

H-UNSC

STUDY GUIDE



TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Letters.....	2
1.1. Letter from the Secretary General.....	2
1.2. Letter from the Under Secretary Generals.....	3
2. Introduction to the committee.....	4
3.Introduction to the Agenda Item.....	7
4. Key Terms.....	8
5.General Overview.....	9
5.1. Nasser, The United States and The Soviet Union.....	11
5.2. Nationalisation of The Canal.....	11
5.3. European Response to The Seizure.....	12
5.4. Plans to Invade.....	12
5.5. Invasion of The Suez.....	13
5.6. U.S. And Soviet Responses to The Invasion.....	14
6. Timeline and Key Events.....	15
7. Major Parties and Forces.....	21
7.1. Egypt.....	21
7.2. United Kingdom.....	22
7.3. France.....	22
7.4. Israel.....	23
7.5. United States.....	23
7.6. Soviet Union.....	24
7.7. Arab States.....	24
7.8. The Role of United Nations.....	25
8.Possible Solutions.....	25
8.1.International Mediation and Neutral Zone.....	25
8.2.Joint Administration and Shipping Guarantees.....	26
8.3.Economic and Political Encouragements.....	26
8.4. Military Withdrawal Linked to Diplomatic Assurances.....	26
9. Questions to be Addressed.....	26
10.Further Reading and Watching.....	27
11.Bibliography.....	28

1. Letters

1.1. Letter from the Secretary General

Most Esteemed Participants,

It is both an honor and a pleasure to welcome you to the ninth edition of GITOMUN, taking place on 23–26 October 2025. Serving as this year’s Secretary-General is a privilege for me, and I feel truly excited to continue the tradition of a conference that has inspired so many young minds over the years. From the first stages of preparation, our academic and organizational teams have worked with real dedication.

This year we are glad to introduce eight committees. Our English committees are H-SPECPOL, UNWOMEN, F-ILO, WHO, H-UNSC, ECOFIN, and The Mirage of Democracy. Alongside them, our Arabic committee, لجنة وزراء الخارجية الشرق الأوسط, reflects the inclusivity and diversity that we always aim to uphold.

The theme of GITOMUN, “Power of the past, people of the future,” reminds us that the lessons of history are what guide us into tomorrow. Over these four days, I hope you will challenge yourselves, share new ideas, and also enjoy the atmosphere that makes MUN conferences special.

On behalf of the whole GITOMUN’25 team, I thank you for joining us. May these days be both rewarding and memorable, and may you carry the spirit of diplomacy beyond this conference.

Welcome to GITOMUN’25. Let us make this ninth edition truly unforgettable.

Yours sincerely,
Secretary-General
Sümeyye Tahmaz

1.2. Letter from the Under Secretary Generals

Distinguished Delegates,

We extend our warmest greetings to you as we gather for GITOMUN'25, hosted by Güngören ITO Anatolian Girls Imam Hatip High School. We are Ömer Hasan and Mehmed Emin İşçen, proud students of M. Emin Saraç Anatolian Imam Hatip High School, and it is both our privilege and honour to serve as your Chairboard for the Historical United Nations Security Council at this important event.

The opportunity to engage with you over the next four days in focused debate and meaningful discussions fills us with great anticipation. As your Chairs, we are committed to ensuring that your experience in this committee is both productive and memorable.

This year, the H-UNSC will revisit one of the most significant international crises of the 20th century: The Suez Crisis of 1956. This event not only shaped the geopolitical dynamics of the Middle East but also tested the effectiveness of the United Nations in maintaining peace and security. As delegates, you will take on the roles of key actors of the period and address the complex issues arising from this crisis, balancing national interests with the responsibility of preserving international stability.

To assist you in your preparations, we have provided this study guide as a foundation. However, we strongly encourage you to further research your assigned country's historical positions and policies, as deeper preparation will contribute to more substantive and engaging debate.

Before concluding, we would like to express our gratitude to our esteemed Secretary-General for granting us this opportunity, and to the academic and organisational teams whose efforts have made this conference possible. Should you need any clarification or assistance, please feel free to contact us via email.

We wish you success in your preparations and look forward to an engaging and collaborative conference with you all.

Kind regards,

Ömer Hasan & Mehmed Emin İşçen

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2. Key Terms

Suez Canal

An artificial sea-level waterway in Egypt connecting the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea through the Isthmus of Suez, which offers watercraft a shorter journey between the North Atlantic and northern Indian oceans via the Mediterranean and Red seas by avoiding the South Atlantic and southern Indian oceans, reducing the journey by approximately 4,300 miles.

Gamal Abdel Nasser

The second President of Egypt, serving from 1956 until his death, led the 1952 overthrow of the monarchy and introduced far-reaching land reforms the following year.

