



SMUN

STUDY GUIDE



CHURCHILL'S WAR CABINET



COMMITTEE:

WINSTON CHURCHILL'S WAR CABINET

AGENDUM:

**Emergency Meeting of Winston Churchill's War Cabinet:
To deliberate upon the military and strategic situation
following the fall of Paris on 14th June, 1940, and to
determine whether to continue the war effort or initiate
negotiations for an armistice.**

FREEZE DATE:

14th June, 1940



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THE EXECUTIVE BOARD'S ADDRESS

Greetings from the Executive Board,

As the shadow of war darkens over Europe and the tricolor of France falls, we welcome you to the War Cabinet Simulation convened at this defining hour of 14th June 1940. You are gathered not merely as participants, but as stewards of Britain's destiny—individuals entrusted to safeguard liberty, reason, and resilience amid the storm of tyranny.

This committee will demand more than prepared speeches or mechanical responses. It will test your courage in decision-making, your grasp of military and diplomatic realities, and your power to transform conviction into strategy. The days ahead call for minds that can organize chaos into clarity and translate adversity into action.

The study guide before you marks only the threshold of your duty—it is not the sum of it. We expect from each of you an intellectual rigor that pushes beyond the written brief: to question, to innovate, and to approach every crisis with imagination anchored in realism. Your research should not drown your reasoning; it must illuminate it. Policy shaped in haste is perilous—yet inaction is fatal.

Britain now stands alone, her fate intertwined with the ideals of the free world. As you deliberate over war plans, foreign alliances, and national morale, remember that history will not judge your titles or rhetoric—but your resolve. Debate, disagree, and persuade—but always with the purpose to preserve civilization from collapse.

We await your insight, your courage, and your conviction. Let this simulation not merely recount history—but relive the spirit that defied despair.

Yours faithfully,

The Executive Board- Winston Churchill's War Cabinet 1940,
Adrish Hossain (Co-Chairperson)
Md. Shadan Husham (Co-chairperson)
Sananya Chakraborty (Vice-Chairperson)
Rahil Hussain (Director)



BACKGROUND

Treaty of Versailles

The Treaty of Versailles was signed on June 28, 1919, at the Palace of Versailles, France, formally ending hostilities between Germany and the Allied Powers, comprising France, the United Kingdom, the United States, Italy, and Japan. Negotiations involved key figures: Georges Clemenceau (French Prime Minister), David Lloyd George (British Prime Minister), Woodrow Wilson (President of the United States), and Vittorio Orlando (Italian Prime Minister). Germany, represented by Foreign Minister Ulrich von Brockdorff-Rantzau, was compelled to accept terms without negotiation, creating immediate political tension.

Germany was forced to cede Alsace-Lorraine to France, Eupen and Malmedy to Belgium, and Northern Schleswig to Denmark, while all overseas colonies were placed under League of Nations mandates, headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland. Military limitations restricted the Wehrmacht to 100,000 troops, prohibited tanks, aircraft, and submarines, and demilitarized the Rhineland. These measures aimed to prevent future German aggression but also fueled nationalist resentment.

Reparations were set at 132 billion gold marks, causing severe financial strain. The Weimar Republic, led by President Friedrich Ebert, faced hyperinflation, peaking in 1923 with banknotes reaching trillions of marks. Political instability increased as extremist groups, including the National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP) under Adolf Hitler, gained support. The treaty's perceived humiliation undermined democratic institutions, encouraged revanchism, and laid the groundwork for future territorial expansion by Germany in the 1930s.



The Great Depression

The Wall Street Crash on October 29, 1929 (Black Tuesday) at the New York Stock Exchange triggered a worldwide economic collapse. The crisis propagated rapidly to Europe due to financial interdependence and Germany's reliance on Dawes Plan loans (1924) from the United States. French banks, including Banque de France, and British institutions like Barclays experienced liquidity shortages, while Germany's Darmstädter und Nationalbank and industrial conglomerates such as Krupp faced insolvency.

German industrial output fell sharply, while unemployment surged from 1.3 million (1929) to 6 million (1932). In the United Kingdom, under Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald, unemployment exceeded 2 million, while France, governed by Édouard Daladier, experienced a 30% decline in industrial production. Key sectors, including coal mining in the Ruhr Valley and textile production in Lyon, were severely affected, prompting strikes and social unrest.

Economic hardship bolstered extremist parties. The NSDAP became the largest party in the July 1932 Reichstag elections, leveraging mass unemployment and hyperinflation for propaganda. In the United Kingdom, the Labour government implemented austerity measures, while Germany resorted to uncontrolled currency printing. The United Kingdom abandoned the Gold Standard in September 1931, disrupting international trade. The global depression destabilized democratic regimes, reinforced nationalist sentiment, and directly contributed to aggressive militarization and expansionist policies that led to World War II.

The Axis Powers

The Rome-Berlin Axis was formalized on October 25, 1936, through a memorandum between Benito Mussolini and Adolf Hitler, establishing political and military cooperation. The agreement committed both states to support each other's expansionist ambitions, particularly in Ethiopia, Austria, and the Rhineland, while opposing communism and liberal democracies. Italian Foreign Minister Galeazzo Ciano and German Foreign Minister Joachim von Ribbentrop coordinated diplomatic exchanges to solidify trade, intelligence, and military collaboration. The Axis expanded to incorporate Imperial Japan with the Anti-Comintern Pact (November 25, 1936), initially directed against the Communist International (Comintern) and later targeting the Soviet Union and Allied powers.



The Axis established coordinated military planning, including Germany's Wehrmacht operations under Generalfeldmarschall Wilhelm von Leeb and Erwin Rommel, Italy's campaigns in North Africa and the Balkans, and Japanese expansion in Manchuria and China, with logistical support from shared ports and intelligence networks. This alliance emphasized territorial conquest, suppression of opposition regimes, and coordination against potential Allied intervention in Europe and Asia.





The Allied Powers

The Allied Powers initially included France, the United Kingdom, and Poland, with subsequent members joining after Axis expansion. The Allies formed to resist Axis aggression, beginning with declarations of war following Germany's invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939.

Allied coordination included massive resource mobilization: United States War Production Board, British Ministry of Supply, and Soviet industrial relocation to the Urals and Siberia. Lend-Lease agreements enabled transfer of weapons, vehicles, and raw materials to Britain, USSR, and Free French forces. Naval cooperation through the Allied Naval Command protected Atlantic convoys against Kriegsmarine U-boat attacks, while intelligence-sharing networks such as Ultra (Bletchley Park) and Soviet espionage in Berlin ensured strategic advantage.

Annexation of Austria

The Anschluss was the annexation of Austria into Nazi Germany. Adolf Hitler, born in Braunau am Inn, Austria, leveraged pan-German nationalism and pressure from the Austrian Nazi Party (DNSAP) to destabilize Chancellor Kurt Schuschnigg's government.

Hitler's strategic goal was to unite all German-speaking populations under the Third Reich, in line with Mein Kampf directives.

On March 11, 1938, Chancellor Schuschnigg attempted a plebiscite to resist annexation, but Hitler threatened invasion. The Wehrmacht, including 3rd Army units under General Alfred Jodl, crossed the German-Austrian border on March 12, 1938, encountering no organized military resistance. Key entry points included Innsbruck, Salzburg, and Graz. Austrian government offices, including the Chancellery in Vienna and Ministry of Defense headquarters, were quickly seized.

Following the annexation, Austria was incorporated as Ostmark, with administrative control transferred to Arthur Seyss-Inquart, a Nazi appointee. Austrian army units were absorbed into the Wehrmacht, while political opponents, including Social Democrats and Jews, were persecuted. The plebiscite on April 10, 1938, reported a 99% approval, though it was heavily manipulated.



Munich Agreement

The Munich Agreement was formally signed on September 30, 1938, in Munich, Germany, by four heads of state or government: Adolf Hitler (Germany), Neville Chamberlain (United Kingdom), Édouard Daladier (France), and Benito Mussolini (Italy). The document consisted of a concise text of several articles outlining the cession of the Sudetenland to Germany, enforcement timelines, and obligations of the signatories. No Czech representatives were present or permitted to participate in drafting or ratifying the agreement.

