

KLE School MUN, 2025



Continuous Crisis Committee

AGENDA:
World War Two
Freeze Date: 1st September 1939

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LETTER FROM THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

Dear Delegates,

We are thrilled to welcome you to the Continuous Crisis Committee on World War II—a historically immersive, fast-paced simulation set at the tipping point of global catastrophe. The freeze date for this committee is September 1st, 1939, the day Nazi Germany launched its invasion of Poland. It is a moment when diplomacy has failed, alliances are strained, and the world stands on the edge of a war that will reshape the future of humankind.

In this committee, you will embody key figures from nations across Europe and beyond—military leaders, diplomats, and heads of state—each with their own agendas, constraints, and convictions. You will be forced to confront rapidly evolving crises in real time, each demanding immediate, calculated, and often morally complex responses. Whether to appease or retaliate, to mobilize or negotiate, will be questions you must answer—frequently, and under pressure.

World War II is not merely a military engagement; it is a convergence of ideology, desperation, and ambition. As the Axis powers pursue aggressive expansion, the Allied nations must decide how, when, and whether to respond. You may find yourself balancing survival with honour, global strategy with domestic pressure, or moral duty with political pragmatism. Through directives, crisis notes, joint strategies, and covert operations, your actions will determine the fate of nations, alliances, and empires.

This committee does not follow a script. It responds to you. The crises you solve—or fail to solve—will cascade into new developments. Every treaty signed, front opened, or intelligence leak will shape a new trajectory for the war. The possibilities are vast: Could an early intervention stop the Blitzkrieg? Could diplomatic efforts hold the Axis at bay? Or will the war unfold even more destructively than history remembers? We urge you to enter this simulation not only as strategists but as historians and visionaries. Be bold, be tactical, and above all, be immersed in the era. This is your opportunity to rewrite the most turbulent chapter of the 20th century.

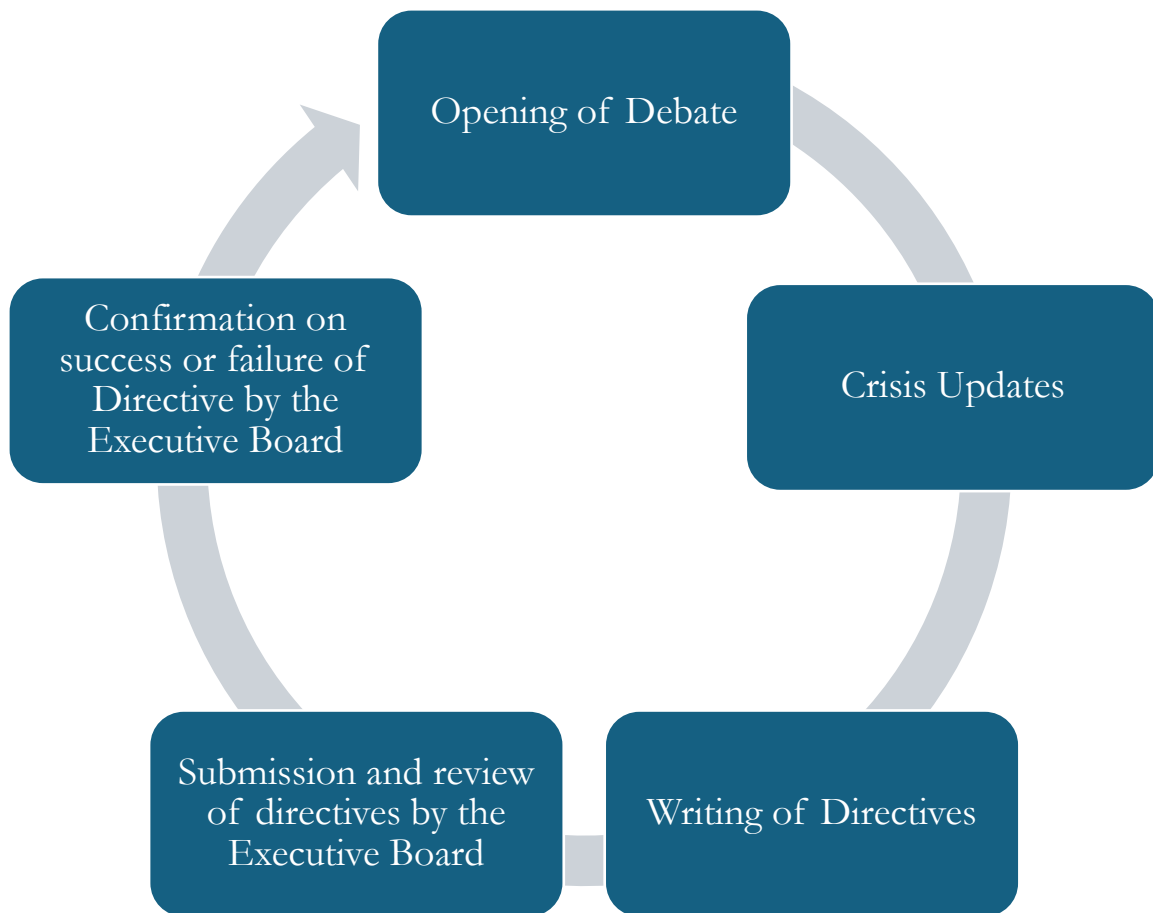
We look forward to witnessing your leadership, your alliances, and the legacies you choose to leave behind.

Best regards,

Ved Prasad Dongaonkar

Chairperson

FLOW OF COMMITTEE



1. OPENING OF DEBATE:

The committee session begins with the Opening of Debate, where the Executive Board (EB) introduces the context or background of the ongoing crisis. Delegates may deliver opening statements or begin discussing broad strategies. At this stage, the tone is usually exploratory, with delegates trying to gather information, identify allies, and understand the scope of the problem. It is also an opportunity for delegates to showcase leadership, propose initial ideas, and form blocs. This phase lays the groundwork for all future action, making it essential for setting the committee's pace and direction.

2. CRISIS UPDATES:

Crisis Updates are sudden developments introduced by the Executive Board to simulate real-time events. These updates may be read aloud, shown as news reports, or performed as skits. The purpose of these updates is to keep the committee dynamic and unpredictable. They reflect the consequences of previous decisions or introduce new problems requiring urgent attention. Delegates must respond quickly and strategically to these updates, balancing diplomacy and creativity under pressure. These moments are critical for high-stakes diplomacy and can drastically shift the committee's direction.

3. WRITING OF DIRECTIVES:

After a crisis update, delegates enter moderated or unmoderated caucuses to collaborate on writing directives. A directive is a short, action-oriented document proposing specific steps to resolve or manage a crisis. Unlike traditional resolutions, directives are informal and swift in tone. Delegates can write individual directives or collaborate on joint directives. These documents typically include actionable points such as deploying troops, issuing public statements, initiating investigations, or conducting negotiations. This is the core phase where diplomatic skill, creativity, and speed come together to shape the crisis narrative.

