United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) 1991
Topic: Nuclear Disarmament

Executive Summary

The world's nuclear treatment has been one that has been discussed since the development of nuclear weapons in the 1940s and the rapid realization of their destructive potential. As Cold War tensions heightened, the major powers across the world realized the immense power and influence that came with developing these weapons. As a result, many of the world's powers began developing and testing new versions of these atomic devices, each larger and more destructive than the last one. With these developments came heightened fears of the potential that these weapons would hold if they were developed by a country that was far too eager to use them, or if they became possessed by a group that would seek to inflict fear using their power. As a result, the United Nations passed the non-proliferation treaty to find a way to bring the world powers together with the goal of curtailing the development of these weapons and seeking to find ways to restrict their possession. As the Cold War tensions are coming to an end, new fears are emerging. The risk of countries that possess them not properly handling them or trying to disband the technology appropriately is a new topic of discussion. As a United Nations, it is essential that we revisit this critical issue to ensure that, as new threats emerge around the globe, nuclear weapons do not develop as a new fear for nations around the world.

Historical Background

The Beginning of Nuclear Weapons
In the early 20th century, modern science became revolutionized with the development of a better understanding of atoms and nuclear science. As a result, many scientists focused on this rapidly developing area of science, and some hypothesized that this new form of energy could result in both power and weaponry. In the 1930s and 1940s, as the government of Germany was taken over by the Nazi Party, many of the scientists conducting this research fled to the United Kingdom and the United States, where both nations were beginning exploratory research into means of creating a nuclear weapon. While the United Kingdom made greater progress early on, the attrition that came with being in a constant state of war severely limited their development capacities.

As the war went on, the United States and the United Kingdom understood the importance that having this developed technology could play in ending the war, and they decided to work collaboratively by signing the Quebec Agreement. This agreement allowed both countries to pool resources in this area with the understanding that they would use them only with the other's consent. Following this agreement, President Franklin Roosevelt ordered the United States Government to begin the Manhattan Project under the direction of nuclear physicist Robert Oppenheimer. This project began in 1939 and was developed in the 1940s; the process began by creating the technology and eventually developing to produce the necessary material. Overall the Manhattan project employed over 130,000 people and operated at 30 sites across the United States as it worked to create the world's first atomic weapons.

While Nazi Germany fell in May 1945, the United States Government remained engaged in conflict with the Japanese and ultimately decided that utilizing its recently developed atomic bombs would be a means to end this conflict. In August 1945, the United States dropped two atomic bombs over the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, killing nearly 200,000 people and effectively ending World War II following a Japanese surrender. These two nuclear blasts would be the only two nuclear weapons ever used in a conflict, but their existence would mark the beginning of an arms race of the major post-war powers and their efforts to utilize these weapons for influence on the international stage.

Their Development During the Cold War
Following the end of World War II, the Soviet Union immediately sought to replicate the United States' efforts in developing a nuclear weapon. By using spies in the United States Manhattan Project, the Soviet Union was able to begin to construct its own weapons. This kicked off an arms race between the two powers as they both tried to improve upon their weapons' destructive capacities. Throughout the 1950s, the United States and the Soviet Union began testing their nuclear weapons in uninhabited locations as a means of displaying the strength of the newfound technology.

As the scientific developments continued, the weapons became more complex. Instead of being a medium-sized atomic device capable of being dropped from a single bomber over the target, the weapons got larger and more destructive and were developed to be launched from satellite locations around the globe. Among the largest of these weapons was one by the Soviet Union known as Tsar Bomba, the most powerful and destructive nuclear weapon created. Tested in 1961, it held the destructive capacity of nearly 100 megatons.

Following the deployment of Tsar Bomba and the continued testing of nuclear weapons around the world by the United States, the United Kingdom, and the USSR, the international community began to pressure these countries to limit their testing for political and health reasons. It was clear after the nuclear weapons were dropped in Japan that the fallout and radiation from nuclear weapons could have long-term health effects and that the continued testing of these devices was going to have negative impacts around the world where this radiation traveled. This resulted in the 1963 passing of the Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, which prohibited the testing of nuclear weapons above ground, underwater, or in outer space, and only allowed testing in underground facilities to limit the impact of these nuclear weapons on the environment and our atmosphere.

The Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty was passed in October of 1963 by the three nuclear nations, the United States, United Kingdom, and the USSR. It also was signed and ratified by over 136 other states around the world. Its intent was to slow the nuclear arms race down, and while it did not accomplish that, it did successfully reduce the negative impact that nuclear arms testing was having on the atmosphere and environment.

