

PASMUN 2026



Introduction to the Chairs

Chair

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Hi, my name is Samuel Bemergui. I've been doing MUN since 6th grade (almost five years) since I love politics and history. I was one of the Secretary-Generals for last year's PASMUN and this is my third time chairing at my school's conference. This committee means a lot to me because not because it's something personal, but because I want to share this unique experience with others. I'll say that I'm more knowledgeable on the specifics of the scenario than my Co-Chair, so feel free to e-mail me anytime regarding any questions at any time.

Co-Chair

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Ineke Buhrs

Hi, my name is Ineke Buhrs Aguilar. This is my first time serving as a Co-Chair at PASMUN; last year I helped out with logistics, and this year I decided to step up and take on a new challenge on the dais. For me, being here is an incredible opportunity to support each of you throughout the debates, ensure the experience is as rewarding as possible, and learn together along the way. If you have any questions about the committee dynamics or need any assistance during the conference, feel free to reach out to me via email anytime!

Important Notes

1. This study guide has a lot of information, and because of that, it is **heavily** recommended to specifically look for your country's relevant information rather than reading all information at once. You press 'CTRL + F' (or 'CMD + F' on Mac) to search for keywords like your country's name.

- a. You could also read everything in order to have a better understanding of everything occurring across the world and other countries' situations.
Alternatively, you could try to make sense of all the online information regarding this specific scenario.
2. Due to not having as much access to information as in a regular committee, your position papers do not have to be as long nor have references.
3. For your position papers, what matters most is for you to understand how your country got to where it is and where it stands.
4. To observe the world map as of 1962 in full detail, open the following Google Drive link:
 **World Map - 1962**
 - a. Regions with a neon red outline in the images are either demilitarized (like in France) or contested (like in western China and Colombia)
 - b. Lines that are red and dashed represent strait crossings between islands.
 - c. The large region in gray in the 'Russian Anarchy' image is a region with no government.
5. This committee discusses Nazism, Fascism, and a lot of controversial topics. The main theme is the Cold War in this alternate timeline, but those topics can still come up in debate.
6. If you have questions about anything, including about the scenario or gaps in the study guide you want clarified, you can e-mail the **Chair**, as they're more knowledgeable with the theme and specifics.

The Cold War Between the German Reich, United States, and Japan in 1962

Introduction to the Alternate Timeline

The events described in this guide are fictional and based on a scenario called *The New Order: The Last Days of Europe*, which is a modification for a strategy game. It imagines an Axis victory in the Second World War and, rather than the bipolar confrontation that characterized the Cold War in our history, the world in 1962 is dominated by three rival superpowers: the Greater Germanic Reich, the Empire of Japan, and the United States. Germany maintains a hegemonic position in Europe through the *Einheitspakt* (Unity-Pact) and its extensive empire. Japan dominates East Asia and much of the western Pacific through the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. The United States remains an independent global power and leads the Organization of Free Nations. Their rivalry is based on competing political systems, economic interests, military alliances, and visions for the international order.

The point of divergence is the Second World War. In this timeline, Germany does not lose. The Soviet Union, with Stalin never having come to power, collapses rather than pulverizing the German army as it historically did. Britain performs poorly against Germany and Japan, eventually succumbing to a German invasion of the Home Isles. Japan fights the United States in the Pacific and achieves crushing victories over the underprepared Americans. There is no D-Day, no Hiroshima, and no UN.

By January 1962, the world runs on three superpowers instead of two. The Greater Germanic Reich (in German: Großgermanisches Reich) dominates continental Europe outright and preaches ethnic purity in the name of Nazism. The Empire of Japan (in Japanese: Dai Nippon Teikoku) dominates East Asia and the western Pacific through an economic and military bloc called the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. The United States never occupied either enemy capital, never got its clean victory, and instead built a looser coalition called the Organization of Free Nations out of what allies it had left, mostly in the Americas and the South Pacific. A fourth grouping matters almost as much: the Triumvirate, an alliance of Italy, the Iberian Union (Spain and Portugal, fused into one state) and Turkey, built specifically to keep Germany from ever turning south. Italy is not a superpower in its own right, but rather it is the strongest member of a bloc that exists because none of its three members trust Germany, or fully trust each other.

This committee is not Germany, Japan and the US carving up the map. There are large stretches of the world that answer to nobody, such as the former Soviet Union. Large parts of the

world remain outside the direct control of the three superpowers. The former Soviet territories are divided among numerous Russian successor governments, military regimes, political movements, and local authorities. South Asia is divided among competing Indian and Pakistani political projects, while China is divided between the Japanese-aligned Republic of China, the separate State of Guangdong, and the Empire of Manchuria. These states do not all share the same interests as the powers that support them.

The most important fact to remember for this committee is that all three superpowers have the capability to wipe out all life on Earth: thermonuclear war. Carried via bombers, missiles, and submarines hidden all over the globe, the decision to end the careful game of diplomacy rests on the touch of a button. Other countries wish to ascend to the ranks of a nuclear power as well with their own nuclear programs, but most remain years or decades away from realizing that dream. Alas, forming a coalition or resolution that doesn't cater to one of these superpowers is something that must be avoided at all costs, else the world will be sent back into the Stone Age.

Key Terms

- **Thermonuclear Weapons:** a nuclear bomb that uses nuclear fusion to generate a blast. These versions are more powerful than fission bombs like the ones used on Hiroshima in our history.
- **Nuclear Triad:** the capability of a nation to deliver their nuclear weapons through missiles, bombers, and submarines.
- **Balance of Power:** the idea of having power between several groups or factions be shared and competed over to prevent one group from holding too much and establishing hegemony.
- **Spheres of Influence:** the regions a state holds significant geopolitical power over.
- **Atlantropa:** a failed German-sponsored superproject to build dams across the Mediterranean Sea and lower the sea level to create farmland and hydroelectric power. Resulted in disastrous effects and was hugely expensive.
- **A-A Line:** Archangelsk-Astrakhan Line, the German military objective for their invasion of the Soviet Union. Everything past this line was considered worthless and left to anarchy rather than occupation.
- **Organization of Free Nations (OFN):** formed by the US, this faction aims to spread democracy and fight dictatorships around the world. This is similar to NATO in our world.
- **Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere (GEACPS):** a Japanese alliance of its conquered puppet governments preaching 'Asian solidarity' and cooperation against Western imperialism. It is commonly referred to as 'the Sphere'.
- **Einheitspakt:** a German military alliance created to solidify control over Europe and worldwide military projection. In English, it translates to 'Unity-Pact'.

- **Triumvirate:** a triple alliance between Italy, Turkey, and the Iberian Union to counterbalance Germany in the North.
- **West Russian War:** a conflict between Germany and the West Russian Revolutionary Front (WRRF) from 1956 to 1958, which almost resulted in the collapse of the Reich. Germany was able to counterattack and force the collapse of the WRRF.
- **National Socialism:** a far-right political and socioeconomic ideology advocating for extreme militarization, sexism, irredentism, totalitarianism, and racism including the extermination of select racial groups pseudo-scientifically designated *untermensch* ('sub-human'). It is the state ideology of Germany and its occupied territories. It is also different from Fascism as practiced in Italy.
- **Reichskommissariat:** literally translating to 'Reich Commissariat', it is a German colonial administration of a region to be transformed according to National Socialist doctrine.
- **SS-Ordensstaat Burgund ('Burgundy'):** a totalitarian state carved out between Germany, Belgium, and France to fulfill the fanatical and idiosyncratic vision of National Socialism proposed by Heinrich Himmler. It was created to pacify him and prevent him from overthrowing Adolf Hitler during the West Russian War. Burgundy is like North Korea in our world, with zero outside communications or travel outside and an extremely repressive government inside. The name translates to 'SS-Order State Burgundy'.
- **Akagi Accords:** peace treaty between Japan and the US, ending the Second World War. Signed on the Japanese aircraft carrier of the same name, it imposed humiliating terms on the United States. It was signed following the atomic bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1945.
- **Treaty of London:** peace treaty between Germany and the UK, ending the war in Europe. It established the puppet government under King Edward VIII loyal to Germany.
- **Aleutians Crisis:** in late 1961, a Japanese reconnaissance plane was shot down over the Aleutian Islands, a zone the Akagi Accords had designated demilitarized, while the pilot was captured by the US. This prompted a military standoff which almost turned into a nuclear war was it not for mediation from Mexican president Adolfo López Mateos.
- **Wehrmacht:** the armed forces of Nazi Germany, including the Heer (army), Kriegsmarine (navy), and Luftwaffe (air force).
- **IJA/N:** the Imperial Japanese Army/Navy, two competing factions of the Japanese political system and also the armed forces of Japan.
- **Intelligence:** a term referring to espionage and spying, as well as covert operations that affect the politics or government of a region.

History of the Alternate Timeline

What Happened to Russia

Following Lenin's death, Nikolai Bukharin defeats Joseph Stalin in the struggle for power and becomes leader of the Soviet Union. Stalin does not disappear from politics, however. He remains an important figure within the Communist Party and continues to oppose Bukharin's government. Bukharin's continuation of the New Economic Policy leaves the Soviet Union less industrialized and less militarily prepared than it was in our timeline. When Germany invaded in 1941, the Soviet state was consequently placed under enormous pressure. The eventual German capture of Moscow and the Caucasus is followed by a political crisis in which Bukharin disappears. Martemyan Ryutin temporarily assumes leadership of the government, while Stalin attempts to seize power. Stalin's attempted coup was opposed by Ryutin and NKVD (secret police) chief Genrikh Yagoda. The resulting struggle developed into the Second Russian Civil War. The Soviet Union ultimately collapses, with Stalin and his supporters retreating to West Siberia and establishing a separate government centered on Tyumen. Stalin remained its leader until his death in 1950.

Bukharin is not a Stalinist. He is a true believer in Lenin's New Economic Policy, a partial market economy that Lenin had always meant as a temporary bridge to full central planning. Bukharin keeps it going for years past the point anyone intended. It works for a while: peasants can sell their own grain, and the country claws back to pre-war production levels. Then it fails badly and the Kulaks, the rich peasants, hoard grain waiting for higher prices, and without Stalin's brutal requisitioning apparatus to force the issue, the country slides into famine that drags on into the 1930s. Bukharin is eventually forced by his own party to abandon the NEP and collectivise anyway, years later than in our history and with far less central control to make it stick.

The Soviet Union enters the Second World War in a substantially weaker position than in our timeline. Bukharin's economic policies leave the country less industrialized and less capable of sustaining the enormous military effort required to resist Germany. The Soviet political leadership is also deeply divided, while the armed forces suffer from inadequate preparation and a fragmented command structure. The absence of Stalin's Great Purge changes the composition of the officer corps, but it is the combination of economic weakness, political instability, and military unpreparedness that leaves the Soviet Union vulnerable to the German invasion.

Germany invaded on the same date as in our history, June 1941, called 'Operation Barbarossa'. The result is not the same at all. The Red Army, already brittle, disintegrates far faster than it did historically. Moscow falls. With the capital gone and the political center collapsing, The German advance and the loss of Moscow and the Caucasus created an increasingly severe political crisis within the Soviet government. Bukharin mysteriously disappears, leaving Martemyan Ryutin as a temporary leader. Stalin then attempts to consolidate control over the remaining Soviet government. Ryutin opposes him, calling for Stalin's removal.

With Genrikh Yagoda refusing to support Stalin, the Soviet political system breaks apart. The confrontation develops into the Second Russian Civil War, after which the Soviet Union ceases to exist as a unified state. Leningrad does not merely fall, it starves out completely and is razed, with the city later rebuilt as a German settler city called Brauchitschstadt.

Germany did not conquer all of Russia. It advances to an imaginary line running roughly from the city of Arkhangelsk in the north to Astrakhan on the southern Caspian coast, the so-called Arkhangelsk-Astrakhan (AA) line. Everything beyond that line was judged not worth the cost of occupying, and Berlin's official position was that the remainder of the country would collapse into anarchy on its own, which it did. The land west of the line becomes four Reichskommissariats: Ostland (encompassing the Baltics and Belarus), Ukraine (self-explanatory), Kaukasien (settled in the Caucasus region) and the largest, Moskowien, covering most of European Russia including Moscow and Leningrad's ruins. These Reichskommissariats exist to ease the German administration and exploitation of the local people, including the extermination of Slavs under Nazi policy. Everything east of the line is now what's called the Russian Anarchy or *Smuta*, and most maps in this world simply depict Russia as a black or grey stretch of land. The collapse of the Soviet Union does not create a single successor government, instead becoming divided among numerous political and military authorities. These include surviving Soviet governments, Russian nationalist movements, monarchists, military administrations, regional governments, and other competing factions. Some control only a small territory, while others command enough territory and resources to attempt the reunification of Russia. No single government has reunited the former Soviet Union, and the possibility of Russian reunification remains an important factor in the European order. However, this possibility is bleak as daily German bombings of Siberia make the development of any sort of industry, military, or advanced societal systems extremely difficult.

European Theatre

Germany invaded Poland as it did historically on the 1st of September 1939, prompting Britain and France to declare war. The campaign in Poland is followed by the German invasions of Denmark and Norway in April 1940, which secure the northern approaches to Germany and provide Berlin with important strategic access to Scandinavia (specifically Swedish iron ore). The German attack against Western Europe begins the following month. German forces invade the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and France, using a concentrated armored offensive through the Ardennes to bypass the strongest French defensive positions. The campaign ends in a much more complete German victory than in real history. British and French forces retreat toward the English Channel, but the evacuation from Dunkirk is largely unsuccessful. The bulk of the British Expeditionary Force is destroyed or captured, leaving Britain without the army that historically returned to the United Kingdom and later formed the core of the Allied effort to liberate Europe. France capitulates soon afterward. Northern and western France are occupied directly by Germany, while the southern portion of the country is reorganized as the French State (Vichy France) under Philippe Pétain. Charles de Gaulle and his supporters continue the war

from abroad through the Free French movement, but the French mainland is removed from the Allied war effort as an effective military power.

The fall of France gives Germany control over the industrial and agricultural resources of Western Europe and leaves Britain substantially more isolated. The strategic situation is further altered by Italy's entry into the war. Benito Mussolini joined the conflict in June 1940, hoping to exploit the collapse of France and establish an Italian empire around the Mediterranean. Critically, Germany's capture of Gibraltar, combined with Italian advances in North Africa, turned the Mediterranean into an Axis-controlled strategic zone. Britain's European and imperial defense depended upon the ability to move personnel, supplies, and naval forces through the region. German forces seized Gibraltar, closing the western entrance to the Mediterranean, while Italian armies advanced from Libya into Egypt and eventually captured Cairo and the Suez Canal. The loss of Suez is a major strategic defeat for Britain, disrupting the most direct maritime route between Britain and its possessions in Asia and East Africa and makes the reinforcement of British forces in those regions considerably more difficult. Britain nevertheless remains the principal European power still fighting Germany. The entry of the United States into the war after Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor provides Britain with another major source of military support, but American participation does not reverse the strategic changes that have already occurred. Germany has eliminated the Soviet threat, Britain has lost much of its army, and the Axis controls the principal approaches to the Mediterranean. When Germany eventually begins preparations for an invasion of the British Isles, Britain is therefore in a much weaker position than it had been in 1940.

By 1943, Operation Sea Lion (the naval invasion of Britain) began in full. It was a slow, grinding invasion, not a lightning strike, dragging on for roughly two years as a war of attrition that Britain slowly lost. Winston Churchill is killed during the fighting, and Lord Beaverbrook succeeds him. By March 1945, the whole of Britain outside Northern Ireland was under German occupation. The peace settlement leaves Britain formally sovereign but under strong German influence. Edward VIII is restored to the throne, while the British People's Party becomes the sole legal political party. Parliament continues to exist, but its independence is heavily restricted and Germany retains military and political influence over the country. Britain remains formally separate from the Reich while functioning as a German client state and member of the Einheitspakt. British resistance to the collaborationist government did not disappear however. Her Majesty's Most Loyal Resistance, commonly abbreviated as HMMLR, continues to organize underground opposition against the government and its German backers. At the same time, the British government in exile remains based in Canada under Queen Elizabeth II. The result is a dispute over British legitimacy between the collaborationist government in London and the government in exile associated with the OFN.

All information regarding the Soviet Union, the German invasion, and its collapse can be found in the section above this one, named 'What Happened to Russia'.

Pacific Theatre

The opening moves are the same as our history's. On December 7th, 1941, under an isolationist Dewey administration that had already gutted the country's own armed forces to avoid provoking anyone, the Empire of Japan launched a surprise attack on Pearl Harbor. Seven battleships and two aircraft carriers were sunk, the harbor's oil reserves destroyed, and the US Pacific Fleet crippled at the very outset of the war. From there the timeline diverges hard. In 1942, at the Battle of Midway, it is the Japanese who win decisively, finishing off what remained of the American Pacific Fleet rather than losing four fleet carriers as they did historically. With Germany fighting an entirely separate war in Europe and no shared Allied strategy pulling resources back and forth between the two theatres, the United States is left to fight Japan essentially by itself, in the Pacific alone.

The Pacific War does not end in a negotiated draw. Japan initially achieves major victories against the United States and retains the strategic initiative for much of the war. The United States gradually rebuilds its military strength using its massive industrial base, but the collapse of the Allied position in Europe and Asia leaves the American government unwilling to continue the conflict indefinitely. This is where Germany enters the picture directly. Berlin offers Tokyo a way out: a solution that would end the war at a stroke and, not incidentally, serve as the first live test of the ultimate weapon. On July 4th, 1945, a German long-range bomber, flying out of a captured Japanese-held airstrip in the Pacific, dropped an atomic bomb, codenamed by the Germans the Heisenberg Device, on Pearl Harbor. At 8:39 AM, the base and the neighbouring city of Honolulu are wiped from the map in an instant. Roughly fifty thousand people are killed immediately, with many more dying afterward from burns and radiation, and what remained of the rebuilt Pacific Fleet is annihilated along with them. The very next day, July 5th, President Dewey receives word that the Manhattan Project has successfully tested America's own nuclear device in the New Mexico desert. It makes no difference. The country has just watched an entire naval base and a major American city vanish in a single flash of light, there is no way to retaliate in kind that would not immediately escalate into a war neither side can survive, and that night Dewey announces that the United States will seek a conditional surrender.

The peace, signed aboard the Japanese carrier Akagi in late August 1945 and known ever since as the Akagi Accords, is deliberately built to humiliate. Hawaii, along with almost all of America's Pacific territories, is signed over to Japan outright. The ports of Los Angeles and San Francisco are leased to Japanese control, a permanent scar on the American conscience. The Aleutian Islands are declared a demilitarised zone, a crucial detail which will become incredibly important twenty years later. The United States is bound to a hundred-year non-aggression pact with Germany, formally closing off any thought of continuing the fight through the back door. Japan keeps everything it had already taken across Asia and the Pacific, and gains a great deal more besides. It is, and Americans have never really stopped calling it, the first defeat in the country's history, and the argument over what it cost and who is to blame for it has shaped American politics ever since.

The Americas

The United States

The first major divergence in American history occurs with the election of Thomas E. Dewey in 1940. Franklin D. Roosevelt does not seek a third term, and the Republican candidate Dewey defeats Democratic candidate Harry Hopkins (despite the fact he was endorsed by the popular FDR, fears of battling with cancer cost him the election). Dewey campaigns on a conservative and strongly isolationist platform. With the help of Robert A. Taft, he pushes isolationism and weakens the military to avoid provoking the Axis, a fatal mistake. His government is reluctant to become directly involved in the European war and emphasizes the defense of the United States and the maintenance of its own security. Dewey was reelected in 1944, narrowly defeating William O. Douglas.

Dewey's isolationism has important consequences for the course of the war. American assistance to Britain and the Soviet Union is considerably more limited than it was historically. The United States became involved in the war after Japan attacked Pearl Harbor on the 7th of December, 1941. American military forces are consequently concentrated in the Pacific while Germany fights Britain and the Soviet Union in separate theaters. The American war effort eventually produces a very large increase in military production, but Japan retains its strategic advantages for much of the conflict. Germany's successful invasion of Britain and collapse of the Soviet Union leave Washington without a realistic possibility of defeating Germany on the European continent. American forces are eventually deployed to Britain, but the German invasion proceeds and the British position deteriorates. American troops participate in the fighting against Germany, including the defense of Britain, but they are unable to reverse the overall course of the war. The United States therefore enters the final stage of the war in a fundamentally different position from the one it occupied in real history. It possesses enormous industrial resources and is capable of continuing the war, but it faces a Germany that has already defeated the Soviet Union and is close to overrunning Britain, while Japan remains the dominant power across much of the Pacific.

The postwar United States experiences major political changes. President Thomas E. Dewey left office in 1949 after serving two terms, humiliated by the disaster that was the Second World War. War hero Dwight D. Eisenhower wins the 1948 presidential election and is reelected in 1952. His administration placed an emphasis on rebuilding American international influence and organizing opposition to the Axis powers. Eisenhower was succeeded by Estes Kefauver in 1956. Kefauver's administration continues the debate over America's relationship with Japan and Germany while domestic political divisions become increasingly significant, especially on the issue of racial segregation. The two-party system changed considerably during the 1950s. The Republican and Democratic establishments increasingly cooperate against newer political movements, eventually producing the Republican-Democratic (RDC) coalition. This RDC was counterbalanced by the rising National-Progressive Pact (NPP), formed by the increasingly mainstream Nationalist and Progressive parties to uproot the establishment (despite their

conflicting views on segregation, among other things). In the 1960 election, Richard Nixon became president and John F. Kennedy became vice president, and although they were on the same ticket, they often have disagreements due to their Republican and Democratic affiliations respectively.

Eisenhower's presidency is where the postwar American order takes shape, as he founded the Organization of Free Nations (OFN) as an economic and defensive alliance meant to gather the world's remaining democracies against the fascist and imperial blocs surrounding them. He takes a considerably more confrontational line toward Japan than Dewey ever had, formally repudiating the more humiliating terms of the Akagi Accords. That harder line, and the credit for holding the RDC together, won Eisenhower a second term in 1956 and cemented the coalition's grip on American politics for the following term. The tension between America's stated commitment to democracy and its wartime record, along with the unfinished argument over whether the country ever should have accepted the Akagi terms in the first place, remains a live current in US politics through Kefauver's presidency and into Nixon's.

A growing part of the American public demands the restoration of territories lost to Japan, particularly Hawaii, the Aleutians, and the ports of Los Angeles and San Francisco. The demand does not belong exclusively to one political movement. The disagreement concerns the methods and timing by which those goals should be pursued. The R-D establishment generally favors a gradual policy of containing Japan and Germany by strengthening American influence overseas rather than immediately seeking a military confrontation. The emerging NPP is considerably more willing to advocate military expansion and the recovery of the territories lost in 1945.

Something worth noting is US involvement in the Caribbean. Below are some of the US' concerns in the region:

- Cuba, which under a dictatorial yet anti-fascist Fidel Castro, is a staunch US ally.
- The Dominican Republic, which eyes the territory of Haiti, an OFN member while also cozying up to the Fascist powers. Some members of the FBI and CIA have proposed an invasion, not from US forces directly, but training a legion of exiles across the Caribbean (as well as Mexico and Cuba) to do so. Doing so would undoubtedly attract more German support to Trujillo.
- Haiti, which is undergoing a communist insurgency that may see American power in the region dwindle. The oligarchy under Louis Dejoie, while maintaining a pro-American position, also is seen as weak against the communist Parti populaire de libération nationale (PPLN).
- The French Antilles are under a US Civil Administration backed by the US military and the local French elites. Under General Lyman Lemnitzer, the islands prospered significantly in the 50s, though growth slowed in the 60s and the US is now seen as an intruder into the existing institutions of the islands.

In 1962, the United States has 12,382 nuclear warheads stockpiled.

Canada

The Dominion of Canada begins the Second World War as part of the British Empire and becomes increasingly important as Britain loses its ability to continue the fight. Canadian forces participated in the European war alongside Britain and the other Allied powers. As German forces advance into Britain, Canada's strategic importance increases because its territory becomes one of the principal remaining centers of Allied political and military activity. The British monarchy and a large part of the British political establishment eventually relocated to Canada.

Following Britain's defeat, Canada became the principal home of the British government in exile. Queen Elizabeth II becomes the symbolic head of the surviving British Commonwealth system, while the exile government claims to represent the legitimate British state despite the existence of the German-backed government in London. Canada consequently assumes a role considerably greater than that of an ordinary American ally. It became the main political and military center of British resistance outside the British Isles. With the establishment of the OFN in 1949, Canada became one of its founding members. The alliance gives Canada protection against the German and Japanese systems while providing Washington with an important North American partner. Canada nevertheless retains its own interests. Its participation in the OFN does not make it an American state or an American military administration. Canadian political opinion includes both strong support for cooperation with Washington and concern that the United States could use the alliance to increase its influence over Canadian affairs.

The British government in exile continues to maintain political connections with Australia, New Zealand, and several British territories in the Caribbean and elsewhere. Canada also administers several British overseas territories on behalf of the exile government. These include Bermuda, the Cayman Islands, the Falkland Islands, South Georgia, and the South Sandwich Islands. The government in London disputes the exile government's authority over these territories. Domestically, Quebec nationalism becomes an increasingly important issue. The government's close relationship with the British exile government and the United States creates concerns among some French Canadians about Canada's future political identity. Western Canada also develops political dissatisfaction with the federal government, particularly over the perception that Ottawa is overly concentrated on eastern Canadian and international affairs. The result is a country that is externally important but internally divided over its relationship with Britain, the United States, and the wider Commonwealth. Canada is led by Queen Elizabeth II, with the Prime Minister being Lester B. Pearson of the Liberal Party.

Mexico

The Mexican Revolution and the consolidation of the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI: Partido Revolucionario Institucional) have shaped Mexican politics for decades, even through the Second World War. The government maintained a nationalist approach to economic policy while attempting to preserve Mexican sovereignty in its dealings with foreign powers. Although the United States of Mexico did not become a major military participant in the

European and Pacific fighting, the expansion of the Axis powers and the increasing strategic importance of the Western Hemisphere strengthened the importance of its relationship with the United States. Mexico's proximity to the United States made complete diplomatic isolation impossible, while its own nationalist traditions encouraged the government to avoid becoming completely dependent upon Washington. The defeat of the traditional European powers created a very different international environment for Mexico. The United States remained the dominant power in North America, but Japan's expansion into the Pacific and Asia created a second major economic system with interests in Latin America. Mexican leaders recognized an opportunity to benefit from competition between the great powers. The government expanded economic relations with both the United States and the Sphere, allowing foreign investment from competing international systems while attempting to retain Mexican control over domestic economic policy. This approach helped support rapid industrialization and urban development.

The political system became increasingly centralized during the postwar period. Miguel Alemán's presidency accelerated industrialization and expanded the role of private and foreign investment, while the government also strengthened the power of the ruling PRI and restricted political competition. Later administrations maintained much of the economic transformation while restoring emphasis to nationalist economic policy. Under Adolfo López Mateos, the government pursued nationalization and state-led development while continuing to benefit from the industrial growth of the previous decade. Economic expansion contributed to the growth of a larger middle class, but substantial inequality remained between regions and social groups. Political repression, restrictions on organized labor, and the concentration of power within the PRI continued to produce opposition. Mexico's foreign policy consequently developed around a balance between economic opportunity and political independence. The United States remains Mexico's most important neighboring power and an essential economic partner, but Mexico does not formally join the American alliance system. At the same time, Japanese investment and trade provide an alternative source of economic relations and allow Mexico to avoid placing all of its international interests within the American system. Mexico's government therefore has an incentive to maintain diplomatic relations with all three major powers while avoiding commitments that could compromise national sovereignty.

Mexico also has regional interests that extend beyond its relationship with Washington and Tokyo. Its geographic position makes stability in the Caribbean and Central America important to Mexican security, while its economic growth gives the government an increasing interest in regional trade. Mexico must also manage the political consequences of living directly beside the United States, particularly the possibility that American strategic priorities could place pressure on Mexican foreign or economic policy. At the same time, stronger Japanese involvement in Latin American commerce provides Mexico with another avenue for investment and diplomatic engagement. Mexico remains a neutral country in the international system of 1962. It maintains strong diplomatic and commercial relations with the United States while continuing to trade with the Sphere. The country is governed by President Adolfo López Mateos, and the PRI remains dominant despite the existence of legal opposition. Mexico's position gives

it substantial diplomatic flexibility. It can cooperate with Washington on issues affecting North America while maintaining economic relationships with Japan and other powers, allowing Mexico to pursue its own interests without formally joining any of the three major blocs.

Dominican Republic

The Dominican Republic was and is a relatively small Caribbean state whose strategic importance increased as WW2 drew the United States deeper into the Western Hemisphere. Rafael Trujillo had already established a highly personalist dictatorship before the war, and in 1936 the capital of Santo Domingo was renamed Ciudad Trujillo in his honor. The regime combined centralized political control with a strong military and an extensive security apparatus, while Trujillo worked to cultivate relationships with foreign governments that could strengthen his position. The Dominican Republic entered the Allied war effort after the United States entered the conflict, making it formally part of the coalition opposing Germany, Italy, and Japan. The defeat of the Axis powers in the Caribbean theater did not end Trujillo's international maneuvering. The fall of the European colonial powers and the rise of Germany, Japan, and the United States as competing global powers gave smaller states opportunities to balance between them. Trujillo proved willing to establish relationships with powers outside Washington's preferred circle when doing so served his government. Germany consequently found the Dominican Republic useful as a point of contact in the Caribbean, while the Dominican regime maintained close relations with Spain and the Iberian Union. Trujillo's government regarded Haitian political instability as a security concern and sought greater control over the border region. Dominican forces eventually occupied Hinche, creating a territorial dispute that increased tensions between the two countries. Moreover, a policy pushing racial superiority of European descendants over the Haitian people, known as Whitening (*Blanqueamiento*), resulted in massacres and a stigma against the perceived African identities in Haiti. The United States became increasingly concerned that Trujillo's regional ambitions could destabilize the Caribbean, and Washington's relationship with Santo Domingo consequently became more convoluted despite the country's anti-communist position. The Dominican Republic remains a centralized authoritarian state under Trujillo, with Joaquín Balaguer serving as Prime Minister. Its foreign policy depends heavily upon maintaining favorable relations with the United States and the Iberian Union while using its strategic position in the Caribbean to retain room for maneuver. The country has limited military and economic power compared with the great powers, but its proximity to the United States and its connections to Germany and Iberia make it relevant to the wider Cold War.

Brazil

The United States possesses considerable influence throughout the hemisphere, but the political systems of the South American states remain largely independent. Argentina and Brazil gradually become the two most important regional powers. Their rivalry develops into what becomes known as the South American Cold War. Brazil and Argentina compete for influence

through economic relationships, political pressure, propaganda, intelligence operations, support for friendly governments, and competition over neighboring states. The three global superpowers also take an interest in the rivalry because they can use relationships with Brazil and Argentina to gain influence in the wider continent.

For the United States of Brazil, Getulio Vargas came to power following the Revolution of 1930 and created a centralized government that gradually introduced social and economic reforms. The Vargas government expands workers' rights, increases the role of the state in the economy, and pursues greater national control over important industries. A new constitution was adopted in 1934 which solidified his increasingly dictatorial power. When the Second World War begins, Brazil initially attempts to remain neutral. Economic relations with the United States are particularly important, and Brazil purchases American military equipment. Germany concludes that Brazil is effectively aligned with the Allies and begins unrestricted submarine warfare against Brazilian shipping in 1940. The resulting deaths and destruction caused Brazilian public opinion to turn strongly against Germany. Brazilian forces subsequently participated in the war in Europe as war was declared on Germany. The Brazilian Expeditionary Force, or FEB, sends three divisions to Britain and takes part in the defense of the country during Operation Sea Lion. Brazilian commanders include Mascarenhas de Moraes, Henrique Teixeira Lott, Humberto de Alencar Castelo Branco, and other senior officers. The defeat becomes politically important at home because Brazil has committed itself to the Allied war effort but emerges from the conflict without an Allied victory.

Brazil experiences economic difficulties after the war, while opposition to Vargas grows, especially due to the loss of the war. One of the most serious incidents occurs when the head of Vargas's presidential guard authorizes an assassination attempt against journalist Carlos Lacerda, one of Vargas's strongest political opponents. The attack fails to kill Lacerda and instead produces a political crisis. The armed forces moved against Vargas in 1949. Marshal Henrique Teixeira Lott, who had served with the FEB and was associated with Vargas's government, intervenes to prevent the military from establishing a permanent dictatorship and instead supports a return to civilian government. Vargas resigns, and the transition produces a new constitutional system and a multiparty democracy. The major political forces that developed in the new republic include the Social Democratic Party (PSD), the Brazilian Labour Party (PTB), the National Democratic Union (UDN), and the Progressive Social Party (PSP). Vargas does not disappear from Brazilian political life. He established the PTB, which became the principal political vehicle for his supporters and the Brazilian labour movement.

The first post-Vargas election was won by Eduardo Gomes, the UDN candidate and one of Vargas's principal political opponents. Gomes moves Brazil toward the United States and the OFN. His government adopts a more market-oriented economic policy and receives substantial American investment. It also leases naval bases to the United States and lowers trade barriers. Gomes's government nevertheless encounters resistance: his economic reforms are unpopular with sections of organized labor and with supporters of Vargas. The decision to abolish the minimum wage introduced under Vargas becomes particularly damaging. Economic and political

opposition eventually weakens the UDN's position. The government also passes a National Security Act and bans the Brazilian Communist Party, giving the armed forces broad powers to intervene when the government claims that democratic institutions are threatened. The military remains formally subordinate to the civilian government, but the armed forces retain the political authority and institutional confidence to intervene when they believe the political system is in danger.