4. SUBMISSION AND REVIEW OF DIRECTIVES BY THE EXECUTIVE BOARD:

Once written, directives are submitted to the Executive Board for evaluation. The EB reviews them for clarity, feasibility, and internal consistency. They may accept, reject, or request modifications to the directive before reading it out to the committee. Directives must be coherent and well-structured, often requiring background justifications or context to be persuasive. During this stage, the EB may also merge similar directives or prioritize more realistic ones. This review ensures quality control and prevents chaos or contradictions in committee action.

5. CONFIRMATION ON SUCCESS OR FAILURE OF DIRECTIVE BY THE EXECUTIVE BOARD:

After implementation, the Executive Board announces whether a directive has succeeded or failed. This confirmation is often included in the next crisis update. The outcome depends on how realistic, timely, and strategic the directive was. For instance, if a directive calls for military action without logistical planning, it might fail. Alternatively, a well-coordinated diplomatic effort might

lead to positive outcomes. Success or failure feeds back into the crisis arc, affecting future updates and delegate reputations. This stage emphasizes accountability and shows the real-time consequences of decision-making.

BRIEF OVERVIEW ABOUT THE COMMITTEE

A Continuous Crisis Committee (CCC) is a fast-paced, dynamic Model UN format where events unfold in real-time, and the actions of delegates directly influence the storyline. Unlike traditional committees that follow structured debate on a fixed agenda, a CCC places delegates in the middle of an evolving historical, political, or fictional scenario—where every decision, alliance, or directive can change the course of events.

Crisis updates are regularly introduced by the Executive Board to simulate new developments, ranging from diplomatic tensions and political assassinations to military invasions and economic collapses. Delegates must respond by drafting directives, engaging in negotiations, sending crisis notes, and forming strategic alliances—all while staying in character and within the limits of their portfolio power.

This format rewards quick thinking, strategic foresight, collaboration, and creativity, and often results in alternate histories shaped entirely by delegate decisions. The goal is to not just represent your assigned character, but to influence and control the outcome of the crisis as it unfolds.

ACCEPTABLE EVIDENCE AND HISTORICAL LIMITATIONS IN COMMITTEE PROCEEDINGS

In the Continuous Crisis Committee, delegates are expected to ground their arguments, directives, and crisis responses in credible documentation that aligns with the political, technological, and military context of the time. The validity and admissibility of all evidence will be evaluated by the Executive Board, based on its origin, relevance, and consistency with pre-war realities. Delegates are encouraged to make logical, well-supported claims rooted in historically appropriate sources.

HISTORICAL FREEZE DATE – SEPTEMBER 1, 1939

This committee operates under a strict historical freeze date of September 1, 1939—the day Germany invaded Poland, and the global balance of power began to shift. All references to political decisions, alliances, treaties, military movements, or intelligence operations must be accurate as of that date. Events that occurred or became publicly known after this point shall be treated as non-existent unless developed organically through the committee process.

MILITARY AND ESPIONAGE ACTIONS POST-FREEZE DATE

Delegates must initiate any military campaigns, intelligence missions, or covert operations that take place after September 1, 1939, within the committee framework. Such operations must be presented through directives, joint directives, or communiqués, and will only take effect after being reviewed and potentially acted upon by the Crisis Team.

The success or failure of these actions will be determined by the Executive Board based on the directive's plausibility, alignment with each nation's capabilities, and the evolving geopolitical scenario. Delegates are advised to plan meticulously, considering logistics, alliances, and historical authenticity.

IMPORTANT NOTES

- State propaganda or government-issued reports shall be admissible only as proof of a state's own narrative, but not as definitive proof of actual events, especially in controversial or contested matters.
- Future declassified documents, memoirs, or scholarly interpretations from after 1939 will be inadmissible unless replicated and justified within committee proceedings.
- All strategic, diplomatic, and military actions must respect the limitations of 1939 technologies, ideologies, and political contexts.

EXECUTIVE DISCRETION

The Executive Board reserves the right to accept or reject any material presented by delegates, based on its factual grounding and in-universe consistency. Delegates are urged to engage creatively and authentically, ensuring that every move reflects the reality of the era they are stepping into.

INTRODUCTION

It is with grave concern that we gather here today, on September 1st, 1939, as the world stands at the precipice of what may become its most devastating and far-reaching conflict to date. The uneasy peace that followed the First World War has crumbled, and a storm is once again gathering over Europe. In the early hours of this very day, Nazi Germany has invaded Poland, a blatant act of aggression that shatters the illusions of diplomacy and thrusts the world into a new era of militarism and uncertainty.

This Continuous Crisis Committee places you in the heart of this volatile moment. As leading figures of governments, militaries, and intelligence agencies across Europe and beyond, you are tasked with navigating an unfolding crisis that could engulf the globe. The ambitions of the Axis powers, driven by expansionist ideologies and militaristic fervour, now threaten the fragile balance of international order. Meanwhile, the Allied powers stand torn between their commitments to peace, their obligations to treaties, and their fears of another catastrophic war.

The events that have led us here are deeply rooted in the failures of the past: the Treaty of Versailles, the rise of fascism, the collapse of the League of Nations, and the widespread economic turmoil that enabled extremist regimes to seize power. Adolf Hitler's Germany has already reoccupied the Rhineland, annexed Austria, and dismantled Czechoslovakia, each move met with appeasement and silence. But today marks a point of no return. The world can no longer look away.

As delegates, you must make difficult decisions in real time, whether to pursue diplomacy or mobilize for war, whether to forge alliances or act unilaterally, whether to compromise your values for national interest or stand firm in the face of annihilation. This is not just a test of military might; it is a test of moral conviction, political strategy, and historical foresight.

The fate of millions now rests in your hands. Will you seek to contain the flames of war, or will your actions fan them further? Can peace still be salvaged, or is a global conflict already inevitable? With every directive passed, every crisis note submitted, and every move on the diplomatic chessboard, the course of history may change.

Delegates, the Second World War has begun. What remains to be seen is how it will be fought, and who, in the end, will shape its legacy.

