



HCC

Historical Crisis Committee

Official Study Guide



AGENDA

Addressing the Escalation of the Arab-Israeli Conflict Following the Egyptian and Syrian Offensive of October 1973 or the yom kippur war considering the 6 day war with special emphasis on the Sinai region and Golan heights and its impact and escalatory consequences on the tensions between the USA and USSR in the middle east.

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Letter from the EB

Dear delegates,

It is with great pleasure that we, the Executive Board, welcome you to the Historic Crisis Committee at JBCN Oshiwara MUN 2026. We are honoured to host such a distinguished gathering of individuals who are ready to step into the shoes of decision makers during one of the most pivotal and volatile periods in history. As citizens of the global community, we recognise the importance of understanding the past to shape the future as every action has a consequence. Over the course of this conference, delegates of the Historic Crisis Committee at JBCN Oshiwara MUN 2026, will immerse themselves completely in a setting where swift thinking, adaptability, and diplomacy are paramount and crucial.

You will find yourselves at the centre of a fast paced simulation where the smallest decisions can alter the course of history. A respectable fraction of you have been involved in Model UN for years while the rest of you are embarking on your first crisis committee experience. However, as your Executive Board, we can assure you that regardless of your prior involvement in the world of MUN, you will leave this two-day conference with sharper analytical skills, a deeper understanding of historical geopolitics, and an appreciation for the complexities of decision-making in times of crisis. We are dedicated to make this a memorable experience for you all and should you require any assistance or clarification, please feel free to approach us at any time.

The HCC not only offers a platform to engage with a multifaceted historical setting but also provides the unique opportunity to witness and influence events as they unfold. This will allow you to refine your strategic thinking, strengthen your debating skills, and build lasting connections that extend beyond the conference itself. In the coming days, we will engage in discussions and address situations that will challenge both your resolve and your creativity. We encourage you to make the most of this opportunity, exchange diverse perspectives, and work together towards meaningful solutions that will uphold the standard of this committee. Welcome to JBCN Oshiwara MUN 2026, and may our shared journey through the Historic Crisis Committee be engaging, challenging, and rewarding.

Aryan Mehta
Director

Thea Paras Kanani
Assistant Director

Panache Kataria
Crisis Co-ordinator

Introduction to the Committee

The Historical Crisis Committee (HCC) is a specialised committee that allows delegates to step into the shoes of key historical figures and re-examine pivotal events from the past. Unlike conventional Model UN committees, the HCC does not operate on standard parliamentary procedure. Instead, it is a dynamic and action based committee that functions through continuous crisis updates, speeches, and directives.

Each delegate is assigned a specific historical role, often political or military, and is expected to make decisions that can alter the course of history through a combination of formal and informal debate and paperwork. The HCC is mandated to simulate high-stakes scenarios in a historically accurate yet interactive format. Delegates must balance personal portfolios with wider geopolitical objectives while reacting to real-time developments introduced by the crisis team. The committee's agenda typically spans military operations, economic mobilisation, intelligence gathering, and propaganda campaigns, requiring a balance of strategic planning and persuasive advocacy.

By simulating the pressure of a crisis cabinet, the HCC challenges delegates to think critically, negotiate under pressure, and understand the intersection of military, political, and humanitarian concerns. To succeed delegates must craft coherent strategies, allocate resources, and respond to surprise developments under strict time constraints. The committee rewards innovation, adaptability, and a deep understanding of historical context.

At this conference the agenda is unique and is one not to be seen or discussed in any conference previous to this ,it is the stepping stone and cause of how the middle east looks how it is today,At this conference we will discuss the Yom Kippur war the war that took place on the holy day of the jews where israel was invaded from two fronts by egypt and syria who tried to regain territory and power over the middle east respectively took place,In this committee it is you,the delegates who get to decide the fate of the region,the fate of one of the most influential and controversial nations in the world known as the state of Israel.

List of Key Terms

1. Arab-Israeli Conflict

The Arab-Israeli Conflict refers to the series of political, territorial, military, and ideological disputes between Israel and various Arab states beginning with the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948. By the freeze date of 6 October 1973, the conflict had already produced four major wars and had become deeply intertwined with Cold War geopolitics. The conflict's central issues include territorial control, Palestinian self-determination, regional security, and recognition of state sovereignty. Understanding this broader conflict is essential because the Yom Kippur War was not an isolated event but rather a continuation of unresolved tensions stemming from previous wars.

2. Six-Day War (1967)

The Six-Day War was fought between Israel and a coalition consisting primarily of Egypt, Syria, and Jordan from 5–10 June 1967. Israel achieved a decisive military victory and captured the Sinai Peninsula, Gaza Strip, West Bank, East Jerusalem, and Golan Heights. The war fundamentally altered the strategic balance of power in the Middle East and left Arab states seeking to recover lost territories. The territorial changes resulting from the Six-Day War were the primary cause of the 1973 conflict.

3. Sinai Peninsula

The Sinai Peninsula is a strategically significant landmass connecting Africa and Asia and separating mainland Egypt from Israel. Following the Six-Day War, Israel occupied Sinai, depriving Egypt of territory, prestige, and control over important strategic positions along the Suez Canal. By 1973, Egyptian President Anwar Sadat viewed the recovery of Sinai as both a military and political necessity. Consequently, Sinai became the principal theatre of Egyptian operations during the Yom Kippur War.

4. Golan Heights

The Golan Heights is a volcanic plateau overlooking northern Israel and southern Syria. Israel captured the territory from Syria during the Six-Day War. Due to its elevated terrain, the Golan Heights possess immense military value, allowing forces stationed there to observe and target large areas below. Syria's participation in the October 1973 offensive was largely motivated by the desire to regain this territory.

5. Suez Canal

The Suez Canal is one of the world's most important maritime routes, linking the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. During the period between 1967 and 1973, the canal served as the front line separating Egyptian and Israeli forces. Control of the canal carried significant military, economic, and political implications. Egypt's successful crossing of the canal on 6 October 1973 represented one of the most important achievements of Operation Badr.

6. Operation Badr

Operation Badr was the codename for Egypt's offensive against Israeli forces in Sinai on 6 October 1973. The operation involved crossing the Suez Canal, breaching the Israeli Bar-Lev Line, and establishing bridgeheads on the eastern bank. Carefully planned over several years, Operation Badr represented Egypt's attempt to reverse the humiliation of the Six-Day War and force a political settlement regarding occupied territories.

7. Bar-Lev Line

The Bar-Lev Line was a series of Israeli fortifications, bunkers, observation posts, and defensive positions constructed along the eastern bank of the Suez Canal following the Six-Day War. Israeli military planners considered it a formidable obstacle to any Egyptian assault. However, Egyptian engineers successfully breached the line using high-pressure water cannons and coordinated infantry assaults, demonstrating the vulnerability of static defenses against modern military planning.

8. Yom Kippur War

The Yom Kippur War began on 6 October 1973 when Egypt and Syria launched a surprise attack against Israel during Yom Kippur, the holiest day in Judaism. Known in the Arab world as the October War or Ramadan War, the conflict sought to reverse the territorial consequences of the Six-Day War. The war rapidly evolved from a regional conflict into a crisis with significant implications for U.S.-Soviet relations.

9. Strategic Surprise

Strategic surprise occurs when a state successfully conceals its military intentions and launches an attack before its opponent can adequately prepare. Egypt and Syria achieved strategic surprise on 6 October 1973 through deception operations, intelligence manipulation, and careful timing. This initial success allowed Arab forces to achieve significant early gains against Israel.

10. Conceptzia

The Conceptzia was the dominant assumption within Israeli intelligence that Egypt and Syria would not initiate war unless they possessed overwhelming military superiority. This belief caused Israeli intelligence agencies to dismiss numerous warnings of an impending attack. The failure of the Conceptzia became one of the most significant intelligence failures in modern military history.

11. United Nations Security Council Resolution 242

Adopted after the Six-Day War in November 1967, Resolution 242 established the principle of "land for peace." It called for Israeli withdrawal from territories occupied during the conflict and recognition of every state's right to live in peace within secure and recognized boundaries. The interpretation and implementation of Resolution 242 remained a major source of disagreement by 1973.

12. Detente

Detente refers to the period of reduced tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Despite efforts to improve relations through arms control agreements and diplomatic engagement, the Yom Kippur War tested the limits of detente by bringing both superpowers dangerously close to direct confrontation.

13. Proxy War

A proxy war occurs when major powers support opposing sides in a conflict without directly engaging each other militarily. The Arab-Israeli conflict became a classic Cold War proxy conflict as the United States supplied Israel while the Soviet Union provided extensive military assistance to Egypt and Syria.

14. Operation Nickel Grass

Operation Nickel Grass was the American strategic airlift launched to replenish Israeli military supplies during the Yom Kippur War. The operation delivered tanks, ammunition, aircraft components, and other military equipment that helped Israel recover from its initial setbacks. The operation demonstrated Washington's commitment to Israeli security and heightened tensions with Moscow.

15. Soviet Military Assistance

Throughout the Cold War, the Soviet Union supplied Egypt and Syria with advanced weaponry, training, advisors, and financial support. Soviet assistance enabled both states to modernize their armed forces and challenge Israeli military superiority. Soviet involvement made the conflict a significant arena of Cold War competition.

16. Anwar Sadat

Anwar Sadat became President of Egypt following the death of Gamal Abdel Nasser in 1970. Initially underestimated by both domestic and foreign observers, Sadat gradually consolidated power and pursued a strategy aimed at recovering Egyptian territory lost in 1967. Frustrated by diplomatic stagnation and Israel's refusal to withdraw from Sinai, Sadat concluded that limited military action was necessary to break the political deadlock. His decision to launch the October 1973 offensive fundamentally reshaped Middle Eastern politics.

17. Hafez al-Assad

Hafez al-Assad became President of Syria in 1971 after years of political instability within the Syrian government. Assad viewed the recovery of the Golan Heights as essential to Syria's national security and prestige. He coordinated closely with Egypt in planning the October offensive and sought to weaken Israel while strengthening Syria's regional influence.

