

SSNMUN 2018
UNSC
Meeting on the 25th of June, 1948

Letter from the Executive Board

Hello Delegates,

Firstly, we would like to welcome you to a Security Council rare of its kind because of the Agenda that we are about discuss. That aside the Security Council at any MUN is a very competitive committee if not the most competitive both in its nature of debate and heated progression. We expect active participation and good research from all delegates, experienced or otherwise. We hope this is not only an enthusiastic committee but also a good learning session for both the delegates and the EB alike.

Please do NOT limit your research to this or any subsequent documents.

Regards,

AYUSH R. (PRESIDENT)

GOWTHAM SRINIVAS. (VICE PRESIDENT)

SRINI VASAN. (DIRECTOR).

United Nations Security Council

Under the Charter, the Security Council has primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security. It has 15 Members, and each Member has one vote. Under the Charter, all Member States are obligated to comply with Council decisions. The Security Council takes the lead in determining the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression. It calls upon the parties to a dispute to settle it by peaceful means and recommends methods of adjustment or terms of settlement. In some cases, the Security Council can resort to imposing sanctions or even authorize the use of force to maintain or restore international peace and security. The Security Council also recommends the General Assembly on the appointment of the Secretary-General and the admission of new Members to the United Nations. And, together with the General Assembly, it elects the judges of the International Court of Justice.

The Mandate of the security council by any sense is the mandate of the UN itself. There is nothing the security council cannot discuss as long as there is consensus among the members for the topic's discussion. The security council

has discussed agendas of variety of importance starting from admission of UN members and threats to international peace. There is no limit to what can be discussed in the council than the ones that is set on the council by itself.

Discussion:

As evident from the announcement, this simulation of the SC does not have a fixed agenda. The delegates are expected to choose an agenda of their choice by means of consensus. The procedure for the selection of the agenda item along with the committee proceedings will be explained in greater detail along with the particulars of certain procedures on Day 1 of the conference. **As of now, we have compiled a list of events which the executive board thinks that may be discussed in the council. Please do note that this document just acts as tool to enhance your basic understanding of the timeline and can be used as a starting point of your research and not your research itself.**

As stated this meeting of the security council will occur on June 25th, 1948. Thus any issue that is of international importance according to the delegates can be brought up in the council. We would like to remind the delegates that any issue of international importance, that occurred on or before June 25th 1948, can be discussed in council.

Following are some of the issues of international relevance at the time.

The Berlin Blockade of 1948

The Berlin Blockade: As remembered in history “A move to test our ability and our will to resist.” – President Truman of the U.S.A. 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 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.

Understanding the events that led to the imposition of the blockades is the key to understanding the later division of Berlin in 1961 by the Berlin Wall, and the division of the German state that had occurred earlier in 1949 when separate west German (Federal Republic of Germany) and east German (German Democratic Republic) states were established.

There are three key events that led to the Soviet blockades of Berlin: the institution of the Marshall Plan for European Recovery; the London Conferences of winter and spring of 1948; and the resultant London Program which called for a separate West Germany and currency reform as a means to reach this end.

In light of the communist rebellions in Greece and Turkey in March of 1947, President Harry Truman announced the Truman Doctrine, which stated that America promised to —support free people who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures (with U.S. military aid). ¶ Three months after this policy announcement, the Marshall Plan was introduced to serve as an economic and financial extension of the Doctrine.



In light of this increasing tension between the U.S. and the Soviet Union, the U.S. decided that quadripartite occupational control of the defeated Germany with the Soviet Union was no longer feasible. Accordingly, the U.S. and the other western nations occupying Germany (Great Britain and France), as well as the BENELUX nations, embarked on a series of discussions held in London from February to June of 1948 known collectively as the London Conferences. This came at a strategic time because the other occupying powers of Germany

were also realizing that cooperation with the Soviets was increasingly difficult, and all three nations were beginning to re-examine their policies as such.

The result of these discussions was the London Program. The main goal of the London Program was to establish a West German government, with the means to achieving this goal being the combination of the three western zones of occupation and a reform of the currency. The western Allies wanted to combine their zones so that they could be administered as a single economic unit, and so that the currency exchange would be uniform throughout the western sectors of Germany.



While it was a combination of the three events that led the Soviets to blockade Berlin, the London Program seemed to be the predominant factor in the decision. On March 6th the communiqué regarding the London Program was issued, and in April the Soviets responded by constraining the military supplies entering Berlin via the Soviet zone from the west. This left the western nations with the choice of either being politically pressured out of West Berlin (which would diminish their prestige in the rest of Europe), or staying to institute the currency reform and ultimately establish a separate West German nation.

The western allies decided to stay. In mid-June the west issued a new currency in their zone (but not in western Berlin), and the Soviet Union issued a new currency in their zone. On June 23, the west introduced the new currency into Berlin. The next day the Soviets imposed

The next day the Soviets imposed a complete blockade on Berlin. Railways and highways were restricted so that no surface traffic between the western zones and Berlin could occur. The Soviets were able to do this without breaking any

international laws on a technicality; the west and the Soviet Union never made a written pact in regards to the right of western ground access to Berlin. It must be noted that at the time of the blockade Stalin did not give any ultimatums, and while the blockade was in place the Soviets did keep the door open to negotiations on the matter.

But the western powers would not give in. To demonstrate their resolve, the Americans orchestrated a monumental airlift which flew necessities such as coal and food into the western sectors of Berlin. This airlift lasted for 324 days, and approximately 13,000 tons of supplies a day were delivered.

Timeline of Events

“Death is the solution to all problems. No man – No problem.” - Josef Stalin, Soviet Premier.

April 30th 1945: Adolf Hitler kills himself by gunshot in his Führerbunker in Berlin.

May 2nd 1945: General Weidling, commander of the LVI Panzer Corps. agrees to an unconditional surrender of the city of Berlin to General Vasily Sokolovsky.

May 7th 1945: The Germans unconditionally surrender at General Dwight D. Eisenhower's headquarters in Reims, France.

June 5th 1945: The victorious Allied powers assume complete authority over Germany. The Allied Control Council (ACC), with representatives from each Allied power, announce the division of Germany.

June 29th 1945: Eisenhowers deputy, Lieutenant General Lucius Clay, meets with his Russian and British counterparts in Berlin to discuss Western access to the city, which is 110 miles inside the Soviet zone. One highway and railroad are set aside for Western use.

July 3rd 1945: British and American troops enter their respective sectors to begin occupational duties.

July 7th 1945: The Allied Control Council (ACC) creates a governing body for Berlin, the Kommandatura; Russian representative Marshal Georgi Zhukov says that the Soviets will not supply food for the Western sectors of Berlin.

July 17th 1945: Truman, Churchill and Stalin convene the Potsdam Conference to discuss post-war issues; it lasts for almost 16 days, until August 2nd.

July 26th 1945: Clement Attlee is elected Britain's new prime minister after the Labour party wins the general election by a landslide.

August 2nd 1945: Truman, Stalin and Attlee or —The Big Three agree to adopt the Protocol of the Proceedings, signed at Cecilienhof Castle in Potsdam.

August 6th 1945: An American B-29 bomber dropped the world's first operational atomic bomb over the Japanese city of Hiroshima. This was followed up three days later with another atomic bomb attack on Nagasaki.

September 2nd 1945: Japan formally surrenders, ending World War II.

November 30th 1945: The Allied Control Council (ACC) approves three air corridors

March 5th 1946: 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.

September 6th 1946: U.S. Secretary of State James Byrnes declares in Stuttgart that security forces will probably have to remain in Germany for a long period, adding, "We will not shirk our duty. We are not withdrawing."

October 20th 1946: Local elections result in a massive anti-communist protest vote, especially in the Soviet sector of Berlin.

March 10th 1947: Allied foreign ministers meet in Moscow to try and create a treaty for a new German government but fail to reach agreement after six weeks. March 12th 1947: President Harry S. Truman establishes the Truman doctrine in a speech before a joint session of Congress. The doctrine is a policy —to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures.

June 5th 1947: New Secretary of State George Marshall presents the "Marshall Plan" of reconstruction aid to Europe.

June 1947: The Soviets exercise their veto in the ACC and prevent Ernst Reuter from taking office as Berlin's elected mayor.

