CREDOMUN III



UNSC

STUDY GUIDE

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY GENERAL

It is my team's and my utmost pleasure and honour to host you at the 3rd edition of CREDOMUN as the Secretary-General.

A few days from now, all of you will be walking through the doors of your committees, and while it may seem daunting now, trust me when I say this: it will be one of the most fulfilling experiences of your life.

The three days of the conference are not just about debate, drafting resolutions, or winning awards, but about experiencing something larger than yourself.

This edition of CREDOMUN gives you the platform to explore a wide range of cultures and engage with diverse schools of thought from across the city.

After being honoured with the role of DDG at last edition's conference, I am gratefully excited to host all of you amazing delegates this year as the Secretary-General. This places the utmost responsibility on my team to ensure that you leave this conference having gained something meaningful from it.

While I do not intend to bore you right now whilst you read this note, I must warn you about the time when I will have to give a speech in front of you. At that time, I will take no action to stop myself from being boring and annoying.

Till then, you have everything you could ever need in these study guides and all the time in the world before the eve of the 23rd. I look forward to seeing the ideas you challenge, the solutions you develop, and the memories you create throughout the conference.

Warm regards,

Fazl Abbas,
Secretary General,
Credo Model United Nations III

LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT

Dear Delegates,
It is my humble privilege to welcome you all to the 3rd edition of CredoMUN

CredoMUN has been the focal point of my debating journey, from being a delegate in its 1st edition, then an ACD in its 2nd edition and now the President of the 3rd edition, CredoMUN has truly given me a platform to learn and lead

I have always skipped through the notes in a study guide because why spent time reading the note from someone i dont even know, so please do skip along if I am eating into your limited research time.

The reality is CredoMUN is truly special because here, delegates can feel at home, debate and have fun, make memories without having to process 5 Bashes at the same time, because at CredoMUN every delegate gets a chance to express themselves, learn how to improve and make unforgettable memories along the way.

As the President of this conference, I promise you all one thing, excellence. Whether it is across exceptional debate, incredible committee topics, or the wonderful people you meet along the way, my team and i ensure that you will be part of the best CredoMUN to date

And if you ever feel overwhelmed by the spectacle, you can always find me practicing a long range volley in our futsal court

Warm Regards,

Saif Khan,
President,
Credo Model United Nations III

Birth of the United Nations
1941-1945

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Welcome to the Committee

The Security Council of a world that does not yet exist. The year is 1941. The United Nations is not an organisation; it is a phrase someone has just written on paper aboard two warships off Newfoundland. The committee's countries travel from the Atlantic Charter to the signing of the UN Charter: through the darkest year of the war, the turning of the tide, the conferences that planned the peace, and the birth of the institution itself. They do not play the UN. They play the countries that invented it, with the war still burning

How the Double-Delegate works

This is a double-delegate committee: each country is represented by a pair. One delegate plays the political head of state or government; the other plays the head of the military. The pair shares one vote, one seat, one country, but not one job. The division of labour is the whole design, diplomacy and war-making pull in different directions, and the country's success depends on keeping them in step.

The political delegate: The President, Prime Minister, Chancellor, Viceroy or foreign-policy leadership of the country, 1941-1945, the person who signs treaties, declares war, appoints ambassadors and answers to the country's political system.

Powers reserved to the political delegate: Cast the country's vote; sign and ratify declarations, charters, treaties and communiques; recognise or refuse other governments and governments-in-exile; make public statements and pledges; agree to conference invitations and agenda items.

Preoccupations: The parliament, the party, the public, the allies' publics; elections, coups and morale; the postwar map; the promises that can actually be kept.

Chief risk: Promising more than the military can deliver, or letting the military delegate commit the country to a war it cannot politically survive.

The military delegate: The Chief of Staff, Defence Minister, Supreme Commander, or top uniformed officer of the country in this period; the person who plans campaigns, requests resources, and reports the truth about the army.

Powers reserved to the military delegate: Commit, move, or withdraw forces within the country's capabilities; issue military directives (which require the military delegate's signature); deliver military appraisals and situation reports to the committee; participate in the Military Caucus and joint planning with other countries' military delegates.

Preoccupations: Force ratios, logistics, casualties, production, the calendar, and the political direction given.

Chief risk: Being handed impossible political promises ('a second front by 1942'), or losing the country's forces to allies' priorities without the military delegate's signature

Historical Pairs

Country	Political Head	Military Head
Yugoslavia	King Peter II	Gen. Dragoljub “Draža” Mihailović
United Kingdom	Winston Churchill	Gen. Sir Alan Brooke
China	Chiang Kai-shek	Gen. He Yingqin
Italy	Benito Mussolini	Marshal Ugo Cavallero
Japan	Emperor Hirohito	Gen. Hajime Sugiyama
France	Marshal Philippe Pétain	Adm. François Darlan
United States	Franklin D. Roosevelt	Gen. George C. Marshall
India	Lord Linlithgow	Gen. Sir Claude Auchinleck
Soviet Union	Joseph Stalin (also Supreme Commander)	Marshal Zhukov, then Marshal Vasilevsky, Chiefs of General Staff
Germany	Adolf Hitler, Führer and Reich Chancellor	Field Marshal Wilhelm Keitel, Chief of the OKW
Poland (in exile)	President Raczkiewicz; PM Sikorski (then Mikolajczyk)	C-in-C Sikorski, then Sosnkowski, then Anders
Canada	Mackenzie King	Gen. McNaughton (1st Cdn Army); Def. Min. J.L. Ralston
New Zealand	Peter Fraser	Lt-Gen. Bernard Freyberg, VC

Rules of Procedure

Roll call and agenda
Procedure is standard. Roll call is taken by delegation, with both delegates answering. The agenda is set by motion, and formal debate runs from a speakers' list.

National Directives
National Directives are action documents submitted by a delegation. They cover orders, deployments, production shifts, public announcements and treaty signings, and they require BOTH delegates' signatures. Chairs resolve each directive before the next session. This is where the committee's story is actually made.

Diplomatic Notes
Diplomatic Notes are private, bilateral communications between delegations, passed through the chairs. They may be kept secret, but if their content later becomes public (and leaks happen), there will be consequences

Points and motions
The standard points apply: order, parliamentary inquiry and personal privilege. Motions to extend, table, close debate, divide, and call a roll-call vote all work normally.

Documents
Delegates prepare position papers before the committee, then working papers, draft resolutions, and directives. Draft resolutions are used for charter text and declarations. Delegates amend charter text paragraph by paragraph during drafting sessions.

Voting
Each country has one vote. Declarations and charter adoption require unanimity, as at San Francisco. Procedural motions pass by simple majority, and the chairs may call for a roll-call vote on any constitutional matter.

Motion thresholds:

- Motion to extend debate: simple majority
- Motion to table: two-thirds majority
- Motion to close debate: two-thirds majority
- Motion to divide the question: simple majority
- Motion for a roll-call vote: any delegate; granted at the chair's discretion

Roll-call vote procedure: The chair calls each delegation in alphabetical order; both delegates of a country must agree on the vote; if they disagree, the political delegate's vote stands unless the military delegate invokes the "capability objection," which the chair rules on.
Directive resolution: Chairs rule on each directive before the next session. A directive without both signatures is invalid. A directive that exceeds the country's military capability may be rejected or returned for revision.
Charter unanimity: Charter text is adopted only by unanimity. Any delegation may block a clause; the chair will facilitate negotiation before calling a vote.

Position Papers

Every delegation submits one position paper per country, signed by both delegates, before the first session. Length is one to two pages. Format follows.

1. Country and delegates. Country name, political delegate, military delegate.
2. The country's vision of the new organisation. What kind of UN does it want? Great power directorate, sovereign equality, regionalism or trusteeship. Which clauses will it fight for?
3. The country's red lines. What will it veto or refuse to sign?
4. The country's coalition strategy. Which delegations will it work with, and on what.
5. The military delegate's assessment. Force commitments, logistics and the military risks of the political promises being made.
6. Sources. At least three, cited.

Papers go to the chairs before the first session.

National Directives

A National Directive is the committee's main action document. Both delegates must sign. Format follows.

Country. Date.
Title. Short name.
Type. Order, deployment, production, public statement or treaty signing.
Text. What the country does, in one to three paragraphs. Be specific about which forces, which resources and which public commitment.
Political delegate signature.
Military delegate signature.
Resources committed, if military.
Political risk. What the government is promising its public.
Military risk. What the military delegate believes can actually be delivered.

Chairs rule on each directive before the next session. A directive without the military delegate's signature is invalid. A directive that promises more than the military can deliver is rejected or flagged.

Charter Text

The final document is the Charter of the United Nations. Delegates amend it paragraph by paragraph during drafting sessions. Format follows;
Article or paragraph number.
Proposed by. Country.
Text. The clause in treaty language.
Explanation. One or two sentences on why.
Vote required. Unanimity for charter text, simple majority for procedural matters.
The Charter is adopted only by unanimity, as at San Francisco. Every delegation has a veto on the final text. This is the hardest constraint and the greatest source of leverage for small powers.

The Closing Ceremony

The signing of the United Nations Charter

Once and only if the Charter text is adopted unanimously, the chairs call the final session to order as the signing ceremony of 26 June 1945 at the Herbst Theatre, San Francisco.

The chair (or a delegate appointed as master of ceremonies) reads the first lines of the Preamble aloud: "WE, THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS, DETERMINED to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind..." The whole committee, delegations standing, may then read the remainder together, through to the words of establishment. This is the text the world heard in 1945.