18. Golda Meir

Golda Meir served as Prime Minister of Israel during the Yom Kippur War. Her government faced criticism for failing to anticipate the Arab attack despite receiving intelligence warnings. During the conflict, she oversaw Israel's mobilization and coordinated closely with the United States to secure military assistance.

19. Moshe Dayan

Moshe Dayan served as Israel's Minister of Defense and was widely regarded as one of Israel's most prominent military leaders. Following the initial Arab successes in October 1973, Dayan expressed serious concerns regarding Israel's military position. His actions and assessments during the war remain subjects of historical debate.

20. Henry Kissinger

Henry Kissinger served simultaneously as U.S. Secretary of State and National Security Advisor. He played a central role in managing American responses to the war and preventing a direct confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union. Following the conflict, Kissinger's "shuttle diplomacy" became instrumental in negotiating disengagement agreements.

21. Richard Nixon

Richard Nixon was President of the United States during the conflict. Despite domestic challenges, including the Watergate scandal, Nixon authorized extensive military assistance to Israel. His administration viewed the war through the broader framework of Cold War competition with the Soviet Union.

22. Leonid Brezhnev

Leonid Brezhnev was the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. During the conflict, he sought to maintain Soviet influence in the Arab world while avoiding a direct superpower confrontation. His interactions with the United States became increasingly important as the war escalated.

23. Gamal Abdel Nasser

Although Nasser died in 1970, his influence remained highly relevant in 1973. As President of Egypt from 1956 to 1970, he promoted Arab nationalism and led Egypt during the Six-Day War. Sadat's policies were often compared to those of Nasser, and many Arabs viewed the 1973 war as an opportunity to restore the prestige lost in 1967.

24. Arab Nationalism

Arab Nationalism is the belief that Arab peoples share a common identity, history, and destiny. During the mid-twentieth century, this ideology strongly influenced regional politics and encouraged cooperation among Arab states against Israel. Although Arab states frequently disagreed among themselves, Arab Nationalism remained a powerful political force.

25. Pan-Arabism

Pan-Arabism is the political objective of unifying Arab nations into a larger political entity. While practical implementation proved difficult, Pan-Arabist ideas motivated cooperation between Egypt and Syria and shaped public expectations regarding the Arab-Israeli conflict.

26. Ba'athism

Ba'athism is an Arab nationalist ideology emphasizing unity, socialism, and resistance to foreign influence. The Syrian government was heavily influenced by Ba'athist principles, which shaped its foreign policy and military objectives.

27. Israeli Occupied Territories

The term refers to territories captured by Israel during the Six-Day War, including Sinai, Gaza, the West Bank, East Jerusalem, and the Golan Heights. These territories became the central issue in subsequent peace negotiations and military conflicts.

28. United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF)

The United Nations Emergency Force was deployed following the 1956 Suez Crisis to separate Egyptian and Israeli forces. Its withdrawal in 1967 removed a significant buffer between the two states and contributed to the outbreak of the Six-Day War.

29. War of Attrition

The War of Attrition was fought primarily between Egypt and Israel from 1967 to 1970. Egypt sought to impose continuous military pressure on Israeli forces occupying Sinai. The conflict demonstrated Egypt's determination to recover lost territory and provided valuable military experience for both sides.

30. Strategic Depth

Strategic depth refers to the geographic space available to a state for defense and maneuver. Israel's capture of Sinai and the Golan Heights significantly increased its strategic depth, making these territories particularly important from a security perspective.

31. Mobilization

Mobilization is the process by which a state prepares its military forces for war. Israel relied heavily on reserve forces, making rapid mobilization essential to national defense. Delays in mobilization during October 1973 contributed to Israel's initial difficulties.

32. Reserve Forces

Reserve forces consist of civilians who can be called into military service during emergencies. Israel's military doctrine depended heavily on reservists, making preparedness and rapid deployment critical factors in wartime planning.

33. Surface-to-Air Missiles (SAMs)

Surface-to-Air Missiles are weapons designed to destroy enemy aircraft. Soviet-supplied SAM systems significantly reduced Israeli air superiority during the early stages of the war and represented a major evolution in modern warfare.

34. SA-6 Gainful

The SA-6 was one of the most effective Soviet missile systems used by Egypt and Syria. Its mobility and effectiveness challenged traditional assumptions regarding air power and contributed to early Arab successes.

35. Anti-Tank Guided Missiles (ATGMs)

ATGMs are precision-guided weapons designed to destroy armored vehicles. Their extensive use in 1973 demonstrated the vulnerability of tanks operating without adequate infantry support.

36. 9M14 Malyutka ("Sagger")

The Sagger missile was a Soviet-designed anti-tank weapon widely used by Egyptian and Syrian forces. It inflicted substantial losses on Israeli armor and became one of the defining weapons of the conflict.

37. Air Superiority

Air superiority refers to the ability to control airspace and conduct operations without significant interference from enemy aircraft. Prior to 1973, Israeli planners often assumed air superiority would be decisive. Arab air defense systems challenged this assumption.

38. Bridgehead

A bridgehead is a secured position established on the far side of a river or water obstacle. Egyptian forces successfully established multiple bridgeheads across the Suez Canal during Operation Badr.

39. Combined Arms Warfare

Combined arms warfare involves coordinating infantry, armor, artillery, engineers, and air power to achieve military objectives. Egypt's successful canal crossing demonstrated effective application of combined arms principles.

40. Intelligence Failure

An intelligence failure occurs when available information is misinterpreted, ignored, or inadequately acted upon. Israel's inability to anticipate the timing of the October offensive is frequently cited as one of the most significant intelligence failures in modern history.

41. Military Balance

The military balance refers to the relative strengths and weaknesses of opposing forces. Changes in Soviet military aid and Arab military modernization significantly altered the military balance between 1967 and 1973.

42. Escalation

Escalation refers to an increase in the intensity, scope, or consequences of a conflict. A central concern during the Yom Kippur War was whether regional fighting could escalate into direct confrontation between the United States and Soviet Union.

43. Nuclear Deterrence

Nuclear deterrence is the concept that the threat of nuclear retaliation discourages adversaries from taking certain actions. Although nuclear weapons were never used during the conflict, concerns regarding escalation influenced superpower decision-making.

44. DEFCON 3

DEFCON 3 is a heightened state of military readiness within the United States Armed Forces. The United States raised its alert status during the latter stages of the war in response to concerns regarding possible Soviet intervention.

45. Superpower Competition

The Middle East represented a major arena of competition between the United States and Soviet Union. Each sought influence through military aid, diplomacy, and strategic partnerships.

Timeline

1947

29 November – United Nations Partition Plan (Resolution 181)

The United Nations proposes partitioning British Mandatory Palestine into separate Jewish and Arab states. Jewish leaders largely accept the plan, while Arab leaders reject it.

1948

14 May – Establishment of the State of Israel

David Ben-Gurion declares the independence of Israel.

15 May – First Arab-Israeli War Begins

Egypt, Syria, Jordan, Iraq, and Lebanon invade the newly established State of Israel.

1949

Armistice Agreements Signed

Israel signs separate armistice agreements with neighboring Arab states, establishing the “Green Line.”

1952

Egyptian Revolution

The Free Officers Movement overthrows King Farouk, paving the way for Gamal Abdel Nasser's rise to power.

1956

26 July – Nationalization of the Suez Canal

Egypt nationalizes the Suez Canal, provoking Britain, France, and Israel.

October–November – Suez Crisis

Israel invades Sinai while Britain and France intervene militarily. International pressure forces their withdrawal.

1957

Israeli Withdrawal from Sinai

Israel withdraws from Sinai following international pressure and the deployment of UN peacekeepers.

1964

Creation of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)

The PLO is established to represent Palestinian national interests.

1966

Growing Border Clashes

Israeli-Syrian tensions intensify over water disputes and cross-border attacks.

1967

May – Regional Crisis Escalates

Egypt expels the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) from Sinai and closes the Strait of Tiran to Israeli shipping.

5–10 June – Six-Day War

Israel launches pre-emptive strikes against Egypt, Syria, and Jordan.

Results and conclusion of the war..(Extremley crucial)

- 1) Israel captures Sinai Peninsula from Egypt.
- 2) Israel captures Gaza Strip
- 3) Israel captures West Bank and East Jerusalem from Jordan.
- 4) Israel captures Golan Heights from Syria.

1967

22 November – UN Security Council Resolution 242

The Security Council calls for Israeli withdrawal from occupied territories and recognition of all states' right to exist in peace.

1968

Palestinian Guerrilla Activity Increases

Cross-border raids and Israeli retaliatory operations become more frequent.

1969

Beginning of the War of Attrition

Egypt launches sustained military operations against Israeli forces along the Suez Canal.

1970

Death of Gamal Abdel Nasser

Nasser dies and is succeeded by Anwar Sadat.

August – Ceasefire Ends the War of Attrition

Egypt and Israel agree to a ceasefire brokered by the United States.

Black September in Jordan

Jordan expels Palestinian militant organizations, significantly affecting regional politics.

1971

Sadat's Peace Initiatives Fail

Diplomatic efforts to regain Sinai produce little progress.

Hafez al-Assad Consolidates Power in Syria

Assad strengthens Syrian military and political institutions.

1972

Egypt Expels Soviet Military Advisors

Sadat removes thousands of Soviet advisors while continuing to receive Soviet military equipment.

Arab Military Planning Intensifies

Egypt and Syria begin detailed preparations for a coordinated offensive against Israel.

Early 1973

Joint Egyptian-Syrian War Planning

Military coordination between Cairo and Damascus reaches its highest level since 1967.

September 1973

Final Preparations for War

Egypt and Syria conduct military exercises and mobilizations while maintaining operational secrecy.

6 October 1973

14:00 Hours – Egyptian and Syrian Offensive Begins

Sinai Front

Egypt launches Operation Badr, crossing the Suez Canal and attacking the Bar-Lev Line.

Golan Front

Syrian forces launch a major assault against Israeli positions in the Golan Heights.

Strategic Surprise Achieved

Israeli intelligence fails to anticipate the timing of the attack despite multiple warning signs.

