

Winston Churchill's War Cabinet of 1940

Brian O'Neill TUMUN VII





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Letter from the Crisis Director

Dear Delegates,

My name is Brian O'Neill (they/them pronouns) and I am so excited to be your crisis director for TUMUN 2023! This is my 7th year doing Model United Nations, and though I have chaired or staffed a number of committees in the past, this will be my first experience as a CD. I look forward to seeing all of your fun crisis arcs this weekend as I think this is a very interesting committee and point in history to run a crisis from. Though we know how this scenario played out in the real world, I encourage delegates to take the story into their own hands and use this as an opportunity to create a different history.

I am a current Junior at Tufts, majoring in Sociology and minoring in Spanish. Outside of Model UN I like to play frisbee, hang out with friends, and read. I look forward to meeting you all this weekend!

Best, Brian O'Neill



Note on Sensitivity

Extremely important information: This period of history was extremely sensitive, chaotic, and violent. That being said, TUMUN will not accept any directives or crisis notes/arcs that allude to the wartime atrocities of Imperial Japan or Nazi Germany in a supportive or flippant fashion. For example: A delegate can dig into Nazi Germany's war crimes in order to learn about the Holocaust to use it against them, but any arcs that support these acts are strictly prohibited and will lead to harsh punishment for the delegate or their delegation. This is your warning.

History

Treaty of Versailles

After four long years of fighting in the then called "war to end all wars," the victorious countries of what we now call World War I met up in Paris to discuss a treaty that would become known as the Treaty of Versailles. The defeated parties: Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey were not even invited to participate in the talks, and the victorious minor states like Imperial Japan had very little say. Russia was also not involved, as they had pulled out of the war in 1917 when the Bolshevik Revolution started. That left the negotiation of the treaty almost entirely in the hands of the "Big 4": President Woodrow Wilson of the United States, Prime Minister David Lloyd George of the United Kingdom, Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau of France, and Prime Minister Vittorio Orlando of Italy. However, Wilson's plan for the treaty, as outlined in his fourteen points speech which called for general demilitarization and self-determination for all European cultures, was seen by the others as too lenient and naive, and Orlando had little influence compared to the other three.

So, that left most of the power of the drafting of the treaty in the hands of George and Clemenceau, and Clemenceau's influence especially can be seen in the final document. He wanted Germany to pay harsh reparations for the years of war in his country and to try to prevent a future German attack against France.

The treaty itself imposed harsh limitations on the German Army and Navy, and completely forbid the existence of a German Air Force. It further forced Germany to cede about 10% of its European land partially to the Allies and to help create new states to allow for the self-determination that Wilson wanted. The second provision used the land of the fallen Austro-Hungarian Empire and the land from Germany to create the new states of Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Poland. Furthermore, Germany lost all of its overseas territories to the Allies and was forced to demilitarize the Rhineland, the area that directly bordered France, so they could not invade France without having to reoccupy it. However, the most significant part of the treaty was Article 231, more commonly known as the "War



Guilt clause." This clause blamed the start of the war entirely on Germany, and forced them to pay massive economic reparations to the allies that were around 40 billion dollars.

A more well-known but less immediately relevant section of the Treaty of Versailles established the League of Nations in accordance with Wilson's initial ideas. This international organization's purpose was the promotion of peace, and had its member states agree to try to resolve disputes peacefully. It also forbade its members from using secret diplomacy and had them agree to demilitarize their armed forces to a certain extent. While many states did join the League of Nations, it was ultimately a failure, as many great powers often ignored its rules as it had no ways to enforce them, and the United States never even joined.

The Weimer Republic

The Weimar Republic was established on November 10th, 1918, one day after Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicated. It was named for the city of Weimar, where it was founded, and it was a constitutional republic, which was made up by the President, the Chancellor, and a Parliament. The President and the Parliament were elected, however the Chancellor and all of the ministers were appointed by the President. Orders issued by the President would have to be approved by the Chancellor or a governmental minister in order to become law, but the Reichstag (the Parliament) could order any of the people in these positions to be removed.

