

THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

Agenda :Munich Massacre

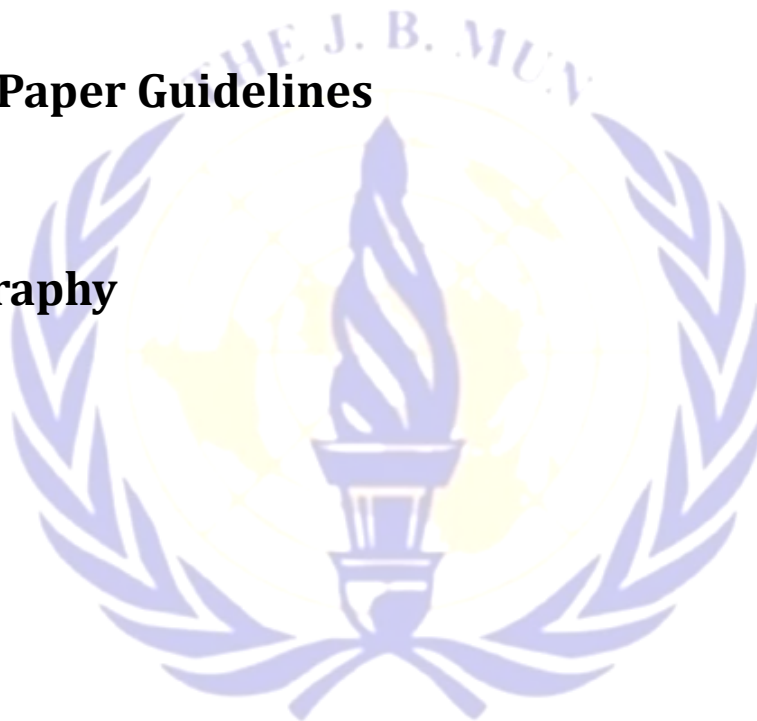


STUDY GUIDE

JB MUN 2025

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Letters From the EB

Director

Dear Delegates,

It is my distinct honor to welcome you to the International Court of Justice at JB MUN 2025. From my own experience, MUNs have been some of the most rewarding moments of growth, giving me not only sharper debating skills but also lasting friendships and memories that I truly value.

That being said, I don't want you to think of our committee as intimidating. ICJ can sound formal and heavy, but at its heart, it's a place to learn, to ask questions, and to push yourselves. You'll get to test your skills in argumentation, collaborate with others, and maybe even enjoy a bit of courtroom drama along the way. Mistakes are part of the process, what matters is that you take risks, think creatively, and grow from the experience.

As you step into committee sessions, remember that your task is not only to debate issues of international law, but also to think about how justice, history, and humanity intersect. I encourage you to approach every session with focus, respect, and an open mind. I am confident that by the end of this conference, you will leave not only as stronger delegates, but also as more thoughtful individuals.

I wish you the very best in your preparations and look forward to witnessing the insight, passion, and dedication you bring to our committee.

With best regards,
Saneeka Shah
Director , International Court of Justice
JB MUN 2025

Assistant Director

Dear Delegates,

It is with the greatest pride and utmost pleasure that I welcome you to the ICJ (International Court of Justice) at JBMUN 2025. I cannot wait to be your assistant director in this committee. It's a common misconception that yelling and screaming to put your point across is going to get you on good terms with the EB, but I'm here to tell you that that's entirely false. We're looking for quality speeches and are going to be marking you based on what you say rather than how you say it. I'm an extremely creative person, which is why as a Chair I expect my delegates to show utmost creativity through their communiques, speeches and solutions.

A little bit more about me, I'm an extrovert who's always up for a chat. I love art, food and music, but my main passion is baking. I've been doing it since I was three years old and now have my own business called, 'Lick The Batter' (go follow me on Instagram :) in hopes of becoming a pastry chef in the future. It's definitely my favourite way of making new friends. Being a first timer can be intimidating. Getting clobbered by experienced delegates whipping out research from thin air is overwhelming, and can make you feel un-prepared. Trust me, I've been there, but the best advice I can give you is to learn from it. Observe the delegates as they steer the committee in their favour and do that at your next conference, but the main thing you need to realise is that nothing will happen if you don't speak, so don't overthink it, just say it. You must also remember that your EB was once in the same seats as you are right now; so we get it, therefore if you have any questions, don't hesitate to approach us.

Try your level best to give good speeches, ask questions and include yourself in UNMOD discussions and if by the end of this conference I see delegates who are five percent more confident and sure of themselves than when they arrived, I'll consider mine and the Executive Board's job done. I wish you all the best of luck and cannot wait for this year's conference. See you very soon!

Aafreen Irani
Assistant Director, ICJ
JBMUN 2025

Assistant Director

Dear Delegates,

It is with great pride and honor that I serve as your Assistant Director of the International Court of Justice at JBMUN 2025. I extend a very warm welcome to you all. My name is Arshaan Krishnan, and I am a tenth grader at the Aditya Birla World Academy. My primary interest lies in Computer Science – I would love to study cybersecurity further in the future – but I also enjoy studying Geography and Languages. Outside of academic passions, I am a massive Manchester United supporter (who alternates between suffering and elation on a regular basis), and also love listening to rap music (feel free to meet me after the committee if you'd like to discuss my top 3).

This year, the ICJ will be looking at a very important flashpoint in world history, where sport met global geopolitics. The 1972 Munich Massacre saw Israeli athletes brutally targeted by Palestinian militants inside the Olympic Village. The tragedy immediately raised questions about German negligence and security failures. It also marked a turning point in global awareness of non-state extremist groups. The attack foreshadowed the later rise of militant organizations such as ISIS and Al-Qaeda.

In this committee, delegates must be able to critically analyze these events and answer the pressing questions that plague the international community. Solutions must encompass a global worldview, and avoid prioritizing only national interests, even in a world this fragmented. Delegates that are able to stand out in committee will have done so by showing not just passion and creativity, but also by making sure to uphold the principles of democracy, justice and diplomacy.

If this is your first time doing a conference committee with legal procedure, or you're just nervous in general, please let me assure you that the Executive Board is always here to help. Please approach us if you have any questions, at any time, we're more than willing to answer. Apart from that, be confident, get your points across effectively, remember to balance your manner with your manner and above all, make sure you rest well during the conference (trust me, MUNs are not a lot of fun when you're deprived of sleep). Good luck, and I cannot wait to see all of you in committee.

Regards,
Arshaan Krishnan
Assistant Director, ICJ

I. INTRODUCTION TO THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

The roots of modern international law can be traced back to Europe. From there, it spread across the Mediterranean, the Middle East, and Latin America through colonization. International law governs relationships between countries, and its binding rules come from the free will of governments, expressed through treaties, conventions, and declarations.

In its early stages, international law mainly acted as a compromise between customs and treaties. It dealt with limited issues like the use of the oceans, the continental shelf, and the status of ambassadors. However, as the world modernized, international law evolved and became more structured. Permanent organizations were created, experts specialized in various areas, and many practices were written down and formalized. New branches emerged, such as human rights law, international economic law, environmental law, and international criminal law. Over time, the use of force was restricted, and new bodies were formed to settle conflicts peacefully.

International judgment, however, remains challenging. This is because international law is based on agreements between states, not individuals. States are the main subjects of international law, and their consent is what gives these rules power. When national laws are not enough, international law steps in, but it still must respect each nation's sovereignty.

By the 19th century, many countries began to work together in new ways, moving beyond traditional treaties and diplomacy. Diplomatic relations, treaties, and customs were being re-examined. The rise of international organizations expanded the concept of "international legal personality," giving these bodies more recognition and authority.

Before this period, there were already customs about how wars should be fought, but wars were relatively small in scale, so international law wasn't seen as necessary. That changed after World War I, when the destruction and suffering caused by the war shocked the world. Nations began holding conferences to limit unethical actions in war, rebuild after conflicts, and strengthen diplomatic cooperation. Governments and scholars worked together to discuss these major issues.

After 1919, the League of Nations, and later the United Nations, took the lead in promoting global peace and cooperation. They created several specialized institutions to deal with economic, technical, and humanitarian matters. With this new legal order, the world needed a universal system to apply and enforce international laws. This led to the establishment of the Permanent Court of International Justice, which was eventually replaced by the International Court of Justice, serving as the principal judicial body of the international community.

HISTORY OF THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE:

In the late 19th century, there was little sign of any equality between states. Regardless, European states at that time provided an ideal of collective work for international peace.

The perspective of international lawyers was that international law must be somehow rational, like science. Positivism started to gain popularity in contrast to divine law, the commands of God, or natural law. Law was now seen as a tool for political achievement between the states. One consequence of this was that international law became the subject of university studies.

In 1873, two major bodies of this field, the International Law Association and the Institut de Droit International, were established. The codification of an international body of law was also discussed many times during this era. Many new doctrines were produced in various European languages, and international law became a heavily debated topic between qualified publicists. International law became a necessity after the carnage of the Great War of 1914-1918, now known as World War I.

The war affected many beliefs and ideologies, bringing change around the world. Leaders lost their powers, and new politicians took their place. The leaders of occupied countries got severely punished; they were exiled, imprisoned, or were sentenced to death. The regimes of States changed. While empires began to fall apart, new states rose from their ashes.

As a starting point, the Permanent Court of International Justice was established in The Hague, Netherlands, under Article 14 of the Covenant of the League of Nations. It was the first significant court on an international level, which is why some preferred to call it the World Court. ' During its early days, the main job of the Court was simply to give advisory opinions.

The active life of the Court was over two decades, and it officially put international law into practice. It could be said that the practices we now follow are a result of the legacy of the Permanent Court. The decisions of the Court, even though they were not compulsory, caused new problems to arise, such as judges being biased according to their nationality.

The draft of the Permanent Court of Justice provided the period of tenure of the members and governed the set of general rules in the Statute and the Rules of Court.

With this draft scheme, States were able to bring the legal disputes they had with any State that was a party to the Statute before the Court. But this specific situation was found contrary to the Covenant by the Council of the League of Nations and was dismissed. In the final stage, it was decided that a case could only be brought against a state if the State gave consent to the jurisdiction.

The Permanent Court of International Justice was active between 1922 and 1940. In the first decade, the Court had an international approach towards the disputes brought before it. However, with the aggression and feelings of an upcoming war, the Court witnessed the number of cases severely decline.

The outbreak of war caused the Permanent Court of International Justice to give its last order in 1940. After that, the Court was defunct, as no judges were elected. Despite its shortcomings, the judgments, proceedings, orders, and the advisory opinions that were given by the Court are still considered to be great achievements, and their presence can still be felt in modern international law. The present international courts all carry remnants of the Permanent Court, and the relationship between them is considered successive in nature.

The Charter of the United Nations also shows that the Statute of the International Court of Justice had almost no major changes and the foundations are still the same.

The establishment of the United Nations in 1945 succeeding the League of Nations was a crucial step to take after the Second World War. The war changed the world, even for those who were not involved. It was different in both scale and scope when compared to the first World War.

Technological developments enabled the war to spread far and wide, becoming the most destructive conflict in the history of mankind. The colonial economy was changed, the ethnic and racial composition of the countries were greatly diversified, and the purpose of science was questioned. The consequences of the war differed from country to country. These four short years made people yearn for peace; not for a short-term peace, but for a permanent one

II. INTRODUCTION TO THE AGENDA

The agenda before this committee, The Munich Massacre, stands as one of the most somber reminders of how the ideals of peace and unity can be shattered by acts of political violence. The events that unfolded during the 1972 Munich Olympic Games forever changed the world's understanding of terrorism, international security, and the fragile intersection between politics and sport.

What began as a global celebration of athletic excellence and international friendship turned into a horrifying tragedy that captured the world's attention. On September 5, 1972, a Palestinian militant group known as Black September infiltrated the Olympic Village and took 11 members of the Israeli Olympic delegation hostage. Their demands were clear: the release of over 200 Palestinian prisoners held in Israeli jails, as well as two German radicals imprisoned in Germany. Over the following hours, tense negotiations unfolded under the gaze of a shocked global audience, culminating in a failed rescue attempt that left all 11 hostages dead, alongside five terrorists and one German police officer.

This act of violence marked a turning point not only in Olympic history but also in the evolution of international counterterrorism policy, the politics of the Middle East conflict, and the debate surrounding the protection of civilians and athletes in international events. The Munich Massacre was not an isolated act; it was the reflection of decades of geopolitical tension, unresolved conflict, and global inaction in the face of emerging transnational terrorism. Israel mourned deeply and vowed to seek justice. The government of Prime Minister Golda Meir authorized Operation Wrath of God, a covert campaign to track down and eliminate those responsible for planning and executing the Munich attack. This operation spanned multiple countries and raised moral and legal questions about state-sponsored assassinations and the limits of justice in the face of terrorism.

For West Germany, the event was a national humiliation. The lack of preparedness, the failure of the rescue mission, and the subsequent decision to release the three surviving terrorists after a Lufthansa hijacking later that year severely damaged Germany's international reputation. It also highlighted the absence of an effective global framework for counterterrorism cooperation. The world responded with shock, outrage, and grief. The Olympic Games were briefly suspended but soon resumed a decision that remains controversial to this day. Many saw the continuation of the Games as a gesture of defiance, while others considered it insensitive to the victims and their families.

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The Munich Massacre marked a turning point in the global understanding of terrorism. Before 1972, terrorism was often viewed as a domestic or regional issue. After Munich, it became clear that terrorism was an international phenomenon that required global coordination and shared security mechanisms. In response, several countries, including Germany and Israel, restructured their security systems. Germany established the GSG 9, an elite counterterrorism unit, while Israel expanded its intelligence operations abroad. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) also began implementing stricter security protocols for future Games, laying the groundwork for modern event security.

The massacre also had deep implications for international law and diplomacy. It prompted discussions within the United Nations about defining terrorism, balancing national sovereignty with the collective responsibility to prevent attacks, and addressing the root causes of political violence. However, due to Cold War politics and the contentious nature of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, the UN often found itself paralyzed on the issue, unable to agree on a universal definition of terrorism or a coordinated response.

Beyond the political and security implications, the Munich Massacre raised profound ethical questions. The Olympic Games were meant to be a symbol of peace, unity, and the shared humanity of nations. The targeting of athletes, civilians representing peace and sportsmanship was seen as an unforgivable violation of international norms.

The tragedy also underscored the human cost of political conflict. Behind the headlines and political debates were families, teammates, and communities shattered by loss. The massacre demonstrated that terrorism not only destroys lives but also erodes the very principles that bind the international community together with mutual respect, coexistence, and peace. As delegates discuss this agenda, it is essential to remember that the Munich Massacre is not merely a historical event but a human tragedy that continues to resonate. The lessons learned or ignored still shape our collective response to terrorism today.

III. HISTORY

To fully understand the Munich Massacre, one must examine the political and historical context that gave rise to it. The late 1960s and early 1970s were a period of heightened instability in the Middle East. Following the Arab-Israeli wars of 1948 and 1967, hundreds of thousands of Palestinians were displaced from their homes, fueling resentment and radicalization across the region. The Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) emerged as a coalition of groups seeking to reclaim Palestinian lands and assert national identity, some through political means, others through armed struggle.

Among these groups was Black September, a militant faction formed after the September 1970 conflict in Jordan, when King Hussein expelled the PLO following violent clashes. The group took its name from that tragic event and vowed to continue the struggle through direct attacks against Israeli and Western targets. Their goal was to bring global attention to the Palestinian cause, which they felt was being ignored by the international community.

Meanwhile, the 1972 Munich Olympics were meant to symbolize a new era for Germany, a chance to project an image of peace and reconciliation after the horrors of World War II and the Nazi regime. The organizers deliberately created an open, welcoming environment, minimizing visible security to avoid associations with the militarism of the 1936 Berlin Olympics. Ironically, this very openness made the Games an easy target for terrorists seeking global visibility.

On the morning of September 5th, eight members of Black September scaled the fence surrounding the Olympic Village, dressed in tracksuits and carrying duffel bags filled with weapons. They entered the apartments of the Israeli delegation, killing two athletes and taking nine others hostage. Over the next 21 hours, the world watched in horror as the crisis unfolded live on television, an unprecedented moment that brought terrorism into the global public sphere.

Negotiations between the terrorists and German authorities were tense and poorly coordinated. The attackers demanded safe passage to Cairo in exchange for the hostages. The German government, lacking specialized counterterrorism units and unprepared for such a crisis, attempted to negotiate while secretly planning a rescue operation.

In the late evening, the terrorists and their hostages were transported to the Fürstenfeldbruck airbase, where they were promised a plane. However, the supposed rescue operation was disastrously planned. The snipers positioned at the airfield were inadequately trained, poorly equipped, and lacked coordination. When the gunfire began, chaos erupted, leading to a deadly firefight and grenade explosions inside the helicopters where the hostages were bound.

When the gunfire ceased, all eleven Israeli hostages were dead. The image of masked gunmen and the Olympic Games drenched in tragedy became one of the most haunting symbols of 20th-century terrorism.

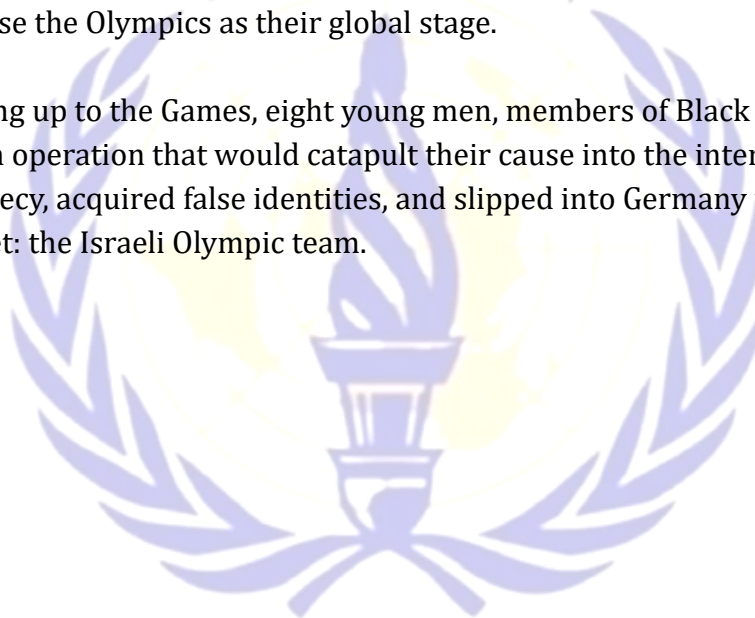
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IV . Flow of Events

The 1972 Munich Olympics were meant to represent peace. Coming less than three decades after the horrors of World War II, the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) sought to present a new face to the world, one of openness, optimism, and reconciliation. The Olympic motto that year was "The Happy Games." But what unfolded in the early hours of September 5, 1972, would change the Olympics and the world forever.

The Munich tragedy cannot be understood in isolation. It emerged from the bitter and violent backdrop of the Israeli–Palestinian conflict. Following the 1967 Six-Day War and the subsequent displacement of Palestinians, radical factions like Black September emerged from the Palestinian nationalist movement. They believed that international visibility was the only path to justice and they chose the Olympics as their global stage.

In the months leading up to the Games, eight young men, members of Black September, carefully planned an operation that would catapult their cause into the international spotlight. They trained in secrecy, acquired false identities, and slipped into Germany posing as tourists or athletes. Their target: the Israeli Olympic team.



September 5, 1972 – The Attack Begins

4:30 AM — While most of the Olympic Village slept, the eight Black September operatives scaled a two-meter fence, carrying weapons in gym bags. They wore tracksuits and moved with chilling familiarity around the compound. Security was deliberately light West Germany wanted to avoid the image of a militarised event.

4:31 AM — The gunmen entered 31 **Connollystraße**, the building housing the Israeli team. Wrestler **Moshe Weinberg** and weightlifter **Yossef Romano** tried to resist. Both were killed by Weinberg after misleading the attackers away from rooms with more teammates, Romano after a direct confrontation. The rest of the team, nine in all, were taken hostage.

As dawn broke, the world watched in disbelief.

A Global Crisis Unfolds

By morning, the standoff was international news. Cameras filmed the hostage-takers as they appeared on the balconies of the apartment building, guns visible. The attackers issued their demands: the release of **234 Palestinian prisoners** held in Israel, as well as two left-wing militants jailed in West Germany.

Inside the compound, the hostages, Olympians and coaches were bound, beaten, and terrified. Several of them were bleeding. For over 18 hours, the world watched the siege live on television.

Israeli Prime Minister **Golda Meir** faced a terrible decision. Israel had a strict policy of refusing to negotiate with terrorists, fearing that doing so would invite future attacks. She held the line.

Meanwhile, West German officials untrained in counter-terrorism and lacking any effective crisis plan tried to buy time with negotiations. They ultimately proposed to fly the terrorists and hostages to a nearby airbase, **Fürstenfeldbruck**, promising a plane to Cairo. It was a trap.

The Rescue Attempt and Tragedy at Fürstenfeldbruck

Night of September 5 — At the airbase, five poorly equipped German snipers were stationed without radio communication or clear orders. The terrorists arrived with their hostages, suspicious but committed to escape.

When the ambush began, everything went wrong.

A firefight erupted. The German police had misjudged the number of attackers; there were eight, not five. As chaos engulfed the airfield, one of the terrorists hurled a grenade into one of the helicopters where hostages were bound and blindfolded. Another opened fire with a Kalashnikov into the second helicopter.

All nine Israeli hostages were killed. So were five of the eight terrorists and one German police officer.

The operation had been a catastrophic failure.

Aftermath: Shock, Mourning, and Retaliation

The world reeled in horror. The Olympic Games were suspended for just over a day, then controversially resumed. In a somber memorial on September 6, IOC President Avery Brundage declared, "The Games must go on." Many, especially in Israel, saw this as a betrayal.

Israel mourned, but also acted. In the months that followed, Mossad launched **Operation Wrath of God**, a covert mission to identify and eliminate those responsible for planning or supporting the Munich attack. Targets were tracked across Europe and the Middle East. Some were killed, others escaped, and in one tragic case in Lillehammer, Norway, an innocent man was mistakenly assassinated.

In West Germany, criticism mounted over the failed rescue attempt. No special forces had existed at the time; in response, Germany created the elite **GSG 9** counter-terrorism unit, now a model for similar forces worldwide.

To make matters worse, just weeks later, a Lufthansa plane was hijacked by sympathizers demanding the release of the three surviving Munich attackers, who had been captured. West Germany agreed. The three were released. Many believe the hijacking was staged as a pretext to free them.

V . KEY PLAYERS

1. Golda Meir – Prime Minister of Israel

Golda Meir served as Israel's Prime Minister during the Munich Olympics massacre in 1972. As the head of the Israeli state, she was the ultimate political decision-maker regarding Israel's response to international terrorism and the protection of its citizens abroad. Meir's position aligned with the Western bloc during the Cold War, maintaining close ties with the United States and emphasizing strong counterterrorism policies. She oversaw Israel's diplomatic and military strategies, including the controversial "Wrath of God" operations that targeted those responsible for Munich.

2. Willy Brandt – Chancellor of West Germany

Willy Brandt, Chancellor of West Germany, represented the West German government during the crisis. His administration faced immense pressure to respond to the terrorist attack on German soil without compromising state security or sovereignty. Brandt's position was firmly within the Western bloc, advocating cooperation with NATO allies while balancing the legal and political challenges of hosting an international sporting event. He played a crucial role in authorizing security responses and negotiating with Israeli officials on the handling of the crisis.

3. Yasser Arafat – Chairman of the PLO

Yasser Arafat was the leader of the Palestine Liberation Organization, the umbrella organization that included Black September. Though the PLO officially condemned attacks on civilians, Arafat was a central political figure in the Palestinian nationalist movement, advocating for Palestinian self-determination. His bloc was aligned with the Non-Aligned Movement and received support from certain Eastern bloc countries during the Cold War. Arafat's influence made him a key figure in regional politics, even if he was not directly responsible for the Munich operation.

4. Hans-Dietrich Genscher – West German Interior Minister

As Interior Minister, Genscher was the senior West German official directly responsible for law enforcement and domestic security. He played a key operational role during the Munich crisis, negotiating with the terrorists and coordinating the police response. Genscher's political position reflected West Germany's commitment to the Western bloc, and he often had to mediate between security imperatives, international scrutiny, and diplomatic pressures from Israel and other nations.

5. Moshe Dayan – Israeli Defense Minister

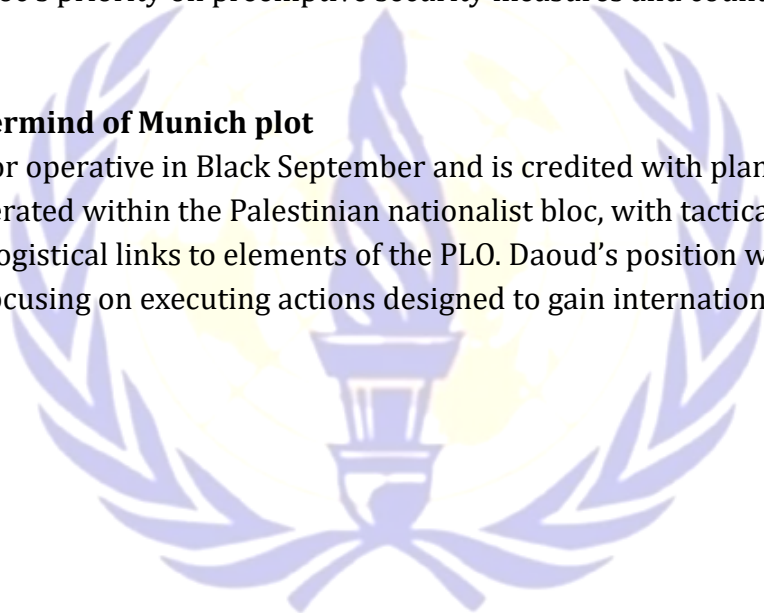
Moshe Dayan, as Israel's Defense Minister, was tasked with the country's military response to the Munich massacre. He oversaw intelligence operations, counterterrorism planning, and the mobilization of Israeli special forces. Dayan's role reflected Israel's strategic alignment with the United States and Western Europe, emphasizing rapid and precise military retaliation against terrorist networks to deter future attacks.

6. Zvi Zamir – Mossad Chief

Zvi Zamir was the head of Mossad, Israel's intelligence agency, during the Munich crisis. He coordinated intelligence gathering on the terrorists and orchestrated covert operations responsible for the attack. Zamir operated in close consultation with Dayan and Meir, reflecting the Israeli bloc's priority on preemptive security measures and counterterrorism operations abroad.

7. Abu Daoud – Mastermind of Munich plot

Abu Daoud was a senior operative in Black September and is credited with planning the Munich Olympic attack. He operated within the Palestinian nationalist bloc, with tactical support from Black September and logistical links to elements of the PLO. Daoud's position was operational rather than political, focusing on executing actions designed to gain international attention for the Palestinian cause.



VI. MANDATE

A. Members of the Court

Applicant: The party who chooses to file an application before the International Court of Justice to institute a case between itself and another nation (the Respondent) in order to settle a dispute. The applicant also carries the burden of proof which states that in order to be victorious in the judgment the Applicant must provide significant evidence that proves that a law has been broken or a crime has taken place.

Respondent: The respondent party is responsible for defending itself from the claim of the applicant party.

It should be noted that a party need not necessarily constitute only one nation - in the case of a special mutual agreement between two states, a party can constitute more than one.

Panel: This is constituted of the presidents, who oversee and moderate court proceedings, and an odd number of judges, who deliberate upon the evidence and legal arguments presented to them and arrive at a verdict.

B. Modes of Address

Although the International Court of Justice does not require the usage of third-person pronouns when referring to oneself, there is a requisite degree of formality required when addressing other members of the Court.

C. Documents

Documents play an integral role in the proceedings of the Court: they primarily assist advocates in building their legal arguments and are later utilized by judges during deliberation. There are three types of documents that will be used at JBMUN - and

all agree must be submitted before the start of the conference - namely, Memorandum of Points and Authorities, Stipulations, Evidence packets and Judgements

Memorandum of Points and Authorities

This is presented by each advocacy to opposing counsel, the judges, and to the Presidents. The Memorandum should be a party's view of the pertinent facts and legal principles as espoused by its advocates. It need not and should not give away trial strategies; however, it should present a party's position, the facts and points of law (citations may be included) to be applied. It may contradict points that are anticipated to be raised by the opposing party.

Stipulations

A type of agreement between the two parties, Stipulations consist of a list of general facts that both parties agree upon which is signed prior to the conference. The stipulation will be in the format of bullet points and will only consist of facts mutually understood by both parties, such as:

- Definitions of key terms in the case
- Important historical events
- Activities by both countries
- Relevant treaties and agreements between the two parties

Stipulation Process: Stipulations will be written by each advocacy and then combined between the advocacies before the conference begins to make efficient use of time. The stipulations have to be submitted to the Presidents 2 days before the conference. Both advocacies will communicate with each other before the conference begins by any medium suitable to both parties and agree on a stipulation document.

Evidence Packet: The most important document in any ICJ case, an evidence packet is essentially a compilation of all the evidence the advocacy wishes to use to support its legal arguments. In a well formatted document containing all the pieces of evidence, the evidence packet must contain a table of contents and must have every page numbered.

D. Judgements

Judgements are to be written by Judges at the end of each case as a formal court ruling and declaration of their final opinion. Opinions are of five main types and judgements will be categorised accordingly:

1. Majority opinion: The majority of judges vote on the same grounds in favour of the same party. A majority judgement outlines the court stipulations and the court decree.

2. Separate opinion:

a. Separate but concurring

The separate but concurring opinion agrees with the vote of the majority but disagrees on the grounds on which the judgement has been made. The separate but concurring opinion will elaborate solely on the grounds on which it disagrees.

b. Separate but dissenting

The separate but dissenting opinion agrees with the vote of the dissenting majority but disagrees on the grounds on which the judgement has been made.

3. Dissenting opinion:

The dissenting opinion disagrees with the judgement. It outlines the main grounds for disagreement, justifying the judgement.

E. Order or Proceedings

1. Opening Speeches

It will consist of the general arguments of each party and the response of the country to the claims of the opposing party, while possibly also touching upon the stipulations and their role in the case.

2. Presentation of Stipulations:

The stipulations will be read out by the Presidents, or one of the Advocates. While the stipulations are read out by the opposing advocacy, advocates will respond to each stipulations in either of two ways: (i) "So stipulated": recognising that the information conveyed in the stipulation may be used as facts of the case or (ii) "Not stipulated": leaving the information conveyed in the stipulation up to the Panel's interpretation.