HISTORY OF THE TOPIC

THE ARMISTICE (11TH NOVEMBER 1918):

The Armistice of 11 November 1918 marked the end of fighting in World War I between Germany and the Allied Powers, coming into effect at 11 a.m. on that day. Signed in a railway carriage in the Compiègne Forest in France, the agreement was the result of Germany's military collapse and growing unrest at home, including revolution and the abdication of Kaiser Wilhelm II. The terms required Germany to withdraw its troops from occupied territories, surrender large amounts of military equipment, and release Allied prisoners of war. Allied forces were given the right to occupy the Rhineland to ensure compliance. The German delegation, led by Matthias Erzberger, had little choice but to accept the harsh conditions, as their army was in retreat and the home front was in chaos. Although the armistice ended the fighting, it was not a peace treaty—formal negotiations would continue until the Treaty of Versailles was signed in June 1919. The armistice was greeted with relief and celebration in Allied countries, but for many Germans, it felt like a humiliating defeat. The continued Allied naval blockade contributed to hardship in Germany even after the fighting stopped. The armistice's legacy was profound, shaping both the immediate postwar settlement and the political climate that followed. Its anniversary is still commemorated as Armistice Day or Remembrance Day in many countries, honouring those who served and died in the war.

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES (28TH JUNE 1919):

The Treaty of Versailles, signed on June 28, 1919, formally ended World War I and imposed severe terms on Germany. Drafted by the "Big Three"—Britain, France, and the U.S.—it forced Germany to accept full blame for the war under Article 231, triggering national humiliation. Germany lost key territories, including Alsace-Lorraine and parts of Prussia, all overseas colonies, and was subjected to strict military limitations. It had to pay massive reparations, later set at 132 billion gold marks, destabilizing its economy and society. The Rhineland was demilitarized and occupied, while newly independent states like Poland and Czechoslovakia emerged. The treaty also created the League of Nations, though Germany and other defeated powers were initially barred from joining. Germans viewed it as a "diktat"—an unjust, imposed peace—since they had no say in negotiations. This deep resentment weakened the Weimar Republic and fuelled extremist ideologies, including the rise of Nazism. Politically, the treaty created a fragile post-war order that failed to address deeper nationalist tensions. The treaty's fairness remains debated, with critics arguing it was either too harsh or too lenient.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS (10TH JANUARY 1920):

The League of Nations was established in 1920 as part of the post-World War I peace settlement, with its creation formally enshrined in the Treaty of Versailles. Conceived largely through the efforts of U.S. President Woodrow Wilson, the League's primary aim was to maintain global peace and prevent another devastating conflict by promoting collective security, disarmament, and diplomatic negotiation. Its headquarters were set up in Geneva, Switzerland, symbolizing its commitment to neutrality and international cooperation. The League's structure included an Assembly of all member states, a Council of major powers, and a permanent Secretariat, as well as various specialized agencies. Although it initially included many countries, notable absences were the United States, which never ratified the Treaty of Versailles, and later Germany and the Soviet Union, who joined only in the mid-1920s and 1930s. The League had some early successes, such as resolving minor border disputes and overseeing mandates in former colonies, but it struggled with major crises due to its lack of enforcement power and reliance on unanimous decisions. Its inability to prevent aggression by Japan in Manchuria, Italy in Ethiopia, and Germany's violations of the Versailles Treaty exposed its weaknesses. Despite its ultimate failure to stop the slide toward World War II, the League of Nations laid important groundwork for later international organizations, most notably the United Nations, which would learn from its shortcomings and adopt stronger mechanisms for maintaining peace.

BENITO MUSSOLINI BECOMES PRIME MINISTER (30TH OCTOBER 1922):

Benito Mussolini became Prime Minister of Italy on 30 October 1922, following the dramatic "March on Rome," when thousands of his Fascist supporters converged on the capital, demanding political change. Italy was reeling from postwar economic crisis, social unrest, and a widespread loss of faith in the liberal government, which seemed unable to restore order or address the nation's problems. Fearing civil war and hoping to stabilize the situation, King Victor Emmanuel III refused to declare martial law and instead invited Mussolini to form a government. Once in office, Mussolini quickly consolidated his power, appointing fellow Fascists to key positions and passing emergency laws that undermined democratic institutions. Over the next few years, he dismantled Italy's parliamentary system, suppressed opposition parties and the free press, and established a one-party dictatorship. Mussolini promoted a cult of personality, presenting himself as Il Duce, the strong leader Italy needed to regain its former glory. His regime emphasized aggressive nationalism, militarism, and state control over many aspects of Italian life. Mussolini's appointment as Prime Minister marked the beginning of fascist rule in Italy, serving as a model for authoritarian movements elsewhere in Europe and contributing to the instability that led to World War II.

THE OCCUPATION OF RUHR (11TH JANUARY 1923):

The occupation of the Ruhr was a pivotal event in the early 1920s that highlighted the fragility of post-World War I peace and the tensions surrounding the Treaty of Versailles. In January 1923, French and Belgian troops occupied the Ruhr, Germany's industrial heartland, after Germany defaulted on reparations payments mandated by the treaty. The French government, led by Prime Minister Raymond Poincaré, aimed to extract reparations directly by seizing coal, steel, and other resources from the region. The German government responded with a policy of "passive resistance," encouraging workers and officials to refuse cooperation with the occupying forces, which led to widespread strikes and a halt in industrial production. This standoff triggered a catastrophic economic crisis in Germany, contributing to the hyperinflation of 1923, as the government printed money to support striking workers and compensate for lost revenue. The occupation strained relations between France and Britain, who disagreed over the wisdom and effectiveness of such harsh measures. Ultimately, the crisis was resolved through international negotiation, resulting in the Dawes Plan of 1924, which restructured Germany's reparations payments and led to the withdrawal of French and Belgian troops from the Ruhr. The episode deepened German resentment toward the Versailles settlement, undermined confidence in the Weimar Republic, and contributed to the radicalization of German politics, setting the stage for future instability in Europe.

THE DAWES PLAN (1ST SEPTEMBER 1924):

The Dawes Plan, introduced in 1924, was an international financial arrangement designed to address the crisis caused by Germany's inability to pay the reparations imposed by the Treaty of Versailles. After the French and Belgian occupation of the Ruhr in 1923 and the resulting hyperinflation and economic chaos in Germany, it became clear that the original reparations schedule was unsustainable. An international committee led by American banker Charles G. Dawes proposed a plan that reduced Germany's annual payments to more manageable levels and provided for a gradual increase over time as the German economy recovered. The plan also arranged for significant loans from American banks to Germany, which helped stabilize the German currency and jumpstart industrial production. As a result, the French and Belgian troops withdrew from the Ruhr, and Germany experienced a period of relative economic stability and growth during the mid-1920s, sometimes called the "Golden Years" of the Weimar Republic. The Dawes Plan also helped to ease tensions between Germany and the Allied powers and fostered a spirit of international cooperation, as seen in the subsequent Locarno Treaties. However, the plan's reliance on American loans made Germany's recovery vulnerable to fluctuations in the U.S. economy, a weakness that would become apparent with the onset of the Great Depression.

