Letter from the President

Dear Delegates,

It is with great pleasure that we present the study guide for the simulation of the United Nations Security Council at JPHS MUN 2023. The study guide should be a great starting point for research. It will help to become familiar with the topics and better understand the problems that will be discussed throughout the conference. Furthermore, we encourage all delegates to develop a general understanding of the assigned country, for its foreign policy, and its standpoint with regard to the agenda topic. In some cases, exact and topic-related statements may not be found which apply exactly to the committee topics, wherefore a general understanding of the county's culture and politics provides a framework for specific country positions. With this, we wish you all the very best for the upcoming conference, with the hope of having a collectively enriching experience and debate.

Arnav Bhardwaj
President

Agendas

1. Impact and Consequences of the September 11th Terrorist Attacks (FREEZE DATE: SEPTEMBER 15TH 2001)

2. Isreal's 6-day war (FREEZE DATE: June 10th, 1967

Suggested Pattern for Researching

Researching and understanding the United Nations and the Committee/Commission being simulated –Its Mandate, including understanding historical work done on the agenda. Research on the allotted country. Understanding its polity, economy, military, culture, history, bilateral relations with other
countries, ideological position on various other relevant issues related to the agenda etc. Comprehending the Foreign Policy of the allotted country. It includes understanding the ideology and principles adopted by the country on the agenda. It further includes studying past actions taken by the country on the agenda and other related issues –specifically analyzing their causes and consequences. Reading the background guide thoroughly. Researching further upon the agenda using the footnotes and links given in the guide and from other sources such as academic papers, institutional reports, national reports, news articles, blogs etc.

Understanding policies adopted by different blocs of countries (example: NATO, EU etc.) and major countries involved in the agenda. Including their position, ideology and adopted past actions. Characterizing the agenda into sub-topics and preparing speeches and statements on them. It is the same as preparing topics for the moderated caucuses and their content. Preparing a list of possible solutions and actions the UNPBC can adopt on the issue as per your country's policies. Assemble proof/evidence for any important piece of information/allegation you are going to use in committee and keeping your research updated using various news sources. Lastly, we would expect all the delegates to put in serious efforts in research and preparation for the simulation and work hard to
make it a fruitful learning experience for all. Feel free to contact
if you have any queries or doubts.

Committee Introduction

Background

The Security Council has primary responsibility, under the Charter, for the maintenance of international peace and security. It is so organized as to be able to function continuously and a representative of each of its members must be present at all times at United Nations Headquarters.

When a complaint concerning a threat to peace is brought before it, the Council's first action is usually to recommend to the parties to try to reach to agreement by peaceful means. In some cases, the council itself undertakes investigation and mediation. It may appoint special representatives or request the Secretary-General to do so or to use his good offices. It may set forth principles for a peaceful settlement. When a dispute leads to fighting, the Council's first concern is to bring it to an end as soon as possible. On many occasions, the Council has issued cease-fire directives which have been instrumental in preventing wider hostilities. It also sends United Nations peace-keeping forces to help reduce tensions in troubled areas keep opposing forces apart and create conditions of calm in which peaceful settlements may be sought. The council may decide on enforcement measures, economic sanctions (such as trade or embargoes) or collective military actions (with reference to Chapter VII of the UN Charter)

The Presidency of the Council rotates monthly according to the English alphabetical listing of its Member states.

Functions and Powers

- Under the charter the functions and powers of the Security Council are:
- To maintain international peace and security in accordance with the principles and
- purposes of the United Nations;
- 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

Voting

Procedure

Article 27 states:

1. Each member of the Security council shall have one vote

2. Decisions of the Security Council on procedural matters shall be made by an affirmative vote of nine members

3. Decisions of the Security Council on all other matters shall be made by an affirmative vote of nine members including the concurring votes of the permanent members; provided that, in decisions under Chapter VI, and under paragraph 3 of Article 52, a party to dispute shall abstain from voting

Veto Power
A negative vote or veto, by a permanent member prevents adoption of a proposal, even if it has received the required number of affirmative votes (9).

Abstention is not regarded as a veto

Procedural matters are not subjected to a veto, so the veto cannot be used to avoid discussion of an issue.

Membership and Election

How are the non-permanent members elected?
Each year the General Assembly elects five non-permanent members (out of 10 in total) for a two-year term. In accordance with the General Assembly resolution 1991 (XVIII) of 17 December 1963, the 10 non-permanent seats are distributed on a regional basis as follows: five for African and Asian States; one for Eastern European States; two for the Latin American and Caribbean States; and two for Western European and other States.

