



BOSCO MUN 2018

1ST-3RD AUGUST 2018



TRUMAN'S CABINET

1949

STUDY GUIDE



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AGENDA:

*TO ASSESS AND ACT UPON
THE GEOPOLITICAL
DEVELOPMENTS POST THE
SECOND WORLD WAR*



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Chairperson's Address

Greetings delegates.

Welcome to Harry Truman's Cabinet at BoscoMUN 2018. Set in the year 1949, right after the key and very unexpected victory of Harry Truman over John Dewey in the Presidential Elections, it will be anything but predictable. A 20th century Trump's Cabinet, this has always had one ultimate goal: Power and Supremacy. These are things that you can easily demand but not as easily achieve, especially after authorizing the descent of Little Boy and Fat Man into Japan in 1945. But this was not so in the near past. In this study guide, we wish to cover the 'Why' part of the above statement, and of course, cover some necessary topics you need to know. I hope this outline gives everyone a boost and head start on research.

The Freeze date for this committee will be the 1st of February, 1949.

Let me introduce my Executive Board. Shreyans Vasa, the man with the Big People's Badge, will be your Vice Chairperson. He'll keep the committee flowing and hopefully not crack jokes in Committee. Shreyans tries his hand at a lot of things and puts his eggs in a lot of baskets. Interpret that as you will.

Abhik Chatterjee and Harsh Sharma will be your Co-Directors. Abhik Chatterjee is a Science Student who recently won the Best Manager award at a Management Simulation at MP Birla. He tries to be low-key about this, but trust me he isn't. He always wants an excuse to talk about it. In fact, it and How I Met Your Mother are all he can talk about. His talents: Not being funny, yet having fun and getting the job done.



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Harsh Sharma is the Red House Vice Captain, and despite being a very busy person in school activities, his involvement in providing impeccable research has been paramount. He is essentially the only techie here and *loves* to solve cryptic codes. He is addicted to talking about Bitcoin, so avoid cryptocurrency discussions with him.

Karnav Popat is the only class 10 student in this Executive Board. When all of the other members of this Board were busy with Bosco Fest, Karnav did the heavy lifting for this committee and also for the Sicily Conference. His research capabilities and prioritizing is enviable. He is the youngest, and perhaps the most crucial part of this Board. He might just unleash his Deadpool side in committee, so take a breather at times and hang around with him.

I myself will be your Chairperson. I am a humble quizzier and poor debater. Feel free to approach me for information, advice (on how to sound idiotic) or anything else, but please don't remind me that Arsenal have 1 trophy in 1 googol years.

With that, I hope all of you have an enthralling three days of debate and discussion. All the best.

E pluribus unum.

With regards,
Somok Sur
Chairperson of Truman's Cabinet
Deputy Secretary General at Bosco Model United Nations 2018



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Freeze Date: 01.02.1949

Prelude:

World War 2

WW2 was, and is, the biggest, most devastating conflict in history. It involved almost every nation at the time, with only a handful of nations, including Ireland, Bhutan, and the Vatican, remaining neutral. WW2 completely upset the balance of power throughout the world, with the Great Powers of Austria-Hungary and Germany declining sharply. World War 2 set up a number of issues which would not be resolved for years. For example, the Jewish community has still not achieved its pre-war numbers.

The United States in WW2

The United States' involvement in WW2 commenced on December 8, 1941, when the United States declared war on Imperial Japan, as retaliation for the Attack on Pearl Harbour. Over a period of nearly 4 years, the United States undertook as many as many as 120 military operations, including Operation Overlord (The Battle of Normandy) and Operation Dragoon (The liberation of France). More than 12 million military personnel participated in the war effort, and more than \$4 trillion was spent.

Harry S. Truman



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Harry Truman was a Missouri-born American politician and military veteran. He served in the National Guard during World War 1, after which he served as a County Judge and a Senator. He launched into mainstream politics with the Truman Committee. He was sworn in as Vice President to Franklin D. Roosevelt on January 20, 1945, during the late stages of WW2. When FDR died less than 3 months later, he was sworn in as President of the United States. He attended the Potsdam Conference, and authorized the nuclear bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. The President participated in a re-election campaign during the 1948 Presidential Elections.

Events of, and after, the end of WW2

World War 2 resulted in several changes in the status quo of the international affairs throughout the world. 1945 was naturally a major watershed period for several countries the world over. Some of the major events that affected the course of history, and which are essential for understanding the potential courses of action to be taken by the Truman government, include the occupation of Warsaw by the Red Army, the formation of the Yugoslav government under Josip Broz Tito, the death of FDR, the Fall of Berlin, the signing of the German Instrument of Surrender, the signing of the United Nations Charter, the division of Germany, the Trinity Test, the Potsdam Conference, the resignation of Winston Churchill, the bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the Proclamation of Indonesian Independence, the Vietnamese August Revolution, the signing of the Japanese Instrument of Surrender, the Greek Civil War, the occupation of Korea, the Nuremberg Trials, and the erection of the Berlin Wall. All these



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events and many more reshaped the course of history for the better or worse of The United States and the world at large.

Economic Aftermath of The Second World War:

Germany:

Close to one-quarter of pre-war (1937) Germany is de facto annexed by the Allies. The remainder of Germany was partitioned into four zones of occupation, coordinated by the Allied Control Council. Beginning immediately after the German surrender and continuing for the next two years, the US and Britain have been pursuing an "intellectual reparations" programme to harvest all technological and scientific know-how as well as all patents in Germany. The value of these amount to around US \$10 billion (US\$125 billion in 2017 dollars).

US policy in post-war Germany from April 1945 until July 1947 had been that no help should be given to the Germans in rebuilding their nation, save for the minimum required to mitigate starvation. The Allies' immediate post-war "industrial disarmament" plan for Germany had been to destroy Germany's capability to wage war by complete or partial de-industrialization. The first industrial plan for Germany, signed in 1946, requires the destruction of 1,500 manufacturing plants to lower German heavy industry output to roughly 50% of its 1938 level. From mid-1946 onwards Germany has been receiving US government aid through the GARIOA programme. Volunteer organisations had initially been forbidden to send food, but in early 1946 the Council of Relief Agencies Licensed to Operate in Germany was founded. The prohibition against sending CARE Packages to individuals in Germany was rescinded on 5 June



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1946. After lobbying by the Joint Chiefs of Staff and Generals Lucius D. Clay and George Marshall, the Truman administration accepted that economic recovery in Europe could not go forward without the reconstruction of the German industrial base on which it had previously been dependent. In July 1947, President Truman rescinded on national security grounds the directive that had ordered the US occupation forces to take no steps looking toward the economic rehabilitation of Germany. A new directive recognised that " an orderly, prosperous Europe requires the economic contributions of a stable and productive Germany. From 1948 onwards West Germany also became a minor beneficiary of the Marshall Plan.

Japan:

After the war, the Allies rescinded Japanese pre-war annexations, such as Manchuria, and Korea, have become independent. The Philippines and Guam have been returned to the United States. The Dutch East Indies was to be handed back to the Dutch but was resisted and lead to the Indonesian war for independence. At the Yalta Conference, US President Franklin D. Roosevelt had secretly traded the Japanese Kurils and south Sakhalin to the Soviet Union in return for Soviet entry in the war with Japan. The Soviet Union annexed the Kuril Islands, provoking the Kuril Islands dispute.

Hundreds of thousands of Japanese have been forced to relocate to the Japanese main islands. Okinawa has become a main US staging point. The US covered large areas of it with military bases and continued to occupy it until 1972, years after the end of the occupation of the main islands. To skirt the Geneva Convention, the Allies had classified many Japanese soldiers as Japanese Surrendered Personnel instead of POWs and were using them as forced labour



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until 1947. General Douglas MacArthur established the International Military Tribunal for the Far East.

To further remove Japan as a potential future military threat, the Far Eastern Commission has decided to de-industrialise Japan, with the goal of reducing the Japanese standard of living to what prevailed between 1930 and 1934. In the end, the de-industrialisation programme in Japan was implemented to a lesser degree than the one in Germany. Japan received emergency aid from GARIOA, as did Germany. In early 1946, the Licensed Agencies for Relief in Asia were formed and are permitted to supply Japanese with food and clothes. In April 1948 the Johnston Committee Report recommended that the economy of Japan should be reconstructed due to the high cost to US taxpayers of continuous emergency aid.

United Kingdom

By the end of the war, the economy of the United Kingdom was one of severe privation. More than a quarter of its national wealth had been consumed. Until the introduction in 1941 of Lend-Lease aid from the US, the UK had been spending its assets to purchase American equipment including aircraft and ships—over £437 million on aircraft alone. Lend-lease came just before its reserves were exhausted. Britain had placed 55% of its total labour force into war production.

In spring 1945, the Labour Party withdrew from the wartime coalition government, in an effort to oust Winston Churchill, forcing a general election. Following a landslide victory, Labour held more than 60% of the seats in the



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House of Commons and formed a new government on 26 July 1945 under Clement Attlee.

Britain's war debt was described by some in the American administration as a millstone around the neck of the British economy. Although there were suggestions for an international conference to tackle the issue, in August 1945 the U.S. announced unexpectedly that the Lend-Lease programme was to end immediately.

The abrupt withdrawal of American Lend-Lease support to Britain on 2 September 1945 dealt a severe blow to the plans of the new government. It was only with the completion of the Anglo-American loan by the United States to Great Britain on 15 July 1946 that some measure of economic stability was restored.

Timeline

Europe

1946:

JANUARY

Allies recognize Austrian Republic with its 1937 borders:

The Allies restore Austria as a sovereign republic, with the borders it had before its 1937 annexation by Germany, but continue to administer the nation in four occupation zones. The largest cities in each zone are Innsbruck (French),



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Salzburg (American), Graz (British), and the area around Vienna (Soviet).
Vienna itself is occupied by all four powers.

First meeting of United Nations held in London:

The first session of the United Nations General Assembly opened on 10 January 1946 at the Methodist Central Hall in London. Delegates from 51 nations attended the meeting, which was presided over by Paul-Henri Spaak of Belgium.

First meeting of United Nations Security Council

The United Nations Security Council held its first session, called to order by Norman Makin, at 3:10 p.m. GMT, at Church House, Westminster. Convening around the horseshoe-shaped table were representatives from the five permanent members (the United States, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union, France and China), each of whom had veto power, and the first six non-permanent members, whose membership would change from year to year. The first rotating spots were occupied by Australia, Brazil, Egypt, Mexico, the Netherlands and Poland.

UNAEC created:

The United Nations Atomic Energy Commission is created by Resolution 1 of the United Nations General Assembly to deal with the problems raised by the discovery of atomic energy.



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Yugoslavia established as a Federative People's Republic:

Yugoslavia's new constitution, modeling the Soviet Union, establishes 6 constituent republics (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia and Slovenia). A communist government is now in charge of the governance of the country.

Kingdom of Hungary becomes a Republic, heavily influenced by the Soviet Union

Following the defeat of Nazi Germany, Hungary became a satellite state of the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union made sure that a post-war government dominated by Communists was installed in the country before transferring authority from the occupation force to the Hungarians. In elections held in November 1945, the Independent Smallholders' Party won 57 percent of the vote. The Hungarian Communist Party, under the leadership of Mátyás Rákosi and Ernő Gerő, received support from only 17 percent of the population. The Soviet commander in Hungary, Marshal Kliment Voroshilov, refused to allow the Smallholders Party to form a government. Instead, Voroshilov established a coalition government with the Communists holding some of the key posts. Later, Mátyás Rákosi boasted that he had dealt with his partners in the government one by one, "cutting them off like slices of salami." The Hungarian monarchy was formally abolished on February 1, 1946, and replaced by the Republic of Hungary. The Soviet leadership selected Mátyás Rákosi to front the Stalinization of the country.

MARCH:



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Churchill's speech on "Iron Curtain" established by the Soviets:

Winston Churchill delivered his famous "Iron Curtain" speech at Westminster College in Fulton, Missouri. The former British Prime Minister was accompanied by U.S. President Harry S. Truman, and the speech – which was entitled "The Sinews of Peace" was part of a program that began at 3:30 pm CST, after an invocation and introductory remarks by Westminster's President McCluer and by President Truman. Churchill surprised the world with his attack on the spread of Soviet Communism, as he said "From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the Continent." The curtain refers to the presence of a boundary dividing Europe after the Second World War. It is metaphorical of the attempts of Soviet Union to avoid contact between its satellite nations and the West.

Civil War resumes in Greece:

APRIL:

Disruption of elections in American occupied zone in Germany:

In Dresden, elections in the American zone in occupied Germany were disrupted by rioting. A crowd of Jewish displaced persons, estimated by American officers at 5,000 or more, marched into town after two security guards went missing, and attacks were made on polling places. Rioting continued for five and a half hours until the U.S. Army forced the participants back to the displaced persons camp. The elections throughout the zone attracted 5.5 million voters for local government offices.



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MAY:

British Royal Navy Ships came under fire in the Corfu Channel:

On 15 May, two Royal Navy ships, HMS Orion and HMS Superb, crossing the Corfu Channel came under fire from fortifications situated on the Albanian coast. Although the ships suffered no material damage and no human casualties occurred, Britain issued a formal demand for "an immediate and public apology from the Albanian Government". The Albanian Government, instead of an apology, claimed that the British ships had trespassed into Albanian territorial waters.

Blum-Byrnes Agreements

A series of agreements, the Blum-Byrnes Agreements, were signed between the US Secretary of James Francis Byrnes and representative of the French Government, Leon Blum. The agreements were directed at eradication of France's arrearage to America and obtain new credit in exchange for opening France's markets to American products, especially film productions. The United States made a loan package to France for a record 1.37 billion dollars.

JUNE:

The Baruch Plan is proposed to the United Nations and fails
Bernard Baruch on behalf of the United States, was given the responsibility to construct a proposal and present it to the UNAEC about the international control of atomic weapons, which would become the Baruch Plan.

The plan proposed to:

- extend between all countries the exchange of basic scientific information for peaceful ends



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- implement control of nuclear power to the extent necessary to ensure its use only for peaceful purposes
- eliminate from national armaments atomic weapons and all other major weapons adaptable to mass destruction
- establish effective safeguards by way of inspection and other means to protect complying States against the hazards of violations and evasions.

The violations of this plan were: In the agreement, penalties of as serious a nature as the nations may wish and as immediate and certain in their execution as possible should be fixed for:

- Illegal possession or use of an atomic bomb
- Illegal possession, or separation, of atomic material suitable for use in an atomic bomb
- Seizure of any plant or other property belonging to or licensed by the Authority
- Willful interference with the activities of the Authority

● Creation or operation of dangerous projects in a manner contrary to, or in the absence of, a license granted by the international control body

Baruch's proposal did provide for international control and inspection of nuclear production facilities, but clearly announced that the United States would maintain its nuclear weapons monopoly until every aspect of the proposal was in effect and working, and only once the plan was fully implemented, would the United States begin the process of destroying its nuclear arsenal. This was an arsenal that through the research and development of the Manhattan Project had cost the United States \$2 billion.

