

**8th BURAK BORA ANATOLIAN HIGH SCHOOL
MODEL UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE 2026**

US SENATE

STUDY GUIDE AND RULES OF PROCEDURE

Under Secretary General: Defne Zengin

Academic Assistant: Elif Nisa Vural



Table of Contents

1. Letters From the Academic Team
2. Rules of Procedure
 - 2.1.
 - 2.2.
 - 2.3.
 - 2.4.
3. Introduction to the Committee: United States Senate
4. Agenda Item 1:Great Depression
 - 4.1 Introduction to the Agenda Item
 - 4.2 Causes of Great Depression
 - 4.3 Timeline of Key Events
 - 4.4 Past Actions
 - 4.5 Effects of Great Depression
5. Agenda Item 2:1980 Mariel Boatlift Crises
 - 5.1 Introduction to the Agenda Item
 - 5.2 Causes of the Crises
 - 5.3 Background Information&Timeline of Key Events
 - 5.4 Governments Response on the Crises
 - 5.5 Implemented Poliicies&Past Actions
 - 5.6 Effects of Mariel Boatlift

6. Further Reading

7. References

Dear delegates,

As the academic assistant of US Senate, I am pleased to welcome you all to our committee. It is a great honor to be a part of BBALMUN'26 this year, and I am looking forward to experience the tremendous three days we have ahead of us.

In this committee, we will be discussing two agenda items, which are "The Great Depression" and "The Mariel Boatlift". Throughout the conference, senators will exchange their views on these matters which have affected and are affecting the United States.

I sincerely hope for all of you to have a wonderful experience. With that being said, I also hope that our study guide will be a sufficient material for you to benefit from. If you have any questions or problems about the guide, please do not hesitate to contact me via e-mail.

Sincerely,

Elif Nisa Vural

elifnisavural34@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMITTEE:United States Senate

The United States Senate, one of the two chambers of Congress, serves as the upper house of the legislative branch of the federal government. Established by the US Constitution in 1789, as part of the Great Compromise, the Senate was designed to balance the representation of the states in federal governance. Whereas the House of Representatives was designed to reflect the population and respond quickly to public opinion, the Senate was intended to be a more deliberative body, offering stability, continuity, and protection against impulsive decision making. Regardless of size or population, each of the 50 states is represented equally by two senators who serve staggered six-year terms to ensure their sovereignty, making for a total of 100 senators in the senate,whereas senate will have total of 50,1 for each state,in the committee

The US Senate shares the responsibility of drafting and approving federal legislation with the House of Representatives, but it also exercises unique powers: ratifying treaties, confirming presidential appointments, and conducting impeachment trials. These responsibilities give the Senate direct influence over domestic and foreign affairs, the economy, and national governance. Beyond these formal powers, the Senate is known for its emphasis on debate, compromise, and long-term policy vision. Because senators serve six-year terms, they can focus on long-term policy goals rather than short-term political pressures.

As a legislative body, the Senate has historically been at the center of national reform efforts. It debates and passes laws that shape the nation's economic direction, regulate industries, and determine the rights and responsibilities of citizens. During times of national crisis, the Senate has often acted as a stabilizing institution, providing funding, oversight, and legislative solutions to restore stability and growth. In this committee, delegates will take on the roles of US senators working within the traditions of rigorous debate, negotiation, and respect for procedure that define the Senate. The aim is to simulate the legislative process that has shaped pivotal moments in American history and continues to influence domestic and international affairs today.

INTRODUCTION TO THE AGENDA ITEM: GREAT DEPRESSION

The Great Depression was a severe global economic crisis from 1929 to 1939. It began in the United States following the stock market crash of October 1929, which triggered widespread financial panic and bank failures. Within a few years, industrial output had plummeted and millions of Americans lost their homes, savings, and livelihoods. At the height of the Depression in 1933, 25% of the nation's total work force were unemployed. This number translated to roughly 15 million unemployed Americans in 1933, whereas number was increasing

While the Depression originated in the US, its effects quickly spread worldwide, causing a collapse in global trade, declining prices for agricultural goods and political instability in several countries. In the US, it exposed deep structural weaknesses in the economy; including overproduction, uneven wealth distribution and fragile banking systems.

The significance of the Great Depression lies not only in its economic impact, but also in the questions it raised about the responsibilities of the federal government. For the US Senate, this crisis represents a defining opportunity to deliberate on the limits and powers of government intervention in the economy. As one of the two legislative chambers responsible for shaping national policy, the Senate has a direct role in determining how the country should confront large scale crises, balancing the need for immediate relief with the long-term goal of economic recovery and stability.

Debates surrounding this issue extend far beyond the realm of finance. The Great Depression challenges fundamental ideas about social welfare, fiscal responsibility, and the federal government's relationship with both citizens and private industry. The Senate must consider how government resources should be used, how to restore public confidence, and how to reform economic systems without undermining individual enterprise. These questions involve moral, political, and constitutional dimensions that continue to shape American political thought.

CAUSES OF GREAT DEPRESSION

- **Financial Speculation**

Throughout the 1920's, the US stock market experienced rapid growth. Buying stocks were very popular among the US citizens not because the companies were genuinely earning more money, but because it was believed that the prices would keep rising. The high amount of stock purchases resulted in stock prices going up far above their real economic value. A major factor was also that investors were buying these stocks on margin. Citizens could borrow most of the money needed to buy stocks, often paying only a small percentage of said money upfront. As long as prices kept rising, this was extremely profitable. However, it also created huge vulnerability and instability^{00*} as the market became heavily built on debt. Banks were lending money freely to customers so they could buy stocks, and many banks themselves were involved in speculative trading. Regulation was minimal, and there was no federal insurance for deposits. When stock prices fell, both investors and banks were exposed simultaneously. By late 1929, investors began to worry that stock prices were too high. Selling intensified. When prices dropped a little, brokers demanded

repayment. Investors who couldn't repay had their stocks sold automatically and those sales pushed prices down even further.

- **bank failures and financial panic**

During the 1920's, the United States lacked federal deposit insurance, meaning that if a bank failed, depositors would lose their savings entirely. When the stock market collapsed, the sense of insecurity quickly spread through the financial system. As stock prices plummeted and loans tied to those investments faced heavy losses, banks began to close their doors one by one. Each failure fueled public anxiety, and even people whose banks were financially stable rushed to withdraw their money, fearing they would be next. These bank runs drained institutions of the cash they needed to operate, forcing them to shut down and triggering further waves of panic. This chain reaction turned individual bank failures into a nationwide crisis. As confidence in the financial system deteriorated, credit became insufficient. Businesses could no longer secure loans for everyday operations, farmers struggled to finance planting and equipment, and families found themselves cut off from basic financial services. With credit frozen and money increasingly hoarded, economic activity slowed dramatically. Unemployment soared, production declined, and the crisis deepened.

- **overproduction and declining demand**

The imbalance between production levels and consumer demand that emerged in the late 1920's was an important factor among the events which led to the Great Depression. During this period, technological advances and industrial growth allowed factories and farms to produce goods at unprecedented rates. For some time, this rise in production supported economic growth and rising corporate profits. However, the capacity to produce goods began to exceed the public's ability to buy them. Wages for many workers did not keep pace with industrial profits, leaving large segments of the population without the purchasing power needed to absorb the growing supply of goods. As inventories grew, companies cut back on production and laid off workers, which weakened demand even more. The decline in demand created a cycle of contraction. Reduced purchasing power led to fewer sales, which triggered layoffs and wage reductions.

- **unequal distribution of wealth**

During the time of the “Roaring Twenties”; although the decade is often remembered as a time of economic growth and prosperity, that prosperity was not shared evenly. A small percentage of individuals and corporations controlled a large share of the nation’s income and wealth, while the majority of workers earned relatively low wages. This imbalance meant that while the wealthy could afford luxury goods and investments, the broader population did not have enough purchasing power to sustain long-term economic growth. Most households spent nearly all of what they earned on basic necessities, leaving little room for saving or investment. As production increased and profits rose for businesses, consumer spending failed to keep pace. The unequal distribution of wealth also weakened the economy's ability to recover once the downturn began. When financial hardship struck, lower and middle income families had few reserves to rely on, leading to a rapid collapse in consumer confidence. Wealthier individuals, meanwhile, often withdrew from investment or spending due to uncertainty, which further reduced overall economic activity.