United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF)

The first large-scale UN peacekeeping force, created to supervise the ceasefire and withdrawal of foreign troops from Egypt.

Nationalization

The process by which a government takes control of a private industry or asset, often to manage resources for national interest.

Cold War

The prolonged period of political tension and military rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union, characterised by ideological conflict and indirect confrontations around the globe.

Decolonization

The process through which colonies gained independence from colonial powers, leading to the establishment of new nations and shifts in global power dynamics.

Anglo-Egyptian Treaty

A treaty signed in London on August 26, 1936, that officially brought to an end 54 years of British occupation in Egypt; it was ratified in December 1936.

3. Introduction to the committee

The UNSC is an integral part of the United Nations international system. Chapter V of the UNC (United Nations Command) designates it as the caretaker of international peace and security, one of the main purposes of the organisation. As Article 24.1 states: Members confer in the Security Council the primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, and agree that in carrying out its duties under this responsibility, the Security Council acts on their behalf.

The UN Security Council meets twice a year, and the council decides the meeting time. Apart from these periodic meetings, the President of the Council may call the Security Council to meet when he deems it necessary and at the request of any member. The Security Council, as the most powerful organ of the UN, has the responsibility of ensuring international security and peace

The organisation has been operating actively, particularly since the 1990s. It works in the fields such as military operations, economic embargoes, armaments inspections, human rights audits and election observations. Other duties of the Security Council. It can be counted as making recommendations in the election of the UN secretary general, recommending the country representations of the UN, and choosing the members of the International Court of Justice together with the General Assembly.

The Historical Security Council essentially functions the same way as the Security Council; however, instead of debating current disputes, the Historical Security Council will debate historical disputes at the time they occurred. As it emulates the Security Council, we will explain the objectives and functions of this committee.

On the 1st of January 1942, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Maxim Litvinov, and T. V. Soong signed a short document, based on the Atlantic Charter and the London Declaration, which later came to be known as the United Nations Declaration. The next day, the representatives of twenty-two other nations added their signatures, and the term “United Nations” was officially used when 26 governments signed this Declaration. Following the 1943 Moscow Conference and Tehran Conference, in mid-1944, the delegations from the

"Big Four" (the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, the United States and the Republic of China) met for the Dumbarton Oaks Conference in Washington, D.C. to negotiate the United Nations structure.

When negotiating the United Nations Security Council (hereinafter "The Security Council" or "The Council"), and after establishing the permanent members, the United States attempted to add the Federative Republic of Brazil as a sixth permanent member, but this idea was opposed by the heads of the Soviet and British delegations. The veto powers were also an important matter to be discussed and, in the end, at the Yalta Conference of February 1945, the American, British and Russian delegations agreed that each of the "Big Five" could veto any action by the Council, but could not veto procedural resolutions, meaning that the permanent members could not prevent debate on a resolution. The UN officially came into existence on the 24th of October 1945 upon ratification of the Charter by the five permanent members of the Security Council and by a majority of the other 46 signatories. On the 17th of January 1946, the Security Council met for the first time at Church House, Westminster, in London, United Kingdom.

Nowadays, the UN Security Council is one of the six principal organs of the UN, as outlined in Article 7 of the Charter of the United Nations, and has the primary responsibility of maintaining international peace and security. In accordance with Article 23 of the UN Charter (amended the 17 December 1963) the Security Council is formed by 15 Members, each of them with one vote. According to the UN Charter, all Member States are obliged to comply with Council decisions and resolutions. Among its members, the Council is divided into permanent and non-permanent members. There are 5 permanent members that have participated in the Council since its foundation: the French Republic, the People's Republic of China (although at this point in time it still was the Republic of China of Taiwan occupying that seat), the Russian Federation (at this time the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics), the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America. The other 10 members of the Council are non-permanent members, and these are chosen every two years by the General Assembly. The composition of these members is: five from African and Asian States; one from Eastern European States; two from Latin American States; and two from Western European and other States.

The Security Council takes the lead in determining the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression, calls upon the parties in a dispute to settle it by peaceful means and recommends methods of adjustment or terms of settlement. In some cases, the Security Council can resort to imposing sanctions or even authorise the use of force to maintain or restore international peace and security.

Under the UN Charter, the functions and powers of the UN Security Council are:

- to maintain international peace and security in accordance with the principles and purposes of the UN;
- to investigate any dispute or situation which might lead to international friction;
- to recommend methods of adjusting such disputes or the terms of settlement;
- to formulate plans for the establishment of a system to regulate armaments;
- to determine the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression and to recommend what action should be taken;
- to call on Members to apply economic sanctions and other measures not involving the use of force to prevent or stop aggression;
- to take military action against an aggressor;
- to recommend the admission of new Members;
- to exercise the trusteeship functions of the UN in "strategic areas"; and
- to recommend to the General Assembly the appointment of the Secretary-General and, together with the Assembly, to elect the Judges of the International Court of Justice.

