

ISRAEL – PALESTINIANS – TOGETHER - THE PAST AND THE FUTURE

2023

Load the File you want by

Going to

jewishwikipedia.info

at the top of the page
you will see

See our new site:

[Jews and Palestinians
Together](#)

Click it
this vertical [.pdf file](#)
will appear

FROM JACK WHITE,
MARK WHITE,
VIVIANE WHITE

CONTACT US
vijamada@gmail.com

CONTENTS

<i>THE 100 YEARS PALESTINE ISRAEL CONFLICT AND THE FUTURE.....</i>	<i>7</i>
<i>A WORLD VIEW</i>	<i>12</i>
A1 List of Countries by Human Development Index	13
A2 Country Comparison Israel and Palestine	18
A3 Standard of Living in Israel.....	19
.....	23
<i>B FROM THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE TO THE BRITISH PROTECTORATE</i>	<i>23</i>
B1 Breakup of the Ottoman Empire	24
B2 Zionism and Yishuv	25
B3 Arab Revolt.....	29
B4 World War 1 – Hussein bin Ali, King of Hejaz.....	30
B5 Intercommunal Conflict in Mandatory Palestine	31
B6 Balfour Declaration.....	36
<i>C RELIGION</i>	<i>38</i>
C1 Religion in Israel.....	39
C2 Religious Relations in Israel.....	41
C3 Arab Citizens of Israel	46
C4 Shia-Sunni Relations.....	52
C5 Islam in Palestine	54
C6 Islamism in the Gaza Strip	57
C7 Iran–Israel proxy conflict.....	59
<i>D THE STORY OF MANDATORY PALESTINE IN THE 1920's – 1940's.....</i>	<i>62</i>
D1 Mandatory Palestine, 1922-1947	63
D2 History of Palestine	65
D3 History of the Palestinians	68
D4 Timeline of Intercommunal Conflict in Mandatory Palestine	71
D5 Arab Nationalism	84
D6 Jewish Political Movements	91
D7 Jewish Emancipation	94
D8 1920 Nebi Musa Riots.....	96
D9 The First Arab Boycott of the Jews, 1922.....	99
D10 Creation of the Emirate of Transjordan.....	101

D11	1929 Palestinian Riots,.....	103
D12	1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine	104
D13	Peel Commission. 1937	106
D14	Woodhead Commission, 1938 to Split Palestine Between Jews and Arabs	110
D15	Haganah.....	111
D16	Jewish Land Purchase in Palestine	113
D19	History of the Jews During World War II	116
D20	Cyprus Internment Camps	121
D21	Jewish Insurgency in Mandatory Palestine	122
E	JEWISH/ARAB PARTITION VOTE, 1947 AND 1949 ARMISTICE AGREEMENTS.....	127
E1	UN Jewish/Arab Partition Vote, 1947	128
E2	1949 Armistice Agreements	131
E3	Arab–Israeli Normalization	133
F	THE CREATION OF ISRAEL.....	135
F0	History of Israel.....	136
F1	Israeli Declaration of Independence	138
F2	Criticism of Israel.....	142
F3	History of the Jews and Judaism in the Land of Israel	150
F4	Borders of Israel	152
F5	Judea and Samaria Area.....	155
F6	Samaritans.....	158
F7-1	Timeline of Israeli history.....	163
F7-2	History of the Israel Defence Forces	173
F7-3	History of Israel (1948–present).....	175
F7-4	List of Wars Involving Israel	182
F7-5	First Intifada.....	185
F7-6	Second Intifada	189
F7-7	Third Intifada.....	190
F7-8	July 2023 Jenin Incursion	191
F8	Land for Peace - Peace Treaties	193
F9	Jewish National Fund	195
F10	Arab Citizens of Israel	197
F11	Israeli-Palestine Conflict.....	204
F12	2010 Israeli–Palestinian Peace Talks	209
F13	Agriculture in Israel	212
F14	Science and Technology in Israel.....	214

G	IMMIGRATION TO ISRAEL.....	217
G1	Jewish Exodus from the Muslim World	218
G2	Aliyah (The immigration of Jews to Israel)	220
G3	Operation Ezra and Nehemiah	221
G4	Emigration of Jews from Nazi Germany and German-occupied Europe.....	227
G3	Haavara Agreement	229
G5	Israel, Law of Return.....	231
G6	Israeli Citizenship Law	232
G7	Economy of Israel	235
G8	Israel, Communal Organisation, Kibbutz.....	237
G9	Israel, Communal Organisation, Moshav	238
G10	Arab Citizens of Israel.....	242
G11	Present Absentee	246
G12	Demographics of Israel.....	249
H	WEST BANK AND EAST JERUSALEM	251
H1	West Bank	252
H2	Jordanian Annexation of the West Bank.....	255
H3	Israeli Occupation of the West Bank.....	258
H4	Israel West Bank Barrier	262
H5	East Jerusalem	264
H6	Oslo Accords	266
H7	Oslo II Accord.....	268
H8	West Bank Areas in the Oslo II Accord.....	270
H9	Taba Summit	274
H10	Palestinian enclaves in the West Bank.....	278
H11	Israeli Permit Regime in the West Bank	280
H12	Israeli Settlement	283
H13	Palestinian Freedom of Movement.....	288
H14	July 2023 Jenin incursion.....	291
H15	Rawabi.....	293
I	GOLAN HEIGHTS.....	296
I1	Golan Heights	297
I2	Status of the Golan Heights.....	300
J	STATE OF PALESTINE.....	302
J1	State of Palestine.....	303

J2	Timeline of the Name ' <i>Palestine</i> '	308
J3	Palestinian Nationalism	310
J4	Palestinian Views on the Peace Process	313
J5	Palestinian Refugees	316
J6	Palestinians	319
J7	Politics of the Palestinian National Authority	325
	United Nations	327
J8	Economy of the State of Palestine	329
J9	Palestine Liberation Organisation (PLO)	331
J10	Demographics of the State of Palestine	335
J11	Palestinian Refugee Camps	338
J12	Jenin Refugee Camp	341
J13	Palestinian Rights in Arab Countries	344
J14	Palestinian Right of Return	346
J15	Palestinian Return to Israel	348
J16	Palestinian Identity	350
J17	International Aid to Palestinians	352
J18	Boycott, Divestment and Sanctions (BDS)	355
K	ARABS AND ISRAEL	357
K1	Arab League and the Arab-Israel Conflict	358
K2	Arab nationalism	359
K3	Arab-Israeli Conflict	361
K4	Arab/Israeli Alliance	366
K5	Israeli–Palestinian Peace Process	368
K6	History of the Jews in the Arabian Peninsula	371
J7	International law and the Arab–Israeli conflict	373
L	GAZA	374
L1	Gaza Strip	375
L2	Occupation of the Gaza Strip by the United Arab Republic (Egypt)	378
L3	Governance of the Gaza Strip	380
L4	Hamas	382
L5	Hamas Charter	391
L6	Islamic State	393
L7	Gaza–Israel Conflict	395
L8	Gaza–Israel Barrier	397
L9	Economy of Gaza City	399

L10	Palestinian Rocket Attacks on Israel	401
M	UNWRA and UN	404
Mi	Israel and the United Nations	405
M2	UNWRA Creation and Organisation	408
M3	UNHRC	414
M4	International Aid to Palestinians	416
M5	UNWRA and Palestine Refugee Camps	418
M6	Textbooks in the Israeli–Palestinian Conflict	420
	421
Y	BIOGRAPHY	421
Y1	Amin al-Husseini Grand Mufti of Jerusalem.....	422
Y2	Yasser Arafat	424
Y3	Orde Wingate	427
Y4	Mahmoud Abbas	430
	430
Y5	David Ben-Gurion	433
	435
Z	AI INFORMATION	435
Z1	THE FUTURE	436
	Z1.1 What are Possible Futures of the Israel- Palestine Conflict?	436
Z2	GAZA	437
	Z2.1 Why is Gaza Governed From Outside Gaza	437
	Z2.2 Which Wealthy Business People or Political Figures in Hamas Own Homes in Gulf Countries ?.....	438
Z3	PALESTINIANS IN OTHER ARAB COUNTRIES	440
	Z3.1 What are Examples of Palestinian Treatment in Arab Countries?.....	440
	Z3.2 How Long Do Palestinians Stay in Arab countries?.....	452
Z4	UNWRA	453
	Z4.1 What Proportion of UNWRA Income Came from Europe in 2020, 2021 and 2022?	453
	Z4.2 How Much and What Proportion of its US Income Did UNRWA Receive?	454
	Z4.3 What Was the Estimated Proportion of UNRWA's Income was Received from Europe and the USA?	455
	Z4.4 Why Does Such a High Proportion of UNWRA Income Come from Europe and the USA?.....	456
	Z4.5 Why Do Arab Countries Contribute Such a Relatively Small Proportion of UNWRA's Income?	457
	Z4.6 What Proportion and Amount of UNWRA Income Comes from Gulf Oil Rich Countries?	458
	Z4.7 Why Does UNWRA Have a Unique 'Refugee' Definition?.....	459
	Z4.8 Why Do Groups of Refugees Increase for UNWRA and Decrease for UNHCR?	460
	Z4.9 Could UNWRA be Abolished?.....	461
	Z4.10 Why Did UNWRA Lose Responsibility for Jews Within Israel in July 1952?	462

THE 100 YEARS PALESTINE ISRAEL CONFLICT AND THE FUTURE

PLEASE CONTACT US AT VIJAMADA@GMAIL.COM WITH ANY COMMENTS.

THANK YOU

Jack White, Mark White, Daniel White and

Viviane White

Why the conflict started and has now continued for over 100 years raises many questions.

Problems between religions often take a long time before vanishing. For example, the Catholic Inquisition appeared in the thirteenth century and existed till the nineteenth century. During this time the Jews were expelled from Spain, where many lived, in the fourteenth century.

Incidents of the Palestinian dispute are shown below.

The 1920 Nebi Musa riots/1920 Jerusalem riots

took place in British-controlled part of [Occupied Enemy Territory Administration](#) between Sunday, 4 April, and Wednesday, 7 April 1920 in and around the [Old City of Jerusalem](#). Five Jews and four Arabs were killed, and several hundred were injured.^[1] The riots coincided with and are named after the [Nebi Musa](#) festival, which was held every year on [Easter Sunday](#), and followed rising tensions in Arab-Jewish relations. The events came shortly after the [Battle of Tel Hai](#) and the increasing pressure on Arab nationalists in Syria in the course of the [Franco-Syrian War](#).

July 2023 Jenin incursion Background

The Jenin refugee camp was established in 1953, housing Palestinians who fled or were expelled by Israeli forces in the [1948 Palestine War](#). It has an estimated population of 18,000, and suffers from high rates of poverty and unemployment.^[2] It has been a frequent location for many incidents in the [Israeli-Palestinian conflict](#). Since the escalation of Israeli-Palestinian violence in the spring of 2022, the Jenin camp and its neighboring town have remained a focal point of tension. Jenin has historically been a stronghold for armed resistance against Israel and was a significant source of friction during the [Second Intifada](#). Israeli foreign minister [Eli Cohen](#) has described the camp as a "hub for terrorist activities" and accuses Iran of funding its militants.

Wars

As a result, many have died or be injured in this period.

Our hope is that this will not continue. If not, many more will die or be injured.

History has shown us how vicious disputes between religions can be and how they can be converted to peace.

We are very lucky in having Wikipedia articles given by the world's largest internet free encyclopaedia.

Articles, to give a clear view of what has happened and is happening are reproduced here. Often, they are very long. Happily, each usually starts with a summary. Topics covered are shown in the Contents List below.

Topics often have tables with reference links of interest. These are graphics copies of Wikipedia files so the 'click link' does not work. Under the file title you will see the WIKIPEDIA link. Clicking this will take you to the source file and so links you can use. Alternately highlight the article title and copy it. You will now be able to use the links.

THE FUTURE (T3 to delete)



The Past is one of Conflict which we want to convert to a Future of Peace. Its achievement is based on Israel and Arab countries wanting the same.

A response as to how this could be achieved of AI (Claude.AI) with the following reply

This question was asked of a neutral source

what has to be done to achieve peace between Israel and the Palestinians?

The answer given was

Here are some key steps that could help achieve peace between Israel and the Palestinians:

- Mutual recognition of each other's right to exist and security. This is a fundamental issue - Israel needs to recognize a Palestinian state and the legitimacy of Palestinian aspirations for statehood and self-determination, while Palestinians need to recognize Israel's right to exist within secure borders.
- Compromise on core issues like borders, settlements, Jerusalem, refugees etc. Both sides will need to make concessions on issues they hold dear to reach a sustainable two-state solution. This could involve Israel withdrawing from parts of the West Bank, some compromise on the status of Jerusalem, and an agreement on refugees.
- Security guarantees and demilitarization. Israel will want guarantees that a Palestinian state will not threaten its security, which may involve some demilitarization of the Palestinian state. Palestinians will want guarantees on their security too.
- An end to violence, incitement and terrorism. Ongoing threats and cycles of violence undermine trust and make negotiations harder. Both sides will need to renounce violence and take steps to prevent extremism.
- Strong international engagement and oversight. The peace process needs effective mediation and guarantees from international partners. This can provide incentives, accountability and pressure when needed.
- People-to-people reconciliation and bridge-building. Lasting peace requires both societies coming to accept each other's legitimacy and right to live in the land. Cultural and educational initiatives can foster greater understanding after decades of conflict.
- Good faith negotiations and political will on both sides. Ultimately, both parties need to truly want peace more than just territorial or military gains. And leaders must be willing to make compromises and sell a deal to their people. Much work remains, but with political courage and perseverance, a just and lasting peace can be achieved.

AI answers other questions. such as why a temporary organisation largely financed by the USA and Europe, called UNWRA should exist with over 30,000 employees and differs from the other UN refugee organisation (UNHCR) who are responsible for refugee issues elsewhere in the world.

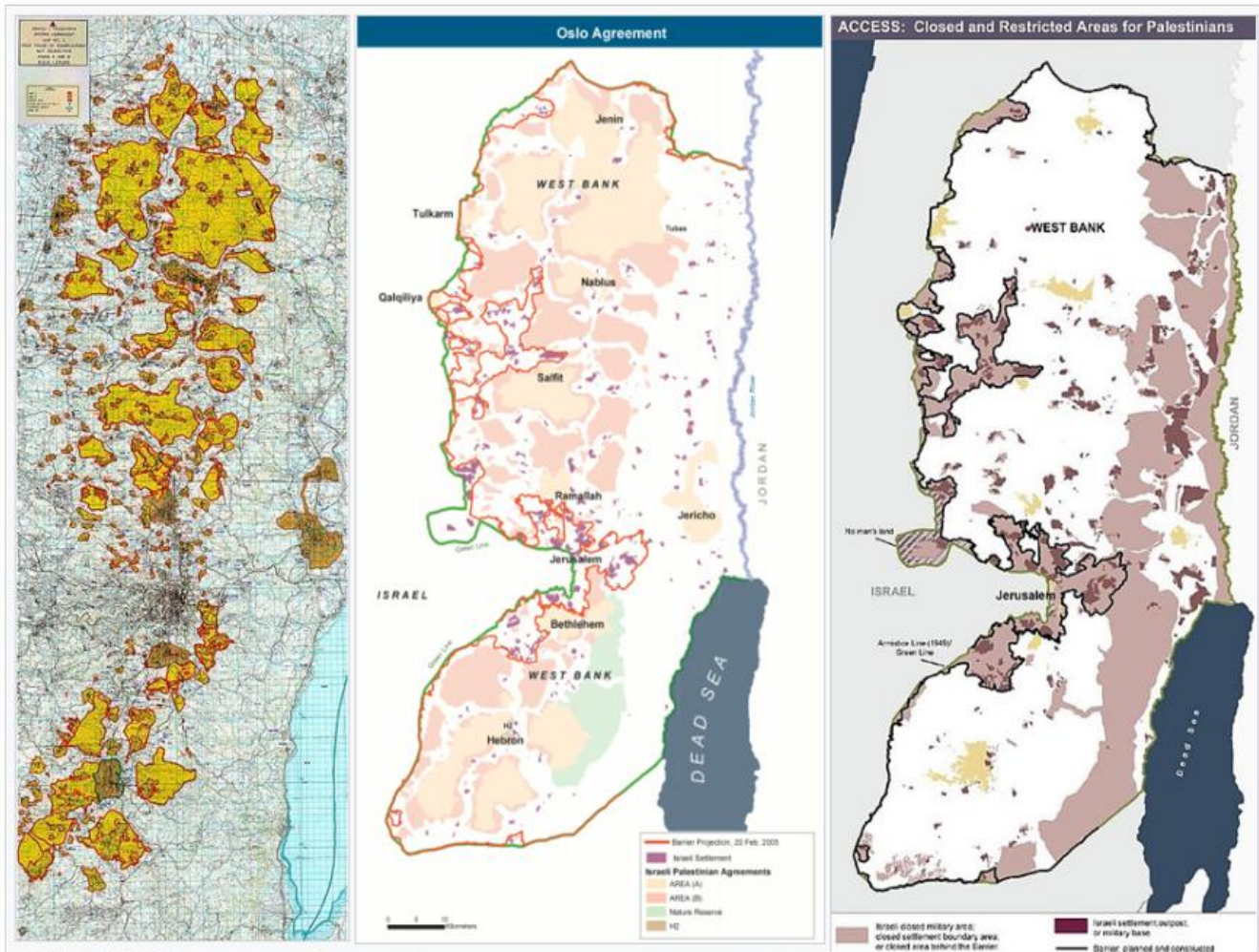
These questions and answers are shown in Part Z

Examples of other results we hope for in the future are:-

- The borders between Israel, the Palestine West Bank and Gaza will appear on paper but have very limited purpose. The maps below illustrate the current complication.

The [Oslo II Accord](#) divided the [Israeli-occupied West Bank](#) into three administrative divisions:

the [Palestinian enclaves](#) as "Areas A and B" and the remainder, including [Israeli settlements](#), as "[Area C](#)".



Official 1995 agreement map of Areas A and B (with C being defined as the rest of the West Bank)

2005 map showing areas A and B along with nature reserves and Israeli settlements. The red line is a projected route of the [West Bank Barrier](#)

Map highlighting Area C where the access is closed and restricted to Palestinians. Darker areas are Israeli settlements and military posts within Area C.

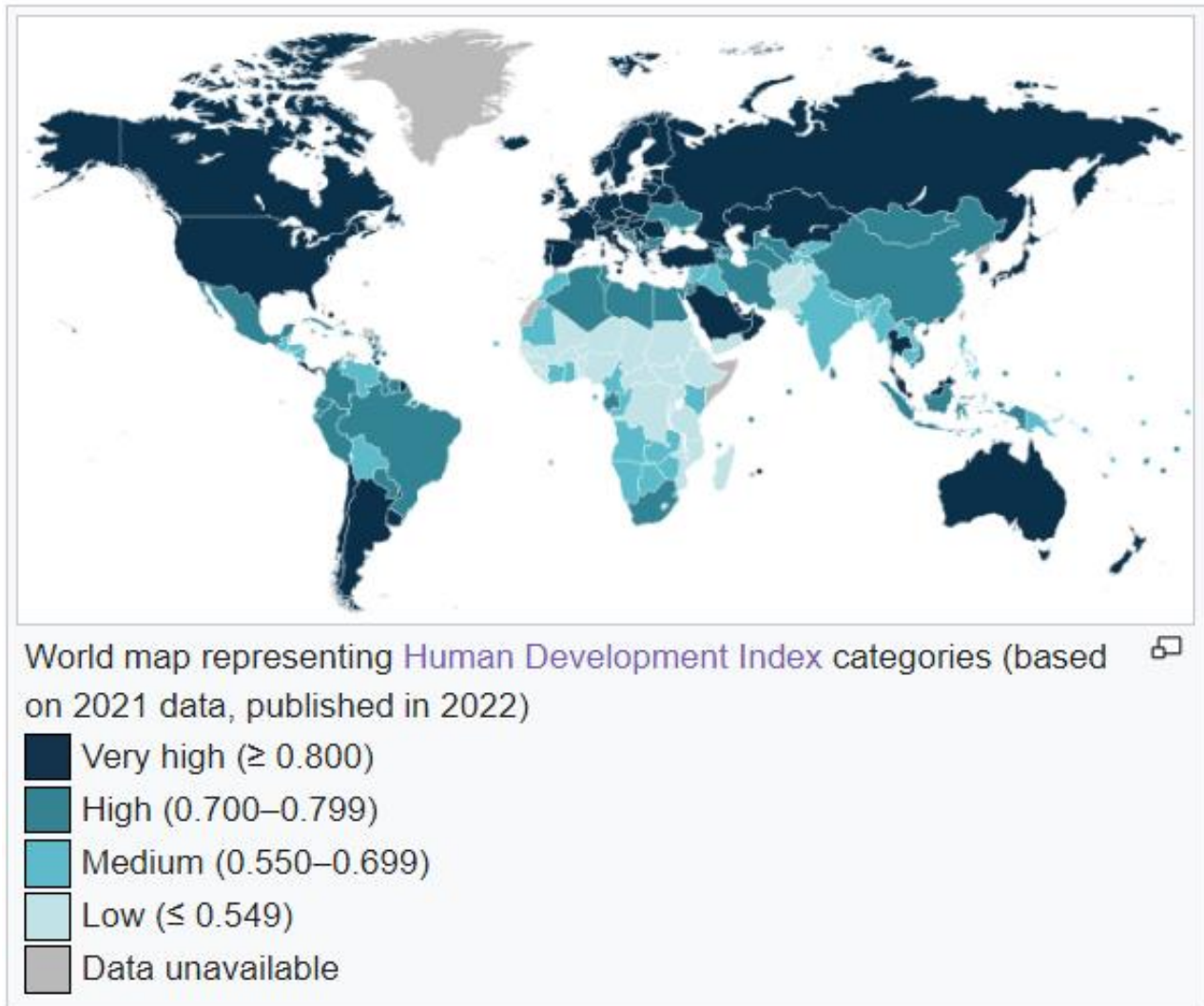
- There should be no enclaves or refugee camps.
- Gaza will have a democratic trusted government
- The Gaza and West Bank walls will disappear.

- Gaza will not build any more tunnels to Israel and Egypt
- Borders, such as Gaza fishing borders, will be scrapped.
- Donations, such as those from Europe and the USA to UNWRA, will be replaced with ones from Arab countries
- Cooperation by all will be carried out wherever possible.
- The West Bank (see maps above) will change from having three Areas to two areas – one each (charts from H6 - West Bank areas in in the Oslo II Accord)
- Joint reviews

A WORLD VIEW

A1 LIST OF COUNTRIES BY HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The [United Nations Development Programme](#) (UNDP) compiles the [Human Development Index](#) (HDI) of 191 countries in the annual [Human Development Report](#). The index considers the [health](#), [education](#), [income](#) and living in a given country to provide a measure of [human development](#) which is comparable between countries and over time.^{[1][2]}

The HDI is the most widely used indicator of human development and has changed how people view the concept.^{[3][4]} However, several aspects of the index have received criticism. Some scholars have criticized how the factors are weighed, in particular how an additional year of life

expectancy is valued differently between countries;^{[4][5]} and the limited factors it considers, noting the omission of factors such as the levels of distributional and gender inequality.^[6] In response to the former, the UNDP introduced the [inequality-adjusted Human Development Index](#) (IHDI) in its 2010 report, and in response to the latter the [Gender Development Index](#) (GDI) was introduced in the 1995 report.^{[7][8]} Others have criticized the perceived oversimplification of using a single number per country.^{[9][10]} To reflect developmental differences within countries, a subnational HDI (SHDI) featuring data for more than 1,600 regions was introduced in 2018 by the Global Data Lab at [Radboud University](#) in the Netherlands.^[10] In 2020, the UNDP introduced another index, the [planetary pressures–adjusted Human Development Index](#) (PHDI), which decreases the scores of countries with a higher ecological footprint.^[11]

DIMENSIONS AND INDICATORS

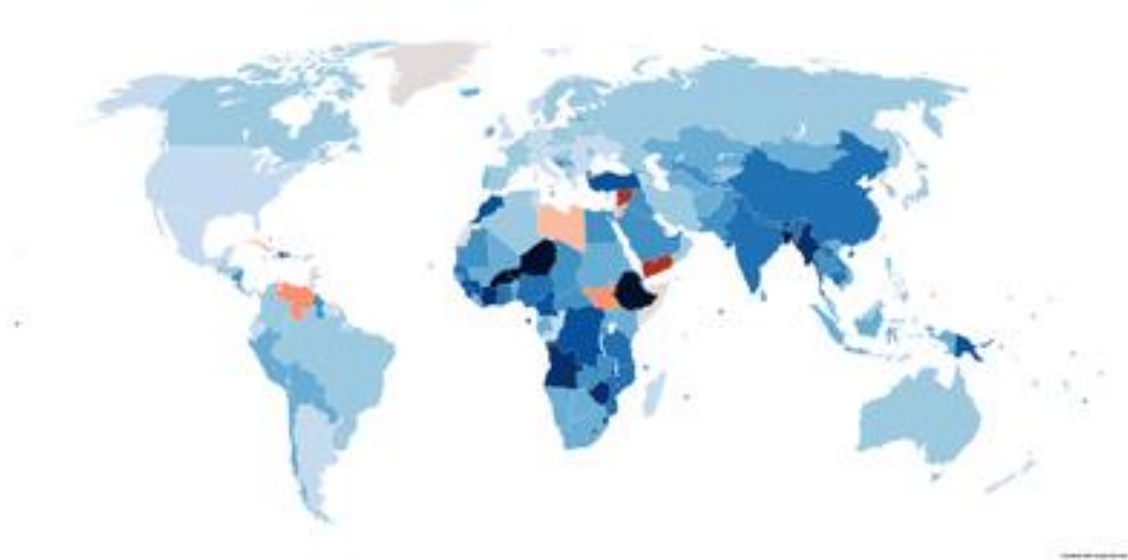
The HDI was first published in 1990 with the goal of being a more comprehensive measure of human development than purely economic measures such as [gross domestic product](#). The index incorporates three dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, knowledge, and decent living standards. Various [indicators](#) are used to quantify how countries perform on each dimension. The indicators used in the 2022 report were [life expectancy at birth](#); expected years of schooling for children; mean years of schooling for adults; and [gross national income](#) per capita. The indicators are used to create a health index, an education index and an income index, each with a value between 0 and 1. The [geometric mean](#) of the three indices—that is, the cube root of the product of the indices—is the human development index. A value above 0.800 is classified as very high, between 0.700 and 0.799 as high, 0.550 to 0.699 as medium, and below 0.550 as low.^{[1][12][13]}

The data used to calculate HDI comes mostly from United Nations agencies and international institutions, such as [United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization](#) (UNESCO), [United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs](#), the [World Bank](#), [International Monetary Fund](#) and [Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development](#) (OECD). Rarely, when one of the indicators is missing, cross-country regression models are used. Due to improved data and methodology updates, HDI values are not comparable across human development reports; instead, each report recalculates the HDI for some previous years.^{[13][14]}

HDI dimensions and indicators^[15]

Dimensions	Indicators	Dimension index	HDI
Long and healthy life	Life expectancy at birth	Life expectancy index	Human Development Index
Knowledge	Expected years of schooling Mean years of schooling	Education index	
A decent standard of living	GNI per capita (PPP \$)	GNI index	

NATIONS



Average annual HDI growth from 2010 to 2021 published in 2022




- $\geq 1.4\%$
- $1.2\% \dots 1.4\%$
- $1\% \dots 1.2\%$
- $0.8\% \dots 1\%$
- $0.6\% \dots 0.8\%$
- $0.4\% \dots 0.6\%$
- $0.2\% \dots 0.4\%$
- $0\% \dots 0.2\%$
- $-0.5\% \dots 0\%$
- $-1\% \dots -0.5\%$
 - $< -1\%$
- No data

The Human Development Report includes all 193^[16] [United Nations member states](#), as well as the [State of Palestine](#) and [Hong Kong SAR](#). However, the Human Development Index is not calculated for four of the UN member states: [DPR Korea](#) (North Korea), [Monaco](#), [Nauru](#), and [Somalia](#). Some components of the index may be calculated for these countries. The [Cook Islands](#), the [Holy See](#) ([Vatican City](#)), and [Niue](#) are the only state parties within the [United Nations System](#) that are not included in the report.^[17] In total, the HDI is available for 191 nations.^[2]

Global Data Lab also provides data on the HDI of Somalia, putting it at 0.361 (2019), the lowest in the world.^[18]

Countries ranked from 1 to 66 in 2021 are designated "very high" HDI; those ranked from 67 to 115 are designated "high" HDI; those ranked from 116 to 159 are denoted "medium" HDI; and those ranked from 160 to 191 are designated "low" HDI.^{[19][13]}

15	▼ (2)	 Canada	0.936	▲ 0.25%
16	▼ (1)	 Liechtenstein	0.935	▲ 0.22%
17	▲ (3)	 Luxembourg	0.930	▲ 0.18%
18	▼ (3)	 United Kingdom	0.929	▲ 0.17%
19	—	 Japan	0.925	▲ 0.27%
	▲ (3)	 South Korea		▲ 0.35%
21	▼ (3)	 United States	0.921	▲ 0.10%
22	—	 Israel	0.919	▲ 0.25%
23	▲ (4)	 Malta	0.918	▲ 0.58%
	▲ (1)	 Slovenia		▲ 0.28%
25	▼ (4)	 Austria	0.916	▲ 0.14%
26	▲ (9)	 United Arab Emirates	0.911	▲ 0.80%
27	—	 Spain	0.905	▲ 0.38%
28	▼ (3)	 France	0.903	▲ 0.27%

List of countries in Asia and Oceania by Human Development Index				
Rank		Nation	Human Development Index (HDI)	
Region	World		HDI value (2021)	Change in HDI value 2020-21
Very High Human Development				
34	101	 Uzbekistan	0.727	▲ 0.006
35	102	 Jordan	0.720	▼ 0.003
36	106	 Palestine	0.715	▼ 0.001
37	111	 Samoa	0.707	▼ 0.005
38	112	 Lebanon	0.706	▼ 0.020
39	114	 Indonesia ^[note 11]	0.705	▼ 0.004
40	115	 Vietnam	0.703	▼ 0.007

SEE ALSO

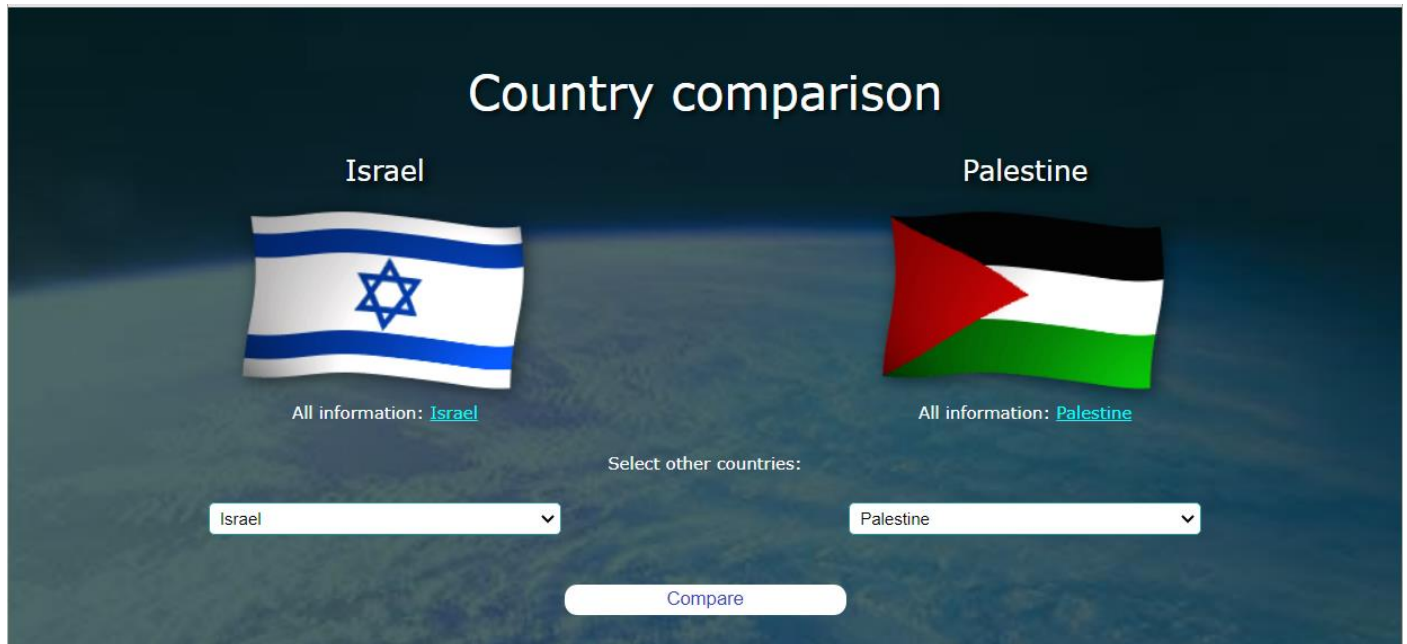
- [Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation](#)
- [List of Asian and Pacific countries by GDP \(PPP\)](#)
- [List of Asian countries by GDP](#)
- [List of Asian countries by population](#)
- [List of countries by Human Development Index](#)
- [List of countries by Human Development Index by region](#)
- [List of countries by industrial production growth rate](#)
- [List of countries by percentage of population living in poverty](#)

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

A2 COUNTRY COMPARISON

ISRAEL AND PALESTINE

[WorldData](#)



Data inventory and Updates

A country comparison like this can be based on several hundred individual data items from dozens of different sources. All data are based on the most recent data available to us. Most of them refer to the previous year and are updated around March of the following year. If a country has not yet published data for the most recent or penultimate year, we present the most recent official data. Updates are made on an ongoing basis depending on the subject area or source, so there is no single "cutoff date" for this comparison. Sources for almost all data can be found on our respective country pages.

On this page:

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| ▼ General information | ▼ Population | ▼ Quality of life | ▼ Economy |
| ▼ Infrastructure | ▼ Energy balance | ▼ Telecommunication | ▼ Healthcare system |
| ▼ Climate | ▼ languages | ▼ Religions | |

Click [WorldData](#) to access links

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

A3 STANDARD OF LIVING IN ISRAEL

(For Palestine go to F1 State of Palestine)

WIKIPEDIA

Israel's [standard of living](#) is significantly higher than all of the other countries in the region and equal to Western European countries, and is comparable to that of other highly developed countries. Israel was ranked 19th out of 189 countries on the 2019 UN [Human Development Index](#), indicating "very high" development. It is considered a [high-income country](#) by the [World Bank](#). Israel also has a very high [life expectancy](#) at birth.

HISTORY

Following Israel's [establishment](#) in 1948 and victory in the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) which began immediately afterward, the country was impoverished and lacking in [foreign currency reserves](#). [Living standards](#) saw some increase in the first year after independence. Israel had to recover from the effects of the war, and saw a wave of mass Jewish immigration from post-war Europe and [Middle Eastern](#) countries, doubling the Jewish population in three years. The country was financially overwhelmed and faced a deep economic crisis. As a result, a strict regime of [austerity](#) was put in place. Food, furniture, and footwear were heavily [rationed](#). Rationing allowed for a meager 1,600 calories a day, with additional calories for children, the elderly, and pregnant women. Throughout the austerity period, living standards were preserved at tolerable levels, and the regime of strict rationing enabled the Israeli government to ensure that the entire population was adequately fed, clothed, and sheltered.^{[[citation needed](#)]}

In 1952, Israel and West Germany signed a [reparations agreement](#). West Germany agreed to pay Israel financial reparations for [the Holocaust](#), ultimately paying over 3 billion [marks](#) over a period of 14 years. The agreement went to force in 1953, when the first reparations payments arrived. As a result, most austerity restrictions were lifted that year; some remained in place, and were gradually lifted throughout the following years. The families receiving the reparations payments saw a considerable increase in their standard of living; on average, they doubled their incomes.^[1]

Throughout the 1950s, Israel was heavily reliant on reparations payments from West Germany, and on financial donations from Jews around the world, especially [American Jews](#). Israel used these sources to invest in its infrastructure and in industrial and agricultural development projects, which allowed the country to become economically self-sufficient. Due to this commitment to development in its first two decades of existence, Israel experienced economic growth rates that exceeded 10% annually. Average living standards rose steadily; between 1950 and 1963, the expenditure of an average wage-earner's family rose 97% in real terms.^[2] Between 1955 and 1966, per capita consumption in Israel rose by 221% and in 1963, 93% of the population had electricity and 97% had running water.^[3]

Israeli historian [Tom Segev](#) described the improvement in living conditions during the 1950s due to the rapid development of the country.^[4]

The new industrial and agricultural equipment created better conditions for the worker and the farmer. Soon, display windows began showing merchandise long absent; fruits, vegetables, and various food products. People were able to enjoy apples again and spread their bread with butter instead of margarine. Now it was possible to choose from a variety of clothes, shoes, furniture, paper goods, and electrical equipment. The supply did not equal what was available in developed countries, but it was enough to give the impression that the country was finally emerging from austerity... New power stations arrived, and there were fewer electrical outages. People could now have their own telephone lines and travel on railroad cars offering almost European comfort and luxury.

From 1950 to 1976, Israel managed to raise its standard of living threefold. For instance, consumption of animal protein per capita rose from 32.2 to 49.4 grams (1.14 to 1.74 oz) per day, while during that same period, the percentage of families owning an electric refrigerator increased from 2.4% to 99.0%. Family ownership of other durables also showed increases. From 1970 to 1976, the percentage of families owning a gas/electric range and oven rose from 5% to 51.8%, and a television set from 49.7% to 89.5%. From 1957 to 1976, the percentage of families owning an electric washing machine rose from 6.9% to 74.6%, and from 1955 to 1976, the percentage of families owning a radio rose from 54.7% to 84.2%. The percentage of families owning a car also increased, from 4.1% in 1962 to 31.2% in 1976.^[1]

One aspect of daily life in Israel that set it apart from much of the world for many years was the absence of television, and then of color television. Television was only introduced in 1966, in schools as an educational tool,^[5] and regular public transmissions began in 1968. Even then, all television broadcasts were in black and white, at a time when American and European stations were switching to full-scale color transmissions. Color transmissions were initially banned due to fears of social inequality, although ordinary citizens found ways around this ban, and were only gradually introduced around 1980.

In the 1970s, Israeli living standards were comparable with those of some [Western European](#) countries. However, the years following the [Yom Kippur War](#) saw stalled economic growth and increased inflation. Economic growth was on average 0.4% annually, and living standards saw minimal growth, and eventually became completely stagnant. This continued into the 1980s; the Israeli economy was in a dire situation following a [financial crisis](#) in 1983, and was saved by the 1985 [economic stabilization plan](#) which saw [market-oriented](#) reforms to Israel's economy, which had previously been heavily regulated. Despite these reforms, there was no immediate growth in quality of life; by 1989, living standards in Israel had not increased in more than a decade.^[6]

In addition to the 1985 stabilization plan, [mass Jewish immigration](#) from the former Soviet Union in the 1990s brought many highly educated and skilled immigrants to Israel, and the Israeli government implemented effective [macroeconomic](#) policies. As a result, Israel experienced an economic boom, and living standards rose. In 2002, Israeli living standards began climbing rapidly, and the gap between Israel and many other Western nations in quality of life began to narrow.^[7]

In the early 2000s, Israeli living standards were comparable with those of Western Europe.^[8] In 2006, Israel was rated as having the 23rd-highest quality of life in the world by the [United Nations Human Development Index](#).^[9] In 2010, Israel was ranked 15th in quality of life.^[10] In 2011, [Bank of Israel](#) Governor [Stanley Fischer](#) said that Israel had a standard of living two-thirds as high as that of the [United States](#).^[7]

In 2011, [social justice protests](#) broke out across the country over the high cost of living. In 2012, a report issued by the Taub Center stated that while living standards in Israel were rising, they were rising more slowly than those of other Western countries.^[11]

In late 2013, the Israeli government approved a series of measures to lower the country's high [cost of living](#). A law was passed to break up large [conglomerates](#) and end economic concentration, so as to encourage economic competition. A new committee was also formed to remove import barriers and lower prices, making them more comparable to prices abroad.^{[12][13]}

DEMOGRAPHICS

Main article: [Demographics of Israel](#)

According to census, Israel's population is 75.4% [Jewish](#), and 20.5% [Arab](#). The Arab population comprise Arab Muslims (including [Bedouins](#)), Arab Christians, and [Druze](#). About 4,000 [Armenians](#) and 4,000 [Circassians](#) live in Israel. There are smaller numbers of people of Jewish heritage or spouses of Jews, non-Arab Christians, and non-Arab Muslims. 3.7% of people are not classified by religion.^[14]

IN NUMBERS

Israel was ranked 47 out of 194 nations in the Annual Standard of Living Index published by the *International Living Magazine* in 2010 (32 in 2020). This index is produced by a consideration of "nine categories: [cost of living](#), culture and leisure, economy, environment, freedom, health, infrastructure, safety and risk, and climate, and also its editors opinions"^[15] Each of these is scored on a scale of 0–100, with 100 marking the highest standard. Israel's lower scores were for infrastructure (36) cost of living (39), economy (61), environment (68) and safety (71). Its higher scores were for freedom (92), health (85), climate (84), and culture and leisure (83).^[15]

Israel was ranked 19th out of 189 nations in the [Human Development Index](#) (HDI) 2019 ranking.^[16]

The country ranked 11th out of 155 nations in the [World Happiness Report](#) of 2017 with a rating of 7.213, landing it between [Sweden](#) and [Costa Rica](#).^[17]

MODERN STANDARD OF LIVING

Wealth and Income Distribution

social contributions into account), based on data collected from 2006 to 2012, found Israel to have the 21st highest median household income in the world.^[18]

A 2014 [Credit Suisse](#) report found Israelis to be prosperous by world standards. Defining "wealth" as financial resources (cash, stocks, and bonds) and owned property, adjusted to deduct debt, the report

found residents of Israel to be the sixth wealthiest people on average in the Middle East and Asia-Pacific region, trailing only [Australia](#), [Singapore](#), [Japan](#), [New Zealand](#), and [Taiwan](#). The report also found that average Israeli wealth slightly exceeds average European wealth. However, the national wealth was found to be distributed slightly more inequitably than in most industrialized countries, although wealth distribution was found to be on par with some industrialized European countries and more equitable than in the [United States](#), with about 67.3% of national assets held by the richest 10% of the population. This is roughly on par with some European countries, including [Sweden](#), [Austria](#), [Norway](#), and [Germany](#), as well as [China](#), [Mexico](#), and [Saudi Arabia](#), while wealth is distributed more equitably across most other European countries.^[19]

According to the [Gini Coefficient](#), Israel has high income inequality and is one of the most unequal among 34 [OECD](#) countries. A 2014 Taub Center report likewise found Israel second only to the [United States](#) in [disposable income](#) inequality after taxes and government transfers among 22 OECD countries, based on statistics from the mid-2000s.^[20] This contradiction may be explained by the presence of the [black](#) and [grey](#) market economies, which the Gini Coefficient does not take into account. Some estimates suggest up to a quarter of economic activity in Israel goes unreported to tax authorities and statisticians.^[19]

A 2015 OECD report found that the Israeli tax burden was slightly lower than average among OECD countries, with Israelis paying an average of 31.4% of their income in taxes, slightly lower than the OECD average of 34.4%, although this is still significantly higher than the tax burden in the United States, Mexico, and Chile. The report also found Israeli salaries to be lower than the OECD average.^[21]

Despite high levels of wealth, a major factor affecting purchasing power is the high cost of living in Israel, which is higher than the OECD average. This is seen as having a significant impact on the middle and working classes.^[22] However, the cost of living is on the decline.^[23]

In January 2021 [Bituah Leumi](#) published a report on poverty and inequality in Israel, which showed that 1,980,309 Israelis lived below the poverty line in 2020 - 23% of Israeli citizens and 31.7% of Israeli children. In the Jewish population, the proportion was 17.7%, and in the ultra-Orthodox sector 49%. In the Arab population it was 35.8%. Unemployment benefits alone rescued 23.6% of families from poverty, compared to 2% in 2019.^[24]

Material Prosperity

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

**B FROM
THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE
TO THE
BRITISH PROTECTORATE**

B1 BREAKUP OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE



In dark brown the Ottoman Empire's territory in 1914, at the beginning of WWI.

This empire included Palestine – see the location of Jerusalem. By the end of WWI, the Ottomans, who were allied with the Germans, had been defeated, and the empire was broken up

In 1915, during WWI, the British High Commissioner in Egypt, Sir Henry McMahon, had corresponded with Prince Hussein of Arabia, and had promised that Britain would support

Independence for Arabs who lived under Ottoman rule after the war, if the Arabs would help the Allies in fighting the Ottoman Turks, which they did quite successfully. Many readers will be familiar with the film Lawrence of Arabia which shows some of the events of this period, including the Arabs' expectation of independence from foreign rule if the Ottomans were defeated.



The lands of the former Ottoman Empire.

After the end of WWI, the League of Nations (a precursor to the United Nations) was established and, in 1922, they designated portions of the former Ottoman Empire to be controlled by Great Britain and France, largely according to what these two powers had determined in the Sykes-Picot Agreement. The light lavender area was designated for British control.

B2 ZIONISM AND YISHUV

[WIKIPEDIA](#) see also [Yishuv](#)

Zionism ([Hebrew](#): ציונות *Tsiyyonut* [tsijoˈnut] after [Zion](#)) is a [nationalist](#)^[n 1] movement that espouses the establishment of, and support for a [homeland for the Jewish people](#) centered in the area roughly corresponding to what is known in Jewish tradition as the [Land of Israel](#) on the basis of a long Jewish connection and attachment to that land.^{[3][4][5]}

Modern Zionism emerged in the late 19th century in [Central](#) and [Eastern Europe](#) as a national revival movement, both in reaction to newer waves of [antisemitism](#) and as a response to [Haskalah](#), or Jewish Enlightenment.^{[6][7][8]} Soon after this, most leaders of the movement associated the main goal with creating the desired homeland in Palestine, then an area controlled by the [Ottoman Empire](#).^{[9][10][11]} This process was seen by the Zionist Movement as a "[ingathering of exiles](#)" (*kibbutz galuyot*), an effort to put a stop to the exoduses and persecutions that have marked Jewish history by bringing the Jewish people back to their historic homeland.^[12]

From 1897 to 1948, the primary goal of the Zionist Movement was to establish the basis for a Jewish homeland in Palestine, and thereafter to consolidate it. In a unique variation of the principle of self-determination,^[13] The [Lovers of Zion](#) united in 1884 and in 1897 the first [Zionist congress](#) was organized. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, a large number of Jews immigrated to Palestine, and at the same time, diplomatic attempts were made to gain worldwide recognition and support. Since the establishment of the [State of Israel](#) in 1948, Zionism has continued primarily to advocate on behalf of Israel and to address threats to its continued existence and security.^[citation needed]

Zionism has never been a uniform movement. Its leaders, parties, and ideologies frequently diverged from one another. Compromises and concessions were made in order to achieve a shared cultural and political objective as a result of the growing antisemitism and yearning to return to the ancestral country. A variety of Zionism, called [cultural Zionism](#), founded and represented most prominently by [Ahad Ha'am](#), fostered a [secular](#) vision of a Jewish "spiritual center" in Israel. Unlike [Theodor Herzl](#), the founder of political Zionism, Ahad Ha'am strived for Israel to be "a Jewish State, and not merely a State of Jews".^{[14][better source needed]} Others have theorized it as the realization of a socialist utopia ([Moses Hess](#)), as a need for survival in the face of social prejudices by the affirmation of [self-determination](#) ([Leon Pinsker](#)), as the fulfilment of [individual rights](#) and freedoms ([Max Nordau](#)) or as the foundation of a [Hebrew humanism](#) ([Martin Buber](#)).^[15] [Religious Zionism](#) focuses on the religious aspects of Jewish identity and sees the effort to establish a state for Jews in the Land of Israel as an obligation arising from the [Torah](#).^{[16][17]}

Advocates of Zionism view it as a national [liberation movement](#) for the repatriation of a persecuted people to its ancestral homeland.^{[18][19][20]} [Critics](#) of Zionism view it as a [colonialist](#),^[21] [racist](#)^[22] or [exceptionalist](#) ideology or movement.^{[23][24][25][26][27]}

Terminology

The term "Zionism" is derived from the word *Zion* ([Hebrew](#): צִיּוֹן, *Tzi-yon*), a hill in [Jerusalem](#), widely symbolizing the Land of Israel.^[28] Throughout eastern Europe in the late 19th century, numerous grassroots groups promoted the national resettlement of the Jews in their homeland,^[29] as well as the revitalization and cultivation of the [Hebrew language](#). These groups were collectively called the "[Lovers of Zion](#)" and were seen as countering a growing Jewish movement toward assimilation. The first use of the term is attributed to the Austrian [Nathan Birnbaum](#), founder of the [Kadimah](#) nationalist Jewish students' movement; he used the term in 1890 in his journal *Selbstemanzipation!* (*Self-Emancipation*),^[30] itself named almost identically to [Leon Pinsker](#)'s 1882 book [Auto-Emancipation](#).

Overview

The common denominator among all Zionists has been a claim to Palestine, a land traditionally known in Jewish writings as the [Land of Israel](#) ("*Eretz Israel*") as a national homeland of the Jews and as the legitimate focus for Jewish national self-determination.^[31] It is based on historical ties and [religious traditions](#) linking the Jewish people to the Land of Israel.^[32] Zionism does not have a uniform ideology, but has evolved in a dialogue among a plethora of ideologies: General Zionism, [Religious Zionism](#), [Labor Zionism](#), [Revisionist Zionism](#), [Green Zionism](#), etc.



The flag of the Zionist Movement adopted in 1891 became the flag of the [State of Israel](#), established in 1948.

After almost two millennia of the [Jewish diaspora](#) residing in various countries without a national state, the Zionist movement was founded in the late 19th century by [secular Jews](#), largely as a response by [Ashkenazi Jews](#) to rising antisemitism in Europe, exemplified by the [Dreyfus affair](#) in France and the [anti-Jewish pogroms in the Russian Empire](#).^[33] The political movement was formally established by the [Austro-Hungarian](#) journalist [Theodor Herzl](#) in 1897 following the publication of his book [Der Judenstaat](#) (*The Jewish State*).^[34] At that time, the movement sought to encourage Jewish migration to [Ottoman Palestine](#) particularly among those Jewish communities who were poor, [unassimilated](#) and whose 'floating' presence caused disquiet, in Herzl's view, among assimilated Jews and stirred antisemitism among Christians.^[35]

"I believe that a wondrous generation of Jews will spring into existence. The Maccabeans will rise again. Let me repeat once more my opening words: The Jews who wish for a State will have it. We shall live at last as free men on our own soil, and die peacefully in our own homes. The world will be freed by our liberty, enriched by our wealth, magnified by our greatness. And whatever we attempt there to accomplish for our own welfare, will react powerfully and beneficially for the good of humanity."

Theodor Herzl, concluding words of *The Jewish State*, 1896^[36]

Although initially one of several Jewish political movements offering alternative responses to Jewish assimilation and antisemitism, Zionism expanded rapidly. In its early stages, supporters considered setting up a Jewish state in the historic territory of Palestine. After [World War II](#) and the destruction of Jewish life in Central and Eastern Europe where these alternative movements were rooted, it became dominant in the thinking about a Jewish national state.

Creating an alliance with [Great Britain](#) and securing support for some years for Jewish emigration to Palestine, Zionists also recruited European Jews to immigrate there, especially Jews who lived in areas of the Russian Empire where antisemitism was raging. The alliance with Britain was strained as the latter realized the implications of the Jewish movement for Arabs in Palestine, but the Zionists persisted. The movement was eventually successful in establishing Israel on May 14, 1948 (5 Iyyar 5708 in the [Hebrew calendar](#)), as the [homeland for the Jewish people](#). The proportion of the world's Jews living in Israel has steadily grown since the movement emerged. By the early 21st century, more than 40% of the [world's Jews](#) lived in Israel, more than in any other country. These two outcomes represent the historical success of Zionism and are unmatched by any other Jewish political movement in the past 2,000 years. In some academic studies, Zionism has been analyzed both within the larger context of [diaspora politics](#) and as an example of modern [national liberation movements](#).^[37]

Zionism also sought the assimilation of Jews into the modern world. As a result of the diaspora, many of the Jewish people remained outsiders within their adopted countries and became detached from modern ideas. So-called "assimilationist" Jews desired complete integration into European society. They were willing to downplay their Jewish identity and in some cases to abandon traditional views and opinions in an attempt at modernization and assimilation into the modern world. A less extreme form of assimilation was called cultural synthesis. Those in favor of cultural synthesis desired continuity and only moderate evolution, and were concerned that Jews should not lose their identity as a people. "Cultural synthesists" emphasized both a need to maintain traditional Jewish values and faith and a need to conform to a modernist society, for instance, in complying with work days and rules.^[38]

In 1975, the [United Nations General Assembly](#) passed [Resolution 3379](#), which designated Zionism as "a form of racism and racial discrimination". The resolution was repealed in 1991 by replacing Resolution 3379 with [Resolution 46/86](#).^[citation needed]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

B3 ARAB REVOLT

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Hussein bin Ali al-Hashimi ([Arabic](#): الحسين بن علي الهاشمي, [romanized](#): *al-Ḥusayn bin ‘Alī al-Hāshimī*; 1 May 1854 – 4 June 1931) was an [Arab](#) leader from the [Banu Hashim](#) clan who was the [Sharif and Emir of Mecca](#) from 1908 and, after proclaiming the [Great Arab Revolt](#) against the [Ottoman Empire](#),^[2] [King of the Hejaz](#), even if he refused this title,^[3] from 1916 to 1924. He proclaimed himself [Caliph](#)^{[4][5][6]} after the [abolition of the Ottoman Caliphate](#) in 1924 and stayed in power until 1925 when Hejaz was [invaded](#) by the [Saudis](#).^[7] He is usually considered as the father of [pan-Arabism](#).^{[8][9]}

He was a [37th-generation direct descendant](#) of [Muhammad](#) via [Hasan ibn Ali](#), as he belonged to the [Hashemite](#) family.^[4]

In 1908, in the aftermath of the [Young Turk Revolution](#), he was appointed Sharif of Mecca by the [Ottoman sultan Abdul Hamid II](#).

In 1916, with the promise of British support for Arab independence, he proclaimed the [Arab Revolt](#) against the [Ottoman Empire](#), accusing the [Committee of Union and Progress](#) of violating tenets of Islam and limiting the power of the sultan-caliph.^[10] In the [aftermath of World War I](#), Hussein refused to ratify the [Treaty of Versailles](#), in protest at the [Balfour Declaration](#) and the establishment of British and French [mandates](#) in [Syria](#), [Iraq](#), and [Palestine](#). He later refused to sign the Anglo-Hashemite Treaty and thus deprived himself of British support when his kingdom was attacked by [Ibn Saud](#).

In March 1924, when [the Ottoman Caliphate was abolished](#), Hussein [proclaimed himself](#) "Caliph of all [Muslims](#)". His sons [Faisal](#) and [Abdullah](#) were made rulers of Iraq and [Transjordan](#) respectively in 1921. In October 1924, facing defeat by Ibn Saud, he abdicated and was succeeded as king by his eldest son [Ali](#). After the Kingdom of Hejaz was invaded by the [Al Saud-Wahhabi](#) armies of the [Ikhwan](#), on 23 December 1925 King Hussein bin Ali surrendered to the Saudis, bringing the Kingdom of Hejaz, the [Sharifate of Mecca](#) and the [Sharifian Caliphate](#) to an end.^{[note 1][11]}

He went into exile to [Cyprus](#), where the [British](#) kept him prisoner until twenty days before his death, when he was allowed to go back to [Amman](#), next to his son [Abdallah I of Jordan](#).^[12] There, he died on June 4, 1931. He was buried as a Caliph in the [Al-Aqsa mosque](#) compound.^[13]

His Caliphate was opposed by the [British Empire](#), the [Zionists](#)^[14] and the [Wahhabis](#) alike.^[15] However, he received support from a large part of the Muslim population of that time^{[16][17][18][19]} and from [Mehmed VI](#).^[20]

B4 WORLD WAR 1 – HUSSEIN BIN ALI, KING OF HEJAZ

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Hussein bin Ali al-Hashimi ([Arabic](#): الحسين بن علي الهاشمي, [romanized](#): *al-Ḥusayn bin ‘Alī al-Hāshimī*; 1 May 1854 – 4 June 1931) was an [Arab](#) leader from the [Banu Hashim](#) clan who was the [Sharif and Emir of Mecca](#) from 1908 and, after proclaiming the [Great Arab Revolt](#) against the [Ottoman Empire](#),^[2] [King of the Hejaz](#), even if he refused this title,^[3] from 1916 to 1924. He proclaimed himself [Caliph](#)^{[4][5][6]} after the [abolition of the Ottoman Caliphate](#) in 1924 and stayed in power until 1925 when Hejaz was [invaded](#) by the [Saudis](#).^[7] He is usually considered as the father of [pan-Arabism](#).^{[8][9]}

He was a [37th-generation direct descendant](#) of [Muhammad](#) via [Hasan ibn Ali](#), as he belonged to the [Hashemite](#) family.^[4]

In 1908, in the aftermath of the [Young Turk Revolution](#), he was appointed Sharif of Mecca by the [Ottoman sultan Abdul Hamid II](#).

In 1916, with the promise of British support for Arab independence, he proclaimed the [Arab Revolt](#) against the [Ottoman Empire](#), accusing the [Committee of Union and Progress](#) of violating tenets of Islam and limiting the power of the sultan-caliph.^[10] In the [aftermath of World War I](#), Hussein refused to ratify the [Treaty of Versailles](#), in protest at the [Balfour Declaration](#) and the establishment of British and French [mandates](#) in [Syria](#), [Iraq](#), and [Palestine](#). He later refused to sign the Anglo-Hashemite Treaty and thus deprived himself of British support when his kingdom was attacked by [Ibn Saud](#).

In March 1924, when [the Ottoman Caliphate was abolished](#), Hussein [proclaimed himself](#) "Caliph of all [Muslims](#)". His sons [Faisal](#) and [Abdullah](#) were made rulers of Iraq and [Transjordan](#) respectively in 1921. In October 1924, facing defeat by Ibn Saud, he abdicated and was succeeded as king by his eldest son [Ali](#). After the Kingdom of Hejaz was invaded by the [Al Saud-Wahhabi](#) armies of the [Ikhwan](#), on 23 December 1925 King Hussein bin Ali surrendered to the Saudis, bringing the Kingdom of Hejaz, the [Sharifate of Mecca](#) and the [Sharifian Caliphate](#) to an end.^{[note 1][11]}

He went into exile to [Cyprus](#), where the [British](#) kept him prisoner until twenty days before his death, when he was allowed to go back to [Amman](#), next to his son [Abdallah I of Jordan](#).^[12] There, he died on June 4, 1931. He was buried as a Caliph in the [Al-Aqsa mosque](#) compound.^[13]

His Caliphate was opposed by the [British Empire](#), the [Zionists](#)^[14] and the [Wahhabis](#) alike.^[15] However, he received support from a large part of the Muslim population of that time^{[16][17][18][19]} and from [Mehmed VI](#).^[20]

[**CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING**](#)

B5 INTERCOMMUNAL CONFLICT IN MANDATORY PALESTINE

WIKIPEDIA

GO TO [WIKIPEDIA](#) to use
graphics links

The **intercommunal conflict in Mandatory Palestine** was the civil, political and armed struggle between [Palestinian Arabs](#) and Jewish [Yishuv](#) during the British rule in Mandatory Palestine, beginning from the violent spillover of the [Franco-Syrian War](#) in 1920 and until the onset of the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#).

BACKGROUND

Zionist Movement During Ottoman Period

Zionist leaders and advocates followed conditions in the land of Israel closely and travelled there regularly. Their concern, however, was entirely with the future of Jewish settlement. The future of the land's Arab inhabitants concerned them as little as the welfare of the Jews concerned Arab leaders. During the movement's formative stages, Zionist negotiators with stronger political powers (such as the British) corresponded enthusiastically while remaining silent about the inhabitants of Palestine, who numbered just under half a million during the late 19th century.^[1]

According to [Anita Shapira](#), among 19th and early 20th century Zionists:

The Arabs in Palestine were viewed as one more of the many misfortunes present in Palestine, like the Ottoman authorities, the climate, difficulties of adjustment, ... [T]he Zionist organization did not discuss this issue during that period and did not formulate a political line on it. Yet at that particular

juncture in the movement such deliberations ... had about the same importance as

Intercommunal violence in Mandatory Palestine



Arab insurgents during the 1936–39 Arab Revolt in Mandatory Palestine

Date 1 March 1920 – 14 May 1948
(28 years, 2 months, 1 week and 6 days)

Location Mandatory Palestine

Belligerents

<div> Jewish National Council (Yishuv)</div> <ul style="list-style-type: none">  Haganah <ul style="list-style-type: none"> FOSH Peulot Meyuhadot Irgun (1931-48) Lehi (1940-48) 	<div> Arab Higher Committee (Palestinian Arabs):</div> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fasa'il (1936-39) Army of the Holy War (1947-48) Arab Liberation Army (1947-48) Central Committee of National Jihad in Palestine (1937-39) Jihadist groups: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Black Hand (1929-1935) 	<div> United Kingdom</div> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> British Army Palestine Police Force Jewish Settlement Police Jewish Supernumerary Police Special Night Squads
--	---	---

the learned disputations customarily held in the courtyards of Hassidic rebbes regarding what would happen after the coming of the messiah.^[2]



The Life of the Jews in Palestine, a Russian documentary film by Noah Sokolovsky presented at the 11th Zionist congress in 1913.

What thought Zionists did give to Arab national rights was perhaps typified by this passage by [Israel Zangwill](#), written just after the [First World War](#): 'The Arabs should recognize that the road of renewed national glory lies through Baghdad, Damascus and Mecca, and all the vast territories freed for them from the Turks and be content. ... The powers that freed them have surely the right to ask them not to grudge the petty strip (Israel) necessary for the renaissance of a still more down-trodden people.'^[3] Thus from the beginning Zionists saw the Arab residents of Palestine as part of a larger Arab nation.^[4]

[Menachem Ussishkin](#) and [Ber Borochov](#), Zionist leaders in the Diaspora and, according to Anita Shapira, unfamiliar with true Arab attitudes, expressed their belief that the Palestinian Arabs would be assimilated by the Jews. Since the Jews were further developed, they would take the lead in the development of the country and the Arabs would subject themselves to Jewish cultural influence and assimilate. Borochov also said that the Arabs were a "people akin to us in blood and spirit", and embraced the concept of the brotherhood between all the descendants of Shem as the basis of his outlook. According to Shapira, this approach was part of a campaign of self-persuasion that the Arabs would not threaten the realisation of Zionist aims.^[5]

According to [Jonah Frankel](#), the immigrants of the [Second Aliyah](#) had a strong secular and nationalist ethos. The attitude towards the Arabs took many forms, however. On one pole there were those like Yitshak Epstein and Rabi Binyamin, who held that Zionism should not antagonise the Arabs. Epstein advocated settlement only in areas unworked by the Arabs. Rabi Binyamin held that modern education, full equality and modernisation would bring the Arabs to accept massive Jewish immigration. On the other pole there were those who assumed that in order to reach their goal the Zionists would have to defeat violent Arab resistance. Brenner wrote "There is now, there is bound to be, hatred between [Jews and Arabs], and it will exist in the future too.". A mythology connecting descent to land was often a theme for them. For instance K.L. Silman wrote:

We shed our blood and we live here. Our life is the continuation of the past and so too is the spilt blood. A nation does not build its life except on the foundations of its past and blood is joined to blood.

According to Zerubavel^[who?], to advocate relaxation and make concessions towards the Arabs was to follow the Galut (exile) mentality. According to Frankel, this kind of mythology was an important part of the Second aliyah's political legacy.^[6]

In response to Arab attacks under the Turks, the Zionists in Palestine established [Hashomer](#) (the Guardian), a self-defence organisation.

Arab Nationalism and Arab Response to Zionism

Under the Ottomans, Palestine's Arab population mostly saw themselves as Ottoman subjects, or religiously (either Muslim or Christian) throughout most of the 19th century.^[citation needed]

In 1856, the Ottomans issued the [Hatt-i Humayun](#), guaranteeing equal rights for all Ottoman subjects. Despite this, Muslims still viewed Jews as [dhimmis](#): people protected by, but subordinate to Muslims. This changed when, due to Jewish immigration and land purchase in the late 19th century, they realised that Zionism wanted to make a Jewish state in Palestine. Both Palestinian Christians and Muslims were worried.^[7]

In 1897, an Arab commission was formed in Jerusalem, headed by the [mufti](#), to investigate land sales to Jews. Its protests led to the cessation of these sales for a number of years. Arab peasants usually protested if Jewish landowners ousted them from their homes, and violence and armed resistance did occur. However Jewish landownership was accepted if the peasants were permitted to stay.^[8]

Yusuf al-Khalidi, a prominent Jerusalemite, wrote to the chief rabbi of France that the implementation of Zionism would require "brute force". Rashid Rida stated in 1902 that Zionism did not simply seek a safe haven for the Jews, but aimed at national sovereignty. [Naguib Azoury](#), a Maronite Christian from Beirut, predicted violent clashes between Arabs and Jews in Palestine.^[9]

After the [Young Turk Revolution](#) in 1908, Arab nationalism grew rapidly in the area and most Arab nationalists regarded Zionism as a threat, although a minority perceived Zionism as providing a path to modernity.^[10] According to C. D. Smith, this was due to the emergence of Labour Zionism, which openly opposed Jewish employment of Arabs, condemned leaving Arab peasants on land held by Jews, and aimed at a separate Jewish entity in Palestine. Since these issues were discussed in the Jewish press, they also became known to Palestinian Arabs, especially after a Palestinian Arab press had appeared. The two most anti-Zionist newspapers [Al-Karmil](#), founded in 1908 in Haifa, and [Filastin](#), founded in 1911 in Jaffa, were run by Orthodox Christians. In the Ottoman parliament in Istanbul, Palestinian representatives called for greater Ottoman vigilance against Zionism.^[9]

[Yosef Gorny](#) investigated the ideological characteristics of Zionism in the Jewish-Arab confrontation in his book *Zionism and the Arabs, 1882–1948*. He says two ideological questions were important. The first was whether the Palestinian Arabs were part of a greater Arab nation or constituted a separate Palestinian national entity. The second was to what extent Zionism could base its demands on historical rights. Zionism's aim "to construct in Palestine a distinct Jewish national society" meant that it also honoured certain principles that affected its attitude towards the Arabs. Gorny distinguishes the "desire for *territorial concentration* of the Jewish people in Palestine", the "desire to create a *Jewish majority* in Palestine", the "belief that exclusive employment of Jewish labour was the precondition for an independent Jewish society", and the "renaissance of Hebrew culture [as] a pre-condition for the rebirth of the nation".^[11]

Gorny also distinguishes several important developments that had their bearing on the confrontation and the Zionists' attitude. Up to 1917, Zionism was tolerated as a national movement in the Ottoman Empire. After 1917, Palestine became a Mandate administrated by the British, and the right of the Jewish people to a national homeland in Palestine was recognised by the British and the League of Nations. In 1948, the state of Israel was established. Simultaneously, the Palestine problem became an ever more important subject for Jews, Arabs and the international community. During this period the demographic balance changed from one Jew in every 23 inhabitants in 1880 to one Jew in every three inhabitants in 1947 (see table). Finally, Gorny says the uneven pace of Westernization gave the Jewish society a technological and organizational advantage. Jewish society was mainly urban, Arab society mainly rural.^[13]

Demographics in Palestine^[12]

year	Jews	Arabs
1800	6,700	268,000
1880	24,000	525,000
1915	87,500	590,000
1931	174,000	837,000
1947	630,000	1,310,000

In his book *Zionism and the Palestinians*, Flapan distinguishes six basic concepts of Zionism's policy toward the Arabs:

- (1) gradual build-up of an economic and military potential as the basis for achievement of political aims,
- (2) alliance with a great power external to the Middle East;
- (3) non-recognition of the existence of a Palestine national entity;
- (4) Zionism's civilising mission in an undeveloped area;
- (5) economic, social and cultural segregation as prerequisites for the renaissance of Jewish national life;
- (6) the concept of 'peace from strength'.^[14]

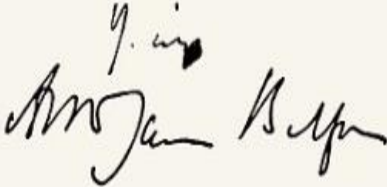

[Norman Finkelstein](#) says the "strategic consensus [in the Zionist movement] on the Arab Question was remarkable". This consensus was informed by three premises: (1) "the Zionist movement should neither expect, nor seek the acquiescence of the Palestinian Arabs"; (2) "the success of the Zionist enterprise was dependent on the support of one (or more) Great Power(s)"; (3) the Palestine conflict should be resolved within the framework of a regional alliance subordinate to the interests of the Great Power(s)".^[15]

In line with earlier promises^{[\[citation needed\]](#)} by Ben-Gurion, Israel's [Declaration of Independence](#) states that "[Israel] will ensure complete equality of social and political rights to all its inhabitants irrespective of religion, race or sex."^{[\[16\]](#)}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

B6 BALFOUR DECLARATION

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

<div style="text-align: center; background-color: #f0f0f0; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> Balfour Declaration </div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 10px;"> Foreign Office, November 2nd, 1917. </div> <p>Dear Lord Rothschild,</p> <p>I have much pleasure in conveying to you, on behalf of His Majesty's Government, the following declaration of sympathy with Jewish Zionist aspirations which has been submitted to, and approved by, the Cabinet</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">His Majesty's Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country"</p> <p>I should be grateful if you would bring this declaration to the knowledge of the Zionist Federation.</p> <div style="text-align: right; margin-top: 20px;">  </div>	<div style="background-color: #fff9c4; padding: 10px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> The original letter from Balfour to Rothschild; the declaration reads: </div> <div style="padding: 10px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <p>His Majesty's Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country.</p> </div> <div style="margin-bottom: 10px;"> Created 2 November 1917 Location British Library Author(s) Walter Rothschild, Arthur Balfour, Leo Amery, Lord Milner Signatories Arthur James Balfour Purpose Confirming support from the British government for the establishment in Palestine of a "national home" for the Jewish people, with two conditions </div> <div style="background-color: #f0f0f0; padding: 5px; text-align: center; margin-bottom: 10px;"> Full Text </div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 10px;">  Balfour Declaration at Wikisource </div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; text-align: center; margin-bottom: 10px;"> Go to WIKIPEDIA to access links </div>
---	---

The **Balfour Declaration** was a public statement issued by the British government in 1917 during the [First World War](#) announcing its support for the establishment of a "national home for the Jewish people" in [Palestine](#), then an [Ottoman](#) region with a small minority [Jewish](#) population. The declaration was contained in a letter dated 2 November 1917 from the United Kingdom's [Foreign Secretary Arthur Balfour](#) to [Lord Rothschild](#), a leader of the [British Jewish community](#), for transmission to the [Zionist Federation of Great Britain and Ireland](#). The text of the declaration was published in the press on 9 November 1917.