While the Partial Test Ban Treaty did reduce nuclear testing, it also forced all involved countries' hands in curtailing their nuclear weapon development. Instead of developing weapons that were the most destructive, they focused on lighter, more efficient nuclear weapons that could be more easily transported further distances more strategically. Many countries realized that if they could

load multiple nuclear weapons into a long-range bomber, their destructive capacity could be more strategic and greater than just dropping one large giant bomb. As a result, the policy of the United States shifted to a first-strike policy against Soviet aggression in Eastern Europe. The Soviet Union responded with a policy of retaliatory strikes. As these policies towards the use of nuclear weapons developed, and the technologies between the two countries became more equitable, the leadership of all nuclear powers concluded that there was a status of mutually assured destruction (MAD). This meant that if one country was to launch a first strike using a nuclear weapon, the other country would retaliate in its maximum capacity, ensuring that both countries involved would be assured of a high level of destruction as a result of the mutual nuclear strikes.

As a result of MAD and expanding nuclear capacities, countries sought to achieve more aggressive first strike capacities to ensure if nuclear weapons were used, they had a strategic advantage in using them. This meant building air bases in more strategic locations and developing advanced technology that could allow weapons to be launched further distances using more powerful aircraft or better rocketry. Furthermore, nuclear powers were forced to develop better computer technology and radar to track possible incoming nuclear weapons and bombers.

The United Nations and Nuclear Disarmament
The issue of nuclear disarmament quickly arose as several nations began expanding and developing nuclear weapon capacities. While the United States, United Kingdom, and the USSR remained as the only countries to possess nuclear weapons into the 1950s, nations like France and China explored their development, and by the 1960s, both nations had functioning nuclear warheads. While the powers of the world explored developing and advancing their nuclear technologies, other states sought to limit their capacities. Realizing that one mishap could result in unparalleled destruction led to a strong movement against the continued proliferation of nuclear weapons.

In an effort to combat this, the United Nations General Assembly introduced the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons. Through this international agreement, all states ratifying the treaty would agree to stop the pursuit of nuclear technology for weapons or destructive purposes. Countries that possess the technology would be asked to look to begin the process of disarmament and be allowed to collaborate and develop nuclear technology for beneficial or peaceful uses. The states considered to be nuclear weapons states under the agreement are the United States, United Kingdom, France, USSR, and China, or all states knowingly possessing nuclear weapons in 1967.

The objective of the treaty was a step in the right direction for the international community. The treaty's approach was threefold: looking to curtail proliferation, begin the process of disarmament and seek to find benefits from peaceful uses of the technology. While the treaty did help with disarmament efforts, it did not completely stop the proliferation of this weapon technology. In 1974 the state of India went against the treaty and conducted its first nuclear test. It, as well as several other states, have refused to ratify the treaty due to their own objections and nuclear interests.

End of the Cold War
As the Cold War has come towards an end, new fears have arisen regarding nuclear proliferation, namely the consequences of nuclear weapons getting into the wrong hands. These threats exist in two primary places: South Africa and Eastern Europe. During apartheid, the South African government engaged in the practice of developing nuclear technology as a means of fending off perceived threats to the government's stability. Now that the governments and political control of the country have drastically changed as a nation, they are looking to disarm themselves from their nuclear weapon technology.

In Eastern Europe, similar concerns are arising. As the USSR begins the process of dissolving, there is a persisting fear that their large nuclear stockpiles could fall into the hands of new states or individuals who could use them in a more erratic and threatening means. Furthermore, a lack of security of this technology by both states creates a greater threat of potential conflict arising.

Current Situation

The international community has taken many steps over the past two decades to limit and shrink the nuclear stockpiles of the major powers and find ways to curtail the dangerous arms race that lasted through most of the Cold War. Now, as the global balance of power changes, new issues must be discussed. First, how does the world move forward with these weapons still in existence? What protocols should be universally accepted to ensure the disarmament process is safe and environmentally friendly? Finally, with a changing power balance comes the risk that new states will pursue nuclear technology as they seek to fill a vacuum in the region. How should the United Nations react to these potential developments, and where do these threats pose the greatest challenge?

Bloc Positions

Western Bloc
Western nations, such as the NATO countries and other allied states, traditionally agree with moving to disarm nuclear states and reduce the overall number of nuclear weapons in the world. While the United States, France, and the United Kingdom are unlikely to disarm their nuclear arsenals totally, they have shown a willingness to greatly reduce nuclear capacities worldwide and have sponsored such treaties in the past.