- **high tariffs and declining international trade**

In the years following World War I; many countries, including the United States, sought to protect their domestic industries by imposing high import tariffs. While the intention behind these policies was to protect American businesses and farmers from foreign competition, the effect was the opposite. Other nations retaliated by raising their own tariffs on American exports, leading to a rapid decline in international trade. Global markets contracted as countries turned inward, prioritizing domestic production over cooperation and exchange. For export dependent industries, especially manufacturing and resource sectors, this decline in trade meant shrinking markets and massive job losses. The decrease in global trade also damaged international relations and limited economic recovery efforts. Many nations relied on trade to repay war debts and rebuild their economies after World War I. When trade collapsed, these countries faced deeper financial distress, which in turn affected banks and investors worldwide. The global economy became increasingly isolated, and economic problems in one region quickly spread to others.

- **drought and agricultural collapse**

During the early 1930s, severe drought conditions struck large parts of the central and southern United States, particularly the Great Plains region. Years of

over-farming and poor soil management had already weakened the land, and when the drought began, it quickly turned vast areas of farmland into dry, barren ground. Winds carried away the topsoil, creating massive dust storms that devastated entire communities in what became known as the Dust Bowl. The drought led to widespread crop failures, leaving farmers unable to produce enough to sustain their livelihoods or repay their debts. Many lost their land and were forced to abandon their farms in search of work elsewhere. This agricultural collapse reduced the supply of food in some regions while eliminating a major source of income for millions of rural families. As farmers' purchasing power declined, demand for manufactured goods and services also fell, further weakening the national economy. Beyond its economic effects, the agricultural crisis caused a large scale displacement of people, as families migrated from the affected areas to other parts of the country in search of stability. This migration placed additional strain on urban centers already struggling with unemployment and poverty.

- **financial policy mistakes by the federal reserve**

As the central bank, the Federal Reserve was responsible for managing the nation's money supply and maintaining financial stability. In the years leading up to the depression, the Federal Reserve raised interest rates in an attempt to restrain stock market speculation. While this move was intended to prevent reckless investment, it also made borrowing more expensive for businesses and consumers, slowing economic activity. When the stock market crashed in 1929, the Federal Reserve failed to act aggressively to stabilize the banking system. Instead of increasing the money supply to support struggling banks and prevent panic, it allowed credit to decrease. As banks failed and depositors withdrew their savings, the overall amount of money circulating in the economy fell sharply. This caused prices and wages to drop, further reducing consumer spending and business profits. With less money available even financially stable institutions found it difficult to operate, leading to more closures and layoffs. By not intervening quickly and decisively, the Federal Reserve allowed a temporary financial crisis to escalate into a prolonged depression.

- **gold standard**

Under the gold standard a country's currency was directly tied to a fixed quantity of gold, meaning that governments could only issue as much money as they had

gold reserves to back it. While this system was originally intended to promote stability and trust in national currencies, it also severely restricted the flexibility of governments and central banks during times of economic crisis. When the depression began, countries adhering to the gold standard found themselves unable to expand their money supply. In the US and other major economies, this limitation meant that central banks could not easily lower interest rates or provide sufficient liquidity to struggling banks and businesses. As deflation took hold and prices fell, maintaining the gold standard became increasingly difficult. The situation was further complicated by the fact that many countries sought to protect their gold reserves by raising interest rates and reducing imports. These measures worsened domestic economic conditions by discouraging borrowing and spending. International trade also suffered as nations prioritized maintaining their gold reserves over supporting economic recovery.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW,KEY EVENTS

- Wall Street Crash – 24 October 1929

Often regarded as the immediate trigger of the Great Depression, the Wall Street Crash of 1929 is one of the most severe financial collapses in modern economic history. The crash reflected deep rooted weaknesses within the United States economy and put an end to the era of post World War I prosperity. In its aftermath, global markets experienced widespread turmoil, altering the course of political and economic policy for the decade that followed.

Up until the disaster, the USA had built its economy mostly on empty funds as taking out loans was very popular and encouraged among citizens. Concerns over slowing industrial output and uneven distribution of wealth triggered uncertainty, causing investors to reconsider the inflated values of their assets. On the 24th of October, "Black Thursday", panic selling began as investors rushed to withdraw their money, with the fear of an imminent downturn. Although a brief recovery followed, confidence did not return. On the 28th and 29th of October, USA witnessed a catastrophic collapse in stock values with billions of

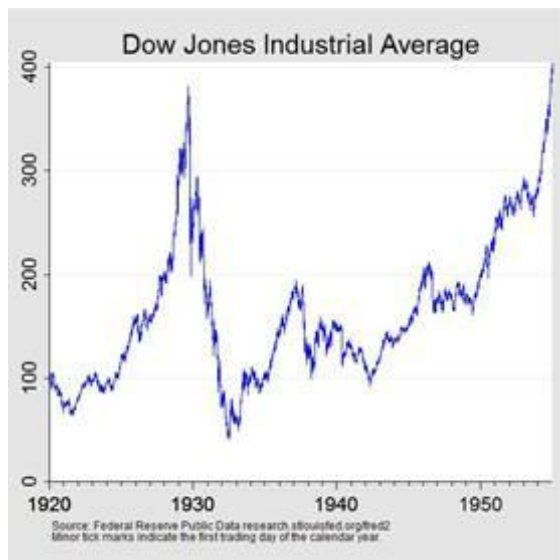
dollars lost in just a few days. By mid november stock prices had fallen to levels unmatched in the previous decade, leaving countless investors bankrupt and financial institutions overwhelmed.

As major banks failed and credit lines collapsed, businesses encountered severe difficulty in financing operations; leading to mass layoffs, factory closures and a rapid decline in industrial output. Consumer spending plummeted which deepened the cycle of economic decline. The crisis quickly spread internationally due to interconnected trade, investment, and credit networks; contributing to a global recession that would shape economic policy and social conditions throughout the 1930s.

- Stock Market Crash – 29October 1929

The Stock Market Crash of 1929 marked a critical turning point in global economic history and is widely regarded as the event that triggered the Great Depression. During the 1920s, the USA had experienced a period of prosperity known as the “Roaring Twenties”; during which industrial production, technological innovation, and consumer spending rapidly expanded. the American stock market had become a symbol of economic optimism, encouraging widespread investment among both large corporations and ordinary citizens. High consumer confidence, along with easy access to credit, led to excessive speculation, where many investors purchased stocks not for long term value but for short term profit. A significant proportion of this investment was built on borrowed funds, which unpreventably resulted in the creation of an unstable financial situation. As stock prices rose far beyond the actual value they presented, the market became greatly fragile and vulnerable to sudden shifts in confidence.

On Black Monday, October 28 1929, the Dow declined nearly 13 percent. On the following day, Black Tuesday, the market dropped nearly 12 percent. By mid november, the Dow had lost almost half of its value. The slide continued through the summer of 1932, when the Dow closed at 41.22, its lowest value of the twentieth century, 89 percent below its peak. The Dow did not return to its pre-crash heights until November 1954. As prices continued to fall countless investors were unable to repay margin loans, leading to widespread bank failures, business bankruptcies, and steep unemployment.



The crash itself did not solely create the Great Depression, but it acted as a major disaster that exposed underlying weaknesses within the economy. In the months and years that followed, the United States and the world faced a prolonged period of economic contraction, deflation and social hardship.

- 1933 – The New Deal

In March 1933, the United States was at the height of the Great Depression; banks had collapsed, unemployment exceeded 25%, industrial output had fallen sharply and public confidence in the government was at a historic low. Upon taking office, US President Franklin D. Roosevelt introduced the “New Deal”, a sweeping program designed to counter the severe economic downturn caused by the Great Depression. The New Deal marked a significant shift in the role of government, expanding federal responsibility in taking action to bring immediate economic relief as well as reforms in industry, agriculture, finance, waterpower, labour and housing; vastly increasing the scope of the federal government’s activities. This was one of the most significant expansions of federal authority in US’ history and reshaped the country’s social, economic and political landscape.

The early phase of the New Deal concentrated on immediate stabilization. In the early years of the Depression; widespread bank failures had destroyed savings and reduced the availability of credit, causing economic contraction to deepen. Through measures such as the Emergency Banking Act and the creation of the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation the government restored public trust in banks by regulating financial institutions and guaranteeing deposits. The New Deal also sought to address mass unemployment through large scale public

works and job creation programs. Agencies such as the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Public Works Administration and the Works Progress Administration provided millions of Americans with employment in various projects. These programs offered immediate relief, injected wages into the economy and helped stimulate demand at a time when private investment remained weak. In addition; the construction of roads, bridges, schools and dams contributed to long term economic development. In the agricultural sector, the New Deal attempted to combat collapsing prices and rural poverty, which had been worsened by overproduction and environmental disaster. The Agricultural Adjustment Act aimed to raise farm incomes by reducing surplus through production controls and subsidies. Although uneven in it's impact, the policy reflected a broader New Deal goal of stabilizing key sectors of the economy rather than allowing market forces alone to dictate outcomes during crisis.