- **Cession of Territory:** The agreement officially transferred the Sudetenland, including fortified border areas and industrial zones, from Czechoslovakia to Germany.
- **Military Restrictions:** Czechoslovakia was required to withdraw troops and dismantle border fortifications in the Sudeten regions immediately.
- **International Guarantees:** The signatories pledged to respect the new borders and refrain from military action, effectively granting Germany uncontested control over the territory.
- **Implementation Schedule:** German occupation was to occur in phases, coordinated with the withdrawal of Czechoslovak forces, ensuring minimal military conflict.
- **Neutral Oversight:** Italy acted as a mediator, supervising adherence to the agreement's implementation alongside Germany, Britain, and France.

The document represented a bilateral-enforced territorial transfer, bypassing the legal sovereignty of Czechoslovakia, and demonstrated the practical failure of collective security mechanisms like the League of Nations. While presented as a diplomatic resolution, the agreement codified appeasement policy, legitimized aggressive expansion, and directly facilitated Nazi annexation of strategic resources and fortifications. It served as a precedent for Hitler's subsequent occupation of the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939.



Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact

The Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact, formally titled the Treaty of Non-Aggression between Germany and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, was signed in Moscow on August 23, 1939, by Vyacheslav Molotov, Soviet Foreign Minister, and Joachim von Ribbentrop, German Foreign Minister. Negotiations were conducted secretly throughout July–August 1939, amid escalating tensions in Europe following Germany's aggressive expansion in Austria and the Sudetenland, and the failure of Britain and France to guarantee Eastern European security. The pact was designed to prevent a two-front war for Germany while securing Soviet territorial ambitions.

The public treaty consisted of a ten-year non-aggression agreement, committing both nations to refrain from attacks on each other, and to settle disputes diplomatically. Crucially, it included secret protocols dividing Eastern Europe into spheres of influence. Poland was partitioned along the Vistula, Bug, and Narew Rivers, granting Germany western Poland and the USSR eastern Poland, including Vilnius, Lwów, and Białystok. The Baltic states—Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania—were allocated to Soviet influence, alongside Bessarabia, targeting Romanian territories.

The pact enabled Germany to invade Poland on September 1, 1939, initiating World War II, while the USSR invaded from the east on September 17, 1939, seizing eastern Polish territories. It demonstrated the cynical use of diplomacy for territorial expansion, undermined collective security efforts, and shocked Western powers.

German Invasion of Poland

The invasion, code-named Fall Weiss (Case White), was meticulously planned by Adolf Hitler, OKH (Oberkommando des Heeres) Chief General Franz Halder, and operational commanders including Generaloberst Gerd von Rundstedt and Generaloberst Walther von Brauchitsch. Germany deployed over 1.5 million troops, comprising the 3rd, 4th, 10th, 14th, and 19th Panzer Divisions, supported by infantry, motorized corps, artillery battalions, and the Luftwaffe's Fliegerkorps I and IV. The operation aimed to eliminate Polish military resistance quickly, secure strategic cities, and control transportation networks along the Vistula, Oder, and Bug rivers. Logistics included pre-positioned fuel depots, armored supply trains, and communication networks linking headquarters in Posen (Poznań) and Wrocław (Breslau) to forward units.



SCHLIEFFEN PLAN AND THE BLITZKRIEG STRATEGY

The Original Schlieffen Plan Concept & Structure:

Devised by Count Alfred von Schlieffen in 1905, the Schlieffen Plan was Germany's solution to fighting a two-front war against France (west) and Russia (east). The key idea was speed: defeat France quickly through a sweeping advance via Belgium and the Netherlands, then pivot east to confront Russia (expected to mobilize slowly).

Schlieffen's approach favored massive concentration of forces on the right wing, enveloping Paris with a 'door swing' movement, inspired by Hannibal's double envelopment at Cannae.

The plan deliberately violated Belgian neutrality—this had significant diplomatic consequences, especially with Britain, who was pledged to defend Belgian independence.

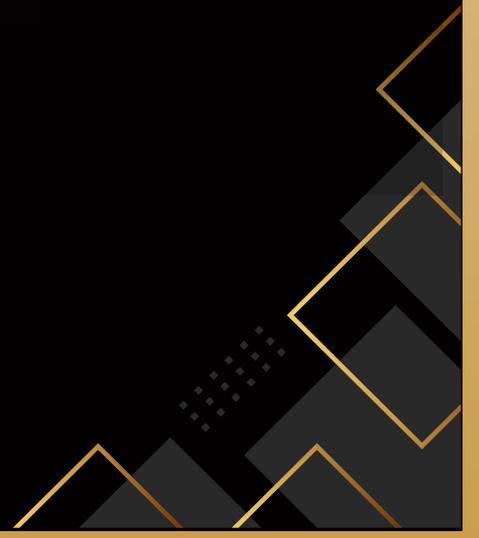
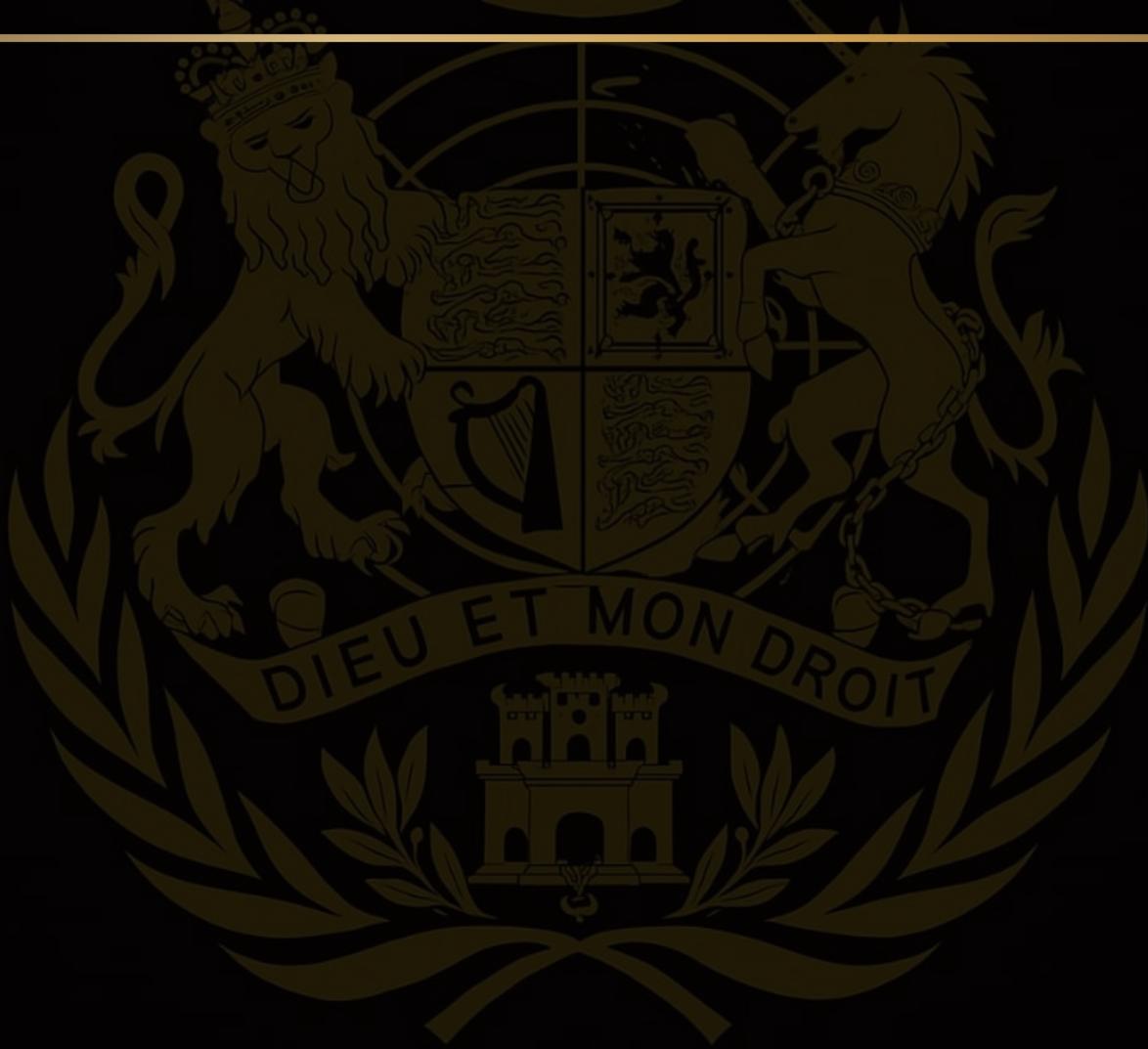


