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Letter from the Secretary General

Letter from the Under-Secretary General

Most Esteemed Participants of CC:Cold War Committee,

I am Yasemin Raithel, nearly graduated senior student at Açı Science College.

This committee will discuss the most striking event in the 1900s in my opinion: the Cold War. Such a history that it will be discussed as a summary of the entire century. And you, as presidents, will rewrite history. You will relive the events as if they never happened, in the way you want. I am sure that a fruitful and well-spend 2-day discussion environment awaits you. Unfortunately, I will not be able to be on the committee due to my university exams, but I have carefully selected my team that will be with you and they will provide you the best experience.

I would especially like to thank my Academic Assistant Yasemin Dilek. I think that the ambition and attitude she has given to her work since her delegation is truly worthy of appreciation. Finally, I would like to thank the Secretary General Selin Esin and Director General Buse Duman for making the conference possible.

If you have any questions about the study guide or process, please do not hesitate to contact me via raithelyasemin@gmail.com

Sincerely,

Yasemin RAITHEL

Letter from the Academic Assistants

Distinguished Participants of CC: Cold War Committee,

I welcome you all to the first annual session of MarineTrain 2025 as one of the Academic Assistants of the conference. I am Yasemin Dilek, an 11th grader in Adem Tolunay Anatolian High School.

In the committee as your Under Secretary General mentioned, you will be responsible for every action that is going to happen after the beginning of the first session. Every one of you will be obligated to make decisions when needed. The Cold War period is a topic that has been on the table for far too long. It did not only affect the opposite parties but the other nations who were actually in need of help from these unions. A lot of people were used for their own intentions which led to a lot of homes being destroyed. Now the future of these states are in the palm of your hands.

Lastly, I would like to give some special thanks. First I want to take my Under Secretary General Yasemin Raithel for making me a part of this intriguing committee. Since the first days of Mun journey, she has been a figure I looked up to. I hope that I can live up to her expectations and become a better Academic member some day. Secondly I would like to thank the Executive team for their involvement in the process, I know for a fact that this conference will have a huge impact on the society.

If you have any doubts nor questions, feel free to contact me. Do not forget to read the Study Guide thoroughly, study the topic as much as you can. We are waiting for your arrival, let the best one win.

Yasemin Dilek

Esteemed Participants of CC: Cold War Committee,

I am Yağız Gül, a student at his senior year in Maya Anatolian High School.

This committee will be rewriting the most crucial turning points of the past century. I am sure it will be a prolific and astonishing experience for you since the power of shaping the line of history will be within your hands.

Due to my ongoing exams, I am sadly informing you that I will not be joining the committee. I am sure that the other academic assistant of the committee, Yasemin Dilek and the rest of the academic team members in charge of the committee will be exquisitely successful while guiding you for the 2-day period.

I would like to thank my Under-Secretary General Yasemin Raithel for giving me the chance to be part of this wonderful conference. I also remark my appreciation to the Executive team who made the conference possible.

I hope this committee will be a wonderful experience for you. I once again want to express the grief of being able to join you for the adventure.

My best wishes,

Yağız Gül

Introduction to the Committee

First of all in this committee you-delegates- will be allocated as powerful generals and the great politicians during the cold war period. So you will be representing the people that you are allocated as instead of countries. That being said you can say I instead of we.

Secondly this is a crisis committee. Crisis committees have different mechanics. In crisis committees you are people as mentioned previously. More than the talking, the committee will proceed according to special documents called directives which will be written by you. Yes you will talk during the committee but talking will not make the committee proceed. In your directives you will explain your purpose as detailed as possible. These directives will be evaluated by the committee academy. When the committee academy comes and notifies you with the result of your actions that is written in the directive, you will learn about the consequences. This notifying part is called "Updates". That means you will submit directives, you will get the updates and based on the updates you will continue writing the directives.

Also sometimes you may get crises that are decided by the committee academy. You will try to solve the crisis again with directives. This whole directive-update cycle will continue until the end of the sessions.

Lastly since the main topic is the Cold War most of the events and crises that will take place during the committee will be about this period. So your main struggle will be handling that period of time in the best way possible

Agenda Item: Origins of Cold War and its Aftermath

Introduction to the topic

The Cold War was an ongoing political rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies that developed after World War II. The Cold War began after the surrender of Nazi Germany in 1945, when the uneasy alliance between the United States and Great Britain on the one hand and the Soviet Union on the other started to fall apart. The Soviet Union began to establish left-wing governments in the countries of eastern Europe, determined to safeguard against a possible renewed threat from Germany. The Americans and the British worried that Soviet domination in eastern Europe might be permanent. The Cold War was solidified by 1947–48, when U.S. aid had brought certain Western countries under American influence and the Soviets had established openly communist regimes. Nevertheless, there was very little use of weapons on battlefields during the Cold War. It was waged mainly on political, economic, and propaganda fronts and lasted until 1991.

The nation-building and internationalism of the Cold War, along with many of the political and military alliances forged during the period, continue to endure. Many Cold War ideas and attitudes still colour our political ideology and language. Proxy wars and meddling have profoundly affected the developing world and contributed to ongoing trouble in some areas. Cold War interventions in the Middle East and countries like Afghanistan have created destabilisation and contributed to the rise of separatist movements and terrorism. Many of the Cold War's tensions and divisions – such as the Sino-Soviet split and the United States-Cuba freeze – have faded into history, while some still remain. As major powers, the United States and Russia have charted their own foreign policy in recent times, leading to new tensions and difficulties. Meanwhile, China has emerged as a post-Cold War superpower while nations like Germany, Japan and India have grown and prospered.

About the aftermath of the Cold War, we can list it as:

-The most dangerous legacy of the Cold War is its vast arsenal of nuclear weapons. During the Cold War, nuclear-capable states manufactured around 130,000 nuclear warheads, more than half of these produced by the United States. The vast majority of these weapons have been decommissioned and deconstructed. Today, the US and Russia retain active stockpiles of 4,000-4,500 nuclear warheads apiece, of which 1,300-1,400 are strategic nuclear weapons. There are seven other nuclear-capable states (Britain, France, China, Israel, India, Pakistan and China) with stockpiles of between 120 and 300 nuclear warheads each. North Korea has successfully tested nuclear devices and may have up to 15 active warheads. Iran, Iraq and Lybia have undertaken secret research programs to develop nuclear weapons, though these programs are now believed to be defunct. South Africa is the only nation to have abandoned nuclear weapons, ordering the deconstruction of several nuclear warheads in 1989.

-The decline of socialism and the end of the Cold War led to geopolitical change elsewhere. In central Europe, the election of a liberal government in Czechoslovakia coincided with rising Slovak nationalism in the country's east. In July 1992 the Slovak parliament passed a declaration of independence and, six months later, Czechoslovakia separated into two sovereign nations: the Czech Republic and Slovakia. The dissolution of Yugoslavia was much less peaceful. Formed in 1945, the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was largely held together by the leadership of Marshal Josip Tito. After Tito's death in 1980, Yugoslavia was beset by ethnic and nationalist tensions. Led by Slobodan Milošević, Serbian nationalists sought to maintain and extend their control over the region. Four disgruntled regions (Croatia, Slovenia, Macedonia and Bosnia and Herzegovina) all declared their independence in 1991 and 1992. These changes triggered a decade-long war in Yugoslavia, marked by lawlessness, war crimes and claims of racial genocide. NATO intervened twice in this conflict, bombing targets in 1995 and 1999 to stop ethnic violence by Serbian and Bosnian-Serb forces. The NATO intervention was opposed by Russia and increased tensions between Washington and Moscow. The 1990s also saw greater cooperation and unity between former rivals. In November 1990, 32 European nations, along with the US and Canada, signed the Paris Charter for a New Europe. This agreement, which facilitated greater consultation and collaboration between all European nations, is viewed by some historians as the peace treaty that formally ended the Cold War. The Paris Treaty led to the formation of the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), an intergovernmental body sometimes described as the 'European United Nations'. The OSCE investigates and deliberates on many issues including security and policing, counter-terrorism, border control, crisis management, conflict prevention, fair elections, human trafficking, freedom of the press and other human rights issues.

-In the People's Republic of China, the years after the Cold War produced significant reform and rapid economic growth. The death of Mao Zedong in 1976 saw the emergence of Deng Xiaoping as leader. While Mao was a communist idealist, Deng was a pragmatist who understood the need for economic growth and progress. In late 1978 he unveiled a series of reforms that abolished agricultural collectives and wound back government control of industry and manufacturing. Later reforms also allowed and encouraged greater foreign investment and trade. Over time, Deng's economic liberalisation produced rapid growth, wage increases, improved standards of living and the formation of a large middle class in China's cities. These improvements have been accompanied by a range of problems, such as excessive urbanisation, wide disparities of wealth and growing corruption. Despite difficult periods, such as the Asian financial crisis of 1997, the Chinese economy has continued to surge. Since Deng's 1978 reforms, China's gross domestic product has increased at an average of almost 10 percent each year. Today it has the world's second-largest economy, with a gross domestic product exceeding \$US10 trillion. China is the world's largest trading power and houses the world's largest bank and several of the world's largest companies.

-While communism dwindled in the 1990s, several communist regimes survived into the 21st century. The most significant of these was North Korea. By the 1980s, North Korea had evolved into a fully-fledged Stalinist state, marked by rigid authoritarianism and a cult of personality around leader Kim Il-Sung. North Korea relied heavily on Soviet trade and financial aid so the dissolution of the USSR in 1991 had dire effects on its economy, triggering major shortages and widespread famine. Despite this, Kim and his advisors maintained a sizable military and funded programs to develop nuclear weapons and missile delivery systems. This apparent breach of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty led to an international crisis in 1993. Kim Il-Sung died suddenly in July 1994, raising hopes of rapprochement with the West – but his successor, eldest son Kim Jong-il, continued to expand North Korea's military and repeatedly provoke South Korea and the West.

The end of World War II

At the end of World War II, huge swaths of Europe and Asia had been reduced to ruins. Borders were redrawn and homecomings, expulsions, and burials were under way. But the massive efforts to rebuild had just begun. When the war began in the late 1930s, the world's population was approximately 2 billion. In less than a decade, the war between the Axis and the Allied powers had resulted in 80 million deaths -- killing off about 4 percent of the whole world. Allied forces now became occupiers, taking control of Germany, Japan, and much of the territory they had formerly ruled. Efforts were made to permanently dismantle the war-making abilities of those nations, as factories were destroyed and former leadership was removed or prosecuted. War crimes trials took place in Europe and Asia, leading to many executions and prison sentences. Millions of Germans and Japanese were forcibly expelled from territories they called home. Allied occupations and United Nations decisions led to many long-lasting problems in the future, including the tensions that created East and West Germany, and divergent plans on the Korean Peninsula that led to the creation of North and South Korea and -- the Korean War in 1950. The United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine paved the way for Israel to declare its independence in 1948 and marked the start of the continuing Arab-Israeli conflict. The growing tensions between Western powers and the Soviet Eastern Bloc developed into the Cold War, and the development and proliferation of nuclear weapons raised the very real specter of an unimaginable World War III if common ground could not be found. World War II was the biggest story of the 20th Century, and its aftermath continues to affect the world profoundly more than 65 years later.

Embargoes and Sanctions

Sanctions are economic and political measures that aim to influence the behaviour of a state, a group or individuals. For example, sanctions can be introduced in an attempt to change the policies of a state that threatens international peace and security, or to induce a state to cease systematic violations of human rights.

An embargo is a trade restriction, typically adopted by a government, a group of countries, or an international organization as an economic sanction. Embargoes can bar all trade, or may apply only to some of it—for example, to arms imports. They are designed to punish the targeted country for its actions, and to deny it the means to carry out objectionable policies.

The United States emerged from World War II as the only great power whose economy had escaped the conflict relatively unscathed. Consequently, it was a potential reservoir for rebuilding war-torn nations and was often the sole supplier of critical goods. Such economic power inevitably made economic sanctions an attractive option for the United States in the Cold War, despite the dismal record of embargoes in American history. Economic sanctions were often the only recourse for the United States when fear of nuclear war or other political constraints put limits on the use of military force.

In 1948, the United States began a campaign of economic sanctions against the Soviet Union that would last more than fifty years. In March of that year, the Department of Commerce announced restrictions on exports to the Soviet Union and its European allies. Congress formalized these restrictions in the Export Control Act of 1949. Originally, Congress intended this act as a temporary measure to keep arms and strategic materials out of the hands of potential enemies, but the outbreak of the Korean War in 1950 made the Cold War more rigid and the measure became permanent. In 1951, the United States attempted to strengthen these sanctions with the so-called Battle Act. According to this act, the United States would refuse assistance to any nation that did not embargo strategic goods, including oil, to the Soviet Union and nations subject to its influence. Under pressure from its allies, the United States accepted many exemptions from this act and it was not notably effective.

