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THE UNITED STATES CABINET, 1949
AGENDA:
REVIEWING AND FORMULATING THE
FOREIGN POLICY OF THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Table of Contents

A Letter from the Director.....	3
Introduction.....	4
Background to the Committee.....	5
Economic Situation in United States of America during 1945-49.....	6
Political Scenario in the United States of America in 1949.....	8
United States Presidential Election, 1948	8
UNITED STATES SENATE ELECTION, 1948	10
US HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVE ELECTIONS, 1948	10
Cold War.....	10
Events leading to Cold War	11
Foreign Relations of United States of America in 1949.....	23
1. Western Europe	23
2. Israel	25
3. Iran	26
4. Turkey	27
5. Greece	27
6. Japan (Supreme Command of Allied Powers)	28
Concluding Note.....	29

A Letter from the Director

Dear Delegates,

My name is Madhav Agarwal and I'm humbled to serve as the Director of the United States Presidential Cabinet, 1949 besides being the Secretary General for the conference. On behalf of the entire Jaipurian staff, I sincerely welcome you to the 6th session of the Jaipuria Model United Nations. I am a humanities student studying in the 12th grade, my primary interests being economics, geography, history, and political science. I've chaired and delegated at several Model UN conferences around the country, and besides academics, have an immense passion for debates, quizzes and music.

In directing this flagship, specialized-discussion cum crisis committee, I hope to provide a stimulating experience centered on an arguably unprecedented period in international affairs. You will have the chance to insert yourself into the post-war US' politics and embark on a thrilling and challenging simulation of diplomacy, state-building and subversion. Amidst the conundrum of the Cold War era, you and your fellow delegates wield the fate of an entire nation in your hands.

Besides being well-versed about the topic, I expect delegates to know how to write detailed and rational communiqués. Keep in mind that while paperwork and communications will be a vital aspect of this committee, delegates must be able to strike a balance between their individual aims and the good of the entire nation. Moreover, I believe that a specialized committee is more about one's presence of mind and creativity. Therefore, you must play your cards wisely.

The Assistant Director for the committee is Manya Srivastava who is a class 11th student. Manya is a talented MUNner besides being a bibliophile and food-lover. Manya has a special interest for Crisis committees. Her interest bundled up with experience and creativity ensures an enthralling experience for you all during the course of the committee.

The Rapporteur for the committee is Vasu Sumeet Seth who is a class 10th student. Vasu is an emerging talent in the MUN circuit. He has attended several MUNs and takes a great deal of interest in research and analysis of various topics of international importance. Besides MUNnig, Vasu is highly passionate about cricket and food (Well..who isn't?).

Lastly, as the director for this committee, I assure you that you won't feel bored for a single moment in the committee. If you have any questions or concerns about this committee or topic, please feel free to contact us. I look forward to meeting all of you at JMUN 2018.

Until then,

Madhav Agarwal

Director,

The United States Presidential Cabinet, 1949

Jaipuria Model United Nations, 2018

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Introduction

“Life consists not in holding good cards, but in playing those you hold well”

-Henry Wheeler Shaw

This background guide aims to provide the delegates with a general idea of the events – social, economic and political, post-World War II, which framed a new system of international relations marked by the division of world into two power blocs on the basis of opposing capitalist and communist ideologies. Little was known that the Cold War which sparked off with the Yalta Conference of 1945 would culminate into an unprecedented state of prolonged geopolitical tension between the Eastern Bloc (Soviet Union and its satellite states) and the Western Bloc (USA and its NATO Allies). The emergence of Communist People’s Republic of China along with the Korean and Vietnam Wars just demonstrated that the six years long World War had failed to satisfy the hunger for more.

Though the cold war dominated the international relations in the post war era, the period was also marked by the aspects of neo-colonialism, total war, emergence of United Nations as a platform for international diplomacy, and fear of nuclear warfare. The fact that the prospective use of atomic bombs by the United States against Japan in Second World War was known to Britain but was kept a secret from Stalin sowed the seeds of dissension within the Allied Powers. The Cold War eventually became pretty apparent when the United States made its policy of ‘Containment of Communism’ clear with the ‘Truman Doctrine of 1947.’ Consequentially, the Soviet Russia was also now bent upon putting an end to United States’ intention to dominate the world politics.

‘The United States Presidential Cabinet, 1949’ thus aims to rewind the pages of history and give you an opportunity to step into the shoes of the decision makers of the arguably most powerful country in the post-war era. The agenda for this specialized discussion-based committee is: ‘Reviewing and formulating the foreign policy of the United States with special reference to the contemporary system of International Relations.’

It is 1949 and Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis has fallen. But... much harm has already been done. Wars have been fought. Families have been shattered. Men have lost their lives. Now it is upon you, as the servants of the oldest democracy in the world, to either uphold the principles of international peace and security of the United Nations or play the odds and embark on a journey to establish the 'Stars and Stripes' as THE power on this Earth. No matter what you choose, but remember: "With great power, comes great responsibility."

Besides this, as a delegate you should remember that in a specialized discussion-based committee as this, taking the committee forward is as important a responsibility as developing one's own portfolio with each passing committee session. That said, it is eventually your ideas and opinions supplemented with proper research and presence of mind that can make a difference in your position in the committee.

Background to the Committee

The Cabinet of the United States of America is the primary executive body of the United States comprising of all the senior officials of the federal government of the United States of America. It is presided over by the President of the United States, in this case, the Director of the Committee.

The meetings of the U.S. Cabinet take place in the White House Cabinet Room. It is the primary advisory body to the President of the United States. Cabinet officers are nominated by the President and then presented to the US Senate for confirmation or rejection by a simple majority. If approved, they are sworn in and begin their duties.

The members of the cabinet (except the vice president) act at the pleasure of the President. This implies that any of them can be dismissed from their office at the will of the President. All these members are subject to impeachment by the House of Representatives and trial in Senate on grounds of "treason, bribery and misuse of their office."

Though there is no specific reference to a "Cabinet" in the U.S. Constitution, it has been a sort of convention since the time of George Washington. The working of Cabinet is greatly influenced by the past instances of U.S. Cabinet Meetings.

Considering this, U.S. Cabinet is provisioned to discuss any unprecedented situation of great national importance that may arise during its meeting.

The President can also unilaterally designate senior White House staffers, heads of other federal agencies and the Ambassador to the United Nations as members of the Cabinet, although this is a symbolic status marker and does not, apart from attending Cabinet meetings, confer any additional powers.

