitate to reach out. I look forward to meeting you all and I wish you all the best of luck delegates. Let's beat those communists.

Sincerely,

John Cotter

US Committee

RMUN III Joint Crisis Committee

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Привет Delegate!

It is a great honor to be the Soviet Union Chair of RMUN III's Space Race Joint-Crisis Committee. My name is Zac Ambrose and I am a sophomore at Rice studying Mathematical Economic Analysis. I have been involved in MUN for five years as a crisis Chair of the EU Commission at Houston Area MUN, a member of Rice's competitive team at the Harvard National Model United Nations conference, Chair of SOCHUM at RMUN II, and once a high school MUN delegate myself. After successfully launching Sputnik 1, the first artificial Earth satellite, before the unruly Americans, the Soviet upperhand in the Space Race as of 1961 is unparalleled. Soviet scientists and technology are unwavering compared to the enemy, yet with great power comes great responsibility.

It is up to YOU to work with other delegates in order to tackle the issues at hand, whilst also most importantly maintaining diplomacy. Will the Soviet Union keep its edge over the United States in the Space Race? Or will one wrong decision off-kilter the scale of power? Formulating possible solutions to beat the Americans in the Space Race are over the moon (will the Soviet's potentially land on the moon?!) and we cannot wait to see what creative directives you all will devise!

Our best advice for this committee is to just participate! Speeches in-room, writing crisis notes to secretly gain power and working to pass well-written directives are all ways to gain support from your fellow delegates and also individual power in committee. However, research is always important to succeed in a crisis. For this committee to be successful, we are hoping for quality over quantity. Vague directives and multiple crisis notes with no cohesive crisis arc won't help your character arc. Do not hesitate to reach out if you have any questions.

Let's crush the Americans,

Zac Ambrose

Chair of the Soviet Union Committee

RMUN III Joint-Crisis Committee

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How JCCs Work

Intro to Crisis

Crisis Committees differ in many ways from a General Assembly or other traditional MUN simulations. Rather than an international debate over a global issue, most Crisis simulations focus on a specific region or conflict. There are typically no more than a few dozen delegates, who usually represent the interests of individual people instead of entire nations. Delegates receive dossiers describing the objectives and abilities of their person, as well as pertinent information about that person. Compared to a GA, the pace of debate is much faster and less formal.

Crisis Committees are most significantly different from GAs in delegates' capacity to directly affect their scenario. While General Assemblies typically pass resolutions at the end of the session, Crisis Committees will pass multiple directives throughout the day that immediately alter the "state of the world." Delegates can also submit private "Crisis Notes," which use the delegate's personal powers to individually change the direction of the committee. All documents are sent to the Crisis backroom.

Another major aspect of Crisis committees is "Crisis Events." Crisis staffers will regularly deliver updates to the committee room about changes in their scenario, whether it be wars, natural disasters, statements to the press, or beyond. Delegates can even be assassinated! Some of these events may be the result of directives or crisis notes. These Crisis Events create a feedback system between delegates and the crisis staff as each works to build the world and the story of the committee.

It is usually harder to prepare for crisis committees as a delegate since you have no way of predicting when, how, or which curveballs will be thrown your way. In this committee, you are your given character, and the crisis staff represents the "outside" world and all the events that occur there. Every delegate will be advancing their own character's agendas, so stay on your toes!

So What's a JCC?

Prepare for trouble. And make it double. A JCC, or Joint Crisis Committee, is a special type of Crisis consisting of two or more individual Crisis Committees, where decisions in one committee directly affect the other. The traditional raising of placards is replaced with international espionage, fast-paced decision-making, and incessant debates—all aimed to destroy the ideological enemy. Delegates will not only have to worry about their committee, but also keep the opposite room in mind.

The existence of an opposing committee opens up new opportunities for secret plots, secret communications, and most of all, backstabbing betrayals. The well-meaning, or hostile, actions of the opposing committee offer an unpredictable, volatile, and urgent, but undoubtedly exciting, experience.

Special Rules and Advisories

For a number of reasons, this JCC is unlike any Crisis committee we've run before at RMUN. The rules outlined in this section will be specific to this JCC committee and do not apply to other RMUN committees. **Please read this section in its entirety!**

Crisis Notes

Delegates can take private action in the form of **crisis notes**, which differ greatly from traditional note-passing in a GA committee. Crisis notes allow delegates to communicate with characters outside of the immediate committee to advance their crisis arc. Traditional note-passing still exists in crisis committees, but it is much less prevalent. Crisis notes are secret, and will never be shared with the committee at large. By using directives, delegates build towards group goals, but using crisis notes delegates incorporate secret resources towards personal as well as group goals.