Conduct of Business

How is the work of the Security Council organized?
Article 28 of the United Nations Charter states that the Security Council shall be so organized as to be able to function continuously. Rule 1 of the Provisional Rules of Procedures states that the meetings of the Security Council shall be held at the call of the President at any time he deems necessary, but that the

interval between meetings shall not exceed fourteen days. For more information on these provisions and the practice of the Security Council, see the Provisional Rules of Procedure.

What is the difference between open and closed meetings and consultations?

Both open and closed meetings are formal meetings of the Security Council. Closed meetings are not open to the public and no verbatim record of statements is kept, instead the Security Council issues a Communiqué in line with Rule 55 of its Provisional Rules of Procedure. Consultations are informal meetings of the Security Council members and are not covered in the Repertoire. The annual report of the Security Council to the General Assembly provides dates of consultations on different agenda items from recent years.

What are subsidiary organs?

Subsidiary organs are bodies that are created by the Security Council under Article 29 of the United Nations Charter to assist the Council in its work. They can range from sanctions committees and Working Groups consisting of representatives of all fifteen Security Council Members to tribunals or peacekeeping missions with thousands of troops. A complete list of all subsidiary organs created by the Security Council since 1946 is available on the Repertoire's website.

What is the difference between Peacekeeping Operations, Special Political Missions and Peacebuilding Offices?

They are all considered subsidiary organs but are led by different United Nations entities and have different types of mandates. Peacekeeping operations are usually led by the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) and many — although not all — peacekeeping operations have a Chapter VII mandate. In addition, peacekeeping operations, as opposed to other missions, have a military or international police presence in the field.

Peacebuilding and political offices are generally overseen by the Department of Political Affairs. These missions are part of a continuum of United Nations peace operations working in different stages of the conflict cycle.

Action with Respect to Threats to the Peace, Breach of the Peace, or Act of Aggression

How does the Security Council determine the existence of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression?

Article 39 of the United Nations Charter states that the Security Council shall determine the existence of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression. The range of situations which the Security Council determined as giving rise to threats to the peace includes country-specific situations such as inter- or intra-State conflicts or internal conflicts with a regional or sub-regional dimension.

Furthermore, the Security Council has identified potential or generic threats as threats to international peace and security, such as terrorist acts, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and the proliferation and illicit trafficking of small arms and light weapons.

The context in which the Security Council determined a situation as giving rise to breaches of the peace is narrower. The Security Council has determined a breach of the peace only in situations involving the use of armed force. Only in a very few cases in its history has the Security Council ever determined the existence of an act of aggression by one State against another.

For more information on how the Security Council has applied Article 39 of the Charter over the years, see the Repertoire's Actions with Respect to Threats to the Peace, Breaches of the Peace, and Acts of Aggression (Chapter VII), under Article 39.

What are sanctions?

Article 41 of the Charter of the United Nations gives the Security Council the authority to impose measures not involving the use of armed force. For more information on sanctions measures, visit the sanctions committees website. The Repertoire also covers how Article 41 has been applied and interpreted by the Security Council as well as the sanctions committees and other bodies that have been created to monitor mandatory measures.

What kind of measures involving the use of armed force has the Security Council imposed in the past?

Article 42 of the United Nations Charter gives the Security Council the authority to take action by air, sea or land forces as may be necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security.

- The Security Council has authorized military force to reverse or repel aggression by one State against another (in the context of the 1950 Korean War and the aggression of Iraq against Kuwait in 1990).
- Since 1990, the Security Council has increasingly authorized the use of force under Chapter VII of the Charter — in different circumstances and to varying degrees.
- It has authorized a number of naval blockades to enforce sanctions (in Iraq, the former Yugoslavia, Haiti and Sierra Leone).
- It has authorized a limited use of force by United Nations peacekeeping operations (such as in the former Yugoslavia, Somalia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kosovo and East Timor, and by regional arrangements (such as the ECOWAS Mission in Côte d'Ivoire (ECOMICI), the European Union force in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (EUFOR R.D. Congo) and the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM).
- Furthermore, it has authorized the use of "all necessary means" or "all necessary measures" by multinational forces (such as in Somalia, Haiti, Rwanda, Eastern Zaire, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, East Timor, Bunia in the DRC, Liberia and Iraq.

For all the relevant studies on authorization of the use of force by the Security Council since 1946, see Actions with Respect to Threats to the Peace, Breaches of the Peace, and Acts of Aggression (Chapter VII), under Article 42.