Immediately following their declaration of war on the Ottoman Empire in November 1914, the [British War Cabinet](#) began to consider the future of Palestine; within two months [a memorandum was circulated to the Cabinet](#) by a Zionist Cabinet member, [Herbert Samuel](#), proposing the support of Zionist ambitions in order to enlist the support of Jews in the wider war. [A committee](#) was established in April 1915 by [British Prime Minister H. H. Asquith](#) to determine their policy towards the [Ottoman Empire](#) including Palestine. Asquith, who had favoured post-war reform of the Ottoman Empire, resigned in December 1916; his replacement [David Lloyd George](#) favoured partition of the Empire. The first negotiations between the British and the [Zionists](#) took place at a conference on 7 February 1917 that included [Sir Mark Sykes](#) and the Zionist leadership. Subsequent discussions led to Balfour's request, on 19 June, that Rothschild and [Chaim Weizmann](#) submit a draft of a public declaration. Further drafts were discussed by the British Cabinet during September and October, with input from Zionist and [anti-Zionist](#) Jews but with no representation from the local population in Palestine.

By late 1917, in the lead-up to the Balfour Declaration, the wider war had reached a stalemate, with two of [Britain's allies](#) not fully engaged: the United States had yet to suffer a casualty, and the Russians were in the midst of a [revolution](#) with [Bolsheviks](#) taking over the government. A [stalemate in southern Palestine](#) was broken by the [Battle of Beersheba](#) on 31 October 1917. The release of the final declaration was authorised on 31 October; the preceding Cabinet discussion had referenced perceived propaganda benefits amongst the worldwide Jewish community for the Allied war effort.

The opening words of the declaration represented the first public expression of support for Zionism by a major political power. The term "national home" had no precedent in international law, and was intentionally vague as to whether a [Jewish state](#) was contemplated. The intended boundaries of Palestine were not specified, and the British government later confirmed that the words "in Palestine" meant that the Jewish national home was not intended to cover all of Palestine. The second half of the declaration was added to satisfy opponents of the policy, who had claimed that it would otherwise prejudice the position of the local population of Palestine and encourage [antisemitism](#) worldwide by "stamping the Jews as strangers in their native lands". The declaration called for safeguarding the civil and religious rights for the [Palestinian Arabs](#), who composed the [vast majority of the local population](#), and also the rights and political status of the Jewish communities in other countries outside of Palestine. The British government acknowledged in 1939 that the local population's views should have been taken into account, and recognised in 2017 that the declaration should have called for the protection of the Palestinian Arabs' political rights.

The declaration had many long-lasting consequences. It greatly increased popular support for [Zionism](#) within [Jewish communities worldwide](#), and became a core component of the [British Mandate for Palestine](#), the founding document of [Mandatory Palestine](#). It is considered a principal cause of the ongoing [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#), often described as the world's most intractable conflict. Controversy remains over a number of areas, such as whether the declaration contradicted earlier promises the British made to [the Sharif of Mecca](#) in the [McMahon–Hussein correspondence](#).

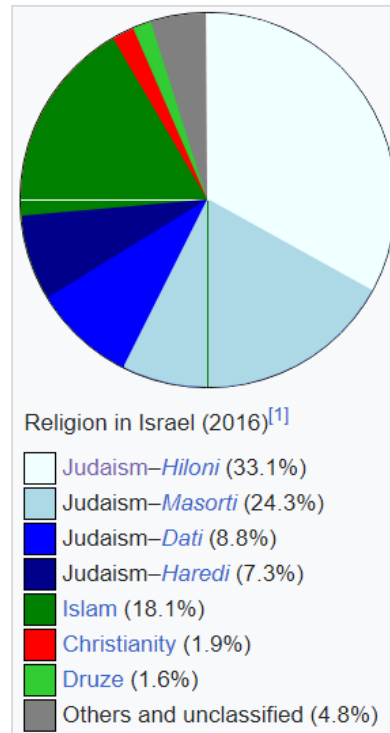
[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

C RELIGION

C1 RELIGION IN ISRAEL

See also [Religious Relations in Israel](#)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Religion in Israel is manifested primarily in [Judaism](#), the [ethnic religion](#) of the [Jewish people](#). The [State of Israel](#) declares itself as a "[Jewish and democratic state](#)" and is the only country in the world with a Jewish-majority population (see [Jewish state](#)).^[2] Other faiths in the country include [Islam](#) (predominantly [Sunni](#)), [Christianity](#) (mostly [Melkite](#) and [Orthodox](#)) and the religion of the [Druze people](#). Religion plays a central role in national and civil life, and almost all [Israeli citizens](#) are automatically registered as members of the state's [14 official religious communities](#), which exercise control over several matters of personal status, especially [marriage](#). These recognized communities are [Orthodox Judaism](#) (administered by the [Chief Rabbinate](#)), [Islam](#), the [Druze faith](#), the [Roman](#), [Armenian Catholic](#), [Maronite](#), [Greek Catholic](#), [Syriac Catholic](#), [Chaldean](#), [Greek Orthodox](#), [Syriac Orthodox](#), [Armenian Apostolic](#) and [Anglican](#) churches, and the [Bahá'í Faith](#).^[3]

The religious affiliation of the Israeli population as of 2022 was 73.6% Jewish, 18.1% [Muslim](#), 1.9% [Christian](#), and 1.6% [Druze](#). The remaining 4.8% included faiths such as [Samaritanism](#) and [Bahá'í](#), as well as "religiously unclassified".^[4] While [Jewish Israelis](#) are all technically under the jurisdiction of the state Orthodox rabbinate,^[5] personal attitudes vary immensely, from extreme Orthodoxy to [irreligion and atheism](#).

Jews in Israel mainly classify themselves along a fourfold axis, from least to most observant, *hiloni* (lit. 'secular'); *masorti* (lit. 'traditional'); *dati* (lit. 'religious' or 'orthodox', including religious Zionist); and *haredi* (lit. 'ultra-religious' or 'ultra-orthodox').^{[6][7]}

Israeli law guarantees considerable privileges and freedom to practice for the recognized communities,^{[8][9]} but, in tandem, does not necessarily do so for other faiths. The Pew Research Center has identified Israel as one of the countries that place "high restrictions" on the free exercise of religion^[10] and there have been limits placed on non-Orthodox Jewish religious movements, which are unrecognized.^{[11][12]} Pew ranked Israel as fifth globally in terms of "inter-religious tension and violence".^[13]

RELIGIOUS SELF-DEFINITION

A Gallup survey in 2015 determined that 65% of Israelis say they are either "not religious" or "convinced atheists", while 30% say they are "religious". Israel is in the middle of the international religiosity scale, between Thailand, the world's most religious country, and China, the least religious.^[14]

As of 1999, 65% of Israeli Jews believed in God,^[15] and 85% participated in a Passover seder.^[16] A survey conducted in 2009 showed that 80% of Israeli Jews believed in God, with 46% of them self-reporting as secular.^[17] Israelis' majority (2/3) tend not to align themselves with Jewish religious movements (such as Reform Judaism or Conservative Judaism), but instead tend to define their religious affiliation by degree of their religious practice.^[18]

As of 2009, 42% of Israeli Jews defined themselves as "secular"; on the other opposite, 8% defined themselves as *haredi* (ultra-orthodox); an additional 12% as "religious"; 13% as "traditional (religious)"; and 25% as "traditional (non-religious)".^[19]

In 2022, 45% of Israel Jews self-identified as "secular"; 10% as *haredi* (ultra-orthodox); 33% as *masorti* (lit. 'traditional'); and 12% as *dati* (lit. 'religious' or 'orthodox', including religious Zionist).

Of the Arab Israelis, as of 2008, 82.7% were Muslims, 8.4% were Druze, and 8.3% were Christians.^[4] Just over 80% of Christians are Arabs, and the majority of the remaining are immigrants from the former Soviet Union who immigrated with a Jewish relative. About 81% of Christian births are to Arab women.^[20]

Among the Arab population, a 2010 research showed that 8% defined themselves as very religious, 47% as religious, 27% as not very religious, and 18% as not religious.^[21]

• [CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

C2 RELIGIOUS RELATIONS IN ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Religious relations in Israel are relations between [Haredim](#), non-Haredi [Orthodox](#), [Karaite](#), [Ethiopian](#), Reform, Conservative, and secular Jews, as well as relations between different religions represented in Israel. The religious [status quo](#), agreed to by [David Ben-Gurion](#) with the Orthodox parties at the time of Israel's declaration of independence in 1948, is an agreement on the role that Judaism would play in Israel's government and the judicial system. Tensions exist between religious and secular groups in Israel.

BACKGROUND

As of 2010, 8% of Israel's Jewish population above the age of 20 defines itself as [Haredi](#) (sometimes referred to as ultra-Orthodox), 12% as [religious](#) (generally Orthodox), 13% as traditional-religious, 25% as traditional, and 42% as secular. Among the Arab population, 8% define themselves as very religious, 47% as religious, 27% as not very religious, and 18% as not religious.^[1]

For those under the age of 20, in Jewish secondary schools, 20.2% are Haredi, 17.3% are religious, and 62.5% are non-religious.^[2] In primary school, 28.9% are Haredi, 18.5% religious, and 52.6% are non-religious.^[3]

RELATIONS WITHIN THE JEWISH COMMUNITY

See also: [State religion](#) and [Haredim and Zionism](#)

The State of Israel allows freedom of religion for all religious communities, both in law and in practice. [Freedom House](#) reports that in Israel: "Freedom of religion is respected. Each community has jurisdiction over its own members in matters of marriage, burial, and divorce." Religious tensions exist between Jewish [Haredi](#) Israelis and Jewish non-*Haredi* Israelis. *Haredi* Israeli males devote their young adulthood to full-time [Talmudic](#) studies and therefore generally get exemptions from military service in the [Israel Defense Forces](#) (IDF). Originally the exemption from uniform conscription was intended to apply to a small number of elite religious students. Many leaders of *Haredi* [yeshivas](#) encourage students to apply for exemptions from service, ostensibly to protect them from the secularizing environment of the IDF. Over the years, the number of exemptions has grown to about 10% of conscriptable manpower. Many secular Israelis consider the system of exemptions to be systematic shirking of duty to serve in the IDF by a large segment of society.

Haredi couples tend to marry young and often rely on government assistance sooner and to a greater extent than do secular Israelis. *Haredi* Israelis are also represented by *Haredi* political parties, which like all smaller parties in a system of [proportional representation](#) may tend to wield disproportionate political power at the point when government coalitions need to be negotiated and formed following national elections.^[further explanation needed]

As of June 2008, the two main Haredi parties in the [Knesset](#) are [Shas](#), representing [Sephardi](#) and [Mizrahi](#) interests, and [United Torah Judaism](#), an alliance of [Degel HaTorah](#) (Lithuanian Haredi) and [Agudath Yisrael](#). Secular Israelis often view *Haredi* Israelis with distrust or animosity. The [Shinui](#) party was created as a backlash to the perceived influence of the *Haredi* parties, and to represent the interests of secular Jews that supposedly were not seen to by the other non-religious parties.

Tension also exists between the [Orthodox](#) establishment and the [Conservative](#) and [Reform](#) movements. Only Orthodox Judaism is officially recognized in Israel (though conversions conducted by Conservative and Reform clergy outside of Israel may be accepted for the purposes of the [Law of Return](#)). As a result, Conservative and Reform synagogues receive minimal government funding and support. In the past, Conservative and Reform rabbis cannot officiate at religious ceremonies, and any marriages, divorces, and conversions they perform are not considered valid. Conservative and Reform Jews have been prohibited from holding services at the Western Wall on the grounds that they violate Orthodox norms regarding participation of women. Tensions surrounding practices at the Kotel have received international attention and have resulted in the formation of a group, [Women of the Wall](#), dedicated to ensuring that Jewish women are allowed to pray at the Kotel in their fashion.

Tensions Between Haredim and Secular Jews



[Meah Shearim](#) neighborhood,
[Jerusalem](#)

The Haredi community in Israel has adopted a policy of cultural dissociation, but at the same time, it has struggled to remain politically active, perceiving itself as the true protector of the country's Jewish nature.

The issues date to the late nineteenth-early twentieth century, with the rise of [Zionism](#). The vast majority of Haredi Jews rejected Zionism for a number of reasons. Chief among these was the claim that Jewish political independence could only be obtained through Divine intervention, with the coming of the [Jewish Messiah](#). Any attempt to force history was seen as an open rebellion against Judaism (for a more complete exposition of this ideology see [Three Oaths](#); [Vayoel Moshe](#); [Neturei Karta](#)).

More important was the dislike that the political and cultural Zionism of the time felt toward any manifestation of religion. Influenced by [socialism](#), secular Zionists looked on religion as an outdated relic, which should disappear (or, according to some extreme views, even be eradicated) in favor of Jewish nationalism. As with the nineteenth century [Reform Judaism](#) movement in [Germany](#), the result was mutual

recriminations, rejection, and harsh verbal attacks. To Zionists, Haredi Jews were either "primitives" or "parasites"; to Haredi Jews, Zionists were tyrannizing heretics. This cultural conflict still plagues Israeli society today, where animosity between the two groups has even pervaded both their educational systems.

Despite the animosity, it was necessary for the two groups to work out some [modus vivendi](#) in the face of a more dangerous enemy, the [Nazis](#). This was achieved by a division of powers and authority, based on the division that existed during the British Mandate in the country. Known as the "status quo", it granted political authority (such as control over public institutions, the army, etc.) to the then-secular Zionist establishment, and religious authority (such as control over marriage, divorce, conversions, etc.) to the Orthodox. A compromise worked out by Labor Zionist leader [Berl Katznelson](#) even before statehood ensured that public institutions accommodate the Orthodox by observing the Sabbath and providing kosher food.

Notwithstanding these compromises, many Haredi groups maintained their previous apolitical stance. The community had split into two parts: [Agudat Israel](#), which cooperated with the state, and the [Edah HaChareidis](#), which fiercely opposed it. Both groups still exist today, with the same attitudes. The Edah HaChareidis includes a number of Hasidic groups, such as [Satmar](#), [Dushinsky](#), and [Toldos Aharon](#), as well as several non-Hasidic groups of Lithuanian and Hungarian background.

A small minority of Jews, who claim to have been descended from communities who had lived peacefully with their Arab neighbors during the 18th and early 19th centuries, took a different stance. In 1935, they formed a new grouping called the [Neturei Karta](#) out of a coalition of several previous anti-Zionist Jewish groups in the Holy Land, and aligned themselves politically with the Arabs out of a dislike for Zionist policies.

In 2010, the [Sephardic Haredi](#) political party [Shas](#) broke ranks with the aforementioned Ashkenazi Haredi organizations and joined the [World Zionist Organization](#), becoming the first officially Zionist Haredi political party.^[4]

As part of the [Status Quo Agreement](#) worked out between prime minister [David Ben-Gurion](#) and the religious parties, Haredi leader Rabbi [Avraham Yeshayah Karelitz](#) (known as the *Chazon Ish*) was promised that the government would exempt a group of religious scholars (at that time, 400) from [compulsory military service](#) so that they could pursue their studies.

Finally, the [Agudat Israel](#) party, supported by much of the Haredi population, was invited to participate in the governing coalition. It agreed, but did not appoint any ministers, since that would have implied participation in non-religious actions taken by the government.

Haredim proved to be able politicians, gradually increasing their leverage and influence. In addition, the Haredi population grew substantially, giving them a larger power base. From a small group of just four members in the 1977 [Knesset](#), they gradually increased the number of seats they hold to 22 (out of 120) in 1999. In effect, they controlled the balance of power between the country's two major parties.

In the early 1980s, the [Shas](#) party of [Sephardic Haredim](#) was set up. Shas appealed to Sephardim who felt marginalized by the dominant Ashkenazi Zionist establishment. In 1999, Shas gained 17 Knesset seats (other Haredim won 5 seats). Taking the attitude that restoring Sephardic pride and restoring Sephardic religious observance are one and the same, Shas has created devoted cadres of newly religious and semi-religious men and women with the zeal of neophytes and an animosity toward the country's secular European political establishment. Furthermore, the movement has shown unwavering and determined obedience in its supporters to the teachings of its spiritual leader, [Rabbi Ovadiah Yosef](#).

The Haredim are often at odds with the [Supreme Court of Israel](#), which does not base its rulings on halachic beliefs or policy. A notable case of this trend is the "[Who Is a Jew?](#)" case, in which the Supreme Court ruled that the Ministry of the Interior (then controlled by [Shas](#)) must recognize Reform and Conservative converts to Judaism. In many instances, the Haredim have responded to these perceived threats angrily, verbally defending against their opponents. At the same time, they recognize the animosity many secular Israelis feel toward them, and have embarked on various public relations campaigns and other media projects to improve their image among the general public. In practice, the Israeli Haredim remain firmly entrenched in seats of political power befitting their voting strength, with both blocs doing everything they can to gain their support.[\[citation needed\]](#)

Following the 2003 elections, the Haredi parties lost their place in the government to the secular anti-religious [Shinui](#) party. In 2005, Shinui left the government and [Ariel Sharon](#) brought the Haredi [United Torah Judaism](#) party into his ruling coalition. Shinui advocates stopping extra funding to mostly Haredi schools and resistance to [Tal Law](#), which gives legal status to their exemption from military service. Nevertheless, in recent years as many as 1,000 Haredi Jews have chosen to volunteer to serve in the [IDF](#), in a Haredi Jewish unit, the [Netzah Yehuda Battalion](#), also known as Nahal Haredi. (The vast majority of Haredi men, however, continue to receive deferments from military service.[\[5\]](#))

The Haredim are relatively poor, compared to other Israelis, but represent an important market sector.[\[6\]\[7\]](#) Consequently, the Israeli Haredim "probably spend more time in formal study than any other class of humans ever has in the history of the planet".[\[8\]](#) "More than 50 percent live below the poverty line and get state allowances, compared with 15 percent of the rest of the population..."[\[9\]](#) Their families are also larger, usually having six or seven children.[\[9\]](#)



**Haredim
going to the
synagogue
in [Rehovot, Israel](#).**

In recent years, there has been a process of reconciliation and a merging of Haredi Jews with Israeli society, [\[citation needed\]](#) for example in relation to employment.^[10] While not compromising on religious issues and their strict code of life, Haredi Jews have become more open to the secular [Israeli culture](#).^[citation needed] Haredi Jews, such as satirist [Kobi Arieli](#), publicist [Sehara Blau](#) and politician [Israel Eichler](#) write regularly to leading Israeli newspapers. Another important factor in the reconciliation process has been the activity of [ZAKA](#) – a voluntary rescue organization run by Haredim, which provides emergency first response medical attention at [suicide bombing](#) scenes and retrieves human remains found there to provide proper burial. Another important unifying organization is [Yad Sarah](#), established by [Uri Lupolianski](#) (mayor of [Jerusalem](#) 2003–2009) in 1977. Yad Sarah is the largest national volunteer organization in Israel, with over 6,000 volunteers^{[11][12]} representing all ages and backgrounds, including different socioeconomic sectors and cultural and religious backgrounds.^[13] Yad Sarah provides [free loans](#) of medical and rehabilitative home-care equipment to Jews, Christians, Muslims and Druze,^[14] enabling hundreds of thousands of sick, disabled, elderly and recuperating patients to live at home.^[12] Its menu of free or nominal-fee services also includes oxygen service, wheelchair transportation, national emergency alarm system, services for the homebound, legal aid for the elderly, [geriatric dentistry](#), day rehabilitation centers, a play center for [special needs](#) children, and an education and recreation club for [retirees](#).^{[14][15][16]} Yad Sarah receives no government funding,^{[14][17]} yet saves the country's economy an estimated \$320 million in hospital fees and long-term care costs each year.^{[11][15]}

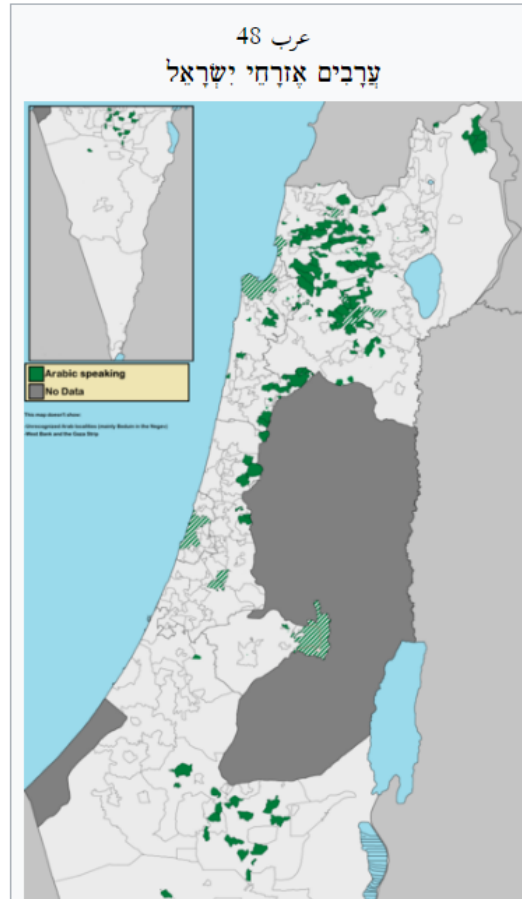
Between Haredi Judaism and National Religious or [Religious Zionist Judaism](#), there is also a category of [Orthodox Jews](#) known as '[Hardalim](#)', who combine Religious Zionism with a stricter adherence to [Halacha](#).

• [CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

C3 ARAB CITIZENS OF ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Arab citizens of Israel



Map of Arabic speakers by locality, 2015

Total population

1,890,000

Over 278,000 in [East Jerusalem](#) and the [Golan Heights](#) (2012)

20.95% of Israeli population (2019)^{[1][2]}

Regions with significant populations

[Israel](#)

Languages

Native: [Levantine Arabic](#) ([Israeli Arabic](#), [Palestinian Arabic](#), [Lebanese Arabic](#), [Bedouin dialects](#)) Secondary Language: [Hebrew](#)

Religion

[Islam](#) 84% (mostly [Sunni](#)), [Christianity](#) 8% and [Druze](#) 8%^[1]

The **Arab citizens of Israel**^[3] are the [largest ethnic minority in the country](#). They comprise a hybrid

community of [Israeli citizens](#) with a heritage of [Palestinian citizenship](#), mixed religions (Muslim, Christian or Druze), bilingual in Arabic and Hebrew, and with varying social identities.^[4] Self-identification as [Palestinian citizens of Israel](#) has sharpened in recent years,^[4] alongside distinct identities including [Galilee](#) and [Negev Bedouin](#), the [Druze people](#), and [Arab Christians](#) and [Arab Muslims](#) who do not identify as Palestinians. In [Arabic](#), commonly used terms to refer to Israel's Arab population include **48-Arab** (48 عرب, *Arab Thamaniya Wa-Arba'in*) and **48-Palestinian** (48 فلسطينيو, *Filastiniyyū Thamaniya Wa-Arba'in*). Since the [Nakba](#), the Palestinians that have remained within [Israel's 1948 borders](#) have been colloquially known as "48-Arabs".^[5] In Israel itself, Arab citizens are commonly referred to as **Israeli-Arabs** or simply as *Arabs*;^{[6][7]} international media often uses the term **Arab-Israeli** to distinguish Arab citizens of Israel from the Palestinian Arabs residing in the [Palestinian territories](#).^[8]

The traditional vernacular of most Arab citizens of Israel, irrespective of their religious affiliation, is [Levantine Arabic](#). This includes [Lebanese Arabic](#) in northern Israel, [Palestinian Arabic](#) in central Israel, and [Bedouin dialects](#) across the [Negev](#); having absorbed many [Hebrew](#) loanwords and phrases, the modern dialect of the Arab citizens of Israel is defined by some as the [Israeli Arabic dialect](#).^[9] Most Arab citizens of Israel are functionally bilingual, with their second language being Hebrew. By religious affiliation, the majority are [Sunni Muslims](#). However, there is a significant [Christian minority](#) from various [Christian denominations](#), as well as a [Druze minority](#), among other ethnic and religious communities.^[10]

According to Israel's [Central Bureau of Statistics](#), the Arab-Israeli population in 2019 was estimated to be around 1,890,000, representing 20.95 percent of the country's population.^[11] The majority of these citizens identify themselves as Arab or Palestinian by nationality and as [Israeli by citizenship](#).^{[11][12][13]} Arab citizens of Israel mostly live in Arab-majority towns and cities, some of which are among the poorest in the country, and generally attend schools that are separated to some degree from those of [Jewish Israelis](#).^[14] Arab political parties traditionally did not join governing coalitions until the [United Arab List](#) became the first to do so in 2021.^[15] Many Arabs have family ties to Palestinians in the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#) as well as to [Palestinian refugees](#) in the neighbouring states of [Jordan](#), [Syria](#), and [Lebanon](#).^[16] 60 percent of Israel's Arab citizens have a positive view of the Israeli state;^[17] the Druze as well as Bedouins in the Negev and the [Galilee](#) tend to identify more as Israelis than other Arab citizens of Israel.^{[18][19][20][21]}

Under [Israeli law](#), Arab residents of [East Jerusalem](#) and Druze residents of the [Golan Heights](#) (both [Israeli-occupied territories](#)) have the right to apply for Israeli citizenship, are entitled to municipal services, and have municipal voting rights; this status is upheld due to Israel's effective annexation of the former through the [Jerusalem Law](#) of 1980 and of the latter through the [Golan Heights Law](#) of 1981.^[22] Both groups have largely foregone applying for Israeli citizenship, with the Palestinians of East Jerusalem and the [Syrians](#) of the Golan Heights mostly holding residency status.

TERMINOLOGY

How to refer to the Arab citizenry of Israel is a highly politicized issue, and there are a number of self-identification labels used by members of this community.^{[23][24]} Generally speaking, supporters of Israel tend

to use *Israeli Arab* or *Arab Israeli* to refer to this population without mentioning Palestine, while critics of Israel (or supporters of Palestinians) tend to use *Palestinian* or *Palestinian Arab* without referencing Israel.^[25] According to [The New York Times](#), most preferred to identify themselves as Palestinian citizens of Israel rather than as Israeli Arabs, as of 2012.^[26] [The New York Times](#) uses both 'Palestinian Israelis'^[27] and 'Israeli Arabs' to refer to the same population.

Common practice in contemporary academic literature is to identify this community as *Palestinian* as it is how the majority self-identify (See [Self-Identification](#) below for more).^[28] Terms preferred by most Arab citizens to identify themselves include *Palestinians*, *Palestinians in Israel*, *Israeli Palestinians*, *the Palestinians of 1948*, *Palestinian Arabs*, *Palestinian Arab citizens of Israel* or *Palestinian citizens of Israel*.^{[11][23][24][29][30][31]} There are, however, individuals from among the Arab citizenry who reject the term *Palestinian* altogether.^[23] A minority of Israel's Arab citizens include "Israeli" in some way in their self-identifying label; the majority identify as [Palestinian](#) by nationality and Israeli by [citizenship](#).^{[12][24]}

The Israeli establishment prefers *Israeli Arabs* or *Arabs in Israel*, and also uses the terms *the minorities*, *the Arab sector*, *Arabs of Israel* and *Arab citizens of Israel*.^{[11][29][30][32][33]} These labels have been criticized for denying this population a political or national identification, obscuring their Palestinian identity and connection to [Palestine](#).^{[30][32][33]} The term *Israeli Arabs* in particular is viewed as a construct of the Israeli authorities.^{[30][32][33][34]} It is nonetheless used by a significant minority of the Arab population, "reflecting its dominance in Israeli social discourse."^[24]

Other terms used to refer to this population include *Palestinian Arabs in Israel*, *Israeli Palestinian Arabs*, *the Arabs inside the Green Line*, and *the Arabs within* ([Arabic](#): عرب الداخل).^{[11][29][32]} The latter two appellations, among others listed above, are not applied to the [East Jerusalem](#) Arab population or the [Druze](#) in the [Golan Heights](#), as these territories were occupied by Israel in 1967. As the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#) defines the area covered in its statistics survey as including East Jerusalem and the Golan Heights, the number of Arabs in Israel is calculated as 20.95% of the Israeli population (2019).^{[1][35]}

HISTORY

1948 Arab–Israeli War

Most Jewish Israelis refer to the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) as the War of Independence, while most Arab citizens refer to it as [al-Nakba](#) (the catastrophe), a reflection of differences in perception of the purpose and outcomes of the war.^{[36][37]}

In the aftermath of the 1947–49 war, the territory previously administered by the [British Empire](#) as [Mandatory Palestine](#) was de facto divided into three parts: the State of Israel, the [Jordanian](#)-held West Bank, and the [Egyptian](#)-held Gaza Strip. Of the estimated 950,000 Arabs that lived in the territory that became Israel before the war,^[38] over 80% fled or were expelled. The other 20%, some 156,000, remained.^[39] Arab citizens of Israel today are largely composed of the people who remained and their descendants. Others include some from the [Gaza Strip](#) and the [West Bank](#) who procured Israeli citizenship

under family-unification provisions made significantly more stringent in the aftermath of the [Second Intifada](#).^[40]

Arabs who left their homes during the period of armed conflict, but remained in what had become Israeli territory, were considered to be "[present absentees](#)". In some cases, they were refused permission to return to their homes, which were [expropriated](#) and turned over to state ownership, as was the property of other [Palestinian refugees](#).^{[41][42]} Some 274,000, or 1 of every 4 Arab citizens of Israel are "present absentees" or [internally displaced Palestinians](#).^{[43][44]} Notable cases of "present absentees" include the residents of [Saffuriyya](#) and the [Galilee](#) villages of [Kafr Bir'im](#) and [Iqrit](#).^[45]

1949–1966

While most Arabs remaining in Israel were granted citizenship, they were subject to martial law in the early years of the state.^{[46][47]} Zionism had given little serious thought as to how to integrate Arabs, and according to [Ian Lustick](#) subsequent policies were 'implemented by a rigorous regime of military rule that dominated what remained of the Arab population in territory ruled by Israel, enabling the state to expropriate most Arab-owned land, severely limit its access to investment capital and employment opportunity, and eliminate virtually all opportunities to use citizenship as a vehicle for gaining political influence'.^[48] Travel permits, curfews, [administrative detentions](#), and expulsions were part of life until 1966. A variety of Israeli legislative measures facilitated the transfer of land abandoned by Arabs to state ownership. These included the [Absentee Property Law of 1950](#) which allowed the state to expropriate the property of Palestinians who fled or were expelled to other countries, and the Land Acquisition Law of 1953 which authorized the Ministry of Finance to transfer expropriated land to the state. Other common legal expedients included the use of emergency regulations to declare land belonging to Arab citizens a closed military zone, followed by the use of Ottoman legislation on abandoned land to take control of the land.^[49]

Arabs who held Israeli citizenship were entitled to vote for the Israeli [Knesset](#). Arab Knesset members have served in office since the [First Knesset](#). The first Arab Knesset members were [Amin-Salim Jarjora](#) and [Seif el-Din el-Zoubi](#) who were members of the [Democratic List of Nazareth](#) party and [Tawfik Toubi](#), member of the [Maki](#) party.

In 1965 a radical independent Arab group called *al-Ard* forming the Arab Socialist List tried to run for [Knesset](#) elections. The list was banned by the [Israeli Central Elections Committee](#).^[50]

In 1966, martial law was lifted completely, and the government set about dismantling most of the discriminatory laws, while Arab citizens were granted the same rights as Jewish citizens under law.^[51]

1967–2000

After the 1967 [Six-Day War](#), Arab citizens were able to contact Palestinians in the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#) for the first time since the establishment of the state. This along with the lifting of military rule, led to increased political activism among Arab citizens.^{[52][53]}

In 1974, a committee of Arab mayors and municipal councilmen was established which played an important role in representing the community and pressuring the Israeli government.^[54] This was followed in 1975 by the formation of the Committee for the Defense of the Land, which sought to prevent continuing land expropriations.^[55] That same year, a political breakthrough took place with the election of Arab poet [Tawfiq Ziad](#), a [Maki](#) member, as mayor of Nazareth, accompanied by a strong communist presence in the town council.^[56] In 1976, six Arab citizens of Israel were killed by Israeli security forces at a protest against land expropriations and house demolitions. The date of the protest, 30 March, has since been commemorated annually as [Land Day](#).

The 1980s saw the birth of the [Islamic Movement](#). As part of a larger trend in the [Arab World](#), the Islamic Movement emphasized moving Islam into the political realm. The Islamic movement built schools, provided other essential social services, constructed mosques, and encouraged prayer and conservative Islamic dress. The Islamic Movement began to affect electoral politics particularly at the local level.^{[57][58]}

Many Arab citizens supported the [First Intifada](#) and assisted Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza, providing them with money, food, and clothes. A number of strikes were also held by Arab citizens in solidarity with Palestinians in the occupied territories.^[57]

The years leading up to the [Oslo Accords](#) were a time of optimism for Arab citizens. During the administration of [Yitzhak Rabin](#), Arab parties played an important role in the formation of a governing coalition. Increased participation of Arab citizens was also seen at the civil society level. However, tension continued to exist with many Arabs calling for Israel to become a "[state of all its citizens](#)", thereby challenging the state's Jewish identity. In the 1999 elections for prime minister, 94% of the Arab electorate voted for [Ehud Barak](#). However, Barak formed a broad left-right-center government without consulting the Arab parties, disappointing the Arab community.^[52]

2000–Present

Tensions between Arabs and the state rose in [October 2000](#) when 12 Arab citizens and one man from Gaza were killed while protesting the government's response to the [Second Intifada](#). In response to this incident, the government established the [Or Commission](#). The events of October 2000 caused many Arabs to question the nature of their Israeli citizenship. To a large extent, they boycotted the [2001 Israeli Elections](#) as a means of protest.^[52] This boycott helped Ariel Sharon defeat Ehud Barak; as aforementioned, in the 1999 elections, 94 percent of Israel's Arab minority had voted for Ehud Barak.^[59] IDF enlistment by [Bedouin](#) citizens of Israel dropped significantly.^[60]

During the [2006 Lebanon War](#), Arab advocacy organizations complained that the Israeli government had invested time and effort to protect Jewish citizens from Hezbollah attacks, but had neglected Arab citizens. They pointed to a dearth of bomb shelters in Arab towns and villages and a lack of basic emergency information in Arabic.^[61] Many Israeli Jews viewed the Arab opposition to government policy and sympathy with the Lebanese as a sign of disloyalty.^[62]

In October 2006, tensions rose when Israeli Prime Minister [Ehud Olmert](#) invited a right-wing political party [Yisrael Beiteinu](#), to join his coalition government. The party leader, [Avigdor Lieberman](#), advocated an ethnicity based territory exchange, the [Lieberman Plan](#), by transferring heavily populated Arab areas (mainly [the Triangle](#)), to Palestinian Authority control and annexing major Jewish Israeli settlement blocs in the West Bank close to the green line as part of a peace proposal.^[63] Arabs who would prefer to remain in Israel instead of becoming citizens of a Palestinian state would be able to move to Israel. All citizens of Israel, whether Jews or Arabs, would be required to pledge an oath of allegiance to retain citizenship. Those who refuse could remain in Israel as permanent residents.^[64]

In January 2007 the first non-Druze Arab minister in Israel's history, [Raleb Majadele](#), was appointed [minister without portfolio](#) ([Salah Tarif](#), a [Druze](#), had been appointed a minister without portfolio in 2001). The appointment was criticized by the left, which felt it was an attempt to cover up the Labor Party's decision to sit with Yisrael Beiteinu in the government, and by the right, who saw it as a threat to Israel's status as a [Jewish state](#).^{[65][66]}

During the [2021 Israel–Palestine crisis](#) widespread protests and riots intensified across Israel, particularly in cities with large Arab populations. In Lod, rocks were thrown at Jewish apartments and some Jewish residents were evacuated from their homes by the police. Synagogues and a Muslim cemetery were vandalized.^[67] Communal violence including "riots, stabbings, arson, attempted home invasions and shootings" was reported from Beersheba, Rahat, Ramla, Lod, Nasiriyah, Tiberias, Jerusalem, Haifa and Acre.^[68]

• [CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

C4 SHIA-SUNNI RELATIONS



This article **may contain an excessive amount of intricate detail that may interest only a particular audience**. Please help by [spinning off](#) or [relocating](#) any relevant information, and removing excessive detail that may be against [Wikipedia's inclusion policy](#). (May 2023) ([Learn how and when to remove this template message](#))

WIKIPEDIA

The origin of **Shia–Sunni relations** can be traced back to a dispute over the [succession](#) to the [Islamic prophet Muhammad](#) as a [caliph](#) of the [Islamic community](#). After the death of Muhammad in 632, a group of Muslims, who would come to be known as the [Sunnis](#), believed that Muhammad's successor should be [Abu Bakr](#), whereas a second group of Muslims, who would come to be known as the Shias, believed that his successor should have been [Ali](#). This dispute spread across various parts of the Muslim world, which eventually led to the [Battle of Jamal](#) and [Battle of Siffin](#). [Sectarianism](#) based on this historic dispute intensified greatly after the [Battle of Karbala](#), in which [Husayn ibn Ali](#) and some of his close partisans, including members and children of the household of prophet (Ahl al bayt), were killed by the ruling Umayyad Caliph [Yazid I](#), and the outcry for revenge divided the early Islamic community, albeit disproportionately, into two groups, the Sunni and the Shia. This is known today as the *Islamic schism*.^[1]

The present demographic breakdown between the two denominations is difficult to assess and varies by source, with most approximations stating that roughly 90% of [the world's Muslims](#) are [Sunni](#) and 10% are [Shia](#); with about 85% of Shias belonging to the [Twelver](#) tradition, and the rest divided between other small groups.^[2] Sunnis are a majority in almost all Muslim communities around the world. Shia make up the majority of the citizen population in [Iran](#), [Iraq](#), [Bahrain](#), and [Azerbaijan](#), as well as being a minority in [Pakistan](#), [Lebanon](#), [Saudi Arabia](#), [Syria](#), [Yemen](#), [Nigeria](#), [Afghanistan](#), [Chad](#) and [Kuwait](#).^{[13][14]}

Today, there are differences in religious practice, traditions, and customs, often related to [jurisprudence](#). Although all Muslim groups consider the [Quran](#) to be divine, Sunni and Shia have different opinions on [hadith](#).

In recent years, Sunni–Shia relations have been increasingly marked by conflict,^[15] particularly the [Iran–Saudi Arabia proxy conflict](#). [Sectarian violence](#) persists to this day from Pakistan to [Yemen](#) and is a major element of friction throughout the [Middle East](#) and [South Asia](#).^{[16][17]} Tensions between communities have intensified during power struggles, such as the [Bahraini uprising](#), the [Iraqi Civil War](#), the [Syrian Civil War](#),^{[18][19][20]} as well as the [War in Iraq \(2013–2017\)](#), during which the self-styled [Islamic State of Iraq and Syria](#) launched a [persecution of Shia](#).

CONFLICTS

Most Shia and Sunni Muslims adhere to the succession of [Ali](#) after [Muhammad](#) as his appointed religious reference, and the other [Rashiduns](#) as the elected rulers of Muslims. These two groups have been living in peace with each other forever. In contrast, some Shias such as [Qizilbash](#)es reject [Abu Bakr](#) caliphate and

the two succeeding caliphs, while some Sunni denominations such as [Wahhabism](#) accept all [Rashiduns](#) as rightful religious references. The historical conflicts have been between these two latter sects, not the former two sects.

NUMBERS

[Sunni Muslims](#) are the vast majority of Muslims in most Muslim communities in [Central Asia](#) (including [China](#)), [Europe](#) (including [Russia](#) and the [Balkans](#)), [South Asia](#), [Southeast Asia](#), [Africa](#), [Arab World](#), [Turkey](#) and among [Muslims in the United States](#).

Shia Muslims make up approximately 10% of the Muslim population.^[21] In Shi'i Islam itself, about 85% are [Twelver](#),^{[22][23][24][25]} and in [Twelver](#) Shia the overwhelming majority are of the [Usuli](#) school. In Iran -- a Shia country since the 16th century^[26] -- Shia make up the majority (around 90%). They are also a majority in Azerbaijan (around 65%),^[27] Iraq (around 55%) and Bahrain (around 60% of the citizens, excluding expatriates). Shia communities are also found in Yemen where a large minority of the population are Shia (mostly of the [Zaidi](#) sect), according to the UNHCR.^[28] Sources put the numbers of Shia in Yemen at 25–30%.^{[29][30]} About 10% of Turkey's population belong to the [Alevi](#) sect of Shi'i Islam. The Shia constitute around 20% of Kuwait,^{[31][32]} 45% of the Muslim population in Lebanon, 10% of Saudi Arabia,^{[32][33]} 12% of Syria (mostly of the Alawite sect), and 10% of Pakistan. Around 10% of Afghanistan, less than 5% of the Muslims in Nigeria, and around 5% of population of Tajikistan are Shia.^[34] India has as many Shia ("potentially") as there are in Iraq.^{[35][36][37]}

Scholar [Vali Nasr](#) argues that numbers/percentages of how many Sunni and Shia there are, are not exact because "in much of the Middle East it is not convenient" to have exact numbers, "for ruling regimes in particular".^[26]

• [CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

C5 ISLAM IN PALESTINE

WIKIPEDIA

PORTAL:ISLAM

[Islam](#) is a major [religion](#) in [Palestine](#), being the religion of the majority of the [Palestinian population](#). [Muslims](#) comprise 85% of the population of the [West Bank](#), when including [Israeli settlers](#),^[1] and 99% of the population of the [Gaza Strip](#).^[2] The largest denomination among Palestinian Muslims are Sunnis, comprising 98–99% of the total Muslim population.

Palestine underwent many demographic upheavals throughout history. By the 4th century, the [Jews](#), who had formerly constituted a majority in Palestine, had become a minority.^[3] The Jewish population in [Jerusalem](#) and its environs in [Judea](#) suffered a heavy blow during the [Jewish–Roman wars](#) (66–135 [CE](#)) that was never fully recovered. In the following centuries, many Jews emigrated to thriving centers in the [diaspora](#). Others continued living in the region, especially in the [Galilee](#) and the [coastal plain](#), and others converted to [Christianity](#).^[4] Later, the failure of the [Samaritan revolts](#) against the [Byzantines](#) (484–573 CE) resulted in the decline of the [Samaritan](#) population.^[4] The conversion of local populations, along with the immigration of Christians, led to the creation of a Christian majority in [Late Roman](#) and [Byzantine Palestine](#).^{[5][6]}

In the 7th century, the Arab [Rashiduns conquered the Levant](#); they were later succeeded by other Arabic-speaking Muslim dynasties, including the [Umayyads](#), [Abbasids](#) and the [Fatimids](#).^[7] Over time, much of the existing population of Palestine adopted Arab culture and language, and [converted to Islam](#). Although minor in size, the settlement of Arabs is also thought to have played a role in accelerating the Islamization process.^{[8][9][10][11]} Changes in [social structure](#) and the weakening of the local Christian authorities caused by the process of deurbanization under Islamic rule are also seen as a major factor.^[4] Some scholars suggest that by the arrival of the [Crusaders](#), Palestine was already overwhelmingly Muslim,^{[12][13]} while others claim that it was only after the Crusades that Christianity lost its majority, and that the process of mass Islamization took place much later, perhaps during the [Mamluk period](#).^{[8][14]}

HISTORY

Early Islamization

Main article: [Muslim conquest of the Levant](#)



**[‘Umar ibn al-Khattāb’s](#)
empire at its peak, 644**

Islam was first brought to the [region of Palestine](#) during the [Early Muslim conquests](#) of the 7th century, when the [Rashidun Caliphate](#) under the leadership of [Umar ibn al-Khattāb](#) conquered the [Shaam^{\[a\]}](#) region from the [Byzantine Empire](#).^[18]

The Muslim army conquered Jerusalem, held by the Byzantine Romans, in November, 636. For four months [the siege](#) continued. Ultimately, the Orthodox Patriarch of Jerusalem, Sophronius, agreed to surrender Jerusalem to Caliph Umar in person. Caliph Umar, then at Medina, agreed to these terms and traveled to Jerusalem to sign the capitulation in the spring of 637. Sophronius also negotiated a pact with Caliph Umar, known as the Umariyya Covenant or Covenant of Omar, allowing for religious freedom for Christians in exchange for [jizyah](#) ([Arabic](#): جِزْيَة), a tax to be paid by conquered non-Muslims, called "dhimmis." Under Muslim Rule, the Christian and Jewish population of Jerusalem in this period enjoyed the usual tolerance given to non-Muslim [monotheists](#).^{[19] [20]}

Having accepted the surrender, Caliph Umar then entered Jerusalem with Sophronius "and courteously discoursed with the patriarch concerning its religious antiquities". When the hour for his prayer came, Umar was in the Anastasis, but refused to pray there, lest in the future the Muslims should use that as an excuse to break the treaty and confiscate the church. The Mosque of Omar, opposite the doors of the Anastasis, with the tall minaret, is known as the place to which he retired for his prayer.



The [Dome of the Rock](#) on the [Temple Mount](#), Jerusalem

[Jerusalem](#) is Islam's third holiest city after [Mecca](#) and [Medina](#) in [Saudi Arabia](#).^[21] Although the [Qur'an](#) does not clarify from where exactly [Muhammad ascended to Heaven](#), the [Al-Aqsa](#) (Temple Mount) of Jerusalem is believed by Muslims to be the location. According to the tradition, during a single night around the year 621 [CE](#), the [Islamic prophet Muhammad](#) was carried by his mythological steed "[al-Burāq](#)" from [Mecca](#) to the [Temple Mount](#) in [Jerusalem](#). According to the tradition, from there he ascended to heaven where he spoke with [Allah](#). This widely accepted Islamic belief is a source of the religious and spiritual importance of the [Dome of the Rock](#) and the adjacent [al-Aqsa Mosque](#).^[22]

According to the historian [James Parkes](#), during the first century after the Muslim conquest (640–740), the caliph and governors of [Syria](#) and the [Holy Land](#) ruled entirely over Christian and Jewish subjects. He

further states that apart from the [Bedouin](#) in the earliest days, the only Arabs west of the Jordan were the garrisons.^[23]

Bishop Arculf, whose account of his pilgrimage to the Holy Land in the 7th century, *De Locis Sanctis*, written down by the monk Adamnan, described reasonably pleasant living conditions of Christians in Palestine in the first period of Muslim rule.^[citation needed] The caliphs of Damascus (661–750) were tolerant princes who were on generally good terms with their Christian subjects. Many Christians (e.g., [St. John Damascene](#)) held important offices at their court. The [Abbasid caliphs](#) at Baghdad (753–1242), as long as they ruled Syria, were also tolerant of the Christians. Harun Abu-Ja'afar, (786–809) sent the keys of the Holy Sepulchre to Charlemagne, who built a hospice for Latin pilgrims near the shrine.^[citation needed]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

C6 ISLAMISM IN THE GAZA STRIP

WIKIPEDIA

Islamism in the Gaza Strip involves efforts to promote and impose Islamic laws and traditions in the [Gaza Strip](#). The influence of Islamic groups in the Gaza Strip has grown since the 1980s. Following [Hamas](#)' victory in the [2006 Palestinian elections](#) and a [conflict](#) with supporters of the rival [Fatah](#) party, Hamas took complete control of the Gaza Strip,^{[1][2][3]} and declared the "end of secularism and heresy in the Gaza Strip".^[4] For the first time since the Sudanese coup of 1989 that brought [Omar al-Bashir](#) to power, a [Muslim Brotherhood](#) group ruled a significant geographic territory.^[5] Gaza human-rights groups accuse Hamas of restricting many freedoms in the course of these attempts.^[2]

[Ismael Haniyeh](#) officially denied^[when?] accusations that Hamas intended to establish an Islamic emirate.^[5] However, [Jonathan Schanzer](#) wrote that in two years following the 2007 coup, the Gaza Strip had exhibited the characteristics of [Talibanization](#),^[5] a process whereby the Hamas government had imposed strict rules on women, discouraged activities commonly associated with Western culture, oppressed non-Muslim minorities, imposed [sharia](#) law, and deployed religious police to enforce these laws.^[5]

According to a [Human Rights Watch](#) researcher, the Hamas-controlled government of Gaza stepped up its efforts to "Islamize" Gaza in 2010, efforts that included the "repression" of civil society and "severe violations of personal freedom".^[6] Israeli journalist [Khaled Abu Toameh](#) wrote in 2009 that "Hamas is gradually turning the Gaza Strip into a [Taliban](#)-style Islamic entity".^[7] According to Mkhaimar Abusada, a political-science professor at Gaza's [Al-Azhar University](#), "Ruling by itself, Hamas can stamp its ideas on everyone (...) Islamizing society has always been part of Hamas strategy."^[8]

RESTRICTIONS ON WOMEN

Dress code

Successful coercion of women by sectors of society to wear Islamic dress or [Hijab](#) has been reported in Gaza where [Mujama' al-Islami](#), the predecessor of [Hamas](#), reportedly used a mixture of consent and coercion to "'restore' hijab" on urban educated women in Gaza in the late 1970s and 1980s.^[9] Similar behavior was displayed by Hamas during the first intifada.^[10] Hamas campaigned for the wearing of the hijab alongside other measures, including insisting women stay at home, segregation from men and the promotion of polygamy. In the course of this campaign, women who chose not to wear the hijab were verbally and physically harassed, with the result that the hijab was being worn 'just to avoid problems on the streets'.^[11]

After [taking control of the Gaza Strip](#) in June 2007, Hamas tried to enforce Islamic law in the territory, imposing the [hijab](#) on women at courts, institutions and schools.^{[12][13][14]}

Some of the Islamization efforts met resistance. When Palestinian Supreme Court Justice [Abdel Raouf Al-Halabi](#) ordered female lawyers to wear headscarves and caftans in court, attorneys contacted satellite television stations including [Al Arabiya](#) to protest, causing Hamas's Justice Ministry to cancel the directive.^[8]

In 2007, Islamic group Swords of Truth threatened to [behead](#) female TV broadcasters if they didn't wear strict Islamic dress. "We will cut throats, and from vein to vein, if needed to protect the spirit and moral of this nation," their statement said. The group also accused the women broadcasters of being "without any ... shame or morals." Personal threats against female broadcasters were also sent to the women's mobile phones, though it was not clear if these threats were from the same group. Gazan anchorwomen interviewed by the Associated Press said that they were frightened by the Swords of Truth's statement.^[15]

Other restrictions

In 2009, Hamas banned girls from riding behind men on [motor scooters](#) and forbade women from [dancing](#).^[16]

The Hamas-led government briefly implemented, then revoked, a ban on women [smoking](#) in public.^[17] In 2010, Hamas banned the smoking of [hookah](#) by women in public, stating that it was to reduce the increasing number of divorces.^[18]

In March 2010, Hamas tried to impose a ban on women receiving salon treatment from male [hairdressers](#), issuing orders by Interior Minister [Fathi Hammad](#) and threatening offenders with arrest and trial. The group backed down after an outcry. In February 2011, according to the [Palestinian Center for Human Rights](#), Hamas attempted to renew the ban, interrogating the five male hairdressers in Gaza City and forcing them to sign declarations that they wouldn't work in women's salons. According to one of the hairdressers, police called the five into a room where an unrelated detainee was chained to a wall by his wrists, and told to sign a pledge to give up their profession or face arrest and a 20,000 shekel fine. The man initially refused, but signed after his captors threatened "to take you to the cells because what you do is against [Sharia](#) [Islamic law]". During Hamas's reign over the strip, several beauty parlors and hair salons have been the target of explosions and other attacks, which Hamas has blamed on opposition groups. Male hairdressers for women in the conservative territory are rare.^{[19][20][21]}

In 2013, [UNRWA](#) canceled its annual marathon in Gaza after Hamas rulers prohibited women from participating in the race.^[22]

In 2015, Hamas banned New Year's Eve celebrations, stating that such celebrations "offended the territory's values and religious traditions."^[23]

• [CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

C7 IRAN–ISRAEL PROXY CONFLICT

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Iran–Israel proxy conflict	
 <p>Israel (orange) and Iran (green) shown within the Middle East</p>	
Date	16 February 1985 ^[45] – ongoing (38 years, 5 months, 1 week and 5 days)
Location	Western Asia
Status	Ongoing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Iran reinforces Syrian government and Hezbollah • Israel tries to prevent weapon transfers to Hezbollah • 2006 Lebanon War ends in military stalemate • Beginning of the ongoing Gaza–Israel conflict in June 2006 • Israel tries to stop Iranian nuclear program^[46] • Iran grows major spheres of influence in the Middle East^[47] • Formation of the Arab–Israeli alliance

The **Iran–Israel proxy conflict**, also known as the **Iran–Israel proxy war**^[49] or **Iran–Israel Cold War**,^[50] is an ongoing **proxy war** between **Iran** and **Israel**. Supporters of Israel cite threats and hostility by Iran's leaders against Israel, and their declared objective to dissolve the **Jewish state** on the basis of, or not on the basis of **anti-semitic rhetoric** and reasoning.^{[51][52]} On the other hand, supporters of Iran cite Israel's status as a **settler colony** in the **Arab region** as a basis for Iran's aggression towards Israel.^[53]

Iran has provided funding, weapons, and training to groups including **Lebanese Hezbollah**,^[54] and **Palestinian Islamic Jihad** (PIJ), which have vowed and carried out attacks on Israel, and which have been designated terrorist organisations by many countries. Because of

the hostility, Israel is concerned by [Iran's nuclear weapons program](#) and missile program, and is seeking to downgrade Iran's allies and proxies, as well as preventing [Iranian entrenchment in Syria](#), another sworn enemy of Israel.

Iran's hostility towards Israel followed the 1979 [Iranian Revolution](#), and expanded into covert Iranian support of Hezbollah during the [South Lebanon conflict \(1985–2000\)](#) and by 2005 developed into a proxy regional conflict. In 2006, Iran was actively involved in supporting Hezbollah during the [2006 Lebanon War](#) and in parallel began supporting [Hamas](#) and [Palestinian Islamic Jihad](#) (PIJ), especially in the [Gaza Strip](#). Israel, on the other hand, initiated a campaign to harm the Iranian nuclear program, utilizing several anti-regime militias within Iran. Upon the onset of the [Syrian Civil War](#), the conflict escalated and by 2018 turned into [direct Iranian-Israeli warfare](#).^[55]

Israel, in turn, opposes Iran's nuclear program, and maintains ties with other rivals of Iran such as [Saudi Arabia](#) and the [United States](#). The involvement of Iran and Israel in the Syrian Civil War creates the possibility of direct conflict between the two countries.^[56] Israel has supported and conducted assassinations and attacks against Iranian targets directly.^{[57][58]} Israel has also conducted cyber warfare against Iran, and has publicly advocated for international military action against Iran.^[59]

Israel has accused Iran of attempting to form a continuous land transport route from Iran via [Iraq](#) and [Syria](#) into Lebanon,^{[60][61]} which Israel views as a significant strategic threat.^[62] Iranian leaders have described Israel as an illegitimate "[Zionist regime](#)" and have accused Israel of being an American [client state](#) hostile to [Muslims](#).^{[63][failed verification]}

Iranian dissidents, protestors, and opposition parties are frequently imagined and attacked as members of "Israel's army" or as agents of the pejorative "[Zionist regime](#)".^[citation needed]

BACKGROUND

Main articles: [Iran–Israel relations](#) and [South Lebanon conflict \(1985–2000\)](#)

[Ruhollah Khomeini](#) was critical of Israel before he became Iran's Supreme Leader in 1979. He criticized the [Pahlavi dynasty](#) Iran's ties with Israel, viewing Israel as a supporter of the Pahlavi regime.^[64] Following the 1979 [Iranian Revolution](#), Khomeini's new government adopted a policy of hostility towards [Israel](#). Iran withdrew recognition of Israel as a state, and severed all diplomatic, commercial and other ties with Israel,^[65] referring to its government as the "[Zionist regime](#)"^[66] and Israel as "occupied Palestine".

Despite the tension between the two countries, [Israel provided support to Iran](#) during the [Iran–Iraq War](#) from 1980 to 1988. During the 8 years war, Israel was one of the main suppliers of military equipment to Iran. Israel also provided military instructors during the war and direct support to Iran's war effort, when it bombed and destroyed Iraq's Osirak nuclear reactor, during [Operation Babylon](#). The nuclear reactor was considered a central component of Iraq's nuclear weapons program.^[67]

The 1982 Israeli [invasion](#) of Lebanon resulted in the [Palestine Liberation Organization's](#) (PLO) departure from Lebanon. The following creation of [Security Zone in South Lebanon](#) has benefited Israeli [allies in Lebanon](#) and civilian Israeli population, as Galilee suffered less violent attacks by Hezbollah, than previously by PLO in the 1970s (hundreds of Israeli civilian casualties). Despite this Israeli success in eradicating PLO bases and partial withdraw in 1985, the Israeli invasion had actually increased the severity of [conflict](#) with local Lebanese militias and resulted in the consolidation of several local Shia Muslim movements in Lebanon, including [Hezbollah](#) and [Amal](#), from a previously unorganized guerrilla movement in the south. Over the years, military casualties of both sides grew higher, as both parties used more modern weaponry, and Hezbollah progressed in its tactics.

Iran supplied the militant organization Hezbollah with substantial amounts of financial, training, weapons, explosives, political, diplomatic, and organizational aid while persuading Hezbollah to take an action against Israel.^{[68][69][70]} Hezbollah's 1985 manifesto listed its four main goals as "Israel's final departure from Lebanon as a prelude to its final obliteration"^[71] According to reports released in February 2010, Hezbollah received \$400 million from Iran.^[69] By the early 1990s, Hezbollah, with support from Syria and Iran, emerged as the leading group and military power, monopolizing the directorship of the guerrilla activity in South Lebanon.

In January 2014, Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu warned that Iran's nuclear program would only be set back six weeks as a result of its interim agreement with the international community.^[72] In one of the region's oddest pairings, Israel and the Gulf Arab states led by Saudi Arabia increasingly are finding common ground — and a common political language — on their mutual dismay over the prospect of a nuclear deal in Geneva that could curb Tehran's atomic program but leave the main elements intact, such as uranium enrichment.^[73] In June 2017, former Israeli Defense Minister [Moshe Ya'alon](#) stated that "We and the Arabs, the same Arabs who organized in a coalition in the Six-Day War to try to destroy the Jewish state, today find themselves in the same boat with us ... The Sunni Arab countries, apart from Qatar, are largely in the same boat with us since we all see a nuclear Iran as the number one threat against all of us".^[74]

• [CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D THE STORY OF MANDATORY PALESTINE IN THE 1920's - 1940's

D1 MANDATORY PALESTINE, 1922-1947

This article is about the geopolitical entity.

For the document granting Britain a mandate over both Palestine and the Emirate of Transjordan, see [Mandate for Palestine](#).

[Wikipedia](#)

Mandatory Palestine^{[a][2]} was a geopolitical entity established between 1920 and 1948 in the [region of Palestine](#) under the terms of the [League of Nations Mandate for Palestine](#).

During the [First World War](#) (1914–1918), an [Arab uprising](#) against [Ottoman rule](#) and the [British47Empire](#)'s [Egyptian Expeditionary Force](#) drove the Ottoman Turks out of the [Levant](#).^[3] The [United Kingdom](#) had agreed in the [McMahon–Hussein Correspondence](#) that it would honour Arab independence if the Arabs revolted against the Ottoman Turks, but in the end, the United Kingdom and [France](#) divided the area under the [Sykes–Picot Agreement](#) — an act of betrayal in the eyes of the Arabs.

Further complicating the issue was the [Balfour Declaration](#) of 1917, in which Britain promised its support for the establishment of a [Jewish "national home"](#) in Palestine. At the war's end the British and French formed a [joint "Occupied Enemy Territory Administration"](#) in what had been [Ottoman Syria](#). The British achieved legitimacy by obtaining [a mandate from the League of Nations](#) in June 1922. One objective of the League of Nations [mandate system](#) was to administer areas of the [defunct Ottoman Empire](#) "until such time as they are able to stand alone".^[4]

During the Mandate, the area saw successive waves of [Jewish immigration](#) and the rise of [nationalist movements](#) in both the Jewish and Arab communities. Competing interests of the two populations led to the [1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine](#) and the 1944–1948 [Jewish insurgency in Mandatory Palestine](#). The [United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine](#) to divide the territory into two Arab and Jewish states was passed in November 1947. The [1947–1949 Palestine war](#) ended with the territory of Mandatory Palestine divided among the [State of Israel](#), the [Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan](#), which [annexed territory on the West Bank](#) of the [Jordan River](#), and the [Kingdom of Egypt](#), which established the "[All-Palestine Protectorate](#)" in the [Gaza Strip](#).

Palestine

1920–1948



Flag



Public Seal



Mandatory Palestine in 1946

Mandatory Palestine in 1946


Status	Mandate of the United Kingdom
Capital	Jerusalem
Common languages	English, Arabic, Hebrew
Religion	Islam, Judaism, Christianity, Bahá'í Faith, Druze faith
High Commissioner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1920–1925 (first) Sir Herbert L. Samuel • 1945–1948 (last) Sir Alan Cunningham
Legislature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parliamentary body of the Muslim Community Supreme Muslim Council • Parliamentary body of the Jewish Community Assembly of Representatives
Historical era	Interwar period World War II Cold War
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mandate assigned • Britain officially assumes control • Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel 	25 April 1920 29 September 1923 14 May 1948
Area	
• Total	25,585.3 km ² (9,878.5 sq mi) ^[1]
Currency	Egyptian pound (until 1927) Palestine pound (from 1927)
ISO 3166 code	PS
Preceded by	Succeeded by
Occupied Enemy Territory Administration	Israel  Jordanian annexation of the West Bank All-Palestine Protectorate 
Today part of	Israel Palestine

D2 HISTORY OF PALESTINE

For the subject with a Jewish focus, see [History of the Jews and Judaism in the Land of Israel](#).

For the modern states in the area,
see [History of Israel \(1948–present\)](#) and [History of the State of Palestine](#).

See also: [Time periods in the Palestine region](#),
[Timeline of the Palestine region](#),
and [Timeline of the name Palestine](#)



This article **may be [too long](#) to read and navigate comfortably**. Its current [readable prose size](#) is 131 kilobytes. Please consider [splitting](#) content into sub-articles, [condensing](#) it, or adding [subheadings](#). Please discuss this issue on the article's [talk page](#). *(February 2023)*

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Part of [a series](#) on the

History of Palestine



Prehistory

[show]

Ancient history

[show]

Classical period

[show]

Islamic rule

[show]

Modern era

[show]

 [Palestine portal](#)

V • T • E

For links go to

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

This is the study of the past in the [region of Palestine](#), also known as the [Land of Israel](#) and the [Holy Land](#), defined as the territory between the [Mediterranean Sea](#) and the [Jordan River](#) (where [Israel](#) and [Palestine](#) are today). Strategically situated between three continents, Palestine has a tumultuous history as a crossroads for religion, culture, commerce, and politics. Palestine is the birthplace of [Judaism](#) and [Christianity](#), and has been controlled by many kingdoms and powers, including [Ancient](#)

[Egypt](#), [Ancient Israel and Judah](#), the [Persian Empire](#), [Alexander the Great](#) and his [successors](#), the [Hasmoneans](#), the [Roman Empire](#), several [Muslim Caliphates](#), and the [Crusaders](#). In modern times, the area was ruled by the [Ottoman Empire](#), then the [United Kingdom](#) and since 1948 it has been divided into [Israel](#), the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#).

OVERVIEW

The region of Palestine/Land of Israel was among the earliest in the world to see human habitation, agricultural communities and [civilization](#). In the Bronze Age, the [Canaanites](#) established independent city-states that were influenced by the surrounding civilizations, among them Egypt, which ruled the area in the [Late Bronze Age](#).

During the [Iron Age](#), two related [Israelite](#) kingdoms, [Israel](#) and [Judah](#), controlled much of Palestine, while the [Philistines](#) occupied its southern coast. The [Assyrians](#) conquered the region in the 8th century BCE, then the [Babylonians](#) in c. 601 BCE, followed by the [Persians](#) who conquered the Babylonian Empire in 539 BCE. [Alexander the Great](#) conquered the Persian Empire in the late 330s BCE, beginning a long period of [Hellenization](#) in the region. In the late 2nd century BCE, the [Hasmonean Kingdom](#) conquered most of Palestine and parts of neighboring regions but the kingdom gradually became a vassal of [Rome](#), which annexed the area in 63 BCE. [Roman Judea](#) was troubled by [large-scale Jewish revolts](#), which Rome answered with by [destroying Jerusalem](#) and the [Second Jewish Temple](#).

In the 4th century, as the [Roman Empire christened](#), Palestine became a center of [Christianity](#), attracting pilgrims, monks and scholars. Following the [Muslim conquest of the Levant](#) in 636–641, several Muslim ruling dynasties succeeded each other as they wrestled control of Palestine: the [Rashiduns](#); the [Umayyads](#), who built the [Dome of the Rock](#) and the [al-Aqsa Mosque](#) in Jerusalem; the [Abbasids](#); the semi-independent [Tulunids](#) and the [Ikhshidids](#); the [Fatimids](#); and the [Seljuks](#). In 1099, the [Crusaders](#) established the [Kingdom of Jerusalem](#) in Palestine, which the [Ayyubid Sultanate](#) reconquered in 1187. Following the invasion of the [Mongol Empire](#), the Egyptian [Mamluks](#) reunified Palestine under its control before the [Ottoman Empire](#) conquered the region in 1516 and ruled it as [Ottoman Syria](#) largely undisrupted through to the 20th century.

During [World War I](#) the British government issued the [Balfour Declaration](#), favoring the establishment of a [national home for the Jewish people](#) in Palestine. The British [captured Palestine](#) from the Ottomans shortly thereafter. The [League of Nations](#) gave Britain [mandatory power](#) over Palestine in 1922. British colonial rule and Arab efforts to prevent Jewish migration into Palestine led to growing [sectarian violence between Arabs and Jews](#), eventually causing the British government to announce [its intention to terminate the Mandate](#) in 1947. The [United Nations General Assembly](#) recommended [partitioning Palestine into two states](#); one Arab and one Jewish. However, the situation in Palestine had deteriorated into a [civil war](#) between Arabs and Jews. The Arabs rejected the Partition Plan, the Jews [ostensibly accepted](#) it, declaring the independence of the [State of Israel](#) in May 1948 upon the [termination of the British mandate](#). Nearby Arab countries invaded Palestine, but Israel not only prevailed but also conquered far more territory of the Mandate than envisioned by the Partition Plan. During the war, 700,000, or about 80% of all Palestinians fled or were driven out of the territory that Israel conquered, and were not allowed to return, in an event that became known as the *Nakba* ("Catastrophe") to the Palestinians. Starting in the late 1940s and continuing for decades thereafter, [about 850,000 Jews from the Arab world](#) immigrated ("made [Aliyah](#)") to Israel.

After the war, only two parts of Palestine remained in Arab control: the [West Bank](#) (and [East-Jerusalem](#)), [annexed by Jordan](#), and the [Gaza Strip](#) ([occupied by Egypt](#)), which were conquered by Israel during the [Six-Day War](#) in 1967. Despite international objections, Israel started to establish [settlements](#) in these occupied territories.^[1] Meanwhile, the Palestinian national movement gradually gained international recognition, largely thanks to the [Palestine Liberation Organisation](#) (PLO, founded in 1965) under the leadership of [Yasser Arafat](#). In 1993, the [Oslo Peace Accords](#) between Israel and the PLO established the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PA) as an interim body to run parts of Gaza and the West Bank (but not East Jerusalem) pending a permanent solution to the conflict. Further peace developments were not ratified and/or implemented, and in recent history, relations between Israel and Palestinians have been marked by repeated military conflicts, especially with the Islamist group [Hamas](#), which also rejects the PA. In 2007, Hamas [won control](#) of Gaza from the PA, now limited to the West Bank. In November 2012, the State of Palestine (the name used by the PA) became a non-member observer state in the [UN](#), allowing it to take part in General Assembly debates and improving its chances of joining other UN agencies.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D3 HISTORY OF THE PALESTINIANS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **Palestinian people** ([Arabic](#): الشعب الفلسطيني, *ash-sha'ab il-filastini*) are an [Arabic](#)-speaking people with family origins in the region of [Palestine](#). Since 1964, they have been referred to as [Palestinians](#) ([Arabic](#): الفلسطينين, *al-filastiniyyin*), but before that they were usually referred to as **Palestinian Arabs** ([Arabic](#): العربي الفلسطيني, *al-'arabi il-filastini*). During the period of the British Mandate, the term Palestinian was also used to describe the Jewish community living in Palestine. The Arabic-language newspaper [Falastin](#) (*Palestine*) was founded in 1911 by [Palestinian Christians](#).

DURING OTTOMAN TIMES (1834–1917)

Birth of the Nationalist Feeling

See also: [Palestinian people](#)

Under the Ottomans, Palestine's Arab population mostly saw themselves as Ottoman subjects. Kimmerling and Migdal consider the revolt in 1834 of the Arabs in Palestine as the first formative event of the Palestinian people. In the 1830s, Palestine was occupied by the Egyptian vassal of the Ottomans, [Muhammad Ali](#) and his son [Ibrahim Pasha](#). The revolt was precipitated by popular resistance against heavy demands for conscripts. Peasants were well aware that conscription was nothing less than a death sentence. Starting in May 1834, the rebels took many cities, among them [Jerusalem](#), [Hebron](#) and [Nablus](#). In response, Ibrahim Pasha sent in his army, finally defeating the last rebels on 4 August in Hebron.^[1] Nevertheless, the Arabs in Palestine remained part of a Pan-Islamist or [Pan-Arab](#) national movement.^[2]

In 1882 the population numbered approximately 320,000 people, 25,000 of whom were Jewish.^[3] Many of these were [Arab Jews](#) and in the narrative works of Arabs in Palestine in the late Ottoman period – as evidenced in the autobiographies and diaries of [Khalil Sakakini](#) and [Wasif Jawhariyyeh](#) – "native" Jews were often referred to as *abnaa al-balad* (sons of the country), 'compatriots', or *Yahud awlad Arab* ("Jews, sons of Arabs").^[4]

At the beginning of the 20th century, a "local and specific Palestinian patriotism" emerged. The Palestinian identity grew progressively. In 1911, a newspaper named [Falastin](#) was established in [Jaffa](#) by Palestinian Christians and the first Palestinian nationalist organisations appeared at the end of the [World War I](#).^[5] Two political factions emerged. [al-Muntada al-Adabi](#), dominated by the [Nashashibi](#) family, militated for the promotion of the Arab language and culture, for the defense of Islamic values and for an independent Syria and Palestine. In [Damascus](#), *al-Nadi al-Arabi*, dominated by the [Husayni](#) family, defended the same values.^[6]

When the First Palestinian Congress of February 1919 issued its [anti-Zionist](#) manifesto rejecting [Zionist](#) immigration, it extended a welcome to those Jews "among us who have been [Arabicized](#), who have been living in our province since before the war; they are as we are, and their loyalties are our own."^[4]

According to [Benny Morris](#), Palestinian Arab nationalism as a distinct movement appeared between April and July 1920,^[6] after the [Nebi Musa riots](#), the [San Remo conference](#) and the failure of [Faisal](#) to establish the Kingdom of [Greater Syria](#).^{[7][8]}

Zionism

When [Zionism](#) began taking root among Jewish communities in Europe, many Jews [emigrated to Palestine](#) and established settlements there. When Palestinian Arabs concerned themselves with Zionists, they generally assumed the movement would fail. After the Young Turk revolution in 1908, Arab Nationalism grew rapidly in the area and most Arab Nationalists regarded Zionism as a threat, although a minority perceived Zionism as providing a path to modernity.^[9] Though there had already been Arab protests to the Ottoman authorities in the 1880s against land sales to foreign Jews, the most serious opposition began in the 1890s after the full scope of the Zionist enterprise became known. There was a general sense of threat. This sense was heightened in the early years of the 20th century by Zionist attempts to develop an economy from which Arab people were largely excluded, such as the "[Hebrew labor](#)" movement which campaigned against the employment of cheap Arab labour. The creation of the [British Mandate of Palestine](#) in 1918 and the [Balfour Declaration](#) greatly increased Arab fears.