3. Presentation of Evidence:

The aim of presentation of evidence is largely to ensure that each member of the court is familiar with the evidence provided by both parties. The party presenting the evidence packet will read out each piece of evidence, taking care to mention the title, author, medium and date of the piece of evidence. This may be followed by a brief description of the significance of the piece of evidence in question.

4. Weighing of Evidence:

Once both parties have finished presenting evidence, the court will enter a closed session in which only the Presidents and the judges remain. Each judge will be allotted pieces of evidence and will be given time to further examine said pieces of evidence. After the presentation, discussion will be opened for all judges to comment on the evidence as a whole, following which the evidence will be weighted on a point scale, depending on the credibility, relevance and bias of the evidence - this process will be repeated for each piece of evidence.

5. Witness Examination:

The human counterpart to documents of evidence in the field of law, witnesses add the key element of human experience to the process and their examination allows judges to delve into matters which are otherwise not readily available. The witness is first administered an oath. Witness examination has four parts: witness testimony, direct examination, where the party that has introduced the witness questions the witness, cross examination, where the opposing party will question the witness, and judge examination, where both the judges and the Presidents will be allowed to question the witnesses.

Choosing Witnesses:

Each bloc may have a maximum of three witnesses.

6. Objections :

Hearsay: This objection can be raised if the advocate questioning the witness has asked a hearsay question, that is to say, a witness cannot be asked about an out of court statement or act allegedly made by someone other than the witness in question. The exception to this, is if the person who made the statement is also a witness, however, given the fact that advocates usually try to bring in varied perspectives through each witness, the probability of this situation is remote.

Leading Question: This objection can be raised if the advocate questioning the witness has asked a leading question.

Speculation: If the witness attempts to predict the possible outcome of an event during his/ her testimony, the advocates not questioning the witness may object to this portion of the witness's testimony

Irrelevance: If the advocates not questioning the witness at the time feel that a portion of the witness's testimony is irrelevant to the case at hand, said advocates may object to this portion of the witness's testimony.

Badgering: If the advocates not questioning the witness at the time feel that the witness is being unduly intimidated by the questions being asked or by the manner in which they are asked, they may object to such questions.

Competence: If the advocates not questioning the witness at the time feel that the witness is asserting a fact that he/she is not qualified to make, said advocates may object to the statement made by the witness.

F. Types of Cases

a. Admissibility

Rules of jurisdiction define the legal powers of the Court; therefore, the rules of admissibility define the boundaries and ability to refrain from exercising legal powers where it is unnecessary. The reason behind this is that in addition to its legal powers, the Court has political influence and moral authority in the shaping of legal culture.

Admissibility is one of the main topics discussed in the case of international law. From the provisions of Article 38(1) of the Statute, it can be interpreted that the primary task of the Court is to decide on legal disputes in accordance with international law and give binding decisions to the parties of the case. International lawyers believe that the most efficient method of solving interstate disputes is through the admissible contentious jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice.

The Statute of the International Court of Justice was prepared and came into force in the first half of the 20 century; therefore, the classical view of States being the main and only subject of international law has its place firmly in the Statute. *Ratione personae*, admissibility in terms of person, is clearly stated in Article 34(1) of the Statute as 'Only states may be parties in cases before the Court.' According to this, non-governmental organizations, persons, and other institutions cannot be a party to a case within the jurisdictional scale of the International Court of Justice.

The states who are part of the United Nations and became parties to the Statute of the International Court of Justice may also become parties to the disputes before the Court. The members of the UN are considered parties to the Statute *ipso facto*. There are no controversies regarding their standings to sue. Of course, if a State is not a member of the United Nations but accepts the Statute, it also gains the right to become a party to disputes. Even if the conditions are met, the authority of the Court of States is not self-starting. For the Court to start a contentious case or to use the authority it has, the State Parties must give their consent on jurisdiction.

According to the Statute, the consent given by the governments are not bound by a specific procedure. However, it is considered in legal scholarship that there are four main ways of giving consent. Additionally, the Court can decide on the consent by other means in certain situations.

i. Arbitration

In arbitration, the judicial powers of the Court are recognized after the rise of the dispute. The States that are in dispute may form special agreements or treaties in order to bring the dispute before the Court by submitting it to the registrar of the Court. This was included as 'The jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which the parties refer to it and all matters specially provided for in the Charter of the United Nations or in treaties and conventions in force' in Article 36(1) of the Statute.

ii. International Agreements Concluded Before the Dispute:

The phrase "The jurisdiction of the Court comprises ... in treaties and conventions in force" in Article 36(I) of the Statute also provides the use of international agreements that were concluded before the dispute as a source. This is only possible if the treaty or convention accepted the authority of the Court beforehand or directed the parties to the ICJ in the case of a dispute. This way, the parties come to an agreement on applying to the Court and accepting its jurisdiction if upsetting situations occur.

iii. Unilateral Declaration

States may make unilateral declarations regarding the acceptance of contentious jurisdiction of the Court if the counterparty also accepts the jurisdiction, specifically on the same matter regarding the legal conflicts. The states that make unilateral declarations must send their declarations to the Secretary-General of the United Nations and other concerned organs. Unilateral Declaration is not preferred by the States as they may be confronted with the rejection of the opposing State. The unilateral declaration was regulated as 'The states parties to the present Statute may at any time declare that they recognize as compulsory ipso facto and without special agreement, in relation to any other state accepting the same obligation, the jurisdiction of the Court in all legal disputes' in Article 36(2) of the Statute, which means that if a state is a party to the Statute, they can unilaterally send an application letter to the International Court of Justice at any time.

iv. Forum Prorogatum

In some cases where a state has appealed to the Court regarding a legal dispute, the Court may conclude that the other party has accepted the jurisdiction through various means of acts. This way of giving consent was developed in the later days of the International Court of Justice. The statute of the International Court of Justice gave consent to the intervention of third parties to an ongoing case if the Court decision affects the third party or that the party has legal interests in the matter. It is mentioned in Article 62 of the Statute as "should a state consider that it has an interest of a legal nature which may be affected by the decision in the case, it may submit a request to the Court to be permitted to intervene." This kind of intervention is also called arbitrary intervention. The decision of accepting the offer is up to the Court.