What are the rules for the use of force by States?

Besides the authorization of the use of force by the Security Council as indicated above, Member States can use force when exercising their right to self-defence according to Article 51 of the United Nations Charter. Member States can exercise the right to self-defence only in the event of an "armed attack" and "until the Security Council has taken measures necessary to maintain international peace and security". Otherwise, Article 2 (4) of the Charter states that all Members of the United Nations shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any State, or in any other manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations.

Read more here: https://www.un.org/securitycouncil/content/faq

Agenda 1: Impact and Consequences of the September 11th Terrorist Attacks (FREEZE DATE: SEPTEMBER 15TH 2001)

Introduction

The 9/11 attacks were a series of coordinated terrorist attacks carried out by a group of Islamic extremists affiliated with the terrorist organization Al-Qaeda. The attacks took place on September 11, 2001, and targeted various locations in the United States, including the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon in Virginia.

The background to these attacks can be traced back to the late 20th century when the United States became involved in conflicts in the Middle East, particularly in Afghanistan. During this time, the US provided support to Afghan rebels who were fighting against the Soviet Union, which had invaded Afghanistan in 1979. One of these rebels was a man named Osama bin Laden, who would later become the leader of Al-Qaeda.

In the years following the Soviet withdrawal from Afghanistan, bin Laden turned his attention to the United States, which he saw as a major global power and a threat to the Muslim world. He believed that the US was responsible for many of the problems facing the Muslim world, including the presence of American troops in Saudi Arabia, which is home to Islam's holiest sites.

In the early 1990s, bin Laden began planning a series of terrorist attacks against the United States, including an unsuccessful attempt to bomb the World Trade Center in 1993. He continued to organize and finance various terrorist activities throughout the 1990s, including attacks on US embassies in Kenya and Tanzania in 1998.

In the years leading up to the 9/11 attacks, Al-Qaeda operatives began planning a more ambitious operation that would target multiple locations in the US. The attacks were carried out on September 11, 2001, and resulted in the deaths of nearly 3,000 people.

In the aftermath of the attacks, the United States launched a military campaign against Al-Qaeda and the Taliban, which had provided a safe haven for the terrorist group in Afghanistan. The US also implemented various domestic security measures, including the creation of the Department of Homeland Security and the passage of the USA PATRIOT Act.

Overall, the 9/11 attacks represented a turning point in US history, leading to significant changes in US foreign and domestic policy and shaping the country's response to terrorism in the years that followed.

Additional Context:

- Osama bin Laden was born in Saudi Arabia in 1957 and was the son of a wealthy businessman. He was educated in Saudi Arabia and later traveled to Afghanistan to join the fight against the Soviet Union in the 1980s. During this time, he became radicalized and began developing his extremist views.
- In 1988, bin Laden founded Al-Qaeda, which means "the base" in Arabic. The organization's goal was to establish a global jihadist movement and to wage war against the West and its allies.
- In addition to the attacks on the US embassies in Kenya and Tanzania in 1998, Al-Qaeda was also responsible for the bombing of the USS Cole in Yemen in 2000, which killed 17 American sailors.
- The 9/11 attacks involved 19 hijackers who were divided into four teams. The first team hijacked American Airlines Flight 11 and crashed it into the North Tower of the World Trade Center. The second team hijacked United Airlines Flight 175 and crashed it into the South Tower. The third team hijacked American Airlines Flight 77 and crashed it into the Pentagon, while the fourth team hijacked United Airlines Flight 93, which crashed into a field in Pennsylvania after passengers attempted to take control of the plane.
- The attacks resulted in the deaths of 2,977 people, including 246 on the four planes, 2,606 in the World Trade Center, and 125 at the Pentagon. The attacks also caused significant damage to the World Trade Center complex, which was completely destroyed.
- In response to the attacks, the US launched the War on Terror, which involved military action in Afghanistan and later Iraq. The War on Terror also included various intelligence and counterterrorism measures, such as the establishment of the National Counterterrorism Center and the implementation of the Terrorist Screening Center.
- The attacks had a profound impact on American society and politics, leading to increased security measures and changes in US foreign policy. The attacks also sparked a wave of anti-Muslim sentiment and discrimination, with many Muslims facing harassment and discrimination in the years following the attacks.

Actions of the UN before 9/11 on counterterrorism

- In 1963, the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft, which criminalized hijacking and other crimes committed on board aircraft.
- In 1972, the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents, which aimed to prevent attacks against diplomats and other high-level officials.