Freeze Date

14:00 Hours, 6 October 1973

Hostilities have just begun. Egyptian forces are crossing the Suez Canal, Syrian forces are advancing into the Golan Heights, Israel is beginning emergency mobilization, and both the United States and Soviet Union are closely monitoring developments that could escalate into a broader Cold War confrontation.

the initial crisis will be provided further at the end of the study guide.

Country Positions

Egypt

Egypt stands at the center of the present crisis. Since the conclusion of the Six-Day War in 1967, Egypt has sought the recovery of the Sinai Peninsula, which remains under Israeli occupation. The loss of Sinai represented not only a strategic setback but also a significant blow to Egyptian national prestige and regional influence. Following the death of Gamal Abdel Nasser in 1970, President Anwar Sadat inherited a difficult military and political situation.

Despite numerous diplomatic initiatives, including support for negotiations based upon United Nations Security Council Resolution 242, Egypt has achieved little progress toward regaining occupied territory.

As a consequence, Sadat adopted a strategy of limited war designed not necessarily to destroy Israel but rather to alter the political status quo and compel international attention toward Egyptian demands. Egypt has spent several years rebuilding its armed forces with extensive Soviet military assistance, focusing particularly on air defense systems, anti-tank weapons, and coordinated offensive planning. The crossing of the Suez Canal and assault on Israeli positions in Sinai reflects Cairo's determination to demonstrate military capability and restore Arab confidence.

Egypt's primary or main objectives include the recovery of Sinai, the restoration of national prestige, the strengthening of its position within the Arab world, and the creation of conditions favorable to future negotiations. At the same time, Egyptian leadership remains conscious of the risks associated with prolonged conflict, particularly the possibility of direct superpower involvement.

Syria

Syria views the recovery of the Golan Heights as an essential national objective. Since the territory's capture by Israel during the Six-Day War, Syrian leaders have regarded its return as necessary for both national security and political legitimacy. The elevated terrain of the Golan Heights provides significant military advantages, allowing observation of northern Israel and influencing regional defense calculations.

President Hafez al-Assad has pursued extensive military modernization since assuming power in 1971. Working closely with Egypt, Syria coordinated planning for a joint offensive intended to overwhelm Israeli defenses and exploit the element of surprise. Unlike Egypt, whose objectives may be limited and political in nature, Syria generally seeks more comprehensive territorial recovery and remains skeptical of negotiated settlements that fail to fully address Arab concerns.

Syria relies heavily upon Soviet military support and views itself as a frontline state in the struggle against Israeli occupation. The success or failure of Syrian operations in the Golan Heights will significantly influence the broader course of the war.

Israel

Israel enters the conflict as the dominant military power in the region but faces its most serious challenge since 1967. Following the Six-Day War, Israeli leaders argued that control of Sinai and the Golan Heights provided essential strategic depth and protection against future Arab attacks. Consequently, successive governments have shown limited willingness to withdraw from occupied territories without substantial security guarantees.

Israeli military doctrine relies heavily upon rapid mobilization, reserve forces, and offensive operations designed to transfer fighting away from major population centers. However, the surprise Egyptian and Syrian attacks have exposed weaknesses in Israeli intelligence assessments and challenged assumptions regarding Arab military capabilities.

The Israeli government, led by Prime Minister Golda Meir, faces the immediate task of stabilizing both fronts, mobilizing reserves, and preserving national security. Israel's long-term objectives include maintaining defensible borders, preserving military superiority, securing continued American support, and preventing territorial losses that could threaten future security.

United States of America

The United States has emerged as Israel's principal international supporter while simultaneously seeking stability throughout the Middle East. Washington views Israel as a valuable strategic partner and a democratic ally within a region of considerable geopolitical importance.

American policymakers remain concerned that Israeli military weakness could encourage Soviet influence and undermine broader U.S. interests.

At the same time, the United States seeks to avoid direct confrontation with the Soviet Union. The ongoing policy of détente has reduced tensions between the superpowers, and American leaders remain wary of developments that could threaten this fragile stability.

The outbreak of war therefore presents a significant diplomatic challenge. President Richard Nixon and Secretary of State Henry Kissinger must balance support for Israel with broader concerns regarding global security, oil supplies, relations with Arab states, and superpower competition.

The United States is likely to prioritize regional stability, prevention of Soviet expansion, and the eventual achievement of a negotiated settlement.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)

The Soviet Union serves as the primary external supporter of Egypt and Syria. Since the 1950s, Moscow has invested heavily in developing political, military, and economic relationships throughout the Arab world. Soviet assistance has included advanced weaponry, military training, technical expertise, and diplomatic support.

The USSR views the Middle East as a critical arena of Cold War competition. Expanding influence among Arab states strengthens Soviet strategic positioning while challenging Western dominance in the region. Nevertheless, Soviet leaders remain cautious regarding actions that might provoke direct confrontation with the United States.

As the conflict unfolds, Moscow seeks to protect its regional partners, preserve its credibility as a superpower, maintain influence within the Arab world, and prevent outcomes that would significantly strengthen American influence. Soviet leaders must carefully balance support for Egypt and Syria against the risks of escalation.

Jordan

Jordan occupies a particularly sensitive position within the Arab-Israeli conflict. Following the Six-Day War, Jordan lost control of the West Bank and East Jerusalem, territories of immense political, religious, and strategic significance. However, Jordan's experience during Black September in 1970 demonstrated the dangers of regional instability and internal conflict.

King Hussein remains sympathetic to broader Arab objectives but is cautious regarding direct military involvement. Jordan's leadership seeks the eventual recovery of lost territories while avoiding actions that could threaten the kingdom's survival or provoke overwhelming Israeli retaliation.

Jordan therefore occupies a complex middle ground between solidarity with Arab states and concern for national security.

Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia is not a frontline combatant but remains one of the most influential Arab states. The kingdom possesses immense economic resources and increasing political influence due to its role in global energy markets. Saudi leaders strongly support the recovery of occupied Arab territories and view Israeli occupation as unacceptable.

While direct military participation remains limited, Saudi Arabia can provide substantial financial assistance to Arab states and exert influence through oil policy. As the conflict develops, Saudi decisions regarding petroleum exports may carry significant implications for both regional and global politics.

The kingdom seeks Arab unity, territorial restoration, regional stability, and the protection of broader Arab interests.

Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)

The Palestine Liberation Organization represents Palestinian national aspirations and seeks the liberation of Palestinian territories. Since its establishment in 1964, the PLO has become increasingly influential within regional politics, although relations with Arab governments have often been complicated.

For the PLO, the conflict extends beyond territorial disputes between states and includes broader questions of Palestinian self-determination, refugee rights, and political representation. Palestinian organizations view the current war as an opportunity to advance their cause and increase international attention toward Palestinian issues.

Although not a state actor and unrecognised by the UNSC, the PLO remains an important stakeholder whose actions may significantly affect the course of events.

Failure of Past Resolutions

Failures of Previous Resolutions and Diplomatic Efforts

Most modern and medieval wars go through a series of events which are chronological consequential events known as crisis and the action taken to resolve these crisis is known as collective diplomacy, resolving a crisis is usually done through paperwork this paperwork is known as a resolution. A resolution is a mutual agreement between parties to resolve or stop a conflict, the following resolutions are the ones that seemed inefficient to stop the war or tensions in the middle east from progressing further just like the Balkans from world war 1 the middle east has been a zone of total unrest, Delegates should study these previous failed resolutions to understand and find real time solutions which can be used in their directives.

The outbreak of the Yom Kippur War on 6 October 1973 was not the result of a sudden deterioration in Arab-Israeli relations but rather the culmination of nearly six years of failed diplomacy, unresolved territorial disputes, ineffective international mediation, and increasing frustration among regional actors. Between the end of the Six-Day War in 1967 and the beginning of the October War in 1973, multiple diplomatic initiatives sought to establish a framework for peace. However, disagreements over territory, sovereignty, security guarantees, recognition, and great-power influence repeatedly prevented meaningful progress. By 1973, many regional leaders had concluded that diplomacy alone could not produce the political outcomes they desired.

United Nations Security Council Resolution 242 (1967)

Resolution 242 remains the most significant diplomatic document produced following the Six-Day War and forms the foundation of virtually all subsequent peace efforts in the Arab-Israeli conflict. Adopted unanimously by the United Nations Security Council on 22 November 1967, the resolution sought to establish principles for a future settlement based on two key ideas: Israeli withdrawal from territories occupied during the war and the recognition of every state's right to live in peace within secure and recognized boundaries.

Despite its importance, Resolution 242 contained ambiguities that ultimately limited its effectiveness. The English version called for the withdrawal of Israeli armed forces "from territories occupied in the recent conflict," while the French version referred to withdrawal "from the territories occupied." This linguistic difference produced fundamentally different interpretations. Arab governments argued that the resolution required complete Israeli withdrawal from all territories captured in 1967, including the Sinai Peninsula, Golan Heights, Gaza Strip, West Bank, and East Jerusalem. Israel maintained that the resolution deliberately avoided requiring full withdrawal and instead allowed for territorial adjustments necessary to create secure borders. Because Resolution 242 failed to clearly define the extent of withdrawal required or establish mechanisms for enforcement, implementation became dependent upon negotiations that never achieved consensus. As a result, the resolution provided a diplomatic framework but failed to produce practical solutions to the conflict's most contentious issues.

The Khartoum Conference and the “Three No’s” (1967)

Following the Arab defeat in the Six-Day War, leaders from across the Arab world met in Khartoum, Sudan, in August 1967. The conference sought to formulate a unified Arab response to Israeli territorial gains and determine the future direction of Arab policy. The resulting declaration became famous for its commitment to the “Three No’s”: No peace with Israel. No recognition of Israel. No negotiations with Israel.

While the declaration reflected widespread anger following the military defeat of 1967, it significantly restricted diplomatic flexibility. Israeli leaders interpreted the resolution as evidence that Arab governments remained committed to confrontation rather than compromise. At the same time, Arab leaders faced domestic political pressures that made direct negotiations politically difficult.

Although individual Arab states later adopted more pragmatic positions, the legacy of Khartoum contributed to years of diplomatic paralysis and reinforced mutual distrust between the parties.

