MILANMUN 2019

HISTORICAL COMMITTEE

The Historical Committee is about re-enacting past conflicts and issues in order to find alternative possible diplomatic solutions different to the real outcomes. We have a knowledge of the outcome of the crisis (and the delegates know it, if they are prepared). But they should intervene with the mind of a delegate who does not know what has happened after the crisis situation. The outcome could be positive or negative for the world or for the countries involved and the delegates should think about alternatives to the real historic development.

It is necessary to bear in mind that some countries may have had different names or policies during that time if compared to what their position is today (Laos, for instance, had a tendency to follow a neutral course concerning the two blocks (USA and USSR) and officially became part of the non-aligned movement in 1964) . Obviously, the debate will take place as if we were in that moment of crisis, specifically. Still nowadays some aspects are not so clear, as they were dim also in that time. But this is exactly what happens in our time. It is often not so easy to determinate who is the protagonist of actions in debate (e.g.: in the case of bomb attacks. terrorists? secret services? mercenaries?).

THE CONTEXT OF THE COLD WAR

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 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. Postwar Soviet expansionism in Eastern Europe fueled 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 buildup 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.

New protagonists: New independent states: People's Republic of China, India, Pakistan, Indonesia, the African colonies,…

There was no one process of decolonization. In some areas, it was peaceful, and orderly. In many others, independence was achieved only after a protracted revolution. A few newly independent countries acquired stable governments almost immediately; others were ruled by dictators or military juntas for decades, or endured long civil wars. Some European governments welcomed a new relationship with their former colonies; others contested decolonization militarily. The process of had a definite impact on the evolution of that competition. It also significantly changed the pattern of international relations in a more general sense.

The creation of so many new countries, some of which occupied strategic locations, others of which possessed significant natural resources, and most of which were desperately poor, **altered the composition of the United Nations** and political complexity of every region of the globe. In the mid to late 19th century, the European powers colonized much of Africa and Southeast Asia. During the decades of imperialism, the industrializing powers of Europe viewed the African and Asian continents as reservoirs of raw materials, labor, and territory for future settlement. In most cases, however, significant development and European settlement in these colonies was sporadic. However, the colonies were exploited, sometimes brutally, for natural and labor resources, and sometimes even for military conscripts. In addition, the introduction of colonial rule drew arbitrary natural boundaries where none had existed

before, dividing ethnic and linguistic groups and natural features, and laying the foundation for the creation of numerous states lacking geographic, linguistic, ethnic, or political affinity.

While the United States generally supported the concept of national self-determination, it also had strong ties to its European allies, who had imperial claims on their former colonies. The Cold War only served to complicate the U.S. position, as U.S. support for decolonization was offset by **American concern over communist expansion** and Soviet strategic ambitions in Europe. Several of the NATO allies asserted that their colonial possessions provided them with economic and military strength that would otherwise be lost to the alliance. Nearly all of the United States' European allies believed that after their recovery from World War II their colonies would finally provide the combination of raw materials and protected markets for finished goods that would cement the colonies to Europe. Whether or not this was the case, the alternative of allowing the colonies to slip away, perhaps into the United States' economic sphere or that of another power, was unappealing to every European government interested in postwar stability

However, as the Cold War competition with the Soviet Union came to dominate U.S. foreign policy concerns in the late 1940s and 1950s, the Truman and Eisenhower Administrations grew increasingly concerned that as the European powers lost their colonies or granted them independence, Soviet-supported communist parties might achieve power in the new states. This might serve to shift the international balance of power in favor of the Soviet Union and remove access to economic resources from U.S. allies. Events such as the Indonesian struggle for independence from the Netherlands (1945–50), the Vietnamese war against France (1945–54), and the nationalist and professed socialist takeovers of Egypt (1952) and Iran (1951) served to reinforce such fears, even if new governments did not directly link themselves to the Soviet Union. Thus, the United States used aid packages, technical assistance and sometimes even military intervention to encourage newly independent nations in the Third World to adopt governments that aligned with the West. The Soviet Union deployed similar tactics in an effort to encourage new nations to join the communist bloc, and attempted to convince newly decolonized countries that communism was an intrinsically non-imperialist economic and political ideology. Many of the new nations resisted the pressure to be drawn into the Cold War, joined in **the "nonaligned movement,"** which formed after the Bandung conference of 1955, and focused on internal development.

The newly independent nations that emerged in the 1950s and the 1960s became an important factor in changing the balance of power within the United Nations. In 1946, there were 35 member states in the United Nations; as the newly independent nations of the "third world" joined the organization, by 1970 membership had swelled to 127. These new member states had a few characteristics in common; they were non-white, with developing economies, facing internal problems that were the result of their colonial past, which sometimes put them at odds with European countries and made them suspicious of European-style governmental structures, political ideas, and economic institutions. These countries also became vocal advocates of continuing decolonization, with the result that **the UN Assembly was often ahead of the Security Council on issues of self-governance and decolonization**. The new nations pushed the UN toward accepting resolutions for independence for colonial states and creating a special committee on colonialism, demonstrating that even though some nations continued to struggle for independence, in the eyes of the international community, the colonial era was ending.

https://history.state.gov/milestones/1945-1952/asia-and-africa

Concerning the Korean question Note: This report will not take into account all the events happened after the invasion of the Republic of Korea by the People's Democratic Republic of Korea, so the delegates will not have to consider all those events that came after.