For many years, the embargo on the Soviet Union was quite severe. The embargo on Eastern European countries was less stringent, in hopes of driving a wedge between the Soviet Union and its allies. Two of the most independent East European nations, Poland and Romania, were given particularly mild treatment. With the growing détente of the 1970s, trade restrictions on the Soviet Union and its allies were increasingly lightened, most notably in the permission granted the Soviets to purchase large amounts of American wheat when Soviet crops failed in 1973. But restrictions were tightened again after the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in December 1979. In 1983, Ronald Reagan approved the National Security Decision Directive 75, which set the policy of using economic pressure to limit the foreign policy and military options of the Soviets. This stricter regime of sanctions led to considerable conflict with America's allies on the Coordinating Committee for Multilateral Export Controls (COCOM), especially over the export of oil and gas equipment.

When the Soviet Union collapsed in 1991, a major debate broke out over the contribution that the campaign of economic sanctions had made toward the fall of the Soviet empire. Many former officials in the Reagan administration credited sanctions with a significant role in the disintegration of the Soviet economy and therefore of the Soviet Union itself. On the other hand, the leading work on the effectiveness of economic sanctions concludes that although the United States did succeed in denying some arms and key technologies to the Soviets, the collapse stemmed from internal inefficiencies rather than U.S. economic sanctions. The sanctions prohibited American companies, their foreign subsidiaries and foreign companies using U.S. licenses from selling to the Soviet Union equipment or technology for the transmission or refining of oil and natural gas. One goal of the sanctions was to prevent the Soviets from using U.S. technology to build a 2,600-mile natural gas pipeline from Siberia to Western Europe.

Reagan himself lifted the pipeline-related sanctions on Nov. 13, saying they had accomplished the purpose of demonstrating U.S. concern with Soviet pressure on Poland. Reagan also said the United States and its western allies had agreed to conduct a study of ways to limit future trade that bolstered the Soviet economy.

Administration critics, however, said Reagan was using the study as a justification for lifting sanctions that had proven politically unpopular in the United States and had irritated the allies. Reagan in 1982 maintained and even expanded similar economic sanctions he had imposed directly on Poland. On Oct. 28, three weeks after the Polish government disbanded the Solidarity trade union, Reagan suspended indefinitely Poland's "most favored nation" trading status. Poland had held the trade status for 22 years; it guaranteed that tariffs on Polish imports into the United States would be no higher than those levied on the imports of any other nation.

To justify his suspension of the trading status, Reagan declared that Poland had failed since 1978 to meet its obligations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) to increase the total value of imports from other GATT member nations by at least 7 percent per year. GATT governed the general terms of trade among most nations.

Reagan's Nov. 13 announcement lifting the Soviet sanctions came just three days after the death of Soviet President Leonid Brezhnev and one day after the Polish martial law government announced that it was freeing Lech Walesa, the Solidarity union leader who had been held in detention since December 1981.

But Reagan insisted his action was not related to events in either country. Instead, he linked the lifting of the sanctions directly to the agreement with the allies to conduct the study on trade with the Soviet Union. As a result of the agreement, he said, "there is no further need for these sanctions and I am lifting them today."

Reagan lifted only a narrow range of sanctions that had effectively prohibited U.S. firms from selling the Soviet Union equipment for the transmission or refining of oil or natural gas.

A Commerce Department official said Nov. 13 that the sanctions affected up to \$2.2 billion worth of U.S.-related business with the Soviet Union during 1982–84, mostly in equipment for the gas pipeline. That included \$600 million in business by U.S. firms and up to \$1.6 billion in business by foreign subsidiaries of U.S. firms and foreign firms holding U.S. product licenses. But another Commerce official said Nov. 17 that some of that \$2.2 billion probably would be recouped. He noted that several U.S.-related companies in Europe were ordered by their governments to fulfill their contracts for pipeline equipment, so that business was not lost.

Reagan's decision left in place a 1980 licensing requirement for exports to the Soviet Union of oil and gas exploration and production equipment. Administration officials said those licenses would be processed on a “case-by-case basis.” The government also required licenses for exports to the Soviet Union of “high-technology” items, such as computers, that could be used for military purposes. Also left intact were licensing requirements for exports of parts and equipment for two Soviet truck plants.

Reagan's Nov. 13 action did not affect a companion series of moves that he took during late 1981 to protest Soviet pressure on Poland. Those actions, which were to remain in effect, were: suspension of service to the United States by Aeroflot, the Soviet airline; imposition of a new series of controls on access to U.S. ports by all Soviet ships; closing of the Soviet Purchasing Commission office in New York City, and postponement of negotiations for a new U.S.-Soviet maritime agreement. A State Department official said those sanctions were kept because they had had “a heavier short-term economic effect on the Soviet Union” than the pipeline sanctions. Reagan levied similar sanctions against Poland, and they also remained in effect.

Treaties in Cold War Period

Important treaties that were signed in the Cold War period were;

SALT I

During the late 1960s, the United States learned that the Soviet Union had embarked upon a massive Intercontinental Ballistic Missile (ICBM) buildup designed to reach parity with the United States. In January 1967, President Lyndon Johnson announced that the Soviet Union had begun to construct a limited Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) defense system around Moscow. The development of an ABM system could allow one side to launch a first strike and then prevent the other from retaliating by shooting down incoming missiles.

Johnson therefore called for strategic arms limitations talks (SALT), and in 1967, he and Soviet Premier Alexei Kosygin met at Glassboro State College in New Jersey. Johnson said they must gain “control of the ABM race,” and Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara argued that the more each reacted to the other’s escalation, the more they had chosen “an insane road to follow.” While abolition of nuclear weapons would be impossible, limiting the development of both offensive and defensive strategic systems would stabilize U.S.-Soviet relations.

Nixon and Brezhnev during the latter’s visit to the U.S. in 1973. (Nixon Presidential Library) Johnson’s successor, Richard Nixon, also believed in SALT, and on November 17, 1969, the formal SALT talks began in Helsinki, Finland. Over the next two and a half years, the two sides haggled over whether or not each nation should complete their plans for ABMs; verification of a treaty; and U.S. concern that the Soviets continued to build more Submarine-Launched Ballistic Missiles (SLBMs). Nixon and Soviet General Secretary Leonid Brezhnev signed the ABM Treaty and interim SALT agreement on May 26, 1972, in Moscow.

For the first time during the Cold War, the United States and Soviet Union had agreed to limit the number of nuclear missiles in their arsenals. SALT I is considered the crowning achievement of the Nixon-Kissinger strategy of détente. The ABM Treaty limited strategic missile defenses to 200 interceptors each and allowed each side to construct two missile defense sites, one to protect the national capital, the other to protect one ICBM field. (For financial and strategic reasons, the United States stopped construction of each by the end of the decade.)

SALT II

Negotiations for a second round of SALT began in late 1972. Since SALT I did not prevent each side from enlarging their forces through the deployment of Multiple Independently Targeted Re-Entry Vehicles (MIRVs) onto their ICBMs and SLBMs, SALT II initially focused on limiting, and then ultimately reducing, the number of MIRVs. Negotiations also sought to prevent both

sides from making qualitative breakthroughs that would again destabilize the strategic relationship. The negotiations spanned the Nixon, Gerald Ford, and Jimmy Carter administrations.

At the November 1974 Vladivostok Summit, Ford and Brezhnev agreed on the basic framework of a SALT II agreement. This included a 2,400 limit on strategic nuclear delivery vehicles (ICBMs, SLBMs, and heavy bombers) for each side; a 1,320 limit on MIRV systems; a ban on new land-based ICBM launchers; and limits on deployment of new types of strategic offensive arms.

Even after the Vladivostok agreements, the two nations could not resolve the two other outstanding issues from SALT I: the number of strategic bombers and the total number of warheads in each nation's arsenal. The first was complicated by the Soviet Backfire bomber, which U.S. negotiators believed could reach the United States but which the Soviets refused to include in the SALT negotiations. Meanwhile, the Soviets attempted unsuccessfully to limit American deployment of Air-Launched Cruise Missiles (ALCMs). Verification also divided the two nations, but eventually they agreed on using National Technical Means (NTM), including the collection of electronic signals known as telemetry and the use of photo-reconnaissance satellites. On June 17, 1979, Carter and Brezhnev signed the SALT II Treaty in Vienna. SALT II limited the total of both nations' nuclear forces to 2,250 delivery vehicles and placed a variety of other restrictions on deployed strategic nuclear forces, including MIRVs.

However, a broad coalition of Republicans and conservative Democrats grew increasingly skeptical of the Soviet Union's crackdown on internal dissent, its increasingly interventionist foreign policies, and the verification process delineated in the Treaty. On December 17, 1979, 19 Senators wrote Carter that "Ratification of a SALT II Treaty will not reverse trends in the military balance adverse to the United States." On December 25, the Soviets invaded Afghanistan, and on January 3, 1980, Carter asked the Senate not to consider SALT II for its advice and consent, and it was never ratified. Both Washington and Moscow subsequently pledged to adhere to the agreement's terms despite its failure to enter into force. Carter's successor Ronald Reagan, a vehement critic of SALT II during the 1980 presidential campaign, agreed to abide by SALT II until its expiration on December 31, 1985, while he pursued the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) and argued that research into the Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI) adhered to the 1972 ABM Treaty.

THE ANTI BALLISTIC MISSILE TREATY

(ABM Treaty), arms control treaty ratified in 1972 between the United States and the Soviet Union to limit deployment of missile systems that could theoretically be used to destroy incoming intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) launched by the other superpower.

Negotiations to prohibit ballistic missile defenses were first proposed by the United States in 1966 but did not begin until late 1969, as part of the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT). The ABM Treaty was signed by U.S. Pres. Richard Nixon and Soviet leader Leonid Brezhnev at a summit in Moscow in May 1972, and it was ratified by both the U.S. Senate and the Supreme Soviet later that year.

The ABM treaty limited each side to only two ABM deployment areas, one to protect the national capital and another to protect an ICBM launch site, with each ABM deployment area limited to 100 launch systems and 100 interceptor missiles. A 1974 protocol reduced the agreement to one ABM site apiece. The Soviet Union opted to maintain an established system protecting Moscow; it was upgraded in the 1980s and is said to be still operational. The United States opted to protect an ICBM site at Grand Forks, N.D., although the system deployed was decommissioned in 1976. To prevent the deployment of a nationwide battle management system, the treaty required all early-warning radars (usually large phased-array radars) to be sited on the periphery of the country, oriented outward. In 1984 the United States claimed that a Soviet radar system near the city of Krasnoyarsk, 800 km (500 miles) from the nearest border, violated this provision, and in 1989 the Soviets acknowledged the violation and agreed to dismantle the radar. In addition to traditional interceptor missiles, launchers, and radars, the ABM treaty also covers systems based on other principles, such as lasers.

Under the terms of the treaty, neither party was able to defend more than a small fraction of its entire territory, and both sides were thus kept subject to the deterrent effect of the other's strategic forces. This arrangement was seen to reinforce the concept of mutual assured destruction (MAD), in which the prospect of annihilation for both sides would prevent either side from "going nuclear" in the event of a conflict. The very concept of MAD was controversial, however. During the 1980s, U.S. Pres. Ronald Reagan promoted his Strategic Defense Initiative (also known as Star Wars), based on an alternative concept of assured survival. Technology existing at the time did not support this ambitious goal, though, and in any case the end of the Cold War significantly lowered the risk of a massive nuclear exchange. During the course of the 1990s, attention turned to the risk of small-scale missile attacks from so-called "rogue" states, such as North Korea or Iraq. With this in mind, a National Missile Defense (NMD) system was proposed in the United States. Although it would involve no more than 100 interceptors, it was a system designed to provide nationwide defense and so would be inconsistent with the ABM treaty. For this reason, Russia publicly opposed the NMD. In order to mollify the Russians, the administration of U.S. Pres. Bill Clinton explored amending the ABM treaty during the 1990s to permit the deployment of limited defenses that would clearly not be able to blunt a Russian attack. The administration of U.S. Pres. George W. Bush, however, saw no merit in trying to preserve a treaty that it described as a "relic" of the Cold War era, and in December 2001 Bush

gave the required six-months notice of abrogation of the ABM treaty, which was the first time that the United States had withdrawn from a major arms control agreement. Russia did no more than describe this action as “mistaken.”

THE HELSINKI RECORDS

The Helsinki Final Act was an agreement signed by 35 nations that concluded the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe, held in Helsinki, Finland. The multifaceted Act addressed a range of prominent global issues and in so doing had a far-reaching effect on the Cold War and U.S.-Soviet relations.

President Ford addresses the European Security Conference in Helsinki. (AP Photo)

The Helsinki Conference had its origins in early Cold War discussions. The Soviet Union first sought a European conference on security issues in 1954 at the Geneva Conference in the hopes that such a meeting would result in formal recognition of the political boundaries in Eastern Europe that had been established after World War II. At that time, the United States and the other Western nations were reluctant to engage in such a discussion because they feared that it might strengthen the Soviet position and lead to an expansion of communism. As a result, no progress was made through the 1950s and 1960s.

However, the shift towards détente during the early 1970s encouraged Western leaders to reconsider the negotiations. Discussions started with the Helsinki Consultations in 1972 and continued until the opening of the formal Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) in July of 1973. From the summer of 1973 to the summer of 1975, intensive negotiations continued in Geneva, until the participants finally met again in Helsinki on August 1, 1975 to sign the Helsinki Final Act. Every European country except Albania signed the Act, in addition to the United States and Canada.