Contemporary Writing

The [Outline of History](#), by [H.G.Wells](#) (1920), notes the following about this geographic region and the turmoil of the times:

It was clearly a source of strength to them [Turks], rather than weakness, that they were cut off altogether from their age-long ineffective conflict with the Arab. Syria, Mesopotamia, were entirely detached from Turkish rule. Palestine was made a separate state within the British sphere, earmarked as a national home for the Jews. A flood of poor Jewish immigrants poured into the promised land and was speedily involved in serious conflicts with the Arab population. The Arabs had been consolidated against the Turks and inspired with a conception of national unity through the exertions of a young Oxford scholar, Colonel Lawrence. His dream of an Arab kingdom with its capital at Damascus was speedily shattered by the hunger of the French and British for mandatory territory, and in the end his Arab kingdom shrank to the desert kingdom of the Hedjaz and various other small and insecure imamat, emirates and sultanates. If ever they are united, and struggle into civilization, it will not be under Western auspices.^[10]

ARAB REVOLT AND CONQUEST OF PALESTINE BY THE BRITISH ARMY

Main articles: [Arab Revolt](#) and [Mandatory Palestine](#)

During the British Mandate (1920–1947)

Palestinian Arabs' Political Rights

The Palestinian Arabs felt ignored by the terms of the Mandate. Though at the beginning of the Mandate they constituted a 90 percent majority of the population, the text only referred to them as "non-Jewish communities" that, though having civil and religious rights, were not given any national or political rights. As far as the League of Nations and the British were concerned the Palestinian Arabs were not a distinct people. In contrast the text included six articles ([2, 4, 6, 7, 11 and 22](#)) with obligations for the mandatory power to foster and support a "national home" for the Jewish people. Moreover, a representative body of the Jewish people, the [Jewish Agency](#), was recognised.^[11]

The Palestinian Arab leadership repeatedly pressed the British to grant them national and political rights like representative government, reminding the British of president Wilson's [Fourteen Points](#), the [Covenant of the League of Nations](#) and British promises during World War I. The British however made acceptance of the terms of the Mandate a precondition for any change in the constitutional position of the Palestinian Arabs. For the Palestinian Arabs this was unacceptable, as they felt that this would be "self murder".^[12] During the whole interwar period the British, appealing to the terms of the Mandate, which they had designed themselves, rejected the principle of majority rule or any other measure that would give a Palestinian Arab majority control over the government of Palestine.^[13]

There was also a contrast with other [Class A Mandates](#). By 1932 Iraq was independent, and Syria, Lebanon and Transjordan had national parliaments, Arab government officials up to the rank of minister, and substantial power in Arabs hands. In other Arab countries there were also indigenous state structures, except in some countries like Libya and Algeria, which, like Palestine, were subject to large-scale settlement programmes.^[14]

Not having a recognized body of representatives was a severe handicap for the Palestinian Arabs compared to the Zionists. The Jewish Agency was entitled to diplomatic representation e.g. in Geneva before the League of Nations Permanent Mandates Commission, while the Palestinian Arabs had to be represented by the British.^[15]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D4 TIMELINE OF INTERCOMMUNAL CONFLICT IN MANDATORY PALESTINE

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

This is a **timeline** of [intercommunal conflict in Mandatory Palestine](#).

BACKGROUND

1897

- At the [First Zionist Congress](#), held from August 29 to 31 in [Basel](#), Switzerland, the [World Zionist Organization](#) was founded.^[1]

1901

- The [Jewish Colonisation Association](#) makes its first major purchase in the north of Palestine in an acquisition of 31,500 dunums of land near [Tiberias](#) from the [Sursock family](#). This will go on to become one of the largest land purchases for the purposes of colonisation within Palestine.^[2]

1907

- September 28 - Founding of [Bar-Giora](#) an underground Zionist militia, in [Jaffa](#).

1908

- First edition of [Al-Karmil](#), an anti-Zionist newspaper, published in [Haifa](#).^[3]

1909

- April 12 - founding of [Hashomer](#), Zionist defence militia and precursor of the [Hagana](#)

1910

- [The Fula affair](#): Elias Sursock sold 10,000 dunums around the village of [al-Fula](#), the Palestinian peasants inhabiting the land petitioned the Ottoman government for assistance, but were ultimately unsuccessful and expelled by the [Hashomer](#) paramilitary group. This marks one of the first expulsions of Palestinians.^[4]

1911

- Muslim intellectuals and politicians from throughout the Levant formed [al-Fatat](#) ("the Young Arab Society"), a small Arab nationalist club in Paris. They also requested that Arab conscripts to the Ottoman army not be required to serve in non-Arab regions except in time of war. However, as the Ottoman authorities cracked down on the organization's activities and members, al-Fatat went underground and demanded the complete independence and unity of the Arab provinces.^[5]
- January/February - The new [Young Turk](#) authorities allow Zionist groups to purchase land in Ottoman Syria.
- January - First edition of the Arabic-language newspaper [Filastin](#) published in [Jaffa](#).

1913

- [Moshe Barsky falls victim](#) to Arab [Bedouin](#) raiders,^{[6][7]} becoming the first [Kibbutz](#) movement member to be killed by Arab violence.

1915

- July 14 - First letter between the British Government and the Governor of [Mecca](#). The exchange became known as the [McMahon–Hussein Correspondence](#) promises an Arab state in the Middle East in return for revolt against the Turks. That Palestine was part of this deal was confirmed during a 1918 War Cabinet meeting^[8] but later denied by the British government.^[9]

^[2]

1916

- January 30 - Final letter of the McMahon–Hussein Correspondence sent to the Governor of [Mecca](#).
- May 16 - The [Sykes–Picot Agreement](#) was signed between Britain, France and Russia, in which it was agreed in the event of a successful conclusion of the [war](#) the former Ottoman lands incorporating very roughly, modern Iraq, Jordan and much of Israel, would be controlled by Britain; France would take control of what is today Lebanon, Syria, part of Turkey, part of northern Iraq, and a small section of northern Israel. Russia would take large areas of Eastern Turkey and Istanbul.
- June 10 - Beginning of the [Arab Revolt](#) against the Young Turk regime in Constantinople.

1917

- November 2 - [Balfour Declaration](#): British Foreign Secretary [Arthur James Balfour](#) sends a letter to [Lord Rothschild](#), President of the [Zionist Federation](#), declaring his government would "view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people".
- December 9 - Following an [offensive](#) lasting three weeks, an officer in the British Army accepts the surrender of [Jerusalem](#) from the town's mayor, [Hussein al-Husayni](#).

1918

- April 14 - [Zionist Commission](#) arrives in [Mandatory Palestine](#).
- May 8 - First [Muslim-Christian Association](#) established in [Jaffa](#).
- September - General [Allenby](#) completes the British conquest of Palestine.
- December 18 - the [Palestine Land Development Company](#) (PLDC) purchased 71,356 more dunams of land in the Jezreel Valley, including [Tel Adashim](#), from Nagib and Albert Sursock of the Sursock family. The Ottomans had previously refused to authorize numerous sales, such that the Sursocks were unable to sell significant land to Jewish purchasers prior to World War I.^[10]

1919

- The American sponsored [King–Crane Commission](#) delivers its report to the [Paris Peace Conference](#).

- [Haj Amin al-Husseini](#) founded the Jerusalem branch of the Syrian-based 'Arab Club' (*El-Nadi al-arabi*), which then vied with the Nashashibi-sponsored 'Literary Club' (*Al-Muntada al-Adabi*) for influence over public opinion, and he soon became its president.^{[11][12]}
- January 18 - [Faisal–Weizmann Agreement](#) between [Emir Faisal](#) (son of the King of [Hejaz](#), Sharif of Mecca [Sayyid Hussein bin Ali](#)), and [Chaim Weizmann](#) (later President of the [World Zionist Organization](#)).
- January 27 - First [Palestine Arab Congress](#) held in Jerusalem.
- January 30 - The Supreme Council of the [Peace Conference](#) decided that the Ottoman Empire's Arab-dominated provinces would not be returned to Turkey.^[13]
- February 3 - The Zionist Organisation submits its plan for implementation of the Balfour Declaration and urges the selection of Great Britain as Mandatory for Palestine.^{[13][14]}

Intercommunal Violence in Mandatory Palestine

1920

- With the Promulgation of the first Land Transfer Ordinance, and the reopening of the land registries, the Ottoman restrictions on foreign purchase of lands in Palestine are completely done away with.^[15]
- February 27 - Over one thousand protesters take part in an Arab nationalist demonstration in Jerusalem carrying banners bearing the slogans "Stop Zionist Immigration" and "Our Country For Us"^[16] – a reference to [Aliyah](#), the Zionist immigration coming mostly from Eastern Europe. Meanwhile, Arab nationalists in Damascus are pushing for the establishment of Arab [Greater Syria](#).
- March 1 - Jewish settlements in the Upper Galilee were attacked by Arab forces as part of the [Franco-Syrian War](#). [Joseph Trumpeldor](#) was among 8 who died [defending Tel Hai](#).
- March 7 - [Faisal](#) proclaimed king of the [Arab Kingdom of Syria](#).^[17]
- March 8 - A second large Arab nationalist demonstration takes place in Jerusalem.^[17]
- April 4–7 - The [1920 Palestine riots](#) – violent 4-day riot against the Jews in Jerusalem's Old City. al-Husseini was charged with inciting the Arab crowds with an inflammatory speech and sentenced by military court held *in camera* (private)^[18] to ten years imprisonment *in absentia*, since he had already violated his bail by fleeing to [Transjordan](#) to avoid arrest. Zionist leader [Ze'ev Jabotinsky](#) was sentenced to 15 years in prison for the possession of weapons.
- May 31 - Second [Palestine Arab Congress](#).
- June 12 - Establishment of [Haganah](#) – a Jewish defense force.^[citation needed]
- July 1 - [Herbert Samuel](#) sworn in as first High Commissioner. He announces the establishment of an Advisory Council consisting of 20 members: 10 British officials, 4 Muslims, 3 Christians and 3 Jews.^[19]
- July 1 - [Palin Commission](#) reports on the [rioting](#) that occurred in April.
- December 4 - Third [Palestine Arab Congress](#).

1921

- Between 1921 and 1925, 80,000 acres (320 km²) of land in the Jezreel Valley is bought up by the [American Zion Commonwealth](#) (AZC) for about nearly three-quarters of a million pounds as part of the [Sursock Purchases](#).^[20] Under British Mandate, the land laws were rewritten, and the Palestinian farmers in the region were deemed tenant farmers by the British authorities, and the rights of the new owners to displace its population is upheld.^{[21][22]} In total 1,746 families were displaced from 240,000 dunums of land;^{[23][24][25]} Despite this however, some of the native inhabitants refused to leave peaceably, and had to be expelled by force by the British colonial police.^[26] The dispossessed would flee to shantytowns on the edges of [Jaffa](#) and [Haifa](#).^[27]
- [David Ben-Gurion](#) appointed secretary of the Jewish labour organisation [Histadrut](#).
- March - [Haganah](#), the Jewish underground military organisation, established.^[28]
- March 21 - Secretary of State for the Colonies, [Winston Churchill](#), visits Jerusalem. Instals [Abdullah Hussein](#) as ruler of [Transjordan](#).
- May 1–7 - [Jaffa riots](#) resulted in the deaths of 47 Jews and 48 Arabs, with 146 Jews and 73 Arabs being wounded. Most Arab casualties resulted from clashes with British forces attempting to restore order.^[29] Thousands of Jewish residents of Jaffa fled for Tel Aviv and were temporarily housed in tent camps on the beach.
- May 8 - The High Commissioner appoints Amin al-Husseini as [Mufti of Jerusalem](#).^[30] al-Husseini turns from Damascus-oriented Pan-Arabism to a specifically Palestinian ideology centered on Jerusalem, which sought to block Jewish immigration to Mandatory Palestine. The frustration of pan-Arab aspirations lent an Islamic colour to the struggle for independence, and increasing resort to the idea of restoring the land to [Dar al-Islam](#).^[31]
- May - Fourth [Palestine Arab Congress](#) agrees to send a delegation to London.
- October - The [Haycraft Commission of Inquiry](#) publishes its report into the Jaffa riots concluding that they were spontaneous rather than premeditated.^[32]
- December - The Mandate authorities issue an order creating a [Supreme Muslim Council](#) to administer Muslim owned charitable properties, [Awqaf](#), and appoint (or dismiss) judges and officials in the [Sharia](#) courts.^[33]

1922

- February - A delegation of Palestinian Arab leaders, led by [Musa al-Husayni](#), informs [Winston Churchill](#) at the [Colonial Office](#) that they cannot accept the Mandate or the Balfour Declaration and demand their national independence.^[14]
- June 3 - The [Churchill White Paper, 1922](#) clarifies the British position regarding Mandatory Palestine.
- June 30 - The United States Senate and House of Representatives adopt a joint resolution favouring "the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people."^[14]
- July 24 - The [League of Nations](#) approves the draft [British Mandate for Palestine](#).

- August 10 - The British authorities announce the setting up of a Legislative Council consisting of 11 British official and 12 elected members: 8 Muslims, 2 Christians and 2 Jews.^[34]
- August 22 - Fifth [Palestine Arab Congress](#).
- September 16 - The Council of the League of Nations accepts the British [Transjordan memorandum](#) defining the limits of Trans-Jordan and excluding that territory from the provisions in the Mandate concerning the Jewish national home.^[35]
- October - First British census of the population of Mandatory Palestine.

1923

- Elections for the proposed Legislative Council fail due to the extent of the Palestinian Arab boycott. An attempt is made to expand the Advisory Council but this also fails when only three Palestinian Arabs could be found who were willing to join.^[36]
- June 16 - Sixth [Palestine Arab Congress](#).
- September 29 - [British Mandate for Palestine](#) and [Mandate for Syria and the Lebanon](#) come into operation.^[37]
- October 4 - Secretary of State for the Colonies, the [Duke of Devonshire](#), proposes the setting up of an Arab Agency to have equivalent status to the [Jewish Agency](#).
- December 11 - Arab Agency unanimously rejected by Palestinian Arab leaders.^[38]

1924

- *Collective Responsibility Ordinance* issued giving powers of collective punishment in rural areas. Introduced to combat feuding between communities. The powers included application of fines and demolition of houses.^[39]

1925

- [Zeev Jabotinsky](#) founds the [Revisionist Party](#) in [Paris](#) committed to the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine and [Transjordan](#) by military means.^[30]
- August 25 - [Herbert Onslow Plumer](#) becomes High Commissioner.
- November - General strike in support of the [Syria revolt](#).
- December 6 - Elections held for the second Jewish [Assembly of Representatives](#).

1926

- British garrison in Mandatory Palestine reduced to one [RAF](#) squadron and 2 companies of armoured cars.^[38]
- March - General strike called in protest of the visit of the French High Commissioner of [Syria](#), Henry de Jouvenel. [Great Syrian Revolt](#) continued in neighbouring French Mandate.

1928

- Muslim Brotherhood formed in Egypt. Promoted Islam as the basis of society. Became politicized after 1938, rejecting Westernization, modernization, secularization.
- June 20 - Seventh [Palestine Arab Congress](#).
- December 6 - [Sir John Chancellor](#) becomes High Commissioner.

1929

- The [1929 Palestine riots](#) erupt due to a dispute between Muslims and Jews over access to the [Western Wall](#). 133 Jews killed and 339 wounded (mostly by Arabs); 116 Arabs killed and 232 wounded (mostly by British-commanded police and soldiers).
 - [1929 Safed riots](#)
 - [1929 Hebron massacre](#): 67 Jews are massacred by Arabs. Many incidents of rape, torture, and mutilation are reported.^[40]
- Following the riots the British authorities agree to officially recognize the Executive Committee of the [Palestine Arab Congress](#) as representatives of Palestinian Arab opinion and to invite them to give evidence to the Commission of Inquiry.^[41]

1930

- A fourth Palestinian Arab Delegation travels to London.
- The British enlarge their garrison in Mandatory Palestine: They have two infantry battalions, 2 RAF squadrons and 4 squadrons of armoured cars. The [Palestine Police Force](#) is re-organised by Sir [Herbert Dowbiggin](#) and isolated Jewish settlements are given arms caches to be used if under attack.
- The [Black Hand Islamist](#) group, led by Syrian sheikh [Izz ad-Din al-Qassam](#), begins a campaign against Jewish civilians and the British in Mandatory Palestine.
- May 12 - The Palestinian Arab delegation announce that the British Government has rejected their demands for the end to Jewish immigration, an end to land sales to Jews and the establishing of a democratic government in Palestine.
- August 6 - The [Jewish Agency](#) is officially recognized by the British Government.
- October 20 - In reaction to the disturbances of 1929, the [Passfield White Paper](#) and the [Hope Simpson Royal Commission](#) recommend limiting Jewish immigration.
- December - The International Wailing Wall Commission confirms Muslim property rights over the area.^[42]

1931

- [Irgun](#) Zvai Leumi (National Military Organisation) founded by the Revisionists with Zeev Jabotinsky as commander-in-chief.
- January 5 - Elections held for the third Jewish [Assembly of Representatives](#).

- February 14 - Prime Minister [Ramsay MacDonald](#) sends a letter to [Chaim Weizmann](#) qualifying some of the proposals in the [Passfield White Paper](#). The letter becomes known as the "Black Letter" amongst Palestinian Arabs.
- April 11 - Three members of kibbutz [Yagur](#) were killed by members of a local Arab gang.
- August - Demonstrations in [Nablus](#) against the storing of weapons in isolated Jewish settlements are broken up by police baton charges.
- November 18 - Second British census of the population of Mandatory Palestine.^[43]
- November 20 - [Sir Arthur Wauchop](#) becomes High Commissioner.
- December 16 - The Mufti of Jerusalem, Amin al-Husseini, chairs a Muslim Congress in Jerusalem which is attended by 145 delegates from all parts of the Islamic world.^[44]

1932

The [Congress Executive of Nationalist Youth](#) established.

1933

- The [Nazi Party](#) comes to power in Germany.
- October 27 - Following the discovery in Jaffa harbour of a large shipment of weapons destined for an address in Tel Aviv the [Arab Executive](#) calls a general strike. A demonstration in Jaffa led by the president of the Executive, [Musa al-Husayni](#), turns into a riot in which a crowd of several thousand attacked the small force of [policemen](#), who responded with baton charges and gunfire. 26 demonstrators and one policeman were killed. Amongst the 187 injured was 80-year-old Musa al-Husayni, who never recovered and died the following year. There followed six weeks of rioting in all the major towns in which 24 civilians are killed. The disorders were suppressed by the police, not the army. They are different from earlier disturbances in that the targets were British Government institutions rather than Jews.^{[45][46]}
- November 25 - All the major Palestinian Arab political parties, with the exception of [Istiqlal](#), address a memo to the High Commissioner calling for democratic government, prohibition of the sale of Arab land to Jews, and the cessation of Jewish immigration.^[47]

1934

- February - Special commission of enquiry, chaired by [Sir William Murison](#), publishes its report into the 1933 disturbances.^[48]
- December 2 - The [National Defence Party](#) founded.

1935

- [David Ben-Gurion](#) becomes chairman of the [Jewish Agency](#).
- March 27 - [Palestine Arab Party](#) established.
- June 23 - [Reform Party](#) established.
- October 5 - [National Bloc](#) established.

- October - The [Revisionists](#) quit the [World Zionist Organization](#) and establish the [New Zionist Organisation](#).
- November 20 - Izz ad-Din al-Qassam is killed by the British.

1936

- April 15 - Following the murder of 3 Jews in a robbery incident near [Tulkarm](#), 2 Arabs are murdered near [Petah Tikva](#).
- April 17 - During the funeral in [Tel Aviv](#) of one of the Jewish victims serious rioting breaks out in which 3 Jews are murdered. The Mandate authorities bring in Emergency Regulations by proclamation and curfews are imposed across Mandatory Palestine.^[49]
- April 20 - An Arab National Committee is formed in [Nablus](#), subsequently other committees are formed in all the Arab towns and villages.
- April 21 - Five main Palestinian Arab political parties call for a general strike.
- April 25 - [Arab Higher Committee](#) established. It consists of members from all the Arab political parties, including [Istiqlal](#) and is led by Haj Amin al-Husseini. The committee calls for the strike to continue indefinitely.
- May 6 - A meeting of the National Committees in Jerusalem announces a tax strike.
- May 11 - British army reinforcements arrive from [Egypt](#) and [Malta](#).
- May/June - Jaffa port is closed, there are sporadic attacks on the railways and Jewish settlements. Armed bands appear in the hill country.
- June 17 to 29 - large areas of [Jaffa](#) demolished by British Army.
- August - Attempts by [Amir Abdullah](#) and [Nuri Pasha](#) fail to calm the situation in Mandatory Palestine. There is an increase in the number of attacks on Palestinian Jews, and on the oil pipeline and the railways. In mid-August Jewish acts of retaliation begin.^[50]
- August 25 - [Fawzi al-Qawuqji](#) enters Mandatory Palestine with 150 volunteer Arab fighters.^[51]

September 7 - An additional division of British troops arrives. [General Dill](#) becomes supreme military commander.

- September 22 - The British army launches an offensive against Arab rebels.
- October 11 - [Ibn Saud](#), Amir Abdullah and [King Ghazi](#) appeal to the Arab Higher Committee to call off the strike.
- November - The Arab Higher Committee calls an end to the strike. Casualty figures taken from hospital records give the number of people killed during the six months of disturbances as: 195 Arabs, 80 Jews, 21 Army, 16 Police and Frontier Police, and 2 non-Arab Christians. In addition over 1,000 Arab rebels were killed.^[52]

1937

- The mainstream Jewish paramilitary organization, the [Haganah](#), maintains an official policy of restraint.
- July - The [Peel Commission](#) proposes a partition plan for Mandatory Palestine, rejected by the Arab leadership. The 2 main Jewish leaders, [Chaim Weizmann](#) and [Ben Gurion](#) had convinced the [Zionist Congress](#) to approve equivocally the Peel recommendations as a basis for more negotiation.^{[53][54][55]}
- October 1 - British authorities ban all Arab nationalist political organisations, including the [Arab Higher Committee](#). Much of the rebel Arab leadership is exiled. Mufti al-Husseini escapes to the [Kingdom of Iraq](#).
- November 14 -A breakaway group from the Haganah, the [Irgun](#) adopts a policy of retaliation and revenge involving [the planting of bombs in crowded Arab areas](#).

1938

- April – August: The [Woodhead Commission](#) reverses the [Peel Commission](#)'s findings, considers two alternative partition plans, known as [Plan B \(map\)](#) and [Plan C \(map\)](#), and reports in November that partition was impracticable.^[56]
- October 2 - [Tiberias massacre](#). Arab rioters kill 19 Jews, including 11 children, and set fire to synagogues and Jewish homes.^[57]

1939

- February – March 17 - The [St. James Conference](#) ends without reaching an agreement.
- May 17 - The [White Paper of 1939](#) calls for the creation of a unified Palestinian state. Even though the White Paper states its commitment to the Balfour Declaration, it imposed very substantial limits to both Jewish immigration (restricting it to only 75,000 over the next 5 years), and Jewish ability to purchase land.
- September 1 - The Second World War erupts. The Haganah begins the smuggling of Jews from Europe to Mandatory Palestine to provide refuge from the [Holocaust](#). Arab leaders are split: while some assist the [Allies](#), others like Iraqi [Rashid Ali](#) and the Iraqi-based Palestinian Amin al-Husseini assist the [Axis](#). Many of the Middle Eastern Jewish communities are hit by pro-Axis Arab regimes, and the early stage of [Jewish exodus from Arab countries](#) begins. Most Jewish and Arab Palestinian militant groups attain the policy of cease fire with each other and with the British.

1940

- [Lehi](#) (also known as the Stern Gang) – the most radical Jewish organization splits from Irgun.
- On June 19 twenty Arabs were killed by Jewish extremists who mounted explosives on a donkey at a marketplace in Haifa.
- June 29, 13 Arabs were killed in multiple shootings during a one-hour period.

1941

- October 11 - The exiled Arab Palestinian leader Haj Amin al-Husseini arrives in Rome with an attempt to form close ties with the [Axis powers](#). al-Husseini meets [Benito Mussolini](#).
- November 27 - al-Husseini arrives in Germany for a meeting with [Adolf Hitler](#). He would remain in Berlin until the end of the war, playing a major role in formation of Muslim [Waffen SS](#) units and active work preventing thousands of [Jewish refugees](#) to escape the [Nazis](#) and reach Palestine.

1942

- [Biltmore Conference](#), New York - for the first time, Zionists call for an independent state instead of a national home - cannot rely on Britain.
- February 12 - [Avraham Stern](#) leader of the extremist Lehi group shot dead by British police whilst being arrested.
- August 2 - British form the [Palestine Regiment](#), consisted of 3 Jewish and 1 Arab battalions, which assist the British forces in North Africa against the Axis.

1944

- February 12 - After a period of reconciliation with the British, the Irgun launches a bomb attack on British immigration offices in Mandatory Palestine, no casualties reported. Soon after Lehi also renews its anti-British attacks.
- October - [Operation ATLAS](#). A joint German-Arab commando unit of 5 men, under the auspices of the Palestinian Arab leader [Amin al-Husseini](#), was dispatched to disseminate violence between Jews and Arabs in [Mandatory Palestine](#). The parachutists' team members were caught, after they were rebuffed by the local Palestinian population, near [Jericho](#) by Jordanian and British Police forces.
- Irgun resumes operations against Arabs and British, after realizing the World War II is nearing its end; it still restrains itself of attacking British military, not to impact the war efforts of the allies.
- November - the Palestine Regiment is reformed into the larger unit named the [Jewish Brigade](#), which utilizes Jewish symbols. It participates in invasion of the Allies into Italy.

1945

- May 8 - Nazi Germany surrendered to the Allies. Haj Amin al-Husseini is imprisoned by the French, but eventually escapes to Egypt.
- Arab League formed to strengthen political, cultural, social, and economic goals of members, and to mediate disputes. Later added military defense coordination.

1946

- May 1 - The [Anglo-American Committee of Inquiry](#) proposed admission of 100,000 Jewish refugees into the Mandate.
- July 22 - [King David Hotel](#) blown up by [Irgun](#). 91 people of various nationalities were killed, and 46 were injured.

1947

- February 18 - Great Britain announces intention to hand the Mandate to the United Nations.
- March 1–17 - [Martial law is imposed](#) after [IZL](#) and [LHI](#) launched large scale attacks against British targets. Twenty British personnel were killed on the 1 March. In total, 15 British soldiers and 15 civilians were killed and 60 British soldiers and 30 civilians were wounded from 1 March to 13 March.^{[58][59]}
- May 15 - [United Nations Special Committee on Palestine](#) (UNSCOP) is created.^[60]
- September 3 - The majority of the members of UNSCOP, in Chapter VI of its report to UNGA, proposes the partition of Palestine into "an independent Arab State, an independent Jewish State, and the City of Jerusalem".^[61]
- November 19 - the [Shubaki family assassination](#) - the Lehi execute five members of the Shubaki family, having suspected one of the family to have been an informant for the British police
- November 29 - With a two-thirds majority vote, the [UN General Assembly](#) adopts a resolution recommending the adoption and implementation of a [plan](#) to partition the [British Mandate of Palestine](#) into "Independent Arab and Jewish States" and a "Special International Regime for the City of Jerusalem" administered by the [United Nations](#).^[62]
- November 30 - Following the vote on the [Partition Plan](#), Palestinian Arabs react violently and fighting broke out in what became known as the "[Civil war](#)".
- November 30 - the [Fajja bus attacks](#)
- December 2–5 - [1947 Jerusalem riots](#). The [Arab Higher Committee](#) declared a strike and public protest of the vote. Arabs marching to [Zion Square](#) on December 2 were stopped by the British, and the Arabs instead turned towards the commercial center of the City where many buildings and shops were attacked. Violence continued for two more days, with Arabs and Jewish attacking each other. 70 Jews and 50 Arabs are killed.
- December 30 - [Haifa Oil Refinery massacre](#). Irgun militants hurl two bombs into a crowd of Arab workers from a passing vehicle, killing 6 workers and wounding 42, damaging the relative peace between the two groups in Haifa. Later that day the Arab crowd protested and broke into the refinery compound, killing 39 Jews and wounding 49. Skirmishes continued in Haifa and around the region.
- December 31 - January 1 - [Balad al-Shaykh massacre](#). The Palmach, an arm of the Haganah, attacked the town while the residents were asleep, firing from the slopes of Mount Carmel, in retaliation for the killing of 39 Jews during the Haifa Oil Refinery massacre the day before, 30 December 1947.

1948

- January 4 - Lehi set off a truck bomb outside [Jaffa's](#) Town Hall, killing 26 civilians.
- January 6 - [Semiramis Hotel bombing](#) carried out by [Haganah](#).
- January 16 - [35 members](#) of the Haganah killed attempting to carry supplies across country to [Kfar Etzion](#).
- Winter and Spring - "Battle of the Roads". The [Arab League](#) sponsored [Arab Liberation Army](#), composed of Palestinian Arabs and Arabs from other Middle Eastern countries, attacked [Jewish communities](#) in [Mandatory Palestine](#), and Jewish traffic on major roads.
- February 14 - 60 Arab villagers are killed by [Palmach](#) at [Sa'sa'](#). Palmach sources report a battle with major casualties.
- February 22 - In an operation organized by [Abd al-Qadir al-Husayni](#) with the help of British deserters, bombs placed in stolen British vehicles were exploded beside the Atlantic and Amdursky Hotels in [Ben Yehuda Street, Jerusalem](#), which housed Palmach troops. However the troops were away on operations and almost all of the 58 dead and 32 seriously wounded were civilians. During the following week, Irgun and Lehi fighters killed 44 British troops and police in revenge.^[63]
- By late March 1948, the vital road that connected [Tel Aviv](#) to western [Jerusalem](#), where about 16% of all Jews in the [Mandatory Palestine](#) lived, was cut off and under [siege](#).
- March 27 - 47 members of a [Haganah convoy](#) killed near the village of [al-Kabri](#).
- April 6 - [Operation Nachshon](#). The [Haganah](#) decided to launch a major military [counteroffensive](#) to break the siege of Jerusalem. On April 6 the [Haganah](#) and its strike force, the [Palmach](#), in an offensive to secure [strategic points](#), took [al-Qastal](#), an important roadside town 2 kilometers west of [Deir Yassin](#).
- April 9 - [Deir Yassin massacre](#). Around 120 fighters from Irgun and Lehi Zionist paramilitary groups attacked [Deir Yassin](#) near Jerusalem, a Palestinian Arab village of roughly 600 people. The assault occurred as Jewish militia sought to relieve Arab siege of Jews in Jerusalem. Around 107 villagers were killed during and after the battle for the village, including women and children—some were shot, while others died when hand grenades were thrown into their homes. 4 among the Irgun and Lehi forces were killed too.
- April 13 - [Hadassah medical convoy massacre](#). Claimed as retribution for the Deir Yassin massacre, Arab protesters attack a large convoy, mostly of unarmed Jewish doctors, and some military personnel set off carrying patients, equipment, and supplies, travel from Jerusalem to the besieged hospital which treated the majority of Jewish residents in Jerusalem. 79 Jews are killed. Road attacks continue and convoys were unable to reach the hospital for a week.
- April 22 - [Operation Yiftach](#) launched, leading to the conquest of northeastern [Galilee](#) between the Lebanese and Syrian frontiers.
- April 23 - Arab quarters of [Haifa](#) taken by the [Haganah](#).
- May 13 - [Kfar Etzion massacre](#) was an act committed by Arab forces, after the surrender of the Jewish village to [Arab Legion](#). Out of 133 Jewish villagers and defenders, 129 were murdered in the

massacre,^[64] 4 survived. Bodies were left unburied until January 1949. 320 prisoners from the Etzion settlements were taken to the "Jordan POW camp at Mafrak", including 85 women.^[65]


AFTERMATH

Further information: [*Timeline of the Israeli–Palestinian conflict*](#)

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D5 ARAB NATIONALISM

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

	<p>The flag of the Arab Revolt was originally used against the Ottoman Turks, and remains a prominent symbol of Arab nationalism.</p> <p>The design and pan-Arab colours are the basis of many modern Arab states' flags.</p>
---	---

Part of a series on the
Politics of the Arab world



Issues	[show]
Geography	[show]
Governance	[show]
Unity	[show]
Foreign relations	[show]
Military	[show]
Economy	[show]
Transportation	[show]
Culture	[show]
Demographics	[show]
V · T · E	

Go to [WIKIPEDIA](#) to use links

Arab nationalism ([Arabic](#): القومية العربية *al-Qawmīya al-ʿArabīya*) is a political ideology asserting that [Arabs](#) constitute a single nation. As a traditional nationalist ideology, it promotes [Arab culture and civilization](#), celebrates [Arab history](#), glorifies the [Arabic language](#) as well as [Arabic literature](#), and calls for the [rejuvenation of Arab society through total unification](#).^[1] It bases itself on the premise that the people of

the [Arab world](#) — from the Atlantic Ocean to the Indian Ocean — constitute one nation bound together by a [common identity](#): ethnicity, language, culture, history, [geography](#), and [politics](#).^{[2][3]}

One of the primary goals of modern Arab nationalism is ridding the Arab world of influence from the [Western world](#) (seen as a "nemesis" of Arab strength), and the removal of those Arab governments that are considered to be dependent upon Western hegemony. This form of the ideology is rooted in the undesirable outcome of the [Arab Revolt](#); in successfully achieving their primary goal of [dissolving the Ottoman Empire](#), the Arab rebels simultaneously enabled the [partitioning of their would-be unified Arab state](#) by Western powers. [Anti-Western sentiment](#) grew as Arab nationalists centralized themselves around the newfound [Palestine cause](#), promoting the view that [Zionism](#) posed an existential threat to the territorial integrity and political *status quo* of the entire region, and that the resulting [Arab–Israeli conflict](#) was directly linked to Western imperialism due to the [British fostering of Jewish sovereignty](#).^{[4][5]} Arab unity was considered a necessary instrument to "restoring this lost part" of the nation, which in turn meant eliminating the "relics" of foreign colonialism.^[6] However, the ideology as a whole began to decline across the Arab world following the decisive Israeli victory in the [Six-Day War](#).^{[7][8]}

Notable personalities and groups that are associated with Arab nationalism include [Faisal I of Iraq](#), [Gamal Abdel Nasser](#), the [Arab Nationalist Movement](#), [Michel Aflaq](#), [Muammar Gaddafi](#), [Saddam Hussein](#), the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#), and the [Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party](#).

IDEOLOGY

Arab nationalists believe that the Arab nation existed as a historical entity prior to the rise of nationalism in the 19th–20th century. The Arab nation was formed through the gradual establishment of [Arabic](#) as the language of communication and with the advent of [Islam](#) as a religion and culture in the region. Both Arabic and Islam served as the pillars of the nation. According to writer Youssef M. Choueiri, Arab nationalism represents the "Arabs' consciousness of their specific characteristics as well as their endeavor to build a modern state capable of representing the common will of the nation and all its constituent parts."^[9]

Within the Arab nationalist movement are three main ideas: that of the [Arab nation](#); Arab nationalism; and [pan-Arab unity](#). The [1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine](#) led to the foundation of the Arab nationalist [Ba'ath Party](#), which asserts that the Arab nation is the group of people who speak Arabic, inhabit the [Arab world](#), and who feel they belong to the same nation. Arab nationalism is the "sum total" of the characteristics and qualities exclusive to the Arab nation, whereas pan-Arab unity is the modern idea that stipulates that the separate Arab countries must unify to form a single state under one political system.^[10]

Local patriotism centered on individual Arab countries was incorporated into the framework of Arab nationalism starting in the 1920s. This was done by positioning the [Arabian Peninsula](#) as the homeland of the [Semitic peoples](#) (the [Canaanites](#) and [Arameans](#) of the [Levant](#) and the [Assyrians](#) and [Babylonians](#) of [Mesopotamia](#)) who migrated throughout the [Near East](#) in ancient times or by associating the other pre-Islamic cultures, such as those of [Egypt](#) and North Africa and [Horn of Africa](#), into an evolving [Arab identity](#).^[11]

The modern Arabic language actually has two distinct words which can be translated into English as "nationalism": *qawmiyya* قومية, derived from the word *qawm* (meaning "tribe, ethnic nationality"), and *wataniyya* وطنية, derived from the word *watan* (meaning "homeland, native country"). The term *qawmiyya* means attachment to the Arab nation, while *wataniyya* means loyalty to a single Arab state. *Wataniyya* is sometimes disparaged as "regionalism" by those who consider pan-Arabism the only legitimate variant of Arab nationalism.^[12]

In the post-World War years, the concept of *qawmiyya* "gradually assumed a [leftist](#) coloration, calling for ... the creation of revolutionary Arab unity."^[13] Groups who subscribed to this point of view advocated opposition, violent and non-violent, against Israel and against Arabs who did not subscribe to this point of view. The person most identified with *qawmiyya* was [Gamal Abdel Nasser](#) of Egypt, who used both military and political power to spread [his version of pan-Arab ideology](#) throughout the Arab world.

While *qawmiyya* still remains a potent political force today, the death of Nasser and the Arab defeat in the [Six-Day War](#) has weakened faith in this ideal. The current dominant ideology among Arab policy makers has shifted to *wataniyya*.^[14]

HISTORY

Origins

Throughout the late 19th century, beginning in the 1860s, a sense of loyalty to the "Fatherland" developed in intellectual circles based in the Levant and Egypt, but not necessarily an "Arab Fatherland". It developed from observance of the technological successes of Western Europe which they attributed to the prevailing of patriotism in those countries.^[15] During this period, a heavy influx of Christian missionaries and educators from [Western countries](#) provided what was termed the "Arab political revival", resulting in the establishment of secret societies within the empire.

The former was also possible with the influence of the intellectual movement produced by the expansion of journalism using a unifying language, with the creation of newspapers in Arabic, as well as the publication of an Arabic dictionary and an encyclopedia during the late 1860s and the early 1870s. This allowed the questioning –albeit limited–, of Ottoman power.^[16] Accordingly, in the 1860s, literature produced in the [Mashriq](#) (the Levant and [Mesopotamia](#)) which was under Ottoman control at the time, contained emotional intensity and strongly condemned the [Ottoman Turks](#) for "betraying Islam" and the Fatherland to the Christian West. In the view of Arab patriots, Islam had not always been in a "sorry state" and attributed the military triumphs and cultural glories of the Arabs to the advent of the religion, insisting that European modernism itself was of Islamic origin. The Ottomans, on the other hand, had deviated from true Islam and thus suffered decline. The reforming Ottoman and Egyptian governments were blamed for the situation because they attempted to borrow Western practices from the Europeans that were seen as unnatural and corrupt. The Arab patriots' view was that the Islamic governments should revive true Islam that would in turn, pave way for the establishment of constitutional representative government and freedom which, though Islamic in origin, was manifested in the West at the time.^[17]

Arabism and regional patriotism (such as in Egypt or in the Levant) mixed and gained predominance over [Ottomanism](#) among some Arabs in [Syria](#) and [Lebanon](#). [Ibrahim al-Yaziji](#), a Lebanese Christian philosopher, called for the Arabs to "recover their lost ancient vitality and throw off the yoke of the Turks" in 1868. A secret society promoting this goal was formed in the late 1870s, with al-Yazigi as a member. The group placed placards in [Beirut](#) calling for a rebellion against the Ottomans. Meanwhile, other Lebanese and [Damascus](#)-based notables, mostly Muslims, formed similar secret movements, although they differed as Christian groups who disfavoured Arabism called for a completely independent Lebanon while the Muslim Arab societies generally promoted an autonomous [Greater Syria](#) still under Ottoman rule.^[18]

As early as 1870, Syrian Christian writer [Francis Marrash](#) distinguished the notion of fatherland from that of nation; when applying the latter to [Greater Syria](#), he pointed to the role played by language, besides customs and belief in common interests, in defining national identity.^[19] This distinction between fatherland and nation was also made by Hasan al-Marsafi in 1881. By the beginning of the 20th century, groups of Muslim Arabs embraced an Arab nationalist "self-view" that would provide as the basis of the Arab nationalist ideology of the 20th century.

This new version of Arab patriotism was directly influenced by the Islamic modernism and revivalism of [Muhammad Abduh](#), the [Egyptian](#) Muslim scholar, and [Jamal al-Din al-Afghani](#), Iranian political activist. They both shared their thoughts on reform for Islamic societies by publishing in the journal [al-'Urwa al-Wuthqa](#). Abduh believed the Arabs' Muslim ancestors bestowed "rationality on mankind and created the essentials of modernity," borrowed by the West. Thus, while Europe advanced from adopting the modernist ideals of true Islam, the Muslims failed, corrupting and abandoning true Islam.^[18] Al-Afghani blamed a division between Muslims on Europe influence. He thus advocated for pan-Muslim unity as a project to revitalize Islam as a cohesive force against the Western hold, and argued that new interpretations of Islam were needed to confront questions posed by modernity. Their followers would create their own magazines and political parties to develop these ideas.^[20] Abduh influenced modern Arab nationalism in particular, because the revival of true Islam's ancestors (who were Arabs) would also become the revival of Arab culture and the restoration of the Arab position as the leaders of the Islamic world. One of Abduh's followers, [Abd al-Rahman al-Kawakibi](#), openly declared that the Ottoman Empire should be both Turkish and Arab, with the latter exercising religious and cultural leadership.^[21]

Rise of Modern Arab Nationalism

In 1911, Arab intellectuals and politicians from throughout the Levant formed [al-Fatat](#) ("the Young Arab Society"), a small Arab nationalist club, in Paris. Its stated aim was "raising the level of the Arab nation to the level of modern nations." In the first few years of its existence, al-Fatat called for greater autonomy within a unified Ottoman state rather than Arab independence from the empire. Al-Fatat hosted the [Arab Congress of 1913](#) in Paris, the purpose of which was to discuss desired reforms with other dissenting individuals from the Arab world. They also requested that Arab conscripts to the Ottoman army not be required to serve in non-Arab regions except in time of war. However, as the Ottoman authorities cracked

down on the organization's activities and members, al-Fatat went underground and demanded the complete independence and unity of the Arab provinces.^[22]

Nationalist individuals became more prominent during the waning years of Ottoman authority, but the idea of Arab nationalism had virtually no impact on the majority of Arabs as they considered themselves loyal subjects of the Ottoman Empire.^[23] The British, for their part, incited the [Sharif of Mecca](#) to launch the [Arab Revolt](#) during the First World War.^[24] The Ottomans were defeated and the rebel forces, loyal to the Sharif's son [Faysal ibn al-Husayn](#) entered Damascus in 1918. By now, Faysal along with many Iraqi intellectuals and military officers had joined al-Fatat which would form the backbone of the newly created Arab state that consisted of much of the Levant and the [Hejaz](#).^[22]

Damascus became the coordinating center of the Arab nationalist movement as it was seen as the birthplace of the ideology, the seat of Faysal—the first Arab "sovereign" after nearly 400 years of Turkish suzerainty—and because the nationalists of the entire Mashreq region were familiar with it.

Nonetheless, [Jerusalem](#), [Beirut](#), and [Baghdad](#) remained significant bases of support. Following the creation of Faysal's state, a serious tension within the Arab nationalist movement became visible; the conflict between the ideology's highest ideal of forming a single independent unit comprising all countries that shared the Arabic language and heritage, and the tendency to give precedence to local ambitions.^[25]

To further tensions, a rift formed between the older nationalist members of various Syrian urban-class families and the generally younger nationalists who became close to Faysal—his Hejazi troops, Iraqi and Syrian military officers, and Palestinian and Syrian intellectuals. The older guard was mainly represented by [Rida Pasha al-Rikabi](#), who served as Faysal's prime minister, while the younger guard did not have one particular leader.^[25] However, the youth within al-Fatat founded the [Arab Independence Party](#) ("al-Istiqlal") in February 1919. Its goal was to achieve unity and complete Arab independence. Prominent members included [Izzat Darwaza](#) and [Shukri al-Quwatli](#). Centered in Damascus with branches in various cities throughout the Levant, al-Istiqlal received political and financial support from Faysal, but relied on the inner circle of al-Fatat to survive.^[26]

During the war, Britain had been a major sponsor of Arab nationalist thought and ideology, primarily as a weapon to use against the power of the Ottoman Empire. Although the Arab forces were promised a state that included much of the Arabian Peninsula and the [Fertile Crescent](#) the secret [Sykes–Picot Agreement](#) between Britain and France provided for the territorial division of much of that region between the two imperial powers. During the inter-war years and the [British Mandate](#) period, when Arab lands were under French and British control, Arab nationalism became an important anti-imperial opposition movement against European rule.^[27]

Rise of Modern Arab Nationalism

In 1911, Arab intellectuals and politicians from throughout the Levant formed [al-Fatat](#) ("the Young Arab Society"), a small Arab nationalist club, in Paris. Its stated aim was "raising the level of the Arab nation to the level of modern nations." In the first few years of its existence, al-Fatat called for greater autonomy within a unified Ottoman state rather than Arab independence from the empire. Al-Fatat hosted the [Arab Congress of 1913](#) in Paris, the purpose of which was to discuss desired reforms with other dissenting individuals from the Arab world. They also requested that Arab conscripts to the Ottoman army not be required to serve in non-Arab regions except in time of war. However, as the Ottoman authorities cracked down on the organization's activities and members, al-Fatat went underground and demanded the complete independence and unity of the Arab provinces.^[22]

Nationalist individuals became more prominent during the waning years of Ottoman authority, but the idea of Arab nationalism had virtually no impact on the majority of Arabs as they considered themselves loyal subjects of the Ottoman Empire.^[23] The British, for their part, incited the [Sharif of Mecca](#) to launch the [Arab Revolt](#) during the First World War.^[24] The Ottomans were defeated and the rebel forces, loyal to the Sharif's son [Faysal ibn al-Husayn](#) entered Damascus in 1918. By now, Faysal along with many Iraqi intellectuals and military officers had joined al-Fatat which would form the backbone of the newly created Arab state that consisted of much of the Levant and the [Hejaz](#).^[25]

Damascus became the coordinating center of the Arab nationalist movement as it was seen as the birthplace of the ideology, the seat of Faysal—the first Arab "sovereign" after nearly 400 years of Turkish suzerainty—and because the nationalists of the entire Mashreq region were familiar with it.

Nonetheless, [Jerusalem](#), [Beirut](#), and [Baghdad](#) remained significant bases of support. Following the creation of Faysal's state, a serious tension within the Arab nationalist movement became visible; the conflict between the ideology's highest ideal of forming a single independent unit comprising all countries that shared the Arabic language and heritage, and the tendency to give precedence to local ambitions.^[26]

To further tensions, a rift formed between the older nationalist members of various Syrian urban-class families and the generally younger nationalists who became close to Faysal—his Hejazi troops, Iraqi and Syrian military officers, and Palestinian and Syrian intellectuals. The older guard was mainly represented by [Rida Pasha al-Rikabi](#), who served as Faysal's prime minister, while the younger guard did not have one particular leader.^[27] However, the youth within al-Fatat founded the [Arab Independence Party](#) ("al-Istiqlal") in February 1919. Its goal was to achieve unity and complete Arab independence. Prominent members included [Izzat Darwaza](#) and [Shukri al-Quwatli](#). Centered in Damascus with branches in various cities throughout the Levant, al-Istiqlal received political and financial support from Faysal, but relied on the inner circle of al-Fatat to survive.^[28]

During the war, Britain had been a major sponsor of Arab nationalist thought and ideology, primarily as a weapon to use against the power of the Ottoman Empire. Although the Arab forces were promised a state that included much of the Arabian Peninsula and the [Fertile Crescent](#) the secret [Sykes–Picot Agreement](#) between Britain and France provided for the territorial division of much of that region between

the two imperial powers. During the inter-war years and the [British Mandate](#) period, when Arab lands were under French and British control, Arab nationalism became an important anti-imperial opposition movement against European rule.^[27]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D6 JEWISH POLITICAL MOVEMENTS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Jewish political movements refer to the organized efforts of [Jews](#) to build their own [political parties](#) or otherwise represent their interest in politics outside the [Jewish community](#). From the time of the [siege of Jerusalem](#) by the Romans to the foundation of [Israel](#) the Jewish people had no territory, and, until the 19th century they by-and-large were also denied equal rights in the countries in which they lived. Thus, until the 19th century effort for the [emancipation of the Jews](#), almost all Jewish political struggles were internal, and dealt primarily with either religious issues or issues of a particular Jewish community. (See [Judaism and politics](#).)^{[*[citation needed](#)*]}

BIRTH OF JEWISH POLITICAL MOVEMENTS

Since Jews were excluded as outsiders throughout Europe, they were mostly shut out of politics or any sort of participation in the wider political and social sphere of the nations in which they were involved until the Enlightenment, and its Jewish counterpart, [Haskalah](#), made popular movements possible. As long as the Jews lived in [segregated](#) communities, and as long as all avenues of social intercourse with their [gentile](#) neighbors were closed to them, the [rabbi](#) was the most influential member of the Jewish community. In addition to being a religious scholar and clergy, a rabbi also acted as a civil [judge](#) in all cases in which both parties were Jews. Rabbis sometimes had other important administrative powers, together with the community elders. The rabbinate was the highest aim of many Jewish boys, and the study of the [Torah](#) (first five books of the Bible) and the [Talmud](#) was the means of obtaining that coveted position, or one of many other important communal distinctions. Haskalah followers advocated "coming out of the [ghetto](#)", not just physically but also mentally and spiritually. The example of [Moses Mendelssohn](#) (1729–1786), a [Prussian](#) Jew and grandfather of the composer [Felix Mendelssohn](#), served to lead this movement. Mendelssohn's extraordinary success as a popular philosopher and [man of letters](#) revealed hitherto unsuspected possibilities of integration and acceptance of Jews among non-Jews.

The changes caused by the Haskalah movement coincided with rising revolutionary movements throughout Europe. Despite these movements, only France, Britain, and the Netherlands had granted the Jews in their countries equal rights with gentiles after the [French Revolution](#) in 1796. Elsewhere in Europe, especially where Jews were most concentrated in Central and Eastern Europe, Jews were not granted equal rights. It was in the revolutionary atmosphere of the mid-19th century that the first true Jewish political movements would take place.^{[*[citation needed](#)*]}

EMANCIPATION MOVEMENTS

See also: [Jewish Emancipation and Haskalah](#)

During the early stages of [Jewish emancipation movements](#), Jews were simply part of the general effort to achieve freedom and rights that drove popular uprisings like the [Revolutions of 1848](#). Jewish statesmen and

intellectuals like [Heinrich Heine](#), [Johann Jacoby](#), [Gabriel Riesser](#), [Berr Isaac Berr](#), and [Lionel Nathan Rothschild](#) were active with the general movement towards liberty and political freedom.^{[[citation needed](#)]}

Still, in the face of persistent [antisemitic](#) incidents like the [Damascus Blood Libel](#) of 1840, and the failure of many states to emancipate the Jews, Jewish organizations started to form in order to push for the emancipation and protection of Jews. The [Board of Deputies of British Jews](#) under [Moses Montefiore](#), the [Central Consistory](#) of Paris, and the [Alliance Israelite Universelle](#) founded by [Adolphe Crémieux](#), all began working to assure the freedom of the Jews throughout the middle of the 19th century.^{[[citation needed](#)]}

SOCIALIST AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

See also: [Jewish left](#)

Frustration with the slow pace of Jewish acceptance into European society, and a revolutionary [utopianism](#), led to a growing interest in proto-[socialist](#) and [communist](#) movements, especially as early socialist leaders, like [Saint-Simon](#), preached the emancipation of the Jews. [Moses Hess](#) played a role in introducing [Karl Marx](#) (who was descended from a long line of rabbis) and [Friedrich Engels](#) to [historical materialism](#). The Jewish [Ferdinand Lassalle](#), founded the first actual workers' party in Germany, the [General German Workers' Association](#) (which ultimately merged with other parties to become the [Social Democratic Party of Germany](#)) and made Jewish emancipation one of his goals.^{[[citation needed](#)]}

The more intellectual socialist movements of the Jews in Western Europe never gathered steam as emancipation took hold. In Eastern Europe and Russia, however, the *Bund* – the [General Jewish Labor Union](#) – founded in 1897, became a key force in organizing Jews, and, at least initially, the major opponent of another Jewish political movement of the time, [Zionism](#). There were other Jewish socialist parties in Russia, like the (territorialist) [Zionist Socialist Workers Party](#) and the [Jewish Socialist Workers Party](#), which united their destinies in 1917 as the [United Jewish Socialist Workers Party](#). Another left-wing Russian Jewish party was the [Jewish Social Democratic Labour Party \(Poalei Zion\)](#).^{[[citation needed](#)]}

Zionist Movements

Main article: [Zionism](#)

The aim of Zionism was to set up a secular state in the vicinity of the Biblical [Land of Israel](#). Zionism, or the idea of a restored national homeland and common identity for the Jews, had already started to take shape by the mid-19th century, with Jewish thinkers such as [Moses Hess](#) whose 1862 work *Rome and Jerusalem; The Last National Question* argued for the Jews to settle in [Palestine](#) as a means of settling the [national question](#). Hess proposed a socialist state in which the Jews would become [agrarianised](#) through a process of "redemption of the soil" which would transform the Jewish community into a "true" nation, in that Jews would occupy the productive layers of society rather than being an intermediary non-productive merchant class, which is how he perceived Jews in Europe. Hess, along with later thinkers such as [Nahum Syrkin](#) and [Ber Borochov](#), is considered a founder of *Socialist Zionism* and [Labour Zionism](#) and one of the intellectual forebears of the [kibbutz](#) movement. Others like Rabbi Zvi Kalischer viewed a return to the Jewish homeland as the fulfillment of biblical prophecy through natural means.^{[[citation needed](#)]}

As the 19th century wore on, the persecution of the Jews in Eastern Europe where emancipation had not occurred to the extent it did in Western Europe (or at all) increased. Starting with the state-sponsored massive [anti-Jewish pogroms](#) following the assassination of [Tsar Alexander II](#), through the bloody pogroms of 1903 to 1906 who left thousands of Jews dead and many more wounded, continuing with the [Dreyfus Affair](#) in [France](#) in 1894, Jews were profoundly shocked to see the continuing extent of [antisemitism](#) from Russia to France, a country which they thought of as the home of enlightenment and liberty.^[1]

In reaction to the first, [Judah Leib Pinsker](#) published the pamphlet [Auto-Emancipation](#) on January 1, 1882. The pamphlet became influential for the *Political Zionism* movement. The movement was to achieve momentum under the leadership of an Austrian-Jewish journalist, [Theodor Herzl](#), who published his pamphlet [Der Judenstaat](#) ("The Jewish State") in 1896. Prior to the Dreyfus Affair, Herzl had been an assimilationist, but after seeing how France treated its loyal Jewish subjects, he proposed building a separate Jewish state. In 1897 Herzl organized the [First Zionist Congress](#) in [Basel](#), [Switzerland](#), which founded the [World Zionist Organization](#) (WZO) and elected Herzl as its first President. After the state's establishment Zionism, in its various forms, would become the largest Jewish political movement, although more Jews would participate in the national politics of the countries in which they resided.^[citation needed]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D7 JEWISH EMANCIPATION

WIKIPEDIA

Jewish emancipation was the process in various nations in [Europe](#) of eliminating [Jewish disabilities](#), e.g. [Jewish quotas](#), to which [European Jews](#) were then subject, and the recognition of Jews as entitled to equality and [citizenship](#) rights.^[1] It included efforts within the community to integrate into their societies as citizens. It occurred gradually between the late 18th century and the early 20th century.

Jewish emancipation followed after the [Age of Enlightenment](#) and the concurrent [Haskalah](#), or Jewish Enlightenment.^[2] Various nations repealed or superseded previous discriminatory laws applied specifically against [Jews](#) where they resided. Before the [emancipation](#), most Jews were [isolated](#) in residential areas from the rest of the society; emancipation was a major goal of European Jews of that time, who worked within their communities to achieve [integration](#) in the majority societies and broader education. Many became active politically and culturally within wider European [civil society](#) as Jews gained full citizenship. They emigrated to countries offering better social and economic opportunities, such as the [United Kingdom](#) and the [Americas](#). Some European Jews turned to [socialism](#),^[3] [Zionism](#)^[4] or both.^[5]

BACKGROUND



The 1791 law proclaiming the Emancipation of the Jews
– Musée d'Art et d'Histoire du Judaïsme

Jews were subject to a wide range of restrictions throughout most of European history. Since the [Fourth Council of the Lateran](#) in 1215, Christian Europeans required Jews and Muslims to wear special clothing, such as the [Judenhut](#) and the [yellow badge](#) for Jews, to distinguish them from Christians. The practice of their religions was often restricted, and they had to swear [special oaths](#). Jews were not allowed to vote, where voting existed, and some countries formally prohibited their entry, such as Norway, Sweden and [Spain](#) after the expulsion in the late 15th century.

the [Age of Enlightenment](#). [Haskalah](#), the Jewish movement supporting the adoption of enlightenment values, advocated an expansion of Jewish rights within European society. Haskalah followers advocated "coming out of the [ghetto](#)", not just physically but also mentally and spiritually.

In 1790, in the United States, President [George Washington](#) wrote a letter establishing that [Jews in America](#) would share full equal rights, including the right to practice their religion, with all other Americans.^[6] However, Jewish commentators observed that exclusion of Jewish citizens from political office occurred in a number of areas still in 1845.^[7] In fact, American Jewish citizens organized for political rights in the 1800s, and then for further civil rights in the 1900s.^[8]

On September 28, 1791, [revolutionary France](#) emancipated its Jewish population. The 40,000 Jews living in France at the time were the first to confront the opportunities and challenges offered by emancipation. The civic equality that the [French Jews](#) attained became a model for other European Jews.^[9] Newfound opportunities began to be provided to the Jewish people, and they slowly pushed toward equality in other parts of the world. In 1796 and 1834, the Netherlands granted the Jews equal rights with gentiles. [Napoleon](#) freed the Jews in areas he conquered in Europe outside France (see [Napoleon and the Jews](#)). Greece granted equal rights to Jews in 1830. But, it was not until the revolutions of the mid-19th century that [Jewish political movements](#) would begin to persuade governments in Great Britain, Central and Eastern Europe to grant equal rights to Jews.^[10]

In [English law](#) and some successor legal systems there was a convention known as [benefit of clergy](#) ([Law Latin](#): *privilegium clericale*) by which an individual convicted of a crime, through claiming to be a Christian [clergyman](#) (usually as a pretext; in most cases the defendant claiming benefit of clergy was a layperson) could escape punishment or receive a reduced punishment. In the opinions of many contemporary legal scholars, this meant that a Jew who had not renounced Judaism could not claim benefit of clergy.^[11] In England itself the practice of granting benefit of clergy was ended in 1827 but it continued further in other jurisdictions.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D8 1920 NEBI MUSA RIOTS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

1920 Jerusalem riots

Part of [Intercommunal conflict in Mandatory Palestine](#)



Nebi Musa procession, 4 April 1920

Location	Jerusalem, Palestine
Coordinates	 31°47′0″N 35°13′0″E
Date	4–7 April 1920
Attack type	Riot
Deaths	5 Jews, 4 Arabs
Injured	216 Jews, 18 Arabs, 7 Britons

The **1920 Nebi Musa riots** or **1920 Jerusalem riots** took place in British-controlled part of [Occupied Enemy Territory Administration](#) between Sunday, 4 April, and Wednesday, 7 April 1920 in and around the [Old City of Jerusalem](#). Five Jews and four Arabs were killed, and several hundred were injured.^[1] The riots coincided with and are named after the [Nebi Musa](#) festival, which was held every year on [Easter Sunday](#), and followed rising tensions in Arab-Jewish relations. The events came shortly after the [Battle of Tel Hai](#) and the increasing pressure on Arab nationalists in Syria in the course of the [Franco-Syrian War](#).

Speeches were given by Arab religious leaders during the festival (in which large numbers of Muslims traditionally gathered for a religious procession), which included slogans referencing [Zionist](#) immigration and previous confrontations around outlying Jewish villages in the [Galilee](#). The trigger which turned the procession into a riot is not known with certainty.^[2]

The British [military administration](#) of Palestine [was criticized](#) for withdrawing troops from inside Jerusalem and because it was slow to regain control.^[3] As a result of the riots, trust among the British, Jews, and Arabs eroded.

One consequence was that the [Jewish community](#) increased moves towards an autonomous infrastructure and security apparatus parallel to that of the British administration. ^[citation needed]

In its wake, [sheikhs](#) of 82 villages around the city and Jaffa, claiming to represent 70% of the population, issued a document protesting the demonstrations against the Jews. This condemnation may have been procured with bribes.^[4] Notwithstanding the riots, the [Palestinian Jewish community held elections](#) for the Assembly of Representatives on 19 April 1920 among Jews everywhere in Palestine except Jerusalem, where they were delayed to 3 May.^[5] The riots also preceded the [San Remo conference](#) which was held from 19 to 26 April 1920 at which the fate of the Middle East was to be decided.

BACKGROUND



British security forces searching Arab civilians, April 1920



Anti-Zionist demonstration at Damascus Gate, 8 March 1920

The contents and proposals of both the [Balfour Declaration](#) of 1917 and [Paris Peace Conference, 1919](#), which later concluded with the signing of the [Treaty of Versailles](#), were the subject of intensive discussion by both Zionist and Arab delegations, and the process of the negotiations were widely reported in both communities. In particular, the collapse of the [Ottoman Empire](#) led to an undertaking by the victorious powers, predominantly Great Britain and France, to assume a 'holy mission of civilization' in the power vacuum of the Middle East. Under the Balfour Declaration, a homeland for the Jewish people was to be created in Palestine. The principle of [self-determination](#) affirmed by the [League of Nations](#) was not to be applied to Palestine, given the foreseeable rejection by the people of Zionism, which the British sponsored. These post-World War I arrangements both for Palestine and other Arab societies led to a 'radicalization' of the Arab world.^[6]

On 1 March 1920, the death of [Joseph Trumpeldor](#) in the [Battle of Tel Hai](#) at the hands of a [Shiite](#) group from Southern Lebanon caused deep concern among Jewish leaders, who made numerous requests to the [OETA](#) administration to address the [Yishuv](#)'s security and forbid a pro-Syrian public rally. However, their fears were largely discounted by the Chief Administrative Officer General [Louis Bols](#), Military Governor [Ronald Storrs](#) and General [Edmund Allenby](#), despite a warning from the head of the [Zionist Commission](#) [Chaim Weizmann](#) that a "[pogrom](#) is in the air", supported by assessments available to Storrs.^[1] Communiqués had been issued about foreseeable troubles among Arabs, and between Arabs and Jews. To Weizmann and the Jewish leadership, these developments were reminiscent of instructions that [Russian](#) generals had issued on the eve of pogroms.^[7] In the meantime, local Arab expectations had been raised to a pitch by the declaration of the Syrian Congress on 7 March of the independence of [Greater Syria](#) in the [Kingdom of Syria](#), with Faisal as its king,^[8] that included the British-controlled territory within its claimed domain. On 7 and 8 March, demonstrations took place in all cities of Palestine, shops were closed and many Jews were attacked. Attackers carried slogans such as "Death to Jews" or "Palestine is our land and the Jews are our dogs!"^[9]

Jewish leaders requested that OETA authorise the arming of the Jewish defenders to make up for the lack of adequate British troops. Although this request was declined, [Ze'ev Jabotinsky](#), together with [Pinhas Rutenberg](#), led an effort to openly train Jewish volunteers in self-defense, an effort of which the Zionist Commission kept the British informed. Many of the volunteers were members of the [Maccabi sports club](#) and some of them were veterans of the [Jewish Legion](#). Their month of training largely consisted of [calisthenics](#) and [hand to hand combat](#) with sticks.^[11] By the end of March, about 600 were said to be performing military drills daily in Jerusalem.^[10] Jabotinsky and Rutenberg also began organizing the collection of arms.^[10]

The [Nebi Musa](#) festival was an annual spring Muslim festival that began on the Friday before [Good Friday](#) and included a procession to the Nebi Musa shrine (tomb of Moses) near [Jericho](#).^[11] It had apparently existed since the time of [Saladin](#).^[12] Arab educator and essayist [Khalil al-Sakakini](#) described how tribes and caravans would come with banners and weapons.^[11] The [Ottoman](#) Turks usually deployed thousands of soldiers and even artillery to keep order in the narrow streets of Jerusalem during the Nebi Musa procession. However, Storrs issued a warning to Arab leaders, but deployed only 188 policemen.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D9 THE FIRST ARAB BOYCOTT OF THE JEWS, 1922

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Boycotts of Israel are the refusal and calls to refusal of having commercial or social dealings with [Israel](#) in order to influence Israel's practices and policies by means of using economic pressure.^[1] The specific objective of Israel boycotts varies; the [BDS movement](#) calls for boycotts of Israel "until it meets its obligations under international law,^[2] and the purpose of the [Arab League's boycott of Israel](#) was to prevent Arab states and others to contribute to Israel's economy.^[3] Israel believes that boycotts against it are antisemitic.^[4]

Boycotts of Jewish-owned Businesses in Mandatory Palestine

Boycotts of Jewish-owned businesses in [Mandatory Palestine](#) were organised by Arab leaders starting in 1922 in an attempt to damage the [Jewish population of Palestine](#) economically, especially during periods of [communal strife between Jews and Arabs](#).^[5] The original boycott forswore with any Jewish-owned business operating in Mandatory Palestine. Palestinian Arabs "who were found to have broken the boycott ... were physically attacked by their brethren and their merchandise damaged" when [Palestinian Arabs rioted in Jerusalem](#) in 1929.^[6] Another, stricter boycott was imposed on Jewish businesses in following the riots that called on all of the Arabs in the region to abide by its terms. The Arab Executive Committee of the [Syrian-Palestinian Congress](#) called for a boycott of Jewish businesses in 1933 and in 1934, the Arab Labor Federation conducted a boycott as well as an organized picketing of Jewish businesses. In 1936, the Palestinian Arab leadership called on another boycott and threatened those who did not respect the boycott with violence, however, this boycott was unsuccessful as Jewish lawyers, physicians, and hospitals were too heavily integrated into Palestinian society.^[5]

ARAB LEAGUE BOYCOTT OF ISRAEL

Headquarters of the Arab League, [Cairo](#).

Main article: [Arab League boycott of Israel](#)

Economic

The [Arab League](#) organised a boycott of pre-establishment Israel in December 1945, shortly after its formation, before the [establishment of the State of Israel](#) in 1948,^[7] and continued and intensified it afterwards. The Arab League boycott is an effort by its member states to isolate Israel economically to prevent Arab states and discourage non-Arabs from providing support to Israel and adding to Israel's economic and military strength.^[8]

As part of the Arab boycott, for example, existing road and rail links with neighboring Arab countries were severed, all direct air flights were not permitted, overflights over Arab airspace by Israeli aircraft and of third country airlines that fly into Israel was refused, and even airlines that flew to Israel were refused entry to Arab countries. Originally, the Arab boycott had a moderate negative impact on Israel's economy and

development. Inevitably the economies of participating Arab nations also suffered as the result of a deterioration in the foreign direct investment climate in the Arab world, and reduction in the volume of trade. Whether or not the Arab nations in question were aware of the potential risks to their own economies is still unknown. There is still debate as to whether they, in unison, viewed the economic sanctions as a necessary sacrifice to slow the development of the newly declared Israeli state. ^[9][\[unreliable source\]](#)

The [Organisation of Islamic Cooperation](#) (OIC) urges its members to join in the Arab League boycott of Israel. ^[10] Ten members of OIC (in addition to those that are also members of the Arab League) have joined the diplomatic boycott: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Brunei, Chad, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Mali, Niger, and Pakistan. The call was renewed on 22 May 2018, when the OIC recommended to its 57 members a selective ban on some Israeli goods because of the events in Gaza and the opening of the United States embassy in Jerusalem. ^[11]

Egypt (1979), the Palestinian Authority (1993), and Jordan (1994) signed peace treaties or agreements that ended their participation in the boycott of Israel. [Mauritania](#), which never applied the boycott, established diplomatic relations with Israel in 1999. Algeria, Morocco, and Tunisia do not enforce the boycott. ^[12]

In 1994, following the [Oslo Peace Accords](#), the [Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf](#) (GCC) states, ended their participation in the Arab boycott against Israel, ^[9] and stated that total elimination of the boycott is a necessary step for peace and economic development in the region. ^[12] In present days, the Arab boycott is rarely applied. The move prompted a surge of investment in Israel, and resulted in the initiation of joint cooperation projects between Israel and Arab countries. ^[9][\[unreliable source\]](#)

Today, most Arab states, [Syria](#) being the exception, no longer attempt to enforce the secondary or tertiary boycotts. Syria, Lebanon, and Iran (though not an Arab state) are the only states which actively enforce the primary boycott. The Arab League's Central Boycott Office has become obsolete. With the vast majority of Arab states benefiting from trade with Israel, any "boycott" has become symbolic in nature, limited to bureaucratic slights such as diplomatic ostracism and passport restrictions.

There are still residual laws banning relations with Israel. For example, [Sudan](#) has since 1958 had a law that forbids establishing relations with Israel, and outlaws business with citizens of Israel as well as business relationships with Israeli companies or companies with Israeli interests. The law also forbids the direct or indirect import of any Israeli goods. ^[13]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D10 CREATION OF THE EMIRATE OF TRANSJORDAN

This article is about the 1921–1946 British protectorate. For other uses, see [Transjordan \(disambiguation\)](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The **Emirate of Transjordan** ([Arabic](#): إمارة شرق الأردن, [romanized](#): *Imārat Sharq al-Urdun*, [lit.](#) 'the emirate east of the Jordan'), officially known as the **Amirate of Trans-Jordan**, was a [British protectorate](#) established on 11 April 1921,^{[4][1][2]} which remained as such until achieving formal independence in 1946.

After the Ottoman defeat in World War I, the [Transjordan region](#) was administered within [OETA East](#); after the British withdrawal in 1919, this region gained de facto recognition as part of the Hashemite-ruled [Arab Kingdom of Syria](#), administering an area broadly comprising the areas of the modern countries of [Syria](#) and [Jordan](#). Transjordan [became a no man's land](#) following the July 1920 [Battle of Maysalun](#),^{[5][6]} during which period the British in neighbouring [Mandatory Palestine](#) chose to avoid "any definite connection between it and Palestine".^[7] [Abdullah entered the region in November 1920](#), moving to Amman on 2 March 1921; later in the month a [conference](#) was held with the British during which it was agreed that [Abdullah bin Hussein](#) would administer the territory under the auspices of the [British Mandate for Palestine](#) with a fully autonomous governing system.

The [Hashemite](#) dynasty ruled the protectorate, as well as the neighbouring [Mandatory Iraq](#) and, until 1925, the [Kingdom of Hejaz](#) to the south. On 25 May 1946, the [emirate](#) became the "Hashemite Kingdom of Transjordan", achieving full independence on 17 June 1946 when in accordance with the [Treaty of London](#) ratifications were exchanged in Amman.

In 1949, after annexing the [West Bank](#) in Palestine, and "uniting" both banks of the Jordan river, it was constitutionally renamed the "Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan", commonly referred to as [Jordan](#).