Note: The delegation of People's Democratic Republic of Korea and the republic of Korea were not part of the UN at that time so they will not be present during the debate.

Note: Delegates should consider that due to the lack, both in terms of reliability and quantity of information from the North Korean/Soviet point of view, the majority of sources used in this paper are either coming from the US or its allies. For this reason this paper might be considered biased and leaning towards the american/western history of the events that led to the conflict.

This possible bias is not the result of the point of view of the Chair, rather than a consequence of the sources available to the general public.

THE DATE OF THE CONFERENCE ABOUT THE SUEZ CRISIS WILL BE NOVEMBER 5TH , 1956

Committee: Historical Committee

Issue: The Suez Crisis 1956

Student officer: Camilla Grezar

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Introduction

The Suez Canal is a critical strategic and economic area: it connects the Mediterranean, the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. Furthermore, the canal has always been a trade route between the European continent and the East and oil tankers from the Middle East headed towards Europe travelled through the canal.

We ask you to bear the time period in mind while conducting your research and to stick firmly to your country's policy of the 1950s. You may use the real events of the crisis to inform your choices in the committee. However, we encourage you to embrace the challenge of creating a new path for history in your own vision, for better or for worse.

History

The Suez Canal was proposed as a project to Mohamed Said, the Viceroy of Egypt, by French former diplomat Ferdinand de Lesseps in 1854. He aimed to create a link between two different parts of the world and, consequently, to ease the trade. Despite the colonial influence in the region, Britain even boycotted the construction of the canal, but in the end the Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli purchased the shares for £400.000.
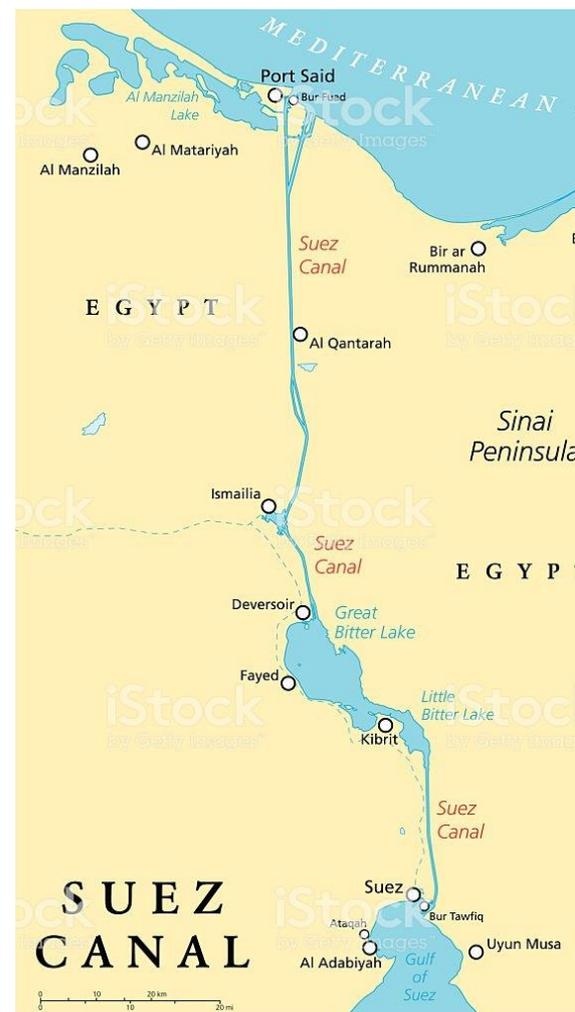
Tensions in the area _ Arab-Israeli Conflict

The 1947 UN Special Committee on Palestine suggested the division of Palestine into an Arab State, a Jewish State and the city of Jerusalem under international administration, to be implemented by Britain. Arab States refused to accept that arrangement and Britain refused to implement a resolution which was not supported by both parties.

On the day of Britain's withdrawal, David Ben-Gurion announced the independence of the State of Israel of which he became the Prime Minister. The following day, Egypt, Syria, Iraq and Transjordan intervened on behalf of the Arab League and caused the beginning of the Arab-Israeli War. The Israeli army was able to resist the forces launched against them and won the offensive. Later the State of Israel was admitted to the United Nations.

http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/modern/suez_01.shtml

https://history.state.gov/milestones/1945-1952/arab-israeli-war

British semi-Colonial relations with Egypt

Trade links have existed between the two countries for long. British military and political interest in Egypt, however, became obvious in the Nineteenth Century. The Suez Canal allowed Britain an easy access to its colonies and after the outbreak of World War I, Britain declared Egypt an official protectorate. Britain and Indian troops were authorised to remain in the Suez Canal until 1956, when they were set to be examined and if necessary, removed.