The Helsinki Final Act dealt with a variety of issues divided into four “baskets.” The first basket included ten principles covering political and military issues, territorial integrity, the definition of borders, peaceful settlement of disputes and the implementation of confidence building measures between opposing militaries. The second basket focused on economic issues like trade and scientific cooperation. The third basket emphasized human rights, including freedom of emigration and reunification of families divided by international borders, cultural exchanges and freedom of the press. Finally, the fourth basket formalized the details for follow-up meetings and implementation procedures. The CSCE held further meetings in Belgrade in 1977–78, Madrid in 1980–83, and Vienna in 1986–89.

Although initially unpopular in the West, the Helsinki Final Act proved important at the end of the Cold War. Some activists opposed the Western concession on boundaries that resulted in a formal acceptance of the Soviet annexation of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, effectively

acknowledging Soviet domination of Eastern Europe. In spite of such criticism, the third basket on human rights and freedoms ultimately proved to be important to dissidents in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. To follow the progress of the USSR in implementing the human rights stipulations established in the Act, human rights activists set up Helsinki Monitoring Groups in the Soviet Union and across Europe. These groups tracked violations of the Act and drew international attention to human rights violations. Furthermore, the Belgrade follow-up meeting introduced a review process to track violators of the Helsinki Final Act and hold them accountable. Together these measures enabled dissidents to act and speak more openly than would otherwise have been possible.

The Helsinki Process, including the review meetings, led to greater cooperation between Eastern and Western Europe. Representatives from non-aligned countries acted as intermediaries, helping to broker deals between members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and the Warsaw Pact. The Vienna Review Meeting introduced recognition of the rights of emigration and religious freedom, which helped to open ties between Eastern and Western Europe. In addition, the Vienna meetings launched a new series of CSCE conferences on the Human Dimension that took place concurrently with, and contributed to, widespread political and social changes in Europe. These shifts helped bring an end to Soviet dominance in Eastern Europe and the end of the Cold War.

Timeline of the Cold War

a. Yalta Conference(1945)

The Yalta Conference was held from 4th to 11th of February in 1945 to discuss the postwar reorganization of Germany and Europe. 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 postwar 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 theater. 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 theater, the Soviets would be granted a sphere of 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 postwar 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 postwar 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.

Even though the conference was a success and very crucial decisions were made, it did not last long as the people thought it would. 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.

b. Potsdam Conference(1945)

At the Potsdam Conference, the leaders of the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union ,the "Big Three" powers who had defeated Nazi Germany, met in the city of Potsdam near Berlin. Their meeting lasted from July 17 to August 2, 1945, during what was a crucial moment in defining the post-World War II balance of power. The summit also gave an early hint of the tensions that would develop between the U.S. and the Soviet Union, which eventually led to a Cold War struggle that lasted for more than four decades.

The Big Three worked out many of the details of the postwar order in the Potsdam Agreement, signed on August 1. They confirmed plans to disarm and demilitarize Germany, which would be divided into four Allied occupation zones controlled by the United States, Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union.

They also went ahead with plans to drastically remake German society, by



repealing laws passed by the Nazi regime and removing Nazis from the German education and court systems, and to arrest and try Germans who had committed war crimes.

The Potsdam Agreement also called for Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary, which wanted to expel the ethnic German populations within their borders, to do so “in an orderly and humane manner.” The idea was to head off a massive influx of refugees into Germany where existing residents already were having difficulty getting by. But the redrawing of Poland’s border with Germany was left unresolved.

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 Türkiye 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.

After the Potsdam conference, Germany was divided into four occupied zones: Great Britain in the northwest, France in the southwest, the United States in the south and the Soviet Union in the east. Berlin, the capital city situated in Soviet territory, was also divided into four occupied zones. Germany also lost territory east of the Oder and Neisse rivers, which fell under Polish control. About 15 million ethnic Germans living in this territory were forced to leave, suffering terrible conditions during their expulsion. Many froze or starved to death on over-crowded trains, while others were subject to forced labor camps under Polish and Czechoslovakian governments.

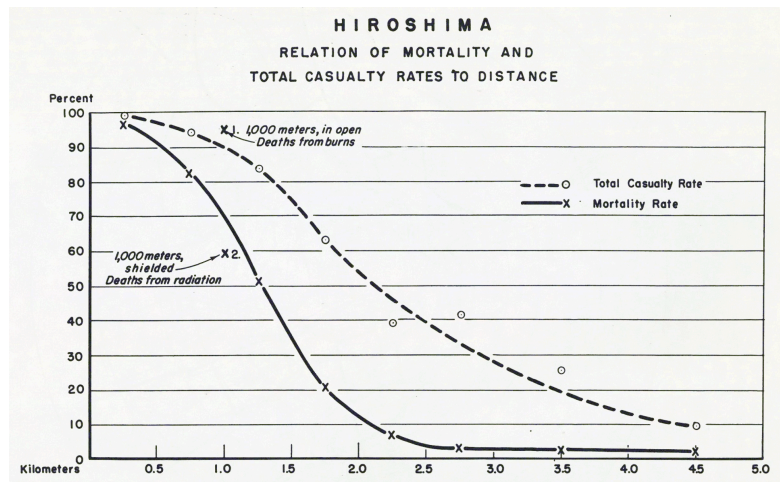
c. Atomic Bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki(1945)

On August 6, 1945, during World War II (1939-45), an American B-29 bomber dropped the world’s first deployed atomic bomb over the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The explosion immediately killed an estimated 80,000 people; tens of thousands more would later die of radiation exposure. Three days later, a second B-29 dropped another A-bomb on Nagasaki, killing an estimated 40,000 people. Japan’s Emperor Hirohito announced his country’s unconditional surrender in World War II in a radio address on August 15, citing the devastating power of “a new and most cruel bomb.”

By the time of the Trinity test, the Allied powers had already defeated Germany in Europe. Japan, however, vowed to fight to the bitter end in the Pacific, despite clear indications (as early as 1944) that they had little chance of winning. In fact, between mid-April 1945 (when President Harry Truman took office) and mid-July, Japanese forces inflicted Allied casualties totaling nearly half those suffered in three full years of war in the Pacific, proving that Japan had become even more deadly when faced with defeat. In late July, Japan’s militarist government rejected the

Allied demand for surrender put forth in the Potsdam Declaration, which threatened the Japanese with “prompt and utter destruction” if they refused.

General Douglas MacArthur and other top military commanders favored continuing the conventional bombing of Japan already in effect and following up with a massive invasion, codenamed “Operation Downfall.” They advised Truman that such an invasion would result in U.S. casualties of up to 1 million. In order to avoid such a high casualty rate, Truman decided—over the moral reservations of Secretary of War Henry Stimson, General Dwight Eisenhower and a number of the Manhattan Project scientists—to use the atomic bomb in the hopes of bringing the war to a quick end. Proponents of the A-bomb—such as James Byrnes, Truman’s secretary of state—believed that its devastating power would not only end the war, but also put the U.S. in a dominant position to determine the course of the postwar world.



The atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki also caused global effects such as the Cold War and the proliferation of nuclear weapons around the world. The Cold War was a rivalry that saw the world’s two remaining superpowers after World War II—the United States and the Soviet Union, as well as their respective allies—fight for political, economic, and nuclear superiority.

d. Chinese Civil War (1946)

After the Yalta Conference it was decided that rather than the Soviet Union would attend the war against Japan, it would achieve the right to protect its benefits in the region, Manchuria. However, the Chinese Government did not approve this officially causing some problems within the country. In the end the Red Army occupied Manchuria which was already occupied by Japan. As soon as the battle began in the area, the Soviet Union quickly managed to assert dominance. Just in 3 weeks the Soviet army defeated the



Japanese forces. The Japanese forces in the region started to surrender one by one with handing over their weaponry to the Soviets.

After the Soviets occupied all of Manchuria, the Kuomintang-nationalist government party, realized that they lacked the required resources to prevent CPC-Communist Party of China- from increasing communist influence over Manchuria. When the time for the Soviets to retreat arrived, they had already taken all the valuables and industrial materials to Moscow which was about 2 billion dollars worth. On top of that during the occupation of the Soviets, Manchurian people learnt communism. Also Soviets left the area to KMT but handed the seized Japanese weaponry to the CPC. Then KMT troops were airlifted to North China in order to capture important cities by the US. On 15 November 1945, the KMT began a campaign to prevent the spread of CPC. However with the arrival of the KMT, they caused widespread corruption and graft.

Finally, Japan entirely surrendered. The first peace negotiation was attended by both Chiang Kai-shek -leader of KMT- and Mao Zedong -leader of CPC-. At the result of negotiations both sides stressed the importance of a peaceful reconstruction. However there were no concrete results. Even though the peace negotiations were ongoing, the battles between KMT and CPC never stopped. In January 1946 there was an agreement but it only stopped large scale battles between two sides.

On 26 June 1946 the main Chinese Civil war broke out. All Japanese war materials were handed to Mao Zedong according to the orders of Stalin. After that China entered a civil war state which lasted about 3 years.

e. Greek Civil War (1946)

The Greek Civil War (1946-1949) was a significant conflict that emerged in the aftermath of World War II, rooted in the power struggles among various factions vying for control in Greece. The war followed a period of resistance against Axis occupation, primarily led by the Communist-affiliated National Liberation Front-National Popular Liberation Army (EAM-ELAS) and other groups, including monarchists and pro-Western democrats. As the war drew to a close, tensions escalated between these factions, particularly after the return of King George II and subsequent elections that the Communists rejected.



From 1946 to 1949, the Communists engaged in violent conflicts against the Government forces who were receiving massive military and financial aid from Britain and, later, the USA. These countries feared that Greece, the last of the Balkan States to resist Soviet domination, would in turn fall to the Communists. As a neighbour of Turkey, Greece was an area of prime importance, from an economic and strategic point of view, for preventing Soviet domination of the eastern Mediterranean and protecting Middle East oil supplies. The United States was therefore committed to preserving the independence and territorial integrity of the kingdom and encouraged the authorities to establish a government of national unity and undertake a series of economic reforms. Greece also enjoyed the benefits of the Marshall Plan and gradually became part of the Western system, by joining the Council of Europe in 1949 and NATO in 1951. Meanwhile, the schism between Tito's Yugoslavia and the USSR deprived the Communist rebels of their main support and led to the partisans having to surrender in October 1949. The defeat of the Communist revolt in Greece, in which more than 50 000 people died, marked the end of the spread of Soviet influence in Europe.

f. Truman Doctrine (1947)

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, there were also some other foreign policy concerns that influenced President Truman's decision to aid Greece and Turkey in an



active manner. There were four setbacks in 1946 alone that had served to put paid to any possibility of a durable post-war rapprochement with the Soviet Union: the failure of the Soviets to withdraw their troops from northern Iran in early 1946 (as the part that was in Tehran Declaration of 1943); Soviet attempts to strong-arm the Iranian Government into granting them oil concessions while apparently encouraging irredentism by Azerbaijani separatists in northern Iran; Soviet attempts to coerce the Turkish Government into granting them base and transit rights in the Turkish Straits; and, the Soviet Government's June 1946 rejection of the Baruch plan for international control of nuclear energy and weapons.

In light of the deteriorating relationship with the Soviet Union and the appearance of Soviet meddling in Greek and Turkish affairs, the withdrawal of British assistance to Greece provided the necessary catalyst for the Truman Administration to reorient American foreign policy. Accordingly, in his speech, President Truman requested that Congress provide \$400,000,000 worth of aid to both the Greek and Turkish Governments and support the dispatch of American civilian and military personnel and equipment to the region.

Truman justified his request on two grounds. He argued that a Communist victory in the Greek Civil War would endanger the political stability of Turkiye, which would undermine the political stability of the Middle East. This could not be allowed in light of the region's immense strategic importance to U.S. national security. Truman also argued that the United States was compelled to assist "free peoples" in their struggles against "totalitarian regimes," because the spread of authoritarianism would "undermine the foundations of international peace and hence the security of the United States."