The Failure of the Jarring Mission (1967–1973)

In December 1967, the United Nations appointed Swedish diplomat Gunnar Jarring as Special Representative to facilitate implementation of Resolution 242. The Jarring Mission represented the most sustained international effort to achieve a negotiated settlement following the Six-Day War.

Throughout the late 1960s and early 1970s, Jarring attempted to bridge differences between Israel and its Arab neighbors. However, negotiations repeatedly collapsed due to incompatible demands. Egypt insisted that Israel commit to full withdrawal from Sinai before meaningful normalization could occur. Israel demanded explicit recognition, secure borders, and guarantees against future attacks before considering territorial concessions.

Neither side trusted the intentions of the other. Arab governments feared that negotiations would legitimize Israeli territorial gains, while Israeli leaders feared that withdrawal would expose the country to renewed military threats. As a result, the Jarring Mission became increasingly symbolic rather than effective.

By 1973, many Arab leaders viewed the mission as evidence that international diplomacy was incapable of reversing the consequences of the Six-Day War.

The Failure of Great Power Diplomacy

The Arab-Israeli conflict became increasingly entangled within the broader framework of the Cold War. The United States emerged as Israel's principal supporter, while the Soviet Union provided extensive military assistance to Egypt and Syria. Although both superpowers publicly advocated peaceful solutions, their competing strategic interests frequently complicated diplomatic efforts.

American policymakers viewed Israeli security as essential to maintaining credibility and influence in the Middle East. Consequently, Washington was often unwilling to exert sufficient pressure on Israel to accept major territorial concessions. Arab governments increasingly perceived the United States as an interested party rather than an impartial mediator.

The Soviet Union similarly faced limitations. While Moscow supplied advanced military equipment and diplomatic support to Arab states, it lacked the influence necessary to compel political compromise. Soviet support often strengthened Arab military capabilities without providing viable mechanisms for conflict resolution.

Consequently, superpower involvement frequently reinforced existing divisions rather than resolving them.

The Failure of the War of Attrition Ceasefire (1970)

The War of Attrition, fought primarily between Egypt and Israel from 1967 to 1970, represented Egypt's attempt to impose continuous pressure upon Israeli forces occupying Sinai. Although a ceasefire was eventually negotiated in August 1970, the agreement addressed only military operations rather than underlying political grievances.

The ceasefire temporarily reduced violence but did not resolve the central issue of Israeli occupation. Egyptian leaders increasingly viewed the agreement as evidence that Israel could indefinitely maintain control over Sinai while avoiding meaningful negotiations regarding withdrawal.

As frustration grew, President Anwar Sadat began to conclude that limited military action might be necessary to break the diplomatic stalemate and force international powers to address Egyptian concerns.

The Failure of Israeli-Arab Direct Negotiations

One of the most significant obstacles to peace was the absence of sustained direct communication between the principal parties. Israel consistently advocated direct negotiations as a prerequisite for peace agreements. Many Arab governments, however, feared that direct talks would imply recognition of Israeli territorial acquisitions and weaken broader Arab solidarity.

This diplomatic deadlock prevented the development of confidence-building measures, increased reliance on military deterrence, and allowed mutual suspicion to dominate regional politics. Without direct negotiations, misunderstandings regarding intentions and objectives became increasingly difficult to overcome.

Failure to Address Palestinian National Aspirations

While interstate territorial disputes dominated diplomatic discussions after 1967, the Palestinian question remained largely unresolved. Millions of Palestinians continued to live as refugees, while Palestinian political organizations sought greater international recognition and self-determination.

Neither Resolution 242 nor subsequent diplomatic initiatives adequately addressed Palestinian political aspirations. The limited attention given to Palestinian concerns contributed to growing support for militant organizations and ensured that any potential settlement would remain incomplete.

The failure to address Palestinian issues represented a significant weakness in regional diplomacy and contributed to broader instability.

The Strategic Consequences of Diplomatic Failure

By the early 1970s, President Anwar Sadat increasingly believed that diplomacy had reached a dead end. Despite years of negotiations, mediation efforts, and international pressure, Egypt remained unable to recover Sinai. Syria remained unable to regain the Golan Heights. Palestinian concerns remained unresolved. The superpowers remained divided, and the United Nations lacked enforcement mechanisms capable of compelling compliance.

Sadat therefore developed a new strategy: rather than seeking immediate military victory, Egypt would launch a limited war designed to shatter the status quo and force the international community to reengage with the conflict. Military action was viewed not as an alternative to diplomacy but as a means of restarting diplomacy under more favorable conditions.

The Egyptian-Syrian offensive of October 1973 should therefore be understood not simply as a military operation but as the direct consequence of six years of failed negotiations, unresolved territorial disputes, ineffective mediation, and growing frustration among regional actors.

Conclusion

The failure of previous resolutions and diplomatic initiatives stemmed from three interconnected problems: ambiguity in international agreements, incompatible political objectives among the parties, and the influence of Cold War competition upon regional affairs. Resolution 242 lacked clear enforcement mechanisms, peace initiatives failed to reconcile competing territorial claims, and superpower involvement often deepened rather than resolved tensions. By October 1973, confidence in diplomatic solutions had eroded to such an extent that key regional actors concluded that military action represented the only remaining means of altering the political status quo. The Yom Kippur War thus emerged as both a military conflict and a profound failure of international diplomacy.

Instructions

1. Delegates will follow UNA-USA RoP throughout the course of this committee.
2. The committee will function in a crisis model.
3. All official documents referred to in the study guide can be found online on United Nations archive or where it was published.
4. During committee sessions, this guide cannot be referred to as a source.
5. Foreign policies and Personal Stances should be kept in mind while researching.
6. Delegates are to make full appraisal of the glossary, the timeline, and the study guide as a whole and research accordingly.
7. The further reading materials shall serve as an external reading link for delegates and contains relevant articles from relevant treaties pertaining to the agenda.
8. Due to the continuously evolving nature of a crisis committee, delegates are expected to continue research and keep up with updates pertaining to the agenda till the day of committee and during committee.
9. The executive board will inform the delegates in case of any updates in the timeline and events during a crisis.
10. The executive board will primarily moderate committee proceedings and may interject and pose questions if deemed necessary. We would prefer if delegates determine the course of committee proceedings and keep points of discussion relevant to the agenda.
11. Ample research should be done to be able to draft plausible directives, communiques, and other forms of crisis paperworks that tackle the problems particularly with respect to the situations of the Golan and Sinai regions .

Committee Expectations

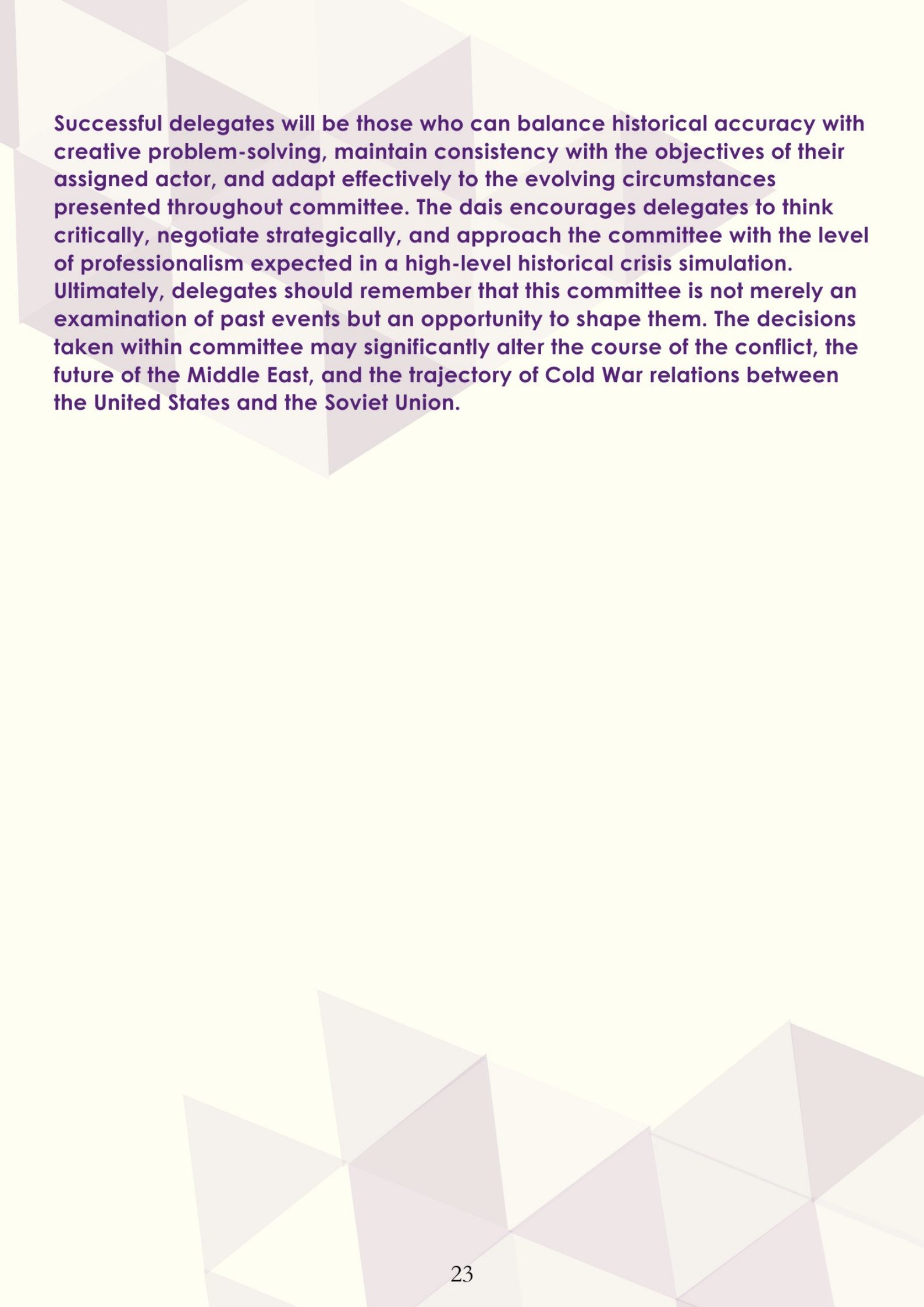
This Historical Crisis Committee on the Yom Kippur War will require delegates to engage with a rapidly evolving geopolitical and military crisis occurring at a critical moment in both Middle Eastern and Cold War history. Delegates are expected not only to possess a strong understanding of their assigned portfolio or state but also to demonstrate a comprehensive grasp of the broader historical, military, political, and diplomatic context surrounding the conflict.