Another significant action of the New Deal was the expansion of social welfare and labor protections. The Social Security Act of 1935 established old age pensions, unemployment insurance and aid to vulnerable populations; creating a safety net that had not previously existed. At the same time, labor legislation such as the Wagner Act strengthened workers' rights to organize and bargain collectively; increasing union membership and improving wages and working conditions in many industries. These reforms helped rebalance economic power between employers and workers and contributed to greater income security.

- 2. WORLD WAR

While the New Deal eased the worst effects of the Great Depression and reshaped the American economic system, it did not fully restore the US economy to pre crisis levels. The definitive end of the depression came with the onset of World War II, which generated a surge in industrial production, government spending and employment. Wartime mobilization triggered profound social and labor changes within the United States. Millions of men and women joined the armed forces and even larger numbers began working in well paying defense jobs. Factories expanded rapidly to produce weapons, vehicles and supplies, creating millions of jobs and absorbing the remaining unemployed workforce. Government expenditures skyrocketed, far surpassing New Deal budgets, and the demand for labor opened new opportunities for women and minority workers in sectors previously inaccessible to them. By the early 1940's, unemployment had dropped greatly, industrial output reached record levels and

the USA entered a period of sustained economic growth. Therefore, World War acted as the final catalyst that lifted the US out of the Depression, complementing and completing the structural reforms initiated under the New Deal.

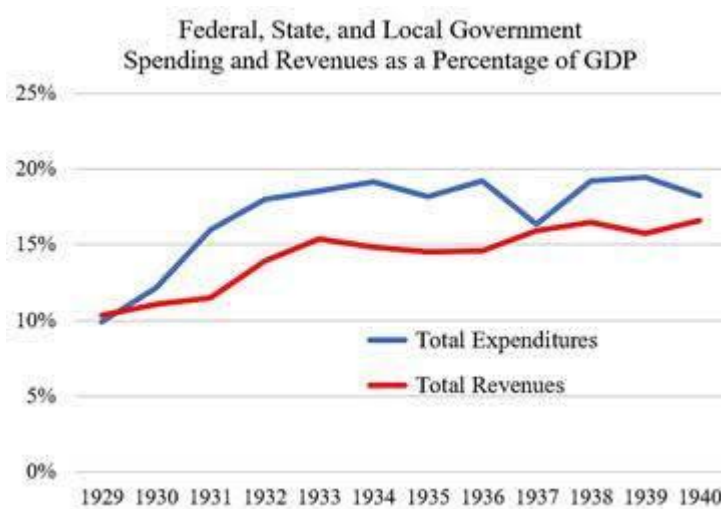
PAST ACTIONS, IMPLEMENTED POLICIES

- **Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC)¹⁴**

With the intent of boosting aggregate demand and providing jobs to the unemployed segment of the United States' population, the financial support and spendings regarding the aftermath of the Great Depression provided by the US federal government increased approximately by a percentage of 42 (which represents the difference of federal spending between the before and during the time of the New Deal). In order to lift the economy out of depression, many actions were taken by the legislative bodies of the US. The congress established the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in 1932, an agency intended to have the authority of issuing emergency loans to banks, railroads, and farmers threatened with insolvency. The RFC was a major shift towards the federal government taking responsibility for economic recovery. Its scope soon expanded and it began lending money to state and local governments to finance public infrastructure projects. The purpose of the RFC program was to provide relief to the economic turmoil that marked the early years of the Great Depression, thus stabilizing the disaster. The RFC's financial aid helped prevent further financial collapse and reduced the panic in the financial system by keeping major institutions afloat. While this program set a precedent for future programs regarding economic recovery, many individuals did not feel immediate benefits and relief as it helped businesses more than the unemployed Americans; leading to calls for broader relief programs.

- **Taxes to pay for new programs**

During the Great Depression, tax policies were aligned with the objectives of the US government regarding economic recovery, in order to help the funding of new federal programs and reshaping the economic inequality. The Revenue Act of 1932 raised tax rates sharply, with the rate on top incomes rising from 25 percent to 63 percent. This act was an attempt to balance the federal budget, though it is criticized for discouraging consumer spending, therefore worsening the economic downturn. As the New Deal programs expanded, the federal government enacted the Revenue Act of 1935, conforming to the need of new and more stable sources of income. It increased taxes on high income earners, based on the idea that the wealthy has a greater capacity to pay.



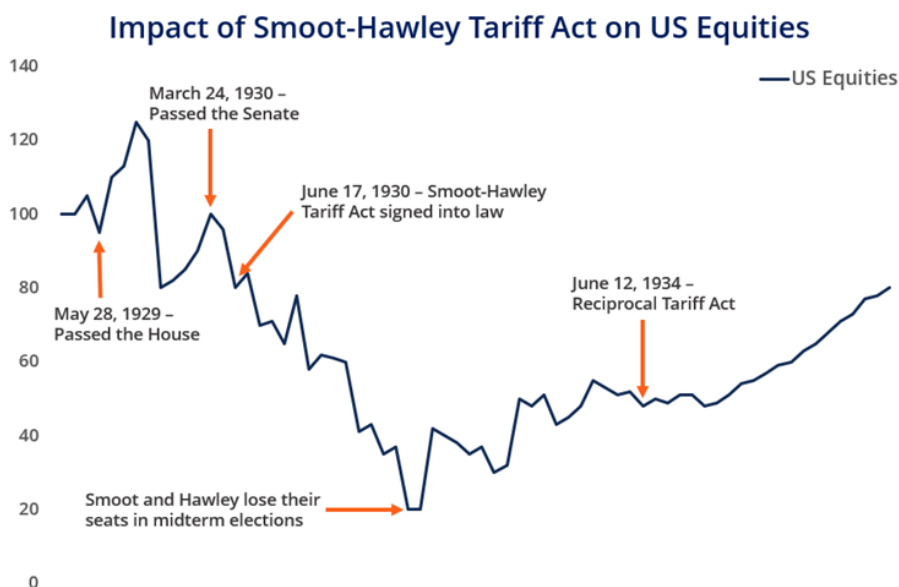
- **A ban on immigration in 1930 to keep low-sikilled workers from flooding the labor market**

Around 1930, the United States strictly prohibited immigration in an effort to protect jobs for native born workers and stabilize wages during a period of massive unemployment. Even though there was no law passed in 1930 that outright banned immigration, the federal government implemented a de facto ban through strict enforcement and policy decisions. This approach built on earlier legislation, especially the Immigration Act of 1924, which had already limited immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe and almost completely excluded Asian immigrants. The government went further in 1930 by instructing consular officials to deny visas to applicants likely to become “public charges”, meaning people who might depend on government relief. Since unemployment was soaring and social welfare resources were limited, this

policy effectively blocked most low skilled and poor immigrants from entering the country. The rationale behind these restrictions was economic. With unemployment reaching 25% by 1933, the government feared that immigrant workers would increase competition for jobs and drive wages even lower.

- [Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act of 1930](#) (HOOVER VAR 4 unde ?) biraz da key event gibi

The Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act was an US law that significantly raised tariffs on more than 20,000 imported goods. It was named after Senator Reed Smoot and Representative Willis C. Hawley, who sponsored the bill. At the time, it represented one of the highest tariff levels in American history. The main goal of this policy was to protect american farmers and manufacturers from foreign competition. After World War I, US agriculture was already struggling with low prices and overproduction and policymakers believed that making imported goods more expensive would encourage Americans to buy domestic products. Instead of helping, the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act made the Great Depression worse. Other countries responded by imposing retaliatory tariffs on American goods and this led to a sharp decline in international trade, US exports and imports both fell dramatically in the early 1930s. As global trade contracted, American farmers and manufacturers lost foreign markets, production slowed further, and unemployment increased.



- The Social Security Act 1935 (newdeal içinde)

The Social Security Act, signed into law by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1935, established a national system of social insurance in the United States. It created programs to provide old age pensions, unemployment insurance and financial assistance to vulnerable groups; including widows, orphans, people with disabilities and the elderly poor. For the first time, the federal government took long term responsibility for protecting citizens against economic insecurity. The primary purpose was to address the widespread poverty, unemployment and insecurity caused by the Great Depression. Millions of Americans had lost their savings, jobs and homes; and many elderly people were left without any means of support. The government aimed to provide a safety net that would prevent people from falling into extreme poverty and to restore public confidence in the economic system. It also sought to stabilize the economy by ensuring that people would have some income during periods of unemployment or old age. This act helped ease the social impact of the Great Depression by providing direct financial support to those most affected by economic hardship. Unemployment insurance offered temporary income to jobless workers while old age pensions reduced poverty among the elderly. These measures increased consumer purchasing power, which helped stimulate demand and support economic recovery.