Each delegation signs the replica Charter with both delegates' names, their country and the date. A signing page with every delegation's line is printed at the back of this guide.

The chair announces the Charter's entry into force, declares the organisation to exist, and gives the final gavel. The war in the Pacific is still running. The United Nations has begun.

Country Positions

United States

The United States wants the organisation itself, built on Roosevelt's "Four Policemen" (the US, UK, USSR and China) enforcing the peace. It also wants open trade and freedom of the seas (Atlantic Charter points 4 and 7), steady pressure for decolonisation among its allies, Soviet cooperation followed by containment of disputes, and priority for the Pacific after Pearl Harbor. Its fears are being drawn into eternal European policing, which recalls the League's ghost and Congress's rejection of membership in 1920, and being overstretched by two wars at once. It also fears the consequences of secret-weapons promises. The Manhattan Project is the example, and even the military delegate does not know of it until April 1945. American leverage comes from Lend-Lease, from production, and from the largest navy and air force in the world. The dilemma is that the empire powers and the USSR must all join an organisation whose principles of self-determination and free trade each of them would have to bend to accept.

United Kingdom

Britain wants survival first (1941-42), then the Mediterranean strategy, and then a seat at the head of the table beside the USA. It wants the empire intact, with "existing obligations" language sheltering it from the Charter's self-determination clauses. It also wants a balancing role in Europe against the USSR, with France restored as a counterweight. The British fear American economic dominance, as seen in the Lend-Lease terms and at Bretton Woods, and Soviet expansion into the Mediterranean. They also fear that the Indian question will explode during the war. Britain's leverage is that it is the only allied army fighting Germany on land in 1941-42, along with its naval tradition and the Commonwealth. Its dilemma is that it is co-author of the Charter and also its most constrained signatory.

Soviet Union

The USSR wants a second front now, meaning 1941-43. It wants recognition of its 1941 borders (the Baltic states, eastern Poland, Bessarabia and Finland's cessions), friendly governments across Eastern Europe and protected Lend-Lease convoys. It wants a great-power directorate with an absolute veto and, eventually, extra votes through UN membership for two Soviet republics. It also wants Axis assets and reparations. Moscow fears capitalist encirclement, a separate peace, and exclusion from an atomic future it does not know exists (and it does not know that it does not know). Its leverage is the war's largest army by 1943-45, its largest casualties, and the battles that break the Wehrmacht. The dilemma is that it signed the Atlantic Charter's self-determination clauses with a straight face, and the other delegations will test that signature all session

China (Republic of China)

China wants full restoration of its sovereignty, including Manchuria, Taiwan (Formosa) and the Pescadores (Cairo, December 1943). It wants an end to extraterritoriality and the century of unequal treaties, which is achieved in 1943, along with Big Four status and a permanent seat. It also wants aid, including the Hump airlift, the Flying Tigers and roads, and it wants the internal question of the Communists kept out of committee. It fears Japanese offensives (Ichi-Go destroys its best armies in 1944), Soviet designs on Manchuria and Xinjiang, and being treated as a junior partner by both Washington and Moscow. China has fought the Axis longer than anyone else in the room, since 1937, and it has the largest population and the moral authority of resistance. Its dilemma is that the army is bleeding while others write the constitution, and the seat has a price.

Free France

Free France wants France restored and recognised as a great power, with a permanent seat, a zone in Germany and a voice in every liberation decision. It wants the empire held together (Syria, Lebanon, North and West Africa, Indochina) and the Resistance's legitimacy honoured. It fears having the 1940 collapse held over it, Roosevelt's long refusal to recognise de Gaulle, British designs on the French mandate in Syria, and the shadow of Vichy. Its leverage lies in the Fighting French forces in every theatre, from Bir Hakeim to Italy, the liberation of Paris led by Leclerc's 2nd Armored Division, the FFI's 100,000-plus fighters, and a fleet returned to the Allies. Its dilemma is that it claims equality with the powers who rescued it, and at Yalta in February 1945 they handed it the seat without being asked

Italy

Italy wants out of the war with the monarchy and the state intact. The armistice is signed on 3 September 1943 and announced on the 8th. Once Italy declares war on Germany in October 1943 it wants a place among the victors as a co-belligerent, and protection from the German occupation in the north and from harsh victors' terms in the south. It fears being treated as a defeated enemy rather than a rescued ally, and the civil war that the occupation creates, with the Salo republic in the north and the partisans against it. It also fears Yugoslav claims in Istria and Trieste and the eventual price of the peace treaty. Its leverage is its geography, since the Italian campaign pins down German divisions from 1943 to the end. It also has a large fleet, mostly surrendered intact under the armistice terms, and co-belligerent divisions and labour for the Allies. The dilemma is that Italy is the first country to find out what "unconditional surrender" means for a government trying to become an ally.

Yugoslavia

The royal government wants a restored, united Yugoslavia. It wants recognition of the Partisan war, the largest resistance army in Europe, without surrendering the monarchy's legitimacy, and it wants territorial questions (Istria, Trieste) on the agenda. It fears Tito's parallel government, which the Allies recognise in 1944, and Soviet patronage of the Partisans. It also fears the exile government's fading relevance, since the Tito-Subasic agreement of 1944 is a merger it did not choose. Its leverage is the King's legal continuity, the Mediterranean airfields question and the forces of the diaspora. The dilemma is that the resistance it is proud of no longer answers to it.

Germany

Germany wants a negotiated peace that preserves the regime and some conquests, which is exactly what the feelers through Bern, Stockholm and Madrid from 1943 are about. It wants the coalition split before Germany is, and it wants time for the wonder weapons (the V-weapons, the Type XXI U-boat and the Me 262) to change the battlefield math. It fears the two-front pincer of Normandy in the west and the Vistula-Oder in the east, the collapse of the eastern armies, and unconditional surrender, the Casablanca formula that closes every exit. It also fears the reckoning that follows defeat, meaning occupation, dismemberment and trials. Its leverage is its interior lines on a continental empire, a Wehrmacht that keeps fighting years after the war is strategically lost, and the fact that the alliance against it is held together by politics rather than geography. The dilemma is that every month the war continues makes the reckoning worse, and the only exits on offer are unconditional surrender or ruin

Japan

Japan wants a negotiated end that preserves the empire and the imperial institution, which is exactly what the 1945 approaches through Moscow are about. It wants recognition of a sphere in Asia as the price of peace, and an end to the blockade and the bombing before the home islands starve. It fears the annihilation of the fleet, since the Philippine Sea and then Leyte Gulf leave the navy a shell, and the B-29 firebombing of the cities. It also fears Soviet entry into the war, which kills the Moscow mediation route, and the new weapons its leaders argue about without fully believing in. Its leverage is the depth of the home islands' defences, the price an invasion would charge the invaders, an army that has never surrendered, and the fact that the coalition's patience is finite and its publics want their armies home. The dilemma is that the terms Japan needs are the terms the coalition has already refused, and each month of fighting narrows what is left to negotiate.

British India

India is seated as a delegation of the Raj and as an Allied belligerent. It wants recognition of the largest volunteer army in history (2.5 million) and a place at the table for India's war contribution. It wants the Atlantic Charter's promise applied to India, which is the question that Cripps, Gandhi and Nehru forced in 1942, and protection against a recurrence of famine like Bengal in 1943. It fears a war that ends with the Charter's self-determination clauses declared "not applicable" to the empire. It also fears the Indian National Army question, since Bose's men fought for Japan and the Red Fort trials of 1945 will shake the Raj, and the shadow of partition. Its leverage is numbers, geography and the empire's own conscience. Its dilemma is that it represents a colonised nation inside a coalition fighting for self-determination, and its political head, the Viceroy, is appointed by the country whose Charter it is endorsing.

The Diplomacy: 1941-1945

The Atlantic Charter, 9-14 August 1941

Roosevelt and Churchill met in secret at Placentia Bay, Newfoundland, aboard USS Augusta and HMS Prince of Wales, with their military and diplomatic staffs. In three days they agreed a joint declaration of principles: no territorial aggrandisement, no territorial change against the wishes of the peoples concerned, self-government restored to those denied it, free trade and access to raw materials, improved labour standards and social security, freedom of the seas, and a peace to follow "the final destruction of the Nazi tyranny", with aggressors disarmed pending a wider and permanent system of general security. The text was released on 14 August. The Charter is the constitutional ancestor of the UN. Its second and third points on self-determination would be claimed by colonised peoples from Delhi to Jakarta, and its sixth and eighth points sketch the collective security system that the UN Charter later builds. The USSR adhered on 24 September, and the occupied governments of Europe adhered the same day at St James's Palace, which was the first act of the alliance as an institution.

The St James's Palace (Inter-Allied) Declaration, 24 September 1941

The exiled governments and representatives of occupied Europe formally adhered to the Atlantic Charter. They were Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland and Yugoslavia, together with the Free French and the British Commonwealth. The Charter thereby became the alliance's test for membership: a state joined by signing on to principles, not by geography. That arrangement is the direct ancestor of Article 4 of the UN Charte

The First Washington Conference (Arcadia), 22 December 1941 - 14 January 1942

Churchill and the British chiefs of staff flew to Washington nine days after Pearl Harbor. With Roosevelt and the American joint chiefs they built the alliance's permanent machinery: the Combined Chiefs of Staff in Washington, combined supply and production boards, the "Germany first" grand strategy, and a single American-British-Dutch Australian command (ABDA) for the southwest Pacific, the alliance's first unified theatre. The Declaration by United Nations was drafted and signed while the conference was still sitting. Much of what this committee plays was invented here, including the Combined Chiefs, which the Military Caucus imitates, and the principle that coalition strategy can put one country's forces under another country's general. UNRRA is a separate body founded in 1943, though the combined boards that preceded it met in the same rooms.