Given the freeze date of 14:00 hours on 6 October 1973, delegates must approach committee proceedings from the perspective of contemporary decision-makers rather than through the lens of historical hindsight. Events that occur after the freeze date should not be treated as predetermined outcomes, and delegates are encouraged to explore alternative historical trajectories through debate, negotiation, directives, and crisis actions.

Delegates should familiarize themselves with the origins of the Arab-Israeli Conflict, the consequences of the Six-Day War, the strategic significance of the Sinai Peninsula and Golan Heights, the military capabilities of the principal actors, and the broader implications of U.S.-Soviet competition in the Middle East. A strong understanding of United Nations involvement, previous diplomatic initiatives, and the regional balance of power will be essential for effective participation.

The committee will place particular emphasis on crisis management, strategic thinking, and the practical implementation of policy. Delegates should be prepared to respond to military developments, intelligence reports, diplomatic challenges, economic disruptions, and potential superpower escalation. Innovative yet historically plausible solutions will be viewed favorably, particularly when supported by a clear understanding of the interests, capabilities, and limitations of the actor being represented.

Research should extend beyond basic historical events. Delegates are encouraged to examine military doctrines, key political figures, international alliances, intelligence assessments, economic considerations, and the domestic pressures influencing decision-making within their assigned portfolio. Those representing major powers should be prepared to address questions of global strategy and Cold War dynamics, while regional actors should demonstrate an understanding of local military and political realities.



Successful delegates will be those who can balance historical accuracy with creative problem-solving, maintain consistency with the objectives of their assigned actor, and adapt effectively to the evolving circumstances presented throughout committee. The dais encourages delegates to think critically, negotiate strategically, and approach the committee with the level of professionalism expected in a high-level historical crisis simulation. Ultimately, delegates should remember that this committee is not merely an examination of past events but an opportunity to shape them. The decisions taken within committee may significantly alter the course of the conflict, the future of the Middle East, and the trajectory of Cold War relations between the United States and the Soviet Union.

Types Of Warfare

Military Doctrine and Methods of Warfare

Understanding the military doctrines, strategic concepts, and methods of warfare employed by both state and non-state actors is essential for effective participation in this committee to formulate types of invasions, attacks, defence or guerilla type invasions. Delegates should recognize that military success is determined not only by the size of armed forces but also by leadership, intelligence, logistics, technology, geography, morale, and political objectives.

Conventional Warfare

Conventional warfare refers to conflict conducted primarily by organized state militaries utilizing standardized weapons systems, formal command structures, and established military doctrine. During the Yom Kippur War, conventional warfare dominated military operations as Egypt, Syria, and Israel deployed large formations of infantry, armor, artillery, engineers, air forces, and air defense systems.

Delegates should understand that conventional military operations are rarely isolated actions. Successful offensives require coordination between multiple branches of the armed forces, effective logistical support, and clear strategic objectives. Military campaigns often involve a combination of offensive operations, defensive actions, maneuver warfare, and attritional strategies designed to weaken opposing forces over time.

Artillery and Fire Support

Artillery represents one of the most influential components of modern warfare. By 1973, artillery systems were capable of delivering large volumes of fire across significant distances, supporting offensive operations, disrupting enemy formations, suppressing defensive positions, and limiting freedom of movement.

During the opening stages of the Yom Kippur War, extensive artillery bombardments were used to support Egyptian and Syrian advances. Artillery could be employed to neutralize fortifications, create opportunities for maneuver forces, and reduce the effectiveness of enemy defensive positions. However, artillery is not a decisive weapon in isolation. Its effectiveness depends heavily upon intelligence, coordination with ground forces, ammunition supplies, terrain considerations, and operational planning. Poorly coordinated artillery operations may waste resources, damage friendly forces, or fail to achieve meaningful military objectives.

Delegates should therefore view artillery as a force multiplier rather than a standalone solution to military challenges.

Armored Warfare

Since the Second World War, tanks and armored formations have become central components of modern military operations. Armored forces provide mobility, firepower, and protection, enabling commanders to conduct rapid offensive operations and exploit weaknesses in enemy defenses. The Arab-Israeli conflicts demonstrated both the strengths and vulnerabilities of armored warfare. While tanks remain powerful battlefield assets, their effectiveness can be reduced by anti-tank guided missiles, air attacks, terrain limitations, and inadequate infantry support. Military decision-makers must therefore carefully integrate armored forces into broader operational plans rather than relying exclusively upon numerical superiority.

Air Power

Air power plays a crucial role in reconnaissance, close air support, interdiction, strategic bombing, and air superiority operations. Prior to 1973, many military analysts believed that air superiority would determine the outcome of future conflicts. The Yom Kippur War challenged this assumption. Egyptian and Syrian surface-to-air missile networks significantly complicated Israeli air operations, demonstrating the growing importance of integrated air defense systems. Delegates should understand the relationship between offensive air operations and defensive air capabilities when evaluating military options.

Intelligence and Deception

Military operations are heavily influenced by intelligence collection, analysis, and deception. Accurate intelligence allows states to anticipate threats, identify vulnerabilities, and allocate resources effectively. Equally important is the ability to deceive adversaries regarding intentions and capabilities. Prior to the October 1973 offensive, Egypt and Syria conducted extensive deception operations that contributed to strategic surprise and delayed Israeli mobilization efforts. Delegates should recognize that information can often be as valuable as military hardware in determining strategic outcomes.

Proxy Warfare and Non-State Actors

The Cold War frequently transformed regional conflicts into arenas of competition between major powers. States often provided financial assistance, military equipment, training, intelligence support, or diplomatic backing to allied governments and organizations. The use of proxy actors enables states to expand influence while reducing the risks associated with direct military confrontation. However, proxy relationships frequently create unpredictable consequences and may complicate efforts to control escalation. Understanding the interaction between state and non-state actors is essential when analyzing regional security dynamics.

Nuclear Weapons and Strategic Deterrence

Although nuclear weapons were not employed during the Yom Kippur War, their existence significantly influenced decision-making among major powers. Nuclear weapons possess unparalleled destructive potential and therefore occupy a unique position within international security calculations. Throughout the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union relied heavily upon the principle of deterrence—the belief that the threat of devastating retaliation would discourage adversaries from initiating large-scale conflict. As regional crises intensified, both superpowers remained conscious of the possibility that escalation could threaten broader international stability. The significance of nuclear weapons lies not only in their military capabilities but also in their political consequences. The mere possibility of escalation may influence diplomatic negotiations, alliance commitments, military deployments, and crisis management decisions. Delegates should therefore evaluate nuclear issues primarily through the lens of deterrence, strategic signaling, and international stability rather than battlefield utility.

Escalation and Crisis Management

One of the greatest challenges facing decision-makers during periods of conflict especially during the Cuban missile crisis or cold war is preventing unintended escalation. Military actions that appear limited at the tactical level may generate significant political or strategic consequences. Regional conflicts can rapidly expand through alliance commitments, external intervention, economic pressures, or miscommunication.

Delegates are encouraged to consider the broader implications of military decisions and to evaluate how battlefield developments may influence diplomatic relations, domestic politics, and international security.

Cold War Influence on the Arab-Israeli Conflict

Although the Arab-Israeli Conflict originated from regional disputes concerning territory, sovereignty, security, and national identity, by the 1970s it had become deeply intertwined with the broader geopolitical rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union. The Middle East emerged as one of the most strategically significant theaters of the Cold War, with both superpowers seeking to expand their influence, protect their interests, and strengthen regional allies.

As a result, regional conflicts increasingly carried implications extending far beyond the Middle East itself. Military confrontations between Israel and its Arab neighbors possessed the potential to affect global power balances, international trade routes, energy security, and the stability of U.S.-Soviet relations.

United States Involvement

Following the Six-Day War, the United States gradually emerged as Israel's most important international supporter. American policymakers viewed Israel as a reliable regional partner and an important component of broader U.S. strategy in the Middle East.

Washington provided Israel with economic assistance, military equipment, diplomatic support, and intelligence cooperation. American leaders believed that maintaining Israeli security was essential to preserving regional stability and preventing the expansion of Soviet influence.

However, the United States also sought to maintain relationships with key Arab states and prevent regional conflicts from escalating into direct superpower confrontations. This dual objective frequently complicated American decision-making throughout the crisis.

Soviet Involvement

The Soviet Union developed extensive political and military relationships with Egypt, Syria, Iraq, and other Arab states during the Cold War. Soviet assistance included advanced weaponry, military advisors, pilot training, intelligence cooperation, and economic aid.

For Moscow, support for Arab states represented both an ideological commitment and a strategic opportunity to challenge Western influence in a region of immense geopolitical importance.

Although Soviet leaders generally wished to avoid direct conflict with the United States, they also sought to maintain credibility among their regional allies. Consequently, Soviet policymakers were often forced to balance strategic caution against pressures to provide continued support.

Détente and Regional Conflict

The early 1970s witnessed a period of reduced tensions between Washington and Moscow commonly known as détente. Through diplomatic engagement, arms control agreements, and expanded communication, both superpowers attempted to reduce the likelihood of nuclear confrontation.

Despite these efforts, regional conflicts continued to threaten stability. The Arab-Israeli Conflict demonstrated the limitations of détente, as local wars frequently created situations in which American and Soviet interests directly collided.

The outbreak of war in October 1973 therefore represented a major test of whether détente could survive a serious international crisis.

Military Aid and Arms Competition

One of the most visible manifestations of Cold War rivalry in the Middle East was the large-scale transfer of military equipment. Soviet weapons played a crucial role in modernizing Egyptian and Syrian armed forces, while American support strengthened Israeli military capabilities.