- In 1973, the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents, which criminalized terrorist bombings.
- In 1988, the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Maritime Navigation, which aimed to prevent attacks against ships and other maritime vessels.
- In 1994, the UN General Assembly adopted the Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, which outlined a comprehensive approach to combating terrorism, including measures to address the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism, prevent and combat terrorism, and protect human rights and the rule of law.
- The UN also established the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC) in 1999, which was tasked with monitoring and coordinating the international effort against terrorism. The CTC worked to facilitate cooperation among member states, provide technical assistance to countries in need, and promote the implementation of international counterterrorism measures.
- The UN also established the Al-Qaida and Taliban Sanctions Committee in 1999, which was responsible for implementing sanctions against individuals and entities associated with Al-Qaeda and the Taliban.
- In addition to the UN, other multilateral organizations, such as the European Union (EU) and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), were also involved in counterterrorism efforts. The EU adopted a common definition of terrorism in 2001 and established a counterterrorism coordinator position in 2004. The OSCE established a Counter-Terrorism Unit in 2003 to support member states in their efforts to prevent and combat terrorism.

Overall, the UN and other multilateral organizations were actively involved in counterterrorism efforts prior to the 9/11 attacks. However, the attacks highlighted the need for a more comprehensive and coordinated international approach to combating terrorism, leading to increased cooperation and action in the years following the attacks.

What was the aftermath of these events at the Security Council?

Timeline:

September 12, 2001:
- The UNSC adopts Resolution 1368, which condemns the terrorist attacks and declares them a threat to international peace and security.
- The resolution also expresses solidarity with the United States and calls on all states to work together to bring the perpetrators to justice.

September 28, 2001:
- The UNSC adopts Resolution 1373, which calls on all states to prevent and suppress the financing of terrorism, and to cooperate in the fight against terrorism.
- The resolution also establishes a Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC) to monitor the implementation of the resolution and provide technical assistance to states.

October 2001:
- The UNSC adopts Resolution 1377, which recognizes the important role of regional organizations in combating terrorism.
- The resolution encourages states to work with regional organizations and calls on the UN to provide support to those organizations.

November 2001:
- The UNSC adopts Resolution 1386, which authorizes the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan to help maintain security and assist in the rebuilding of the country.
- The resolution also recognizes the importance of addressing the root causes of terrorism and promoting development and democracy.

January 2002:
- The UNSC adopts Resolution 1390, which establishes the UN Monitoring, Verification, and Inspection Commission (UNMOVIC) to verify Iraq's compliance with its disarmament obligations.
- The resolution is not directly related to 9/11, but it reflects the UNSC's increased focus on preventing the spread of weapons of mass destruction in the aftermath of the attacks.

March 2002:
- The UNSC adopts Resolution 1402, which calls for an immediate ceasefire and a withdrawal of Israeli troops from Palestinian cities.
- The resolution reflects the UNSC's ongoing efforts to address the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, which was seen as a contributing factor to global terrorism.

Summary: Overall, the aftermath of 9/11 had a significant impact on the UNSC's work, as the Council focused more heavily on counter-terrorism efforts and took a more active role in addressing regional conflicts. The adoption of multiple resolutions on counter-terrorism and the establishment of the CTC and ISAF were particularly noteworthy, as they demonstrated the UNSC's commitment to preventing future terrorist attacks and promoting global security.

Actions of other nations post 9/11

The United States and its allies:

- Immediately after the 9/11 attacks, the United States launched a global War on Terror, which aimed to eliminate terrorist threats and prevent future attacks. The United States received support from many nations, including NATO allies, which invoked the collective defense clause for the first time in its history. The United Kingdom was one of the United States' closest allies in the War on Terror, and British forces played a key role in military operations in Afghanistan and Iraq. Other members of the "Coalition of the Willing" included Australia, Poland, Spain, and Italy, among others. These countries contributed troops and resources to the war effort and provided diplomatic support to the United States.

Middle Eastern countries:

- In the Middle East, reactions to the 9/11 attacks were mixed. Some nations were supportive of the United States' actions, while others were critical. Israel, for example, was supportive of the United States and shared its concerns about terrorism. Saudi Arabia condemned the attacks but expressed reservations about the U.S. response, fearing that it would exacerbate instability in the region. The Saudi government also expressed concerns about the impact of the U.S. military presence in the region. Other Middle Eastern countries, such as Iran and Iraq, were critical of the U.S. response and condemned the military actions taken in Afghanistan and Iraq.