The decisions of the Court are only binding to the party states within the jurisdiction of contentious cases being indigenous, and this is applicable to the International Court of Justice because the stare decisis principle, otherwise known as the doctrine of precedent, is not applied in decisions of the Court overall. This is regulated in Article 59 of the Statute as 'The decision of the Court has no binding force except between the parties and in respect of that particular case'. However, the decisions could be used or referred to as examples during the jurisdictional procedure as judges usually make use of the former judgements. It would be meaningless if the decision of the Court was binding for non-parties to the case because the Court may take different measures on a similar case with different parties as the court is not dependent on its former decisions. Provisional measures also do not have binding force except between the parties.

The sanction of not applying the decisions of the International Court of Justice is laid down in Article 94(2) of the United Nations Charter as 'If any party to a case fails to perform the obligations incumbent upon it under a judgment rendered by the Court, the other party may have recourse to the Security Council, which may, if it deems necessary, make recommendations or decide upon measures to be taken to give effect to the judgment. As this suggests, the parties may consult the Security Council if the other party refuses to take action in accordance with the decision of the Court. The Security Council may act as an enforcement organ if it is called upon to do so.

b. Contentious Cases

During the procedure of contentious cases before the Court, which is defined in the Statute, the International Court of Justice presents both parties with full and equal opportunity.

Whether the state is a member of the United Nations or not, in order to become a party to a contentious case, they must accept the jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice.

Registration with their minister of foreign affairs and ambassadors. States are represented by agencies during trials. Agents do all the formal acts of governments in their place.

Deliberations of judges are kept private, but the judgment is proclaimed publicly. The judgment of the Court is not open to appeal and is binding to

the parties. Only in special cases, if a new fact is discovered, may the case be subject to revision, and the Court may then establish special chambers as parties request it.

Additionally, if there is an agreement between the parties, the Court can act outside of international law. A case can be dropped or concluded at any stage of the jurisdiction if parties settle on discontinuance. They can inform the Court that they do not wish to proceed and want to withdraw the case. The Court then removes the case from its list.

c. Advisory Proceedings

The procedure of giving advisory opinions is similar to contentious cases, which means that interested countries can give written or oral statements on the matter. The advisory opinions can also be given to non-state actors; however, the advisory procedure is only open to the five other organs of the United Nations and the 16 specialized agencies related to the United Nations.

Unlike the contentious cases, advisory opinions are not binding but rather remain as prestigious and highly valued opinions of a high court that has international law as its ground. The main purpose of the procedure may be just advisory, as foreseen in the Statute, but under certain provisions or instruments adopted separately by the United Nations or other institutions within the system of the United Nations, they can settle disputes in which these institutions are parties.

d. Interim Measures

Interim protection is considered a suspensory remedy, covering a variety of subjects, most importantly human rights. In such cases, either the States or the Court itself have resorted to taking interim measures to prevent irreversible damages. With provisional measures, the International Court of Justice may require parties to refrain from or perform certain acts. 58 Interim measures are also taken in order to preserve the respective rights of the parties. Before taking provisional or interim measures, subsequent acts must also be considered by the Court unless the measure in question was taken to legalize the position of the Party concerned.

Article 41 of the Statute reads: "The Court shall have the power to indicate if it considers that circumstances so require, any provisional measures which ought to be taken to preserve the respective rights of either party?"

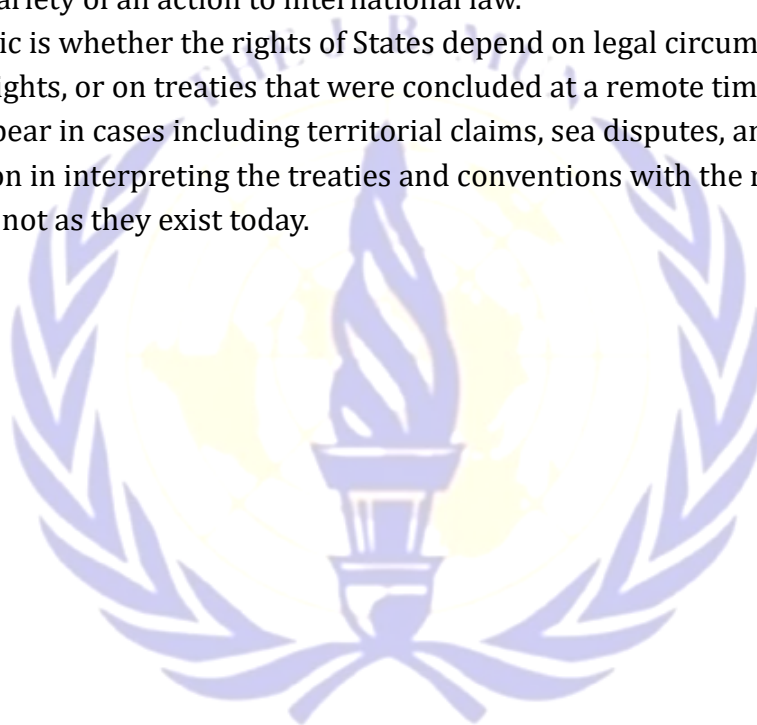
States generally bring their demands for provisional measures before the Court in the early stages of litigation, before the parties are presented with full opportunities to make their statements and points on jurisdiction and merits. Though these measures may seem necessary and beneficial to take, the Court is generally reluctant towards the requests. The requested provisions are usually the main substance of the dispute itself. As the process of jurisdiction continues, the measures may be modified or revoked depending on the circumstances justifying them.

e. Merits

The merits that surround the foundations of not only the International Court of Justice, but international courts as a whole, are mainly about the general concepts of international law, rights of states and main principles. During the adjudication of contentious cases, the international personality and sovereignty of states were discussed many times. Many lecturers and international lawyers argue that all States have international personalities regardless of their position within the international community, so a party of the case may not be a fully sovereign state but a protected or mandated one.

The base and foundation of the rights of States to determine whether state rights are dependent on international law or they are absolutely independent instruments, allowing international law to merely regulate or restrict these rights. During litigation, this issue arises in many fields as the rules of international law are still in the process of construction; therefore, one may have trouble identifying the contrariety of an action to international law.

Another debated topic is whether the rights of States depend on legal circumstances or previously existing rights, or on treaties that were concluded at a remote time. These specific questions mostly appear in cases including territorial claims, sea disputes, and border issues. Many find the solution in interpreting the treaties and conventions with the rules of international law of that time, and not as they exist today.