The Declaration by United Nations, 1-2 January 1942

Twenty-six governments signed in Washington. The Big Four (the US, UK, USSR and China) signed on 1 January and the other twenty-two on 2 January. Roosevelt proposed the name "United Nations", which was used for the first time as the alliance's official title, and he credited the phrase to Lord Byron. The signatories accepted the Atlantic Charter's programme, pledged their "full resources, military or economic" against the Axis, and promised "not to make a separate armistice or peace" with the enemy. This is the moment the alliance named itself, and every later institution, including the name on the Charter, rests on this documen

The Casablanca Conference, 14-24 January 1943

Roosevelt and Churchill met at Anfa with the Combined Chiefs while the battle at Stalingrad was in its last days. Stalin was invited and declined to leave the front. The conference chose Sicily as the next Mediterranean step in place of a cross-Channel invasion in 1943. At the closing press conference Roosevelt announced that the Allies would demand "unconditional surrender" from Germany, Italy and Japan, and he staged a public handshake between de Gaulle and Giraud, the two rivals for the leadership of liberated France. Unconditional surrender became the committee's hardest diplomatic fact. It closed every negotiated exit, and the Axis delegations, the military heads especially, argue against it for the rest of the war. The handshake began the forced unification of Free France, which led to the French Committee of National Liberation and eventually to the Provisional Government of 1944

The Moscow Conference and the Moscow Declaration, October 1943

Eden, Hull and Molotov, with the Chinese ambassador to Moscow, signed the Four-Nation Declaration on General Security on 30 October. The four powers recognised "the necessity of establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organization" based on sovereign equality, and pledged to consult one another. Separate declarations covered Austria, Italy and German war criminals. This was the first written commitment by the four great powers to build an international organisation together. Dumbarton Oaks, Yalta and San Francisco are all the working-out of what Moscow promised.

The Cairo Conference, 22-26 November 1943

Roosevelt, Churchill and Chiang Kai-shek met in Egypt before the Tehran conference and issued the Cairo Declaration, which was released on 1 December after Tehran. Japan was to be stripped of every island it had seized since 1914. Manchuria, Formosa (Taiwan) and the Pescadores were to be restored to the Republic of China, and Korea was to become free and independent "in due course". The declaration confirmed China's place among the Big Four in the form of a territorial settlement. It left two questions open, the timing of Korean independence and the fate of Japan's home islands and its emperor, and both outlast the committee.

The Tehran Conference, 28 November - 1 December 1943

Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin met for the first time. They fixed the cross-Channel invasion (Overlord) for May 1944, and Stalin promised that the USSR would enter the war against Japan once Germany was beaten. The postwar organisation was discussed over dinner. Stalin wanted enforcement powers for the great powers and doubted that small states deserved much say, while Roosevelt and Churchill described a world body with a General Assembly and a smaller council to enforce the peace. On the margins, Poland's borders along the Curzon line were sketched. The great-power directorate of four policemen was agreed in principle, with no debate yet on a veto. The Pacific promise was the USSR's price, and Overlord was the West's payment.

The Dumbarton Oaks Conference, 21 August - 7 October 1944

Held at a mansion in Washington, this was the blueprint conference. The first phase was between the US, UK and USSR, and the second between the US, UK and China. The delegates agreed on an international organisation called the United Nations, with a Security Council of eleven (five permanent members and six elected) holding primary responsibility for peace, enforcement through nationally owned air contingents, a General Assembly of all members, an Economic and Social Council, an International Court continuing the PCIJ, and a Secretariat under a chief administrator. Three questions were left open: the voting procedure of the permanent members (the veto), the status of regional arrangements, and Soviet requests for separate membership for two or three Soviet republics such as Ukraine and Byelorussia. These are the UN's bones, and the open questions are the ones San Francisco fights over.

The "Percentages Agreement", 9-18 October 1944

In Moscow, Churchill and Stalin wrote out a table on a sheet of paper. Romania would be 90% Soviet, Greece 90% British with America to have a deciding voice, Yugoslavia and Hungary 50/50, and Bulgaria 75% Soviet. The paper was put away, and Eden and Molotov haggled over the numbers afterwards. It is the most cynical document of the alliance, with spheres of influence settled in pencil while the UN's founding principles were being drafted across the Atlantic. Delegates should know it exists, because it is the argument every small state makes against trusting the great powers' promises.

The Yalta (Crimean) Conference, 4-11 February 1945 R

Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin met at Livadia Palace. On the UN, they agreed the voting formula. The veto would apply to substantive enforcement decisions but not to procedural questions or to discussion of peaceful settlement, and a great power that was party to a dispute would abstain from votes on its peaceful settlement. This is the Yalta formula the committee will adopt. France was invited to co-sponsor the conference, to take a permanent seat and to receive an occupation zone in Germany. A UN conference was called for 25 April 1945 in San Francisco. On Poland, the leaders agreed to a reorganised government, "free and unfettered elections as soon as possible", and borders moved west. Poland was not represented at Yalta and would sign the Charter later. On the Pacific, the USSR agreed in the secret Far East Agreement to enter the war two to three months after Germany's defeat, in exchange for southern Sakhalin and the Kurils, bases in Manchuria and the status quo in Outer Mongolia. The Declaration on Liberated Europe promised free elections and democratic institutions in liberated territories. Roosevelt died on 12 April 1945, and Truman inherited every promise that had not yet been kept. The UN's voting rules, France's seat and the invitation list all come from Yalta, and so does the committee's moral question, which is whether the free elections that were promised will ever be delivered.

The San Francisco Conference (UNCIO), 25 April - 26 June 1945

Forty-six nations were invited, four more were admitted during the conference (Argentina, Denmark, Byelorussia and Ukraine), and delegates of 50 states signed the Charter at the end. The work was organised into four commissions (general provisions chaired by the US, the General Assembly by the UK, the Security Council by the USSR and the judicial commission by China), twelve technical committees, ten plenary sessions and about 400 committee meetings. Four fights defined the conference, and each ended in compromise. First, the small powers, led by Evatt of Australia and Fraser of New Zealand with Latin America and the Middle East, challenged the veto, and the Yalta formula was adopted essentially unchanged. Second, regional arrangements (Chapter VIII) were written in over great power objections. Third, the economic and social powers of the organisation were enlarged. Fourth, on membership, Argentina was admitted to signing after a last-minute declaration of war, and Poland's place was left empty until its government could be formed. The Charter was adopted unanimously on 25 June and signed on 26 June. China signed first as the first victim of Axis aggression, then the USSR, UK, France and USA, then all others alphabetically. This is the committee's final act, and the document that every delegation has spent the war arguing over is the world's most successful attempt so far to institutionalise peace.

The Potsdam Conference, 17 July - 2 August 1945 (after the committee adjourns)

The last Big Three meeting brought together Truman, three months into office, Stalin, and Churchill, who was replaced mid-conference when the British election brought Attlee in on 28 July. They settled the occupation of Germany (zones, denazification, demilitarisation, decentralisation and reparations on a percentage basis), set the new Polish western frontier on the Oder-Neisse line as an administrative arrangement, agreed to "orderly and humane" transfers of German populations, and created a Council of Foreign Ministers to draft the peace treaties. The Potsdam Declaration of 26 July called on Japan to surrender or face "prompt and utter destruction". Truman was told of the success of the Trinity test the day before the conference opened. The committee never debates Potsdam, because the information cutoff ends at the Charter's signature. But Potsdam is what the new United Nations inherits on its first day: occupation zones, borders moved by big-power agreement, and a nuclear monopoly that no Charter clause addresses. The promises made at San Francisco are priced here.

Entry into force, 15 and 24 October 1945

Poland signed on 15 October and became the 51st founding member. Ratifications, including those of all five permanent members, met the condition of Article 110, and the Charter entered into force on 24 October 1945, which is now commemorated as United Nations Day. The first Security Council meeting followed on 17 January 1946 in London, and Trygve Lie became the first Secretary-General on 1 February 1946. The organisation came into being four months after the committee's timeline ends, which shows that what was built was real.

Competing Visions of the Postwar World

The delegates are not only reacting to battles. They are arguing over four rival plans for the peace. Every directive, note and charter clause is a move in that argument.

The great power directorate. Roosevelt's plan is that the United States, Britain, the Soviet Union and China enforce the peace together, with the smaller states largely excluded from enforcement. This is the logic of the permanent seats and the veto. Its strength is that peace is enforced by those who hold power. Its weakness is that it looks to small states and colonised peoples like a new club of empires.

Sovereign equality and the small power vision. Led at San Francisco by Evatt of Australia and Fraser of New Zealand, with Latin American and Middle Eastern support. All states are equal. The General Assembly must have real authority. The veto must be limited. This group loses the veto fight but wins regional arrangements in Chapter VIII and a larger Economic and Social Council. Regionalism. Churchill prefers regional councils for Europe and Asia over one universal body. The San Francisco compromise writes regional arrangements into the Charter but puts enforcement under the Security Council. Delegates from Brazil, Australia and Egypt will push this line.