- The New Deal Policies 1933

The New Deal Policies were not a single law but a collection of programs, laws and reforms aimed at stabilizing the economy, providing immediate relief to suffering Americans and preventing future economic collapse. It marked a major expansion of the federal government's role in economic and social life. The main purpose of the New Deal was to confront the crisis through relief, recovery and reform. Relief measures aimed to provide immediate assistance to millions of unemployed and impoverished Americans, while recovery programs sought to revive industrial and agricultural production and stimulate economic growth. Reform policies focused on correcting structural weaknesses in the financial system in order to prevent future economic disasters. As a result the unemployment percentages began to improve, wages and consumer spending slowly increased and confidence in banks and markets was restored. Most importantly, the New Deal helped stabilize the economy and reduced widespread suffering, while creating institutions and regulations that continued to shape the US economy long after the depression ended.

- Public investments, job creation programs (Tennessee Valley Authority, WPA, CCC)

Public investments and job creation programs were among the most visible parts of the New Deal. Through initiatives such as the Tennessee Valley Authority, the government invested in large scale infrastructure projects, including dams and power plants which brought electricity, flood control and economic development to impoverished rural regions. Programs like the Works Progress Administration (WPA) and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) directly employed millions of Americans in construction, environmental conservation and public works. These programs helped stimulate demand and economic activity by reducing unemployment and injecting money into the economy.

- Banking reforms

As the financial system had been deeply damaged by bank failures and public panic, banking reforms were another crucial component of the New Deal. Measures such as temporary bank closures and federal inspections helped restore stability while the creation of the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) protected individual savings and rebuilt trust in banks. The separation of commercial and investment banking reduced risky financial practices, contributing to long term financial security and preventing widespread bank collapses.

- Agricultural subsidies (AAA)

Agricultural policy under the New Deal focused on stabilizing farm prices and incomes through the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA). By paying farmers to reduce production, the US government aimed to decrease oversupply and raise crop prices. Although the policy was controversial, especially during a time of food shortages, it succeeded in increasing farm incomes and slowing the economic decline in rural areas. However, it often favored large landowners over small farmers and tenant workers, revealing the limits of New Deal agricultural reforms.

- Relief (Immediate Aid):

Relief was the part of the New Deal focused on immediate aid for people suffering during the Great Depression. With unemployment at historic levels and many families unable to meet basic needs; relief aimed to reduce hunger, homelessness and extreme poverty. It was intended to address the pressing crisis rather than to permanently fix the economy. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration (**FERA**), founded in 1933, was one of the major relief programs. FERA provided direct federal funding to state and local governments, allowing them to distribute cash, food, clothing and shelter to the unemployed. This marked a significant change in US policy as the federal government took direct responsibility for helping citizens rather than leaving relief efforts to charities or local authorities alone. Through great efforts by the government, relief programs played an essential role in easing suffering during the early years of the Great Depression.

- **Reform** (Long-Term Stability):

Reform referred to long term changes meant to prevent another Great Depression. While relief helped people immediately and recovery tried to restart the economy, reform focused on fixing weaknesses in the financial and industrial system that had contributed to the 1929 crash. The goal was to create a more stable and regulated economic system. One important change came in the banking system. After thousands of banks failed in the early 1930s, the government passed new legislation that created the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (**FDIC**). The FDIC's purpose was to insure individual bank deposits, guaranteeing that customers would not lose their savings if a bank collapsed. This corporation restored confidence in banks and reduced panic.

withdrawals and became a permanent safeguard in American banking. Financial markets were also restructured.

The stock market crash had exposed fraud, insider trading and a lack of reliable information for investors. In response, Congress established the Securities and Exchange Commission (**SEC**) in 1934. The SEC was created to regulate the stock market and prevent manipulation and unfair trading practices. It demanded companies to disclose accurate financial information. This commission provided greater transparency and stronger oversight of Wall Street, which helped rebuild investor confidence.

Reform also addressed labor relations. Many workers had little protection against unfair practices by employers and tension between labor and management was high. **The Wagner Act of 1935** strengthened workers' rights by guaranteeing their ability to form unions and engage in collective bargaining. It also created the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) to enforce these rights. As a result, union membership increased significantly and workers gained more influence in negotiating wages and working conditions.

By protecting bank deposits, regulating financial markets and supporting labor rights, the government aimed to create a more stable, fair and resilient economy that could better withstand future crises.

- Recovery (Economic Restoration):

Recovery, part of the New Deal, refers to the US government's efforts of reviving the economy and returning it to normal levels of production, employment and consumer confidence during the Great Depression. To achieve recovery the federal government increased spending, invested in large scale projects and supported key sectors of the economy. The idea was that when people had jobs and income, they would spend money; which would in turn help businesses

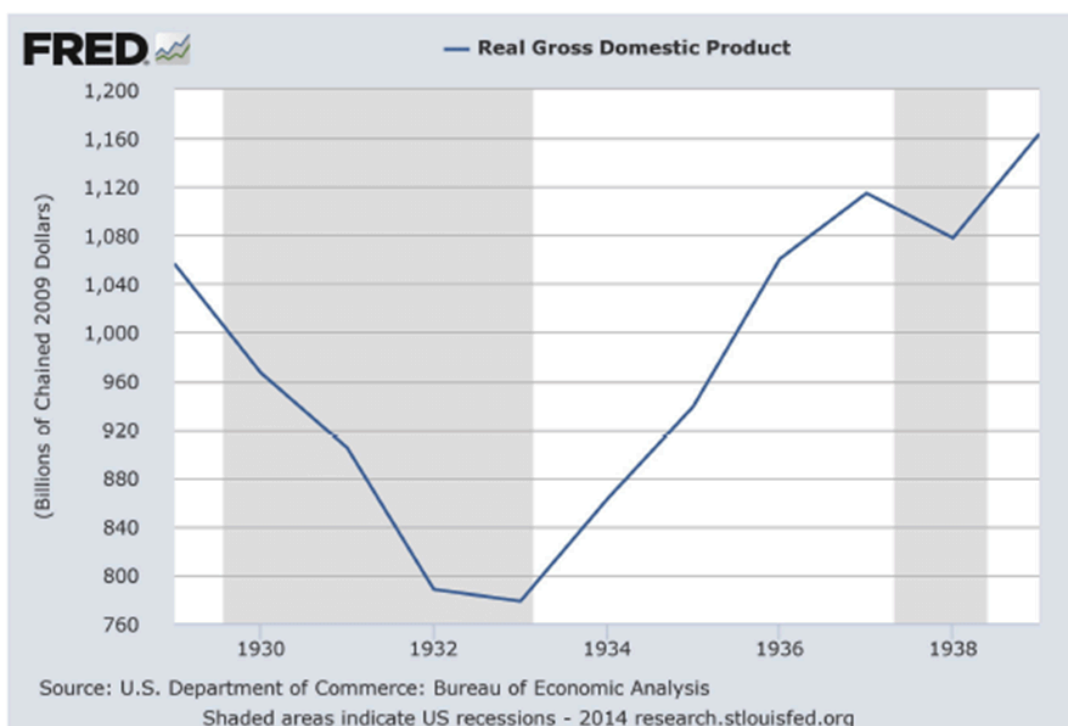
grow and reduce unemployment. Recovery policies also tried to stabilize prices and wages to prevent further economic collapse. These programs slowed the downward spiral, improved economic conditions and laid the groundwork for later growth. One of the most important recovery efforts was the National Industrial Recovery Act (**NIRA**), passed in 1933. The NIRA's main purpose was to stabilize businesses and protect workers by reducing destructive competition. The law encouraged industries to create codes of fair competition which set standards for prices, production levels, wages and working hours. This was meant to stop businesses from cutting wages and prices so drastically that the economy kept shrinking. NIRA also aimed to improve workers' conditions by recognizing labor rights, including the right to form unions and bargain collectively. In terms of effects, the NIRA had mixed results. It brought some short term stability and boosted worker morale, but many businesses found the laws complicated and hard to enforce. In 1935, the Supreme Court declared NIRA unconstitutional, ending the program.

AFFECTS

- economical

After the stock market crash in October 1929, business confidence in the USA fell sharply. Investors lost billions of dollars, companies reduced expansion plans and banks became more cautious about lending money. The economy entered a severe downward spiral as spending declined. The economic descent was the severe decline in Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Between 1929 and 1933, US economic leading many to cut production or shut down entirely. When companies closed, output fell by nearly 1/3. Businesses across the country experienced falling profits, workers lost their jobs which, in return, further reduced consumer spending. This created a cycle in which lower demand led to lower production, causing even more unemployment and poverty.