November 25th -December 17th 1947: Another conference of foreign ministers is held in London, but again no agreement is reached on the future government of Germany.

March 20th 1948: At an Allied Control Council (ACC) gathering in Berlin, the Soviet representative demands to know what happened at a secret London meeting of the Western powers.

March 31st 1948: The Soviets demand inspection of all Western military trains going to and from Berlin. General Lucius Clay refuses to comply and halts train shipments, starting a mini-airlift to re-supply the roughly 6,000 Western troops in Berlin that lasts 10 days

April 2nd 1948: General Lucius Clay puts General Curtis LeMay in charge of a massive airlift to bring supplies to U.S. troops.

April 5th 1948: A Soviet fighter planes crashes with a British plane, killing 14 people.

April 10th 1948: The Soviet forces drop their inspection demands but continue periodic harassment of road and rail traffic.

June 11th 1948: For two days, the Soviets block railroad access from the Western zones to Berlin. Five days later, they quit a Kommandatura meeting.

June 18th 1948: The Western powers announce plans for a new Deutschmark to replace the former German currency which had become worthless. Russia does not accept this and announces its own currency introduction four days later.

June 20th 1948: The Reich mark and the Rentenmark were abolished in the western occupation zones and replaced with the Deutschmark issued by the Bank deutscher Länd (later the Deutsche Bundesbank).

June 23rd 1948: The Western Deutschmark appears in Berlin. Just before midnight, the Soviets cut power to West Berlin and then begin a blockade of the city.

A Berlin newspaper the day after the start of the Blockade; the front page article title reads "Berlin Appeals to the World"

June 24th 1948: All rail, road, and water access from the Western zones to Berlin is halted.



The Arab – Israeli war of 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.

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.



Figure 2. Cartoon by E. H. Shepard in *Punch*, London, May 20, 1948, showing Truman and Stalin with the newborn State of Israel.

The United Nations resolution sparked conflict between Jewish and Arab groups within Palestine. Fighting began with attacks by irregular bands of Palestinian Arabs attached to local units of the Arab Liberation Army composed of volunteers from Palestine and neighbouring Arab countries. These groups launched their attacks against Jewish cities, settlements, and armed forces. The

Jewish forces were composed of the Haganah, the underground militia of the Jewish community in Palestine, and two small irregular groups, the Irgun, and LEHI. The goal of the Arabs was initially to block the Partition Resolution and to prevent the establishment of the Jewish state. The Jews, on the other hand, hoped to gain control over the territory allotted to them under the Partition Plan.

After Israel declared its independence on May 14, 1948, the fighting intensified with other Arab forces joining the Palestinian Arabs in attacking territory in the former Palestinian mandate. On the eve of May 14, the Arabs launched an air attack on Tel Aviv, which the Israelis resisted. This action was followed by the invasion of the former Palestinian mandate by Arab armies from Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, and Egypt. Saudi Arabia sent a formation that fought under the Egyptian command. British trained forces from Transjordan eventually intervened in the conflict, but only in areas that had been designated as part of the Arab state under the United Nations Partition Plan and the corpus separatum of Jerusalem. After tense early fighting, Israeli forces, now under joint command, were able to gain the offensive.



Though the United Nations brokered two cease-fires during the conflict, fighting continued into 1949. Israel and the Arab states did not reach any formal armistice agreements until February. Under separate agreements between Israel and the neighbouring states of Egypt, Lebanon, Transjordan, and Syria, these bordering nations agreed to formal armistice lines. Israel gained some territory formerly granted to Palestinian Arabs under the United Nations resolution in 1947. Egypt and Jordan retained control over the Gaza Strip and the West Bank respectively. These armistice lines held until 1967. The United States did not become directly involved with the armistice negotiations, but hoped that

instability in the Middle East would not interfere with the international balance of power between the Soviet Union and the United States.

Timeline of events

Nov. 29, 1947: UN Partition Resolution (GA 181) - Palestine was to be divided into a Jewish State and an Arab State; Jerusalem was to be internationalized. The resolution is supported by both the US and USSR. Arab countries and Arab league refuse to recognize the resolution. Detailed Map

Dec. 1-3, 1947: Arab riots in Jerusalem. Beginning of Arab blockade of Jerusalem. The period to May 15, 1948 was characterized by numerous skirmishes, road ambushes, riots, bombings and massacres, whether organized by one of the other sides or spontaneous

Dec 12, 1947: Irgun bombing at Damascus gate kills 20, wounds 50 (Levi, 1986, p. 432).

Dec. 15, 1947: Arabs cut water pipes to Jerusalem; damage repaired by British; Jerusalem prepares for siege.

Dec 30, 1947: The Haifa refinery riots and Massacre-Irgun threw bombs from a speeding car into a crowd of Arabs outside the Haifa oil refinery; six killed and forty-two wounded. Survivors surged into the refinery compound and, along with some of the Arab refinery workers, attacked the Jewish refinery workers. In the hour it took for the British soldiers and police to arrive, forty-one Jews had been killed and forty-nine wounded.

January 1948: Arab Salvation Army (also called Arab Liberation Army - ALA) are admitted to Palestine by the British, supposedly following a promise not to attack Jewish settlements. Their leader, Fawzi Al-Kaukji may have entered Palestine only in March. Jewish Agency concludes arms deal with Czechoslovakia, but most arms do not arrive until June 1948, after the British have left. The UN, including the US, had placed an arms embargo on Palestine. This did not apply to Arab countries including Transjordan. As independent states, they were allowed to acquire arms.

Jan 9, 1948: Arab Liberation army Yarmuk battalion crosses into Palestine, attacks Dan and Kfar Szold; attack repulsed with the help of the British.

Jan 25: British intervene in fighting between Jews and Arabs near Kastel. 10 Palmach and 30 dead, 2 injured, 30 Arab casualties

Feb 1, 1948: Palestine Post bombing - Planned by SS-trained explosive expert Fawzi el Kuttub and executed with the help of British deserters. Just after 11 PM, Abou Khalil Genno and two British deserters, brought a truck loaded with half a ton of TNT in front of the Palestine Post building and blew it up.

March 1948: Provisional Jewish government formed in Tel-Aviv.

Mar 11, 1948: Jewish Agency bombing. Fawzi al Kuttub, the SS trained demolitions expert, packed car with a quarter ton of TNT and a timer mechanism that used a wristwatch. The car was parked in front of Hagannah headquarters at the Jewish agency.

April 5-8, 1948: Arab blockade of Jerusalem is broken temporarily by Operation Nachshon. Villages of Arab Hulda, Deir Muheisin (near Latrun) and Beit Machsir (near Bab El Wad) are captured.

April 10, 1948: Israeli agents in Italy sink the SS Lino in Bari Harbour, sending 6,000 rifles and 8 million rounds of ammunition to the bottom of the Harbor. The supplies were destined for Arab forces. The Arabs eventually salvaged the rifles, which were put on another ship, but that ship found its way to Haifa and Israeli forces instead of docking at Beirut.

April 13, 1948: Hadassah Convoy Massacre - In alleged retaliation for Deir Yassin massacre, Arabs killed 77- 80 Jewish medical personnel and wounded civilians and soldiers as well as fighters guarding the convoy on their way to Hadassah hospital.

Apr 20-30: Operation Chametz (Hametz) to isolate Yaffo (Jaffa) - This involved taking Arab villages to the east, manned by Iraqi volunteers. Qiryati Brigade pinned down Arab forces in Jaffa, while Givati Brigade pushed up from the south (Tel Arish and Yazur) as the Alexandroni Brigade came down from the north capturing Tel Litvinsky Camp El-Kheiriya, Sakiya, Salameh, Yazur.

April 25: Irgun attack on Jaffa. This attack stalls, and is then supported by Hagannah forces under unified command. Attack cuts Manshiyeh in half. However, British threaten to attack Tel Aviv. Haganah agrees to replace Irgun, British take up positions between Yaffo and Tel Aviv. Jaffa surrenders. Population fled despite British entreaties.

Apr. 26, 1948: Jewish forces complete a light plane runway Jerusalem in the Valley of the Cross allowing for transport of personnel, some ammunition and supplies.