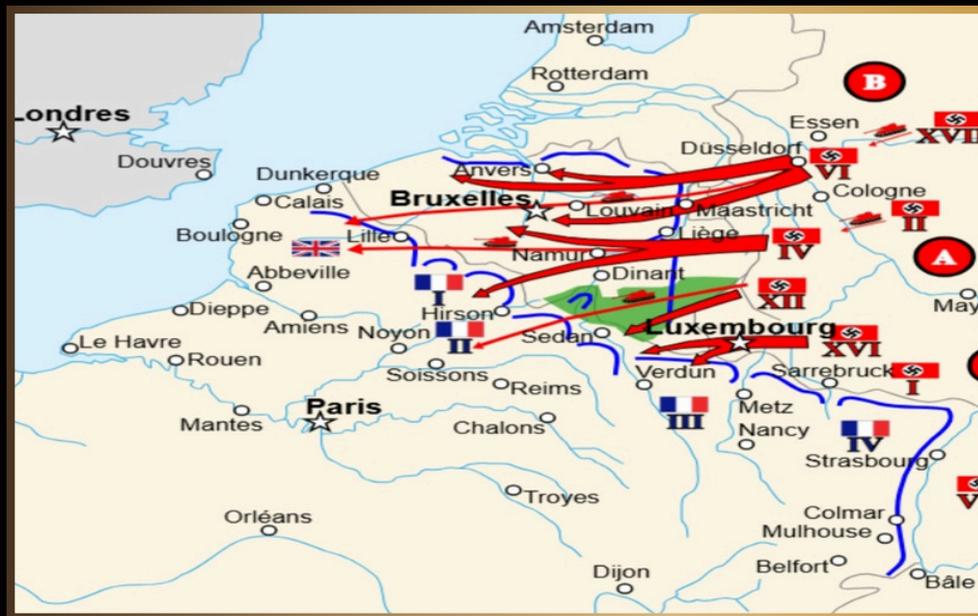


Failure in Practice:

When executed in August 1914, the plan faltered as Helmuth von Moltke modified Schlieffen's original blueprint: the right wing was weakened, more troops were held in Alsace-Lorraine, and 250,000 sent east to counter Russia's unexpectedly rapid mobilization.

The German advance was slowed by stiffer-than-expected Belgian resistance and earlier involvement of the British Expeditionary Force (BEF). Logistical issues and exhaustion led to the halt at the First Battle of the Marne, resulting in entrenched stalemate and four years of attrition.





Strategic Significance and Geopolitical Impact

The violation of Belgian neutrality was a diplomatic gamble; Britain, under treaty obligations, responded by entering the war against Germany. UK policy shifted from peripheral engagement to full military commitment, marking a sharp change in British strategic positioning.

The plan's underlying assumption that Britain could be deterred by a quick Franco-German resolution underestimated British resolve and geopolitical interests on the continent.

Impact on UK Soldiers:

The BEF (British Expeditionary Force) faced immediate deployment, fighting alongside Belgian and French troops in desperate early battles. British forces suffered significant casualties in the attempts to slow down the German advance. The failure of the plan and ensuing trench warfare led to immense strain on UK military manpower, morale, and resources—soldiers endured grueling conditions with high attrition through 1918.



The Modified Approach and Evolution to Blitzkrieg

Modifications:

The WWI stalemate taught German planners that speed, surprise, and mobility were critical. In WWII, these lessons were absorbed into the doctrine of Blitzkrieg ('lightning war'), which favored rapid armored advances supported by air power—avoiding the static warfare of WWI.

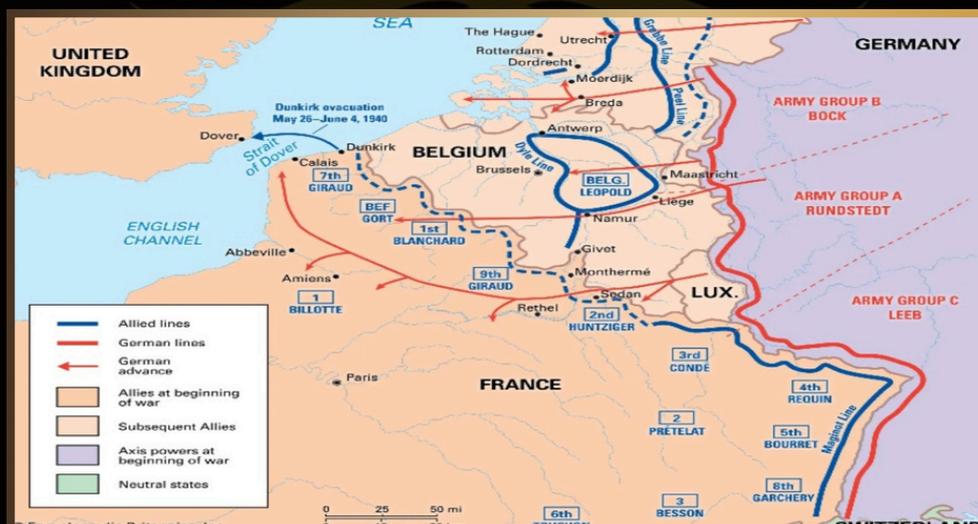
Blitzkrieg, as seen in the 1940 invasion of France, used concentrated Panzer divisions and Luftwaffe bombardment to bypass the Maginot Line and push rapidly through Belgium, echoing the original geographic and operational logic of the Schlieffen Plan, but with far greater tempo and flexibility.

Geopolitical Ramifications in WWII:

In 1940, British policy was shaped by the shocking speed of German advances; the Dunkirk evacuation was a forced response to rapid collapse of French and Belgian defenses—a clear indication of the effectiveness of Blitzkrieg versus older static defensive doctrines.

UK soldiers faced daunting odds, with much of the British Army narrowly escaping encirclement. The subsequent 'Battle of Britain' was a direct consequence of Germany's failure to defeat the UK on land, forcing a shift to air warfare.

Politically, Britain reaffirmed its commitment to continental defense, leaned heavily on its navy and air force, and supported resistance movements in occupied Europe.





Italian offensive into France

The Italian offensive into France, also known as the Battle of the Alps (10–25 June 1940), was Benito Mussolini's attempt to stake a claim in Adolf Hitler's unfolding victory over Western Europe. Italy's entry into the war dramatically widened the conflict's scope — from continental Europe into the Mediterranean and North African theaters. Mussolini, having witnessed Germany's sweeping triumphs in the Low Countries and northern France, sought to ensure Italy's place at the postwar settlement table as a fellow victor.

His motivations were rooted in Italian irredentism (the vision of reclaiming "unredeemed" territories such as Nice, Corsica, and Savoy) and the desire to destroy Anglo-French dominance in the Mediterranean. Italian intelligence misjudged France's military collapse, believing that a brief engagement against a crippled opponent would yield easy territorial and diplomatic gains.

Operational Overview: Terrain, Troops, and Progress

On 10 June 1940, Italy declared war on both France and the United Kingdom. The declaration was retroactive to midnight, and within days the Alpine front became active. However, the offensive was immediately constrained by geography — the rugged, heavily fortified Alpine Line (Ligne Alpine) facing the Italian Vallo Alpino.

Italian forces, consisting of approximately 880,000 troops, were commanded by General Pietro Badoglio. Despite this number, logistical problems, outdated weaponry, and poor weather conditions hindered their mobility across the narrow mountain passes and high-altitude terrain. In contrast, the French defenders of the Armée des Alpes, under



General René Olry, fielded only 38,000 soldiers, but these were battle-hardened and fortified within fixed defensive works.

Actual engagements commenced in earnest on 21 June 1940, when the Italians launched broad offensives along two main axes:

- The northern assault, directed toward the Little St. Bernard and Mont Cenis passes, aiming to cross into the Tarentaise and Maurienne valleys.
- A southern coastal advance, whose objective was capturing the border town of Menton, directly on the Italian frontier.

Despite isolated penetrations into French territory, including the partial capture of Menton, Italian forces met fierce resistance. The French inflicted disproportionately high casualties: by the time the fighting ceased, the Italians had suffered 1,247 killed or missing, 2,631 wounded, and over 2,000 frostbite victims, whereas French losses were minimal — about ten dead and several dozen wounded.

Geopolitical Implications and Impact on the UK

The United Kingdom viewed Italy's entry into the war as a cynical, opportunistic move — a "stab in the back" to an already collapsing France. For London, this reaffirmed Mussolini's alignment with Nazi Germany, shifting British policy from attempts at Mediterranean diplomacy to defensive readiness and direct military confrontation with Italy's expanding imperial aspirations.

British soldiers stationed in the Mediterranean soon felt the strain of Italy's declaration:

- In North Africa, British forces under General Wavell prepared to counter Italian colonial forces in Libya.
- The Royal Navy focused on securing critical maritime choke points — Gibraltar, Malta, and Suez — to prevent Italian dominance in the central Mediterranean.
- Air units began striking Italian infrastructure, marking the beginning of Britain's first sustained campaign against Axis partners beyond Germany.



Detailed Operations: French and British Defense Against Axis Powers

The German invasion of France and the Low Countries, known as the Battle of France, commenced on May 10, 1940, under the German military plan Fall Gelb ("Case Yellow"). The strategy employed a surprise attack through the Ardennes Forest—considered by Allies as impassable for large mechanized units—to bypass the French Maginot Line and the heavily fortified Belgian frontier, where British and French forces were positioned.

German Panzer divisions, supported by the Luftwaffe's dive bombers, rapidly advanced through Luxembourg and southern Belgium, swiftly crossing the Meuse River at Sedan on May 13. This breakthrough severed the Allied frontline, threatening to encircle Allied forces deployed in Belgium and northern France.

French & British Military Actions

As German forces pushed forward, the French Army attempted to reposition and defend vital junctions. They quickly withdrew forces from the Belgian border, trying to establish new defensive lines along the Somme and later the Seine rivers.

Stiff resistance was encountered along the Somme between June 4 and 6, temporarily slowing German armored units led by Rommel and Heinz Guderian. Despite determined French artillery and infantry defense, German superiority in coordination and air support prevailed.

General Charles Huntziger was appointed to organize defenses around Paris and northern France. French units engaged in desperate counterattacks, including a notable but limited Allied effort at the Battle of Arras on May 21. This coordinated attack involved British armored units and French infantry but ultimately failed to disrupt the German momentum.

Mountainous terrain on the southern front (Alps) saw effective defense by the Armée des Alpes, halting Italian forces advancing across the frontier starting June 10, 1940.

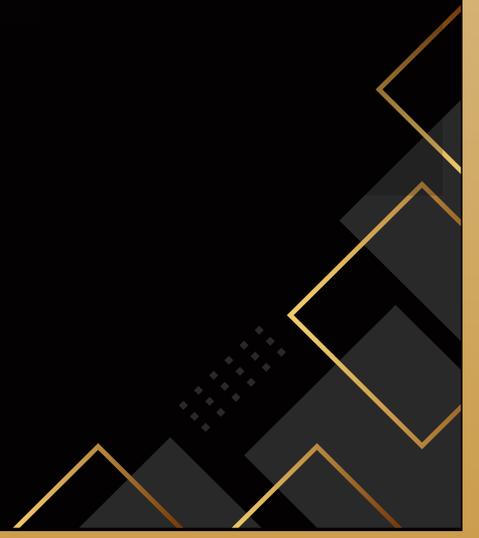
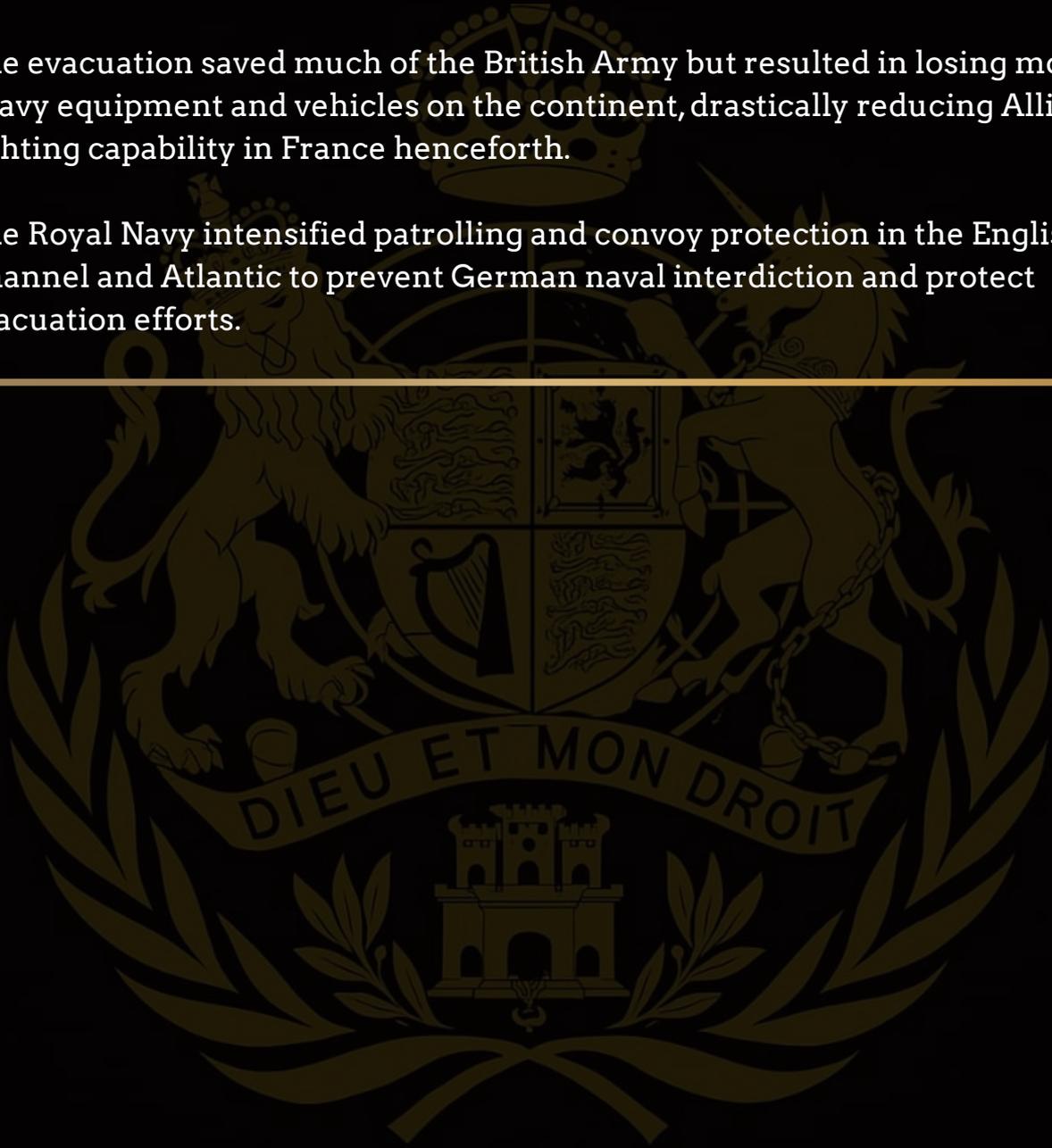
The British Expeditionary Force (BEF), consisting of approximately 394,000 troops by May, fought alongside the French in northern France and Belgium. British forces engaged German Panzer units at several points, including defensive battles at Arras, Ypres, and the Lys River.



Faced with rapid German encirclement of northern French and Belgian forces, the BEF and substantial French units were trapped in a shrinking pocket by the English Channel. This encirclement led to the famous Dunkirk evacuation (Operation Dynamo) conducted between May 26 and June 4, 1940, rescuing around 338,000 soldiers to Britain.

The evacuation saved much of the British Army but resulted in losing most heavy equipment and vehicles on the continent, drastically reducing Allied fighting capability in France henceforth.

The Royal Navy intensified patrolling and convoy protection in the English Channel and Atlantic to prevent German naval interdiction and protect evacuation efforts.