The UN Security Council may also establish subcommittees to aid its efforts and can call for investigations or fact-finding missions to obtain more information on a dispute.

Article 30 of the UN Charter stipulates that the Security Council shall adopt its own rules of procedure. In 1946, the Council adopted its Provisional Rules of Procedure. Subsequently, the Provisional Rules of Procedure were modified on several occasions; the last revision was made in 1982 in order to add Arabic as the sixth official language, in conformity with General Assembly resolution 35/219 of 17 December 1980.

4. Introduction to the Agenda Item

The Suez Crisis is regarded as a pivotal moment in world history. Beyond its implications for the Egyptian state, the crisis occurred in the midst of a global transition from imperial dominance to widespread decolonisation and independence. The crisis exemplified the struggle between empires fighting to retain their influence over the world and former colonies striving to exercise truly free and sovereign governance. It is essential that, in tackling the Suez Crisis, delegates consider not only the logistical and economic aspects of their solutions, but also the implications for the shifting international balance of power. Many of the stakes held in the conflict went beyond pure economics, as the prestige, reputation, and influence of the great powers were in question. Delegates must be sure to identify where each country's true priorities lie and which policies will best support those interests, while still successfully orchestrating the canal's reopening.

The 1956 Suez War was not just a dispute over a vital waterway, but a symptom of a collapsing imperial order. The Suez episode reconfirmed the sense of betrayal experienced by the Arab world since the combined imperial deceptions during and just after World War I, most notably the sacrifice of Palestinian rights. In the face of a post-World War II rebellious colonial world, Israel was, in effect, relied upon by the Western powers to contain the rising nationalist tide. Israel had its own agenda for political and territorial consolidation and was more than happy to oblige. The emergence of the United States after 1945 as the new Western arbiter of the world played a significant role in the course of the Suez crisis, and confirmed the new imperatives of America's ascendancy in the pivotal Middle East region. As elsewhere, the USA's overriding concern with the spread of 'international communism' affected most of its decisions and policies. The escalating confrontation between anti-colonial nationalism, led by Egypt's Nasser, and the attempts by the West (as represented by its old empires and the emerging new one) to maintain control, framed the 1956 Suez Crisis.



5. General Overview



The Suez Canal Crisis is often referred to as a pivotal moment in the history of international relations: it officially marked the end of British and French colonialism and dominance and gave further momentum to the non-alignment and decolonisation movements. From an international law perspective, the Suez Crisis was one of the first major tests of the United

Nations' (UN) legal system, which had only been adopted ten years prior. Following the failure of the League of Nations, the UN's position in world politics was not a given.

The Suez Canal Crisis began on 26 July 1956, when the Egyptian Colonel and leader Gamal Abdel Nasser declared that he had nationalised the Suez Canal. Viewing this as an affront, the French and British immediately acted to secure their interests. Indeed, since the French built it in the 1800s, the 'Highway to India' was a crucial economic asset for both European powers, especially for the British. The French were also intent on diminishing Nasser's influence in Africa; they were convinced that his downfall would put an immediate end to the Algerian rebellion.

Although Egypt declared itself a sovereign state after World War II, Britain continued to have a significant military presence and economic influence over the canal, further increasing tensions within the Egyptian protectorate. In January 1952, several Egyptian authorities led Egyptian citizens in attacking British soldiers along the canal. This was a violation of the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty, damaging the formerly peaceful alliance between Egypt and Britain. The British threatened to occupy Cairo, prompting Egyptian leader King Farouk to dismiss Egyptian nationalists leaders like Nahas Pasha, which added more fuel to the spreading fire of Arab nationalism. Later that year, the Free Officers Movement military coup forced King Farouk to abdicate, criticising his inability to defend Egypt against imperial powers and against Israel in the 1948 Arab-Israeli War, and instating Gamal Abdel Nasser as the new head of the Egyptian government. Nasser quickly began pressuring the British to end their military presence along the Suez and went about intensifying Egypt's own military presence along the border with Israel.