Self determination against empire. Atlantic Charter points two and three promise self government to peoples denied it. Britain, France, the Netherlands and Belgium read this as not applying to their empires. India, China and the colonised world read it as applying to everyone. This is the deepest fault line and it will surface in every clause about existing obligations, trusteeship and membership. A delegation that only defends national interest will drift. A delegation that champions one of these four visions and builds a coalition around it will shape the Charter. The great powers are not united. The small powers are not powerless. The colonised are not silent.

The Failure of the League and the World of 1941

The United Nations was designed against the memory of the League of Nations.

What the League was. Created in 1920 by the Treaty of Versailles, with a Council of great powers, an Assembly of all members and a Permanent Court of International Justice. Its Covenant required members to submit disputes to arbitration and allowed sanctions on aggressors.

Why it failed. The League had no army and could only recommend sanctions. The United States never joined, because the Senate rejected the Treaty of Versailles in 1920. Britain and France treated the League as a tool rather than a constraint. Aggression went unpunished. Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931. Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935. Germany remilitarised the Rhineland in 1936, annexed Austria and Czechoslovakia in 1938, and invaded Poland in 1939. The League condemned, debated and did nothing. The Soviet Union was expelled in December 1939 for invading Finland, after the League had already failed.

The lessons the founders drew. The great powers must be inside the organisation, which is why the veto exists, to keep the United States and the Soviet Union in rather than to let them run wild. The organisation must have teeth, which means enforcement powers and military contingents. Regional arrangements can act where the universal body is deadlocked. Economic and social cooperation prevents the grievances that breed war, which is the reason for ECOSOC. Self determination must be real, or the peace will be unstable, which is why the Atlantic Charter promises it.

The world of 1941. Germany occupies most of Europe. Britain fights alone. The Soviet Union is a German ally until June 1941. The United States is neutral until December 1941. Japan is expanding in Asia. The League is a ghost. The committee opens in August 1941, aboard the warships at Placentia Bay, with the Atlantic Charter just signed and the world it describes not yet existing. The question the committee faces. Can the countries that invented the UN build an organisation strong enough to keep the peace while the war that proves the need for it is still burning.

TimeLine of the War

Date	Event	Why it matters here
1 Sep 1939	Germany invades Poland	War begins. The League fails its first test.
3 Sep 1939	Britain and France declare war	The Phoney War begins.
30 Nov 1939	Soviet Union invades Finland	The USSR is expelled from the League in December.
9 Apr 1940	Germany invades Norway and Denmark	Churchill becomes Prime Minister on 10 May.
10 May 1940	Germany invades France and the Low Countries	Blitzkrieg. Dunkirk evacuation runs from 26 May to 4 June.
22 Jun 1940	France signs armistice	Free France and Vichy split.
10 Jul to 31 Oct 1940	Battle of Britain	First German defeat. Britain becomes an unsinkable carrier.
11 Mar 1941	Lend Lease Act	The economic alliance comes before the political one.
22 Jun 1941	Operation Barbarossa	The Eastern Front opens.
9 to 14 Aug 1941	Atlantic Charter	The committee opens here.
24 Sep 1941	St James's Palace Declaration	Exile governments accept the Atlantic Charter.
7 Dec 1941	Pearl Harbor	The United States enters the war. Germany declares war on the United States on 11 December.
1 to 2 Jan 1942	Declaration by United Nations	The name United Nations is born. Twenty six signatories.
22 Dec 1941 to 14 Jan 1942	Arcadia Conference	Combined Chiefs of Staff. Germany first.
4 to 7 Jun 1942	Battle of Midway	The Pacific initiative passes to the United States.
7 Aug 1942 to 9 Feb 1943	Guadalcanal	The first Allied offensive in the Pacific.
23 Oct to 11 Nov 1942	Second El Alamein	The first clear land victory over the Axis.
8 Nov 1942	Operation Torch	Anglo American landings in North Africa.

17 Jul 1942 to 2 Feb 1943	**Stalingrad**	**The psychological turning point of the war.**
14 to 24 Jan 1943	Casablanca Conference	Unconditional surrender is announced.
5 Jul to 23 Aug 1943	Kursk	The last German offensive in the East.
9 Jul to 17 Aug 1943	Sicily	Mussolini falls on 25 July.
3 Sep 1943	Italy armistice	Italy becomes a co belligerent.
Oct 1943	Moscow Conference	The Four Nation Declaration on General Security.
22 to 26 Nov 1943	Cairo Conference	China's Big Four status is confirmed.
28 Nov to 1 Dec 1943	Tehran Conference	Overlord is fixed for May 1944. The USSR promises to enter the Pacific war.
6 Jun 1944	D Day	The Western Front reopens.
22 Jun to 19 Aug 1944	Operation Bagration	The greatest German defeat of the war.
1 Aug to 3 Oct 1944	Warsaw Rising	The founding grievance of postwar Poland.
21 Aug to 7 Oct 1944	Dumbarton Oaks	The UN blueprint. The veto is left open.
9 to 18 Oct 1944	Percentages Agreement	Spheres of influence settled in pencil.
23 to 26 Oct 1944	Leyte Gulf	The Imperial Japanese Navy stops existing as a fighting fleet.
16 Dec 1944 to 28 Jan 1945	Battle of the Bulge	Germany's last offensive in the West.
4 to 11 Feb 1945	Yalta Conference	Voting formula agreed. France gets a seat. San Francisco is called.
12 Apr 1945	Roosevelt dies	Truman inherits every unkept promise.
25 Apr to 26 Jun 1945	San Francisco Conference	The Charter is drafted. This is the committee's climax.
30 Apr 1945	Hitler commits suicide	Berlin falls on 2 May.
7 to 8 May 1945	VE Day	The war in Europe ends.
26 Jun 1945	Charter signed	The committee's closing ceremony.
17 Jul to 2 Aug 1945	Potsdam	After the cutoff.
6 and 9 Aug 1945	Hiroshima and Nagasaki	After the cutoff.
15 Oct 1945	Poland signs the Charter	Poland becomes the fifty first founding member.
24 Oct 1945	Charter enters into force	United Nations Day.

Information Cutoff and the Atomic Question

This committee runs from August 1941 to 26 June 1945.
The cutoff is the signing of the Charter. Anything after that date, including Potsdam, Hiroshima, Nagasaki and the entry into force, is outside the simulation and cannot be used in debate.

The Manhattan Project is real and running throughout this period, but it is the most closely guarded secret of the war.

The American political delegate, first Roosevelt and then Truman, knows the project exists but not the details. The American military delegate, Marshall, knows of it and its scale but not the science. No other delegation knows of it at all. Britain learns something at the Quebec Agreement in August 1943, and even then only a handful of people. The Soviet Union learns through espionage but cannot say so. France and China know nothing.

Trinity on 16 July 1945 has not happened when the committee closes. The bomb is a theory, not a fact.

Delegates may not mention the bomb, atomic energy or nuclear weapons in committee unless their country position grants that knowledge. A delegate who invents the bomb in debate is breaking the simulation.

Delegates can discuss the peacetime control of scientific research, the fear of secret weapons, since the V1 and V2 are known, and the principle that the new organisation should prevent weapons of mass destruction. That is the legitimate hook for the atomic future without breaking the cutoff.

The bomb is the largest fact of the postwar world, and this committee meets before it exists. The Charter will be silent on nuclear weapons, not because the founders were careless, but because they did not know. Delegates should feel that absence as they draft.

The Battles

The war did not begin in 1941. It began on 1 September 1939, when Germany invaded Poland and Britain and France declared war two days later. The League of Nations, the world's first attempt at collective security, did nothing, and that failure is the reason a new organisation had to be built. The war before 1941 set the terms of every argument that follows. Each entry below gives a short fact block (commanders, forces and losses where known) followed by a paragraph on the outcome and its significance. Where serious scholarship disagrees on a figure, a range is given

Invasion of Poland, 1 September - 6 October 1939
Belligerents: Germany (joined by the USSR from 17 September) against Poland. Poland was partitioned, and Britain and France declared war but could do nothing to help. The League failed its first great test, and Blitzkrieg, the combination of armour, aircraft, and radio, debuted as a way of war.

Soviet-Finnish Winter War, 30 November 1939 - 13 March 1940
Belligerents: USSR against Finland. Finland kept its independence but ceded about 10% of its territory, and the USSR was expelled from the League. Soviet aggression shows that the "Allied" camp was neither united nor morally clean, which delegates will have to negotiate around

Norway Campaign, 9 April - 10 June 1940
Belligerents: Germany against Britain, France and Norway. Germany occupied Norway and the Allies withdrew. It was the first combined land, sea and air campaign, and its failure discredited the Chamberlain government and brought Churchill to power on 10 May 1940.

Battle of France and Dunkirk, 10 May - 25 June 1940
Belligerents: Germany against France, Britain, Belgium and the Netherlands. France signed an armistice on 22 June, and about 338,000 Allied troops were evacuated from Dunkirk. Continental Western Europe fell in six weeks. From then on the Allies' strategic word was "liberation" rather than "defence", and a liberation needs an alliance

Battle of Britain, 10 July - 31 October 1940
Belligerents: the RAF against the Luftwaffe. Britain survived and the German invasion plan (Sealion) was postponed indefinitely. It was the first campaign fought purely in the air, and a democracy won it. It left the Allies with an "unsinkable aircraft carrier" from which they could later launch the liberation of Europe.