April 29-30: Jerusalem front - Battle of San Simon Monastery and Katamon. After conquering the monastery from Iraqi forces, Jewish forces are attacked from north and east by a well armed Arab force led by Abu Dayieh. Both sides suffer many casualties. After Haganah intelligence intercepts a call from Arab forces indicating they are on the brink of surrendering, Jewish forces cancel their own plans to surrender. Jews lost 21 dead and 83 wounded at least. Arab casualties 34 dead, 50 wounded.

May 7 -19: Operation Maccabee - Supposed to secure the road to Jerusalem by neutralizing villages and towns along the road. Succeeded in many points except Latrun where the Arab Liberation Army of Fawzi Al Kaukji takes up residence.

May 14, 1948: British High Commissioner Cunningham leaves Palestine.

Operation Shfifon - intended to a) Take over strongpoints in the Jewish quarter of the old city of Jerusalem abandoned by the British b) widen control by taking additional strongpoints outside the Jewish quarter. c) go to offensive and break out of the siege of Jewish quarter. Phases b and c were cancelled on May 13 as not consistent with cease fire undertaking given to the United Nations.

State of Israel declared on Friday May 14, in advance of the Sabbath. recognized immediately by USA and on May 17 by USSR. Jerusalem was inaccessible. Broadcast technicians worked out of a lavatory or closet, and were able to produce the scratchy historical recording that was broadcast around the country that afternoon.

May 15, 1948: Second phase begins. Egypt, Syria, Iraq, Lebanon, Jordan, Saudi Arabia declared war on Israel. Egyptian, Syrian, Jordanian, Iraqi and Lebanese invasion began.

May 15, 1948: Egyptian army attacks Kfar Darom (30 defenders) in the south, and is repulsed. They are repulsed at Nirim (39-45 defenders) as well

May 18, 1948: Battle of Tzemach - Syrian army first brigade units' attack Tzemach in the north east with some 30 tanks and armored cars. Defenders have

2 20mm antitank guns and are hopelessly outclassed. After one of the anti-tank guns was destroyed, some of the defenders abandoned Tzemach and the rest were wiped out. Syrians captured Masada and Merom Hagolan in the north on May 19th after these were abandoned on the evening of May 18th.

May 19-20, 1948 Jerusalem - As operation Kilshon (see above) draws to a close, Jordan Legion invades Jerusalem and takes up positions in Zion Gate (12:00 hrs May 19), closing access to Jewish quarter. Jordan Legion takes Police Station at Sheikh Jerakh, as Irgun defenders flee without a fight, while Yitzhak Levi, head of Haganah intelligence in Jerusalem, tries to coax them back to their posts. British-officered Arab Legion takes Sheikh Jerakh, blunders into Mandelbaum gate area and is repulsed after heavy battle. Its actual objective was Damascus gate in the wall of the Old City.

May 26: Jordan Legion attack retakes Radar station (now called "Radar Hill). 19 Israeli dead. Jordanians lose 2 dead.

May 28, 1948: Jewish quarter of the old city of Jerusalem falls to the Jordan Legion. The inhabitants were protected from the wrath of a lynch mob by the Legion under Abdullah Tell but were ethnically cleaned - noncombatants were expelled to West Jerusalem. About 300 Haganah defenders were taken prisoner and sent to Jordan

May 25-28: Iraqi forces advance from Tul Karm, taking Geulim and reaching Kfar Yona and Ein Vered on the Tul Karm-Netanya road.

May 29, 1948: Attempted Egyptian advance on Tel Aviv - Israeli reconnaissance spots 500 Egyptian vehicles on the coastal road from Gaza. Mohammed Neguib - in charge of the column - had 2,300 men of the 2nd Brigade, 10 tanks and 6 field guns. Only one Israeli unit was available to confront the Egyptians - a company whose men were mostly suffering from food poisoning.

June 1-3: Operation Paleshet - Egyptian forces were stalled at "ad halom" bridge April 29. A Givati counterattack on June 1-3 failed to dislodge them, there were about 50 dead, over 100 casualties. According to some sources, attack was strong enough to persuade the Egyptians to turn south.

June 1-3: Operation Yitzhak - Attempt of Carmeli and Golani brigades to capture Jenin and relieve pressure on Israeli center by Iraqi forces. fails. They capture the city, but are routed in a counter attack by Iraqi forces, with 34 dead and 100 wounded.

June 6-10: Large Arab attack in the north. Nearly two brigades of Arab Liberation Army and Lebanese army took Malkieh and Kadesh, while the Syrians overran Mishmar Hayarden on June 10 after a first attack on June 6 failed.

June 10: Gezer captured by Transjordan Legion, 27 killed, 31 civilians taken prisoner. Gezer was soon recaptured.

June 10: Syrians attacked Kibbutz Ein Gev which east of the sea of Galilee and were repulsed in a heroic and tenacious defense in a battle that lasted three days and included artillery and aerial strafing. 100 defenders faced a battalion backed by armor.

June 11: Fawzi al Kaukji's ALA attacked Ilanit (Sejera) violating the cease fire, and was repulsed in house to house fighting.

June 11, 1948: First truce begins, lasting until July 8.



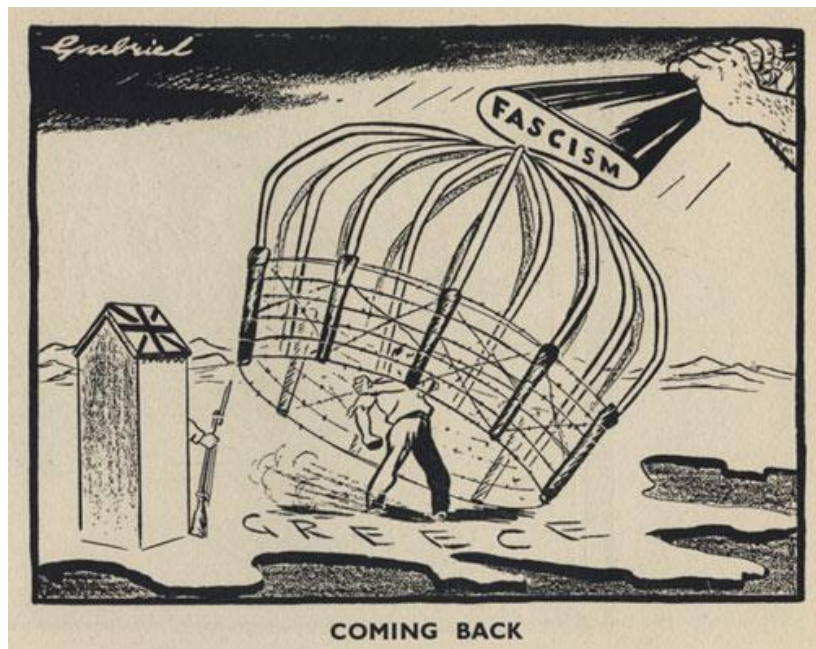
The Greek Civil War

With this political instability in Greece during the early twentieth century, General Ioannis Metaxas took power with a fascist-style dictatorship. Once Metaxas died in 1941, Greece was left powerless and the Communist Party took control and created the National Liberation Front, also called the EAM. Another group was formed that was against the EAM called the National Republican Greek League (EDES). The EAM and EDES fought each other in the winter of 1943-1944. The EDES received help from the British since Britain was worried about a communist takeover. Winston Churchill met with Joseph Stalin in 1944. Churchill agreed to give Stalin power in Romania if Stalin gave Churchill power in Greece. The Germans, still there from World War II, began to withdraw from Greece because of this and Stalin gave no help to the communists, even though they were the powerful group in Greece. On December 2, 1944, fighting started between the British and the EAM. The nationalists won and the size of the Communist party greatly decreased.



In March of 1946, elections were held in Greece. The elections were corrupt and as a result, the victory was greatly in favour of the EDES. Therefore, the Communists formed the Democratic Army of Greece (DA), declaring they were fighting to restore Greece to a democracy. During the first year of fighting, the DA was ahead since they were receiving help from Yugoslavia and controlled the northern part of Greece. The British became increasingly worried and turned to the United States for help. In 1947, the United States agreed to help so President Truman issued the Truman Doctrine to help Greece fight the Communists.