5.1. Nasser, The United States and The Soviet Union

One of Nasser's primary objectives was to make the Egyptian state as strong as possible. He initially looked to the United States as a large-scale weapons supplier. Egypt had caught the attention of the United States as it looked to develop "pro-Western" ties within the Middle East, but Nasser's frequent and strong anti-Zionist speeches induced strong public and Congressional opposition to selling Egypt weapons. Furthermore, President Eisenhower

strongly supported the Tripartite Declaration of 1950 between the U.S., France, and Britain. This treaty restricted the number of arms each state could sell in the Middle East and was intended to prevent the development of an arms race between the Arabs and Israelis, hopefully maintaining peace and stability in the region. In response to the uncooperative United States, Nasser pursued a relationship with the Soviet Union, which was more than willing to supply weapons through Czechoslovakia and spread its influence. This new relationship between the Soviets and Egyptians caused an uproar in the West, especially in Britain, which saw the expansion of Soviet influence as a direct threat to its oil reserves.

In May of 1956, the United States and Britain withdrew all funding from Nasser's Aswan High Dam, which was considered vital to Egyptian industrialisation and modernisation. Despite both countries' interests in maintaining relations with the newly independent Egypt, each revoked its funding in response to Nasser's growing ties with the Soviet Union, as well as American concerns that Egypt was not ready to manage such a large project. Nasser was furious, and thus, this withdrawal of funding is often identified as the catalyst of the Suez Crisis.

5.2. Nationalisation of The Canal

In July of 1956, in a strong display of nationalistic ambition against imperialism, Egypt's lack of shares in the Suez Canal Company, and the retraction of Western funding for the Aswan High Dam, Nasser nationalised the Suez Canal. He announced that the Suez Canal Company's assets had been frozen and that the British and French shareholders would be paid the value of their shares, giving Egypt complete control of the Suez. Nasser immediately closed the canal to Israeli shipping. He declared that he seized the canal as a means of funding the Aswan Dam Project, believing that "in only five years the tolls collected from ships passing through the Suez Canal would pay for the dam's construction; a key element of Egypt's planned industrialisation".



5.3. European Response to The Seizure

The British and French were outraged, as each was highly dependent on the trade route, especially for access to oil from the Persian Gulf. Despite Nasser's offer of "full economic compensation for the Company," the British and French Governments, long suspicious of Nasser's opposition to the continuation of their political influence in the region, were outraged by the nationalisation. Nasser likewise remained resentful of European imperialistic "efforts to perpetuate their colonial domination", making any attempts at diplomacy unsuccessful. Realizing this, Britain and France secretly prepared for military action, looking to regain control of the canal and, if possible, depose Nasser. They found a ready ally in Israel, whose hostility toward Egypt had been exacerbated by Nasser's blockage of the Straits of Tīrān and the numerous skirmishes between Egyptian and Israeli troops along the border.

5.4. Plans to Invade

The United States attempted to act as a diplomatic mediator of the British-French-Egyptian dispute. On September 9th, U.S. Secretary of State John Foster Dulles proposed the creation of a Suez Canal Users' Association (SCUA), which would organise joint operation of the canal by "an international consortium of 18 of the world's leading maritime nations". This plan would have given Britain, France, and Egypt equal shares in the canal, which, amid tensions that had been rising for decades, was not a satisfying solution for any of the parties, and thus was rejected. Nasser still refused to allow the imperial powers any control over Egypt, and Britain especially saw Egypt's takeover of the canal as a "threat to its economic interests and prestige". Considering it vital to counter Nasser, Britain and France held a series of secret military consultations with Israel, which also considered Nasser a serious threat to its territorial security. On October 24th, the three states signed the Protocol of Sèvres, which outlined their plan to jointly invade Egypt and overthrow President Nasser. The plan was signed by Assistant Under-Secretary at the Foreign Office of Great Britain, Patrick Dean, Foreign Minister of France, Christian Pineau, and Prime Minister David Ben-Gurion of Israel.

5.5. Invasion of The Suez

It is now November 2nd, 1956. On October 29th, Israel invaded the Gaza Strip and captured the Sinai Peninsula. On October 31st, Britain and France began Operation Musketeer, an airborne bombing campaign around the Canal Zone. The Israelis initially faced more

Egyptian opposition forces in the Sinai, but following the British and French invasion, Nasser ordered his troops to disengage in the Sinai and protect the Suez Canal. Nasser responded to the invasion by sinking 40 ships in the canal and closing it to all shipping.

As of last night (November 1st), the British and French have destroyed the majority of the Egyptian Air Force. Israel has captured the Sinai, and Britain and France have seized much of the canal zone. Their troops are moving towards Port Said, which they will likely use as a strategic base to take the rest of the area.

Nasser has been heard over the radio declaring the invasion a “people’s war”. Egyptian troops have been ordered to abandon their uniforms and don civilian clothes, and there have been reports of weapons being distributed to Egyptian civilians. This not only has the potential to strengthen the Egyptian military, but it also presents the British and French with a striking dilemma: attack Egyptian civilians and risk facing domestic and international condemnation, or hesitate and risk losing the lives of their soldiers to deceptively non-combatant snipers.