Collapse and Fall of Paris

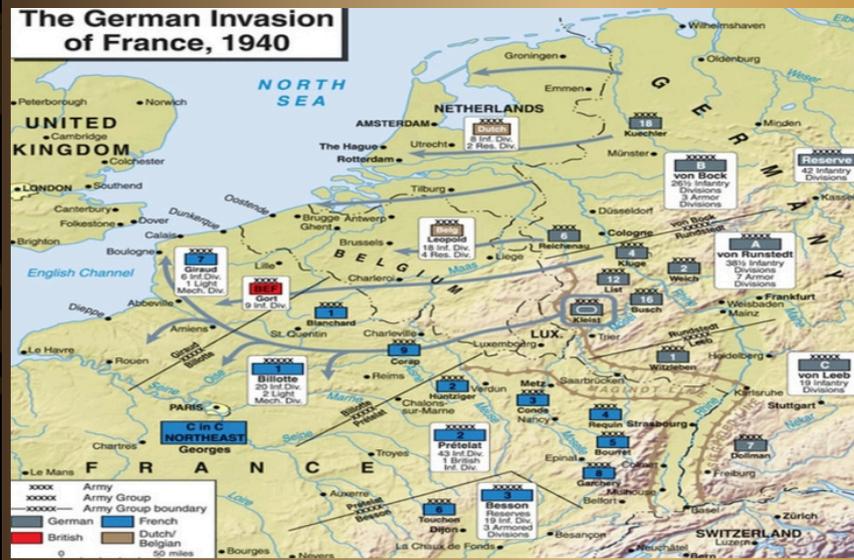
Following Dunkirk, German forces resumed their offensive (Fall Rot), exploiting the disarray of French defenses. On June 5, the Wehrmacht launched a massive assault south of the Somme, breaking through Allied lines. German troops crossed the Seine River by June 9 with little effective resistance as French forces were in retreat or demoralized.

German armored units quickly advanced towards key transport hubs, cutting communications and supply lines, while Luftwaffe air strikes devastated French logistics and morale.

Paris was declared an open city to avoid destruction and was occupied by advancing German troops on June 14, 1940 without a fight.

Contextual Italian Offensive

Concurrent with the German push, Italy declared war on France and Britain on June 10, launching a limited offensive through the Alps. French Alpine troops countered effectively, holding most of their defensive positions.





GERMAN OFFENSIVE IN FRANCE

Geographical Advantages of France

The Geography of Northern and Eastern France played a significant role in shaping Germany's defeat in the First World War. The most important terrain was the Ardennes Forest, a vast and rugged, densely packed region spanning through Southeastern Belgium, Luxembourg and Northeastern France. Due to uneven elevations of land and very limited road paths, it made it extremely difficult for a large-scale military invasion to be statistically viable. Furthermore, the Meuse and Somme rivers served as defensive barriers across Northern France.

Thus, the French command dismissed the Ardennes as defensively secure, considering it as tank-inhibitive terrain. Only cavalry screening units with minimum infantry troops were employed in that region.

Maginot Line

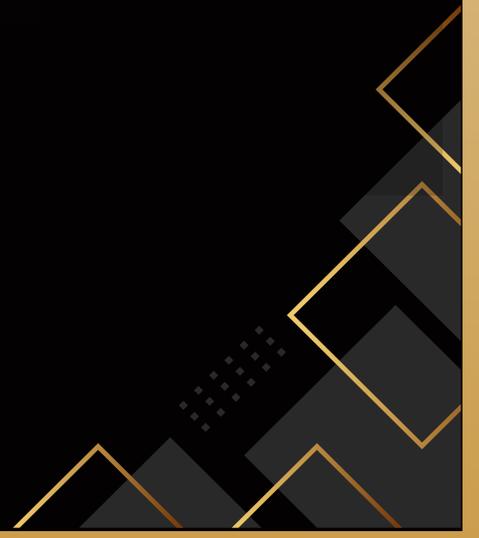
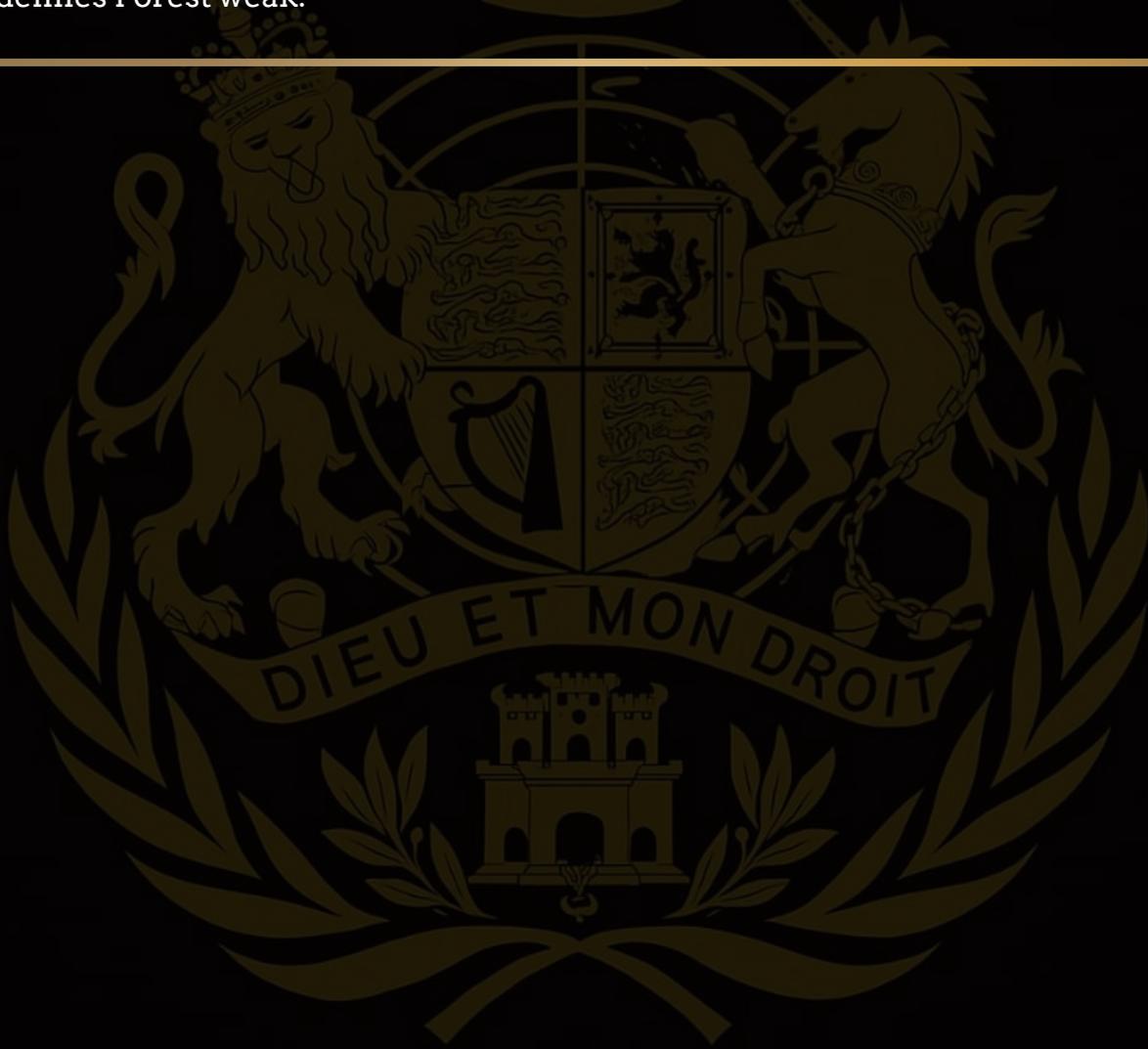
The French were expecting an attack similar to the one of the First World War. The line extended from the Swiss border on the south to the northern reaches of the Ardennes, a distance of 150 miles, and thus took in the whole of the Franco-German frontier, but not the Franco-Belgian border. The southern point of the anchor began in the neighborhood of Basel in Alsace, taking a northern course through Mulhouse, Colmar and Strasbourg along the Upper Rhine, and thence through Lorraine; it passed the heavily fortified districts in and around Haguenau, Bitche and Rohrbach, and into the strongest and most fighting zone from Metz to Thionville. After Thionville the line stretched west and north-west through Longwy toward the south of Luxembourg, where it ended just short of the forest of Ardennes. From there the line ended, leaving the frontiers of Belgium, the Meuse valley, and the Ardennes in a state of practically complete unfortification.

Fortifications were the most in the Maginot line, as the terrain was plain, didn't have any obstacles and was estimated to be prone to attack.