By 1973, the Middle East had become one of the most heavily militarized regions in the world. Advanced tanks, aircraft, air defense systems, missiles, and electronic warfare equipment supplied by the superpowers significantly increased the scale and sophistication of regional conflicts.

The flow of military aid often intensified rather than reduced tensions, as each side sought to maintain or alter the regional balance of power.

Proxy Conflict Dynamics

The Arab-Israeli Conflict is frequently described as a proxy conflict of the Cold War. Although the United States and Soviet Union did not directly engage one another militarily, both provided extensive support to opposing sides.

This arrangement allowed each superpower to project influence while limiting the risks associated with direct confrontation. However, proxy conflicts often proved difficult to control, as local actors pursued objectives that did not always align with the preferences of their external supporters.

Consequently, regional military developments frequently created broader strategic challenges for both Washington and Moscow.

Risks of Superpower Escalation

The most significant concern surrounding the October 1973 conflict was the possibility that regional fighting could trigger direct superpower involvement. Military aid, intelligence cooperation, naval deployments, and alliance commitments increased the likelihood of misunderstandings and escalation.

Both superpowers faced the challenge of supporting their respective partners while avoiding actions that could transform a regional war into a global crisis. The management of escalation therefore became one of the most important strategic considerations throughout the conflict.

Nuclear Deterrence

Throughout the Cold War, the existence of nuclear weapons influenced virtually every major international crisis. Although nuclear weapons were not employed in the Arab-Israeli Conflict, the possibility of escalation remained a constant concern for policymakers. American and Soviet leaders understood that direct military confrontation carried risks extending far beyond the Middle East. Consequently, nuclear deterrence encouraged caution, communication, and crisis management even during periods of intense regional conflict.

The influence of nuclear weapons on decision-making highlights the extent to which the October 1973 war was simultaneously a regional conflict and a global strategic challenge.

Armed Propaganda and the Role of Diplomatic Policy in the yom-kippur war

Military conflicts are rarely fought solely for territorial gain or battlefield success. Throughout modern history, states have frequently employed military force as a means of communicating political intentions, shaping international perceptions, influencing diplomatic negotiations, and altering strategic calculations. Understanding the relationship between military operations and political objectives is therefore essential for delegates participating in this committee. The October 1973 Arab-Israeli War provides a particularly significant example of the interaction between military action and diplomacy. For many of the actors involved, the conflict was not merely a struggle for territory but also an attempt to influence international opinion, restore political credibility, strengthen bargaining positions, and reshape the regional balance of power.

Armed Propaganda

Armed propaganda refers to the use of military action to achieve political or psychological objectives beyond immediate battlefield gains. Rather than seeking outright military victory, states or organizations may conduct operations designed to demonstrate capability, restore prestige, influence public opinion, or compel adversaries to reconsider existing policies.

By the early 1970s, Egyptian President Anwar Sadat had become increasingly frustrated by the lack of progress achieved through diplomatic channels. Despite repeated appeals for negotiations regarding the return of the Sinai Peninsula, little movement had occurred. Sadat therefore concluded that limited military action could serve as a political instrument capable of breaking the existing diplomatic stalemate.

From this perspective, the Egyptian offensive of October 1973 can be understood not only as a military operation but also as an attempt to demonstrate that the status quo established after the Six-Day War could not continue indefinitely. Even limited military successes possessed the potential to alter international perceptions, restore Arab confidence, and force external powers to engage more seriously with Egyptian concerns.

Similarly, military actions undertaken by Israel, Syria, and other regional actors often carried political significance beyond their immediate tactical objectives. Victories and defeats influenced domestic legitimacy, alliance relationships, and international diplomatic leverage.

Diplomacy as a Strategic Instrument

Diplomacy serves as one of the primary mechanisms through which states pursue national interests without resorting to direct military confrontation. Effective diplomacy involves negotiation, alliance formation, conflict management, crisis communication, and the pursuit of political objectives through peaceful means.

However, diplomacy does not operate independently from military power. In many cases, military capabilities influence the credibility of diplomatic positions. States possessing strong military forces may negotiate from positions of greater confidence, while military setbacks can weaken diplomatic influence.

The relationship between military action and diplomacy is particularly evident in the Arab-Israeli Conflict, where territorial control, military preparedness, and diplomatic negotiations have remained closely interconnected.

Coercive Diplomacy

Coercive diplomacy refers to the use of threats, limited force, or demonstrations of military capability to influence the behavior of another actor. Unlike total war, coercive diplomacy seeks to achieve political objectives without requiring complete military victory.

Many historians argue that Egypt's strategy in 1973 reflected elements of coercive diplomacy. Rather than attempting to destroy Israel outright, Egyptian leaders sought to create circumstances that would compel international mediation and renewed negotiations regarding occupied territories.

The success of coercive diplomacy depends upon credibility. States must demonstrate both capability and willingness to act while simultaneously leaving room for political compromise.

Public Opinion and International Legitimacy

Military conflicts are often accompanied by efforts to shape public opinion at domestic, regional, and international levels. Governments seek to justify military actions, maintain public support, strengthen alliances, and influence foreign audiences.

International legitimacy can significantly affect the outcome of conflicts. States perceived as acting defensively or in accordance with international law may receive greater diplomatic support than those viewed as aggressors. Consequently, control over narratives and perceptions frequently becomes an important component of broader strategy.

Delegates should recognize that battlefield developments often influence diplomatic negotiations through their impact on international opinion and political legitimacy.

The United Nations and Diplomatic Mediation

International organizations play a significant role in managing conflicts and facilitating negotiations. The United Nations has repeatedly attempted to address the Arab-Israeli Conflict through resolutions, mediation efforts, peacekeeping missions, and diplomatic initiatives.

Although these efforts have often encountered significant obstacles, international institutions remain important forums through which states seek legitimacy, build coalitions, and pursue political objectives. Military developments frequently influence the positions adopted within these institutions and the willingness of parties to engage in negotiations.

Information, Perception, and Strategic Communication

Throughout modern conflicts, information has become a strategic resource. Governments frequently seek to influence how events are interpreted by domestic populations, foreign governments, military personnel, and international organizations.

Statements, diplomatic declarations, public speeches, and military demonstrations all contribute to broader strategic communication efforts. Delegates should therefore understand that political messaging can be nearly as important as military operations in shaping the course of a conflict.

The ability to control perceptions, maintain credibility, and communicate strategic intentions often determines whether military successes translate into lasting political achievements.

Relevance to Committee Proceedings

Delegates should avoid viewing military force and diplomacy as separate instruments. In many cases, military operations are undertaken to achieve diplomatic objectives, while diplomatic initiatives rely upon military realities for credibility and leverage. Successful delegates will therefore evaluate not only how actions affect battlefield conditions but also how they influence negotiations, alliances, public opinion, international legitimacy, and the broader strategic environment. Understanding this relationship will be essential for navigating the complex challenges presented by the committee and for developing comprehensive responses to the evolving crisis. This subsection works especially well because Sadat's entire strategy in 1973 was essentially armed diplomacy: he knew Egypt probably could not destroy Israel militarily, but he believed a limited successful offensive could force the USA, USSR, and Israel back to the negotiating table on Egyptian terms. That's one of the most important concepts delegates often miss.

TACMA :

Crisis Mechanics and Communique 101

Unlike traditional General Assembly committees, Historical Crisis Committees place delegates in the position of active decision-makers operating within a dynamic and rapidly evolving environment. Delegates are not merely discussing events; they are shaping them. Consequently, creativity, strategic thinking, and realism will be highly valued throughout committee proceedings.

The dais encourages delegates to think beyond speeches and resolutions. Military operations, intelligence activities, diplomatic initiatives, economic measures, propaganda campaigns, alliance-building, and covert actions may all play important roles in determining the outcome of the crisis. However, all actions should remain historically plausible and consistent with the capabilities of the actor being represented.

Writing Effective Communiqués

Communiqués serve as one of the primary methods through which delegates may conduct actions outside formal committee debate. They allow delegates to communicate with governments, military commanders, intelligence agencies, foreign leaders, international organizations, and other relevant actors.

Effective communiqués should clearly identify:

1. The recipient.
2. The intended objective.
3. The resources being utilized.
4. The method of execution.
5. The desired outcome.

Delegates are encouraged to provide sufficient detail to demonstrate strategic planning while avoiding unnecessary complexity. The quality of reasoning behind an action will often be more important than the length of the communiqué itself. For example, rather than simply requesting military action, delegates should explain the purpose of the operation, the forces involved, expected outcomes, and potential consequences.

Conventional Military Operations

Delegates may employ conventional military assets available to their portfolio. Such actions may include:

1. Offensive operations.
2. Defensive deployments.
3. Strategic redeployments.
4. Air operations.
5. Naval operations.
6. Artillery support.
7. Logistical reinforcement.
8. Intelligence-gathering missions.

Military actions should take into account geography, logistics, force availability, morale, intelligence, and political considerations. The most successful military plans are often those that integrate multiple instruments of power rather than relying upon a single capability.

Covert Operations and Intelligence Activities

The committee encourages realistic use of intelligence agencies, special operations units, diplomatic channels, reconnaissance efforts, and strategic deception.

Possible objectives may include:

1. Information gathering.
2. Counterintelligence.
3. Infiltration.
4. Sabotage.
5. Influence operations.
6. Diplomatic outreach.
7. Strategic misinformation.

Delegates should remember that covert actions carry significant risks. Discovery may result in diplomatic crises, retaliation, loss of credibility, or escalation of conflict.

Non-State Actors, Militias, and Guerrilla Forces

Throughout modern history, states have frequently interacted with militias, insurgent organizations, resistance movements, and other non-state actors. Depending upon historical circumstances and portfolio capabilities, delegates may seek to cooperate with, negotiate with, oppose, support, or otherwise interact with such groups.

The dais remains open to realistic and historically grounded uses of irregular forces where appropriate to the portfolio being represented. Delegates should, however, recognize that non-state actors possess their own motivations, objectives, and limitations. Such groups cannot be assumed to operate with perfect discipline or complete loyalty.

Actions involving irregular forces should carefully consider political consequences, regional reactions, operational feasibility, and long-term strategic effects.