Earlier today (November 2nd), the United Nations General Assembly passed the United States’ proposal for Resolution 997 by a vote of 64 in favour to 5 opposed (Britain, France, Israel, Australia, and New Zealand) with 6 abstentions. The resolution calls for an immediate ceasefire and withdrawal of all states’ forces from the canal zone, an arms embargo, and the re-opening of the Suez Canal, which is currently still blocked by Egyptian forces. Neither side has shown any sign of compliance, however, and there is still fighting throughout the region.

Secretary of External Affairs of Canada Lester B. Pearson is currently working with the United Nations to design a United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF). Pearson intends for the UNEF to be deployed as soon as a ceasefire is achieved to “supervise the withdrawal of the three occupying forces and, after the withdrawal was completed, to act as a buffer between the Egyptian and Israeli forces to provide impartial supervision of the ceasefire”. The proposal, however, has not yet been completed, presented to, or accepted by the United Nations. Notably, none of the permanent members of the Security Council (Britain, the United States, France, the Soviet Union, and China) is an intended member of the UNEF.

5.6. U.S. And Soviet Responses to The Invasion

At this time, the Cold War is in full swing, with tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union at a constant high. On October 23rd, revolts broke out in Hungary against communist rule. The revolts were quickly crushed by the Soviet Red Army. President Eisenhower was reportedly looking to publicly condemn the Soviet intervention in Hungary, but, in the face of the full-blown invasion of Egypt by his European allies, he was unable to do so without appearing hypocritical. The US cannot criticise Soviet imperialist activities in Eastern Europe while France and Great Britain are fighting to preserve empires in the Middle East. As one of the two major superpowers, it will be crucial to consider any pressures exerted by the United States against either side of the conflict, especially if they choose to act on their frustrations with allies France and Britain.

As the other major superpower of the time period, any Soviet reactions to the invasion will be an essential consideration of every proposed solution. As previously mentioned, the Soviet Union has been supplying weapons to Egypt through Czechoslovakia for months in an effort to gain the favour of Arab nationalists like Nasser, establish a foothold in the Middle East, and further expand its influence by building its own anti-imperial credentials. In this crisis, the Soviet Union and Egypt are essentially allies. Keeping these motivations and the military and nuclear capabilities of the Soviet Union in mind, delegates should seriously consider how their directives and resolution will be received by both superpowers. Through their actions, delegates may inadvertently harm the reputation of the United States and bolster the reputation of the Soviets in other decolonising parts of the world, potentially allowing the Soviet Union to gain crucial footholds in the Third World.

6. Timeline and Key Events

1922

Feb 28: Egypt is declared a sovereign state by Britain.

Mar 15: Sultan Faud appoints himself King of Egypt.

Mar 16: Egypt achieves independence.

May 7: Britain is angered over Egyptian claims to sovereignty over Sudan.

1936

Apr 28: Faud dies, and his 16-year-old son, Farouk, becomes King of Egypt.

Aug 26: Draft of the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty is signed. Britain is allowed to maintain a garrison of 10,000 men in the Suez Canal Zone and is given effective control of Sudan.

1939

May 2: King Farouk is declared the spiritual leader, or Caliph, of Islam.

1945

Sept 23: Egyptian government demands complete British withdrawal and the cession of Sudan.

1946

May 24: British Prime Minister Winston Churchill says the Suez Canal will be in danger if Britain withdraws from Egypt.

1948

May 14: Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel by David Ben-Gurion in Tel Aviv.

May 15: Start of the first Arab-Israeli War.

Dec 28: Egyptian Premier Mahmoud Fatimy is assassinated by the Muslim Brotherhood.

Feb 12: Hassan el Banna, leader of the Muslim Brotherhood, is assassinated.

1950

Jan 3: Wafd party regains power.

1951

Oct 8: Egyptian government announces that it will eject Britain from the Suez Canal Zone and take control of Sudan.

Oct 21: British warships arrive at Port Said; more troops are on the way.

1952

Jan 26: Egypt is placed under martial law in response to widespread riots against the British.

Jan 27: Prime Minister Mustafa Nahhas is removed by King Farouk for failing to keep the peace. He is replaced by Ali Mahir.

Mar 1: The Egyptian Parliament is suspended by King Farouk when Ali Mahir resigns.

May 6: King Farouk claims to be a direct descendant of the Prophet Mohammed.

July 1: Hussein Sirry is the new premier.

July 23: Free Officer Movement, fearing King Farouk is about to move against them, initiates a military coup.

July 26: Military coup is successful, General Naguib appoints Ali Mahir as prime minister.