Dyle-Breda Strategy

The French High command initially anchored its defensive plan based on the Dyle Plan, formed by General Maurice Gamelin, which assumed that Germany would launch its main attack via Central Belgium, repeating the pattern of the First World War. They planned to block the assumed attack on Belgium and thereby keep the main attack away from French industrial regions. Therefore the fastest and strongest divisions of the French First and Seventh armies and the British Expeditionary Force were deployed in the North, leaving the region of Ardennes Forest weak.





Fall Gelb

Initially, the German offensive planned to follow the Schlieffen plan, invading France through Belgium. However, the plan didn't get approval from Hitler, and was scrapped.

General Erich Von Manstein, thus proposed an alternative which followed the concept of "Sichelschnitt", a sweeping curved advance. His plan consisted of:-

- A strategic invasion through the Ardennes Forest, an area considered to be impassable.
- The German army being divided into three groups-

1) Army Group A-

Commanded by Generaloberst Gerd Von Rundstedt and led by General Manstein himself, this group was to force its way through the Ardennes Forest with the fundamentals of the Blitzkrieg, to cross the Meuse River and to drive westward to the English Channel, cutting off and encircling the BEF and main French armies that had already advanced into Belgium.

2) Army Group B-

Commanded by Generaloberst Fedor Von Bock, this group was to launch the initial and highly visible northern assault through the Netherlands and Belgium, drawing the bulk of the Allied forces away from the Ardennes, thus creating a strategic deception.

3) Army Group C-

Commanded by Generaloberst Wilhelm Von Leeb, Army group C was positioned along the South-western Front of Germany, directly facing the French Maginot Line. Its main objective was to contain the French forces in the Maginot Line and prevent any large-scale French offensive such that the troops could not be moved to counter the main German attack through the Ardennes.



Phase 1- Invasion of Lower Countries

On 10th May, 1940, the German incursion into Belgium was a meticulously crafted infiltration designed to break the defense of the Allies. From the beginning hours of Case Yellow, the German high command launched a Northern offensive in Belgium, resulting in the Allies moving the BEF and French First and Seventh Army troops into Belgium. Before dawn, the German Fallschirmjäger units descended upon key strategic locations, the Albert Canal, the hubs of communication and most importantly, Fort Eben-Emael. Aerial paratroopers were launched along with Glider - borne troops, followed by heavy bombardment in all key locations.

During the severe unrest caused due to the invasion, it was between Hannut and Gembloux that General René Prioux's French Cavalry Corps clashed with the XVI Panzer Corps, leading to one of the largest tank battles in history- the Battle of Hannut.

Though the Battle as such resulted in no decisive result, the overall advantage of this Battle was in Germany's favour. As the entire invasion was a ploy to delay the Allied advance as the German Army Group- A infiltrated the Ardennes.

Similar simultaneous airborne operations were carried out in the Netherlands and Luxembourg, resulting in their collapse within 18 days.

Phase 2- The Ardennes Breakthrough

During the capture of lower countries by Army Group B, Army Group A led by Heinz Guderian himself rapidly infiltrated the Ardennes Forest, even though it was considered to be impossible. The German 6th and 19th Panzer Divisions entered the forest with an incomprehensible speed, following the concept of Blitzkrieg or the "lightning war". The French forces, being extremely confident that there would be no infiltration from the Ardennes Forest because of its geographical obstacles, had deployed minimal troops with little to no forms of artillery.



Additionally, the German Army didn't engage in any protracted battles with French troops. The psychological impact of the Blitzkrieg caused the French troops to collapse in spirit and surrender without any proper resistance. After penetrating the Ardennes, the German troops attacked the French defences in Sedan on 13-15th May. Followed by, was a rapid advance towards the English Channel. Finally, on 20th May, Guderian's forces reached the English Channel.

Phase 3- Dunkirk Evacuation

By late May 1940, the German Army Group-B had carved their way through Belgium and Northern France. The Belgian Army was surrounded by German troops on all sides, thus getting trapped. This resulted in over 338,000 troops shrinking into a pocket around Dunkirk, a coastal town. There were no realistic prospects of launching a counter attack on the forces as they were ostensibly outnumbered and overpowered. Realizing that France could no longer be saved, the British forces had planned an emergency evacuation named 'Operation Dynamo'. However, due to the rapid descent of German tanks towards Dunkirk, it was extremely difficult to carry out an operation of that size.

Unexpectedly, on 24th May, 1940, German Tank Commanders received a shocking halt order from the higher authority. This halt order gave the British Forces ample time to carry out the evacuation. A total of 338,226 soldiers were evacuated, including about 198,000 British troops and 140,000 other Allied forces.

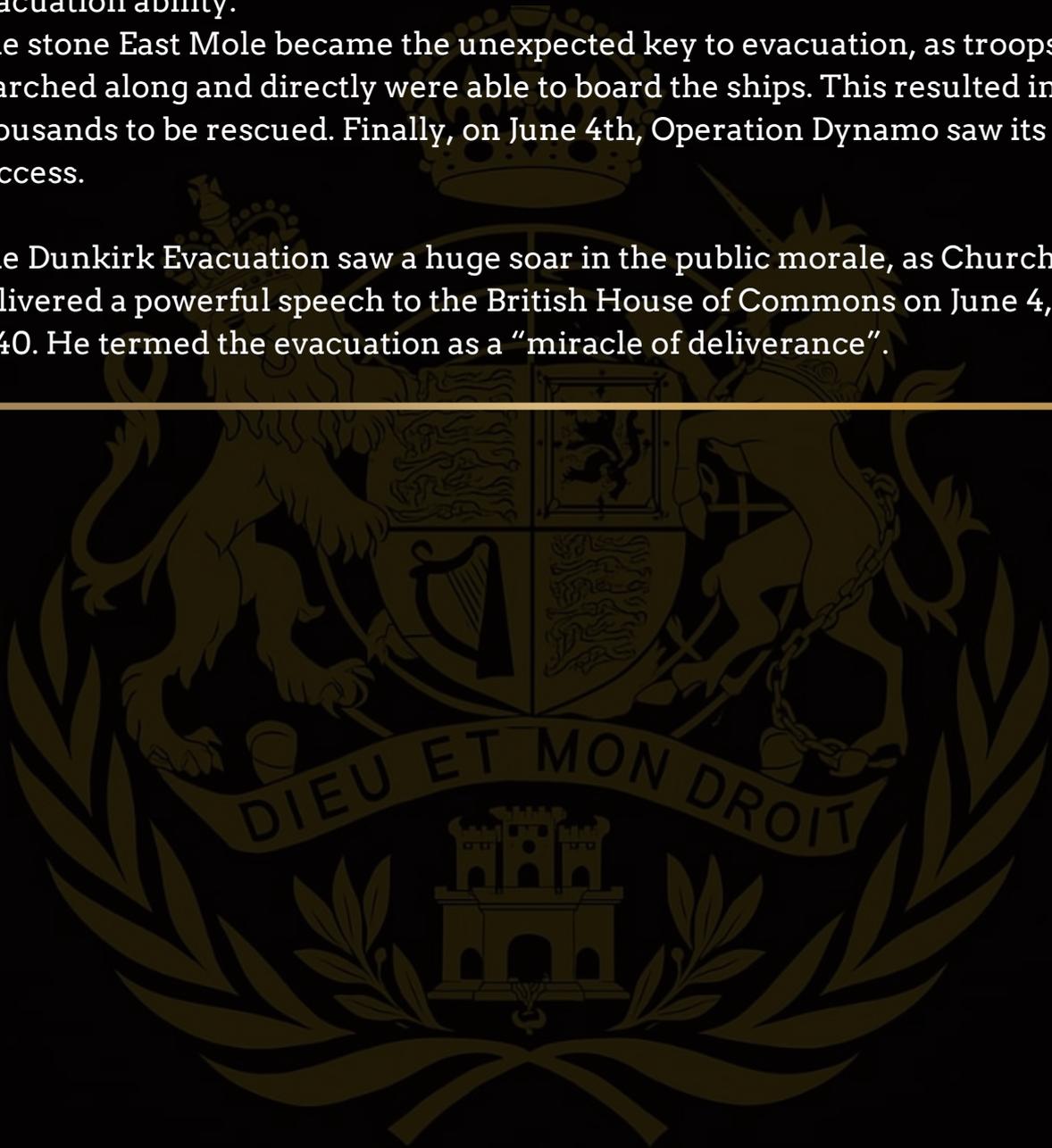
The shorelines near Dunkirk were flat, shallow, and not suitable for large warships, preventing big destroyers and troop transports from reaching the coast. Consequently, soldiers had to wade into the ocean, occasionally up to their chests, while under fire, to access smaller vessels that transport them to larger ships anchored farther out. Boarding was sluggish and disorderly, but somehow, it worked.