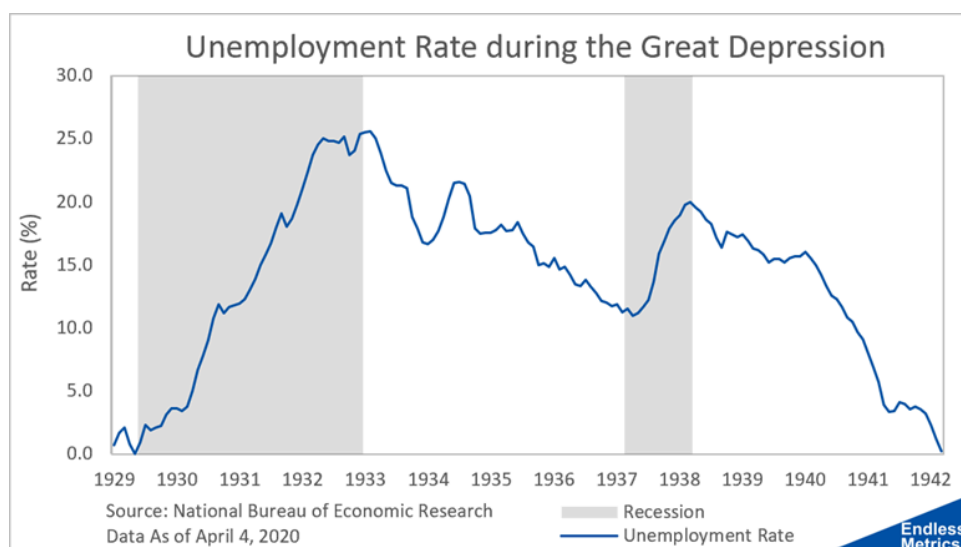
Investment collapsed during this period as well. Both individuals and businesses were unwilling or unable to invest money because of the failure of the banks and the instability of the stock market. Industrial expansion slowed severely, construction projects stopped and economic growth stalled. International trade declined as well, partly because of high tariffs like the Smoot-Hawley Tariff, which reduced global commerce and worsened the downturn. At the same time, deflation became another serious problem. Prices for goods and services fell because demand was very low. While lower prices seem positive, deflation hurt businesses and farmers who earned less income while still owing debts at fixed amounts. This increased bankruptcies and financial instability.



- Unemployment in the U.S.

Businesses in the US began losing money as a result of the Great Depression as consumer demand dropped sharply. In response, businesses lowered wages, decreased output and eventually laid off workers. As more businesses closed, unemployment was rising rapidly. By 1933, approximately 25% of the American workforce (around roughly 15 million people) were unemployed, the highest level in US history at that time. The problem wasn't only the number of people without jobs but also the length of unemployment. Many individuals remained jobless for years, exhausting their savings and struggling to provide for their

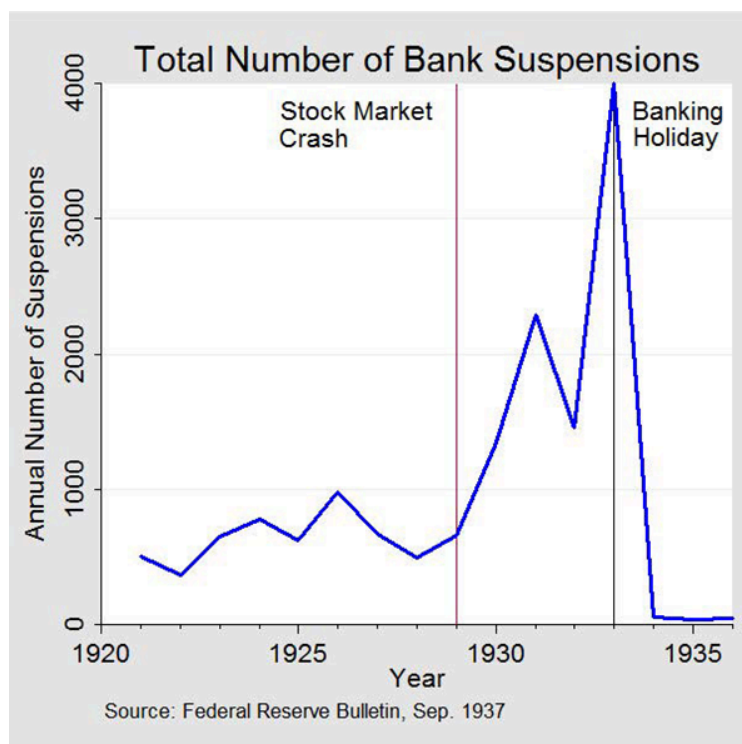
families. There was no federal unemployment insurance at the beginning of the Depression so people had very little financial protection. Families often relied on local charities, soup kitchens or community support to survive. Even those who kept their jobs were affected. Many workers experienced reduced hours and wage cuts, which lowered overall household income. This further decreased consumer spending and contributed to the continuing economic decline. Skilled workers frequently had to accept low paying or temporary jobs far below their qualifications. Young people entering the workforce faced especially severe challenges as there were very few opportunities available. Unemployment also varied by region and industry. Industrial cities were hit particularly hard as factories shut down. Agricultural areas suffered when falling crop prices forced farmers off their land, pushing many into migrant labor. Certain groups, including African Americans and immigrants, often faced even higher unemployment rates due to discrimination and limited opportunities.



- Collapse of banks

In the late 1920s and early 1930s, banks played a central role in the economy by holding people's savings and providing loans to businesses and individuals. However, when the stock market crashed in 1929 many banks were heavily affected because they had invested depositors' money in the market or had loaned money to investors who could no longer repay their debts. Between 1929 and 1933, approximately 10,000 banks failed across the US. When a bank closed, customers often lost all of their savings because there were no deposit insurances at the time. This wiped out the savings of millions of Americans and

caused the destruction of the public's trust in the financial system. People who still had money often chose to keep it at home rather than deposit it in banks, further reducing the amount of money available for loans and economic activity. The collapse of banks had a wide economic impact too. Without stable banks; businesses couldn't obtain loans to expand or even continue operating, farmers couldn't borrow money for seeds and equipment and consumers couldn't access credit to make purchases. The shortage of credit slowed economic activity even more. The banking crisis reached its peak in early 1933, when panic was so widespread that President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared a national bank holiday, temporarily closing banks to prevent further bank runs. The collapse of the banking system ultimately led to major reforms designed to restore stability and public confidence in the American economy.



- Decline in agricultural and industrial production

With the decline in demand from 1929 onwards, factories and farms found themselves producing more goods than people could afford to buy. This imbalance between supply and demand led to decreasing prices, reduced output and widespread financial losses. In the industrial sector, production fell significantly. The industries that were most affected included the steel industry, the car industry, the construction industry and the machinery industry. For

instance, the production of cars fell significantly as families delayed large purchases. Factories reduced working hours or shut down completely because there was no market for their goods. Between 1929 and 1933, industrial production fell by nearly half. This not only affected the profits of the companies, but the resulting unemployment also affected the market, thus creating the economic crisis. Agriculture faced its own crisis. Even before the depression began, many farmers were struggling with debt from overproduction during the 1920s. When the depression hit, crop prices collapsed because demand decreased both domestically and internationally. Farmers earned far less for products like wheat, corn and cotton; sometimes not even enough to cover the cost of production. As a result, many were unable to repay loans, leading to farm foreclosures and loss of land. The situation in rural areas became even worse due to environmental disasters such as the Dust Bowl in the mid 1930s. Severe drought and poor farming practices led to massive dust storms that destroyed crops and made land unusable in parts of the Great Plains. Thousands of farmers were forced to migrate in search of work, particularly to western states like California. The decline in both industrial and agricultural production created a destructive cycle. As factories and farms produced less, workers earned less income. With lower incomes, people could not afford to buy goods, resulting to the further reduction of demand and production.

Prices in the Great Depression



Source: National Bureau of Economic Research, Macrobistory Database.

- Social effects

The Great Depression had profound social effects on American society. As unemployment increased and income was nonexistent for many, millions of families were faced with the challenge of struggling to provide even the basic necessities such as food, shelter and clothing for their families. Poverty became a major challenge, not only for industrial workers but also for farmers, small business owners and the middle class, who had previously been financially stable. There was a significant change in the standard quality of life of the American people. Homelessness increased sharply during the early 1930s. Families who couldn't pay rent or mortgages were evicted from their homes. Some moved in with relatives to survive, while others lived in makeshift settlements known as Hoovervilles, named after President Herbert Hoover. These communities often lacked proper sanitation, electricity and clean water due to the severity of economic hardship. Hunger and malnutrition came to be serious concerns. Soup kitchens and breadlines, often organized by charities and religious groups, became common sights in cities. Children were particularly affected as many suffered from poor nutrition and limited access to healthcare. In rural areas, farmers faced not only financial loss but also emotional stress as they lost land that had often been in their families for generations. Migration greatly increased during this period. Thousands of families, especially from regions which were affected by the Dust Bowl, moved west in search of work. This movement created tension in some communities where jobs were already limited. Minority groups often faced even greater hardship due to discrimination and unequal access to employment opportunities. Family life was also deeply affected. Marriage rates declined because many couples felt they could not afford to start families and birth rates fell during the worst years of the Depression. Some families were separated when parents traveled long distances in search of work. Young people often left school early to try to support their households, even though jobs were scarce. Emotionally and psychologically, the depression lowered national morale. Many Americans lost faith in the economic system.