THE LOCARNO TREATIES (5TH-16TH OCTOBER 1925):

The Locarno Treaties, signed in October 1925 and formally ratified in December of that year, were a series of agreements aimed at stabilizing post-World War I Europe and promoting reconciliation, particularly between Germany and its Western neighbours. The most significant of these treaties was the mutual guarantee of the borders between Germany, France, and Belgium, with Britain and Italy acting as guarantors. This Western European security pact was intended to reduce the risk of future conflict by ensuring that any violation of the borders would prompt collective action. In addition to the main treaty, Germany signed arbitration agreements with Poland and Czechoslovakia, though these did not guarantee their borders, reflecting the more contentious situation in Eastern Europe. The Locarno Treaties marked a major diplomatic breakthrough, as Germany was admitted to the League of Nations in 1926, signalling its reintegration into the international community and a temporary easing of tensions. The spirit of “Locarno” fostered hopes for lasting peace and cooperation, and the agreements were celebrated as a triumph of diplomacy over confrontation. However, the treaties’ focus on Western borders left Eastern Europe vulnerable, and their effectiveness depended on the continued goodwill and strength of the signatories. Ultimately, the optimism of Locarno faded in the 1930s as Germany, under Hitler, began to challenge the settlement—most notably by remilitarizing the Rhineland in 1936, in direct violation of the Locarno agreements—revealing the fragility of interwar peace and the limitations of collective security.

THE KELLOGG-BRIAND PACT (27TH AUGUST 1928):

The Kellogg-Briand Pact, signed on 27 August 1928, was a landmark international agreement in which sixty-two nations, including major powers like the United States, France, Britain, Germany, Italy, and Japan, renounced war as a means of resolving disputes or advancing national interests. Named after U.S. Secretary of State Frank B. Kellogg and French Foreign Minister Aristide Briand, the pact was born out of the widespread desire to prevent another catastrophe like World War I and reflected the growing influence of pacifist sentiment in the 1920s. Although the agreement was hailed as a major step toward lasting peace, it lacked any enforcement mechanism or provisions for sanctions against violators, its effectiveness was largely symbolic, relying on the goodwill and moral commitment of its signatories. Despite its limitations, the pact did set a precedent for the later development of international law, particularly the principle that aggressive war is illegal. However, the 1930s soon saw its ideals undermined by acts of aggression from Japan in Manchuria, Italy in Ethiopia, and Germany in Europe, exposing the pact’s inability to prevent conflict. The Kellogg-Briand Pact remains significant as an early attempt at collective security and the outlawing of war, influencing later treaties and the founding principles of the United Nations.

THE GREAT DEPRESSION (23RD OCTOBER 1929-PRESENT):

The Great Depression was a severe worldwide economic crisis that began with the Wall Street Crash in October 1929 and lasted throughout the 1930s. It quickly spread from the United States to Europe and beyond, leading to massive declines in industrial output, plummeting international trade, and widespread unemployment. In Germany, unemployment soared to over six million, fuelling social unrest and undermining confidence in democratic governments like the Weimar Republic. In the United States, one in four workers lost their jobs, and thousands of banks failed, wiping out the savings of millions. The depression also devastated agricultural prices, causing hardship for farmers and rural communities across the globe. Governments struggled to respond effectively, with many resorting to protectionist policies such as tariffs, which only worsened the global economic downturn. The economic hardship and instability created fertile ground for extremist political movements, including the rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party in Germany. International cooperation broke down, and many countries turned inward, abandoning the spirit of postwar optimism. The Great Depression fundamentally changed economic policy thinking, eventually leading to the adoption of new approaches like the New Deal in the United States and increased state intervention in many economies. Its profound social and political effects helped set the stage for the international tensions that led to World War II.

THE INVASION OF MANCHURIA (18 SEPTEMBER 1931):

The Japanese invasion of Manchuria began in September 1931 and marked a significant turning point in both Asian and global affairs during the interwar period. Japan, facing economic hardship from the Great Depression and seeking new resources and markets, staged the Mukden Incident, a fabricated railway explosion—as a pretext for military intervention. The Japanese Kwantung Army quickly overran Manchuria, encountering little effective resistance from Chinese forces, and by early 1932 had established the puppet state of Manchukuo under the nominal rule of the last Qing emperor, Puyi. This blatant act of aggression was condemned internationally, and China appealed to the League of Nations for help. However, the League's response was weak and ineffective; after a lengthy investigation, it merely issued a report blaming Japan but failed to take meaningful action. In response, Japan withdrew from the League in 1933, signalling its disregard for collective security and international norms. The invasion demonstrated both the limitations of the League of Nations and the willingness of major powers to pursue expansionist policies unchecked. It emboldened other revisionist states, such as Italy and Germany, to challenge the post-World War I order. The occupation of Manchuria was the first major step in Japan's broader imperial ambitions in Asia and set the stage for further conflict in the region.

CHANCELLORSHIP OF ADOLF HITLER (30TH JANUARY 1933):

Adolf Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany on 30 January 1933, a pivotal moment that marked the beginning of the Nazi dictatorship and set Germany on a path toward war and genocide. Despite the Nazi Party never winning an outright majority in the Reichstag, Hitler's rise was facilitated by political intrigue and the miscalculations of conservative elites, who believed they could control him and use his popularity to stabilize the government. President Paul von Hindenburg, under pressure from advisors and fearing communist unrest, reluctantly named Hitler Chancellor, heading a coalition that included only a few Nazis. Once in office, Hitler moved swiftly to consolidate power—using the Reichstag Fire in February 1933 as a pretext to suspend civil liberties, suppress opposition, and intimidate political rivals. The Enabling Act, passed in March 1933, gave Hitler dictatorial powers, allowing him to legislate without parliamentary consent. Over the following months, the Nazis dismantled the democratic Weimar Republic, banned other parties, and established a totalitarian regime. Hitler's appointment was not just the result of his own political manoeuvring, but also the product of Germany's economic crisis, social unrest, and the failure of traditional politicians to defend democracy. His chancellorship marked a turning point in European history, leading directly to aggressive expansionism, the persecution of Jews and other minorities, and ultimately the outbreak of World War II.

THE JULY PUTSCH (25TH– 30TH JULY 1934):

The July Putsch was an attempted coup in Austria carried out by Austrian Nazis in July 1934, with the aim of overthrowing the Austrian government and uniting the country with Nazi Germany. The putsch was inspired and supported by Adolf Hitler, who sought to expand Nazi influence into Austria as part of his broader goal of uniting all German-speaking peoples. On 25 July 1934, a group of Nazi conspirators stormed the Austrian Chancellery in Vienna and assassinated Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss. Despite this violent act, the coup failed to gain widespread support among the Austrian military and police, who remained loyal to the government. The Italian dictator Mussolini, a supporter of Austrian independence at the time, responded by mobilizing troops on the Austrian border, signalling to Hitler that Italy would not tolerate a German takeover. The swift suppression of the putsch and the lack of German military intervention preserved Austria's independence for the time being, but the event revealed the vulnerability of the Austrian state and the growing threat posed by Nazi Germany. The July Putsch also strained relations between Italy and Germany, though this tension would later subside as both dictatorships moved toward closer cooperation. Ultimately, the failure of the July Putsch delayed but did not prevent the eventual Anschluss, or annexation of Austria by Germany, which occurred in 1938.

THE REARMAMENT OF GERMANY (1ST SEPTEMBER 1935):

The rearmament of Germany was a central and highly provocative element of Adolf Hitler's foreign policy, directly challenging the post-World War I order established by the Treaty of Versailles. The treaty had strictly limited the size and capabilities of the German military, capping the army at 100,000 men, banning conscription, and prohibiting tanks, aircraft, and submarines. However, after coming to power in 1933, Hitler began to secretly rebuild Germany's armed forces, initially in defiance of international agreements and later openly. In March 1935, the Nazi regime publicly announced the creation of a German air force (Luftwaffe) and the reintroduction of conscription, aiming to expand the army to 550,000 men—moves that stunned and alarmed other European powers. Britain, France, and Italy condemned these actions at the Stresa Conference, but failed to take decisive action. Instead, Britain signed the Anglo-German Naval Agreement in June 1935, allowing Germany to expand its navy to 35% of the size of the British fleet, effectively legitimizing part of the rearmament. Hitler's rapid military buildup not only restored German pride but also gave him the means to pursue aggressive expansion in Europe. The remilitarization of the Rhineland in 1936, enabled by this rearmament, further undermined the Versailles settlement and emboldened the Nazi regime. The failure of the international community to stop German rearmament signalled the weakness of collective security and encouraged further violations, paving the way for the outbreak of World War II.

THE ANGLO-GERMAN NAVAL AGREEMENT (1ST NOVEMBER 1935):

The Anglo-German Naval Agreement, signed on 18 June 1935, was a pivotal accord between Britain and Nazi Germany that allowed Germany to rebuild its navy, directly undermining the restrictions imposed by the Treaty of Versailles. Under the terms of the agreement, Germany was permitted to expand its surface fleet to 35% of the size of the British Royal Navy and its submarine force to 45% of Britain's, with the possibility of reaching parity in submarines if certain conditions were met. This move was made unilaterally by Britain, without consulting its French or Italian allies, and was intended as a gesture of appeasement, hoping to integrate Germany into a framework of negotiated arms control and reduce tensions in Europe. However, the agreement effectively legitimized German rearmament at sea, signalling to Hitler that Britain was willing to accept revisions to the post-World War I settlement and would not strongly oppose German expansion. The pact caused alarm and resentment in France, who saw it as a betrayal, and it weakened the united front of the Stresa Front, which had been formed only months earlier to oppose German violations of Versailles. For Hitler, the agreement was a diplomatic triumph, as it not only allowed Germany to rearm legally but also drove a wedge between Britain and France.

THE REMILITARIZATION OF RHINELAND (7TH MARCH 1936):

The remilitarization of the Rhineland on March 7, 1936, was one of Hitler's most significant early challenges to the post-World War I order and a pivotal moment in the lead-up to World War II. Under the Treaty of Versailles, the Rhineland—Germany's western border region with France—had been permanently demilitarized, creating a buffer zone intended to protect France from future German aggression. When Hitler ordered German troops to march into this zone, he was deliberately violating both the Versailles Treaty and the 1925 Locarno Treaties, which Germany had voluntarily signed. Hitler calculated the timing of this move, using the French ratification of a mutual assistance pact with the Soviet Union in February 1936 as a pretext. He claimed that this Franco-Soviet agreement violated the Locarno Treaties and therefore Germany was no longer bound by them. The international response proved remarkably weak. France, politically divided and militarily unprepared, was unwilling to act without British support. Britain, meanwhile, viewed the German action as "merely entering their own backyard" and was reluctant to risk war over what many British politicians considered an inevitable revision of the "unfair" Versailles Treaty. The League of Nations condemned the action but took no concrete steps.

THE ANTI-COMINTERN PACT (25TH NOVEMBER 1936):

The Anti-Comintern Pact was a significant diplomatic agreement first signed between Nazi Germany and Imperial Japan on 25 November 1936, with Fascist Italy joining in 1937. The pact was ostensibly aimed at countering the spread of communism, specifically targeting the Communist International (Comintern), an organization led by the Soviet Union to promote communist ideology worldwide. The Japanese were interested due to western betrayal due to proposals racial equality guarantee being rejected. The Anti-Comintern Pact was much more than an anti-communist alliance; it marked the beginning of a closer strategic partnership between Germany and Japan, and later Italy, laying the groundwork for the Axis Powers of World War II. The signatories pledged to consult each other on measures to safeguard their common interests in the event of a communist threat and agreed not to make any political treaties with the Soviet Union. The pact sent a clear signal to the world of the growing alignment of authoritarian, militarist regimes and heightened tensions with the Soviet Union. It also isolated the USSR diplomatically and increased its sense of encirclement, influencing Soviet foreign policy in the late 1930s. The Anti-Comintern Pact was later expanded to include other countries, such as Hungary, Spain, and Manchukuo, further solidifying the Axis bloc. The pact symbolized the ideological and military polarization of the late 1930s, contributing to the breakdown of collective security and the approach of global conflict.

THE SECOND SINO-JAPANESE WAR (7TH JULY 1937-PRESENT):

The full-scale invasion of China by Japan began in July 1937 and marked the start of the Second Sino-Japanese War, a brutal conflict that would eventually merge into the wider hostilities of World War II. The immediate trigger was the Marco Polo Bridge Incident near Beijing, where a skirmish between Japanese and Chinese troops escalated rapidly. Seizing the opportunity, Japan launched a massive military campaign, deploying hundreds of thousands of troops to capture key Chinese cities, including Beijing, Shanghai, and the capital, Nanjing. The invasion was characterized by extreme violence and atrocities, most notoriously the Nanjing Massacre, during which Japanese forces committed mass killings and widespread rape against civilians. Despite initial Japanese successes and the occupation of large swathes of eastern China, Chinese resistance remained fierce, with Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist government refusing to surrender and relocating the capital to Chongqing. The conflict placed enormous strain on both nations, with Japan becoming bogged down in a costly and protracted war, while China suffered immense human and material losses. The League of Nations condemned Japanese aggression but failed to take effective action.

THE ANSCHLUSS (12TH MARCH 1938):

The Anschluss refers to the annexation of Austria by Nazi Germany in March 1938, a key event in the lead-up to World War II. For years, Adolf Hitler had advocated for the unification of all German-speaking peoples, and Austria, his birthplace, was central to this vision. The Nazi regime exerted increasing pressure on Austria throughout the 1930s, supporting local Austrian Nazis and destabilizing the government. In early 1938, under mounting threats of invasion and internal unrest, Austrian Chancellor Kurt Schuschnigg scheduled a plebiscite to let Austrians decide their future. Schuschnigg dismantled the one-party state. He agreed to legalize the Social Democrats and their trade unions in return for their support in the referendum. He also set the minimum voting age at 24 to exclude younger voters because the Nazi movement was most popular among the young. Fearing a vote against union, Hitler demanded the plebiscite be cancelled and forced Schuschnigg to resign, replacing him with the pro-Nazi Arthur Seyss-Inquart. On 12 March 1938, German troops marched into Austria unopposed, and the following day, Austria was officially incorporated into the German Reich. The annexation was later ratified by a manipulated public vote, showing overwhelming support for the union. The Anschluss was met with little resistance from Britain or France, who were following policies of appeasement, and the League of Nations did nothing to intervene. This bold move not only violated the Treaty of Versailles and the Treaty of St. Germain, which prohibited such a union, but it also emboldened Hitler, encouraged further territorial expansion, and dramatically shifted the balance of power in Central Europe in favour of Nazi Germany.

THE MUNICH AGREEMENT (30TH SEPTEMBER 1938):

The Munich Agreement, signed on 29 September 1938, was a major diplomatic event in which Britain, France, Germany, and Italy agreed to allow Nazi Germany to annex the Sudetenland, a region of Czechoslovakia with a large ethnic German population. The crisis began when Hitler demanded self-determination for Germans living in the Sudetenland, using their alleged mistreatment as a pretext for territorial expansion. The Sudeten Nazis under Konrad Henlein, demanded that the Czech Government agree with the Carlsbader Programme (*Karlsbader Programm*) which demanded in eight points equality between Sudeten Germans and the Czech Citizens. British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain and French Premier Édouard Daladier, determined to avoid another devastating war, pursued a policy of appeasement and met with Hitler in Munich, without inviting Czechoslovakia or the Soviet Union to the negotiations. The resulting agreement handed over the Sudetenland to Germany in exchange for Hitler's promise of no further territorial claims in Europe. Chamberlain famously returned to Britain proclaiming, "peace for our time," but the agreement is now widely regarded as a failed act of appeasement. The Munich Agreement undermined Czechoslovakia's security left it vulnerable to further aggression, and emboldened Hitler, who soon broke his promises by occupying the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939. The event shattered confidence in diplomatic assurances and exposed the weakness of Britain and France in confronting Nazi expansion.

THE ANNEXATION OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA (15TH MARCH 1939):

The annexation of Czechoslovakia by Nazi Germany in March 1939 marked a decisive end to the policy of appeasement and a turning point on the road to World War II. After the Munich Agreement of September 1938, which had forced Czechoslovakia to cede the Sudetenland to Germany, the country was left militarily and politically weakened. Hitler had promised that he had no further territorial ambitions in Europe, but he quickly broke this pledge. In March 1939, taking advantage of internal divisions and the declaration of Slovak independence, German troops marched into the remaining Czech lands without resistance. On 15 March, Hitler proclaimed the establishment of the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia, placing the region under direct German control, while Slovakia became a nominally independent but effectively puppet state. This blatant act of aggression shocked Britain and France, who realized that Hitler's ambitions extended far beyond uniting German-speaking peoples. The annexation of Czechoslovakia exposed the failure of appeasement and demonstrated that Germany was prepared to use force to achieve its expansionist goals. It also destroyed the last remnants of the Versailles settlement in Central Europe and convinced Britain and France to guarantee the independence of Poland, setting the stage for the outbreak of World War II just months later.

INVASION OF ALBANIA (7TH APRIL 1939):

The invasion of Albania by Fascist Italy took place in April 1939 and was a clear demonstration of Benito Mussolini's imperial ambitions and Italy's desire to assert itself as a major power in the Balkans. Mussolini, seeking to emulate the expansionist successes of Hitler and to compensate for Italy's earlier diplomatic setbacks, demanded that Albania accept Italian control. Albania had long been of considerable importance to the Kingdom of Italy. Italian naval strategists coveted the port of Vlorë and the island of Sazan because of their location at the entrance to the Bay of Vlorë and out to the Adriatic Sea. When King Zog of Albania refused to submit to these demands, Italian forces launched a swift and largely unopposed invasion on 7 April 1939. Within days, Italian troops had occupied the country, and King Zog was forced into exile. Albania was declared an Italian protectorate, with King Victor Emmanuel III of Italy crowned as King of Albania, effectively merging the two states under Italian rule. The invasion alarmed Britain and France, who saw it as further evidence of the growing threat posed by the Axis powers and led to the extension of British guarantees to Greece and Romania. The occupation of Albania also strengthened the Rome-Berlin Axis, as Mussolini sought to keep pace with Hitler's aggressive expansion in Central and Eastern Europe. Ultimately, the invasion of Albania exposed the weakness of collective security and the inability of the League of Nations to prevent acts of aggression, further destabilizing the balance of power in Europe on the eve of World War II.

PACT OF FRIENDSHIP AND ALLIANCE BETWEEN GERMANY AND ITALY (22ND MAY 1939):

The Pact of Steel, signed on 22 May 1939, was a formal military and political alliance between Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany, marking a significant step in the formation of the Axis Powers before World War II. Officially known as the "Pact of Friendship and Alliance between Germany and Italy," the agreement committed both countries to mutual support in the event of war and to consult each other on military and strategic matters. The pact was the culmination of growing cooperation between Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini, who had drawn closer throughout the late 1930s as both regimes pursued aggressive, expansionist policies and found themselves increasingly isolated from the Western democracies. The agreement was signed just weeks after Italy's invasion of Albania and in the context of mounting international tensions following Germany's annexation of Czechoslovakia. While the pact was presented as a symbol of unity and strength, it also reflected the strategic calculations of both dictators: Hitler hoped to deter Britain and France from intervening in his plans for further expansion, while Mussolini sought to secure German support for Italy's imperial ambitions. The Pact of Steel committed both nations to immediate military assistance if either was attacked, binding their fates together as war approached.

THE NAZI–SOVIET NON-AGGRESSION PACT (23RD AUGUST 1939):

The Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact, officially known as the Nazi–Soviet Non-Aggression Pact, was signed on 23 August 1939 between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union, represented by their respective foreign ministers, Joachim von Ribbentrop and Vyacheslav Molotov. This surprising agreement pledged that neither country would attack the other or support any third party that did so, effectively ensuring that Germany would not face a two-front war if it invaded Poland. Crucially, the pact contained a secret protocol that divided Eastern Europe into German and Soviet spheres of influence, with Poland to be partitioned between them and the Baltic States and Finland also allocated between the two powers. The signing of the pact shocked the world, as it united two ideologically opposed regimes, fascist Germany and communist Soviet Union, and undermined efforts by Britain and France to form a collective security alliance against Hitler. The Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact cleared the way for Germany’s invasion of Poland on 1 September 1939, which triggered the outbreak of World War II, and for the Soviet occupation of eastern Poland and the Baltic States shortly thereafter. The agreement is widely seen as a cynical and pragmatic move by both dictatorships: for Hitler, it neutralized the Soviet threat and allowed him to launch his war in the West; for Stalin, it bought time to build up Soviet defences and expand territory.

THE INVASION OF POLAND (1ST SEPTEMBER 1939):

The invasion of Poland by Nazi Germany on 1 September 1939 marked the official beginning of World War II in Europe. Hitler’s decision to attack Poland was motivated by a desire to regain territories lost after World War I, such as the Polish Corridor and the city of Danzig (Gdańsk), and to pursue his broader aim of Lebensraum, or “living space,” in Eastern Europe. The German assault, known as Blitzkrieg or “lightning war,” involved rapid advances by tanks, mechanized infantry, and overwhelming air support, quickly overwhelming Polish defences. Within days, German forces had penetrated deep into Polish territory, capturing key cities and sowing chaos among the Polish military and civilian population. On 17 September 1939, the Soviet Union invaded eastern Poland in accordance with the secret protocol of the Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact, effectively dividing the country between the two totalitarian powers. The Polish government fled into exile, and by early October, organized resistance had collapsed. The invasion was accompanied by widespread atrocities against civilians and prisoners of war, foreshadowing the brutal occupation policies that would follow. Britain and France, honouring their guarantees to Poland, declared war on Germany on 3 September, but were unable to provide meaningful military assistance.

FORMAT FOR DIRECTIVES, JOINT DIRECTIVES AND COMMUNIQUÉS

In a Crisis Committee, delegates are expected to respond swiftly and strategically to evolving scenarios using three core instruments of action: directives, joint directives, and communiqués. These tools serve as the lifeblood of the committee, transforming debate into tangible outcomes that can influence the direction of the simulation in real time. A directive is a formal, concise document proposed by an individual delegate or a bloc of delegates that outlines a specific course of action in response to a crisis update. These may include military deployments, intelligence operations, economic sanctions, diplomatic overtures, internal policy changes, or even covert missions. Each directive must be clearly worded, actionable, and aligned with the delegate's portfolio powers, and its effectiveness depends on both its feasibility and creativity. When multiple stakeholders come together to propose a coordinated and unified response, they may submit a joint directive. These documents reflect multilateral cooperation and often carry greater legitimacy and influence in the eyes of the Executive Board, especially when they represent alliances or rival blocs within the committee. Joint directives encourage diplomacy, alliance formation, and negotiation within the room, and are typically more comprehensive in scope and impact. Meanwhile, communiqués serve a different but equally crucial function—they are official messages, declarations, or inquiries directed toward external actors, including foreign governments, rebel factions, corporations, or the public at large. Communiqués may be public or classified, and are instrumental in shaping narratives, negotiating deals, issuing threats, or calling for assistance. For instance, a communiqué might announce the formation of a new military alliance, deliver a diplomatic ultimatum, or request aid from a non-state actor. Together, directives, joint directives, and communiqués allow delegates to directly shape the crisis landscape, acting not just as diplomats and policymakers but as active participants in the unfolding of alternate histories.

Adhering to the format and specifications of Communiqués, Directives, and Joint Directives is essential for the effective functioning of a Continuous Crisis Committee. These formats are designed to ensure clarity, consistency, and ease of understanding for both the Executive Board and fellow delegates. Proper formatting helps distinguish between different types of actions—such as personal initiatives, collective decisions, and formal messages to the public or other entities—and allows the Crisis Team to process and respond to each appropriately. Clear structure minimizes confusion, prevents misinterpretation, and facilitates timely updates in a fast-paced crisis environment. Moreover, standardized formatting demonstrates professionalism and strategic discipline, both of which are crucial in a committee where diplomacy, secrecy, and urgency go hand in hand. Delegates who disregard formatting risk having their documents delayed, misunderstood, or rejected altogether, which could significantly weaken their country's position during critical moments.

DIRECTIVES:

Directives are the primary instruments through which delegates act within the simulation. These written requests are submitted to the Executive Board, who evaluate, approve, or deny them based on plausibility, realism, and narrative coherence. Delegates use directives to pursue both personal and cabinet-wide objectives—whether that involves deploying troops, influencing public opinion, funding covert operations, or initiating diplomatic negotiations. The directive is your voice beyond the committee room; it allows you to shape the unfolding story and respond to real-time events strategically. However, the success of any directive depends on how clearly and persuasively it is written, and whether it aligns with the ongoing geopolitical context.

A directive is not considered effective or "real" until it has been approved by the Executive Board or its outcome is reflected in an official crisis update. This means that simply writing or submitting a directive does not ensure its execution. Whether your intent is to bribe an official, recruit spies, or stage a revolution, the legitimacy of your action hinges entirely on backroom approval. In more ambitious or multi-phase plans, directives may need to be sequenced—starting with minor moves that build toward larger objectives. Thus, delegates must approach directives with a mix of strategic foresight and narrative clarity, ensuring each action fits into a broader, calculated vision for the crisis.

SAMPLE DIRECTIVE:

Name of the Directive: Operation Iron Veil (**Covert**)

Portfolio Name: Colonel Wilhelm Reinhardt – Military Intelligence, German High Command

Objectives:

To establish a covert surveillance network in the Sudetenland to monitor Czech troop movements and political sentiment. To identify and recruit sympathetic ethnic German leaders in the region for future collaboration. To Disrupt the flow of military supplies along key Czech railway lines through sabotage, without attribution.

Resources:

- 8 Abwehr operatives: 4,000 Reichsmarks (500 RM each for hazard pay and provisions)
- 2 local translators: 1,000 Reichsmarks (500 RM each)
- 6 railway engineers (explosives expert): 1,500 Reichsmarks
- 6 concealed radio transmitters: 3,000 Reichsmarks
- Civilian disguises and forged documents: 1,000 Reichsmarks

- Explosive charges (non-traceable): 2,500 Reichsmarks
- Bribery and logistics fund: 10,000 Reichsmarks

Total Cost: 23,000 Reichsmarks

Timeline:

Total Duration: *5 Weeks*

Start Date: *October 3, 1938*

End Date: *November 7, 1938*

Plan of Action:

Week 1 (Oct 3–9, 1938):

Deploy operatives into Sudetenland disguised as businessmen and journalists. Establish safe houses and initial intelligence nodes.