One of the Primary functions of the Cabinet is to advise the President on foreign affairs and formulate a cohesive foreign policy for the nation. The period following

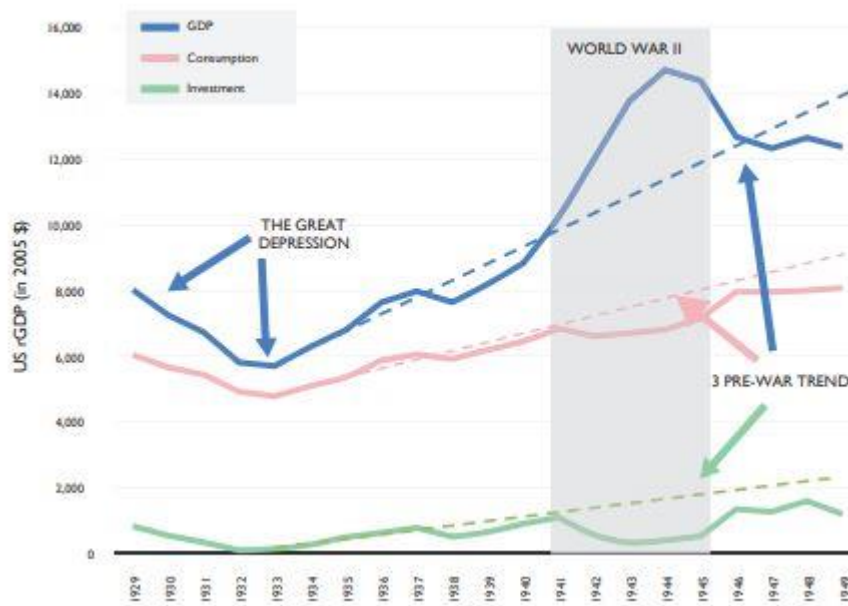
the end of World War (1945) and before the formation of NATO (4th April, 1949) was marked by multiple developments in international politics. The period was marked by emergence of several new nation-states like East and West Germany (1945), India (1947), Pakistan (1947), US-sponsored Israel (1948), Democratic People's Republic of Korea (1948), South Korea (1948) and many more. All these nation-states were of strategic importance to the United States to contain the spread of communism and thus, it became imperative for the U.S. President – Harry S. Truman to reframe United States' foreign policy with respect to these nations.

Economic Situation in United States of America during 1945-49

After being strongly hit by the Great Depression (1929-41), the United States quickly recovered its economy during the Second World War. Roosevelt's 'New Deal' had been a breakthrough with the aim of 3R: Relief, Recovery and Reform. It was the war which finally put an end to the depression. The US entered the world war after the Japanese had bombed the Pearl Harbor in December, 1941. The Americans, thus, started supplying Britain and France with aircraft, tanks and other armaments. After Pearl Harbor, production of armaments soared: in 1943, 86 thousand aircrafts were built, while in 1944 the figure was over 96 thousand. The Gross National Product (GNP) of USA almost doubled between 1939 and 1945. By the end of 1942, there was almost full employment. By 1945, the war effort had created 7 million extra jobs in USA.

Immediately after the World War II, USA underwent reconversion from a wartime command economy to a market-oriented postwar economy, a transition accomplished with astonishing speed and little apparent difficulty.

When the Second World War ended in 1945, the economic boom continued as factories switched from producing armaments to producing consumer goods. Under President Harry S. Truman, USA continued to be the world's largest industrial power and richest nation. Truman in order to normalize the situations after the War, put forward a programme known as 'Fair Deal' in January, 1949. It included a national health scheme, a higher minimum wage, slum clearance and full employment. But this was faced with difficulties: removal of wartime price controls caused inflation and strikes, and the Republicans won control of Congress in 1946. The Republican majority in Congress had thrown out his proposals, and even passed, despite his veto, the Taft-Hartley Act (1947) which reduced trade-union powers. This helped Truman to gain working-class support and enabled him to win the 1948 Presidential election, together with Democrat majority in Congress.

Figure 2: Consumption and Investment were well off trend after the war years

*U.S. Per Capita GDP, Consumption and Expenditure during 1929-49
(In US dollars)*

It is very clear that growth during this period was driven by government spending and accompanied by declines in consumption and investment in comparison to the pre-war trend. The funding for the war was predominantly via government debt and taxation, which increased by 5 and 6 times respectively, over the course of 1941 to 1945. Unemployment fell to 1.9% by 1945 as up to 20% of the population was employed in the armed forces. So while it can be said that the war directly led to a decline in unemployment, the level of consumption did not see any corresponding increase, despite the fact that the unemployment rate had significantly fallen from 14.6% in 1940 to 1.9% in 1945. In real terms, per capita consumption was lower in 1945 than it was in 1941.

In 1941, government spending represented approximately 30% of GDP, or almost US\$408 billion. At its peak in 1944, this had risen to over US\$1.6 trillion or 79% of total GDP rising by 394% in just three years. By contrast, consumption fell from 67% to 46% of GDP and investment fell from 11% to 3% of GDP over the same period. This is shown in figure given above, where it can be seen via the trend lines drawn from 1933 that consumption and investment in the immediate years after the war were well below the pre-war trend.

Political Scenario in the United States of America in 1949

United States Presidential Election, 1948



Button from Truman's 1948 Presidential Campaign

The United States Presidential election was held on November 2nd, 1948. Harry S. Truman, the Democratic Nominee defeated his opponent, the Republican Governor Thomas E. Dewey to become President of the United States.

Truman had previously acceded to President in 1945, after the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt. Truman faced some of the most complex issues to ever face any world leader.

Internationally these decisions included the decision to drop the atomic bomb to end World War II, the daunting task of re-building both Europe and Japan, and changing the American foreign policy.

The creation of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and National Security Council (NSC), the recognition of the State of Israel, the response to the Cold War and US' involvement in the Korean War were also decisions that Truman faced.

This time, virtually every prediction had (with or without public opinion polls) indicated that incumbent President Harry S. Truman would be defeated by Republican Thomas E. Dewey. He was widely considered the underdog in this race. Indicative of this was the *Chicago Daily Tribune* decision to distribute a paper with the famous headline "Dewey Defeats Truman" before the election results. But, in which is

considered by most historians as the greatest election upset in American History, Truman, while overcoming a three-way split in his own party, garnered 303 electoral votes by winning 28 states against Dewey's 189 (16 states) and consequently became President for his Second Term. When the final votes were tallied, Truman had won by a comfortable margin, capturing 49.4 percent of the vote to Dewey's 45.0 percent.

Truman's surprise victory was the fifth consecutive win for the Democratic Party in a presidential election. As a result of the 1948 congressional election, the Democrats would regain control of both houses of Congress, which they had lost in 1946. The other runners were Strom Thurmond, of the States' Right Democratic (popularly known as *Dixiecrat*) who got 2.4 percent of the public, more than one million votes because of his supporters concentrated heavily in the South, and 39 electoral votes, along with Henry A. Wallace of the Progressives, won only 13,000 fewer popular votes than Thurmond, but with diffuse support he came close to winning no state.

(Note; the Democratic Party had broken into three, and the dissidents were the Dixiecrats and the Progressives.)

To read more, visit: <https://millercenter.org/president/truman/campaigns-and-elections>
<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Progressive-Party-United-States-1948>
<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Dixiecrat>

American Presidential Election, 1948

presidential candidate	political party	electoral votes	popular votes
<u>Harry S. Truman</u>	<u>Democratic</u>	303	24,105,695
<u>Thomas E. Dewey</u>	<u>Republican</u>	189	21,969,170
<u>Strom Thurmond</u>	States' Rights Democratic (<u>Dixiecrat</u>)	39	1,169,021
<u>Henry A. Wallace</u>	<u>Progressive</u>		1,156,103
<u>Norman Thomas</u>	Socialist		139,009
Claude A. Watson	<u>Prohibition</u>		103,216

Edward A. Teichert	Socialist Labor	29,061
Farrell Dobbs	Socialist Workers	13,613

UNITED STATES SENATE ELECTION, 1948

The senate elections that year had coincided with Truman's Presidential election. Truman was awarded with nine seats in the Senate, enough to give the Democrats the control of the chamber.

The Democrats defeated eight Republican incumbents.

In these general elections, the winners were elected for the term beginning January 3, 1949 (81st Congress); ordered by state.

Scott Lucas from Illinois was the leader of the Democrats while the Republicans were headed by Ken Wherry from Nebraska.

The results reflected a Republican hold on Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Oregon and, South Dakota. The rest of the states, a majority, were held by the Democrats.

This means that, out of 33 states (including the New York elections during the next session of congress), 23 were under Democrats and 10 under Republicans.

US HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVE ELECTIONS, 1948

The overall results reflected that there was Democratic Majority.

263 seats went to the Democrats, 171 to the Republicans and 1 to the American Labor Party

Cold War

During World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union fought together as allies against the Axis powers. However, the relationship between the two nations was a tense one. Americans had long been wary of Soviet communism and concerned about Russian leader Joseph Stalin's tyrannical, blood-thirsty rule of his own country. For their part, the Soviets resented the Americans' decades-long refusal to treat the USSR as a legitimate part of the international community as well as their delayed entry into World War II, which resulted in the deaths of tens of millions of Russians. After the war ended, these grievances ripened into an overwhelming sense of mutual distrust

and enmity. Postwar Soviet expansionism in Eastern Europe fueled many Americans' fears of a Russian plan to control the world. Meanwhile, the USSR came to resent what they perceived as American officials' bellicose rhetoric, arms buildup and interventionist approach to international relations.

Events leading to Cold War

1. Bretton-Woods Conference (1944)



Bretton Woods Convention.

Delegation from UK and USSR sitting together.

During the early years of the 20th century, the world suffered through the Great Depression. This happened during the 1930s. In addition to this, there were also two world wars. Due to this, the global economic system collapsed quickly. This had a major impact on international trade. As a result, countries were witnessing the plummeting living standards caused by unemployment. During World War II, Anglo-American discussions focused on the increasing demand for an institution that could take care of international finances, cooperation, and even promote international trade.

From 1st July to 22nd July 1944, 730 delegates from 44 allied nations met at the Mount Washington Hotel. The hotel is located in Bretton Woods, State of New Hampshire, United States. The issue at hand was the regulation of post war global economy and restoring financial order. The primary debate was between the United Kingdom and the United States delegations. The debate was about the nature of the considered organization. The framers of the new Bretton Woods monetary regime hoped to promote world trade, investment, and economic growth by maintaining convertible currencies at stable exchange rates. Countries with temporary, moderate balance-of-payments deficits were expected to finance their deficits by borrowing

foreign currencies from the IMF rather than by imposing exchange controls, devaluations, or deflationary economic policies that could spread their economic problems to other countries.

The British delegation wanted a fund that could help all the member nations economically, but only during emergencies or times of crisis. On the other hand, the United States delegation wanted an institution that could function like a bank. It wanted permission for member countries to borrow money for all kinds of purposes. Of course, the money would be borrowed as a loan, and would have to be repaid in a specified time frame. Finally, the United States motion was accepted. During the Bretton Woods Conference, a lot of agreements were signed to legally establish the General Agreement on Tariffs & Trade (GATT), the International Bank for Reconstruction & Development (World Bank or IBRD) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

International Monetary Fund

The International Monetary Fund was founded on 27th December, 1945. A treaty called the Articles of Agreement was signed by 29 member countries. The next year, the first meeting was convened by the Board of Governors in Savannah, State of Georgia, United States.

The purpose of the meeting was to elect the executive directors, draft the bylaws, and decide the permanent location of the IMF's headquarters. The Board of Directors selected Washington D.C as the headquarters of the International Monetary Fund. The financial operations of the IMF started on 1st March, 1947. The primary purpose of the International Monetary Fund is to give technical and financial assistance, oversee exchange rates, and address global financial problems.

In order to be a member of the IMF, countries need to deposit a specific amount of money as subscription fee. The countries also need to comply with the terms and conditions of the organization.

The other sources of steady income for the International Monetary Fund are gold reserves, loan repayments from debtors, and requested financial resources from shareholders. The money generated by the International Monetary Fund is used for providing monetary assistance to member countries.