Truman argued that the United States could no longer stand by and allow the forcible expansion of Soviet totalitarianism into free, independent nations, because American national security now depended upon more than just the physical security of American territory. Rather, in a sharp break with its traditional avoidance of extensive foreign commitments beyond the Western Hemisphere during peacetime, the Truman Doctrine committed the United States to actively offering assistance to preserve the political integrity of democratic nations when such an offer was deemed to be in the best interest of the United States.

g. Marshall Plan (1948)

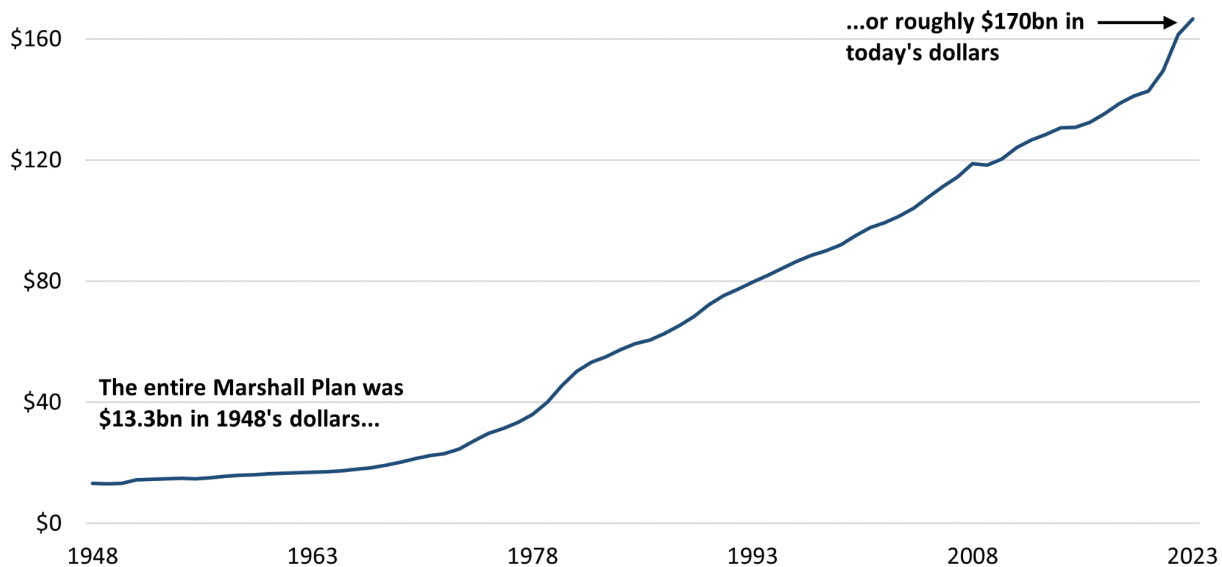
The Marshall Plan was a U.S.-sponsored program that was implemented following the end of World War II. It was intended to aid European countries that had been destroyed as a result of the war, and it was laid out by U.S. Secretary of State George Marshall during an address at Harvard University in 1947. The plan was authorized by Congress as the European Recovery Program (ERP).

On the basis of a unified plan for western European economic reconstruction presented by a committee representing 16 countries, the U.S. Congress authorized the establishment of the European Recovery Program, which was signed into law by U.S. Pres. Harry S. Truman on April

3, 1948. Aid was originally offered to almost all the European countries, including those under military occupation by the Soviet Union. The Soviets early on withdrew from participation in the plan, however, and were soon followed by the other eastern European nations under their influence.

Under Paul G. Hoffman, the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA), a specially created bureau, distributed over the next four years some \$13 billion worth of economic aid, helping to restore industrial and agricultural production, establish financial stability, and expand trade. Direct grants accounted for the vast majority of the aid, with the remainder

The Marshall Plan in Context of Today



Source: Kailash Capital, LLC, CPI calculator;
Data from 1/1/1948 - 4/30/2023

in the form of loans. To coordinate European participation, 16 countries, led by the United Kingdom and France, established the Committee of European Economic Cooperation to suggest a four-year recovery program. This organization was later replaced by the permanent Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC), to which West Germany was ultimately admitted

The Marshall Plan was very successful. The western European countries involved experienced a rise in their gross national products of 15 to 25 percent during this period. The plan contributed greatly to the rapid renewal of the western European chemical, engineering, and steel industries. Truman extended the Marshall Plan to less-developed countries throughout the world under the Point Four Program, initiated in 1949.

h. Soviet control in Eastern Europe(1945-49)

At the end of the Second World War, the USSR was instrumental in placing communist governments in many of the countries that it had helped to liberate from the Nazis in the Second

World War. These countries became known as the 'Eastern Bloc', or were referred to as 'behind the Iron Curtain'.

The Eastern bloc originated at the end of World War II. At the 1945 Yalta Conference, Soviet leader Joseph Stalin pledged to hold free and fair democratic elections in eastern European countries that the Red Army had liberated. Rather than carrying out this promise, occupying Soviet forces supported takeovers by local communist parties and the restructuring of eastern European governments and economies according to the Stalinist model. The U.S.S.R. also facilitated the rise to power of former communist partisans in Albania and Yugoslavia, who quickly allied themselves with the Soviet Union.

The purpose of the Eastern bloc's formation was primarily to protect Soviet military interests. Eastern European countries formed a "buffer zone" for the U.S.S.R., mitigating the potential consequences of invasion from the West. The formation of the Warsaw Pact in 1955 codified the military alignment of the bloc.



In addition to their military alliance, both the Soviet Union and the Eastern bloc countries enjoyed favourable trade relations with one another, and the Eastern bloc was a large market for Soviet goods. Eastern European countries had been devastated by the destruction of World War II, and Soviet aid was central in rebuilding and developing their economies. Nonetheless, the countries of the Eastern bloc struggled to reach the goals for trade output and industrialization set by the Soviet Union. Furthermore, though both sides received some benefits from their alliance, these benefits were unequally distributed, favouring the U.S.S.R., and were not great enough for the bloc to maintain its existence.

i. Berlin Blockade and Airlifts(1948-49)

At the end of World War II, the U. S. , British, and Soviet military forces occupied and divided Germany into zones. Berlin, located in the Soviet-controlled eastern part, was split; the Western Allies controlled the west while the Soviets controlled the east. As tensions rose between the West and the Soviet Union, the future of Berlin became a point of conflict, leading to the first Berlin crisis of the Cold War on June 24, 1948. The Soviets blockaded access to the Allied sections of Berlin, quickly the U. S. and U. K. to begin an airlift to supply food and fuel. This crisis continued until May 12, 1949, when the Soviets lifted the blockade.

After World War II, the future of Germany faced many challenges due to divisions among the Allies. The Potsdam Conference in July 1945 failed to settle plans for Germany. The city of Berlin suffered with destruction, in need of shelter, and a dominant black market making life difficult for its people. In 1947, changes in occupation policy led to tensions increasing further, particularly with the creation of Bizonia by the U. S. and U. K. and the announcement of the Marshall Plan, which aimed to boost Western Europe's economy and contain Communism.

In early 1948, the Western Allies began secretly planning a new German state, leading the Soviets to withdraw from cooperative settlements. In June, new currency was introduced in the Western zones, angering the Soviets, who then blocked access to West Berlin while cutting off supplies of essential goods and services. The U. S. response included launching “Operation Vittles” for the airlift, while negotiations continued with the Soviets for a peaceful resolution. Despite crucial challenges, the airlift became more effective over time. A significant turnout of West Berliners in September 1948 rallied against Soviet control, which strengthened the Western resolve to maintain the airlift. By spring 1949, the airlift successfully demonstrated that the Allies could support West Berlin indefinitely. The blockade was lifted on May 11, 1949, marking a pivotal moment that deepened the divide in Europe and ultimately led to the establishment of NATO and the separate states of West and East Germany. Berlin transformed into a symbol of freedom against Communism.



j. Atomic Bomb tests(1949)

At a remote test site at Semipalatinsk in Kazakhstan, the USSR successfully detonates its first atomic bomb, code name “First Lightning.” In order to measure the effects of the blast, the Soviet scientists constructed buildings, bridges, and other civilian structures in the vicinity of the bomb. They also placed animals in cages nearby so that they could test the effects of nuclear radiation on human-like mammals. The atomic explosion, which at 20 kilotons was roughly equal to “Trinity,” the first U.S. atomic explosion, destroyed those structures and incinerated the animals.

The United States was the first country in the world to develop nuclear weapons, detonating its first atomic bombs in 1945 and using them against the Japanese in order to achieve final victory in the Pacific Theater of World War II. After the war, it was only a matter of time before other countries began to develop nuclear weapons as well, and the Soviet Union succeeded in testing its own nuclear device on August 29, 1949, at Semipalatinsk in the region of Kazakhstan.

The Soviet Union had emerged as America's primary rival for global dominance in a competition which came to be known as the Cold War. Like the Americans, the Soviets had captured large numbers of German scientists who had worked in the Nazi nuclear weapons program, a program which had failed to produce an atomic weapon but had made great strides in research. Further, the Soviets had their own collection of gifted scientists, including the famous physicist Andrei Sakharov.

The United States underestimated Soviet abilities, and many analysts thought that the Soviets would not be capable of building an atomic bomb for 20 years. Some thought that the Soviets simply would not be able to obtain the necessary supplies of uranium because there were no known deposits in their country, despite the fact that there were deposits in Soviet-dominated Czechoslovakia and that much of the vast Soviet empire which covered over a sixth of the world's land mass had yet to be properly surveyed for its mineral resources. Thus, it came as a great shock to the Americans when the Soviets detonated their first atomic bomb on August 29, 1949. This device had a yield of 10 to 20 kilotons, and the United States first detected evidence of the explosion on September 3 of that year when a specially equipped air force plane from Alaska found residual fallout in the atmosphere near Soviet Siberia. President Harry S. Truman publicly announced that the United States was aware of the new Soviet nuclear capability on September 23, 1949, and shortly thereafter approved programs to expand America's stockpile of nuclear material and also to develop the hydrogen bomb, a device much more powerful than ordinary atomic bombs.



k. Korean War(1950-53)

After five years of simmering tensions on the Korean peninsula, the Korean War began on June 25, 1950, when the Northern Korean People's Army invaded South Korea in a coordinated general attack at several strategic points along the 38th parallel, the line dividing communist

North Korea from the non-communist Republic of Korea in the south. North Korea aimed to militarily conquer South Korea and therefore unify Korea under the communist North Korean regime. Concerned that the Soviet Union and Communist China might have encouraged this invasion, President Harry S. Truman committed United States air, ground, and naval forces to the combined United Nations forces assisting the Republic of Korea in its defense. President Truman designated General Douglas MacArthur as Commanding General of the United Nations Command (UNC).

The first several months of the war were characterized by armies advancing and retreating up and down the Korean peninsula. The initial North Korean attack drove United Nations Command forces to a narrow perimeter around the port of Pusan in the southern tip of the peninsula. After the front stabilized at the Pusan perimeter, General MacArthur surprised the North Koreans in September 1950 with an amphibious landing at Inchon behind North Korean lines, forcing the North Koreans to retreat behind the 38th parallel.

In October, the United Nations, urged by the United States Government, approved the movement of UN forces across the 38th parallel into North Korea in an effort to unify the country under a non-communist government. In spite of warnings issued by the Chinese Government, the United Nations forces moved toward the Yalu River, marking the North Korean border with Manchuria.

Acting on a campaign pledge, President-elect Dwight D. Eisenhower went to Korea on December 2, 1952. After visiting the troops, their commanders and South Korean leaders, and receiving briefings on the military situation in Korea, Eisenhower concluded, "we could not stand forever on a static front and continue to accept casualties without any visible results. Small attacks on small hills would not end this war." President Eisenhower sought an end to hostilities in Korea through a combination of diplomacy and military muscle-flexing. On July 27, 1953, seven months after President Eisenhower's inauguration as the 34th President of the United States, an armistice was signed, ending organized combat operations and leaving the Korean Peninsula divided much as it had been since the close of World War II.



l. Uprising of East Germany(1953)

The Soviet Union orders an entire armored division of its troops into East Berlin to crush a rebellion by East German workers and antigovernment protesters. The riots in East Berlin began among construction workers, who took to the streets on June 16, 1953, to protest an increase in work schedules by the communist government of East Germany. By the next day, the crowd of disgruntled workers and other antigovernment dissidents had grown to between 30,000 and 50,000. Leaders of the protest issued a call for a general strike, the resignation of the communist East German government and free elections.

Soviet forces struck quickly and without warning. Troops, supported by tanks and other armored vehicles, crashed through the crowd of protesters. Some protesters tried to fight back, but most fled before the onslaught. Red Cross officials in West Berlin (where many of the wounded protesters fled) estimated the death toll at between 15 and 20, and the number of wounded at



more than 100. The Soviet military commanders declared martial law, and by the evening of June 17, the protests had been shattered and relative calm was restored.

In Washington, President Dwight D. Eisenhower declared that the brutal Soviet action contradicted Russian propaganda that the people of East Germany were happy with their communist government. He noted that the smashing of the protests was “a good lesson on the meaning of

communism.” America’s propaganda outlet in Europe, the Voice of America radio station, claimed, “The workers of East Berlin have already written a glorious page in postwar history. They have once and for all times exposed the fraudulent nature of communist regimes.” These criticisms had little effect on the Soviet control of East Germany, which remained a communist stronghold until the government fell in 1989.

m. Cuban Revolution(1953)

After the Spanish-American War, the U.S. military directly administered the island until 1902, when Cuba became a republic, with sugar as its main commercial export. After a financial crisis

and persistent governmental corruption, Gerardo Machado was elected as Cuba's president in 1925, pledging reform. Instead, Machado became Cuba's first dictatorial ruler, until he was ousted in 1933 after a revolt led by Fulgencio Batista, a rising star in the Cuban military. Various presidents came and went over the next two decades, but Batista remained a constant force. He served as president himself from 1940-44, and ran for a second term in 1952. Facing defeat, he overthrew the government in a bloodless coup and canceled the elections.

Castro was educated in Santiago de Cuba and Havana, and, while he was still a student, he participated in revolutionary activities throughout Latin America. He received his law degree from the University of Havana in 1950, and, after graduating, he began practicing law. In 1952 he was a candidate for the Cuban People's Party, but Batista's coup preempted the election, and Castro soon settled on an alternative means for challenging the dictatorship.