Muslim countries:

- In the Muslim world, there were mixed reactions to the 9/11 attacks. Many Muslim-majority nations condemned the attacks and expressed solidarity with the United States. These included countries such as Indonesia, Egypt, and Turkey. However, some extremist groups praised the attacks and celebrated the deaths of American citizens. Al-Qaeda received support from some segments of the Muslim world, particularly in countries such as Pakistan and Afghanistan.

Russia:

- Russia offered support to the United States in the aftermath of the 9/11 attacks, recognizing the common threat of terrorism. Russia had its own struggles with terrorism, particularly in Chechnya, and had experience dealing with extremist groups. Russia and the United States worked together to combat terrorism and share intelligence.

China:

- China also offered support to the United States in the aftermath of the 9/11 attacks, recognizing the threat of terrorism. However, relations between the two countries became strained as the United States pursued military operations in Afghanistan and Iraq. China expressed concerns about the impact of the U.S. military presence in the region and the potential for destabilization.

Overall, the response to the 9/11 attacks varied depending on political alliances and regional tensions. The attacks served as a reminder of the importance of international cooperation in combatting terrorism and the need for a unified global response to this threat.

The geopolitical impact of the 9/11 attacks

The invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq:

- The invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq was a major geopolitical consequence of the 9/11 attacks. In the aftermath of the attacks, the U.S. government accused the Taliban government of Afghanistan of harboring the Al-Qaeda terrorist group responsible for the attacks. In response, the U.S. and its allies invaded Afghanistan in October 2001 with the aim of ousting the Taliban regime and destroying Al-Qaeda's infrastructure in the country.
- The invasion of Iraq, on the other hand, was based on the U.S. government's claim that Saddam Hussein's regime was developing weapons of mass destruction (WMDs) and had links to Al-Qaeda. The U.S. government also argued that the invasion was necessary to promote democracy and stability in the Middle East.
- The invasion of Afghanistan was initially successful in ousting the Taliban regime, but the subsequent rebuilding and stabilization efforts were more challenging. The U.S. and its allies remained in Afghanistan for over a decade, engaging in a protracted war against the Taliban insurgency. Despite significant efforts and resources devoted to rebuilding the country, Afghanistan remains mired in conflict and political instability.
- The invasion of Iraq was highly controversial and sparked significant opposition from many countries around the world. Despite widespread protests and criticism, the U.S. and its allies invaded Iraq in March 2003 and quickly toppled Saddam Hussein's regime. However, the subsequent occupation and rebuilding efforts were plagued by challenges, including a protracted insurgency and sectarian violence. The U.S. withdrew its combat troops from Iraq in 2011, but the country remains plagued by ongoing conflict and political instability.

- The invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq had significant geopolitical consequences. It led to the destabilization of the Middle East, the rise of extremist groups such as ISIS, and the erosion of U.S. soft power and credibility around the world. It also contributed to increased tensions between the West and the Muslim world, as many people in the Muslim world viewed the invasions as evidence of Western imperialism and aggression.

Increased tension between the West and the Muslim world:

- The 9/11 attacks triggered a significant increase in tension between the West and the Muslim world, which has persisted in the years since. The attacks were carried out by a group of Islamist extremists, led by Osama bin Laden, who viewed the West, and particularly the United States, as a threat to their religious and political beliefs.
- The U.S. response to the attacks, including the invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq, was viewed by many in the Muslim world as evidence of Western imperialism and aggression. The U.S. government's policies and rhetoric, including the use of terms such as "Islamic terrorism" and "Islamist extremism," were also seen as contributing to the tension and distrust between the West and the Muslim world.

- One major consequence of this increased tension was a rise in anti-Muslim sentiment in the West, fueled by fear and misunderstanding of the Islamic faith and culture. This led to increased discrimination and even violence against Muslims in some countries, particularly in the aftermath of terrorist attacks carried out by Islamist extremists.
- In the Muslim world, the 9/11 attacks and the subsequent U.S. response led to a rise in anti-Western sentiment and a perception that the West was waging a "war on Islam." This perception was further fueled by events such as the Abu Ghraib prison scandal in Iraq and the use of drone strikes in Pakistan and other countries, which were seen as evidence of Western disrespect for Muslim lives and values.
- The increased tension between the West and the Muslim world also contributed to the rise of Islamist extremist groups, such as Al-Qaeda and ISIS, who used the anti-Western sentiment as a recruiting tool and justification for their attacks. These groups have carried out numerous attacks around the world, including in Europe and the United States, further exacerbating the tension and mistrust between the two sides.