The Soviets strongly opposed this plan since it allowed the United States to retain its nuclear monopoly, not to mention international inspections of Soviet



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domestic nuclear facilities. Instead, the Soviet representative, Andrei Gromyko, submitted an alternative proposal. It began with a convention to prohibit the production, storage, or use of atomic weapons and to require the destruction of all such weapons. Violations would constitute a "crime against humanity." The Soviet Union, which is presently racing to develop its own nuclear weapons arsenal, rejected the Baruch plan, viewing it as a disingenuous effort to freeze and legitimize the global atomic disparity and preserve an unrivaled U.S. capacity for nuclear coercion. The Soviets also saw intrusive inspections as a threat to their sovereignty. The failure of the plan to gain acceptance has resulted in a dangerous nuclear arms race between the United States and the Soviet Union.

SEPTEMBER:

Referendum in Bulgaria:

A referendum is held in Bulgaria to decide whether it would become a republic or remain a monarchy. With 3,883,183 (95.6%) votes in favor of a republic, Bulgaria is declared a People's Republic following the resignation of King Simeon II. Preparations for framing a republican constitution are started a day after the referendum.

OCTOBER:



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Communists take over in Bulgaria:

The Constitutional Assembly elections were held in Bulgaria on 27 October. The elections served to elect members to the 6th Grand National Assembly, tasked with adopting a new constitution. The Bulgarian Communist Party secured 278, commanding a 53.5% majority with 2,264,852 votes. Georgi Dimitrov is sworn in as the new Prime Minister.

International Military Tribunal (IMT) executes criminals at Nuremberg:

The remaining ten Nazi war criminals were sentenced to death at the Nuremberg trials for:

- Conspiracy to commit crimes against peace, war crimes, and crimes against humanity,
- Crimes against peace,
- War crimes, and
- Crimes against humanity.

They were hanged in a gymnasium in the Nuremberg Palace of Justice.

British Royal Navy destroyers obliterated by mines in the Corfu Channel:

On 22 October 1946, a Royal Navy flotilla composed of the cruisers HMS Mauritius and HMS Leander, and the destroyers HMS Saumarez and HMS Volage, was ordered northward through the Corfu Channel with the express orders to test the Albanian reaction to their right of innocent passage. The crews were instructed to respond if attacked.

The vessels were passing close to the Albanian coast in what they considered to be a mine-free zone with Mauritius leading and Saumarez following closely. Leander was about one and two-thirds of a nautical mile or three kilometers away accompanied by Volage. Near the bay of Saranda, the destroyer Saumarez struck a mine and was heavily damaged. The destroyer Volage was ordered to



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tow the Saumarez south to a Corfu harbor. While towing, Volage also struck a mine and sustained heavy damage. Both ships' bows were completely blown off and adverse weather conditions in the straits made the towing effort exceedingly difficult with both ships sailing stern-first, but after twelve hours of effort both ships managed to reach the Corfu harbor. Forty-four men died and forty-two were injured in the incident.

NOVEMBER:

British minesweeping operation in Corfu Channel:

Royal Navy carried out an additional mine sweeping operation in the Corfu channel, codenamed "Operation Retail". Under the direction of the Allied Commander-in-Chief Mediterranean the mine-sweeping operation took place within Albanian territorial waters, but without authorization by the Albanian government.

1947:

JANUARY:

Formation of Byzonia:

Britain and the United States merged their German occupation zones to form Bizonia or Bizone.

Dimitrios Maximos founds a monarchist government in Athens- riots and protests:



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The Communists take power in Poland:

The first Parliamentary Elections (after World War II) were held in Poland on January 19, 1947. By 1946, Poland was mostly under the control of the Soviet Union and its proxies, the PPR. In 1946 the communists already tested their strength by falsifying the "3xYES Referendum" and banning all right-wing parties (under the false pretext of their pro-Nazi stance). By 1947 the only remaining legal opposition was the Polish People's Party (PSL) led by Stanislaw Mikolajczyk.

The Yalta agreement called for "free and unfettered" elections in Poland. However, permitting an honest election was against the interests of the Kremlin and the PPR. Soviet leader Joseph Stalin was well aware that if Poland held a free election, it would result in an anti-Soviet government. Conditioned in part by the Hungarian Communists' weak showing in 1945, the PPR proposed to present voters with a single list from all of the legal parties in the country. The PSL rejected this proposal almost out of hand. Eventually, only the Polish Socialist Party (PPS), Democratic Party (SD) and People's Party (SL) joined the Blok Demokratyczny (Democratic Bloc) with the PPR.

The January 1947 elections held under the supervision of the PPR were far from being "free and unfettered." The PPR, under the leadership of general secretary Wladyslaw Gomulka, embarked on a ruthless campaign to snuff out the PSL and all other potential opposition. This led to the victory of the Blok Demokratyczny with 80.1% of the vote. Boleslaw Beirut, the leader of the Democratic Bloc and a hard line Stalinist is sworn in as the President of Poland.

FEBRUARY:



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In Paris, France, peace treaties are signed between the World War II Allies and Italy, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria and Finland. Italy cedes most of Istria to the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia

Abolition of Prussia:

The Allied Control Council officially dissolved The German state of Prussia through Enactment No. 26.

The United States grants France a military base in Casablanca.

MARCH:

IMF begins to operate

Treaty of Dunkirk

The Treaty of Dunkirk is signed between the United Kingdom and France providing for mutual assistance in the event of attack by Germany after World War II.

MAY:

Efforts to curb spread of Communism are initiated

In an effort to fight the spread of Communism, President Harry S. Truman signs an Act of Congress that implements the Truman Doctrine. This Act grants \$400 million in military and economic aid to Turkey, in relation to the straits crisis, and Greece, for preventing the establishment of a communist government.

AUGUST:



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In Greece, General Markos Vafiadis takes over the government. The Prime Minister of Greece, Dimitrios Maximos, resigns.

In Hungary, communists fail to gain a majority in parliamentary elections (despite widespread fraud) and turn to direct action as part of the country's transition to Communism (1944–1949).

OCTOBER:

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the foundation of the World Trade Organization (WTO), is established.

1948:

JANUARY:

The Treaty of Brussels is signed.

FEBRUARY:

Communists take over Czechoslovakia.

MAY:

The Israeli Declaration of Independence.

The 1948 Arab-Israeli War.

JUNE:

The Berlin Blockade begins.



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ASIA:

1946:

JANUARY:

International Military Tribunal for the Far East (Tokyo War Crimes Tribunal)
The International Military Tribunal for the Far East is created by proclamation of General Douglas MacArthur. Its purpose is to try the leaders of the Empire of Japan for joint conspiracy to start and wage war.

First Indochina War: French troops clashed with Vietnamese rebels at Phong Thổ District in the first battle between the two sides in French Indochina. The Viet Quoc Armed Force unit under Deo Van Bao surrendered after a two-day battle

FEBRUARY:

Soviet Union formally annexes the Kuril Islands

In what has been described as the beginning of the Cold War, Soviet leader Joseph Stalin addressed a national radio audience in his first major public speech after the end of World War II. Stalin said that another war was inevitable because of the "capitalist development of the world economy", and that the USSR would need to concentrate on national defense in advance of a war with the Western nations

"The Long Telegram" was sent from the U.S. Embassy in Moscow to the U.S. Department of State, and would become the basis of American foreign policy



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for nearly fifty years. At more than 8,000 words, it was the longest telegraphed message sent to that time. The author, George F. Kennan, the chargé d'affaires at the American embassy, was responding to a specific inquiry from the State Department, and his answer was the containment strategy, to keep the Soviet Union from spreading Communism further without going to war. Ho Chi Minh, the newly elected President of Vietnam, sent a telegram to U.S. President Harry S. Truman, asking that the United States use its influence to persuade France not to send occupation forces back into Vietnam, and to "interfere urgently in support of our independence". Truman's reply was that the U.S. would support France, and Ho sought assistance from the Soviet Union instead.

MARCH:

North Vietnam agreed to allow troops from France to return to its cities in return for recognition as "a free country within the framework of the French Union". General Vo Nguyen Giap later wrote that the intent was for the peaceful withdrawal of Nationalist Chinese occupation, but that a new war began when French forces continued their occupation.

APRIL:

Chinese Communist leader Zhou Enlai announced the beginning of a war against the Nationalist government of Chiang Kai-shek, one day after Soviet troops had withdrawn from Manchuria. The Communist forces attacked Changchun on the same day and captured it by April 17.

The Soviet Union and Iran announced a 25-year agreement to create a "Soviet-Persian Oil Company", with the U.S.S.R. to have 51% of Iran's oil rights in return for the withdrawal of Soviet troops.



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In the Soviet Union, two new fighter jets—the MiG-9, flown by Alexei Grinchik, and the Yak-15, piloted by Mikhail I. Ivanov—both flew for the first time.

The port of Harbin, tenth largest city in China, was taken over by Chinese Communist forces without incident.

International Military Tribunal for the Far East: Former Japanese Prime Ministers Hideki Tojo (1941–44), Kiichiro Hiranuma (1939), Koki Hirota (1936–37) and Kuniaki Koiso (1944–45), and 24 co-defendants were indicted in Tokyo for war crimes, ranging from the murder of thousands of Americans at Pearl Harbor, to conspiracy "to secure military, naval, political and economic domination of the whole world". All of the surviving members of Tojo's cabinet members were included in the 55 count indictment

The Bell Trade Act was passed by the United States Congress in advance of granting political independence to the Philippines.

MAY:

The Soviet ballistic missile program was formally created by a top secret decree (No. 1017-419ss) signed by Joseph Stalin, and Minister of Armaments Dmitri Ustinov was made overseer of the project

Thailand was invaded at dawn by 800 soldiers of the French Army, who crossed the Mekong River from Laos, at that time part of French Indo-China. The troops from France were supported by planes and artillery, and clashed with local forces while pursuing Communist rebels.

OCTOBER:

Chinese Civil War intensifies between the Kuomintang and Communist Party of China



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1947:

FEBRUARY:

South Pacific Commission (SPC) is established

The Nationalist Chinese government violently suppressed the uprising in Taiwan. The number of deaths over the next few days was estimated at 10,000

MAY:

The new post-war Japanese constitution goes into effect.

AUGUST:

Independence of India and Pakistan

The Muslim majority regions formed by the Partition of India gain independence from the British Empire as the Dominion of Pakistan. While the transition is officially at midnight on this day, Pakistan celebrates its independence on August 14, compared with India on the 15th, because the Pakistan Standard Time is 30 minutes behind the standard time of India.

Muhammad Ali Jinnah becomes the first Governor-General of Pakistan. Liaquat Ali Khan takes office as the first Prime Minister of Pakistan. The greater Indian subcontinent with a mixed population of Hindus, Muslims, Christians, Sikhs, Buddhists, Jains, Jews and others formed by the Partition of India gain independence from the British Empire as the Dominion of India.

Jawaharlal Nehru takes office as the first Prime Minister of India, taking his oath from Louis Mountbatten, Viscount Mountbatten of Burma, Governor-General of India (but no longer Viceroy).



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OCTOBER:

A war begins in Kashmir, along the border between India and Pakistan, leading to the Indo-Pakistani War of 1947 in the following year. Also, Pakistan established diplomatic relations with the United States of America.

NOVEMBER:

The Soviet Union completes development of the AK-47, one of the first proper assault rifles.

Great Britain began withdrawing its troops from Palestine.

DECEMBER:

The Iranian Royal Army takes back power in the Azerbaijan province.

1948:

JANUARY:

Burma becomes independent.

FEBRUARY:

Ceylon becomes independent

SEPTEMBER:

Hyderabad is annexed by India



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DEC

The Indonesian National Revolution

INTERNAL:

1946:

JAN:

National Intelligence Authority and its operational arm the Central Intelligence Group are created- Sidney Souers

Despite opposition from the military establishment, the US Department of State, and the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), President Truman established the National Intelligence Authority on 22 January 1946. The NIA was composed of the Secretary of State, Secretary of War, Secretary of the Navy, and a personal representative of President Truman. By a presidential directive, President Truman created the post of Director of Central Intelligence and established the Central Intelligence Group. In a ceremony two days later, President Truman presented the new Director, Rear Admiral Sidney Souers, with a black hat, a black cloak, and a wooden dagger. The NIA board will oversee the activities of the CIG, which is headed by the Director of Central Intelligence (DCI), who is a nonvoting member of the NIA.

Bikini Atoll selected as site for nuclear tests (US)

APRIL:



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The United States made its first successful launch of a V-2 rocket, captured from Germany and tested at the White Sands Proving Ground. In all, 63 were fired for various purposes as part of American development of its own missile program.

MAY:

Operation Crossroads: For the first time, the United States invited the rest of the world's nations to watch nuclear testing, with an invitation to the eleven other member nations of the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission to watch the testing in July. The Soviet Union, United Kingdom, France, China, Canada, Australia, Brazil, Egypt, Poland, the Netherlands and Mexico were afforded the chance to send government and press representatives as witnesses.

JULY:

Nuclear testing: Operation Crossroads, a series of nuclear weapon tests conducted by the United States at Bikini Atoll in Micronesia, is initiated by detonation of Able at an altitude of 520 feet (158 m). In the first underwater test of the atomic bomb, the surplus USS Saratoga is sunk near Bikini Atoll in the Pacific Ocean, when the United States detonates the Baker device during Operation Crossroads.

AUGUST:

The US Atomic Energy Act is passed by the House of Representatives
The Atomic Energy Act, which was introduced by Brien McMahon, outlines how the USA will control and handle nuclear technology, was passed by the House of Representatives on July 20, and signed into law by President Truman



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on August 1. It established the Atomic Energy Commission (AEC) to promote the "utilization of atomic energy for peaceful purposes to the maximum extent consistent with the common defense and security and with the health and safety of the public." Furthermore, the Atomic Energy Commission will ensure that nuclear power amelioration and the development of nuclear weapons will be under civilian, and not military, prerogative.

DECEMBER:

President Harry S. Truman delivers Proclamation 2714, which officially ends hostilities in World War II.

1947:

MAR:

Truman Doctrine is proclaimed to help inhibit the spread of Communism in the world

1948:

APRIL:

The Marshall Plan is effected.

JULY:

Truman signs Executive Order 9981.



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NOVEMBER:

Harry S. Truman wins the 1948 presidential elections.

1949:

JANUARY:

Harry S. Truman is sworn in as POTUS.

Wartime Conferences, 1941–1945

The first involvement of the United States in the wartime conferences between the Allied nations opposing the Axis powers occurred before the nation formally entered World War II. In August 1941, President Franklin Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill met secretly and devised an eight-point statement of war aims known as the Atlantic Charter, which included a pledge that the Allies would not accept territorial changes resulting from the war in Europe.