Escalation and Strategic Consequences

One of the defining characteristics of crisis committees is the possibility of escalation. Tactical actions may generate strategic consequences. Local incidents may trigger regional crises. Regional conflicts may attract international involvement.

Delegates should therefore evaluate not only whether an action is possible, but also whether its consequences are desirable. Strategic foresight will be rewarded more consistently than short-term gains.

Weapons of Mass Destruction and Strategic Deterrence

Given the historical setting of this committee, delegates may encounter questions relating to strategic deterrence, weapons of mass destruction, and the broader implications of military escalation.

The dais remains open to realistic discussions regarding strategic weapons where historically appropriate and supported by the capabilities and circumstances of the actor involved. However, delegates should recognize that such decisions carry extraordinary political, military, diplomatic, and humanitarian consequences. Actions involving strategic weapons will be evaluated according to historical plausibility, command authority, geopolitical realities, and the likely responses of other actors. Delegates are strongly encouraged to consider escalation risks, alliance obligations, international reactions, and long-term consequences before pursuing such courses of action.

The purpose of crisis is not merely to maximize destruction but to achieve strategic objectives. As such, successful delegates will demonstrate restraint, calculation, and an understanding of the broader implications of their decisions.

A Note from the Dais

This committee is intended to reward strategic creativity grounded in historical realism. Delegates should not feel constrained solely to traditional diplomatic solutions, nor should they assume that military force alone can resolve complex crises.

The dais welcomes innovative directives, creative negotiations, unconventional strategies, and realistic conflict scenarios, provided they remain consistent with the historical setting and the capabilities of the assigned portfolio. Delegates who demonstrate a comprehensive understanding of military, political, economic, diplomatic, and intelligence dimensions of the crisis will be best positioned to influence the course of events and shape the future of the committee.

Intelligence Agencies and Their Relevance to the Conflict

Intelligence has long served as one of the most influential instruments of statecraft and warfare. Throughout the Arab-Israeli Conflict, intelligence agencies played a critical role in shaping military planning, informing political decision-making, conducting covert operations, assessing adversaries' capabilities, and influencing diplomatic strategy. The events leading up to the October 1973 War demonstrate both the immense value of intelligence and the potentially catastrophic consequences of intelligence failures.

For delegates participating in this committee, understanding the objectives, capabilities, and limitations of major intelligence organizations is essential. Intelligence operations frequently influence military outcomes, alliance relationships, domestic politics, and international diplomacy. In many cases, information—or the lack thereof—can alter the course of history as profoundly as military action itself.

The Importance of Intelligence in Modern Conflict

Intelligence agencies are responsible for collecting, analyzing, and disseminating information relevant to national security. Their activities may include:

1. Military intelligence collection.
2. Strategic threat assessment.
3. Counterintelligence operations.
4. Covert action and sabotage.
5. Diplomatic intelligence gathering.
6. Surveillance and reconnaissance.
7. Psychological and influence operations.
8. Counterterrorism and internal security.

Effective intelligence allows decision-makers to anticipate threats, identify vulnerabilities, and allocate resources efficiently. Conversely, inaccurate assessments may contribute to strategic miscalculations and military setbacks.

Israeli Intelligence

1. Mossad

The Mossad serves as Israel's primary foreign intelligence service and is responsible for intelligence collection abroad, covert operations, strategic analysis, and liaison with foreign intelligence agencies.

Since its establishment, Mossad has played a significant role in monitoring Arab military developments, identifying security threats, and conducting clandestine operations aimed at protecting Israeli national interests.

By 1973, Mossad was widely regarded as one of the world's most capable intelligence organizations. Nevertheless, even highly sophisticated intelligence services remain vulnerable to misjudgments, political assumptions, and strategic deception.

2. Aman

Aman functions as Israel's military intelligence directorate and serves as the principal body responsible for evaluating military threats facing the Israeli state.

Prior to the October War, Aman maintained what became known as the "Concept"—the belief that Egypt and Syria would not initiate major hostilities until they possessed capabilities sufficient to challenge Israeli air superiority. This assessment contributed significantly to Israeli strategic complacency and remains one of the most studied intelligence failures in modern military history.

Egyptian Intelligence

Egyptian intelligence organizations played a central role in preparing the October offensive. Recognizing the importance of strategic surprise, Egyptian planners devoted considerable effort to concealment, deception, and operational security.

Egypt conducted repeated military exercises near the Suez Canal, creating a pattern that reduced Israeli concern regarding troop movements. Simultaneously, Egyptian officials sought to conceal offensive intentions while projecting the appearance of routine military activity.

The success of these deception measures contributed significantly to the surprise achieved during the opening hours of the conflict.

Syrian Intelligence

Syrian intelligence services worked closely with military planners and Egyptian counterparts during preparations for the coordinated offensive.

Syria's intelligence priorities included monitoring Israeli force deployments, maintaining operational secrecy, and coordinating strategic planning with allied governments.

Although often operating with fewer resources than some larger intelligence organizations, Syrian agencies played an important role in preserving the element of surprise that characterized the initial stages of the war.

Soviet Intelligence

The Soviet Union maintained extensive intelligence capabilities throughout the Middle East. Organizations such as the KGB and Soviet military intelligence collected information regarding regional military developments, political leadership, and Western activities.

Soviet intelligence contributed to Moscow's understanding of Arab military preparations and informed broader Cold War decision-making. However, Soviet leaders also faced challenges in balancing support for regional allies with concerns regarding escalation and superpower confrontation.

Intelligence assessments frequently influenced Soviet decisions regarding military aid, diplomatic initiatives, and crisis management.

United States Intelligence

American intelligence agencies closely monitored developments throughout the Middle East due to the region's strategic importance and its implications for U.S.-Soviet competition.

Central Intelligence Agency (CIA)

The Central Intelligence Agency was responsible for gathering foreign intelligence, analyzing geopolitical developments, and advising American policymakers.

The CIA closely observed military developments involving Israel, Egypt, Syria, and the Soviet Union. Intelligence assessments produced by the agency informed decisions taken by senior American officials, including President Richard Nixon and Secretary of State Henry Kissinger.

National Security Agency (NSA)

The National Security Agency played an important role in communications intelligence and electronic surveillance, helping policymakers understand regional developments and potential threats.

Intelligence Failure and Strategic Surpris

One of the defining features of the October 1973 War was the successful achievement of strategic surprise by Egypt and Syria.

Despite the existence of warning signs, intelligence reports, troop movements, and diplomatic indicators, Israeli leadership failed to fully appreciate the immediacy of the threat. This failure was not simply the result of missing information but rather of incorrect interpretation, institutional assumptions, and overconfidence derived from previous military successes.

The events of October 1973 illustrate a fundamental principle of intelligence work: possessing information is not synonymous with understanding it.

Covert Operations and Influence Activities

Intelligence organizations frequently operate beyond information gathering. States may employ intelligence services to conduct:

Covert diplomacy.

Strategic influence campaigns.

Sabotage operations.

Counterintelligence activities.

Support for allied groups.

Protection of national interests abroad.

Delegates should recognize that intelligence services often function as instruments of national policy and may be employed to achieve objectives that cannot be pursued openly through conventional diplomatic or military means.

Bloc Positions

Although the Arab-Israeli Conflict is often viewed through the lens of bilateral hostilities between Israel and its neighboring Arab states, the October 1973 War involved a far broader network of actors with competing political, military, economic, and strategic interests. Understanding these informal blocs is essential for delegates seeking to navigate the complex diplomatic landscape of the committee.

Unlike traditional General Assembly committees, alliances within a Historical Crisis Committee are fluid and may evolve in response to military developments, political calculations, and crisis updates. Delegates should therefore view the following blocs as broad strategic groupings rather than rigid alliances.

The Arab Coalition

Principal Members

Egypt and Syria

Supporting States

1. Iraq
2. Jordan
3. Saudi Arabia
4. Algeria
5. Libya
6. Kuwait
7. Other members of the Arab League

Core Objectives (utmost cruciality)

1. Recovery of territories occupied by Israel following the Six-Day War.
2. Restoration of Arab military and political credibility.
3. Prevention of permanent Israeli control over Arab territories.
4. Strengthening Arab unity and regional influence.
5. Increased international pressure upon Israel.

The Arab Coalition enters the conflict seeking to reverse the consequences of 1967. Although member states share a common desire to challenge Israeli territorial gains, they often differ regarding long-term objectives, military strategy, and diplomatic priorities.

Egypt primarily seeks the recovery of Sinai and the creation of conditions favorable to future negotiations. Syria prioritizes the return of the Golan Heights and generally favors a more uncompromising position toward Israel. Other Arab states contribute varying levels of military, economic, diplomatic, and political support.

A major strength of the coalition is its collective political legitimacy within the Arab world and access to substantial financial and military resources. However, differing national interests may create tensions regarding war aims and diplomatic settlements.

Israel and Its Strategic Partners

Principal Member

State of Israel

Primary External Supporter

USA

Secondary Supporters

western governments

Core Objectives

1. National survival and territorial security.
2. Prevention of military defeat.
3. Preservation of strategic advantages gained after 1967.
4. Maintenance of international support.
5. Protection of secure and defensible borders.

Israel enters the conflict from a position of military strength but faces the challenge of simultaneous attacks from multiple fronts. Israeli leadership views control of Sinai and the Golan Heights as critical components of national defense and remains cautious regarding territorial concessions absent meaningful security guarantees.

The bloc's greatest advantage lies in military professionalism, technological sophistication, strong institutions, and access to American support. However, prolonged conflict may generate diplomatic pressure and economic costs.

The Soviet-Aligned Bloc

Principal Member

USSR

Regional Partners

1. Egypt
2. Syria
3. Iraq
4. Other Soviet-friendly Arab governments

Core Objectives

1. Expansion and preservation of Soviet influence in the Middle East.
2. Support for allied governments.
3. Limitation of American influence.
4. Protection of Soviet credibility.
5. Avoidance of direct superpower confrontation.

The Soviet Union views the Middle East as a critical arena of Cold War competition. Through military aid, economic assistance, diplomatic support, and intelligence cooperation, Moscow has cultivated strong relationships with several Arab states.