Eastern Bloc
While there is more resistance to nuclear disarmament in the Eastern Bloc, a willingness to gradually disarm has been displayed. The major concern with this bloc is their lack of transparency, specifically surrounding the security and safety of the disarming process.

Asian Bloc
This bloc is divided between two nuclear states, China and the DPRK. China overall has shown a willingness to disarm its nuclear weapons, and similar to the United States and USSR, would likely gradually do so if other nuclear states took similar affirmable steps. The DPRK is the

major concern in the region as they have shown a reluctance to take any affirmable steps back in their unconfirmed nuclear technology

Discussion Questions

- What are the key problems under the topic of nuclear disarmament that must be addressed by the United Nations?
- How can the United Nations regulate its resolutions on the issue of nuclear disarmament?
- What should the long-term goal of the United Nations be with regards to nuclear disarmament?
- How can nuclear weapons and material safely be disarmed without it posing a security or environmental threat in the future?
- Should independent nations work alone or collaboratively when dealing with possible disarmament?
- How do we ensure nuclear states are following proper protocols when disarming their nuclear weapons?

Keywords

- Nuclear Proliferation
- Nuclear disarmament
- Rogue State

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United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) 1991
Topic: Equality in the Postcolonial States

Executive Summary

Beginning in the early sixteenth century, European nations implemented the system of colonization, which explored, conquered, settled, and exploited large areas of the world.[1] Colonization's 500-year impact forever changed the development of African, Asian, Oceanic and American nations by reigning over massive groups of natives and instilling European rulers or simply importing settlers to replace the native population. Equality among native and colonized peoples has yet to be fully achieved due to the Europeanization of colonized territories and the unjust treatment of native cultures and populations. This issue increased relevance in the United Nations General Assembly in the latter half of the twentieth century, as 36 new states in Asia and Africa gained autonomy or independence from their colonizers between 1945 and 1960.[2] While in 1946 there were only 35 members of this body, by 1970 membership had grown to 127 members and today we've reached 166 members. The number of postcolonial states has been a large reason for the increase in membership; thus, the issue of equality in postcolonial states is a hallmark issue for this body.

Historical Background

Beginning of the Modern Colonial Era: *15th Century*
The first countries to leap at the opportunity to explore, conquer and exploit new lands was Portugal and Spain, who rose in prominence during the Age of Discovery.[3] Portugal's Henry the Navigator was interested in exploring the coastline of Africa, because it offered the potential to navigate around the continent to bypass Arab power in North Africa, which limited Portugal's trade routes to India and the Far East. In 1497, Vasco de Gama became the first European to travel around Africa to Asia when he sailed around the Cape of Good Hope to Calicut, India. A few years earlier, Christopher Columbus sailed west from Spain seeking a similar trade route to India but sailed straight into the Americas. In just a decade, European countries developed sea routes to Asia, East Africa, and the Americas; this decade would change world politics completely.

The Europeans immediately claimed these newly accessed lands as their own. The 1494 Treaty of Tordesillas ceded all land further west than 1,300 miles of the Cape Verde Islands to the Spaniards and all land east to the Portuguese, ignoring the indigenous people who called that land home.[4] During the sixteenth century, the French joined fellow European colonizers in the Americas and in Africa with the establishment of Senegalese trading points in 1624. The British began settling in North America less than 100 years later. Exploration, trade, and colonization

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[1] https://www.britannica.com/topic/Western-colonialism
[2] https://history.state.gov/milestones/1945-1952/asia-and-africa
[3] https://www.britannica.com/topic/European-exploration/The-Age-of-Discovery
[4] https://www.britannica.com/topic/Western-colonialism/Portugals-seaborne-empire

only grew to match the Portuguese and Spanish after the formations of the British and French East India Companies in 1600 and 1664 respectively.[5]

Mercantilism, Industrialization, and the Growth of Empires 1600-1881
Each nation varied in both their reasons for colonizing foreign lands and their choice of the colonial systems implemented. British colonizers looked to find a better life in the New World, rise from poverty, eventually become landowners, and in some cases live in religious freedom.[6] While the British implemented settler colonization that looked to replace the native population with a European population, the Spanish and Portuguese, who sought the plentiful gold and silver resources of the Americas, looked to eliminate and replace the native culture.[7] As smallpox decimated native populations in the Americas, killing almost 90 percent of natives in the central Mexican valleys by 1550, indigenous culture and religion were repressed by colonizers while Europeanization of the remaining population began.[8] The Europeans believed themselves to be dominant over the indigenous Africans or North Americans, which facilitated the dehumanization and atrocities that often occurred during colonization.

Colonization along the coasts of Africa, East Asia, Oceana, and the subcontinent of India during this time period all served the purpose of establishing trading posts and ports to send valuable resources and materials back to Europe.[9] After military victories established European dominance, the colonization process was extended as the European powers cultivated indirect rule through supporting local indigenous rulers who were friendly to European control. During this time, the European populations in these colonies never came close to rivaling the native populations. Over several centuries—only in North America due to the devastation caused by smallpox—he European population grew to outnumber the native population.

Colonization began as a form of increasing trade revenue by gaining access to valuable resources but over time developed into a system of conquest. Russia, formally the Grand Duchy of Moscow, continued steadily gaining territory in northern and central Asia as well as North America from 1552 until the late nineteenth century through military conquest. Operating similarly to the Spanish and Portuguese, Russification systematically attempted to unify all conquered territory through the language and culture, necessitating the abandonment of any prior native culture.[10]

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*The Scramble for Africa and New Imperialism
1881-1914*

A second industrial revolution, beginning in 1870's Europe, prompted European powers to look to Africa as a source of resources to fuel booming economies as well as new markets to sell to.[11] The 1884-85 Berlin Conference eliminated almost all resemblance of African self-government and portioned the continent into territories of Britain, France, Portugal, Spain, Belgium, Italy and Germany.[12] The only two states that remained free within a few years after the Berlin Conference were Ethiopia and Liberia.[13] Not only did this conference eliminate Africa's right to self-govern, as they were not even invited to the decision-making table, but it arbitrarily divided up ethnic groups.

The invention of the Maxim gun allowed European powers to easily overpower the native tribes in military conflict. For years, European powers had been benefiting from African internal conflict as the slave trade became a primary component of the Triangular Trade. Under this system, slaves were sold from Africa to the Americas; sugar, tobacco, and cotton were sold from the Americas to Europe; and textiles, rum, and manufactured goods were sold from Europe to Africa.[14] Within Africa, the slave trade involved rival groups selling their conquered enemies to Europeans to be sent away to the Americas as slaves. Left behind were the sick and elderly as well as those most useful to the Europeans due to their alliances. This eventually made it easier for the Europeans to conquer Africa; however, it was only due to the advances in technology, such as the Maxim gun that improved warfare strategies and steamships and allowed inward continental travel, that colonizers became successful in completely colonizing Africa.[15]

France subscribed to the "Frenchification" of Africa, instilling the French language and culture in its colonies while installing a direct rule where Africans could still become government officials and represent the colonies. The British, on the other hand, repeated their Indian colonization process and utilized indirect rule through tribal leaders to maintain control while swiftly putting down rebellions through force.[16] It was through British prerogatives to not mix with Africans that the brutal subjugation of South Africans and the apartheid state came to exist today. During the latter half of the nineteenth century, America, a former subject of the British

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[11] http://exhibitions.nypl.org/africanaage/essay-colonization-of-africa.html

[12]

http://www.cnn.com/2010/WORLD/africa/08/02/independence.africa.colonialism/index.html

[13] https://www.dw.com/en/130-years-ago-carving-up-africa-in-berlin/a-18278894

[14] https://www.britannica.com/topic/transatlantic-slave-trade#ref1224781
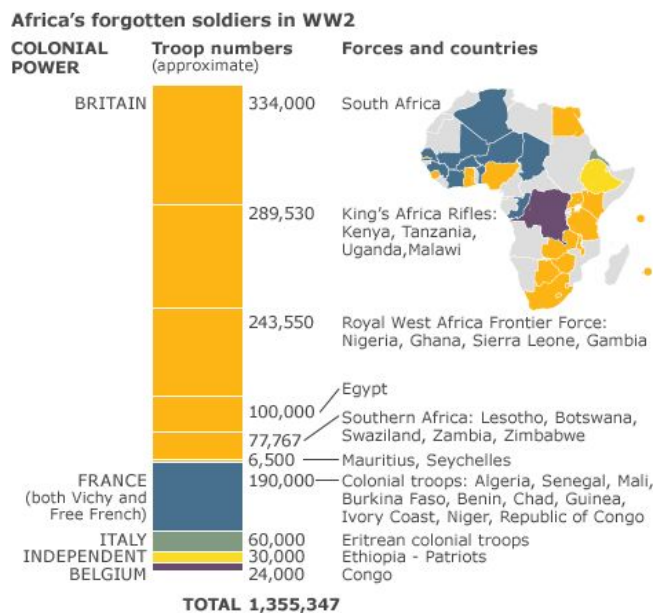
[15] https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=alJaltUmrGo

[16] Idem

Empire, became a colonial power.[17] In 1898, America became involved in the Spanish-American War when America entangled itself in the Cuban War of Independence and in Spain's territory within the Philippines. After the conclusion of the war four months later, the United States gained control of Puerto Rico, the Philippines, and Guam, which were previously-held Spanish territories.

One of the lesser-known aspects of colonization is that colonized states were often relied upon during times of great military or financial need for their European and American rulers. The most well-known example is the American Revolutionary War, which began after American colonists were taxed to pay off England's debt in the Seven Years' War. Americans refused to pay the taxes and revolted against England for independence. Many African and South American countries have been taxed or used in military drafts during major wars of the eighteenth, nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Between 1914 and 1918, 2,350,000 Africans were mobilized to fight on both sides of World War I. More than 250,000 soldiers and 750,000 civilians from Africa died during this period.[18] A few decades later, more than 1.3 million Africans fought in World War II, either by choice or by involuntary conscription.[19]

Africa's forgotten soldiers in WW2

COLONIAL POWER	Troop numbers (approximate)	Forces and countries
BRITAIN	334,000	South Africa
	289,530	King's Africa Rifles: Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi
	243,550	Royal West Africa Frontier Force: Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Gambia
	100,000	Egypt / Southern Africa: Lesotho, Botswana, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe
	77,767	
	6,500	Mauritius, Seychelles
FRANCE (both Vichy and Free French)	190,000	Colonial troops: Algeria, Senegal, Mali, Burkina Faso, Benin, Chad, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Niger, Republic of Congo
ITALY	60,000	Eritrean colonial troops
INDEPENDENT	30,000	Ethiopia - Patriots
BELGIUM	24,000	Congo

TOTAL 1,355,347

Source: Fighting for Britain: African Soldiers in the Second World War, Spring 2010

Present Day 1991

At the founding of the United Nations in 1945, a third of the world's population lived in territories dependent on a foreign power.[20] Currently, large swathes of the entire world have been decolonized and the number of nations ruling with self-government is higher than it has been in centuries. The exception to this statement is the USSR, which still holds the north and central Asian territories accumulated in Russia's previous 400 years of expansion. Over the past hundred years, all colonies in Southeast Asia, India, the Middle East have been granted independence from their colonizers, and South American countries fought for independence from Spain and Portugal in the 1800s.

The main problems in our current decolonized world lie in the nations that were culturally overthrown by colonizers: Europeanization in South America, South Africa, and India,

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[17] https://history.state.gov/departmenthistory/short-history/superpower
[18] https://encyclopedia.1914-1918-online.net/article/war_losses_africa
[19] http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/8344170.stm
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"Frenchification" in west Africa, and Russification in central Asia. Formally colonized populations still attempt to recover the tradition, culture, language and autonomy that their colonizers robbed them of. Currently, the most egregious example of this inequality is that of formally British-held South Africa, where the systematic victimization of the African citizens is perpetuated by the ethnically European government and racist legislation. While the segregation of South African apartheid currently serves as the hallmark of colonial injustice, it echoes the inequalities faced in the liberation of India and other colonized peoples. Must all decolonized regions go through such dramatic change to strive towards equality for all citizens of the country? Which decolonized states still need to go through this systemic change to take back their rights from their colonizers?

In this committee, we will discuss the repercussions of colonialism in this new post-colonial world, and how formerly colonial states were influenced by the division of their ethnic and religious groups. The issue of equality in postcolonial states goes beyond analyzing the impact of colonialism and into the present-day issue these states are facing. While the specifics differ between countries, broadly, postcolonial states face a lack of local infrastructure, a trusted and tested system of governance, energy dependence, a lack of national identity, ethnic division and conflicts, rampant poverty, corruption, and religious inequality. This litany of challenges hinders the rehabilitation of postcolonial states and must be addressed by this body.

Bloc Positions

Postcolonial States
The members of this bloc, which spans across South America, Asia, the Middle East, and Africa, are at the center of this issue. Numerous postcolonial states only gained independence in the last few decades and are still reeling from the challenges of self-governance in the late twentieth century. These challenges include internal conflict, poverty, and a lack of global wealth compared to the colonizers who exploited colonial land for resources. Postcolonial states will be arguing for support during this transitional period and need to decide whether that includes foreign economic assistance. Many of these states came into being during the current conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union and were pressured to choose between the sides of this conflict. In 1991, what options do postcolonial states have to continue self-governance in the face of the Cold War?