Sept 7: Ali Mahir again resigns. General Naguib takes over the post of president, prime minister, minister of war and commander-in-chief of the army.

1953

Jan 16: President Naguib disbands all opposition parties.

Feb 12: Britain and Egypt sign a new treaty. Sudan is to have independence within three years.

May 5: Constitutional commission recommends the 5,000-year-old monarchy be ended and Egypt become a republic.

May 11: Britain threatens to use force against Egypt over the Suez Canal dispute.

June 18: Egypt becomes a republic.

Sept 20: Several of King Farouk's aides are seized.

1954

Feb 28: Nasser challenges President Naguib.

Mar 9: Naguib beats off Nasser's challenge and retains the presidency.

Mar 29: General Naguib postpones plans to hold parliamentary elections.

Apr 18: For a second time, Nasser takes the presidency away from Naguib.

Oct 19: Britain cedes the Suez Canal to Egypt in a new treaty, with a one-year period set for withdrawal.

Oct 26: The Muslim Brotherhood attempted to assassinate General Nasser.

Nov 13: General Nasser is in full control of Egypt.

1955

Apr 27: Egypt announces plans to sell cotton to Communist China

May 21: USSR announces it will sell arms to Egypt.

Aug 29: Israeli and Egyptian jets in firefight over Gaza.

Sept 27: Egypt makes a deal with Czechoslovakia -- arms for cotton.

Oct 16: Egyptian and Israeli forces skirmish in El Auja.

Dec 3: Britain and Egypt sign an agreement granting Sudan independence.

1956

Jan 1: Sudan achieves independence.

Jan 16: Islam is made the state religion by an act of the Egyptian government.

June 13: Britain gives up the Suez Canal. Ends 72 years of British occupation.

June 23: General Nasser is elected president.

July 19: The US withdraws financial aid for the Aswan Dam project. The official reason is Egypt's increased ties to the USSR.

July 26: President Nasser announces a plan to nationalise the Suez Canal.

July 28: Britain freezes Egyptian assets.

July 30: British Prime Minister Anthony Eden imposes an arms embargo on Egypt and informs General Nasser that he can not have the Suez Canal.

Aug 1: Britain, France, and the US hold talks on escalating the Suez crisis.

Aug 2: Britain mobilises armed forces.

Aug 21: Egypt says it will negotiate on Suez ownership if Britain pulls out of the Middle East.

Aug 23: USSR announces it will send troops if Egypt is attacked.

Aug 26: General Nasser agrees to a five nation conference on the Suez Canal.

Aug 28: Two British envoys are expelled from Egypt, accused of spying.

Sept 5: Israel condemns Egypt over the Suez crisis.

Sept 9: Conference talks collapse when General Nasser refuses to allow international control of the Suez Canal.

Sept 12: US, Britain, and France announce their intention to impose a Canal Users Association on the management of the canal.

Sept 14: Egypt now in full control of the Suez Canal.

Sept 15: Soviet ship-pilots arrive to help Egypt run the canal.

Oct 1: A 15-nation Suez Canal Users Association is officially formed.

Oct 7: Israeli foreign minister Golda Meir says the UN's failure to resolve the Suez Crisis means they must take military action.

Oct 13: Anglo-French proposal for the control of the Suez Canal is vetoed by the USSR during the UN session.

Oct 29: Israel invades the Sinai Peninsula.

Oct 30: Britain and France veto USSR demand for Israel-Egypt cease-fire.

Nov 2: UN Assembly finally approves a cease-fire plan for Suez.

Nov 5: British and French forces involved in the airborne invasion of Egypt.

Nov 7: UN Assembly votes 65 to 1 that invading powers should quit Egyptian territory.

Nov 25: Egypt begins to expel British, French, and Zionist residents.

Nov 29: The Tripartite Invasion officially ended under pressure from the UN.

Dec 20: Israel refuses to return Gaza to Egypt.

Dec 24: British and French troops depart Egypt.

Dec 27: 5,580 Egyptian POWs exchanged for four Israelis.

Dec 28: Operation to clear sunken ships in the Suez Canal starts.

1957

Jan 15: British and French banks in Egypt are nationalised.

Mar 7: UN takes over the administration of the Gaza Strip.

Mar 15: General Nasser bars Israeli shipping from the Suez Canal.

Apr 19: First British ship pays Egyptian toll for use of the Suez Canal

7. Major Parties and Forces

7.1. Egypt



Under the control of President Gamal Abdel Nasser, Egypt emerged as a loud voice and a powerful representative of post-colonial Arab nationalism, especially in the Arab world. When Nasser announced the nationalisation of the Suez Canal in July 1956, which was controlled by British and French interests, it was clear that this move

was aimed at asserting Egyptian sovereignty, financing the Aswan Dam after the withdrawal of Western aid, and reducing Western influence in the region. Nasser's decision propelled him into a significant role in Arab history but also provoked an immediate and hostile reaction from the former colonial powers. As the Egyptian army prepared to defend the canal and the country's independence, Nasser, thanks to his nationalist spirit, secured strong support from across the Arab world.