Fidel Castro accused the dictator of corruption and tyranny and challenged Batista's rule in Cuban courts in 1952. His arguments rejected by the Batista controlled court, Castro became convinced that no legal recourse was available and armed revolution was necessary. On July 26, 1953, Castro and his supporters attacked the Moncada Barracks in Santiago; the attack failed and many of the rebels, including Castro and his brother Raul were arrested. At his trial, Castro spoke in his own defense for nearly four hours, delivering what would become his famous "history will absolve me" speech. He was sentenced to 15 years imprisonment, but Batista freed Castro and the other Moncada rebels in 1955 under political pressure. Castro and his followers



went into exile in Mexico, where they met other revolutionaries like Che Guevara and reorganized their rebellion as the "July 26 Movement." In December 1956, the July 26 Movement sailed back to Cuba and made their way to the Sierra Maestra mountains where, over the next three years, they carried out guerrilla attacks against Batista's government forces. The popularity of the revolution among rural peasants, as well as an arms embargo from the United States severely weakened Batista's forces. On

New Years' Eve, 1958, Che Guevara led a rebel force to the city of Santa Clara and captured it. Upon hearing of the fall of Santa Clara, Batista fled to the Dominican Republic on New Years' Day. Castro arrived in the capital city of Havana on January 8, 1959, where he would rule Cuba until 2008 before passing rule over to his brother Raul.

n. Taiwan Strait Crisis(1954)

The islands in the Taiwan Strait are significant due to their close location to China and Taiwan, and their role in the Chinese Civil War. Jinmen (Quemoy) is only two miles from mainland China's Xiamen, while Mazu is ten miles from Fuzhou, and both are around one hundred miles from Taiwan. After losing mainland China during the Civil War, the Nationalist Government of the Republic of China (ROC), led by Chiang Kai-shek, retreated to Taiwan, establishing military presence on these islands and others further north. In the early 1950s, Chiang's forces launched small attacks from Jinmen and Mazu towards mainland China, as both sides regarded these islands as strategic points for potentially invading the mainland.

U. S. policy in East Asia during the early Cold War added to tensions in the Taiwan Strait. Initially, American officials were willing to let People's Republic of China (PRC) forces cross the Strait to defeat Chiang. However, after the Korean War started in June 1950, the U. S. deployed its Seventh Fleet to the Taiwan Strait to prevent the war from spreading. This move angered the Chinese Communists, who redirected their troops from an invasion of Taiwan to the Korean front, postponing military conflict in the Strait until the U. S. withdrew its fleet after the war. In the following years, the U. S. strengthened its alliance with the ROC in Taiwan. In 1954, the U. S. formed the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization to counter the Communist threat and debated a Mutual Defense Treaty with Chiang. The PRC saw these actions as a threat to its security. To improve its position in the Taiwan Strait, the PRC bombarded Jinmen starting in September 1954 and later targeted Mazu and the Dachen Islands.



U. S. officials considered sending Navy ships into the Strait but worried it might reignite the Chinese Civil War. While aiming to avoid conflict, they wanted to ensure ROC control of the islands to maintain Nationalist morale and legitimacy. The U. S. signed the Mutual Defense Treaty with the ROC, promising support in broader conflicts with the PRC, though it did not include specific commitments for the offshore islands. Following increasing tensions in 1954-1955, the U. S. Congress passed the "Formosa Resolution," granting President Eisenhower authority to defend Taiwan and the offshore islands, while promising to defend Jinmen and Mazu in exchange for Chiang withdrawing troops from Dachen.

The Eisenhower Administration explored various strategies, including persuading Chiang to abandon the islands and the potential use of nuclear weapons against the PRC. Before acting, the PRC offered to negotiate with the U. S. at the Afro-Asian Conference in April 1955. This shift

may have been influenced by Soviet pressure or internal politics. By September 1955, talks between the PRC and the U. S. began in Geneva concerning repatriation and conflict prevention.

Despite the PRC's initial de-escalation, it resumed bombardments on Jinmen and Mazu in 1958, taking advantage of U. S. focus elsewhere. The U. S. , concerned about Nationalist morale and potential consequences for Taiwan, arranged resupplying ROC forces on the islands, which ended the bombardments and eased the crisis. Eventually, both the PRC and ROC established a routine of alternating bombardments on each other's garrisons, which continued for twenty years until relations between the PRC and U. S. improved.

o. Warsaw Pact(1955)

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 Warsaw Pact remained intact until 1991. Albania was expelled in 1962 because, believing that Russian leader Nikita Khrushchev was deviating too much from strict Marxist orthodoxy, the country turned to communist China for aid and trade. In 1990, East Germany left the Pact and reunited with West Germany; the reunified Germany then became a member of NATO. The rise of non-communist governments in other eastern bloc nations, such as Poland and Czechoslovakia, throughout 1990 and 1991 marked an effective end of the power of the Warsaw Pact. In March 1991, the military alliance component of the pact was dissolved and in July 1991, the last meeting of the political consultative body took place.

p. Geneva Summit(1955)

The 1955 Geneva Summit was a meeting of the leaders of the United States, the Soviet Union, France, and Great Britain, held from July 18 to July 23, 1955, in Geneva, Switzerland. The summit was a significant event in the Cold War, as it marked a rare moment of direct dialogue between the leaders of the two superpowers, and provided an opportunity for the negotiation of a range of issues that had been causing tension between the United States and the Soviet Union. It was attended by President Dwight D. Eisenhower of the United States, Prime Minister Anthony Eden of Great Britain, Premier Nikolai Bulganin of the Soviet Union, and Prime Minister Edgar Faure of France. The summit was held in the aftermath of the death of Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin in March 1953, and the subsequent rise of Nikita Khrushchev as the new leader of the Soviet Union.

One of the key issues discussed at the summit was the issue of disarmament. Both the United States and the Soviet Union had been engaged in a nuclear arms race since the end of World War II, and there were growing concerns about the possibility of nuclear war. At the summit, the leaders discussed a range of proposals aimed at reducing the number of nuclear weapons in both countries, including the establishment of a nuclear test ban treaty and the creation of a disarmament commission.

Another issue discussed at the summit was the question of Germany. At the end of World War II, Germany had been divided into four occupation zones, with the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union each controlling one zone. The division of Germany had become a major source of tension between the United States and the Soviet Union, with both



sides vying for influence in the region. At the summit, the leaders discussed the possibility of reunifying Germany, but failed to reach an agreement. The Soviet Union insisted on a reunified Germany that was neutral and independent, while the United States and its allies favored a reunified Germany that was aligned with the West.

The summit also saw the first direct talks between the leaders of the United States and the Soviet Union since the Potsdam Conference in 1945. President Eisenhower and Premier Bulganin held several private meetings during the summit, and the two leaders engaged in frank discussions about a range of issues, including the arms race, the situation in Germany, and the possibility of improving relations between the United States and the Soviet Union. Despite the positive atmosphere at the summit, there were limits to the progress that could be made. The United States and the Soviet Union remained deeply divided on a range of issues, and the summit failed to produce any major breakthroughs. However, the summit did provide an opportunity for the leaders of the two superpowers to engage in direct dialogue and to explore the possibilities for cooperation and compromise.

The 1955 Geneva Summit had significant implications for the Cold War. The summit marked a turning point in the relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union, as it provided an opportunity for the two sides to engage in direct dialogue and to explore the possibilities for cooperation and compromise. The summit also laid the groundwork for the later negotiations that led to the signing of the Partial Test Ban Treaty in 1963 and the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks in the 1970s.

q. Suez Crisis(1956)

The 1956 Suez Crisis, when Britain along with France and Israel invaded Egypt to recover control of the Suez Canal, was arguably one of the most significant episodes in post-1945 British history. Its outcome highlighted Britain's declining status and confirmed it as a 'second tier' world power. Domestically it caused a massive political fallout in Britain and resulted in an economic crisis, while internationally it further complicated the politics of the Middle East, threatening Britain's key diplomatic relationships with Commonwealth nations and the United States-United Kingdom 'special relationship'.

On 4 November the United Nations threatened Britain with sanctions if there were any civilian casualties from British aerial bombing of targets in Egypt. This led to economic panic in the first week of November 1956 and resulted in tens of millions of pounds being lost from the country's reserves. Britain faced having to devalue its currency. Appalled that military operations had begun without his knowledge, US President Eisenhower put pressure on the International Monetary Fund to deny Britain any financial assistance. With few options the British Prime Minister Anthony Eden reluctantly accepted a UN proposed ceasefire. Under Resolution 1001 on 7 November 1956 the United Nations deployed an emergency force (UNEF) of peacekeepers

into Egypt to halt the conflict. It had lasted just two days and Britain, and Eden personally, had been left humiliated.

The crisis had a serious impact on Britain's international relationships. Eisenhower regarded Suez as an unnecessary distraction from the Soviet Union's brutal suppression of an uprising in Hungary. Several recently independent former-British colonies agreed. Only Australia supported Britain, while Pakistan threatened to leave the Commonwealth. Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev attacked 'British imperialism', threatening to attack London with rockets, as well as sending

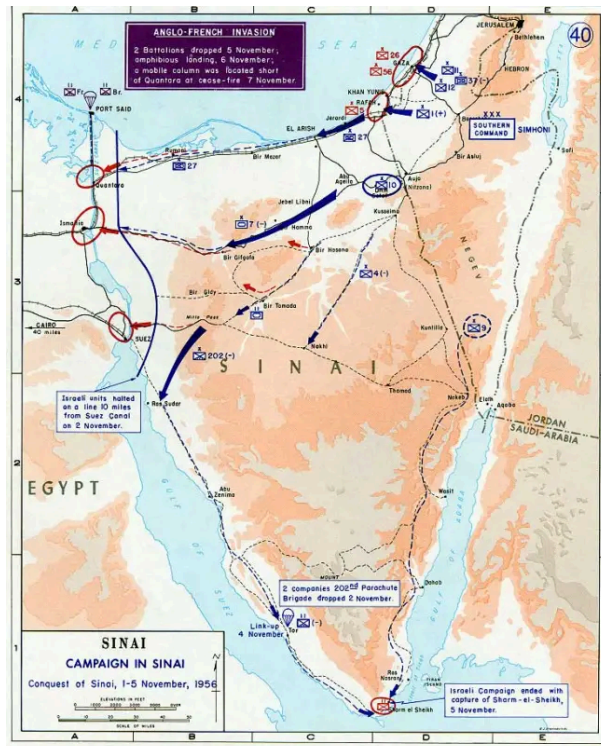
troops to Egypt, potentially dragging NATO into the conflict.

Within Britain the conflict divided opinion. The Conservative government faced significant hostility from the Labour opposition and even experienced division in its own party. Intervention in Suez was initially popular with the British public, but following the humiliation caused by the conflict the government rapidly lost the support of the country. Nation-wide anti-war protests sprung up and several civil servants resigned in protest.

What Britain had hoped to prevent by the actions in November 1956, it actually succeeded in guaranteeing. Egypt maintained control of the canal with the support of the United Nations and the United States. The canal was closed to traffic for five months by ships sunk by the Egyptians during the

operations. British access to fuel and oil became limited and resulted in shortages. Petrol rationing was introduced in December 1956, lasting until May 1957. Under huge domestic pressure and suffering ill-health Eden resigned in January 1957, less than two years after becoming prime minister.

As Eisenhower had feared, the Suez Crisis also increased Soviet influence over Egypt. Khrushchev's intervention on the side of Egypt placed the Soviet Union as the natural friend of Arab nations. It emboldened Arab nationalists and spurred the Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser to aid rebel groups seeking independence in British territories across the Middle East.



r. Viet Cong insurgency

Though beginning in the mid-1950s as a collection of various groups opposed to the government of President Diem, the Viet Cong became in 1960 the military arm of the National Liberation Front (NLF). In 1969 the NLF joined other groups in the areas of South Vietnam that were controlled by the Viet Cong to form the Provisional Revolutionary Government (PRG). The movement's principal objectives were the overthrow of the South Vietnamese government and the reunification of Vietnam.

The early insurgent activity in South Vietnam against Diem's government was initially conducted by elements of the Hoa Hao and Cao Dai religious sects. After 1954 they were joined by former elements of the southern Viet Minh, a communist-oriented nationalist group. The overwhelming majority of the Viet Cong were subsequently recruited in the South, but they received weapons, guidance, and reinforcements from North Vietnamese Army soldiers who had infiltrated into South Vietnam. During the Tet Offensive of 1968, the Viet Cong suffered devastating losses, and their ranks were later filled primarily by North Vietnamese soldiers. For the most part, the Viet Cong fought essentially a guerrilla war of ambush, terrorism, and sabotage; they used small units to maintain a hold on the countryside, leaving the main population centres to government authorities.