<u>Note:</u> *You are advised to understand the timeline of events and their impacts in totality however, remember we are in a historic simulation, meaning you are required to consider events only up to 15th September 2001 for the discussion of this agenda. The goal for us is to understand the full timeline and then have discussions as if we were having a discussion on 15th September 2001 and*

formulate a new path forward from that date, rather than copy the actual timeline

Links for further research:
Note: these links are broken up by level of complexity, if this topic is completely new to you, start from the top and make your way down in descending order.

1. Overview of the 9/11 Attacks (Beginner): https://www.history.com/topics/21st-century/9-11-attacks
2. Timeline of the 9/11 Attacks (Beginner): https://www.bbc.com/news/world-us-canada-10231120
3. The Impact of 9/11 on Popular Culture (Beginner): https://www.theguardian.com/film/2011/sep/11/september-11-hollywood-film-tv-music
4. Impact of the 9/11 Attacks on the U.S. Economy (Intermediate): https://www.investopedia.com/financial-edge/0911/how-911-attacks-still-affect-the-economy-today.aspx
5. The Effects of 9/11 on U.S. Foreign Policy (Intermediate): https://www.foreignaffairs.com/articles/united-states/2011-08-15/911-and-american-foreign-policy
6. How 9/11 Changed the World (Intermediate): https://www.bbc.com/news/world-us-canada-14840315
7. The Impact of 9/11 on U.S. Politics (Intermediate): https://www.pewresearch.org/politics/2016/09/08/how-9-11-changed-the-political-landscape/
8. The Psychological Effects of 9/11 on Americans (Intermediate): https://www.apa.org/research/action/911
9. The Impact of 9/11 on the Muslim World (Intermediate): https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2016/9/9/how-911-changed-the-muslim-world
10. The Impact of 9/11 on Aviation Security (Intermediate): https://www.airport-technology.com/features/featurehow-the-911-terrorist-attacks-changed-air-travel-forever-4652399/
11. The Impact of 9/11 on Immigration Policy (Intermediate): https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/impact-september-11-immigration-policy
12. The Impact of 9/11 on Civil Liberties (Intermediate): https://www.aclu.org/other/how-911-attacks-have-changed-americas-attitude-toward-civil-liberties/
13. The Impact of 9/11 on Surveillance and Privacy (Intermediate): https://www.eff.org/issues/nsa-spying
14. The Impact of 9/11 on the War on Terror (Intermediate): https://www.cfr.org/backgrounder/war-terror-and-effect-us-foreign-policy

15. The Impact of 9/11 on the U.S. Military (Intermediate):
    https://www.brookings.edu/articles/after-911-the-united-states-armed-forces-and-the-global-war-on-terrorism/
16. The Impact of 9/11 on the U.S. Intelligence Community (Intermediate):
    https://www.rand.org/blog/rand-review/2017/09/how-9-11-changed-the-intelligence-community.html
17. The Impact of 9/11 on the Middle East (Advanced):
    https://www.middleeasteye.net/opinion/how-911-forever-changed-middle-east
18. The Impact of 9/11 on U.S.-Saudi Relations (Advanced):
    https://www.brookings.edu/blog/order-from-chaos/2021/09/10/how-911-changed-u-s-saudi-relations/
19. The Impact of 9/11 on U.S.-Pakistan Relations (Advanced):
    https://carnegieendowment.org/2011/09/07/9-11-and-its-implications-for-pakistan-u.s.-relations-pub-45419
20. The Impact of 9/11 on International Security (Advanced): https://www.e-ir.info/2016/09/10/911-and-international-security-a-decade-on/
21. The Impact of 9/11 on U.S.-Russian Relations (Advanced):
    https://www.rand.org/blog/rand-review/2016/09/how-9-11-changed-us-russia-relations.html
22. The Impact of 9/11 on U.S.-Iran Relations (Advanced):
    https://www.brookings.edu/blog/order-from-chaos/2021/09/10/how-911-changed-u-s-iran-relations/
23. The Impact of 9/11 on U.S.-China Relations (Advanced):
    https://www.rand.org/blog/rand-review/2016/09/how-9-11-changed-us-china-relations.html
24. The Impact of 9/11 on Human Rights (Advanced):
    https://www.amnesty.org/en/latest/campaigns/2016/09/how-9-11-changed-the-course-of-human-rights/

The Six Day War: Freeze Date June 10, 1967

ARAB-ISRAELI CONFLICT

The Six-Day War came on the heels of several decades of political tension and military conflict between Israel and the Arab states.