Following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour, the wartime conferences focused on establishing a second front.

At Casablanca in January 1943, Roosevelt and Churchill agreed to fight until the Axis powers surrendered unconditionally.

In a November 1943 meeting in Egypt with Chinese leader Chiang Kai-shek, Roosevelt and Churchill agreed to a pre-eminent role for China in post war Asia.



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The next major wartime conference included Roosevelt, Churchill, and the leader of the Soviet Union, Joseph Stalin. Meeting at Tehran following the Cairo Conference, the “Big Three” secured confirmation on the launching of the cross-channel invasion and a promise from Stalin that the Soviet Union would eventually enter the war against Japan.

In 1944, conferences at Bretton Woods and Dumbarton Oaks created the framework for international cooperation in the post war world.

In February 1945, the “Big Three” met at the former Russian czar’s summer palace in the Crimea. Yalta was the most important and by far the most controversial of the wartime meetings. Recognizing the strong position that the Soviet Army possessed on the ground, Churchill and an ailing Roosevelt agreed to several compromises with Stalin that allowed Soviet hegemony to remain in Poland and other Eastern European countries, granted territorial concessions to the Soviet Union, and outlined punitive measures against Germany, including an occupation and reparations in principle. Stalin did guarantee that the Soviet Union would declare war on Japan within six months.

The last meeting of the “Big Three” occurred at Potsdam in July 1945, where the tension that would erupt into the cold war was evident. Despite the end of the war in Europe and the revelation of the existence of the atomic bomb to the Allies, neither President Harry Truman, Roosevelt’s successor, nor Clement Atlee, who mid-way through the conference replaced Churchill, could come to agreement with Stalin on any but the most minor issues. The most significant agreement was the issuance of the Potsdam Declaration to Japan demanding an immediate and unconditional surrender and threatening Japan with destruction if they did not comply. With the Axis forces defeated, the wartime alliance soon devolved into suspicion and bitterness on both sides

The Tehran Conference, 1943



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The Tehran Conference was a meeting between U.S. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin in Tehran, Iran, between November 28 and December 1, 1943. During the Conference, the three leaders coordinated their military strategy against Germany and Japan and made several important decisions concerning the post-World War II era. The most notable achievements of the Conference focused on the next phases of the war against the Axis powers in Europe and Asia. Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin engaged in discussions concerning the terms under which the British and Americans finally committed to launching Operation Overlord, an invasion of northern France, to be executed by May of 1944. The Soviets, who had long been pushing the Allies to open a second front, agreed to launch another major offensive on the Eastern Front that would divert German troops away from the Allied campaign in northern France. Stalin also agreed in principle that the Soviet Union would declare war against Japan following an Allied victory over Germany. In exchange for a Soviet declaration of war against Japan, Roosevelt conceded to Stalin's demands for the Kurile Islands and the southern half of Sakhalin, and access to the ice-free ports of Dairen (Dalian) and Port Arthur (Lüshun Port) located on the Liaodong Peninsula in northern China. The exact details concerning this deal were not finalized, however, until the Yalta Conference of 1945.

At Tehran, the three Allied leaders also discussed important issues concerning the fate of Eastern Europe and Germany in the post-war period. Stalin pressed for a revision of Poland's eastern border with the Soviet Union to match the line set by British Foreign Secretary Lord Curzon in 1920. To compensate Poland for the resulting loss of territory, the three leaders agreed to move the German-Polish border to the Oder and Neisse rivers. This decision was not formally ratified, however, until the Potsdam Conference of 1945. During these



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negotiations Roosevelt also secured from Stalin his assurance that the Republics of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia would be reincorporated into the Soviet Union only after the citizens of each republic voted on the question in a referendum. Stalin stressed,

however, that the matter would have to be resolved “in accordance with the Soviet constitution,” and that he would not consent to any international control over the elections. Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin also broached the question of the possible post-war partition of Germany into Allied zones of occupation and agreed to have the European Advisory Commission “carefully study the question of dismemberment” before any final decision was taken.

Broader international cooperation also became a central theme of the negotiations at Tehran. Roosevelt and Stalin privately discussed the composition of the United Nations. During the Moscow Conference of the Foreign Ministers in October and November of 1943, the United States, Britain, China, and the Soviet Union had signed a four-power declaration whose fourth point called for the creation of a “general international organization” designed to promote “international peace and security.” At Tehran, Roosevelt outlined for Stalin his vision of the proposed organization in which the future United Nations would be dominated by “four policemen” (the United States, Britain, China, and Soviet Union) who “would have the power to deal immediately with any threat to the peace and any sudden emergency which requires action.”

Finally, the three leaders issued a “Declaration of the Three Powers Regarding Iran.” Within it, they thanked the Iranian Government for its assistance in the war against Germany and promised to provide it with economic assistance both during and after the war. Most importantly, the U.S., British, and Soviet



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Governments stated that they all shared a “desire for the maintenance of the independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity of Iran.”

Roosevelt secured many of his objectives during the Conference. The Soviet Union had committed to joining the war against Japan and expressed support for Roosevelt’s plans for the United Nations. Most importantly, Roosevelt believed that he had won Stalin’s confidence by proving that the United States was willing to negotiate directly with the Soviet Union and, most importantly, by guaranteeing the opening of the second front in France by the spring of 1944. However, Stalin also gained tentative concessions on Eastern Europe that would be confirmed during the later wartime conferences.

The Yalta Conference, 1945

The Yalta Conference took place in a Russian resort town in the Crimea from February 4–11, 1945, during World War Two. At Yalta, U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin made important decisions regarding the future progress of the war and the post war world.

The Allied leaders came to Yalta knowing that an Allied victory in Europe was practically inevitable but less convinced that the Pacific war was nearing an end. Recognizing that a victory over Japan might require a protracted fight, the United States and Great Britain saw a major strategic advantage to Soviet participation in the Pacific theatre. At Yalta, Roosevelt and Churchill discussed with Stalin the conditions under which the Soviet Union would enter the war against Japan and all three agreed that, in exchange for potentially crucial Soviet participation in the Pacific theatre, the Soviets would be granted a sphere of



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influence in Manchuria following Japan's surrender. This included the southern portion of Sakhalin, a lease at Port Arthur (now Lüshunkou), a share in the operation of the Manchurian railroads, and the Kurile Islands. This agreement was the major concrete accomplishment of the Yalta Conference.

The Allied leaders also discussed the future of Germany, Eastern Europe and the United Nations. Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin agreed not only to include France in the post-war governing of Germany, but also that Germany should assume some, but not all, responsibility for reparations following the war. The Americans and the British generally agreed that future governments of the Eastern European nations bordering the Soviet Union should be "friendly" to the Soviet regime while the Soviets pledged to allow free elections in all territories liberated from Nazi Germany. Negotiators also released a declaration on Poland, providing for the inclusion of Communists in the post war national government. In discussions regarding the future of the United Nations, all parties agreed to an American plan concerning voting procedures in the Security Council, which had been expanded to five permanent members following the inclusion of France. Each of these permanent members was to hold a veto on decisions before the Security Council.

Initial reaction to the Yalta agreements was celebratory. Roosevelt and many other Americans viewed it as proof that the spirit of U.S.-Soviet wartime cooperation would carry over into the post war period. This sentiment, however, was short lived. With the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt on April 12, 1945, Harry S. Truman became the thirty-third president of the United States. By the end of April, the new administration clashed with the Soviets over their influence in Eastern Europe, and over the United Nations. Alarmed at the



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perceived lack of cooperation on the part of the Soviets, many Americans began to criticize Roosevelt's handling of the Yalta negotiations. To this day, many of Roosevelt's most vehement detractors accuse him of "handing over" Eastern Europe and Northeast Asia to the Soviet Union at Yalta despite the fact that the Soviets did make many substantial concessions.

The Potsdam Conference, 1945

The Big Three—Soviet leader Joseph Stalin, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill (replaced on July 26 by Prime Minister Clement Attlee), and U.S. President Harry Truman—met in Potsdam, Germany, from July 17 to August 2, 1945, to negotiate terms for the end of World War II. After the Yalta Conference of February 1945, Stalin, Churchill, and U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt had agreed to meet following the surrender of Germany to determine the post-war borders in Europe. Germany surrendered on May 8, 1945, and the Allied leaders agreed to meet over the summer at Potsdam to continue the discussions that had begun at Yalta. Although the Allies remained committed to fighting a joint war in the Pacific, the lack of a common enemy in Europe led to difficulties reaching consensus concerning post-war reconstruction on the European continent.

The major issue at Potsdam was the question of how to handle Germany. At Yalta, the Soviets had pressed for heavy post-war reparations from Germany, half of which would go to the Soviet Union. While Roosevelt had acceded to such demands, Truman and his Secretary of State, James Byrnes, were determined to mitigate the treatment of Germany by allowing the occupying nations to exact reparations only from their own zone of occupation. Truman and Byrnes



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encouraged this position because they wanted to avoid a repetition of the situation created by the Treaty of Versailles, which had exacted high reparations payments from Germany following World War One. Many experts agreed that the harsh reparations imposed by the Versailles Treaty had handicapped the German economy and fuelled the rise of the Nazis.

Despite numerous disagreements, the Allied leaders did manage to conclude some agreements at Potsdam. For example, the negotiators confirmed the status of a demilitarized and disarmed Germany under four zones of Allied occupation. According to the Protocol of the Conference, there was to be “a complete disarmament and demilitarization of Germany”; all aspects of German industry that could be utilized for military purposes were to be dismantled; all German military and paramilitary forces were to be eliminated; and the production of all military hardware in Germany was forbidden. Furthermore, German society was to be remade along democratic lines by repeal of all discriminatory laws from the Nazi era and by the arrest and trial of those Germans deemed to be “war criminals.” The German educational and judicial systems were to be purged of any authoritarian influences, and democratic political parties would be encouraged to participate in the administration of Germany at the local and state level. The reconstitution of a national German Government was, however, postponed indefinitely, and the Allied Control Commission (which was comprised of four occupying powers, the United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union) would run the country during the interregnum.

One of the most controversial matters addressed at the Potsdam Conference dealt with the revision of the German-Soviet-Polish borders and the expulsion of several million Germans from the disputed territories. In exchange for the



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territory it lost to the Soviet Union following the readjustment of the Soviet-Polish border, Poland received a large swath of German territory and began to deport the German residents of the territories in question, as did other nations that were host to large German minority populations. The negotiators at Potsdam were well-aware of the situation, and even though the British and Americans feared that a mass exodus of Germans into the western occupation zones would destabilize them, they took no action other than to declare that “any transfers that take place should be effected in an orderly and humane manner” and to request that the Poles, Czechoslovaks and Hungarians suspend additional deportations.

In addition to settling matters related to Germany and Poland, the Potsdam negotiators approved the formation of a Council of Foreign Ministers that would act on behalf of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China to draft peace treaties with Germany’s former allies. Conference participants also agreed to revise the 1936 Montreux Convention, which gave Turkey sole control over the Turkish Straits. Furthermore, the United States, Great Britain, and China released the “Potsdam Declaration,” which threatened Japan with “prompt and utter destruction” if it did not immediately surrender (the Soviet Union did not sign the declaration because it had yet to declare war on Japan).

The Potsdam Conference is perhaps best known for President Truman’s July 24, 1945 conversation with Stalin, during which time the President informed the Soviet leader that the United States had successfully detonated the first atomic bomb on July 16, 1945. Historians have often interpreted Truman’s somewhat firm stance during negotiations to the U.S. negotiating team’s belief that U.S. nuclear capability would enhance its bargaining power. Stalin, however, was already well-informed about the U.S. nuclear program thanks to the Soviet



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intelligence network; so, he also held firm in his positions. This situation made negotiations challenging. The leaders of the United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union, who, despite their differences, had remained allies throughout the war, never met again collectively to discuss cooperation in post-war reconstruction.

1945-52: The Early Cold War:

The end of the Second World War did not signal a return to normality; on the contrary, it resulted in a new conflict. The major European powers that had been at the forefront of the international stage in the 1930s were left exhausted and ruined by the war, setting the scene for the emergence of two new global superpowers. Two blocs developed around the Soviet Union and the United States, with other countries being forced to choose between the two camps. The USSR came out of the war territorially enlarged and with an aura of prestige from having fought Hitler's Germany. The country was given a new lease of life by its heroic resistance to the enemy, exemplified by the victory at Stalingrad. The USSR also offered an ideological, economic and social model extending as never before to the rest of Europe. Furthermore, the Red Army, unlike the US army, was not demobilised at the end of the war. The Soviet Union thus had a real numerical superiority in terms of men and heavy weapons.

The United States was the great victor of the Second World War. Its human and material losses were relatively low, and even though the US Army was almost completely demobilised a few months after the end of hostilities, the United States remained the world's leading military power. Its navy and air force were unrivalled, and until 1949 it was the only country with the capacity to produce nuclear weapons. It also confirmed its status as the world's leading economic



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power, in terms of both the volume of trade and industrial and agricultural production. The US now owned more than two thirds of the world's gold reserves and the dollar became the primary international currency.

The conflicts of interest between the new world powers gradually multiplied, and a climate of fear and suspicion reigned. Each country feared the newfound power of the other. The Soviets felt surrounded and threatened by the West and accused the United States of spearheading 'imperialist expansion'. For their part, the Americans were concerned at Communist expansion and accused Stalin of breaching the Yalta Agreement on the right of free peoples to self-determination. The result was a long period of international tension interspersed with dramatic crises which, from time to time, led to localised armed conflicts without causing a full-scale war between the United States and the USSR. From 1947, Europe, divided into two blocs, was at the heart of the struggle between the two superpowers. The Cold War reached its first climax with the Soviet blockade of Berlin. The explosion of the first Soviet atomic bomb in the summer of 1949 reinforced the USSR in its role as a world power. This situation confirmed the predictions of Winston Churchill, who, in March 1946, had been the first Western statesman to speak of an 'Iron Curtain' that now divided Europe in two.

The United States emerged from World War II as one of the foremost economic, political, and military powers in the world. Wartime production pulled the economy out of depression and propelled it to great profits. In the interest of avoiding another global war, for the first time the United States began to use economic assistance as a strategic element of its foreign policy and offered significant assistance to countries in Europe and Asia struggling to rebuild their shattered economies.

In contrast to American unwillingness to politically or militarily entangle itself in the League of Nations, the United States became one of the first members of



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the international organization designed to promote international security, commerce, and law, the United Nations. The United States also took an active interest in the fate of the colonies the European powers were having difficulty maintaining. In addition to these challenges, the United States faced increasing resistance from the Soviet Union which had rescinded on several wartime promises. As the Soviets demonstrated a keen interest in dominating Eastern Europe, the United States took the lead in forming a Western alliance to counterbalance the communist superpower to contain the spread of communism. At the same time, the United States restructured its military and intelligence forces, both of which would have a significant influence in U.S. Cold War policy.

Demilitarized Regions

World War 2 resulted in the formation of several United Nations demilitarized zones as a result of conflict and uncertainty regarding the true master of a particular territory. Primarily, three demilitarized zones were created which had a lasting and forceful impact on the Cold War and the USA for years to come. The 1949 Armistice Agreements, produced as a result of the Israel-Syria Mixed Armistice Commission, produced 3 demilitarized zones, acting as buffer in potential areas of conflict. These demilitarized zones no longer exist. The decision to demilitarize Germany, or rather, the failure to demilitarize Germany, by the United States et al at the Postdam Conference had a huge impact on the course of the Cold War. The demilitarization of the unified German forces and the massive German arms industry had a crippling effect on the economy, contributing to the overall decline in Germany's economy. However, the Wehrmacht soon had to be reestablished due to the circumstances of the Cold War.



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Just five days before Japan surrendered, U.S. officials Dean Rusk and Charles Bonesteel were given the task of delineating the U.S. occupation zone in East Asia. Without consulting any Koreans, they arbitrarily decided to cut Korea roughly in half along the 38th parallel of latitude, ensuring that the capital city of Seoul—the largest city in the peninsula—would be in the American section. Rusk and Bonesteel's choice was enshrined in General Order No. 1, America's guidelines for administering Japan in the aftermath of the war.

Japanese forces in northern Korea surrendered to the Soviets, while those in southern Korea surrendered to the Americans. Although South Korean political parties quickly formed and put forward their own candidates and plans for forming a government in Seoul, the U.S. Military Administration feared the leftist tendencies of many of the nominees. The trust administrators from the U.S. and the USSR were supposed to arrange for nation-wide elections to reunify Korea in 1948, but neither side trusted the other. The U.S. wanted the entire peninsula to be democratic and capitalist while the Soviets wanted it all to be communist.

At the end of the war, Koreans were united in joy and hope that they were going to be a single

independent country. The establishment of the division—made without their input, let alone their consent—eventually dashed those hopes.

Further, the location of the 38th Parallel was in a bad place, crippling the economy on both sides. Most heavy industrial and electrical resources were concentrated north of the line, and most light industrial and agricultural resources were to the south. Both North and South had to recover, but they would do so under different political structures. This dividing line was created as the Korean Demilitarized Zone, and still exists (in a modified form) today.

At the end of WWII, the U.S. essentially appointed the anti-communist leader Syngman Rhee to rule South Korea. The South declared itself a nation in May



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1948. Rhee was formally installed as the first president in August and immediately began waging a low-level war against communists and other leftists south of the 38th parallel.

Atomic Diplomacy

Atomic diplomacy refers to attempts to use the threat of nuclear warfare to achieve diplomatic goals. After the first successful test of the atomic bomb in 1945, U.S. officials immediately considered the potential non-military benefits that could be derived from the American nuclear monopoly. In the years that followed, there were several occasions in which government officials used or considered atomic diplomacy.

During the Second World War, the United States, Britain, Germany and the U.S.S.R. were all engaged in scientific research to develop the atomic bomb. By mid-1945, however, only the United States had succeeded, and it used two atomic weapons on the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki to bring a rapid and conclusive end to the war with Japan. U.S. officials did not debate at length whether to use

the atomic bomb against Japan but argued that it was a means to a faster end to the Pacific conflict that would ensure fewer conventional war casualties. They did, however, consider the role that the bomb's impressive power could play in post-war U.S. relations with the Soviet Union.

While presiding over the U.S. development of nuclear weapons, President Franklin Roosevelt made the decision not to inform the Soviet Union of the technological developments. After Roosevelt's death, President Harry Truman had to decide whether to continue this policy of guarding nuclear information. Ultimately, Truman mentioned the existence of a particularly destructive bomb to Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin at the Allied meeting at Potsdam, but he did not



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provide specifics about the weapon or its uses. By mid-1945, it was clear the Soviet Union would enter the war in the Pacific and thereby be able to influence the post-war balance of power in the region. U.S. officials recognized there was little chance of preventing this, although they preferred a U.S.-led occupation of Japan rather than a co-occupation as had been arranged for Germany. Some U.S. policymakers hoped that the U.S. monopoly on nuclear technology and the demonstration of its destructive power in Japan might influence the Soviets to make concessions, either in Asia or in Europe. Truman did not threaten Stalin with the bomb, recognizing instead that its existence alone would limit Soviet options and be considered a threat to Soviet security.

In the years that immediately followed the Second World War, the U.S. confidence in its nuclear monopoly had ramifications for its diplomatic agenda. The fact of the bomb was useful in ensuring that Western Europe would rely on the United States to guarantee its security rather than seeking an outside accommodation with the Soviet Union, because even if the United States did not station large numbers of troops on the continent, it could protect the region by placing it under the American “nuclear umbrella” of areas that the United States professed to be willing to use the bomb to defend. The U.S. insistence on hegemony in the occupation and rehabilitation of Japan stemmed in part from the confidence of being the sole nuclear power and in part from what that nuclear power had gained: Japan’s total surrender to U.S. forces. Though it inspired greater confidence in the immediate post-war years, the U.S. nuclear monopoly was not of long duration; the Soviet Union successfully exploded its first atomic bomb in 1949, the United Kingdom in 1952, France in 1960 and the People’s Republic of China in 1964.

By the time the United States was attempting to disengage from the war in Vietnam, however, the idea of atomic diplomacy had lost credibility. By the mid-1960s, the United States and the Soviet Union had achieved approximate



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parity, and their security was based on the principle of mutually assured destruction.

Because neither could make the first strike without the threat of a counterstrike, the benefits of using nuclear weapons in a conflict—even in a proxy war—were greatly diminished. So, although President Nixon briefly considered using the threat of the bomb to help bring about an end to the war in Vietnam, he realized that there remained the threat that the Soviet Union would retaliate against the United States on behalf of North Vietnam and that both international and domestic public opinion would never accept the use of the bomb.

Despite the many threats made over the course of the Cold War, atomic weapons were not used in any conflict after the Second World War. Although the existence of nuclear weapons could continue to act as a deterrent, their diplomatic utility had its limits.

The Formation of the United Nations, 1945

On January 1, 1942, representatives of 26 nations at war with the Axis powers met in Washington to sign the Declaration of the United Nations endorsing the Atlantic Charter, pledging to use their full resources against the Axis and agreeing not to make a separate peace.

At the Quebec Conference in August 1943, Secretary of State Cordell Hull and British Foreign Secretary Anthony Eden agreed to draft a declaration that included a call for “a general international organization, based on the principle sovereign equality of all nations.” An agreed declaration was issued after a Foreign Ministers Conference in Moscow in October 1943. When President Franklin D. Roosevelt met with Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin in Tehran, Iran, in November 1943, he proposed an international organization comprising an assembly of all member states and a 10-member executive committee to discuss



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social and economic issues. The United States, Great Britain, Soviet Union, and China would enforce peace as “the four policemen.” Meanwhile Allied representatives founded a set of task-oriented organizations: The Food and Agricultural Organization (May 1943), the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (November 1943), the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (April 1944), the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank (July 1944), and the International Civil Aviation Organization (November 1944).

U.S., British, Soviet, and Chinese representatives met at Dumbarton Oaks in Washington in August and September 1944 to draft the charter of a post-war international organization based on the principle of collective security.

Representatives of 50 nations met in San Francisco April-June 1945 to complete the Charter of the United Nations. In addition to the General Assembly of all member states and a Security Council of 5 permanent and 6 non-permanent members, the Charter provided for an 18-member Economic and Social Council, an International Court of Justice, a Trusteeship Council to oversee certain colonial territories, and a Secretariat under a Secretary General. The Roosevelt administration strove to avoid Woodrow Wilson’s mistakes in selling the League of Nations to the Senate. It sought bipartisan support and in September 1943 the Republican Party endorsed U.S. participation in a post-war international organization, after which both houses of Congress overwhelmingly endorsed participation. Roosevelt also sought to convince the public that an international organization was the best means to prevent future wars. The Senate approved the UN Charter on July 28, 1945, by a vote of 89 to 2. The United Nations came into existence on October 24, 1945, after 29 nations had ratified the Charter

Occupation and Reconstruction of Japan



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After the defeat of Japan in World War II, the United States led the Allies in the occupation and rehabilitation of the Japanese state. Between 1945 and 1952, the U.S. occupying forces, led by General Douglas A. MacArthur, enacted widespread military, political, economic, and social reforms.

The groundwork for the Allied occupation of a defeated Japan was laid during the war. In a series of wartime conferences, the leaders of the Allied powers of Great Britain, the Soviet Union, the Republic of China, and the United States discussed how to disarm Japan, deal with its colonies (especially Korea and Taiwan), stabilize the Japanese economy, and prevent the remilitarization of the state in the future. In the Potsdam Declaration, they called for Japan's unconditional surrender; by August of 1945, that objective had been achieved.

In September 1945, General Douglas MacArthur took charge of the Supreme Command of Allied Powers (SCAP) and began the work of rebuilding Japan. Although Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the Republic of China had an advisory role as part of an "Allied Council," MacArthur had the final authority to make all decisions. The occupation of Japan can be divided into three phases: the initial effort to punish and reform Japan, the work to revive the Japanese economy, and the conclusion of a formal peace treaty and alliance.

The first phase, roughly from the end of the war in 1945 through 1947, involved the most fundamental changes for the Japanese Government and society. The Allies punished Japan for its past militarism and expansion by convening war crimes trials in Tokyo. At the same time, SCAP dismantled the Japanese Army and banned former military officers from taking roles of political leadership in



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the new government. In the economic field, SCAP introduced land reform, designed to benefit the majority tenant farmers and reduce the power of rich landowners, many of whom had advocated for war and supported Japanese expansionism in the 1930s. MacArthur also tried to break up the large Japanese business conglomerates, or zaibatsu, as part of the effort to transform the economy into a free market capitalist system. In 1947, Allied advisors essentially dictated a new constitution to Japan's leaders. Some of the most profound changes in the document included downgrading the emperor's status to that of a figurehead without political control and placing more power in the parliamentary system, promoting greater rights and privileges for women, and renouncing the right to wage war, which involved eliminating all non-defensive armed forces.

By late 1947 and early 1948, the emergence of an economic crisis in Japan alongside concerns about the spread of communism sparked a reconsideration of occupation policies. This period is sometimes called the "reverse course." In this stage of the occupation, which lasted until 1950, the economic rehabilitation of Japan took centre stage. SCAP became concerned that a weak Japanese economy

would increase the influence of the domestic communist movement, and with a communist victory in China's civil war increasingly likely, the future of East Asia appeared to be at stake. Occupation policies to address the weakening economy ranged from tax reforms to measures aimed at controlling inflation. However, the most serious problem was the shortage of raw materials required to feed Japanese industries and markets for finished goods. The outbreak of the Korean War in 1950 provided SCAP with just the opportunity it needed to address this problem, prompting some occupation officials to suggest that, "Korea came along and saved us." After the UN entered the Korean War, Japan became the principal supply depot for UN forces. The conflict also placed Japan



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firmly within the confines of the U.S. defence perimeter in Asia, assuring the Japanese leadership that whatever the state of its military, no real threat would be made against Japanese soil.

Occupation and Administration of Post-War Germany:

On May 8, 1945, the unconditional surrender of the German armed forces (Wehrmacht) was signed by Field Marshal Wilhelm Keitel in Berlin, ending World War II for Germany. The German people were suddenly confronted by a situation never experienced in their history: the entire German territory was occupied by foreign armies, cities and infrastructure were largely reduced to rubble, the country was flooded with millions of refugees from the east, and large portions of the population were suffering from hunger and the loss of their homes. The nation-state founded by Otto von Bismarck in 1871 lay in ruins.

The Establishment of Occupation Zones

The total breakdown of civil administration throughout the country required immediate measures to ensure the rebuilding of civil authority. After deposing Admiral Karl Donitz, Hitler's successor as head of state, and his government, the Allies issued a unilateral declaration on June 5, 1945, that proclaimed their supreme authority over German territory, short of annexation. The Allies would govern Germany through four occupation zones, one for each of the Four Powers--the United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union.

The establishment of zones of occupation had been decided at a series of conferences. At the conference in Casablanca, held in January 1943, British prime minister Winston Churchill's proposal to invade the Balkans and



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East-Central Europe via Greece was rejected. This decision opened the road for Soviet occupation of eastern Germany. At the Tehran Conference in late 1943, the western border of post-war Poland and the division of Germany were among the topics discussed. Because of the conference, a commission began to work out detailed plans for the occupation and administration of Germany after the war. At the Yalta Conference in February 1945, participants decided that in addition to United States, British, and Soviet occupation zones in Germany, the French were also to have an occupation zone, carved out of the United States and British zones.

The relative harmony that had prevailed among the United States, Britain, and the Soviet Union began to show strains at the Potsdam Conference, held from July 17 to August 2, 1945. In most instances, Soviet leader Joseph Stalin was successful in getting the settlements he desired. One of his most far-reaching victories was securing the conference's approval of his decision to compensate Poland for the loss of territory in the east to the Soviet Union by awarding it administrative control over parts of Germany. Pending the negotiation of a peace treaty with

Germany, Poland was to administer the German provinces of Pomerania, Silesia, and the southern portion of East Prussia. The forcible "transfer" to the west of Germans living in these provinces was likewise approved.

The movement westward of Germans living east of a line formed by the Oder and western Neisse rivers resulted in the death or disappearance of approximately 2 million Germans, while an estimated 12 million Germans lost their homes. The presence of these millions of refugees in what remained German territory in the west was a severe hardship for the local populations and the occupation authorities.



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The Foundation of the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany):

On 2 December 1946, the British and Americans decided to merge their respective occupation zones. With the addition of the French zone in 1948, West Germany became the Trizone. From 20 April to 2 June 1948, the three powers met in London to discuss the future of the country and decided to call a constituent assembly, the German Parliamentary Council. Its members were appointed by the parliaments of the federal states, the Länder. These federal entities were created by the occupying powers, on more or less historical lines. For example, whilst the State of Prussia was abolished by the Allies, Bavaria was retained. On 1 September 1948, the Parliamentary Council started work in Bonn. It elected a Christian Democrat, Konrad Adenauer, to lead it and formulated the Basic Law which was promulgated on 23 May 1949. This Law became the provisional Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG). Its adoption after a referendum gave rise to the first legislative elections for the entire Trizone. Bonn was chosen ahead of Frankfurt to be the provisional capital.