- Political consequences

As the economic crisis deepened in the early 1930s, many Americans grew dissatisfied with the government's response under President Herbert Hoover. Hoover believed in limited federal intervention and encouraged voluntary cooperation between businesses and local governments. However, as

unemployment rose and poverty spread, many citizens felt that these measures were insufficient to address the scale of the crisis. The public's frustration led to an important political shift in the election of 1932 when Franklin D. Roosevelt won a decisive victory by promising a New Deal for the Americans. His election marked a turning point in American political history, as voters supported a more active and interventionist federal government. The Democratic Party achieved large majorities in Congress which allowed Roosevelt to enact his legislation for relief, recovery and reform. One of the most important political consequences of the depression was the expansion of federal power. Before the 1930s, the federal government had played a relatively limited role in economic management and social welfare. During the New Deal, however, the government took responsibility for regulating banks and financial markets, supporting farmers and workers and creating public employment programs. This shift permanently changed expectations about the government's role in protecting economic stability and social welfare. The depression also reshaped political coalitions. Roosevelt built an alliance known as the New Deal Coalition, which included urban workers, farmers, labor unions, immigrants and African Americans in northern cities. This coalition influenced American politics for decades and strengthened the Democratic Party's influence. In addition, tensions were rising between the executive branch and the Supreme Court. Several early New Deal laws were declared unconstitutional, leading Roosevelt to propose reforms to the Court in order to protect his policies. These conflicts demonstrated how deeply the depression affected the balance of political power.

AGENDA ITEM 2: 1980 MARIEL BOATLIFT CRISIS

Introduction to the Agenda Item

The Mariel boatlift was a mass emigration of Cubans who traveled to the United States between April 15 and October 31, 1980. The event was named after Cuba's Mariel Harbor, from which the migrants departed. On April 1, 1980, when a group of six Cubans drove a city bus through the gates of the Peruvian embassy seeking political asylum, Peruvian officials refused to hand them over to Cuban police. In response, Fidel Castro announced the withdrawal of all

Cuban guards from the embassy. Without guards, more than 10 000 Cubans flooded into the embassy grounds. Later on, Castro announced that anyone who wished to leave Cuba could do so if another country granted them entry. Soon after Castro's declarations upon the matter, many Cuban Americans began making arrangements to pick up refugees from the Mariel Harbor. Around 1,700 boats were organized which brought thousands of Cubans from Mariel to Florida between the months of April and October in that year.

After the United States declared their willingness to receive Cuban refugees, around 125,000 Cuban migrants arrived in a short period of time, most settling in Miami and other parts of Florida. This sudden increase in population placed pressure on housing, jobs, schools and public services. At the same time, the US government faced criticism from the public because among the migrants were not only political refugees but also some prisoners and people released from Cuban mental institutions by Fidel Castro. The event became an important issue in American politics as people debated immigration policy and how the government should respond to large refugee movements.

The Mariel boatlift was a significant event in the history of migration and international relations. The Mariel boatlift changed both the relations between US and Cuba and the history of immigration in America. It highlighted the political tensions of the Cold War, and showed how migration could fuel conflict between governments. The US was forced to rethink its immigration and refugee policies as a result of this event, which caused changes in their international policies. The event also reshaped Cuban American communities, especially in Miami, where Cuban culture became even more influential in politics, business and daily life.

Causes of the Crises

☐ economic hardship

kübadaki ekonomik sıkıntılar zaten

By the early 1970s, Cuba's economy was heavily reliant on sugar exports, and that made the country vulnerable to global price fluctuations. The inefficiencies of central planning became apparent as production bottlenecks multiplied and Cuba's dependence on the Soviet Union as its primary trading partner became increasingly unsustainable. Cuba's economy during this period survived largely

on Soviet life support. Soviet trade and aid accounted for up to 70 percent of Cuba's trade and supported over 20 percent of its GNP. The Soviets provided nearly all of Cuba's imports, while purchasing its sugar at above market prices. However, this dependence was deeply fragile.

Another trigger point was when Carter and Castro reached an agreement on allowing Cuban exiles in the US to visit Cuba. Massive amounts of consumer goods entered Cuba for the first time since the early years of the Cuban Revolution, mostly brought by urban white Cuban exiles visiting their relatives. Non white Cubans and the poor did not benefit, which sharpened a sense of relative deprivation and discontent among those still living in Cuba.

The boatlift was also brought on by housing and job shortages caused by the ailing Cuban economy, as well as oppression under Castro, which led into internal tensions. Although there had been some economic growth in the early 1970s, by the mid to late 1970s growth had stalled. There were food and housing shortages and morale was low among workers.

- political repression

- o sırada fidel caastro var onun siyasal baskıları ve ülke içinde özgürlük olmama durumu vs yazabilirsin o sırada sküba siyasi anlamda çok kötü

During Castro's rule, thousands of Cubans were imprisoned under abysmal conditions, thousands more were harassed and intimidated and entire generations were denied basic political freedoms. "Castro's draconian rule and the harsh punishments he meted out to dissidents kept his repressive system rooted firmly in place for decades," notes the Human Rights Watch.

It should also be pointed out that the Castro regime regarded homosexuals as counterrevolutionary individuals who did not represent the "diligent, virile, and altruistic proletarian man." Throughout the 1960s and 1970s many homosexuals were rounded up, fired from their jobs, expelled from the Communist Party, or sent to labor camps known as Military Units to Aid Production (UMAP). During Mariel, the regime systematically expelled thousands of LGBTQ Cubans it deemed "undesirable".

Those who dared to express a desire to leave faced organized mob violence. Widespread acts of repudiation, public demonstrations, displays of homophobia and public humiliations against Cubans expressing their intention to leave the country (along with verbal and physical violence) were orchestrated by the

regime and carried out by Committees for the Defense of the Revolution and other repressive agencies of the Ministry of the Interior. These actions targeted hundreds of thousands of Cubans during the events at the Peruvian Embassy and the Mariel exodus in April and May 1980.

☐ social dissatisfaction

hem siyasi hem ekonomikle bağlantılı olarak günlük hayatta yaşanan zorluklar genel yani refah yok zaten

By 1980, Cuba had an entire generation that had grown up under the Revolution and had never known anything else, yet saw little of the promised prosperity. In 1973, Castro had stopped allowing Cubans to leave the country in an attempt to prevent the brain drain that was occurring. Pent up desire to emigrate had been building for nearly a decade.

Moreover, Cuba's system of rationed food distribution, known as the Libreta de Abastecimiento (meaning supplies booklet), meant that even basic goods like rice, oil, sugar, and meat required government rationing books. For ordinary Cubans, daily life involved constant material scarcity.

When Cuban Americans visited in 1979 carrying consumer goods and appliances that were unobtainable in Cuba, it made the gap between life in Cuba and life in the United States impossible to ignore. Social dissatisfaction intensified among those who could see how differently their relatives were living compared to themselves.

☐ unites states immigration policy

bu biraz pull factor bundan bahset soguk savasta abd alıyor gocmenleri genel olarak bu da kupalıları

encourageliyor ama çok uzun bahsetmene gerek yok

The Cuban Adjustment Act of 1966 was the central policy mechanism that made the United States a uniquely attractive destination and created a structural pull factor long before the boatlift began. Under this law, any Cuban who reached US soil was granted automatic legal residency after one year, which was a privilege extended to no other nationality. This essentially guaranteed that any Cuban who made it to American shores would be allowed to stay, work and eventually apply for citizenship. It removed the normal risk calculation that deters most unauthorized migrants, since Cubans faced no realistic prospect of deportation once they arrived.

The United States' acceptance of Cuban emigrants was done in hopes of undermining Castro's government, draining it of skilled workers and painting a negative picture of Cuba internationally. The State Department painted Cuban emigrants in the 1960s as freedom seeking refugees. This framing meant that US policy consistently kept the door open, even if the numbers became overwhelming.

When Castro opened Mariel harbor, he was exploiting this architecture. He was aware that the US could not turn the boats away without abandoning its own legal framework and undermining its Cold War posture. The American government was trapped by its own generosity as they were politically and legally unable to close the door, forced to take in whoever Castro chose to send.