Former Colonizing Countries
Many European countries, including the United Kingdom, Spain, Portugal, Germany, France, and Belgium, have lost control of their colonial holdings in the past few decades. This committee must decide what role these countries must play in the equality-building process as well as what responsibility they bear for the instability in postcolonial states. Additionally, many former colonizing countries such as the United States and European nations are wealthy and hypothetically able to donate aid to postcolonial states. These states must decide the value of continuing to financially invest in developing countries.

Discussion Questions
1. What role should former colonizing countries play in addressing equality in postcolonial states?
2. Should European borders within Africa drawn up during the Berlin Conference be used to decide where countries stand in 1991?
3. What role should the United Nations play in violent conflicts within postcolonial states?

Keywords
- Berlin Conference
- Postcolonial State
- Frenchification
- Exploitation
- Colonization

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United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) 1991
Topic: Israel-Palestine Conflict

Executive Summary

At its base, the Israel-Palestine conflict has always been a conflict over land. Still, the longevity of regional tensions proves that the conflict goes far beyond property and into the realm of issues of recognition, religious and historical tradition, and border security. Though regional tensions in the Middle East have cooled in the past few decades as Israel has settled into its position along the eastern side of the Mediterranean, the 1987 Intifada proved that the conflict is far from over. As the Gulf War appears to be coming to a close this year, many believe that now is the time to begin working toward a solution to the long-lasting Israel-Palestine conflict that has shaped Middle Eastern security for decades.[1]

Historical Background

Ottoman History
The United Nations was formed in 1945 to encourage peace and maintain international security, but one of the first issues the new body had to deal with was already decades old.[2] In the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, colonial powers from Europe were heavily involved in the Middle East, especially during and after World War I. Before that conflict, the contested land was a part of the Ottoman Empire.[3] The Ottoman Empire was Islamic, but their unique stance allowing freedom of religion meant that numerous European settlements and colonies developed within the empire.[4] Arguably the most important for the future Israel-Palestine conflict were the Jewish agricultural settlements, which originated in the Ottoman Empire at the same time the idea of Zionism gained prominence in Europe.[5] During World War I, Great Britain and France signed the Sykes-Picot Agreement with Russian support, which stated their intention to partition the Ottoman Empire amongst themselves if the Entente was victorious.[6] One year later, in 1917, the British government created a stance on Zionism and the plight of the Jewish people through the Balfour Declaration which supported "the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people (while also specifying that "nothing may be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine."[7] As World War I drew to a close, the region fell under Britain's domain as it became the mandatory power.[8]

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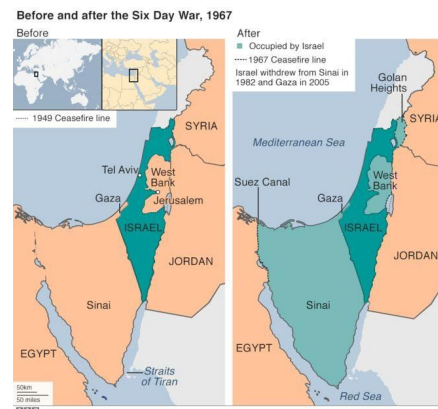[8] http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/shared/spl/hi/middle_east/03/v3_ip_timeline/html/1917.stm

British Mandate for Palestine

The League of Nations passed jurisdiction of Palestine from the Ottoman Empire to the British Empire, and subsequently, Jewish immigration to the region increased at an enormous rate.[9] Between 1922 and 1937, more than 300,000 Jewish people immigrated to the region, leading to conflict and violence between the Jewish immigrants and the Arabic Palestinians.[10] Within this region sits the city of Jerusalem, home to the holiest sites of the three major Abrahamic religions—Judaism, Islam, and Christianity—and the importance of this specific city cannot be understated.[11] Violence in the region grew until it boiled over during the Arab Revolt in Palestine from 1936 to 1939. Nationalistic fervor led Palestinian Arabs to revolt against the British and their policy of open-ended Jewish immigration and to call for Arab independence, but this movement was put down by British forces.[12] The British government proposed the partition of Palestine into Arab and Jewish states, but after this was rejected by all other parties, moved on to pass the White Paper of 1939, which became the policy for Palestine for the next decade.[13] Thus, the British government heavily restricted Jewish immigration to the region in an attempt to limit the violence.