The Foundation of the German Democratic Republic (East Germany):

As a response to the foundation of the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) in Bonn, in October 1949 the USSR encouraged the proclamation of the German Democratic Republic (GDR) in Berlin. East Berlin became the capital of the GDR. The West refused to recognise this State which, following the example of the FRG, presumed to speak for all of Germany. The Communist Wilhelm Pieck became President of the GDR and Otto Grotewohl, a former Social Democrat, was made head of the government. However, it was Walter Ulbricht, leader of the Communist Party, who played the crucial role. Since 1946, the



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Social Democratic Party (SPD) of the Soviet zone had had to merge with the Communist Party (KPD) to form the Socialist Unity Party (SED). This Stalinist party, led by Communists, dominated the political scene in the GDR until the end of the Communist era in 1989.

The Truman Doctrine, 1947

With the Truman Doctrine, President Harry S. Truman established that the United States would provide political, military and economic assistance to all democratic nations under threat from external or internal authoritarian forces. The Truman Doctrine effectively reoriented U.S. foreign policy, away from its usual stance of withdrawal from regional conflicts not directly involving the United States, to one of possible intervention in faraway conflicts.

The Truman Doctrine arose from a speech delivered by President Truman before a joint session of Congress on March 12, 1947. The immediate cause for the speech was a recent announcement by the British Government that, as of March 31, it

would no longer provide military and economic assistance to the Greek Government in its civil war against the Greek Communist Party. Truman asked Congress to support the Greek Government against the Communists. He also asked Congress to provide assistance for Turkey, since that nation, too, had previously been dependent on British aid.

At the time, the U.S. Government believed that the Soviet Union supported the Greek Communist war effort and worried that if the Communists prevailed in the Greek civil war, the Soviets would ultimately influence Greek policy. In fact, Soviet leader Joseph Stalin had deliberately refrained from providing any support to the Greek Communists and had forced Yugoslav Prime Minister Josip Tito to follow suit, much to the detriment of Soviet-Yugoslav relations. However, several other foreign policy problems also influenced President Truman's decision to actively aid Greece and Turkey. In 1946, four setbacks, in



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particular, had served to effectively torpedo any chance of achieving a durable post-war rapprochement with the Soviet Union: the Soviets' failure to withdraw their troops from northern Iran in early 1946 (as per the terms of the Tehran Declaration of 1943); Soviet attempts to pressure the Iranian Government into granting them oil concessions while supposedly fomenting irredentism by Azerbaijani separatists in northern Iran; Soviet efforts to force the Turkish Government into granting them base and transit rights through the Turkish Straits; and, the Soviet Government's rejection of the Baruch plan for international control over nuclear energy and weapons in June 1946.

National Security Act of 1947

The National Security Act of 1947 mandated a major reorganization of the foreign policy and military establishments of the U.S. Government. The act created many of the institutions that Presidents found useful when formulating and implementing foreign policy, including the National Security Council (NSC).

The Council itself included the President, Vice President, Secretary of State, Secretary of Defense, and other members (such as the Director of the Central Intelligence Agency), who met at the White House to discuss both long-term problems and more immediate national security crises. A small NSC staff was hired to coordinate foreign policy materials from other agencies for the President. Beginning in 1953 the President's Assistant for National Security Affairs directed this staff. Each President has accorded the NSC with different degrees of importance and has given the NSC staff varying levels of autonomy and influence over other agencies such as the Departments of State and Defense. President Dwight D. Eisenhower, for example, used the NSC meetings to make



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key foreign policy decisions, while John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson preferred to work more informally through trusted associates. Under President Richard M. Nixon, the NSC staff, then headed by Henry A. Kissinger, was transformed from a coordinating body into an organization that actively engaged in negotiations with foreign leaders and implementing the President's decisions. The NSC meetings themselves, however, were infrequent and merely confirmed decisions already agreed upon by Nixon and Kissinger.

The act also established the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), which grew out of World War II era Office of Strategic Services and small post-war intelligence organizations. The CIA served as the primary civilian intelligence-gathering organization in the government.

Marshall Plan, 1948

In the immediate post-World War II period, Europe remained ravaged by war and thus susceptible to exploitation by an internal and external Communist threat. In a June 5, 1947, speech to the graduating class at Harvard University, Secretary of State George C. Marshall issued a call for a comprehensive program to rebuild Europe. Fanned by the fear of Communist expansion and the rapid deterioration of European economies in the winter of 1946–1947, Congress passed the Economic Cooperation Act in March 1948 and approved funding that would eventually rise to over \$13 billion for the rebuilding of Western Europe.

The Marshall Plan generated a resurgence of European industrialization and brought extensive investment into the region. It was also a stimulant to the U.S. economy by establishing markets for American goods. Although the participation of the Soviet Union and East European nations was an initial



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possibility, Soviet concern over potential U.S. economic domination of its Eastern European satellites and Stalin's unwillingness to open up his secret society to westerners doomed the idea. Furthermore, it is unlikely that the U.S. Congress would have been willing to fund the plan as generously as it did if aid also went to Soviet Bloc Communist nations.

Thus, the Marshall Plan was applied solely to Western Europe, precluding any measure of Soviet Bloc cooperation. Increasingly, the economic revival of Western Europe, especially West Germany, was viewed suspiciously in Moscow. Economic historians have debated the precise impact of the Marshall Plan on Western Europe, but these differing opinions do not detract from the fact that the Marshall Plan has been recognized as a great humanitarian effort. Secretary of State Marshall became the only general ever to receive a Nobel Prize for peace. The Marshall Plan also institutionalized and legitimized the concept of U.S. foreign aid programs, which have become an integral part of U.S. foreign policy. The Truman administration wanted to model the West-Europeans economies after the American model. The \$13 billion aid helped in establishing a western capitalist economy in the countries who volunteered for the aid and Truman was successful in deterring communist movements from gaining ground in these countries.

The US Congress and Senate came under great pressure to pass the Marshall plan

after the successful communist coup d'état in Czechoslovakia and the threat of the movement spreading to other countries, as predicted by the domino effect.

McCarthyism and the Second Red Scare

The second Red Scare refers to the fear of communism that permeated American politics, culture, and society from the late 1940s through the 1950s, during the



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opening phases of the Cold War with the Soviet Union. This episode of political repression lasted longer and was more pervasive than the Red Scare that followed the Bolshevik Revolution and World War I. Popularly known as “McCarthyism” after Senator Joseph McCarthy (R-Wisconsin), who made himself famous in 1950 by claiming that large numbers of Communists had infiltrated the U.S. State Department, the second Red Scare predated and outlasted McCarthy, and its machinery far exceeded the reach of a single maverick politician. Nonetheless, “McCarthyism” became the label for the tactic of undermining political opponents by making unsubstantiated attacks on their loyalty to the United States.

The Iron Curtain address of 1946:

In one of the most famous orations of the Cold War period, former British Prime Minister Winston Churchill condemns the Soviet Union’s policies in Europe and declares, “From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the continent.” Churchill’s speech is considered one of the opening volleys announcing the beginning of the Cold War.

Churchill, who had been defeated for re-election as prime minister in 1945, was invited to Westminster College in Fulton, Missouri where he gave this speech. President Harry S. Truman joined Churchill on the platform and listened intently to his speech. Churchill began by praising the United States, which he declared stood “at the pinnacle of world power.” It soon became clear that a primary purpose of his talk was to argue for an even closer “special relationship” between the United States and Great Britain—the great powers of the “English-speaking world”—in organizing and policing the post-war world. In particular, he warned against the expansionist policies of the Soviet Union. In addition to the “iron curtain” that



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had descended across Eastern Europe, Churchill spoke of “communist fifth columns” that were operating throughout western and southern Europe. Drawing parallels with the disastrous appeasement of Hitler prior to World War II, Churchill advised that in dealing with the Soviets there was “nothing which they admire so much as strength, and there is nothing for which they have less respect than for military weakness.”

Truman and many other U.S. officials warmly received the speech. Already they had decided that the Soviet Union was bent on expansion and only a tough stance would deter the Russians. Churchill’s “iron curtain” phrase immediately entered the official vocabulary of the Cold War. U.S. officials were less enthusiastic about Churchill’s call for a “special relationship” between the United States and Great Britain. While they viewed the English as valuable allies in the Cold War, they were also well aware that Britain’s power was on the wane and had no intention of being used as pawns to help support the crumbling British empire. In the Soviet Union, Russian leader Joseph Stalin denounced the speech as “war mongering,” and referred to Churchill’s comments about the “English-speaking world” as imperialist “racism.” The British, Americans, and Russians—allies against Hitler less than a year before the speech—were drawing the battle lines of the Cold War.

The Berlin Blockade and Airlift, 1948-49:

At the end of the Second World War, U.S., British, and Soviet military forces divided and occupied Germany. Also divided into occupation zones, Berlin was located far inside Soviet-controlled eastern Germany. The United States, United Kingdom, and France controlled western portions of the city, while Soviet troops controlled the eastern sector. As the wartime alliance between the



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Western Allies and the Soviet Union ended and friendly relations turned hostile, the question of whether the western occupation zones in Berlin would remain under Western Allied control or whether the city would be absorbed into Soviet-controlled eastern Germany led to the first Berlin crisis of the Cold War. The crisis started on June 24, 1948, when Soviet forces blockaded rail, road, and water access to Allied-controlled areas of Berlin. The United States and United Kingdom responded by airlifting food and fuel to Berlin from Allied airbases in western Germany. The crisis ended on May 12, 1949, when Soviet forces lifted the blockade on land access to western Berlin.

The Creation of Israel, 1948:

On May 14, 1948, David Ben-Gurion, the head of the Jewish Agency, proclaimed the establishment of the State of Israel. U.S. President Harry S. Truman recognized the new nation on the same day.

Although the United States supported the Balfour Declaration of 1917, which favoured the establishment of a Jewish national home in Palestine, President Franklin D. Roosevelt had assured the Arabs in 1945 that the United States would not intervene without consulting both the Jews and the Arabs in that region. The British, who held a colonial mandate for Palestine until May 1948, opposed both the creation of a Jewish state and an Arab state in Palestine as well as unlimited immigration of Jewish refugees to the region. Great Britain wanted to preserve good relations with the Arabs to protect its vital political and economic interests in Palestine.

Soon after President Truman took office, he appointed several experts to study the



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Palestinian issue. In the summer of 1946, Truman established a special cabinet committee under the chairmanship of Dr. Henry F. Grady, an Assistant Secretary of State, who entered into negotiations with a parallel British committee to discuss the future of Palestine. In May 1946, Truman announced his approval of a recommendation to admit 100,000 displaced persons into Palestine and in October publicly declared his support for the creation of a Jewish state. Throughout 1947, the United Nations Special Commission on Palestine examined the Palestinian question and recommended the partition of Palestine into a Jewish and an Arab state. On November 29, 1947 the United Nations adopted Resolution 181 (also known as the Partition Resolution) that would divide Great Britain's former Palestinian mandate into Jewish and Arab states in May 1948 when the British mandate was scheduled to end. Under the resolution, the area of religious significance surrounding Jerusalem would remain a corpus separatum under international control administered by the United Nations.

Arab-Israeli War, 1948:

The Arab-Israeli War of 1948 broke out when five Arab nations invaded territory in the former Palestinian mandate immediately following the announcement of the independence of the state of Israel on May 14, 1948. In 1947, and again on May 14, 1948, the United States had offered de facto recognition of the Israeli Provisional Government, but during the war, the United States maintained an arms embargo against all belligerents.



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On November 29, 1947, the United Nations General Assembly adopted Resolution 181 (also known as the Partition Resolution) that would divide Great Britain's former Palestinian mandate into Jewish and Arab states in May 1948. Under the resolution, the area of religious significance surrounding Jerusalem would remain under international control administered by the United Nations. The Palestinian Arabs refused to recognize this arrangement, which they regarded as favourable to the Jews and unfair to the Arab population that would remain in Jewish territory under the partition. The United States sought a middle way by supporting the United Nations resolution, but also encouraging negotiations between Arabs and Jews in the Middle East.

The Fair Deal, 1949:

In September 1945, Truman addressed Congress and presented a 21-point program of domestic legislation outlining a series of proposed actions in the fields of economic development and social welfare. The measures that Truman proposed to Congress included:

- Increases to the coverage and amount of the unemployment compensation system
- Increase the coverage and amount of the minimum wage
- Control the cost of living in a peacetime economy
- Eliminate federal agencies and regulations created during World War II
- Enact laws ensure full employment
- Enact a law making the Fair Employment Practice Committee permanent
- Ensure sound and fair industrial relations
- Require the U.S. Employment Service to provide jobs for former military personnel
- Increase federal assistance to farmers



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- Ease restrictions on voluntary enlistment in the armed services
- Enact broad, comprehensive and non-discriminatory fair housing laws
- Establish a single federal agency dedicated to research
- Revise the income tax system
- Encourage the disposal through sale of surplus government property
- Increase federal assistance for small businesses
- Improve federal assistance to war veterans
- Emphasize conservation and protection of natural in federal public works programs
- Encourage foreign post-war reconstruction and settlements of Roosevelt's Lend-Lease Act
- Increase wages of all federal government employees
- Promote the sale of surplus wartime U.S. naval vessels
- Enact laws to grow and retain stockpiles of materials essential to the future defense of the nation.

Truman did not send proposed legislation to Congress; he expected Congress to draft the bills. Many of these proposed reforms, however, were never realized due the opposition of the conservative majority in Congress. Despite these setbacks, Truman's proposals to Congress became more and more abundant over the course of his presidency, and by 1948 a legislative program that was more comprehensive came to be known as the "Fair Deal".

The Soviet Nuclear Program:

Soviet physicists paid close attention to the news of the discovery of fission in Germany in 1938. Throughout 1939, leading Soviet physicists attempted to



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reproduce the fission experiment that Otto Hahn and Fritz Strassmann had conducted in Berlin and began to make measurements and calculations to determine under exactly what conditions, if any, a nuclear chain reaction would take place.

After Germany invaded the Soviet Union in 1941, Soviet nuclear physics work largely ceased. Scientists and engineers were drafted or assigned to work on projects, such as radar, that were seen as more pressing. However, a small fraction of physicists continued to explore the possibilities of uranium. Peter L. Kapitza, a high-ranking physicist, remarked in October 1941 that the recent discovery of nuclear energy could be useful in the war against Germany and that the prospects of a uranium bomb seemed promising. Soviet leaders learned that both the United States and Germany had embarked on efforts to build an atomic bomb. In February 1943, the Soviets began their own program led by nuclear physicist Igor Kurchatov and political director Lavrentiy Beria.

The Soviet Atomic Bomb during World War II

The Soviet atomic program during the war was puny compared to the Manhattan Project, involving approximately twenty physicists and only a small number of staff. They researched the reactions necessary to produce both atomic weapons and nuclear reactors. They also began exploring ways to generate enough pure uranium and graphite, and researched uranium isotope separation methods.