Under terms of the agreement reached at the peace negotiations held in Paris in 1971–73, the PRG won acknowledgment of its authority in areas under its control, pending general elections to determine the future of South Vietnam. The peace agreement soon broke down, however, as both the South Vietnamese



government and the PRG began trying to improve their military and territorial positions at each other's expense. Following the full-scale North Vietnamese invasion of South Vietnam and the subsequent rapid collapse of the government of South Vietnamese Pres. Nguyen Van Thieu in the spring of 1975, the PRG assumed power as the government of South Vietnam. The following year, when reunification of the country was accomplished, the PRG joined other political groups in forming a National United Front. Real governmental power was subsequently exercised by the Vietnamese Communist Party and its North Vietnamese leadership

s. Competition in space

Following World War II, the Soviet Union and the United States engaged in a struggle to prove their superiority. The Cold War constituted nearly fifty years of physical battles, technological

<i>First</i>	<i>When</i>	<i>Who</i>
<i>Satellite in space</i>	1957	Soviet Union 
<i>Animal in space</i>	1957	Soviet Union 
<i>Lunar satellite flyby</i>	1959	Soviet Union 
<i>Lunar contact</i>	1959	Soviet Union 
<i>Man in space</i>	1961	Soviet Union 
<i>Planetary flyby (Venus)</i>	1961	Soviet Union 
<i>Woman in space</i>	1963	Soviet Union 
<i>Spacewalk</i>	1965	Soviet Union 
<i>Lunar landing</i>	1966	Soviet Union 
<i>Spacecraft docking</i>	1966	United States 
<i>Lunar human flyby</i>	1968	United States 
<i>Modular space station</i>	1968	Soviet Union 
<i>Human lunar landing</i>	1969	United States 
<i>Lunar rover</i>	1970	Soviet Union 
<i>Planetary landing (Venus)</i>	1970	Soviet Union 
<i>Space Station</i>	1971	Soviet Union 
<i>Mars landing</i>	1971	Soviet Union 

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Timeline_of_the_Space_Race

advancements, and diplomatic engagements. By 1960, the battles extended beyond Earth's gravity. Space became another avenue of competition because of the prospect of atmospheric control and the undeniable message it sent to the international community. National leaders from both countries recognized the opportunity of space exploration from a political perspective and began heavily funding missions. Dominance in the skies was far more important than land battles; it was a way to prove unchallenged superiority to the entire world. From the beginning, the Space Race was an extension of this ideological battle between the two nations. Space became the final frontier for the United States and Soviet Union to compete to prove their status as sole superpower.

t. Berlin Wall(1961-89)

As World War II came to an end in 1945, a pair of Allied peace conferences at Yalta and Potsdam determined the fate of Germany's territories. They split the defeated nation into four "allied occupation zones": The eastern part of the country went to the Soviet Union, while the western part went to the United States, Great Britain and (eventually) France.

Even though Berlin was located entirely within the Soviet part of the country (it sat about 100 miles from the border between the eastern and western occupation zones), the Yalta and Potsdam agreements split the city into similar sectors. The Soviets took the eastern half, while the other Allies took the western. This four-way occupation of Berlin began in June 1945.

The existence of West Berlin, a conspicuously capitalist city deep within communist East Germany, "stuck like a bone in the Soviet throat," as Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev put it. The Russians began maneuvering to drive the United States, Britain and France out of the city for good. In 1948, a Soviet blockade of West Berlin aimed to starve the western Allies out of the city. Instead of retreating, however, the United States and its allies supplied their sectors of the city from the air. This effort, known as the Berlin Airlift, lasted for more than a year and delivered more than 2.3 million tons of food, fuel and other goods to West Berlin. The Soviets called off the blockade in 1949.

On August 13, 1961, the Communist government of the German Democratic Republic (GDR, or East Germany) began to build a barbed wire and concrete "Antifascistischer Schutzwall," or

“antifascist bulwark,” between East and West Berlin. The official purpose of this Berlin Wall was to keep so-called Western “fascists” from entering East Germany and undermining the socialist state, but it primarily served the objective of stemming mass defections from East to West. The Berlin Wall stood until November 9, 1989, when the head of the East German Communist Party announced that citizens of the GDR could cross the border whenever they pleased.

The construction of the Berlin Wall did stop the flood of refugees from East to West, and it did defuse the crisis over Berlin. In all, at least 171 people were killed trying to get over, under or around the Berlin Wall. Escape from East Germany was not impossible, however: From 1961 until the wall came down in 1989, more than 5,000 East Germans (including some 600 border guards) managed to cross the border by jumping out of windows adjacent to the wall, climbing over the barbed wire, flying in hot air balloons, crawling through the sewers and driving through unfortified parts of the wall at high speeds.

On November 9, 1989, as the Cold War began to thaw across Eastern Europe, an East German Communist Party spokesman announced a series of new policies regarding border crossings. When pressed on when the changes would take place, he said “As far as I know... effective immediately, without delay.” East Berliners flocked to border checkpoints, some chanting “Tor auf!” (“Open the gate!”). Within hours, the guards were letting the crowds through, where West Berliners greeted them with flowers and champagne.



People used hammers and picks to knock away chunks of the wall—they became known as “mauerspechte,” or “wall woodpeckers”—while cranes and bulldozers pulled down section after section. Soon the wall was gone and Berlin was united for the first time since 1945. “Only today,” one Berliner spray-painted on a piece of the wall, “is the war really over.” The reunification of East and West Germany was made official on October 3, 1990, almost one year after the fall of the Berlin Wall.

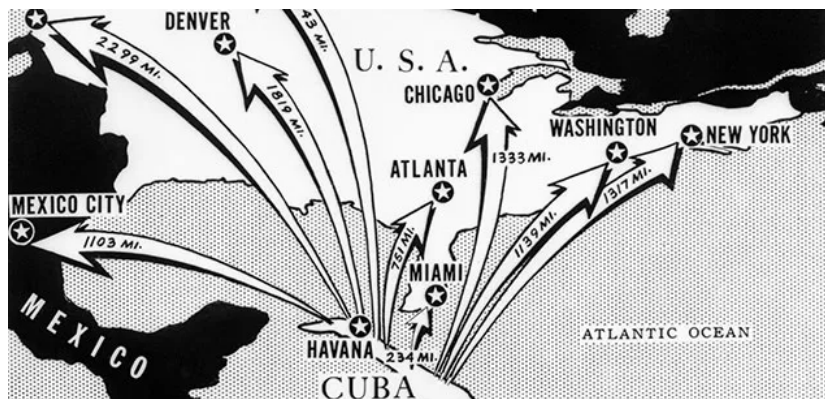
u. Cuban Missile Crisis(1962)

The Cuban Missile Crisis of October 1962 was a direct and dangerous confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union during the Cold War and was the moment when the two superpowers came closest to nuclear conflict. The crisis was unique in a number of ways, featuring calculations and miscalculations as well as direct and secret communications and miscommunications between the two sides. The dramatic crisis was also characterized by the fact that it was primarily played out at the White House and the Kremlin level with relatively little input from the respective bureaucracies typically involved in the foreign policy process.

After the failed U.S. attempt to overthrow the Castro regime in Cuba with the Bay of Pigs invasion, and while the Kennedy administration planned Operation Mongoose, in July 1962 Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev reached a secret agreement with Cuban premier Fidel Castro to place Soviet nuclear missiles in Cuba to deter any future invasion attempt. Construction of several missile sites began in the late summer, but U.S. intelligence discovered evidence of a general Soviet arms build-up on Cuba, including Soviet IL-28 bombers, during routine surveillance flights, and on September 4, 1962, President Kennedy issued a public warning against the introduction of offensive weapons into Cuba. Despite the warning, on October 14 a U.S. U-2 aircraft took several pictures clearly showing sites for medium-range and intermediate-range ballistic nuclear missiles (MRBMs and IRBMs) under construction in Cuba. These images were processed and presented to the White House the next day, thus precipitating the onset of the Cuban Missile Crisis.

Kennedy summoned his closest advisers to consider options and direct a course of action for the United States that would resolve the crisis. Some advisers—including all the Joint Chiefs of Staff—argued for an air strike to destroy the missiles, followed by a U.S. invasion of Cuba; others favored stern warnings to Cuba and the

Soviet Union. The President decided upon a middle course. On October 22, he ordered a naval “quarantine” of Cuba. The use of “quarantine” legally distinguished this action from a blockade, which assumed a state of war existed; the use of “quarantine” instead of “blockade” also enabled the United States to receive the support of the Organization of American States.



The Cuban missile crisis stands as a singular event during the Cold War and strengthened Kennedy's image domestically and internationally. It also may have helped mitigate negative world opinion regarding the failed Bay of Pigs invasion. Two other important results of the crisis came in unique forms. First, despite the flurry of direct and indirect communications between the White House and the Kremlin—perhaps because of it—Kennedy and Khrushchev, and their advisers, struggled throughout the crisis to clearly understand each others' true intentions, while the world hung on the brink of possible nuclear war. In an effort to prevent this from happening again, a direct telephone link between the White House and the Kremlin was established; it became known as the "Hotline." Second, having approached the brink of nuclear conflict, both superpowers began to reconsider the nuclear arms race and took the first steps in agreeing to a nuclear Test Ban Treaty.

v. Nuclear Test Ban Treaty(1963)

In August of 1945, when the United States dropped two atomic bombs on Japan, World War II came to a conclusion.

Continued testing of atomic and then hydrogen devices lead to a rising concern about the effects of radioactive fallout. As knowledge of the nature and effects of fallout increased, and as it became apparent that no region in the world was untouched by radioactive debris, the issue of continued nuclear tests drew widened and intensified public attention. Apprehension was expressed about the possibility of a cumulative contamination of the environment and of resultant genetic damage.

Efforts to negotiate an international agreement to end nuclear tests began in the Subcommittee of Five (the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, France, and the Soviet Union) of the United Nations Disarmament Commission in May 1955. Public interest in the course of the negotiations was active and persistent. A dozen resolutions of the UN General Assembly addressed the issue, repeatedly urging conclusion of an agreement to ban tests under a system of international controls. Efforts to achieve a test ban agreement extended over eight years because they involved complex technical problems of verification and the difficulties of reconciling deep-seated differences in approach to arms control and security. The uneven progress of the negotiations was also a result of regular fluctuations in East-West political relationships during the Cold War.

The Test Ban Treaty was signed in Moscow on August 5, 1963; ratified by the United States Senate on September 24, 1963; and entered into force on October 10, 1963. The treaty prohibited nuclear weapons tests "or any other nuclear explosion" in the atmosphere, in outer space, and under water. While not banning tests underground, the treaty prohibited such explosions if they caused "radioactive debris to be present outside the territorial limits of the State under whose

jurisdiction or control" the explosions were conducted. In accepting limitations on testing, the nuclear powers accepted as a common goal "an end to the contamination of man's environment by radioactive substances."

TREATY

Banning nuclear weapon tests in the atmosphere, in outer space and under water

The Governments of the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, hereinafter referred to as the "Original Parties,"

Proclaiming as their principal aim the speediest possible achievement of an agreement on general and complete disarmament under strict international control in accordance with the objectives of the United Nations which would put an end to the armaments race and eliminate the incentive to the production and testing of all kinds of weapons, including nuclear weapons,

Seeking to achieve the discontinuance of all test explosions of nuclear weapons for all time, determined to continue negotiations to this end, and desiring to put an end to the contamination of man's environment by radioactive substances,

Have agreed as follows:

Article I

1. Each of the Parties to this Treaty undertakes to prohibit, to prevent, and not to carry out any nuclear weapon test explosion, or any other nuclear explosion, at any place under its jurisdiction or control:

(a) in the atmosphere; beyond its limits, including outer space; or under water, including territorial waters or high seas; or

(b) in any other environment if such an explosion causes radioactive debris to be present outside the territorial limits of the State under whose jurisdiction or control such explosion is conducted. It is understood in this connection that the provisions of this subparagraph are without prejudice to the conclusion of a Treaty resulting in the permanent banning of all nuclear test explosions, including all such explosions underground, the conclusion of which, as the Parties have stated in the Preamble to this Treaty, they seek to achieve.

2. Each of the Parties to this Treaty undertakes furthermore to refrain from causing, encouraging, or in any way participating in, the carrying out of any nuclear weapon test explosion, or any other nuclear explosion, anywhere which would take place in any of the environments described, or have the effect referred to, in paragraph 1 of this Article.

Article II

1. Any Party may propose amendments to this Treaty. The text of any proposed amendment shall be submitted to the Depositary Governments which shall circulate it to all Parties to this Treaty.

Thereafter, if requested to do so by one-third or more of the Parties, the Depositary Governments shall convene a conference, to which they shall invite all the Parties, to consider such amendment.

2. Any amendment to this Treaty must be approved by a majority of the votes of all the Parties to this Treaty, including the votes of all of the Original Parties. The amendment shall enter into force for all Parties upon the deposit of instruments of ratification by a majority of all the Parties, including the instruments of ratification of all of the Original Parties.

Article III

1. This Treaty shall be open to all States for signature. Any State which does not sign this Treaty before its entry into force in accordance with paragraph 3 of this Article may accede to it at any time.

2. This Treaty shall be subject to ratification by signatory States. Instruments of ratification and instruments of accession shall be deposited with the Governments of the Original Parties -- the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics -- which are hereby designated the Depositary Governments.

3. This Treaty shall enter into force after its ratification by all the Original Parties and the deposit of their instruments of ratification.

4. For States whose instruments of ratification or accession are deposited subsequent to the entry into force of this Treaty, it shall enter into force on the date of the deposit of their instruments of ratification or accession.

5. The Depositary Governments shall promptly inform all signatory and acceding States of the date of each signature, the date of deposit of each instrument of ratification of and accession to this Treaty, the date of its entry into force, and the date of receipt of any requests for conferences or other notices.