Week 2 (Oct 10–16, 1938):

Begin surveillance of Czech transport and military hubs. Vet and approach local collaborators.

Week 3 (Oct 17–23, 1938):

Secure transmission of early findings. Finalize integration of local informants. Conduct reconnaissance of rail lines.

Week 4 (Oct 24–30, 1938):

Carry out sabotage operations on two key rail segments. Seed misinformation about communist insurgents.

Week 5 (Oct 31–Nov 7, 1938):

Extract field agents (non-essential). Entrench local assets. Complete mission report and return to Berlin HQ.

COMMUNIQUÉS:

A communiqué in a Model United Nations Crisis Committee is a formal message or statement sent from a portfolio to another portfolio, a cabinet, a third-party actor, or the press. It serves as a key diplomatic tool, especially when delegates wish to initiate negotiations, propose alliances, issue warnings, make formal declarations, or request support. Communiqués can be either overt, meaning they are public and visible to all committee members, or covert, meaning they are secret and known only to the recipient and the backroom. The tone, language, and intent of a communiqué must align with the portfolio's national or organizational agenda and must reflect the historical or political context of the simulation. A well-crafted communiqué can significantly alter the course of committee discussions, influence public perception, or initiate coordinated action between allies.

Unlike directives, communiqués do not directly alter crisis mechanics (like troop movements or assassinations), but they shape diplomacy and can set the groundwork for coordinated future directives. Since communiqués can also be published or leaked by the backroom, delegates must be cautious about what they write, especially in a crisis environment where perception is key. For example, a strongly worded communiqué to an enemy nation may escalate tensions, while a conciliatory one may de-escalate and open doors for negotiation. Communiqués are most effective when timely, consistent with a delegate's established positions, and supported by appropriate actions through directives. Used effectively, they are a powerful extension of a delegate's influence both inside and beyond the committee room.

SAMPLE COMMUNIQUÉ:

Sender: Vyacheslav Molotov, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

Recipient: Premier Zhou Enlai, People's Republic of China

Date: April 7, 1959

Type: Covert

Subject: Proposal for Coordinated Response to Western Encroachment in Southeast Asia

Comrade Zhou,

Warm revolutionary greetings from Moscow.

Considering recent Western movements in Southeast Asia, particularly the increasing American presence in Vietnam and Laos, the Presidium believes it is imperative for our fraternal socialist states to explore a unified strategic position. The Soviet Union proposes the initiation of a covert

intelligence-sharing network between our two governments, focused specifically on monitoring American military advisors and covert CIA operations in Indochina.

Furthermore, we are prepared to offer material assistance in the form of radio equipment, arms, and logistical advisors should the People's Liberation Army require support in stabilizing influence along its southern frontier. We also seek your views on the prospect of jointly encouraging national liberation movements across the region, particularly in Burma and Thailand, where discontent simmers beneath the surface.

We await your response with great anticipation and remain committed to our shared vision of a united anti-imperialist front.

In solidarity,

Vyacheslav Molotov

Minister of Foreign Affairs

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

JOINT DIRECTIVES:

Joint Directives are powerful instruments within a crisis committee, allowing two or more delegates or portfolios to collaborate on coordinated action. Unlike individual directives, which represent a single delegate's strategy, joint directives reflect a collective effort—often by allies, coalition members, or departments with intersecting goals. These documents can be used to launch joint military operations, conduct multinational intelligence activities, issue coordinated diplomatic statements, or even establish regional economic pacts. Because of the multilateral nature of these directives, they are often perceived by the crisis backroom as more legitimate, credible, and impactful than isolated actions. The success of a joint directive lies in its ability to showcase unity and mutual commitment between signatories, sending a strong signal to both the committee and the international community (within the simulation) that a concerted strategy is underway.

To be effective, joint directives must be precise, detailed, and mutually agreeable. The directive should clearly outline the primary objective, designate specific responsibilities to each party, and include a shared timeline, resource commitments, and risk assessments. For example, in a joint military campaign, one portfolio might commit troops while another provides logistical support, intelligence, or air cover. Additionally, all involved parties must sign off on the document, with portfolios explicitly named and their roles delineated. These directives often require prior negotiation, compromise, and strategic dialogue to ensure alignment of interests and feasibility of execution. While they carry greater weight, joint directives also demand a higher level of coordination, and any miscommunication or conflicting interests may lead to operational breakdown or political fallout. When used skilfully, however, they can decisively shape the trajectory of a crisis and serve as the backbone of long-term coalition strategies.

SAMPLE JOINT DIRECTIVE:

Joint Directive Title: *Operation Iron Sentinel* (Covert)

Participating Portfolios:

- Minister of Defence, United Kingdom
- Foreign Minister, France
- Chancellor, Federal Republic of Germany

Objectives:

To establish a covert, trilateral intelligence-sharing network aimed at monitoring Soviet troop movements along the East German and Czechoslovakian borders. To jointly fund and deploy a network of local informants and aerial surveillance drones to improve early warning capabilities in Western Europe. To subtly counter Soviet propaganda in Central Europe by feeding controlled intelligence to neutral or non-aligned press agencies.

Resources:

- 12 MI6 field operatives (UK)
- 10 DGSE cyber analysts and linguists (France)
- 8 BND surveillance officers and 2 handlers (Germany)
- Total Personnel Cost: £2.3 million (shared equally among parties)
- 6 high-range aerial reconnaissance drones (UK contribution)
- 14 encrypted communication units (France contribution)
- 3 safe houses and transportation equipment (Germany contribution)
- Total Material Cost: £3.2 million (shared equally)

Total Estimated Cost: £5.5 million (approx. £1.83 million per nation)

Timeline:

- **Start Date:** October 1, 1959
- **Estimated Completion:** December 15, 1959
- **Total Time:** Approx. 10 weeks total

Plan of Action:**Week 1–2:**

- Secure bilateral agreements and communication protocols between the UK, France, and Germany.
- Finalize funding and material logistics. Conduct risk assessments in designated surveillance zones.

Week 3–4:

- Deploy MI6 operatives and BND handlers to East German border towns.
- DGSE establishes data interception nodes targeting Soviet radio frequencies.

Week 5–6:

- Launch 3 UK aerial drones over Czech German border under strict radar suppression measures.
- Initiate covert recruitment of informants within East Berlin and Prague.

Week 7–8:

- First intelligence reports to be shared via encrypted tripartite channels.
- Initiate limited press leaks to neutral European newspapers undermining Soviet military credibility.

Week 9–10:

- Evaluate efficiency of informant network and drone surveillance.
- Prepare a joint threat assessment report and submit it to NATO (via overt diplomatic channels).

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