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D11 1929 PALESTINIAN RIOTS,

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **1929 Palestine riots**, **Buraq Uprising** ([Arabic](#): ثورة البراق, *Thawrat al-Buraq*) or the **Events of 1929** ([Hebrew](#): מאורעות תרפ"ט, *Meora'ot Tarpat*, *lit.* Events of 5689 [Anno Mundi](#)), was a series of demonstrations and riots in late August 1929 in which a longstanding dispute between [Muslims](#) and [Jews](#) over access to the [Western Wall](#) in [Jerusalem](#) escalated into violence.

The riots took the form, for the most part, of attacks by Arabs on Jews accompanied by destruction of Jewish property. During the week of riots, from 23 to 29 August, 133 Jews were killed by Arabs, and 339 Jews were injured, most of whom were unarmed.^{[1][2]} There were 116 Arabs killed and at least 232 wounded, mostly by the [Mandate police](#) suppressing the riots. Around 20 Arabs were killed by Jewish attackers and indiscriminate British gunfire.^{[3][4]} After the riots, 174 Arabs and 109 Jews were charged with murder or attempted murder; around 40% of Arabs and 3% of Jews were subsequently convicted. During the riots, 17 Jewish communities were evacuated.^[5]

The British-appointed [Shaw Commission](#) found that the fundamental cause of the violence, "without which in our opinion disturbances either would not have occurred or would have been little more than a local riot, is the Arab feeling of animosity and hostility towards the Jews consequent upon the disappointment of their political and national aspirations and fear for their economic future",^[6] as well as Arab fears of Jewish immigrants "not only as a menace to their livelihood but as a possible overlord of the future".^[7] With respect to the triggering of the riots, the Commission found that the incident that "contributed most to the outbreak was the [Jewish demonstration at the Wailing Wall on 15 August 1929](#)".^[6]

[Avraham Sela](#) described the riots as "unprecedented in the history of the Arab-Jewish conflict in Palestine, in duration, geographical scope and direct damage to life and property".^[8]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D12 1936–1939 ARAB REVOLT IN PALESTINE

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine**, later known as **The Great Revolt** (*al-Thawra al-Kubra*)^[10] or **The Great Palestinian Revolt** (*Thawrat Filastin al-Kubra*),^[11] was a popular nationalist uprising by Palestinian Arabs in [Mandatory Palestine](#) against the British administration of the Palestine Mandate, demanding Arab independence and the end of the policy of open-ended Jewish immigration and land purchases with the stated goal of establishing a "Jewish National Home".^[12] The uprising coincided with a peak in the influx of immigrant Jews, some 60,000 that year – the Jewish population having grown under British auspices from 57,000 to 320,000 in 1935^[13] – and with the growing plight of the rural [fellahin](#) rendered landless, who as they moved to metropolitan centers to escape their abject poverty found themselves socially marginalized.^{[14][a]} Since 1920 Jews and Arabs had been involved in a cycle of attacks and counter-attacks, and the immediate spark for the uprising was the murder of two Jews by a [Qassamite band](#), and the retaliatory killing by Jewish gunmen of two Arab laborers, incidents which triggered a flare-up of violence across Palestine.^[16] A month into the disturbances [Amin al-Husseini](#), president of the [Arab Higher Committee](#) and [Mufti](#) of [Jerusalem](#), declared 16 May 1936 as 'Palestine Day' and called for a [General Strike](#). The revolt was branded by many in the Jewish [Yishuv](#) as "immoral and [terroristic](#)", often compared to [fascism](#) and [Nazism](#).^[17] [Ben Gurion](#), however, described Arab causes as fear of growing Jewish economic power, opposition to mass [Jewish immigration](#) and fear of the English identification with Zionism.^[17]

The general strike lasted from April to October 1936. The revolt is often analysed in terms of two distinct phases.^{[18][19]} The first phase was one of spontaneous popular resistance which was only, in a second moment, seized on by the urban and elitist Arab Higher Committee, which gave the movement an organized shape and was focused mainly on strikes and other forms of political protest, in order to secure a political result.^[20] By October 1936, this phase had been defeated by the British [civil administration](#) using a combination of [political concessions](#), international diplomacy (involving the rulers of [Iraq](#), [Saudi Arabia](#), [Transjordan](#) and [Yemen](#))^[21] and the threat of [martial law](#).^[22] The second phase, which began late in 1937, was a peasant-led resistance movement provoked by British repression in 1936^[23] in which increasingly British forces were targeted as the army itself increasingly targeted the villages it thought supportive of the revolt.^[24] During this phase, the rebellion was brutally suppressed by the [British Army](#) and the [Palestine Police Force](#) using repressive measures that were intended to intimidate the whole population and undermine popular support for the revolt.^[25] A more dominant role on the Arab side was taken by the [Nashashibi clan](#), whose [NDP party](#) quickly withdrew from the rebel [Arab Higher Committee](#), led by the radical [faction](#) of Amin al-Husseini, and instead sided with the British – dispatching "Fasail al-Salam" (the "Peace Bands") in coordination with the British Army against nationalist and Jihadist Arab "Fasail" units (literally "bands").

According to official British figures covering the whole revolt, the army and police killed more than 2,000 Arabs in combat, 108 were [hanged](#),^[8] and 961 died because of what they described as "gang and terrorist activities".^[26] In an analysis of the British statistics, [Walid Khalidi](#) estimates 19,792 casualties for the Arabs, with 5,032 dead:^[b] 3,832 killed by the British and 1,200 dead due to intracommunal terrorism, and 14,760 wounded.^[26] By one estimate, ten percent of the adult male [Palestinian Arab](#) population between 20 and 60 was killed, wounded, imprisoned or exiled.^[28] Estimates of the number of [Palestinian Jews](#) killed are up to several hundred.^[29]

The Arab revolt in Mandatory Palestine was unsuccessful, and its consequences affected the outcome of the [1948 Palestine war](#).^[30] It caused the British Mandate to give crucial support to pre-state Zionist militias like the [Haganah](#), whereas on the Palestinian Arab side, the revolt forced the flight into exile of the main Palestinian Arab leader of the period, the [Grand Mufti of Jerusalem Haj Amin al-Husseini](#).^[dubious – discuss]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D13 PEEL COMMISSION. 1937

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Report of the Palestine Royal Commission



Peel Commission Partition Plan, July 1937

Created July 1937

Purpose Investigation of the causes of the 1936 Arab revolt in Palestine

The **Peel Commission**, formally known as the **Palestine Royal Commission**, was a British [Royal Commission](#) of Inquiry, headed by [Lord Peel](#), appointed in 1936 to investigate the causes of unrest in [Mandatory Palestine](#), which was administered by Great Britain, following a six-month-long [Arab general strike](#).

On 7 July 1937, the commission published a report that, for the first time, stated that the [League of Nations Mandate](#) had become unworkable and recommended partition.^[1] The British cabinet endorsed the Partition plan in principle, but requested more information.^[2] Following the publication, in 1938 the [Woodhead Commission](#) was appointed to examine it in detail and recommend an actual partition plan.

The Arabs opposed the partition plan and condemned it unanimously.^[3] The [Arab Higher Committee](#) opposed the idea of a Jewish state^[4] and called for an independent state of Palestine, "with protection of all legitimate Jewish and other minority rights and safeguarding of reasonable British interests".^[5] They also demanded cessation of all Jewish immigration and land purchase.^[4] They argued that the creation of a Jewish state and lack of independent Palestine was a betrayal of the word given by Britain.^{[2][6]}

The Zionist leadership was bitterly divided over the plan.^[4] In a resolution adopted at the 1937 Zionist Congress, the delegates rejected the specific partition plan. Yet the principle of partition is generally thought to have been "accepted" or "not rejected outright" by any major faction: the delegates empowered the leadership to pursue future negotiations.^{[4][7][8][9]} The [Jewish Agency](#) Council later attached a request that a conference be convened to explore a peaceful settlement in terms of an undivided Palestine.^[4] According to [Benny Morris](#), [Ben-](#)

[Gurion](#) and [Weizmann](#) saw it "as a stepping stone to some further expansion and the eventual takeover of the whole of Palestine".^{[4][10]}

HISTORY

With the collapse of the [Ottoman Empire](#) at the end of World War I, The United Kingdom was given a [mandate](#) by the [League of Nations](#) to [administer](#) the region known as Palestine. The mandate was to end in 1948.^[12] The solution led to other problems, however, as the British sought to honor the [Balfour Declaration](#) while protecting the rights of the prior inhabitants of the territory. The British government investigated numerous possibilities for the region, including [partition](#).

The commission was established at a time of increased violence; serious [clashes between Arabs and Jews broke out in 1936](#) and were to last three years. On 11 November 1936, the commission arrived in Palestine to investigate the reasons behind the uprising. The commission was charged with determining the cause of the riots, and judging the grievances of both sides. [Chaim Weizmann](#) made a speech on behalf of the Jews. On 25 November 1936, testifying before the Peel Commission, Weizmann said that there are in Europe 6,000,000 Jews ... "for whom the world is divided into places where they cannot live and places where they cannot enter."^[13]

The [Mufti](#) of Jerusalem, Hajj [Amin al-Husseini](#), testified in front of the commission, opposing any partition of Arab lands with the Jews. He demanded full cessation of Jewish immigration. Although the Arabs continued to boycott the Commission officially, there was a sense of urgency to respond to Weizmann's appeal to restore calm. The former Mayor of Jerusalem [Ragheb Bey al-Nashashibi](#)—who was the Mufti's rival in the internal Palestinian arena, was thus sent to explain the Arab perspective through unofficial channels.^[citation needed]

In 1981 it was disclosed that the [Jewish Agency Executive](#) Political Department had installed microphones in the room the commission was meeting and Ben Gurion was able to read transcripts of evidence held in camera.^[14]

MEMBERSHIP

The Chairman of the Commission was [William Peel, 1st Earl Peel](#) and the Vice-Chairman was [Sir Horace Rumbold, 9th Baronet](#). The other members were [Sir Laurie Hammond](#), [Sir Morris Carter](#), [Sir Harold Morris](#), and [Reginald Coupland](#).

CONCLUSIONS

The causes of the Arab rebellion that broke out in the previous year were judged to be

First, the desire of the Arabs for national independence; secondly, their antagonism to the establishment of the Jewish National Home in Palestine, quickened by their fear of Jewish domination. Among contributory causes were the effect on Arab opinion of the attainment of national independence by 'Iraq, Trans-Jordan, Egypt, Syria and the Lebanon; the rush of Jewish immigrants escaping from Central and Eastern Europe; the inequality of opportunity enjoyed by Arabs and Jews respectively in placing their case before Your Majesty's Government and the public; the growth of Arab mistrust; Arab alarm at the continued purchase of Arab land by the intensive character and the "modernism" of Jewish nationalism; and lastly the general

uncertainty, accentuated by the ambiguity of certain phrases in the Mandate, as to the ultimate intentions of the Mandatory Power.^[15]

The Commission found that the drafters of the Mandate could not have foreseen the advent of massive Jewish immigration, that they considered due to "drastic restriction of immigration into the United States, the advent of the National Socialist Government in Germany in 1933 and the increasing economic pressure on the Jews in Poland."^[16] They wrote that "The continued impact of a highly intelligent and enterprising race, backed by large financial resources, on a comparatively poor indigenous community, on a different cultural level, may produce in time serious reactions."^[17]

The Commission found that "though the Arabs have benefited by the development of the country owing to Jewish immigration, this has had no conciliatory effect. On the contrary, improvement in the economic situation in Palestine has meant the deterioration of the political situation".^[17] Addressing the "Arab charge that the Jews have obtained too large a proportion of good land cannot be maintained", the Commission noted that "Much of the land now carrying orange groves was sand dunes or swamp and uncultivated when it was purchased."^[18] They write that "The shortage of land is, we consider, due less to the amount of land acquired by Jews than to the increase in the Arab population".^[18] "Endeavours to control the alienation of land by Arabs to Jews have not been successful. In the hills there is no more room for further close settlement by Jews; in the plains it should only be allowed under certain restrictions."^[15]

The Commission stated that Government have attempted to discharge the contradictory obligations of the Mandatory under conditions of great difficulty by "holding the balance" between Jews and Arabs. Repeated attempts to conciliate either race have only increased the trouble. The situation in Palestine has reached a deadlock.^[15] Development of local autonomy and selfgoverning institutions, this also has been hampered.^[15]

The Commission concluded that the prospect of a unified Palestine with Jews and Arabs as fellow citizens in a common state was remote due to the highly nationalistic natures of the two communities. On the nature of the Yishuv, it wrote that:

"The Jewish National Home is no longer an experiment. The growth of its population has been accompanied by political, social and economic developments along the lines laid down at the outset. The chief novelty is the urban and industrial development. The contrast between the modern democratic and primarily European character of the National Home and that of the Arab world around it is striking. The temper of the Home is strongly nationalist. There can be no question of fusion or assimilation between Jewish and Arab cultures. The National Home cannot be half-national."^[19]

It also concluded that such a prospect was growing less realistic with time due to the nature of the Jewish education system, which was causing a rise in Jewish nationalism, writing that "from the ages of three or four years, when children enter the kindergarten to be taught Hebrew if they do not know it already, pride in the past of Jewry and in the National Home as an exclusively and intensely Jewish achievement is the dynamic centre-point of their whole intellectual development. The idea that they are to share their life in any way with the Arabs, that they are growing up to be fellow-citizens with Arabs in a common Palestinian state,

is only recognised in the teaching of a little Arabic in the secondary schools... So far, in fact, from facilitating a better understanding between the races, the Jewish educational system is making it more and more difficult as, year by year, its production of eager Jewish nationalists mounts up."^[20]

The committee concluded that Arab nationalism was also a potent force and that the two communities were more loyal to their own national leaderships than the Palestine administration:

"Arab nationalism is as intense a force as Jewish. The Arab leaders' demand for national self-government and the shutting down of the Jewish National Home has remained unchanged since 1929. Like Jewish nationalism, Arab nationalism is stimulated by the educational system and by the growth of the Youth Movement. It has also been greatly encouraged by the recent Anglo-Egyptian and Franco-Syrian Treaties. The gulf between the races is thus already wide and will continue to widen if the present Mandate is maintained. The position of the Palestine Government between the two antagonistic communities is unenviable. There are two rival bodies – the [Arab Higher Committee](#) allied with the Supreme Moslem Council on the one hand, and the Jewish Agency allied with the Va'ad Leumi on the other – who make a stronger appeal to the natural loyalty of the Arab and the Jews than does the Government of Palestine. The sincere attempts of the Government to treat the two races impartially have not improved the relations between them. Nor has the policy of conciliating Arab opposition been successful. The events of last year proved that conciliation is useless."^[19]

The summary report statement concerning the possibility of lasting settlement states: "An irrepressible conflict has arisen between two national communities within the narrow bounds of one small country. There is no common ground between them. Their national aspirations are incompatible. The Arabs desire to revive the traditions of the Arab golden age. The Jews desire to show what they can achieve when restored to the land in which the Jewish nation was born. Neither of the two national ideals permits of combination in the service of a single State."^[21]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D14 WOODHEAD COMMISSION, 1938 TO SPLIT PALESTINE BETWEEN JEWS AND ARABS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **Woodhead Commission** (officially the **Palestine Partition Commission**^[1]) was a British technical commission established to propose "a detailed" partition scheme for Mandatory Palestine, including recommending the partition boundaries and examination of economic and financial aspects of the [Peel Commission](#)

The Commission was appointed at the end of February 1938 and conducted its investigations from April to early August 1938. It rejected the Peel Commission's plan mainly on the grounds that it required a large transfer of Arabs, and considered two other plans. It preferred a modification of the partition, which forms a satisfactory basis of settlement, if the United Kingdom government accept "the very considerable financial liability involved,"^[4] that balances the Arab state budget.^[5] In this plan, the entire Galilee and a corridor from Jaffa to Jerusalem would remain under British mandate.

It published its conclusions on November 9, 1938, after which the British government rejected the imminent partition of Palestine as involving insurmountable "political, administrative and financial difficulties".^[6] Britain called for a conference in London for all relevant parties to work out a compromise.


[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D15 HAGANAH

Not to be confused with [Agana](#).

For the hand-to-hand combat style known as the Haganah system, see [Krav Maga](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Haganah	
ההגנה	
	
Haganah symbol	
Active	1920–1948
Disbanded	May 28, 1948
Country	Yishuv , Mandatory Palestine , Israel
Type	Paramilitary (pre-independence) Unified armed forces (post-independence)
Role	Defense of Jewish settlements (pre-independence)
Size	Average: 21,000 ^[1]
Engagements	1929 Palestine riots 1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine World War II Jewish Revolt in Palestine Palestine Civil War 1948 Arab–Israeli War (first two weeks)

Haganah ([Hebrew](#): ההגנה, lit. *The Defence*) was the main [Zionist](#)^[2] [paramilitary](#) organization of the Jewish population ("[Yishuv](#)") in [Mandatory Palestine](#) between 1920 and its disestablishment in 1948, when it became the core of the [Israel Defense Forces](#) (IDF).

Formed out of previous existing militias, its original purpose was to defend Jewish settlements from Arab attacks, such as the riots of [1920](#), [1921](#), [1929](#) and during the [1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine](#). It was under the control of the [Jewish Agency](#), the official governmental body in charge of Palestine's Jewish

community during the [British Mandate](#). Until the end of the [Second World War](#), Haganah's activities were moderate, in accordance with the policy of [havlagá](#) ("self-restraint"), which caused the splitting of the more radical [Irgun](#) and [Lehi](#). The group received clandestine military support from Poland. Haganah sought cooperation with the British in the event of an [Axis](#) invasion of Palestine through [North Africa](#), prompting the creation of the [Palmach](#) task force in 1941.

With the end of World War II and British refusal to cancel the [1939 White Paper](#)'s restrictions on Jewish immigration, the Haganah turned to [sabotage activities](#) against the British authorities, including bombing bridges, rail lines, and ships used to deport illegal Jewish immigrants, as well as assisting in bringing Jews to Palestine in defiance of British policy. After the United Nations adopted a [partition plan for Palestine](#) in 1947, the Haganah came into the open as the biggest fighting force among Palestinian Jews, successfully overcoming Arab forces during the [civil war](#). Shortly after [Israel's independence declaration](#) and the beginning of the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), the Haganah was merged with other groups and reorganized into the official army of the state.

HISTORY

Overview

The evolution of Jewish defense organisations in Palestine and later Israel went from small self-defense groups active during [Ottoman](#) rule, to ever larger and more sophisticated ones during the [British Mandate](#), leading through the Haganah to the national army of Israel, the IDF. The evolution went step by step from [Bar-Giora](#), to [Hashomer](#), to Haganah, to IDF. ^{[[citation needed](#)]}

The Jewish paramilitary organisations in the [New Yishuv](#) (the Zionist enterprise in Palestine) started with the [Second Aliyah](#) (1904 to 1914).^{[[3\]](#)} The first such organization was [Bar-Giora](#), founded in September 1907. It consisted of a small group of Jewish immigrants who guarded settlements for an annual fee. It was converted to Hashomer ([Hebrew](#): השומר; "The Watchman") in April 1909, which operated until the British Mandate of Palestine came into being in 1920. Hashomer was an elitist organization which never had more than 100 members.^{[[4\]](#)} During [World War I](#), the forerunners of the Haganah/IDF were the [Zion Mule Corps](#) and the [Jewish Legion](#), both of which were part of the British Army. After the [Arab riots](#) against Jews in April 1920, the Yishuv's leadership saw the need to create a nationwide underground defense organization, and the Haganah was founded in June of the same year. The Haganah became a full-scale defense force after the [1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine](#) with an organized structure, consisting of three main units—the [Field Corps](#), [Guard Corps](#), and the [Palmach](#) strike force. During World War II the successor to the Jewish Legion of World War I was the [Jewish Brigade](#), which was joined by many Haganah fighters. During the 1947–48 civil war between the Arab and Jewish communities in what was still Mandatory Palestine, a reorganised Haganah managed to defend or wrestle most of the territory it was ordered to hold or capture. At the beginning of the ensuing 1948–49 full-scale conventional war against regular Arab armies, the Haganah was reorganised to become the core of the new Israel Defense Forces.^{[[citation needed](#)]}

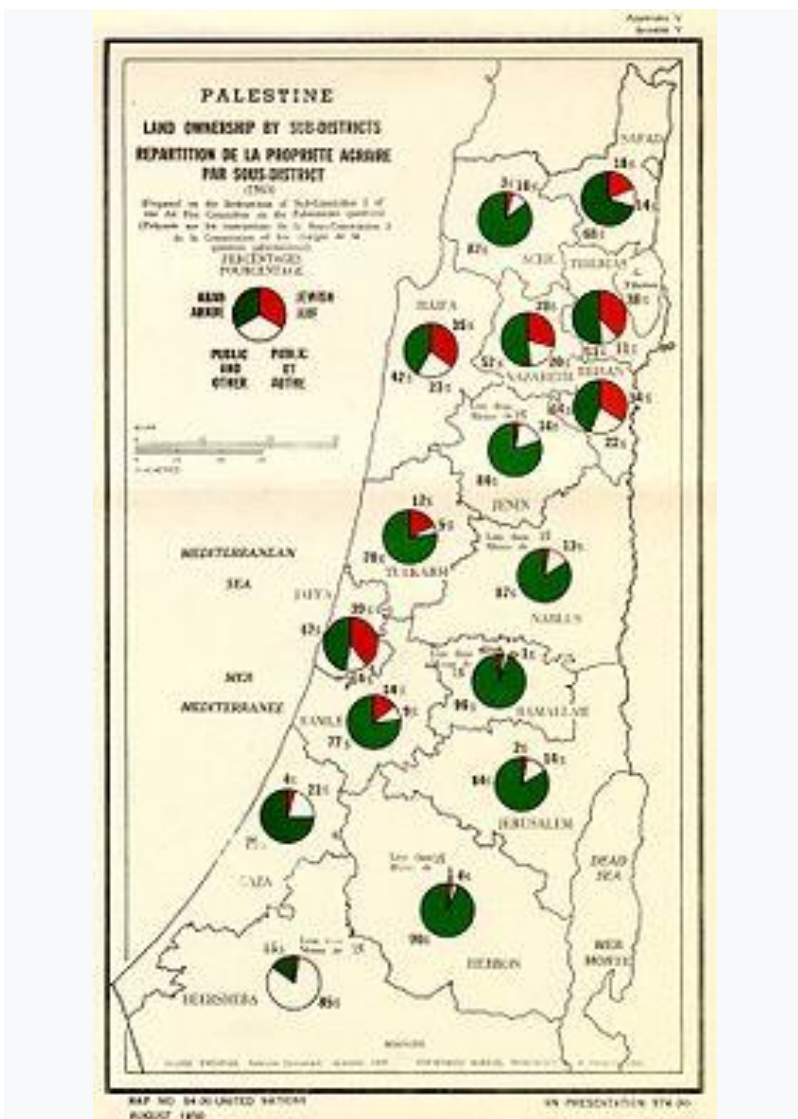
[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D16 JEWISH LAND PURCHASE IN PALESTINE

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Jewish land purchase in Palestine was the acquisition of land in [Ottoman](#) and [Mandatory Palestine](#) by [Jews](#) from the 1880s until the establishment of the [State of Israel](#) in 1948. By far the largest such arrangement was known as the [Sursock Purchase](#). As of April 1st, 1945, Jews had acquired 5.67% of the land in Palestine.^{[2][3][4]}

BACKGROUND



Palestine
[agricultural land](#) ownership
by sub-district (1945)

Towards the end of the 19th-century, the creation of the Zionist movement resulted in many European Jews [immigrating](#) to Palestine. Most land purchases between the late 1880s and the 1930s were located in

the [coastal plain](#) area, including "Acre to the North and Rehovoth to the South, the Esdraelon (Jezreel) and Jordan Valleys and to the lesser extent in Galilee".^[5] The migration affected Palestine in many ways, including economically, socially, and politically.

The [Talmud](#) mentions the religious duty of settling the [Land of Israel](#).^[6] It also allows for the lifting of certain religious restrictions of [Sabbath](#) observance to further its acquisition and settlement.^[7]

LAND PURCHASES



KKL collection boxes to fund land purchases in Palestine were distributed among Jews from 1904

In the first half of the 19th century, no foreigners were allowed to purchase land in Palestine.^[citation needed] This was official Ottoman policy until 1856 and in practice until 1867.^[8] When it came to the national aspirations of the [Zionist movement](#), the [Ottoman Empire](#) opposed the idea of Jewish self-rule in Palestine, fearing it might lose control of Palestine after recently having lost other territories to various European powers. It also took issue with the Jews, as many came from Russia, which sought the empire's demise.^[9] In 1881 the Ottoman governmental administration (the [Sublime Porte](#)) decreed that foreign Jews could immigrate to and settle anywhere within the Ottoman Empire, except in Palestine and from 1882 until their defeat in 1918, the Ottomans continuously restricted Jewish immigration and land purchases in Palestine.^[9] In 1892, the Ottoman government decided to prohibit the sale of land in Palestine to Jews, even if they were Ottoman citizens.^[10] Nevertheless, during the late 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, many successful land purchases were made through organizations such as the [Palestine Jewish Colonization Association](#) (PJCA), [Palestine Land Development Company](#) and the [Jewish National Fund](#).

The [Ottoman Land Code](#) of 1858 "brought about the appropriation by the influential and rich families of Beirut, Damascus, and to a lesser extent Jerusalem and Jaffa and other sub-district capitals, of vast tracts of land in Syria and Palestine and their registration in the name of these families in the land registers".^[11]

Many of the [fellahin](#) did not understand the importance of the registers and therefore the wealthy families took advantage of this.s.^[citation needed] Jewish buyers who were looking for large tracts of land found it

favorable to purchase from the wealthy owners.^[citation needed] As well many small farmers became in debt to rich families which led to the transfer of land to the new owners and then eventually to the Jewish buyers.s.^[citation needed]

According to Palestinian-American anthropologist Nasser Abufarha "In 1858 the Ottoman Authority introduced the law of tabu to fix rights of ownership of the land. Land owners were instructed to have their property inscribed in the land register. The tabu was resisted by the fellahin. They saw a threat to their community in registering their land for two main reasons: 1) the cultivated fields were classified as ardh ameriyeh (the land of the Emir) and were taxed. Owners of registered fertile land were forced to pay tax on it; 2) data from the land register were used by the Turkish Army for the purpose of the draft. Owners of registered lands were often drafted to fight with the Turkish Army in Russia." ^[12]

In 1918, after the British conquest of Palestine, the military administration closed the Land Register and prohibited all sale of land. The Register was reopened in 1920, but to prevent speculation and ensure a livelihood for the fellahin, an edict was issued forbidding the sale of more than 300 dunams of land or the sale of land valued at more than 3000 Palestine pounds without the approval of the High Commissioner.^[13]

From the 1880s to the 1930s, most Jewish land purchases were made in the coastal plain, the Jezreel Valley, the Jordan Valley and to a lesser extent the Galilee.^[11] This was due to a preference for land that was cheap and without tenants.^[11] There were two main reasons why these areas were sparsely populated. The first reason being when the Ottoman power in the rural areas began to diminish in the seventeenth century, many people moved to more centralized areas to secure protection against the Bedouin tribes.^[11] The second reason for the sparsely populated areas of the coastal plains was the soil type. The soil, covered in a layer of sand, made it impossible to grow the staple crop of Palestine, corn.^[11] As a result, this area remained uncultivated and underpopulated.^[5] "The sparse Arab population in the areas where the Jews usually bought their land enabled the Jews to carry out their purchase without engendering a massive displacement and eviction of Arab tenants".^[11]

In the 1930s, most of the land was bought from landowners. Of the land that the Jews bought, 52.6% were bought from non-Palestinian landowners, 24.6% from Palestinian landowners, 13.4% from government, churches, and foreign companies, and only 9.4% from fellaheen (farmers).^[14]


On 31 December 1944, out of 1,732.63 dunums of land owned in Palestine by large Jewish Corporations and private owners, about 44% was in possession of Jewish National Fund. The table below shows the land ownership of Palestine by large Jewish Corporations (in square kilometres) on 31 December 1945.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D19 HISTORY OF THE JEWS DURING WORLD WAR II

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

=

<p>Part of a series on</p> <h3>The Holocaust</h3>  <p>Jews on selection ramp at Auschwitz, May 1944</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Responsibility [show] Early policies [show] Victims [show] Ghettos [show] Camps [show] Atrocities [show] Resistance [show] International response [show] Aftermath [show] Lists [show] Resources [show] Remembrance [show] <p>V · T · E</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; text-align: center;"> <p>Go to WIKIPEDIA to use links</p> </div>
---	--

The history of the Jews during World War II is almost synonymous with the [persecution](#) and [murder of Jews](#) which was committed on an unprecedented scale in Europe and European North Africa (pro-Nazi Vichy-North Africa and [Italian Libya](#)). The massive scale of [the Holocaust](#) which happened during [World War II](#) greatly affected the [Jewish people](#) and world public opinion, which only understood the dimensions of the [Final Solution](#) after the war. The genocide, known as *HaShoah* in Hebrew, aimed at the elimination of

the Jewish people on the European continent. It was a broadly organized operation led by [Nazi Germany](#), in which approximately six million Jews were murdered methodically and with horrifying cruelty. Although the Holocaust was organized by the highest levels of the Nazi German government, the vast majority of Jews murdered were not German, but were instead residents of countries invaded by the Nazis after 1938. Of the approximately 6 million Jews murdered by the Nazis, approximately 160,000 to 180,000 were German Jews.^[1] During [the Holocaust in occupied Poland](#), more than one million Jews were murdered in gas chambers of the [Auschwitz concentration camp](#) alone. The murder of the Jews of Europe affected Jewish communities in [Albania](#), [Austria](#), [Belarus](#), [Belgium](#), [Bosnia & Herzegovina](#), [Channel Islands](#), [Croatia](#), [Czech Republic](#), [Estonia](#), [France](#), [Germany](#), [Greece](#), [Hungary](#), [Italy](#), [Latvia](#), [Libya](#), [Lithuania](#), [Luxembourg](#), [Moldova](#), the [Netherlands](#), [North Macedonia](#), [Norway](#), [Poland](#), [Romania](#), [Russia](#), [Serbia](#), [Slovakia](#), and [Ukraine](#).^[2]

Leading to World War II, nearly all Jewish businesses in Nazi Germany had either collapsed under financial pressure and declining profits, or had been forced to sell out to the Nazi German government as part of the "Aryanization" policy inaugurated in 1937. As the [war started](#), [massacres](#) of Jews took place originally as part of [Operation Tannenberg against the Polish nation](#). The much larger and methodical mass killings of Jews began with the onset of [Operation Barbarossa](#) in 1941. Led by [Einsatzgruppen](#) and the [Order Police battalions](#), the destruction of European Jews took place with the active participation of [local Auxiliary Police](#) including [Belarusian](#), [Estonian](#), [Latvian](#), [Lithuanian](#), and [Ukrainian](#) units.^[2]

HISTORY

The following figures of the [Federal Agency for Civic Education](#) (Germany) show the annihilation of the Jewish population of Europe by (pre-war) country as percentage points:^[3]

Country	Estimated Pre-War Jewish population	Estimated killed	Percent killed
Poland	3,400,000	3,000,000	88.25%
Soviet Union (excl. Baltic states)	3,000,000	1,000,000	33.3%
Romania	757,000	287,000	38%
Hungary	445,000	270,000	60.7%

The following figures of the [Federal Agency for Civic Education](#) (Germany) show the annihilation of the Jewish population of Europe by (pre-war) country as percentage points:^[3]

Country	Estimated Pre-War Jewish population	Estimated killed	Percent killed
Czechoslovakia	357,000	260,000	73%
Germany	500,000	165,000	33%
Lithuania	150,000	145,000	96.7%
Netherlands	140,000	102,000	72.9%
France	300,000	76,000	25.33%
Latvia	93,500	70,000	74.9%
Austria	206,000	65,000	31.5%
Yugoslavia	68,500	60,000	87.6%
Greece	70,000	58,800	84%
Belgium	90,000	25,000	27.8%
Italy	46,000	7,500	16.3%
Luxembourg	3,600	1,200	33.3%
Estonia	4,300	1,000	23%

The following figures of the [Federal Agency for Civic Education](#) (Germany) show the annihilation of the Jewish population of Europe by (pre-war) country as percentage points:^[3]

Country	Estimated Pre-War Jewish population	Estimated killed	Percent killed
Norway	1,800	758	42.1%
Bulgaria	48,400	142	0.3%
Denmark	7,800	116	1.49%
Albania	200	100	50%
Finland	2,200	7	0.32%
Total	9,689,500	5,594,623	57.74%

Before the onset of war, the first [pogrom](#) in Nazi Germany was [Kristallnacht](#), often called *Pogromnacht*, or "night of broken glass," in which Jewish homes were ransacked in numerous German cities along with 11,000 Jewish shops, towns and villages,^[4] as civilians and [SA stormtroopers](#) destroyed buildings with sledgehammers, leaving the streets covered in smashed windows — the origin of the name "Night of Broken Glass." The main part of the rioting took place on 9–10 November 1938. Jews were beaten to death; 30,000 Jewish men were taken to [concentration camps](#); and 1,668 [synagogues](#) ransacked with 267 set on fire. Following [Operation Barbarossa](#) launched on 22 June 1941, in the city of [Lviv](#) in the occupied territory of the [General Government](#), Ukrainian nationalists [organized two large pogroms](#) in July 1941, in which around 6,000 Jews were murdered.^{[5][6]}

In Lithuania, local [militant groups](#) engaged in anti-Jewish pogroms on July 25 and 26, 1941 around [Kaunas](#) even before the Nazi forces arrived, killing about 3,800 Jews and burning synagogues and Jewish shops.^[7] Perhaps the deadliest of these Holocaust-era pogroms was the [Iași pogrom](#) in Romania, in which as many as 14,000 Jews were killed by Romanian citizens, police, and military officials.

By December 1941, [Adolf Hitler](#) decided to completely [exterminate European](#) Jews.^[8] In January 1942, during the [Wannsee conference](#), several [Nazi](#) leaders discussed the details of the "[Final Solution of the](#)

[Jewish question](#)" (*Endlösung der Judenfrage*). [Dr. Josef Bühler](#) urged [Reinhard Heydrich](#) to proceed with the "Final Solution" in the [General Government](#). They began to systematically deport Jewish populations from the ghettos and all occupied territories to the seven camps designated as *Vernichtungslager*, or [extermination camps](#): [Auschwitz](#), Birkenau was the Extermination Camp site [Belzec](#), [Chelmno](#), [Majdanek](#), [Sobibór](#) and [Treblinka II](#). [Sebastian Haffner](#) published the analysis in 1978 that Hitler from December 1941 accepted the failure of his goal to dominate Europe forever on his declaration of war against the [United States](#), but that his withdrawal and apparent calm thereafter was sustained by the achievement of his second goal—the extermination of the Jews.

Even as the German Nazi war machine faltered in the last years of the war, precious military resources such as fuel, transport, munitions, soldiers, and industrial resources were still being heavily diverted away from the war and towards the death camps. By the end of the war, more than half of Jewish population of Europe had been murdered in the [Holocaust](#). [Poland](#), home of the [largest Jewish community](#) in Europe before the war, had over 90% of its Jewish population, or about 3,000,000 Jews, murdered by the Nazis. [Greece](#), [Yugoslavia](#), [Lithuania](#), [Czechoslovakia](#), the [Netherlands](#), and [Latvia](#) each had over 70% of their Jewish population murdered.^[2]

[Hungary](#) and [Albania](#) lost around half of their Jewish populations, the Soviet Union, Germany, Austria and Luxembourg lost over one third of its Jews, Belgium and France each saw around a quarter of their Jewish populations murdered.^[2]

During the war, Spain became an unlikely haven for several thousand Jews. They were mainly from Western Europe, fleeing deportation to concentration camps from occupied France, but also Sephardic Jews from Eastern Europe, especially in Hungary. Trudy Alexy^[who?] refers to the "absurdity" and "paradox of refugees fleeing the Nazis' [Final Solution](#) to seek asylum in a country where no Jews had been allowed to live openly as Jews for over four centuries."^[9]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D20 CYPRUS INTERNMENT CAMPS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **Cyprus internment camps** were camps maintained in [Cyprus](#) by the British government for the [internment](#) of [Jews](#) who had immigrated or attempted to immigrate to [Mandatory Palestine](#), which was in violation of British policy. There were a total of 12 camps, which operated from August 1946 to January 1949, and in total held 53,510 Jews.^{[1][2]}

Britain informed the [UN](#) that it would no longer administer the Mandate for Palestine on February 14, 1947. This prompted the UN General Assembly to recommend partition of Palestine into independent Jewish and Arab states on November 29. Some 28,000 Jews were still interned in the camps when the Mandate was dissolved, partition was enacted, and the independent [State of Israel](#) was established at midnight local time on May 14, 1948. About 11,000 internees remained in the camps as of August 1948, with the British releasing and transporting them to [Haifa](#) at the rate of 1,500 a month. Israel began the final evacuation of the camps in December 1948, with the last 10,200 internees (mainly men of military age) being evacuated to Israel during January and February 1949.^[2]

HISTORY

In the [White Paper of 1939](#), the British government decided that future Jewish immigration to Palestine would be limited to 75,000 over the next five years, with further immigration subject to Arab consent. At the end of [World War II](#), there were still 10,938 immigration certificates remaining but the five years had expired.^[3] The British government agreed to continue issuing 1,500 certificates per month, but the influx of Jews, especially from the [displaced person camps](#) in Europe, well exceeded that number.^[3] It was decided in August 1946 to hold many of the illegal immigrants on Cyprus.^[3] Previous places of detention had included [Atlit detainee camp](#) in Palestine, and a camp in the [Mauritius](#).^[4] A few thousand refugees, mostly Greeks but also a "considerable number" of Jews from the Balkans, had reached Cyprus during the war.^[5]

At its peak there were nine camps in Cyprus, located at two sites about 50 km apart. They were Caraolos, north of [Famagusta](#), and Dekhelio, outside of [Larnaca](#).^[6] The first camp, at Caraolos, had been used from 1916 to 1923 for Turkish prisoners of war.^[7]

The majority of Cyprus detainees were intercepted before reaching Palestine, usually by boat.^{[4][7]} Some were on vessels that had successfully run the British blockade, but were caught in Palestine. Most of them were Holocaust survivors, about 60% from the displaced person camps and others from the Balkans and other Eastern European countries.^[4] A very small group of Moroccan Jews was also in the camps.^[4] The prisoners were mostly young, 80% between 13 and 35, and included over 6,000 orphans.^[4] About 2,000 children were born in the camps.^[4] The births took place in the Jewish wing of the British Military Hospital in [Nicosia](#). Some 400 Jews died in the camps, and were buried in Margoa cemetery.^[8]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

D21 JEWISH INSURGENCY IN MANDATORY PALESTINE

WIKIPEDIA

Date	1 February 1944 – 14 May 1948
Location	British Mandatory Palestine
Result	Zionist victory ^[1] <ul style="list-style-type: none"> British forces unable to defeat Irgun^[2] Insurgency turned British public opinion against the deployment in Palestine, leading to Britain's withdrawal^[2]
Belligerents	
 United Kingdom <ul style="list-style-type: none"> British Army Royal Navy Royal Air Force Royal Marines Palestine Police Force Arab Legion (auxiliaries) 	 Jewish National Council <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Irgun (1944–1948) Lehi (1944–1948) Haganah (1945–1946) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Palmach Hish Him
Commanders and leaders	
Sir Evelyn Barker	Menachem Begin
Sir Alan Cunningham	Amichai Paglin
Harold MacMichael	Yitzhak Shamir
Sir Gordon MacMillan	Eitan Livni
John Vereker, 6th Viscount Gort	Nathan Yellin-Mor
John Rymer-Jones	Moshe Sneh
William Nicol Gray	Yisrael Galili
Strength	
British police: 4,000 policemen	Haganah: 21,000 troops ^[3]
British Armed Forces: 100,000 troops (peak strength) ^[3]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Palmach: 3,000 troops Irgun: 4,000 troops Lehi: 500 troops
Casualties and losses	
141 soldiers and police killed (August 1945 – August 1947) ^[4]	31 killed <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 7 executed 2 committed suicide (August 1945 – August 1947)^[4]
V • T • E	Jewish insurgency in Mandatory Palestine [show]

A successful [paramilitary](#) campaign was carried out by [Zionist](#) underground groups against British rule in [Mandatory Palestine](#) from 1944 to 1948. The tensions between the Zionist underground and the British mandatory authorities rose from 1938 and intensified with the publication of the [White Paper of 1939](#). The Paper outlined new government policies to place further restrictions on Jewish immigration and land purchases, and declared the intention of giving independence to Palestine, with an Arab majority, within ten years. Though [World War II](#) brought relative calm, tensions again escalated into an armed struggle towards the end of the war, when it became clear that the [Axis powers](#) were close to defeat.

The [Haganah](#), the largest of the Jewish underground [militias](#), which was under the control of the officially recognised Jewish leadership of Palestine, remained cooperative with the British. But in 1944 the [Irgun](#), an offshoot of the Haganah, launched a [rebellion](#) against British rule, thus joining [Lehi](#), which had been active against the authorities throughout the war. Both were small, dissident militias of the [right-wing Revisionist](#) movement. They attacked police and government targets in response to British immigration restrictions.

The armed conflict escalated during the final phase of World War II, when the Irgun declared a revolt in February 1944, ending the hiatus in operations it had begun in 1940.^[5] Starting from the assassination of [Baron Moyne](#) by Lehi in 1944, the Haganah actively opposed the Irgun and Lehi, in a period of inter-Jewish fighting known as [the Hunting Season](#), effectively halting the insurrection. However, in autumn 1945, following the end of World War II in both [Europe](#) (April–May 1945) and [Asia](#) (September 1945), when it became clear that the British would not

permit significant Jewish immigration and had no intention of immediately establishing a Jewish state, the Haganah began a period of co-operation with the other two underground organisations. They jointly formed the [Jewish Resistance Movement](#).^[6] The Haganah refrained from direct confrontation with British forces, and concentrated its efforts on attacking British immigration control, while Irgun and Lehi attacked military and police targets.^[6] The Resistance Movement dissolved amidst recriminations in July 1946, following the [King David Hotel bombing](#). The Irgun and Lehi started acting independently, while the main underground militia, Haganah, continued acting mainly in supporting Jewish immigration.^[6] The Haganah again briefly worked to suppress Irgun and Lehi operations, due to the presence of a [United Nations](#) investigative committee in Palestine. After the [UN Partition Plan](#) resolution was passed on 29 November 1947, the [civil war](#) between Palestinian Jews and Arabs eclipsed the previous tensions of both with the British. However, British and Zionist forces continued to clash throughout the period of the civil war up to the termination of the [British Mandate for Palestine](#) and the [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#) on 14 May 1948.

Within the United Kingdom there were deep divisions over Palestine policy. Dozens of British soldiers, Jewish militants, and civilians died during the campaigns of insurgency. The conflict led to heightened [antisemitism in the United Kingdom](#). In August 1947, after the hanging of [two abducted British sergeants](#), there was widespread anti-Jewish rioting across the United Kingdom.^[7] The conflict caused tensions in the [United Kingdom–United States relations](#).

Peel Commission Partition Plan, July 1937



BACKGROUND

Between the World Wars

Although both the 1917 [Balfour Declaration](#) and the terms of the League of Nations [British Mandate of Palestine](#) called for a national home for the Jewish people in Palestine, the British did not accept any linkage between Palestine and the situation of [European Jews](#). After the [Nuremberg Laws](#) of 1935 many German Jews sought refuge abroad, and by the end of 1939 some 80,000 had been given refuge in Great Britain itself.^[8]

In 1936–37, soon after the start of the [Arab uprising in Palestine](#), [Earl Peel](#) led a commission to consider a solution. The [Peel Commission](#) proposed a partition of Palestine that involved the compulsory resettlement of some Arab and Jewish inhabitants. It was not acceptable either to the Arab or to the Jewish leaders, though [David Ben-Gurion](#) remarked in 1937, "The compulsory transfer of the Arabs from the valleys of the proposed Jewish state could give us something which we have never had, even when we stood on our own during the days of the First and Second Temples." The twentieth Zionist Congress resolved in

August 1937 that: "the partition plan proposed by the Peel Commission is not to be accepted"; but it wished "to

carry on negotiations in order to clarify the exact substance of the British government's proposal for the foundation of a Jewish state in Palestine".^[9]

A further attempt was made in the [Woodhead Commission](#), also known as the "Palestine Partition Commission", whose report was published in late 1938. A government statement (Cmnd 5843) followed on 11 November 1938.^[10] It concluded that: "His Majesty's Government, after careful study of the Partition Commission's report, have reached the conclusion that this further examination has shown that the political, administrative and financial difficulties involved in the proposal to create independent Arab and Jewish States inside Palestine are so great that this solution of the problem is impracticable." The brief [St. James Conference](#) followed in early 1939.

Britain also attended the international [Évian Conference](#) in 1938 on the issue of providing for refugees from Germany. Palestine was not discussed as a refuge because it might worsen the ongoing Arab revolt; Zionists naturally hoped that Palestine would be the principal destination for all such refugees.

British Immigration Restrictions and the 1939 White Paper

In the 1920s, the British imposed restrictions on Jewish immigration to Palestine and the ability of Jews to buy land, claiming that these decisions were taken due to concerns over the economic absorptive capacity of the country. In the 1930s, British authorities set a quota for immigration certificates and authorised the [Jewish Agency](#) to hand them out at its discretion. Shortly before the outbreak of World War II, the British introduced the [White Paper of 1939](#). The White Paper rejected the concept of partition of Palestine into Jewish and Arab states and announced that the country would be turned into an independent binational state with an Arab majority. It severely curtailed Jewish immigration, allowing for only 75,000 Jews to migrate to Palestine from 1940 to 1944, consisting of a yearly quota of 10,000 per year and a supplementary quota for 25,000 to cover refugee emergencies spread out over the same period. Afterward, further Jewish immigration would depend on the consent of the Arab majority. Sales of Arab land to Jews were to be restricted.

In reaction to British restrictions, [illegal immigration to Palestine](#) began. Initially, Jews entered Palestine by land, mainly by slipping across the northern border, where they were aided by the border settlements. In the early 1930s, when crossing the northern border became more difficult, other routes were found. Thousands of Jews came to Palestine on student or tourist visas, and never returned to their countries of origin. Jewish women often entered into fictitious marriages with residents of Palestine to be granted entry for family reunification purposes. In 1934, the first seaborne attempt to bring Jews to Palestine happened when some 350 Jews of the [HeHalutz](#) movement in [Poland](#) who were unwilling to wait for certificates sailed to Palestine on the *Vallos*, a chartered ship. Two more ships carrying illegal immigrants arrived in 1937, and several more arrived in 1938 and 1939. These voyages were mainly organised by the [Revisionist Zionist](#) Organisation and the Irgun. Until 1938, the Jewish Agency opposed illegal immigration, fearing that it would impact the number of immigration certificates issued.^[11]

Overall, between 1929 and 1940, a period of mass Jewish immigration known as the [Fifth Aliyah](#) occurred despite British restrictions. Nearly 250,000 Jews (of whom 20,000 later left) immigrated to Palestine, many of them illegally.^[12]

During World War II (1939–1944)

The [Second World War](#) erupted when Mandatory authorities of Palestine were at the final stages of subduing the armed Arab revolt of 1936–1939. All Jewish organisations, including the Zionists in Europe also played a major role in the [Jewish resistance](#) to the [Nazis](#) in Europe, automatically allied with the [Allied forces](#), including the British.

The [Yishuv](#) temporarily put aside its differences with the British regarding the White Paper, deciding that defeating the Nazis was a more urgent goal. The leader of Palestine's Jews, [David Ben-Gurion](#), issued a call for Jews to "support the British as if there is no White Paper and oppose the White Paper as if there is no war".^[13] During the war, Palestinian Jews volunteered in large numbers to serve in the [British Army](#), serving mainly in North Africa. Of the 470,000 Jews in Palestine at the time, some 30,000 served in the British Army during the war.^[14] There was a Jewish battalion attached to the British Army's 1st Battalion, [Royal East Kent Regiment](#) stationed in Palestine.

With the decline of the Arab Revolt by September 1939, the tensions among Jews and Arabs eased as well. During the war, among the Palestinian Arabs, the [Nashashibi](#) clan supported the British, while another Arab Palestinian faction, led by exiled [Amin al-Husseini](#), [supported](#) the Axis powers. [Haj Amin al-Husseini](#) became the most prominent Arab collaborator with the Axis powers.^[15]

The [Palestine Regiment](#) was formed in 1942, combining three Jewish and one Arab battalions, reaching altogether 3,800 volunteers. It was involved in activities at the Mediterranean scene of the war, sustaining casualties during the [North African Campaign](#). The [Special Interrogation Group](#) was also formed in 1942 as a commando unit composed of German-speaking Palestinian Jews. It performed commando and sabotage operations during the [Western Desert Campaign](#).

The Jewish underground group Irgun ceased all anti-British activities by September 1939, and supported the British. An Irgun unit was sent to assist British forces fighting in the [Middle East](#). In 1941, Irgun's [David Raziel](#) was killed while fighting in the [Kingdom of Iraq](#) with the British against that country's pro-Axis regime. Irgun also provided the British with intelligence from Eastern Europe and North Africa and allowed members to enlist in the British Army.^[16]

However, in August 1940, Irgun member [Avraham Stern](#) formed [Lehi](#), a breakaway group which favoured armed struggle against the British to force them out of Palestine and immediately establish a Jewish state. Stern was unaware of the Nazis' intent to exterminate the Jews and believed that [Hitler](#) wanted to make Germany [judenrein](#) through emigration. Stern proposed an alliance with Nazi Germany, offering the Germans help in conquering the Middle East and driving out the British in exchange for the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine, which would then take in European Jewry.^[17] This proposal, which never received a reply, cost Lehi and Stern much support.^[18] Stern became a pariah among the Jews in Palestine, and was himself killed by British police in 1942.

During the war, a [special paratrooper unit](#) in the British Army composed of Jewish men and women from Palestine was active. The unit's members were sent into occupied Europe, mainly by airdrop, to help organise

and participate in local resistance activities on the ground. Some 250 men and women volunteered, of whom 110 underwent training and 37 were infiltrated.

In December 1942, when the mass murder of European Jewry became known to the Allies, the British continued to refuse to change their policy of limited immigration, or to admit Jews from Nazi controlled Europe in numbers outside the quota imposed by the White paper, and the [Royal Navy](#) prevented ships with Jewish refugees from reaching Palestine. Some ships carrying Jewish refugees were turned back towards Europe, although in one instance, about 2,000 Jews who were fleeing Europe by sea were detained in a camp in [Mauritius](#) and were given the option of emigrating to Palestine after the war.^{[19][20]} The British also stopped all attempts by Palestinian Jews to bribe the Nazis into freeing European Jews. At the time that [The Holocaust](#) became known to the Allies, there were 34,000 Jewish immigration certificates for Palestine remaining. In 1943, about half the remaining certificates were distributed, and by the end of the war, 3,000 certificates remained.^[21]

In September 1944, the [Jewish Brigade](#) was formed, based on the Palestine Regiment core. The brigade consisted of nearly 5,000 volunteers, including three former Palestine Regiment battalions, the 200th Field Regiment, [Royal Artillery](#) and several supporting units. The brigade was dispatched to participate in the [Italian campaign](#) in late 1944 and later took part in the [Spring 1945 offensive in Italy](#) against the [German forces](#).

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

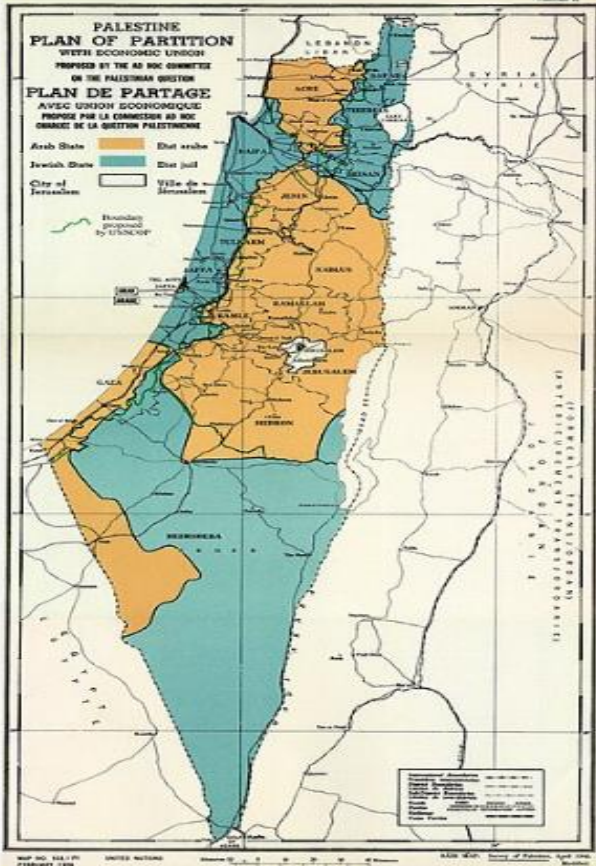
**E JEWISH/ARAB PARTITION VOTE,
1947 AND 1949 ARMISTICE AGREEMENTS**

E1 UN JEWISH/ARAB PARTITION VOTE, 1947

"Partition of Palestine" redirects here. For the partition of Palestine into Israel, the Gaza Strip, and the West Bank, see [1949 Armistice Agreements](#).

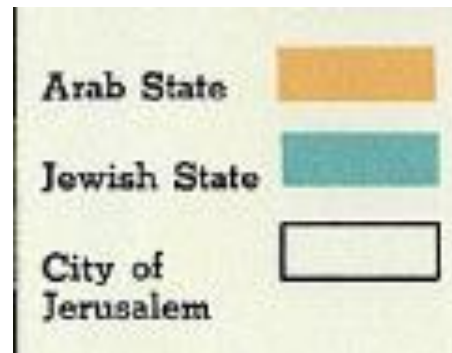
[WIKIPEDIA](#)

UN General Assembly Resolution 181 (II)



UNSCOP (3 September 1947; see green line) and **UN Ad Hoc Committee** (25 November 1947) partition plans. The UN Ad Hoc Committee proposal was voted on in the resolution.

Date	29 November 1947
Meeting no.	128
Code	A/RES/181(II) (Document)
Voting summary	33 voted for 13 voted against 10 abstained
Result	Adopted



The **United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine** was a proposal by the [United Nations](#), which recommended a [partition](#) of [Mandatory Palestine](#) at the end of the [British Mandate](#). On 29 November 1947, the [UN General Assembly](#) adopted the Plan as **Resolution 181 (II)**.^[1]

The resolution recommended the creation of independent Arab and Jewish States and a Special International Regime for the city of [Jerusalem](#). The Partition Plan, a four-part document attached to the resolution, provided for the termination of the Mandate, the progressive withdrawal of British armed forces and the delineation of boundaries between the two States and Jerusalem. Part I of the Plan stipulated that the Mandate would be terminated as soon as possible and the United Kingdom would withdraw no later than 1 August 1948. The new states would come into existence two months after the withdrawal, but no later than 1 October 1948. The Plan sought to address the conflicting objectives and claims of two

competing movements, [Palestinian nationalism](#) and Jewish nationalism, or [Zionism](#).^{[2][3]} The Plan also called for Economic Union between the proposed states, and for the protection of religious and minority rights.^[4] While Jewish organizations collaborated with [UNSCOP](#) during the deliberations, the Palestinian Arab leadership boycotted it.^[5] The proposed plan is considered to have been pro-Zionist by its detractors, with 62% of the land allocated to the Jewish state despite the Palestinian Arab population numbering twice the Jewish population.^[6]

The partition plan was accepted by [Jewish Agency for Palestine](#) and by most Zionist factions; only the fringes expressed dissatisfaction over territorial limits set on the proposed Jewish State.^{[7][5]} The [Arab Higher Committee](#), the [Arab League](#) and other Arab leaders and governments rejected it^[8] and indicated an unwillingness to accept any form of territorial division,^[9] arguing that it violated the principles of [national self-determination](#) in the [UN Charter](#) which granted people the right to decide their own destiny.^{[5][10]} They announced their intention to take all necessary measures to prevent the implementation of the resolution.^{[11][12][13][14]} Subsequently [a civil war](#) broke out in Palestine^[15] and the plan was not implemented.^[16]

BACKGROUND

The [British](#) administration was formalized by the [League of Nations](#) under the [Palestine Mandate](#) in 1923, as part of the [Partitioning of the Ottoman Empire](#) following [World War I](#). The Mandate reaffirmed the 1917 British commitment to the [Balfour Declaration](#), for the establishment in Palestine of a "National Home" for the Jewish people, with the prerogative to carry it out.^{[17][18]} A British census of 1918 estimated 700,000 Arabs and 56,000 Jews.^[17]

In 1937, following a six-month-long [Arab General Strike and armed insurrection](#) which aimed to pursue national independence and secure the country from foreign control, the British established the [Peel Commission](#).^[19] The Commission concluded that the Mandate had become unworkable, and recommended Partition into an Arab state linked to [Transjordan](#); a small Jewish state; and a mandatory zone. To address problems arising from the presence of national minorities in each area, it suggested a land and population transfer^[20] involving the transfer of some 225,000 Arabs living in the envisaged Jewish state and 1,250 Jews living in a future Arab state, a measure deemed compulsory "in the last resort".^{[20][21][22]} To address any economic problems, the Plan proposed avoiding interfering with Jewish immigration, since any interference would be liable to produce an "economic crisis", most of Palestine's wealth coming from the Jewish community. To solve the predicted annual budget deficit of the Arab State and reduction in public services due to loss of tax from the Jewish state, it was proposed that the Jewish state pay an annual subsidy to the Arab state and take on half of the latter's deficit.^{[20][21][23]} The Palestinian Arab leadership rejected partition as unacceptable, given the inequality in the proposed population exchange and the transfer of one-third of Palestine, including most of its best agricultural land, to recent immigrants.^[22] The Jewish leaders, [Chaim Weizmann](#) and [David Ben-Gurion](#), persuaded the [Zionist Congress](#) to lend provisional approval to the Peel recommendations as a basis for further negotiations.^{[24][25][26][27]} In [a letter to](#)

[his son in October 1937](#), Ben-Gurion explained that partition would be a first step to "possession of the land as a whole".^{[28][29][30]} The same sentiment, that acceptance of partition was a temporary measure beyond which the Palestine would be "redeemed . . . in its entirety,"^[31] was recorded by Ben-Gurion on other occasions, such as at a meeting of the Jewish Agency executive in June 1938,^[32] as well as by [Chaim Weizmann](#).^{[30][33]}

The British [Woodhead Commission](#) was set up to examine the practicality of partition. The Peel plan was rejected and two possible alternatives were considered. In 1938 the British government issued a policy statement declaring that "the political, administrative and financial difficulties involved in the proposal to create independent Arab and Jewish States inside Palestine are so great that this solution of the problem is impracticable". Representatives of Arabs and Jews were invited to London for the [St. James Conference](#), which proved unsuccessful.^[34]

With [World War II](#) looming, British policies were influenced by a desire to win Arab world support and could ill afford to engage with another Arab uprising.^[35] The [MacDonald White Paper](#) of May 1939 declared that it was "not part of [the British government's] policy that Palestine should become a Jewish State", sought to limit Jewish immigration to Palestine and restricted Arab land sales to Jews. However, the League of Nations commission held that the White Paper was in conflict with the terms of the Mandate as put forth in the past. The outbreak of the Second World War suspended any further deliberations.^{[36][37]} The [Jewish Agency](#) hoped to persuade the British to restore Jewish immigration rights, and cooperated with the British in the war against Fascism. [Aliyah Bet](#) was organized to spirit Jews out of Nazi controlled Europe, despite the British prohibitions. The White Paper also led to the formation of [Lehi](#), a small Jewish organization which opposed the British.

After World War II, in August 1945 President Truman asked for the admission of 100,000 [Holocaust](#) survivors into Palestine^[38] but the British maintained limits on Jewish immigration in line with the 1939 White Paper. The Jewish community rejected the restriction on immigration and organized an [armed resistance](#). These actions and United States pressure to end the anti-immigration policy led to the establishment of the [Anglo-American Committee of Inquiry](#). In April 1946, the Committee reached a unanimous decision for the immediate admission of 100,000 Jewish refugees from Europe into Palestine, rescission of the white paper restrictions of land sale to Jews, that the country be neither Arab nor Jewish, and the extension of U.N. Trusteeship. The U.S. endorsed the Commission's findings concerning Jewish immigration and land purchase restrictions,^[39] while the British made their agreement to implementation conditional on U.S. assistance in case of another Arab revolt.^[39] In effect, the British continued to carry out their White Paper policy.^[40] The recommendations triggered violent demonstrations in Arab states, and calls for a Jihad and an annihilation of all European Jews in Palestine.^[41]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

E2 1949 ARMISTICE AGREEMENTS

hide This article has multiple issues. Please help [improve it](#) or discuss these issues on the [talk page](#). ([Learn how and when to remove these template messages](#))



This article **relies excessively on [references](#) to [primary sources](#)**. (July 2010)

This article **needs additional citations for [verification](#)**. (October 2011)



Palestine Military Situation, April 6, 1949. Truman Papers

The **1949 Armistice Agreements** were signed between [Israel](#) and [Egypt](#),^[1] [Lebanon](#),^[2] [Jordan](#),^[3] and [Syria](#).^[4] They formally ended the hostilities of the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) and also demarcated the [Green Line](#), which separated Arab-controlled territory (i.e., the [Jordanian-annexed West Bank](#) and the [Egyptian-occupied Gaza Strip](#)) from Israel until the latter's victory in the [1967 Arab–Israeli War](#).

To monitor the agreed-upon *de facto* border, the [United Nations](#) (UN) established supervising and reporting agencies; discussions related to the ceasefire's enforcement led to the signing of the separate [Tripartite Declaration of 1950](#), in which the [United States](#), the [United Kingdom](#), and [France](#) pledged to take action within and outside of the UN in order to prevent violations of the frontiers. It also outlined their commitment to peace and stability in the area, their opposition to the use or threat of force, and reiterated their opposition to the development of an arms race between [Arab countries](#) and Israel.

AGREEMENTS

With Egypt

On 6 January 1949, [Ralph Bunche](#) announced that Egypt had finally consented to start talks with Israel on an armistice. The talks began on the Greek island of [Rhodes](#) on 12 January. Shortly after their commencement, Israel agreed to the release of a besieged Egyptian brigade in [Faluja](#), but soon rescinded their agreement.^[5] At the end of the month, the talks floundered. Israel demanded that Egypt withdraw all its forces from the former area of Mandate Palestine.^[citation needed] Egypt insisted that Arab forces withdraw to the positions which they held on 14 October 1948, as per the Security Council Resolution S/1070 of 4 November 1948, and that the Israeli forces withdraw to positions north of the [Majdal–Hebron](#) road.

The deadlock culminated on 12 February 1949 with the murder of [Hassan al-Banna](#), leader of the Islamist group [Muslim Brotherhood](#). Israel threatened to abandon the talks, whereupon the United States appealed to the parties to bring them to a successful conclusion.

On 24 February the *Israel–Egypt Armistice Agreement* was signed in [Rhodes](#).^[1] The main points of the armistice agreement were:

- The Armistice Demarcation Line is not to be construed in any sense as a political or territorial boundary, and is delineated without prejudice to rights, claims and positions of either Party to the Armistice as regards ultimate "settlement of the Palestine question".
- The armistice demarcation line was drawn for the most part along the 1922 international border between Egypt and [Mandatory Palestine](#), except near the [Mediterranean Sea](#), where Egypt remained in control of a strip of land along the coast, which became known as the [Gaza Strip](#).
- The Egyptian forces besieged in the [Faluja Pocket](#) were allowed to return to Egypt with their weapons, and the area was handed over to Israeli military control.^[6]
- A zone on both sides of the border around [Uja al-Hafeer](#) was to be demilitarized, and became the seat of the bilateral armistice committee.

With Lebanon

The agreement with Lebanon was signed on 23 March 1949.^[2] The main points were:

- The provisions of this agreement being dictated exclusively by military considerations.
- The armistice line ("[Green Line](#)", see also [Blue Line \[Lebanon\]](#)) was drawn along the international boundary between Lebanon and Mandatory Palestine.^[7]
- Israel withdrew its forces from 13 villages in Lebanese territory, which were occupied during the war.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

E3 ARAB–ISRAELI NORMALIZATION

WIKIPEDIA

The **Arab–Israeli normalization** refers to the peace efforts and treaties between the member states of the [Arab League](#) and [Israel](#), ending the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#). Since the 1970s, there has been a parallel effort made to find terms upon which peace can be agreed to in the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#) and also specifically the Israeli–Palestinian conflict. Over the years numerous [Arab League](#) countries have signed [peace](#) and normalization treaties with Israel, beginning with the [Egypt–Israel peace treaty \(1979\)](#). Despite the failure to implement the [Israeli-Lebanese peace accords \(1983\)](#), more treaties continued with the [Israeli-Palestinian peace process \(1991-present\)](#), the [Jordan–Israel peace treaty \(1994\)](#), the [Abraham Accords](#) normalizing relations between Israel–[United Arab Emirates](#) and Israel–[Bahrain](#) (2020), the [Israel–Sudan normalization agreement](#) (2020) and the [Israel–Morocco normalization agreement](#) (2020). Moreover, numerous Arab League members established semi-official relations with Israel.

CEASE FIRE ATTEMPTS AND INDIRECT NEGOTIATIONS (1949-1974)

1949 Cease Fire and Lausanne Conference

Main articles: [1949 Armistice Agreements](#), [Lausanne Conference of 1949](#), and [Tripartite Declaration of 1950](#)

1967 UN Resolution

Main article: [United Nations Security Council Resolution 242](#)

1973-74 UN Resolutions and Cease Fire Agreements

Main articles: [United Nations Security Council Resolution 338](#), [United Nations Security Council Resolution 339](#), [Agreement on Disengagement between Israel and Syria](#), and [United Nations Security Council Resolution 350](#)

EGYPTIAN-ISRAELI PEACE TREATY (1978-79)

Main articles: [Camp David Accords](#), [Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#), and [Land for peace](#)

ISRAELI-LEBANESE NORMALIZATION ATTEMPT (1983)

Main articles: [Israel–Lebanon relations](#) and [May 17 Agreement](#)

ISRAELI-PALESTINIAN PEACE PROCESS

Main article: [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#)

ISRAEL-JORDAN PEACE TREATY (1994)

Main article: [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#)

ISRAELI NORMALIZATION WITH GULF AND NORTH AFRICA ARAB STATES (2017-PRESENT)

Main articles: [Arab–Israeli alliance against Iran](#) and [Abraham Accords](#)

The [Arab–Israeli alliance against Iran](#) emerged by November 2017,^[1] upon warming ties between Israel and the Gulf States and received broad media attention in light of the [February 2019 Warsaw Conference](#). The coordination is taking place in light of the mutual regional security interests of [Israel](#) and Sunni [Arab States](#) led by [Saudi Arabia](#),^[2] and their standoff against Iranian interests across the Middle East - the [Iran–Israel proxy conflict](#) and the [Iran–Saudi Arabia proxy conflict](#). The Arab states participating in the coordination group are the core of the [Gulf Cooperation Council](#). Those include [Saudi Arabia](#), [United Arab Emirates](#) and [Oman](#).^[3] In 2018, [Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu](#) led a delegation to Oman and met with [Sultan Qaboos](#) and other senior Omani officials.^[4]

In February 2020, Israeli Prime Minister [Benjamin Netanyahu](#) and the Chairman of the Sovereignty Council of Sudan, [Abdel Fattah al-Burhan](#), met in Uganda, where they both agreed to normalize the ties between the two countries.^[5] Later that month, Israeli planes were allowed to fly over Sudan.^[6] This was followed by the [Abraham Accords](#), signed by [Israel](#) and the [United Arab Emirates](#) in August 2020 which [normalized relations between the two countries](#).^[7] Concurrently, Israel agreed to suspend plans for the [annexation of the Jordan Valley](#).^[8] This normalization agreement was followed by [official confirmation of the one with Sudan](#), as well as others with [Bahrain](#) and [Morocco](#). On May 31, 2022, Israel and the United Arab Emirates signed a free trade agreement, the first of its kind between Israel and an Arab state.^[9]

In June 2023, US Secretary of State [Antony Blinken](#) warned Israel that rising tensions with the Palestinians, including through advancing settlement activity, threatened the expansion of normalization agreements with Arab nations, and particularly Saudi Arabia. Speaking alongside Blinken earlier in June, the Saudi Foreign Minister had stated that "without finding a pathway to peace for the Palestinian people ... any normalization will have limited benefits."^[10]

SEE ALSO

- [List of Middle East peace proposals](#)

F THE CREATION OF ISRAEL

CLICL ON SECTION [WIKIPEDIA](#) TO USE DIAGRAM LINKS

FO HISTORY OF ISRAEL

This article is about the history of the State of Israel and its historical background.

For the history since its independence, see [History of Israel \(1948–present\)](#).

For pre-modern Jewish history, see [History of the Jews and Judaism in the Land of Israel](#).

For a broader overview of the region, see [History of Palestine](#).

This article may be [too long](#) to read and navigate comfortably.

Its current [readable prose size](#) is 118 kilobytes.

Please consider [splitting](#) content into sub-articles, [condensing](#) it, or adding [subheadings](#).

Please discuss this issue on the article's [talk page](#). (February 2023)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **history of Israel** covers an area of the Southern Levant also known as [Canaan](#), [Palestine](#) or the [Holy Land](#), which is the geographical location of the modern states of [Israel](#) and [Palestine](#). From a prehistory as part of the critical [Levantine corridor](#), which witnessed waves of [early humans](#) out of Africa, to the emergence of [Natufian culture](#) c. 10th millennium BCE, the region entered the [Bronze Age](#) c. 2,000 BCE with the development of [Canaanite](#) civilization, before being vassalized by [Egypt](#) in the [Late Bronze Age](#). In the [Iron Age](#), the kingdoms of [Israel and Judah](#) were established, entities that were central to the origins of the [Jewish](#) and [Samaritan](#) peoples as well as the [Abrahamic faith tradition](#).^{[1][2][3][4][5][6]} This has given rise to [Judaism](#), [Samaritanism](#), [Christianity](#), [Islam](#), [Druzism](#), [Baha'ism](#), and a variety of other religious movements. Throughout the course of human history, the [Land of Israel](#) has come under the sway or control of various polities, and as a result, it has historically hosted a wide variety of ethnic groups.

In the following centuries, the [Assyrian](#), [Babylonian](#), and [Persian Empires](#) conquered the region.

The [Ptolemies](#) and the [Seleucids](#) vied for control over the region during the [Hellenistic period](#). However, with the establishment of the [Hasmonean dynasty](#), the local Jewish population maintained independence for a century before being incorporated into the [Roman Republic](#).^[7] As a result of the [Jewish-Roman Wars](#) in the 1st and 2nd centuries CE, many Jews were killed, displaced or sold into

slavery.^{[8][9][10][11]} Following the advent of Christianity, which was adopted by the [Greco-Roman world](#) under the influence of the [Roman Empire](#), the region's demographics shifted towards newfound [Christians](#), who replaced Jews as the majority of the population by the 4th century. However, shortly after Islam was consolidated across the [Arabian Peninsula](#) under [Muhammad](#), [Byzantine](#) Christian rule over the Land of Israel was superseded by the [Arab conquest of the Levant](#) in the 7th century. From the 11th century to the 13th century, the Land of Israel became the centre for intermittent religious wars between Christian and Muslim armies as part of the [Crusades](#). In the 13th century, the Land of Israel became subject to the [Mongol invasions and conquests](#), though these were locally routed by the [Mamluk Sultanate](#), under whose rule it remained until the 16th century. The Mamluks were eventually defeated by the [Ottoman Empire](#), and the region became an Ottoman province until the 20th century.