The Weimar Government was almost instantly unpopular, as instead of blaming the Allies for the harshness of the Treaty of Versailles, the German public blamed the Weimar diplomats sent to the Paris Peace Conference. They called the peace a Diktat, or forced peace, and called their representatives who signed the treaty the November Criminals, because they had stabbed the German people in the back.

The economic reparations called for in Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles were not merely monetary, they also required Germany to give up much of its heavy machinery and farm animals. Therefore, the treaty not only made Germany give up much of its monetary capital, it also reduced their



capability of mining natural resources such as coal and iron to get more revenue to be able to pay the reparations. When they told Belgium and France that they couldn't pay the reparations anymore, Belgium and France didn't believe them and invaded the Ruhr. Germany's most important industrial region, which was in clear violation of League of Nations doctrine, to try to get their reparations. In response, Germany shut down the mines in the region, which only made their economic situation worse. Unfortunately, their response to their horrible economic situation was to print more Reichsmarks, the German currency, and the economy was inflated to the point where the Reichsmark was worth nothing and many people lost all of their possessions as a result. The country's economy completely collapsed, and people had to resort to thievery or underground bartering just to take care of their basic needs.

In 1923, the Weimar Republic was able to begin to recover by replacing the now useless Reichsmark with the Rentenmark, which was backed by the United States. Further, it was finally allowed to join the League of Nations,

which helped Germany trade internationally, repair its relationship with Belgium and France, and implement the Dawes Plan, an economic plan which decreased the amount of reparations Germany had to pay and gave them more time in order to do it. All of these factors contributed to the remarkable recovery of the Weimar Republic in the mid 1920s, and life improved for many of its citizens. However, its economy was incredibly reliant on an inflow of US dollars in investment and to back its currency, so when the US stock market crashed in 1929 and started the Great Depression, Germany was thrown into its second serious economic crisis in less than a decade

After the previous serious crisis, the German people became suspicious of their government, and began to look to more extremist groups, like the National Socialist German Workers Party, otherwise known as the Nazis, in order to solve the problems that the Weimar Republic could not. By 1932, the Nazis were the largest party in the Reichstag, and in 1933, after a brief power struggle, their leader, Adolf Hitler, became Chancellor of Germany,



effectively ending the rule of the Weimar Republic.

The Nazi Party and Hitler's Rise to Power

The Nazi Party was founded in 1919 by a group of Germans that were dissatisfied by the Treaty of Versailles and especially Article 231. They espoused staunch German nationalism and antisemitism. Later that year, a WWI veteran named Adolf Hitler joined the party, and by 1921 he was its leader due to his charisma and his ability to attract new members to the party. In his many speeches, he blamed Jews and Communists for Germany's problems, and began to speak of an Aryan "master race", both themes that would continue to be prominent throughout his political career. He further said that Germany's problems would not change unless the country had a revolution, and Jews and Communists were expelled from it. His speeches attracted many economically disadvantaged German citizens, especially disenfranchised veterans.

In 1923, the Nazis staged the Beer Hall Putsch in Bavaria, a coup d'etat intended to take over the Bavarian Government and cause a larger revolution in Germany. It failed, and Hitler was convicted of treason and thrown in jail for a year. When he got out, he rebuilt the party and sought more legitimate (electoral) means of achieving power. When the stock market crashed again, the Nazis, despite their negative national reputation following the Beer Hall Putsch, began to achieve national popularity due to the widespread hatred for the ailing Weimar Republic.

Over the course of the next few years, the Nazis gained popularity, making up 37% of the Reichstag in 1932. Soon after, in 1933, Hitler was named Chancellor of Germany. A fire that destroyed the Reichstag building, probably set by the Nazis themselves, gave Hitler the excuse to claim emergency powers, and later that year the Enabling Act was passed, which gave official full power to Hitler, ending the Weimar Republic. Hitler was now in sole control of the country, and quickly moved to ban other political parties, consolidating his power.