To address the issue of shallow waters, the Admiralty sent out an urgent request to civilian ships. An extensive array of fishing vessels, lifeboats, personal yachts, river skiffs, ferries, and barges, later idealized as the "Little Ships of Dunkirk", started to traverse the Channel. These boats, operated by a mix of navy staff and civilian volunteers, moved constantly between the shores and the larger vessels, significantly enhancing evacuation ability.

The stone East Mole became the unexpected key to evacuation, as troops marched along and directly were able to board the ships. This resulted in thousands to be rescued. Finally, on June 4th, Operation Dynamo saw its success.

The Dunkirk Evacuation saw a huge soar in the public morale, as Churchill delivered a powerful speech to the British House of Commons on June 4, 1940. He termed the evacuation as a "miracle of deliverance".





FALL OF PARIS

Collapse of French Cohesion

After the Dunkirk evacuation (May 26–June 4), which rescued a large portion of the BEF, the remaining French units attempted to regroup along the Somme and Aisne river lines.

Strategic towns such as Amiens, Beauvais, and Compiègne became critical defensive nodes. French high command attempted reorganization, but many divisions were exhausted, poorly supplied, and demoralized. Desertions increased, and small units retreated in isolated pockets.

Civilians continued fleeing Paris and northern France in mass numbers. Estimates suggest over one million evacuees by early June, creating severe congestion on highways and railways, and straining fuel, food, and medical supplies. Transport paralysis compounded military disorganization.

Counteroffensive Measures

French command attempted limited counterattacks to regain initiative, including operations around the Aisne and Somme. Some minor successes temporarily slowed German advance but did not restore cohesive defensive lines.

Mechanized German divisions exploited gaps in French lines, conducting deep penetration raids toward Paris while avoiding heavily defended sectors.

Motorized columns maintained a high operational tempo, preventing French forces from regrouping.

Communication breakdowns between army groups worsened as radio and telephone networks were disrupted by Luftwaffe bombing and retreating unit abandonment. This left frontline commanders making isolated, reactive decisions rather than coordinated strategy.



Government Evacuation and Relocation

Recognizing Paris could not withstand the advancing German Wehrmacht, the French government, led by Prime Minister Paul Reynaud and President Albert Lebrun, convened in the Élysée Palace on June 10, 1940, to formulate an evacuation plan. After assessing the collapse of French defensive lines at Sedan, the encirclement of northern armies, and the aftermath of Operation Dynamo (Dunkirk, May 26–June 4), they concluded that the capital's fall was imminent.

Cabinet members including Georges Bonnet (Foreign Affairs), Raoul Dautry (Transport), and Édouard Daladier (war advisor) coordinated the relocation of ministries and critical personnel to maintain continuity of governance. The government first relocated to Tours in the Loire Valley, utilizing the Gare de Tours for the rapid transfer of officials, archives, and communications equipment. Ministries of War, Interior, and Finance, alongside the Prefecture of Police under René Bousquet, moved key administrative files, telegraph systems, and communication relays. Tours' geographical position along the Loire River offered relative safety and access to rail networks linking southwestern France, while regional prefectures in Orléans, Bourges, and Tours prepared to host temporary offices to support national administration.

Following continued German advances through Reims, Soissons, and the Champagne region, the government shifted further southwest to Bordeaux in Gironde. Bordeaux, with its Atlantic port, established railway connections, and existing military facilities, provided a defensible operational hub. Ministries, including the Ministry of War under General Maxime Weygand, and civil administration offices coordinated with southern armies and provincial prefectures. This relocation aimed to preserve command structure, maintain administrative operations, and ensure communication with remaining field forces while avoiding capture.

On June 13, 1940, the temporary government in Bordeaux, in coordination with French High Command and the Prefecture of Police, formally declared Paris an open city. The decree prohibited defensive military operations within urban limits, including areas around the Place de la Concorde, Palais Bourbon, Gare du Nord, Gare de Lyon, and Pont Neuf. It was broadcast via Radiodiffusion Nationale to ensure compliance by remaining units in Paris and nearby suburbs such as Montmartre, Saint-Denis, and Vincennes.



The measure aimed to preserve civilian lives and prevent destruction of critical infrastructure, including landmarks like Notre-Dame Cathedral, the Louvre, Arc de Triomphe, Hôtel de Ville, and bridges across the Seine such as Pont de l'Alma, Pont Saint-Michel, and Pont Neuf. Utilities administered by Électricité de France, the Compagnie des Eaux de Paris, and transportation hubs such as Gare Saint-Lazare were specifically noted for protection to maintain post-occupation viability.

Remaining French military detachments, including units of the 7th and 10th Infantry Divisions and Parisian National Guard elements, were ordered to withdraw or avoid engagement. The intent was to minimize urban combat, reduce civilian casualties, and preserve the city's architectural and administrative infrastructure. Peripheral areas, such as the Bois de Boulogne and outskirts of La Villette, saw limited skirmishes, but no organized defense occurred within the city core.

Between June 11–13, French units, including elements of the 2nd, 3rd, and 10th Infantry Divisions and Parisian Territorial Brigades, conducted controlled withdrawals from northern and eastern approaches, such as Saint-Denis, La Villette, and Nogent-sur-Marne. Commanders like General Charles Huntziger coordinated withdrawals to secondary positions near Créteil, Meaux, and Corbeil-Essonnes, leaving the city's central districts undefended. Civilians in Paris and surrounding departments, including Seine-et-Oise, Seine-et-Marne, and Val-de-Marne, intensified evacuations south and west toward Tours, Orléans, and Bordeaux. Over one million Parisians reportedly fled, clogging the Avenue de la Grande Armée, Boulevard Périphérique, and national highways N20 and N10. Railway stations such as Gare de Lyon, Gare Montparnasse, and Gare d'Austerlitz became overwhelmed with evacuees, creating food, fuel, and medical shortages.



PRESENT SCENARIO

- German troops from Army Group B, comprising Panzer, motorized infantry, and mechanized support units, march into Paris without any resistance at dawn.
- Key routes, bridges, and train stations fall under direct German oversight, enabling swift consolidation of crucial positions. Patrols protect important government structures, administrative sites, and communication centers.

As of June 14, 1940, the French government is in full flight from Paris, moving to Tours and then Bordeaux, seeking to maintain some form of governance while facing the reality of German occupation and preparing for armistice talks.

The Maginot line still holds in the east, only because the Germans bypass it and not because it is relevant. Troops inside the forts are immobilized and tactically irrelevant.

Britain now stands as the only major power in Western Europe and the Allied Powers. Winston Churchill himself has been Prime Minister only for five weeks. The government in London remains fully functional, yet faces extreme pressure.

- Emergency Reorganization of over 330,000 soldiers is salient after the Dunkirk Evacuation. Rapid defensive units are formed, the Home Guard is expanded, and troops are deployed to guard potential landing zones in Kent, Sussex, and East Anglia.
- The only remaining strong British Force is the Royal Navy, as coastal defences are laid.
- The nation stands on the edge of its greatest trial as Britain is left with two choices- either to continue the war alone, or to move towards negotiations before the German offensive becomes inadvertently irreversible.



IMPORTANT BATTLES

Battle of Sedan (May 12–15, 1940)

The Battle of Sedan was a decisive German offensive where Heer units under General Heinz Guderian crossed the Meuse River in northern France. German Panzer divisions, including the 1st and 2nd Panzer Corps, breached French defensive lines manned by the 9th and 55th Infantry Divisions. The operation exploited terrain near Sedan, Carignan, and Bazeilles, bypassing the Maginot Line and opening a corridor for rapid armored advances.

Battle of Meuse (May 13–14, 1940)

Concurrently, German forces launched coordinated assaults along the Meuse River, employing combined arms tactics of tanks, infantry, and Luftwaffe support. Bombing raids targeted bridges at Sedan and Dinant, while infantry captured river crossings, preventing French engineers from demolishing key infrastructure. The victory allowed German mechanized units to advance into northern France unopposed.