The late 19th century saw the widespread consolidation of a Jewish nationalist movement known as [Zionism](#), as part of which [aliyah](#) (Jewish return to the Land of Israel from [the diaspora](#)) increased.

During [World War I](#), the [Sinai and Palestine campaign](#) of the [Allies](#) led to the [partitioning of the Ottoman Empire](#). Britain was granted control of the region by [League of Nations mandate](#), in what became known as [Mandatory Palestine](#). The British government publicly committed itself to the creation of a [Jewish homeland](#). [Arab nationalism](#) opposed this design, asserting Arab rights over the former Ottoman territories and seeking to prevent Jewish migration. As a result, [Arab–Jewish tensions](#) grew in the succeeding decades of British administration.

In 1948, the [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#) sparked the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), which resulted in the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#) and subsequently led to waves of [Jewish emigration from other parts of the Middle East](#). Today, approximately 43 percent of the [global Jewish population](#) resides in Israel. In 1979, the [Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#) was signed, based on the [Camp David Accords](#). In 1993, Israel signed the [Oslo I Accord](#) with the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#), which was followed by the establishment of the [Palestinian National Authority](#). In 1994, the [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) was signed. Despite [efforts to finalize the peace agreement](#), the conflict continues to play a major role in Israeli and international political, social, and economic life.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

(This is at bottom of this web page!!!!)

External links

- [Facts About Israel: History](#) at the Israel Ministry of Foreign Affairs
- [Israel profile – Timeline](#) at the BBC News Online
- [History of Israel](#) at the Knesset website
- [Official website](#) of the Israel State Archives
- [History of Israel](#) at Curlie

Listen to this article

(2 parts, 56 minutes)

1.  **17:27**
2.  **38:37**



These audio files were created from a revision of this article dated 30 March 2008, and do not reflect subsequent edits.

([Audio help](#) · [More spoken articles](#))

History of Israel at Wikipedia's sister projects:



Media from Commons

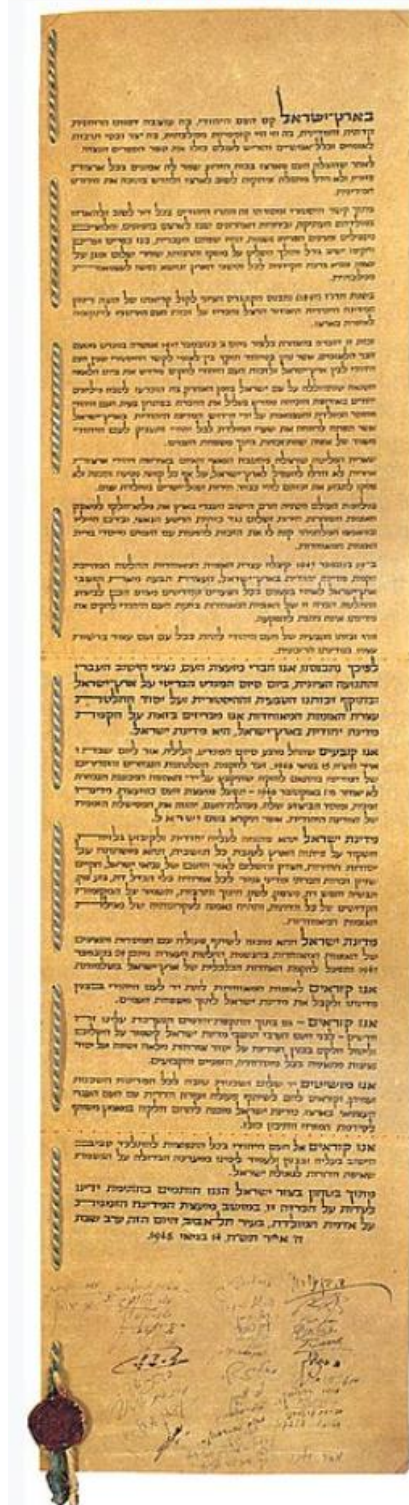


Textbooks from Wikibooks

V · T · E	Zionism and the Land of Israel	[show]
V · T · E	Palestinian nationalism and the region of Palestine	[show]
V · T · E	Jewish history	[show]
V · T · E	History of Asia	[show]
V · T · E	Israel articles	[show]
	Authority control databases 	[show]

Categories: [History of Israel](#) | [Jewish history by country](#)

Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel



F1 ISRAELI DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

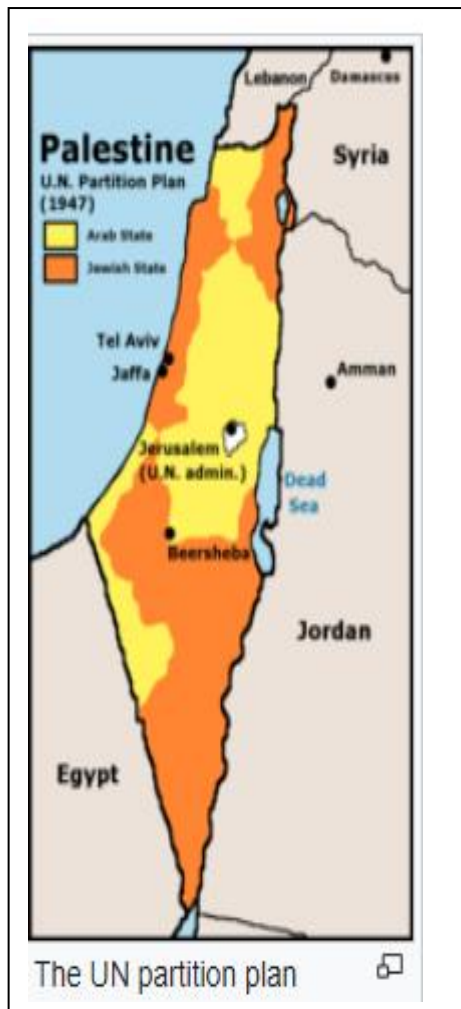
The **Israeli Declaration of Independence**, formally the **Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel**^[2] (**Hebrew**: הכרזה על הקמת המדינה), was proclaimed on 14 May 1948 (5 Iyar 5708) by **David Ben-Gurion**, the Executive Head of the **World Zionist Organization**,^{[a][3]} Chairman of the **Jewish Agency for Palestine**, and soon to be **first Prime Minister of Israel**.^[4] It declared the establishment of a **Jewish state** in **Eretz Israel**, to be known as the **State of Israel**, which would come into effect on **termination** of the **British Mandate** at midnight that day.^{[5][4]} The event is celebrated annually in Israel as **Independence Day**, a **national holiday** on **5 Iyar** of every year according to the **Hebrew calendar**.

BACKGROUND

The possibility of a **Jewish** homeland in **Palestine** had been a goal of **Zionist** organizations since the late 19th century. In 1917 **British Foreign Secretary Arthur Balfour** stated in a letter to British Jewish community leader **Walter, Lord Rothschild** that:

His Majesty's government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country.^[6]

Through this letter, which became known as the **Balfour Declaration**, British government policy officially endorsed Zionism. After **World War I**, the **United Kingdom** was given a **mandate** for Palestine, which it had conquered from the **Ottomans** during the war. In 1937 the **Peel Commission** suggested **partitioning Mandate Palestine** into an Arab state and a Jewish state, though the proposal was rejected as unworkable by the government and was at least partially to blame for the renewal of the **1936–39 Arab revolt**.



In the face of increasing violence after [World War II](#), the British handed the issue over to the recently established [United Nations](#). The result was [Resolution 181\(II\)](#), a plan to partition Palestine into *Independent Arab and Jewish States and the Special International Regime for the City of Jerusalem*. The Jewish state was to receive around 56% of the land area of Mandate Palestine, encompassing 82% of the Jewish population, though it would be separated from Jerusalem. The plan was accepted by most of the Jewish population, but rejected by much of the Arab populace. On [29 November 1947](#), [the resolution](#) to recommend to the United Kingdom, as the mandatory Power for Palestine, and to all other Members of the United Nations the adoption and implementation, with regard to the future government of Palestine, of the Plan of Partition with Economic Union was put to a vote in the United Nations General Assembly.^[7]

The result was 33 to 13 in favour of the resolution, with 10 abstentions. Resolution 181(II): PART I: *Future constitution and government of Palestine: A. TERMINATION OF MANDATE, PARTITION AND INDEPENDENCE*: Clause 3 provides:

Independent Arab and Jewish States and the Special International Regime for the City of Jerusalem, ... shall come into

existence in Palestine two months after the evacuation of the armed forces of the mandatory Power has been completed but in any case not later than 1 October 1948.

The Arab countries (all of which had opposed the plan) proposed to query the [International Court of Justice](#) on the competence of the General Assembly to partition a country, but the resolution was rejected.

Drafting the Text

The first draft of the declaration was made by [Zvi Berenson](#), the legal advisor of the [Histadrut](#) trade union and later a Justice of the [Supreme Court](#), at the request of [Pinchas Rosen](#). A revised second draft was made by three lawyers, A. Beham, A. Hintzheimer and Z.E. Baker, and was framed by a committee including [David Remez](#), [Pinchas Rosen](#), [Haim-Moshe Shapira](#), [Moshe Sharett](#) and [Aharon Zisling](#).^[8] A second committee meeting, which included [David Ben-Gurion](#), [Yehuda Leib Maimon](#), Sharett and Zisling produced the final text.^[9]

Drafting the Text

The first draft of the declaration was made by [Zvi Berenson](#), the legal advisor of the [Histadrut](#) trade union and later a Justice of the [Supreme Court](#), at the request of [Pinchas Rosen](#). A revised second draft was made by three lawyers, A. Beham, A. Hintzheimer and Z.E. Baker, and was framed by a committee including [David Remez](#), [Pinchas Rosen](#), [Haim-Moshe Shapira](#), [Moshe Sharett](#) and [Aharon Zisling](#).^[8] A second committee meeting, which included [David Ben-Gurion](#), [Yehuda Leib Maimon](#), Sharett and Zisling produced the final text.^[9]

Minhelet HaAm Vote

On 12 May 1948, the [Minhelet HaAm](#) ([Hebrew](#): מנהלת העם, lit. *People's Administration*) was convened to vote on declaring independence.^{[10][11]} Three of the thirteen members were missing, with [Yehuda Leib Maimon](#) and [Yitzhak Gruenbaum](#) being blocked in [besieged Jerusalem](#), while [Yitzhak-Meir Levin](#) was in the United States.

The meeting started at 13:45 and ended after midnight. The decision was between accepting the American proposal for a truce, or declaring independence. The latter option was put to a vote, with six of the ten members present supporting it:

- **For:** [David Ben-Gurion](#), [Moshe Sharett](#) ([Mapai](#)); [Peretz Bernstein](#) ([General Zionists](#)); [Haim-Moshe Shapira](#) ([Hapoel HaMizrachi](#)); [Mordechai Bentov](#), [Aharon Zisling](#) ([Mapam](#)).
- **Against:** [Eliezer Kaplan](#), [David Remez](#) ([Mapai](#)); [Pinchas Rosen](#) ([New Aliyah Party](#)); [Bechor-Shalom Sheetrit](#) ([Sephardim and Oriental Communities](#)).

[Chaim Weizmann](#), the Chairman of the [World Zionist Organization](#),^[a] and soon to be [first President of Israel](#), endorsed the decision, after reportedly asking "What are they waiting for, the idiots?"^[8]

Final Wording

The draft text was submitted for approval to a meeting of [Moetzet HaAm](#) at the [JNF](#) building in [Tel Aviv](#) on 14 May. The meeting started at 13:50 and ended at 15:00, an hour before the declaration was due to be made. Despite ongoing disagreements, members of the Council unanimously voted in favour of the final text. During the process, there were two major debates, centring on the issues of borders and religion.

Borders

See also: [Borders of Israel](#)



On the day of its proclamation, [Eliahu Epstein](#) wrote to [Harry S. Truman](#) that the state had been proclaimed "within the frontiers approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations in its Resolution of November 29, 1947".

The borders were not specified in the Declaration, although its 14th paragraph indicated a willingness to cooperate in the implementation of the UN Partition Plan. The original draft had declared that the borders would be decided by the UN partition plan. While this was supported by Rosen and [Bechor-Shalom Sheetrit](#), it was opposed by Ben-Gurion and Zisling, with Ben-Gurion stating, "We accepted the UN Resolution, but the Arabs did not. They are preparing to make war on us. If we defeat them and capture western Galilee or territory on both sides of the road to Jerusalem, these areas will become part of the state. Why should we obligate ourselves to accept boundaries that in any case the Arabs don't accept?"^[8] The inclusion of the designation of borders in the text was dropped after the provisional government of Israel, the [Minhelet HaAm](#), voted 5–4 against it.^[9] The [Revisionists](#), committed to a Jewish state on both sides of the [Jordan River](#) (that is, including [Transjordan](#)), wanted the phrase "within its historic borders" included, but were unsuccessful.

Religion

The second major issue was over the inclusion of God in the last section of the document, with the draft using the phrase "and placing our trust in the Almighty". The two [rabbis](#), Shapira and [Yehuda Leib Maimon](#), argued for its inclusion, saying that it could not be omitted, with Shapira supporting the wording "God of Israel" or "the Almighty and Redeemer of Israel".^[8] It was strongly opposed by Zisling, a member of the secularist [Mapam](#). In the end the phrase "[Rock of Israel](#)" was used, which could be interpreted as either referring to God, or the land of [Eretz Israel](#), Ben-Gurion saying "Each of us, in his own way, believes in the 'Rock of Israel' as he conceives it. I should like to make one request: Don't let me put this phrase to a vote." Although its use was still opposed by Zisling, the phrase was accepted without a vote.

Name

The writers also had to decide on the name for the new state. [Eretz Israel](#), Ever (from the name [Eber](#)), [Judea](#), and [Zion](#) were all suggested, as were Ziona, Ivriya and Herzliya.^[12] Judea and Zion were rejected because, according to the partition plan, Jerusalem (Zion) and most of the [Judean mountains](#) would be outside the new state.^[13] Ben-Gurion put forward "Israel" and it passed by a vote of 6–3.^[14] Official documents released in April 2013 by the State Archive of Israel show that days before the establishment of the State of Israel in May 1948, officials were still debating about what the new country would be called in Arabic: Palestine (فلسطين Filastin), Zion (صهيون Sayoun) or Israel (إسرائيل Eesra'il). Two assumptions were made: "That an Arab state was about to be established alongside the Jewish one in keeping with the UN's partition resolution the year before, and that the Jewish state would include a large Arab minority whose feelings needed to be taken into account". In the end, the officials rejected the name Palestine because they thought that would be the name of the new Arab state and could cause confusion so they opted for the most straightforward option of Israel.^[15]

Other Items

At the meeting on 14 May, several other members of Moetzet HaAm suggested additions to the document. [Meir Vilner](#) wanted it to denounce the British Mandate and military but Sharett said it was out of place. [Meir Argov](#) pushed to mention the [Displaced Persons camps](#) in Europe and to guarantee freedom of [language](#). Ben-Gurion agreed with the latter but noted that Hebrew should be the main language of the state.

The debate over wording did not end completely even after the Declaration had been made. Declaration signer [Meir David Loewenstein](#) later claimed, "It ignored our sole right to [Eretz Israel](#), which is based on the covenant of the Lord with [Abraham](#), our father, and repeated promises in the [Tanach](#). It ignored the aliya of the [Ramban](#) and the students of the [Vilna Gaon](#) and the [Ba'al Shem Tov](#), and the [rights of] Jews who lived in the 'Old Yishuv'".^[16]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F2 CRITICISM OF ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

<div>State of Israel</div> <div>  </div>	
Geography	[show]
History	[show]
Conflicts	[show]
Law · Politics	[show]
Foreign relations	[show]
Security forces	[show]
Economy	[show]
Demographics · Culture	[show]
<div> <div>Portal · Category</div> <div>WikiProject</div> </div> <div>V · T · E</div>	

Criticism of Israel^{[1][2][3]} is a subject of journalistic and scholarly commentary and research within the scope of [international relations theory](#), expressed in terms of [political science](#). [Israel](#) has faced international criticism since its [declaration of independence](#) in 1948 relating to a variety of topics,^{[4][5][6][7]} both historical and contemporary.

Israel has been criticized for issues surrounding its establishment when most of [Mandatory Palestine](#)'s Arab population [fled or were expelled](#) in 1948, the conduct of [its armed forces](#) in the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#), establishment and expansion of [illegal Israeli settlements](#) in the [Palestinian territories](#), its [treatment of Palestinians](#), and the [blockade of the Gaza Strip](#),^[8] with its impact on the [economy of the Palestinian territories](#), the country's [nuclear weapons program](#),^[9] and its [targeted killings program](#).^{[10][11]} Other criticized long-standing issues include: the [refusal to allow](#) post-war [Palestinian refugees](#) to [return](#) to their homes, and the [prolonged occupation of territories gained in war](#) and the construction of settlements therein. Israel's status as a representative democracy has also been questioned because Israeli

residents of the [occupied territories](#) are allowed to vote in Israel's elections while Palestinian residents are not.^{[12][13][14]}

Criticisms of Israeli policies come from several groups: primarily from [activists](#), within Israel and worldwide, the [United Nations](#) and other [non-governmental organizations](#) including European churches, and mass media. [Media bias](#) is often claimed by both sides of the debate. Since 2003, the UN has issued 232 resolutions with respect to Israel, 40% of all resolutions issued by the UN over the period and more than six times that of the second placed country, [Sudan](#).^[15]

Counter criticisms include the assertion that some critics and their criticisms are aimed at [delegitimizing Israel right to exist](#),^{[16][17][18]} which has led some to debate over the point at which criticism of Israel crosses the line into [antisemitism](#). The term "[new antisemitism](#)" refers to criticisms deemed to have crossed this threshold.

SUBJECTS OF CRITICISM

Palestinian Refugees

Main articles: [Palestinian refugees](#), [1948 Palestinian exodus](#), and [1967 Palestinian exodus](#)

Further information: [Causes of the 1948 Palestinian exodus](#) and [Lausanne Conference, 1949](#)

Palestinian refugees are defined by the UN as [Arabs](#) who lived in Palestine for at least two years prior to 1948 and their descendants, and who fled or were expelled from their homes during and after the [1948 Palestine War](#).

The causes and responsibilities of the exodus are a matter of controversy among historians and commentators of the conflict.^[19] Whereas historians now agree on most of the events of that period, there remains disagreement as to whether the exodus was the result of a [plan](#) designed before or during the war by [Zionist](#) leaders or was an unintended consequence of the war.^[20]^[page needed]

Significant international pressure was placed on both sides during the [1949 Lausanne Conference](#) to resolve the refugee crisis. The parties signed a joint protocol on the framework for a comprehensive peace, which included territories, refugees, and Jerusalem, in which Israel agreed "in principle" to allow the return of all of the Palestinian refugees.^[21]^[page needed] According to [New Historian Ilan Pappé](#), this Israeli agreement was made under pressure from the [United States](#), and because the Israelis wanted [United Nations](#) membership, which required Israeli agreement to allow the return of all refugees. Once Israel was admitted to the UN, it retreated from the protocol it had signed because it was completely satisfied with the status quo and saw no need to make any concessions with regard to the refugees or on boundary questions. This led to significant and sustained international criticism.^[21]^[page needed]

Allegations of Ethnic Cleansing

"New Historian" [Ilan Pappé](#) argued in *[The Ethnic Cleansing of Palestine](#)* that Israel's policy [between 1947 and 1949](#), when "over 400 Palestinian villages were deliberately destroyed, civilians were massacred, and around a million men, women, and children were expelled from their homes at gunpoint" is best described as [ethnic cleansing](#).^[22]^[page needed]^[23]^[24]^[25] However, Pappé's work has been subject to significant criticism and allegations of fabrication by other historians.^[26]^[27]^[28]

For example, Israeli historian [Benny Morris](#) called Pappé "At best ... one of the world's sloppiest historians; at worst, one of the most dishonest." When asked about the [1948 Palestinian expulsion from Lydda and Ramle](#), he responded "There are circumstances in history that justify ethnic cleansing. I know that this term is completely negative in the discourse of the 21st century, but when the choice is between ethnic cleansing and genocide – the annihilation of your people – I prefer ethnic cleansing. [...] There was no choice but to expel that population. It was necessary to cleanse the hinterland and cleanse the border areas and cleanse the main roads. It was necessary to cleanse the villages from which our convoys and our settlements were fired on."^[29] He also added in 2008, that "There was no Zionist 'plan' or blanket policy of evicting the Arab population, or of 'ethnic cleansing'. Plan Dalet (Plan D), of 10 March 1948 ... was the master plan ... to counter the expected pan-Arab assault on the emergent Jewish state".^[30]

Occupation and Annexation of Neighboring Territories



This section **does not** [cite](#) any [sources](#). Please help [improve this section](#) by [adding citations to reliable sources](#). Unsourced material

may be challenged and [removed](#). (July 2018) ([Learn how and when to remove this template message](#))

Main articles: [Israeli-occupied territories](#) and [International law and the Arab–Israeli conflict](#)

See also: [Annexation](#)

The territories occupied by [Israel](#) from [Egypt](#), [Jordan](#), and [Syria](#) after the [Six-Day War](#) of 1967 have been designated as [occupied territory](#) by the United Nations and many other international organisations, governments and others. They consist of the [West Bank](#) and much of the [Golan Heights](#). From the Six-Day War until 1982, the [Sinai Peninsula](#) was occupied by Israel, but it was returned to Egypt in the [Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#). The Gaza Strip was also occupied by Israel until its unilateral disengagement. UN Security Council resolution 242, emphasized "the inadmissibility of the acquisition of territory by war," setting the stage for controversy on the legal status of areas captured in 1967, and in 1948. There are two interpretations of international law on this matter:

The Israeli Position:

- The wars in [1956](#) and [1967](#) were waged by Israel to ensure the state's survival. As most hostilities were initiated by the Arab side, Israel had to fight and win these wars in order to ensure the state's sovereignty and safety. Territories captured in the course of those wars are therefore legitimately under Israeli administration for both security reasons and to deter hostile states from belligerence.
- In the absence of peace treaties between all the parties at war, Israel has under all circumstances the right to maintain control of the captured territories. Their ultimate disposition should be a result of peace treaties, and not a condition for them. Even so, Israel asserts that:
 - The [1956 war](#) was caused by a pattern of Egyptian belligerence against Israel, culminating with the nationalization of the [Suez Canal](#) and the blockage of the canal for Israeli traffic in violation of the [Convention of Constantinople](#) and other relevant treaties, in their view a clear *casus belli* (i.e., an act justifying war)
 - The [1967 war](#) was similarly caused by the closing of the [Straits of Tiran](#), the rejection of UN forces in the Sinai desert, and the redeployment of Egyptian forces. Jordan and Syria entered the war in spite of Israeli efforts to keep these frontiers peaceful.
 - The [1973 war](#) was a surprise attack against Israel by Syria and Egypt.

The Arab Position:

- The 1956 war was a result of a conspiracy between France, the United Kingdom and Israel in violation of Egypt's sovereignty. Egypt claimed several legal justifications for refusing Israel use of the Suez Canal, including the right of self-defence.
- The war in 1967 was an unprovoked act of aggression aimed at expanding the boundaries of Israel, and the territories captured during this war are illegally occupied.

- As a result, the territories must be ceded in order for peace to be achieved.

Israel's annexation of East Jerusalem and the Golan Heights in 1980-1 by the [Jerusalem Law](#) and the [Golan Heights Law](#) has not been recognised by any other country.^[31] The [Palestinian Authority](#), the [EU](#),^[32] and the [UN Security Council](#)^[33] consider [East Jerusalem](#) to be part of the West Bank, a position disputed by Israel. International bodies such as the United Nations have condemned the [Jerusalem Law](#) as a violation of the [Fourth Geneva Convention](#) and therefore hold that the establishment of the city as Israel's capital is against international law. Consequently, countries have established embassies to Israel's government outside of Jerusalem.

[Israel unilaterally disengaged](#) from Gaza in September 2005, and declared itself no longer to be in occupation of the Strip. This has been contested by the UN, which though not declaring Gaza "occupied" under the legal definition, has referred to Gaza under the nomenclature of "Occupied Palestinian Territories". Some groups do assert that Gaza is legally occupied.^{[34][35][36]}

Alleged Lack of Democracy

Despite the fact that Israeli security legislation for [Palestinian territories](#) does not state that, military law applies only to Arab residents of the territories, and not to Jews or to Israeli citizens.^[37] Israeli citizens are governed by [Israeli law](#) whereas Palestinians are governed by military law.^[38]

Some Israeli individuals such as [Avraham Burg](#), [Ilan Pappé](#), [Gershom Gorenberg](#), [David Remnick](#), [Oren Yiftachel](#), and [Miko Peled](#) and organisations as Human Rights Watch, B'tselem, Peace Now and others have questioned Israel's status as a democracy. These questions focus on the lack of democracy in the Israeli-occupied territories, not Israel proper. Such criticisms are based on the belief that both Israeli citizens in settlements and Palestinians should be given the right to suffrage, considering the Palestinians are effectively under Israeli authority and thus should benefit from it. They share a concern that the occupation of the territories is not temporary, given the over forty-five year duration and the large and the permanent nature of the [Israeli settlements](#).^{[39][page needed][12][13][14][40][41][42]}

Israeli Settlements

Main articles: [Israeli settlement](#), [International law and Israeli settlements](#), and [Israeli settler violence](#)

The participating High Contracting Parties to the Fourth Geneva Convention,^[43] numerous UN resolutions, the [International Court of Justice](#)^[44] and other instances have ruled that Israel's policy of establishing civilian settlements in territories considered occupied, including in [East Jerusalem](#), is illegal. Israel disputes the notion that the West Bank and in particular East Jerusalem are occupied under international law, though this view is dismissed internationally.

Israel's settlement policy has drawn harsh criticism from the United States^[45] and the European Union.^[46]

[Ali Jarbawi](#) called the policy as "one of the only remaining [settler-colonial](#) occupations in the world today".^[47] In his book *Hollow Land: Israel's Architecture of Occupation*, [Eyal Weizman](#) describes Israel's

policy as a "political system at the heart of this complex and terrifying project of late-modern colonial occupation".^[48]^[page needed]

The international community criticized Israel for "failing to protect the Palestinian population" from Israeli settler violence.^[49]

Human Rights

Main article: [Human rights in Israel](#)

[Human Rights Watch](#) (HRW) has said Israel operates a "two-tier" judicial system in areas of the occupied [Palestinian territories](#) it administers, to an effect which provides preferential services, development, and benefits for Israelis living in settlements in the occupied territories while imposing harsh conditions on Palestinians and other non-Israeli citizens. In some cases Israel has acknowledged differential treatment of Palestinians and Israelis, such as having separate roads for both communities and operating checkpoints for Palestinians, asserting that the measures are necessary to protect Israelis from attacks by Palestinian armed groups. In 2011, the Israeli parliament passed a law criminalizing participation in boycotts of Israeli settlements. The law drew criticism from the EU, the United States and the [Anti-Defamation League](#).^[50]

Imprisonment

Main article: [Human rights in Israel § Treatment of prisoners](#)

[Amnesty International](#) reported that in 2009 hundreds of Palestinians were detained and held incommunicado for extended periods of time by Israel. While most were later released without charge, hundreds were tried before military courts whose procedures often failed to meet international standards for fair trial. According to Amnesty, almost all Palestinian prisoners were held in violation of international humanitarian law, which prohibits the transfer of detainees to the territory of the occupying power (i.e., Israel proper). It claimed that about 300 minors and 550 adults were held without charge or trial for more than a year.^[51]

In 2011, UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon said Israel held thousands of Palestinians as prisoners, and called on Israel to release them. Ban said the release of political prisoners would "serve as a significant confidence-building measure" and boost prospects of peace in the region.^[52] Also Amnesty International has called on Israel to release political prisoners, saying "all political prisoners held without charge or trial should be tried in fair trials or immediately released".^[53] Israel objects to releasing prisoners, many of whom have been convicted by Israeli courts for violent crimes such as murder.^[citation needed] However, several prisoner release deals have been conducted by Israel as a gesture in negotiations, many which involved the release of hundreds or more prisoners.

According to Amnesty International, [methods of torture used by Israel on Palestinian prisoners](#) include prolonged tying in painful stress positions, sleep deprivation and threats to harm detainees' families.

Beatings and other ill-treatment of detainees are common during and following arrest and during transfer from one location to another.^[51]

Treatment of ethnic and religious minorities

Main article: [Racism in Israel](#)

Organizations such as Amnesty International, the [Association for Civil Rights in Israel](#) (ACRI), the Israeli government-appointed [Or Commission](#), and the United States [Department of State](#)^[54] have published reports that document racism and discrimination directed towards racial and ethnic groups in Israel.

According to a study commissioned by Israel's Courts administration and Israel Bar Association, Arab Israelis who have been charged with certain types of crime are more likely than their Jewish counterparts to be convicted, and once convicted they are more likely to be sent to prison. The study also found differences in lengths of prison sentences given, with the average prison sentence at nine and a half months for Jews and 14 months for Arabs.^[55]

Rights groups have said that anti-discrimination employment laws in Israel are rarely enforced. A coalition of nine Israeli rights groups has opposed a practice under which companies can advertise their policy to hire only Jewish Israelis, and no Arab Israelis. Companies advertising under a "Hebrew labor" banner adhere to a segregated employment philosophy derived from a practice by Jewish immigrants in Palestine in the first half of the 20th century which was meant to strengthen emerging Israeli industry from British and Arab influence.^[56]

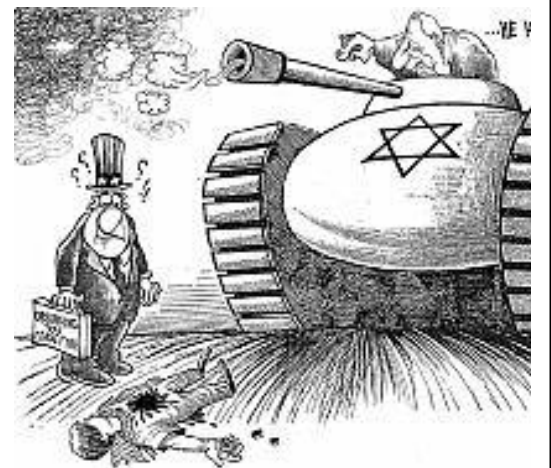
Stagnating Peace Process

In February 2011, Netanyahu called German Chancellor [Angela Merkel](#) to complain about Germany's vote in favor of a resolution at the United Nations Security Council to declare Israeli settlements to be illegal and she responded "How dare you! You are the one who disappointed us. You haven't made a single step to advance peace."^[57] A few days later veteran Israeli diplomat Ilan Baruch resigned saying that Netanyahu's policies were leading to Israel's delegitimization.^[58]

Military Practices

Human shield allegations

The IDF acknowledged using the "Neighbor Procedure" or the "Early Warning Procedure", in which the IDF would encourage a Palestinian acquaintance of a wanted man to try to convince him to surrender. This practice was criticized by some as using "[human shields](#)", an allegation the IDF denied, saying that it never



**[A Political cartoon](#)
by Lebanese cartoonist
[Mahmoud Kahil](#)
criticizing the policies
of [Ariel Sharon](#)**

forced people into carrying out the Neighbor Procedure; and that Palestinians volunteered to prevent excess loss of life. Amnesty International^[59] and Human Rights Watch^[60] are among the groups who made the "human shield" comparison. The Israeli group [B'Tselem](#) also made the comparison, saying that "for a long period of time following the outbreak of the second intifada [Operation Defensive Shield](#), in April 2002, the IDF systematically used Palestinian civilians as human shields, forcing them to carry out military actions which threatened their lives".^[61] The Neighbor Procedure was outlawed by the [Supreme Court of Israel](#) in 2005 but some groups say the IDF continues to use it, although they say the number of instances has dropped sharply.^{[61][62]}

Possession of weapons of mass destruction

Main article: [Nuclear weapons and Israel](#)

Israel is seen to possess a nuclear arsenal of about 150 weapons, and has been criticised for maintaining nuclear weapons and for not agreeing to a nuclear-free Middle East zone. In September 2009, the [IAEA](#) passed a resolution that "expresses concern about the Israeli nuclear capabilities, and calls upon Israel to accede to the [NPT](#) and place all its nuclear facilities under comprehensive IAEA safeguards..."^[63]

Israel has signed the [Chemical Weapons Convention](#) but not ratified it, citing neighbouring states that have not done so either.^[64] Israel is widely believed to have chemical weapons, but officials have never directly admitted it, although in 1990 Science Minister Yuval Neeman threatened to retaliate against an Iraqi chemical-weapons strike "with the same merchandise".^[65] Israel has not signed the [Biological Weapons Convention](#).^[64]

Targeted killings of terrorists

Main article: [Israeli targeted killings](#)

Amnesty International has condemned Israel's policy of assassinations targeting individuals.^[66] Israeli officials have admitted that the policy exists and is being pursued, saying it helps prevent acts of terrorism from being committed against Israel. The [United States](#) has a very similar policy.^[67] Criticism has also been raised from some on the Israeli left, who say assassination policy is "gangster behavior" unbecoming of a government and is against Israeli law.^[68] Israel's Supreme Court has ruled that assassinations are illegal, but leaked documents suggest that Israel's army has ignored the ruling.^[69]

Judaization of Jerusalem

Main article: [Judaization of Jerusalem](#)

The term *Judaization of Jerusalem* refers to the view that [Israel](#) has sought to transform the physical and demographic landscape of [Jerusalem](#) to correspond with a vision of a united and fundamentally [Jewish](#) Jerusalem under Israeli sovereignty.^[70]

The [United Nations](#) has criticised Israel's efforts to change the demographic makeup of Jerusalem in several resolutions. All legislative and administrative measures taken by Israel, which have altered or

aimed to alter the character, legal status and demographic composition of Jerusalem, are described by the UN as "null and void" and having "no validity whatsoever".^[71] [Richard Falk](#), an investigator with the U.N. Human Rights Council, said that Israel's expansion of East Jerusalem settlements and evictions of Palestinian residents can "only be described in its cumulative impact as a form of [ethnic cleansing](#)".^[72]

In a 2008 report, [John Dugard](#), independent investigator for the [United Nations Human Rights Council](#), cites the Judaization of Jerusalem among many examples of Israeli policies "of [colonialism](#), [apartheid](#) or [occupation](#)" that create a context in which [Palestinian terrorism](#) is "an inevitable consequence".^[73]

The Law of Return

Israel has enacted a [Law of Return](#) that allows Jews a fast-track to Israeli citizenship. [Palestinian refugees](#) cannot apply for Israeli citizenship under the law since they are not Jewish, though they can apply for Israeli citizenship through the conventional channel. The law has drawn criticism from the Cairo Institute for Human Rights Studies which says the law is a "main example of Israeli laws that discriminate against Palestinian Arabs".^[74] The [American-Arab Anti-Discrimination Committee](#) says the contrast between the Law of Return and Israeli opposition to the [right of return](#) of Palestinian refugees exhibits "barefaced racism".^[75] More than 1,000 American Jews have backed a campaign entitled "Breaking the Law of Return", saying the Law of Return creates an ethnically exclusive citizenship, which they see as unjust.^[76]

Critics claim that the guaranteed right for Jews to immigrate to Israel is discriminatory to non-Jews and therefore runs counter to the democratic value of equality under the law.^[77]

Current government

Former Israeli Prime Minister [Ehud Barak](#) stated the current^[when?] Israeli government is "infected by seeds of fascism" and "needs to be brought down." Zionist Union MK [Tzipi Livni](#) stated the government was in a state of "crisis — not only of leadership but of ethics."^{[78][79]}

CRITICISM AT THE UNITED NATIONS

See also: [Israel and the United Nations](#) and [List of United Nations resolutions concerning Israel](#)

The UN has issued 232 resolutions with respect to Israel since 2003, representing 40% of all resolutions issued by the UN over the period and more than six times that of the second placed country, [Sudan](#).^[15]



According to testimony by the pro-Israel human rights NGO [UN Watch](#) to the [United States Congress](#) in January 2011 with respect to the [United Nations Human Rights Council](#), Israel has been the focus of 70% of approximately 50 condemnatory resolutions by the council, 60% of the ten Special Sessions of the council and 100% of the council's five fact-finding missions or inquiries.^[80]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F3 HISTORY OF THE JEWS AND JUDAISM IN THE LAND OF ISRAEL

(Go to website to see dates and links in boxes that run through article)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

<div>Part of a series on the</div> <div>History of Israel</div> <div></div> <div>Early history [show]</div> <div>Ancient Israel and Judah [show]</div> <div>Second Temple period [show]</div> <div>Late Antiquity and Middle Ages [show]</div> <div>Modern history [show]</div> <div>By topic [show]</div> <div>Related [show]</div> <div> Israel portal</div> <div>V · T · E</div>	<div>Part of a series on</div> <div>Jews and Judaism</div> <div>Etymology · Who is a Jew?</div> <div>Religion [show]</div> <div>Texts [show]</div> <div>Communities [show]</div> <div>Population [hide]</div>
--	--

The **history of the Jews and Judaism in the Land of Israel** is about the history and religion of the [Jews](#), who originated in the [Land of Israel](#), and have maintained physical, cultural, and religious ties to it ever since. First emerging in the later part of the 2nd millennium BCE as an outgrowth of southern [Canaanites](#),^{[1][2][3][4]} the [Hebrew Bible](#) claims that a [United Israelite monarchy](#) existed starting in the 10th century BCE. The first appearance of the name "Israel" in the non-Biblical historic record is the Egyptian [Merneptah Stele](#), *circa* 1200 BCE. During [biblical times](#), two kingdoms occupied the highland zone, the [Kingdom of Israel \(Samaria\)](#) in the north, and the [Kingdom of Judah](#) in the south. The Kingdom of Israel was [conquered](#) by the [Neo-Assyrian Empire](#) (*circa* 722 BCE), and the Kingdom of Judah by the [Neo-Babylonian Empire](#) (586 BCE). Initially [exiled](#) to Babylon, upon the [defeat of the Neo-Babylonian Empire](#) by the [Achaemenid Empire](#) under [Cyrus the Great](#) (538 BCE), many of the Jewish exiles returned to Jerusalem, building the [Second Temple](#).

In 332 BCE the kingdom of [Macedonia](#) under [Alexander the Great](#) conquered the Achaemenid Empire, which included [Yehud \(Judea\)](#). This event started a long religious struggle that split the Jewish population into traditional and [Hellenized](#) components.

In 165 BCE, after the religion-driven [Maccabean Revolt](#), the independent [Hasmonean Kingdom](#) was established. In 64 BCE, the [Roman Republic](#) conquered Judea, turning it into a Roman province. Although coming under the sway of various empires and home to a variety of ethnicities, the area of ancient Israel was predominantly Jewish until the [Jewish–Roman wars](#) of 66–136 CE. During the wars, the [Roman Empire](#) expelled most of the Jews from the area and formed the Roman province of [Syria Palaestina](#), beginning the [Jewish diaspora](#). After this time, Jews became a minority in most regions, except [Galilee](#). The area became increasingly [Christianized](#) after the 3rd century, although the percentages of Christians and Jews are unknown, the former perhaps coming to predominate in urban areas, the latter remaining in rural areas.^[5] Jewish settlements declined from over 160 to 50 by the time of the [Muslim conquest of the Levant](#). [Michael Avi-Yonah](#) says that Jews constituted 10–15% of Palestine's population by the time of the [Sasanian conquest of Jerusalem](#) in 614,^[6] while [Moshe Gil](#) says that Jews constituted the majority of the population until the 7th century Muslim conquest (638 CE).^[7]

In 1099, the forces of the [First Crusade](#) conquered Jerusalem and nearby coastal areas, forming the [Kingdom of Jerusalem](#). Over the following 200 years, Crusader forces lost and recaptured Jerusalem until their final ouster from [Acre](#) in 1291. In 1517, the [Ottoman Empire](#) conquered the region, ruling it until the British conquered it in 1917. The region was ruled under the British [Mandate for Palestine](#) until 1948, when the Jewish [State of Israel](#) was proclaimed in part of the ancient land of Israel. This was made possible by the [Zionist](#) movement and its promotion of mass Jewish immigration.

ETYMOLOGY

Main article: [Jew \(word\)](#)

The term "Jews" originates from the Biblical Hebrew word *Yehudi*, and in its original meaning refers to the people of the [Tribe of Judah](#) or the people of the [Kingdom of Judah](#). The name of both the tribe and kingdom derive from [Judah](#), the fourth son of [Jacob](#).^[8] Originally, the Hebrew term *Yehudi* referred only to members of the tribe of Judah. Later, after the destruction of the [Kingdom of Israel \(Samaria\)](#), the term "Yehudi" was applied to anyone from the Kingdom of Judah, including the tribes of Judah, Benjamin and Levi, as well as scattered settlements from other tribes.^[9]

The [Land of Israel](#), which is considered by Jews to be the [Promised Land](#), was the place where Jewish identity was formed,^[10]^{*[need quotation to verify]*} although this identity was formed gradually reaching much of its current form in the [Exilic](#) and [post-Exilic period](#). By the [Hellenistic period](#) (after 332 BCE) the Jews had become a self-consciously separate community based in [Jerusalem](#).

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F4 BORDERS OF ISRAEL

*This article is about the borders of the modern State of Israel.
For the ancient Halakhic delineation of the borders of the Land of Israel,
see [Mosaic of Rehob](#).*

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



[United Nations](#)-
derived
boundary map
of Israel and the
[Israeli-occupied
territories](#)
(updated to 2018)

The modern **borders of Israel** exist as the result both of past wars and of diplomatic agreements between the [State of Israel](#) and its neighbours, as well as an effect of the agreements among colonial powers ruling in the region before Israel's creation. Only two of Israel's five total potential land borders are internationally recognized and uncontested, while the other three remain disputed; the majority of its border disputes are rooted in territorial changes that came about as a result of the [1967 Arab–Israeli War](#), which saw Israel occupy large swathes of territory from its rivals.^[1] Israel's two formally recognized and confirmed borders exist with [Egypt](#) and [Jordan](#) since the [1979 Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#) and the [1994 Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#), while its borders with [Syria](#) (via the Israeli-occupied [Golan Heights](#)), [Lebanon](#) (via the [Blue Line](#); see [Shebaa Farms dispute](#)) and the [Palestinian territories](#) (Israeli-occupied land [largely recognized](#) as part of the *de jure* [State of Palestine](#)) remain internationally recognized as contested.^[2]

According to the [Green Line](#) agreed upon in the [1949 Armistice Agreements](#), Israel is [demarcated](#) by Lebanon to the north, the Golan Heights under Syrian sovereignty as well as the rest of Syria to the northeast, the [Palestinian West Bank](#) and [Jordan](#) to the east, and by the [Palestinian Gaza Strip](#) and [Egypt](#) to the southwest. The Israeli border with Egypt is the international border demarcated in 1906 between the [United Kingdom](#) and the [Ottoman Empire](#), and confirmed in the 1979 Egypt–Israel peace treaty; the Israeli border with Jordan is based on the border defined in the [1922 Trans-Jordan memorandum](#), and confirmed in the 1994 Israel–Jordan peace treaty.

EARLY BACKGROUND



Zones of [French](#) and [British](#) influence and control proposed in the [1916 Sykes–Picot Agreement](#) during [World War I](#)

The [Sykes–Picot Agreement](#) of 1916 secretly divided the Ottoman Empire lands of Middle East between British and French [spheres of influence](#). They agreed that "Palestine" was to be designated as an "international enclave".^[3] This agreement was revised by Britain and France in December 1918; [it was agreed that Palestine and the Vilayet of Mosul](#) in modern-day [Iraq](#) would be part of the British sphere in exchange for British support of French influence in Syria and Lebanon.^[4] At the [San Remo Conference](#) (April 19–26, 1920) the Allied Supreme Council determined that mandates for Palestine and Mesopotamia would be allocated to Britain without precisely defining the boundaries of the mandated territories.^{[5][6]}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)


F5 JUDEA AND SAMARIA AREA

For the biblical regions that serve as its namesake, see [Judea](#) and [Samaria](#).

For the biblical kingdoms, see [Kingdom of Judah](#) and [Kingdom of Samaria](#).

Not to be confused with [Area C \(West Bank\)](#), the administrative area defined in the [Oslo II Accord](#).

WIKIPEDIA

Judea and Samaria Area אזור יהודה ושומרון يَهُودَا وَالسَّامِرَة	
Israeli administrative division	
 <p>Map of Israel and the Golan Heights, with the Judea and Samaria Area (Israeli-occupied West Bank excluding East Jerusalem) highlighted in peach</p> <p>Coordinates: 31°45′N 35°00′E﻿ / ﻿31.75°N 35.00°E﻿ / 31.75; 35.00</p>	
Country	 Israel
Region	West Bank
Named for	Judea, Samaria
Capital	Ariel
Area	
• Total	5,878 km ² (2,270 sq mi)
Population (2021)	
• Total	491,923 residents (Israeli citizens only) ^[1]

The **Judea and Samaria Area** ([Hebrew](#): אזור יהודה ושומרון, [romanized](#): *Ezor Yehuda VeShomron*; [Arabic](#): يهودا والسامرة, [romanized](#): *Yahūda wa-s-Sāmara*) is an administrative division of [Israel](#). It encompasses the entire [West Bank](#), which has been [occupied by Israel since 1967](#), but excludes [East Jerusalem](#) (see [Jerusalem Law](#)).^{[2][3]} Its area is split into 165 [Palestinian "islands"](#) that are under total or partial civil administration by the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA), and [a contiguous area](#) containing 230 [Israeli settlements](#) into which [Israeli law is "pipelined"](#).

While its area is internationally recognized as a part of the [Palestinian territories](#), some Israeli authorities group it together with the [districts of Israel proper](#), largely for statistical purposes.^{[3][4][5]} The term *Judea and Samaria* serves as another name for the West Bank in Israel.

TERMINOLOGY

Biblical significance

The Judea and Samaria Area covers a portion of the territory designated by the [biblical](#) names of [Judea](#) and [Samaria](#). Both names are tied to the ancient [Israelite](#) kingdoms: the former corresponds to part of the [Kingdom of Judah](#), also known as the Southern Kingdom; and the latter corresponds to part of the [Kingdom of Samaria](#), also known as the Northern Kingdom. In 1947, the terminology was noted by the [United Nations](#) in the [Partition Plan for Palestine](#) with the statement: "the boundary of the hill country of Samaria and Judea starts on the [Jordan River](#)..."^[6]

1967 Arab–Israeli War

In 1967, the [Six-Day War](#) saw Israeli forces capture the [Jordanian-annexed West Bank](#), marking the beginning of the [ongoing Israeli occupation of the territory](#). Following its capture, the right-wing Israelis began to refer to the

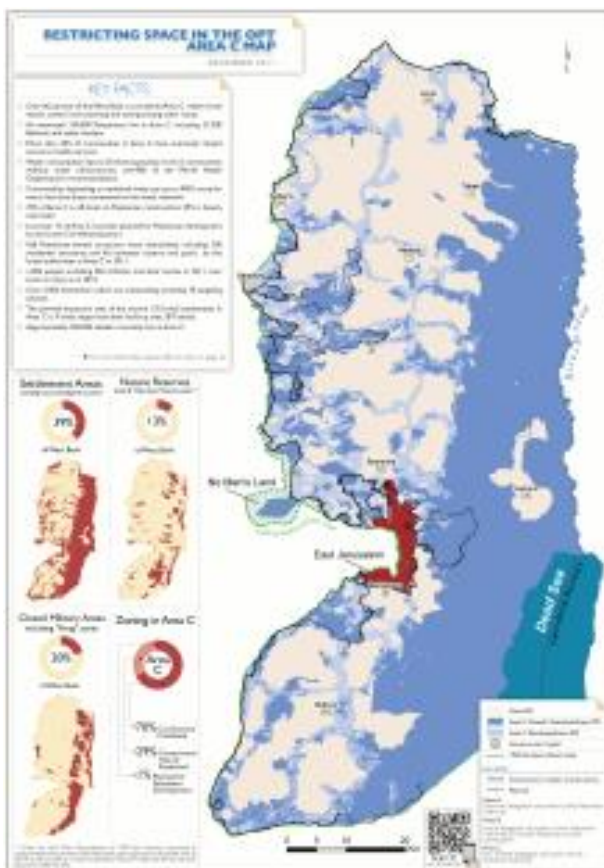
territories by their [Hebrew](#)-language names and argued for [their integration into Israel](#) on historical, religious, nationalist, and security grounds.^{[7][8]} In December 1967, the [Israeli Military Governorate](#) issued an order that stated: "the term 'Judea and Samaria region' shall be identical in meaning for all purposes to the term 'the West Bank Region'".^[9] By early 1968, "Judea and Samaria" had been formally adopted in official usage.^[10] However, the phrase was rarely used until 1977, when [Menachem Begin](#), a proponent of extending Israel's sovereignty to the region, was elected as Israel's sixth prime minister.^{[11][10][12][13]}

The name *Judea*, when used in *Judea and Samaria*, refers to all of the area to the south of [Jerusalem](#), including [Gush Etzion](#) and [Har Hevron](#). The name *Samaria*, on the other hand, refers to all of the area to the north of Jerusalem. In 1980, [East Jerusalem](#) (a part of the [West Bank](#)) was [effectively annexed by Israel](#) and has since been under civilian administration; it is thus excluded from the administrative structure of the Judea and Samaria Area.

The names "West Bank" (הַגִּדָּה הַמַּעֲרָבִית, *HaGadah HaMa'aravit*) or, alternatively, "[the Territories](#)" (הַשְּׂטחים, *HaShtahim*) are also current in Israeli usage. Generally, preference for one term over the other indicates the speaker's position on the [Israeli political spectrum](#). Left-wingers, who take the view that the territory should be evacuated under [a peace agreement](#), prefer "West Bank"; conversely, right-wingers, who take the view that the territory should come under Israeli administration permanently, advocate the usage of "Judea and Samaria" (similar to the [Derry/Londonderry name dispute](#) in North Ireland).

STATUS

Main article: [Israeli occupation of the West Bank](#)



Area C, controlled by Israel under Oslo Accords, in blue and red

The Judea and Samaria Area is administered by the [Israel Defense Forces Central Command](#), and [military law](#) is applied. Administrative decisions are subject to the Command's chief. The incumbent chief of Central Command is [Aluf Nitzan Alon](#).

The future status of the region is a key factor in the ongoing [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).

[United Nations Security Council Resolution 242](#), adopted in November 1967, after Israel captured the region from [Jordan](#) in the [Six-Day War](#), lists as its first principle "the inadmissibility of the acquisition of territory by war and the need to work for a just and lasting peace in which every State in the area can live in security" and called for the "withdrawal of Israel armed forces from territories occupied in the recent conflict" in conjunction with the "termination of all claims or states of belligerency and respect for and acknowledgment of the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of every State in the area and their right to live in peace within secure and recognized boundaries free from threats or acts of force".^[14]^[non-primary source needed]^[original research?]

The West Bank (including East Jerusalem) and Gaza Strip are considered occupied [Palestinian territories](#) by the United Nations, the United States,^[15]^[16] the [International Court of Justice](#), the [European Union](#),^[17] and by non-governmental organizations such as [Amnesty International](#),^[18] [Human Rights Watch](#),^[19] and [B'Tselem](#).^[20]^[21] The [Supreme Court of Israel](#) has considered the section of the West Bank which excludes East Jerusalem to be [Israeli-occupied territories](#).^[22]

On 13 May 2012, a bill to extend Israeli law to the [Israeli settlements](#) in the Judea and Samaria Area initiated by [Knesset](#) member [Miri Regev](#) (Likud) first approved by the majority of the Ministerial Committee for Legislation was rejected in a second round of votes after prime minister [Benjamin Netanyahu](#) had instructed his ministers to vote against the bill. Extending Israeli law to the settlements would mean a de facto annexation of the settlements to Israel.^[23] In July 2012, a government-commissioned report from a three-member committee, called [Levy Report](#), asserted, based on a number of reasons, that there is no legal basis under international law to refer to Judea and Samaria as "occupied territory". Article 43 of the [Fourth Hague Convention of 1907](#) is the basis of the Levy committee's opinion.^[24]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F6 SAMARITANS

*This article is about the ethnoreligious group. For their religion, see [Samaritanism](#).
For other uses, see [Samaritan \(disambiguation\)](#).
Not to be confused with [Sarmatians](#).*

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Samaritans

□□□□□
שומרונים
السامريون



Samaritans marking Passover on Mount Gerizim near Nablus

Total population

~874 (2022)^[1]

Regions with significant populations

Israel (Holon)	460 (2021)
Palestine ^[a] (Kiryat Luza)	380 (2021) ^[1]

Languages

Modern spoken languages:

Israeli Hebrew, Palestinian Arabic

Liturgical languages:

Samaritan Hebrew, Samaritan Aramaic

Religion

Samaritanism

Related ethnic groups

Jews, other Semitic-speaking peoples (Levantine Arabs, Palestinians, Mandaean, etc.)

Part of a series on
Samaritanism



Revered figures [\[show\]](#)

Scriptures and writings [\[show\]](#)

Practices [\[show\]](#)

Related religious groups [\[show\]](#)

V • T • E

Samaritans ([/səˈmæɪrɪtənz/](#); [Samaritan](#)

[Hebrew](#): שומרונים, romanized: *Šōmrōnīm*, transl. Guardians/Keepers [of

the [Torah](#)]; [Hebrew](#): שומרונים, [romanized](#): *Šōmrōnīm*; [Arabic](#): السامريون, [romanized](#): *as-Sāmiriyyūn*) are an [ethnoreligious group](#) who originate from the ancient [Israelites](#).^[2] They are native to the [Levant](#) and adhere to [Samaritanism](#), an [Abrahamic](#) and [ethnic religion](#) similar to [Judaism](#), but differing in several important aspects.

Samaritan tradition claims the group descends from the northern [Israelite tribes](#) who were not [deported](#) by the [Neo-Assyrian Empire](#) after the destruction of the [Kingdom of Israel](#). They consider Samaritanism to be the true [religion of the ancient Israelites](#) and regard [Judaism](#) as a closely related but altered religion. Samaritans also regard [Mount Gerizim](#) (near both [Nablus](#) and biblical [Shechem](#)), and not the [Temple Mount](#) in [Jerusalem](#), to be the holiest place on Earth.^{[3][4]} They attribute the schism between Samaritanism and Judaism to have been caused by [Eli](#) creating an alternate shrine at [Shiloh](#), in opposition to Mount Gerizim.

Once a large community, the Samaritan population shrank significantly in the wake of the brutal suppression of the [Samaritan revolts](#) against the [Byzantine Empire](#). Mass conversion to [Christianity](#) under the Byzantines and later to [Islam](#) following the [Muslim conquest of the Levant](#) further reduced their numbers.^[5] In the 12th century, the Jewish traveler [Benjamin of Tudela](#) estimated that only around 1,900 Samaritans remained in the regions of [Palestine](#) and [Syria](#).^[6]

As of 2022, the community stood at around 874 individuals, divided between [Kiryat Luza](#) on Mount Gerizim and the Samaritan compound in [Holon](#).^{[7][b]} The Samaritans in Kiryat Luza speak [Levantine Arabic](#), while those in Holon primarily speak [Israeli Hebrew](#). For the purposes of [liturgy](#), [Samaritan Hebrew](#) and [Samaritan Aramaic](#) are used, both written in the [Samaritan script](#). The head of the Samaritan community is the [Samaritan High Priest](#).

Samaritans have a standalone [religious status in Israel](#), and there are occasional conversions from Judaism to Samaritanism and vice versa, largely due to [interfaith marriages](#). While Israel's [rabbinic authorities](#) came to consider Samaritanism to be a [sect of Judaism](#),^[8] the [Chief Rabbinate of Israel](#) requires Samaritans to undergo a formal [conversion to Judaism](#) in order to be officially recognized as [Halakhic Jews](#). [Rabbinic literature](#) rejected Samaritans unless they renounced Mount Gerizim as the historical Israelite holy site.^[9] Samaritans possessing only Israeli citizenship in Holon [are drafted](#) into the [Israel Defense Forces](#), while those holding dual Israeli and Palestinian citizenship in Kiryat Luza are exempted from mandatory military service.

There are also a significant number of growing communities, families, and individuals around the world who are not indigenous to the [Holy Land](#) currently known in [Brazil](#), [Sicily](#), [Philippines](#), [Cuba](#), [Canada](#), and elsewhere who identify with, and observe the Samaritan tenets of faith and traditions.

The largest community globally, the "Shomrey HaTorah" of [Brazil](#), has approximately 20,000 members as of February 2023, according to A. B. - *The Samaritan News*.^{[9][10][11]}

ETYMOLOGY AND TERMINOLOGY

Inscriptions from the Samaritan diaspora in [Delos](#), dating as early as 150–50 BCE, and perhaps slightly earlier, provide the "oldest known self-designation" for Samaritans, indicating that they called themselves "Israelites".^[12] Strictly speaking, the Samaritans now refer to themselves generally as "Israelite Samaritans".^[d]

In their own language, [Samaritan Hebrew](#), the Samaritans call themselves *Shamerim* (שְׁמֵרִים), meaning "Guardians/Keepers/Watchers", and in [Arabic](#) *al-Sāmiriyyūn* (السامريون).^[13] The term is [cognate](#) with the [Biblical Hebrew](#) term *Šomerim*, and both terms reflect a [Semitic root](#) שָׁמַר, which means "to watch, guard". Historically, Samaritans were concentrated in [Samaria](#). In [Modern Hebrew](#), the Samaritans are called *Shomronim* {שומרונים}, which also means "inhabitants of Samaria", literally, "Samaritans".

That the meaning of their name signifies *Guardians/Keepers/Watchers [of the Law/Torah]*, rather than being a [toponym](#) referring to the inhabitants of the region of Samaria, was remarked on by a number of Christian Church fathers, including [Epiphanius of Salamis](#) in the [Panarion](#), [Jerome](#) and [Eusebius](#) in the [Chronicon](#) and [Origen](#) in *The Commentary on Saint John's Gospel*.^{[14][15][16]}

Josephus uses several terms for the Samaritans, which he appears to use interchangeably.^[e] Among them is reference to *Khuthaioi*, a designation employed to denote peoples in Media and Persian putatively sent to Samaria to replace the exiled Israelite population.^{[f][g]} These Khouthaioi were in fact Hellenistic Phoenicians/Sidonians. *Samareis* (Σαμαρείς) may refer to inhabitants of the region of Samaria, or of the city of that name, though some texts use it to refer specifically to Samaritans.^[h]

ORIGINS

The similarities between Samaritans and Jews were such that the rabbis of the [Mishnah](#) found it impossible to draw a clear distinction between the two groups.^[17] Attempts to date when the [schism](#) among Israelites took place, which engendered the division between Samaritans and Judaeans, vary greatly, from the time of [Ezra](#) down to the [destruction of Jerusalem](#) (70 CE) and the [Bar Kokhba revolt](#) (132–136 CE).^[18] The emergence of a distinctive Samaritan identity, the outcome of a mutual estrangement between them and Jews, was something that developed over several centuries. Generally, a decisive rupture is believed to have taken place in the [Hasmonean period](#).^[19]

Ancestrally, Samaritans affirm that they descend from the tribes of [Ephraim](#) and [Manasseh](#) in ancient [Samaria](#). Samaritan tradition associates the split between them and the [Judean](#)-led Southern Israelites to the time of the biblical priest [Eli](#),^[20] described as a "false" high priest who usurped the priestly office from its occupant, Uzzi, and established a rival shrine at [Shiloh](#), and thereby prevented southern pilgrims from Judah and [the territory of Benjamin](#) from attending the shrine at Gerizim. Eli is also held to

have created a duplicate of the [Ark of the Covenant](#), which eventually made its way to the Judahite sanctuary in Jerusalem.^[ii]

A Jewish Orthodox tradition, based on material in the Bible, [Josephus](#) and the [Talmud](#), dates their presence much later, to the beginning of the Babylonian captivity. In [Rabbinic Judaism](#), for example in the [Tosefta Berakhot](#), the Samaritans are called [Cuthites](#) or Cutheans ([Hebrew](#): כּוּתִים, *Kutim*), referring to the ancient city of [Kutha](#), geographically located in what is today [Iraq](#).^[21] [Josephus](#) in both the [Wars of the Jews](#) and the [Antiquities of the Jews](#), in writing of the destruction of the temple on Mt. Gerizim by [John Hyrcanus](#), also refers to the Samaritans as the Cuthaeans.^[ii] In the biblical account, however, Kuthah was one of several cities from which people were brought to Samaria.^[ki]

The Israeli biblical scholar [Shemaryahu Talmon](#) has supported the Samaritan tradition that they are mainly descended from the tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh who remained in Israel after the Assyrian conquest. He states that the description of them at 2 Kings 17:24^[22] as foreigners is tendentious and intended to ostracize the Samaritans from those Israelites who returned from the Babylonian exile in 520 BCE. He further states that 2 Chronicles 30:1^[23] could be interpreted as confirming that a large fraction of the tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh (i.e., Samaritans) remained in Israel after the Assyrian exile.^[24]

Modern genetic studies support the Samaritan narrative that they descend from indigenous Israelites. Shen et al. (2004) formerly speculated that outmarriage with foreign women may have taken place.^[2] Most recently the same group came up with genetic evidence that Samaritans are closely linked to [Cohanim](#), and therefore can be traced back to an Israelite population prior to the Assyrian invasion. This correlates with expectations from the fact that the Samaritans retained [endogamous](#) and biblical [patrilineal](#) marriage customs, and that they remained a genetically isolated population.^{[25][26]}

Samaritan Version

The Samaritan traditions of their history are contained in the *Kitab al-Ta'rikh* compiled by [Abu'l-Fath](#) in 1355.^[27] According to this, a text which Magnar Kartveit identifies as a "fictional" [apologia](#) drawn from earlier sources, including [Josephus](#) but perhaps also from ancient traditions,^[28] a [civil war](#) erupted among the Israelites when [Eli, son of Yafni](#), the treasurer of the sons of Israel, sought to usurp the [High Priesthood](#) of Israel from the heirs of [Phinehas](#). Gathering disciples and binding them by an oath of loyalty, he sacrificed on the stone altar, without using salt, a rite which made the then High Priest Ozzi rebuke and disown him. Eli and his acolytes revolted and shifted to [Shiloh](#), where he built an alternative Temple and an altar, a perfect replica of the original on Mt. Gerizim. Eli's sons [Hophni and Phinehas](#) had intercourse with women and feasted on the meats of the sacrifice, inside the [Tabernacle](#). Thereafter Israel was split into three factions: the original Mt. Gerizim community of loyalists, the breakaway group under Eli, and heretics worshipping idols associated with the latter's sons. [Judaism](#) emerged later with those who followed the example of Eli.^{[29][30][ii]}

Mount Gerizim was the original Holy Place of the Israelites from the time that Joshua conquered Canaan and the tribes of Israel settled the land. The reference to Mount Gerizim derives from the biblical story of

Moses ordering Joshua to take the [Twelve Tribes of Israel](#) to the mountains by Shechem ([Nablus](#)) and place half of the tribes, six in number, on Mount Gerizim, the Mount of the Blessing, and the other half on [Mount Ebal](#), the Mount of the Curse.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F7-1 TIMELINE OF ISRAELI HISTORY

This is a timeline of modern Israeli history, comprising important legal and territorial changes and political events in Israel and its predecessor states, along with important events which influenced the [Zionist movement](#). To read about the background to these events, see [History of Israel](#). For events predating the Zionist movement, see [Timeline of Palestine](#).



[WIKIPEDIA](#)

19TH CENTURY

Year	Date	Event
1882	15 May	The Russian emperor Alexander III issued the May Laws , severely restricting the rights of Jews in the Pale of Settlement .
	31 July	<i>First Aliyah</i> : Ten Hovevei Zion pioneers from Kharkiv established the city of Rishon LeZion in the Ottoman Empire .
1896	February	Theodor Herzl published <i>Der Judenstaat</i> , arguing for the establishment of an independent Jewish state .
1897	29 August	<i>First Zionist Congress</i> : A congress of some two hundred delegates of zionist organizations, most from Eastern Europe, convened in Basel .
	30 August	<i>First Zionist Congress</i> : The Congress adopted the Basel Program , setting out as the goal of the zionist movement the establishment of a Jewish homeland in Palestine .

20TH CENTURY

Year	Date	Event
1917	2 November	Balfour Declaration calls for the establishment of the Jewish Homeland
1920	25 April	The League of Nations assigns Britain the creation of Mandatory Palestine
1939–1945		World War II: Germany and the Soviet Union invades Poland and The Holocaust occurred in German-occupied Europe killing 6 million Jews.
1947	25 November	United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine that proposed a creation of one Arab state and one Jewish state passes with the Jewish leaders accepted and Arab states rejected the move. A major civil war between the Arab populations and Jewish populations] began shortly after.
1948	14 May	On the last day of the British Mandate, David Ben-Gurion , executive head of the World Zionist Organization and chairman of the Jewish Agency for Israel , issued the Israeli Declaration of Independence which declared the establishment of a Jewish state on Mandatory Palestine in the land of Israel to be known as the State of Israel. ^[1]
	15 May	1948 Arab–Israeli War : Hours after the expiration of the British Mandate of Palestine, Iraq , Egypt , Jordan and Syria invaded Israel. ^[2]
1949	25 January	1949 Israeli legislative election : Elections were held to a constituent assembly . Ben-Gurion's center-left Mapai won a plurality of seats.
	24 February	1948 Arab–Israeli War : The first of the 1949 Armistice Agreements ending the war was signed between Israel and Egypt . An armistice line was agreed

		along the prewar border with the exception that Egypt remained in control of the Gaza Strip .
	8 March	The first government of Israel , in which Mapai , the Jewish United Religious Front , the liberal Progressive Party , the Sephardim and Oriental Communities and the Arab Democratic List of Nazareth ruled in coalition with Ben-Gurion as prime minister , was established.
	11 May	The General Assembly of the United Nations adopted United Nations General Assembly Resolution 273 , according to which Israel was admitted to membership. ^[3]
	13 December	Ben-Gurion proclaimed Jerusalem the capital of Israel. ^[4]
1950	5 July	The Israeli legislature the Knesset passed the Law of Return , which granted all Jews the right to migrate to and settle in Israel and obtain citizenship .
1956	26 July	<i>Suez Crisis</i> : In a broadcast speech, Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser gave a codeword order for the occupation and nationalization of the Suez Canal and the closure of the Straits of Tiran to Israeli shipping.
	29 October	<i>Suez Crisis</i> : The Israeli air force began bombing Egyptian forces in the Sinai Peninsula .
1960	11 May	Eight agents of the Israeli internal security service Shin Bet and its foreign intelligence service Mossad abducted Adolf Eichmann , the Nazi officer primarily responsible for the actual implementation of the Holocaust , near his home in San Fernando, Buenos Aires .
1966		The martial law imposed on Israeli Arabs from the founding of the State of Israel was lifted completely.

1967	5 June	<i>Six-Day War</i> : The Israeli air force destroyed the Egyptian air force on the ground over a period of three hours.
	11 June	<i>Six-Day War</i> : Israel signed a ceasefire with its enemies Egypt , Syria , Jordan , Lebanon and Iraq . It remained in control of the formerly Egyptian Gaza Strip and Sinai Peninsula , the Syrian Golan Heights and the Jordanian West Bank and East Jerusalem .
	30 June	Mayor Teddy Kollek of Jerusalem announced that the city had been fully reunified. ^[5]
1973	21 February	A Boeing 727-200 serving as Libyan Arab Airlines Flight 114 from Tripoli to Cairo was shot down over the Sinai Peninsula by Israeli fighter aircraft, killing over one hundred passengers and crew.
	21 July	<i>Lillehammer affair</i> : A team of fifteen Mossad agents assassinated a Moroccan waiter in Lillehammer in a case of mistaken identity.
	6 October	<i>Yom Kippur War</i> : Egyptian and Syrian forces simultaneously attacked Israeli positions in the Sinai Peninsula and the Golan Heights , respectively, on the Jewish holiday of Yom Kippur .
	14 October	<i>Operation Nickel Grass</i> : The United States began an airlift of tanks, artillery, ammunition and supplies to Israel.
	25 October	<i>Yom Kippur War</i> : Israel, Egypt and Syria agreed to a ceasefire. Israel remained in control of new territory north of the Golan Heights and west of the Suez Canal in the south.
1976	4 July	<i>Operation Entebbe</i> : Sayeret Matkal freed some hundred hostages held at Entebbe International Airport by hijackers belonging to

		the Palestinian nationalist Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine – External Operations and the far-left Revolutionary Cells .
1977	10 May	<i>1977 Israeli Air Force Sikorsky CH-53 Sea Stallion crash</i> : An Israeli Air Force Sikorsky CH-53 Sea Stallion crashed in the Jordan Valley , killing some fifty soldiers.
1978	17 September	Israel and Egypt signed the Camp David Accords at the White House . The framework agreement provided for the establishment of an autonomous authority in the West Bank and Gaza Strip and for withdrawal of Israeli forces from the Sinai Peninsula in exchange for the establishment of full diplomatic relations with Egypt.
1979	26 March	Egypt and Israel signed the Egypt–Israel peace treaty under the framework of the Camp David Accords at the White House .
1980	24 February	The old Israeli shekel replaced the Israeli pound as the currency of Israel.
	30 July	The Knesset passed the Jerusalem Law , asserting that Jerusalem was and would remain the undivided capital of Israel.
1981	7 June	<i>Operation Opera</i> : Israel carried out a surprise air strike on an Iraqi nuclear reactor some ten miles southwest of Baghdad . ^[6]
1982	23 April	The Israel Defense Forces (IDF) forcibly evacuated Yamit per the terms of the Egypt–Israel peace treaty .
	3 June	Shlomo Argov , the Israeli ambassador to the United Kingdom, was shot in the head in London in an attempted assassination organized by Iraq's Iraqi Intelligence Service and carried out by the Palestinian nationalist Abu Nidal Organization .

	6 June	<i>1982 Lebanon War</i> : The IDF invaded southern Lebanon in response to repeated attacks by the Palestinian nationalist Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) , whose militants were sheltered there, on Israeli civilians.
1984	12 April	<i>Bus 300 affair</i> : Four Palestinian nationalists hijacked a bus from Tel Aviv to Ashkelon and took its forty passengers hostage.
	13 April	<i>Bus 300 affair</i> : Sayeret Matkal forces stormed the bus. Two hijackers and one hostage were killed. The two surviving hijackers were taken to a nearby field and shot.
	21 November	<i>Operation Moses</i> : The first of some eight thousand Ethiopian Jews were covertly evacuated to Israel from refugee camps in Sudan .
1985	5 January	<i>Operation Moses</i> : Prime minister Shimon Peres confirmed the existence of the airlift. Sudan immediately halted flights.
1987	30 August	The Cabinet voted to cancel development of the IAI Lavi.
	9 December	<i>First Intifada</i> : Protests began in the Jabalia Camp in response to the death of four Palestinian civilians in a car crash with an IDF truck.
1989	19 September	<i>Mount Carmel Forest Fire</i> : A forest fire began on Mount Carmel which would burn over two square miles over the next three days. ^[7]
1991	22 January	<i>Gulf War</i> : An Iraqi Scud missile landed in Ramat Gan , killing three and injuring nearly a hundred.