By the time the US entered, the DA was holding land at the borders of Yugoslavia and Albania, as well as land in southern Greece. The DA used guerrilla tactics for their warfare whereas the nationalists were receiving weapons from the United States and Britain. Once the United States went to Greece, the nationalist army greatly increased. Then, Stalin ended his relationship with Yugoslavia's leader, Tito. The DA decided to support Stalin and lost the support of Yugoslavia. With this factor, and the help from the Americans, the nationalists were able to defeat the communists by the summer of 1949. During the course of the war, more than 80,000 people were killed while another 700,000 were left homeless. The civil war left Greece in shambles.



Timeline of events:

JAN 29, 1941: Metaxas Dies, Greece was left powerless and the Communist party took over and created the National Liberation Front, also known as EAM.

SEP 1, 1944: Britain Takes Over, Germany left Greece and Britain took over the government. When ELAS would not cooperate the government, now under British rule, threatened to disarm ELAS, which started the demonstrations.

DEC 2, 1944: Fighting Starts, Fighting starts between the British and EAM. The British won and the size of the Communist party decreased.

DEC 3, 1944: Phase 1: Dekemvriana

Stage one of the Greek Civil War began between the Greek government and British forces. British troops open fired into a crowd of 100,000-250,000 EAM demonstrators.

FEB 12, 1945: Varkiza Agreement

ELAS had to give up their weapons and release their political prisoners. The government had to form a national army, release political prisoners, establish democratic regime, and called for a new constitution.

This ended Phase 1.

MAY 27, 1946: Phase 2 Begins

Greek civil war resumes between Communist Guerrilla's and the Greek government.

MAR 12, 1947: Truman Doctrine

Truman initiated an emergency request for \$400 million to aid Greece and Turkey.

MAY 22, 1947: Marshall Plan Enacted

President Truman signed an Interim Aid Bill establishing the American Mission for Aid to Greece (AMAG). Less than a month later, expanding on the principles of the Truman Doctrine, Secretary of State George Marshall proposed his plan for long-term economic recovery for all European nations. By spring 1948, the Marshall Plan was channelling dollars to Europe.

MAR 31, 1947: Britain Ends Support

Greece had become dependent on Great Britain financially and militarily. However, Great Britain ran into financial issues of their own and withdrew support. The same day as the Greek elections.

MAR 7, 1948: Paidomazoma, The removal of children from Greece into Socialist states. Minors ages 4-14 were removed from Greece to be indoctrinated as Communist janissaries.



Yugoslavia and the COMINFORM

The Soviet Union had established COMINFORM in 1947 to serve as a coordinating body for communist parties in Russia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Italy, France, Czechoslovakia, Romania, and Yugoslavia. Most Western observers believed the organization to be the successor to the Communist International (COMINTERN had been dissolved by Russia in 1943, in an effort to placate its wartime allies—the United States and Great Britain). With the hardening of Cold War animosities after World War II, however, the establishment of COMINFORM signalled that the Soviet Union was once again setting itself up as the official leader of the communist bloc nations. In addition, the inclusion of the Italian and French communist parties served notice that the Soviet Union wished to have a strong say in political developments outside of its eastern European satellites. Yugoslavia was an original member, but that nation's leader, Josef Broz Tito, proved to be reluctant in following the Soviet line. Throughout 1947 and into 1948, Tito harshly criticized Soviet leader Joseph Stalin's lack of assistance to communists fighting for power in Greece. When Tito refused to tone down his complaints, Stalin ordered Yugoslavia expelled from COMINFORM.



After its expulsion, Yugoslavia continued to chart a communist, but distinctly independent, pathway in its domestic and foreign policies. The United States was delighted with the Soviet-Yugoslavia split, and actively courted Tito with economic and military aid in the late-1940s and 1950s. As Stalin had already discovered, however, Tito refused to be the puppet of any government. COMINFORM slowly declined after 1948, as other communist parties, such as Italy's, also chafed under the Soviet desire for control. The Soviet Union officially dissolved the organization in 1956.

Indonesian National Revolution

Unlike Burma and the Philippines, Indonesia was not granted formal independence by the Japanese in 1943. No Indonesian representative was sent to the Greater East Asia Conference in Tokyo in November 1943. But as the war became more desperate, Japan announced in September 1944 that not only Java but the entire archipelago would become independent. This announcement was a tremendous vindication of the seemingly collaborative policies of Sukarno and Hatta. In March 1945, the Investigating Committee for Preparatory Work for Indonesian Independence (BPUPKI) was organized, and delegates came not only from Java but also from Sumatra and the eastern archipelago to decide the constitution of the new state. The committee wanted the new nation's territory to include not only the Netherlands Indies but also Portuguese Timor and British North Borneo and the Malay Peninsula. Thus the basis for a post-war Greater Indonesia (Indonesia Raya) policy, pursued by Sukarno in the 1950s and 1960s, was established. The policy also provided for a strong presidency. Sukarno's advocacy of a unitary, secular state, however, collided with Muslim aspirations. An agreement, known as the Jakarta Charter, was reached in which the state was based on belief in one God and required Muslims to follow the sharia (in Indonesian, *syariah*--Islamic law). The Jakarta Charter was a compromise in which key Muslim leaders offered to give national independence precedence over their desire to shape the kind of state that was to come into being. Muslim leaders later viewed this compromise as a great sacrifice on their part for the national good and it became a point of contention, since many of them thought it had not been intended as a permanent compromise. The committee chose Sukarno, who favoured a unitary state, and Hatta, who wanted a federal system, as president and vice president, respectively--an association of two very different leaders that had survived the Japanese occupation and would continue until 1956.

On June 1, 1945, Sukarno gave a speech outlining the Pancasila; the five guiding principles of the Indonesian nation. Much as he had used the concept of Marhaenism to create a common denominator for the masses in the 1930s, so he used the Pancasila concept to provide a basis for a unified, independent state. The five principles are belief in God, humanitarianism, national unity, democracy, and social justice.

On August 15, 1945, Japan surrendered. The Indonesian leadership, pressured by radical youth groups (the *pemuda*), were obliged to move quickly. With the cooperation of individual Japanese navy and army officers (others feared reprisals from the Allies or were not sympathetic to the Indonesian cause), Sukarno and Hatta formally declared the nation's independence on August 17 at the former's residence in Jakarta, raised the red and white national flag, and

sang the new nation's national anthem, Indonesia Raya (Greater Indonesia). The following day a new constitution was promulgated.

The Indonesian republic's prospects were highly uncertain. The Dutch, determined to reoccupy their colony, castigated Sukarno and Hatta as collaborators with the Japanese and the Republic of Indonesia as a creation of Japanese fascism. But the Netherlands, devastated by the Nazi occupation, lacked the resources to reassert its authority. The archipelago came under the jurisdiction of Admiral Earl Louis Mountbatten, the supreme Allied commander in Southeast Asia. Because of Indonesia's distance from the main theatres of war, allied troops, mostly from the British Commonwealth of Nations, did not land on Java until late September. Japanese troops stationed in the islands were told to maintain law and order. Their role in the early stages of the republican revolution was ambiguous: on the one hand, sometimes they cooperated with the Allies and attempted to curb republican activities; on the other hand, some Japanese commanders, usually under duress, turned over arms to the republicans, and the armed forces established under Japanese auspices became an important part of postwar anti-Dutch resistance.

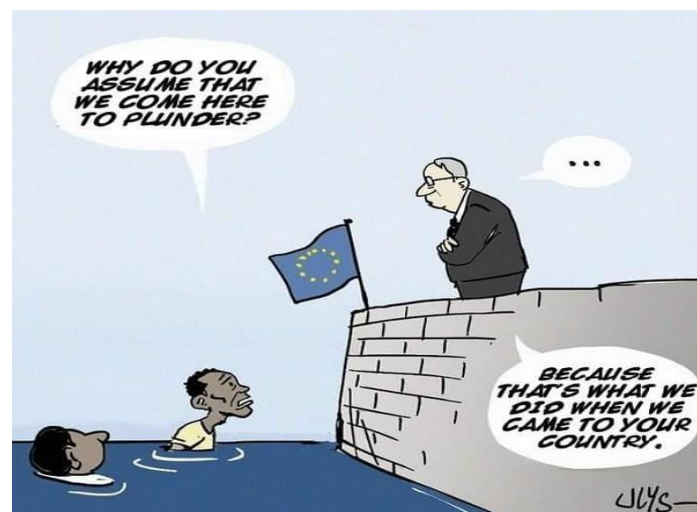
The Allies had no consistent policy concerning Indonesia's future apart from the vague hope that the republicans and Dutch could be induced to negotiate peacefully. Their immediate goal in bringing troops to the islands was to disarm and repatriate the Japanese and liberate Europeans held in internment camps. Most Indonesians, however, believed that the Allied goal was the restoration of Dutch rule. Thus, in the weeks between the August 17 declaration of independence and the first Allied landings, republican leaders hastily consolidated their political power. Because there was no time for nationwide elections, the Investigating Committee for Preparatory Work for Indonesian Independence transformed itself into the Central Indonesian National Committee (KNIP), with 135 members. KNIP appointed governors for each of the eight provinces into which it had divided the archipelago. Republican governments on Java retained the personnel and apparatus of the wartime Java Hokokai, a body established during the occupation that organized mass support for Japanese policies.

The situation in local areas was extremely complex. Among the few generalizations that can be made is that local populations generally perceived the situation as a revolutionary one and overthrew or at least seriously threatened local elites who had, for the most part, collaborated with both the Japanese and the Dutch. Activist young people, the *pemuda*, played a central role in these activities. As law and order broke down, it was often difficult to distinguish revolutionary from outlaw activities. Old social cleavages--between nominal and committed Muslims, linguistic and ethnic groups, and social classes in both rural and urban areas--were accentuated. Republican leaders in local areas desperately struggled to survive Dutch onslaughts, separatist

tendencies, and leftist insurgencies. Reactions to Dutch attempts to reassert their authority were largely negative, and few wanted a return to the old colonial order.

On October 28, 1945, major violence erupted in Surabaya in East Java, as occupying British troops clashed with *pemuda* and other armed groups. Following a major military disaster for the British in which their commander, A.W.S. Mallaby, and hundreds of troops were killed, the British launched a tough counterattack. The Battle of Surabaya (November 10-24) cost thousands of lives and was the bloodiest single engagement of the struggle for independence. It forced the Allies to come to terms with the republic.

In November 1945, through the efforts of Syahrir, the new republic was given a parliamentary form of government. Syahrir, who had refused to cooperate with the wartime Japanese regime and had campaigned hard against retaining occupation-era institutions, such as Peta, was appointed the first prime minister and headed three short-lived cabinets until he was ousted by his deputy, Amir Syarifuddin, in June 1947.



The Dutch, realizing their weak position during the year following the Japanese surrender, were initially disposed to negotiate with the republic for some form of commonwealth relationship between the archipelago and the Netherlands. The negotiations resulted in the British-brokered Linggajati Agreement, initialled on November 12, 1946. The agreement provided for Dutch recognition of republican rule on Java and Sumatra, and the Netherlands-Indonesian Union under the Dutch crown (consisting of the Netherlands, the republic, and the eastern archipelago). The archipelago was to have a loose federal arrangement, the Republic of the United States of Indonesia (RUSI), comprising the republic (on Java and Sumatra), southern Kalimantan, and the "Great East" consisting of Sulawesi, Maluku, the Lesser Sunda Islands, and West New Guinea. The KNIP did not ratify the agreement until March 1947, and neither the republic nor the Dutch were happy with it. The agreement was signed on May 25, 1947.

On July 21, 1947, the Dutch, claiming violations of the Linggajati Agreement, launched what was euphemistically called a "police action" against the republic. Dutch troops drove the republicans out of Sumatra and East and West Java, confining them to the Yogyakarta region of Central Java. The international reaction to the police action, however, was negative. The United Nations (UN) Security Council established a Good Offices Committee to sponsor further negotiations. This action led to the Renville Agreement (named for the United States Navy ship on which the negotiations were held), which was ratified by both sides on January 17, 1948. It recognized temporary Dutch control of areas taken by the police action but provided for referendums in occupied areas on their political future.

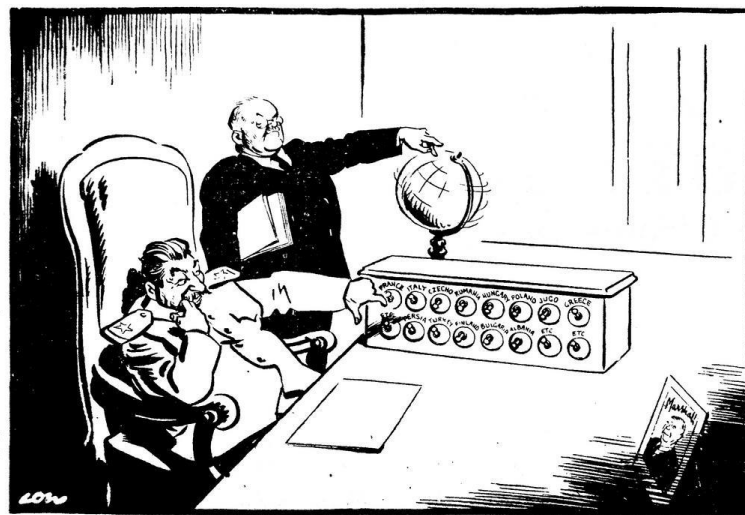
Czechoslovakia's coup d'état

After World War II, Czechoslovakia looked favourably on the Russians, who had liberated them. In fact, the Communist Party had had a solid following in the country from the 1920s, when the nation was democratic. Eduard Beneš, who became the post-war president, had signed a friendship treaty with the Soviets while working with the government-in-exile during 1943. The Czechoslovak army and local government structure were modeled after those in the USSR. By the beginning of 1946, there was no USSR military presence in the country, yet Communists were well-represented in the government with Klement Gottwald as the Prime Minister and other Communists looking after the ministries of the interior, agriculture, information, defense and education. The results of the May 1946 elections demonstrated the popularity of the Party, as it nabbed 38 percent of the vote.

From May 1946 until July of 1947, things seemed to be running smoothly in Czechoslovakia. Then the nation wanted to obtain Marshall Aid. However, the USSR intervened and forbid their ally from accepting US help, stating that it would breach the existing friendship treaty. The Soviet Union's decision regarding Marshall Aid did not put the Communists in favor with the people. Economic difficulties, farmers' objections to collectivization and disappointment with the fast pace of industrialization were additional reasons why citizens then began to see the Communist Party in a different light. Communists reacted strongly to the criticism. In November of 1947 several non-Communist ministers received parcel bombs, most likely courtesy of the Communists. A public opinion poll in January of 1948 showed that the Communists' popularity had dropped to 25 percent and that they did not have much student support.

Then came a key moment. Minister of the Interior Nosek and Prime Minister Gottwald refused to give in to the demands. Trade unions showed their support for the Communist Party, and the Communists set up armed "action

committees” in industrial plants, farms and villages. The people’s militia, comprised of 7,000 members, was formed on February 20. The 12 non-Communist ministers turned in their resignations, predicting that President Beneš would be able to form a new government that would say good riddance to the Communist Party. However, that was not to be the case. Instead, violent Communist-led demonstrations erupted. Armed trade unionists rioted in the Prague streets, attacking the offices of the political opposition. The Army was the only force that could oppose the Communists, and it was run by Communist General Ludvík Svoboda. Soviet Deputy Foreign Minister Valerian Zorin, who was visiting Prague supposedly to oversee Soviet grain shipments to the country, assured the Czechoslovak army that the Russians would stop any Western interference if it arose. Then the Red Army took up positions on the Czechoslovak borders.



To say that President Beneš found himself in a difficult situation is a gross understatement. He was afraid the Soviets would intervene or that a civil war would start. Beneš made a big mistake by hesitating and not trying to convince the non-Communists to take action. Only some students had openly stood up to the Communists and had been physically beaten on Prague’s Nerudova Street. Besides, Beneš wanted the USSR to be a significant role player in Eastern Europe because he did not want Germany to gain power again. He also was convinced that USSR-style Communism would be moderate, by no means extreme. Then Gottwald threatened that there would be a general strike and also presented Beneš with a list of so-called reactionaries who would be punished if he did not sign the Communist government’s set of proposals. President Beneš accepted Gottwald’s proposal for a new government that gave power to the political party.

Timeline of major events:

1918 - Republic of Czechoslovakia proclaimed. Tomas Masaryk elected president.