Mandate and Objectives

The primary purpose of the International Monetary Fund has already been discussed

above. Here are some key pointers to how the IMF aims to help member countries, and what are its objectives. The IMF aims to:

- Promote global monetary cooperation
- Facilitate the balanced growth and expansion of global trade
- Promote exchange stability
- Assist member countries in the establishment of a standard multi-lateral system of payments
- Make resources available combined with appropriate safeguards to member countries experiencing payment difficulties



World Bank

World Bank, in full **World Bank Group**, international organization affiliated with the United Nations (UN) and designed to finance projects that enhance the economic development of member states. Headquartered in Washington, D.C., the bank is the largest source of financial assistance to developing countries. It also provides technical assistance and policy advice and supervises—on behalf of international creditors—the implementation of free-market reforms. Together with the [International Monetary Fund](#) (IMF) and the [World Trade Organization](#), it plays a central role in overseeing economic policy and reforming public institutions in developing countries and defining the global macroeconomic agenda.

Thus, the Bretton-Woods System reflected upon the domination of United States over the world economy. Countries around the world including Britain found themselves helpless to prevent USA from dictating its terms over the way these organizations worked. United States, thus, actively used its dominant position over IMF and World Bank as a tool to drive the developing nations in its favor.

2. The Yalta Conference (February 4th - 11th 1945)



The February 1945 Yalta Conference was the second wartime meeting of British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin and U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt. During the conference, the three leaders agreed to demand **Germany's unconditional surrender** and began plans for a post-war world. Stalin also agreed to **permit free elections in Eastern Europe** and to **enter the Asian war against Japan**, for which he was promised the return of lands lost to Japan in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05.

The leaders agreed to require Germany's unconditional surrender and to set up in the conquered nation four zones of occupation to be run by their three countries and France. They scheduled another meeting for April in San Francisco to create the United Nations. But American critics charged that Roosevelt, who died two months after the conference on April 12 1945, had "sold out" to the Soviets at Yalta.

The conference accepted the principle that the Allies had no duty toward the Germans except to provide minimum subsistence, declared that the German military industry would be abolished or confiscated, and agreed that major war criminals would be tried before an international court, which subsequently [presided at Nürnberg](#).

How to deal with the defeated or liberated countries of eastern [Europe](#) was the main problem discussed at the conference. The agreements reached, which were accepted by Stalin, called for "interim governmental authorities broadly representative of all democratic elements in the population...and the earliest possible establishment through *free elections of governments responsive to the will of the people*." But Stalin failed to keep his promise that free elections would be held in **Poland**, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, and Bulgaria. Instead, communist governments were established in all those countries, non-communist political parties were suppressed, and genuinely democratic elections were never held.

Britain and the United States supported a Polish government-in-exile in London, while the Soviets supported a communist-dominated Polish committee of national liberation in Lublin. Neither the Western Allies nor the Soviet Union would change its allegiance, so they could only agree that the Lublin committee would be broadened to include representatives of other Polish political groups, upon which the Allies would recognize it as a provisional government of national unity that would hold free elections to choose a successor government. Poland's future frontiers were also discussed but not decided.

Regarding the Far East, a secret protocol stipulated that, in return for the Soviet Union's entering the war against Japan within "two or three months" after Germany's surrender (**May 8th, 1945 : V-E Day**), the U.S.S.R. would obtain from Japan the Kuril Islands and regain the territory lost in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–05 (including the southern part of Sakhalin Island), and the status quo in pro-Soviet Outer Mongolia would be maintained. Stalin agreed to sign a pact of alliance and friendship with China.

At the time of the Yalta Conference, both Roosevelt and Churchill had trusted Stalin. Neither leader had suspected that Stalin intended that all the [popular front](#) governments in Europe would be taken over by communists. In any case, the Soviet Union was the military occupier of eastern Europe at the war's end, and so there was little the Western democracies could do to enforce the promises made by Stalin at Yalta.

3. The Potsdam Conference (July 17 - August 2nd 1945)



The Big Three—Soviet leader Joseph Stalin, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill (replaced on July 26 by Prime Minister Clement Attlee), and U.S. President Harry Truman—met in Potsdam, Germany, from July 17 to August 2, 1945, to negotiate terms for the end of World War II. Although the Allies remained committed to fighting a joint war in the Pacific, the lack of a common enemy in Europe led to difficulties reaching consensus concerning postwar reconstruction on the European continent.

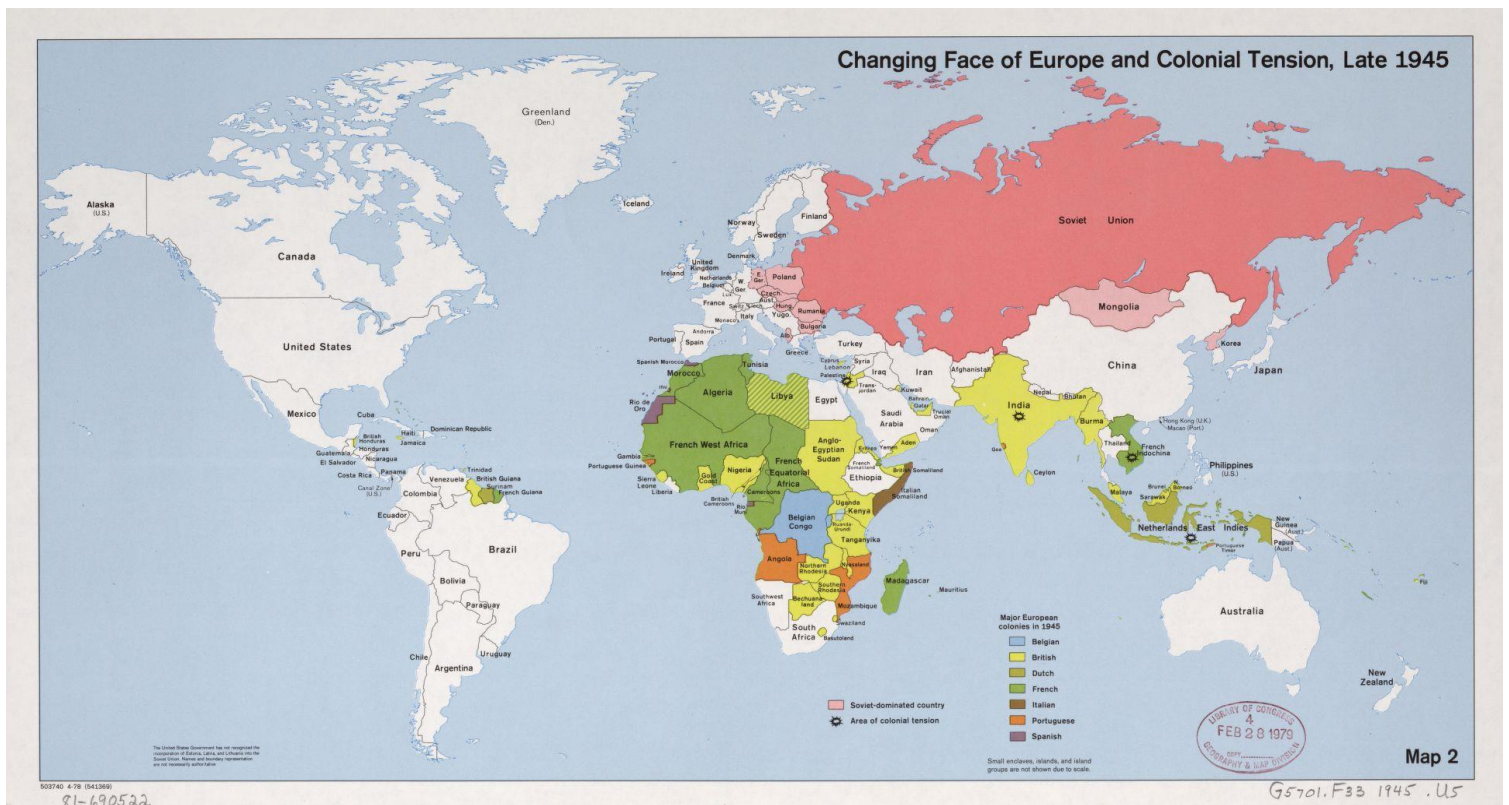
The major issue at Potsdam was the question of how to handle Germany. At Yalta, the Soviets had pressed for heavy post war reparations from Germany, half of which would go to the Soviet Union. While Roosevelt had acceded to such demands, Truman and his Secretary of State, James Byrnes, were determined to mitigate the treatment of Germany by allowing the occupying nations to exact reparations only from their own zone of occupation. Truman and Byrnes encouraged this position because they wanted to avoid a repetition of the situation created by the Treaty of Versailles, which had exacted high reparations payments from Germany following World War One. Many experts agreed that the harsh reparations imposed by the Versailles Treaty had handicapped the German economy and fueled the rise of the Nazis.