Battle of Arras (May 21, 1940)

Allied forces, including British 1st Army units and French tanks, counterattacked German Panzer divisions near Arras. Though initially causing confusion in Panzergruppe Kleist, the counteroffensive lacked coordination and reinforcements. German forces quickly regrouped, maintaining momentum toward the Channel coast and threatening to encircle Allied units.

Battle of Dunkirk / Operation Dynamo (May 26–June 4, 1940)

Following the rapid German advance, BEF troops and French forces were trapped in northern France. Operation Dynamo, coordinated by Vice Admiral Bertram Ramsay, evacuated over 338,000 troops via ports at Dunkirk, Calais, and Boulogne, using naval and civilian vessels. This preserved core Allied fighting strength for later defense of France and the UK.



Battle of the Somme (Second Phase, June 5–10, 1940)

The German Fall Rot offensive resumed with attacks along the Somme River, targeting French defensive sectors in Picardy and Hauts-de-France. German 7th and 10th Army Corps advanced rapidly, encountering sporadic resistance from French 2nd and 3rd Infantry Divisions, overwhelming French rear-guard positions.

Battle of the Seine (June 9–12, 1940)

German forces crossed the Seine River at multiple points, including Rouen and Mantes-la-Jolie, facing limited French opposition. The crossings allowed armored units to advance directly toward northern Paris, cutting communications and supply lines for retreating French formations.

Skirmishes in the Paris Suburbs (June 11–13, 1940)

Small French detachments, including Territorial Brigades and National Guard units, engaged German forces near Saint-Denis, La Villette, and Boulogne-sur-Seine. These peripheral skirmishes delayed German entry slightly but could not prevent the imminent occupation of the city core.

Defense of Loire Valley Fortifications (June 10–14, 1940)

Retreating French units, including elements of the 2nd and 3rd Infantry Divisions, established temporary positions near Tours, Orléans, and Blois, attempting to slow German advance and protect evacuation corridors for government and civilians.

German Advance through Reims and Soissons (June 10–12, 1940)

Wehrmacht units secured strategic routes through Reims, Soissons, and the Champagne region, cutting French communications and preventing the regrouping of defensive forces. German 4th and 12th Panzer Divisions coordinated with Luftwaffe reconnaissance to dominate the region.

Occupation of Northern and Eastern Paris Districts (June 13–14, 1940)

By June 13, German forces reached Saint-Lazare, Gare du Nord, and eastern districts near Vincennes, consolidating positions. French troops withdrew under government orders, and Paris was declared an open city, preventing urban combat but enabling German occupation on June 14.



PAPERWORK GUIDE

Position Paper

A position paper is the foundational document submitted by a delegate prior to committee sessions. It serves as the official representation of the delegate's research, policy, and strategic thinking, setting the tone for their performance in committee. The position paper is typically divided into three critical sections:

- **Statement of the Problem:** Here, delegates provide a concise, objective overview of the agenda and issue at hand. This section should include a brief history, root causes, and the current dimensions of the crisis or topic, demonstrating the delegate's understanding and ability to synthesize key facts. Depth is important, but conciseness and focus on major points are valued.
- **Country Policy:** This section transitions to the delegate's specific perspective, outlining how their assigned country perceives the agenda and its involvement. Delegates must present their stance rooted in foreign policy, historic actions, and the country's role in international treaties, conventions, and organizations—especially any past engagement with relevant UN bodies. Detailing previous initiatives or responses shows a thorough grasp of both national and global context.
- **Solutions:** Perhaps the most critical section, the solutions highlight the delegate's ability to propose creative, realistic, and policy-compliant actions for resolving the crisis. These recommendations should be unique, actionable, and reflect both immediate intervention and future prevention. Delegates should leverage their country's strategic advantages while ensuring international acceptability. The quality of solutions often distinguishes the most prepared delegates, since the executive board evaluates originality, feasibility, and alignment with foreign policy.

Position papers are the delegate's first introduction to the executive board and often influence initial impressions and assessments, so clarity, research depth, and a logical structure are essential.



Communiqué

A communiqué is the committee's direct channel to external actors and authorities. Distinguished from internal debate, it is written correspondence created by a delegate on behalf of their country to contact entities outside the committee—such as governments, organizations, or even influential individuals—to request action or relay essential information.

- Communiqués can be overt (diplomatic and official) or covert (secret appeals or instructions, sometimes bending typical international protocol). Delegates may use communiqués to initiate negotiations, solicit resources, appeal for support, or prompt interventions. In crisis committees, where situations are fluid and unpredictable, communiqués let delegates respond dynamically to updates and influence external developments.
- Their strength lies in detailed realism—delegates are expected to mirror authentic diplomatic communication, reflecting credible motivations, national interest, and plausible outcomes. The more specific and viable the communiqué, the more likely it is to be ratified by the executive board for use in committee. Delegates are encouraged to create series or sets of communiqués, strategically advancing their objectives or responding to evolving events. This paperwork demonstrates both creativity and practical knowledge of international relations.

Directive

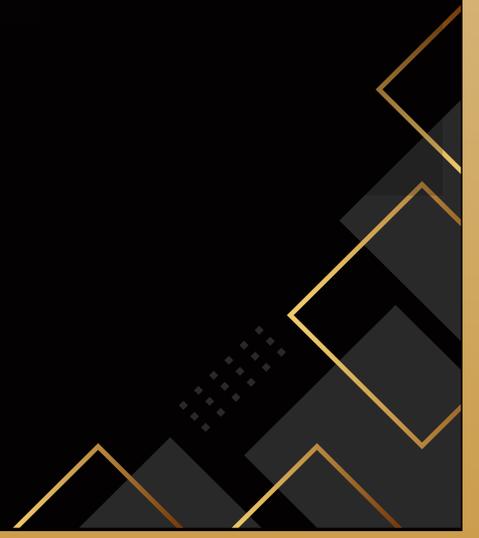
A directive is the paperwork uniquely suited to crisis or historically dynamic committees where fast, coordinated action is required. Unlike detailed position papers or externally-focused communiqués, directives serve as public instructions or committee responses to real-time developments, ensuring the committee takes immediate, collective action.

Usually drafted in concise, direct language, directives describe the precise actions to be taken: mobilizing resources, shifting troops, issuing press releases, requesting information, or any steps seen as crucial in the moment. They need to balance specificity (actual steps and allocation of committee resources) with the flexibility to respond to rapidly changing scenarios.

Directives can be authored by individuals or groups, and often become more effective when merged to reflect consensus. They differ from formal resolutions in their brevity and rapid deployment—committees may pass clauses without extensive formatting, quickly adapting to new crises as they unfold.



Such paperwork requires a keen understanding not just of committee procedures, but also strategic priorities and the evolving interests or needs of the group. Quick, clear thinking is essential. Delegates who excel in directive-writing demonstrate strong skills in leadership, collaboration, and policy implementation.





EXPECTATIONS OF THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

1. Delegates must deeply analyze the political and wartime policies of their allotted cabinet member, understanding their official responsibilities and limits within their ministry.
2. They should grasp their minister's personal aptitude, leadership style, and how these traits influence decision-making and relations within the cabinet.
3. A thorough understanding of the historical relationship and dynamics between their cabinet members and Winston Churchill is essential for accurately simulating cooperation or conflict.
4. Delegates need to recognize the ideological and political orientations shaping their minister's priorities and permissible actions during wartime.
5. Finally, they must integrate real-time geopolitical developments into their role-play, showing awareness of the evolving war context and how it constrains or empowers their minister's decisions.



CONTACTS

Please feel free to contact any executive board member via WhatsApp at your convenience. We will do our best to address any doubts or questions you may have regarding the committee procedure, content, regulations, timings, and other related matters.

Personal contact details –

Adrish Hossain: Co-Chairperson

Whatsapp - +91 90888 66276

Shadan Husham: Co-Chairperson

Whatsapp - +91 79809 76183

Sananya Chakraborty: Vice Chairperson

Whatsapp - +72052 64976

Rahil Hussain: Director

Whatsapp - +91 99037 83807

The Committee email ID, to which all paperwork shall be sent, is -
cwc.smun@gmail.com

Any and all paperwork must be sent to the committee email ID, NOT to any Executive Board Member(s).