	24 May	<i>Operation Solomon</i> : An airlift began which would transport some fourteen thousand Ethiopian Jews from Ethiopia to Israel over a thirty-six-hour period.
	30 October	<i>Madrid Conference of 1991</i> : A conference opened in Madrid with the goal of reviving the Israeli– Palestinian peace process.
1992	17 December	Israel deported some four hundred Palestinians to Lebanon .
1993	13 September	Israel and the PLO signed the Oslo I Accord in Washington, D.C. The accords provided for the withdrawal of some IDF forces from the West Bank and Gaza Strip and for the establishment of a self-governing authority for the Palestinians , the Palestinian National Authority .
1994	26 October	Israel and Jordan signed the Israel–Jordan peace treaty in the Arabah . The treaty clarified the borders of the two countries and their water rights; each pledged that neither would allow a third country to use its territory to stage an attack on the other.
1995	4 November	<i>Assassination of Yitzhak Rabin</i> : The radical nationalist Yigal Amir , an opponent of the Oslo Accords , shot and killed prime minister Yitzhak Rabin after a rally in Tel Aviv .
1997	4 February	<i>1997 Israeli helicopter disaster</i> : Two transport helicopters en route to southern Lebanon collided in midair above She'ar Yashuv , killing all on board.
	14 July	<i>Maccabiah bridge collapse</i> : A pedestrian bridge collapsed over the Yarkon River in Tel Aviv , killing four.
2000	24 May	Israel withdrew the last of its forces from southern Lebanon .

	1 October	<i>October 2000 events</i> : The first of a series of riots began in which thirteen Arabs and one Jew would be killed over nine days. ^[8]
	7 October	<i>2000 Hezbollah cross-border raid</i> : The Lebanese Shia Islamist militant group and political party Hezbollah abducted three Israeli soldiers from the Israeli administered side of the Blue Line , the internationally recognized border. ^[9]

21ST CENTURY

Year	Date	Event
2001	17 October	<i>Assassination of Rehavam Ze'evi</i> : Tourism minister Rehavam Ze'evi was shot at a Jerusalem hotel by Hamdi Quran of the Palestinian nationalist Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine . He died of his injuries that night in hospital.
2002	23 June	Construction of the Israeli West Bank barrier began. ^[10]
2004	29 January	Some four hundred prisoners, the remains of sixty Lebanese militants and civilians, and maps showing the locations of Israeli mines in southern Lebanon , were transferred to Hezbollah in exchange for the bodies of the three soldiers abducted in 2000, as well as the abducted Israeli reservist Elhanan Tannenbaum .
2005	12 September	<i>Israeli disengagement from Gaza</i> : The last Israeli settlers and security personnel were withdrawn from the Gaza Strip .
2006	4 January	Prime minister Ariel Sharon suffered a severe hemorrhagic stroke and fell into a coma. The designated acting prime minister Ehud Olmert became acting prime minister.

	12 July	<i>2006 Hezbollah cross-border raid</i> : Hezbollah forces crossed into Israel and ambushed two IDF vehicles, killing three soldiers and capturing two others.
		<i>2006 Lebanon War</i> : Israeli forces began shelling Lebanese territory in response to the Hezbollah attack of earlier that morning.
2007	6 September	<i>Operation Orchard</i> : Israel carried out a surprise air strike on a suspected nuclear reactor in Syria's Deir ez-Zor Governorate .
2008	27 December	<i>Gaza War</i> : Israel began conducting a series of airstrikes on assets of the Palestinian Sunni Islamist organization Hammas in the Gaza Strip in response to ongoing rocket fire on the western Negev .
2009	18 January	<i>Gaza War (2008–09)</i> : The war ended with a unilateral Israeli ceasefire.
2010	31 May	<i>Gaza flotilla raid</i> : The navy boarded a flotilla organized by the Free Gaza Movement and the Turkish Foundation for Human Rights and Freedoms and Humanitarian Relief , which was attempting to break an Israeli and Egyptian blockade of the Gaza Strip , in international waters . During the takeover, a violent confrontation erupted on board the MV Mavi Marmara in which nine activists were killed. ^{[11][12][13][14]}
	2 December	<i>Mount Carmel Forest Fire</i> : A forest fire began on Mount Carmel which would kill forty and burn nearly twenty square miles over the next three days. ^{[15][16][17][18]}
2011	14 July	<i>2011 Israeli social justice protests</i> : Filmmaker Daphni Leef set up a tent in Habima Square and invited others to join a protest over the absence of affordable housing.
	10 September	<i>2011 attack on the Israeli Embassy in Egypt</i> : A crowd of thousands of Egyptian protestors breached the Israeli embassy in Cairo . ^[19]

	18 October	<i>Gilad Shalit prisoner exchange</i> : Hamas released the Israeli soldier Gilad Shalit to Egypt in exchange for one thousand Palestinian other Arab prisoners held in Israel, including some three hundred serving life sentences for planning and perpetrating terror attacks. ^[20]
2012	14 November	<i>Operation Pillar of Defense</i> : The IDF began an eight-day anti- Hamas operation in the Gaza Strip , a response to ongoing rocket fire on the western Negev , with an airstrike on the senior officer Ahmed Jabari .
2014	8 July	<i>2014 Israel–Gaza conflict</i> : The IDF launched a series of airstrikes against Hamas targets in the Gaza Strip .
2017	6 December	<i>United States recognition of Jerusalem as the capital of Israel</i> : U.S. President Donald Trump formally announces the United States recognition of Jerusalem as the capital of Israel .
2019	25 March	<i>United States recognition of Israel's sovereignty over the Golan Heights</i> : U.S. President Donald Trump signed a presidential proclamation to officially recognize Israel's sovereignty over the Golan Heights . ^[21]
2021	30 April	<i>2021 Meron stampede</i> : The deadliest civil disaster in Israel's history.
	May	 <u>2021 Israel–Palestine crisis</u>

F7-2 HISTORY

OF THE ISRAEL DEFENCE FORCES

This article **needs additional citations for [verification](#)**.

Please help [improve this article](#) by [adding citations to reliable sources](#).

Unsourced material may be challenged and removed.

Find sources: "[History of the Israel Defense Forces](#)" – [news](#) · [newspapers](#) · [books](#) · [scholar](#) · [JSTOR](#) (July 2010)
([Learn how and when to remove this template message](#))

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The history of the **Israel Defense Forces** (IDF) intertwines in its early stages with history of the **Haganah**.

BEFORE 1948

Following the [1947 UN Partition Plan](#), which divided the [British Mandate of Palestine](#), the country became increasingly volatile and fell into a state of [civil war](#) between the Jews and Arabs after the Arab residents rejected any plan that would allow for the creation of a Jewish state. In accordance with [Plan Dalet](#) the [Haganah](#) tried to secure the areas allotted to the Jewish state in the partition plan and the blocks of settlements that were in the area allotted to the Arab state.

THE FIRST ARAB–ISRAELI WAR

Main article: [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#)

[David Ben-Gurion](#) proclaimed the [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#) on 14 May 1948. His first order was the formation of the IDF – The Israel Defense Forces.

The IDF was based on the personnel who had served in the [Haganah](#) and the [Palmach](#) and was declared as the only legal armed force in Israel. Another main source of manpower were the immigrants from Europe. Some of them [Holocaust](#) survivors and others veterans from World War II.

Following the declaration of independence in 1948, Arab armies invaded Israel. [Egypt](#) came from the south, [Lebanon](#) and [Syria](#) from the north, and [Jordan](#) from the east backed by [Iraqi](#) and [Saudi](#) troops, in what Azzam Pasha, Arab League Secretary speaking on Cairo radio, declared would be "a war of extermination and a momentous massacre."^[1]

In the initial phase of the war, the IDF was inferior in both numbers and armament. Invading Arab armies boasted 270 tanks, 150 field guns and 300 aircraft. The IDF had zero planes and three tanks.^[2] Due to a number of reasons, the Arabs never managed to exploit their superiority in numbers. The Israelis managed to successfully defend themselves in virtually all battlefields with the notable exception of [East Jerusalem](#). After the first truce 11 June to 8 July, the Israelis managed to seize the initiative due to new troop

enrollments and supplies of arms. Notable achievements of the IDF include the conquest of [Eilat](#) (Um Rashrash), [Nazareth](#), and the capture of the [Galilee](#) and the [Negev](#).

The war continued until 20 July 1949, when the armistice with [Syria](#) was signed. By then the IDF had managed to repel the Egyptians to the [Gaza Strip](#) while [Jordan](#) took over the [West Bank](#), including East Jerusalem.

See [1949 Armistice Agreements](#).

FOUNDING

The evolution from several underground militias to a state army is not simple. Many in the [Haganah](#) felt it was their High Command's natural role to become the leadership of the new army. The First Law of the Provisional State Council, Paragraph 18, of the Order of Government and Legal Arrangement stated that "the Provisional Government is empowered to set up armed forces on land, sea and air, which will be authorised to carry out all necessary and legal actions for the defence of the country."^{[[citation needed](#)]} The sensitivity of this issue is indicated by the delay of two weeks before, on 26 May 1948, David Ben-Gurion, for the Provisional Government, published the Israel Defense Forces Ordinance Number 4. It covered the establishment of the IDF, conscription duties, the oath of allegiance, and the prohibition of any other armed forces. The execution of the Ordinance was assigned to the Minister of Defence, David Ben-Gurion. His priority was the dissolution of military organisations affiliated to political parties. This led to a series of confrontations with leaders of the [Palmach](#) known as [The General's Revolt](#).

The army was officially set up on 31 May. This involved renaming existing Haganah and [Palmach](#) Brigades and bringing them under one central command. Its officers began to take their oaths of allegiance on 27 June.^[3] [Lehi](#) and [Irgun](#) came under central control in the following months.

Despite several further ordinances the actual role and responsibilities of the Minister of Defense were not defined. Nor was there any legal definition of the Cabinet's civil authority over the army.^[4]

1949–1956

Main article: [Reprisal operations](#)

In those years the IDF started to rebuild itself as a modern army. It acquired heavier weapons and established an armored corps and the [Israeli Air Force](#).

In order to enhance the morale and organization of the army and to combat the resurgent problem with [Palestinian infiltration](#), [Unit 101](#) was formed. It was led by [Ariel Sharon](#), and carried out a number of retaliatory strikes on Jordanian territory to deter the infiltrators. After committing the notorious [Qibya Massacre](#) in 1953 it was merged with the [Paratroopers](#) Battalions and Sharon became its commander. Unit 101 is regarded as the mother of the IDF's strike force units.

In those years the IMI [Uzi](#) SMG and the [FN FAL](#) rifle were issued as standard infantry weapons.

F7-3 HISTORY OF ISRAEL (1948—PRESENT)

WIKIPEDIA

In 1948, following the [1947–1948 civil war in Mandatory Palestine](#), the [Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel](#) sparked the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), which resulted in the [1948 Palestinian expulsion and flight](#) from the land that the [State of Israel](#) came to control and subsequently led to waves of [Jewish immigration from other parts of the Middle East](#).

The latter half of the 20th century saw a series of further conflicts between Israel and its neighbouring Arab nations. In 1967, the [Six-Day War](#) erupted; in its aftermath, Israel captured and occupied the [Golan Heights](#) from Syria, the West Bank from Jordan, and the Gaza Strip and the [Sinai Peninsula](#) from Egypt. In 1973, the [Yom Kippur War](#) began with an attack by Egypt on the Israeli-occupied Sinai Peninsula.

In 1979 the [Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#) was signed, based on the [Camp David Accords](#). In 1993, Israel signed the [Oslo I Accord](#) with the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#), which was followed by the establishment of the [Palestinian National Authority](#). In 1994, the [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) was signed. Despite [efforts to finalize the peace agreement](#), the conflict continues to play a major role in Israeli and international political, social, and economic life.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

Main article: [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#)

On 14 May 1948—the day the last British forces left Haifa—the [Jewish People's Council](#) gathered at the [Tel Aviv Museum](#) and proclaimed [the establishment](#) of a [Jewish state](#) in [Eretz Israel](#), to be known as the [State of Israel](#).^[1]

THE ARAB–ISRAELI WAR

Main article: [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#)



[Avraham Adan](#)
raising the [Ink Flag](#)
marking the end
of the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#)

Immediately following the declaration of the new state, both superpower leaders, US President [Harry S. Truman](#) and Soviet leader [Joseph Stalin](#), recognized the new state.^[2] The [Arab League](#) members Egypt, Transjordan, Syria, Lebanon and Iraq refused to accept the UN partition plan and proclaimed the right of self-determination for the Arabs across the whole of Palestine. The Arab states marched their forces into what had, until the previous day, been the British Mandate for Palestine, starting the [first Arab–Israeli War](#). The Arab states had heavy military equipment at their disposal and were initially on the offensive (the Jewish forces were not a state before 15 May and could not buy heavy arms). On 29 May 1948, the British initiated [United Nations Security Council Resolution 50](#) declaring an arms embargo on the region. [Czechoslovakia violated the resolution](#), supplying the Jewish state with critical military hardware to match the (mainly British) heavy equipment and planes already owned by the invading Arab states.^[3] On 11 June a month-long UN truce came into effect.

Following independence the [Haganah](#) became the [Israel Defense Forces](#) (IDF).

The [Palmach](#), [Etzel](#) and [Lehi](#) were required to cease independent operations and join the IDF. During the ceasefire, Etzel attempted to bring in a private arms shipment aboard a ship called "[Altalena](#)". When they refused to hand the arms to the government, Ben-Gurion ordered that the ship be sunk. Several Etzel members were killed in the fighting.

Large numbers of Jewish immigrants—many of them World War II veterans and Holocaust survivors—now began arriving in the new state of Israel, and many joined the IDF.^[4]

After an initial loss of territory by the Jewish state and its occupation by the Arab armies, from July the tide gradually turned in the Israelis' favour and they pushed the Arab armies out and conquered some of the territory that had been included in the proposed Arab state. At the end of November, tenuous local ceasefires were arranged between the Israelis, Syrians, and Lebanese. On 1 December [King Abdullah](#) announced the union of Transjordan with Arab Palestine west of the Jordan; only Britain recognized the annexation.

Armistice Agreements

Main article: [1949 Armistice Agreements](#)



[1949 Green Line](#)

Israel signed [armistices](#) with Egypt (24 February), Lebanon (23 March), Jordan (3 April) and Syria (20 July). No actual peace agreements were signed. With [permanent ceasefire](#) coming into effect, Israel's new borders, later known as the [Green Line](#), were established. These borders were not recognized by the Arab states as international boundaries.^[6] Israel was in control of the [Galilee](#), [Jezreel Valley](#), [West Jerusalem](#), the [coastal plain](#) and the [Negev](#). The Syrians remained in control of a strip of territory along the Sea of Galilee originally allocated to the Jewish state, the Lebanese occupied a tiny area at [Rosh Hanikra](#), and the Egyptians retained the Gaza strip and still had some forces surrounded inside Israeli territory. Jordanian forces remained in the [West Bank](#), where the British had stationed them before the war. Jordan annexed the areas it occupied while Egypt kept [Gaza as an occupied zone](#).

Following the ceasefire declaration, Britain released over 2,000 Jewish detainees it was still holding in Cyprus and recognized the state of Israel. On 11 May 1949, Israel was [admitted](#) as a member of the United Nations.^[6] Out of an Israeli population of 650,000, some 6,000 men and women were killed in the fighting, including 4,000 soldiers in the IDF (approximately 1% of the population). According to United Nations figures, 726,000 Palestinians [had fled or were expelled](#) by the Israelis between 1947 and 1949.^[7] Except in Jordan, the Palestinian refugees were settled in large refugee camps in poor, overcrowded conditions and denied citizenship by their host countries. In December 1949, the UN (in response to a British proposal)

established an agency ([UNRWA](#)) to provide aid to the Palestinian refugees. It became the largest single UN agency and is the only UN agency that serves a single people.

ESTABLISHMENT YEARS

See also: [Provisional](#), [First](#), [Second](#), [Third](#), [Fourth](#), and [Fifth](#) governments of Israel

A 120-seat parliament, the [Knesset](#), met first in [Tel Aviv](#), then moved to [Jerusalem](#) after the 1949 ceasefire. In January 1949, Israel held its [first elections](#). The Socialist-Zionist parties [Mapai](#) and [Mapam](#) won the most seats (46 and 19 respectively). Mapai's leader [David Ben-Gurion](#) was appointed [prime minister](#), and formed a coalition that did not include Mapam, who were [Stalinist](#) and loyal to the USSR (another Stalinist party, non-Zionist [Maki](#) won 4 seats). This was a significant decision because it signaled that Israel would not be in the Soviet bloc. The Knesset elected [Chaim Weizmann](#) as the first (largely ceremonial) [president of Israel](#). [Hebrew](#) and [Arabic](#) were made the official languages of the new state. All governments have been coalitions—no party has ever won a majority in the Knesset. From 1948 until 1977 all governments were led by [Mapai](#) and the [Alignment](#), predecessors of the [Labour Party](#). In those years [Labour Zionists](#), initially led by [David Ben-Gurion](#), dominated Israeli politics and the economy was run on primarily [socialist lines](#).

From 1948 to 1951 immigration doubled the Jewish population of Israel and left an indelible imprint on Israeli society.^{[8][9]} Overall, 700,000 Jews settled in Israel during this period.^[10] Some 300,000 arrived from Asian and North African nations as part of the [Jewish exodus from Arab and Muslim countries](#).^[11] Among them, the largest group (over 100,000) was from Iraq. The rest of the immigrants were from Europe, including more than 270,000 from Eastern Europe,^[12] mainly Romania and Poland (over 100,000 each). Nearly all the Jewish immigrants could be described as refugees, but only 136,000 from Central Europe had international certification because they belonged to the 250,000 Jews registered by the allies as displaced after World War II and living in [displaced persons camps](#) in Germany, Austria, and Italy.^[13]

In 1950 the Knesset passed the [Law of Return](#), which granted to all Jews and those of Jewish ancestry (Jewish grandparent), and their spouses, the right to settle in Israel and gain citizenship. That year 50,000 Yemenite Jews (99%) were [secretly flown](#) to Israel. In 1951 Iraqi Jews were granted temporary permission to leave the country and 120,000 (over 90%) opted [to move to Israel](#). Jews also fled from Lebanon, Syria and Egypt.



[Menachem Begin](#) addressing a mass demonstration in Tel Aviv against [negotiations with Germany](#) in 1952

Between 1948 and 1958 the population of Israel rose from 800,000 to two million. During this period, food, clothes and furniture had to be rationed in what became known as the [Austerity Period](#) (*Tkufat haTsena*). Immigrants were mostly refugees without money or possessions, and many were housed in temporary camps known as [ma'abarot](#). By 1952 more than 200,000 immigrants were living in tents or prefabricated shacks built by the government. Israel received financial aid from private donations from [outside the country](#) (mainly the United States).^[14] The pressure on the new state's finances led Ben-Gurion to sign a controversial [reparations agreement](#) with [West Germany](#). During the Knesset debate some 5,000 demonstrators gathered and riot police had to cordon the building.^[15] Israel received several billion marks and in return agreed to open diplomatic relations with Germany.

In 1949 education was made free and compulsory for all citizens until the age of 14. The state now funded the party-affiliated Zionist education system and a new body created by the Haredi [Agudat Israel](#) party. A separate body was created to provide education for the remaining Palestinian-Arab population. The major political parties now competed for immigrants to join their education systems. The government banned the existing educational bodies from the transit camps and tried to mandate a unitary secular socialist education^[16] under the control of "camp managers" who also had to provide work, food and housing for the immigrants. There were attempts to force orthodox Yemenite children to adopt a secular life style by teachers, including many instances of Yemenite children having their [side-curls](#) cut by teachers. The [Yemenite Children Affair](#) led to the first Israeli public inquiry (the Fromkin Inquiry),^[17] the collapse of the coalition, and an [election](#) in 1951, with little change in the results. In 1953 the party-affiliated education system was scrapped and replaced by a secular state education system and a state-run Modern Orthodox system. Agudat Israel were allowed to maintain their existing school system.

In its early years Israel sought to maintain a non-aligned position between the super-powers. But in 1952 an antisemitic public trial was staged in Moscow in which a group of Jewish doctors were accused of trying to poison Stalin (the [Doctors' plot](#)), followed by a similar trial in Czechoslovakia ([Slánský trial](#)). This, and the failure of Israel to be included in the [Bandung Conference](#) (of [non-aligned states](#)), effectively ended Israel's pursuit of non-alignment. On 19 May 1950, in contravention of international law, Egypt announced that the [Suez Canal](#) would be closed to Israeli ships and commerce. In 1952 a [military coup](#) in Egypt brought [Abdel Nasser](#) to power. The United States pursued close relations with the new Arab states, particularly the Nasser-led Egyptian [Free Officers Movement](#) and [Ibn Saud of Saudi Arabia](#). Israel's solution to diplomatic isolation was to establish good relations with newly independent states in Africa^[18] and with France, which was engaged in the [Algerian War](#).

MID-1950s TO EARLY 1960s

See also: [Sixth](#), [Seventh](#), [Eighth](#), and [Ninth](#) governments of Israel

Mid-1950s

See also: [Reprisal operations](#) and [Lavon Affair](#)

In the [January 1955 elections](#) Mapai won 40 seats and the Labour Party 10, [Moshe Sharett](#) became prime minister of Israel at the head of a left-wing coalition. Between 1953 and 1956, there were intermittent clashes along all of Israel's borders as Arab [terrorism](#) and breaches of the ceasefire resulting in Israeli [counter-](#)

[raids](#). [Palestinian fedayeen](#) attacks, often organized and sponsored by the Egyptians, were made from [\(Egyptian\) occupied Gaza](#). Fedayeen attacks led to a growing cycle of violence as Israel launched [reprisal attacks](#) against Gaza.^[19] In 1954 the [Uzi](#) submachine gun first entered use by the Israel Defense Forces. In 1955 the Egyptian government began recruiting former Nazi rocket scientists for a missile program.^{[20][21]}

Sharett's government was brought down by the [Lavon Affair](#), a crude plan to disrupt US–Egyptian relations, involving Israeli agents planting bombs at American sites in Egypt.^[22] The plan failed when 11 agents were arrested. Defense Minister [Lavon](#) was blamed despite his denial of responsibility. The Lavon affair led to Sharett's resignation and Ben-Gurion returned to the post of prime minister.

Suez Crisis

Main article: [Suez Crisis](#)

In 1955 Egypt concluded a massive [arms deal with Czechoslovakia](#), upsetting the balance of power in the Middle East.^[23] In 1956, the increasingly pro-Soviet President Nasser of Egypt, announced the nationalization of the (French and British owned) [Suez Canal](#), which was Egypt's main source of foreign currency. Egypt also blockaded the [Gulf of Aqaba](#) preventing Israeli access to the [Red Sea](#). Israel made a [secret agreement](#) with the French at Sèvres to co-ordinate military operations against Egypt. Britain and France had already begun secret preparations for military action. It has been alleged that the French also agreed to build a [nuclear plant](#) for the Israelis. Britain and France arranged for Israel to give them a pretext for seizing the Suez Canal. Israel was to attack Egypt, and Britain and France would then call on both sides to withdraw. When, as expected, the Egyptians refused, Anglo-French forces would invade to take control of the Canal.

Israeli forces, commanded by General [Moshe Dayan](#), [attacked](#) Egypt on 29 October 1956. On 30 October Britain and France made their pre-arranged call for both sides to stop fighting and withdraw from the Canal area, and for them to be allowed to take up positions at key points on the Canal. Egypt refused and the allies commenced air strikes on 31 October aimed at neutralizing the Egyptian air force. By 5 November the Israelis had overrun the [Sinai](#). The Anglo-French invasion began that day. There was uproar in the UN, with the US and USSR for once in agreement in denouncing the actions of Israel, Britain, and France. A demand for a ceasefire was reluctantly accepted on 7 November.^[citation needed]

At Egypt's request the UN sent an [Emergency Force](#) (UNEF), consisting of 6000 peacekeeping troops from 10 nations to supervise the ceasefire—the first ever UN peacekeeping operation. From 15 November the UN troops marked out a zone across the Sinai to separate the Israeli and Egyptian forces. Upon receiving US guarantees of Israeli access to the Suez Canal, freedom of access out of the Gulf of Aqaba and Egyptian action to stop Palestinian raids from Gaza, the Israelis withdrew to the Negev.^[24] In practice the Suez Canal remained closed to Israeli shipping. The conflict marked the end of West-European dominance in the Middle East.

Nasser emerged as the victor in the conflict, having won the political battle, but the Israeli military learnt that it did not need British or French support to conquer Sinai and that it could conquer the Sinai peninsula in a few days. The Israeli political leadership learnt that Israel had a limited time frame within which to operate militarily after which international political pressure would restrict Israel's freedom of action.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F7-4 LIST OF WARS INVOLVING ISRAEL

WIKIPEDIA

This is a **list of wars involving Israel**. Since its [declaration of independence](#) in May 1948, the [State of Israel](#) has fought and won eight recognized wars with its neighbouring [Arab states](#), two major [Palestinian Arab](#) uprisings known as the [First Intifada](#) and the [Second Intifada](#) (see [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#)), and [a broad series of other armed engagements](#) rooted in the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#).

WARS AND OTHER CONFLICTS

Israel has been involved in a number of wars and large-scale military operations, including:

- [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) (November 1947 – July 1949) – Started as [6 months of civil war](#) between Jewish and Arab militias when the [mandate period in Palestine](#) was ending and turned into a [regular war](#) after the establishment of Israel and the intervention of several Arab armies. In its conclusion, a set of agreements were signed between Israel, [Egypt](#), [Jordan](#), [Lebanon](#), and [Syria](#), called the [1949 Armistice Agreements](#), which established the [armistice](#) lines between Israel and its neighbours, also known as the [Green Line](#).
- [Palestinian Fedayeen insurgency](#) (1950s–1960s) – Palestinian attacks and [reprisal operations](#) carried out by the [Israel Defense Forces](#) during the 1950s and 1960s. These actions were in response to constant [fedayeen](#) incursions during which Arab guerrillas infiltrated from [Syria](#), [Egypt](#), and [Jordan](#) into Israel to carry out [attacks](#) against [Israeli civilians and soldiers](#). The policy of the reprisal operations was exceptional due to Israel's declared aim of getting a high 'blood cost' among the enemy side which was believed to be necessary in order to deter them from committing future attacks.
- [Suez Crisis](#) (October 1956) – A military attack on Egypt by Britain, France, and Israel, beginning on 29 October 1956, with the intention to occupy the [Sinai Peninsula](#) and to take over the [Suez Canal](#). The attack followed Egypt's decision of 26 July 1956 to nationalize the [Suez Canal](#) after the withdrawal of an offer by Britain and the United States to fund the building of the [Aswan Dam](#). Although the Israeli invasion of the Sinai was successful, the United States and USSR forced it to retreat. Even so, Israel managed to re-open the [Straits of Tiran](#) and pacified its southern border.
- [Six-Day War](#) (June 1967) – Fought between Israel and Arab neighbors [Egypt](#), [Jordan](#), and [Syria](#). The nations of [Iraq](#), [Saudi Arabia](#), [Kuwait](#), [Algeria](#), and others also contributed troops and arms to the Arab forces. Following the war, the territory held by Israel expanded significantly ("[The Purple Line](#)") : The [West Bank](#) (including [East Jerusalem](#)) from Jordan, [Golan Heights](#) from Syria, [Sinai](#) and [Gaza](#) from Egypt. (See also [Six Day War](#))
- [War of Attrition](#) (1967–1970) – A [limited war](#) fought between the Israeli military and forces of the [Egyptian](#) Republic, the USSR, [Jordan](#), [Syria](#), and the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) from 1967 to 1970. It was initiated by the Egyptians as a way of recapturing the [Sinai](#) from the Israelis, who had been in control of the territory since the mid-1967 Six-Day War. The hostilities ended with a

ceasefire signed between the countries in 1970 with frontiers remaining in the same place as when the war began.

- **Yom Kippur War** (October 1973) – Fought from 6 to 26 October 1973 by a coalition of Arab states led by Egypt and Syria against Israel as a way of recapturing part of the territories which they lost to the Israelis back in the Six-Day War. The war began with a surprise joint attack by Egypt and Syria on the Jewish holiday of Yom Kippur. Egypt and Syria crossed the cease-fire lines in the Sinai and Golan Heights, respectively. Eventually Arab forces were defeated by Israel and there were no significant territorial changes.
- **Palestinian insurgency in South Lebanon** (1971–1982) – PLO relocate to South Lebanon from Jordan and stage attacks on the Galilee and as a base for international operations. In 1978, Israel launches Operation Litani – the first Israeli large-scale invasion of Lebanon, which was carried out by the Israel Defense Forces in order to expel PLO forces from the territory. Continuing ground and rocket attacks, and Israeli retaliations, eventually escalate into the 1982 War.
 - **1982 Lebanon War** (1982) – Began on 6 June 1982, when the Israel Defense Forces invaded southern Lebanon to expel the PLO from the territory. The Government of Israel ordered the invasion as a response to the assassination attempt against Israel's ambassador to the United Kingdom, Shlomo Argov, by the Abu Nidal Organization and due to the constant terror attacks on northern Israel made by the Palestinian guerrilla organizations which resided in Lebanon. The war resulted in the expulsion of the PLO from Lebanon and created an Israeli Security Zone in southern Lebanon.
- **South Lebanon conflict** (1985–2000) – Nearly 15 years of warfare between the Israel Defense Forces and its Lebanese Christian proxy militias against Lebanese Muslim guerrilla, led by Iranian-backed Hezbollah, within what was defined by Israelis as the "Security Zone" in South Lebanon.
- **First Intifada** (1987–1993) – First large-scale Palestinian uprising against Israel in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip.
- **Second Intifada** (2000–2005) – Second Palestinian uprising, a period of intensified violence, which began in late September 2000.
- **2006 Lebanon War** (summer 2006) – Began as a military operation in response to the abduction of two Israeli reserve soldiers by the Hezbollah. The operation gradually strengthened, to become a wider confrontation. The principal participants were Hezbollah paramilitary forces and the Israeli military. The conflict started on 12 July 2006 and continued until a United Nations-brokered ceasefire went into effect on 14 August 2006, though it formally ended on 8 September 2006, when Israel lifted its naval blockade of Lebanon. The war resulted in a stalemate.
- **Gaza War** or **Operation Cast Lead** (December 2008 – January 2009) – Three-week armed conflict between Israel and Hamas during the winter of 2008–2009. In an escalation of the ongoing Israeli–Palestinian conflict, Israel responded to ongoing rocket fire from the Gaza Strip with military force in an action titled "Operation Cast Lead". Israel opened the attack with a surprise air strike on 27 December 2008. Israel's stated aim was to stop such rocket fire from and the import of arms into Gaza. Israeli forces attacked military and civilian targets, police stations, and government buildings

in the opening assault. Israel declared an end to the conflict on 18 January and completed its withdrawal on 21 January 2009.

- [2012 Israeli operation in the Gaza Strip](#) or **Operation Pillar of Defense** (November 2012) – Military offensive on the Gaza Strip.^[1]
- [2014 Gaza War](#) or **Operation Protective Edge** (July–August 2014) – Military offensive on the Gaza Strip as a response to the collapse of American-sponsored peace talks, attempts by rival Palestinian factions to form a coalition government, the [kidnapping and murder of three Israeli teenagers](#), the subsequent [kidnapping and murder of a Palestinian teenager](#), and increased rocket attacks on Israel by [Hamas](#) militants.^[2]
- [Syrian Civil War](#) and the [Iran–Israel conflict during the Syrian civil war](#).
- [2021 Israel–Palestine crisis](#) or **Operation Guardian of the Walls** (May 2021) – There were riots between Jews and Arabs in Israeli cities. Also Hamas in Gaza sent military rockets into Israel and [Iron Dome](#) intercepted most dangerous rockets. Israel attacked targets in Gaza.

TABLE

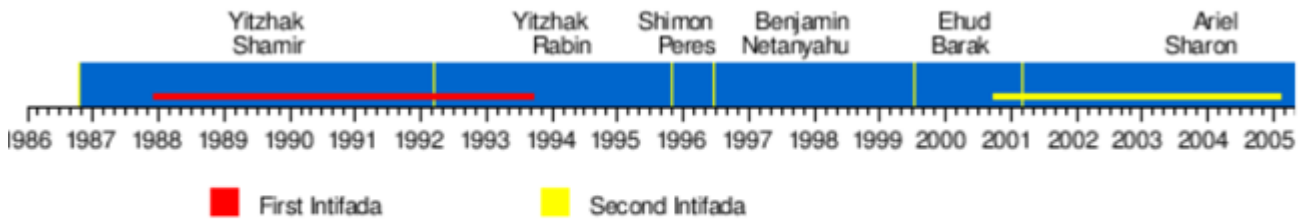
Conflicts considered as wars by the [Israeli Ministry of Defense](#) (as they were named by Israel) are marked in **bold**.^[3]

[**CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING**](#)

F7-5 FIRST INTIFADA

*This article is about the 1987–1993 Palestinian uprising against Israel.
For the 1999–2004 Sahrawi uprising against Morocco, see [First Sahrawi Intifada](#).*

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



[From Second Intifada](#)

The **First Intifada** or **First Palestinian Intifada**,^{[5][7]} also known simply as **the intifada** or **the intifadah**,^[note 1] was a sustained series of protests and violent riots^[8] carried out by [Palestinians](#) in the [Palestinian Territories](#) and [Israel](#). It was motivated by collective Palestinian frustration over Israel's military occupation of the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#), as it approached a twenty-year mark, having begun after Israel's victory in the [1967 Arab–Israeli War](#).^[9] The uprising lasted from December 1987 until the [Madrid Conference of 1991](#), though some date its conclusion to 1993, with the signing of the [Oslo Accords](#).^[5]

The intifada began on 9 December 1987,^[10] in the [Jabalia refugee camp](#) after an Israeli Defense Forces' (IDF) truck collided with a civilian car, killing four Palestinian workers, three of whom were from the [Jabalia refugee camp](#).^{[11][12]} Palestinians charged that the collision was a deliberate response for the killing of a Jew in Gaza days earlier.^[13] Israel denied that the crash, which came at time of heightened tensions, was intentional or coordinated.^[14] The Palestinian response was characterized by protests, [civil disobedience](#), and violence.^{[15][16]} There was [graffiti](#), [barricading](#),^{[17][18]} and widespread [throwing of stones](#) and [Molotov cocktails](#) at the IDF and its infrastructure within the West Bank and Gaza Strip. These contrasted with civil efforts including [general strikes](#), [boycotts](#) of [Israeli Civil Administration](#) institutions in the [Gaza Strip](#) and the [West Bank](#), an economic [boycott](#) consisting of refusal to work in [Israeli settlements](#) on Israeli products, refusal to pay taxes, and refusal to drive Palestinian cars with Israeli licenses.

Israel deployed some 80,000 soldiers in response. Israeli countermeasures, which initially included the use of live rounds frequently in cases of riots, were criticized as disproportionate. The IDF's rules of engagement were also criticized as too liberally employing lethal force.^[19] Israel argued that violence from Palestinians necessitated a forceful response. In the first 13 months, 332 Palestinians and 12 Israelis were killed.^{[20][21]} Images of soldiers beating adolescents with clubs then led to the adoption of firing semi-lethal plastic bullets.^[20] In the intifada's first year, Israeli security forces killed 311 Palestinians, of which 53 were under the age of 17.^[20] Over six years the IDF killed an estimated 1,162–1,204^[22] Palestinians.

Among Israelis, 100 civilians and 60 IDF personnel were killed^[23] often by militants outside the control of the Intifada's [UNLU](#),^[24] and more than 1,400 Israeli civilians and 1,700 soldiers were injured.^[25] Intra-Palestinian violence was also a prominent feature of the Intifada, with widespread executions of an estimated 822 Palestinians killed as alleged Israeli [collaborators](#) (1988–April 1994).^[26] At the time Israel reportedly obtained information from some 18,000 Palestinians who had been compromised,^[27] although fewer than half had any proven contact with the Israeli authorities.^[28] The ensuing [Second Intifada](#) took place from September 2000 to 2005.

GENERAL CAUSES

According to Mubarak Awad, a Palestinian American clinical psychologist, the Intifada was a protest against Israeli repression including "beatings, shootings, killings, house demolitions, uprooting of trees, deportations, extended imprisonments, and detentions without trial".^[29] After Israel's capture of the [West Bank](#), [Jerusalem](#), [Sinai Peninsula](#) and [Gaza Strip](#) from [Jordan](#) and [Egypt](#) in the [Six-Day War](#) in 1967, frustration grew among Palestinians in the [Israeli-occupied territories](#). Israel opened its labor market to Palestinians in the newly occupied territories. Palestinians were recruited mainly to do unskilled or semi-skilled labor jobs Israelis did not want. By the time of the Intifada, over 40 percent of the Palestinian work force worked in Israel daily. Additionally, Israeli expropriation of Palestinian land, high birth rates in the West Bank and Gaza Strip and the limited allocation of land for new building and agriculture created conditions marked by growing population density and rising unemployment, even for those with university degrees. At the time of the Intifada, only one in eight college-educated Palestinians could find degree-related work.^[30] This was coupled with an expansion of a Palestinian university system catering to people from refugee camps, villages, and small towns generating new Palestinian elite from a lower social strata that was more activist and confrontational with Israel.^[31]

The [Israeli Labor Party](#)'s [Yitzhak Rabin](#), then [Defense Minister](#), added deportations in August 1985 to Israel's "Iron Fist" policy of cracking down on Palestinian nationalism.^[32] This, which led to 50 deportations in the following 4 years,^[33] was accompanied by economic integration and increasing Israeli [settlements](#) such that the Jewish settler population in the West Bank alone nearly doubled from 35,000 in 1984 to 64,000 in 1988, reaching 130,000 by the mid nineties.^[34] Referring to the developments, Israeli minister of Economics and Finance, [Gad Ya'acobi](#), stated that "a creeping process of *de facto* annexation" contributed to a growing militancy in Palestinian society.^[35]

During the 1980s a number of mainstream Israeli politicians referred to policies of transferring the Palestinian population out of the territories leading to Palestinian fears that Israel planned to evict them. Public statements calling for transfer of the Palestinian population were made by Deputy Defense minister [Michael Dekel](#), Cabinet Minister [Mordechai Tzipori](#) and government Minister [Yosef Shapira](#) among others.^[34] Describing the causes of the Intifada, [Benny Morris](#) refers to the "all-pervading element of humiliation", caused by the protracted occupation which he says was "always a brutal and mortifying

experience for the occupied" and was "founded on brute force, repression and fear, collaboration and treachery, beatings and torture chambers, and daily intimidation, humiliation, and manipulation"^[36]

Background

While the catalyst for the First Intifada is generally dated to a truck incident involving several Palestinian fatalities at the Erez Crossing in December 1987,^[37] [Mazin Qumsiyeh](#) argues, against [Donald Neff](#), that it began with multiple youth demonstrations earlier in the preceding month.^[38] Some sources consider that the perceived IDF failure in late November 1987 to stop a Palestinian guerrilla operation, the [Night of the Gliders](#), in which six Israeli soldiers were killed, helped catalyze local Palestinians to rebel.^{[37][39][40]}

Mass demonstrations had occurred a year earlier when, after two Gaza students at [Birzeit University](#) had been shot by Israeli soldiers on campus on 4 December 1986, the Israelis responded with harsh punitive measures, involving summary arrest, detention and systematic beatings of handcuffed Palestinian youths, ex-prisoners and activists, some 250 of whom were detained in four cells inside a converted army camp, known popularly as [Ansar 11](#), outside Gaza city.^[41] A policy of deportation was introduced to intimidate activists in January 1987. Violence simmered as a schoolboy from [Khan Yunis](#) was shot dead by Israeli soldiers pursuing him in a Jeep. Over the summer the IDF's Lieutenant Ron Tal, who was responsible for guarding detainees at Ansar 11, was shot dead at point-blank range while stuck in a Gaza traffic jam. A curfew forbidding Gaza residents from leaving their homes was imposed for three days, during the Islamic holiday of [Eid al-Adha](#). In two incidents on 1 and 6 October 1987, respectively, the [IDF](#) ambushed and killed seven Gaza men, reportedly affiliated with [Islamic Jihad](#), who had escaped from prison in May.^[42] Some days later, a 17-year-old schoolgirl, Intisar al-'Attar, was shot in the back while in her schoolyard in [Deir al-Balah](#) by a settler in the Gaza Strip.^[43] The Arab summit in [Amman](#) in November 1987 focused on the [Iran–Iraq War](#), and the Palestinian issue was shunted to the sidelines for the first time in years.^{[44][45]}

LEADERSHIP AND AIMS

The Intifada was not initiated by any single individual or organization. Local leadership came from groups and organizations affiliated with the PLO that operated within the Occupied Territories; [Fatah](#), the [Popular Front](#), the [Democratic Front](#) and the [Palestine Communist Party](#).^[46] The PLO's rivals in this activity were the Islamic organizations, [Hamas](#) and [Islamic Jihad](#) as well as local leadership in cities such as [Beit Sahour](#) and [Bethlehem](#). However, the intifada was predominantly led by community councils led by [Hanan Ashrawi](#), [Faisal Husseini](#) and [Haidar Abdel-Shafi](#), that promoted independent networks for education (underground schools as the regular schools were closed by the military in reprisal), medical care, and food aid.^[47] The [Unified National Leadership of the Uprising](#) (UNLU) gained credibility where the Palestinian society complied with the issued communiques.^[48] There was a collective commitment to abstain from lethal violence, a notable departure from past practice,^[48] which, according to Shalev arose from a calculation that recourse to arms would lead to an Israeli bloodbath and undermine the support they had in Israeli liberal quarters. The PLO and its chairman Yassir Arafat had also decided on an unarmed strategy, in the expectation that negotiations at that time would lead to an agreement with Israel.^[49] Pearlman attributes the non-violent character of the uprising to the movement's

internal organization and its capillary outreach to neighborhood committees that ensured that lethal revenge would not be the response even in the face of Israeli state repression.^[50] Hamas and Islamic Jihad cooperated with the leadership at the outset, and throughout the first year of the uprising conducted no armed attacks, except for the stabbing of a soldier in October 1988, and the detonation of two roadside bombs, which had no impact.^[51]

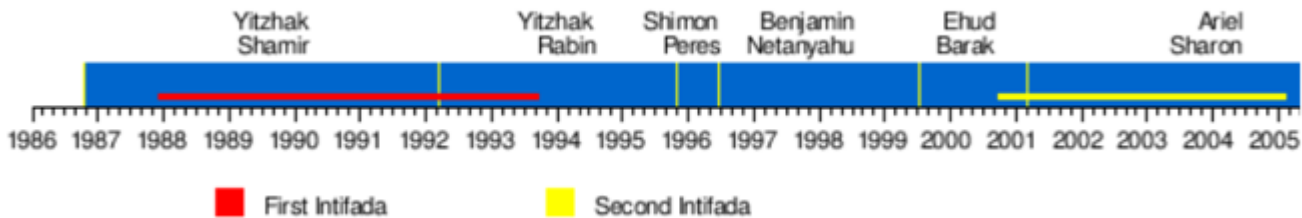
Leaflets publicizing the intifada aims demanded the complete withdrawal of Israel from the territories it had occupied in 1967: the lifting of curfews and checkpoints; it appealed to Palestinians to join in civic resistance, while asking them not to employ arms, since military resistance would only invite devastating retaliation from Israel; it also called for the establishment of the Palestinian state on the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, abandoning the standard rhetorical calls, still current at the time, for the "liberation" of all of Palestine.^[52]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F7-6 SECOND INTIFADA

This article is about the Second Palestinian Intifada. For the Second Sahrawi Intifada, see [Second Sahrawi Intifada](#). For the record album of this name, see [Al-Aqsa Intifada \(album\)](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The **Second Intifada** ([Arabic](#): الانتفاضة الثانية, *Al-Intifada al-Thaniya*; [Hebrew](#): האינתיפאדה השנייה, *Ha-Intifāda ha-Shniya*), also known as the **Al-Aqsa Intifada** (انتفاضة الأقصى, *Intifāḍat al-'Aqṣā*),^[12] was a major [Palestinian](#) uprising against [Israel](#).^[12] The general triggers for the unrest are speculated to have been centred on the failure of the [2000 Camp David Summit](#), which was expected to reach a final agreement on the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#) in July 2000.^[13] Outbreaks of violence began in September 2000, after [Ariel Sharon](#), then the [Israeli opposition leader](#), made a provocative visit to the [Temple Mount](#) in [Jerusalem](#);^{[14][13]} the visit itself was peaceful, but, as anticipated, sparked protests and riots that Israeli police put down with rubber bullets and tear gas.^[15]

High numbers of casualties were caused among civilians as well as combatants. Israeli forces engaged in gunfire, [targeted killings](#), and tank and aerial attacks, while the Palestinians engaged in [suicide bombings](#), gunfire, [stone-throwing](#), and [rocket attacks](#).^{[16][17]} Palestinian suicide bombings were a prominent feature of the fighting and mainly targeted Israeli civilians, contrasting with the relatively less violent nature of the [First Intifada](#).^{[18][19][20][21][22]} With a combined casualty figure for combatants and civilians, the violence is estimated to have resulted in the deaths of approximately 3,000 Palestinians and 1,000 Israelis, as well as 64 foreigners.^[23]

Many consider the [Sharm el-Sheikh Summit of 2005](#) to have marked the end of the Second Intifada.^[24] Palestinian president [Mahmoud Abbas](#) and Israeli prime minister Ariel Sharon agreed that all [Palestinian factions](#) would stop all acts of violence against all Israelis everywhere, while Israel would likewise cease all of its military activity against all Palestinians everywhere.^{[25][26]} They also reaffirmed their commitment to the "[roadmap for peace](#)" process. Sharon agreed to release 900 of the 7,500 [Palestinian prisoners of Israel](#) at the time,^[27] and further agreed to withdraw from towns in the [West Bank](#) that had been re-occupied by Israeli forces during the Second Intifada.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F7-7 THIRD INTIFADA

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Nicknames: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Martyr's Capital (by Palestinians) • The Hornet's Nest (by Israelis) 	
 <p>Location of Jenin Camp within Palestine</p> <p>Coordinates:  32°27'41"N 35°17'11"E</p>	
Country	State of Palestine
Governorate	Jenin Governorate
Area	
• Total	473 dunams (0.42 km ² or 0.16 sq mi)
Population	
• Total	11,674 (PCBS estimate) 13,000–15,000 (UNRWA estimate) More than 22,000 (Al Jazeera report)

The **Jenin refugee camp** ([Arabic](#): مخيم جنين للاجئين), also known as the **Jenin camp** ([Arabic](#): مخيم جنين), is a [Palestinian refugee camp](#) located in the city of [Jenin](#) in the northern [West Bank](#). It was established in 1953 to house Palestinians who [fled or were expelled](#) from their homes by Israeli forces during and in the aftermath of the [1948 Palestine War](#). The camp has since become a stronghold of [Palestinian militants](#), and has become known as "the martyr's capital" by Palestinians, and "the hornet's nest" by Israel.

The camp was the location of several incidents relating to the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#), most notably the [2002 Battle of Jenin](#) between [Israel](#) and [Palestinian militants](#) and the 2022 killing of [Al Jazeera](#) journalist [Shireen Abu Akleh](#), and remains the site of frequent clashes between Israeli forces and Palestinians.

The camp has a high population density, estimated at 33,000/km² by the [UNRWA](#). Refugees in the camp face difficult living conditions, which are caused in part by Israeli restrictions. The camp has a high unemployment rate compared to the rest of the West Bank, and many refugees live in substandard shelters, with poor sewage networks and common shortages in water and electricity.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F7-8 JULY 2023 JENIN INCURSION

For other uses, see [2023 Jenin incursion](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

On 3 July 2023, the Israeli military conducted a major assault on the [Jenin refugee camp](#) in the Palestinian city of [Jenin](#), located within the [Israeli-occupied West Bank](#). The Israeli government stated that the goal of the operation, named "Operation Home and Garden", was to target militants within the camp.^[8]

The Jenin refugee camp was established in 1953, housing Palestinians who [fled or were expelled](#) by Israeli forces in the [1948 Palestine War](#). It has an estimated population of 18,000, with a high population density, estimated at 33,000/km2 by the [UNRWA](#). The camp suffers from high rates of poverty and unemployment, and faces difficult living conditions, largely due to Israeli sanctions affecting up to 80% of Jenin's economy.^{[9][7]} It has been a frequent location for many incidents in the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).^[7]

The attack began in the early hours of 3 July and resulted in the deaths of at least 12 Palestinians, including at least 9 militants,^[5] and injuries to 100 others.^{[3][10]} The military emphasized that the operation is "one in a series", limited to the refugee camp area in Jenin.^[11] Up to 500 Palestinian families were forced or had to leave their homes due to the Israeli assault.^[12]

The assault was the largest incursion and deployment of aerial force against militants in the West Bank in 20 years, since fighting during the [Second Intifada](#).^{[10][13][14]} Israeli military and political echelons appear to hold differing views about the scale and intent of the operation.^{[15][11]}

BACKGROUND

The Jenin refugee camp was established in 1953, housing Palestinians who fled or were expelled by Israeli forces in the [1948 Palestine War](#). It has an estimated population of 18,000, and suffers from high rates of poverty and unemployment.^[7] It has been a frequent location for many incidents in the [Israeli-Palestinian conflict](#). Since the escalation of Israeli-Palestinian violence in the spring of 2022, the Jenin camp and its neighboring town have remained a focal point of tension. Jenin has historically been a stronghold for armed resistance against Israel and was a significant source of friction during the [Second Intifada](#). Israeli foreign minister [Eli Cohen](#) has described the camp as a "hub for terrorist activities" and accuses Iran of funding its militants.



Graffiti in the Jenin camp in 2011, which read "Not to forget"

In 2023, the refugee camp has been repeatedly targeted by Israeli forces due to the Israeli government's belief that it shelters militants responsible for attacks inside Israel. The Israeli government has prioritized cracking down on the camp.^[16] The incursion took place amidst increasing violence in the West Bank, which included another violent clash in Jenin two weeks prior, a rocket incident originating from the area, the first Israeli drone attack in the West Bank since 2006, and attacks by settlers on Palestinian villages.^[17] Furthermore, there was growing domestic pressure to respond to a series of attacks on Israeli settlers, including a shooting incident in June that resulted in the deaths of four Israelis. Influential members within [Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu](#)'s right-wing government have also advocated for a more extensive military retaliation to address the ongoing violence in the region.^[13]

ATTACK

The attack began with drone strikes on what the IDF called "terrorist infrastructure" shortly after 1 A.M. The airstrikes were followed by the deployment of troops who remained inside the camp until midday. The fighting persisted for approximately 14 hours after the Israeli forces entered the camp. IDF spokesman Lt. Col. Richard Hecht disclosed that around 2,000 soldiers, constituting a brigade-size force, participated in the operation.^[13]

The military blocked roads, seized control of houses and buildings, and positioned snipers on rooftops. Military bulldozers were utilized to clear paths through narrow streets to facilitate the movement of Israeli forces, resulting in damage to buildings.^{[10][13]}

According to the Palestinian Health Ministry, at least 10 Palestinians, including three minors, were killed in the incident, with 100 individuals sustaining injuries, leaving 20 in critical condition.^[7] The eldest of the victims on Monday was 23 years old.^[18] Journalists also reported being targeted by Israeli fire while reporting on events.^[18]

Palestinian sources stated that 3,000 people fled or were evacuated from the camp to escape the fighting.^{[7][18]} The [Palestinian Red Crescent](#) stated that it expected the numbers to rise amid ongoing Israeli military activity in the area.^[7] [UNRWA](#) confirmed that camp residents were leaving.^[7]

The Israeli army stated that it discovered three facilities involved in the production of weapons and confiscated caches of weapons and hundreds of explosives.^[13] It also reported that the missiles fired during the operation hit a joint operations center used by militants from the Jenin Brigade, as well as a facility responsible for weapons manufacturing and the storage of explosive devices.^[14]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F8 LAND FOR PEACE

- PEACE TREATIES

See also G4 State of Palestine (Palestinian Views of the Peace Process)

WIKIPEDIA

Land for peace is a legalistic interpretation of [UN Security Council Resolution 242](#) which has been used as the basis of subsequent [Arab-Israeli](#) peace making. The name *Land for Peace* is derived from the wording of the resolution's first operative paragraph which affirms that peace should include the application of two principles: Withdrawal of Israeli forces (Giving Up Land), and Termination of all claims or states of belligerency (Making Peace). Since the resolution stipulates that both principles should apply, they can be viewed jointly as giving up land for peace, referred to more concisely as 'land for peace'.^[1]

This interpretation is widely contested because it implies that Israeli withdrawal is linked to its neighbours' willingness to formally make peace. Competing interpretations of the resolution regard Israel as being obligated to withdraw unilaterally from all territories captured in 1967. Operative paragraph 1 of Resolution 242 reads as follows:

1. Affirms that the fulfillment of Charter principles requires the establishment of a just and lasting peace in the [Middle East](#) which should include the application of both the following principles:

- (i) Withdrawal of Israel armed forces from territories occupied in the recent conflict;
- (ii) Termination of all claims or states of belligerency and respect for and acknowledgement of the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of every State in the area and their right to live in peace within secure and recognized boundaries free from threats or acts of force;

In 1976, when [Lord Caradon](#) was asked about the concessions the Arab states would have to make to Israel as part of an overall settlement, he said "Well, that's perfectly obvious if you read again the principles of 242, which have been accepted by Egypt, Jordan, Syria and Saudi Arabia, and in effect by Israel. The provision is that if there is an adequate withdrawal, all states in the area must be free to live within secure and recognized boundaries, free from force and threat of force. So it is an acceptance that Israel has a right to exist, just as they would have a right to their homeland, and have a right to exist. This is the essential bargain that we are proposing. It's not a new thing, it's been going since 1967."^[2]

PEACE TREATIES

On 19 June 1967, Israel offered "to give up Sinai and the Golan in exchange for peace,"^[3] an offer that was rejected in September 1967 by the Arab States by the [Khartoum Resolution](#), which became famous for the "Three No's": "no peace with Israel, no recognition of Israel, no negotiations with it..."^[4]

The first application of the land for peace formula was [Israel's peace treaty with Egypt](#) in 1979,^[citation needed] under which Israel withdrew from the [Sinai](#) as part of a comprehensive peace agreement facilitated by economic assistance to both sides from the United States.

In 1994 a similar comprehensive agreement invoking resolution 242^[citation needed] formed the basis of the Israel Jordan peace treaty whereby both sides redeployed to their respective sides of the agreed international boundary.

ARAB–ISRAELI PEACE DIPLOMACY AND TREATIES

- [Paris Peace Conference, 1919](#)
- [Faisal–Weizmann Agreement](#) (1919)
- [1949 Armistice Agreements](#)
- [Camp David Accords](#) (1978)
- [Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#) (1979)
- [Madrid Conference of 1991](#)
- [Oslo Accords](#) (1993)
- [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) (1994)
- [Camp David 2000 Summit](#)
- [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#)
- [Projects working for peace among Israelis and Arabs](#)
- [List of Middle East peace proposals](#)
- [International law and the Arab–Israeli conflict](#)

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F9 JEWISH NATIONAL FUND

WIKIPEDIA

Jewish National Fund (קֶרֶן קַיֶּמֶת לְיִשְׂרָאֵל, *Keren Kayemet LeYisrael*; previously הפאנד הלאומי, *Ha Fund HaLeumi*) is a non-profit organization^{[2][3]} founded in 1901 to buy and develop land in [Ottoman Syria](#) (later [Mandatory Palestine](#), subsequently [Israel](#) and the [Palestinian territories](#)) for Jewish settlement.^[4] By 2007, it owned 13% of the total land in Israel.^[5] Since its inception, the JNF says it has planted over 240 million trees in Israel. It has also built 180 dams and reservoirs, developed 250,000 acres (1,000 km²) of land and established more than 1,000 parks.^[6]

In 2002, the JNF was awarded the [Israel Prize](#) for lifetime achievement and special contribution to society and the State of Israel.^{[7][8]}

NAME

The name *Keren Kayemet* comes from the [Mishnah](#). Tractate [Peah](#) (1:1) lists the types of good deeds whose rewards are enjoyed in this world, while the principal merit will be in the world to come: *hakeren kayemet lo l'olam haba*.^[9]

HISTORY

The idea of a national land purchasing fund was first presented at the [First Zionist Congress](#) in 1897 by [Hermann Schapira](#), a German-Jewish professor of mathematics.^[10] The fund, named Keren Hakayemet (later known in English as the "Jewish National Fund") was formally established at the Fifth [Zionist Congress](#) in [Basel](#) in 1901.^[11] In its early years, the organization was headed by the Jewish industrialist [Johann Kremenezky](#).^[12] Early land purchases were completed in Judea and the Lower Galilee. In 1909, the JNF played a central role in the founding of [Tel Aviv](#). The establishment of the "[Olive Tree Fund](#)" marked the beginning of Diaspora support of afforestation efforts. The [JNF collection boxes](#) or [Blue Box](#) (known in Yiddish as a *pushke*) has been part of the JNF since its inception, symbolizing the partnership between Israel and the Diaspora. In the period between the two world wars, about one million of these blue and white tin collection boxes could be found in Jewish homes throughout the world.^[13] From 1902 until the late 1940s, the JNF sold JNF stamps to raise money. For a brief period in May 1948, JNF stamps were [used as postage stamps](#) during the transition from [Palestine](#) to Israel.^[14]

Ottoman Era

The first parcel of land, 200 dunams (0.20 km²) east of [Hadera](#), was received as a gift from the Russian Zionist leader [Isaac Leib Goldberg](#) of Vilnius, in 1903. It became an olive grove.^[15] In 1904 and 1905, the JNF purchased land plots near the [Sea of Galilee](#) and at [Ben Shemen](#). In 1921, JNF land holdings reached 25,000 acres (100 km²), rising to 50,000 acres (200 km²) by 1927. At the end of 1935, JNF held 89,500 acres (362 km²) of land housing 108 Jewish communities.^[16]

British Mandate

1945

In 1939, 10% of the Jewish population of the British Mandate of Palestine lived on JNF land. JNF holdings by the end of the [British Mandate](#) period amounted to 936 km².^[17] By 1948, the JNF owned 54% of the land held by Jews in the region,^[18] or a bit less than 4% of the land in what was then known as the British Mandate of Palestine.^[19] By the eve of statehood, the JNF had acquired a total of 936,000 dunams (936 km²; 361 sq mi) of land;^[20] another 800,000 dunams (800 km²; 310 sq mi) had been acquired by other Jewish organizations or individuals.^[21] Most of the JNF's activities during the Mandatory period were closely associated with [Yossef Weitz](#), the head of its settlement department.

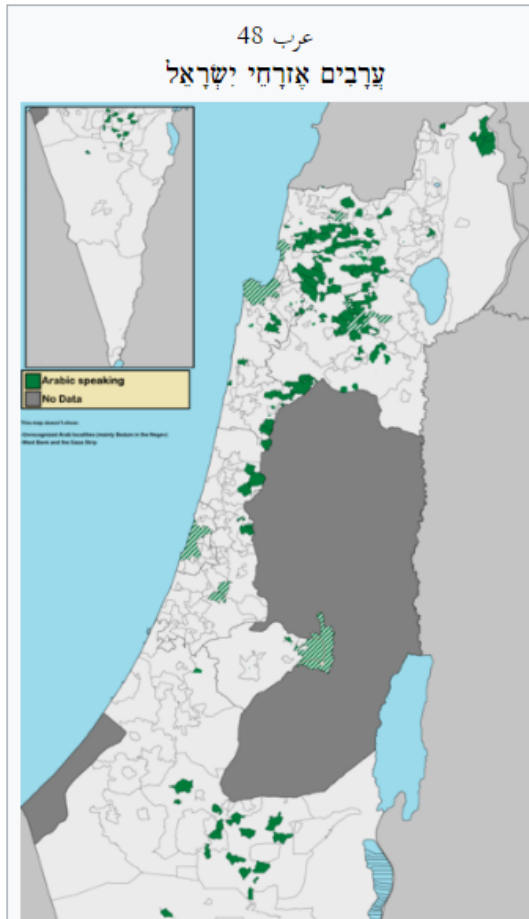
From the beginning, JNF's policy was to lease land long-term rather than sell it. In its charter, the JNF states: "Since the first land purchase in Eretz Israel in the early 1900s for and on behalf of the Jewish People, JNF has served as the Jewish People's trustee of the land, initiating and charting development work to enable Jewish settlement from the border in the north to the edge of the desert and Arava in the south."^[citation needed]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F10 ARAB CITIZENS OF ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Arab citizens of Israel



Map of Arabic speakers by locality, 2015

Total population

1,890,000

Over 278,000 in [East Jerusalem](#) and the [Golan Heights](#) (2012)

20.95% of Israeli population (2019)^{[1][2]}

Regions with significant populations

[Israel](#)

Languages

Native: [Levantine Arabic](#) (Israeli Arabic, [Palestinian Arabic](#), [Lebanese Arabic](#), [Bedouin dialects](#)) Secondary Language: [Hebrew](#)

Religion

[Islam](#) 84% (mostly [Sunni](#)), [Christianity](#) 8% and [Druze](#) 8%^[1]

Go to [Wikipedia](#) to use map links

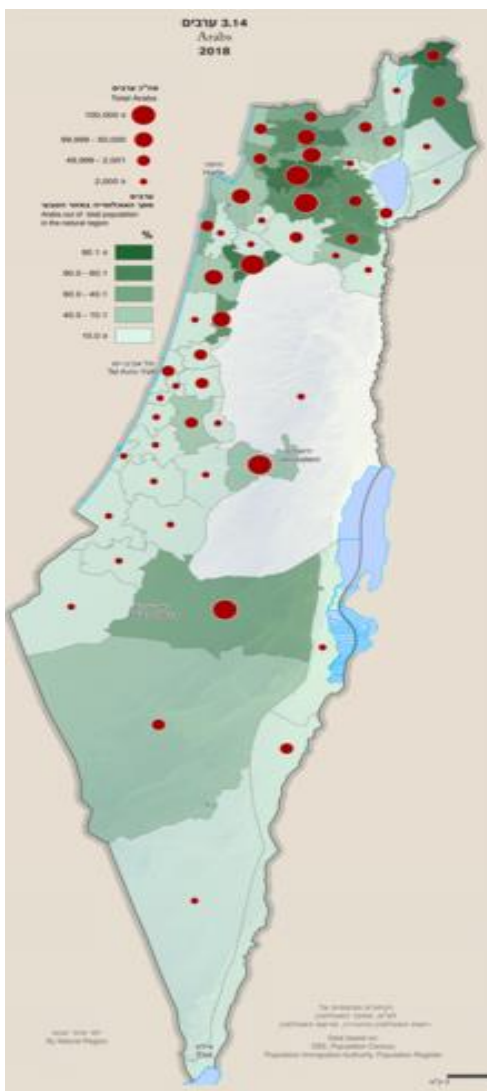
The **Arab citizens of Israel**^[3] are the [largest ethnic minority in the country](#). They comprise a hybrid community of [Israeli citizens](#) with a heritage of [Palestinian citizenship](#), mixed religions (Muslim, Christian or Druze), bilingual in Arabic and Hebrew, and with varying social identities.^[4] Self-identification as [Palestinian citizens of Israel](#) has sharpened in recent years,^[4] alongside distinct identities including [Galilee](#) and [Negev Bedouin](#), the [Druze people](#), and [Arab Christians](#) and [Arab Muslims](#) who do not identify as Palestinians. In [Arabic](#), commonly used terms to refer to Israel's Arab population include **48-Arab** (عرب 48, *Arab Thamaniya Wa-Arba'in*) and **48-Palestinian** (فلسطينيو 48, *Filastiniyyū Thamaniya Wa-Arba'in*). Since the [Nakba](#), the Palestinians that have remained within [Israel's 1948 borders](#) have been colloquially known as "48-Arabs".^[5] In Israel itself, Arab citizens are commonly referred to as **Israeli-Arabs** or simply as *Arabs*;^{[6][7]} international media often uses the term **Arab-Israeli** to distinguish Arab citizens of Israel from the Palestinian Arabs residing in the [Palestinian territories](#).^[8]

The traditional vernacular of most Arab citizens of Israel, irrespective of their religious affiliation, is [Levantine Arabic](#). This includes [Lebanese Arabic](#) in northern Israel, [Palestinian Arabic](#) in central Israel, and [Bedouin dialects](#) across the [Negev](#); having absorbed many [Hebrew](#) loanwords and phrases, the modern dialect of the Arab citizens of Israel is defined by some as the [Israeli Arabic dialect](#).^[9] Most Arab citizens of Israel are functionally bilingual, with their second language being Hebrew. By religious affiliation, the majority are [Sunni Muslims](#). However, there is a significant [Christian minority](#) from various [Christian denominations](#), as well as a [Druze minority](#), among other ethnic and religious communities.^[10]

According to Israel's [Central Bureau of Statistics](#), the Arab-Israeli population in 2019 was estimated to be around 1,890,000, representing 20.95 percent of the country's population.^[1] The majority of these citizens identify

themselves as Arab or Palestinian by nationality and as [Israeli by citizenship](#).^{[11][12][13]} Arab citizens of Israel mostly live in Arab-majority towns and cities, some of which are among the poorest in the country, and generally attend schools that are separated to some degree from those of [Jewish Israelis](#).^[14] Arab political parties traditionally did not join governing coalitions until the [United Arab List](#) became the first to do so in 2021.^[15] Many Arabs have family ties to Palestinians in the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#) as well as to [Palestinian refugees](#) in the neighbouring states of [Jordan](#), [Syria](#), and [Lebanon](#).^[16] 60 percent of Israel's Arab citizens have a positive view of the Israeli state;^[17] the Druze as well as Bedouins in the Negev and the [Galilee](#) tend to identify more as Israelis than other Arab citizens of Israel.^{[18][19][20][21]}

Under [Israeli law](#), Arab residents of [East Jerusalem](#) and Druze residents of the [Golan Heights](#) (both [Israeli-occupied territories](#)) have the right to apply for Israeli citizenship, are entitled to municipal services, and have municipal voting rights; this status is upheld due to Israel's effective annexation of the former through the [Jerusalem Law](#) of 1980 and of the latter through the [Golan Heights Law](#) of 1981.^[22] Both groups have largely foregone applying for Israeli citizenship, with the Palestinians of East Jerusalem and the [Syrians](#) of the Golan Heights mostly holding residency status.



Arabs in Israel, by natural region (2018).

TERMINOLOGY

How to refer to the Arab citizenry of Israel is a highly politicized issue, and there are a number of self-identification labels used by members of this community.^{[23][24]} Generally speaking, supporters of Israel tend to use *Israeli Arab* or *Arab Israeli* to refer to this population without mentioning Palestine, while critics of Israel (or supporters of Palestinians) tend to use *Palestinian* or *Palestinian Arab* without referencing Israel.^[25] According to [The New York Times](#), most preferred to identify themselves as Palestinian citizens of Israel rather than as Israeli Arabs, as of 2012.^[26] [The New York Times](#) uses both 'Palestinian Israelis'^[27] and 'Israeli Arabs' to refer to the same population.

Common practice in contemporary academic literature is to identify this community as *Palestinian* as it is how the majority self-identify (See [Self-Identification](#) below for more).^[28] Terms preferred by most Arab citizens to identify themselves include *Palestinians*, *Palestinians in Israel*, *Israeli Palestinians*, *the Palestinians of 1948*, *Palestinian Arabs*, *Palestinian Arab citizens of Israel* or *Palestinian citizens of Israel*.^{[11][23][24][29][30][31]} There are, however, individuals from among the Arab citizenry who reject the term *Palestinian* altogether.^[23] A minority of Israel's Arab citizens include "Israeli" in some way in their self-identifying label; the majority identify as [Palestinian](#) by nationality and

Israeli by [citizenship](#).^{[12][24]}

The Israeli establishment prefers *Israeli Arabs* or *Arabs in Israel*, and also uses the terms *the minorities*, *the Arab sector*, *Arabs of Israel* and *Arab citizens of Israel*.^{[11][29][30][32][33]} These labels have been criticized for denying this population a political or national identification, obscuring their Palestinian identity and connection to [Palestine](#).^{[30][32][33]} The term *Israeli Arabs* in particular is viewed as a construct of the Israeli authorities.^{[30][32][33][34]} It is nonetheless used by a significant minority of the Arab population, "reflecting its dominance in Israeli social discourse."^[24]

Other terms used to refer to this population include *Palestinian Arabs in Israel*, *Israeli Palestinian Arabs*, *the Arabs inside the Green Line*, and *the Arabs within* ([Arabic](#): عرب الداخل).^{[11][29][32]} The latter two appellations, among others listed above, are not applied to the [East Jerusalem](#) Arab population or the [Druze](#) in the [Golan Heights](#), as these territories were occupied by Israel in 1967. As the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#) defines the area covered in its statistics survey as including East Jerusalem and the Golan Heights, the number of Arabs in Israel is calculated as 20.95% of the Israeli population (2019).^{[11][35]}

HISTORY

1948 Arab–Israeli War

Most Jewish Israelis refer to the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) as the War of Independence, while most Arab citizens refer to it as [al-Nakba](#) (the catastrophe), a reflection of differences in perception of the purpose and outcomes of the war.^{[36][37]}

In the aftermath of the 1947–49 war, the territory previously administered by the [British Empire](#) as [Mandatory Palestine](#) was de facto divided into three parts: the State of Israel, the [Jordanian](#)-held West Bank, and the [Egyptian](#)-held Gaza Strip. Of the estimated 950,000 Arabs that lived in the territory that became Israel before the war,^[38] over 80% fled or were expelled. The other 20%, some 156,000, remained.^[39] Arab citizens of Israel today are largely composed of the people who remained and their descendants. Others include some from the [Gaza Strip](#) and the [West Bank](#) who procured Israeli citizenship under family-unification provisions made significantly more stringent in the aftermath of the [Second Intifada](#).^[40]

Arabs who left their homes during the period of armed conflict, but remained in what had become Israeli territory, were considered to be "[present absentees](#)". In some cases, they were refused permission to return to their homes, which were [expropriated](#) and turned over to state ownership, as was the property of other [Palestinian refugees](#).^{[41][42]} Some 274,000, or 1 of every 4 Arab citizens of Israel are "present absentees" or [internally displaced Palestinians](#).^{[43][44]} Notable cases of "present absentees" include the residents of [Saffuriyya](#) and the [Galilee](#) villages of [Kafr Bir'im](#) and [Iqrit](#).^[45]

1949–1966

While most Arabs remaining in Israel were granted citizenship, they were subject to martial law in the early years of the state.^{[46][47]} Zionism had given little serious thought as to how to integrate Arabs, and according to [Ian Lustick](#) subsequent policies were 'implemented by a rigorous regime of military rule that dominated what remained of the Arab population in territory ruled by Israel, enabling the state to expropriate most Arab-owned land, severely limit its access to investment capital and employment opportunity, and eliminate virtually all opportunities to use citizenship as a vehicle for gaining political influence'.^[48] Travel permits,

curfews, [administrative detentions](#), and expulsions were part of life until 1966. A variety of Israeli legislative measures facilitated the transfer of land abandoned by Arabs to state ownership. These included the [Absentee Property Law of 1950](#) which allowed the state to expropriate the property of Palestinians who fled or were expelled to other countries, and the Land Acquisition Law of 1953 which authorized the Ministry of Finance to transfer expropriated land to the state. Other common legal expedients included the use of emergency regulations to declare land belonging to Arab citizens a closed military zone, followed by the use of Ottoman legislation on abandoned land to take control of the land.^[49]

Arabs who held Israeli citizenship were entitled to vote for the Israeli [Knesset](#). Arab Knesset members have served in office since the [First Knesset](#). The first Arab Knesset members were [Amin-Salim Jarjora](#) and [Seif el-Din el-Zoubi](#) who were members of the [Democratic List of Nazareth](#) party and [Tawfik Toubi](#), member of the [Maki](#) party.