Portfolio powers are the enumerated resources and capabilities that delegates have vested in their character description or dossier. For example, a Minister of Education's portfolio powers may

include instituting certain curricula for all students at the Elementary level. In a crisis note, this Minister could urge a friend from college - who happens to serve the legislature - to introduce a bill framing the curriculum. While the Minister of Education would under no circumstances have the authority or resources to firebomb Sweden, delegates are encouraged to slightly push the boundaries of their portfolio powers through crisis notes and augment their capabilities. To increase the likelihood of an unenumerated request being accepted, RMUN urges delegates to progress toward a certain request through multiple crisis notes while supporting an argument for that request in the final crisis note.

Whenever you write a crisis note, it should always be addressed to a specific individual such as the legislator in our previous example. Every time you send a crisis note, it will go directly to the **crisis staff** and they will respond to your note with an acceptance or refusal. In a Joint-Crisis Committee, delegates can correspond with delegates in the separate room. This means that in our simulation, Soviet and US delegates can interact through crisis notes and even arrange a private meeting!

A crafty form of crisis note is a **Joint Private Directive**, or **JPD**. If a delegate wants to accomplish something outside of their portfolio powers, they can co-author a JPD with another delegate. A JPD allows two delegates to combine their personal powers to accomplish a task together and further both of their personal interests. The Ministers of Education and Energy can team up to put solar panels on schools and provide educational lessons on renewable energy by writing a JPD. JPD's are private, so two delegates who scheme together may use a JPD to coordinate an assassination using both of their portfolio powers. Delegates can also co-author a traditional directive, but the JPD does not require approval from a majority of the committee members, only the staff, and it will remain secret.

Directives

Most Directives will function as normal, combining the powers of each of the characters in the room. Directives are similar to resolutions but they don't contain preambulatory clauses and are

usually shorter. They are often drafted in response to specific crisis updates. Directives should be written on paper and they will be read by the chairs and voted on through a proposed mod in committee. For directives to go through they must have a set number of sponsors and signatories that will be determined by the chairs.

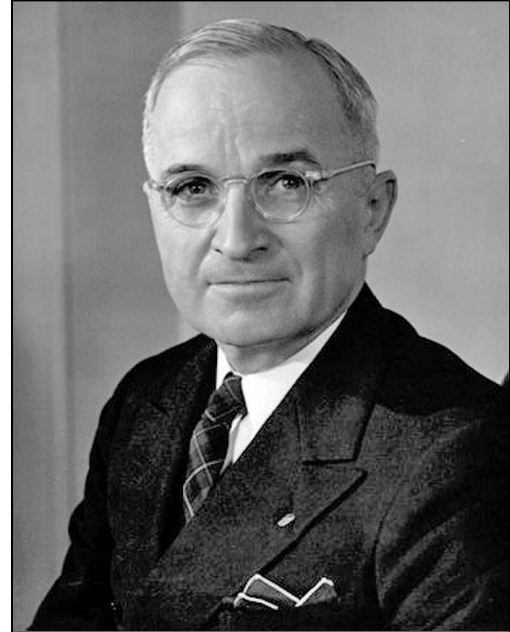
Press Releases and Communiques

In a press release, a committee can draft a written statement to the public and send the statement out to the public. Whether the contents of a press release are true or false is up to the committee.

To pass a press release, it will also need a majority vote from the committee. Similar to a press release is a communique, which is a private, formally-written letter to another governing body, whether it be a head of state or even the other political party. Although the letter is private, the recipient of the letter can potentially make it public and misconstrue the message you sent.

Cold War Introduction

The term “Cold War” was first coined by English writer George Orwell in an article published in 1945 that referred to a situation in which there was a nuclear stalemate between “two or three monstrous super-states, each possessed of a weapon by which millions of people can be wiped out in a few seconds.” Most famously associated with the open yet restricted rivalry that developed after World War 2 between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies, the “Cold War” as we know it, was a war that was waged on political, economic, and propaganda fronts. The start of the Cold War occurred



during the muddled time period following the surrender of Nazi Germany in May 1945, which saw the Soviets installing left-wing governments in the countries of eastern Europe that had been liberated by the Red Army. The final and most decisive action that concluded the process of the military takeovers was a coup d’etat in Czechoslovakia in 1948. The Americans, and their allies, the British, feared permanent Soviet domination of eastern Europe, as well as the threat of Soviet-influenced communist parties coming to power in the democracies of western Europe. Containment of the Soviet Union became American policy in the post war years, and this new policy was defined in the “Long Telegram,” written by George Kennan, a top official at the U.S embassy in Moscow. The president at



the time of the Cold War, Harry S. Truman, famously gave a strongly worded speech to Congress in which he declared “I believe that it must be the policy of the United States to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or

by outside pressures.” Journalists all over the country and even the world quickly dubbed this statement as the “Truman Doctrine.” Historians say that in truth, Truman overstated the Soviet threat to the United States and ultimately ended up inspiring a wave of anti-Communism sentiment throughout the country. However, Truman was not the only world leader whose public statements defined the state of the Cold War. In 1946, Soviet leader Joseph Stalin declared that international peace was impossible “under the present capitalist development of the world economy.” Former British Prime Minister Winston Churchill also delivered his fair share of dramatic speeches on world matters, famously saying in one of his speeches that “an iron curtain has descended across the Continent,” meaning that Britain and the United States had to work together to counter the impending Soviet threat. It is with this speech that the United



States decided to work with Britain on establishing their policy of containment. Throughout the years of the 1960s and ‘70s, a bipolar struggle between the Soviet Union and the United States, and their allies, gave way to a more complicated pattern of international relationships in which the world was no longer split into two evenly and clearly opposed sides. Instead, everything was jumbled together into a giant melting pot of political goals and blocs. Ultimately, the Cold War was a war of words, with no



physical fighting, between the United States and the Soviet Union. Developed as a result of postwar tensions, the Cold War would shape how both nations interacted with each other, especially during the time of the Space Race.

Soviet Space Program

Beginnings

The first investigations in the field of rocketry by the Soviet originally started with the formation of a research laboratory in 1921. The research laboratory was headed by chemical engineer Nikolai Tikhomirov and supported by Soviet engineer Vladimir Artemyev. Tikhomirov originally began studying liquid and solid fueled rockets back in 1894 and later in 1915 he filed a patent for "self-propelled aerial and water-surface mines."

Their main focus was to explore more about solid fuel rockets. However, during the beginnings of their research efforts were greatly hampered due to the ongoing wars with Germany that resulted in



devastating losses. The laboratory was renamed to the Gas Dynamics Laboratory (GDL) in 1928 and the first-ever test firing of a solid fuel rocket was carried out in March 1928. The rocket flew roughly an impressive 1,300 meters. Georgy Langemak led further developments in the early 1930s and in 1932, successfully test fired RS-82 missiles from a Tupolev I-4 aircraft armed with six launchers.

World War II

During World War II, Nazi Germany developed impressive rocket technologies that were more advanced compared to any of the Allies. After the war ended, a desperate race commenced between the United States and the Soviet Union to capture and exploit the technology for their respective space programs. In 1945, Soviet rocket specialists were sent to Germany in order to obtain V-2 rockets which were the first modern long-range ballistic missile and world's first large-scale liquid-propellant rocket vehicle. Additionally, they were sent to work in tandem with German specialists to understand and replicate the rocket technology for Soviet usage. The heavy involvement of skilled German engineers and scientists were a crucial catalyst for the early Soviet Space Program efforts.



Structural Overview

The mastermind behind the Soviet Space Program was Sergei Pavlovich Korolev. Although Korolev was "single-mindedly driven by the dream of space travel", he generally kept his involvement in the Soviet Space Program a deep secret while working on his other military projects. Korolev spearheaded the program on the basis of unique ideas from Konstantin Tsiolkovsky. Tsiolkovsky is often referred to as the father of theoretical astronautics. Unlike the competing American, Chinese, and European space programs that were coordinated under one agency, the Soviet Space Program was split into many different bureaus that competed against each other internally to create the best designs. Some notable bureaus were led by Chelomey, Chertok, Glushko, Makeyev, Korolev, Kerimov, Keldysh, Reshetnev, and Yangel.

Funding & Support

From the start, the Soviet Space Program was intertwined with the USSR's Five-Year Plans and was heavily reliant on support from the Soviet military. The Soviet Space Program was secondary in military funding to the Strategic Rocket Forces' ICBMs. Additionally, Nikita Khrushchev, Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, had an unusually close relationship with Korolev and other chief designers in the space program. As a result, the West often believed that, for propaganda purposes, Khrushchev personally ordered each new space mission. However, in reality, Khrushchev instead emphasized missiles rather than space exploration and was not very interested in competing with NASA's Apollo.



Importance of Secrecy

Under the heavy influence of the Soviet military, the Soviet Space Program utilized secrecy as a strategic asset for a variety of means. Primarily, they used it to stop classified information from being leaked to other countries, but to also create a sense of mystery between the Soviet population and the space program. The Telegraph Agency of the Soviet Union (TASS) was created to establish precedents for all official announcements from the Soviet Space Program. However, the names of cosmonauts were not known to the public until they flew and rocket launchings were not announced until they took place. Not only that, besides the first Sputniks, lunar probes and Venus probes, outside observers did not even know the shape or size of their cabins, rockets, or most of their spaceships. Overall, the Soviet Space Program's public announcements were all uniformly positively boasting the achievements of the program.



As far as all the people knew, the Soviet Space Program had never experienced any sort of failure whatsoever. In general, the mission details were sparse and the space program's mysterious nature embodied ambiguous messages regarding its values and goals.



First Test Launches

On August 15th, 1951, the Soviet Space Program launched its first rocket with animals aboard two months before the United States' first such achievement. The two dogs onboard the rocket named Tsygan and Dezik were recovered alive after reaching an impressive 101 kilometers in altitude. The August 15th, 1951 launch and subsequent flights gave the Soviet Space Program very valuable experience with space medicine and put them ahead of the United States.

United States Space Program

Beginnings

The Space Race between the United States (USA) and the Soviet Union (USSR) began for the US on August 2nd, 1955 when the USSR responded to the US announcement that they intend to launch the first official satellite into space with a satellite of their own, and on October 4th 1957 the Soviet Union launched Sputnik 1 (Russian for “traveler”), the first earth-orbiting satellite and the first man-made object to be placed in Earth’s orbit in history. The launch came as a shock to most Americans, as space

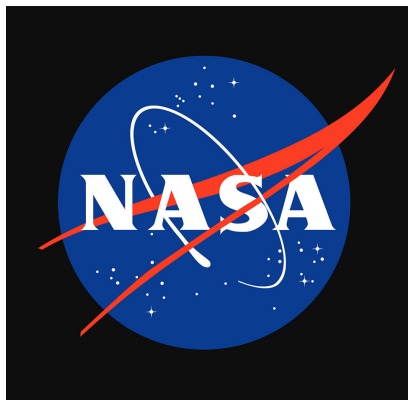
was seen as the next frontier, or manifest destiny, following the American idea and tradition of exploration. In true American fashion, the US did not want to lose too much ground to the Soviet Union. Additionally, the US was concerned that if the USSR could launch something in space this quickly with the first ICBM (R-7 missile) and causing a nuclear war



made President Dwight D. Eisenhower all the more eager to begin gathering intelligence about Soviet military activities. To further the blow, the USSR then released a second satellite into space, Sputnik II, which carried a living dog. Realizing that the USSR had capabilities that exceeded those of US technologies that could endanger Americans, the US grew even more concerned, and began taking action to be the first out in space.

US Reactions to Sputnik

Following the launch of Sputnik 1, the US begins to scramble to claim their territory in space. President Eisenhower then began work on launching the US's satellite. The US failed twice at their attempts to launch a satellite into space, but eventually succeeded with a rocket that carried the Explorer I satellite of January 31, 1958. This rocket was designed by scientists William Hayward Pickering, James Van Allen, and Wernher von Braun as a project of the US Army. The team largely consisted of German rocket engineers who had developed ballistic missiles for World War II. For Explorer I, the engineers led by Von Braun developed the German V2 rocket into a more powerful rocket titled Jupiter C, or Juno. It was built by the California Institute of Technology's Jet Propulsion



Laboratory in Pasadena, California and the Redstone Arsenal in Huntsville, Alabama, and they had ninety days, per Eisenhower's orders, to get a satellite into space. Following the launch of Explorer I, Eisenhower created the new federal agency titled the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) on October 1st, 1958, which replaced the National Advisory Committee on Aeronautics (NACA). NASA became the primary federal agency responsible for aerospace research and the civilian space program. In December, NASA took control of the Jet Propulsion Laboratory operated by the California Institute of Technology, forming NASA-JPL. The Advanced Research Projects Agency, which took the lead in developing space technology for military purposes, was also created in 1958. The US had officially entered the space race, allocating the funds and support from the American people in order to cross this new frontier. Additionally, Eisenhower also created two national security-oriented space programs that would operate with NASA. The first was led by the US Air Force and dedicated itself to exploring the military potential of space. The second was led by the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), the Air Force and the National Reconnaissance Office (codename Corona), which would use newly launched orbiting satellites from NASA to gather intelligence on the Soviet Union and other Warsaw Pact members.

NASA and Competition

As the first satellite project under NASA, the US launches the Signal Communication by Orbiting Relay Equipment (SCORE), a top-secret project launched from Cape Canaveral, Florida. SCORE was the first communications satellite. The launch took a total of five months, with several failing and one traversing the full range of the missile testing ground. The failures of the crafts, called Atlases, were only exacerbated as the Soviets had launched three more Sputnik satellites into orbit. With these launches, they proved that they were able to reach US soil with their missiles. The US felt the further need to launch the Atlas ICBM in order to prove the same point. The idea to launch the first communication satellite came from the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA or DARPA) and they tasked the US Signal Research and Development Laboratory (SRDL) with developing a space-based communication package, and they were under incredibly strict orders to not breathe a



word to the media and were sworn to secrecy. The project faced many complications, but on December 18th, 1958, it launched on an Atlas B into space and captured world attention by playing a pre-recorded Christmas address from Eisenhower, saying “This is the President of the United States speaking. Through the marvels of scientific advance, my voice is coming to you from a satellite circling in outer space. My message is a simple one. Through this unique means, I convey to you and to all mankind America’s wish for peace on Earth and goodwill toward men everywhere,” and with this becoming the first broadcast from space.

In response the USSR launched Luna 1 on January 2nd, 1959, known as the first cosmic rocket, as it escaped the orbit of the moon due to high speeds. This back-and-forth trend continues for the two countries, with the US launching Explorer 6 on September 12, 1959, the first weather satellite, which obtained the first pictures of Earth from space as well. The USSR then responded with the launch of Luna II and succeeded in their mission of creating the first spacecraft to reach the surface of the Moon, and with the launch of Luna III, launching the satellite on October 4th, 1959 and photographing the Moon. Additionally, Sputnik 5 returned to Earth with dogs Belka and Strelka in August 1950. In response, the US sends Ham, a chimpanzee, to space and he becomes the first to survive the landing on January 31st, 1961. The tensions between the two countries were higher than ever, with the competition reaching mere weeks between launches.



American Response to Soviet Advances

Soviet space accomplishments served as a wake-up call to Americans who believed they were superior in science and technology. More federal funding for math and science instruction was one of the solutions. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA), passed by Congress in 1958, saw public education as a crucial aspect of the country's defense. The measure allocated \$800 million for state-level improvements in the teaching of the hard sciences as well as loans to college students. The act was split into ten titles, each of which dealt with a different topic. As an illustration, Title II dealt with provisions for student debt, whereas Title VI appropriated funds for the study of foreign languages deemed essential for "national security," such as Mandarin Chinese and Russian. Title III made improvements to a new Science Information Service operating under the National Science Foundation's aegis as a result of public education initiatives in science and mathematics as well as Title IX.

Soviet space accomplishments raised more concerns for US policymakers because they appeared to usher in a new stage of the arms race. The intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) that the Soviet Union developed to launch satellites into orbit could be used to transport nuclear warheads to targets in the United States. U.S. officials were compelled to reevaluate their entire doctrine



of war as nuclear war fears increased. As fears of a nuclear catastrophe were reflected and made worse by films, television programs like *The Twilight Zone*, and officially sanctioned propaganda, U.S. defense planners started to doubt the presumptions underpinning the doctrine of massive retaliation.



The United States was encouraged by many observers, including foreign policy analysts and Pentagon officials, to expand its own ICBM capabilities and close the alleged "missile gap." However, documents that were made public after the Soviet Union's collapse in 1991 revealed that the missile gap never actually existed and that the United States had maintained a clear superiority in missile technology even during the years of the most spectacular Soviet achievements in space, although these contemporary observers likely believed that the Soviet Union had surpassed the United States in missile technology and capabilities.