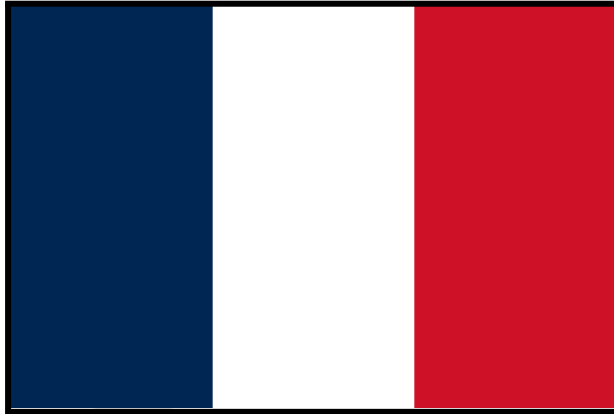
7.2. United Kingdom



The United Kingdom, under the control of Prime Minister Anthony Eden, viewed Nasser's efforts to nationalise the Suez Canal as a direct threat to the country's global prestige and strategic interests. The canal was a crucial place for oil

transportation and trade between Britain and its former imperial territories. For Eden and the kingdom, Nasser's actions were a manifestation not only of economic or political problems but also of the waning global influence of Britain in the post-war era. Determined to remove Nasser from power and reassert control over the canal, Britain secretly planned military

cooperation with France and Israel, followed by an intervention. However, the invasion ultimately failed for diplomatic reasons, marking the beginning of the end of Britain's hegemony as a global power.



7.3. France

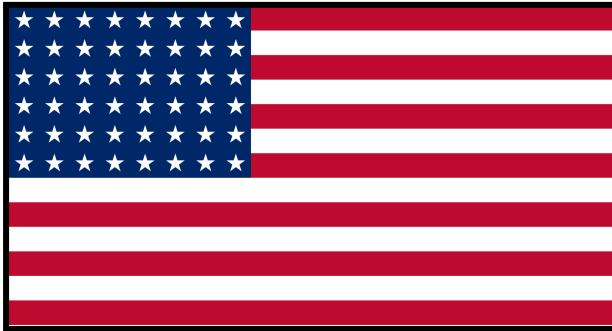
France, under the control of Prime Minister Guy Mollet, had its own reasons, with some reasons similar to Britain's, for opposing Nasser's actions, caused not only by economic interests but also by colonial situations. Like Britain, France was a shareholder in the Suez Canal Company and saw the danger of significant influence

and revenue from Abdel Nasser's nationalisation actions. However, France's motivations were even more personal than Britain's: Nasser was a supporter of the Algerian independence movement, which was having a brutal war against French colonial rule at that time. By weakening Nasser, France hoped to demonstrate its moral superiority and stop the backing of Algerian nationalists. France joined Britain and Israel as a result of a secret military plan, because of seeing the Suez Crisis as an opportunity to make a strike against both anti-colonial resistance and pan-Arabist forces.

7.4. Israel

For Israel, the Suez Crisis was an opportunity for both its strategy and existence. Since its founding in 1948, Israel has faced border battles and voluntary attacks mostly from Gaza, which is controlled by Egypt. More critically, Egypt had closed the Straits of Tiran and which led to cutting off Israel's access to the Red Sea and its important trade routes. With their then Prime Minister, David Ben-Gurion, Israel agreed to a secret alliance with Britain and France, as mentioned. They thought that it would launch an attack into the Sinai Peninsula, giving the two European powers a reason to intervene and move for the purpose of separating the warring parties. After all, Israel's goals were to open the Straits, weaken Egypt's military forces, and have more defensible borders. As a result, Israel's advance exposed Egypt's weak points and reshaped regional military dynamics, even though they have been forced a withdraw by international pressure

7.5. United States



The United States, which was led by President Dwight D. Eisenhower, took a certain and unexpected attitude against the Anglo-French-Israeli intervention. Although they were a close ally of Britain and France, the US was deeply concerned

about the emergence of Western imperialism as it started to gain influence in new, decolonised countries during the Cold War. Eisenhower feared that the invasion would draw Arab states closer to the Soviet Union and weaken Western interests in the Middle East. Additionally, he had not been informed of the secret military plans of the ally, so he viewed them as betrayers. With strong diplomatic pressure and a lot of threats of some economic consequences, the US forced its “betrayers” allies to withdraw. That was a rare moment when American policy directly made British and French military ambitions decide and forced them. Those actions signalled a change in global leadership from the old empires to the superpowers.