In 1965 a radical independent Arab group called *al-Ard* forming the Arab Socialist List tried to run for [Knesset](#) elections. The list was banned by the [Israeli Central Elections Committee](#).^[50]

In 1966, martial law was lifted completely, and the government set about dismantling most of the discriminatory laws, while Arab citizens were granted the same rights as Jewish citizens under law.^[51]

1967–2000



A monument to residents of [Arraba](#) killed in the Arab–Israeli conflict

After the 1967 [Six-Day War](#), Arab citizens were able to contact Palestinians in the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#) for the first time since the establishment of the state. This along with the lifting of military rule, led to increased political activism among Arab citizens.^{[52][53]}

In 1974, a committee of Arab mayors and municipal councilmen was established which played an important role in representing the community and pressuring the Israeli government.^[54] This was followed in 1975 by the formation of the Committee for the Defense of the Land, which sought to prevent continuing land expropriations.^[55] That same year, a political breakthrough took place with the election of Arab poet [Tawfiq Ziad](#), a [Maki](#) member, as mayor of Nazareth, accompanied by a strong communist presence in the town council.^[56] In 1976, six Arab citizens of Israel were killed by Israeli security forces at a protest against land expropriations and house demolitions. The date of the protest, 30 March, has since been commemorated annually as [Land Day](#).

The 1980s saw the birth of the [Islamic Movement](#). As part of a larger trend in the [Arab World](#), the Islamic Movement emphasized moving Islam into the political realm. The Islamic movement built schools, provided other essential social services, constructed mosques, and encouraged prayer and conservative Islamic dress. The Islamic Movement began to affect electoral politics particularly at the local level.^{[57][58]}

Many Arab citizens supported the [First Intifada](#) and assisted Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza, providing them with money, food, and clothes. A number of strikes were also held by Arab citizens in solidarity with Palestinians in the occupied territories.^[57]

The years leading up to the [Oslo Accords](#) were a time of optimism for Arab citizens. During the administration of [Yitzhak Rabin](#), Arab parties played an important role in the formation of a governing coalition. Increased participation of Arab citizens was also seen at the civil society level. However, tension continued to exist with many Arabs calling for Israel to become a "[state of all its citizens](#)", thereby challenging the state's Jewish identity. In the 1999 elections for prime minister, 94% of the Arab electorate voted for [Ehud Barak](#). However, Barak formed a broad left-right-center government without consulting the Arab parties, disappointing the Arab community.^[52]

2000–Present

Tensions between Arabs and the state rose in [October 2000](#) when 12 Arab citizens and one man from Gaza were killed while protesting the government's response to the [Second Intifada](#). In response to this incident, the government established the [Or Commission](#). The events of October 2000 caused many Arabs to question the nature of their Israeli citizenship. To a large extent, they boycotted the [2001 Israeli Elections](#) as a means of protest.^[52] This boycott helped Ariel Sharon defeat Ehud Barak; as aforementioned, in the 1999 elections, 94 percent of Israel's Arab minority had voted for Ehud Barak.^[59] IDF enlistment by [Bedouin](#) citizens of Israel dropped significantly.^[60]

During the [2006 Lebanon War](#), Arab advocacy organizations complained that the Israeli government had invested time and effort to protect Jewish citizens from Hezbollah attacks, but had neglected Arab citizens. They pointed to a dearth of bomb shelters in Arab towns and villages and a lack of basic emergency information in Arabic.^[61] Many Israeli Jews viewed the Arab opposition to government policy and sympathy with the Lebanese as a sign of disloyalty.^[62]

In October 2006, tensions rose when Israeli Prime Minister [Ehud Olmert](#) invited a right-wing political party [Yisrael Beiteinu](#), to join his coalition government. The party leader, [Avigdor Lieberman](#), advocated an ethnicity based territory exchange, the [Lieberman Plan](#), by transferring heavily populated Arab areas (mainly [the Triangle](#)), to Palestinian Authority control and annexing major Jewish Israeli settlement blocs in the West Bank close to the green line as part of a peace proposal.^[63] Arabs who would prefer to remain in Israel instead of becoming citizens of a Palestinian state would be able to move to Israel. All citizens of Israel, whether Jews or Arabs, would be required to pledge an oath of allegiance to retain citizenship. Those who refuse could remain in Israel as permanent residents.^[64]

In January 2007 the first non-Druze Arab minister in Israel's history, [Raleb Majadele](#), was appointed [minister without portfolio](#) ([Salah Tarif](#), a [Druze](#), had been appointed a minister without portfolio in 2001). The appointment

was criticized by the left, which felt it was an attempt to cover up the Labor Party's decision to sit with Yisrael Beiteinu in the government, and by the right, who saw it as a threat to Israel's status as a [Jewish state](#).^{[65][66]}

During the [2021 Israel–Palestine crisis](#) widespread protests and riots intensified across Israel, particularly in cities with large Arab populations. In Lod, rocks were thrown at Jewish apartments and some Jewish residents were evacuated from their homes by the police. Synagogues and a Muslim cemetery were vandalized.^[67] Communal violence including "riots, stabbings, arson, attempted home invasions and shootings" was reported from Beersheba, Rahat, Ramla, Lod, Nasiriyah, Tiberias, Jerusalem, Haifa and Acre.^[68]

SECTARIAN AND RELIGIOUS GROUPINGS



In 2006, the official number of Arab residents in Israel – including East Jerusalem and Golan Heights permanent residents many of whom are not citizens – was 1,413,500 people, about 20% of Israel's population.^[69] The Arab population in 2019 was estimated at 1,890,000, representing 20.95% of the country's population.^{[1][35]} According to the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#) (May 2003), Muslims, including Bedouins, make up 82% of the entire Arab population in Israel, along with around 9% Druze, and 9% Christians.^[70] Projections based on 2010 data, predicted that Arab Israelis will constitute 25% of Israel's population by 2025.^[71]

The national language and mother tongue of Arab citizens, including the Druze, is [Arabic](#) and the colloquial spoken language is of the [Palestinian Arabic](#) dialect. Knowledge and command of [Modern Standard Arabic](#) varies.^[72]

Muslims

Main article: [Islam in Israel](#)

Muslims comprise 17.9% of the Israeli population in 2019.^[73] The majority of Muslims in Israel are [Sunni Arabs](#),^[74] with an [Ahmadiyya](#) minority.^[75] There are around 4,000 [Alawites](#) in Israel and the majority of them live in [Ghajar](#) village in the occupied [Golan Heights](#) near the border with [Lebanon](#). The [Bedouin in Israel](#) are also Arab Muslims, with some Bedouin clans participating in the [Israeli army](#). The small [Circassian](#) community is composed of Sunni Muslims uprooted from the [North Caucasus](#) in the late 19th century. In addition, smaller populations of [Kurdish](#), [Romani](#) and [Turkish](#) Muslims also live in Israel.

In 2020; [Jerusalem](#) had the largest number of Muslim residents (346,000) in Israel, who comprise 21.1% of the Muslim population in Israel, and around 36.9% of the city's residents. [Rahat](#), had the second largest number of Muslim residents (71,300) in Israel, while [Umm Al-Fahm](#) and [Nazareth](#) had around 56,000 and 55,600 residents, respectively.^[73] The eleven towns of the [Triangle area](#) are home to approximately 250,000 Israeli Muslims.^[76]

In 2020; approximately 35.2% of the Israeli Muslim population lived in the [Northern District](#), 21.9% in the [Jerusalem District](#), 17.1% in the [Central District](#), 13.7% in the [Haifa District](#), 10.9% in the [Southern District](#), and 1.2% lived in the [Tel Aviv District](#).^[73] The Israeli Muslim population is young: around 33.4% of the Muslim population in Israel are of people aged 14 and under, while the percentage of people aged 65 and over is 4.3%, and the Muslim population in Israel had the highest [fertility rate](#) (3.16) compared with other religious communities.^[73]

According to study published by [Pew Research Center](#) in 2016, While Muslims living in Israel, overall, are more religious than Israeli Jews, they are less religious than Muslims living in many other countries in the Middle East. Muslim women are more likely to say that religion has high importance in their lives, and younger Muslims are generally less observant than their elders.^[74] According to the [Israel Democracy Institute](#) survey conducted in 2015, 47% of Israeli Muslims identified as traditional, 32% identified as religious, 17% identified as not religious at all, 3% identified as very religious.^[77]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F11 ISRAELI-PALESTINE CONFLICT

Not to be confused with [Arab–Israeli conflict](#),
the broader conflict between Israel and the Arab world as a whole.

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

<div> <h3>Israeli–Palestinian conflict</h3> <p>Part of the Arab–Israeli conflict</p>  <p>Map of Israel and Palestine, showing zones of control as outlined by the Oslo Accords</p> </div>	<table> <tr> <td>Date</td><td>1948^[5] – present</td></tr> <tr> <td>Location</td><td>Israel · Palestinian territories (West Bank and Gaza Strip)</td></tr> <tr> <td>Status</td><td>Ongoing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israeli–Palestinian peace process (stalled) Gaza–Israel conflict (intermittent) </td></tr> <tr> <td>Territorial changes</td><td> 1948–1967: [show] Since 1967: [show] </td></tr> <tr> <td colspan="2">Belligerents</td></tr> <tr> <td>Israel</td><td> State of Palestine <ul style="list-style-type: none"> All-Palestine Government (1948–1959) Palestine Liberation Organization (1964–present) Palestinian National Authority (1994–present) </td></tr> <tr> <td colspan="2">Governance (PNA):</td></tr> <tr> <td colspan="2"> Fatah (West Bank) Hamas (Gaza Strip) </td></tr> <tr> <td>Supported by:</td><td>[show]</td></tr> <tr> <td>Former support:</td><td>[show]</td></tr> <tr> <td colspan="2">Casualties and losses</td></tr> <tr> <td colspan="2">21,500+ casualties (1965–2013)^[6]</td></tr> </table>	Date	1948 ^[5] – present	Location	Israel · Palestinian territories (West Bank and Gaza Strip)	Status	Ongoing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israeli–Palestinian peace process (stalled) Gaza–Israel conflict (intermittent) 	Territorial changes	1948–1967: [show] Since 1967: [show]	Belligerents		Israel	State of Palestine <ul style="list-style-type: none"> All-Palestine Government (1948–1959) Palestine Liberation Organization (1964–present) Palestinian National Authority (1994–present) 	Governance (PNA):		Fatah (West Bank) Hamas (Gaza Strip)		Supported by:	[show]	Former support:	[show]	Casualties and losses		21,500+ casualties (1965–2013) ^[6]	
Date	1948 ^[5] – present																								
Location	Israel · Palestinian territories (West Bank and Gaza Strip)																								
Status	Ongoing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israeli–Palestinian peace process (stalled) Gaza–Israel conflict (intermittent) 																								
Territorial changes	1948–1967: [show] Since 1967: [show]																								
Belligerents																									
Israel	State of Palestine <ul style="list-style-type: none"> All-Palestine Government (1948–1959) Palestine Liberation Organization (1964–present) Palestinian National Authority (1994–present) 																								
Governance (PNA):																									
Fatah (West Bank) Hamas (Gaza Strip)																									
Supported by:	[show]																								
Former support:	[show]																								
Casualties and losses																									
21,500+ casualties (1965–2013) ^[6]																									

The **Israeli–Palestinian conflict** is one of the world's most enduring conflicts, beginning in the mid-20th century.^[7] Various attempts have been made to resolve the conflict as part of the [Israeli–Palestinian peace](#)

[process](#), alongside other efforts to resolve the broader [Arab–Israeli conflict](#).^{[8][9][10][11]} Public declarations of claims to a [Jewish homeland](#) in [Palestine](#), including the [First Zionist Congress](#) of 1897 and the [Balfour Declaration](#) of 1917, created early tensions in the region after waves of [Jewish immigration](#).

Following [World War I](#), the [Mandate for Palestine](#) included a binding obligation for the "establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people". Tensions grew into [open sectarian conflict between Jews and Arabs](#).^{[12][13]} The 1947 [United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine](#) was never implemented and provoked the [1947–1949 Palestine War](#). The current Israeli-Palestinian status quo began following Israeli [military occupation](#) of the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza](#) in the 1967 [Six-Day War](#), known as the [Palestinian territories](#).

Progress was made towards a [two-state solution](#) with the [Oslo Accords](#) of 1993–1995. Final status issues include [the status of Jerusalem](#), [Israeli settlements](#), borders, security and water rights^[14] as well as [Palestinian freedom of movement](#)^[15] and the [Palestinian right of return](#). The violence of the conflict in the region—rich in sites of historic, cultural, and religious interest worldwide—has been the subject of numerous international conferences dealing with historic rights, security issues, and human rights; and has been a factor hampering tourism in, and general access to, areas that are hotly contested.^[16] The majority of peace efforts have been centred around the two-state solution, which involves the establishment of an [independent Palestinian state](#) alongside Israel. However, public support for a two-state solution, which formerly enjoyed support from both [Israeli Jews](#) and [Palestinians](#),^{[17][18][19]} has dwindled in recent years.^{[20][21][22]}

Within Israeli and Palestinian society, the conflict generates a wide variety of views and opinions. Since its [inception](#), the [conflict's casualties](#) have not been restricted to combatants, with a large number of civilian fatalities on both sides. A minority of Jewish Israelis (32 percent) support a two-state solution with the Palestinians.^[23] Israeli Jews are divided along ideological lines, and many favor maintaining the status quo.^[21] Approximately 60 percent of Palestinians (77% in the Gaza Strip and 46% in the West Bank), support armed attacks against Israelis within Israel as a means of ending the occupation, while 70% believe that a two-state solution is no longer practical or possible as a result of the expansion of Israeli settlements.^[22] More than two-thirds of Israeli Jews say that if the [West Bank](#) was annexed by Israel, Palestinians resident there should not be permitted to vote.^[24] Mutual distrust and significant disagreements are deep over basic issues, as is the reciprocal skepticism about the other side's commitment to upholding obligations in an eventual bilateral agreement.^[25] Since 2006, the Palestinian side has been fractured by conflict between [Fatah](#), the traditionally dominant party and its later electoral challenger, [Hamas](#), a militant Islamist group that gained control of the [Gaza Strip](#).^[26] [Attempts to remedy this](#) have been repeated and continuing. Since 2019, the Israeli side has also been experiencing [political upheaval](#), with four inconclusive legislative elections having been held over a span of two years.^{[27][28]} [The latest round of peace negotiations](#) began in July 2013 but were suspended in 2014. Since 2006, Hamas and Israel have fought [four wars](#), [the most recent in 2021](#).^[26]

The two parties that engage in direct negotiation are the [Israeli government](#) and the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) (PLO). Official negotiations are mediated by the [Quartet on the Middle East](#), which consists of the [United Nations](#), the [United States](#), [Russia](#), and the [European Union](#). The [Arab League](#), which has proposed the [Arab Peace Initiative](#), is another important actor. [Egypt](#), a founding member of the Arab League, has historically been a key participant in the Arab–Israeli conflict and related negotiations, more so since the [Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#). Another equally key participant is [Jordan](#), which [annexed the West Bank in 1950](#) and held it until 1967, relinquishing its territorial claim over it to the Palestinians in 1988. An [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) was signed in 1994. The Jordanian royal [Hashemites](#) are responsible for [custodianship over Muslim holy sites in Jerusalem](#).

BACKGROUND

Main article: [Sectarian conflict in Mandatory Palestine](#)

The Palestinian [Arab Christian](#)-owned [Falastin](#) newspaper featuring a caricature on its 18 June 1936 edition showing Zionism as a crocodile under the protection of a British officer telling Palestinian Arabs: "don't be afraid!!! I will swallow you peacefully...".^[29]

The Israeli–Palestinian conflict has its roots in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, with the birth of major nationalist movements [among the Jews](#) and [among the Arabs](#), both geared towards attaining sovereignty for their people in the Middle East.^[30] The [Balfour Declaration](#) was a public statement issued by the British government in 1917 during the First World War announcing support for the establishment of a "national home for the Jewish people" in Palestine.^[31] The collision between those two movements in southern [Levant](#) upon the emergence of [Palestinian nationalism](#) after the [Franco-Syrian War](#) in the 1920s escalated into the [Sectarian conflict in Mandatory Palestine](#) in 1930s and 1940s, and expanded into the wider [Arab–Israeli conflict](#) later on.^[32]

The return of several hard-line Palestinian Arab nationalists, under the emerging leadership of [Haj Amin al-Husseini](#), from Damascus to [Mandatory Palestine](#) marked the beginning of [Palestinian Arab nationalist struggle](#) towards establishment of a national home for Arabs of [Palestine](#).^[33] Amin al-Husseini, the architect of the Palestinian Arab national movement, immediately marked [Jewish national movement](#) and [Jewish immigration to Palestine](#) as the sole enemy to his cause,^[34] initiating large-scale riots against the Jews as early as 1920 [in Jerusalem](#) and in 1921 [in Jaffa](#). Among the results of the violence was the establishment of the Jewish paramilitary force [Haganah](#). In 1929, a series of violent [anti-Jewish riots](#) was initiated by the Arab leadership. The riots resulted in massive Jewish casualties in [Hebron](#) and [Safed](#), and the evacuation of Jews from Hebron and Gaza.^[30]



The [Arab revolt of 1936–1939](#) in Palestine, motivated by opposition to mass [Jewish immigration](#).

In the early 1930s, the Arab national struggle in Palestine had drawn many Arab nationalist militants from across the Middle East, such as [Sheikh Izaddin al-Qassam](#) from Syria, who established the Black Hand militant group and had prepared the grounds for the 1936 Arab revolt. Following the death of al-Qassam at the hands of the British in late 1935, tensions erupted in 1936 into the Arab general strike and general boycott. The strike soon deteriorated into violence and the [1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine](#) was bloodily repressed by the British assisted by associated forces of the [Jewish Settlement Police](#), the [Jewish Supernumerary Police](#), and [Special Night Squads](#).^[32] In the first wave of organized violence, lasting until early 1937, most of the Arab groups were defeated by the British and forced expulsion of much of the Arab leadership was performed. The revolt led to the establishment of the [Peel Commission](#) towards partitioning of Palestine, though it was subsequently rejected by the Palestinian Arabs. The two main Jewish leaders, [Chaim Weizmann](#) and [David Ben-Gurion](#), accepted the recommendations but some secondary Jewish leaders disapproved of it.^{[35][36][37]}

The renewed violence, which had sporadically lasted until the beginning of World War II, ended with around 5,000 casualties, mostly from the Arab side. With the eruption of World War II, the situation in Mandatory Palestine calmed down. It allowed a shift towards a more moderate stance among Palestinian Arabs, under the leadership of the Nashashibi clan and even the establishment of the Jewish–Arab [Palestine Regiment](#) under British command, fighting Germans in North Africa. The more radical exiled faction of al-Husseini however tended to cooperation with Nazi Germany, and participated in the establishment of a pro-Nazi propaganda machine throughout the Arab world. Defeat of Arab nationalists in Iraq and subsequent relocation of al-Husseini to Nazi-occupied Europe tied his hands regarding field operations in Palestine, though he regularly demanded that the Italians and the Germans bomb [Tel Aviv](#). By the end of World War II, a crisis over the fate of the [Holocaust survivors](#) from Europe led to renewed tensions between the [Yishuv](#) and the Palestinian Arab leadership. Immigration quotas were established by the British, while on the other hand illegal immigration and Zionist insurgency against the British was increasing.^[30]



Land in the lighter shade
represents territory
within
the borders of Israel
at the conclusion of the 1948 war.

This land is internationally
recognized as belonging to Israel.

On 29 November 1947, the [General Assembly of the United Nations](#) adopted [Resolution 181\(II\)](#)^[38] recommending the adoption and implementation of a plan to partition Palestine into an Arab state, a Jewish state and the City of Jerusalem.^[39] On the next day, Palestine was swept by violence. For four months, under continuous Arab provocation and attack, the Yishuv was usually on the defensive while occasionally retaliating.^[40] The [Arab League](#) supported the Arab struggle by forming the volunteer-based [Arab Liberation Army](#), supporting the Palestinian Arab [Army of the Holy War](#), under the leadership of [Abd al-Qadir al-Husayni](#) and [Hasan Salama](#). On the Jewish side, the civil war was managed by the major underground militias – the [Haganah](#), [Irgun](#) and [Lehi](#), strengthened by numerous Jewish veterans of World War II and foreign volunteers. By spring 1948, it was already clear that the Arab forces were nearing a total collapse, while Yishuv forces gained more and more territory, creating a large scale [refugee problem](#) of Palestinian Arabs.^[30]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F12 2010 ISRAELI–PALESTINIAN PEACE TALKS

Editors Note

Example of Israel-Palestinian peace negotiation

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Direct negotiations between [Israel](#) and the [Palestinian National Authority](#) took place throughout 2010 as part of the [peace process](#), between [United States President Barack Obama](#), [Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu](#), and [Palestinian Authority Chairman Mahmoud Abbas](#). The ultimate aim of the direct negotiations is reaching an official "final status settlement" to the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#) by implementing a [two-state solution](#), with [Israel](#) remaining a [Jewish state](#), and the establishment of a state for the [Palestinian people](#).

In early 2010, Benjamin Netanyahu, imposed a ten-month moratorium on settlement construction in the [West Bank](#) as a gesture for the Palestinian Authority, after previously publicly declaring his support for a future Palestinian state, however he insisted that the Palestinians would need to make reciprocal gestures of their own. The Palestinian Authority rejected the gesture as insufficient. Nine month later, direct negotiations between Israel and the PA relaunched, after nearly two years of stalemate.^[1]

In early September, a coalition of 13 Palestinian factions began a [campaign of attacks against Israeli civilians](#), including a series of [drive-by shootings](#) and [rocket attacks on Israeli towns](#), in an attempt to derail and torpedo the ongoing negotiations.^[2]

Direct talks broke down in late September 2010 when an Israeli partial moratorium on settlement construction in the West Bank expired and Netanyahu refused to extend the freeze unless the Palestinian Authority recognized Israel as a Jewish State, while the Palestinian leadership refused to continue negotiating unless Israel extended the moratorium.^[3] The proposal was rejected by the Palestinian leadership, that stressed that the topic on the Jewishness of the state has nothing to do with the building freeze. The decision of Netanyahu on the freeze was criticized by European countries and the United States.^{[4][5]}

BACKGROUND

Direct negotiations between the Palestinian Authority and the Israeli government have continued for many decades and remain a complicated issue to resolve.

When President [Barack Obama](#) took office in January 2009, he has made peaceful settlement of the Israeli–Palestinian conflict a top priority of his administration, appointing former Senator [George Mitchell](#) as his peace envoy.^[6]

In March 2009 [US Secretary of State Hillary Clinton](#) travelled to Israel.^[7] She said that [Israeli settlements](#) and [demolition of Arab homes](#) in [East Jerusalem](#) were "unhelpful" to the [peace process](#).^[8] Clinton also voiced support for the establishment of a [Palestinian state](#). [Prime Minister](#)-designate Benjamin Netanyahu supports Palestinian self-government but did not explicitly endorse US and Palestinian visions for Palestinian statehood.^{[9][10]} Upon the arrival of President Obama administration's special envoy, George Mitchell, Netanyahu stated that any resumption of negotiations with the Palestinians will be conditional on the Palestinians recognizing Israel as a Jewish state.^[11] So far the Palestinian leadership has rejected a US-backed proposal extending a settlement freeze in exchange for recognizing Israel as a Jewish state,^[11] as this issue had not been sufficiently clarified by Israel at that time.

On June 4, 2009 Obama [delivered a speech](#) at the [Cairo University](#) in [Egypt](#) in which Obama addressed the [Muslim world](#).^[12] The speech called for a "new beginning" in relations between the Islamic world and the United States. With respect to the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, the President stated that "the only resolution is for the aspirations of both sides to be met through two states" and called upon both Israel and the Palestinians to resume negotiations. In addition, during the speech Obama added that "The United States does not accept the legitimacy of continued Israeli settlements" as it "undermines efforts to achieve peace. It is time for these settlements to stop."^[13]

On June 14, in what was understood as a response Obama's Cairo speech, Netanyahu gave a [speech at Bar-Ilan University](#) in which he endorsed, for the first time, a "Demilitarized Palestinian State", after two months of refusing to commit to anything other than a self-ruling autonomy when coming into office.^[14] Netanyahu also stated that he would accept a [Palestinian state](#) if [Jerusalem](#) were to remain [the united capital of Israel](#) but open to all religions, the Palestinians would have no military, and the Palestinians would give up their demand for a [right of return](#). He also claimed the right for a "natural growth" in the [existing Jewish settlements](#) in the [West Bank](#) while their permanent status is up to further

negotiation. In general, the address was viewed as a significant turnaround from his previously hawkish positions against the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#).

On July 12, 2009, Mahmoud Abbas told Egyptian media that he would not cede any part of the West Bank to Israel, that he would demand territorial contiguity between the West Bank and Gaza Strip, and that he would never waive the [Palestinian right of return](#). In a letter to U.S. President Barack Obama, Abbas demanded that any peace deal be based strictly on the 1967 borders and the [Arab Peace Initiative](#). Palestinian negotiator [Saeb Erekat](#) rejected any "middle ground solutions", saying that the Palestinians would reject any deal between the U.S. and Israel that would allow any construction to continue in Israeli settlements.^[15]

On 23 August 2009, Netanyahu announced in his weekly cabinet meeting that negotiations with the Palestinians will begin in September 2009 and will be officially launched on his visit to New York, after he had accepted an invitation from President Barack Obama for a "Triple Summit" there.^[16] He added that there is progress with special envoy [George Mitchell](#), though there is no full agreement on everything,^[17] and there will be more rounds of meetings until September.^[18] On the same day, a spokesman for PA President Mahmoud Abbas said there would be no negotiations so long as Israel continued West Bank settlement construction.^[19]

On 20 September 2009, the [White House](#) announced that it will host a three-way meeting between President Obama, Prime Minister Netanyahu and PA President [Mahmoud Abbas](#), within the framework of the [United Nations General Assembly](#), "in an effort to lay the groundwork for renewed negotiations on Mideast peace."^{[20][21]} The meeting took place on 22 September, in [New York](#). Afterwards, Netanyahu said that he agreed with Abbas during the meeting that peace talks should be relaunched as soon as possible.^[22]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F13 AGRICULTURE IN ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Agriculture in Israel is a highly developed industry. Israel is a major exporter of fresh produce and a world-leader in [agricultural technologies](#) despite the fact that the geography of the country is not naturally conducive to [agriculture](#). More than half of the land area is [desert](#), and the [climate](#) and lack of [water](#) resources do not favor farming. Only 20% of the land area is naturally [arable](#).^[1] In 2008 agriculture represented 2.5% of total [GDP](#) and 3.6% of exports.^[2] While [farmworkers](#) made up only 3.7% of the work force, Israel produced 95% of its own food requirements, supplementing this with imports of grain, oilseeds, meat, coffee, cocoa and sugar.^{[2][3]}

Israel is home to two unique types of agricultural communities, the [kibbutz](#) and [moshav](#), which developed as [Jews](#) from all over the world made [aliyah](#) to the country and embarked on [rural settlement](#).^[4] As of 2016, kibbutzim provided Israel with about 40% of its agricultural produce.^[5]

HISTORY

The development of modern agriculture was closely tied to the Zionist movement and Jewish immigration to Palestine in the late nineteenth century.^[6] Jews who immigrated purchased land that was mostly semi-arid, although much had been rendered untillable by deforestation, soil erosion and neglect.^[2] They set about clearing rocky fields, constructing terraces, draining swampland, reforesting, counteracting soil erosion, and washing salty land.^[2] Since independence in 1948, the total area under cultivation has increased from 165,000 to 433,000 hectares (408,000 to 1,070,000 acres), while the number of agricultural communities has increased from 400 to 725. Agricultural production has expanded 16 times, three times more than population growth.^[2]

Water shortage is a major problem. Rain falls between September and April, with an uneven distribution across the country, from 700 mm (28 in) in the north to less than 20 mm (1 in) in the south.^[2] Annual renewable water resources are about 160,000,000 cubic metres (5.6×10⁹ cu ft), 75% of which is used for agriculture.^[2] Most of Israel's freshwater sources have been consequently joined to the [National Water Carrier](#), network of pumping stations, reservoirs, canals and pipelines that transfers water from the north to the south.^[2]

TODAY

The importance of agriculture in Israel's economy has fallen over time, accounting for decreasing values of GDP. In 1979, it accounted for just under 6% of GDP, 5.1% by 1985, and today, 2.5%.^[7] In 1995, there were 43,000 farm units with an average size of 13.5 hectares. 19.8% of these were smaller than 1 hectare, 75.7% were 1 to 9 hectares in size, 3.3% were between 10 and 49 hectares, 0.4% were between 50 and 190 hectares, and 0.8% were larger than 200 hectares.^[7] Of the 380,000 hectares under cultivation in 1995, 20.8% was under permanent cultivation and 79.2% under rotating cultivation.^[7] Farm units included 160,000 hectares used for activities other than cultivation. Cultivation was based mainly in the [northern coastal plains](#), the [hills of the interior](#), and the upper [Jordan Valley](#).^[7]

In 2006, agricultural output fell by 0.6% following a 3.6% rise in 2005; inputs for 2007 rose by 1.2% excluding wages.^[8] Between 2004 and 2006, vegetables accounted for around 35% of total agricultural output.^[8] Flowers made up around 20%, field crops made up around 18%, fruits (other than citrus), around 15%, and citrus fruits around 10%.^[8] In 2006, 36.7% of agricultural output was for domestic consumption, 33.9% for domestic manufacturing, and 22% for direct export.^[8] In 2006, 33% of vegetables, 27% of flowers, 16% of field crops, 15.5% of fruits other than citrus, and 9% of citrus fruits were exported.^[8]

Since 1948, the area of irrigated farmland has increased from 30,000 to 186,000 hectares (74,000 to 460,000 acres).^[2]

Israeli agricultural production rose 26% between 1999 and 2009, while the number of farmers dropped from 23,500 to 17,000. Farmers have also grown more with less water, using 12% less water to grow 26% more produce.^[9]

In 2022, Israel's [Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development](#) announced a plan to increase the total number of agricultural lands cultivated, and to improve the labor force by supporting new farmers and farmers who have not worked in the field for at least seven years with a total of 10 million shekels.^[10]

FARM TYPES (KIBBUTZ AND MOSHAV)

Most of Israel's agriculture is based on cooperative principles that evolved in the early twentieth century.^[2] Two unique forms of agricultural settlements; the [kibbutz](#), a collective community in which the [means of production](#) are communally owned and each member's work benefits all; and the [moshav](#), a farming village where each family maintains its own household and works its own land, while purchasing and marketing are conducted co-operatively.^[2] Both communities provided a means not only to realise the dream of the pioneers to have rural communities based on social equality, co-operation and mutual aid but also to gain agricultural output in a productive means.^[2] Today, between kibbutzim and moshavim, 76% of the country's fresh produce is output, as well as many processed food products.^[2]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

F14 SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IN ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Science and technology in Israel is one of the country's most developed sectors. [Israel](#) spent 4.3% of its gross domestic product (GDP) on civil [research and development](#) in 2015, the [highest ratio in the world](#).^[1] In 2019, Israel was ranked the world's fifth most innovative country by the [Bloomberg Innovation Index](#).^[2] It ranks thirteenth in the world for scientific output as measured by the number of [scientific publications](#) per million citizens.^[3] In 2014, Israel's share of scientific articles published worldwide (0.9%) was nine times higher than its share of the global population (0.1%).^{[4][1]}

Israel counts 140 scientists and technicians per 10,000 employees, one of the highest ratios in the world. In comparison, there are 85 per 10,000 in the [United States](#) and 83 per 10,000 in [Japan](#).^[5] In 2012, Israel counted 8,337 full-time equivalent researchers per million inhabitants.^[1] This compares with 3,984 in the US, 6,533 in the Republic of South Korea and 5,195 in Japan. Israel's high technology industry has benefited from both the country's highly educated and technologically skilled workforce coupled with the strong presence of foreign high-tech firms and sophisticated research centres.^{[6][1]}

Israel is home to major companies in the high-tech industry and has one of the world's most [technologically literate](#) populations.^[7] In 1998, [Tel Aviv](#) was named by [Newsweek](#) as one of the ten most technologically influential cities in the world.^[8] Since 2000, Israel has been a member of [EUREKA](#), the pan-European research and development funding and coordination organization, and held the rotating chairmanship of the organization for 2010–2011.^{[9][10]} In 2010, American journalist [David Kaufman](#) wrote that [the high-tech area of Yokneam](#), Israel, has the "world's largest concentration of aesthetics-technology companies".^[11] [Google](#) Chairman [Eric Schmidt](#) complimented the country during a visit there, saying that "Israel has the most important high-tech center in the world after the US."^[12] Israel was ranked 16th in the [Global Innovation Index](#) in 2022, down from 10th in 2019.^{[13][14]}

HISTORY

Jewish settlement in [Mandate Palestine](#) was motivated by both ideology and flight from persecution.^[15] Return to the homeland was an important aspect of Jewish immigration and was perceived by many as a return to the soil. To establish the rural villages that formed the core of Zionist ideology and produce self-supporting Jewish farmers, agronomic experiments were conducted.^[16] The foundations of agricultural research in Israel were laid by the teachers and graduates of the [Mikveh Yisrael School](#), the country's first agricultural school, established by the [Alliance Israelite Universelle](#) in 1870.^[17] On a field trip to [Mount Hermon](#) in 1906, the agronomist [Aaron Aaronsohn](#) discovered [Triticum dicoccoides](#), or [emmer wheat](#), believed to be the "mother of all wheat."^[18] In 1909, he founded an agricultural research station in [Atlit](#) where he built up an extensive library and collected geological and botanical samples.^[19] The

Agricultural Station, founded in [Rehovot](#) in 1921, engaged in soil research and other aspects of farming in the country's difficult climatic conditions.^[20] This station, which became the Agricultural Research Organization (ARO), is now Israel's major institution of agricultural research and development.



**[Albert Einstein](#)
at the
[Technion](#) in 1923**

In 1912, the first cornerstone of the [Technion - Israel Institute of Technology](#) was laid at a festive ceremony in Haifa, which was then occupied by the [Ottoman Empire](#). The Technion would become a unique university worldwide in its claim to precede and create a nation. As Jews were often barred from technical education in Europe,^[21] the Technion claims to have brought the skills needed to build a modern state.^[22]

Established before World War I, the Hebrew Health Station in Jerusalem, founded by [Nathan Straus](#) engaged in medical and public health research, operating departments for public hygiene, eye diseases and bacteriology.^[23] The station manufactured vaccines against typhus and cholera, and developed methods of pest control to eliminate field mice. The Pasteur Institute affiliated with the station developed a rabies vaccine.^[23] Departments for microbiology, biochemistry, bacteriology, and hygiene were opened at the [Hebrew University of Jerusalem](#), founded on [Mount Scopus](#) in 1925. In 1936, Jewish workers in the center of the country donated two-days' pay toward the establishment of the "Hospital of Judea and Sharon," later renamed [Beilinson Hospital](#). In 1938, Beilinson established the country's first [blood bank](#).^[24] The Rothschild-Hadassah University Hospital on Mount Scopus opened in 1939 and was the first teaching hospital and medical center in the country. Since renamed the [Hadassah Medical Center](#), it has become a leader in medical research.^[25]



**[WEIZAC](#) in 1954,
the first modern [computer](#)
in the Middle East**

Industrial research began at the [Technion - Israel Institute of Technology](#), was also initiated at the Daniel Sieff Research Center (later the [Weizmann Institute of Science](#)), established in 1934 in [Rehovot](#). The [Dead](#)

[Sea](#) Laboratories opened in the 1930s. The first modern [electronic computer](#) in Israel and the Middle East, and one of the first large-scale, [stored-program](#), electronic computers in the world, called [WEIZAC](#), was built at the [Weizmann Institute](#) during 1954–1955, based on the [Institute for Advanced Study](#) (IAS) architecture developed by [John von Neumann](#).^[26] WEIZAC has been recognized by the [IEEE](#) as a milestone in the history of electrical engineering and computing.^[27] [IBM Israel](#), registered on June 8, 1950, was the country's first high-tech firm. The company, located on [Allenby Street](#) in [Tel Aviv](#), assembled and repaired punch card machines, sorting machines and tabulators. In 1956, a local plant was opened to produce punch cards, and a year later, the first service center opened, offering computerized data processing services.^[28]

Scientific and technological research in Israel was boosted by the appointment of a [chief scientist for the Industry and Trade Ministry](#) at the recommendation of a committee headed by [Ephraim Katzir](#), later [president of Israel](#).^[29] The Israeli government provided grants that covered 50–80 percent of the outlay for new start-ups, with no conditions, no shareholding and no participation in management.^[29] In the early 1980s, [Control Data Corporation](#), a partner in [Elron Electronic Industries](#), formed the country's first [venture capital](#) firm.^[29]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G IMMIGRATION TO ISRAEL

G1 JEWISH EXODUS FROM THE MUSLIM WORLD

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

GO TO [WIKIPEDIA](#) TO ACCESS LINKS AND VIEW TABLE

Part of a series on

Jewish exodus from the Muslim world



Background

History of the Jews under Muslim rule
(Sephardi · Mizrahi · Yemeni) · Zionism ·
Arab–Israeli conflict (1948 war · Suez Crisis ·
Six-Day War)

Antisemitism in the Arab world

Farhud · Aleppo · Aden · Oujda and Jerada ·
Tripolitania · Cairo · Baghdad · Tripoli

Exodus by country

Morocco (Operation Mural · Operation Yachin ·
Egoz) · Yemen · Iraq · Egypt · Lebanon · Iran ·
Tunisia (*Hurum* air disaster)

Remembrance

Awareness day · JIMENA · JJAC · WOJAC ·
The Forgotten Refugees

Related topics

Expulsions and exoduses of Jews · Aliyah ·
Historical Jewish population comparisons ·
Islamic–Jewish relations

V · T · E

The **Jewish exodus from the Muslim world** was the [migration](#), departure, flight and [expulsion](#) of around 900,000 Jews from [Arab countries](#) and [Iran](#),^[1] mainly from 1948 to the early 1970s, though with one final [exodus from Iran](#) in 1979–80 following the [Iranian Revolution](#). An estimated 650,000 of the departees settled in [Israel](#).^[1]

A number of small-scale Jewish migrations began in many Middle Eastern countries early in the 20th century with the only substantial [aliyah](#) (immigration to the area today known as [Israel](#)) coming from Yemen and Syria.^[2] Few Jews from Muslim countries immigrated during the period of [Mandatory Palestine](#).^[3] Prior to the [creation of Israel](#) in 1948, approximately 800,000 Jews were living in lands that now make up the [Arab world](#). Of these, just under two-thirds lived in French- and Italian-controlled [North Africa](#), 15–20% in the [Kingdom of Iraq](#), approximately 10% in the [Kingdom of Egypt](#) and approximately 7% in the [Kingdom of Yemen](#). A further 200,000 lived in [Pahlavi Iran](#) and the [Republic of Turkey](#).

The first large-scale exoduses took place in the late 1940s and early 1950s, primarily from Iraq, Yemen and Libya. In these cases over 90% of the Jewish population left, despite the necessity of leaving their property behind.^[4] Between 1948 and 1951, 260,000 Jews immigrated to [Israel](#) from Arab countries.^[5] The Israeli government's policy to accommodate 600,000 immigrants over four years, doubling the existing Jewish population,^[6] encountered mixed reactions in the Knesset; there were those within the Jewish Agency and government who opposed promoting a large-scale emigration movement among Jews whose lives were not in danger.^[6]

Later waves peaked at different times in different regions over the subsequent decades. The peak of the exodus from Egypt occurred in 1956 following the [Suez Crisis](#). The emigrations from the other

North African Arab countries peaked in the 1960s. Lebanon was the only Arab country to see a temporary increase in its Jewish population during this period, due to an influx of Jews from other Arab countries, although by the mid-1970s the Jewish community of Lebanon had also dwindled. Six hundred thousand Jews from Arab and Muslim countries had reached Israel by 1972,^{[7][8][9][10]} while 300,000 migrated to France and the United States. In Israel, the descendants of the Jewish immigrants from the region, known locally as [Mizrahi Jews](#) ("Oriental"; lit. 'Eastern Jews') and Sephardic Jews ("Spanish Jews"), constitute more than half of the total population of Israel,^[11] partially as a result of their higher [fertility rate](#).^[12] In 2009, only 26,000 Jews remained in Arab countries and Iran,^[13] as well as 26,000 in [Turkey](#).^[14] By 2019, the total number of Jews in Arab countries and Iran had declined to 12,700,^[15] and in Turkey to 14,800.^[16]

The reasons for the exoduses are manifold, including [pull factors](#), such as the desire to fulfill [Zionist](#) yearnings or find a better economic status and a secure home in Europe or the Americas and, in Israel, a [policy change in favour of mass immigration focused on Jews from Arab and Muslim countries](#),^[17] together with [push factors](#), such as [persecution](#) / [antisemitism](#), political instability,^[18] poverty^[18] and expulsion. The history of the exodus has been politicized, given its proposed relevance to the historical narrative of the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#).^{[19][20]} When presenting the history, those who view the Jewish exodus as analogous to the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#) generally emphasize the push factors and consider those who left as refugees, while those who do not, emphasize the pull factors and consider them willing immigrants.^[21]

BACKGROUND

Main article: [History of the Jews under Muslim rule](#)

At the time of the [Muslim conquests](#) of the 7th century, ancient Jewish communities had existed in many parts of the Middle East and North Africa since Antiquity. [Jews under Islamic rule](#) were given the status of [dhimmi](#), along with certain other pre-Islamic religious groups.^[22] As such, these groups were accorded certain rights as "[People of the Book](#)".

During [waves of persecution in Medieval Europe](#), many Jews found refuge in Muslim lands,^[23] though in other times and places, Jews fled persecution in Muslim lands and found refuge in Christian lands.^[24] [Jews expelled from the Iberian Peninsula](#) were [invited to settle](#) in various parts of the [Ottoman Empire](#), where they would often form a prosperous [model minority](#) of [merchants acting as intermediaries](#) for their Muslim rulers.

[**CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING**](#)

G2 ALIYAH

(THE IMMIGRATION OF JEWS TO ISRAEL)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

USE TO ACCESS LINKS AND VIEW TABLE

Part of a series on

Aliyah



Concepts

Promised Land · Gathering of Israel · Diaspora (Negation) · Jews who remained in the Land of Israel · Homeland for the Jewish people · Zionism · Jewish question · Law of Return

Pre-Modern Aliyah

Return to Zion · Old Yishuv · Perushim

Aliyah in modern times

First · Second · during World War I · Third · Fourth · Fifth · Aliyah Bet · Bricha from Muslim countries (Yemen · Iraq · Morocco · Lebanon) · from the Soviet Union (post-Soviet) · from Poland · from Ethiopia · from Romania · from Latin America

Absorption

Revival of the Hebrew language (Hebraization of surnames · Hebraization of place names · Ulpán) · Kibbutz · Youth village · One Million Plan (Immigrant camps · Ma'abarot) · Development town · Austerity

Organizations

World Zionist Organization · Jewish National Fund · Jewish Agency for Israel · Youth Aliyah · Mossad LeAliyah Bet · El Al · Ministry of Aliyah and Integration · Nefesh B'Nefesh · Am Yisrael Foundation

Related topics

Yishuv · Sabra · Yerida · Jewish refugees · History of the Jews in the Land of Israel · Demographic history of Palestine (region) · Historical Jewish population comparisons · Yom HaAliyah

V · T · E

Aliyah (**US:** /ˈæliˈɑː/, **UK:** /ˈɑː-

/ˈɛliˈɑː/; **Hebrew:** עֲלִיָּה ʿălīyyā, lit. 'ascent') is the immigration of **Jews** from **the diaspora** to, historically, the geographical **Land of Israel**, which is in the modern era chiefly represented by the **State of Israel**. Traditionally described as "the act of going up" (towards the **Jewish holy city** of **Jerusalem**), moving to the Land of Israel or "making aliyah" is one of the most basic tenets of **Zionism**. The opposite action—emigration by Jews from the Land of Israel—is referred to in the **Hebrew language** as **yerida** (lit. 'descent').^[1] The **Law of Return** that was passed by the **Israeli parliament** in 1950 gives all diaspora Jews, as well as their children and grandchildren, the right to relocate to Israel and acquire **Israeli citizenship** on the basis of connecting to their **Jewish identity**.

For much of **their history**, most Jews have lived in the diaspora outside of the Land of Israel due to **various historical conflicts** that led to **their persecution** alongside multiple instances of **expulsions and exoduses**, with the most recent such event being the **Jewish–Roman wars**. Despite its **historical value as a national aspiration for the Jewish people**, aliyah was acted upon by few prior to the rise of a national awakening among Jews worldwide and the subsequent development of the Zionist movement in the late 19th century;^[2] the large-scale immigration of Jews to **Palestine** had consequently begun by 1882.^[3] Since the **Israeli Declaration of Independence** in 1948, more than 3 million Jews have made aliyah.^[4] As of 2014, Israel and the **Israeli-occupied territories** contain approximately 42.9 percent of the **world's Jewish population**.^[5]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G3 OPERATION EZRA AND NEHEMIAH

Editors Note

The Jews in each Arab country has their own story of how, after 2,000 years they became exiles often leaving everything behind, This is simply about Iraq. Links to other countries are shown below. Click [WIKIPEDIA](#) will take you to the source page and live links.

The 1,000,000 Jewish exiles and the Palestinian exiles could have been viewed as a population transfer. However the Arab League decided to use the Palestine Refugees as a political weapon who demanded reparations while Israel did not set an early date.

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Part of a series on **Jewish exodus from the Muslim world**



Background

History of the Jews under Muslim rule (Sephardi · Mizrahi · Yemeni) · Zionism · Arab–Israeli conflict (1948 war · Suez Crisis · Six-Day War)

Antisemitism in the Arab world

Farhud · Aleppo · Aden · Oujda and Jerada · Tripolitania · Cairo · Baghdad · Tripoli

Exodus by country

Morocco (Operation Mural · Operation Yachin · Egoz) · Yemen · Iraq · Egypt · Lebanon · Iran · Tunisia (Hurum air disaster)

Remembrance

Awareness day · JIMENA · JJAC · WOJAC · *The Forgotten Refugees*

Related topics

Expulsions and exoduses of Jews · Aliyah · Historical Jewish population comparisons · Islamic–Jewish relations

V · T · E

Part of a series on **Aliyah**



Concepts

Promised Land · Gathering of Israel · Diaspora (Negation) · Jews who remained in the Land of Israel · Homeland for the Jewish people · Zionism · Jewish question · Law of Return

Pre-Modern Aliyah

Return to Zion · Old Yishuv · Perushim

Aliyah in modern times

First · Second · during World War I · Third · Fourth · Fifth · Aliyah Bet · Bricha · from Muslim countries (Yemen · Iraq · Morocco · Lebanon) · from the Soviet Union (post-Soviet) · from Poland · from Ethiopia · from Romania · from Latin America

Absorption

Revival of the Hebrew language (Hebraization of surnames · Hebraization of place names · Ulpan) · Kibbutz · Youth village · One Million Plan (Immigrant camps · Ma'abarot) · Development town · Austerity

Organizations

World Zionist Organization · Jewish National Fund · Jewish Agency for Israel · Youth Aliyah · Mossad LeAliyah Bet · El Al · Ministry of Aliyah and Integration · Nefesh B'Nefesh · Am Yisrael Foundation

Related topics

Yishuv · Sabra · Yerida · Jewish refugees · History of the Jews in the Land of Israel · Demographic history of Palestine (region) · Historical Jewish population comparisons · Yom HaAliyah

V · T · E

From 1951 to 1952, **Operation Ezra and Nehemiah** airlifted between 120,000 and 130,000 [Iraqi Jews](#) to [Israel](#)^[1] via [Iran](#) and [Cyprus](#). The massive emigration of Iraqi Jews was among the most climactic events of the [Jewish exodus from the Muslim World](#).

The operation is named after [Ezra](#) and [Nehemiah](#), who led groups of Jews from exile in [Babylonia](#) to return to [Judea](#) in the 5th century BC, as recorded in the books of the [Hebrew Bible](#) that bear their names.

Most of the \$4 million cost of the operation was financed by the [American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee](#).^[2]

BACKGROUND

Further information: [History of the Jews in Iraq](#)

1940s

A change in Iraqi Jewish identity occurred after the violent [Farhud](#) against the Jews of [Baghdad](#), on June 1–2, 1941 following the collapse of the pro-Nazi [Golden Square](#) regime of [Rashid Ali al-Kaylani](#), during which at least 180 Jews were killed during two days of pogrom mob attacks in the community. In some accounts the Farhud marked the turning point for Iraq's Jews.^{[3][4][5]} Other historians, however, see the pivotal moment for the Iraqi Jewish community much later, between 1948 and 1951, since Jewish communities prospered along with the rest of the country throughout most of the 1940s.^{[6][7][8]} and many Jews who left Iraq following the Farhud returned to the country shortly thereafter and permanent emigration did not accelerate significantly until 1950–51.^{[6][9]} Either way, the Farhud is broadly understood to mark the start of a process of politicization of the Iraqi Jews in the 1940s, primarily among the younger population, especially as a result of the impact it had on hopes of long term integration into Iraqi society. In the direct aftermath of the Farhud, many joined the [Iraqi Communist Party](#) in order to protect the Jews of Baghdad, yet they did not want to leave the country and rather sought to fight for better conditions in Iraq itself.^[10] At the same time the Iraqi government that had taken over after the Farhud reassured the Iraqi Jewish community, and normal life soon returned to Baghdad, which saw a marked betterment of its economic situation during World War II.^{[11][12]}

In the first half of the 1940s, [Mossad LeAliyah Bet](#) began sending emissaries to Iraq to begin to organize emigration to Israel, initially by recruiting people to teach Hebrew and hold lectures on Zionism. In late 1942, one of the emissaries explained the size of their task of converting the Iraqi community to Zionism, writing that "we have to admit that there is not much point in [organizing and encouraging emigration].... We are today eating the fruit of many years of neglect, and what we didn't do can't be corrected now through propaganda and creating one-day-old enthusiasm."^[13] In addition, the Iraqi people were incited against Zionism by propaganda campaigns in the press, initiated by [Nuri al-Said](#).^[14] The Iraqi Jewish Leaders had expressed anti-Zionist statements during the 1930, but in 1944, they boldly and vehemently refused a similar request. They did so as a protest against the authorities' treatment of Jewish community and not because they had changed their minds about Zionism.^[15] According to one estimate, of Iraq's 130,000 Jews,

only 1.53% (2,000) were Zionists.^[16] The situation of the Jews was perceived by some to be increasingly risky as the decision on the fate of Palestine approached,^[17]

Following Israeli Independence

With the affirmation of the 1947 [Partition Plan for Palestine](#), and [Israeli Independence](#) in 1948, the Jews began to feel that their lives were in danger. "Immediately after the establishment of the State of Israel, the Iraqi government adopted a policy of anti-Jewish discrimination, mass dismissals from government service, and arrests."^[17] Jews working in government jobs were dismissed, and hundreds were arrested for Zionist or Communist activity, whether actual or merely alleged, tried in military courts, and were given harsh prison sentences or heavily fined.^[18] [Nuri al-Said](#) admitted that the Iraqi Jews were victims of bad treatment.

On October 23, 1948, [Shafiq Ades](#), a respected Jewish businessman, was publicly hanged in [Basra](#) on very dubious charges of selling weapons to Israel and the Iraqi Communist Party, an event that increased the sense of insecurity among Jews.^[19] During this period, the Iraqi Jewish community became increasingly fearful.^{[20][21]} The Jewish community general sentiment was that if a man as well-connected and powerful as Shafiq Ades could be eliminated by the state, other Jews could no longer be assured of safety.^[22]

Like most [Arab League](#) states, Iraq initially forbade the emigration of its Jews after the 1948 war on the grounds that allowing them to go to Israel would strengthen that state; however, by 1949 the Iraqi Zionist underground was smuggling Jews out of the country to [Iran](#) at about a rate of 1,000 a month, from where they were flown to Israel.^[23] At the time, the British believed that the Zionist underground was agitating in Iraq in order to assist US fund-raising and to "offset the bad impression caused by the Jewish attitudes to Arab refugees".^[24]

The Iraqi government took in only 5,000 of the [c.700,000 Palestinians who became refugees](#) in 1948–49 and refused to submit to American and British pressure to admit more.^[25] In January 1949, the pro-British Iraqi Prime Minister Nuri al-Said discussed the idea of deporting Iraqi Jews to Israel with British officials, who explained that such a proposal would benefit Israel and adversely affect Arab countries.^{[26][27][28][29]} According to Meir-Glitzenstein, such suggestions were "not intended to solve either the problem of the Palestinian Arab refugees or the problem of the Jewish minority in Iraq, but to torpedo plans to resettle Palestinian Arab refugees in Iraq".^[30] In July 1949, the British government proposed to Nuri al-Said a [population exchange](#) in which Iraq would agree to settle 100,000 [Palestinian refugees](#) in Iraq; Nuri stated that if a fair arrangement could be agreed, "the Iraqi government would permit a voluntary move by Iraqi Jews to Palestine."^[31] The Iraqi-British proposal was reported in the press in October 1949.^[32] On October 14, 1949, Nuri al-Said raised the exchange of population concept with the economic mission survey.^[33] At the Jewish Studies Conference in Melbourne in 2002, Philip Mendes summarised the effect of al-Said's vacillations on Jewish expulsion as: "In addition, the Iraqi Prime Minister Nuri al-Said tentatively canvassed and then shelved the possibility of expelling the Iraqi Jews, and exchanging them for an equal number of Palestinian Arabs."^[34]

REVERSAL: PERMITTING JEWISH EMIGRATION

This section **contains [weasel words](#): vague phrasing that often accompanies [biased](#) or [unverifiable](#) information.** Such statements should be

In March 1950, the Iraqi government reversed their earlier ban on Jewish emigration to Israel and passed a special bill of one-year duration permitting Jewish emigration on condition that Jews renounce their Iraqi citizenship. According to [Abbas Shibliak](#), many scholars state that this was a result of British, American and Israeli political pressure on [Tawfiq al-Suwaidi](#)'s government, with some studies suggesting there were secret negotiations.^[35] According to [Ian Black](#), the Iraqi government was motivated by "economic considerations, chief of which was that almost all the property of departing Jews reverted to the state treasury" and also that "Jews were seen as a restive and potentially troublesome minority that the country was best rid of."^[36] At first, few would register, as the Zionist movement suggested they not do so until property issues and legal status had been clarified. After mounting pressure from both Jews and the Government, the movement relented and agreed to registrations.^[37]

Immediately following the March 1950 Denaturalisation Act, the emigration movement faced significant challenges. Initially, local Zionist activists forbade the Iraqi Jews from registering for emigration with the Iraqi authorities, because the Israeli government was still discussing absorption planning.^[38] However, on April 8, 1950, a bomb exploded in a Jewish cafe in Baghdad. A meeting of the Zionist leadership later that day agreed to allow registration without waiting for the Israeli government. A proclamation encouraging registration was made throughout Iraq in the name of the State of Israel.^[39] At the same time, immigrants were also entering Israel from Poland and Romania, countries in which Prime Minister [David Ben-Gurion](#) assessed there was a risk that the Communist authorities would soon "close their gates", and Israel therefore delayed the transportation of Iraqi Jews.^[40] According to Esther Meir-Glitzenstein, "The thousands of poor Jews who had left or been expelled from the peripheral cities, and who had gone to Baghdad to wait for their opportunity to emigrate, were in an especially bad state. They were housed in public buildings and were being supported by the Jewish community. The situation was intolerable."^[41] The delay became a significant problem for the Iraqi government of Nuri al-Said (who replaced Tawfiq al-Suwaidi in mid-September 1950), as the large number of Jews "in limbo" created problems politically, economically and for domestic security. "Particularly infuriating" to the Iraqi government was the fact that the source of the problem was the Israeli government.^[42]

As a result of these developments, al-Said was determined to drive the Jews out of his country as quickly as possible.^{[43][44][45]} On 21 August 1950 al-Said threatened to revoke the license of the company transporting the Jewish exodus if it did not fulfill its daily quota of 500 Jews, [\[failed verification\]](#) and in September 1950, he summoned a representative of the Jewish community and warned the Jewish community of Baghdad to make haste; otherwise, he would take the Jews to the borders himself.^{[46][47]} On 12 October 1950, Nuri al-Said summoned a senior official of the transport company and made similar threats, justifying the expulsion of Jews by the number of Palestinian Arabs fleeing from Israel. [\[citation needed\]](#)

According to Gat, it is highly likely that one of Nuri as-Said's motives in trying to expel large numbers of Jews was the desire to aggravate Israel's economic problems (he had declared as such to the Arab world), although Nuri was well aware that the absorption of these immigrants was the policy on which Israel based its future.^[48] The Iraqi Minister of Defence told the U.S ambassador that he had reliable evidence that the emigrating Jews were involved in activities injurious to the state and were in contact with communist agents.^[49]

The emigration law was to expire in March 1951, one year after the law was enacted. At first, the Iraqi emigration law allowed the Jews to sell their property and liquidate their businesses. On 10 March 1951, 64,000 Iraqi Jews were still waiting to emigrate, the government enacted a new law which extended the emigration period whilst also blocking the assets of Jews who had given up their citizenship.^[50] Departing Jews were permitted to take no more than \$140 and 66 pounds of luggage out of the country, and were also prohibited from taking jewelry with them.^[51]^[better source needed]

Immediately following the March 1950 Denaturalisation Act, the emigration movement faced significant challenges. Initially, local Zionist activists forbade the Iraqi Jews from registering for emigration with the Iraqi authorities, because the Israeli government was still discussing absorption planning.^[38] However, on April 8, 1950, a bomb exploded in a Jewish cafe in Baghdad. A meeting of the Zionist leadership later that day agreed to allow registration without waiting for the Israeli government. A proclamation encouraging registration was made throughout Iraq in the name of the State of Israel.^[39] At the same time, immigrants were also entering Israel from Poland and Romania, countries in which Prime Minister [David Ben-Gurion](#) assessed there was a risk that the Communist authorities would soon "close their gates", and Israel therefore delayed the transportation of Iraqi Jews.^[40] According to Esther Meir-Glitzenstein, "The thousands of poor Jews who had left or been expelled from the peripheral cities, and who had gone to Baghdad to wait for their opportunity to emigrate, were in an especially bad state. They were housed in public buildings and were being supported by the Jewish community. The situation was intolerable."^[41] The delay became a significant problem for the Iraqi government of Nuri al-Said (who replaced Tawfiq al-Suwaidi in mid-September 1950), as the large number of Jews "in limbo" created problems politically, economically and for domestic security. "Particularly infuriating" to the Iraqi government was the fact that the source of the problem was the Israeli government.^[42]

As a result of these developments, al-Said was determined to drive the Jews out of his country as quickly as possible.^{[43][44][45]} On 21 August 1950 al-Said threatened to revoke the license of the company transporting the Jewish exodus if it did not fulfill its daily quota of 500 Jews,^[failed verification] and in September 1950, he summoned a representative of the Jewish community and warned the Jewish community of Baghdad to make haste; otherwise, he would take the Jews to the borders himself.^{[46][47]} On 12 October 1950, Nuri al-Said summoned a senior official of the transport company and made similar threats, justifying the expulsion of Jews by the number of Palestinian Arabs fleeing from Israel.^[citation needed]

According to Gat, it is highly likely that one of Nuri as-Said's motives in trying to expel large numbers of Jews was the desire to aggravate Israel's economic problems (he had declared as such to the Arab world), although Nuri was well aware that the absorption of these immigrants was the policy on which Israel based its

future.^[48] The Iraqi Minister of Defence told the U.S ambassador that he had reliable evidence that the emigrating Jews were involved in activities injurious to the state and were in contact with communist agents.^[49]

The emigration law was to expire in March 1951, one year after the law was enacted. At first, the Iraqi emigration law allowed the Jews to sell their property and liquidate their businesses. On 10 March 1951, 64,000 Iraqi Jews were still waiting to emigrate, the government enacted a new law which extended the emigration period whilst also blocking the assets of Jews who had given up their citizenship.^[50] Departing Jews were permitted to take no more than \$140 and 66 pounds of luggage out of the country, and were also prohibited from taking jewelry with them.^[51]^[better source needed]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G4 EMIGRATION OF JEWS FROM NAZI GERMANY AND GERMAN-OCCUPIED EUROPE

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

In 1933, Hitler and the Jewish League agreed to the [Haavara Agreement](#) in which, over time, German Jews and their finances could and would settle in [Mandatory Palestine](#). Furthermore, the Havaara Mark was used instead of the [Deutschmark](#), because of its lower interest rates, and it was seen as more favourable. By the end of 1933, of the 600,000 German Jews, 100,000 had already emigrated to Palestine.^[1] Following this, they discouraged emigration by restricting the amount of money Jews could take from German banks and imposed [high emigrations taxes](#). The [German government](#) forbade emigration from the [Greater Germanic Reich](#) after October 1941. The German Jews who remained, about 163,000 in Germany and less than 57,000 from [annexed Austria](#), were mostly elderly who were murdered in [ghettos](#) or taken to [Nazi concentration camps](#), where most were murdered.^[2] Jews were able to leave [Vichy France](#) until the fall of 1942.^[3]

Although Jews could initially leave [Nazi Germany](#) with ease, it was difficult to find countries that would take them, particularly after the initial wave of immigrants in Europe, Britain, and the United States had been accepted.^[2] One of the reasons that emigration was so difficult was that it began during the [Great Depression](#).^[1]

...we all wanted to get rid of our Jews but that the difficulties lay in the fact that no country wished to receive them.

—[German Foreign Minister Joachim von Ribbentrop](#) in a conversation to Adolf Hitler.^[4]

Following the [Anschluss](#), the annexation of Austria to Germany in 1938, and forced emigration deepened the refugee crisis, the [Évian Conference](#) was held in France to explore options for countries to emigrate to, but the key outcome of the conference was that it proved that forced emigration would not solve the problem.^[4] Another was a concern that there might be pro-Nazi spies among the refugees.^[3]

It was also difficult to get out of Europe. After the war started, there were few ships that left European ports. [Lisbon](#) was a neutral port, however, from which refugees could still travel.^[3]

OCCUPIED COUNTRIES



Europe, indicating Nazi and Axis occupation during the Holocaust

Denmark

Main article: [Rescue of the Danish Jews](#)

In October 1943, 7,000 [Danish Jews](#), and 700 of their relatives who were not Jewish, escaped [Nazi-occupied Denmark](#) for [neutral Sweden](#), as was coordinated by the [Danish resistance movement](#). They travelled to [Malmö](#), Sweden across the [Øresund](#) Channel.^[5]

France, Luxembourg, Belgium, and The Netherlands

Many of the French, Luxembourgian, Belgian, and Dutch Jews were protected by their Country's resistances, hid in secret locations that were hard to find for the Nazis, and fled to the United Kingdom, Free France (Algeria), [Sweden](#), [Switzerland](#), [Spain](#), [Portugal](#), Canada, and the United States.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G3 HAAVARA AGREEMENT

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **Haavara Agreement** ([Hebrew](#): הסכם העברה [Translit.](#): *heskem haavara* [Translated](#): "transfer agreement") was an agreement between [Nazi Germany](#) and [Zionist German Jews](#) signed on 25 August 1933. The agreement was finalized after three months of talks by the [Zionist Federation of Germany](#), the [Anglo-Palestine Bank](#) (under the directive of the [Jewish Agency](#)) and the economic authorities of Nazi Germany. It was a major factor in making possible the migration of approximately 60,000 German Jews to Palestine in 1933–1939.^[1]

The agreement enabled Jews fleeing persecution under the new Nazi regime to transfer some portion of their assets to [British Mandatory Palestine](#).^[2] Emigrants sold their assets in Germany to pay for essential goods (manufactured in Germany) to be shipped to [Mandatory Palestine](#).^{[3][4]} The agreement was controversial and was criticised by many Jewish leaders both within the Zionist movement (such as the [Revisionist Zionist](#) leader [Ze'ev Jabotinsky](#)) and outside it, as well as by members of both the [Nazi Party](#) and the German public.^[4] For German Jews, the agreement offered a way to leave an increasingly hostile environment in Germany; for the [Yishuv](#), the Jewish community in Palestine, it offered access to both immigrant labour and economic support; for the Germans it facilitated the emigration of German Jews while breaking the [anti-Nazi boycott of 1933](#), which had mass support among European and American Jews and was thought by the German state to be a potential threat to the German economy.^{[4][5]}

BACKGROUND

Although the Nazi Party won the greatest share of the popular vote in the two Reichstag general elections of 1932, they did not have a majority, so Hitler led a short-lived [coalition government](#) formed by the Nazis and the [German National People's Party](#).^[6] Under pressure from politicians, industrialists and others, President [Paul von Hindenburg](#) appointed Hitler as [Chancellor of Germany](#) on 30 January 1933. This event is known as the [Machtergreifung](#) (seizure of power).^[7] In the following months, the Nazis used a process termed [Gleichschaltung](#) (co-ordination) to consolidate power.^[8] By June 1933, virtually the only organisations not under the control of the Nazi party were the army and the churches.^[9]

Within the Nazi movement, a variety of (increasingly radical) "solutions" to the "[Jewish Question](#)" were proposed both before and after the Nazi party was in government, including expulsion and the encouragement of voluntary emigration. Widespread civil persecution of German Jews began as soon as the Nazis were in power.^[10] For example, on 1 April, the Nazis organized a [nationwide boycott of Jewish-owned businesses in Germany](#); under the [Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service](#) which was implemented on 7 April, Jews were excluded from the civil service; on 25 April, [quotas](#) were imposed on the number of Jews in schools and universities. Jews outside Germany responded to these persecutions with a [boycott of German goods](#).

Meanwhile, in [Mandatory Palestine](#), a growing [Jewish population](#) (174,610 in 1931, rising to 384,078 in 1936^[11]) was acquiring land and developing the structures of a future Jewish state despite [opposition from the Arab population](#).

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G5 ISRAEL, LAW OF RETURN

Part of a Series on Aliyah

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Concepts

Promised Land · Gathering of Israel · Diaspora (Negation) · Jews who remained in the Land of Israel · Homeland for the Jewish people · Zionism · Jewish question · **Law of Return**

Pre-Modern Aliyah

Return to Zion · Old Yishuv · Perushim

Aliyah in modern times

First · Second · during World War I · Third · Fourth · Fifth · Aliyah Bet · Bricha · from Muslim countries (Yemen · Iraq · Morocco · Lebanon) · from the Soviet Union (post-Soviet) · from Poland · from Ethiopia · from Romania · from Latin America

Absorption

Revival of the Hebrew language (Hebraization of surnames · Hebraization of place names · Ulpan) · Kibbutz · Youth village · One Million Plan (Immigrant camps · Ma'abarot) · Development town · Austerity

Organizations

World Zionist Organization · Jewish National Fund · Jewish Agency for Israel · Youth Aliyah · Mossad LeAliyah Bet · El Al · Ministry of Aliyah and Integration · Nefesh B'Nefesh · Am Yisrael Foundation

Related topics

Yishuv · Sabra · Yerida · Jewish refugees · History of the Jews in the Land of Israel · Demographic history of Palestine (region) · Historical Jewish population comparisons · Yom HaAliyah

The **Law of Return** ([Hebrew](#): חוק השבות, *hok ha-shvūt*) is an Israeli law, passed on 5 July 1950, which gives [Jews](#), people with one or more Jewish grandparent, and their spouses the right to [relocate to Israel](#) and acquire [Israeli citizenship](#).^[1] Section 1 of the Law of Return declares that "every Jew has the right to come to this country as an *oleh* [immigrant]". In the Law of Return, the [State of Israel](#) gave effect to the [Zionist](#) movement's "credo" which called for the establishment of Israel as a [Jewish state](#). In 1970, the right of entry and settlement was extended to people with at least one Jewish grandparent and a person who is married to a Jew, whether or not they are [considered Jewish](#) under [Orthodox](#) interpretations of [Jewish law](#).^[2]

On the day of arrival in Israel, or occasionally at a later date, a person who enters Israel under the Law of Return as an *oleh* would receive a certificate confirming their *oleh* status. The person then has three months to decide whether they wish to become a citizen and can renounce citizenship during this time. The right to an *oleh* certificate may be denied if the person is engaged in [anti-Jewish activity](#), is a hazard to the public health or security of the state, or has a criminal past that may endanger public welfare.^[3]

[**CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING**](#)

G6 ISRAELI CITIZENSHIP LAW

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Israeli citizenship law details the conditions by which a person holds citizenship of [Israel](#). The two primary pieces of legislation governing these requirements are the 1950 [Law of Return](#) and 1952 Citizenship Law.

[Every Jew](#) in the world has the unrestricted right to [immigrate to Israel](#) and become an Israeli citizen. Individuals born within the country receive Israeli citizenship at birth if at least one parent is a citizen. Non-Jewish foreigners may naturalize after living in the country for at least three years while holding [permanent residency](#) and demonstrating knowledge in the [Hebrew language](#). Naturalizing non-Jews are additionally required to renounce their previous nationalities, while Jewish immigrants are not subject to this requirement. All male and female Jewish citizens, as well as male citizens of [Druze](#) and [Circassian](#) descent must perform [compulsory military service](#); other non-Jewish citizens and [Haredi Jews](#) are exempt from conscription.

Israel was formerly [administered by the British Empire](#) as part of a [League of Nations mandate for Palestine](#) and local residents were [British protected persons](#). The [dissolution of the mandate](#) in 1948 and [subsequent conflict](#) created a set of complex citizenship circumstances for the non-Jewish inhabitants of the region that continue unresolved.