Right after the war ended, the entire world was in turmoil. The war had completely devastated Europe, and the fall of several large empires (German, Austro-Hungarian, Russian, etc...) created many new smaller states that led to a less stable balance of power in Europe. In Italy, the world's first fascist government took over in 1922 under the rule of Benito Mussolini. As the United States had barely fought in the war (entering in 1917 when the rest of Europe had been fighting since 1914), they guickly became the dominant economic power in the world, overtaking Britain, which had been completely devastated. As such, they invested heavily in economic redevelopment plans such as the Hayes Plan, which led to overall greater world prosperity than even the prewar period in the second half of the 1920s. This time, known as the Roaring '20s, led to widespread access to the radio, telephone, car, electric lighting, and many other inventions in developed countries. However, not every country was better off during this period. Eastern Europe

was still mostly in turmoil due to the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian, Russian, and Ottoman empires and the subsequent Russian Civil War.

The Russian Civil War, which started in 1917 with the Russian Revolution, pitted the Imperial Forces of the Czar against the new forces of the Bolshevik party, which was very popular to the workers and soldiers, who began to call for a Socialist state. Eventually, the Bolsheviks won, and in 1922 established the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), which was a Communist government controlled entirely by the Bolsheviks, who became known as the Communist Party, and their leader Vladimir Lenin. Lenin died in 1924 and was succeeded by Josef Stalin, who rapidly industrialized and collectivized agriculture, leading to a Government-controlled economy that made the USSR a global power in a way that it had not been since the Russian Empire.

The Great Depression

The collapse of the United States' stock market in late 1929 ended the Roaring '20s and threw the world into one of the worst economic depressions



in history. Known in the US as the Great Depression, the GDP of the world dropped 15% and unemployment rates in some countries went up to around 33% (in the US it was 25%). Standard of living fell globally due to a lack of resources, which also led to a fall in prices, causing many firms and businesses to fail. Some states (like Nazi Germany) were in various ways able to pull themselves out of the Depression by the mid 1930s, but most countries were stuck in it until the start of World War II in 1939.

The UK's Interwar Situation

After the war, Britain radically changed, mostly for the better. Many conservatives, including King George V, were extremely concerned about a potential socialist revolution, and therefore began to listen more to the lower and middle classes and support them through policy. This included the expansion of the welfare state in the early 1920s, including the Unemployment Uninsurance Act of 1920, which provided 39 week unemployment benefits to almost the entire workforce. The king himself also began to openly involve himself with the

middle and working classes, setting the standard for the 20th Century English Monarch, and destroying the elitist reputation it had had before. As a result, the king and the royal family became extremely popular. However, British communists had mostly stopped their anti-king rhetoric before the war, as they became willing to let the King come to them to start reform and working-class awareness, as he did in spades during and soon after the war. Housing boomed during this period, even continuing to grow after the start of the Great Depression, and as many as 32% of people owned their homes by the start of the war, which was uncommon in the world.

The British Empire, also known as the Commonwealth, reached its largest size in 1921. The Dominions (Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand) became almost completely independent in 1931, but still relied heavily on naval protection from the Empire. They were given the ability to set their own foreign policy and join the League of Nations themselves in the early 1920s, and became much more fiercely nationalistic, not immediately willing to support the UK militarily as



they had been in the past. Egypt and Iraq became nominally independent in 1922 and 1932 respectively, but both were still heavily influenced by British Politics, and Egypt would still be a client state (still a member of the Commonwealth as a former colony) until 1952.

Worried about a fascist or communist revolution in India after WWI, the British government in India remained incredibly repressive and did not give many rights or freedoms to the Indian people, despite a heavy Indian presence in the British army in WWI. The Indian people were very upset and began to protest and riot against British control, leading to the Amritsar Massacre of 1919. The British people were split on whether to give more or less freedoms to India, but in 1935 the government gave the Indian people much more selfdetermination than they had had previously, turning the government of British India into more of a federation between the British India government and several provinces were given much more control over their own affairs than before.