While Stalin may have appeared uninterested, he privately told his top advisers to speed up work on the Soviet atomic program: "They simply want to raise the price. We've got to work on Kurchatov and hurry things up."

The Soviet regime immediately stepped up their program. General Boris L. Vannikov (who has been compared to General Leslie Groves) headed an engineering council that oversaw the project. Its members included Kurchatov,



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M.G. Pervukhin, A.I. Alikhanov, I.K. Kikoin, A.P. Vinovgradov, Abram Joffe, A.A. Bochvar, and Avraamy Zavenyagin.

The Soviet Atomic Bomb and the Cold War

On December 25, 1946, the Soviets created their first chain reaction in a graphite structure similar to Chicago Pile-1. After encountering some difficulties with the production of plutonium and the isotopic separation of uranium over the next two years, Soviet scientists managed to get their first production reactor working satisfactorily in the fall of 1948. It would only be a matter of months before the U.S.S.R. exploded its own atomic bomb. The Soviets successfully tested their first nuclear device, called RDS-1 or "First Lightning" (codenamed "Joe-1" by the United States), at Semipalatinsk on August 29, 1949. The RDS-1 explosion yielded 22 kilotons of TNT, similar to the American Gadget and Fat Man bombs. The RDS-1 bomb was designed as an implosion weapon similar to the Fat Man bomb dropped on Nagasaki, Japan; RDS-1 also had a solid plutonium core. The bomb designers had developed a more sophisticated design (tested later as RDS-2) but rejected it due to the known reliability of the Fat Man type design, the USSR having received extensive intelligence on the design of the Fat Man bomb (from Klaus Fuchs) during World War II.

In order to test the effects of the new weapon, workers constructed houses made of wood and bricks, along with a bridge, and a simulated metro in the vicinity of the test site. Armoured hardware and approximately 50 aircraft were also brought to the testing grounds, as well as over 1,500 animals to test the bomb's effects on

life. The resulting data showed the RDS explosion to be 50% more destructive than originally estimated by its engineers. These objects were completely decimated, and the animals were incinerated.



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Detection of the Test by USA:

Some United States Air Force WB-29 weather reconnaissance aircraft were fitted with special filters to collect atmospheric radioactive debris. On 1 September 1949, the Air Force Office of Atomic Energy had a WB-29 fly from Misawa Air Base in Japan to Eielson Air Force Base in Alaska. The plane collected some debris during this flight. These data were then crosschecked with data from later flights, and it was determined that the Soviet Union had effectively tested a nuclear weapon.

Response:

The test surprised the Western powers. When the nuclear fission products from the test were detected by the U.S. Air Force, the United States began to follow the trail of the nuclear fallout debris. President Harry S. Truman notified the world of the situation on September 23, 1949: "We have evidence that within recent weeks an atomic explosion occurred in the U.S.S.R." Truman's statement likely in turn surprised the Soviets, who had hoped to keep the test a secret to avoid encouraging the Americans to increase their atomic programs and did not know that the United States had built a test-detection system using the WB-29 Superfortress. The announcement was a turning point in the Cold War that had just begun.

As the Cold War intensified, both the Soviet Union and the United States embarked upon efforts to rapidly develop and grow their respective nuclear arsenals. Shortly after the US launched its hydrogen bomb program in the early 1950s, the USSR followed suit and initiated their own hydrogen bomb program.

Espionage:

It is popular belief that the extensive spy ring of the USSR in the western countries had contributed greatly to the nuclear program of the USSR. One of



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the most infamous stories is of Klaus Fuchs, a German scientist who has assisted the US in building a nuclear bomb. He had been caught passing sensitive information to Soviet officers. When Klaus Fuchs's espionage was discovered in 1950, many believed that his actions had been essential to the Soviet bomb. Fuchs did pass along important information about the bomb's design and technical specifications, and the Congressional Joint Committee on Atomic Energy concluded that "Fuchs alone has influenced the safety of more people and accomplished greater damage than any other spy not only in the history of the United States but in the history of nations." However, there has been much debate surrounding the role of espionage in the Soviet Union's atomic program. Scholarship suggests that Soviet spying probably allowed the USSR to develop an atomic bomb six months to two years faster than they would have had there been no espionage.

The CMEA and the OEEC:

Organisation for European Economic Co-operation:

The Organisation for European Economic Co-operation; (OEEC) came into being on 16 April 1948. It emerged from the Marshall Plan and the Conference of Sixteen (Conference for European Economic Co-operation), which sought to establish a permanent organisation to continue work on a joint recovery programme and in particular to supervise the distribution of aid. The headquarters of the Organisation was in the Chateau de la Muette in Paris, France.

The Council for Mutual Economic Assistance:



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The COMECON was an organization established in January 1949 (it was officially announced on January 25th) to facilitate and coordinate the economic development of the eastern European countries belonging to the Soviet bloc. Comecon was formed under the aegis of the Soviet Union in 1949 in response to the formation of the Committee of European Economic Cooperation in western Europe in 1948. Between 1949 and 1953, however, Comecon's activities were restricted chiefly to the registration of bilateral trade and credit agreements among member countries. After 1953 the Soviet Union and Comecon began to promote industrial specialization among the member countries and thus reduce "parallelism" (redundant industrial production) in the economies of eastern Europe. In the late 1950s, after the formation of the European Economic Community in western Europe, Comecon undertook more systematic and intense efforts along these lines, though with only limited success. The COMECON was dominated by the USSR and the other members were compelled to follow its direction. It was largely unsuccessful in bringing about economic prosperity and contributing towards the popularisation of the Communist Command-based Economy.

Rise of Communism throughout the world

China

In 1927, government officials in China (then the Republic of China) began to fracture into separate groups and factions. The split occurred at an ideological level, primarily between nationalism from the Kuomintang party (KMT) and socialism from the Chinese Communist Party (CCP).



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Although the two groups had been political rivals since the fall of the Qing Dynasty and founding of the ROC by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in 1912, an attempt to relocate the country's capital city to Wuhan, where the communists had large support, ignited a series of conflicts which resulted in the April 12, 1927 raiding of Shanghai by KMT forces to round up all communist supporters, beginning the Chinese Civil War.

From 1927 until World War II, both the KMT and CCP fought over various territories in China, forcing citizens to choose the sides and fight one another. By the start of World War II, the KMT had been reduced to the area surrounding Shanghai and the east-central region, while the CCP had varying levels of control over the rest of China (with the exception of Manchuria (Manchuria) in northeast China and Taiwan island which were occupied and colonised by the Japanese).

During the Japanese occupation of Manchuria prior to World War II, the KMT decided to compromise with the Japanese in order to eliminate the CCP.

General Chiang Kai-shek believed that only after elimination of the CCP could they be strong enough to reclaim the territories occupied by the Japanese.

By 1937, however, the Japanese launched a full assault on all of China, forcing the KMT and CCP to ally with one another to protect China. The "alliance" was strictly in name only, as the two sides were still bitter rivals, however begrudgingly came together to expel the Japanese. By 1941 due to internal fighting between the two groups and supposed harassment of KMT soldiers by the CPC "allies", Chiang ordered an ambush on several thousand CPC soldiers, ending their "alliance". Until the end of the Japanese occupation (after the Japanese surrender to the United States), both the KMT and CCP armies operated independently and stayed out of each others' way. The CCP's power grew during this time as the KMT suffered massive casualties against the Japanese.



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By 1946, the truce between the two sides ended and fighting resumed. The CCP, now with support from Soviet Russia, began enticing rural peasants and farmers with promises of a changed society built upon the worker, and their manpower increased exponentially. The United States threw full support behind the KMT, and sent troops and resources to assist. Over the next three years, the CCP began solidly capturing more and more Chinese territories, and after capturing the KMT capital Nanjing, the KMT fled to the island of Taiwan as it was recently returned from Japan and had not been part of the Civil War. They took with them national treasures, gold, and foreign reserves with the goal of regrouping and reconquering the mainland. An estimated 1.3 to 2 million supporters followed the KMT to Taiwan.

After the relocation of the KMT and its establishment of a temporary capital in Taipei in 1949, Mao Zedong and the CCP claimed victory and established what they view as a successor state to the ROC named the People's Republic of China, or the PRC, with its capital in Beijing.

Romania

The General election in Romania in 1946 resulted in the Communist Party and its allies obtaining the overwhelming majority in the Assembly of Deputies. This paved the way for the general transformation of Romanian society, from a multi-party political system into a Stalinist one.

In the case of Romania, the power which had the strongest influence was the Soviet Union who had troops stationed there. Officially, the Commission was placed under the leadership of general Rodion Malinovsky. The most active Soviet official was Andrey Vyshinsky, nicknamed for his brutality and disdain toward his Romanian interlocutors.



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Hungary

After the war ended, Hungary soon fell completely into the hands of the Communists. From 1945 on the Hungarians were under the control of Moscow. All wealth of whatever nature was taken from Hungary by the Russians who showed their power by putting thousands of Russian troops and hundreds of tanks in Hungary. The Hungarian leader, Rakosi, was put in power by Stalin of Russia. By 1949, it was a stronghold for communism in Europe.

Poland

After the defeat of Germany in WWII, Poland remained more of a concept than a reality. Under staunch Soviet control and with borders already somewhat amorphous, the victorious allies had to decide what to do with Poland. In the end, the United Kingdom and the U.S. agreed to the Soviet Union's plans to annex the eastern territories of Poland to the Soviet Union, and in recompense, Poland received East Prussia and other German territories, roughly 80% of the size of the territory it lost in the East to the Soviet Union. Poland was also recognized as being part of the Soviet 'sphere of influence' within Eastern Europe.

As the closest state to the Soviet Union and well within the U.S. and U.K.-recognized Soviet sphere of influence, Poland stood little chance of gaining complete control over its own affairs after WWII. Indeed, the Polish government was reconfigured to foster the growth of communism and increase Soviet control. For instance, in 1946, the Polish provisional government held a national referendum which approved the nationalization of Polish industries and created a single-house representative assembly - one that the communists could



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easily dominate. The results of this referendum were likely doctored by Soviet officials.

In the first post-war elections in 1947, the communist government, led by the Soviet-backed Wladyslaw Gomulka, won a vast majority of seats government, but by 1948, the Soviets deposed him in favour of a leader who would ensure a faster rise of communism in Poland.

The Battle against Communism

The second Red Scare refers to the fear of communism that permeated American politics, culture, and society from the late 1940s through the 1950s, during the opening phases of the Cold War with the Soviet Union. This episode of political repression lasted longer and was more pervasive than the Red Scare that followed the Bolshevik Revolution and World War I. Popularly known as “McCarthyism” after Senator Joseph McCarthy (R-Wisconsin), who made himself famous in 1950 by claiming that large numbers of Communists had infiltrated the U.S. State Department, the second Red Scare predated and outlasted McCarthy, and its machinery far exceeded the reach of a single maverick politician. Nonetheless, “McCarthyism” became the label for the tactic of undermining political opponents by making unsubstantiated attacks on their loyalty to the United States. Interpretations of the second Red Scare have ranged between two poles, one emphasizing the threat posed to national security by the Communist Party and the other emphasizing the threat to democracy posed by political repression. Anti Communism has taken especially virulent forms in the United States because of distinctive features of its political tradition. As citizens of a relatively young and diverse republic, Americans historically have been fearful of “enemies within” and have drawn on their oft-noted predilection for voluntary associations to patrol for subversives. This



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popular predisposition in turn has been easier for powerful interests to exploit in the American context because of the absence of a parliamentary system (which elsewhere produced a larger number of political parties as well as strong party discipline) and of a strong civil service bureaucracy. Great Britain, a U.S. ally in the Cold War, did not experience a comparable Red Scare even though it too struggled against espionage. After the wartime federal sedition and espionage laws expired, and after the FBI was curbed, state and local officials took primary responsibility for fighting communism. By 1921 thirty-five states had passed sedition or criminal syndicalism laws (the latter directed chiefly at labor organizations and vaguely defined to prohibit sabotage or other crimes committed in the name of political reform).⁶ Through the 1920s and into the 1930s, anticommunists mobilized in local battles with labor militants; for example, in steel, textiles, and agriculture and among longshoremen. The limitations of the American Federation of Labor (AFL) in organizing mass-production industries led to the emergence of the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO), which organized workers regardless of craft into industry-wide unions such as the United Automobile Workers. Encouraged by the National Labor Relations Act of 1935, the CIO pioneered aggressive tactics such as the sit-down strike and further distinguished itself from the AFL with its organizing efforts among women and racial minorities. These positions attracted Communists to the CIO's service, leading anti-union forces to charge that the CIO was a tool of Communist revolutionaries (a charge that the AFL echoed). Charges of communism were especially common in response to labor protests by African Americans in the South and by Mexican Americans in the West. Overall, anti communist movements served as a valuable key to gauging the extent of the United States' hatred for communism, and its willingness and ability to do anything to combat the same.

Policy towards the USSR



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Relations between the Soviet Union and the United States were driven by a complex interplay of ideological, political, and economic factors, which led to shifts between cautious cooperation and often bitter superpower rivalry over the years. The distinct differences in the political systems of the two countries often prevented them from reaching a mutual understanding on key policy issues and even, as in the case of the Cuban missile crisis, brought them to the brink of war.

The United States government was initially hostile to the Soviet leaders for taking Russia out of World War I and was opposed to a state ideologically based on communism. Although the United States embarked on a famine relief program in the Soviet Union in the early 1920s and American businessmen established commercial ties there during the period of the New Economic Policy (1921–29), the two countries did not establish diplomatic relations until 1933.

By that time, the totalitarian nature of Joseph Stalin's regime presented an insurmountable obstacle to friendly relations with the West. Although World War II brought the two countries into alliance, based on the common aim of defeating Nazi Germany, the Soviet Union's aggressive, anti democratic policy toward Eastern Europe had created tensions even before the war ended.

The Soviet Union and the United States stayed far apart during the next three decades of superpower conflict and the nuclear and missile arms race.

Beginning in the early 1970s, the Soviet regime proclaimed a policy of détente and sought increased economic cooperation and disarmament negotiations with the West. However, the Soviet stance on human rights and its invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 created new tensions between the two countries. These tensions continued to exist until the dramatic democratic changes of 1989–91 led to the collapse during this past year of the Communist system and opened the way for an unprecedented new friendship between the United States and Russia, as well as the other new nations of the former Soviet Union.



