

**İZMİR ÖZEL TÜRK KOLEJİ MODEL
UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE 2025**

**UNITED NATIONS SECURITY COUNCIL
COMMITTEE STUDY GUIDE**



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WELCOME LETTERS

WELCOME LETTER OF THE UNDER SECRETARY GENERAL

Esteemed Delegates,

It is my utmost pleasure to welcome you all to the United Nations Security Council Committee in the third annual session of İzmir Özel Türk Koleji Model United Nations Conference 2025. I am Elifnaz Feyzioğlu, the Under Secretary General Responsible for UNSC. It's been a while since I stopped attending conferences since it's my university exam preparation year, but I couldn't say no to attending this valuable conference since I dedicatedly attended every ITKMUN since 2023. In my first ITKMUN experience, I was the President Chair of UNSC and it was one of the best experiences of my MUN career. I was mesmerized from the success, especially academically, of the conference and it was the conference that gave me the most. As you can understand, I am as excited as you to be a part of this conference.

I am more than honored to present this Study Guide to you precious delegates, alongside my dearest Academic Assistant Beren Ulaş who has a special place in my heart since she was the delegate of mine, like you in this conference, in a conference in 2022, and now she is one of my bestest friends and MUN partner.

In our committee we will handle one of the most important political crises that ever happened in our time. The Cuban Missile Crisis, which required a lot of effort to solve with the least amount of destruction.

I highly encourage you to approach our committee with some curiosity and an open mind, so it is important to read this Study Guide and do some research by yourself to handle our crisis smoothly.

Warmest Regards,

Elifnaz Feyzioğlu

Under Secretary-General for UNSC

If you have any questions in your mind, do not hesitate to contact me via:

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INTRODUCTION TO THE UNITED NATIONS SECURITY COUNCIL

MISSIONS AND FUNCTIONS OF UNSC

The United Nations Security Council is one of the principal organs of the United Nations, with the critical responsibility of maintaining global peace and security. Established in 1945, the Council serves as a central body for global decision-making on conflict resolution, international stability and cooperation. Its functions are defined in the UN Charter, particularly in Chapters V, VI, VII.

MISSIONS OF THE UNSC

The primary mission of the Council is to maintain global peace and security by preventing conflicts between countries, managing crises and reducing threats that could degenerate into widespread violence. These actions include addressing situations of armed conflict, territorial disputes and actions that threaten international stability.

Beyond conflict resolution and maintaining security, the Council actively works to promote global cooperation to address challenges such as terrorism, nuclear proliferation and other threats to international stability. It seeks to create frameworks for sustainable peace by promoting diplomacy, direct dialogue and mutual understanding among nations.

The Council also plays a crucial role in preventing mass atrocities, such as genocide, war crimes against humanity etc. When a country is unable or unwilling to protect its own citizens, UNSC has the authority to intervene in ways that uphold fundamental human rights while respecting national sovereignty.

FUNCTIONS OF THE UNSC

UNSC encourages its members to settle disputes through negotiation, arbitration and other peaceful means. It appoints special representatives, mediators and fact-finding missions to reduce tensions and promote dialogue. It also authorizes the deployment of UN Peacekeeping Forces to conflict zones to stabilize regions, protect civilians and oversee the post-conflict recovery efforts. These often include monitoring ceasefires, supporting elections and disarming combatants.

UNSC can impose economic, trade, travel or arms sanctions on states, groups or individuals threatening international peace as a tool to influence behavior without resorting to force. In some extreme cases where peaceful measures have failed, the UNSC may authorize the use of military force to restore peace and security. Such actions are usually taken unilaterally by member states or as a part of a coalition.

Different from other UN bodies, the UNSC has the power to adopt binding resolutions that member states are obliged to abide by under international law. These resolutions often set the legal framework for addressing specific conflicts or global challenges.

DECISION MAKING STRUCTURE OF THE UNSC

The Council has 15 member states:

Permanent Members (P5): United States, United Kingdom, China, France, Russia. For our committee, since our meeting will be held in 1962, Republic of China (Taiwan), as the PRC had not been recognized by the UN as representing China, France, Soviet Union (USSR), United Kingdom, United States.

Non-Permanent Members: Ten elected members who serve two-year terms, representing all regions of the world.

OVERVIEW OF THE CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS

The Cuban Missile Crisis was a defining moment during the Cold War. The Crisis occurred in October 1962 and brought the world to the threshold of a thermonuclear war for thirteen tense days. The crisis unfolded as the United States and the Soviet Union faced off over the deployment of Soviet nuclear missiles in Cuba.

The crisis was a complex interplay of diplomacy and geopolitical strategy that underlined the dangers of nuclear disarmament and the importance of diplomatic communication in preventing global disaster.

The Cuban Missile Crisis had its roots in the Cold War between the US and Soviet Union, as well as tense US relations with Fidel Castro's communist government in Cuba. After Castro's rise to power in 1959 and the failed US-backed invasion, Bay of Pigs in 1961, Cuba decided to forge stronger ties with the Soviet Union. Nikita Khrushchev, Soviet Premier, aimed to deter American aggression and shift the balance of power by secretly deploying nuclear missiles in Cuba, in response to US missiles placed in Turkey and Italy.

The conflict began on October 14 1962, when an American plane captured photographic evidence of Soviet missile sites under construction in Cuba. After that, US President John F. Kennedy and his administration almost immediately assembled the Executive Committee of the National Security Council (ExComm) to deliberate on a response against the Soviet actions.

After an intense debate, he had only two choices. He would either launch a military strike before the missile facilities in Cuba were fully completed, or put a naval "quarantine" in Cuban borders to prevent further shipments of military equipment from the Soviet Union to Cuba.

On October 22 1962, Kennedy addressed the nation by revealing the Soviet missiles in Cuba and demanding their removal. The statement heightened tensions as the world prepared for a nuclear confrontation. In the days that followed, diplomatic and military channels were activated in the US. The United States enforced the quarantine by blocking the Soviet ships, while Soviet Premier Khrushchev exchanged messages with Kennedy, offering suggestions to resolve the crisis.

The crucial turning point came on October 27, when Khrushchev offered to withdraw missiles from Cuba in exchange for a US commitment not to invade Cuba, with the removal of American missiles from Turkey. After consideration, Kennedy decided to agree to the terms, but the Turkey part was kept secret to avoid any public backlash.

On October 28, Khrushchev announced the withdrawal of their missiles from Cuba and effectively ending the crisis. In the aftermath, both superpowers tried to prevent a future conflict of this magnitude. The crisis led to the establishment of a direct communication link between Washington and Moscow, known as the “Hotline”, and paved the way for weapon control agreements, including the Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty of 1963.

TIMELINE OF THE CRISIS

OCTOBER 1962

Pre-Crisis Events

- **1961:** Failed US-backed Bay of Pigs invasion which strengthened Fidel Castro's ties with the Soviet Union.
- **Mid-1962:** Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev decided to deploy nuclear missiles in Cuba in order to counter US missiles in Turkey and Italy to deter American aggression.

The Crisis

- **October 14:** An US plane captured photographic evidence of Soviet missile sites in Cuba.
- **October 16:** The US officially started the crisis by briefing on the discovery.
 - Kennedy convened the ExComm to discuss possible responses.
- **October 18:** Soviet Foreign Minister Andrei Gromyko had a meeting with Kennedy, denying the presence of the missiles in Cuba.
- **October 20:** Kennedy finally decided to put a naval "quarantine" in Cuba to prevent further Soviet missile delivery.
- **October 22:** Kennedy addressed the nation by a televised speech, revealing the Soviet Missiles in Cuba and announcing the quarantine.
 - US military forces were placed on Defence Condition 3 (DEFCON 3) to prevent any military attacks, which increased readiness.
- **October 24:** The US quarantine succeeded and Soviet ships on the route to Cuba slowed down and reversed their course to avoid any confrontation. Khrushchev sent a defiant message, claiming that the missiles were only for defense.

- **October 25:** The US Ambassador Adlai Stevenson confronted Soviet Ambassador Valerian Zorin at the United Nations and presented the photographic evidence of the missiles.
- **October 26:** Khrushchev sent a private letter to Kennedy, offering to remove the missiles in exchange for a US commitment to not invade Cuba.
- **October 27:** The crisis peaked with the second letter from Khrushchev demanding the removal of US missiles from Turkey with an addition to the non-invasion pledge.

Also on October 27, a U-2 (US reconnaissance plane) was shot down over Cuba, the pilot Major Rudolf Anderson Jr. was killed and it raised tensions. Kennedy completely ignored the second letter about the removal of their missiles in Turkey and agreed to the non-invasion pledge. But behind the scenes, US officials also agreed to a secret deal to remove their missiles from Turkey.

- **October 28:** Khrushchev announced the withdrawal of their missiles from Cuba and ended the crisis.

Post-Crisis

- **November 20 1962:** The United States ended the quarantine after confirming the removal of the Soviet missiles and bombers from Cuba.
- **1963:** The crisis led to the establishment of the “Hotline” between Washington and Moscow. Also the US and Soviet Union signed the Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty.

MAJOR COUNTRIES

UNITED STATES

In the years that led up to the Cuban Missile Crisis, the US was deeply embroiled in the Cold War, a struggle geopolitically and ideologically with the Soviet Union. The military race between those two superpowers was escalating, with both sides accumulating nuclear weapons and pursuing strategic advantages. Cuba became a focal point in this rivalry after Castro's revolution in 1959 and the Cuban government aligned itself with the Soviet Union and embraced communism. The United States was viewing this as an important threat to their influence in the Western Hemisphere.

Their relationship with Cuba worsened after the failed US invasion, Bay of Pigs, in 1961. This failure made Cuba create a solidified alliance with the Soviet Union.

The US had stationed nuclear missiles in Turkey and Italy, posing a direct threat to the Soviets. These missiles created indignation in Moscow and heightened tensions between the superpowers.

The Bay of Pigs Invasion and The Communist Revolution in Cuba

The Bay of Pigs was a failed US Government financed military operation on the southwestern coast of Cuba in April 1961, by the US and the DRF (Cuban Democratic Revolutionary Front), a group of Cuban exiles who were in opposition to Fidel Castro's Cuban Revolution.

In 1959, Fidel Castro came to power with an armed rebellion that overthrew the Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista. The US Government was not trusting of Castro and his relationships with Soviet Leader Nikita Khrushchev.

Before he took power, Kennedy was briefed on a plan which was developed by the CIA (Central Intelligence Agency) during the Eisenhower

administration to train the Cuban exiles to invade their homeland, Cuba. The CIA's plan envisioned that the Cuban people and elements of the Cuban army would support the invasion, so their ultimate goal was to overthrow Castro and establish a non-communist government friendly to the US.

In March 1960, US President Eisenhower approved the training program of the Cuban exiles and the CIA set up their training camps in Guatemala. By November 1960, the operation had trained a small army for an assault landing and guerilla warfare.

A former member of Castro's government, José Miró Cardona*, was the head of the Cuban Revolutionary Council and led the anti-Castro Cuban exiles in the United States. Despite the government's efforts to keep the invasion plans private, the existence of the Cuban exiles became a common knowledge in Miami. In October 1960, Castro became aware of the guerilla training camps in Guatemala via Cuban intelligence and received extensive press coverage as events unfolded.

In February 1961, shortly after taking office, President Kennedy approved the invasion plan on Cuba but was determined to hide the US support. The landing point at the Bay of Pigs was a part of the deception, it was a remote swampy area on the south coast of Cuba, so a night landing could land with little or no resistance and help conceal any US intervention.

The original invasion plan was a little different from the practice. It included two air strikes on Cuban air bases, a 1,400-strong invasion force would land in the dark and launch a surprise attack, while the paratroopers landed before the invasion would disrupt transportation and repulse the Cuban forces. At the same time, a smaller force would land on the east coast of Cuba and create confusion. The main force would then advance across the island to Matanzas and take up defensive positions. The United Revolutionary Front would send leaders from South Florida and establish a provisional

government. The success of the plan depended on the Cuban people joining the invaders.

On April 15, 1961, the first mishap occurred when eight bombers left Nicaragua to bomb Cuban airfields. The CIA used old B-26 bombers from WWII and painted them to look like Cuban air force planes. The bombers missed most of their targets and left most of Castro's air force untouched. After the failure, news of the attack broke and photographic evidence of the repainted US planes became public, revealing the US' support for the invasion. Kennedy decided to cancel the second air strike.

On April 17, the Cuban-exile invasion force, known as Brigade 2506, landed at beaches along the Bay of Pigs and immediately faced heavy fire. Cuban planes bombed the invaders, sank two escort ships and destroyed half of the exile's air support. Over the next 24 hours, Castro ordered roughly 20,000 troops to march toward the coast, and the Cuban air force continued to control the skies. Kennedy authorized an "air umbrella" at dawn on April 19 but the planes arrived an hour late, possibly confused by the time zone between Nicaragua and Cuba. The planes were shot down by the Cubans and the invasion crushed later that day.

The brigade prisoners remained in captivity for 20 months while the US negotiated a deal with Fidel Castro. Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy made personal pleas for contributions from pharmaceutical companies and baby formula manufacturers. Castro eventually agreed to give 53 million dollars worth of baby formula and medicine in exchange for the prisoners. On December 23, 1962, two months after the Cuban Missile Crisis, a plane carrying the first group of released prisoners landed in the US.

The disaster at the Bay of Pigs had a lasting impact on the Kennedy leadership. Determined to make amends for the failed invasion, the administration launched Operation Mongoose, another plan to sabotage and

destabilize the Cuban government and economy, even including the possible assassination of Castro.

SOVIET UNION

In the Soviet Union, the 1960s was marked by a combination of important achievements and serious challenges. It was a period of Cold War rivalry with the US, significant advances in science and technology with internal political and economic struggles.

The 60s began under Nikita Khrushchev's leadership, who had been in power since 1953. While Khrushchev was pursuing policies of de-Stalinization, trying to reduce the repressive aspects of Stalin's regime and shift the focus to modernization of a peaceful coexistence with the West, The Soviet Union was heavily involved in Cold War confrontations. With those involvements, Khrushchev made some bold moves in foreign policy, including placing missiles in Cuba, which led to the Cuban Missile Crisis.

In the early 1960s, the Soviet Union sought to address the strategic imbalance posed by the US deployment of nuclear missiles in Turkey and Italy, which directly targeted Soviet territory. With the failed Bay of Pigs invasion, the concerns about Cuba heightened and Khrushchev decided to secretly deploy nuclear missiles in Cuba to deter further US aggressions.

After the US discovered the secret installations in Cuba, a 13-day standoff started between the superpowers. The Soviet Union initially denied the presence of their weapons in Cuba, but as the US imposed a naval blockade, secret communications between Khrushchev and Kennedy ensued.

The resolution of the Crisis had significant consequences for the Soviets. While the immediate threat of a nuclear war was averted, the crisis also exposed the Soviet Union's strategic weakness of the Union and was perceived as a setback for Khrushchev's leadership. This eventually

contributed to his ousting in 1964. In the aftermath of the crisis, the USSR intensified its efforts to achieve nuclear parity with the US, which led to an acceleration of the arms race. The crisis also underscored the need to improve communication between the superpowers and resulted with the establishment of the Moscow-Washington hotline.

CUBA

After Fidel Castro's revolutionary forces overthrew the Batista regime in 1959, Cuba began to undergo significant political and economic transformations and formed an alliance with the USSR. This alliance provided Cuba with economic aid and military support, also consolidating its position as a socialist state in the Western Hemisphere. The failed Bay of Pigs invasion also strengthened Castro's position and pushed Cuba closer to the Soviet Union.

Cuba saw the deployment of Soviet missiles as a way of deterring US aggression and securing its sovereignty. As tensions escalated, Castro defended a strong stance and even suggested that he was willing to face the US invasion, which he saw as inevitable.

The crisis culminated in the Soviet Union agreeing to withdraw its missiles from Cuba in exchange for a US commitment not to invade the island and the secret removal of US missiles from Turkey. While this agreement averted the nuclear war, Cuba felt sidelined during the negotiations and this led to a sense of betrayal by the Soviet Union.

The US maintained its economic embargo against Cuba, aiming to isolate the Castro regime. The embargo contributed to economic difficulties on the island but failed to achieve its goal which was toppling the government.

Although it felt marginalized during the resolution of the Crisis, Cuba continued to receive economic and military support from the Soviet Union,

maintaining its socialist path and influence in global revolutionary movements.

ROLE OF THE UNSC IN THE RESOLUTION

The UNSC meeting played a pivotal role in shaping public perceptions and diplomatic narratives but did not directly mediate the resolution. The US succeeded about isolating the Soviet Union diplomatically, but behind the scenes, secret negotiations between US President Kennedy and Soviet Premier Khrushchev led to a resolution: the USSR agreed to remove their missiles from Cuba in exchange for a US commitment to not the invade Cuba and the eventual removal of American missiles from Turkey.

P5 AND THEIR STATEMENTS

1. United States

The US was represented by Ambassador Adlai Stevenson, who presented evidence of Soviet missile installations, including aerial photographs, during a session on October 25, 1962. He demanded an explanation from the Soviets and emphasized the US right to self-defense under Article 51 of the UN Charter. The US stated that the deployment of missiles in Cuba was a direct threat to hemispheric security and called for an immediate removal of the missiles.

2. Soviet Union

The Soviet Union was represented by Ambassador Valerian Zorin, initially denying the existence of their offensive weapons in Cuba. They stated that their support to Cuba was defensive and consistent with international law. As

the crisis unfolded, the Soviets accused the US of violating Cuban sovereignty during aggressive actions, including their naval quarantine.

3. United Kingdom

The United Kingdom was represented by Ambassador Sir Patrick Dean, aligned closely with the US. The British supported the US position and stated the Soviet missile deployment was provocative and dangerous. They emphasized the importance of missile removal to ensure global stability.

4. France

France was represented by Ambassador Roger Seydoux, who also supported the US stance. They underscored the need for a peaceful resolution but also agreed that the Soviet missiles in Cuba represented an important threat to international peace and security.

5. Republic of China

China was represented by Ambassador Tingfu F. Tsiang who also condemned the Soviet actions in Cuba and framed the crisis as an example of Soviet imperialism and supported the removal of missiles.

LEGAL AND DIPLOMATIC FRAMEWORK OF THE CRISIS

The resolution of this crisis relied heavily on international law, diplomacy and backchannel negotiations.

International Law and Sovereignty

Under international law, Cuba had the sovereign right to establish military alliances and to keep weapons within its borders. The deployment of Soviet missiles, while provocative, was not illegal in itself.

The United States' response, called a "quarantine" rather than a blockade, is contrary to international law. The blockade should have been recognized as an act of war under international law. By calling it a "quarantine" the US tried to position it as a defensive measure ostensibly aimed at protecting regional security under the UN Charter (Article 51), which allows for self-defense.

Although there was no formal treaty regulating the deployment of nuclear weapons in 1962, the crisis later underscored the urgent need for frameworks such as the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), established in 1968.

Diplomatic Framework

Much of the negotiation occurred through backchannel diplomacy, particularly between US Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy and Soviet Ambassador Anatoly Dobrynin.

Public and Private Strategies of the United States

US President John F. Kennedy publicly demanded the removal of Soviet missiles and implemented the naval quarantine. This aggressive stance was intended to pressure the Soviet Union while garnering domestic and foreign support.

At the same time, Kennedy's private concessions, including a secret agreement to remove US missiles from Turkey, a key Soviet demand, were also diplomatically important strategies.

Role of the United Nations

The UN was a platform for both nations to present their cases and de-escalate tensions. The UN Secretary-General U Thant played a mediating role and urged both sides to exercise restraint and engage in dialogue.

Perspectives of the Soviet Union and Cuba

As mentioned before, the Soviets viewed the deployment of their missiles in Cuba as a strategic counterbalance to US Missiles in Turkey and Italy. Fidel Castro, Cuba's leader, also supported the Soviet deployment as a means of deterring future US invasions, since the failed Bay of Pigs invasion.

Crisis Resolution Process

The Soviet Union agreed to remove their missiles from Cuba under UN supervision. Also, the US publicly pledged not to invade Cuba and secretly agreed to remove their missiles from Turkey within a few months.

The establishment of the Hotline Agreement and the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty was also a key to resolve the crisis. These agreements also helped to have clear communication between the Soviets and US even after the crisis.

KEY TOPICS

NUCLEAR WEAPONS AND THEIR ROLES IN GLOBAL SECURITY

Nuclear weapons have been a cornerstone of global security and international relations since their development during the Second World War. Their enormous destructive power and the unique political dynamics they create have made them central to debates on peace, deterrence and the balance of power.

The advent of nuclear weapons began with the Manhattan Project and culminated in the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945. As well as ending the Second World War, these events ushered in the nuclear age, transforming military strategy and international diplomacy.

The ensuing Cold War saw the proliferation of nuclear arsenals, with the US and the Soviets engaged in an arms race to maintain strategic superiority. Today, nine countries possess nuclear weapons and global stockpiles, although reduced from their Cold War peak, still pose a significant threat.

At the heart of the role of nuclear weapons in global security is the doctrine of deterrence. This principle asserts that the possession of nuclear weapons deters aggression by making the costs of war unacceptably high. The concept of Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD) epitomizes this strategy during the Cold War, ensuring that any nuclear attack would result in devastating retaliation, leaving no winners. MAD arguably helped to prevent direct conflict between major powers, particularly the US and USSR despite intense geopolitical rivalries.

Nuclear weapons contribute to strategic stability in several ways. First, they deter large-scale wars by raising the stakes of conflict. Second, they can provide smaller states with a means to counterbalance more powerful

adversaries, as in the cases of North Korea and Pakistan. However, the presence of nuclear weapons also carries significant risks. The possibility of accidental launch, miscalculation, or unauthorized use is a constant threat. In addition, the risk of proliferation and destabilization is increased by the spread of nuclear technology to new actors, including rogue states and terrorist groups.

International efforts to regulate and reduce nuclear weapons have played a critical role in ensuring global security. The Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), signed in 1968, aims to prevent the spread of nuclear weapons, promote disarmament, and facilitate the peaceful use of nuclear energy. Other treaties, such as the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) and the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT), also aim to limit arsenals and prohibit testing. Despite these measures, challenges remain. They include noncompliance, the development of advanced delivery systems, and tensions among nuclear-armed states.

POLICIES OF STATE SOVEREIGNTY AND NON-INTERFERENCE

State sovereignty and the principle of non-interference are fundamental concepts in international relations, but their relevance became particularly pronounced in the 1960s, a period marked by decolonization, Cold War tensions, and evolving global governance structures. These principles underpin the legal and political frameworks that govern interactions between states and ensure respect for autonomy and territorial integrity. However, the 1960s presented unique challenges and opportunities that tested and reshaped these concepts.

The concept of sovereignty, rooted in the Peace of Westphalia (1648), took on new meaning in the 20th century as newly independent states emerged from colonial rule. The 1960s saw a wave of decolonization in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean as former colonies gained independence and sought to

assert their sovereignty. These states entered the international system with a strong emphasis on territorial integrity and political independence, often invoking the principle of non-interference to protect their nascent governments from outside influence. This era highlighted the tension between sovereignty and the geopolitical dynamics of the Cold War, as both the United States and the Soviet Union sought to expand their spheres of influence, often in defiance of the principle of non-interference.

The principle of non-interference, enshrined in Article 2.7 of the UN Charter, became increasingly important in the 1960s. For many newly independent states, it was a shield against neo-colonialism and external domination. Leaders in the Global South, such as those in the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM), championed non-interference as a cornerstone of international relations. Founded in 1961, the NAM sought to provide a platform for states unwilling to align with either the United States or the Soviet Union, emphasizing sovereignty and self-determination. The movement underscored the importance of allowing states to pursue their own paths without external coercion or intervention.

Despite these ideals, the 1960s also exposed the limits and contradictions of sovereignty and non-interference. The proxy conflicts of the Cold War often undermined these principles. For example, the United States' intervention in Cuba after the 1959 revolution and the Soviet Union's support for communist movements in various regions highlighted the selective application of non-interference. Also the Cuban Missile Crisis was a stark illustration of how superpower rivalry could threaten the sovereignty of smaller states, as Cuba became a battleground for Cold War tensions.

ROLES OF THE REGIONAL ALLIANCES

NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION (NATO)

NATO, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, was founded in 1949 as a military alliance consisting primarily of the United States and Western European countries. During the Cold War, NATO's primary goal was to contain the spread of communism and Soviet influence. In response to the deployment of Soviet missiles in Cuba, NATO's role became more pronounced as the United States sought to counter the threat posed by the Soviet Union. NATO countries, especially the United States, were deeply concerned that the missile installation in Cuba could alter the balance of power in the Western Hemisphere and increase the threat of Soviet expansion into the Americas.

The naval "quarantine" of the US was a clear indication of the challenges posed by the Soviet Union's actions, and served to underscore the commitment of NATO members to confronting the crisis collectively. This action also demonstrated the alliance's dedication to supporting the US and the Western Hemisphere in the face of the prevailing Soviet threat. In an effort to prevent the escalation of the crisis into a full-scale war, NATO allies collaboratively developed intelligence sharing strategies and diplomatic approaches.

WARSAW PACT

On the other hand, the Warsaw Pact, established in 1955 as a counterbalance to NATO, was the military alliance of Eastern Bloc countries led by the Soviet Union. The Warsaw Pact played a crucial role in the Soviet Union's decision-making during the Cuban Missile Crisis. The Soviet Union, under the leadership of Premier Nikita Khrushchev, placed their missiles in Cuba as a means to strengthen its strategic position in the face of the US and NATO. The deployment of these missiles was seen as a strategic move to balance the presence of American missiles in Turkey and Italy, which, at the time, were

within striking distance of the Soviet Union. The Warsaw Pact countries, particularly East Germany, Poland, and Hungary, expressed their support for the Soviet actions, as they shared the broader goal of countering NATO's influence in Europe.

However, the Warsaw Pact's involvement in the crisis was somewhat passive. While the Soviet Union sought to leverage the missile deployment in Cuba as a bargaining chip with the US, the other Warsaw Pact countries had limited direct influence on the situation. In their strategic calculations, the Soviets considered how the U.S. might react, especially the potential for military confrontation. While the pact countries were ideologically aligned with the Soviet Union, they were not as deeply involved in the tactical decisions related to Cuba. Nevertheless, the Warsaw Pact's cohesion allowed the Soviet Union to present a united front against NATO during the crisis.

The agreement between the US and USSR, which brought the crisis to a close, underscored the significance of dialogue between NATO and the Warsaw Pact. Despite their opposite ideologies, it was essential for them to communicate to avert mutual destruction.

In conclusion, important roles played by both NATO and the Warsaw Pact during the Cuban Missile Crisis. On one side, NATO acted as a strong, unified front in support of the United States, while the Soviet Union used the Warsaw Pact to strengthen its position.

NON-ALIGNED MOVEMENT

The Crisis prompted concerns among the Non-Aligned countries regarding the potential for a nuclear conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union. These nations expressed apprehension regarding the escalating tensions and the potential ramifications of any conflict, which they feared could have disastrous consequences not only for the superpowers involved but also for smaller, developing countries caught in the middle. Many NAM members were particularly sensitive to the risks of superpower confrontation,

given their own struggles for sovereignty and independence during the Cold War.

In response to the escalating situation, the Non-Aligned Movement called for restraint and diplomatic solutions rather than military escalation. Leaders of NAM countries, such as India's Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru, emphasized the need for dialogue between the United States and the Soviet Union. They advocated for peaceful negotiations to resolve the crisis and avoid a global conflict that could engulf the entire world, especially newly independent nations that could be drawn into the Cold War.

While the primary focus of the Non-Aligned Movement was on de-escalation, it also expressed solidarity with Cuba, which was at the center of the crisis. Many NAM countries expressed support for Cuba's right to defend itself against external threats, particularly in the aftermath of the United States' imposition of a trade embargo and its failed military invasion at the Bay of Pigs. However, this support was tempered by a strong opposition to any nuclear confrontation, as it was believed that such a conflict would be disastrous for global stability.

KEY DOCUMENTS AND TREATIES

To understand the procedure and some key details about our committee and Agenda Item, it is essential for you to take a look at these documents on your own.

UN CHARTER

[CHARTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS](#)

*Please specifically pay attention to Article 51 and Article 2.7.

TREATY ON THE NON-PROLIFERATION OF NUCLEAR WEAPONS

[INFCIRC/140 - Treat on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons](#)

NUCLEAR TEST BAN TREATY

<https://treaties.un.org/doc/Publication/UNTS/Volume%20480/volume-480-I-6964-English.pdf>

RELATED UNITED NATIONS RESOLUTION

<https://documents.un.org/doc/undoc/gen/nl6/200/03/pdf/nl620003.pdf>

CONCLUSION

QUESTIONS TO PONDER

1. What ethical dilemmas arose during the Cuban Missile Crisis, particularly regarding the use of nuclear weapons and the decision-making processes involved?
2. Could the UN have played a more prominent role in defusing tensions or mediating a solution? If yes, what kind of actions could be taken?
3. How did China's stance on the Cuban Missile Crisis affect Soviet strategies and actions? What role did China's relationship with both the US and USSR play in the broader Cold War context during this period?
4. How did the Cuban Missile Crisis influence U.S. relations with Latin American countries? Did the crisis affect how the U.S. interacted with other nations in the region after the event?
5. What would have happened if either side had taken a different approach? How might history have changed?

RULES OF PROCEDURE

Since the Security Council has a primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, it is organized to be able to function smoothly. For the council to run continuously, representatives of each member must be present in each meeting.

When a complaint regarding a threat to peace is brought, the Council's initial response is typically to advise the parties involved to seek a peaceful resolution. In some instances, the Council may conduct investigations and mediation efforts itself. Also, the Council might outline the principles to have a peaceful resolution.

If a dispute escalates into conflict, the Council's primary focus is to end the fighting as quickly as possible. It also deploys UN Peacekeeping Forces to help ease tensions, separate opposing forces and create conditions conducive to seeking peaceful solutions. Furthermore, the Council may implement enforcement measures such as economic sanctions or collective military action.

A Member State which has persistently violated the principles of the Charter, may be expelled from the UN by the Assembly on the Council's recommendation.

A State that is a member of the United Nations but not part of the Security Council may take part in its discussions, without the right to vote, if the Council deems that the country's interests are impacted. Both UN member states and non-member states involved in a dispute being addressed by the Council are invited to participate in the discussions, also without voting rights. The Council determines the conditions under which a non-member state may participate.

1. Security Council Board

1.1. Chairboard: The Board of the UNSC shall be composed of a President Chair and a Deputy Chair.

1.2. Authority of the Chairboard: The authority of the Chairboard may not be questioned by the delegates at any time and for whatever reason.

1.2.1. Authority of the President Chair: The President Chair holds final authority over the Security Council, ensuring that it is presided over fairly and impartially. The President Chair also has the right to propose motions at any point to facilitate the progress of the Council's work and procedures and these motions should be given serious consideration. In

the event of disruptive or delaying behavior from any participants, the President Chair has the authority to take any necessary actions.

1.2.2. Responsibilities of the President Chair: The Chair is responsible for all procedural matters pertaining to the Security Council, including but not limited to, moderating debate, determining the applicability of rules and, if necessary, clarifying the meaning of the existing rules without needing any approval of the Security Council.

1.2.3. Authority of the Deputy Chair: The Deputy Chair is responsible for overseeing all Security Council support operations. Their primary duty is to ensure that delegates accurately represent their countries' positions on substantive issues and topics. The Deputy Chair also reserves the right to take necessary actions to ensure that delegates properly reflect their countries' policies.

1.2.4. Responsibilities of the Deputy Chair: The Deputy Chair shall also be responsible for ensuring relevance of the content and format of the Resolution Paper before its submission for verification by the Secretary General or the Deputy Secretary General. The Co-Chair shall also assist the Chair with all Security Council presiding matters.

1.3. Caucus of the Board: The Chairboard has the right to halt the procedures within the Security Council in order to take 30 seconds of internal Caucus.

2. Delegations

2.1. Members: The Security Council shall consist of fifteen members of the United Nations. The Republic of China, the French Republic, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America shall be Permanent Members of the Security Council.

2.2. Permission to Approach the Board: Any delegate wishing to contact the Chairboard for a very delicate matter may ask for permission to approach the Board. This is a last resort in case of emergency.

3. Parliamentary Procedure

3.1. Roll Call: Attendance shall be kept by the Chairboard with a Roll Call at the beginning of every Security Council session, or if it is asked for by a member of the Council. Delegates shall establish their presence in the Council by raising their placards and saying “Present” or “Present and Voting”. Delegates who declared themselves as Present and Voting cannot stay abstain during voting procedures on all matters until the next Roll Call.

4. Majority unless otherwise specified, no motions are debatable and they all require a simple majority vote to pass.

4.1. Majority for Procedural Matters: As mentioned in Article 27 of the UN Charter, all votes on procedural matters require a majority of nine votes in favor.

4.2. Majority for Substantive Matters: All votes on substantive matters also require a majority of nine votes in favor, including the concurring votes of all P5 members. If one or more P5 members vote against a draft resolution, amendment or on any other substantive work, the item fails. The abstention of a P5 does not block the approval of a motion.

5. Quorum: All members of the Council must be present to begin a Council session. If quorum is not met thirty minutes after the start time of the session, the Council shall start its session with the present delegates. Participants who arrive during or after a Roll Call are required to send a note to the Chairboard stating their presence. If not, their arrival will not be recognized or allowed to vote. The total number of the delegates will be determined by the attendance list from the most recent session.

5.1. Motion to Verify the Quorum: The delegates may propose this motion, where the Board will proceed with Quorum confirmation by a Roll Call. The Board can rule the motion without an option to appeal.

6. Agenda

6.1. Motion to Set The Agenda: After the Motion to Set the Quorum, this motion on a specific topic will be in order. Since our Agenda Item is already set, this motion will be automatically about the Cuban Missile Crisis. Once the Agenda is set, the Board will entertain a Motion to Establish a Speakers' List.

6.2. Alteration of the Agenda: In the case of an international crisis or emergency, the Board may call upon the Council to table debate on the current topic area so that the more urgent matter may be attended to immediately.

7. Speakers' List

7.1. Motion to Establish a Speakers' List: To establish a Speakers' List, a delegate shall raise a motion and also determine the individual speaker's time. The motion first has to be approved by the Board and then it will be voted upon, requiring a simple majority to pass. If there is more than one motion, they will be voted upon starting from the most disruptive one.

7.2. Adding a Delegation to the Speakers' List: The delegate may raise their placard when the Board calls for delegates to do so or send a note to the Board stating their will.

8. Debate

8.1. Formal Debate: The council shall by default be in a formal debate unless the otherwise is advised by the Board. Delegates should refer to the Speakers' List for the speaking order.

8.2. Informal Debate: During a formal debate, a motion to have a Moderated or Unmoderated caucus can be raised by and delegate. Informal debate can only occur on substantive issues.

- 8.3. Recognition:** A delegate may only address the Council if they received permission from the Board.
- 8.4. Interruptions:** A speaker may not be interrupted by another delegate unless that delegate has raised a Point of Personal Privilege. A point of Order and a Right of Reply cannot interrupt a speaker. Only when the speaker has concluded and the floor is given back to the Board, a delegate may raise a Point of Order or a Right of Reply.
- 8.5. Relevance of Speech:** A Chair may call a delegate to order if their speech is not relevant to the subject.
- 8.6. Time Limit:** When a delegate exceeds their allocated time, the Board may call the speaker to order without a delay. The board also has the right to extend the time limit within a reason to allow the delegate to finish their speech.

9. Yields

- 9.1. To Questions:** the Board will use the remaining time to entertain questions for the speaker. Delegates wishing to ask a question shall raise their placards and wait to be recognized.
- 9.2. To Another Delegate:** A speaker wishing to give their remaining time to another delegate can do so. The other delegate has to immediately take the floor, and cannot yield their time again.
- 9.3. To the Board:** A delegate can yield their remaining time to the Board and the Board will yield the floor to the next speaker or open the floor for Point or Motions.

10. Resolutions and Amendments

- 10.1. Working Paper:** This is an informal document used by delegates to work on building a Draft Resolution. The Paper will be distributed at the Chair's discretion if requested by a delegate.
- 10.2. Resolutions**
 - 10.2.1. Draft Resolution:** A Working Paper submitted to the Chair under proper Resolution format will be referred to as a Draft Resolution.

- 10.2.2. Resolution Denomination:** A Draft Resolution that has been put to a vote by the Council and passed may be referred as a Resolution.
- 10.2.3. Sponsor:** Is recognized as the main contributor to the Draft Resolution. There is only one Sponsor for each Draft and the sponsor must be present for the Draft to be introduced to the Council. They must agree to support a Resolution unless major changes have been introduced through the amendment process.
- 10.2.4. Signatories:** Are those countries wishing to see the Working Paper being introduced and discussed as a Draft Resolution. Signatories are neither considered as supporters of the Draft nor bear any obligation towards the sponsor. A country can be signatory to more than one Draft on the same topic. The number of the signatories to discuss a Draft will be set by the Board to equal at least $\frac{1}{3}$ of the total members present.
- 10.2.5. Introduction of a Draft Resolution:** Once the Working Paper has been assigned a Draft Resolution number by the Secretariat, the Board will entertain a Motion to Introduce the Draft Resolution, requiring a simple majority. Once the motion passed, the Board will invite the Sponsor to read out only the operative clauses.
- 10.3. Amendments:** An amendment may add, strike out or revise a part of the Draft Resolution. It has to be first approved by the Board. A delegate may propose a Motion to Introduce Amendments after the time for the submission of Amendments elapsed.
- 10.3.1. Voting on Amendments:** After all amendments have been defined by the sponsor, the Board will read one by one all unfriendly amendments, entertaining one speaker in favor

and one against. The Council shall vote upon every amendment separately.

11. **Voting Procedure:** When the Board announces that the Council is entering voting procedure, no entering or exiting from the room will be permitted, unless there is an emergency. All auxiliary personnel are required to exit the room. Also the note passing is suspended during the voting procedure.
12. **Method of Voting:** Each delegate has one vote and must demonstrate their voting intentions by raising their placard at the Board's request unless there is a Roll Call vote. Delegates must vote "in favor" or "against" on procedural matters and "in favor", "against" or "abstain" on substantive matters. Abstentions are not counted as negative votes.
 - 12.1. **Roll Call Vote:** They are only in order for substantive matters. This motion is automatically accepted unless the Board rules it out of order.
 - 12.2. **Passing:** During Roll Call, a delegate may choose to pass and they will be placed at the bottom of the voting list. A delegate who passed once during a voting sequence may not pass again or abstain. They also cannot vote "with rights".
 - 12.3. **Voting with Rights:** a delegate may request a right of explanation after voting. The Board will allow those voting with rights to explain their vote after the voting procedure ends.
 - 12.4. **Voting on Draft Resolutions:** Drafts will be voted upon in the order that they were numbered by the Secretariat unless there is a motion to Reorder the Draft Resolutions has passed.

Rule	Description	Debatable	Votes Required	Interrupt Speaker
Point of Personal Privilege	Feeling discomfort	No	No	Yes
Point of Order	To point out a misuse of rules	No	No	No
Right of Reply	Reply to an insult	No	No	No
Point of Parliamentary Inquiry	Clarify the rules	No	No	No
Motion for a minute of silent prayer or meditation	Silent prayer or meditation for a major issue	No	At the discretion of the Chair	No
Motion to Set the Agenda	Set the Working Agenda	Yes (1+/1-)	9/15	No
Motion to <u>Establish</u> a Speakers' List	Open the Speakers' List	No	9/15	No
Motion to Declare the Vote Substantial	Changes a procedural vote to a substantial one. The Council votes on whether to re-declare the vote procedural	No	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion to Adjourn Session	Adjourn session to cease permanently all council activities	Yes (1+/1-)	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion to Adjourn Meeting	Adjourn until next scheduled meeting	No	9/15	No
Motion for Unmoderated Caucus	Proceed to an Unmoderated Caucus	No	9/15	No
Motion for Moderated Caucus	Proceed to a Moderated Caucus	No	9/15	No
Motion for a "Question and Answer" Period	Make questions to a non- Council member present at the time	No	9/15	No
Motion to Declare a State Party to the Dispute	A vote of a state party to the dispute is considered as an abstention	Yes (1+/1-)	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion for the Verification of Quorum	Seeking to verify the presence of delegates	No	9/15	No
Motion to Close Debate on the Topic Area under Discussion	Close debate on the Topic Area	Yes (1+/1-)	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion to Close Debate on a Draft Resolution	Close the separate debate on a Draft Resolution	Yes (1+/1-)	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion to Split the Topic Area	Discuss separately two or more sections of the same Topic	No	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion to Table Debate	Postpone debate	Yes (1+/1-)	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion to Divide the Question	Divide the operative clauses to groups and vote each group separately	Yes (1+/1-)	9(+P5)/15	No
Motion to Introduce a Draft Resolution	Introduction of a Draft Resolution	No	9/15	No
Motion to Introduce an Amendment	Introduction of an Amendment	No	9/15	No