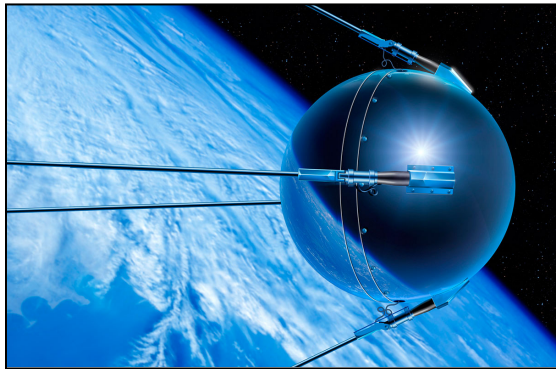
Issues at Hand

Widening Gaps

In the early 1950s, the Soviet Union conducted countless flights to gather useful intelligence about the United States using the state-of-the-art Lockheed U-2 spy plane which can cruise for many hours above 70,000 feet. Using the intelligence gathered by the Lockheed U-2 spy plane, the Soviets learned a jaw



dropping discovery that the United States had a greater nuclear arsenal advantage over them. However, studies conducted between 1955 and 1961 shed light on the reality that the Soviets were widening the educational gap between the United States and Soviet Union. To be exact, the Soviet Space Program was training two to three times as many scientists per year compared to the United States.



Launching of Sputnik 1

On October 4, 1957, the Soviet Space Program launched Sputnik 1 into an elliptical low Earth orbit. This was the first artificial Earth satellite to ever do so successfully and was a massive milestone for the Soviet Space Program. The R-7 rocket attached to Sputnik 1 that propelled it to low Earth orbit was initially designed as an intercontinental ballistic missile and was the most powerful in the world. It was designed with excess thrust since they were unsure how heavy the hydrogen bomb payload would be. Before its three silver-zinc batteries ran out, Sputnik 1 sent radio signals back to Earth for a staggering three weeks.

Sputnik Crisis

Sputnik 1's launch and orbit indicated that the Soviet Union had made a significant technological leap in the Space Race, which was perceived as a severe danger to US national security. The fact that the Soviets withheld a picture of the satellite for five days after flight contributed to the Sputnik Crisis. As a result, the United States immediately increased government spending on national security, research and development, and education. Education was a major sector that needed funding as the American Education System was reformed to focus on science and technology. In US President Eisenhower's own words, "we need scientists in the ten years ahead...scrutinize your school's curriculum and standards. Then decide for yourselves whether they meet the stern demands of the era we are entering."



Failed US Satellite Launch

Part of the United States response to the successful launch of Sputnik 1 was to accelerate the development of the US Navy's Project Vanguard to launch an American satellite into orbit. On December 6, 1957, the Vanguard Test Vehicle 3 rose about 4 feet into the air, then the main engine abruptly lost thrust and the rocket fell back onto the pad, exploding in a massive fireball. Immediately, the press called the failed attempt "Flopnik" and "Kaputnik," in reference to its successful Soviet counterpart. Subsequently, the United States' urgency to compete against the Soviet Space Program was becoming ever more apparent as they were starting to lose massive strides technologically.



Important Events

Rise in Militarism

There was a rise in militarism on both sides of the Cold War. Many influential government officials, both Soviet and American, were worried that they were the ones who were behind. They push for increased military spending and research, to ensure they are on the bleeding edge. These people would often want to defund their own space programs, and divert these funds to more military-centric avenues, such as ICBMs, new technology, or submarines. These efforts often also bleed into the space race, such as the US using ICBM boosters for many of its launch platforms. The people in charge of militaries want this, as they know that if they got more funding and attention, they could gain power.

In America, new president John F Kennedy endorsed a huge increase in military spending. He focused on special forces and his flexible response policy, which planned to avoid nuclear war with the Soviet Union. He also wanted a large build up of the US's nuclear arsenal, which many thought was falling behind. He approved hundreds of new ICBMs and many new nuclear-equipped submarines. He ignored Eisehhowers warnings about the military industrial complex, and focused on increasing arms. He was aided in this by Senior Aide General Clifton and Secretary of Defense McNamara.

In Russia, the ICBM and space program was ahead of America. Russia launched both the first ICBM and the first satellite, scaring Americans into a military and space frenzy. They caused the Americans to think that they were more behind than they actually were, which had the unfortunate effect of increasing American militarism. The leading cause of Russia's early start and militarism is the result of former minister of defense Georgy Zhukov and Commander Yazov, who campaigned for a stronger military. Zhukov in particular campaigned and achieved for more power over the military to the Soviet commanders rather than the politicians.