In the 1955 election, Juscelino Kubitschek won the presidency as the candidate of the PSD and PTB coalition. His victory was immediately challenged by conservative and anti-Varguist forces. Carlos Lacerda and Plínio Salgado refuse to recognize Kubitschek's election and support plans for military intervention. Henrique Teixeira Lott, then Minister of War, intervenes against the attempted coup and ensures that Kubitschek takes office. The episode greatly increases Lott's reputation as a defender of constitutional government. Kubitschek's presidency focuses on rapid development and industrialization. His government launches major infrastructure programs and encourages foreign investment. One of the most important achievements is the construction of Brasília, which becomes Brazil's new capital. Brazil receives investment from both the United States and Japan's Co-Prosperity Sphere. This is an important indication of the country's independent foreign policy. Brazil is willing to accept investment from competing international blocs without formally becoming dependent on either.

One particularly important conflict emerged during the late 1950s in the Atlantic: Brazil accuses fishing fleets operating from German-controlled Africa of violating Brazilian territorial waters. The resulting dispute becomes known as the Lobster War. The conflict becomes more complicated as illegal fishing and piracy from the unstable territories of West Africa affect the Brazilian coastline.

In the 1960 election, the staunch constitutionalist Lott was brought to power, while the vice-presidential election produced a very different result. Jânio Quadros, associated with the UDN-affiliated PTN, defeats the Varguist candidate João Goulart. This division creates issues immediately, as Lott's political coalition is connected to the Varguist tradition, while Quadros represents a separate political network with stronger ties to the right and to anti-Varguist forces.

Argentina

Juan Domingo Perón became the dominant figure in Argentine politics during the 1940s and established a nationalist and populist political movement centered on Peronism. His government emphasizes state involvement in the economy, labor organization, and Argentine national independence. Perón also develops an international policy based on the idea of an Argentine "Third Position," attempting to avoid direct dependence on either of the emerging superpower camps. The military, the traditional political establishment, and parts of the business community oppose his concentration of power and economic policies. During the early 1950s, the political conflict became increasingly severe. In 1955, Perón was overthrown by the Revolución Libertadora. The new military-backed government attempts to dismantle Peronism and suppress the movement's political institutions. Perón goes into exile. The post-Perón period

is unstable. The government struggles to establish a lasting political system while controlling the Peronist movement and preventing another military confrontation.

Arturo Frondizi emerged as one of the principal politicians of the post-Perón period. Originally associated with the Radical Civic Union, Frondizi developed a nationalist and developmentalist economic program. He supports industrialization and greater production of Argentine energy resources. The 1958 election took place while Peronism remained formally excluded from normal political participation, though Frondizi reached an understanding with Perón's supporters and received enough Peronist support to defeat Ricardo Balbín. Once in office, however, Frondizi pursues an economic policy considerably more favorable toward foreign investment than his campaign rhetoric had suggested. Peronists are dissatisfied with the restrictions placed upon their movement, radicals oppose Frondizi's political maneuvering, and the armed forces distrust his relationship with Perón. At the same time, his developmentalist economic program produces considerable industrial growth. Because of this, the Argentine government entered the early 1960s economically stronger than many of its rivals

The military plays an unusually powerful role in Argentine politics after the overthrow of Perón. The armed forces contain both anti-Peronist officers and officers with different views about how much political power the military should possess. The repeated involvement of officers in political disputes weakens the normal chain of command and makes civilian governments vulnerable to military pressure. President Frondizi remains in office, but the armed forces repeatedly challenge his government through demands for policy changes and political concessions. The possibility of another military intervention is, as a result, an important consideration in Argentine foreign policy as well as domestic politics.

The Argentine Republic developed particularly close relations with Italy during the postwar period. They became an observer associated with the Triumvirate (the Italian, Iberian, and Turkish alliance), maintaining especially close ties with the Italian Empire while preserving its formal independence. The relationship gives Argentina an alternative to complete dependence on Washington while also allowing Rome to extend its influence into South America.

South American Cold War

The rivalry between Brazil and Argentina intensified during the late 1950s and early 1960s, as both countries seek to establish themselves as the principal power in South America. The rivalry does not initially take the form of direct war, instead, Argentina and Brazil compete through diplomacy, economic agreements, intelligence operations, propaganda, and support for political forces in neighboring countries. Bolivia becomes particularly important because of its geographical position and mineral wealth.

The global superpowers also take an interest in the rivalry. For instance, the United States has reasons to maintain good relations with Brazil and Argentina because South America is strategically important to the OFN. Japan can use economic investment and diplomatic relationships to expand its influence outside the Co-Prosperity Sphere. Germany has an interest in weakening American influence in the Western Hemisphere and establishing its own network

of contacts in South America and the Caribbean (particularly though Dominican dictator Rafael Trujillo)

As previously mentioned, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile each have economic interests in Bolivia, particularly in its mineral resources and transportation infrastructure. The three countries reach the 1957 Tripartite Pact, which establishes a framework dividing economic exploitation and influence within Bolivia. Going into 1962, Brazil and Chile attempt to negotiate a new Transandean Treaty of Economic Cooperation with Bolivia. The proposed agreement would give Brazil and Chile major influence over Bolivian transportation infrastructure and mineral extraction. Brazilian pressure on Chile helps bring the negotiations forward, while Argentina objects that the arrangement threatens the terms of the 1957 Tripartite Pact and demands inclusion in the negotiations.

Europe

The wartime alliance between Germany, Italy and Japan does not survive the peace. Within a few years of victory, the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis has effectively collapsed under the weight of mounting tension and conflicting interests between its members, each of whom now wants a share of the postwar world the other two are unwilling to give up. Germany and Japan drift into open Cold War rivalry rather than continued partnership, distrustful of each other's growing power and increasingly willing to work against each other's interests through proxies. Italy's break is even sharper and is covered in detail below.

One of Germany's largest postwar engineering projects is Atlantropa, a vast scheme intended to transform the Mediterranean and parts of Central Africa through a system of dams and related infrastructure. The project is intended to reduce the Mediterranean's water level, create new land, generate hydroelectric power, and strengthen the economic connection between Europe and Africa. The project produces severe economic and environmental consequences. Its construction is enormously expensive, while the changes to the Mediterranean disrupt ports, agriculture, fisheries, and coastal economies. Germany's worsening economic position makes the project increasingly difficult to sustain. Atlantropa becomes an important source of conflict between Germany and the Mediterranean powers. Italy, Iberia, and Turkey increasingly view German economic and strategic policy as a threat to their own interests. Their dissatisfaction contributes to the collapse of the wartime Axis relationship and the formation of the Triumvirate. The one genuine success was the draining of part of the Congo river basin into an artificial lake, which did at least make Reichskommissariat Zentralafrika (Central Africa, encompassing the Congo) a more valuable colonial holding. Alongside this, Germany is on the cusp of performing an attempted landing on the Moon at the end of 1962, an effort which will assert German superiority in spaceflight and rocketry. Everywhere else, Atlantropa is remembered as the moment Germany's Mediterranean neighbours realised Berlin would spend their coastlines to solve its own problems without so much as asking.

German rule in Eastern Europe is considerably more direct and violent than the arrangements imposed on much of Western Europe. The territories incorporated into the

Reichskommissariat system are treated as colonial possessions and are subjected to racial policies intended to permanently alter their demographic and political character. Jewish communities, Roma, disabled people, political opponents, prisoners of war, and large sections of the Slavic population are subjected to systematic persecution, deportation, forced labor, and mass murder. The Holocaust does not end with Germany's defeat, as it does in our world. Nazi Germany continues its genocidal policies after victory and extends them across its newly conquered territories. The eastern occupation becomes a continuing military and administrative project rather than a temporary wartime occupation. The system is nevertheless unstable. German authorities face persistent partisan activity, resistance movements, administrative corruption, and enormous logistical costs. The further Germany expands into the east, the more resources are required to maintain the colonial system. The territories provide Germany with access to resources while simultaneously becoming one of the principal burdens on the Reich. Over the same years, Germany built out the machinery described below: the four Reichskommissariats in the conquered east, the belt of nominally independent client states in the Balkans (Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Bulgaria, Serbia), and direct or indirect control over occupied western Europe including France and Britain. The Einheitspakt is built as an instrument for managing an empire and keeping rival powers from chipping away at it, rather than an alliance of equals as propaganda suggests.

In 1962, Germany has 20,102 nuclear warheads stockpiled.

The West Russian War (1956-1958)

For a decade after the war, Germany managed its eastern colonies through collaborator forces, mostly former Soviet officers and anti-communist Russian units. That arrangement broke down catastrophically in 1956. A surviving faction of the old Soviet military, organised as the West Russian Revolutionary Front under Marshal Alexander Yegorov (with Mikhail Tukhachevsky and Georgy Zhukov as his senior commanders), launched a massive surprise offensive out of the anarchic east, catching German forces completely off guard. The offensive swept west with startling speed, retaking Arkhangelsk, Yaroslavl, Vladimir and getting close to liberating Moscow as well. Germany responds by reinforcing Reichskommissariat Moskowien and relying heavily on Russian collaborationist forces. Finland and Sweden provide assistance to the anti-communist side while the United States and Japan also provide support to the West Russian Revolutionary Front, seeing the conflict as an opportunity to weaken Germany. The war eventually turns against the Front. Internal divisions, the weakening of Soviet support, and the growing strength of the Russian Liberation Army and Russian All-Military Union allow German-backed forces to recover. The WRRF collapsed in 1958 after the fall of Samara.

The war is nevertheless extremely damaging to Germany. The Reich loses territory in eastern Moskowien, while the Russian Anarchy expands westward. Germany is unable to simply restore the pre-war frontier, and the conflict exposes the military and economic weaknesses of the Reich. One footnote worth knowing is that the war also forced a concession inside Germany

itself. To head off an attempted SS coup during the crisis, Hitler agreed to carve off a chunk of occupied Belgium and northern France, plus German territory west of the Moselle, and hand it to Heinrich Himmler personally.

That grant became the Ordensstaat Burgund, a state that is nominally part of the Reich but which answers to nobody but Himmler, running on a doctrine its own leadership calls the Burgundian System, a version of Nazism that considers mainstream National Socialism corrupt and insufficiently radical, and organises the entire state around slave labour, total militarisation, and a permanent hunt for ideological impurity even within its own ranks. Burgundy operates largely outside the normal structures of the German government and maintains its own military and political institutions. Himmler and the Burgundian leadership are regarded by foreign intelligence services as a serious threat to German stability. Its economy runs almost entirely on slave labour, and intelligence assessments circulating among the major powers agree that Burgundy may be only months away from fielding its own nuclear weapon. Himmler's own long-term ambition, as far as outside intelligence services can reconstruct it, is to eventually trigger a full nuclear exchange between Germany, Japan and the United States, on the theory that a purified world could be rebuilt from the ashes. Burgundy lacks the reach to engineer such a war on its own, but it does not lack the capacity to make one far more likely if a crisis elsewhere spirals out of control.