According to the Protocol of the Conference, there was to be “a complete disarmament and demilitarization of Germany”; all aspects of German industry that could be utilized for military purposes were to be dismantled; all German military and paramilitary forces were to be eliminated.

Poland’s boundary became the Oder and Neisse rivers in the west, and the country received part of former East Prussia. This necessitated moving millions of Germans in those areas to Germany. The governments of Romania, Hungary, and Bulgaria were already controlled by communists, and Stalin was adamant in refusing to let the Allies interfere in eastern Europe. In Potsdam, Truman hinted Stalin about the United States’

“new weapon” (the atomic bomb) that it intended to use against Japan. On July 26 an ultimatum was issued from the conference to Japan demanding unconditional surrender and threatening heavier air attacks otherwise. After Japan had rejected this ultimatum, the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki on August 6 and 9 respectively, thus, ending the war.

For further details, read here : <https://history.state.gov/milestones/1937-1945/potsdam-conf>
<https://www.britannica.com/event/Yalta-Conference>



Other important events in 1945 and 1946 were:

August 14th 1945	V J Day	The Japanese surrendered bringing World War II to an end.
September 2nd 1945	Vietnam Independence	Ho Chi Minh proclaimed Vietnam an independent republic.
December, 1945	Soviet installs Communist government in Northern Iran	
February 9th 1946	Stalin's Proclamation	Stalin announces that conflicts between the West and USSR are inevitable, charges that capitalism caused World War II, and calls for an industrial build-up in Russia.
February 22nd 1946	The Long Telegram	George Kennan, an embassy official, sends the Long Telegram from Moscow to Washington, describing inherent Soviet hostility toward Western capitalist societies, especially the United States.
March 5th 1946	Churchill's Iron Curtain Speech	Churchill delivers his 'Sinews of Peace' speech which contain the famous phrase "...an iron curtain has descended on Europe."

March-May 1946	Soviets withdraw from Iran	After months of diplomatic protests by the United States, Great Britain, and the United Nations, the Soviets withdraw from Iran. Truman orders preparation of task force to send to the eastern Mediterranean.
August-October 1946	Controversy over Turkey	The USSR pressures Turkey to agree to joint control of the Turkish Straits, beginning naval maneuvers in the Black Sea and dispatching troops to the Balkans. In response to a plea from the Turkish government, Truman orders a naval task force to the area and affirms U.S. support of Turkey.

4. The Truman Doctrine: Truman reacts to the crisis in the Mediterranean (March 12 1947)

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

The Truman Doctrine arose from a speech delivered by President Truman before a joint session of Congress on March 12, 1947. The immediate cause for the speech was a recent announcement by the British Government that, as of March 31, it would no longer provide military and economic assistance to the Greek Government in its civil war against the Greek Communist Party. Truman asked Congress to support the Greek Government against the Communists. He also asked Congress to provide assistance for Turkey, since that nation, too, had previously been dependent on British aid.

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

In 1946, four setbacks, in particular, had served to effectively torpedo any chance of achieving a durable post-war rapprochement with the Soviet Union:

- a. the Soviets' failure to withdraw their troops from northern Iran in early 1946 (as per the terms of the [Tehran Declaration of 1943](#))
- b. Soviet attempts to pressure the Iranian Government into granting them oil concessions while supposedly fomenting irredentism by Azerbaijani separatists in northern Iran
- c. Soviet efforts to force the Turkish Government into granting them base and transit rights through the Turkish Straits
- d. The Soviet Government's rejection of the Baruch plan for international control over nuclear energy and weapons in June 1946.

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.

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.

To Read More: <https://www.history.com/this-day-in-history/truman-doctrine-is-announced>
<https://www.history.com/this-day-in-history/the-united-states-presents-the-baruch-plan>

5. The Marshall Plan (June 5 1947)



The Marshall Plan, also known as the European Recovery Program, channeled over \$13 billion to finance the economic recovery of Europe, starting in 1948 and proposed till 1951. The Marshall Plan was aimed at ‘restoring the confidence of the European people in the economic future of their own countries and of Europe as a whole.’ The plan is named for Secretary of State George C. Marshall, who announced it in a commencement speech at Harvard University on June 5, 1947.

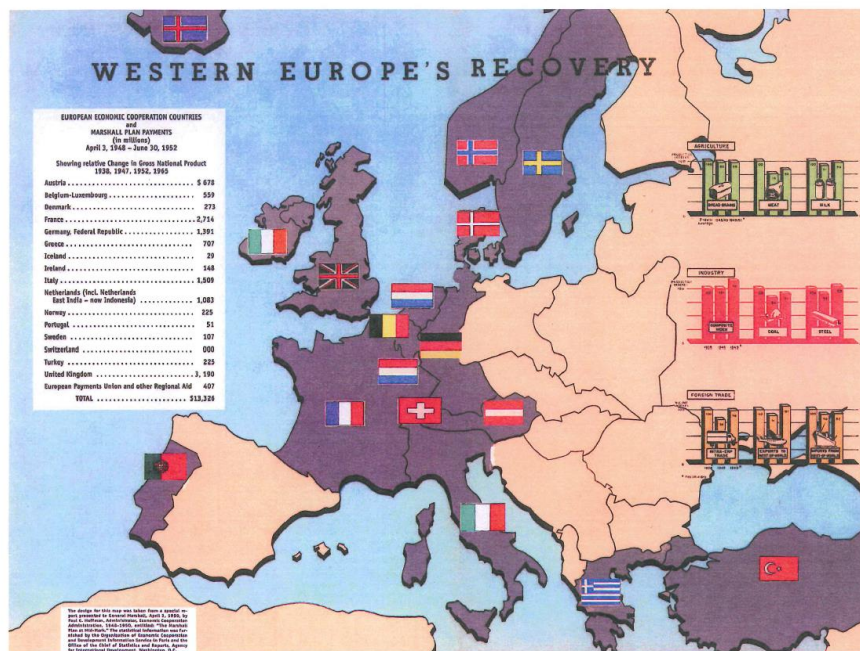
At the time, Americans perceived the plan as a generous subvention to Europe. The Soviet Union, however, viewed the Marshall Plan as an attempt to interfere in the internal affairs of other states and refused to participate. Ultimately, the Soviets prevented Poland and Czechoslovakia from taking part, despite their eagerness to do so.

The Marshall Plan generated a resurgence of European industrialization and brought extensive investment into the region. It was also a stimulant to the U.S. economy by establishing markets for American goods. Although the participation of the Soviet Union and East European nations was an initial possibility, Soviet concern over potential U.S. economic domination of its Eastern European satellites and Stalin’s unwillingness to open up his secret society to westerners doomed the idea. Furthermore, it is unlikely that the U.S. Congress would have been willing to fund the plan as generously as it did if aid also went to Soviet Bloc Communist nations.

Thus the Marshall Plan was applied solely to Western Europe, precluding any measure of Soviet Bloc cooperation. Increasingly, the economic revival of Western Europe, especially West Germany, was viewed suspiciously in Moscow. Economic historians have debated the precise impact of the Marshall Plan on Western Europe,

but these differing opinions do not detract from the fact that the Marshall Plan has been recognized as a great humanitarian effort. Secretary of State Marshall became the only general ever to receive a Nobel Prize for peace. The Marshall Plan also institutionalized and legitimized the concept of U.S. foreign aid programs, which have become an integral part of U.S. foreign policy.

6.



Cominform (September 1947)

Founded on October 5, 1947, "Cominform" ("Communist Information Bureau") is the common name for what is officially referred to as the *Information Bureau of the Communist and Workers' Parties*. It was the first official forum of the international communist movement since the dissolution of the [Comintern](#), and confirmed the new realities after World War II, including the creation of an Eastern Bloc.

The main purpose of the organization was to commit member parties to a common strategy under the leadership of the Soviet Communist Party in the struggle against

what was termed American-led imperialism. It marked a turning point in the relationship of the Soviet Union with both its former western allies and the emerging Communist-dominated governments in eastern Europe. By the time Cominform was created, the Yugoslav, Hungarian, Romanian, Polish, and Bulgarian Communist parties had assumed the reins of government; in Czechoslovakia the party was part of a governing coalition; and in Italy and France, communists had been ousted from such coalitions earlier in the year. The common strategy dictated by the Soviet Union via the Cominform involved the abandonment of restraint and an attempt to impose on ruling Communist parties uniformity in both domestic and international policies.

What had emerged as the Soviet bloc would be shaken in less than a year. In June 1948, the Yugoslav League of Communists under Josip Broz Tito was expelled from the Cominform for having refused to accept limits on its independence of action. Thereafter, Stalin, seeking to prevent the spread of “Titoism,” launched a series of purges of eastern European Communist leaders as well as within the Soviet Communist party. Cominform was founded with nine members: **the Communist parties of the U.S.S.R., Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Yugoslavia, France, and Italy.**

Foreign Relations of United States of America in 1949

1. Western Europe

UNITED KINGDOM

During the Second World War, the ‘Special Relationship’ between the United Kingdom and the United States developed into a complex coalition employing diplomatic, military, economic and scientific means to defeat the Axis Powers. The personal diplomacy of its two primary leaders—Prime Minister Winston S. Churchill and President Franklin D. Roosevelt—exemplified the relationship, as both nations worked toward the common goal of ending the war while negotiating sometimes conflicting national aims. The United States has no closer ally than the United Kingdom, and British foreign policy emphasizes close coordination with the United States. Bilateral cooperation reflects the common language, ideals, and democratic practices of the two nations.

The United Kingdom and the United States continually consult on foreign policy issues and global problems and share major foreign and security policy objectives.

FRANCE

Relations between the United States and France were active and friendly. The two countries share common values and have parallel policies on most political, economic, and security issues. Differences are discussed frankly and have not generally been allowed to impair the pattern of close cooperation that characterizes relations between the two countries.

They were reluctant to align themselves with America and Britain in the immediate post-World War II period due to the threat posed by the Soviet powers. An alternative policy was available, the policy the Americans and the British were moving toward: a policy of integrating western Germany into the Western world. That alternative had become viable thanks to the Cold War. A truncated Germany threatened by the Soviet Union, a rump Germany dependent on the Western powers for protection, a Germany integrated into the Western system, would not pose a threat; the country could therefore be treated relatively gently and could gradually be made into a partner; and a system based on consent would be more stable in the long run than one based on repression.

DENMARK

Conventions between the United States and Denmark respecting double taxation, economic corporation, application of the Most-Favoured-Nation to area under occupation or control were solemnized.

ITALY

Both the countries were concerned with the territorial integrity and international security. The United States made efforts to support democratic forces in Italy. With the exception of the World War II years when Benito Mussolini's government declared war upon the United States (1941-43), the United States has had warm relations with the Kingdom of Italy and, after 1946, its successor, the Republic of Italy. Currently, the United States and Italy share strong bilateral relations.

SPAIN

U.S. and Spain have been in diplomatic relations since the American Independence.

2. Israel

On November 29, 1947 the United Nations adopted Resolution 181 (also known as the Partition Resolution) that would divide Great Britain's former Palestinian mandate into Jewish and Arab states in May 1948 when the British mandate was scheduled to end. After Israel's proclamation of statehood on May 14, 1948, U.S. President Harry S. Truman became the first leader to recognize the newly-born Israel.



The Arab-Israeli conflict which started on 15 May, 1948 has come to an end. The war was fought between the State of Israel and a military coalition of Arab states over the control of Palestine, forming the second stage of the 1948 Palestine war. There had been tension and conflict between the Arabs and the Jews, and between each of them and the British forces, ever since the 1917 Balfour Declaration and the 1920 creation of the British Mandate of Palestine. In 1947 these ongoing tensions had erupted into civil war. After Israel declared its independence on May 14, 1948, the fighting intensified with other Arab forces joining the Palestinian Arabs in attacking territory in the former Palestinian mandate. On the eve of May 14, the Arabs launched an air attack on Tel Aviv, which the Israelis resisted. This action was followed by the invasion of the former Palestinian mandate by Arab armies from Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, and Egypt. Saudi Arabia sent a formation that fought under the Egyptian command. British trained forces from Transjordan eventually intervened in the conflict, but only in areas that had been designated as part of the Arab state under the United Nations Partition Plan and the corpus separatum of Jerusalem. After tense early fighting, Israeli forces, now under joint command, were able to gain the offensive.

Though the United Nations brokered two ceasefires during the conflict, fighting continued into 1949. Israel and the Arab states did not reach any formal armistice agreements until February. Israel gained some territory formerly granted to Palestinian Arabs under the United Nations resolution in 1947. Egypt and Jordan retained control over the Gaza Strip and the West Bank respectively.

The United States did not become directly involved with the armistice negotiations, but hoped that instability in the Middle East would not interfere with the international balance of power between the Soviet Union and the United States.

3. Iran

In 1946 the Soviets (despite promises to the contrary) appeared intent on remaining in northwestern Iran after the end of World War II. It took strong protests from the West, especially from the United States reportedly including a secret warning from Truman to Stalin that he would deploy the US Navy into the Persian Gulf and commit American troops to the defense of Iran to compel the Soviets to back down.

As was the case during most of the earlier penetrations, the Soviets lacked the military wherewithal to defend their claim once contested or threatened (in the region or elsewhere). Their capabilities could not support their desires. The United States had successfully called their bluff.

Soviet interests concerning Iran was Moscow's desire to obtain oil concessions in the northern part of the country, ultimately leading to serious complications with the US and the UK, both also having political and economic interests in Iran. Soviet interference in Azerbaijan prompted great concern from representatives in Iran, but the central Foreign Office pursued a more cautious policy.

The Iran crisis of 1945–46, beginning with the seizure of power in Tabriz by the Azerbaijan Democratic Party (ADP) in December 1945, is frequently hailed as the first crisis of the Cold War. The traditionalist narrative of this confrontation follows the chronology established by President Harry S. Truman, focusing on the Azerbaijan question which culminated in discussions at the United Nations Security Council in March 1946.

The Iran crisis proved to the Truman administration the perfidy of their Soviet ally, setting in motion an essentially reactive but fundamentally successful containment policy. The 1946 Iran crisis has been dominated by traditionalist interpretations focused on United States policy, more recently complimented by Soviet archival studies which further reinforce this bipolar vision of the Cold War.

4. Turkey

During the post-war negotiations in the years of 1945 and 1946, the Soviets launched a bitter war of nerves against Turkey in order to establish a military base in Istanbul and share control of the Straits. It was crucial for Britain that the USSR be prevented from gaining any influence in Turkey. However, as Britain was in no position to support Turkey financially, American authorities encouraged by London and Ankara took over the responsibility for Turkey. This article examines the Great Powers rivalry over Turkey and Turkey's response to it. It argues that regional factors other than US–Soviet confrontation, such as Turkey's security search against the Soviets, also played a crucial part in starting the Cold War in the Near East. The constant dominations by the Soviet Union on the Turkish Straits lead to the Turkish Straits Crisis.

The Turkish Straits crisis was a Cold War-era territorial conflict between the Soviet Union and Turkey. Turkey, which had remained officially neutral throughout most of the freshly concluded Second World War, was pressured by the Soviet government to allow Soviet shipping to flow freely through the [Turkish Straits](#), which connected the [Black Sea](#) to the [Mediterranean](#). As the Turkish government would not submit to the Soviet Union's requests, tensions arose in the region, leading to a show of naval force on the side of the Soviets.

Soviet-American clash over Turkey played a key role in the start of Cold War. , the protection of Turkey was of vital importance to the Western powers in the Eastern Mediterranean and Near East security framework.

5. Greece

During World War II, the US opposed the British plan to restore King George II of Greece to the throne because he was closely associated with fascism. Instead the U.S. helped to establish a regency, while they did not oppose British efforts to defeat the communist insurgents.

The British took a leading role in helping the Greek government fight the insurgency. When its financial crisis forced it to cut back, the British turned that role over to the U.S. in 1947, until the end of the civil war in 1949.

Under the Truman Doctrine, US largely ignored Greece. But eventually it did loan Athens, Greece \$25 million in easy terms in 1946, but complained that its financial

system was chaotic. The far left boycotted elections in March 1946; they were held under international supervision. Washington judged them fair and supported the new conservative government.

Fighting broke out in 1946, with the communist element receiving arms and bases of support across the border in Yugoslavia. London secretly informed Washington in February 1947 that its funding would run out in a matter of weeks. A crisis was at hand and the Administration decided to act decisively. If the Communists won then Turkey, with its large but weak and antiquated army, would be at very high risk.

Truman won bipartisan support in March 1947 for the Truman Doctrine, which gave \$300 million in military and economic aid to Greece and \$100 million to Turkey. These were grants not loans. Truman declared to Congress on March 12:

“It must be the policy of the United States to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures.”

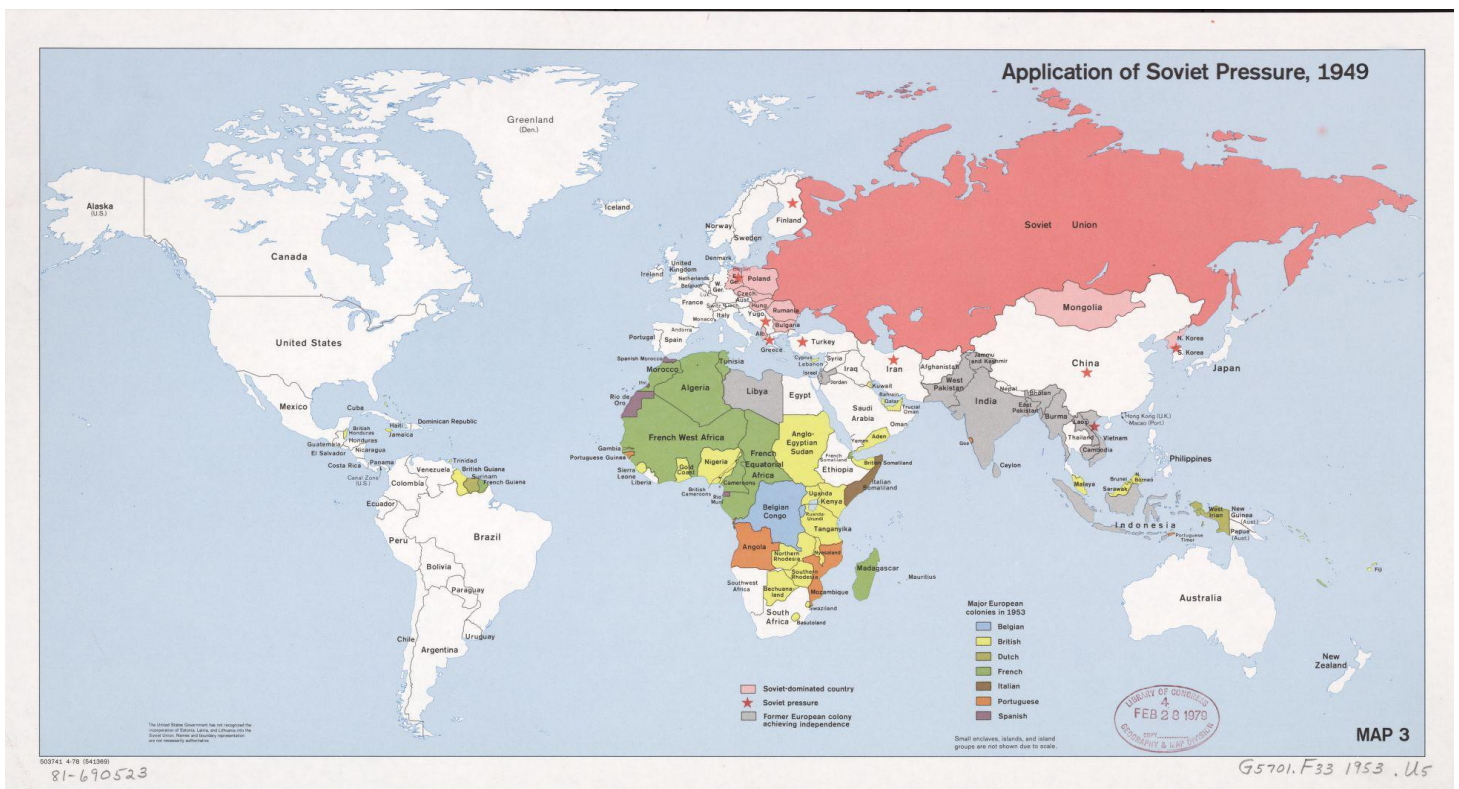
Tito's split with Stalin and American aid helped the Greek government survive; by 1949 it won the civil war.

6. Japan (Supreme Command of Allied Powers)

World War II significantly compromised the social, political and more so, the economic fabric of Japan. With the imperial regime coming to an end, domestic infrastructure is in shambles, and simple institutions such as postal delivery and taxation yearn for reconstruction. The presence of clashing democratic and communist sentiments within the country in addition to the strategic location of the Japanese mainland means that it will continue to be a focal point of Cold War geopolitical struggles.

The United States occupation of Japan started with the end of World War II in 1945. As per the Potsdam declaration, Japan was occupied by the Supreme Command of Allied Powers (SCAP) with General Douglas MacArthur being the Supreme Commander of Allied Powers. General Douglas MacArthur was a symbol of American military, a warrior who served his nation for more than half a century and was best known for his key role in World War II. USA virtually had complete control over Japan. As the administrators of occupied Japan, SCAP must negotiate Japan's place in the international order and the degree to which it will play a role in the fight between democracy and communism.

SCAP was charged with political and economic reform, including the payment of



reparations and the “resumption of peaceful economic activity.” Its job was to help restore Japan politically, socially and economically.

Concluding Note

For simulation purposes and in order to ensure that no delegate gets an unfair advantage over others, the director for the committee shall serve as the President of the United States of America and shall only give a casting vote in case of a deadlock.

In this committee, each delegate will be judged on his/her spoken content, lobbying ability and paperwork, not to mention your ability to deal with crises. Paper work will consist of directives (passed by committee), and communiqués (individual/joint).

Communiqués may be either open or closed, depending upon the delegate. Keep in mind that communiqués must be rational, reasonable, and if required, radical. I expect delegates to know how to write detailed messages and to use this tool carefully and wisely.

This background guide is meant to briefly summarize the situations leading to international tensions in 1949. You must research further into the topic and not stop here. Delegates must keep in mind that the drafting the ‘Washington Treaty’ (which later brought NATO into existence) is one of the primary goals before the Cabinet.

Nevertheless it is completely up to the Cabinet, whether or not to proceed with formation of such an alliance.

For further references, a portfolio guide will be uploaded on the website soon; delegates are advised to keep checking the website to receive this at the earliest. The guidelines for the resolution (The Cabinet Paper) shall be provided to all of you in the committee itself. For any queries, feel free to write to me at usc.jmun@gmail.com.

See you in the White House Cabinet Room!

Until then,
Happy Researching