Despite its support for Arab governments, the Soviet Union remains cautious regarding escalation. Soviet leaders seek to strengthen their regional position without triggering a direct conflict with the United States.

This bloc often experiences tensions between regional objectives and broader Cold War considerations.

The Western Bloc

Principal Member

USA

Supporting States

1. United Kingdom
2. France (with varying degrees of independence)
3. NATO partners

Core Objectives

1. Regional stability.
2. Protection of strategic interests.
3. Prevention of Soviet expansion.
4. Maintenance of international trade and energy security.
5. Support for allied governments.

While the United States strongly supports Israel, Western governments do not always share identical approaches to the conflict. Some prioritize Israeli security, while others emphasize diplomacy, regional stability, and maintaining relations with Arab states.

The bloc's primary concern is preventing the conflict from destabilizing broader international relations or undermining the ongoing process of détente between Washington and Moscow.

Palestinian National Movements

Principal Actors

1. Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)
2. Associated Palestinian factions

Core Objectives

1. Palestinian self-determination.
2. International recognition.
3. Representation of Palestinian interests.
4. Resolution of the refugee question.
5. Recovery of Palestinian territory.

While not a conventional state bloc, Palestinian organizations represent a significant political force within the broader conflict. Their objectives do not always align perfectly with those of neighboring Arab governments, creating an additional layer of complexity within regional politics.

Delegates should recognize that Palestinian concerns constitute a distinct dimension of the conflict rather than merely an extension of broader Arab objectives.

What to Expect from Committee

The Historical Crisis Committee will operate in a dynamic environment characterized by both constant developments and sudden moments of escalation. Delegates should be prepared to navigate an evolving crisis landscape in which military operations, diplomatic negotiations, intelligence reports, economic developments, and political decisions may significantly alter the course of committee proceedings.

Unlike traditional committees that primarily focus on debate and resolution writing, this committee emphasizes real-time decision-making, strategic planning, and adaptability. Delegates will be expected to respond to developments as they occur while remaining consistent with the interests, capabilities, and objectives of their assigned portfolio.

A Constantly Evolving Crisis Environment

The committee will feature a continuous flow of updates designed to reflect the uncertainty and complexity of real-world decision-making. Military offensives, intelligence assessments, diplomatic communications, political developments, and international reactions may all influence the direction of debate.

Delegates should not assume that current circumstances will remain unchanged throughout committee. Strategic situations may evolve rapidly, alliances may shift, and previously successful plans may require modification in response to new information.

Flexibility and adaptability will therefore be among the most valuable skills a delegate can possess.

Volatile and Escalatory Developments

Given the nature of the agenda, delegates should anticipate periods of significant instability and rapid escalation. Battlefield developments, intelligence failures, diplomatic miscalculations, economic disruptions, and regional interventions may all contribute to heightened tensions.

The dais may introduce developments that challenge existing assumptions, force difficult decisions, and create competing priorities for delegates. Success will depend not only upon responding to crises but also upon anticipating them before they emerge.

Delegates are encouraged to think beyond immediate tactical gains and consider the long-term implications of their actions.

Military and Political Decision-Making

Committee developments may require delegates to make decisions regarding:

- Military deployments.
- Strategic offensives and defensive operations.
- Diplomatic negotiations.
- Alliance management.
- Intelligence operations.
- Economic measures.
- Humanitarian concerns.
- Crisis response mechanisms.

Delegates should recognize that military success does not always translate into political success. Similarly, diplomatic victories may require military restraint. The most effective strategies often integrate multiple instruments of national power.

The Role of Directives and Communiqués

A substantial portion of committee activity will occur through directives, communiqués, crisis notes, and strategic actions. Delegates should be prepared to utilize these mechanisms frequently and effectively.

Well-constructed directives that demonstrate realistic planning, strategic foresight, and awareness of consequences will generally prove more effective than ambitious actions lacking sufficient detail or justification.

The dais encourages delegates to think creatively while remaining grounded in historical plausibility.

Realistic Conflict and Strategic Creativity

As Chair, I encourage delegates to explore creative solutions and innovative approaches to the crisis. The committee is not intended to follow a predetermined historical path, and delegates should not feel constrained by historical outcomes. Realistic military operations, diplomatic initiatives, intelligence activities, political maneuvering, and unconventional strategies are all welcome provided they remain consistent with the capabilities and limitations of the actor being represented. Delegates should focus on achieving strategic objectives rather than merely generating dramatic events.

Non-State Actors and Irregular Warfare

Depending on the evolution of committee proceedings, delegates may encounter non-state actors, militias, insurgent organizations, resistance movements, paramilitary formations, and other irregular forces.

These actors may influence military operations, political stability, diplomatic negotiations, and regional security. Delegates should be prepared to engage with such groups in realistic and historically grounded ways while considering the broader consequences of their actions.

Non-state actors should be viewed as complex political and military entities rather than simple tools that can be controlled without consequence.

Superpower Involvement and Escalation Risks

One of the defining features of this agenda is the possibility of regional conflict intersecting with broader Cold War competition. Delegates representing major powers, regional actors, and international organizations alike should remain aware of the risks associated with escalation.

Actions taken on one battlefield may have consequences far beyond the immediate theater of operations. Diplomatic crises, alliance commitments, economic disruptions, and strategic rivalries may all contribute to an increasingly complex operating environment.

The committee may therefore require delegates to balance immediate objectives against broader geopolitical considerations.

Expect the Unexpected

Perhaps most importantly, delegates should expect uncertainty. Intelligence may be incomplete. Information may be contradictory. Plans may fail. New opportunities may emerge unexpectedly.

The purpose of crisis is not to reward those who predict every development correctly but rather those who can adapt effectively when circumstances change.

Delegates who combine historical understanding, strategic thinking, creativity, and sound judgment will be best positioned to influence the course of events and shape the future trajectory of the committee.

A Note from the Dais

This committee has been designed to be both rigorous and engaging. Delegates should expect a fast-paced environment featuring constant developments, periodic moments of intense escalation, and opportunities to significantly alter the course of history. Initiative, realism, diplomacy, and strategic foresight will be rewarded. History is not predetermined within this committee. The decisions made by delegates may influence not only the outcome of the conflict but also the future of regional and international politics.

This is very close to the style HMUN crisis directors use when warning delegates that the committee will be high-update, high-consequence, and highly interactive.

Preliminary Crisis Brief

To facilitate delegate preparation and ensure that all participants enter committee with a shared understanding of the immediate situation, the first crisis update has been provided within this study guide.

Delegates are strongly encouraged to review the update carefully and consider its military, political, diplomatic, and strategic implications prior to the commencement of committee. The crisis update should serve not only as a description of current events but also as an indication of the types of developments delegates may encounter throughout proceedings.

Participants should begin considering potential responses, strategic priorities, alliance structures, military objectives, diplomatic initiatives, intelligence activities, and contingency plans before committee begins.

While the first update establishes the initial conditions of the crisis, delegates should not assume that future developments will follow historical events. The actions taken within committee may significantly alter the trajectory of the conflict and produce outcomes that differ substantially from those observed in reality.

The preliminary update is intended to reduce the barrier to entry for newer delegates while simultaneously allowing experienced delegates to begin developing sophisticated strategies from the outset. As committee progresses, crisis updates may increase in complexity, frequency, and strategic significance.

Delegates are therefore encouraged to treat the initial crisis update as the starting point of a continuously evolving situation rather than as a static background document. Successful participation will require adaptability, strategic thinking, and the ability to respond effectively to changing circumstances.

The dais strongly recommends that delegates arrive prepared with preliminary courses of action, potential directives, communication strategies, and a clear understanding of their portfolio's objectives. The conflict has already begun; the question facing delegates is how they intend to shape its future

CRISIS UPDATE I: OPERATION COALITION

6 October 1973 | 1800 Hours

As Egyptian forces continue their successful crossing of the Suez Canal and Syrian forces push deeper into the Golan Heights, celebrations erupt across much of the Arab world. Initial reports indicate that Israeli defensive positions have suffered significant setbacks, with several strongpoints along the Bar-Lev Line being overrun.

In a dramatic and unexpected broadcast from Cairo, President Anwar Sadat has addressed the Arab world, declaring that the ongoing offensive is “only the beginning of a greater struggle.”

In his speech, Sadat proclaimed:

“The Arab nation stands at a historic crossroads. The humiliation of 1967 shall not merely be avenged—it shall be erased. The Zionist entity must understand that Arab resolve cannot be broken. Today I call upon every Arab state, every Arab soldier, and every Arab citizen to unite in a single coalition against Israeli aggression and occupation.”

The statement has sent shockwaves throughout the international community. While crowds gather in support across several Arab capitals, questions remain regarding the intentions of Egypt and Syria beyond their current military objectives.

Early intelligence suggests that volunteers from multiple Arab nations have begun organizing to support Egyptian and Syrian forces. Reports also indicate that several governments are considering additional military aid, troop deployments, and economic measures against nations supporting Israel.

Washington has expressed concern over the increasingly aggressive rhetoric emerging from Cairo, while Moscow has urged restraint among its allies to avoid direct superpower confrontation.

The prospect of a unified Arab Coalition has introduced a dangerous new dimension to the conflict, raising fears of a broader regional war whose consequences could extend far beyond the Middle East.

Sources to Use

The Right Sources:

1. **Official UN Websites, Articles, and Libraries**
2. **UN Ratified Sites.**
 - a. **Al Jazeera**
 - b. **UN Articles**
 - c. **Amnesty International**
 - d. **Britannica**
3. **Official Country and Governmental Websites**
4. **Statements or Speeches made by Heads of State.**
5. **Websites ending with “.org” that follow fact-based reporting**
6. **Websites of NGOs (that your country is associated with)**

These sources are verified with accurate information your portfolio could use. A UN website is the most reliable because it's UN-ratified and gives you more in-depth information about your country's stance.

The Wrong Sources:

1. **Buzzfeed**
2. **Wikipedia**
3. **Quora**
4. **Websites ending with “.com” that have a vested interest**
5. **Op-ed articles**

All of the sources listed above are opinionated with the perception of the article's writers. These sources also answer questions from a person's individual knowledge domain with no proven accuracy