Italian invasion of Egypt and the Greco-Italian War, September and 28 October 1940
Belligerents: Italy against Britain, and Italy against Greece. Both offensives stalled, and Greece threw Italy back. Mussolini's failures drew Germany into the Balkans and Africa and delayed Barbarossa by several weeks, one of the most consequential delays in history.

Battle of Taranto, 11-12 November 1940
Belligerents: the Royal Navy against the Italian fleet. Twenty-one Swordfish biplanes crippled three Italian battleships in harbour. The raid proved that aircraft could cripple a fleet at anchor. Japanese naval attachés studied it, and the idea travelled to Pearl Harbor.

Lend-Lease Act, 11 March 1941
Belligerents: the United States Congress. America became the "arsenal of democracy" while still neutral. The economic alliance came before the political one, and Lend-Lease was the template for the wartime institutions, UNRRA and Bretton Woods among them, that later shaped the UN. Delegates whose countries lived through 1939 to 1941 carry these defeats into every negotiation. Poland fell, France fell, and the League failed.

Phase I: The Axis Ascendant (1941)

In 1941 the war became a world war, and the word "United Nations" was born. Germany invaded the USSR, Japan attacked the United States, and Britain fought alone in the desert and the Atlantic. Yet in August, on two warships off Newfoundland, Roosevelt and Churchill signed the Atlantic Charter and gave the world that would replace the Axis "new order" its founding sentence. This committee opens by reading it.

Operation Barbarossa, 22 June - December 1941 (Eastern Front)
Commanders: Axis: Hitler (OKW), with Army Groups under Leeb, Bock and Rundstedt. Soviet: Stalin, with Zhukov, Timoshenko and Kirponos. Forces: Axis about 3.8 million men (including Romanian, Finnish, Hungarian and Italian corps), about 3,600 tanks and about 2,700 aircraft on a 2,900 km front. Soviet western districts about 2.9 million, later reinforced from the interior. Losses: Axis about 800,000 by year's end. Soviet about 4 million in 1941, including about 3 million prisoners in the great encirclements. The largest invasion in history shattered the Soviet border armies and reached the suburbs of Leningrad, Moscow and Rostov. The USSR did not collapse, and the campaign stalled before winter. It was the most consequential decision of the war. It created the Eastern Front, where roughly three-quarters of Germany's military losses would fall, and it made the survival of the Soviet Union the central question of world politics.

Battle of Bialystok-Minsk, 22-30 June 1941 (Belarus, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Germany: Bock, Hoth and Guderian. USSR: Pavlov. Forces: Army Group Centre about 1.4 million against the Soviet Western Front about 625,000. Losses: About 300,000 Soviet prisoners claimed, and the Western Front effectively destroyed. The first great pocket of the war closed around Bialystok and Minsk within a week. It showed that Blitzkrieg worked on a Soviet scale and destroyed the Red Army's forward dispositions before they could concentrate.

The Continuation War (Finland), 25 June 1941 - 19 September 1944 (Karelia and the Ladoga front)
Commanders: Finland: Marshal C.G.E. Mannerheim. Germany: Dietl (Lapland). USSR: Meretskov and Govorov (Karelian Front). Forces: Finland about 500,000, with the German 20th Mountain Army supporting from Lapland, against the Soviet Northern and Karelian Fronts.
Losses: Finland about 63,000 military dead. USSR about 250,000-305,000 casualties, including about 165,000 dead or missing.
Finland recovered everything lost in the Winter War by 1942 and then halted, with no attack on Leningrad and no cut of the Murmansk railway. The Moscow Armistice of 19 September 1944 restored the 1940 border, added Petsamo to the cessions and imposed $300 million in reparations, and Finland then turned on the Germans in the Lapland War. Finland was a democracy fighting as a co-belligerent of the Axis and was never at war with the United States. Mannerheim refused to bomb Leningrad and rejected German pressure to deport Finnish Jews, who served in the army. Its war raises questions the committee will meet again: co-belligerence without alliance, the survival of a small power between giants, and why a state like Finland is not a founding member of the UN.

Battle of Smolensk, 10 July - 10 September 1941 (Smolensk, Russia, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Germany: Bock, Hoth and Guderian. USSR: Timoshenko, Yeremenko and Lukin. Forces: Army Group Centre against five redeployed Soviet armies.
Losses: Soviet about 700,000 casualties, including about 340,000 prisoners. Axis about 200,000.
Smolensk fell after two months of fighting, but Soviet counterattacks at Yelnya forced the Germans into their first voluntary retreat. The "Smolensk pause" was the first sustained Soviet resistance. It cost the Germans a month, and the argument over what to do next split the German high command.

Battle of Kiev, 23 August - 26 September 1941 (Ukraine, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Germany: Rundstedt, Guderian and Kleist. USSR: Budyonny and Kirponos (killed). Forces: Army Group South, reinforced by Army Group Centre's panzers, against the Soviet South-Western Front.
Losses: German claims of about 665,000 prisoners. Soviet front losses about 700,000, including about 616,000 dead, captured or missing. Kiev fell on 19 September and the pocket was cleared by the 26th, the largest encirclement in history to that date. It gave Germany Ukraine's grain, coal and industry but cost a month of campaigning season, and it is a good example of a victory that helps lose a war.

Siege of Odessa, 8 August - 16 October 1941 (Black Sea coast, Ukraine, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Romania: Antonescu's 4th Army. USSR: Petrov's Independent Coastal Army. Forces: About 90,000 Romanian and German troops against about 35,000 defenders and garrison. Losses: Axis about 90,000 (heavily Romanian). Soviet about 40,000 casualties, with the garrison evacuated by sea. After 73 days the Soviets evacuated by the Black Sea and Romanian troops entered Odessa. Romania's army did the heaviest Axis fighting of the autumn here, and the Black Sea remained a Soviet lake until 1942.

Siege of Leningrad, 8 September 1941 - 27 January 1944, 872 days (Leningrad, USSR, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Germany: Leeb, then Küchler. Finland: Mannerheim. USSR: Zhukov, then Govorov. Forces: Army Group North with Finnish support against the Leningrad and Volkhov Fronts, with about 2.5 million civilians trapped. Losses: About 1 million civilian deaths in the city (estimates range from 800,000 to 1.1 million), mostly from starvation. Soviet military casualties on the two fronts at least 1.5 million, including about 620,000 dead or captured.
The city held through three winters on the Ladoga "Road of Life". A land corridor opened in January 1943 (Operation Iskra), and the siege was lifted in full on 27 January 1944. It was the most lethal siege in history and the war's clearest case of starvation used as deliberate policy. It is the reason humanitarian language, relief, rations and reconstruction, enters the alliance's documents, from UNRRA to the Charter.

Battle of Moscow, 2 October 1941 - 7 January 1942 (Moscow, USSR, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Germany: Bock, Kluge and Hoepner. USSR: Zhukov, Konev and Rokossovsky. Forces: Army Group Centre at its peak, with about 1.9 million men and about 1,700 tanks for Operation Typhoon. The Soviets drew reserves from the Far East and Siberia after the Sorge intelligence warning. Losses: German about 250,000 (some estimates are higher). Soviet about 650,000-1,280,000.
German spearheads came within about 20 km of the Kremlin, and the road to Moscow looked open. The Soviet counteroffensive of 5-6 December then threw the Wehrmacht back 100-250 km, its first strategic defeat of the war. Blitzkrieg was broken as a concept, and the Axis could now be shown to be beatable. The result transformed Soviet diplomacy, and from 1942 the USSR was a founding partner of the "United Nations".

Attack on Pearl Harbor, 7 December 1941 (Oahu, Hawaii, Pacific)
Commanders: Japan: Nagumo and Fuchida. USA: Kimmel and Short. Forces: Japan 6 carriers, 353 aircraft in two waves and 5 midget submarines, against 8 battleships, about 390 US aircraft and no air alert. Losses: USA 2,403 dead, 1,178 wounded, 21 ships sunk or damaged (4 battleships sunk) and 188 aircraft destroyed. Japan 29 aircraft, 5 midget submarines and about 64 dead.
The US Pacific battle line was crippled in 110 minutes, but the carriers were at sea and the fuel farm and docks survived. The attack brought the United States into the war the next day, and Hitler declared war on America on 11 December. The anti-Axis coalition now had all of its great powers.

Fall of Singapore, 31 January - 15 February 1942 (Singapore, Pacific)
Commanders: Japan: Yamashita. Commonwealth: Percival. Forces: Japanese 25th Army about 30,000 (from about 50,000 in Malaya) against about 80,000 Commonwealth defenders on the island. Losses: Japanese about 3,500 dead in the Malaya campaign. Commonwealth about 8,700 dead and wounded, and about 80,000-100,000 captured across Malaya and Singapore.
Britain's "impregnable fortress" fell in 70 days, the largest capitulation in British history, which Churchill called the "worst disaster" in British military history. It shattered the imperial aura in Asia, changed Indian and Southeast Asian politics permanently, and began the prisoner-of-war ordeal of the Burma Railway.

Battle of Midway, 4-7 June 1942 (Midway Atoll, central Pacific)
Commanders: USA: Nimitz, Fletcher and Spruance. Japan: Yamamoto and Nagumo. Forces: USA 3 carriers (Enterprise, Hornet and Yorktown) and about 50 warships. Japan 4 fleet and 2 light carriers, about 250 carrier aircraft and the Combined Fleet's main body. Losses: Japan lost 4 fleet carriers (Akagi, Kaga, Soryu and Hiryu), the heavy cruiser Mikuma, 248 aircraft and about 3,050 dead. USA lost Yorktown and the destroyer Hammann, about 150 aircraft and about 310 dead.
Japan's carrier striking force was broken in a single afternoon, and the strategic initiative in the Pacific passed to the United States. The victory owed as much to codebreaking as to four minutes of luck, and Japan never regained the initiative at sea.