1935 - Masaryk succeeded as president by Edvard Benes.

Nazis roll into Prague, March 1939

1938 - Munich Conference results in cession of the Sudetenland to Germany. Benes resigns.

1939 - Nazi invasion of Czech Lands which become a German protectorate. Slovakia is proclaimed an independent state under profascist leader Jozef Tiso.

1940 - Benes establishes government in exile in London.

1945 - Soviet troops enter Prague. Benes returns and issues decrees which lay the foundation for the expulsion of over two and a half million Sudeten Germans and more than half a million ethnic Hungarians.

1946 - Czechoslovak Communist Party (CPCz) leader Klement Gottwald becomes prime minister in power-sharing government following national elections.

1948 - Communists organize wave of mass protests and strikes. Government crisis leaves Communists with majority in government. Benes resigns as president. Gottwald succeeds him, imposes Stalinist-style rule, complete with party purges.

The Indo-Pak War of 1948

Indo-Pakistani Conflict of 1947-48

The first war between India and Pakistan began in October 1947 and ended in December 1948. The origins of the first war between India and Pakistan can be traced to the final status of Kashmir following the establishment of an independent India and Pakistan on August 15, 1947. British policy held that the various princely states would have to accede to either Pakistan or India based on geographic location and on demographics. While the final status of many of the states was easily concluded, Kashmir and two other states presented special problems.

Kashmir was strategically located between India and Pakistan and though it was led by a Hindu Maharaja, Muslims made up the majority of the population. Sikhs and Hindus made up the other major ethnicities though they were a minority compared to the Muslim population. Though required to choose between the India and Pakistan the Maharaja was unable to decide which state to join. Both states applied a significant degree of pressure to sway Kashmir's government. Pakistan felt that as it was the established state for Muslims in South Asia that Kashmir should accede to it rather than India. Unfortunately, though Kashmir was majority Muslim, the majority of the population of Kashmir (including a majority within the Muslim population) did not support

joining Pakistan and instead wished to join India or for independence from the two states. Tensions between Pakistan and the government of Kashmir grew as the Maharaja's indecision frustrated Pakistan and pro-Pakistani factions within Kashmir. Hostilities began in early October 1947 when a tribal rebellion broke out in Poonch in southwest Kashmir. By October 20th the Pakistani Army entered the conflict in support of the tribal forces in a multi-pronged effort designed to capture Uri, Jhangar, Rajuara, and Naushera in the opening days of the campaign. Pakistan's timetable was to capture the capital of Kashmir, Srinagar, within a week.

On October 22, 1947, a Lashkar of tribal, some five thousand strong, led an incursion into the valley of Kashmir from Abbottabad. Tribal and Pakistani forces experienced significant successes in the opening days of the conflict as they were able to take Dommel on the first day and overpowered a Kashmiri government battalion at Muzaffarabad by October 23. On October 26, 1947, after four days, they were in the vicinity of Srinagar. The Dogra Army seemed to have been beaten. The Maharaja had already fled his capital, Srinagar, to seek the comparative safety of Jammu. Tribal and Pakistani forces met fierce resistance at Uri, where Kashmiri government forces, despite the desertion of many of its Muslim troops, were able to delay the Pakistani forces for two days until it was destroyed. Retreating Kashmiri forces were able to destroy a key bridge thus delaying Pakistani forces for an additional day. Pakistani efforts to the south in the Jammu region were less successful as Pakistani forces faced significant resistance and were prevented from gaining most of the towns and locations that Pakistan attempted to capture. Following the fall of Uri Pakistani and tribal forces took Baramulla and began to march on Srinagar. The Pakistani-backed forces were able to damage an important power station, located in Mahura, that supplied electricity to Srinagar. In the following days the invading forces were able to get within a few miles of the airfield near Srinagar. Up to this point the Pakistani-backed forces had faced opposition only from the Kashmiri government forces. The Maharaja, facing overwhelming odds and near certain defeat, asked India for military support. India agreed to help provided that Kashmir acceded to India and that the Prime Minister of Kashmir agreed to the accession. Both the Maharaja and the Prime Minister agreed to these terms and on October 26 the Maharaja signed the Instrument of Accession.



At that moment when the Lashkar was preparing to enter the State Capital, Lord Mountbatten, the first Governor General of India and the Chairman of the provisional Defence Committee, reacted with exceeding speed on behalf of India, and air-lifted Indian troops for operations to halt the tribal incursion. On the Indian Army's intervention in the State of Jammu and Kashmir, the Quaid-e-Azam reacted swiftly and ordered General Gracy, (acting Commander-in-Chief of Pakistan Army) on 27/28 October 1947 to despatch troops to the scene. The British General however, failed to carry out the orders of the Governor General. It might be said that, in the circumstances, he blatantly defied the Quaid. Some people thought it was a case of high treason. At that time all the four provincial Governors, the Agent to the Governor General in Baluchistan and the three Services Chiefs of Pakistan were British. The General looked towards Field Marshal Auchinleck, the Supreme Commander of the Joint Command of India and Pakistan Armed Forces, stationed at New Delhi, rather than towards his own "Lawful Command". Field Marshal Auchinleck reported the matter to the Chief of Army Staff in London who immediately passed the orders for "stand down". The directive from London emboldened Auchinleck who then flew to Lahore and threatened the Quaid that an "act of invasion" over Kashmir would involve automatic and immediate withdrawal of all British Officers serving in the Pakistan Army. The ultimatum tended to deprive Pakistan Army of its Command structure, down to the lowest echelons of its fighting organisation. Most of the officers of Pakistan Army at that time were British and their withdrawal would have adversely affected the Army's fighting capabilities. The Quaid had no option but to cancel the mobilisation orders to the Army. India had already gained ground in the Himalayan State of Kashmir. Mountbatten, a friend of the Nehru's, it would be seen, seldom lost an opportunity to help India to the detriment of Pakistan. India's 161st Infantry Brigade was deployed and thwarted the advance of the tribal forces. In early November 1947, the 161st

using armoured cars, counterattacked, surprising the Pakistani forces and successfully broke through their defences. The 161st was flown into the airfield at Srinagar and from there was able to repulse the Pakistani-backed forces. Initial successes allowed the Indians to secure the airfield and to return power to Srinagar. The momentum of the Indian counterattack forced the Pakistani forces into a full retreat allowing elements of the 161st to retake Baramulla and Uri. Despite early successes, the Indian army suffered a setback in December 1947 because of logistical problems. Furthermore, many of the Indian soldiers were ill prepared for fighting in the mountainous region of Kashmir and Jammu, few were experienced at high altitude combat nor were they prepared for the cold. These setbacks were significant as the Pakistani-backed forces were able to capitalize on these problems and to push back Indian forces from the border area. In the spring of 1948, the Indian side mounted another offensive to retake some of the ground that it had lost. Pakistani regulars were introduced into the conflict later in the year, targeting the city of Jammu. The fighting from the spring through December 1948 was widespread as Pakistani forces conducted operations in both the north and the south. The intensity of the conflict and the inability to foresee a quick end to the conflict without involving considerable resources on the part of India to expel the Pakistani forces led Indian leaders to approach the United Nations who ultimately introduced Observers in June 1948. A UN brokered cease-fire went into effect on Jan. 1, 1949. In all, 1,500 soldiers died on each side during the war and Pakistan was able to acquire roughly two-fifths of Kashmir which it established as Azad Kashmir, meaning free Kashmir.

Outline of events:

1846: Jammu and Kashmir (J&K) State is created under the Treaty of Amritsar between the East India Company and Raja Gulab Singh of Jammu who buys Kashmir Valley from the East India Company for Rs.75, 00,000 and adds it to Jammu and Ladakh already under his rule. Kashmir Valley is a Muslim majority region speaking the Kashmiri language and a composite cultural identity called 'kashmiriyat' transcending religious barriers; the people are hospitable and engage in Sufi tradition.

1931: The movement against the Maharaja Hari Singh begins; it is brutally suppressed by the State forces.

1932: Sheikh Mohammed Abdullah sets up the All Jammu and Kashmir Muslim Conference to fight for Kashmiri freedom from the Maharaja's rule, which would eventually become the National Conference in 1939.