7.6. Soviet Union

The Soviet Union, with Premier Nikita Khrushchev, was Egypt’s loyal ally during the Suez Crisis. Even though the USSR government had no direct military involvement in the crisis, it saw the conflict

as a chance to ensure its dominance in the Middle East and show itself as the representative of anti-imperialism. By condemning the Anglo-French-Israeli alliance a lot, the Soviets aimed to win the trust of Arab states and obstruct the Western dominance in the region. Khrushchev issued strong diplomatic warnings — including implicit threats of military action — to the contrary powers, while also providing Egypt economic and military support. This spectacular attitude not only strengthened the relationship with Nasser but also allowed the Soviet Union to get a propaganda victory in the global Cold War story.

7.7. Arab States

During the Suez Crisis, some of the Arab nations supported Egypt, including Saudi Arabia, Syria, and Arab League members. Their political and diplomatic support and backing were significant in describing the conflict as a united side against Western imperialism, even though they avoided using force to intervene. For these countries, the larger fight for Arab independence and dignity in the post-colonial era was represented by Nasser's rebellion against Britain and France. Saudi Arabia placed Britain and France under an oil embargo, Syria cut off oil lines and stopped export to Europe in protest, and other Arab governments used their influence to condemn the invasion internationally. Nasser's prestige as the head of pan-Arab nationalism was strengthened by this unity, which also strengthened Egypt's position at that time.

7.8. The Role of United Nations



The United Nations played a pivotal role in resolving the Suez Crisis. The UN Security Council passed Resolution 118, which called for the withdrawal of Israeli, British, and French forces from Egyptian territory. The UN also established the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF), the first UN peacekeeping force, to supervise the

withdrawal and maintain order in the region. The UN's involvement in the crisis can be summarised as follows:

In October 1956, the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) debated the crisis for the first time, but no resolution was passed due to the veto of Britain and France.

In November 1956, the United Nations General Assembly created and passed Resolution 997, which called for a ceasefire and troop withdrawal. That resolution would lead to the declaration of a ceasefire and withdrawal of British, French and Israeli forces. Later in the same month, the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) was established to supervise the situation of withdrawal and maintain order.

8.Possible Solutions

8.1.International Mediation and Neutral Zone

To resolve the crisis, neutral countries or the United Nations can be invited to act as mediators between the countries that are included in the crisis. That would ensure a peaceful resolution instead of choosing to battle. A way to achieve this is by defining the Suez Canal as a neutral zone and open to international control for possible future crises. This approach would respect Egypt's dominance over the territory and guarantee a safe and open passage for all nations at the same time. That method can also help to calm the countries down and bring permanence to one of the world's most important maritime routes.

8.2.Joint Administration and Shipping Guarantees

Establishing a joint control organisation involving Egypt, Britain, France, and other key nations that are included in the crisis would guarantee that the canal remains accessible for international trade to every nation. This solution is supposed to be supported by an international treaty that consists of all parties to support free transportation through the waterway for all ships and sea vessels. That may prevent any nation from monopolising the canal and blocking global shipping interests.

8.3.Economic and Political Encouragements

Western nations can provide Egypt with economic support that will include investments for rebuilding and development aid, which may help the canal to be open. At the same time, some political reforms that will be implemented step by step in Egypt could help to build

trust with Western countries, which will lead to enhanced stability and cooperation between them.

8.4. Military Withdrawal Linked to Diplomatic Assurances

Britain and France might consider withdrawing their military presence from the region in return for solid guarantees from Egypt regarding shipping security and protection. This diplomatic approach may lower the chances of military conflict and ensure that both strategic and commercial interests are preserved

9. Questions to be Addressed

- What are the interests of France and Egypt in Algeria? How do these aims interact with the goals of Algerian revolutionaries?
- What do Pan-Arabism and Nasserism mean for the survival of the state of Israel?
- What are the issues regarding the ownership of the Canal, the legality of its nationalisation, and the compensations offered by the Egyptian Government?
- How to guarantee safe passage through the Canal, especially regarding the oil shipped through the Canal destined for Europe?
- Discussing whether Egypt should be held accountable or not for arming the Algerian rebels against French rule.
- What are the international consequences for the countries involved and their actions during the conflict?
- How should the committee address the military actions taken by Israel, France, and the United Kingdom in Egypt?

- How should the committee mediate the conflicting positions of the United States and the Soviet Union in the crisis?
- What mechanisms can be established to monitor withdrawal, prevent future hostilities, and guarantee the safety of the canal?

10. Further Reading and Watching

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