In 1948, following disputes surrounding the founding of Israel, a coalition of Arab nations had launched a failed invasion of the nascent Jewish state as part of the First Arab-Israeli War.

A second major conflict known as the Suez Crisis erupted in 1956, when Israel, the United Kingdom and France staged a controversial attack on Egypt in response to Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser's nationalization of the Suez Canal.

An era of relative calm prevailed in the Middle East during the late 1950s and early 1960s, but the political situation continued to rest on a knife edge. Arab leaders were aggrieved by their military losses and the hundreds of thousands of Palestinian refugees created by Israel's victory in the 1948 war.

Many Israelis, meanwhile, continued to believe they faced an existential threat from Egypt and other Arab nations.

ORIGINS OF THE SIX-DAY WAR

A series of border disputes were the major spark for the Six-Day War. By the mid-1960s, Syrian-backed Palestinian guerillas had begun staging attacks across the Israeli border, provoking reprisal raids from the Israel Defense Forces.

In April 1967, the skirmishes worsened after Israel and Syria fought a ferocious air and artillery engagement in which six Syrian fighter jets were destroyed.

In the wake of the April air battle, the Soviet Union provided Egypt with intelligence that Israel was moving troops to its northern border with Syria in preparation for a full-scale invasion. The information was inaccurate, but it nevertheless stirred Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser into action.

In a show of support for his Syrian allies, he ordered Egyptian forces to advance into the Sinai Peninsula, where they expelled a United Nations peacekeeping force that had been guarding the border with Israel for over a decade.

MIDEAST TENSIONS ESCALATE

In the days that followed, Nasser continued to rattle the saber: On May 22, he banned Israeli shipping from the Straits of Tiran, the sea passage connecting the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aqaba. A week later, he sealed a defense pact with King Hussein of Jordan.

As the situation in the Middle East deteriorated, American President Lyndon B. Johnson cautioned both sides against firing the first shot and attempted to garner support for an international maritime operation to reopen the Straits of Tiran.

The plan never materialized, however, and by early June 1967, Israeli leaders had voted to counter the Arab military buildup by launching a preemptive strike.

SIX-DAY WAR ERUPTS

On June 5, 1967, the Israel Defense Forces initiated Operation Focus, a coordinated aerial attack on Egypt. That morning, some 200 aircraft took off from Israel and swooped west over the Mediterranean before converging on Egypt from the north.

After catching the Egyptians by surprise, they assaulted 18 different airfields and eliminated roughly 90 percent of the Egyptian air force as it sat on the ground. Israel then expanded the range of its attack and decimated the air forces of Jordan, Syria and Iraq.

By the end of the day on June 5, Israeli pilots had won full control of the skies over the Middle East.

Israel all but secured victory by establishing air superiority, but fierce fighting continued for several more days. The ground war in Egypt began on June 5. In concert with the air strikes, Israeli tanks and infantry stormed across the border and into the Sinai Peninsula and the Gaza Strip.

Egyptian forces put up a spirited resistance, but later fell into disarray after Field Marshal Abdel Hakim Amer ordered a general retreat. Over the next several days, Israeli forces pursued the routed Egyptians across the Sinai, inflicting severe casualties.

A second front in the Six-Day War opened on June 5, when Jordan – reacting to false reports of an Egyptian victory – began shelling Israeli positions in Jerusalem. Israel responded with a devastating counterattack on East Jerusalem and the West Bank.

On June 7, Israeli troops captured the Old City of Jerusalem and celebrated by praying at the Western Wall.

ISRAEL CELEBRATES VICTORY

The last phase of the fighting took place along Israel's northeastern border with Syria. On June 9, following an intense aerial bombardment, Israeli tanks and infantry advanced on a heavily fortified region of Syria called the Golan Heights. They successfully captured the Golan the next day.

On June 10, 1967, a United Nations-brokered ceasefire took effect and the Six-Day War came to an abrupt end. It was later estimated that some 20,000 Arabs and 800 Israelis had died in just 132 hours of fighting.

The leaders of the Arab states were left shocked by the severity of their defeat. Egyptian President Nasser even resigned in disgrace, only to promptly return to office after Egyptian citizens showed their support with massive street demonstrations.
In Israel, the national mood was jubilant. In less than a week, the young nation had captured the Sinai Peninsula and the Gaza Strip from Egypt, the West Bank and East Jerusalem from Jordan, and the Golan Heights from Syria.