The Glancy Commission appointed by the Maharaja publishes a report in April 1932, confirming the existence of the grievances of the State's subjects and suggests recommendations providing for equitable representation of all subjects in the State's services; Maharaja accepts these recommendations but delays

implementation, leading to another agitation in 1934; Maharaja grants a Constitution providing a Legislative Assembly for the people, but the Assembly turns out to be powerless.

1946: National Conference Launches Quit Kashmir movement demanding abrogation of the Treaty of Amritsar and restoration of sovereignty to the people of Kashmir. Abdullah is arrested.

1947: On 15 August, the Indian subcontinent becomes independent. Kashmir signs Standstill Agreement with Pakistan. Rulers of Princely States are encouraged to accede their States to either Dominion - India or Pakistan, taking into account factors such as geographical contiguity and the wishes of their people. The Maharaja of Kashmir delays his decision in an effort to remain independent.

In theory, rulers were allowed to accede their States to either Dominion, irrespective of the wishes of their people; but as a practical matter, they were encouraged to accede to the geographically contiguous Dominion, taking into account the wishes of their people and in cases where a dispute arose, it was decided to settle the question of accession by a plebiscite, a scheme proposed and accepted by India. Being a Muslim majority State and contiguous to Pakistan, Kashmir was expected to accede to Pakistan; since the Hindu Ruler acceded instead to India, a dispute arose in the case of Kashmir.

In 1948, India imposed and won a plebiscite in the case of Junagadh, which had a Hindu majority ruled by a Muslim Ruler who acceded to Pakistan; However, in the case of Kashmir, the mirror image of Junagadh, India did not hold a plebiscite; Pakistan applied its own share of double standards by having divergent positions on Kashmir and Junagadh, insisting it get both.

Barring National Conference, other political parties including the Muslim Conference and the Chiefs of Gilgit region, advise the Maharaja against acceding to the Indian Union. While in prison, Sheikh Abdullah writes a letter to a friend in Jammu, which is published in the Congress press, in favour of accession of Kashmir to India. Abdullah is released from prison on 29 September, in response to pressure from India.

On 22 October, thousands of Pathan tribesmen from Pakistan invade Kashmir. The tribesmen engage in looting and killing along the way. The tribesmen and the Poonch rebels are unofficially supported by various individuals and high ranking officials in Pakistan including Prime Minister Liaquat Ali Khan and Chief Minister of North West Frontier Province. India accuses Pakistan of violating the Standstill Agreement with Kashmir by disrupting the supply links and of engaging in aggression by sending in the tribesmen. Pakistan refutes the charges.

1947: The Maharaja of the State of Jammu and Kashmir signs the Instrument of Accession (IOA) on 26 October, acceding the 75% majority Muslim region to

the Indian Union, following invasion by the tribesmen from Pakistan, according to the 1948 Indian White Paper; India accepts the accession, regarding it provisional until such time as the will of the people can be ascertained by a plebiscite, since Kashmir was recognized as a disputed territory. [A plebiscite is the direct vote of all members of an electorate on an important public question being referred to them, in this case accession of Kashmir to India or Pakistan.] It should be noted that the IOA itself does not specify any provisionally or conditionality of accession, while the White Paper specifies it clearly, thus creating a conflict between strict legal interpretation and repeated official promise made to the people of Kashmir.

The Indian army enters the state on 27 October to repel the invaders. On 27-28 October, Pathan tribesmen engage in looting and killing a large number of people in Baramula, which results in the exodus of over 10,000 residents. Sheikh Abdullah endorses the accession as ad-hoc which would be ultimately decided by a plebiscite and is appointed head of the emergency administration. Pakistan disputes that the accession is illegal given the Maharaja acted under duress and that he had no right to sign an agreement with India when the standstill agreement with Pakistan is still in force.

In November 1947, India proposes that Pakistan withdraw all its troops first, as a precondition for a plebiscite, which Pakistan rejects. Pakistan proposes simultaneous withdrawal of all troops followed by a plebiscite under international auspices, which India rejects. Pakistan sends regular forces to Kashmir and the first war over Kashmir breaks out.

1948: India takes the Kashmir problem to the United Nations (UN) Security Council on 1 January.



Soviet Deportations from the Baltic Region

By June 1940, the Soviet Union had invaded and occupied Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, immediately implementing a reign of repression and terror. The NKVD began by registering and tracking anti-Soviet elements and soon after, the Soviets started conducting arrests, deportations and executions. Their main objective was to eliminate the nation's cultural, business, political, and military elite. After the Baltic countries were illegally annexed and incorporated into the Soviet Union in August 1940, the Kremlin sought to suppress any possible resistance to Soviet rule. In May 1941, official instructions were issued to the NKVD to exterminate active persons, including those belonging to former government, military, police, political and voluntary state defense organizations, along with those in student organizations, anti-Soviet groups, foreign companies, and also Russian immigrants and other minorities in Estonia, among others. The top secret "Directive on the Deportation of the Socially Alien Element from the Baltic Republics, Western Ukraine, Western Belorussia, and Moldavia," declared Soviet enemies to be "under arrest or subject to deportation without any legal process."

On June 14, 1941 the USSR began its first massive deportation, which lasted four days. During this state-sponsored operation, Soviet armed groups targeted houses and silently removed residents, including children, and the elderly. Some

were shot on the spot. The rest were loaded into trains bound for Siberia, to the Russian Gulags. In all, nearly 50,000 citizens of the Baltic countries were sent to the Gulag in June 1941. Some estimates put that number as high as 65,000 victims. Thousands of those deported died on their way to the Gulags. Those who survived were left to live a hard life; most perished there, and a smaller number were released and allowed to return home. This was all kept secret by the Soviets. There were no newspaper or radio reports about these crimes. The Kremlin orchestrated a far-reaching disinformation and censorship campaign throughout the Baltics to keep news of their criminal actions from spreading.

The deportations in the Baltics were interrupted by the German invasion against the Soviet Union. Many of the countries that belonged to the Soviet sphere saw this battle between totalitarian powers as an opportunity to gain back their independence – Nazi propaganda from that time claimed that Wehrmacht forces were fighting to free the Baltic people from Soviet oppression. From June 22 to June 28, Lithuania, Hungary, and Romania all saw anti-Soviet uprisings. However, no sooner had the Soviets been expelled than the Nazis took over, replacing one brutal foreign occupying force with another. Nazi rule over Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia lasted three years. The Soviets re-occupied the Baltic countries in 1944, and forcibly re-annexed those countries. In March 1949, the Kremlin organized a second and even more massive deportation of Baltic citizens to the Gulags.

It was not until after Stalin's death that Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev in 1956 allowed the release of millions of Gulag prisoners, including most Baltic peoples still living in exile. Less than half of those deported ever returned to their homeland. More than 200,000 people were deported from the Baltics between 1940 and 1953.

Timeline of events:

1934: Josef Stalin, who had ruled the USSR with an iron hand since the end of the 1920s, launched the Great Purge in January 1934 to consolidate his power.

1935: Between 7,000 and 9,000 Finns from Lembovo and Nikoulis districts, in the Leningrad region, became the first group to be massively deported based on ethnicity. Falsely accused of betrayal, the Finns were expelled to secure the Soviet frontiers. The People's Commissariat for Internal Affairs (NKVD), forerunner of the Committee for State Security (KGB) orchestrated the operation, as it did for all subsequent mass deportations.

1936, April: About 35,700 Poles living alongside the Ukrainian frontier and some 20,000 Finnish peasants were deported to Kazakhstan for the same reasons as those previously mentioned. The deportation was class-based in the sense that it targeted specific economic categories; but it was also ethnically motivated, as it aimed to secure the frontiers.

1937, September-October: The first large-scale operation of massive deportation occurred in the Soviet Far East. About 175,000 Koreans living along the Chinese and Korean borders were relocated by force to Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan. They were charged with espionage, spying for the Japanese. After a brutal expulsion, the Koreans experienced severe living conditions. Moscow did not inform the local Uzbek and Kazakh authorities about the arrival of a large population of “administrative settlers.” Nothing was prepared to accommodate or provide them with basic supplies such as food, clothes and shoes. Although there was no reliable data regarding the Korean death toll, testimonies and NKVD documents indicate that many of them died from disease, starvation and lack of housing. By 1945, they joined the long list of “special settlers,” among other punished peoples.

