AUXILIUM INTRA
MODEL UNITED NATIONS 2018

Historical Security Council –

Study Guide

LETTER FROM THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

Dear Delegates,

It is our pleasure to officially welcome you to the Historical Security Council of this year's Auxilium Intra-Model United Nations.

We can assure you that participating in the Historical SC will allow you to expand your knowledge, engage in problem solving, develop your language, communication and negotiation skills and offer you the opportunity to meet people with diverse ideas and background.

Participating in HSC will give you the chance to assess past decisions and, allow you to alter the route of the history currently in making. While being aware of what impact the past decision had on the world, you will be allowed to reach similar or different agreements.

The expectations of the EB regarding the Council work are very high and we hope that you will do your best during the committee sessions..

We expect that you get fully prepared and well informed about the issues, since the more thoroughly you research the more interesting the debate will be. Please be aware that during debate you are representing your country and its policy and not your own.

We hope to see well-prepared delegates and we, as members of the dais, promise to be objective and encouraging; and to devote time and effort in order to establish an interesting and beneficial experience for all of us.

Yours faithfully,

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BACKGROUND RESEARCH

The following are a few topics which need to be discussed during the committee sessions. The prominent events of the 1956 and early 1957 are discussed as well as some questions which will face the Security Council in the latter years.

Please note that the resolutions should be written on the subtopics of each broader topic.

The Palestine Question

The Israeli-Palestinian conflict is the ongoing struggle between the Israelis and the Palestinians that began in the mid 20th century. The Palestine conflict has its roots in the late 19th and the early 20th centuries, with the birth of major nationalist movements among the Jews and the Arabs, both geared towards attaining sovereignty for their people in the Middle East.

the return of several hard line Palestinian Arab nationalists, under the emerging leadership of Haj Aim al-Husseini, from Damascus to Mandatory Palestine marked the beginning of Palestinian Arab nationalists struggle towards the establishment of a national home for Arabs of Palestine. It immediately marked the Jewish nationalist movement and Jewish immigration to Palestine as the sole enemy to his cause, initiating large-scale riots against the Jews as early as 1920 in Jerusalem and in 1921 in Jaffa. Among the results of the violence was the establishment of the Jewish paramilitary force Haganah. In 1929, a series of violent anti –Jewish riots was initiated by the Arab leadership. The riots resulted in massive Jewish casualties in Hebron and Safed, and the evacuation of Jews from Hebron and Gaza.

The Arab revolt of 1936-1939 in Palestine, motivated be opposition to mass Jewish immigration.

In the early 1930s, the Arab Nationalist struggle in Palestine had drawn many Arab nationalist militants from across the Middle East,

and led to the establishment of the Black Hand militant group which prepared the grounds for the 1936 Arab revolt.

On 29 November 1947, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted Resolution 181(II) recommending the adoption and implementation of a plan to partition Palestine into an Arab state, a Jewish state and the City of Jerusalem.

Following the Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel on 14 May 1948, the Arab League decided to intervene on behalf of the Palestinian Arabs, marching their forces into the former British Palestine, beginning the main phase of the 1948 Arab-Israeli war. The overall fighting, leading to around 15,000 casualties, resulted in cease fire and the armistice agreements of 1949.

Through the 1950s, Jordan and Egypt supported the Palestinian Fedayeen militants cross-border attacks into Israel, while Israel carried out reprisal operations in the host countries.

The Suez Crisis

The 1956 Suez crisis resulted in a short-term Israeli occupation of the Gaza Strip and exile of the All-Palestinian Government, which was later restored with Israeli withdrawal.

On October 29, 1956, Israeli armed forces pushed into Egypt toward the Suez Canal after Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918-70) nationalized the canal in July of that same year, initiating the Suez Crisis. The Israelis soon were joined by French and British forces, which nearly brought the Soviet Union into the conflict, and damaged their relationships with the United States. In the end, the British, French and Israeli governments withdrew their troops in late 1956 and early 1957.

The catalyst for the joint Israeli-British-French attack on Egypt was the nationalization of the Suez Canal by Egyptian leader Gamal Abdel Nasser in July 1956. The Israelis struck first, on October 26, 1956. Two days later, British and French military forces joined them. Originally, forces from the three

countries were set to strike at once, but the British and French troops were delayed.

The objectives of the intervention were clear: to seize back ownership of the Suez Canal – that vital strategic asset and great symbol of empire – after its abrupt nationalisation by Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser three months earlier. The expectation in taking back the canal was that the troublesome Nasser would be deposed as a result. Reclaiming ownership of the canal became something of an obsession for British prime minister Anthony Eden, spurred on by immense domestic pressure and media reports that likened the situation to the failed appeasement of Hitler at Munich in 1938.