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During the time of the conflict, the U.S. Government believed that the Soviet Union supported the Greek Communist war effort and worried that if the Communists prevailed in the Greek civil war, the Soviets would ultimately influence Greek policy. In fact, Soviet leader Joseph Stalin had deliberately refrained from providing any support to the Greek Communists and had forced Yugoslav Prime Minister Josip Tito to follow suit, much to the detriment of Soviet-Yugoslav relations. However, a number of other foreign policy problems also influenced President Truman's decision to actively aid Greece and Turkey. In 1946, four setbacks, in particular, had served to effectively torpedo any chance of achieving a durable post-war rapprochement with the Soviet Union: the Soviets' failure to withdraw their troops from northern Iran in early 1946 (as per the terms of the Tehran Declaration of 1943); Soviet attempts to pressure the Iranian Government into granting them oil concessions while supposedly fomenting irredentism by Azerbaijani separatists in northern Iran; Soviet efforts to force the Turkish Government into granting them base and transit rights through the Turkish Straits; and, the Soviet Government's rejection of the Baruch plan for international control over nuclear energy and weapons in June 1946.

In 1948 the relationship between the US and the USSR further worsened after the communist takeover in Czechoslovakia and the Berlin Blockade, and the disagreements between the US and the USSR over how to deal with Germany and Berlin, brought the worsening relationship to a crisis. This was as three out of the four zones of Germany had joined together to create one Western zone and then they created a new currency for this grouped zone. Stalin reacted to this by imposing the Berlin Blockade. Stalin hoped that the cutting off of all road, rail and canal traffic into the Western sectors of Berlin, the Western zone would be unable to attack, but Stalin also hoped that this could enable a wider spread of communism.



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By the end of the Potsdam conference, the USA and the USSR now viewed each other with total suspicion. Each feared the other. Britain and France were badly weakened by the war and it was clear that the USA and USSR would dominate the world affairs in the near future. Winston Churchill summed up the situation in a speech in 1946, “From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the continent.”

This was known as the beginning of the Cold War. This was where the poor relations between the two countries were more public than ever. Here, we could see that the relations had changed because the USA feared that Russia wanted to spread communism across Europe, and then the world. Russia then feared another invasion from the west and thought America wanted to dominate Europe and the world. In 1945, Russia was much weaker than the USA.

As far as the Americans were concerned, Stalin was planning to take over Europe. This was probably not true; nevertheless, Stalin was determined to hold onto Eastern Europe but had no plans for the rest of Europe. By remembering what America and Russia feared the other was planning was just as important as what they were actually planning meant that this iron curtain that Churchill had previously talked about was in fact true.

In 1947, Stalin set up Cominform which was the response to the USA’s Marshall Plan (it funded countries to encourage them to stay capitalist instead of aiding Stalin’s communist spread). It included communist parties all over Europe and was designed to make sure they all followed the same ideological line as Stalin. This showed that Stalin was also to blame for the weak relations between the two countries because he .

The Berlin Blockade of 1948-1949 was a major stepping stone in the road to the collision of Russia and America. Due to the causes of the blockade, it led to an even stronger hatred between the two sides. The fact America wanted its zone of Germany along with Britain and France’s to recover economically from the war



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and eventually be unified into a new West Germany, opposed Stalin's ideas of keeping Germany weak. He did not want a strong West Germany emerging that could threaten Russia and the communist bloc. In June 1948, the new currency of the Deutschmark was introduced into the western zones to help the economic recovery which was then introduced into the western sectors of Berlin. This annoyed Stalin even more and accused the West (America) of interfering in East Germany (Berlin was East Germany). This triggered the "hate, love" relation, causing Stalin to close the roads, railways and waterways that linked the western sectors of Berlin with West Germany in June 1948. Stalin was using some clever initiative because it would mean that if supplies could not be got to the people in Berlin, the French, English and especially the Americans would have to withdraw. Attempts to break the blockade could end in war (the Russians had far more troops on the ground). This led America to the solution of airlifting supplies to Berlin which started in June over 318 days and put the ball back into Russia's court; she would have to fire the first shot. This forced Stalin to lift the blockade in May 1949.

Europe

UK

After the war, the UK remained in a perceived high alert mode, as they continued war time rationing, as well as other precautionary measures, perhaps in anticipation of Soviet hostility. While domestically things were fairly stable, Churchill was regaining power, as were the Tories. The British Nationalist Act was passed around this time. Furthermore, it was around this time that the US-UK collaboration to control the GIUK naval choke point using ASW, SOSUS, and later, SURTASS and IUSS technology.



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France

France continued its effort towards rebuilding its economy and nation as a whole. The Fourth French Republic was formed. Vichy France and occupied France were united, as wartime leader Charles de Gaulle exited. The French were also originally members of NATO.

Greece

The Greek Civil War was fought in Greece from 1946 to 1949 between the Greek government army—backed by the United Kingdom and the United States—and the Democratic Army of Greece (DSE)—the military branch of the Greek Communist Party (KKE)]. It is considered as the first proxy war of the Cold War. The fighting resulted in the defeat of the DSE by the Hellenic Army. When the Second World War (WWII) ended in 1945 and the rest of Europe was beginning to rebuild itself, Greece entered into a second war, more vicious than that fought against the Axis powers. If eight percent of the population of seven million had died or been killed during WWII, the Greek civil war (GCW) brought that figure up to ten percent.

After the First World War, Greece did not enjoy political stability, enduring repeated coups d'état and dozens of governments. Although Greek communists had been a serious threat to all Greece's frequently changing governments, the struggle between monarchists and republicans was also bitter.

Despite pro-German sympathies the Greek government remained neutral at the outset of World War II. When the country was invaded by Italy, Greece became an Allied nation in 1940. Although the Italian invasion was repulsed, by May 1941 when German troops swept through the Balkans, Greece was also



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occupied and partitioned among Italian, German, and Bulgarian forces. The occupation was brutal: the people were crushed and the land and whatever grew or was built on it decimated.

The period of Greek civil strife is commonly divided into three “rounds”. The first one began in 1943, long before WWII was over. The third round, the civil war proper, was only a matter of time.

Manpower shortage prevented the DSE from conducting a successful conventional warfare. Its guerilla style—hit-and-run attacks—were much more effective. The GNA (heavily supplied by American instructors, weapons and materiel from the Truman Administration) now proved its superiority in manpower, weapons, and particularly air-force. Indeed, in March 1946, ELAS guerillas attacked a police station in the village of Litochoro killing its occupants, an event that signaled the beginning of the third round. A series of successful attacks and wide grassroots support encouraged the KKE’s leadership (September 1947) to change its strategy from that of guerilla to full scale conventional military warfare.

Greek public opinion tilted against the communists because of the evacuation (or abduction) of close to 28,000 Greek children to safe havens in the Balkan countries (or, according to government sources, to training centers that were meant to turn the children into a communist avant-garde military force, à-la-the Ottoman Janissaries, to enforce communism around the globe).

In addition, the growing share of Slavic Macedonians within the DSE caused many Greek citizens to fear that they harbored separatist interests that would lead to the disintegration of Greece.

The gravest KKE mistake was the support given (in late 1948) by its leadership to Stalin, in the latter’s row with the “renegade” Yugoslav leader Tito (left). Yugoslavia had been the main training and supply center of the DSE, but the moment the KKE supported Stalin and condemned Tito, the latter severed his



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military and logistics ties with the DSE (July 1949). Without Tito's support, the communist forces suffered a defeat three months later in the last battles of the DSE on Greek soil, in the mountains of Grammos and Vitsi.

It was one of the first conflicts of the Cold War: Greece was the only place in Central, Balkan and Eastern Europe where communism attempted, but failed, to take power.

The civil war was further complicated by the fact that while the communists may have enjoyed considerable grassroots support in Greece itself, their putative ally, the Soviet Union, had other fish to fry. In an agreement (unknown to the Greek left) Moscow had agreed with Great Britain not to support communism in Greece, apparently in exchange for the Soviets having the upper hand in the rest of Eastern Europe. Deprived of their own great power backing, Greek communists were hardly a match for their British and American-backed opponents.

Yugoslavia

In Yugoslavia, World War II included several armed conflicts between a wide range of actors: foreign aggressors (Germany, Italy and Hungary); Communist revolutionaries (Partisans); Axis-aligned local regimes (Ustaše in Croatia and the Nedić regime in Serbia, which was occupied by the Germans); and various other resistance groups (whether aligned with one of the above groups or not, like Chetniks, Serbian royalists). The logic of violence was likewise varied: resistance, class warfare, ethnic violence, criminal networks and personal agendas at the local level. It is important to note that between the groups, allegiances and opposition were often tactical and fleeting, not ideological. As



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might be imagined given the diversity of forces and goals, the death toll was enormous: an estimated total of 867,000 – 1.2 million people killed, of whom 581,000 were civilians.

Even as the foreign forces departed, marking the official end of the war, the killing in Yugoslavia continued. As across Europe, the brutal conduct of World War II fed post-war violence, however, two factors differentiate the patterns of killing in the immediate aftermath of WWII from most other European post-war experiences: 1) The belief (or fear, depending on perspective) held by many local actors that the Allied forces would eventually support non-Communist armed groups as the end of WWII merged into the Cold War. This belief encouraged the collaborationist forces (particularly the Croatian Ustaše but also Slovene Home Guards) and other forces (ex: Chetniks) who were fighting against the Communist partisan forces to continue combat slightly longer than elsewhere. Further, this belief struck fear in the Communist forces, who remained independent from the Soviet Union, that they would have to definitively defeat their domestic opponents in order to protect their new regime. 2) Therefore, the new government was directly involved in the killing, unlike many other countries where reprisal actions were not state-sponsored. Josep Broz Tito, the Communist leader, sought to consolidate power as quickly as he could and wartime settling of scores began even as the war was in its final throes. The Yugoslav State Commission for the Determination of Crimes of the Occupiers and their Collaborators formed by Partisans in November 1943, and by September 1947 had identified 64,969 individual war criminals. Thousands probably were correctly identified, but the vehicle also served to eliminate competitors for power. As a result, Tito was able to establish a strong and stable government in Yugoslavia, besides allying firmly with the USSR. The latter soon changed, however.



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On June 28th, 1948 the Cominform, the principal symbol of Stalin’s control over Eastern Europe, issued a resolution that formally expelled Yugoslavia from the assembly, citing that Yugoslavia’s ruler, Josep Broz-Tito, had deviated from the correct communist line of governance. Stalin contended that Tito was guilty of flouting the “unified communist front against imperialism” and he also accused Tito of taking the road to nationalism. According to Marxist-doctrine, Yugoslavia’s break from the Union and the Communist world at large defied the “impossible.” The split pronounced the fact that the dogmatic faith of Marxist-Leninism failed to acknowledge that different values inherent within state leaders cannot be simply reduced to a single common denominator advertently leading to a cohesive line of governance. It is therefore unnecessary to discern whether Stalin or Tito was a Marxist heretic, for it is apparent that the true essence of Marxist-Leninism doctrine is contentious. It is necessary, however, to understand why the Soviet Union branded Yugoslavia as a threatening reactionary, renegade, and nationalist force. For within the context of these three central notions it is possible to demystify the unthinkable split between the two communist powers and the consequences of the split within Yugoslavia in the immediate years that followed. In short, Tito’s apparent deviance from Communist theory, as interpreted by the USSR, underscored the tensions that existed within socialist doctrine regarding the path of its implementation. Ultimately, the realities of power in the political and social life of Russia and Yugoslavia revealed the fundamental tensions in communist doctrine and practice that led to the split between the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia.

Acting as General and Marshal of the Yugoslavian partisan movement during the war period, Josep Broz-Tito managed to successfully liberate the Slavic peoples from Nazi rule. The Soviets and the Yugoslavian guerrilla fighters shared the same anti-fascist sentiments towards the Germans and the same



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scepticism towards the wartime Yugoslavian government in exile. Tito's Marxist beliefs cemented a relatively strong relationship with Stalin. Despite certain disputes and misunderstandings, the two leaders supported each other both directly and indirectly during the war. Thus, between the period of 1945-48 it appeared to the outer world that Tito was one of Stalin's staunchest allies. Shortly after the conclusion of the war, however, Tito began to follow policies which were independent from Moscow's in order to consolidate his power within the Balkans. Initially, after the end of World War II Tito had modelled Yugoslavia's constitution after the Soviet Union's. The constitution encouraged direct control over all state activities by the Communist party, as well as the subjugation of a federal system of government in favor of a strong central order. Tito was quick to realize, however, that Yugoslavia's ethnic and nationalist diversity would threaten the stability and efficiency of a purely central system of government. Tito understood that in order to maintain control over the Balkans he had to amalgamate and consolidate the regions that made up Yugoslavia with the hope of holding the regions together under one distinct, sovereign nation. Refusing to allow Yugoslavia to become docile to Soviet dominance, Tito began to liberalize his interpretation of Marxist-Leninism and encouraged the formation of a communist federation of constituent republics made up of political entities that existed within Yugoslavia. These republics were controlled by Tito's dictatorial powers. In short, Tito favoured a federal system of communist government.

Tito was able to maintain a firm grip over his country through his strong police force and his tight political grip over the Yugoslavian party. He was hostile towards Moscow's foreign policy that dominated the national, political, and economic agendas of its eastern satellite states. Tito contended that internal "power, rationality, and national interest held primacy", over aligning Yugoslav communism directly with the Soviet Union. Stalin felt extremely threatened by



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Tito's failure to submit to Soviet rule and Soviet doctrine as prescribed by Stalin himself. Stalin realized that his control over the Eastern-Communist states and Russia herself relied heavily, if not totally, on the suppression of nationalist sentiments. There was no room for an equal federation of nationalities within Stalin's Soviet Union.

One of the most pronounced consequences of the Cominform decision to expel Yugoslavia from its assembly resulted in the re-alignment of Yugoslavia's Marxist-Leninist values. Without the massive external support the Soviet Union had once offered, Tito was forced to refocus his domestic policies by restructuring his internal political support. Tito also had to re-negotiate Yugoslavia's foreign policy in a manner that would gain him internal support from Yugoslavia's constituent republics and bolster his legitimacy as Yugoslavia's undisputed national leader. The ultimate result of Tito's expulsion was an extremely successful foreign policy that is best summarized by the word "nonalignment." After June 28th 1948, Yugoslavia became a non-aligned country. Tito's policy of nonalignment must be judged as a colossal triumph. From the viewpoint of a nation made up of a variety of ethnic and national groups, Tito's decision that Yugoslavia follow a foreign policy primarily based on nonalignment was a domestically and internationally beneficial decision, "it gave the Yugoslav state and Tito immense international stature... it appealed to a broad coalition of groups within Yugoslavia. Indeed it [was] probably... 'The only foreign policy acceptable to all factions of the [communist party], to the different republics within the Yugoslav federation and the main strata of the population.'" Yugoslavia's policy of nonalignment in the years following 1948 lead it towards political ties with third world nations (often socialist in nature), as well as linkages to developed Western economies.