VII. POSITION PAPER GUIDELINES

THE FREEZE DATE FOR THIS COMMITTEE WILL BE: September 15th, 1972

Submission of a position paper is MANDATORY, as per JBMUN 2025 requirements.

1. About the Topic

Briefly introduce the Munich Massacre of 1972, its background, the attack on Israeli athletes during the Olympics, and its significance in international law.

2. About Your Person

Introduce your assigned allocation relevant to the ICJ simulation, including their background, experience.

3. Role of Person

Explain the specific responsibilities and influence of your person in the ICJ setting.

4. Stance

- Present your country's or individual's official legal stance:
 - Who was responsible for the Munich Massacre?
 - How should international law address terrorism and accountability?
- Does your state advocate justice through criminal trials, state responsibility, reparations, or preventive measures?

5. Solution

Provide a proposed legal or diplomatic solution aligned with international law

6. Webliography / Bibliography

Formatting:

- Font: Times New Roman
 - Size: 12 pt
 - Spacing: Single
 - Length: 1-2 pages

Please note: All submissions must be sent to jbmun.icj@gmail.com no later than 11:59 p.m. on 4th November. Eligibility for awards will be determined based on adherence to this deadline.

VIII. QARMA

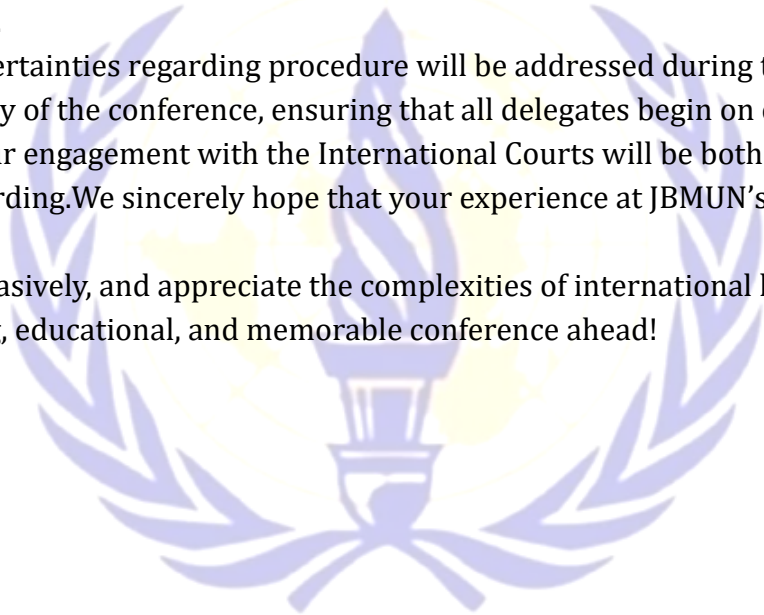
1. How should the international community address terrorism that targets civilians during global events such as the Olympics?
2. What measures can the United Nations implement to prevent attacks like the Munich Massacre in the future?
3. How can countries improve intelligence sharing to counter transnational terrorist threats without compromising national sovereignty?
4. Should host nations of international events be held accountable for security failures that lead to loss of life?
5. How can the rights and safety of athletes and participants be ensured during global sporting events?
6. What role should the UN play in mediating conflicts that give rise to extremist groups such as Black September?
7. How can justice be served for victims of terrorism while upholding international law and human rights?
8. Should targeted counter-terrorism operations, like Israel's Operation Wrath of God, be considered justified responses to terrorism?
9. How can the memory of the Munich Massacre be used to strengthen global efforts against terrorism?
10. What steps can the UN take to ensure that political conflicts do not spill over into international sporting or cultural events?
11. How can international institutions promote global solidarity against terrorism?
12. What mechanisms can ensure that acts of terrorism do not disrupt global unity and peace?
13. How can the world community balance the pursuit of justice with the need to prevent further violence?
14. In what ways can nations enhance international trust to prevent intelligence and security failures?
15. What global strategies can be adopted to protect civilians from politically motivated violence?
16. How can sporting and cultural platforms be safeguarded from being exploited for political or violent agendas?
17. What role should non-state actors and civil society play in countering extremist ideologies?
18. How can the UN promote a culture of peace and tolerance to prevent radicalization?
19. What ethical considerations should guide states when responding to terrorism?
20. How can historical tragedies like the Munich Massacre be remembered in ways that promote peace rather than hatred?
21. How can cooperation between developed and developing countries strengthen counter-terrorism capabilities worldwide?
22. What steps can be taken to ensure global events remain symbols of unity, not division?
23. How can nations work together to ensure justice for victims of international terrorism?
24. What role can education and youth engagement play in building resilience against extremist movements?
25. How can the UN encourage peaceful negotiation in regions prone to political violence?

IX. Closing Remarks

In conclusion, the International Courts function under a distinct and specialized procedural framework that sets them apart from most other Model UN committees. The nature of judicial deliberation, the emphasis on legal reasoning, and the formal structure of argumentation all contribute to a unique experience that demands thorough preparation. Therefore, it is highly recommended that both advocates and judges carefully review this procedure guide multiple times before the commencement of the conference to ensure familiarity with every aspect of the process.

For participants who wish to gain a deeper understanding of the real-world judicial system upon which this simulation is based, consulting the Statute of the International Court of Justice (ICJ) is encouraged. However, for the purposes of JBMUN, this procedure guide serves as a comprehensive and practical reference that will equip you with the knowledge necessary to participate effectively.

Any questions or uncertainties regarding procedure will be addressed during the introductory session on the first day of the conference, ensuring that all delegates begin on equal footing. We are confident that your engagement with the International Courts will be both intellectually stimulating and rewarding. We sincerely hope that your experience at JBMUN's International Courts inspires you to think critically, argue persuasively, and appreciate the complexities of international law. We look forward to an exciting, educational, and memorable conference ahead!



POSITION PAPERS

Position Papers are vital for delegates to make the stance of your country and foreign policy clear to the Executive Board. A position paper must be succinct and address the issue at hand, the response of your country to the issue at hand, as well as your own unique solutions that you wish to contribute to the committee.

All position papers must be in font Times New Roman, size 12.

Please note that the deadline for submission of position papers is 4th November 2025. It must be submitted to jbmun.icj@gmail.com in PDF format.



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