The intervention was planned and executed with precision, as Britain and her allies quickly seized control of Suez, Gaza and parts of the Sinai with minimal losses. However, for as much as the operation was a success in military terms, it was a disaster politically. World opinion roundly condemned the three nations for their aggression and lack of respect for Egyptian sovereignty. Fury and outrage erupted across the Islamic world at Britain's perceived neo-colonial behaviour. Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev even threatened to rain down nuclear missiles on Western Europe in retaliation. Crucially, the United States – who Eden and his chancellor Harold Macmillan had fatally miscalculated would permit the invasion – was also staunchly opposed, and President Eisenhower exerted significant financial pressure to force a withdrawal.

In the aftermath of the Suez Crisis, Britain and France found their influence as world powers weakened.

The Algerian War

Algerian War, also called Algerian War of Independence, (1954–62) war for Algerian independence from France. The movement for independence began during World War I (1914–18) and gained momentum after French promises of greater self-rule in Algeria went unfulfilled after World War II (1939–45). In 1954 the National Liberation Front (FLN) began a guerrilla war against France and sought diplomatic recognition at the UN to establish a sovereign Algerian state. Although Algerian fighters operated in the countryside—particularly along the country's borders—the most serious fighting took place in and around Algiers, where FLN fighters launched a series of violent urban attacks that came to be known as the Battle of Algiers (1956–57).

The Setif massacre occurred on May 8, 1945, the day that Germany surrendered in World War II. In celebration, Algerian forces, who fought for France,

displayed an Algerian flag as a symbol of freedom. French soldiers responded by shooting, several demonstrators were killed. Riots followed and after five days of chaos, 103 *pieds noirs* were killed. The subsequent French retaliation was overwhelming: a conservative estimate places the dead at 15,000 Muslims.

The full-scale insurgency began when the FLN started launching coordinated, small-scale attacks against French military posts, while also killing small numbers of civilians, including European-born *pied noirs* and loyalist Algerians. The French military responded with *ratissage*, the "raking over" of towns and villages through bombing, arrests, and torture. This attempt at pacification by employing both targeted raids as well as mass punishment characterized the French strategy throughout the conflict.

The Race Conflict In Africa

After the National Party gained power in South Africa in 1948, its all-white government immediately began enforcing existing policies of racial segregation under a system of legislation that it called apartheid. Under apartheid, nonwhite South Africans (a majority of the population) would be forced to live in separate areas from whites and use separate public facilities, and contact between the two groups would be limited. Despite strong and consistent opposition to apartheid within and outside of South Africa, its laws remained in effect for the better part of 50 years.

Racial segregation and white supremacy had become central aspects of South African policy long before apartheid began. The controversial 1913 Land Act, passed three years after South Africa gained its independence, marked the beginning of territorial segregation by forcing black Africans to live in reserves and making it illegal for them to work as sharecroppers. Opponents of the Land Act formed the South African National Native Congress, which would become the African National Congress (ANC).

By 1950, the government had banned marriages between whites and people of other races, and prohibited sexual relations between black and white South Africans. The Population Registration Act of 1950 provided the basic framework for apartheid by classifying all South Africans by race, including Bantu (black Africans), Coloured (mixed race) and white. A fourth category, Asian (meaning Indian and Pakistani) was later added. In some cases, the

legislation split families; parents could be classified as white, while their children were classified as colored.

A series of Land Acts set aside more than 80 percent of the country's land for the white minority, and "pass laws" required non-whites to carry documents authorizing their presence in restricted areas. In order to limit contact between the races, the government established separate public facilities for whites and non-whites, limited the activity of nonwhites labour unions and denied non-white participation in national government.

The Vietnam War

The Vietnam War was a long, costly and divisive conflict that pitted the communist government of North Vietnam against South Vietnam and its principal ally, the United States. The conflict was intensified by the ongoing Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. More than 3 million people (including over 58,000 Americans) were killed in the Vietnam War, and more than half of the dead were Vietnamese civilians.

During the war years, America's leaders insisted that military force was necessary to defend a sovereign nation — South Vietnam — from external Communist aggression.

Indeed, from the late 1950s through the mid-1960s the bulk of Communist-led fighting was carried out by southern guerrillas of the National Liberation Front, known to its enemies as the Vietcong. Only after the war was well underway did large units from North Vietnam arrive on the southern front. Antiwar opponents also challenged the claim that South Vietnam was an "independent nation" established by the Geneva Accords of 1954. Those agreements called for a *temporary* partition of Vietnam to be shortly followed by a nationwide election to choose a single leader for a unified Vietnam. When it became clear to both Saigon and Washington that the Communist leader Ho Chi Minh would be the overwhelming victor, the South Vietnamese government of Ngo Dinh Diem, with American support, decided to cancel the election.