6. This Treaty shall be registered by the Depositary Governments pursuant to Article 102 of the Charter of the United Nations.

Article IV

This Treaty shall be of unlimited duration.

Each Party shall in exercising its national sovereignty have the right to withdraw from the Treaty if it decides that extraordinary events, related to the subject matter of this Treaty, have jeopardized the supreme interests of its country. It shall give notice of such withdrawal to all other Parties to the Treaty three months in advance.

Article V

This Treaty, of which the English and Russian texts are equally authentic, shall be deposited in the archives of the Depositary Governments. Duly certified copies of this Treaty shall be transmitted by the Depositary Governments to the Governments of the signatory and acceding States.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF the undersigned, duly authorized, have signed this Treaty.

DONE in triplicate at the city of Moscow the fifth day of August, one thousand nine hundred and sixty-three.

For the Government of the United States of America

DEAN RUSK

For the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

SIR DOUGLAS HOME

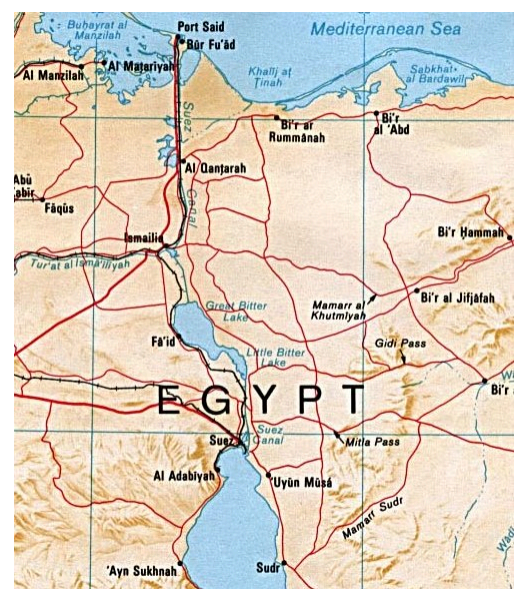
For the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

A. GROMYKO

w. End of War of Attrition(1970)

Shortly after the end of the 1967 war, Egyptian Pres. Gamal Abdel Nasser made clear his intention to retake by force territory captured by Israel in the conflict. Egyptian losses in the war had been significant, but the support and material investment of the Soviet Union sped Egypt's recovery. In autumn 1968 Nasser felt adequately prepared to launch limited attacks on Israeli forces in the Suez Canal zone. After an opening period of mutual hostilities, a de facto cease-fire materialized, and, in the subsequent lull, both Egypt and Israel built up their defenses.

In March 1969 Egypt put an end to the cease-fire and initiated renewed attacks against Israel, marking the beginning of the War of Attrition. Although the Egyptian-Israeli front was the main theatre of battle, to a lesser extent an eastern front—which included Jordanian, Syrian, Iraqi, and Palestinian forces—was also a factor in the hostilities. Using heavy artillery, new MiG aircraft, Soviet advisers, and an advanced Soviet-designed surface-to-air missile system, the Egyptians inflicted heavy losses on the Israelis. In mid-July, in light of increasing casualties, Golda Meir—who had become Israel's prime minister following Levi Eshkol's sudden death in February 1969—escalated Israeli attacks. By December Israeli



forces had destroyed the entirety of the Egyptian air defense system, and from early January 1970 deep-penetration raids were launched against Egyptian targets in the Nile valley and delta. Sufficiently threatened by the Israeli escalation, on January 22, 1970, Nasser secretly traveled to Moscow to appeal directly to the Soviet Union for assistance. The Soviets were hesitant, but, faced with Nasser's threat to resign and the spectre of his replacement by a pro-Western successor, they acquiesced—agreeing, then, to directly involve themselves in the conflict. Israeli raids were suspended after Soviet pilots began to fly combat patrols over parts of Egypt, and the battle shifted to the canal zone.

Fearing an eventual Israeli confrontation with the Soviet Union, U.S. Pres. Richard Nixon sent Secretary of State William Rogers to intervene with a complex cease-fire proposal, which was accepted by Egypt, Jordan, and Israel in August 1970. This plan specified limits on the deployment of missiles and revived a year-old diplomatic initiative (the Rogers Plan) that insisted on an exchange of territory for peace on all fronts. Negotiations were to be initiated after the cease-fire took effect. The Egyptians and the Soviets violated the agreement almost immediately, however, by moving their missiles closer to the canal. In spite of the cease-fire violation, Israel decided not to resume the conflict, and when Nasser died in September 1970, his successor, Anwar Sadat, did not renew the fighting.

At great economic and human expense, the War of Attrition left its underlying disputes unresolved. No territory was exchanged, and there was no obvious victor; observers differed as to whether either side had achieved a strategic success. For some, Egypt's failure to make any territorial gains pointed to an Israeli victory; others suggested that the shift in psychological balance that resulted from the war was in Egyptian favour. The lack of resolution led to the renewal of hostilities only years later in the Arab-Israeli war of October 1973. The status of the Sinai Peninsula and the issue of permanent peace between Egypt and Israel were ultimately resolved by the 1979 peace treaty that followed the Camp David Accords.

x. Treaty of Moscow(1970)

The Moscow Treaty, signed in 1970, was a significant agreement between West Germany and the Soviet Union aimed at normalizing relations during the Cold War. This treaty represented a crucial element of Willy Brandt's Ostpolitik, which sought to improve diplomatic and economic ties with Eastern Europe, particularly the Soviet bloc, while also acknowledging the reality of the division of Germany.

Treaty

The high contracting parties:

Anxious to contribute to strengthening peace and security in Europe and the world;

Convinced that peaceful cooperation among states on the basis of the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations complies with the ardent desire of nations and the general interests of international peace... have agreed as follows:

Article I

The Federal Republic of Germany and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics consider it an important objective of their policies to maintain international peace and achieve détente. They affirm their endeavour to further the normalisation of the situation in Europe and the development of peaceful relations among all European States, and in so doing proceed from the actual situation existing in this region.

Article II

The Federal Republic of Germany and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall in their mutual relations, as well as in matters of ensuring European and international security, be guided by the purposes and principles embodied in the Charter of the United Nations. Accordingly, they shall settle their disputes exclusively by peaceful means and undertake to refrain from the threat or use of force...

Article III

In accordance with the foregoing purposes and principles, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics share the realization that peace can only be maintained in Europe if nobody disturbs the present frontiers.

They undertake to respect without restriction the territorial integrity of all States in Europe within their present frontiers.

They declare that they have no territorial claims against anybody nor will assert such claims in the future.

They regard today and shall in future regard the frontiers of all States in Europe as inviolable, such as they are on the date of signature of the present Treaty, including the Oder-Neisse line which forms the western frontier of the People's Republic of Poland, and the frontier between the Federal Republic of Germany [West Germany] and the German Democratic Republic [East Germany]...

For the Federal Republic of Germany
For the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

y. Iranian Revolution(1979)

The Iranian Revolution (1978-1979) was the social movement that arose from widespread and diverse discontent with the monarchic government of Iran. The revolution was fought against the regime of Mohammad Reza Shah (r. 1941-1979), and it culminated in the end of the Pahlavi dynasty and the establishment of the Islamic Republic of Iran (1979 to present).

The Iranian Revolution originated from deep-rooted problems that preceded the Pahlavi dynasty (1925-1979). There was deep dissatisfaction with the lack of democracy in Iran, the economic conditions, the religious immorality of the monarchy and wider society, and the enduring presence of foreign forces.

In January 1978, incensed by what they considered to be slanderous remarks made against Khomeini in a Tehrān newspaper, thousands of young madrasah (religious school) students took to the streets. They were followed by thousands more Iranian youth—mostly unemployed recent immigrants from the countryside—who began protesting the regime’s excesses. The shah, weakened by cancer and stunned by the sudden outpouring of hostility against him, vacillated between concession and repression, assuming the protests to be part of an international conspiracy against him. Many people were killed by government forces in anti-regime protests, serving only to fuel the violence in a Shi‘i country where martyrdom played a fundamental role in religious expression. Fatalities were followed by demonstrations to commemorate the customary 40-day milestone of mourning in Shi‘i tradition, and further casualties occurred at those protests, mortality and protest propelling one another forward.

The violence and disorder continued to escalate. On September 8 the regime imposed martial law, and troops opened fire against demonstrators in Tehrān, killing dozens or hundreds. Weeks later, government workers began to strike. On October 31, oil workers also went on strike, bringing the oil industry to a halt. Demonstrations continued to grow; on December 10, hundreds of thousands of protesters took to the streets in Tehrān alone.

During his exile, Khomeini coordinated this upsurge of opposition—first from Iraq and after 1978 from France—demanding the shah’s abdication. In January 1979, in what was officially described as a “vacation,” the shah and his family fled Iran. The Regency Council established to run the country during the shah’s absence proved unable to function, and Prime Minister Shahpur Bakhtiar, hastily appointed by the shah before his departure, was incapable of effecting compromise with either his former National Front colleagues or Khomeini. Crowds in excess of one million demonstrated in Tehrān, proving the wide appeal of Khomeini, who arrived in Iran amid wild rejoicing on February 1. Ten days later, on February 11, Iran’s armed forces declared

their neutrality, effectively ousting the shah's regime. Bakhtiar went into hiding, eventually to find exile in France.

z. Reunification of Germany(1990)

On October 3, 1990, East Germany officially joined the Federal Republic of Germany in the West, ending 45 years of division and dissolving the communist German Democratic Republic. The reunification of Germany marked one of the final events of the Cold War in Europe, bringing to an end the East-West division and inaugurating a new era of cooperation.

At the end of World War II, the Allies divided the defeated German state into four occupation zones, with the Soviet Union controlling what would become known as East Germany and the United States, Great Britain and France each controlling a zone of West Germany. The capital of Berlin, located in East Germany, was similarly divided, and in 1961 Soviet forces built a wall encircling the Western-occupied sections of the city and preventing free travel out of the Eastern German state into West Berlin. For the duration of the Cold War, the division of Germany and the existence of the Berlin Wall served as visible reminders of the contest between the forces of communism and capitalism.

In 1989, an impetus for reform swept across Eastern Europe and fed new hopes within Germany for an end to the divided state. After Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev made it clear that his government would not intervene to prevent the loss of communist governments in the satellite states of Eastern Europe, reforms swept through Hungary and Poland. After Hungary opened its borders, East Germans traveled through that state and into West Germany, leading to a substantial population loss for the German Democratic Republic. Meanwhile, mass demonstrations calling for reforms and freedom of travel went unchecked by the Soviet and East German militaries, culminating in the decision to open travel between the East and West on November 9, 1989. Euphoric citizens of both countries began to tear down the Berlin Wall that evening, meeting no organized opposition.

The question that remained after the destruction of the Berlin Wall was if and when the two Germanys should reunite. Forces within both German societies were pushing for unity, and in the wake of the lifted travel restrictions, the two countries moved toward a unified monetary system. In March of 1990, the German Democratic Republic held widespread elections which overwhelmingly supported West German leader Helmut Kohl and parties affiliated with Western counterparts such as the Christian Democrats and the Social Democrats. This set the stage for the dissolution of the East German government and the incorporation of the state into West Germany under the Federal German Republic's existing constitutional structure.

Although the German people pushed for immediate reunification, other governments expressed deep concern about the security implications of a return of a strong, unified German

Republic to Europe. The four powers that had engaged in the postwar occupation of Germany expressed varying degrees of apprehension, although the United States was relatively quick to overcome its objections and support the Bonn Government. For Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union, however, the wounds inflicted on their countries by the First and Second World Wars were not so easily forgotten, and all three states required reassurances that a reunited and remilitarized Germany would not pose a threat. The collapse of the Warsaw Pact in Eastern Europe also meant that at the same time that the German question reemerged, the balance of power in Europe underwent a massive change. To address all these concerns, the six countries engaged in a series of negotiations that became known as the "2+4 Talks," involving the two Germanys plus the four occupying powers.

One of the most difficult questions facing the negotiators was the question of the German relationship to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) after reunification. The United States was anxious to ensure German involvement, which would provide an avenue for continued U.S. engagement in Western Europe and ideally keep a united Germany from pursuing expansionist goals. At first, Gorbachev opposed German membership in NATO. However, as German Reunification began to appear inevitable in mid-1990, he eventually agreed to a compromise in which the unified state would become a member of NATO, but would also agree to sharp reductions in the size of its combined military forces and to refrain from engaging in military exercises in eastern Germany. These conclusions, along with a German commitment to refrain from developing weapons of mass destruction and to respect the border with Poland

(established after the Second World War and codified in the 1975 Helsinki Final Act), proved sufficient for the Soviet Union and the rest of Europe to accept the reunification of Germany.



In the end, reunification happened much faster than anyone anticipated. On October 3, 1990, the Federal Republic of Germany formally absorbed the East German state. In the end, the drive behind reunification came from the people of Germany, not from the diplomatic process that surrounded the issue. Still, U.S.

support for reunification proved critical at several points. In placing German reunification on the agenda even before the fall of the Berlin Wall in November of 1989, the United States was in a

position to support German integration into the European Economic Community and other existing institutions in the region. Although U.S. allies in Western Europe remained cautious on the issue of unification, the U.S. decision to support Kohl and commit all the powers to the 2+4 negotiations served to encourage the process of uniting Germany. The United States also played an important role in building a common position on unification by advancing a solution agreeable to both East and West that would keep Germany in NATO. These policies ultimately contributed to creating an environment that allowed for the rest of Europe to be receptive to the proposed unification of Germany. The Final Settlement Treaty marked the end of special status for Germany and Berlin under Four Power control, and the process of troop withdrawal began. The first all-German elections since 1933 were held on December 2, 1990.

aa. End of an Era:Dissolution of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics(1991)

During the 1960s and 1970s, the Communist Party elite rapidly gained wealth and power while millions of average Soviet citizens faced starvation. The Soviet Union's push to industrialize at any cost resulted in frequent shortages of food and consumer goods. Bread lines were common throughout the 1970s and 1980s. Soviet citizens often did not have access to basic needs, such as clothing or shoes.

The divide between the extreme wealth of the Politburo and the poverty of Soviet citizens created a backlash from younger people who refused to adopt Communist Party ideology as their parents had.

The USSR also faced foreign attacks on the Soviet economy. In the 1980s, the United States under President Ronald Reagan isolated the Soviet economy from the rest of the world and helped drive oil prices to their lowest levels in decades. When the Soviet Union's oil and gas

revenue dropped dramatically, the USSR began to lose its hold on Eastern Europe.

Meanwhile, Gorbachev's reforms were slow to bear fruit and did more to hasten the collapse of the Soviet Union than to help it. A loosening of controls over the Soviet people emboldened independence movements in the Soviet satellites of Eastern Europe.

Political revolution in Poland in 1989 sparked other, mostly peaceful revolutions across Eastern European



states and led to the toppling of the Berlin Wall. By the end of 1989, the USSR had come apart at the seams.

An unsuccessful coup by Communist Party hard-liners in August 1991 sealed the Soviet Union's fate by diminishing Gorbachev's power and propelling democratic forces, led by Boris Yeltsin, to the forefront of Russian politics.

On December 25, Gorbachev resigned as leader of the USSR. The Soviet Union ceased to exist on December 31, 1991.

Rules of Procedure of the Committee

a. Governing Rules

Directives are important for the progress of a crisis committee however it is not only about directives. In crisis committees there are also some procedures which you need to discuss upon or talk about. Also talking will be the key factor for communication between the delegates. Without communication no directive will be truly effective. To enjoy the committee better you must know what others have been doing.

i. Tour de Table

Tour de table is a special procedure that is usually applied in crisis and some special committees. When the first official session of the committee begins, delegates must give some speeches after the roll call. For the first session, tour de table can be assumed as the opening speech. As for the content, you usually tell:

- Personal information about your allocation
- Details about your character
- Your plans if you have one from the beginning
- Information about the soldiers, population, equipment etc.

After the first session, tour de table can be assumed as the general speakers list. At the beginning of the session a tour de table procedure can be applied based on the board initiative. As for the tour de table procedures other than the first session, the content doesn't change significantly. But you don't need to introduce your character one more time since you already did it. About the content you can tell:

- Your future plans
- The directive that you're working on

- Your opinions about the progress
- Your ideas about recent updates

Also if there will be a tour de table, each delegate of the committee has to attend it. It is an obligation.

ii. Procedure details

For the procedural details you must pay attention to some certain things, such as;

- You must answer all of the WH questions(Where,when,what,why,who,how) when you are writing a directive.
- Writing your allocation,where are you sending that directive to(Related Department), committee date and real time is essential.
- Your directives will be evaluated by the academy of the committee. To make them understandable you should try to avoid grammar mistakes
- When an update is decided by the committee academy,it will be shared with you immediately.During these update times you have to be quiet.
- Sometimes there may be a lot of updates and directives to deal with. To handle the issue a freeze time can be declared by the committee academy. In freeze time you can write directives but you can not submit them.
- When you complete a directive,you need to give it to the admins of the committee.They will bring the directives to the committee academy.

b. Directives

Particularly in crisis or special committees , directives are a crucial component of delegate interaction and strategy. These directives, categorized mainly into personal, joint, and intelligence directives, allow delegates to shape the committee's decisions and outcomes actively. Each type of directive serves a specific function and context.

i. Personal Directives

Personal directives are unilateral actions taken by a single delegate, representing their assigned country or character. These directives are crafted solely by the delegate without the need for collaboration or approval from other participants, although their effectiveness might depend on the reactions of others in the committee.A typical personal directive includes specific actions, policy implementations, or responses to crises that align with the delegate's national policy and objectives. These directives can range from military maneuvers and diplomatic

negotiations to economic measures and public statements. The main purpose of a personal directive is to assert a delegate's position, make immediate decisions, and respond to unfolding events in the simulation. They allow for quick, decisive action that can significantly influence the committee's direction.

ii. Joint Directives

Joint directives are collaborative efforts where two or more delegates come together to form a consensus on a particular action or policy. These directives require negotiation, cooperation, and sometimes compromise among the involved parties. These directives typically cover actions or policies that benefit from or require multilateral support, such as international agreements, coordinated military actions, or joint humanitarian aid efforts. The effectiveness of joint directives often hinges on their ability to gather widespread support or create coalitions. They demonstrate the power of diplomacy and collective action in addressing complex international issues.

iii. Intelligence Directives

Intelligence directives are unique to crisis committees and involve the management and use of information to gain strategic advantages. These directives can be issued by individual delegates or groups and are directed at the crisis staff who simulate intelligence agencies and other informational resources. Intelligence directives request or direct the gathering, analysis, and dissemination of crucial information relevant to the ongoing crisis or committee scenario. They may involve espionage, reconnaissance, or the securing of confidential communications. The primary goal of intelligence directives is to enhance a delegate's situational awareness and strategic positioning by obtaining valuable, often secret, information that can influence the committee's decisions and outcomes.

c. How to write a well-planned directive

Provide Explicit Information

Once you know exactly what you want to achieve, put it in writing. To decide whether your writing is concise and clear or how much information to add in a directive, put yourself in the position of the person providing the instructions.

Keep it short and direct

Try to avoid drafting directions that are overly long but remain specific enough to avoid misunderstandings. "I want to kill person B," for instance, should not be written. Instead, use what you already know about them to create a plan. Ask yourself every question you can think of. Where are they? In reality, who ought to perform the action? What is the weapon? Is a fallback strategy in place? Try to fill in as many story holes as you can without writing an essay. Don't make any mistakes. The second is that a complex plan needs to be prepared in a number of steps.

Develop Your Strategy Step-by-Step

Unless it is a straightforward activity, you cannot complete the entire procedure in one step. Your plan needs to be broken up into smaller parts. Hire a spy first, for instance, if you want to steal anything. Next, use your preferred method to learn more about the object and its location. Your spy must become familiar with the security measures in place as well as the guards' routines, rounds, and habits. Utilize the facts you get to develop a winning strategy and hide your identity. Although this clarifies the concept, stealing is probably not a directive that this committee will be concerned with.

Each Directive, One Issue

To avoid confusing the backrooms, be sure to specify any operations you are conducting in distinct orders.

Consult Your Prior Instructions

Reminding the backrooms of any prior steps you have done (that they have approved) is a smart idea. For instance, inform the hired spy that it was already at spot A if you wish to move them from position A to location B. Additionally, to prevent misunderstandings or gaps, be clear about exactly who or what you are referring to (maybe a particular uniform color, flag design, or a distinctive piece of armament).

Utilize Numbers

Whenever possible, use exact figures instead of percentages. Personal affairs, committees, and joint directions with other delegates are all subject to this rule. Providing exact figures can also

speed up the answer and make the backroom's job easier. This is especially helpful when multiple strategies are implemented at the same time during a crisis, which can be confusing. In short, be as precise and succinct as possible to convey the information, build a step-by-step strategy, avoid combining many ideas into a single command, refer to earlier directives, and utilize exact numbers.

Date and functions of the Committee

About the start of the committee, the committee will start on 15.04.1945. That means every event that happened before that specific date is real. However from that time on situations may change based on your actions which you will do via directives. About the authority and power you possess, you have full control over your character. Your allocations were all great commanders and politicians once upon a time. Since you represent characters instead of countries, you have the right to use your character's full potential. You are not allowed to go out of your way to do something unrelated with the topic. Only focus on your side of the war and do things that are possible in that period of time. Don't forget that all of your characters were loyal to their country and morals.

As previously mentioned you are commanders and politicians who played crucial roles during the Cold War. That means you can take military actions, put embargoes and apply laws etc. As the academy of the committee we are not going to restrict your imagination of making plans or starting operations. But we would like to remind you that you shouldn't use fictional methods while using your imagination. Your plans and operations must make sense.

President Allocations

You will be reallocated throughout the 46 years of the Cold War in the committee. These people are your first assigned allocations.

- *Harry Truman*
 - Harry S Truman was the 33rd president of the United States. He took office in 1945, when he was vice president, following the death of then-President Franklin D. Roosevelt in office. When he became president, World War II was in its final months.
- *Edward Stettinius Jr.*
 - Edward Reilly Stettinius Jr. was an American businessman who served as United States Secretary of State under Presidents Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman from 1944 to 1945.
- *Henry Stimson*
 - Henry L. Stimson was a statesman who exercised a strong influence on U.S. foreign policy in the 1930s and '40s.
- *Dwight Eisenhower*
 - After the war ended in Europe, he served as military governor of the American-occupied zone of Germany in 1945 and Army Chief of Staff in 1945–1948.
- *George Patton*
 - George Patton was a U.S. Army officer who was an outstanding practitioner of mobile tank warfare in the European and Mediterranean theatres during World War II.
- *Chester Nimitz*
 - Chester William Nimitz, USN, GCB was a rear admiral in the United States Navy .
- *Curtis LeMay*
 - General Curtis LeMay served as the commander of the XXI Bomber Command of the Twentieth Air Force during World War II.
- *Carl Spaatz*
 - General Carl Spaatz was the Commander of U.S. Strategic Air Forces in Europe (USSTAF), he played an impartial role in World War II in the U.S. Army Air Force.
- *Douglas MacArthur*
 - General Douglas MacArthur was the Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in the Southwest Pacific Area during World War II.
- *Brehon Somervell*
 - Lieutenant General Brehon B. Somervell was the Commanding General of the U.S. Army Service Forces (ASF) during World War II.

- *James Doolittle*
 - Lieutenant General James Doolittle was serving as the Commander of the U.S. Eighth Air Force which was a critical role in the process of bombing campaigns against Nazi Germany.
- *Joseph Stalin*
 - Joseph Stalin was the General Secretary of the Communist Part which led him to be the lead of the Soviet Union. He also played critical parts in military and political interventions.
- *Andrei Gromyko*
 - He was a representative of the USSR in the UN while he was also the US Ambassador of the Soviet Union.
- *Vyacheslav Molotov*
 - Vyacheslav Molotov was the People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs while being a really close friend to Joseph Stalin
- *Georgy Zhukov*
 - Marshal Georgy Zhukov was the architect of the Red Army's final victories over Nazi Germany.
- *Konstantin Rokossovsky*
 - Marshal Konstantin Rokossovsky had a critical part in the defeat of the Nazi Germany.
- *Aleksandr Vasilevsky*
 - Aleksandr Vasilevsky was a top Soviet military commander and strategist during World War II.
- *Ivan Konev*
 - Ivan Konev was one of the most distinguished Soviet military commanders during World War II.
- *Vasily Chuikov*
 - After the war, Marshal Vasily Chuikov served as Chief of Staff of the Group of Soviet Forces in Germany
- *Kirill Meretskov*
 - Marshal Kirill Meretskov played an active role in the Soviet-Japan war and made important contributions to the Soviet Union.
- *Leonid Govorov*
 - Marshal Leonid Govorov commanded the Leningrad Front, containing German forces in the Courland Pocket in Latvia.
- *Rodion Malinovsky*

- Marshal Rodion Malinovsky played a key role in the Soviet invasion of Manchuria against Japan.

Expectations from the Committee

Dear presidents,ministers and generals; as we all gathered here to make history, we as the academy of the committee would like you to remind you the things that we want from you during the sessions.

Firstly, as we all know, the Cold War lasted for a great 46 years. This means you will be reallocated with the flow of the timeline. Your positions in the committee will not change(Generals will stay as generals, ministers and presidents will stay as ministers and presidents) so you do not need to worry about your place.

1. We will be waiting for your collaboration during the process, the significance of debating upon topics and conferences that were held in the Cold War period are a must topic that should be addressed properly.
2. As you all know, the committee will be divided into two parts; The Soviet Union and The United States. Since there will be commanders and you will have forces for yourselves, be careful of the stability of your armies. Use them cautiously and try to make your plans flawlessly in order to win favors for your nations.
3. Crisis committees are known for their directives, but you shall not forget the importance of the debate that you have to share with the other delegates also. Both parties must be in an effort for dominance for the opposite one.
4. We shouldn't be saying this stuff but your directives have to be written by hand and your **own** imagination. Usage of Artificial Intelligence is strictly forbidden.
5. Lastly, since you delegates will have authority under your hands, do not forget the real intention of the committee and avoid writing directives that are unrelated with the topic. Those directives will not be accepted by the committee academy.

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