Background Information&Timeline of Key Events

- ☐ Cuban Revolution (fidel iktşdara geliyo sosyalist rejim var sonra soguk savařta abd ile gerilim artıyor

The Cuban Revolution was an armed uprising led by Fidel Castro that toppled the dictatorship of Fulgencio Batista. By the end of 1958, guerrilla revolutionaries in Castro's 26th of July Movement had gained the upper hand, forcing Batista to flee the island on January 1, 1959. Almost immediately, US-Cuban relations soured. The United States was one of the first countries to recognize Castro's government, but relations quickly deteriorated as Castro implemented a communist regime and forged close ties with the Soviet Union. The US broke off diplomatic relations with Cuba in early 1961, and the following years were marked by the Bay of Pigs invasion and the Cuban Missile Crisis.

- ☐ U.S. Economic Embargo on Cuba (kıtılığın asıl sebebi bu zaten 1970 sonunda doęru oluyor tam tarih bulabilirsen vs yaz ne zaman yapılmıř diye bi de küba üzerindeki etkisi yaz9

Following the Bay of Pigs Invasion of 1961, an operation devised under Eisenhower but which President John F. Kennedy had approved preceding his presidency, Castro characterized the Cuban revolution and state as socialist and aligned with the Soviet Union. On September 4, 1961, partly in response, Congress passed the Foreign Assistance Act, a Cold War Act that prohibited aid

to Cuba and authorized President Kennedy to impose a complete trade embargo. President Kennedy extended measures by executive order, first widening the scope of the trade restrictions on February 8 and then again on March 23, 1962. These measures expanded the embargo to include all imports of products containing Cuban goods, even if the final products had been made or assembled outside Cuba. On August 3, 1962, the Foreign Assistance Act was amended to prohibit aid to any country that provides assistance to Cuba. On September 7, 1962, President Kennedy formally expanded the Cuban embargo to include all Cuban trade. Following the Cuban Missile Crisis of October 1962, President Kennedy imposed travel restrictions on February 8, 1963, and the Cuban Assets Control Regulations were issued on July 8, 1963, again under the Trading with the Enemy Act, in response to Cuba hosting Soviet nuclear weapons. The embargo devastated Cuba's economy over the following decades, and this economic stagnation was a direct driver of the 1980 exodus.

☐ April 1, 1980 Cubans crashed into Peruvian Embassy

On April 1, Hector Sanyustiz and four others drove a bus through a fence at the Peruvian embassy and were granted political asylum. Cuban guards opened fire, and one guard was killed in the crossfire. Castro exploited the incident and announced the embassy gates would remain open to all who wished to leave Cuba. By April 6, there were over 10 000 Cubans crowded onto the grounds of the embassy.

☐ April 20, 1980 Mariel Harbor opens

In a stance that reversed the communist regime's closed emigration policy, Castro told Cubans who wanted to leave to do so, directing would-be emigrants to go to Mariel harbor. Castro made contact with the Cuban exile community and let it be known that if they came by small boat to Mariel, they could pick up relatives along with the refugees from the Peruvian Embassy. By April 24, there were approximately 400 boats in Mariel harbor waiting to pick up refugees.

☐ April-October Mass Migration (125.00 kübalı us e gitti özellikle florida)

Between April 15 and October 31, 1980, an estimated 125 000 Cubans reached Florida. The Cuban government considered the exodus a sort of social cleansing of the nation's so-called undesirables and organized acts of repudiation against

prospective emigrants. Castro forcefully deported convicted criminals, mental hospital patients, LGBTQ+ people and prostitutes. In total, up to 20 000 of the arrivals had criminal records and thousands had served time in mental institutions.

□ October 31 End of the Boatlift

tüm bunların neye sebep olduğunu ve işleyişte neyi etkilediğini yazabilirsin çok uzun olmasına gerek yok

The Mariel Boatlift ended on October 31, 1980, by mutual agreement between the US and Cuban governments. By that point, Carter's administration was politically exhausted. The crisis had overwhelmed South Florida, embarrassed the White House and become a major liability heading into the November election, which Carter lost to Reagan just days later. Castro, for his part, had already gotten what he wanted: he'd emptied Cuba of dissidents and "undesirables" and created a headache for the US.

Castro had originally declared Mariel open for roughly six months, and the mutual agreement essentially honored that timeline. The boats stopped, but the legal aftermath dragged on for years. Mariel refugees gained permanent legal status in 1984 under a revision to the Cuban Adjustment Act, and the remaining Cuban-Haitian entrants became eligible for permanent residency under the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986. Those with criminal records faced potential deportation, which triggered prison riots in 1987 when detainees at facilities in Oakdale and Atlanta learned of a US-Cuba deportation agreement.

Governments Response on the Crises

burda sadee abd nin olaya bakışı ve uyguladığı policy ler var genel olarak iyi davranıyorlar sonrasında olayb kötüleşiyor onu yazalım bi de kamp falan kurmuşlar onkara bakabilirsin

Already mired in foreign policy controversy with the ongoing Iranian Hostage Crisis, President Carter waited three weeks before authorizing the direct involvement of federal officials to help with the intake of Marielitos. President Carter welcomed Cubans to the United States with open arms. After the public opinion soured, in may, Carter gave a speech commanding that no new trips to Cuba should be made, warning that boats used to bring people unlawfully would

be seized. Several dozen boats were seized by the US Coast Guard, and in response Cuban Americans took to the streets to protest. After several high-profile drowning incidents, the Carter Administration changed its tune, and the Coast Guard began assisting boats returning to Florida with refugees on board. Carter declared a state of emergency in affected areas, and the administration began using Cold War-era missile testing sites, military bases, and facilities like the Miami Orange Bowl as temporary refugee processing centers. On June 20, the Cuban-Haitian Entrant Program (CHEP) was established, granting both Cuban and Haitian arrivals temporary status and access to asylum processing and community assistance. Congress appropriated \$484 million to assist with holding and settling the refugees and to compensate the communities most impacted by the influx. The handling of Mariel became a symbol of Carter's broader struggles. Political opponents claimed the Carter administration had been unprepared and had lost control of American borders. Carter lost the November 1980 election to Reagan, and the boatlift was widely cited as one of the contributing factors.

Implemented Policies&Past Actions

☐ shift from open-door to controlled migration

Before Mariel, the United States effectively operated an open door policy towards Cuban migrants which meant anyone who reached American shores was welcomed. The Mariel boatlift shattered that approach. The six months the port of Mariel remained open saw 125 000 Cubans arrive in South Florida, including several thousand criminals and mentally ill individuals deliberately sent by Fidel Castro; exposing how badly the open door policy could be exploited. The political and public backlash forced every subsequent administration to move toward a more managed, controlled system by setting annual caps, screening arrivals and distinguishing between those with legitimate asylum claims and economic migrants.

☐ increased security measures (bu ikisi genel olarak hangi önlemler konmuş güvenlik için vesaire tek madde altında toplayabilisin

In direct response to the boatlift, President Carter called for a Coast Guard blockade on the flotilla. At least 1 400 boats were seized, though many slipped through. More broadly, Mariel prompted the US government to dramatically expand the role of the Coast Guard in maritime interdiction; patrolling the Straits of Florida, boarding vessels, turning back boats before they could reach shore. Until 1995, the number of Cubans intercepted by the Coast Guard had been relatively small but after the Mariel boatlift, the infrastructure for large scale maritime interdiction was firmly established. Detention centers and processing camps, some on military bases, were also formalized as part of the standard response to mass arrivals.

☐ 1984 U.S.-Cuba Migration Agreement

ne içeriyo vs yazmak lazım bitiş bu çünl

Following years of diplomatic friction over the Mariel arrivals, the Reagan administration negotiated a formal migration deal with Cuba. In a US-Cuba joint agreement, the United States committed to continuing its policy of admitting 20 000 Cubans directly from Cuba each year. Cuba in turn agreed to take back more than 2700 Cubans who had arrived during the 1980 Mariel Boatlift and were deemed excludable under US law. News of the deportation agreement triggered violent riots by detained Marielitos at prisons in Oakdale, Louisiana and Atlanta, Georgia, and the riots ended only after the government agreed to halt deportations until every detainee received a fair individual review of their case.