1939, August 23: Germany and the Soviet Union signed a Nonaggression Pact, known as the Ribbentrop-Molotov Pact.

1939, September 17: (Poland) The Red Army invaded Poland.

1940, February to April: (The Red Army annexed territories in the eastern parts of Poland) About 250,000 Poles and thousands of Ukrainians and Byelorussians were deported in three major waves to Siberia and to Central and Far Eastern Asia in order to remove the most active populations from the annexed territories. Although based on ethnic criteria, these forced expulsions mainly targeted families of military colonists, prisoners-of-war and foresters. They were dispatched to labour camps or executed. The deportees who survived the journey experienced very hard living conditions in exile. Most of the Polish citizens were allowed to return home when the USSR and Poland reached an agreement on July 30th, 1941.

1941, June 13-14: (Baltic countries) In the aftermath of the Baltic States’ conquest, about 39,395 persons – Estonians, Latvians, Lithuanians but also Poles, Finns, and Germans – were deported to the Soviet Far East. Ivan Serov coordinated the operation under the command of Lavrenti Beria.

1941, June 22: The Nazi army invaded the Soviet Union.

1941, August: The Finns, or Ingrians, inhabiting the Leningrad region and who had not been deported in 1932-1934, were expelled by force to Central Asia. The USSR took this measure to prevent them from assisting the Finnish army that had just invaded the Soviet Karelia region.

1941, August 28: A decree from the Supreme Soviet Presidium established that Russian-Germans were collectively responsible for collaboration with the German invaders, and ordered their massive deportation. From the end of August 1941 until June 1942, about 1,200,000 Russian-Germans were removed from their homes and relocated in Siberia and Central Asia. The operation mobilized thousands of soldiers, policemen and NKVD members. Hundreds of trains and vehicles were dedicated to this task at a time of Russian military

retreat. No reliable data exists on the death toll among the Russian-German deportees.

1943, October 12: The Supreme Soviet issued a decree ordering the deportation of all the Karachays, a Turkish-speaking people inhabiting the North Caucasus. The USSR accused them of collaboration with the German army, which had been occupying Karachay territory for the previous six months. In November 68,938 persons, mainly disarmed (women, children, elderly people and war veterans) were transported under very hard conditions to Kirghizia and Kazakhstan. The men serving with the Red Army or fighting in partisan movements were demobilized and sent into exile or to labor camps. All the Karachays paid for the relationship that a few of their fellow Karachays had established with the German occupiers. This scenario became a common one for all punished peoples.

1943, December 27: Under Beria's orders began the brutal deportation of the Kalmyks, a Buddhist people living in southern Russia near the Volga river basin. In three days, about 93,000 persons were expelled to Siberia. The lack of food and disease claimed the lives of thousands of people who had been forced into jam-packed cattle cars. Likewise, the settlements in exile were equally inhospitable. During the first glacial Siberian winter many died, faced with widespread indifference.

1944, February 23: [The Soviet government deported the Chechens and the Ingush, two Muslim peoples of the North Caucasus->55]. Although the Germans had only occupied a region in the extreme northwest of the Republic, Chechens and Ingush were accused of betrayal and massive collaboration with the German occupiers, like the other punished peoples. Beria's administration used methods resembling those of earlier deportations. Yet this operation proved to be more difficult due to the uneven nature of the terrain. Furthermore, the resistance of a few Chechen and Ingush groups slowed down the NKVD soldiers' agenda. Nonetheless, in seven days nearly 478,000 people, comprised of 387,000 Chechens and 91,000 Ingush, were arrested, loaded into hundreds of convoys and then resettled in Central Asia, mainly in Kazakhstan. It is difficult to set an exact death toll due to the lack of evidence. According to different estimations, between 30% and 50% of the deportees died, either during the journey or in the first years of exile in the special settlements.

1944, March 7: The deportation of the 38,000 Balkars, a small Turkish people living near the Elbruz Mountain in Northern Caucasus, began. Three days later, all deportee-convoys were en route to Central Asia. Between 20% and 40% of the Balkars died between 1944 and 1956.

1944, May 18: The Crimean Tatars, a Muslim Turkish-speaking people originating from the peninsula of Crimea located on the borders of Black Sea, were deported. This forced removal took place one month after the German

army, who had occupied the peninsula from 1942 to April 1944, retreated. In two days roughly 190,000 persons, mostly women, children and elderly people, were loaded into freight trains and transferred to an unknown destination. Most of them landed in Uzbekistan, while others arrived either in the Volga basin or Siberia. The forced expulsion, along with thirteen years of exile as special settlers, took a heavy toll among the Crimean Tatars. According to different studies and censuses, between 20% and 46.2% of them died either during the journey or in the first year and a half of exile.

1944, June: Other non-Slavic peoples living in Crimea were deported a few weeks after the Crimean Tatars: 12,075 Bulgarians, 14,300 Greeks and about 10,000 Armenians were expelled from their homes and sent to Central Asia against their will. All of them were accused of treason and more specifically, of having commercial interests that linked them to the German occupiers. At the same time, Greeks from Rostov and Krasnodar were exiled to the eastern regions of the Soviet Union. They were suspected of having a close relationship with Greece, as most of them had refused Soviet citizenship and struggled to maintain their Greek culture.

1944, November: Muslim Turkish-speaking peoples living in Georgia along the Turkish borders (the Meskhetian Turks, the Khemchins and the Kurds) became the next target of the Stalinist national policy. Given that the Nazi army had never reached Georgia, they could not be accused of massive collaboration. Instead they were charged with being Turkish spies. About 90,000 persons were brutally expelled and relocated to Central Asia to “clean” the frontiers. This constituted the last large-scale operation.

The NKVD continued hunting down all members of these groups who might have managed to escape deportation, for some reason.

1945, May 8: End of the Second World War, called the “Great Patriotic War” in the former USSR.

1948: Confronted with the large insurrection that followed the Baltic States’ annexation, the Soviet central apparatus decided to deport new groups of Lithuanians, Estonians and Latvians: about 48,000 persons were sent to Siberia.



Action Orders/Directives

This Executive Board will allow delegates to take actions on behalf of their countries in real time. These actions are to be done by Directives or Action Orders. These are detailed yet clear directions given to the EB on what a particular country wants done for the respective Delegate's country.

There will be a specific format the EB recommends you follow with regards to Directives.

Directive - Covert/Overt

To: The Head of State/Agency which will implement the actions

From: Delegate of "XYZ"

Primary Objective - "Primary Goal of the Directive"

Secondary Objective - "A goal that can be achieved in the process. (not mandatory)"

Mission Brief - "The Mission outline given in 4-5 lines"

Plan of Action - “The detailed plan explained in steps. (All details are to be mentioned or they will be assumed by the EB which might positive or negative to the delegate)

Additional Information – Additional Information that the delegate would like the EB to note. Maps, facts...etc.

PS: The EB will be having a cap on the directives sent by the delegates. This cap is yet to be decided by the EB and the criteria for the same however we assure you directives will be play a part in council but it will be secondary to the debate and conclusions arrived at by said debate.

Final Points to be noted by the delegates:

- The Executive Board has **NO PREFERENCES** on the agendas mentioned above. If the council deems fit, and votes accordingly, we can discuss any of the above mentioned agendas at any given point of time. No agenda is considered more important or valuable by us. The choice is up to council and possible negotiations arrived at for the same.
- Any opinions in the information above is **NOT** shared by the EB. It is likely due to the sources of the respective information which again is from varied sources.
- Since the council is technically a meeting in 1948. We feel that it's important to have the most realistic simulation possible. Thus use of electronics will be **PROHIBITED**. This applies on phones and laptops or anything that would not have existed in 1948. Your research how much ever it is, should be printed down or written down. Apologies for the inconvenience, but reality is our side. (Note you can carry your laptops or phones with you to council. We will not allow them to be used during formal session. You can however use them during breaks and unmoderated caucuses to refer if required.)

- There are certain procedures and workings of the UNSC that will be addressed to committee on Day 1. We hope the delegates prepare for the best and the worst, as they are expected to.

Disclaimer: Due to a variety of sources used we are unable to provide the accurate links for the information used above. Thus we would like to state that the respective publishers are the owners of the information used as appropriate.

May the Force be with you.