The government also struggled with Ireland, which had risen up violently

in 1916, and much of which wished to be independent. Britain agreed to this, and Ireland became mostly independent in 1937, with the Unionist north staying with the British Empire.

Militarily, Britain pursued a policy of heavy demilitarization, especially in terms of the navy. It participated in the Washington Naval Conference in 1921 and began to downsize its military. Critically, at this conference it abandoned the longtime policy of the two party standard, the policy where the UK would build its navy to at least the strength of the next two navies combined. At this conference, the British government accepted naval equality with the US. By 1933, when it was clear that Germany was beginning to rearm itself again, Britain also began remilitarization.

Economically, Britain raised taxes a large amount during the war, and they never went back down. A lot of this money went to the poor, leading to a generally higher standard of life. However, the British economy almost completely stagnated, possibly caused by Winston Churchill's decision to return to the gold standard in 1925, which meant that the UK's government could never have more money in circulation than it possessed in gold. Furthermore, during this period, coal mining became much more expensive as the UK was running out of good seams and British business in general began to be beaten out by American business, which had generally more resources and was better run. All of this meant that the Great Depression hit Britain hard, but was not as long and not as hard as countries that had an economic boom in the 1920s (US, Germany, etc...). However, that still meant that trade in Britain fell by half and heavy manufacturing fell by one third, with millions of people unemployed or only working part time jobs. As a response, the government proposed large tax cuts and cutting social security by about 20%. Although the newly formed Labor Party did not support this, the rest of the government did and it passed. The government also completely abandoned the gold standard again in 1931, and favored trading with the Commonwealth, putting heavy tariffs on goods from the U.S., France, and Germany. All of this led to some improval in the economy, however the

unemployment problem would not be fixed until World War II started.

This was also a socially progressive time for Britain. Universal male suffrage passed for those over 21 in 1921, removing any property requirements for voting. Universal female suffrage followed soon after, in 1928. There was also a general weakening of moral beliefs and behavior, and female contraception became more generally available. Furthermore, class distinctions began to lessen, leading to an overall greater sense of unity among the British people.

German Rearmament and the Beginnings of World War II

German Rearmament

Starting in 1933 with his official takeover of the government, Hitler quickly began rebuilding Germany's military. He did this at first in secret, as it directly went against the Treaty of Versailles, and he was unsure how other countries would react. However, in 1935, he went public with his rearmament scheme, announcing to the



world that he intended to rebuild the German air force and reinstate conscription for the army, which were both prohibited by the Treaty of Versailles. He convinced the rest of the world that he was doing so just to protect Germany and maintain the peace, and that he would agree to any arms limitations that restricted heavy offensive firepower. Much of the world, including many harsh previous Hitler critics, believed this speech. They were wrong to do so.

Pre-war German Aggression in Europe

In March of 1936, the German military reoccupied the Rhineland, the region of Germany directly bordering France that, according to the Treaty of Versailles, was not allowed to have any German military presence. France did not respond militarily, as the public was worried about another world war and the government believed that the German military was stronger at the time than it actually was. Britain, which was France's main ally at the time, also did nothing, as its citizens ranged in opinion from indifference to actually supporting the German advance, as they saw it as a reclamation of sovereignty after a treaty

that was too harsh on the German government and people.

Two years later, in March of 1938, Germany invaded and annexed Austria. In taking this action, he revealed to the world that his words three years earlier had been lies, and that he intended for Germany to expand drastically. Internally, he attacked the borders drawn by the Treaty of Versailles, saying that it did not give Germany, the most populous country in Europe, "Lebensraum," or living space, for its population. He also justified his expansion on the merits of nationalism, arguing that all ethnic Germans should be united under one state. Furthering this policy, he next set his sights on the Sudetenland, the westernmost part of Czechoslovakia, which was majority German. In a policy now called appeasement, the British government, led by Neville Chamberlain, did not stop this German expansionism at all, and actually agreed at the Conference of Munich that September to allow Germany to annex the Sudetenland as long as they agreed to not pursue further annexations.