Guadalcanal Campaign, 7 August 1942 - 9 February 1943 (Solomon Islands, Pacific)
Commanders: USA: Vandegrift and Patch, with Ghormley and then Halsey. Japan: Hyakutake, Mikawa and Kondo. Forces: About 60,000 US troops (the 1st Marine Division, then Army divisions) against about 36,000 Japanese committed to the island. Losses: USA about 7,100 dead. Japan about 19,000-30,000 dead, most to starvation and disease. Naval losses on both sides were savage, including Savo Island (4 Allied heavy cruisers and about 1,080 dead).
Henderson Field was held through six months of land, sea and air battles, and Japan evacuated the island in February 1943. It was the Allies' first major offensive, and it ground down Japan's fleet aircrews and carriers to mutual exhaustion. From Guadalcanal the Pacific war became a steady westward Allied advance.

Second Battle of El Alamein, 23 October - 11 November 1942 (El Alamein, Egypt, North Africa)
Commanders: Commonwealth: Montgomery. Axis: Rommel (Stumme died of a heart attack in the opening nights). Forces: Eighth Army 195,000 men, 1,029 tanks, about 2,300 guns and over 750 aircraft, against Panzerarmee 116,000 (about half German), 547 tanks and about 1,200 guns. Losses: Axis about 37,000 (including about 30,000 prisoners) and about 500 tanks. Commonwealth about 13,560 casualties and about 330 tanks.
The Axis army in Egypt was shattered and retreated 2,000 km west, and Tobruk and Benghazi fell within weeks. It was the first decisive land victory over the Axis and the hinge on which the whole Mediterranean strategy swung. Churchill said of it, "Before Alamein we never had a victory. After Alamein we never had a defeat." Operation Torch, the Anglo-American landings in Morocco and Algeria on 8 November, followed within days and led to the Axis surrender in Tunisia in May 1943, which expelled the Axis from Africa entirely.

Battle of Stalingrad, 17 July 1942 - 2 February 1943 (Stalingrad, USSR, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Germany: Paulus, Hoth and Manstein. USSR: Chuikov, Yeremenko, Zhukov, Vasilevsky and Rokossovsky. Forces: The German 6th Army and 4th Panzer Army (about 300,000 engaged in the city campaign) against the Soviet 62nd and 64th Armies, continuously reinforced. For the counteroffensive, Operation Uranus, three Soviet fronts of about 1.1 million men, about 900 tanks and 13,500 guns. Losses: Axis about 800,000-850,000 total casualties in the campaign, with about 91,000 taken prisoner, of whom about 6,000 survived captivity. Soviet about 1.1 million (including about 479,000 dead or missing). Civilian deaths in the 23 August firebombing alone are estimated at 25,000-40,000.
After five months of street fighting the city was held by the Red Army. On 19-23 November Operation Uranus encircled the Sixth Army in four days, Manstein's relief attempt failed in December, and the pocket surrendered on 2 February 1943. It was the bloodiest battle in history and Germany's first army-level surrender, and it brought a national day of mourning in the Reich. It was the psychological pivot of the whole war. The name became a byword for resistance, and the victory became the moral foundation of the Soviet position in the alliance and of its postwar claims.

The Battle of the Atlantic, 1942 to May 1943 (North Atlantic)
Commanders: Germany: Dönitz. Allies: King (US), Horton (Western Approaches), Noble and Pound (RN). Forces: U-boats rose to about 300 operational by 1942 (from 91 in 1939), against escorts of destroyers, corvettes, escort carriers and long-range aircraft, with a fatal gap in mid-ocean. Losses: In 1942 alone, about 1,660 merchant ships and about 7.8 million gross tons were sunk. For the whole war, 3,500 merchant ships (14.5 million tons), 175 warships and 72,200 Allied seamen were lost, against 783 U-boats and about 30,000 German submariners.
Sinkings peaked in November 1942 at about 700,000 tons a month, the low point of the convoy war. Churchill admitted that the U-boat was the only thing that ever really frightened him. The tide turned in March to May 1943, when new escort carriers, very-long-range Liberator aircraft and centimetric radar went into service. In May "Black May", 41 U-boats were destroyed for about 50 merchant ships, and Dönitz withdrew the fleet from the North Atlantic on 24 May. It is the most important battle most people never hear of. From mid-1943 supplies could flow safely to Britain, the USSR and the coming invasion, and the second half of the war depends on it.

Battle of Kursk, 5 July - 23 August 1943 (Kursk salient, USSR, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Germany: Manstein, Model, Hausser and Hoth. USSR: Zhukov, Vatutin, Rokossovsky and Konev. Forces: Germany about 777,000 men, 2,451 tanks and assault guns and 7,417 guns. USSR about 1.9-2.5 million men, over 5,000 tanks and about 20,000 guns in six belts of defence. Losses: German about 200,000 in total (including the counteroffensives) and about 760 tanks destroyed. Soviet about 860,000 casualties and about 1,500-2,900 tanks.
The last German strategic offensive in the East failed within a week. The Soviet counteroffensives took Orel on 5 August and Kharkov on 23 August and never stopped again. Kursk was the greatest armoured battle in history, fought deliberately by both sides, and after it the Red Army held the strategic initiative in the East for every remaining day of the war.

Invasion of Sicily (Operation Husky), 9 July - 17 August 1943 (Sicily, Italian Campaign)
Commanders: Allies: Alexander, Montgomery (8th Army) and Patton (7th Army). Axis: Guzzoni and Hube (German corps). Forces: About 160,000 landed in the first waves and about 470,000 engaged, with 3,000 ships and landing craft, against about 190,000 Italian and about 30,000 German troops. Losses: Allied about 24,000 casualties. Axis about 29,000 dead and wounded and about 140,000 prisoners (mostly Italian), and about 60,000 Germans escaped across the Messina Strait.
Sicily was taken in 38 days, and Mussolini fell on 25 July. It was the first assault landing on Fortress Europe. It toppled a fascist government, proved that the Allies could project a full army across the sea, and opened the Italian campaign. Italy signed its armistice on 3 September, and the Germans then disarmed about a million Italian soldiers and occupied the country.

Operation Overlord and the Battle of Normandy, 6 June - 25 August 1944 (Normandy, France, Western Front)
Commanders: Allies: Eisenhower (supreme), Montgomery (land), Ramsay (sea), Leigh-Mallory (air), Bradley, Dempsey, Patton and Crerar. Germany: Rundstedt, then Kluge, then Model, with Rommel wounded on 17 July. Forces: About 156,000 troops landed on five beaches (Utah, Omaha, Gold, Juno and Sword) on D-Day, plus about 23,000 airborne, with 6,939 vessels and 11,590 aircraft. About 2,000,000 Allied troops had landed by late August, against about 850,000 Germans in France. Losses: Allied about 10,000 casualties on D-Day, including 4,414 confirmed dead. For the whole campaign, Allied about 226,000 and German about 240,000-400,000 (including about 200,000 prisoners). About 20,000 French civilians were killed.
By nightfall on 6 June the Allies held a precarious foothold, and the beaches were linked within days. The Falaise pocket closed on 20-21 August and Paris was liberated on 25 August, while the landing in Provence (Operation Dragoon) on 15 August added a second front in France. Overlord was the largest amphibious invasion in history. It reopened the Western Front and forced Germany into a two-front war it could not win, and it is the operation on which the political shape of postwar Western Europe turns.

Operation Bagration, 22 June - 19 August 1944 (Belarus to Poland, Eastern Front)
Commanders: USSR: Zhukov, Vasilevsky, Chernyakhovsky, Rokossovsky and Zakharov. Germany: Busch, then Model, with Army Group Centre. Forces: Soviet about 1.7 million initially (2.3 million engaged over the campaign), about 6,000 tanks and about 45,000 guns, against Army Group Centre of about 500,000 front-line troops (34 divisions). Losses: German about 400,000-540,000 (28 of 34 divisions destroyed). Soviet about 770,000 casualties (180,000 dead or missing).
Army Group Centre was annihilated, Minsk fell on 3 July, and the Red Army reached the Vistula by August. It was the Wehrmacht's greatest defeat, greater than Stalingrad in prisoners. It was timed for the third anniversary of Barbarossa and synchronised with Normandy, which makes it the Eastern Front's answer to D-Day.

Warsaw Uprising, 1 August - 3 October 1944 (Warsaw, Poland, Eastern Front)
Commanders: Poland: Komorowski ("Bór") and the Home Army. Germany: Himmler, Bach-Zelewski, Reinefarth and Dirlewanger. Forces: Home Army about 40,000-50,000 (under 10% armed) against about 25,000 German troops, reinforced with SS and penal brigades. Losses: Polish fighters about 16,000 dead and about 150,000-200,000 civilians killed. The city was systematically razed (85% destroyed by January). German about 9,000-17,000 casualties.
After 63 days the Home Army capitulated with the honours of war, and Warsaw was depopulated and demolished. These are the most controversial 63 days of the war. The Rising, and the Red Army's pause across the river, became the founding grievance of postwar Poland and a permanent argument in the UN debate about who liberated Europe.