☐ 1990s interdection policy

The collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991 removed Cuba's economic lifeline and triggered a new wave of mass emigration the Balsero crisis of 1994. Balseros ("rafters", from the Spanish balsa "raft") were people who emigrated without formal documentation in self constructed or precarious vessels from Cuba to neighboring states. Fearing "another Mariel," President Clinton ordered the Coast Guard to transfer rafters to US military bases in Guantanamo and Panama rather than allowing them to reach Florida. The Cuban government, facing riots in Central Havana, also sought to end the crisis and both governments announced a series of bilateral measures in September 1994. Under the 1994 agreement, Cuba agreed to credit some of these admissions toward the minimum quota of 20 000 migrants from Cuba, with 5 000 charged annually over the years. Secondly, rather than placing Cubans intercepted at sea in a camp, the

United States began sending them back to Cuba. Both governments promised to follow international agreements to ensure that no action would be taken against the people returned to Cuba.

☐ "WET FOOT, DRY FOOT" policy 1995 bunu açıklamak lazım

The "wet foot, dry foot" or "wet feet, dry feet" policy is a 1995 interpretation of the Cuban Adjustment Act of 1966. Under this interpretation, a Cuban caught on the waters between the two nations (having "wet feet") would be returned to Cuba or sent to a third country, while one who made it to US shore (having "dry feet") got to remain in the United States and eventually qualify for legal permanent resident status.

Under the 1995 agreement, the US granted parole status to the roughly 30 000 Cubans then awaiting asylum determination at Guantanamo, and changed its policy going forward to returning future migrants intercepted at sea directly to Cuba. However, the policy came with increased risk for asylum seekers entering the country.

The policy remained in place for over two decades until January 12, 2017, when the Obama administration ended it as part of the broader normalization of US-Cuba relations. Effective immediately, Cuban nationals attempting to enter the US without authorization would be treated the same as migrants from any other country; no longer automatically paroled or fast tracked to permanent residency. The move was condemned by many Cuban-American lawmakers, but was seen by the Obama administration as a logical consequence of treating Cuba as a normal country rather than a Cold War adversary.

Effects

☐ Economic

The arrival of 125 000 people in just six months hit Miami like a shockwave. Observers at the time noted the severe strain caused by the Mariel boatlift, with widespread unemployment among refugees throughout the summer of 1980 contributing to a widespread perception that labor market opportunities for native workers who were less skilled were being threatened. Housing shortages

became acute and local government budgets buckled under the sudden demand for services.

Even beyond the immediate crisis, per pupil education costs increased significantly in Miami in the aftermath of the boatlift, financed by an increase in state transfers, and these effects persisted for at least ten years. Schools, hospitals and social services all absorbed costs that stretched local and state budgets well into the following decade.

Many Americans feared that the large number of migrants would lower wages or take jobs away from local workers, especially in low skilled industries such as construction, factory work, restaurants, and cleaning services. Earlier Cuban immigrants were also worried because many new arrivals were willing to work for lower wages. Miami's overall workforce rose by 8% and the low skill workforce shot up by 20%, exactly the conditions under which, if immigrants compete directly with native workers, you would expect to see native wages fall. Although later economic studies showed that the long term impact on overall employment was smaller than people expected, fear and uncertainty about jobs were very strong at the time.

☐ Social

The Mariel boatlift created social tension and fear among parts of the American public. Because the migration happened very suddenly, many Americans believed the United States had lost control of its borders. Headlines in Miami newspapers and around the country highlighted alleged crimes committed by Mariel Cubans after they arrived. By the end of the summer of 1980, what the press had initially called the "Freedom Flotilla" had been reimagined as an invasion. Media figures, elected officials, and established communities in South Florida tended to read the newcomers as threats rather than as people worthy of protection.

Security concerns became an important issue because Cuban leader Fidel Castro allowed not only ordinary civilians but also some prisoners and psychiatric patients to leave Cuba during the boatlift. Although they were only a minority of the migrants, American media gave these cases a great deal of attention. This caused many Americans to associate the Mariel migrants with crime and violence, increasing stereotypes and discrimination against Cuban refugees. Public fear became stronger even though most migrants were ordinary people searching for better lives. Though it should be taken into consideration that while the criminal threat was real, it was also massively exaggerated. The US

government identified about 1650 people who arrived during the boatlift with a record serious enough to be considered criminal under US law, and promptly jailed them all.

The fallout from Mariel contributed to a fundamental shift in how immigration enforcement was understood. During the 1980s, the concept of the "criminal alien" moved from inside law enforcement circles into the broader public sphere, becoming a widely recognized figure invoked in a bipartisan push for restrictive immigration legislation. The majority of Marielitos, ordinary families seeking freedom, spent years fighting against a stigma that had been attached to their entire community.

At the same time, the Mariel boatlift also changed American culture, especially in Miami. Cuban communities expanded rapidly and brought stronger Latin American influence to the city's language, music, food and traditions. Spanish became much more common in public life. This also sparked demands for English-only government paperwork, as Miami-Dade County residents voted to remove Spanish as a second official language in November 1980; a direct cultural backlash against the sudden growth of the Spanish speaking population that helped birth the modern English-only movement in the United States. Over time, Miami developed into one of the most important centers of Cuban-American culture in the United States. While some people saw these cultural changes positively, others believed immigration was changing the identity of their communities too quickly, which added to social tensions.

☐ Political

The Mariel boatlift increased political tension between the United States and Cuba during the Cold War. Whatever cautious progress had been made toward normalizing relations between the two countries in the late 1970s was essentially destroyed by Mariel. The boatlift confirmed for American policymakers that Castro could not be trusted as a diplomatic partner, that he was willing and able to weaponize migration as a foreign policy tool whenever it suited him. This hardened attitudes in Washington significantly. The Reagan administration that followed Carter took an openly hostile stance toward Cuba, treating it as an active adversary to be pressured and isolated. Relations between the two governments became deeply adversarial through the 1980s and into the 1990s, with agreements regularly collapsing and both sides using whatever leverage they had to punish the other. The underlying mistrust that Mariel generated, that

Cuba could at any moment unleash another wave of migrants to destabilize Florida and embarrass the US, hung over every subsequent diplomatic interaction for decades.

Mariel fundamentally ended the era of the open door for Cuban migrants. Before 1980, the US had operated on the assumption that Cubans were Cold War refugees deserving automatic welcome. After Mariel, that assumption was no longer politically or practically sustainable. The crisis demonstrated that an unchecked open door policy could be exploited at scale and every administration afterward moved toward a more controlled, managed approach; setting annual caps, increasing Coast Guard interdiction at sea, building formal detention infrastructure and eventually establishing policies like Wet Foot, Dry Foot that tried to draw a legal line between who could stay and who would be sent back.

More broadly, Mariel introduced the concept of the "criminal alien" into mainstream American political debate in a way that reshaped immigration enforcement far beyond just Cuban migration. The association between mass migration and crime (even though it was largely exaggerated) became a powerful political argument that both parties used to justify tougher enforcement measures through the 1980s and beyond. In that sense, Mariel didn't just change Cuban immigration policy, but it shifted the entire tone of how America talked about and managed immigration for a generation.

REFERENCES

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Causes_of_the_Great_Depression

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Great_Depression

<https://www.federalreservehistory.org/essays/stock-market-crash-of-1929>

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wall_Street_crash_of_1929

<https://www.bbc.co.uk/bitesize/articles/zmjmywx-zvs3dnb>

<https://www.federalreservehistory.org/essays/banking-panics-1930-31>

<https://www.ssa.gov/history/bank.html>

<https://www.okhistory.org/learn/tenant-farming8>

<https://historylearning.com/modern-world-history/america-1918/causes-of-the-greatdepression/>

<https://www.elgaronline.com/view/journals/ejeep/15/1/article-p47.xml>

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Smoot%E2%80%93Hawley_Tariff_Act

<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Smoot-Hawley-Tariff-Act>

<https://drought.unl.edu/dustbowl/>

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dust_Bowl

<https://www.federalreservehistory.org/essays/great-depression>

<https://fraser.stlouisfed.org/files/docs/meltzer/whemon92.pdf>

https://www.investopedia-com.translate.goog/terms/g/great_depression.asp?_x_tr_sl=en&_x_tr_tl=tr&_x_tr_hl=tr&_x_tr_pto=wa !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

https://www-history-com.translate.goog/articles/great-depression-causes?_x_tr_sl=en&_x_tr_tl=tr&_x_tr_hl=tr&_x_tr_pto=tc&_x_tr_hist=true

<https://www.britannica.com/event/New-Deal/FDRs-Fireside-Chats-the-role-of-Eleanor-Roosevelt-and-crucial-New-Dealers>

<https://www.britannica.com/event/stock-market-crash-of-1929>

<https://www.loc.gov/classroom-materials/united-states-history-primary-source-timeline/great-depression-and-world-war-ii-1929-1945/overview/>

<https://www.britannica.com/event/New-Deal/FDRs-Fireside-Chats-the-role-of-Eleanor-Roosevelt-and-crucial-New-Dealers>