Germany's economy looked unstoppable through the late 1940s, built on looted capital, confiscated industry, forced labour from the east, and trade terms that let Berlin extract wealth from the rest of occupied Europe at prices it set itself. None of that is a foundation you can build on forever. Around the time of the West Russian War, and the resulting decade of stagnation, dwindling growth and internal chaos became known inside the Reich as the 'Lost Decade'. The crisis produced four distinct factional answers, which matter enormously for understanding domestic German politics, because these are the same four men who are now positioned to succeed Hitler.

1. Albert Speer and his reformists argue the Reich has to liberalise its economy and pull back from unsustainable colonial extraction, or collapse under its own weight. This doesn't mean democracy, but a version of Nazism without the characteristics that caused recent failures.
2. Martin Bormann and the party conservatives think some reform is needed, but want to preserve the core structure of the regime and the Nazi Party's grip on it.
3. Hermann Göring and the militarists think the crisis proves the opposite, that an economy built on conquest just needs more conquest to keep functioning, such as in the Second World War.
4. Reinhard Heydrich represents the German SS and is closely connected to Heinrich Himmler and Burgundy. His political position is substantially more radical than those of the other candidates.

These four factions should not be understood as four conventional political parties. They are competing networks within the German state, party, military, and SS establishment. Their rivalry becomes increasingly important as Hitler's ability to govern declines with his age, even more so as an alleged Japanese spy attempted to assassinate him in early 1962.

The Mediterranean

The Kingdom of Italy went into the Second World War as one of Germany's chief allies. Its war looked very different from Germany's or Japan's, though. Mussolini had grand ambitions for the Mediterranean and Africa. But the forces he sent to pursue them were nowhere near as capable as the regime's propaganda claimed. The army was hobbled by weak equipment, poor training, and unreliable logistics and command. The navy, in contrast, remained one of the few genuinely strong arms of the Italian state. Still, Italy rode the trail of the early Axis victories. German intervention kept several Italian setbacks from turning into disasters. And as French and British power collapsed, Rome found room to expand across the Mediterranean and North Africa. A fascist state with a handful of scattered colonies turned into a genuine Mediterranean empire. Italy's imperial ambitions predated the wider war. The 1935 conquest of Ethiopia and the declaration of an Italian Empire marked the first real step toward Mussolini's dream of a Mediterranean and African great power. The campaign revealed Italian military unreadiness and showed Rome's willingness to throw overwhelming force at its goals regardless. The backlash from Britain and France soured Italy's standing with the established powers, pushing the fascists government of Rome and Berlin closer. That relationship culminated in the 1939 Pact of Steel, which locked in the political and military partnership that shaped the war's opening years. When Italy actually entered the war in 1940, things did not go smoothly: the army was large on paper but short on modern equipment, motorized transport, and the logistics to sustain a real campaign. Early defeats followed in North Africa and East Africa. Mussolini's promised quick collapse of British positions never materialized. A British counteroffensive soon put Italian East Africa itself at risk. Berlin was unwilling to watch its main Mediterranean partner crumble, so it stepped in with growing amounts of help.

The tide turned as the Axis position in the Mediterranean improved. German reinforcements bolstered Italian forces in North Africa. The Axis capture of Gibraltar choked off Britain's ability to move forces through the sea. Even more consequential was the fall of Cairo and the Suez Canal. That handed Italy control of the central Mediterranean and opened up the vital shipping lane linking the Mediterranean to the Red Sea and Indian Ocean. It was a stunning reversal from where Italy had started the war, laying the groundwork for everything that followed. Italian forces learned to adapt to North African and Middle Eastern conditions as the war dragged on. German support supplied the equipment and manpower to keep momentum going.

The Republic of Turkey's entry into the war reshaped Italy's position again. Ankara had stayed neutral at first under President İsmet İnönü and Prime Minister Şükrü Kaya Peker. Turkish leaders were wary of both sides, and still scarred by the staggering losses of the First World War

and the War of Independence. That changed in 1942, once Cairo fell. British power was collapsing in the eastern Mediterranean, and the Soviets were under mounting pressure. Turkish leaders decided that sitting the war out might leave them exposed no matter who won. Turkey's role turned out to matter a great deal, allowing Ankara to pursue its own agenda. Turkish forces pushed into Syria and the Caucasus, chasing the old territorial goals of the *Misak-ı Milli*. Ankara ended up annexing large chunks of the Levant, the Caucasus, and the Balkans. It also extended its influence over Syria, Northern Iraq, Eastern Thrace, and Armenia¹. That push brought Turkish interests right up against Italian and German ones, even following their lead of attempting to colonize their conquered territories (to very little avail in Turkey's case, instead just stirring up more local resistance and economic ruin in the regions). Syria in particular became a flashpoint between Ankara and the Italian governorate of the Levant, though Italy and Turkey managed to work out a deal carving up their respective spheres rather than letting the rivalry boil over mid-war. Turkey's relationship with Germany soured over time. Turkish leaders came to see the German occupation of the Caucasus as proof that Berlin meant to guard its own turf. Germany's refusal to hand over territories Ankara considered its own reinforced that view, such as the fight over Azerbaijan. Turkey had hoped to build influence among the Turkic peoples of the Caucasus but German expansion into the region blocked that plan. Turkey came out of the war bigger, but also increasingly wary of just how much power Germany now held. In late 1961, two independent political parties (the UDP and DYP) cooperated with the reformist wing of the CHP (Republican People's Party) to pass the Democratization Bill of 1962 with the goal of removing the CHP's dominance over Turkish politics and the replacement of 'open voting, secret counting' with 'secret voting, open counting'. This passed the National Assembly with 55% support but was vetoed, prompting massive protests all throughout the country dubbed the Spring Protests. Entering 1962, the country remains in turmoil while the military grows weary of the government's seeming inaction, leading to fears of a possible military coup in case the protests aren't dealt with in a timely manner. Turkey is still led by İsmet İnönü and the Kemalist² CHP, ever since 1938.

None of this added up to a unified Mediterranean Axis once the dust settled. Italy, Turkey, and Spain had all gained from Britain and France's defeat. But their interests kept pulling apart, both from Germany's and from each other's. Germany now towered over Europe. Italy's empire only held together as long as Rome could keep German interference out of the Mediterranean. Turkey had grown into a bigger regional power, but it remained nervous about German reach into the Balkans and the Caucasus.

Italy's ties with Germany frayed for political reasons too, not just strategic ones. Mussolini grew increasingly frustrated with Berlin's attempts to run the postwar order, especially when German plans cut against Italian interests. Nothing crystallized that tension more than

¹ Turkey exerts its influence over Iraq through the puppet state of the Mosul and Kerkuk Inspectorate-General. It similarly does this for Syria with the Syrian National State.

² Kemalism is the political ideology that dominated Turkish politics after its 1922 War of Independence. It is named after the national hero Mustafa Kemal Atatürk and follows his policy. His immense popularity gave the CHP a solid grasp on power all throughout the interwar and post-war periods.

Atlantropa, Germany's sweeping scheme to remake the Mediterranean through massive dams and water control projects. The plan promised new land, hydroelectric power, and tighter economic ties between Europe and Africa. It also would have reshaped the region's geography and economy in the process. Italian leaders saw it as a direct assault on their own economic and strategic footing. Eventually the relationship broke down entirely. Mussolini refused to keep backing Berlin's increasingly aggressive course. He pulled Italy out of the German led system. This was no small diplomatic spat. It was the unwinding of the very partnership that had made the Axis victory possible in the first place, and the start of an independent Italian foreign policy, such that Italy even began taking in refugees and dissidents fleeing the German sphere.

The Italy-German split coincided with a major shake up on the Iberian Peninsula. Spain and Portugal had sat out the war's early years. As a result, they missed out on the territorial windfall Italy secured through its participation. German actions in Portuguese Africa convinced both Madrid and Lisbon that a German victory could eventually threaten their own sovereignty and colonies. In response, Spain and Portugal moved toward union. They formed the Iberian Union in 1950, a combined state with enough political and economic weight to push back against German pressure. This union mattered to Italy too, since it gave Rome a potential partner against Berlin. Italy, Iberia, and Turkey had each come to distrust Germany. But none of them alone was strong enough to stand up to the Reich. Their interests did not always align. Still, they shared the same basic problem. Germany was now powerful enough to threaten any Mediterranean state trying to go it alone. That shared concern became the Triumvirate, founded in 1950 as a political, military, and economic alliance among Italy, the Iberian Union, and Turkey. Its main job was deterring German aggression and protecting the independence of its three members. Over time it grew into more than a defense pact. It developed outside relationships and became a real economic network spanning much of the Mediterranean, North Africa, and parts of the Middle East. Italy's size and central location gave it outsized influence, even though the three members were formally equals. The Triumvirate is a regional bloc, not a fourth superpower. Italy still trails far behind Germany, Japan, and the United States. In spite of this, the alliance lets Rome pool its strength with Iberia's and Turkey's and gives all three an alternative trading network outside the German system. Japan and the United States. Both have their own reasons to want Germany kept from dominating Europe completely.

The alliance has had a structural problem baked in from the start, though. Its members did not come away from the postwar settlement with equal shares, as Italy fought through most of the war as a core Axis power and picked up the lion's share of the Mediterranean and African territory that came with victory. Spain and Turkey joined later or stayed out for stretches of the war. They ended up with considerably less. Algeria is the clearest flashpoint. Italy holds most of it. The Iberian Union believes the territory belongs in Spain's sphere, given its proximity and North African interests. This has become one of the Triumvirate's thorniest disputes. Madrid is not just objecting to Italian control in principle. It is objecting to a distribution of territory it sees as tilted heavily in Rome's favor, with real military and economic stakes in North Africa riding on the outcome. The same tension exists between Italy and Turkey in the eastern Mediterranean

and Middle East. Turkey views several Italian held territories, parts of the Levant especially, as rightfully within its own sphere. Turkish forces had pushed into Syria and the Caucasus during the war expecting the postwar order to reward them with real influence there. Watching Italy end up dominant in the Levant instead has left Ankara chronically dissatisfied. This tension shows up in how the Triumvirate's dependent territories are actually organized. Italy holds tight control over Greece, Albania, Croatia, Tunisia, Egypt, Italian East Africa, and pieces of the Levant and Middle East. Turkey maintains its own sphere, including ties to Syria and territories farther east. Iberia has carved out influence in North and West Africa. On paper it is one alliance, though in practice it is three overlapping spheres, each answering to its own patron.

Even so, the Italian Empire itself is more stable than most other colonial systems of the era. That stability does not mean it is unopposed. Italy governs a vast stretch of territory running from the Mediterranean into Africa and the Middle East. Holding it together depends on cooperation with local elites, colonial administrators, and the military. Compared to Germany in Eastern Europe or Japan in parts of Asia, Italy has generally leaned more on political accommodation than raw coercion. That approach has kept organized resistance in check. It has also left Rome constantly juggling local interests against imperial priorities. Economically, the picture is similarly mixed. The empire delivers agricultural products, raw materials, oil, and control of key trade routes. Italy's central Mediterranean location makes it a natural commercial hub. But the damage from Atlantropa and the limits of Italian industry keep Rome well short of German, Japanese, or American economic power. That gap is exactly why the Triumvirate matters so much. It gives Italy access to markets and trade routes it could not secure alone. The military tells a similar story. Italy's armed forces started the war badly prepared. Wartime experience and German assistance turned them into something far more capable. The Regio Esercito, Regia Marina, and Regia Aeronautica now form a genuinely modern military, able to defend the homeland and hold a sprawling overseas empire. The navy carries the most weight, since Italian security rests heavily on controlling the Mediterranean and keeping communications open with its African and Middle Eastern territories. Naval strategy dominates Italian military planning. Specialized army units are built for the mountains, deserts, and irregular warfare that come with running an empire.