Battles of Imphal and Kohima, 8 March - 3 July 1944 (Manipur and the Naga hills, on the India-Burma frontier, Burma and South-East Asia)
Commanders: Japan: Mutaguchi (15th Army). Commonwealth: Slim (14th Army), Scoones (IV Corps) and Stopford (XXXIII Corps). Forces: Japan about 85,000-100,000 in 15th Army, with INA units attached, against about 150,000 Commonwealth troops engaged (British and Indian divisions, Gurkha brigades, and West and East African regiments). Losses: Japan about 53,000-60,000 dead and missing, with most of the survivors lost to disease and starvation in the retreat. Commonwealth about 16,500-17,000 casualties.
U-Go, Japan's invasion of India, was broken in the field. Kohima's garrison held the road junction, Imphal was resupplied entirely by air, and the 15th Army fell back across the Chindwin in July. It was Japan's worst land defeat and the pivot of the Burma theatre. For the Indian delegation it is doubly loaded, because the INA units in Japan's order of battle were Bose's, and the fighting took place on Indian soil while the committee debates the Raj's future.

Battle of Leyte Gulf, 23-26 October 1944 (Leyte, the Sibuyan Sea, Surigao Strait and off Samar, Philippines, Pacific)
Commanders: USA: Halsey (3rd Fleet) and Kinkaid (7th Fleet). Japan: Kurita (Centre Force), Ozawa (Northern decoy), and Nishimura and Shima (Southern Force). Forces: USA about 300 ships, including 17 fleet and light carriers plus escort carrier groups. Japan 4 carriers, 9 battleships, 19 cruisers and their screens. Losses: Japan lost 4 carriers, 3 battleships (Musashi, Fusō and Yamashiro), 10 cruisers and about 300 aircraft, and the Imperial Navy ceased to exist as a fighting fleet. USA lost 1 light carrier, 2 escort carriers, 2 destroyers and a destroyer escort, and about 200 aircraft.
The largest naval battle in history ended with Japan's fleet broken across four separate engagements, the Philippines secured, and organised kamikaze strikes beginning in the same week. The battle was the death of the Imperial Navy as an institution and the birth of kamikaze as doctrine. It showed the committee's military heads what unconditional surrender was now pressing against: no fleet, no fuel, and no way out except annihilation or negotiation.

Battle of the Bulge, 16 December 1944 - 28 January 1945 (Ardennes, Belgium and Luxembourg, Western Front)
Commanders: Germany: Model, Manteuffel and Peiper. Allies: Bradley, Hodges, Patton and Montgomery, with Eisenhower in overall command. Forces: Germany about 200,000 initially (1,200 tanks and assault guns), against US forces in the Ardennes of about 83,000, rising to about 600,000 engaged. Losses: US about 19,000 dead and about 89,000 total casualties, the largest US battle of the war. German about 100,000 casualties and the loss of its last Panzer reserve, plus about 800 aircraft in the New Year attacks.
St Vith held, and Bastogne, encircled, refused to surrender ("Nuts!"). The skies cleared and the offensive died by January. Germany's last offensive in the West burned the armoured reserve that Berlin needed in the East. Three weeks before Yalta the Wehrmacht's strategic defeat was complete, even as the diplomats drafted the Charter.

Battle of Okinawa, 1 April - 22 June 1945 (Okinawa, Ryukyu Islands, Pacific)
Commanders: US: Buckner (killed 18 June), Spruance, Nimitz and Turner. Japan: Ushijima (died) and Cho. Forces: US 183,000 troops of the 10th Army (7 divisions) and over 1,300 ships. Japan about 76,000 army troops plus about 20,000 naval and Okinawan conscripts. Losses: US about 12,300-12,500 dead and about 50,000 total casualties. Japanese about 100,000-110,000 dead and about 7,400 prisoners. Civilian dead 100,000-150,000. Kamikazes sank 36 US ships and damaged 368, and the battleship Yamato was sunk on 7 April with about 3,000 men.
It was the last great amphibious campaign of the war, 82 days of fighting for the gateway to Japan, and the bloodiest battle of the Pacific war for the United States. Its casualty arithmetic, multiplied by the invasion plans for Kyushu, is what lands on Truman's desk alongside the results of the Manhattan Project.

Battle of Berlin, 16 April - 2 May 1945 (Berlin, Germany, Eastern Front)
Commanders: USSR: Zhukov, Konev and Rokossovsky. Germany: Reymann and Weidling, with Hitler (suicide on 30 April). Forces: Three Soviet fronts with 2.5 million men, 6,250 tanks, 41,600 guns and mortars and 7,500 aircraft, against a Berlin garrison of about 45,000-80,000 plus 9th Army remnants. Losses: Soviet 81,116 dead or missing and 280,251 sick or wounded (361,367 total). German about 92,000-100,000 dead and about 480,000 captured, and about 125,000 German civilians dead.
The Reichstag was stormed on 30 April, Hitler committed suicide the same day, and Berlin surrendered on 2 May. The capital fell to the Red Army, and the political map of postwar Europe was written on the ground the moment the flag rose over the Reichstag.

German surrender (VE Day), 2-8 May 1945 (Reims 7 May at 02:41, ratified in Berlin 8 May)
Commanders: Germany: Jodl (Reims), Keitel (Berlin) and Dönitz's Flensburg government. Allies: Eisenhower, Zhukov and Tedder. Forces: Remaining German forces of about 4 million under arms in scattered pockets and armies.
Unconditional surrender was signed at Reims and ratified in Berlin by Keitel before Zhukov, and the war in Europe ended at 23:01 CET on 8 May 1945. The policy fixed at Casablanca in 1943 became fact. It is the legal instrument that allowed occupation, denazification and the trials, and it frees the delegates of this committee to argue only about the future.

All Weapons used during WW2

Rifles

Weapon	Nation	Type / calibre	Service	Note
M1 Garand	USA	.30-06 semi-automatic	1936-	The first standard semi-automatic rifle of any major army, with an eight-round en-bloc clip and a distinctive "ping".
M1903 Springfield	USA	.30-06 bolt-action	1903-	Still issued through the war, and also the sniper rifle (M1903A4).
M1 Carbine	USA	.30 carbine semi-auto	1941-	6 million made and issued to support troops and officers. It was not a Garand replacement.
Lee-Enfield No.4 Mk I	UK and Commonwealth	.303 bolt-action	1941-	Its 10-round magazine and fast bolt work made it the quickest-firing bolt rifle of the war.
Mosin-Nagant M1891/30	USSR	7.62x54R bolt-action	1891-	The Red Army's rifle by the million. The M1944 carbine and the PU sniper version are iconic.
SVT-40	USSR	7.62x54R semi-automatic	1940-	A finely made but finicky Soviet semi-auto, and many captured ones went to German hands.
Karabiner 98k	Germany	7.92x57 Mauser bolt-action	1935-	The Wehrmacht's standard rifle, with over 14 million made.
Gewehr 43 / K43	Germany	7.92x57 semi-automatic	1943-	Germany's answer to the Garand and SVT, made in limited numbers and often fitted with a ZF4 sniper scope.
Sturmgewehr 44 (StG 44)	Germany	7.92x33 Kurz assault rifle	1944-	The world's first mass-produced assault rifle, with selective fire and an intermediate cartridge. It names a whole class of weapon.
Arisaka Type 38 / Type 99	Japan	6.5mm / 7.7mm bolt-action	1905 / 1939-	Strong actions but crude late-war finish. The Type 99 was chambered for the more powerful 7.7mm round.
Type 100 SMG / Type 4 rifle	Japan	8mm Nambu / 7.7 semi-auto	1942 / 1944-	Japan produced few submachine guns (about 30,000) and only token Type 4 "Garand copies", with a doctrine centred on the bayonet.
Beretta M1938	Italy	9mm SMG	1938-	Italy's best small arm, issued to assault troops.
Carcano M1891 series	Italy	6.5x52 bolt-action	1891-	The standard Italian rifle, with an underpowered cartridge.
MAS-36	France	7.5x54 bolt-action	1936-	Modern but too few, and used by both Free French and Vichy forces.

All Weapons used during WW2

Sub Machine Guns

Weapon	Nation	Type / calibre	Service	Note
Thompson M1928/M1	USA	.45 ACP	1938-	Famous, heavy and expensive (about $200), and partly replaced by the M3.
M3 "Grease Gun"	USA	.45 ACP	1942-	Cheap stamped metal (about $20), which replaced the Thompson in most US units.
PPSh-41	USSR	7.62x25, 71-round drum	1941-	Over 6 million made, and entire Soviet platoons went to SMGs for city fighting.
PPS-43	USSR	7.62x25	1943-	The most efficient wartime SMG design, with a folding stock.
MP 40	Germany	9x19 Parabellum	1940-	The "Schmeisser" (a misnomer) of war films, with about 1.1 million made.
Sten Mk II/V	UK and Commonwealth	9x19	1941-	A £11 gun of stamped steel, issued to resistance networks across occupied Europe.
Owen Gun / Austen	Australia	9x19	1942-	The Owen's top-mounted magazine and reliability made it a jungle favourite.
Type 100	Japan	8mm Nambu	1942-	Rare, since Japanese doctrine mostly ignored the SMG until too late.