Creation of the State of Israel

The Holocaust during World War II involved the extermination of six million Jews and the forced displacement of millions of others.[14] After the Allies won the war and the events of this atrocity fully came to light, support for a Jewish homeland in Palestine expanded like never before. The British passed off responsibility to the newly formed United Nations and the General Assembly passed United Nations Resolution 181, which called for the partition of Palestine into Jewish and Arab states, leaving the city of Jerusalem as a separate entity to be governed by an international body.[15] This resolution was rejected by Palestinian Arabs, but was

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[11] https://www.vox.com/2018/11/20/18080040/jerusalem-israel-palestine

[12] https://www.aljazeera.com/archive/2003/12/2008410112850675832.html

[13] https://www.britannica.com/place/Israel/Immigration-and-conflict#ref260197

[14] https://encyclopedia.ushmm.org/content/en/article/documenting-numbers-of-victims-of-the-holocaust-and-nazi-persecution

[15] https://www.britannica.com/topic/United-Nations-Resolution-181

considered to be the legal go-ahead for the founding of Israel. A day later, conflict erupted in the region as the citizens of Palestine fought amongst themselves over the plan. This 1947 civil war grew into the 1948 Arab-Israeli War when the British Mandate for Palestine ended in May of 1948 and the first prime minister of Israel, David Ben-Gurion, proclaimed the establishment of the State of Israel.[16] One day later on May 15, 1948, forces from Egypt, Jordan, Syria, and Iraq entered Palestine and began attacking Jewish settlements.[17] Over the next year, fighting erupted across the area until January 1949 when an armistice agreement was reached. In the end, Israel was not as easily defeated as the Arab countries expected, and instead retained 80 percent of the land that was supposed to be split between the Jewish and Arabic Palestinians under United Nations Resolution 181, displacing hundreds of thousands of Palestinians.[18]

Continuing Conflict
Between the 1948 Arab-Israeli conflict and the late 1960s, up to one million Jewish refugees and as many as 250,000 Jewish Holocaust survivors moved to Israel, replacing the 750,000 Palestinian Arabs displaced in the late 1940s.[19] During this time, the United States continued to develop a relationship with Israel that laid the ground for the long-term alliance that shaped western foreign policy today.[20] The next stage of the Israel-Palestine conflict occurred in June 1967 when Israel launched a preemptive attack on Egypt due to Egypt's closure of the Straits of Tiran to Israeli shipping vessels and the expulsion of U.N. buffer forces from the Sinai region.[21] Most of Egypt's air force was destroyed on the ground within a few hours, and this event set the trend for the remainder of what would be called the Six Day War. In less than a week, Israel destroyed the Egyptian, Jordanian, and Syrian militaries and gained control of east Jerusalem, the entirety of the West Bank, Gaza, Golan Heights, and Sinai.[22] In protest to Israel's rapid acquisition of land in the region and another mass exodus of Palestinians from the Holy Land, the United Nations Security Council passed Resolution 242, which affirmed the need for peace in the region and encouraged Israel to end its occupation of the newly taken territory.[23] Six years later, Egypt and Syria launched a two-front war on the Jewish holiday of Yom Kippur in order to regain the territory lost in 1967.[24] The Cold War was at its height in the early 1970s, and the Soviet Union provided weapons to the Arabs while the United States supported the Israelis. After three weeks of fighting, the Egyptian and Syrian forces had won, and lost, their advantage, and global oil prices skyrocketed after OPEC reduced its oil production by five percent in response to the conflict and Israel's continued occupation.[25] The United Nations Security Council passed Resolution 338, which called for peace negotiations and reaffirmed the goals of Resolution 242.

[16] https://history.state.gov/milestones/1945-1952/creation-israel
[17] https://www.britannica.com/event/Arab-Israeli-wars
[18] https://www.aljazeera.com/archive/2003/12/2008410115114656999.html#1948
[19] https://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-29123668
[20] Ibid.
[21] Ibid.
[22] https://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-39960461
[23] https://www.un.org/unispal/history/
[24]
https://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2017/10/arab-israeli-war-of-1973-what-happened-171005105247349.html
[25] Ibid.