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The impact of the rift between the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia resulted in a variety of occurrences and events in the immediate years following 1948. One of the first, and perhaps most significant consequences of the split, was that Tito's defying attitude towards Stalin proved to be a major personal blow for the Russian leader and Russia at large. It was the first serious external challenge that the supreme ruler of the Soviet Union had ever faced, until 1948 Stalin has been considered to be the undisputed leader of world communism. One might also legitimately argue that Stalin's failure to eliminate the threat of Tito and the cult of Titoism, referring to Tito's reactionary policies as interpreted by Stalin, might have incidentally contributed, "to the downfall of Stalinism as a creed and a model not only in the USSR, but, above all, in the smallest East European countries...hence, Tito's physical survival proved to be a key element in the contest between him and successive Soviet leaders." Kremlin officials feared that Tito's renegade nature would enhance the chances of revolts in both Hungary and Poland. These two countries had significant portions of their populations who were inspired and encouraged by Tito's style of governance. In essence, Tito managed to set up a communist blueprint for action for Eastern European countries who wished to reassert their political control and recover power from their Soviet counterparts.

The Eastern Bloc

The Soviet takeover of eastern Europe started before the end of the second world war. As the Red Army drove the Nazis westward, Soviet leaders already tried to have friendly government installed into the territories. When World War II ended, it was Stalin's goal to conquer all of eastern Europe. Indeed, despite the common agreement that all eastern European governments would be



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politically independent, Stalin had announced at Yalta that it was of paramount importance to him to have some control over the eastern European countries, explaining that this would serve as a deterrent to new potential attacks. After Germany's defeat, Stalin's Red Army remained in the occupied zones, which came as a surprise to the other powers. Stalin wanted to have complete control over those countries as he progressively made them more and more subservient to him and consequently influenced their regime into more and more communism. He did this through fear and by rigging the election polls. The whole region was known as the "Soviet Bloc" or the "Eastern Bloc", and Stalin's Red Army was there to intimidate and eliminate the opposition. The secret police was also intimidating through imprisoning, killing, and torturing the opposition. Stalin replaced in government anybody whom he suspected of lacking loyalty to him. On top of that, he controlled the press and prohibited free speech so that no one could criticize the governments. To tighten control, he created the Cominform in 1947. Cominform's aim was to coordinate the work of the communist governments and to allow Stalin to keep an eye on all of the communist leaders to see if they were still loyal to him. He did this by regularly inviting them to Moscow. As twenty to thirty-seven million Russians died in world war two (depending on sources) Stalin's management of eastern Europe is understandable. Stalin ultimately wanted to protect Russia against future attacks, and creating a "buffer zone" in Eastern Europe was to him the best way to achieve that. By 1949, all of the eastern European countries except Yugoslavia (currently composed of Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia, Montenegro, Kosovo, Macedonia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina) were a hundred percent loyal and fully devoted to Stalin. The countries' regimes became known as Stalin's puppet communist regimes, and the iron curtain was created.

The eastern bloc countries were unhappy about their lack of freedom, and that resulted in a lot of tension and conflicts throughout the post-war years.



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One of the major example of this is the Berlin Blockade. Just like Germany was divided into west and east, Berlin was divided into west and east, West being the allies' side and east being the Soviet side. In June 1948, Stalin decided to stop providing vital supplies to West Berlin as its citizens strongly rejected communist candidates in an election. In response to this came the Berlin Airlift. This consisted in the western power providing by plane all the resources needed by the western Berliners. As Stalin wanted to avoid a potential escalation of violence that could cause a war, he just stopped it nine months later.

Another example of Stalinist influence in Eastern Europe was that of Mátyás Rákosi in Hungary. The non-communists had won the 1945 elections and Tildy became president. However, communist president of the secret police Rákosi decided to execute and arrest all his non-communist opponents. By 1948, Rákosi had complete control of Hungary. He used harsh methods when it came to internal politics and economy. His dictatorship became one of the crudest in eastern Europe. Around 350,000 potentially threatening Hungarian figures such as officials and intellectuals were purged between 1948 and 1956.

When it comes to the other countries, Albania was taken immediately and resistance was not met. In Bulgaria a communist government was elected in the 1945 elections, and the communists executed the non-communists. East Germany became a communist controlled state called the German Democratic Republic in 1949. In Romania, the 1945 elections elected communists to power. As the communists gradually took control, they abolished the monarchy in 1947. In Poland, the communists won the 1947 elections, and thousands of non-communists were arrested or executed. At the end of the war, Czechoslovakia was ruled by a communist and non-communist government. While President Benest was a non-communist, Prime Minister Gottwald was a communist. In the 1946 fair elections the communists did not have the majority with 38 percent. However the communists controlled the radio, the army, and



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the police. After Gottwald had become prime minister a few years earlier, he set up the secret police. And through that, non-communists were arrested. After the 1948 rigged elections that gave the majority to the communists, Gottwald became president and the new leader of this new communist state. Many non-communists were arrested or executed and non-communist foreign minister Masaryk committed suicide. After Czechoslovakia, the Soviet takeover of Eastern Europe was achieved.

After World War two, despite giving some credit to and recognizing the help of its allies, the Russian people felt that they were, for the most part, the ones who were mostly responsible for defeating the Germans. This is legitimate given that 80 percent of the German losses happened on the eastern front, and that the Russia's army was the first to reach Berlin. As the Russians felt that they had largely won the war, they probably felt like they had the right to shape the future of Europe. On top of that, Russia had been the victim of attacks from the west multiple times. In 1914 and 1941 Germany attacked Russia through Poland. To Stalin, the past was a reliable indicator of what the future could hold. Stalin thought that having control over eastern Europe could significantly undermine this threat. Despite this, it was agreed at the Yalta conference, with the consent of Stalin, that all the countries liberated from Nazi Germany would have the right to be democratic and politically independent. Stalin obviously did not keep this promise. However, was he really wrong, because it had also been agreed at Yalta that Eastern Europe would have governments "friendly" to the Soviet Union?

The Iron Curtain



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The Iron Curtain is a term that received prominence after Winston Churchill's speech in which he said that an "iron curtain has descended" across Europe. He was referring to the boundary line that divided Europe in two different political areas: Western Europe had political freedom, while Eastern Europe was under communist Soviet rule. The term also symbolized the way in which the Soviet Union blocked its territories from open contact with the West.

Two economic and international alliances existed on both sides of the Iron Curtain: On the Soviet Union's side were the countries that made the Warsaw Pact and were members of the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance and on the U.S. side were the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and the European Community.

NATO and the Warsaw Pact

NATO was the first peacetime military alliance the United States entered into outside of the Western Hemisphere. After the destruction of the Second World War, the nations of Europe struggled to rebuild their economies and ensure their security. The former required a massive influx of aid to help the war-torn landscapes re-establish industries and produce food, and the latter required assurances against a resurgent Germany or incursions from the Soviet Union. The United States viewed an economically strong, rearmed, and integrated Europe as vital to the prevention of communist expansion across the continent. As a result, Secretary of State George Marshall proposed a program of large-scale economic aid to Europe. The resulting European Recovery Program, or Marshall Plan, not only facilitated European economic integration but promoted the idea of shared interests and cooperation between the United States



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and Europe. Soviet refusal either to participate in the Marshall Plan or to allow its satellite states in Eastern Europe to accept the economic assistance helped to reinforce the growing division between east and west in Europe.

In 1947–1948, a series of events caused the nations of Western Europe to become concerned about their physical and political security and the United States to become more closely involved with European affairs. The ongoing civil war in Greece, along with tensions in Turkey, led President Harry S. Truman to assert that the United States would provide economic and military aid to both countries, as well as to any other nation struggling against an attempt at subjugation. A Soviet-sponsored coup in Czechoslovakia resulted in a communist government coming to power on the borders of Germany. Attention also focused on elections in Italy as the communist party had made significant gains among Italian voters. Furthermore, events in Germany also caused concern. The occupation and governance of Germany after the war had long been disputed, and in mid-1948, Soviet premier Joseph Stalin chose to test Western resolve by implementing a blockade against West Berlin, which was then under joint U.S., British, and French control but surrounded by Soviet-controlled East Germany. This Berlin Crisis brought the United States and the Soviet Union to the brink of conflict, although a massive airlift to resupply the city for the duration of the blockade helped to prevent an outright confrontation. These events caused U.S. officials to grow increasingly wary of the possibility that the countries of Western Europe might deal with their security concerns by negotiating with the Soviets. To counter this possible turn of events, the Truman Administration considered the possibility of forming a European-American alliance that would commit the United States to bolstering the security of Western Europe.



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The Warsaw Treaty Organization (also known as the Warsaw Pact) was a political and military alliance established on May 14, 1955 between the Soviet Union and several Eastern European countries. The Soviet Union formed this alliance as a counterbalance to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a collective security alliance concluded between the United States, Canada and Western European nations in 1949.

The Warsaw Pact supplemented existing agreements. Following World War II, the Soviet Union had concluded bilateral treaties with each of the East European states except for East Germany, which was still part of the Soviet occupied-territory of Germany. When the Federal Republic of Germany entered NATO in early May 1955, the Soviets feared the consequences of a strengthened NATO and a rearmed West Germany and hoped that the Warsaw Treaty Organization could both contain West Germany and negotiate with NATO as an equal partner. Soviet leadership also noted that civil unrest was on the rise in Eastern European countries and determined that a unified, multilateral political and military alliance would tie Eastern European capitals more closely to Moscow.

The original signatories to the Warsaw Treaty Organization were the Soviet Union, Albania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, Romania, and the German Democratic Republic. Although the members of the Warsaw Pact pledged to defend each other if one or more of them came under attack, emphasized non-interference in the internal affairs of its members, and supposedly organized itself around collective decision-making, the Soviet Union ultimately controlled most of the Pact's decisions. The Soviet Union also used the Pact to contain popular dissent in its European satellite States. Although the Warsaw Pact was not formally established until 1955, the formation of such cooperation was in talks since 1948, when the Brussels Treaty was signed, with the Soviet Union and other communist States becoming easily



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agitated regarding their security and the respective spheres of influence of the Eastern and Western Blocs.

Soviet Nuclear Program

On August 29, 1949, the Soviet Union exploded its first atomic bomb. It came as a great shock to the United States because they were not expecting the Soviet Union to possess nuclear weapon knowledge so soon. Previously, the United States had used two atomic bombs on Japan to cause them to surrender during World War II. The impact that the possession of nuclear weapons by the Soviet Union had upon the United States was that it caused Americans to question their own safety.

President Truman responded by re-evaluating the United States position in the world and called for the United States to build up its conventional and nuclear weapons to halt the spread of Soviet influence around the globe.

Division of Germany

One issue confronting the United States, Britain and Soviet Russia after World War II was how to manage post-war Germany. Their opinions on this differed, as always. The Roosevelt plan, presented at the Yalta Conference, would abolish the German nation and create several smaller self-governing nations: Hanover, Prussia, Hesse, Saxony and Bavaria. Joseph Stalin, who had more to fear from a resurgent Germany than Roosevelt, enthusiastically agreed. British Prime Minister Winston Churchill took a different view. Churchill believed a partitioning of Germany was necessary – but not to the extent proposed by Roosevelt. This, Churchill believed, would fill Western Europe with small, economically fragile nation-states. Churchill preferred the creation of three German-speaking states in the north, south and west. These states



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would be resourced enough to be prosperous but small enough to be supervised and managed, particularly if they attempted rearmament or reunification.

Another proposal, the Morgenthau Plan, also appeared in 1944. Named for its inventor, US Secretary of the Treasury Henry Morgenthau, this proposal called for the dismemberment of the German state and the almost complete deindustrialization of the German economy. Territories on Germany's fringes would be given to the Soviet Union, Poland and France, while the Ruhr (a crucial industrial region) would remain under international control. The remainder of Germany would be divided into two separate nations. Roosevelt gave his approval to the Morgenthau Plan. It was never implemented due to Roosevelt's death in April 1945; however, Morgenthau's proposals did have some influence on Allied policy with regard to postwar Germany.

As per the London Protocol, signed in September 1944, the Allied armies moved to occupy discrete sectors. The Soviets (north-east), British (north-west) and Americans (south) each occupied approximately one-third of German territory, while the French controlled smaller zones along their border. The German government was replaced by the Allied Control Council, a four-nation body formed in August 1945. This Council oversaw the transformation of post-war Germany, issuing directives on a range of matters including the rules of military occupation, the demobilization of the German military, the 'de-Nazification' of German life and a process for dealing with war criminals. The Allied Control Council was plagued with differences of opinion and internal tensions, however, and within a year the Council had broken down. By late 1946, the four Allied powers were administering their occupied zones fairly autonomously.

In mid-1946, US and British representatives began planning a merger of their occupation zones into a single economic unit. They invited the French and Soviet zones to join this merger but both resisted. In January 1947, the



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American and British zones combined to form 'Bizonia'. Six months later, Truman ordered the suspension of further reparations exports from Germany, declaring that an "orderly, prosperous Europe requires the economic contributions of a stable and productive Germany". He lobbied the British to permit increases in steel production in Bizonia, from 7.5 million tons to 10.7 million tons. The Americans allowed Germans to take the first steps towards a return to self-government, establishing a number of local boards to manage food and agriculture, transport, communications, finance and trade. This contrasted with the Russian zone, where the process of 'Sovietisation' was well underway. German communists and social democrats formed a coalition under pressure from Moscow. This left-wing coalition dominated local and regional elections in 1956. By 1948 it was effectively in control of the zone, albeit as a puppet of the Kremlin.

In April 1949 Bizonia became Trizonia when the French agreed to a merger with their occupied zone. Weeks later, Trizonia became an independent state: the Federal Republic of Germany, more commonly known as West Germany. In October, the former Soviet zone declared itself the German Democratic Republic or East Germany, and the division of Germany was complete.

The following are major geopolitical events post WW2 that are relevant and important with regard to this Cabinet:

- Atomic Diplomacy
- Formation of the United Nations, 1945



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- Occupation and Reconstruction of Japan
- Occupation and Administration of Germany
- The Acheson-Lilienthal and Baruch Plans, 1946
- Greek Civil War, 1946-49
- The Turkish Straits Crisis, 1946-53
- The Truman Doctrine, 1947
- National Security Act, 1947
- Kennan and Containment, 1947
- Marshall Plan, 1948
- Czechoslovakia coup d'état, 1948
- McCarthyism and the Second Red Scare
- United States Presidential and Congressional Elections, 1948
- The iron curtain speech, 1946
- The Berlin Blockade and Airlift, 1948-49
- Creation of Israel, 1948
- The Arab-Israeli War, 1948
- The Fair Deal, 1949-The Soviet Nuclear Program (first nuclear test – 1949)
- North Atlantic Treaty Organization, 1949
- The Council for Mutual economic Assistance, 1949, and the Organization for European Economic Cooperation, 1948.
- The Chinese Revolution, 1949
- NSC – 68, 1950
- The Korean War, 1950-53 and Japan's Recovery
- Decolonization of Asia and Africa, 1945-60
- The Australia, New Zealand and United States Security Treaty (ANZUS Treaty), 1951



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