 In 1951 Nahas Pasha, leader of the Nationalist Party, revoked the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936 and the British military post was attacked. King Farouk of Egypt was replaced after a military coup and General Mohammed Neguib seized power and in 1954 Colonel Gamal Abdel Nasser replaced General Neguib. In 1956 Egypt accepted to respect the freedom of navigation of Britain through the canal and it was agreed that British troops would be allowed to return in case of threat by an outside power.

On October 29, 1956, Israeli armed forces pushed into Egypt toward the Suez Canal, after Egyptian President Nasser nationalised the canal in July of the same year, initiating the Suez Crisis. Two days later, the Israelis were joined by French and British forces. The Soviet Union was eager to exploit Arab nationalism and gain a foothold in the Middle East and therefore it supplied arms from Czechoslovakia beginning in 1955.

https://www.theguardian.com/politics/2001/mar/14/past.education1

http://www.history.com/

Egyptian Nonalignment Policy

After seizing the power in 1954, Nasser pursued an international approach of nonalignment. His idea was to balance both the United States and its allies and at the same time favour the potential relationship with the Soviet Union block. Moreover, one of his most ambitious projects was Aswan Dam and he was seeking funding from both the West and the Soviet Union.

http://www.history.com/

Nationalisation

The modern canal was opened in 1869. The 106-mile stretch offered trading ships the shortest route from Europe to Asia - dramatically cutting the journey around the Cape of Good Hope.
It was financed by the French and Egyptian governments but operated by an Egyptian-chartered company.
In 1875 the operator went bust and sold his 44pc stake in the canal to the British Government. The Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, agreed to pay £4m for the stake while the rest was owned by French investors.

In 1882, Britain took defacto control of Egypt and the canal's operations. It became of vital strategic importance to Britain as the empire grew and then throughout both World Wars.
In 1956, Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser nationalised the canal by buying its shares, provoking the Suez Crisis.
https://www.telegraph.co.uk/finance/economics/8292819/Suez-a-trading-history.html

Suez Crisis
 In the fall of 1956, Egypt faced the combined armed forces of three countries – Britain, France and Israel – on both sides of the Sinai Peninsula, in what is often called the Suez Crisis. Elite British and French paratroopers and marines invaded Port Said, at the northern end of the Suez Canal, which marked the western edge of the Sinai. Their Egyptian opponents were regular soldiers, policemen, militiamen and women, Muslim Brotherhood and Palestinian guerrillas, and civilian partisans.Britain, France and Israel all saw Egypt as a common enemy. Egypt had just seized control of the Suez Canal from Britain and France, threatening their access to Asian colonies. President Nasser was also helping Algeria in its war against French rule. Israel felt threatened by Egypt's build up of Soviet arms and its sponsoring of attacks by Palestinian guerrillas. Israel invaded Egypt's Sinai Peninsula on 29 October, and the British and French, acting as silent partners, then used this pretext to intervene.Their target was Port Said and they began bombing campaign to force the reopening of
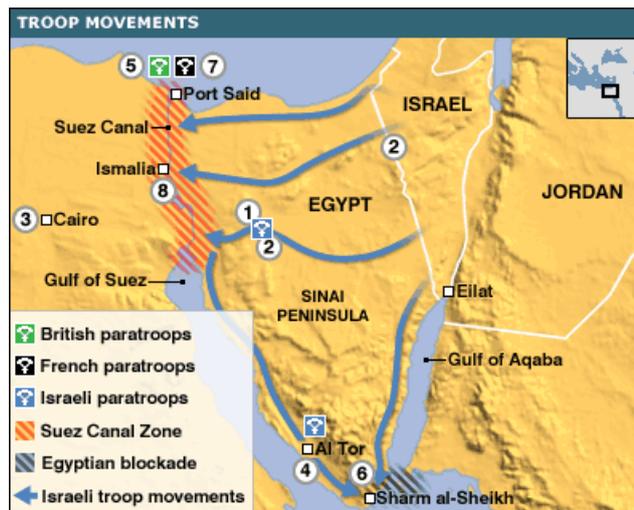
the Canal. Nasser responds by sinking 40 ships to block the canal.

Anglo-French airstrikes began on 1 November, wiping out the Egyptian Air Force and pounding targets around Port Said and across Egypt.

The first emergency meeting of United Nations General Assembly to discuss Suez was on 2 November 1956.

The airborne assault began on 5 November1956.

The first emergency meeting of United Nations General Assembly to discuss Suez was on 2 November 1956.

https://www.warhistoryonline.com/guest-bloggers/martyr-city-egyptian-civilians.html

http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/middle_east/5194576.stm

Further Research

These links lead to further information about the Suez Crisis. You are more than encouraged to look for further links and sources.

Suez Crisis Facts and Figures

http://www.suezcrisis.ca/summary.html

Documentary on the Suez Crisis

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ETOUALw2EIs

Timeline of the Suez Crisis

http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/middle_east/5194576.stm