Thus began a two-decade failed effort to build a permanent country called "South Vietnam." The government in Saigon was never a malleable puppet of the United States, but it was nonetheless wholly dependent on American military and economic support to survive against its enemies, including many non-Communist parties and factions in the South.

During World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union fought together as allies against the Axis powers. However, the relationship between the two nations was a tense one. Americans had long been wary of Soviet communism and concerned about Russian leader Joseph Stalin's tyrannical, blood-thirsty rule of his own country. For their part, the Soviets resented the Americans' decades-long refusal to treat the USSR as a legitimate part of the international community as well as their delayed entry into World War II, which resulted in the deaths of tens of millions of Russians. After the war ended, these grievances ripened into an overwhelming sense of mutual distrust and enmity. Post war Soviet expansionism in Eastern Europe fuelled many Americans' fears of a Russian plan to control the world. Meanwhile, the USSR came to resent what they perceived as American officials' bellicose rhetoric, arms build-up and interventionist approach to international relations. In such a hostile atmosphere, no single party was entirely to blame for the Cold War; in fact, some historians believe it was inevitable.

The Cold War reached its peak in 1948–53. In this period the Soviets unsuccessfully blockaded the Western-held sectors of West Berlin (1948–49); the United States and its European allies formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a unified military command to resist the Soviet presence in Europe (1949); the Soviets exploded their first atomic warhead (1949), thus ending the American monopoly on the atomic bomb; the Chinese communists came to power in mainland China (1949); and the Soviet-supported communist government of North Korea invaded U.S.-supported South Korea in 1950, setting off an indecisive Korean War that lasted until 1953.

From 1953 to 1957 Cold War tensions relaxed somewhat, largely owing to the death of the long-time Soviet dictator Joseph Stalin in 1953; nevertheless, the standoff remained. A unified military organization among the Soviet-bloc countries, the Warsaw Pact, was formed in 1955; and West Germany was admitted into NATO that same year.

OTHER OPEN ISSUES

Any issue on the world scene in 1957 will be a fair game for discussion in the Historical Security Council. Representatives should have a broader knowledge of the world situation as it stood through July 1st, 1957.

GUIDE TO CRISIS

Crisis committees differ vastly from traditional MUN simulations; they are less formal and, in many ways far more dynamic.

There are four types of documents which can be released by an individual delegate or by the committee as a whole.

- Directive: A formal action taken by the entire committee, which must first be voted upon. In order to carry out any operation during the committee, a directive must be sent by a delegation. a group of delegations or the committee a s a whole. If the President deems necessary, the directive may need to be introduced by a requisite number of authors. To pass a directive on behalf of the whole committee, a simple majority vote is required.
- Communiqué: A formal message from a committee or delegation to be communicated to other bodies. If sent from the committee, it must be approved by a majority vote first.
- Press Release: A statement from the committee or a delegation that they want expressed to the general public.
- Individual Action Orders: Action taken by a delegation in accordance with their powers. Action orders are used to direct troops, agencies, individuals, etc. to take an action that is within the authority of the committee.

Examples

Action Order

Direct Allied forces to invade Vietnam on June 6th. Paratroopers shall be dropped behind enemy lines on June 4th. Landings shall take place at other places.

Communiqué

To the delegate of Commonwealth of Australia:

We demand an immediate, unconditional surrender of all the Australian forces within 48 hours, or we shall be forced to unleash heretofore unimaginable devastation upon your cities.

--The Allies

Press Release

Yesterday, July 7, 1946- a date which will live in infamy- the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by the naval forces of Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Examples of Notes

To the member of the same committee

To: United States

From: United Kingdom

We ask you to work with us to increase intelligence efforts directed against our so-called Allies, the Soviets.

To the President/Director

To: President/Director

> From: United Kingdom
>
> What is the current disposition of the British forces in the Middle East?

*Since HSC will take place in history (July 1,1957), therefore the delegates can send notes to only those bodies and organs that existed in 1957.

QUICK TIPS DURING THE COMMITTEE

1. Always be active during the committee sessions- whether by passing notes or speaking in caucuses.
2. Always be detailed as much as you can in the Directives; this will increase the chance of seeing it pass, as well as make sure you do not lose time.
3. The EB seeks to exploit weaknesses in a note. Specify every detail in directive and try to think of the possible faults in that.
4. Depending on your foreign policy, try building compromise and suggesting realistic and workable ideas in the council.
5. Do not try and change your foreign policy at any time in the committee. Although it can be changed if you are trying to reach a common decision.
6. Always try and be a good listener; listen to the speeches made be others and try to point out their mistakes.
7. POIs and points of order can a good amount of marks. Try and make as many points as possible.
8. Do not try and disrespect other delegates and the dais. This carries negative marking
9. Always try and make good points in all the speeches you make and always add your name to the GSL.

NB:

Remember:- Being in a crisis committee is all about being logical, analytical and flexible.

HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL