

MUNDERES'24  
Historical UN Security Council  
Cuban Missile Crisis  
Study Guide

USG: Yiğit Kapusuz

## Table of Contents

<b><i>Introduction</i></b> .....	<b>2</b>
<b><i>The Cold War</i></b> .....	<b>3</b>
State of the World after World War 2.....	3
USA-USSR Relations.....	4
NATO and the Warsaw Pact.....	5
<b><i>History of Cuba</i></b> .....	<b>6</b>
US Imperialism in Cuba.....	6
Cuban Revolution.....	8
Cuba-USSR Relations .....	9
Cuba-USA Relations.....	11
<b><i>The Crisis</i></b> .....	<b>12</b>
Prelude.....	12
Soviet Military Deployment in Cuba .....	12
Spotting of Missiles.....	13

## Introduction

October 17<sup>th</sup>, 1962

Guantanamo Bay, Cuba

Dear Delegates,

As we convene on October 18, 1962, the gravity of our task cannot be understated. Our committee shall operate under a semi-crisis procedure, demanding both debate and directive writing from each delegate. The resolution paper will only take form post-crisis.

Delegates, the coming sessions will be a crucible of real-time decision-making, mirroring the profound choices faced during this historical crossroads. Crafting directives in the crucible of uncertainty demands your immediate attention. You are free to be as creative as you'd like with your directives. However, I do not guarantee that repeating real-life events in your directives will give the same results. The intricacies of directive writing will be explained in the initial sessions.

This guide imparts essential information for your preparation as you brace for the unfolding crisis. Your decisions will shape the narrative.

This is no mere simulation; it's an examination of your diplomatic acumen, strategic insight, and crisis-handling capabilities. The Cuban Missile Crisis beckons, and your choices will echo through history. A solemn directive accompanies you – **DO NOT INITIATE A NUCLEAR CONFLICT.**

The coming days are charged with significance. May your decisions be measured, your deliberations profound, and your commitment unwavering. The Cuban Missile Crisis unfolds – navigate it with utmost care.

Imposingly Yours,  
Supreme Leader Yiğit

# The Cold War

## State of the World after World War 2

The aftermath of World War II witnessed pivotal conferences that shaped the post-war world order. Key gatherings such as the Tehran Conference, Yalta Conference, and other Allied World War II conferences set the stage for discussions on the reconstruction of Europe. Disagreements among the Allies regarding the configuration of the European map and the establishment of post-war security were notable.

The Yalta Conference of 1945, attended by Winston Churchill, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Joseph Stalin, reflected the divergent goals of the Western Allies. While some envisioned a post-war world with widespread democratic governments and peaceful dispute resolution through international organizations, others, like Roosevelt, aimed for global American economic supremacy and the creation of a world peace organization.

The Soviet Union, led by Stalin, sought to influence the internal affairs of countries in its border regions, establishing control through secret police forces and media manipulation. The differing perspectives on Stalin's intentions created a complex dynamic between Western leaders. Churchill's "percentages agreement" with Stalin, dividing Europe into spheres of influence, showcased the pragmatic approach taken to navigate conflicting interests.

The Second Quebec Conference in September 1944 saw Churchill and Roosevelt agreeing on a plan for Germany, aiming to transform it into a primarily agricultural and pastoral country. However, Truman's ascension to the presidency in April 1945 marked a shift in U.S. policy towards the Soviet Union. Truman, distrusting Stalin, signed the US occupation directive JCS 1067, hindering Germany's economic rehabilitation and aligning with Stalin's preferences.

The Potsdam Conference in July 1945 revealed serious differences over Germany's future development and reparations. Truman's revelation of the atomic bomb to Stalin added tension to the already strained relations. The post-war period saw the emergence of two blocs—the Western bloc led by the United States and the Eastern Bloc influenced by the Soviet Union.

The division of Korea into occupation zones by the United States and the Soviet Union illustrated the geopolitical struggle. The Soviet Union's expansionist policies in

Eastern Europe, as seen in the creation of satellite states, demonstrated Stalin's influence over the region. The establishment of the United Nations in 1945 aimed at maintaining world peace but faced challenges in its enforcement capacity, especially with the veto power wielded by individual members.

In the post-war landscape, the United States and the United Kingdom, recognizing the Soviet threat, employed military forces to counter communist influence in Greece and Korea. The Eastern Bloc, marked by the "Iron Curtain," emerged as the Soviet Union solidified control over Central and Eastern European territories.

Economically, the USSR focused on recovery and resource extraction from Eastern European countries, using Soviet-dominated joint enterprises. The influence exerted by Moscow over satellite states, coupled with the establishment of Soviet-style secret police systems, led to suppression of opposition and consolidation of power.

## USA-USSR Relations

The ideological clash between the United States and the Soviet Union set the stage for a prolonged geopolitical, ideological, and economic struggle known as the Cold War. The announcement of the Truman Doctrine in 1947 marked the beginning of this conflict, triggered by the Soviet takeover of Eastern Europe and lasting until the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991.

The Soviet Union's successful detonation of its first nuclear weapon in 1949 ended the United States' monopoly on such weapons, sparking a prolonged arms race. This era witnessed the leadership of Andrei Gromyko as the longest-serving foreign minister in the world.

Efforts to economically assist Western European allies through the Marshall Plan included an extension to the Soviet Union, albeit under conditions the Soviets were unlikely to accept. The Soviet response came in the form of the Comecon in 1949, mirroring the Marshall Plan but with an emphasis on economic cooperation. NATO, formed in 1949 as a defensive alliance, strengthened ties among the United States and its Western European allies. The Soviet Union countered with the establishment of the Warsaw Pact in 1955, solidifying its hegemony over Eastern European satellites.

The construction of the Berlin Wall in 1961 heightened tensions, prompting President Kennedy to deliver the iconic anti-Soviet speech, "Ich bin ein Berliner." Cold

War espionage, exemplified by the Soviet KGB's effectiveness, played a significant role in gathering crucial information, including details from the Manhattan Project.

Détente, initiated in 1969 by President Richard Nixon and his advisor Henry Kissinger, aimed at easing tensions with the USSR. Nixon and Kissinger pursued regular summit meetings, arms control negotiations, and greater dialogue. Treaties such as SALT I and the Helsinki Accords marked this period of relaxation, though ongoing debates persist about its overall success, with START II remaining unratified due to the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979.

### NATO and the Warsaw Pact

NATO, established in 1949, was a defensive alliance comprising the United States and its Western European allies. The alliance aimed to counter the perceived Soviet threat and safeguard the democratic principles of its member states. Notable figures involved in NATO's formation included President Harry S. Truman and Secretary of State Dean Acheson. The signing of the NATO treaty marked a commitment to mutual defense and collective security, with any armed attack against one or more members considered an attack against all.

The Warsaw Pact, established in response to NATO in 1955, comprised the Soviet Union and its Eastern Bloc satellite states. Led by the Soviet Union's Premier Nikita Khrushchev and Foreign Minister Andrei Gromyko, the pact solidified the Eastern European nations under Soviet influence. Though nominally a "defensive" alliance, the Warsaw Pact's primary function was to maintain the Soviet Union's hegemony over its Eastern European satellites. Its creation mirrored the defensive nature of NATO, with both alliances seeking to consolidate power and counterbalance the influence of their Cold War adversaries.

As of 1955, the Soviet Union had already established armed presence and political dominance over its eastern satellite states, rendering the Warsaw Pact somewhat superfluous. However, its existence underscored the ideological and military competition between the two blocs.

The construction of the Berlin Wall in 1961, initiated by East Germany and supported by the Soviet Union, highlighted the tense nature of the Cold War. This physical barrier aimed to prevent citizens of East Berlin from fleeing to West Berlin, which was part of

the US-allied West Germany. President John F. Kennedy's response, famously expressed in the speech "Ich bin ein Berliner," underscored the commitment of the Western bloc to resist Soviet influence.



## History of Cuba

### US Imperialism in Cuba

The roots of U.S. involvement in Cuba date back to the early 18th century when illicit commercial contracts were established between the Spanish colony of Cuba and the European colonies of the New World. These agreements, aimed at eluding colonial taxes, led to increased legal and illegal trade, turning Cuba into a prosperous trading partner in the region. The British capture of Havana in 1762 further opened up trade opportunities, and the American Revolution in 1776 provided additional avenues for commerce. By November 1776, Spain officially opened Cuban ports to North American trade, deepening the island's dependence on these economic ties.

As the 19th century unfolded, trade agreements started replacing Spanish commercial connections, and influential figures like Thomas Jefferson expressed interest in Cuba becoming part of the United States. The 1840s saw intensified efforts to acquire Cuba, driven by the concept of manifest destiny and the desire for Southern power. President James K. Polk even dispatched a minister to Spain with a \$100 million offer to buy Cuba in the late 1840s, but the proposal was rejected. In 1854, the controversial Ostend Manifesto proposed purchasing Cuba from Spain for \$130 million, leading to a scandal and its ultimate rejection.

The 1868–1878 Cuban rebellion against Spanish rule gained sympathy in the United States, with American support for Cuban rebels violating American neutrality. President Ulysses S. Grant faced public pressure to provide military assistance to the Cuban rebels, but he and Secretary of State Hamilton Fish opted for neutrality to maintain stability. By 1877, the United States had become a major player in Cuba's economy, purchasing 83% of its total exports.

As Cuba's resistance to Spanish rule increased, rebels sought support from President William McKinley, who offered to buy Cuba for \$300 million in 1897. Rejection of the offer and the explosion of the USS Maine in Havana harbor led to the Spanish–American War, known in Cuba as the U.S. intervention in Cuba's War of Independence. The Treaty of Paris in 1898 marked the end of Spanish rule in Cuba and the beginning of U.S. expansion in the region. U.S. military rule continued until 1902 when Cuba gained formal independence.

Despite Cuba's transition to an independent republic, the Teller Amendment disavowed U.S. sovereignty over the island during the Spanish–American War. However, the Platt Amendment, incorporated into the 1901 Army Appropriations Act, allowed U.S. intervention in Cuban affairs when necessary. The United States repeatedly intervened militarily in Cuban affairs between 1906 and 1922, shaping the island's political landscape. The rise of General Fulgencio Batista in the 1930s led to close cooperation between the U.S. and Cuban governments, with the U.S. dominating Cuba's economy. The Batista era, marked by corruption and ties to organized crime, witnessed U.S. support for Batista's rule despite internal political turmoil.



## Cuban Revolution

In 1953, armed conflict erupted in Cuba between rebels led by Fidel Castro and the Batista government. The U.S. initially sold weapons to the Cuban government to quash the rebellion but later halted arms sales, altering the course of the Cuban Revolution.

In their first significant act against the Batista government, Fidel and Raúl Castro orchestrated an assault on multiple military installations, notably the Moncada Barracks in Santiago and the barracks in Bayamo, on July 26, 1953. The rebels, numbering 70, faced defeat by the government's superior forces. Despite the hope that this staged attack would trigger a widespread revolt, most rebels, including Fidel and Raúl, fled to the mountains after an hour of fighting. The exact casualties are debated, with Fidel claiming nine dead and 56 executed, while others estimate around 60 rebels escaped. Abel Santamaría, Castro's second-in-command, was among the dead.

Following their capture, Fidel and key revolutionaries, after a politically charged trial, were sentenced to prison. However, in 1955, political pressure led to their release. The Castro brothers then regrouped in Mexico, joining forces with other exiles and receiving training from Alberto Bayo. In June 1955, Fidel met Ernesto "Che" Guevara, marking a significant addition to their cause. The revolutionaries formed the "26th of July Movement" in reference to their Moncada Barracks attack in 1953.

By late 1955, student protests surged in Havana, reflecting widespread dissatisfaction and unemployment. The University of Havana temporarily closed in 1956 due to protest activity. Simultaneously, a student group, the Student Revolutionary Directorate (DRE), opposed Castro, eventually gaining links with the CIA.

While the Castros and the 26th of July Movement trained in Mexico, a separate guerrilla group attacked the Domingo Goicuría army barracks in April 1956. The attack failed, but it marked a significant moment for the Cuban Revolution.

The revolutionary forces, including key figures like Che Guevara and Camilo Cienfuegos, embarked on the Granma yacht in November 1956, aiming to land in Cuba. The landing faced difficulties, resulting in the dispersal of the survivors in the Sierra Maestra mountains. Female revolutionaries like Celia Sánchez and Haydée Santamaría played crucial roles.

In 1957, various events intensified the insurgency. The Student Revolutionary Directorate (RD) attempted to storm the Havana Presidential Palace but failed. The

Humboldt 7 massacre, on April 20, 1957, targeted surviving rebels, and Frank País, a key organizer, was killed in July 1957.

A naval mutiny in Cienfuegos in September 1957 showcased internal dissent against Batista's regime. The United States initially supported Batista with military aid, but this later ended with an arms embargo in 1958.

The Second National Front of the Escambray, led by Eloy Gutiérrez Menoyo and William Alexander Morgan, diverted the Constitutional Army's attention. The US imposed an economic embargo, weakening Batista's position as he nationalized U.S. properties.

Armed resistance, led by Castro's forces, harassed Batista's troops in the mountains. The rebels utilized propaganda, including Radio Rebelde, to advance their cause. Despite being outnumbered, Castro's forces consistently forced the Cuban military to retreat. The US-imposed embargo significantly weakened Batista's forces.

In 1958, Operation Verano, Batista's offensive, failed as Castro's guerrillas defeated the Cuban army. The Battle of Las Mercedes and the Battle of Yaguajay contributed to the decline of Batista's forces.

The 1958 Cuban general election became inconsequential due to the revolutionaries' call for a boycott. Batista's oppressive methods in cities contrasted with successful guerrilla attacks in the Sierra Maestra mountains.

Batista's final offensives, including the failed Battle of Santa Clara, marked the end of his regime. Batista fled Cuba on January 1, 1959, while William Alexander Morgan continued resistance. General Eulogio Cantillo briefly assumed power in Havana, but Castro's forces took control.

Castro's victory in Santiago de Cuba on January 2, 1959, solidified the revolution's success. Manuel Urrutia Lleó initially assumed the presidency, paving the way for Fidel Castro's arrival in Havana on January 8, 1959.

## Cuba-USSR Relations

Diplomatic ties between the Soviet Union and Cuba originated during World War II. In 1943, Maxim Litvinov, the Soviet ambassador to the United States, established the first Soviet embassy in Havana. Cuban diplomats, representing President Fulgencio Batista, reciprocated the gesture with a visit to Moscow in the same year.

These early connections involved interactions with the communist Popular Socialist Party, part of Batista's Democratic Socialist Coalition. However, Andrei Gromyko, Litvinov's successor and the ambassador to both the US and Cuba, never visited the latter during his tenure.

Post-war, the governments of Ramón Grau and Carlos Prío Socarrás aimed to isolate the Cuban Communist Party, leading to the abandonment of relations with the Soviet Union. The embassy in Havana was closed following Batista's return to power in a 1952 coup.

Following the Cuban Revolution on January 1, 1959, Fidel Castro rose to power. Moscow initially paid little attention to the revolution, as Soviet planners, resigned to US dominance in the Western Hemisphere, were unprepared for a potential ally in the region. According to later testimonies from Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev, neither the Soviet Communist Party's Central Committee nor KGB intelligence knew much about Castro or his goals. Some reports even portrayed Castro as a representative of the "haute bourgeoisie" working for the Central Intelligence Agency.

In February 1960, Khrushchev dispatched his deputy, Anastas Mikoyan, to Cuba to understand Castro's motivations, especially after a failed trip to Washington, DC, where he was denied a meeting with US President Dwight Eisenhower. Initially skeptical, Khrushchev's aides attempted to characterize Castro as an untrustworthy American agent. Mikoyan returned with the opinion that Castro's administration deserved economic and political support, and military assistance was also considered.

The escalating economic embargo imposed by Washington prompted Cuba to urgently seek new markets. In 1960, Cuba and the Soviet Union signed their first trade deal, exchanging Cuban sugar for Soviet fuel. This agreement played a crucial role in sustaining the Cuban economy for years and contributed to the Soviet economy. After the Bay of Pigs Invasion failure in 1961, Castro publicly declared Cuba as a socialist republic. Khrushchev congratulated Castro on repelling the invasion but privately anticipated potential American military intervention. The defense of Cuba became a matter of prestige for the Soviet Union, with Khrushchev expecting the Americans to block sea and air access to the island.

## Cuba-USA Relations

Prior to Castro's rise, the United States held overwhelming influence in Cuba, to the extent that the American ambassador was often considered the second most important figure, sometimes surpassing the Cuban president, as noted by Earl E. T. Smith, the former American Ambassador to Cuba, during his 1960 Senate testimony.

After the 1959 Cuban Revolution, which ousted the Batista government, U.S. President Dwight D. Eisenhower officially recognized the new Cuban government. However, relations quickly soured. Earl E. T. Smith was replaced by Philip Bonsal within days. The U.S. grew increasingly concerned about Cuba's agrarian reforms and the nationalization of U.S.-owned industries. Fidel Castro and a delegation visited the U.S. between April 15 and 26, 1959, and engaged in a charm offensive, including a visit to the Lincoln Memorial. Following a meeting with Vice President Richard Nixon, where Castro outlined his reform plans, the U.S. initiated gradual trade restrictions.

Trade restrictions escalated as state intervention expanded, leading to the U.S. halting Cuban sugar purchases and denying much-needed oil. This economic pressure pushed Cuba towards the Soviet Union for support. Tensions rose in March 1960 with the explosion of the French freighter *La Coubre* in Havana Harbor, an event blamed on the U.S. by Fidel Castro. The same month, President Eisenhower authorized the CIA to organize Cuban refugees to overthrow Castro.

As Cuba nationalized American-owned properties, the U.S. responded with countermeasures, culminating in a total export ban on October 19, 1960. Cuba then strengthened trade ties with the USSR, prompting the U.S. to sever all remaining official diplomatic relations. U.S. diplomats Edwin L. Sweet and William G. Friedman were arrested and expelled, accused of various charges. On January 3, 1961, the U.S. withdrew diplomatic recognition and closed its embassy in Havana.

Presidential candidate John F. Kennedy criticized Eisenhower's Cuba policy, accusing the U.S. of supporting a repressive dictatorship. In April 1961, the Bay of Pigs invasion by CIA-trained Cuban exiles failed, further boosting Castro's propaganda. The U.S. began planning new strategies, including the "Cuban Project" or Operation Mongoose, involving terrorist attacks and assassination attempts.

Cuba, viewing the U.S. presence in Guantánamo Bay as illegal since 1959, faced over eight attempted plots to kill Castro between 1960 and 1965, along with other plans against Cuban leaders. After the failed Bay of Pigs invasion, the U.S. staged a mock invasion in 1962, named Operation Ortsac, intensifying tensions.

# The Crisis

## Prelude

In May 1962, Soviet First Secretary Nikita Khrushchev, concerned about the perceived U.S. advantage in strategic missiles, entertained the idea of countering it by placing intermediate-range nuclear missiles in Cuba. Despite the reservations of Soviet Ambassador Alexandr Ivanovich Alexeyev in Havana, who doubted Castro's acceptance, Khrushchev faced a strategic imbalance, with only 20 ICBMs capable of reaching the U.S. from within the Soviet Union. The Soviets focused on medium and intermediate-range ballistic missiles (MRBMs and IRBMs) due to their capability to target American allies and parts of Alaska. The poor accuracy of existing missiles led them to seek alternatives.

Soviet missiles in Cuba served multiple purposes. Firstly, it aimed to neutralize the U.S. nuclear threat by establishing mutual assured destruction. Secondly, Khrushchev sought leverage over West Berlin, making it a central Cold War battleground. If the U.S. did not counter the missile deployment, he believed he could pressure the West to relinquish control over Berlin. Thirdly, the Soviets perceived a U.S. desire to increase influence in Cuba, prompting them to deploy missiles to protect the island from potential aggression and align it with the Socialist Bloc.

Khrushchev's plan also aimed to level the playing field with the U.S., which had missiles in Turkey capable of targeting the Soviet Union before a response. By placing missiles in Cuba, Khrushchev established a balance of mutual deterrence. Lastly, supporting Cuba against perceived U.S. threats and fostering peaceful development were key motivations for the Soviet Union.

Historian Schlesinger revealed that Castro reluctantly accepted the missiles under Soviet pressure. The Cuban National Directorate of the Revolution saw them as a means to safeguard against a U.S. attack and support the Soviet Union.

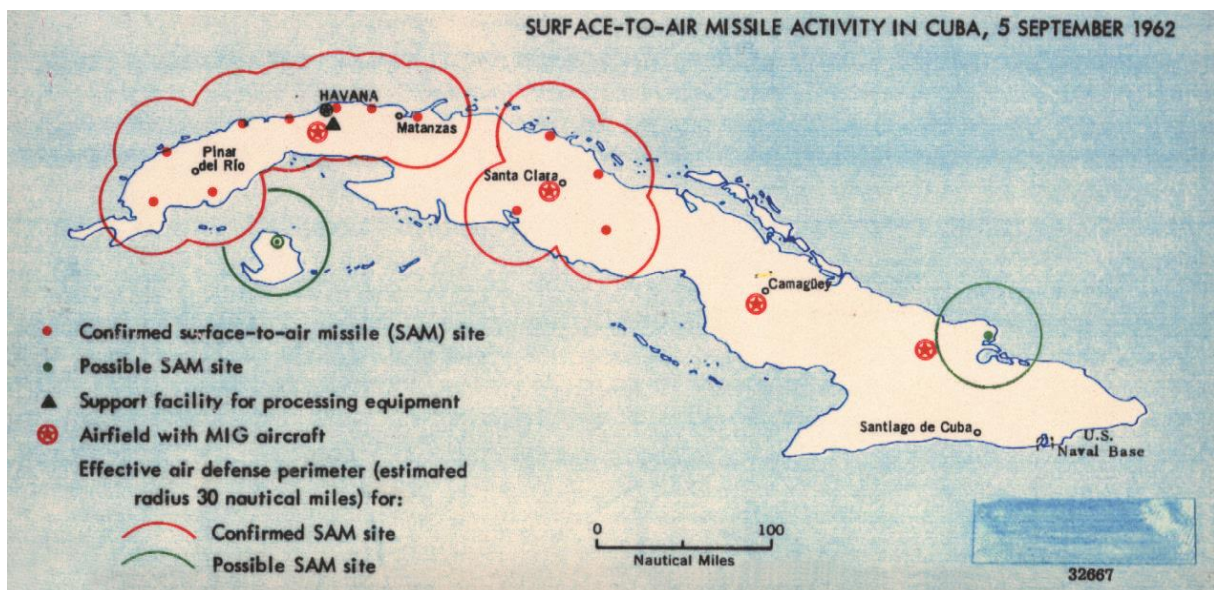
## Soviet Military Deployment in Cuba

In early 1962, Soviet specialists, disguised as an agricultural delegation, secured Castro's approval for nuclear missiles in Cuba. The secrecy surrounding Operation Anadyr involved elaborate denial and deception, concealing plans from both

internal and external sources. The deployment, codenamed Operation Anadyr, included tactical weapons providing a "nuclear umbrella" for Cuba.

The U.S. began suspecting Soviet activities in August 1962, with intelligence gathering sightings of Soviet aircraft and missiles. CIA director McCone suspected ballistic missiles, and Senator Keating warned of a potential missile base in Cuba. Soviet efforts to conceal their actions, coupled with U.S. political dynamics and military exercises, heightened tensions. By September, the first consignment of Soviet R-12 missiles arrived, solidifying their covert presence.

The Cuban leadership, interpreting U.S. actions as preparations for invasion, expressed defiance at the UN, while Soviet warnings against attacking Cuba intensified. Soviet denial and deception continued, with assurances that defensive weapons were supplied. However, as October progressed, the U.S. increasingly suspected offensive missiles in Cuba, setting the stage for the Cuban Missile Crisis.



## Spotting of Missiles

The presence of missiles in Cuba significantly shifted the geopolitical landscape, enabling the Soviets to target a substantial portion of the Continental U.S. With plans for a formidable arsenal of forty launchers, the deployment did not go unnoticed by the vigilant Cuban populace. Numerous reports flooded into Miami, reaching U.S. intelligence. While most reports were dismissed as describing defensive missiles, five stood out, describing large trucks transporting long, canvas-covered

cylindrical objects through towns at night. These reports, unlike others, couldn't be easily disregarded, raising concerns among analysts.

U-2 surveillance flights over Cuba had been ongoing since the Bay of Pigs Invasion, but a series of events led to a temporary pause. The accidental U-2 flight over Sakhalin Island and the loss of a Taiwanese-operated U-2 over China prompted concerns about the safety of reconnaissance flights. Secretary of State Dean Rusk and National Security Advisor McGeorge Bundy restricted U-2 flights over Cuban airspace, creating a "Photo Gap" of five weeks.

In September 1962, the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA) observed Cuban surface-to-air missile sites arranged similarly to those guarding Soviet ICBM bases. This prompted a push to resume U-2 flights over the island. The authority was transferred from the CIA to the Air Force. Despite initial weather-related challenges, U-2 photographic evidence on October 14, 1962, captured images of an SS-4 construction site in western Cuba.

On October 15, the CIA's National Photographic Interpretation Center (NPIC) identified medium-range ballistic missiles in the U-2 photographs. This identification relied partly on information from Oleg Penkovsky, a double agent in the GRU. NPIC's analysis was communicated to the Department of State, and National Security Advisor McGeorge Bundy decided to inform President Kennedy the next morning. Kennedy was briefed on October 16, and a meeting of the National Security Council's Executive Committee (EXCOMM) was convened.

Facing this unprecedented threat, President Kennedy and EXCOMM deliberated on potential courses of action: considering American vulnerability to Soviet missiles, utilizing diplomatic pressure to persuade the Soviet Union to remove the missiles, offering Castro the choice of splitting with the Soviets or facing invasion, contemplating a full-scale invasion of Cuba to overthrow Castro, employing the U.S. Air Force to attack identified missile sites, and utilizing the U.S. Navy to prevent further missile shipments to Cuba.