LEGACY OF THE SIX-DAY WAR

The Six-Day War had momentous geopolitical consequences in the Middle East. Victory in the war led to a surge of national pride in Israel, which had tripled in size, but it also fanned the flames of the Arab-Israeli conflict.
Still wounded by their defeat in the Six-Day War, Arab leaders met in Khartoum, Sudan, in August 1967, and signed a resolution that promised "no peace, no recognition and no negotiation" with Israel.

Led by Egypt and Syria, the Arab states later launched a fourth major conflict with Israel during 1973's Yom Kippur War.

By claiming the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, the state of Israel also absorbed over one million Palestinian Arabs. Several hundred thousand Palestinians later fled Israeli rule, worsening a refugee crisis that had begun during the First Arab-Israeli War in 1948 and laying the groundwork for ongoing political turmoil and violence.
Since 1967, the lands Israel seized in the Six-Day War have been at the center of efforts to end the Arab-Israeli conflict.

Israel returned the Sinai Peninsula to Egypt in 1982 as part of a peace treaty and then withdrew from the Gaza Strip in 2005, but it has continued to occupy and settle other territories claimed in the Six-Day War, most notably the Golan Heights and the West Bank. The status of these territories continues to be a stumbling block in Arab-Israeli peace negotiations.

Read more here:

- The 1967 War: Six Days that Changed the Middle East. BBC.
- The 1967 Arab-Israeli War. U.S. Department of State Office of the Historian.
- The Encyclopedia of the Arab-Israeli Conflict. Edited by Spencer C. Tucker and Priscilla Mary Roberts.
- Six Days of War: June 1967 and the Making of the Modern Middle East. By Michael B. Oren.

Further Links for Research:

Note: these links are broken up by level of complexity, if this topic is completely new to you, start from the top and make your way down in descending order.

Historical Background:
1. "The 1967 War: Origins and Consequences" (Advanced): https://www.foreignaffairs.com/articles/middle-east/1967-06-01/1967-war-origins-and-consequences
2. "The Six-Day War: A Retrospective" (Intermediate): https://www.history.com/news/six-day-war-retrospective

Military Strategy and Tactics:
3. "The Six-Day War: The Arab Perspective" (Advanced): https://www.mei.edu/publications/six-day-war-arab-perspective
4. "The Six-Day War: The Israeli Perspective" (Advanced): https://www.mei.edu/publications/six-day-war-israeli-perspective
5. "The Air War in the Six-Day War" (Intermediate): https://www.historynet.com/the-air-war-in-the-six-day-war.htm
6. "The Battle for Jerusalem: A Military Perspective" (Intermediate): https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/the-battle-for-jerusalem-a-military-perspective

Political Implications:
7. "The Impact of the Six-Day War on Arab Politics" (Advanced): https://www.washingtoninstitute.org/policy-analysis/impact-six-day-war-arab-politics
8. "The Impact of the Six-Day War on Israeli Politics" (Intermediate): https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/the-impact-of-the-six-day-war-on-israeli-politics

9. "The Six-Day War and the Birth of Palestinian Resistance" (Intermediate): https://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/opinion/six-day-war-birth-palestinian-resistance-170607083405709.html

10. "The Six-Day War and Its Impact on U.S.-Israel Relations" (Intermediate): https://www.wilsoncenter.org/blog-post/six-day-war-and-its-impact-us-israel-relations

Geopolitical Implications:

11. "The Six-Day War and Its Impact on the Middle East" (Advanced): https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2017/6/1/the-six-day-war-and-its-impact-on-the-middle-east

12. "The Six-Day War and Its Aftermath: A New Order in the Middle East" (Intermediate): https://www.thoughtco.com/six-day-war-and-its-aftermath-195410

13. "The Six-Day War and Its Impact on the Arab World" (Intermediate): https://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2017/05/six-day-war-impact-arab-world-170526132428703.html

14. "The Six-Day War and Its Impact on U.S. Foreign Policy" (Intermediate): https://www.realclearhistory.com/articles/2017/06/07/the_six-day_war_and_its_impact_on_us_foreign_policy_265.html

International Relations:

15. "The Six-Day War and the United Nations" (Intermediate): https://www.un.org/unispal/document/the-six-day-war-and-the-united-nations/

16. "The Six-Day War and the Cold War" (Intermediate): https://www.historynet.com/the-six-day-war-and-the-cold-war.htm

Cultural and Societal Implications:

17. "The Six-Day War and Its Impact on Israeli Society" (Intermediate): https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/the-six-day-war-and-its-impact-on-israeli-society