[26] In the end, relations between the countries eventually warmed, and Egypt and Syria regained some of their previous territory.[27]

Moving into the Present
The events of the Yom Kippur War directly led to the Camp David Accords in September 1978, when American President Jimmy Carter hosted a summit for Egyptian President Anwar el-Sadat and Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin.[28] By the end of the summit, the two leaders agreed to support Palestinian self-government in the West Bank and Gaza and a peace treaty between the two countries. Because of this summit and the warming of relations, Israel agreed to withdraw from the Sinai Peninsula and Egypt became the first Arab nation to recognize the State of Israel.[29] A year later, Palestinian refugees and the Palestinian Liberation Organization were expelled from Jordan and fled into neighboring Lebanon which facilitated Israel's eventual invasion of Lebanon in June 1982.[30] Later that year, thousands of Palestinians were massacred in Beirut by Israel's allies, and international opinion turned against the war.[31] Israel withdrew from Lebanon in 1985, but tensions remained high.

Current Situation

The largest event in recent Israeli-Palestinian history is the outbreak of the Intifada in December 1987, when protests in a Palestinian refugee camp spread to the Gaza Strip and the West Bank.[32] The protests for national independence began as nonviolent actions such as mass boycotts, protests, and refusing to work within Israel; but after the protests were met with violence, they drastically became more deadly.[33] The violence is still ongoing at this time in 1991, and one of the crucial issues of this committee will be addressing the violence and deciding on what path the United Nations General Assembly should take. Additionally, the states of Israel and Palestine—which hold non-state observer status within the United Nations—are still in conflict, and the idea of a partition must be weighed by this committee.

Bloc Positions

United States
The U.S. has historically been a strong supporter of Israel. In the wake of the Intifada, the U.S. stood as an outlier in the UNSC by refusing to condemn Israel for actions taken during the conflict, including a resolution condemning Israel for violations of the Geneva Convention. In

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[26] https://www.un.org/unispal/history/
[27]
https://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2017/10/arab-israeli-war-of-1973-what-happened-171005105247349.html
[28] https://www.britannica.com/event/Camp-David-Accords
[29] https://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-29123668
[30] https://www.aljazeera.com/archive/2003/12/2008410115114656999.html#1948
[31] https://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-29123668
[32] https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2017/12/stories-intifada-broke-bones-171210111414673.html
[33] https://www.vox.com/2018/11/20/18080066/israel-palestine-intifadas-first-second

1988, the U.S. voted in favor of UNSC Resolution 607, which called on Israel to cease its policy of deporting Palestinians and abstained from UNSC Resolution 608 days later which reaffirmed Resolution 607's sentiments in the wake of continued deportations. President George Bush supports the Israeli cause, but the extent to which the U..S will aid Israel and with what stipulations is not yet known.

USSR
Though the USSR was one of the first nations to recognize the independence of Israel in 1948, they severed all diplomatic relations in 1967, following Israel's policies during the Six-Day War. In recent years they have voted in favor of draft resolutions condemning Israel for its actions in the Intifada. The USSR is one of the largest sponsors of the Palestinian Liberation Organization, and as of 1988, recognizes the sole authority of the Palestinian state in the region.

Arab States
Since 1948, members of the Arab League, excluding Egypt, have remained in a state of war with Israel, as no peace deal has been signed. Though relations have slowly been veering toward a settlement, members of the Arab League do not recognize Israel and instead only recognize the traditionally Arabic Palestine as the rightful state within the region. The refugee crisis caused by the Israel-Palestine conflict affects these countries the most heavily.

U.S. Allies
While each country has a specific stance on the controversial Israel-Palestine conflict, the United States' weight as a global hegemon has helped to create a group of countries that often align politically with the U.S. on international issues. Many U.S. allies do not recognize Palestine as a state, even while supporting a two-state solution, instead supporting direct negotiations between Israel and Palestine. This group includes Germany, Switzerland, Canada, Japan, and Australia, among others.

Developing Countries
This broad bloc encompasses a wide range of countries which mostly recognize both Israel and Palestine. The countries that make up the African Union all recognize Palestine, as does China, India, North Korea, and most Latin American countries.

Discussion Questions

- What role can the international community play in solving the Israel-Palestine conflict, and what responsibility do outside actors within the region hold for the animosity and tensions between these actors?
- Why is 1991 the time for taking steps closer to solving this decades long conflict?
- Does the United Nations have the right to intervene in a conflict older than the body itself?
- How can the United Nations General Assembly work to prevent further violence in the Intifada?
- Is Israel obligated to return to is territorial holdings from pre-1967 as U.N. Resolution 242 proclaims?

● What would the global community do in the face of another oil crisis like that which occurred during the Yom Kippur War of 1973?

Keywords

- Intifada
- Zionism
- Two-State-Solution
- Sykes-Picot Agreement
- Balfour Declaration
- Arab-Israeli War of 1948
- Six Day War
- Yom Kippur War
- Camp David Accords

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