Italy's politics have shifted too. After Mussolini's death, Galeazzo Ciano rose to become Duce. He had served as Mussolini's foreign minister and, unlike most of the German leadership, brought real diplomatic experience to the role. Under Ciano, Italy stays formally fascist but loosens up ideologically with rumored plans to democratize if the Duce gets his way against the establishment and shifting popular support. He has shown far more willingness than his predecessor to keep up diplomatic and economic ties with countries outside the old Axis fold, including Japan, the United States, and others. The regime has grown more pragmatic without giving up its imperial structure or fascist institutions. That pragmatism has become its own source of uncertainty. Italy's system is still authoritarian, but it no longer carries the ideological edge of the German Reich. King Umberto II has been carving out a more independent political role of his own. Parts of the Italian establishment are quietly asking whether the fascist system

built in the 1920s and 1930s can really last much longer. What is emerging is a state that is still firmly authoritarian and imperial, but drifting away from its own founding model. The Italy-German relationship remains one of the biggest open questions in Europe. Rome has no intention of letting Berlin run the Mediterranean and it also has no appetite for a war against a much stronger neighbor (which could annihilate the country with its nuclear arsenal). The Triumvirate offers a way to balance Germany without confronting it alone but the alliance's own internal fights, over Algeria, the Levant, Cyprus, and the split of economic benefits, threaten to dismantle the structure built to protect its members.

Sweden

The Kingdom of Sweden remained formally neutral during the Second World War, despite the rapid expansion of German power in Northern Europe. Its geographic position and economic importance made complete neutrality difficult. Sweden exported large quantities of iron ore and other resources to Germany, while its government sought to avoid occupation by maintaining diplomatic relations with Berlin and limiting the extent of its direct military involvement. Swedish neutrality survived the war because Germany had strategic reasons to tolerate an independent Sweden. The country did not pose an immediate military threat to the Reich, while its industrial output and trade were economically useful. Sweden's government nevertheless understood that German domination of Denmark and Norway had fundamentally altered the security environment around the Baltic Sea.

The collapse of the Soviet Union created another concern. Sweden had previously maintained close economic and political connections with Finland, and the existence of multiple Russian successor states created uncertainty along the northern European frontier. During the West Russian War, Sweden and Finland provided support to the anti-communist forces fighting against the West Russian Revolutionary Front. Swedish involvement remained limited and did not transform the country into a formal member of the German system. Sweden is a constitutional monarchy under King Gustaf VI Adolf. Its government remains outside the major military blocs, and neutrality continues to be the foundation of Swedish foreign policy. The country's developed industrial base and access to both German and Western markets give Stockholm an incentive to preserve this position. At the same time, Sweden must account for Germany's overwhelming military power in Europe and the continuing uncertainty surrounding Russia.

Romania

The Kingdom of Romania's position in WW2 was conflicted: its economy depended heavily on agricultural exports and access to foreign industrial goods, while the country's territorial disputes with Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Soviet Union made security a central concern of the government. The collapse of France and the growing strength of Germany left Bucharest with few alternatives to cooperation with Berlin. Romania joined the Axis and became an important contributor to the German war effort, particularly because of its oil production at

Ploiești. Romanian forces participated in the invasion of the Soviet Union alongside Germany, while the government attempted to use the Axis victory to preserve and expand Romanian control over disputed territories. The German victory altered Romania's position in Eastern Europe as Soviet territory to the east was divided among German administrations and affiliated governments, leaving Romania surrounded by states connected to the Reich. Romania retained its own government and armed forces rather than becoming a directly administered German territory, but its economic and strategic dependence on Germany increased substantially. Romanian oil became an important component of the German economic system, while German influence limited Bucharest's freedom to conduct an entirely independent foreign policy. At the same time, Romania remained conscious that its relationship with Germany was based on strategic necessity as much as ideological cooperation.

Romanian politics developed somewhat differently from those of several other German-aligned states. The country retained a parliamentary and monarchical framework, and political competition remained more substantial than in the authoritarian systems established elsewhere in the German sphere. The monarchy continued to provide an important source of national legitimacy, while different political factions debated the proper balance between cooperation with Germany, Romanian sovereignty, and domestic political reform. Romania's leadership had to satisfy Berlin without allowing German influence to completely overwhelm its own institutions. Romania's position also creates tensions with other countries in the region. Hungary remains an important rival because of the continuing dispute over Transylvania, while Bulgaria and Serbia are additional regional powers whose interests do not always correspond with those of Bucharest. Turkey's position to the south is also significant because Ankara has its own ambitions in the Balkans and Black Sea region. The weakening of Germany during the economic crisis and the West Russian War further demonstrated that Berlin's ability to protect its eastern order is not unlimited. The Romanian government has an interest in maintaining the Einheitspakt while preserving as much room for independent action as possible. Romania is a member of the Einheitspakt and remains aligned with Germany's European order. Its strategic interests nevertheless extend beyond simply following Berlin's policy. Romanian leaders must protect the country's territorial claims, maintain access to German markets and investment, preserve their control over domestic affairs, and monitor instability in the Balkans and the former Russian territories. Romania therefore occupies a position within the German sphere while retaining several reasons to negotiate independently with other European powers. Romania is led by King Michael I, with the head of government being Prime Minister Ion Mihalache of the National Peasants' Party.

The Middle East

Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia avoided direct participation in the Second World War and consequently retained more political independence than many of the states surrounding it. The

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was consolidated under the House of Saud in the interwar period, and the discovery and development of major oil resources gradually transformed the country from a relatively isolated monarchy into an increasingly important international power. The collapse of British and French influence in the Middle East radically changed Saudi Arabia's strategic environment. Italy expanded its influence across the Mediterranean and the Arab world, while Turkey emerged as a major regional power after joining the Axis. Saudi Arabia consequently found itself surrounded by states connected to larger European powers while attempting to preserve its own independence. The kingdom's oil industry became the principal source of its international importance. Foreign investment and petroleum exports gave Saudi Arabia access to revenues that could be used to strengthen the monarchy and modernize the country. At the same time, foreign interest in Saudi oil created a permanent risk that the kingdom could become economically or militarily dependent upon an outside power.

Saudi Arabia maintains a neutral foreign policy rather than joining the Triumvirate or the Einheitspakt. It has particularly important relations with Italy and Iraq, while also maintaining contacts with the United States and other major powers. Its geographic position between the Italian Middle Eastern sphere, Iraq, Yemen, and the Persian Gulf gives Riyadh strong reasons to avoid becoming directly involved in regional conflicts. The monarchy therefore seeks to preserve control over its territory and oil resources while preventing any major power from establishing direct domination over the Arabian Peninsula. The country is led by Saud bin Abdulaziz Al Saud of the House of Saud in an absolute monarchy.

Iran

The Imperial State of Iran's political development during the Second World War differs sharply from the historical timeline. Reza Shah Pahlavi is overthrown in 1942 by the Jahansuz Group and other pro-Axis officers, who establish a fascist republic. Their attempt to implement land reform alienates important sections of the aristocracy and clergy, while a costly military campaign in Turkmenistan weakens the new government's support within the armed forces. General Fazlollah Zahedi subsequently organizes a coup with support from the aristocracy and clergy. The monarchy was restored under Mohammad Reza Pahlavi, but the restored government is substantially more authoritarian than the historical Iranian monarchy. The Azure Party becomes the country's dominant political organization, and Zahedi becomes the central figure in the government. Iran's relationship with Germany became increasingly important after the Axis victory. The country shares a long border with the German sphere through the Caucasus and sits directly between the Reich's European possessions, the Middle East, and India. German strategic planners regard Iran as a potential route toward South Asia, while Tehran views German power as a threat as well as a source of economic and military opportunity. The Shah maintains a close relationship with Germany without surrendering complete control over Iranian affairs. Iran became a Bündnispartner (partner) of the Reich and an unofficial member of the Einheitspakt, making it Germany's principal regional partner in the Middle East. Its government remains concerned with maintaining its own sovereignty, controlling its oil resources, and preventing

Turkey, Italy, or Germany from becoming completely dominant in the surrounding region. Iran's position also gives it importance in the wider competition for influence in Asia. Its eastern border connects it to Afghanistan and India, while its western frontier places it close to Turkey and the Italian-controlled Middle East. Any conflict involving these powers therefore has the potential to involve Iran directly. Mohammed Reza Pahlavi continues to be the reigning Shah of Iran.

Asia

Japan

The Empire of Japan's position after the Second World War is the foundation of its status as one of the three superpowers. The Japanese Empire enters the war with an already established network of possessions in Korea, Taiwan, Manchuria, and the Pacific, while fighting the Republic of China in the Second Sino-Japanese War. The attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941 brought the United States into the conflict and allowed Japan to expand rapidly across Southeast Asia and the Pacific. The Japanese war effort performs considerably better than it did in the historical timeline. The Imperial Japanese Navy retains the initiative for a longer period, and the decisive Japanese victory at the Battle of Midway prevents the destruction of the carrier force that occurred in the real war. Japanese forces therefore continue to expand their sphere of control while the United States conducts an increasingly costly war across the Pacific. Japan's victories also provide the basis for the political system that replaces the wartime Anglo-American order in Asia. The American surrender in 1945 does not simply return the territories occupied during the war to their previous governments. Japan retains its wartime gains and becomes the dominant power across East and Southeast Asia. The resulting Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere provides a framework for Japanese economic, military, and political influence. Its members have different degrees of autonomy, ranging from governments with their own institutions to territories under much closer Japanese administration. Japan presents the Sphere as a system of Asian cooperation and liberation from European colonialism, while the unequal distribution of military and economic power leaves Tokyo as the dominant member.

The postwar period also creates increasing tension inside Japan itself. The Taisei Yokusankai, which had been created to replace the competitive party system during the war, remains the central political organization of the Japanese state. Its dominance allows the government to suppress much of the political competition that existed before the war, but it also creates tensions between the civilian government, the Army, the Navy, and competing political factions. Maintaining the enormous Sphere places substantial demands on the Japanese economy, while resistance and nationalist movements in several member territories make the political system increasingly difficult to manage. The Guarded Pearl Exercises of 1960 also raise questions about the effectiveness of Japan's armed forces and the balance between its military branches. Japan's relationship with Germany deteriorates as the two victorious Axis powers become competitors rather than allies. Their rivalry is based on conflicting economic interests, competing spheres of influence, and the possibility that either power could become dominant

across Eurasia. The United States constitutes another major strategic problem because Washington refuses to accept permanent Japanese control of territories that were once American possessions. Japan therefore has to maintain its position in Asia while simultaneously managing two powerful rivals.

The Japanese government is headed by Emperor Hirohito and Prime Minister Ino Hiroya³. Japan remains the central power of the Co-Prosperity Sphere, while the Republic of China, Manchuria, Guangdong, Thailand, and Azad Hind all depend on their relationships with Tokyo to varying degrees. This makes the stability of the Sphere as important to Japanese foreign policy as the direct defense of the Japanese Home Islands.

In 1962, Japan has 8147 nuclear warheads stockpiled.

India

The collapse of British power produced several competing political projects for the future of India. The Republic of India, led by Jawaharlal Nehru and the Indian National Congress, was established in 1943 and inherited most of the territory administered by the former British Raj. Nehru's government emphasized political independence and economic development while avoiding a formal alliance with Germany, Japan, or the United States. India consequently developed one of the world's earliest examples of a deliberately non-aligned foreign policy. Subhas Chandra Bose, the Indian independence leader, followed a different path. After breaking with the Congress leadership, Bose established the All India Forward Bloc and sought foreign assistance for the liberation of India. He cooperated with Germany and Japan during the Second World War and created the Indian National Army, which fought alongside Japanese forces in Burma and northeastern India. The Provisional Government of Free India was established in 1943 and received recognition from the Axis powers and their allies. When British power collapsed, Bose's forces did not become the sole government of the subcontinent. The Congress instead established the Republic of India, leaving Bose's movement with a separate political base.

The first major conflict of independent India was the Indo-Afghan War of 1947 to 1949. Afghanistan invaded the northwestern regions of the subcontinent, while Germany supported the Afghan side and Japan supported India. The war ended in an Indian defeat and left large parts of the northwest outside Delhi's control. The Pakistan Movement became concentrated in Afghan-controlled territory, while Baloch territories developed a separate political position. The defeat produced a political crisis within the Indian government. Bose was blamed for aspects of the failed war effort and eventually withdrew from Delhi. In 1950 he established the Provisional Government of Free India (also known as Azad Hind). Azad Hind became closely aligned with Japan and joined the Co-Prosperity Sphere. It controls Bengal and surrounding territories and

³ Different versions of the scenario may place Funada Naka as the Prime Minister. That is not the case for this committee.

maintains suzerainty over Bhutan, while its stated objective remains the political reunification of India under Bose's leadership.

The Pakistan Movement, led by the All-India Muslim League under Abdul Qayyum Khan, developed separately from both Delhi and Calcutta. Its objective is the creation of a Muslim-majority state in the northwestern subcontinent based on the Two-Nation Theory. The movement is based in the Afghan-controlled North-West Frontier Province and is supported by Afghanistan, while Germany views a future Pakistani state as a useful counterweight to India and Japanese influence.

China

In East Asia, the consequences of the Japanese victory are particularly visible in the Republic of China, whose political fragmentation becomes one of the most important unresolved questions of the postwar order. Japan was unable to replace the idea of a unified Chinese state with a single completely centralized administration. Instead, Chinese territory is divided among several governments and political authorities with different relationships to Tokyo, similar to the warlord period seen under the Kuomintang. The largest of these is the Republic of China, based in Nanjing, while the Empire of Manchuria and the State of Guangdong occupy distinct positions within the Japanese sphere. Other parts of China remain under the authority of regional administrations, military commanders, and Chinese political factions that acknowledge Nanjing to varying degrees. The Republic of China originates in the wartime collaborationist government established by Wang Jingwei in 1940. Wang had been a senior figure in the Kuomintang before breaking with Chiang Kai-shek and concluding that continued resistance to Japan could not succeed. His government presents itself as the legitimate Chinese national government and attempts to maintain the institutions and terminology of the prewar Republic of China while cooperating with Japan. Following the Japanese victory, Nanjing became the principal Chinese government recognized within the Japanese-dominated East Asian system. Wang remained politically important until his death in 1956, after which the government passed through a period of political transition before Lin Baisheng became president. The Nanjing regime subsequently develops an official ideology based on Wang Jingwei Thought, emphasizing cooperation with Japan, anti-communism, Chinese nationalism, and the reconstruction of China under the political order established by the Japanese victory.

Although the Republic of China possesses formal sovereignty, its independence is limited. Nanjing is a core member of the Sphere and participates in its governing institutions, but this formal status does not mean that China exercises the same influence over Japan that Japan exercises over China. Both Nanjing and Manchuria are classified as core members of the Sphere and theoretically enjoy greater standing than many of its other member states. In practice, their political and economic relationship with Tokyo remains unequal. The two Chinese states are required to contribute heavily toward the Sphere's military and infrastructure expenses, while Japan retains the dominant position in strategic and economic affairs. Their privileged status is nevertheless important to their governments because it provides a source of legitimacy. Nanjing

and Manchukuo can claim that they are participating in the leadership of the new Asian order rather than being merely occupied territories.

The fragmented nature of Chinese politics is also a consequence of Japan's decision not to restore the prewar Republic's territorial unity. The Republic of China does not exercise completely uncontested authority throughout the territory traditionally claimed by the Chinese government. Several regions remain under local political or military authorities, while Manchuria operates as a separate imperial state and Guangdong as a separate Japanese-created political entity. The result is a country that possesses a recognized national government without possessing complete political control over the territory associated with the Chinese nation. Manchuria occupies a particularly important position within this system. The Japanese-controlled state, officially the Empire of Manchuria, remains separate from Nanjing and is ruled under an arrangement created by Japan during the earlier stages of the conflict. The Japanese government maintains extensive political and military influence there, while the territory functions as an important industrial and strategic component of the Sphere. Manchuria's separate status prevents Nanjing from claiming uncontested authority over all of northeastern China and gives Japan an additional instrument through which to maintain influence over the region. The existence of two separate Japanese-aligned Chinese governments also reflects a broader Japanese preference for governing East Asia through a collection of different political structures rather than creating one unified state capable of independently challenging Tokyo.

The State of Guangdong represents an even more unusual experiment. Japan creates Guangdong through the Kanton Protocols of 1950, separating the territory from the Republic of China and establishing it as a de facto independent state intended to serve as a center for Japanese-controlled capitalism. Unlike Nanjing and Manchuria, Guangdong is not primarily organized around a conventional nationalist government. Its political system is heavily dominated by Japanese business interests and the corporations operating within the territory. By 1962, Guangdong is formally associated with the Japanese sphere while possessing its own administration, capital at Kōshu (Guangzhou), and political institutions. The current Chief Executive (leader) of Guangdong is former IJA officer Suzuki Teiichi, and the four companies which exercise the most amount of control over the 'country' are Sony, Fujitsu, Yasuda, and Matsushita, all vying for control while Suzuki desperately tries to balance a demand for higher profits, the local Chinese population, and Japanese control.

Guangdong's economic role makes it valuable to Japan. The territory is intended to function as a highly industrialized commercial center and a testing ground for a form of largely unchecked corporate capitalism. Japanese companies receive extensive privileges, while the local economy becomes increasingly integrated with Japanese investment and trade. This development produces significant wealth for Japanese expatriates and sections of the corporate elite but leaves much of the Chinese and Cantonese population in substantially less favorable conditions. Crime, corruption, and poverty become persistent political problems. The territory's economic success is therefore accompanied by a growing crisis of political identity. Guangdong contains several competing political factions that disagree over its future. As an example, the Guangdong Civil

Administration represents the formal Japanese-backed administration, while different factions within the Legislative Council represent competing corporate and regional interests. The territory's Chinese majority has little reason to regard Guangdong as a natural permanent state, yet neither China nor Japan can easily resolve the question of what its eventual status should be. Its population has been caught between three different identities, those being Chinese nationality, Japanese political influence, and the distinct economic interests created by Guangdong's corporate system.

The broader Chinese economy is similarly shaped by Japanese priorities. The Republic of China and Manchuria are expected to contribute substantially to the economic and military infrastructure of the Co-Prosperity Sphere. Japan's access to Chinese industry, labor, and resources is one of the foundations of its position as a global power. At the same time, the economic demands imposed on Chinese governments create resentment and reinforce the perception that the Sphere primarily serves Japanese interests. The contrast between official Japanese claims of Asian partnership and the unequal distribution of economic and political power is consequently one of the defining tensions within the Sphere. Chinese nationalism remains an additional source of uncertainty. Japan's victory did not eliminate the idea of a united and independent Chinese nation. Instead, it divided the political movement that claims to represent that nation. The Nanjing government presents itself as the legitimate Chinese government within the new Asian order, while local Chinese administrations and military formations retain varying degrees of autonomy. Some Chinese political forces regard cooperation with Japan as necessary to preserve what remains of Chinese statehood, while others regard Japanese influence as incompatible with genuine Chinese sovereignty. The government of Nanjing must therefore balance its dependence upon Tokyo with the need to maintain enough Chinese legitimacy to govern effectively.

This problem is especially significant because the Republic of China occupies a different position from many other members of the Co-Prosperity Sphere. Nanjing is not simply another small client government. China possesses one of the world's largest populations and has substantial industrial, agricultural, and military resources. As a result, Japan has strong reasons to preserve Nanjing as a functioning government, while simultaneously preventing it from becoming powerful enough to pursue an independent foreign policy.

Africa

The Union South Africa entered the Second World War as part of the British Empire, regardless of the fact that the decision to support Britain was politically controversial. A substantial portion of the Afrikaner population opposed participation in the war and maintained strong nationalist and anti-British sentiments. The government nevertheless joined the Allied war effort, and South African forces fought extensively in East Africa, North Africa, and other theaters. South Africa's military participation gave the country considerable wartime experience and strengthened its position within the Allied coalition. The defeat of Britain transformed the political environment in southern Africa. South Africa no longer had to operate within a British-dominated imperial

system, but it also lost the strategic protection and international framework that Britain had provided. Afrikaner nationalism consequently became increasingly important in South African politics, while the government expanded policies designed to preserve white political control.

The National Party established an increasingly comprehensive system of racial segregation and political exclusion. The South African state developed into a white-minority regime that maintained separate political and legal systems for different racial groups. The system became known as *Herrenvolk Democracy*, reflecting the fact that democratic institutions existed for the white population while the majority of South Africans were excluded from meaningful political participation.

South Africa also expanded its regional influence. It retained control over South West Africa and exercised extensive political and economic influence in neighboring territories. The government regarded communist movements and African nationalism as major security threats and sought to prevent hostile political organizations from gaining influence in southern Africa. The state is governed by Prime Minister Hendrik Verwoerd, while Ben Schoeman serves as State President. South Africa remains closely associated with the OFN because of its strategic position and economic importance, but its racial political system creates an important contradiction within an American-led alliance that publicly presents itself as defending liberal democracy.

Situation in 1962

Aleutians Crisis

The Aleutians Crisis began in late 1961 when a Japanese reconnaissance aircraft was shot down over the Aleutian Islands and its pilot was captured. The incident coincided with a large American naval exercise in waters that were supposed to remain subject to only limited military activity under the Akagi Accords. Japan regarded the exercise as a violation of the postwar settlement, while the United States viewed the Japanese aircraft as an act of espionage and a challenge to American sovereignty. Naval forces from both sides were placed on alert and confronted each other in the Pacific between Alaska and Hawaii, creating the possibility that a confrontation in the Aleutians could develop into a much larger war or even a nuclear confrontation. Warning shots were fired between naval vessels, while both sides' negotiations went through a mediator. Mexico played an important role in preventing the crisis from becoming a military confrontation as President Adolfo López Mateos was brought into the negotiations as a neutral intermediary. This happened because Mexico maintains important economic relations with both countries and the President was coincidentally touring Asia as the crisis unfolded. While both sides agreed in backing their warships off, US President Nixon demanded a Japanese apology while Japanese Prime Minister Ino Hiroya pushed for investigations into violations of the DMZ. In the end, what was a prisoner exchange of four American intelligence agents in exchange for twelve Japanese ones (this was a secret agreement, hidden to save US reputation) and a staged withdrawal of both fleets, an agreement which was

signed on the 11th of January 1962. While nuclear annihilation was avoided, the underlying conflict remains unresolved. The United States continues to reject permanent Japanese control over territories lost in the Second World War and funds anti-Japanese resistance, while Japan remains unwilling to reconsider the Akagi Accords.

Lobster War

Brazil has been involved in a maritime dispute in the Atlantic over fishing rights and the activities of foreign vessels operating off the African coast since sometime in 1959. Brazilian fishermen have accused foreign fishing fleets of entering Brazilian territorial waters and taking local catches, while encounters with these vessels have sometimes involved violence. Piracy and political instability along the West African coast have further complicated the situation as Brazilian authorities consider the dispute a matter of territorial sovereignty rather than simply a commercial disagreement. The conflict is significant because of the countries involved in the wider dispute, with vessels operating from the German and French-controlled parts of Africa are implicated in the fighting, while the unstable political situation in West Africa makes it difficult for Brazil to determine where responsibility lies. The Lott government must decide how aggressively to protect Brazilian waters while avoiding an escalation that could damage its relations with the European powers. For the Germans, they face a conflict that directly involves the wider German and European colonial systems without requiring an official declaration of war against an OFN-leaning state.

Proxy Wars

Americas

Trujillo's occupation of Hinche and his broader pressure against Haiti have increased tensions in the Caribbean, while opposition to his regime has continued to grow. The United States has become increasingly concerned about the possibility that instability in the Dominican Republic could spread elsewhere in the Caribbean. No full-scale invasion has yet taken place, but an increasingly organized anti-Trujillo movement is preparing for confrontation. The Caribbean Legion represents the most important external opposition to the regime and is associated with the United States, Cuba, Mexico, and Venezuela. Trujillo's government, in contrast, can draw upon the support of the Iberian Union and potentially Germany and Paraguay. For these reasons, the Dominican Republic represents a developing proxy conflict in which a relatively small Caribbean state has become connected to the competition between the larger powers. Should Trujillo manage to align himself with the European powers, then it could very well serve as a staging ground for the expansion of Nazism and Fascism in the Americas.

In South America, Colombia remains divided after the outbreak of La Violencia in 1954 following the assassination of Jorge Eliécer Gaitán. The central government, the left-wing Colombian Revolutionary Union, and the right-wing State of New Granada remain separate

political and military forces despite a ceasefire that has prevented the conflict from returning to its earlier scale. The ceasefire has reduced the intensity of fighting but has not resolved the political differences that caused the civil war. Food shortages, military tensions, and political attempts to alter Colombia's constitutional system threaten to undermine the existing settlement. Foreign involvement has given the conflict an international dimension. Japan supports New Granada, while Germany may become involved with radicalized Laureanist forces in the city of Barranquilla. The United States, Mexico, Brazil, Canada, and Venezuela have opportunities to assist the anti-fascist revolutionary front, which comes to no surprise after their falling out with the legitimate Colombian government in the late 50s. Italy and Argentina have interests in the aforementioned central government of Colombia, which replaced American aid with theirs. Colombia remains a potential point of contact between several competing international networks rather than a conflict controlled by one external power.

Asia

The Malayan Emergency is already an active guerrilla war on the Malay Peninsula. The United Malayan Anti-Japanese Front (UMAJF) seeks to challenge the Japanese-backed Military Governorate of Shonan-Marai, which governs the peninsula under Japanese authority. The conflict combines opposition to Japanese domination with local political and ideological grievances. Japan supports Shonan-Marai, with Thailand and Guangdong also providing assistance. The United States supports the anti-Japanese forces, including covert assistance from the likes of the CIA and OFN special forces. The war provides a relatively contained way for Washington and Tokyo to compete for influence in Southeast Asia while avoiding direct fighting between American and Japanese forces. Regarding the military state of the conflict, the UMAJF controls a northwestern pocket of the country close to the Thai border while Shonan-Marai controls the rest of the nation alongside Shonan (the renamed version of Singapore). The guerilla forces, although being composed of an extremely diverse coalition of traditionally ideological enemies, have managed to begin an offensive towards the port of Klang in order to allow OFN aid to flow into the country. Japan has ramped up its commitment to the military governorate as well through materiel aid, bombing runs, and sending a small expeditionary force to fight the American-backed rebels.

The Republic of Indonesia is formally independent but remains economically tied to Japan. Japanese companies retain extensive control over Indonesian resources, particularly oil and rubber, while the government is expected to contribute a substantial share of its income to the Sphere. These arrangements have produced growing resentment, especially outside Java, where regional governments believe Jakarta has concentrated too much political and economic power. The central government under Sukarno is also facing growing resistance from regional military commanders and separatist movements. The United States has begun covertly supplying money and weapons to elements of the Indonesian resistance to remove Japanese influence from Indonesia, and crucially, the resources it provides. Japan, meanwhile, has a strong interest in

preserving Sukarno's government and maintaining Indonesia within their grasp. The country has not yet descended into full civil war, but the combination of regional grievances, economic dissatisfaction, and foreign interference makes Indonesia one of the most likely Southeast Asian conflicts to escalate.

The Philippines remains one of the weakest governments within the Japanese sphere and one of the most contentious points in the Pacific. The Second Philippine Republic in Manila is formally sovereign but depends heavily upon Japanese military support. Much of the country remains outside effective government control, with the Hukbalahap ('People's Army Against the Japanese', a communist movement) and remnants of the former Commonwealth (the American puppet regime up until the Second World War) maintaining fighting forces in the northern and southern parts of the archipelago respectively. A ceasefire reached in 1961 temporarily reduced the fighting, but neither major contender has been eliminated. The Japanese 14th Army remains essential to the survival of the Philippine government, while the opposition retains networks capable of renewed insurgency. American interests in the Philippines make a larger conflict increasingly likely to become another US-Japanese proxy struggle.

Africa

South Africa is not yet engaged in an open war with the German Reichskommissariats, but relations along the northern frontier have become increasingly unstable. South Africa controls Bechuanaland (modern-day Botswana) and the Anglo elites maintain political control. The Reichskommissariats, meanwhile, remain under German authority and continue to face resistance within their own territories from tribes attempting to avoid Nazi tyranny. Their proximity to South Africa makes developments in the region increasingly difficult for Pretoria to separate from its own national security concerns. The more immediate danger comes from South Africa's internal political crisis. The government of Hendrik Verwoerd maintains the Apartheid system and has responded to opposition from the African National Congress (ANC) and the Pan-Africanist Congress (PAC) with arrests, bans, and increasingly severe repression, prompting them to resort to more violent means against the government. The Blesberg Massacre in 1960 and the subsequent banning of the ANC and PAC pushed both organizations toward armed struggle. Their military wings, Umkhonto we Sizwe and Poqo respectively, remain relatively weak and have so far concentrated on organizing and training rather than conducting a large-scale insurgency. At the same time, Germany and the neighboring Reichskommissariats have maintained contacts with Afrikaner nationalist elements inside South Africa and have supplied them with arms. These groups oppose the existing South African government and favor a more explicitly Afrikaner political order.

The South African government must confront African nationalist opposition inside the country while also monitoring Afrikaner groups that are receiving support from Germany and the German colonial territories to the north. Germany, meanwhile, has an interest in increasing its influence in southern Africa and weakening the position of the United States and the OFN on the continent. The situation has not yet developed into a fully fledged war, but the combination of

domestic unrest, foreign arms supplies, and the proximity of the German colonies makes southern Africa one of the more dangerous potential flashpoints of the Cold War. In any case, should the southern tip of the continent be engulfed in war, it will undoubtedly be the most deadly conflict since the Second World War.

Issues to be Addressed

1. Nuclear disarmament and an end to the nuclear arms race
 - a. The United States, Germany, and Japan possess nuclear weapons, and the Aleutians Crisis has reminded every nation on Earth of how a regional confrontation can create the possibility of a much larger war unlike anything ever seen before.
2. The Akagi Accords and the geopolitical tensions it generates
 - a. The territorial arrangements created by the Akagi Accords remain a major source of tension between the United States and Japan. The status of the Aleutian Islands, American territories transferred to Japan (such as Hawaii), and Japanese control of strategic ports remain disputed. Any settlement must consider both the sovereignty claims of the states involved and the wider implications of altering the postwar settlement.
3. Proxy wars and foreign intervention
 - a. Conflicts in the Caribbean, South America, Southeast Asia, India, West Africa, and southern Africa have become connected to the rivalry between larger powers through financial assistance, weapons, military advisers, intelligence operations, and political support. A resolution should consider the extent to which foreign states should be permitted to intervene in regional conflicts and whether mechanisms can be established to prevent local wars from developing into wider international confrontations.
4. The future of colonial territories
 - a. Anti-colonial movements are challenging the control of all three superpowers across the Americas, Africa, and Asia. From the American-occupied Antilles to the German and Italian Africa to Japanese Asia, all of these imperialist notions raise questions about independence, political representation, and the emergence of armed resistance movements against occupiers. A resolution must also account for the security and economic interests of the colonial powers that currently control these territories.
5. Global economic cooperation
 - a. Oil, minerals, industrial production, shipping routes, fishing grounds, and foreign investment all influence the relationships between states. Brazil's dispute in the Atlantic, economic competition in developing regions, and conflict for resources

in South America, Africa, and Asia demonstrate the importance of resource security.

6. Espionage and covert operations

- a. Espionage and political subversion have become staple features of the international system because of the Cold War. The Aleutians Crisis itself involved intelligence activity, while many of the proxy conflicts depend upon foreign covert support. Limits on covert intervention are possible and how states can prevent intelligence operations from producing open conflict are all possible clauses.

7. International system for crisis management

- a. The absence of a global organization comparable to the United Nations leaves few established mechanisms for resolving disputes involving major powers. It is obvious how this is a major weakness that can let small issues easily evolve into global crises.

8. International balance of power

- a. A resolution should address whether the existing balance between Germany, Japan, the United States, the Triumvirate, and independent states can remain stable. Economic competition, nuclear proliferation, colonial conflicts, regional rivalries, and political instability all place pressure on the existing system.

Conclusion

The international system facing the delegates is the product of two decades of war, territorial change, ideological rivalry, and competing attempts to establish regional spheres of influence. Germany, Japan, and the United States possess the greatest military and economic power, but none of them exercises complete control over the international system. Regional powers, neutral states, colonial governments, and smaller countries retain their own interests and can significantly influence the course of international affairs. Delegations will have to use their country's history, alliances, economic interests, and security concerns to determine which solutions it can support. The dozens of independent or aligned states can decide whether sticking to a side or playing two superpowers against each other will be most beneficial for their country. A successful agreement will depend on finding areas where states with very different political systems and strategic objectives can cooperate without requiring them to abandon their broader national interests. The stability of the international system ultimately depends on whether these competing interests can be managed through negotiation rather than allowed to develop into a war humanity will never see the end of.