All Weapons used during WW2

Fighters and Attack AIrcraft

Weapon	Nation	Type	Service	Note
Supermarine Spitfire (Mk I-XXIV)	UK	Fighter	1938-	The icon of the Battle of Britain, with endless development through the war.
Hawker Hurricane	UK	Fighter / fighter-bomber	1937-	It outnumbered the Spitfire in 1940 and shot down more German aircraft. The Typhoon later became the rocket-firing tank-killer of Normandy.
P-40 Warhawk / Tomahawk / Kittyhawk	USA and allies	Fighter	1941-	Flew for the RAF, the Soviets, the Australians and the Flying Tigers over China.
P-38 Lightning	USA	Twin-boom fighter	1941-	A long-range escort and Pacific ace-maker, and the plane that killed Yamamoto.
P-47 Thunderbolt	USA	Fighter-bomber	1942-	An 8-ton "jug" with 8 machine guns and rockets, and Europe's tank-buster and escort.
P-51 Mustang	USA	Long-range escort fighter	1942-	With drop tanks it escorted bombers to Berlin and back, and was the single most war-winning aircraft of the European air war.
F4U Corsair / F6F Hellcat	USA	Carrier fighters	1942-43	The Hellcat alone shot down about 5,100 Japanese aircraft (a 19:1 ratio).
LaGG-3, La-5 and La-7	USSR	Fighters	1941-44	They went from wooden disappointment to Germany-killer under Lavochkin.
Yak-1 / Yak-7 / Yak-9	USSR	Fighters	1941-	The most numerous Soviet fighters, and the Yak-9 with a 37mm cannon was a tank-hunting ace.
MiG-3	USSR	High-altitude interceptor	1941-	It faded as the air war moved low, but is respected for its 1941 intercepts.
Il-2 Sturmovik	USSR	Armoured attack	1941-	Over 36,000 built, the most-produced military aircraft in history, and a "flying tank" and "black death" to Germans.
Bf 109 (E-K)	Germany	Fighter	1937-	Produced through the entire war (about 34,000), it was the spine of the Luftwaffe.
Fw 190 (A/D)	Germany	Fighter	1941-	Superior to the Spitfire V on arrival in 1941, and the D-9 was a top late-war interceptor.
Me 262 Schwalbe	Germany	Jet fighter	1944-	The first operational jet fighter and 160+ km/h faster than anything else, but too late, too few (about 1,400) and fuel-starved.
Me 163 Komet	Germany	Rocket interceptor	1944-	Staggeringly fast and dangerously volatile, a dead end that still made history.
A6M Zero (Rei-sen)	Japan	Carrier fighter	1940-	Its range and agility ruled the Pacific until 1943, when attrition and new US types ended its dominance.
Ki-43 Oscar / Ki-61 Tony / Ki-84 Frank	Japan	Fighters	1941-44	The Army's answer to the Zero gap, and the Frank was genuinely competitive in 1945.
Gloster Meteor	UK	Jet fighter	1944-	The Allies' first jet, kept home to defend against V-1s rather than risk capture over Germany.

All Weapons used during WW2

Jets, Rockets and Wonder Weapons

Weapon	Nation	Type	Service	Note
V-1 "flying bomb"	Germany	Pulse-jet cruise missile	1944	Over 9,500 were launched at Britain (and Antwerp), and it was defeated by fighters, guns and captured launch sites.
V-2 ballistic missile	Germany	A-4 rocket	1944-45	The first ballistic missile, at Mach 4+, with no defence against it. It was built by slave labour (Mittelbau-Dora, about 20,000 dead).
Wasserfall, Rheintochter, X-4	Germany	SAM and air-to-air projects	Cancelled	Postwar missile programmes were built from these papers.
Fritz X and Hs 293	Germany	Guided glide bombs	1943-	The first precision-guided weapons, which sank Roma and dozens of ships off Salerno, Anzio and Normandy.
Bat and Azon	USA / UK	Guided bombs	1944-45	The Allies' lesser-known precision munitions, used against shipping and bridges (Burma, the Rhine).
Me 163 / Me 262 / He 162 / Ta 152	Germany	Rocket and jet fighters	1944-45	The Luftwaffe's last fighters. Fuel and pilot quality, not airframes, decided their fate.
Gloster Meteor	UK	Jet fighter	1944-	It hunted V-1s over Kent, and the Allies' first jets saw combat before the war's end.
P-80 Shooting Star	USA	Jet fighter	1945 (Europe, limited)	Two operational jets were in Italy by V-E Day, the coming generation.
Mark 24 "mine" (FIDO)	USA / UK	Homing torpedoes	1943-	Acoustic homing weapons, the quiet beginning of smart naval warfare.
Proximity fuze (VT)	USA	Radar-fuzed shell	1943-	It doubled AA lethality and devastated infantry in the Bulge. It was so secret that it was withheld from front-line use until capture-proof supply was certain.
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All Weapons used during WW2

Subs, Escorts and Convoys

Weapon	Nation	Type	Service	Note
Type VII / Type IX U-boats	Germany	Submarines	1936-	1,154 U-boats were commissioned, the instrument of the tonnage war.
Type XXI "Elektroboot"	Germany	Revolutionary submarine	1944-	It could stay submerged at 17 knots, arrived too late to change the war, and shaped every postwar navy.
Biber, Seehund / Kaiten	Germany / Japan	Midget subs and human torpedoes	1944-	Desperation weapons of the last year.
Gato / Balao class	USA	Fleet submarines	1941-	The US submarine force, 2% of the Navy, sank over half of Japan's merchant marine and strangled her war economy.
I-boats (Type B and C)	Japan	Submarines	1920s-	The largest pre-nuclear submarines (some carried aircraft), used against warships and supply lines rather than commerce.
Atlantic balance sheet	All	Convoy statistics	1939-45	3,500 merchant ships and 175 warships were lost to U-boats in the whole war. 780 or more U-boats were destroyed, and about 30,000 U-boat crewmen died (75%).
Fletcher class / Type 34-36Z / Tribal	USA / Germany / UK	Destroyers	1941-	The Fletcher class (175 ships) defined the US escort-and-strike destroyer, and the Hunt and Tribal classes carried the Commonwealth war.
Cleveland / Baltimore, Brooklyn, Fiji, Atlanta, Mogami	USA / UK / Japan	Cruisers	1941-	Cruiser duels decided the Solomons' night battles.
Destroyer escorts and frigates (DE / PF / River / Loch)	USA / UK	Escorts	1942-	Mass-produced sub-killers, with the Captain class (US-built DEs for the RN) as the Atlantic's quiet hero.
Flower-class corvettes	UK and allies	Corvettes	1940-	The stubborn little ships of the North Atlantic, miserable and indispensable.

All Weapons used during WW2

Carriers and Capital Ships

Weapon	Nation	Type	Service	Note
Akagi, Kaga, Soryu, Hiryu	Japan	Fleet carriers (sunk 4 Jun 1942)	1941-42	The Kido Butai core, destroyed at Midway in a single afternoon.
Shokaku and Zuikaku	Japan	Fleet carriers	1941-44	Veterans of Pearl Harbor and Coral Sea. Zuikaku was the last Pearl Harbor carrier, sunk at Leyte Gulf in 1944.
Taiho, Shinano	Japan	Armoured carrier / converted super-carrier	1944	Taiho was sunk by one submarine torpedo (June 1944). Shinano, the largest carrier until 1960, was sunk by USS Archerfish on her maiden voyage (29 Nov 1944).
Yamato and Musashi	Japan	72,000-ton super-battleships, 46cm guns	1941/42-45	The largest battleships ever built. Musashi was sunk in the Sibuyan Sea (24 Oct 1944) and Yamato by air on her suicide sortie (7 Apr 1945).
USS Lexington (CV-2) and Saratoga (CV-3)	USA	Fleet carriers	1927-	The prewar giants, with Lexington lost at Coral Sea.
USS Yorktown, Enterprise, Hornet	USA	Fleet carriers	1937-42	Yorktown, repaired in 72 hours at Pearl, fought at Midway and was lost there. Enterprise was the most decorated US ship of the war, and Hornet launched the Doolittle Raid.
Essex class (17 commissioned in war)	USA	Fleet carriers	1942-	The industrial answer, and by 1945 the US had more carriers than the rest of the world combined.
Independence class (CVL), Casablanca / Commencement Bay class (CVE)	USA	Light and escort carriers	1943-	Escort carriers hunted U-boats and supported invasions, and at Samar, Taffy 3 stood against Yamato's force.
USS Iowa / New Jersey / Missouri / Wisconsin	USA	45,000-ton fast battleships	1943-44	Battleships reborn as carrier escorts and shore-bombardment platforms, with Missouri hosting the surrender.
USS North Carolina and South Dakota classes	USA	Fast battleships	1941-42	The treaty-generation battleships that fought the Pacific campaign.

Appendix I. Charter Preamble and Article 1

Preamble

WE THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS DETERMINED to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom.

AND FOR THESE ENDS to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used save in the common interest, and to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples.

HAVE RESOLVED TO COMBINE OUR EFFORTS TO ACCOMPLISH THESE AIMS. Accordingly, our respective Governments, through representatives assembled in the city of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations.

Article 1

The Purposes of the United Nations are as follows.

1. To maintain international peace and security, and to that end to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of the peace.
2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace.
3. To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion.
4. To be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

Appendix II. Sources

Where serious scholarship disagrees on a figure, this guide gives a range rather than a single number.

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Official signing of the UN Charter at Sans Francisco

Country	Political delegate	Military delegate	Date
China			
Soviet Union			
United Kingdom			
Free France			
United States			
British India			
Germany			
Italy			
Japan			
Yugoslavia			
Chairs			