While this policy, called appeasement, is often ridiculed today, it



made sense to many British people at the time, as no one wanted another war and sympathy for Germany over the harshness of the Treaty of Versailles was still pervasive in the country. This policy also made some sense from a military perspective. Because of the extensive demilitarization policies pursued during the interwar period, Britain had started remilitarizing later than Germany, making the government uncertain that it could fight Germany at the time even if it wanted to. Additionally, Britain's main ally, France, was also weakened militarily since World War I, and had spent most of the interwar period building the Maginot Line, an extensive fortification system that lined the border between Germany and France, intended to prevent a German invasion. Furthermore, as the four dominions in the Commonwealth had been given the ability to determine their own foreign policy in 1931, full Commonwealth military support was not guaranteed. Another important reason for appeasement was that two other world powers, the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. were both focused on internal politics, and were unlikely to take Britain's side in an immediate conflict.

However, six months after the Conference of Munich, Hitler annexed the rest of Czechoslovakia, shocking the world. As a response, Britain and France both promised to defend Poland, likely Hitler's next target, if it was attacked. Britain also reinstated civilian conscription into the military, which had been halted at the end of World War I, and was the first time Britain had ever conscripted civilians during peacetime. Five months after that, in August of 1939, Britain formalized its alliance with Poland, and Hitler signed a nonaggression pact with the U.S.S.R. This second alliance terrified many in Britain, who worried that it signaled Hitler's intent to invade Poland, even with the alliance with Britain. They were right. On September 1st, 1939, Hitler invaded Poland, beginning the conflict that would later be known as World War II. Two days later, Britain and France declared war on Germany. Luckily, Britain did not have to worry about the support of the dominions, as Australia and New Zealand declared war on Germany the same day, and South Africa and Canada soon followed. The Soviet Union invaded Poland from the East on the 17th, and Poland soon fell.

There was no land war for six months after Poland's fall, but the German and British navies dueled bitterly in the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea. However, in April of 1940, Hitler occupied Denmark and invaded Norway, and on May 10th, he invaded the Netherlands and Belgium, completely bypassing the Maginot line and invading France three days later. The British Expeditionary Force (BEF), which was in France to help defend it, soon found itself in battle.

Blitzkrieg

The German military was so successful at the start of the war due to a new strategy commonly called Blitzkrieg, or lightning war. Unlike conventional interwar military doctrine, which used tanks exclusively as support for infantry, meaning that they were slow, with relatively thin armor and small weapons, Blitzkrieg called for tanks to be the vanguard of the attack, and Germany relied on its newer, faster tanks that had built-in anti-tank weaponry to steamroll the defenses of their enemies. Furthermore, their armies were directly supported by the Luftwaffe, Germany's air force, which

attacked and destroyed enemy forces and fortifications that would slow down the German advance.

Winston Churchill

As this committee is the Churchill war cabinet, the history of the man you will all be serving under is important to understand. Churchill was born in 1874 to a wealthy, aristocratic family. He joined the military in 1895, and served in the various British colonial conflicts that occurred during that time as a wartime correspondent, and became famous for writing books about his military experiences. First elected as an MP (Member of Parliament) in 1900, he served as an important member of the now defunct Liberal party and when World War I broke out, he was appointed to be First Lord of the Admiralty, the commander of British Naval Forces. He was the champion of the Gallipoli campaign in 1915, and when it failed catastrophically, he was removed from his position and from the cabinet, exiled to a low level administrative position, which he quickly resigned from and rejoined the military.

He returned to Parliament in 1917 and served well in several cabinet positions before serving as Chancellor of the Exchequer in Stanley Baldwin's Conservative Government. His most important action in this position was the return of the pound to the gold standard, which as talked about above, hurt Britain's economy pretty severely.

In the 1930s, he left Parliament, and instead was one of the leaders of the call for British rearmament in the face of the Nazi threat. He also was one of the largest opponents of appeasement. When the Second World War broke out, he was reappointed first lord of the Admiralty, and has just recently been appointed Prime Minister.

The Current Situation

Military

It is mid May of 1940. German forces are quickly cutting through the British and French forces, which are in retreat. The allied forces are outmatched in strategy, technology, and experience, and the situation is dire.

Foreign Relations

The Commonwealth

At this moment, the full Commonwealth, including the dominions, fights alongside the British military against Germany, but considering the tenuous state of the relationship between Britain, the dominions, and some of the other members of the Commonwealth, like India, that support could change at any time.

France

France is Britain's closest ally outside of the Commonwealth, but it is similarly outmatched by the German military and the country is quickly being invaded by Germany

The Soviet Union

The Soviet Union is currently in a non-aggression pact with Germany, and helped it invade Poland in exchange for some of Poland's land. You cannot expect aid from them unless this pact is broken.

Japan

Imperial Japan invaded and occupied Manchuria, a province of China, in 1931. It invaded China proper in 1937. It has an alliance with Germany against the Soviet Union that was formed in the 1930s, but so far has taken no action in the conflict.



Italy

Fascist Italy, under Benito Mussolini, has a similar alliance with Germany against the Soviet Union, and also has not taken any action yet in the conflict.

The United States

The United States is currently dominated by a wave of isolationism, and is mostly convinced that the conflict as it currently stands is a purely European matter, and Europe should therefore deal with it. Although President Franklin Delano Roosevelt supports Britain, he cannot declare war alone and does not have the support of his people or Congress to do so.

Structure of the Committee and Roles

Structure of the Committee

As delegates, you are all members of the nascent war cabinet of Winston Churchill starting in mid-May 1940 with the formation of the cabinet. As this is a crisis committee, time will pass, and the world will respond to the actions you take. While you are welcome to research what the cabinet and your roles actually did in history, please don't feel obligated to follow them. Instead feel free to be creative and propose other solutions that you as the British cabinet have the power to do!

As members of the British cabinet, you serve at the pleasure of Prime Minister Winston Churchill, who will be played by the chair, and your role is to advise him (in the form of directives that will then take effect) and run the British empire through your various ministries and responsibilities. However, Parliament, at any time, can force a vote of no confidence on your position. If that happens, and the vote passes, you are no longer a member of the cabinet, and can either decide to continue on with your personal powers or choose a new role.

Parliament

The British parliament is a legislative body made up of two houses, although by this time the House of Lords is exclusively a symbolic appointment and all of the legislative power lies in the House of Commons. During the 1930s, Parliament was controlled by the National Government, a coalition of parties controlled by the Conservative Party. The Opposition is almost entirely made up of the Labour Party, which became unpopular in the 1930s as it did not support the cutting of social programs in order to cut taxes. However, with the crisis of the war, all of the parties have banded together to create a unified government. Your character is either a member of one of these parties or an independent, which means they are a member of a different party, and their views will be explained in the roles section.

Conservative Party

This party was the ruling one in the 30s, and it favored protectionism through tariffs and low taxes in order to



rebuild the economy. It was also the party of appeasement while it rebuilt Britain's military.

Labour Party

This party was in the opposition during the 1930s, as it was associated by many of its rivals with Socialism, which was generally feared during the period because of the rise of the Soviet Union. This party generally supports more social welfare and economic freedom.

Roles

Clement Atlee, Deputy Prime Minister:

Usually, the Deputy PM's primary job is to serve as the acting PM if the PM is unable to fulfill his duties. However, in this specific case, Atlee was appointed not as a successor (Churchill actually sent a letter to King George VI asking that Anthony Eden be selected instead of Atlee), but to demonstrate the importance of the Labour Party in the wartime coalition government. Atlee, a longtime (and current, as of committee's start) leader of the Labour Party, has made plenty of friends in parliament while serving in opposition to the Conservative government and the policies of appeasement in the leadup to the war. Though he remains dedicated to Britain's victory in the war, he is always looking for ways to gain a political edge for Labour.

Viscount Simon, Lord Chancellor: The Lord Chancellor is the highest ranking member of the cabinet and is directly in charge of the operation of the courts, prisons, legal aid, and probation services. This gives Viscount Simon control over the government's administration of courts and prisons. This office does not have the power to target or arrest specific individuals or groups and it does not directly control the police but it does control the administration of prisons, in collaboration with wardens and managers. It also works with court officials to determine which cases get tried and the procedure by which they do, but is not able to affect the outcome of a particular case. In his service as Foreign Secretary, and later Home Minister, Viscount Simon has drifted towards conservatism as he fears that his country may fall to socialist policy just as easily as it may lose the war.



Neville Chamberlain, Lord President of the Council: The Lord President of the Council is in charge of the Privy Council of the United Kingdom, a group of ministers and politicians who work to advise the Sovereign on various issues. The Privy Council can act alongside the Sovereign (spawning the phrase 'king/queen in council') to pass Orders in Council, which use the Sovereign's authority to create a new law (generally regarding appointments to the Church of England, charters for Crown corporations, management of overseas territories and international affairs, and the administration of the government). An interesting use of Orders in Council can be to overturn court rulings, though this can only happen when the ruling pertains to overseas territories. Orders can be amended or canceled in time by Parliament, but they hold a significant amount of sway politically. Chamberlain, himself a former PM and current leader of the Conservative Party, greatly laments his apparent fall from grace as his failure to prevent (or adequately prepare for) the war have been under constant criticism. Both in Parliament and in this cabinet, he is lauded for his willingness to work with members of

other parties, but is no less willing to use his power to save face if the opportunity presents itself.

Arthur Greenwood, Minister without portfolio: As the title may imply, Greenwood is not directly in charge of any government department. He has the right to vote as any other cabinet member would, and indeed used that vote to give Churchill the majority he needed in the Cabinet to continue ramping up the war effort. Along with his Cabinet position, he is a popular figure in parliament, especially within the Labour Party, of which he is currently Deputy Leader. He has been climbing the party ladder in recent years, and may be looking to continue his ascent through the war. He is also an active freemason, and is known to be connected with the New Welcome Lodge.

Viscount Halifax, Foreign Secretary:

The Foreign Secretary is one of the most respected in the UK's cabinet, and Edward Wood, First Earl of Halifax, is one of the most controversial to ever hold it. Known for his brash personality and never afraid to voice his dissent,



even within his own Conservative Party, he balances a long and impressive resume of government positions with an equally long list of arguments and political rivalries. After serving as Viceroy of India, for example, he initially worked alongside fellow Conservative Neville Chamberlain in promoting appeasement, only to reverse his position and promise to go to war if and when Germany invaded Poland. As Foreign Secretary, he is Britain's representative abroad, handling relationships with foreign governments, commonwealth nations, and overseas territories. His office also oversees the rudimentary British Secret Intelligence Service, which proved its usefulness in service during World War I, but is limited in its development.

Sir Kingsley Wood, Chancellor of the Exchequer: Starting out as a lawyer, Sir Wood has always been a motivated politician. After earning Knighthood in 1918, he was elected to Parliament as a Conservative, and was known for his ability to get bills passed. His friendship and work alongside Neville Chamberlain certainly has not hurt, but he would prove his own ability as Postmaster General and Minister of Health. As Chancellor of the Exchequer, he oversees His Majesty's Treasury, and is in charge of constructing fiscal and monetary policy. Usually a central position in government, the Treasury has taken a bit of a backseat during the war, but Sir Wood has served admirably. Along with keeping inflation down and production up, he has shown to be willing to work across the aisle, transforming the Treasury from a passive funding institution to an active player in the way the British economy develops.

Sir John Anderson, Home Secretary and Minister for Home Security: Sir Anderson is perhaps the perfect choice for the Home Secretary. Independent of the two main political parties, his priorities lie solely in protecting the England he loves. His role allows him to do just that, placing him in charge of law enforcement in England and Wales, National Security (including the British Security Service), and immigration issues. Having studied chemistry at the University of Leipzig, he is quick to look for new technologies to enhance national security. Frustrated with



political red tape that gets in the way of action on security matters, Sir Anderson is willing to work all over the political spectrum to keep Britain safe.

Ernest Bevin, Minister of Labour and National Service: Bevin knows better than anyone the power of labor when it is harnessed for good use. He has been fighting alongside trade unions for his whole career, and is currently (and has been for over a decade) the General Secretary of the Transport and General Workers' Union, the largest trade union in Britain. Bevin's opposition to appeasement and status in the labor movement has made him few friends in the Conservatives, but his dedication to his ideals and success in winning material gains for his workers has certainly earned him their respect. As Minister of Labour and National Service, the wartime conditions put his office squarely in charge of the labor force and allocating its manpower, giving Bevin a significant amount of say not just in the economy, but in the organization and living conditions of the working class itself.

Anthony Eden, Secretary of State for **War:** A rising star in the Conservative Party, Eden made waves when he resigned his post as Foreign Secretary in protest of appeasement. His close friendship with Churchill allowed Eden to be entrusted with important government positions, both foreign and domestic, for years before his appointment to War Secretary. Eden's role puts him in charge of the army and national defense. Though this does not give him direct control over the movements of troops, he does dictate general military strategy, allocation of military resources, and development projects. Further, as a respected member of the military community, he has plenty of connections with generals up and down the chain of command. With the military in its current state, it needs a strong leader to see it through these dark times ahead.

Sir Archibald Sinclair, Secretary of State for Air: Sir Sinclair is one of the few members of this cabinet in the Liberal party, and this status makes his close connection to Churchill all the more interesting. Having served as his Personal Military Secretary, Sir Sinclair



has experience working with all levels of Britain's intricate military machine. He thus knows as well as anybody the level of interconnectedness that the military as a whole needs to operate with to win this for Britain. In charge of the Royal Air Force, one of the key pieces in the military puzzle, Sir Sincliar will have to navigate the politics within the military organization to ensure that his department performs at its best.

A. V. Alexander, First Lord of Admiralty:

Though he is a longtime member of the Labour-aligned Co-Operative Union, Alexander was instrumental in the formation of this cabinet under Churchill. The political weight of his, and by extension the British Navy's, support is not lost on the rest of British politics, and those around him have to balance courting his favor with giving him too much autonomous control. Always ambitious and driven by achieving successful results, regardless of the process, his tenacity has helped his career as much as it has held it back, as Churchill has proven hesitant to let him near especially confidential information, including excluding him from the War Room. Still, his drive has made him a

prominent figure in the military community, and his close relationships with other top military officials gives him significant sway in military actions.

George VI, King of England: A King has to be with his people through the darkest times, and none have been darker than these for the British Empire. As conflict in Europe threatens to upend the entire continent, the British Empire's power overseas has steadily declined in the last several decades, with commonwealth nations and colonies distancing themselves from the Crown's political domination. Further, as monarchical governments are in decline worldwide, protecting his own position as British Head of State remains an important priority for King George. While he does hold this office, he is instrumental to the functioning of the British government. Though the duties of many of his formal powers are delegated (such that he cannot perform them unilaterally), broadly, among Parliament, the Privy Council (and the Cabinet within it), the court system, and the Church of England. Still, the king is the king, and he can use his Royal Prerogative (on the advice of the Prime



Minister, with whom a closed-door secret weekly meeting occurs) to regulate the functioning of government, including by appointing or firing ministers, directing the activities of the military, and regulating civil service.



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