TERMINOLOGY

The distinction between the meaning of the terms [citizenship](#) and [nationality](#) is not always clear in the English language and differs by country. Generally, nationality refers a person's legal belonging to a state and is the common term used in international treaties when referring to members of a state; citizenship refers to the set of rights and duties a person has in that nation.^[3]

In the Israeli context, *nationality* is not linked to a person's origin from a particular territory but has a specific meaning encompassing the national constituency. Although the term may also be used in other countries to indicate a person's [ethnic group](#), the meaning in Israeli law is particularly expansive by including any person practicing [Judaism](#) and their descendants.^[4] Members of the *Jewish nationality* form the core part of Israel's citizenry,^[5] while the [Supreme Court of Israel](#) has ruled that an *Israeli nationality* does not exist.^{[5][6]} Legislation has defined Israel as the [nation state](#) of the Jewish people since 2018.^[7]

HISTORY

National Status Under British Mandate

See also: [History of Palestinian nationality](#) and [Mandatory Palestine](#)

The [region of Palestine](#) was conquered by the [Ottoman Empire](#) in 1516. Accordingly, Ottoman nationality law applied to the area. Palestine was governed by the Ottomans for four centuries until British occupation in 1917 during the [First World War](#).^[8] The area nominally remained an Ottoman territory following the conclusion of the war until the [United Kingdom](#) obtained a [League of Nations mandate for the region](#) in 1922. Similarly, local residents ostensibly continued their status as Ottoman subjects, although British

authorities began issuing provisional certificates of Palestinian nationality shortly after the start of occupation.^[9]

The [Treaty of Lausanne](#) established the basis for separate nationalities in [Mandatory Palestine](#) and all other [territories ceded by the Ottoman Empire](#). Ottoman/Turkish subjects who were ordinarily resident in Palestine on 6 August 1924 became Palestinian citizens on that date.^[10] Turkish nationals originating from Mandatory territory but habitually resident elsewhere on that date had a right to choose Palestinian citizenship, but this required an application within two years of the treaty's enforcement and approval by the Mandatory government.^[11] The [Palestinian Citizenship Order 1925](#) confirmed the transition from Ottoman/Turkish to Palestinian citizenship in local legislation.^[12] This law was amended several times, with its final revision in 1942.^[13]

[Legitimate](#) children of a Palestinian father automatically held Palestinian citizenship. Any person born outside of these conditions who held no other nationality and were otherwise stateless at birth also automatically acquired citizenship. Foreigners could obtain Palestinian citizenship through naturalization after residing in the territory for at least two of the three years preceding an application, fulfilling a language requirement (in English, Hebrew, or Arabic), affirming their intention to permanently reside in Mandate territory, and satisfying a good character requirement.^[14]

Despite Britain's sovereignty over Palestinian territory, domestic law treated the mandate as foreign territory. Palestinian citizens were treated as [British protected persons](#), rather than [British subjects](#), meaning that they were [aliens](#) in the United Kingdom but could be issued [Mandatory Palestine passports](#) by British authorities. Protected persons could not travel to the UK without first requesting permission, but were afforded the same consular protection as British subjects when travelling outside of the [British Empire](#).^[15] This arrangement continued until [termination of the British mandate](#) on 14 May 1948,^[16] the same date on which the [State of Israel was established](#).^[17]

Post-1948 Transition

For the first four years after its establishment, Israel had no citizenship law and technically had no citizens.^[1] Despite Israel's status as the [successor state](#) to Mandatory Palestine,^[18] Israeli courts during this time offered conflicting opinions on the continuing validity of Palestinian citizenship legislation enacted during the British mandate.^[19] While almost all courts held that Palestinian citizenship had ceased to exist at the end of the mandate in 1948 without a replacement status, there was one case in which a judge ruled that all residents of Palestine at the time of Israel's establishment were automatically Israeli nationals.^[20] The Supreme Court settled this issue in 1952, ruling that Palestinian citizens of the British mandate had not automatically become Israeli.^[21]

Israeli citizenship policy is centered on two early pieces of legislation: the 1950 [Law of Return](#) and 1952 Citizenship Law.^[22] The Law of Return grants every Jew the right to migrate to and settle in Israel, reinforcing the central [Zionist](#) tenant of the return of all Jews to their [traditional homeland](#).^[23] The

Citizenship Law details the requirements for Israeli citizenship, dependent on an individual's religious affiliation,^[24] and explicitly repeals all prior British-enacted legislation concerning Palestinian nationality.^[25]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G7 ECONOMY OF ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **economy of Israel** is a highly [developed free-market economy](#).^{[24][25][26][27][28]} The prosperity of [Israel's](#) advanced economy allows the country to have a sophisticated [welfare state](#), a powerful modern [military](#) said to possess a [nuclear-weapons capability](#) with a full [nuclear triad](#), modern infrastructure rivaling many Western countries, and a [high-technology sector](#) competitively on par with Silicon Valley.^[24] It has the second-largest number of startup companies in the world after the United States,^{[29][needs update]} and the third-largest number of [NASDAQ-listed companies](#) after the U.S. and China.^[30] American companies, such as Intel,^[31] Microsoft,^[32] and Apple,^{[33][34]} built their first overseas research and development facilities in Israel. More than 400 high-tech multi-national corporations, such as [IBM](#), [Google](#), [Hewlett-Packard](#), [Cisco Systems](#), [Facebook](#) and [Motorola](#) have opened [R&D centers in the country](#).^[35]

The country's major economic sectors are high-technology and industrial manufacturing. The [Israeli diamond industry](#) is one of the world's centers for [diamond cutting](#) and polishing, amounting to 23.2% of all exports.^[36] As the country is relatively poor in natural resources, it consequently depends on imports of petroleum, raw materials, wheat, motor vehicles, uncut diamonds and production inputs. Nonetheless, the country's nearly total reliance on energy imports may change in the future as recent discoveries of [natural gas reserves off its coast](#) and the [Israeli solar energy industry](#) have taken a leading role in Israel's energy sector.^{[37][38]}

Israel's quality higher education and the establishment of a highly motivated and educated populace is largely responsible for ushering in the country's high technology boom and rapid economic development by regional standards.^[39] The country has developed a strong educational infrastructure, and a high-quality incubation system for new cutting edge ideas to create value driven goods and services. These developments have allowed the country to create a high concentration of high-tech companies across the country's regions. These companies are financially backed by a strong [venture capital industry](#).^[40] Its central high technology hub, the "[Silicon Wadi](#)", is considered second in importance only to its Californian counterpart.^{[41][42][43][44]} Numerous Israeli companies have been acquired by global corporations for their reliable and quality corporate personnel.^[45]

In its early decades, the Israeli economy was largely state-controlled and shaped by [social democratic](#) ideas. In the 1970s and 1980s, the economy underwent a series of [free-market](#) reforms and was gradually [liberalized](#).^[46] In the past three decades, the economy has grown considerably, though [GDP per capita](#) has increased faster than wages.^[47] Israel is the most [developed](#) and advanced country in [Western Asia](#),^{[48][49]} possessing the 17th largest [foreign-exchange reserves](#) in the world and the highest average [wealth per adult](#) in the Middle East (10th worldwide by [financial assets per capita](#)).^{[41][50][51]} Israel is the 9th largest arm exporter in the world^[52] and has the highest number of [billionaires in the Middle East](#), ranked 18th in the world.^[53] In recent years Israel has had among the highest GDP growth rates within the

developed world along with Ireland.^[54] [The Economist](#) ranked Israel as the 4th most successful economy among developed countries for 2022.^[55] The IMF estimated Israel's GDP at US\$564 billion and its GDP per capita at US\$58,270 in 2023 (13th highest in the world), a figure comparable to other highly developed countries.^[56] Israel was invited to join the [OECD](#) in 2010.^[57] Israel has also signed [free trade agreements](#) with the European Union, the United States, the [European Free Trade Association](#), Turkey, Mexico, Canada, Ukraine, Jordan, and Egypt. In 2007, Israel became the first non-Latin-American country to sign a free trade agreement with the [Mercosur](#) trade bloc.^{[58][59]}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G8 ISRAEL, COMMUNAL ORGANISATION, KIBBUTZ

Not to be confused with [Kibbitz](#).

For other uses, see [Kibbutz \(disambiguation\)](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

A **kibbutz** ([Hebrew](#): קיבוץ / קבוצה, lit. "gathering, clustering"; plural: **kibbutzim** קיבוצים / קבוצות) is an [intentional community](#) in [Israel](#) that was traditionally based on [agriculture](#). The first kibbutz, established in 1910, was [Degania](#). Today, farming has been partly supplanted by other economic branches, including [industrial plants](#) and [high-tech enterprises](#).^[1] Kibbutzim began as [utopian](#) communities, a combination of [socialism](#) and [Zionism](#).^[2] In recent decades, some kibbutzim have been [privatized](#) and changes have been made in the communal lifestyle. A member of a kibbutz is called a *kibbutznik* ([Hebrew](#): קיבוצניק / קבוצניק; plural *kibbutznikim* or *kibbutzniks*).

In 2010, there were 270 kibbutzim in Israel with population of 126,000.^[3] Their factories and farms account for 9% of Israel's industrial output, worth US\$8 [billion](#), and 40% of its agricultural output, worth over US\$1.7 billion.^[4] Some kibbutzim had also developed substantial high-tech and military industries. For example, in 2010, [Kibbutz Sasa](#), containing some 200 members, generated US\$850 million in annual revenue from its military-plastics industry.^[5]

Currently the kibbutzim are organised in the secular [Kibbutz Movement](#) with some 230 kibbutzim, the [Religious Kibbutz Movement](#) with 16 kibbutzim and the much smaller religious [Poalei Agudat Yisrael](#) with two kibbutzim, all part of the wider [communal settlement movement](#).

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G9 ISRAEL, COMMUNAL ORGANISATION, MOSHAV

For the band, see [Moshav \(band\)](#).

Not to be confused with [Moshava](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

A **moshav** ([Hebrew](#): מוֹשָׁב, plural מוֹשָׁבִים *moshavim*, lit. "settlement, village") is a type of [Israeli](#) town or settlement, in particular a type of [cooperative](#) agricultural community of individual farms [pioneered](#) by the [Labour Zionists](#) between 1904 and 1914, during what is known as the [second wave of aliyah](#).^[1] A resident or a member of a moshav can be called a "moshavnik" (מוֹשָׁבִינִיק).

The moshavim are similar to [kibbutzim](#) with an emphasis on community labour.^[2] They were designed as part of the Zionist state-building programme following the green revolution [Yishuv](#) ("settlement") in the [British Mandate of Palestine](#) during the early 20th century, but in contrast to the [collective farming](#) kibbutzim, farms in a moshav tended to be individually owned but of fixed and equal size. Workers produced crops and other goods on their properties through individual or pooled labour with the profit and foodstuffs going to provide for themselves. Moshavim are governed by an elected council ([Hebrew](#): וועד, *va'ad*, lit. *committee*). Community projects and facilities were financed by a special tax ([Hebrew](#): מס ועד, *mas va'ad*, lit. *committee tax*). This tax was equal for all households of the community.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

Iran–Israel proxy conflict



Israel (orange) and Iran (green) shown within the Middle East

Date	16 February 1985 ^[45] – ongoing (38 years, 5 months, 1 week and 6 days)
Location	Western Asia
Status	Ongoing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Iran reinforces Syrian government and Hezbollah • Israel tries to prevent weapon transfers to Hezbollah • 2006 Lebanon War ends in military stalemate • Beginning of the ongoing Gaza–Israel conflict in June 2006 • Israel tries to stop Iranian nuclear program^[46] • Iran grows major spheres of influence in the Middle East^[47] • Formation of the Arab–Israeli alliance

Belligerents

 Iran	 Israel
<i>Proxies:</i> [show]	<i>Proxies:</i> [show]
<i>Supporting Iranian</i> [show]	Supported by:
<i>Proxies:</i>	 United States ^[41]
Supported by:	 United Arab Emirates ^[42]
 Syria ^{[21][22]}	 Yemen (pro-Hadi Cabinet) ^[43] <i>[better source needed]</i>
 Lebanon	 Azerbaijan ^[44]
 Sudan ^{[23][24]} (until 2015) ^{[25][26]}	 Iraq (disputed) ^{[31][32]}
 North Korea ^{[27][28]}	
 Venezuela ^{[29][30]}	
 Iraq (disputed) ^{[31][32]}	

The **Iran–Israel proxy conflict**, also known as the **Iran–Israel proxy war**^[49] or **Iran–Israel Cold War**,^[50] is an ongoing **proxy war** between **Iran** and **Israel**. Supporters of Israel cite threats and hostility by Iran's leaders against Israel, and their declared objective to dissolve the **Jewish state** on the basis of, or not on the basis of **anti-semitic rhetoric** and reasoning.^{[51][52]} On the other hand, supporters of Iran cite Israel's status as a **settler colony** in the **Arab region** as a basis for Iran's aggression towards Israel.^[53]

Iran has provided funding, weapons, and training to groups including **Lebanese Hezbollah**,^[54] and **Palestinian Islamic Jihad** (PIJ), which have vowed and carried out attacks on Israel, and which have been designated terrorist organisations by many countries. Because of the hostility, Israel is concerned by **Iran's nuclear weapons program** and missile program, and is seeking to downgrade Iran's allies and proxies, as well as preventing **Iranian entrenchment in Syria**, another sworn enemy of Israel.

Iran's hostility towards Israel followed the 1979 **Iranian Revolution**, and expanded into covert Iranian support of Hezbollah during the **South Lebanon conflict (1985–2000)** and by 2005 developed into a proxy regional conflict. In 2006, Iran was actively involved in supporting Hezbollah during the **2006 Lebanon War** and in parallel began supporting **Hamas** and **Palestinian Islamic Jihad** (PIJ), especially in the **Gaza Strip**. Israel, on the other hand, initiated a campaign to harm the Iranian nuclear program, utilizing several anti-regime militias within Iran. Upon the onset of the **Syrian Civil War**, the conflict escalated and by 2018 turned into **direct Iranian-Israeli warfare**.^[55]

Israel, in turn, opposes Iran's nuclear program, and maintains ties with other rivals of Iran such as **Saudi Arabia** and the **United States**. The involvement of Iran and Israel in the Syrian Civil War creates the possibility of direct conflict between the two countries.^[56] Israel has supported and conducted assassinations and attacks against Iranian targets directly.^{[57][58]} Israel has also conducted cyber warfare against Iran, and has publicly advocated for international military action against Iran.^[59]

Israel has accused Iran of attempting to form a continuous land transport route from Iran via **Iraq** and **Syria** into Lebanon,^{[60][61]} which Israel views as a significant strategic threat.^[62] Iranian leaders have described Israel as an illegitimate "**Zionist regime**" and have accused Israel of being an American **client state** hostile to **Muslims**.^{[63][failed verification]}

Iranian dissidents, protestors, and opposition parties are frequently imagined and attacked as members of "Israel's army" or as agents of the pejorative "**Zionist regime**".^[citation needed]

BACKGROUND

*Main articles: **Iran–Israel relations** and **South Lebanon conflict (1985–2000)***

Ruhollah Khomeini was critical of Israel before he became Iran's Supreme Leader in 1979. He criticized the **Pahlavi dynasty** Iran's ties with Israel, viewing Israel as a supporter of the Pahlavi regime.^[64] Following the 1979 **Iranian Revolution**, Khomeini's new government adopted a policy of hostility towards **Israel**. Iran withdrew recognition of Israel as a state, and severed all diplomatic, commercial and other ties with Israel,^[65] referring to its government as the "**Zionist regime**"^[66] and Israel as "occupied Palestine".

Despite the tension between the two countries, **Israel provided support to Iran** during the **Iran–Iraq War** from 1980 to 1988. During the 8 years war, Israel was one of the main suppliers of military equipment to Iran. Israel

also provided military instructors during the war and direct support to Iran's war effort, when it bombed and destroyed Iraq's Osirak nuclear reactor, during [Operation Babylon](#). The nuclear reactor was considered a central component of Iraq's nuclear weapons program.^[67]

The 1982 Israeli [invasion](#) of Lebanon resulted in the [Palestine Liberation Organization's](#) (PLO) departure from Lebanon. The following creation of [Security Zone in South Lebanon](#) has benefited Israeli [allies in Lebanon](#) and civilian Israeli population, as Galilee suffered less violent attacks by Hezbollah, than previously by PLO in the 1970s (hundreds of Israeli civilian casualties). Despite this Israeli success in eradicating PLO bases and partial withdraw in 1985, the Israeli invasion had actually increased the severity of [conflict](#) with local Lebanese militias and resulted in the consolidation of several local Shia Muslim movements in Lebanon, including [Hezbollah](#) and [Amal](#), from a previously unorganized guerrilla movement in the south. Over the years, military casualties of both sides grew higher, as both parties used more modern weaponry, and Hezbollah progressed in its tactics.

Iran supplied the militant organization Hezbollah with substantial amounts of financial, training, weapons, explosives, political, diplomatic, and organizational aid while persuading Hezbollah to take an action against Israel.^{[68][69][70]} Hezbollah's 1985 manifesto listed its four main goals as "Israel's final departure from Lebanon as a prelude to its final obliteration"^[71] According to reports released in February 2010, Hezbollah received \$400 million from Iran.^[69] By the early 1990s, Hezbollah, with support from Syria and Iran, emerged as the leading group and military power, monopolizing the directorship of the guerrilla activity in South Lebanon.

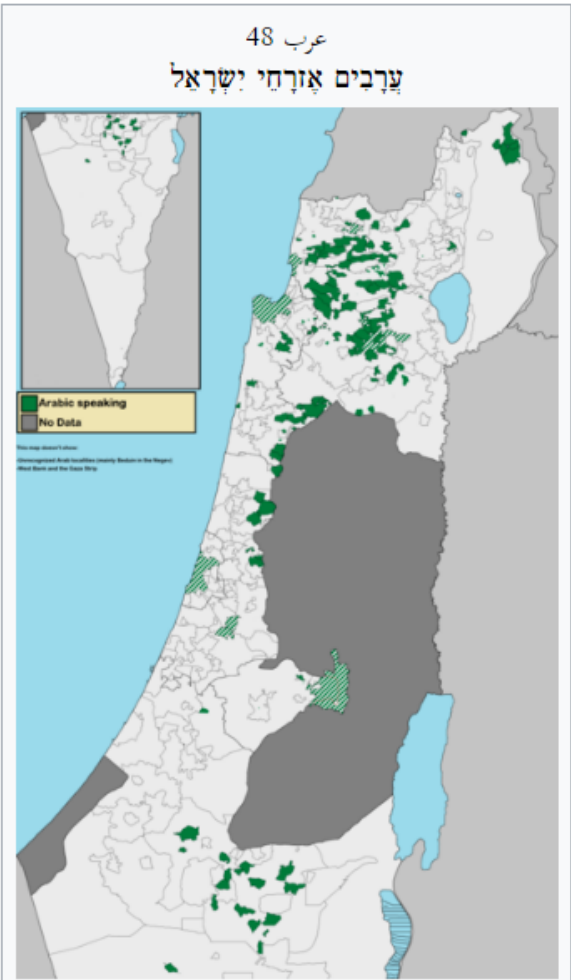
In January 2014, Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu warned that Iran's nuclear program would only be set back six weeks as a result of its interim agreement with the international community.^[72] In one of the region's oddest pairings, Israel and the Gulf Arab states led by Saudi Arabia increasingly are finding common ground — and a common political language — on their mutual dismay over the prospect of a nuclear deal in Geneva that could curb Tehran's atomic program but leave the main elements intact, such as uranium enrichment.^[73] In June 2017, former Israeli Defense Minister [Moshe Ya'alon](#) stated that "We and the Arabs, the same Arabs who organized in a coalition in the Six-Day War to try to destroy the Jewish state, today find themselves in the same boat with us ... The Sunni Arab countries, apart from Qatar, are largely in the same boat with us since we all see a nuclear Iran as the number one threat against all of us".^[74]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G10 ARAB CITIZENS OF ISRAEL

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Arab citizens of Israel



Total population

1,890,000

Over 278,000 in East Jerusalem and the Golan Heights (2012)

20.95% of Israeli population (2019)^{[1][2]}

Regions with significant populations

 Israel

Languages

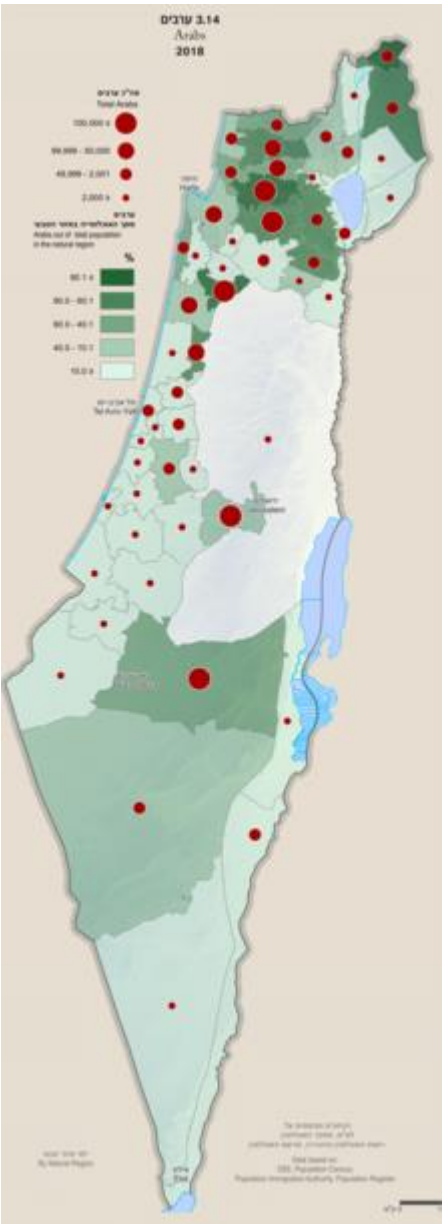
Native: Levantine Arabic (Israeli Arabic, Palestinian Arabic, Lebanese Arabic, Bedouin dialects) Secondary Language: Hebrew

Religion

Islam 84% (mostly Sunni), Christianity 8% and Druze 8%^[1]

Arabs in Israel, by Natural Region

2018



The **Arab citizens of Israel**^[3] are the [largest ethnic minority in the country](#). They comprise a hybrid community of [Israeli citizens](#) with a heritage of [Palestinian citizenship](#), mixed religions (Muslim, Christian or Druze), bilingual in Arabic and Hebrew, and with varying social identities.^[4] Self-identification as [Palestinian citizens of Israel](#) has sharpened in recent years,^[4] alongside distinct identities including [Galilee](#) and [Negev Bedouin](#), the [Druze people](#), and [Arab Christians](#) and [Arab Muslims](#) who do not identify as Palestinians. In [Arabic](#), commonly used terms to refer to Israel's Arab population include **48-Arab** (48 عرب, *Arab Thamaniya Wa-Arba'in*) and **48-Palestinian** (48 فلسطينيو, *Filastiniyyū Thamaniya Wa-Arba'in*). Since the [Nakba](#), the Palestinians that have remained within [Israel's 1948 borders](#) have been colloquially known as "48-Arabs".^[5] In Israel itself, Arab citizens are commonly referred to as **Israeli-Arabs** or simply as *Arabs*;^{[6][7]} international media often uses the term **Arab-Israeli** to distinguish Arab citizens of Israel from the Palestinian Arabs residing in the [Palestinian territories](#).^[8]

The traditional vernacular of most Arab citizens of Israel, irrespective of their religious affiliation, is [Levantine Arabic](#). This includes [Lebanese Arabic](#) in northern Israel, [Palestinian Arabic](#) in central Israel, and [Bedouin dialects](#) across the [Negev](#); having absorbed many [Hebrew](#) loanwords and phrases, the modern dialect of the Arab citizens of Israel is defined by some as the [Israeli Arabic dialect](#).^[9] Most Arab citizens of Israel are functionally bilingual, with their second language being Hebrew. By religious affiliation, the majority are [Sunni Muslims](#). However, there is a significant [Christian minority](#) from various [Christian denominations](#), as well as a [Druze minority](#), among other ethnic and religious communities.^[10]

According to Israel's [Central Bureau of Statistics](#), the Arab-Israeli population in 2019 was estimated to be around 1,890,000, representing 20.95 percent of the country's population.^[11] The majority of these citizens identify themselves as Arab or Palestinian by nationality and as [Israeli by citizenship](#).^{[11][12][13]} Arab citizens of Israel mostly live in Arab-majority towns and cities, some of which are among the poorest in the country, and generally attend schools that are separated to some degree from those of [Jewish Israelis](#).^[14] Arab political parties traditionally did not join governing coalitions until the [United Arab List](#) became the first to do so in 2021.^[15] Many Arabs have family ties to Palestinians in the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#) as well as to [Palestinian refugees](#) in the neighbouring states of [Jordan](#), [Syria](#), and [Lebanon](#).^[16] 60 percent of Israel's Arab citizens have a positive view of the Israeli state;^[17] the Druze as well as Bedouins in the Negev and the [Galilee](#) tend to identify more as Israelis than other Arab citizens of Israel.^{[18][19][20][21]}

Under [Israeli law](#), Arab residents of [East Jerusalem](#) and Druze residents of the [Golan Heights](#) (both [Israeli-occupied territories](#)) have the right to apply for Israeli citizenship, are entitled to municipal services, and have municipal voting rights; this status is upheld due to Israel's effective annexation of the former through the [Jerusalem Law](#) of 1980 and of the latter through the [Golan Heights Law](#) of 1981.^[22] Both groups have largely foregone applying for Israeli citizenship, with the Palestinians of East Jerusalem and the [Syrians](#) of the Golan Heights mostly holding residency status.

TERMINOLOGY

How to refer to the Arab citizenry of Israel is a highly politicized issue, and there are a number of self-identification labels used by members of this community.^{[23][24]} Generally speaking, supporters of Israel tend to use *Israeli Arab* or *Arab Israeli* to refer to this population without mentioning Palestine, while critics of Israel (or supporters of Palestinians) tend to use *Palestinian* or *Palestinian Arab* without referencing Israel.^[25] According to [The New York Times](#), most preferred to identify themselves as Palestinian citizens of Israel rather than as Israeli Arabs, as of 2012.^[26] [The New York Times](#) uses both 'Palestinian Israelis'^[27] and 'Israeli Arabs' to refer to the same population.

Common practice in contemporary academic literature is to identify this community as *Palestinian* as it is how the majority self-identify (See [Self-Identification](#) below for more).^[28] Terms preferred by most Arab citizens to identify themselves include *Palestinians*, *Palestinians in Israel*, *Israeli Palestinians*, *the Palestinians of 1948*, *Palestinian Arabs*, *Palestinian Arab citizens of Israel* or *Palestinian citizens of Israel*.^{[11][23][24][29][30][31]} There are, however, individuals from among the Arab citizenry who reject the term *Palestinian* altogether.^[23] A minority of Israel's Arab citizens include "Israeli" in some way in their self-identifying label; the majority identify as [Palestinian](#) by nationality and Israeli by [citizenship](#).^{[12][24]}

The Israeli establishment prefers *Israeli Arabs* or *Arabs in Israel*, and also uses the terms *the minorities*, *the Arab sector*, *Arabs of Israel* and *Arab citizens of Israel*.^{[11][29][30][32][33]} These labels have been criticized for denying this population a political or national identification, obscuring their Palestinian identity and connection to [Palestine](#).^{[30][32][33]} The term *Israeli Arabs* in particular is viewed as a construct of the Israeli authorities.^{[30][32][33][34]} It is nonetheless used by a significant minority of the Arab population, "reflecting its dominance in Israeli social discourse."^[24]

Other terms used to refer to this population include *Palestinian Arabs in Israel*, *Israeli Palestinian Arabs*, *the Arabs inside the Green Line*, and *the Arabs within* ([Arabic](#): عرب الداخل).^{[11][29][32]} The latter two appellations, among others listed above, are not applied to the [East Jerusalem](#) Arab population or the [Druze](#) in the [Golan Heights](#), as these territories were occupied by Israel in 1967. As the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#) defines the area covered in its statistics survey as including East Jerusalem and the Golan Heights, the number of Arabs in Israel is calculated as 20.95% of the Israeli population (2019).^{[1][35]}

HISTORY

1948 Arab–Israeli War

Most Jewish Israelis refer to the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) as the War of Independence, while most Arab citizens refer to it as [al-Nakba](#) (the catastrophe), a reflection of differences in perception of the purpose and outcomes of the war.^{[36][37]}

In the aftermath of the 1947–49 war, the territory previously administered by the [British Empire](#) as [Mandatory Palestine](#) was de facto divided into three parts: the State of Israel, the [Jordanian](#)-held West Bank, and the [Egyptian](#)-held Gaza Strip. Of the estimated 950,000 Arabs that lived in the territory that

became Israel before the war,^[38] over 80% fled or were expelled. The other 20%, some 156,000, remained.^[39] Arab citizens of Israel today are largely composed of the people who remained and their descendants. Others include some from the [Gaza Strip](#) and the [West Bank](#) who procured Israeli citizenship under family-unification provisions made significantly more stringent in the aftermath of the [Second Intifada](#).^[40]

Arabs who left their homes during the period of armed conflict, but remained in what had become Israeli territory, were considered to be "[present absentees](#)". In some cases, they were refused permission to return to their homes, which were [expropriated](#) and turned over to state ownership, as was the property of other [Palestinian refugees](#).^{[41][42]} Some 274,000, or 1 of every 4 Arab citizens of Israel are "present absentees" or [internally displaced Palestinians](#).^{[43][44]} Notable cases of "present absentees" include the residents of [Saffuriyya](#) and the [Galilee](#) villages of [Kafr Bir'im](#) and [Iqrit](#).^[45]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

G11 PRESENT ABSENTEE

WIKIPEDIA

Go to [WIKIPEDIA](#) to access links

Part of a series on
Palestinians

Demographics Definitions · Palestine · History · Name · People · Nakba · Diaspora
Politics <i>Previous</i> Arab Higher Committee (Depopulated villages) · All-Palestine Protectorate (Government · Fedayeen militias) · PLO · National Authority (PNA) (political parties)
<i>Current</i> Fatah · Hamas · PFLP · Islamic Jihad · Politics of the Palestinian National Authority (Enclaves · Governorates · Cities) · Gaza Strip governance (Hamas) (Governorates of the Gaza Strip) · National Council (PNC) · Legislative Council (PLC)
Flag · Law Palestine (West Bank · Gaza Strip · E. Jerusalem)
Religion / religious sites Christianity · Islam · Judaism · Al-Aqsa · Basilica of the Annunciation · Cave of the Patriarchs · Church of the Holy Sepulchre · Church of the Nativity · Dome of the Rock · Great Mosque of Gaza · Joseph's Tomb · Lot's Tomb · Nabi Samwil · Rachel's Tomb
Culture Art · Cinema · Costume and embroidery · Cuisine · <i>Dabke</i> (dance) · Handicrafts · Language · Literature · Music
List of Palestinians
V · T · E

Present absentees are Arab [internally displaced persons](#) (IDPs) who [fled or were expelled](#) from their homes in [Mandatory Palestine](#) during the [1947–1949 Palestine war](#) but remained within the area that became the state of [Israel](#). The term applies also to the descendants of the original IDPs.^{[1]*[failed verification]*}

In 1950, 46,000 out of the 156,000 [Israeli Arabs](#) in Israel were considered Present absentees. According to 2015 estimates from Palestinian NGO [BADIL](#), there are 384,200 IDPs in [Israel](#) and 334,600 IDPs in the [Palestinian territories](#).^[2]

IDPs are not permitted to live in the homes they formerly lived in, even if they were in the same area, the property still exists, and they can show that they own it. They are regarded as absent by the Israeli government because they were absent from their homes on a particular day, even if they did not intend to leave them for more than a few days, and even if they left involuntarily.^[3]

IDPS IN ISRAEL

If the definition is restricted to those displaced in the 1948 war and its immediate aftermath and their descendants, some 274,000 [Arab citizens of Israel](#) – or one in four in Israel – are [internally displaced](#).^[4]

The [Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre](#) estimated in 2007 that 150,000-420,000 internally displaced persons were living in Israel.^[5] The vast majority are Muslim (90%) and some 10% are Christian. There are no [Druze](#) among them "since no Druze village was destroyed in the 1948 war and no Druze left their settlements permanently."^{[5][6]}

Organizations defending the rights of [Arab citizens of Israel](#) also generally include the 110,000 [Bedouin](#)^[4] forced to move in a closed area under military rule in the [Negev](#) in 1949 in their estimates of internally displaced Palestinians. Other internally displaced persons included in these counts are those who were displaced by ongoing home demolitions enacted against unlicensed structures or in [unrecognized villages](#).^[4] Estimates based on this broader definition place the total population of IDPs at anywhere between 250,000 - 420,000 people.^{[6][7]}

Present Absentees

In 1950, the [United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East](#) (UNRWA) estimated that 46,000 of the 156,000 Palestinians^{[8][9][10]} who remained inside the borders demarcated as Israel by the [1949 Armistice Agreements](#) were internally displaced refugees.

As it was for most other [Palestinian refugees](#), the homes and properties of internally displaced Palestinians were placed under the control of a government body, the [Custodian of Absentees' Property](#) via legislation that includes the *1948 Emergency Regulation Concerning Absentee Property* (a temporary measure) and the *1950 Absentee Property Law*.^[8]

Unlike [Palestinian refugees](#), the internally displaced Palestinians and others who remained inside what became [Israel](#) were made citizens by the [Citizenship Law](#) of July 1952.^[8] That same year Israel requested that UNRWA transfer responsibility for registering and caring for internally displaced persons to Israel and basic humanitarian assistance was provided to the internally displaced for a time.^[4]

[Military administrative rule](#) (1948–1966) restricted the movement of [Arab citizens of Israel](#), and it combined with the [Absentees' Property Laws](#) to prevent internally displaced citizens from physically returning to their properties to reclaim their homes. According to the Absentees' Property Laws, "absentees" are non-Jewish

residents of Palestine who had left their usual places of residence for any place inside or outside the country after the adoption of the partition of Palestine resolution by the UN. Under these laws, "absentee" property owners were required to prove their "presence" in order to gain recognition of their ownership rights by the Israeli government.^[8] However, all ownership rights of "absentees" belong to the government-appointed Custodian of Absentee Property, and any person including the "absentee" owner himself found occupying, building, or being "present" on such properties would be violating the law and risk expulsion and demolition.

Some villagers like those of [Ghassibiya](#), [Bir'im](#) and [Iqrit](#) made petitions to the [Israeli High Court](#) to have their property rights recognized which were upheld in the 1950s, but they were physically prevented from reclaiming their properties by military administrative authorities who refused to abide by the court rulings and declared the villages closed military zones.^[4]

Because most internally displaced Arab citizens of Israel were counted as absent, even though present inside the Israeli state, they are also commonly referred to as *present absentees*.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

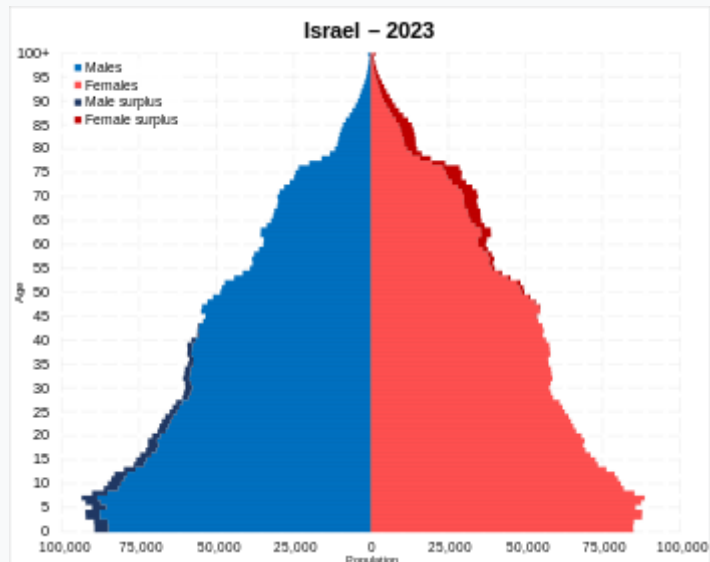
G12 DEMOGRAPHICS OF ISRAEL

WIKIPEDIA

The [State of Israel](#) had a population of approximately 9.73 million inhabitants as of March 2023. Some 73.5% were [Jews](#) of all backgrounds (about 7.145 million individuals), 21% were [Arab](#) of any religion other than Jewish (about 2.048 million individuals), while the remaining 5.5% (about 534,000 individuals) were defined as "others", including people of Jewish ancestry deemed non-Jewish by religious law and persons of non-Jewish ancestry who are family members of Jewish immigrants (neither of which are registered at the [Ministry of Interior](#) as Jews), Christian non-Arabs, [Muslim non-Arabs](#) and all other residents who have neither an ethnic nor religious classification.^[3]

Israel's annual population growth rate stood at 2.0% in 2015, more than three times faster than the [OECD](#) average of around 0.6%.^[4] With an average of three children per woman, Israel also has the highest [fertility rate](#) in the OECD by a considerable margin and much higher than the OECD average of 1.7.^[5] The country's demographics are monitored by

Demographics of Israel



Population pyramid (numbers by age group) of Israel in 2023

Population	9,506,000 (95th) ^[112]
Density	431/km ² (6th)
Growth rate	1.9%
Birth rate	21.5 births/1,000 population (101st)
Death rate	5.2 deaths/1,000 population (174th)
Life expectancy	82.7 years (8th)
• male	80.7 years
• female	84.6 years
Fertility rate	3.01 children born/woman (59th)

the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#).

DEFINITION



This section needs to be **updated**. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (March 2022)

The territory of Israel can be defined in a number of ways as a result of a complex and unresolved political situation (see table below). For example, whilst the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#) defines the area of Israel to include the [annexed East Jerusalem](#) and [Golan Heights](#), and to exclude the militarily controlled regions of the [West Bank](#), the CBS defines the population of Israel to also include [Israeli settlers](#) living in the Area C of West Bank and the Muslim residents of East Jerusalem and Area C, who have Israeli residency or citizenship

Infant mortality rate 4.03 deaths/1,000 live births ([25th](#))

Age structure

0–14 years	28%
15–64 years	60%
65 and over	12%

Sex ratio

Total	1.01 male(s)/female
At birth	1.05 male(s)/female
Under 15	1.05 male(s)/female
15–64 years	1.03 male(s)/female
65 and over	0.78 male(s)/female

Nationality

Nationality	Israelis
Major ethnic	Jews , Arabs
Minor ethnic	Druze , Arameans , Armenians , Assyrians , Circassians , Samaritans

Language

Official	Hebrew
Spoken	Arabic , Aramaic , Russian, Yiddish , French, English

The [State of Israel](#) had a population of approximately 9.73 million

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H WEST BANK AND EAST JERUSALEM

H1 WEST BANK

This article is about the geographic region. For other uses, see [West Bank \(disambiguation\)](#).

WIKIPEDIA

West Bank الضفة الغربية הגדה המערבית	
 <p>Location of the West Bank within the claimed territory of the State of Palestine Coordinates: 32°00′N 35°21′E</p>	
Area	
• Total	5,655 km ² (2,183 sq mi)
Population	
• Total	2,949,246 (est., July 2021) Note: over 670,000 Israeli settlers live in the West Bank (2022); approximately 227,100 Israeli settlers live in East Jerusalem (2019) ^[2]
Time zone	EET (UTC+02:00) EEST (UTC+03:00)
ISO 3166 code	PS
Languages	Arabic, Hebrew
Religion	Islam, Judaism, Christianity, Samaritanism
Currency	Israeli shekel (ILS) Jordanian dinar (JOD)

The **West Bank** ([Arabic](#): الضفة الغربية, *aḍ-Ḍiffah al-Ġarbiyyah*; [Hebrew](#): הגדה המערבית, *HaGadáh HaMa'arávit*) is a landlocked territory near the coast of the [Mediterranean](#) in the [Levant](#) region of [Western Asia](#) that forms the main bulk of the [Palestinian territories](#).^[1] It is bordered by [Jordan](#) and the [Dead Sea](#) to the east and by [Israel](#) (see [Green Line](#)) to the south, west, and north.^[2] It has been under an [Israeli military occupation](#) since the [1967 Arab-Israeli War](#). Since the [Oslo II Accord](#) was signed in 1995, its area has been split into 165 [Palestinian enclaves](#), that are under total or partial civil administration by the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA), and [a contiguous area](#) containing 230 [Israeli settlements](#) into which [Israeli law is "pipelined"](#). The West Bank includes [East Jerusalem](#). Israel administers the West Bank excluding East Jerusalem as the [Judea and Samaria Area](#) (אזור יהודה ושומרון, *Ezor Yehūda VeŠōmrōn*) [district](#), through the [Israeli Civil Administration](#).

It initially emerged as a Jordanian-occupied territory after the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), before being [annexed outright by Jordan in 1950](#), and was given its name during this time based on its location on the western bank of the [Jordan River](#). The territory remained under Jordanian rule until 1967, when it was captured and occupied by Israel during the [Six-Day War](#).

The [Oslo Accords](#), signed between the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) and Israel, created administrative districts with varying levels of [Palestinian autonomy](#) in specific areas: [Area A](#), which is administered exclusively by the PNA; [Area B](#), which is administered by both the PNA and Israel; and [Area C](#), which

is administered exclusively by Israel. Area C accounts for over 60% of the West Bank's territory.^[3]

The West Bank, including East Jerusalem, has a land area of 5,640 km² plus a water area of 220 km², consisting of the northwestern quarter of the Dead Sea. It has an estimated population of

2,747,943 [Palestinians](#), and over 670,000 [Israeli settlers](#) live in the West Bank, of which approximately 220,000 live in [East Jerusalem](#).^{[4][5]} The international community considers Israeli settlements in the West Bank and East Jerusalem to be illegal under [international law](#), though Israel disputes this.^{[6][7][8][9]} A 2004 advisory ruling by the [International Court of Justice](#) concluded that events that came after the 1967 capture of the West Bank by Israel – including the [Jerusalem Law](#), the [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#), and the Oslo Accords – did not change the status of the West Bank and East Jerusalem as [Israeli-occupied territory](#).^[10] Alongside the self-governing [Gaza Strip](#), the Israeli-occupied West Bank and East Jerusalem are claimed by the [State of Palestine](#) as its sovereign territory, and thus remain a flashpoint of the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).

ETYMOLOGY

West Bank

The name *West Bank* is a translation of the [Arabic](#) term *aḍ-Ḍiffah al-Ġarbiyyah*, which designates the territory situated on the western side of the [Jordan River](#) that was [occupied in 1948](#) and subsequently [annexed in 1950](#) by the [Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan](#). This annexation was widely considered to be illegal, and was recognized only by [Iraq](#), [Pakistan](#), and the [United Kingdom](#).^[11]

Cisjordan

The neo-[Latin](#) name *Cisjordan* or *Cis-Jordan* (lit. 'on this side of the River Jordan') is the usual name for the territory in the [Romance languages](#) and in [Hungarian](#). The name *West Bank*, however, has become the standard usage for this geopolitical entity in [English](#) and some of the other [Germanic languages](#) since its inception following the 1948 Jordanian capture.

The analogous [Transjordan](#) (lit. 'on the other side of the River Jordan') has historically been used to designate the region now roughly comprising the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, which lies to the east of the Jordan River.

HISTORY

See also: [History of the ancient Levant](#), [History of Palestine](#), [Samaria § History](#), and [Judea § History](#)

From 1517 through 1917, the area now known as the West Bank was under [Turkish rule](#) as part of [Ottoman Syria](#).

At the 1920 [San Remo conference](#), the victorious [Allies of World War I](#) allocated the area to the [British Mandate of Palestine](#) (1920–1948). The San Remo Resolution, adopted on 25 April 1920, incorporated the [Balfour Declaration](#) of 1917. It and Article 22 of the Covenant of the [League of Nations](#) were the basic documents upon which the British Mandate of Palestine was constructed. The [United Kingdom](#) proclaimed [Abdullah I](#) as [emir](#) of the [Emirate of Transjordan](#) on 11 April 1921; he declared it an independent [Hashemite](#) kingdom on 25 May 1946

Under the [United Nations](#) in 1947, it was subsequently designated as part of a proposed [Arab state](#) by the [Partition Plan for Palestine](#). Resolution 181 recommended the splitting of the British Mandate into a [Jewish state](#), an Arab state, and an [internationally administered enclave of Jerusalem](#);^[12] a broader region of the modern-day West Bank was assigned to the Arab state. The resolution designated the territory described as "the

hill country of [Samaria](#) and [Judea](#)^[13] (the area now known as the "West Bank") as part of the proposed Arab state, but following the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), this area was captured by [Transjordan](#).^[14]

<div><p>Part of a series on the</p><p>History of Palestine</p><table><tr><td>Prehistory</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>Ancient history</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>Classical period</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>Islamic rule</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>Modern era</td><td>[show]</td></tr></table><div> Palestine portal</div><div>V • T • E</div></div>	Prehistory	[show]	Ancient history	[show]	Classical period	[show]	Islamic rule	[show]	Modern era	[show]	<div><p>Part of a series on the</p><p>History of Israel</p><table><tr><td>Prehistoric Levant</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>Ancient history</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>Modern history</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>By topic</td><td>[show]</td></tr><tr><td>Related</td><td>[show]</td></tr></table><div> Israel portal</div><div>V • T • E</div></div>	Prehistoric Levant	[show]	Ancient history	[show]	Modern history	[show]	By topic	[show]	Related	[show]
Prehistory	[show]																				
Ancient history	[show]																				
Classical period	[show]																				
Islamic rule	[show]																				
Modern era	[show]																				
Prehistoric Levant	[show]																				
Ancient history	[show]																				
Modern history	[show]																				
By topic	[show]																				
Related	[show]																				

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H2 JORDANIAN ANNEXATION OF THE WEST BANK

WIKIPEDIA

Contemporary map, 1955	
Status	Area annexed by the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan
Capital	Amman
Common languages	Arabic
Religion	Sunni Islam (majority) Christian (minority)
History	
• First Arab-Israeli War	14 May 1948
• Annexation	24 April 1950
• Six-Day War	5–10 June 1967
• Surrender of Jordanian claims	31 July 1988
Currency	Jordanian dinar
Preceded by	Succeeded by
 Mandatory Palestine	Israeli occupation of the West Bank 
Today part of	Israeli occupation of the West Bank , claimed by Palestine , widely recognized as Palestinian territory . ^[a]

The Jordanian annexation of the West Bank formally occurred on 24 April 1950, after the 1948 Arab–Israeli War, during which Transjordan occupied territory previously part of Mandatory Palestine^{[1][2][3]} and, excluding Jerusalem, earmarked by the UN General Assembly Resolution 181 of 29 November 1947 for an independent Arab state to be established there alongside a Jewish state mainly to its west. The annexation tripled the population of Transjordan, from 400,000 to 1,300,000.^[4]

During the war, Jordan's [Arab Legion](#) took control of territory on the western side of the [Jordan River](#), including the cities of [Jericho](#), [Bethlehem](#), [Hebron](#), [Nablus](#) and [eastern Jerusalem](#), including the [Old City](#).^[5] Following the end of hostilities, the area that remained under Jordanian control became known as the West Bank.^[6]

During the December 1948 [Jericho Conference](#), hundreds of Palestinian notables in the West Bank gathered, accepted Jordanian rule and recognized [Abdullah](#) as ruler. The West Bank was formally annexed on 24 April 1950, but the annexation was widely considered as illegal and void by most of the international

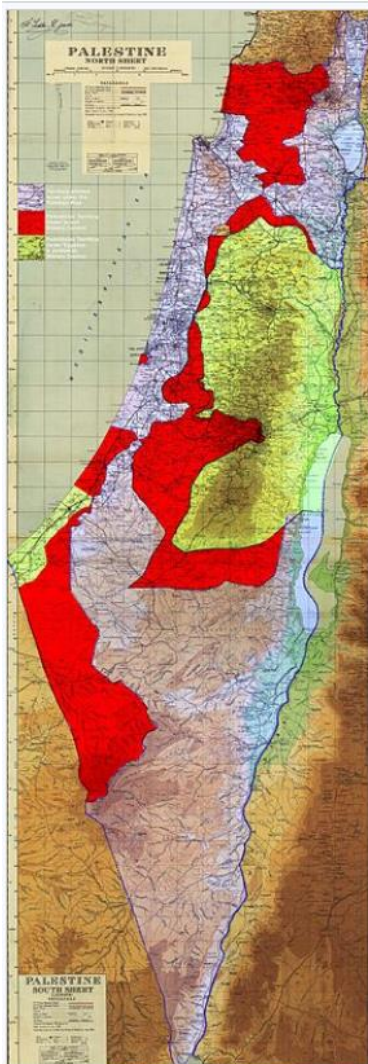
community.^[7] A month afterwards, the [Arab League](#), having received assurances from Jordan, resolved to treat the annexed area as being held in trust until the Palestine question was resolved. Recognition of Jordan's declaration of annexation was granted by the [United Kingdom](#), the [United States](#), [Iraq](#), and possibly [Pakistan](#),^{[7][8][9][10][11]} and no objections were raised when Jordan [was admitted to the United Nations](#) in 1955.^[12]

When Jordan transferred its full citizenship rights to the residents of the West Bank, the annexation more than doubled the population of Jordan.^[5] The naturalized Palestinians enjoyed equal opportunities in all sectors of the state without discrimination, and they were given half of the seats of the [Jordanian parliament](#).^[13]

After Jordan lost the West Bank to Israel in the 1967 [Six-Day War](#), the Palestinians there remained Jordanian citizens until [Jordan renounced claims to and severed administrative ties with the territory in 1988](#).

BACKGROUND

Partition and 1947/8 Diplomacy



Armistice Demarcation Lines, 1949–1967

- Israel, 15 May 1948
- Allotted for Arab state, occupied by Egypt Feb 1949/Jordan Apr 1949
- Allotted for Arab state, occupied by Israel Feb/Apr 1949

Prior to hostilities in 1948, [Palestine](#) (modern-day [West Bank](#), [Gaza Strip](#) and [Israel](#)) had been administered by the British Empire pursuant to the [Mandate for Palestine](#), having captured it from the [Ottomans](#) in 1917. The [British](#), as custodians of the land, implemented the land tenure laws in Palestine, which it had inherited from the Ottoman (as defined in the [Ottoman Land Code of 1858](#)), applying these laws to both Arab and Jewish tenants, legal or otherwise.^[14] Toward the expiration of the British Mandate, Arabs aspired for independence and self-determination, as did the Jews of the country.^[15]

On 29 November 1947 the UN General Assembly passed [Resolution 181](#) which envisaged the division of Palestine into three parts: an Arab State, a Jewish State and the City of Jerusalem. The proposed Arab State would include the central and part of western Galilee, with the town of Acre, the hill country of Samaria and Judea, an enclave at Jaffa, and the southern coast stretching from north of Isdud (now Ashdod) and encompassing what is now the Gaza Strip, with a section of desert along the Egyptian border. The proposed Jewish State would include the fertile Eastern Galilee, the Coastal Plain, stretching from Haifa to Rehovot and most of the Negev desert. The [Jerusalem Corpus Separatum](#) was to include Bethlehem and the surrounding areas. The proposed Jewish State covered 56.47% of Mandatory Palestine (excluding Jerusalem) with a population of 498,000 Jews and 325,000 Arabs while the proposed Arab State covered 43.53% of Mandatory Palestine (excluding Jerusalem), with 807,000 Arab inhabitants and 10,000 Jewish inhabitants and in Jerusalem, an international trusteeship regime where the population was 100,000 Jews and 105,000 Arabs.^[16]

In March 1948, the British Cabinet had agreed that the civil and military authorities in Palestine should make no effort to oppose the setting up of a Jewish State or a move into Palestine from Transjordan.^[17] The United

States, together with the United Kingdom favoured the annexation by Transjordan. The UK preferred to permit King Abdullah to annex the territory at the earliest date, while the United States preferred to wait until after the conclusion of the [Palestine Conciliation Commission](#) brokered negotiations.^[18]

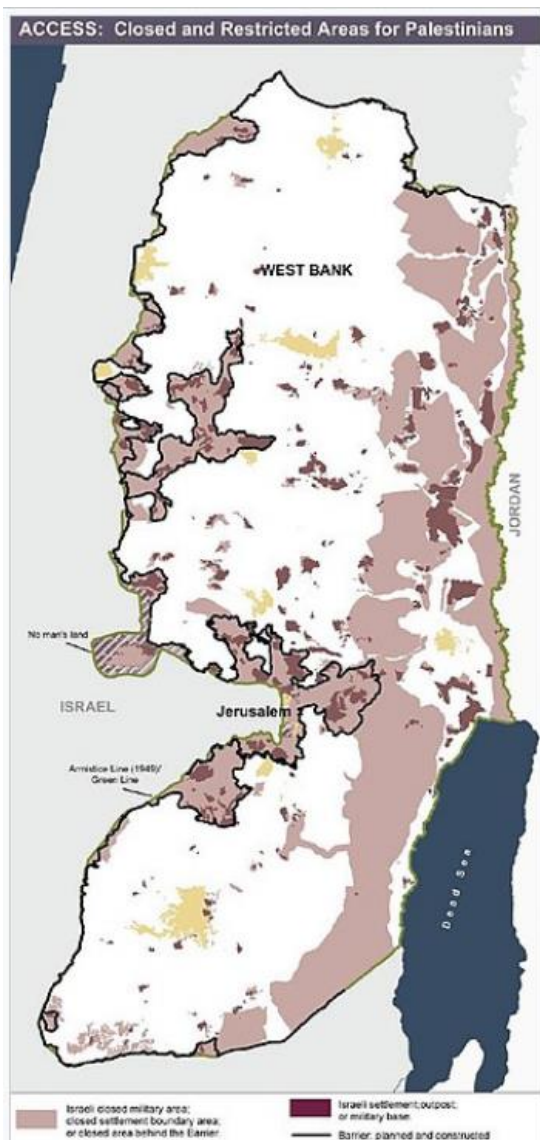
Entry of Transjordan Forces into Mandate Palestine

Following the [End of the British Mandate for Palestine](#) and [Israel](#)'s declaration of independence on 14 May 1948, the [Arab Legion](#), under the leadership of Sir John Bagot Glubb, known as [Glubb Pasha](#), was ordered to enter [Mandatory Palestine](#) and secure the UN designated Arab area.^[19]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H3 ISRAELI OCCUPATION OF THE WEST BANK

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The **Israeli occupation of the West Bank** began on 7 June 1967, when Israeli forces [captured and occupied](#) the territory (including [East Jerusalem](#)), then [ruled by Jordan](#), during the [Six-Day War](#), and continues to the present day.^[a] The status of the [West Bank](#) as a militarily occupied territory has been affirmed by the [International Court of Justice](#) and, [with the exception of East Jerusalem](#), by the [Israeli Supreme Court](#).^[a] The official view of the [Israeli government](#) is that the laws of belligerent occupation do not apply to the territories, which it claims are "disputed", and it administers the West Bank, excepting East Jerusalem, under the [Israeli Civil Administration](#), a branch of the [Israeli Ministry of Defense](#).^{[2][3][b]} Considered to be a classic example of an "intractable" conflict,^{[6][c]} the length of Israel's occupation was already regarded as exceptional after two decades, and is now the [longest in modern history](#).^{[7][d][8][9]} Israel has cited several reasons for retaining the West Bank within its ambit: a claim based on the notion of historic rights to this as a homeland as claimed in the [Balfour Declaration](#) of 1917; security grounds, both internal and external; and the deep symbolic value for [Jews](#) of the area occupied.^[10]

Israel has controversially, and in [contravention of international law](#), established numerous [Jewish settlements](#) throughout the West Bank.^[11] The [United Nations Security Council](#) has consistently reaffirmed that settlements in that territory are a "flagrant violation of international law", most recently in 2016 with [United Nations Security Council Resolution 2334](#).^[12] The creation and ongoing expansion of the settlements have led to Israel's policies being criticized as [an example of settler colonialism](#).^{[13][14][15][16][17][e]}

Israel has been accused of major violations of [international human rights law](#), including collective punishment, in its administration of

the occupied [Palestinian territories](#).^[a] Israeli settlers and civilians living or traveling through the West Bank [are](#)

[subject to Israeli law](#), and are represented in the [Knesset](#); in contrast, Palestinian civilians, mostly confined to [scattered enclaves](#), are subject to martial law and are not permitted to vote in Israel's national elections.^[a] This two-tiered system has caused [to be accused of committing apartheid](#), a charge that Israel rejects entirely.^{[23][h][24][25][26]} Israel's vast military superiority, with a modern army and air force, compared to the Palestinian use of guerilla and terrorist tactics, has led to accusations of war crimes on both sides, with Israel being accused of disproportionality and the Palestinians accused of indiscriminate attacks.

The occupation also has numerous critics within Israel itself, with some Israeli conscripts [refusing to serve](#) due to their objections to the occupation.^[27] The legal status of the occupation itself, and not just the actions taken as a part of it, have been increasingly scrutinized by the international community and by scholars in the field of international law, with most finding that regardless of if the occupation had been legal when it began, it has become illegal over time.

MEDIA COVERAGE AND BIAS

Main article: [Media coverage of the Arab–Israeli conflict](#)

Bias in coverage of the conflict has been debated from multiple sides, with [Peter Beinart](#) criticizing an "[Orwellian](#)" usage of euphemisms,^[28] and others have decried the use of "sanitized terminology".^[29] Each party has its preferred set of descriptive words. International usage speaks of the West Bank, whereas Israeli usage prefers "[Judea](#) and [Samaria](#)", evoking the Biblical names for much of the territory, and governs it, excepting East Jerusalem, under the Israeli district name of [Judea and Samaria Area](#); [Israeli settlements](#) are called "colonies" or "neighbourhoods" depending on the viewpoint. Violence by Palestinians is regularly labeled terrorism by Israel, whereas Israeli military actions are reported as "retaliation" for Palestinian attacks, and the context for those attacks is often disregarded, lending credence to the idea Israel never initiates violence.^[i]

In university settings, organizations like [Campus Watch](#) closely report and denounce what they consider "anti-Israeli" attitudes. Academics like [Sara Roy](#) have argued on the other hand that "the climate of intimidation and censorship surrounding the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, both inside (at all levels of the education hierarchy) and outside the U.S. academy, is real and longstanding".^[30] Attempts have been made to silence several high-profile critics of Israeli policies in the territories, among them [Tony Judt](#), [Norman Finkelstein](#), [Joseph Massad](#), [Nadia Abu El-Haj](#) and [William I. Robinson](#),^[31] prompting concerns that the political pressures circumscribing research and discussion undermine [academic freedom](#).^{[32][33]}

Both Israeli and Palestinian local press coverage, reflecting the views of the political and military establishment, has traditionally been conservative. Tamar Liebes has argued that Israeli "journalists and publishers see themselves as actors within the Zionist movement, not as critical outsiders".^[34] The growth of the Internet has introduced controversy regarding images of dead or wounded Palestinians, with some proven to be fake and many more alleged to be fraudulent manipulations, with pro-Israeli views that "Arabs are liars by nature" being accepted as a given to dismiss imagery of Palestinian casualties.^[35]

THE WEST BANK IN 1967

Further information: [Jordanian annexation of the West Bank](#)



Relief map of the West Bank

Israel's economy was 10 times larger than the West Bank's on the eve of the occupation but had experienced two years of recession. The West Bank's population stood between 585,500 and 803,600 and, while under [Jordanian rule](#), accounted for 40% of Jordan's GNP,^[36] with an annual growth rate of 6-8%.^[37] Ownership of land was generally collective, and the 19th century [Ottoman land code](#) prevailed, which classified land as either – [waqf](#), [mülk](#), *miri*, *matruke*, and *mawat* – the last three being formally state land, though Jordan never considered these last three as state property, and only a very small proportion

of the West Bank was registered as such under Jordanian rule.^[38]

Education was (and remains^[3]) a high priority,^[39] The enrolment rate averaged an annual increase of 7% over the prior decade, and by 1966, Palestinian youth had the highest enrolment rate of all Arab countries.^[40] Palestinians in the West Bank had a favourable educational basis compared to [Israeli Arabs](#) and Jordanian youth, due to the preexisting provisions of the Jordanian school system which provided 12 years of free and compulsory education, with some 44.6% of West Bank teenagers in the 15–17 age group participating in some form of secondary schooling.^[40]

V • T • E	Israeli-occupied territories [hide]
Ongoing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Occupation of the West Bank <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enclaves within the West Bank Displacement in East Jerusalem Gaza Strip occupation and blockade Golan Heights occupation
Historical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Southern Lebanon occupation Sinai Peninsula occupation
Proposed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Jordan Valley annexation West Bank annexation

Conquest

Main article: [Six-Day War](#)

In 1956, the Israeli leader [David Ben-Gurion](#) stated that: "Jordan has no right to exist. The territory to the West of the Jordan should be made an autonomous region of Israel".^[41] There had been a very strong opposition to any "Balkanization" or division of Palestine, especially among American Zionists, in the mid-late thirties, since it would have made a prospective homeland, thus truncated, suicidally small.^[42] It was in this

context that [Ben-Gurion](#) argued forcefully for accepting [partition agreements](#) as temporary measures, steps on the way to an incremental incorporation of all of Palestine into a Jewish state.^[41] According to Israeli historian Adam Raz, as early as 1961, the IDF had drawn up meticulous plans for the conquest and retention of not only the West Bank, but also the [Sinai Peninsula](#) and [Gaza Strip](#) from Egypt, and the [Golan Heights](#) from Syria. In August 1963, within the framework of "expected directions of expansion," southern Lebanon up to the [Litani River](#) was also included. Though international pressure might foreseeably force Israel to evacuate these conquered lands, contingency plans envisaged also political circumstances whose development would enable Israel to maintain control of these occupied territory indefinitely. The model for controlling Palestinians in the West Bank, were this to eventuate, was to be modeled on the Israeli governance of their Palestinian communities under a strict regime of permits.^[43]

Before the [Six-Day War](#), there had been an unwritten agreement between Israel and the Jordanian government to uphold the neutrality of the border between the two countries along the [Green Line](#). According to [King Hussein](#), after Israel retaliated against Syrian-backed guerrilla infiltrations and sabotage^[44] by conducting on 13 November 1966 [an assault on Samu](#) in the [West Bank](#), an area administered by [Jordan](#), that tacit accord was broken.^[45] After Israel attacked Egypt at 8 a.m. on 5 June 1967, Jordan responded by shelling Israeli targets in [West Jerusalem](#), and settlements along the border and then, after ignoring an Israeli warning, by attacking Israeli airfields in [Ramat David](#) and [Kfar Syrkin](#), but also [Netanya](#).^[45] In response, the Israeli army in a swift campaign took possession of East Jerusalem and, after news that King Hussein had ordered his forces to withdraw across the Jordan, took the entire West Bank by noon on 8 June.^{[46][m]}

Israel [expelled many people](#) from areas it had conquered, beginning with an estimated 12,000 people who on the very first day were rounded up in the villages of [Imwas](#), [Yalo](#) and [Bayt Nuba](#) in the [Latrun Salient](#) and ordered by the Israeli military into exile eastwards. All three villages were then blown up, and within two years the area was planned as a recreational area now called [Canada Park](#).^[47] Tens of thousands of Palestinians fled to Jordan from the refugee camps of [Aqabat Jaber](#) and [Ein as-Sultan](#) after Israel bombed the camps.^[48] The overall numbers of Palestinians displaced by that war is generally estimated to have been around 280,000-325,000, of which it has been calculated that some 120–170,000 were two-time refugees, [having been displaced earlier](#) during the [1948 war](#).^[49] The number who left the West Bank as a consequence of the war ranges from 100,000 to 400,000,^[50] of which from 50,000 to 200,000 lived in the Jordan Valley.^[51]

H4 ISRAEL WEST BANK BARRIER

WIKIPEDIA



The **Israeli West Bank barrier**, comprising the **West Bank Wall** and the **West Bank fence**,^{[1][2]} is a [separation barrier](#) built by [Israel](#) along the [Green Line](#) and inside parts of the [West Bank](#). It is a contentious element of the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#): Israel describes the wall as a necessary security barrier against [Palestinian political violence](#), whereas [Palestinians](#) describe it as an element of [racial segregation](#) and a representation of [Israeli apartheid](#).^{[3][4][5]} At a total length of 708 kilometres (440 mi) upon completion, the route traced by the barrier is more than double the length of the Green Line, with 15% of its length running along the Green Line or inside Israel, and the remaining 85% running as much as 18 kilometres (11 mi) inside the West Bank, effectively isolating about 9% of the land and approximately 25,000 Palestinians from the rest of the [Palestinian territory](#).^[6]

The barrier was built by Israel following a wave of Palestinian political violence and incidents of terrorism inside Israel during the [Second Intifada](#), which began in September 2000 and ended in February 2005.^[7] The [Israeli government](#) cites a decreased number of [suicide bombings carried out from the West Bank](#) as evidence of its efficacy, after such attacks fell from 73 between 2000 and July 2003 (the completion of the first continuous segment) to 12 between August 2003 and the end of 2006.^{[8][9]} While the barrier was initially presented as a temporary security measure at a time of heightened tensions, it has since been associated with a future political border between Israel and the [State of Palestine](#).^[10]

The barrier has drawn criticism from Palestinians, human rights groups, and members of the international community, who have all argued that it serves as evidence of [Israel's intent to annex Palestinian land](#) under the guise of

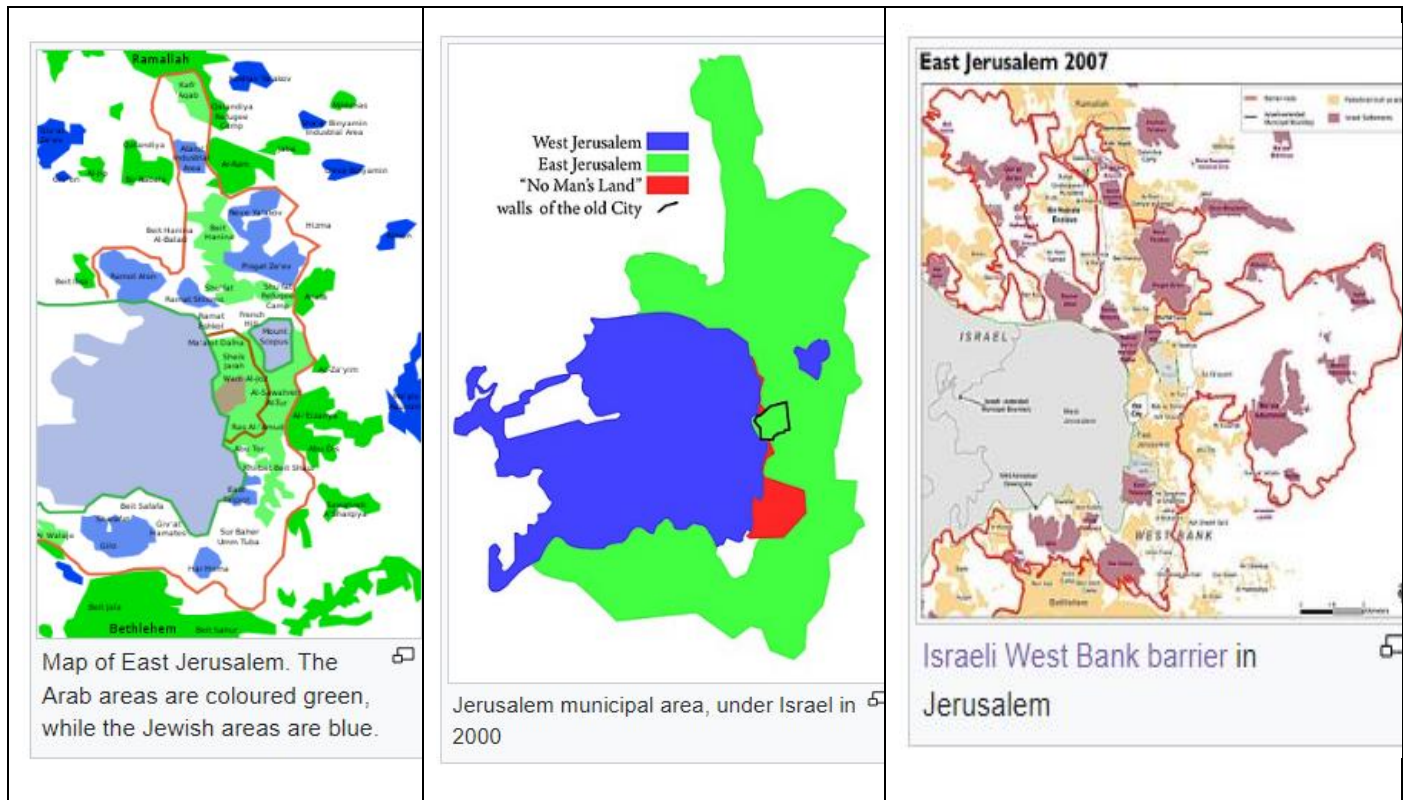
security.^[11] It has also been alleged that the construction of the wall aims to undermine the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#) by unilaterally establishing new [de facto](#) borders.^[12] Key points of dispute are that it substantially deviates eastward from the Green Line, severely restricts the travel of many Palestinians, and impairs their ability to commute to work within the West Bank^[13] or to Israel.^[14] The [International Court of Justice](#) issued [an advisory opinion](#) finding that the barrier qualifies as a [violation of international law](#).^{[15][16]} In 2003, the [United Nations General Assembly](#) adopted a resolution that charged Israel's building of the barrier to be a violation of international law and demanded its removal by a vote of 144–4 with 12 abstentions.^[17]

The walled sections of the barrier have become a [canvas for graffiti art](#), with its Palestinian side illustrating opposition to the barrier, Palestinian resistance, their right to return, as well as [human rights](#) in general.^[1]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H5 EAST JERUSALEM

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



East Jerusalem (*Arabic*: القدس الشرقية, *al-Quds ash-Sharqiya*; *Hebrew*: מזרח ירושלים, *Mizrah Yerushalayim*) is the sector of [Jerusalem](#) that [was held by Jordan](#) during the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), as opposed to the western sector of the city, [West Jerusalem](#), which was held by [Israel](#).^[a] Under [international law](#), East Jerusalem is considered a part of the [West Bank](#) and, therefore, of the [Palestinian territories](#).^{[2][3]} A number of states currently recognize East Jerusalem as the capital of the [State of Palestine](#) (such as Argentina, Brazil,^[4] China,^[5] Russia,^[6] and all 57 members of the [Organisation of Islamic Cooperation](#)),^[7] whereas other states (such as Australia, Finland, France, and others) assert that East Jerusalem "will be the capital of Palestine",^{[8][9]} while referring to East Jerusalem at present as "an [occupied territory](#)".^[10]

In 2022, East Jerusalem had a population of 595,000 inhabitants, of which 361,700 (61%) are [Palestinian Arabs](#) and 234,000 (39%) are Israeli Jewish [settlers](#).^{[11][12]} The [international community](#) regards [Israeli settlements](#) in East Jerusalem illegal under [international law](#).^{[13][14]}

Jerusalem was envisaged as a [separate, international city](#) under the [1947 United Nations partition plan](#). It was, however, divided by the 1948 war that followed [Israel's declaration of independence](#). As a result of the [1949 Armistice Agreements](#), the city's western half came under Israeli control, while its eastern half, containing the famed [Old City](#), fell under Jordanian control.^{[15][b]}

Israel occupied East Jerusalem during the [1967 Six-Day War](#); since then, the entire city has been under Israeli control. The 1980 [Jerusalem Law](#) declared unified Jerusalem the capital of Israel,^[17] formalizing the [effective annexation of East Jerusalem](#). [Palestinians](#) and many in the [international community](#) consider East Jerusalem to be the future capital of the [State of Palestine](#). This includes 138 (out of 193) [member countries of the United Nations](#),^[citation needed] among them [Argentina](#),^[18] [Brazil](#),^[19] [China](#),^[20] [India](#),^[21] [Russia](#),^[22] [Sweden](#),^[23] and the 57 members countries of [Organisation of Islamic Cooperation](#).^[24] The [status of Jerusalem](#) has been described as "one of the most intractable issues in the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#)", with conflicting claims to [sovereignty](#) over the city or parts of it, and access to its holy sites.^[25]

Israeli and Palestinian definitions of East Jerusalem differ.^[6] Following the 1967 Six-Day War, Jerusalem's municipal boundaries were extended totaling an area three times the size of pre-war West Jerusalem. This includes several nearby West Bank villages to the north, east and south of the Old City that are now considered neighborhoods of the city, as well as [eight suburban neighborhoods](#) that were built since then. The international community considers these neighborhoods [illegal settlements](#), but the Israeli government disputes this. The Israeli position is based on the extended municipal boundaries, while the Palestinian position is based on the 1949 Armistice Agreements.

East Jerusalem includes the Old City, which is home to many sites of seminal [religious importance](#) for the three major [Abrahamic religions](#)—[Judaism](#), [Christianity](#), and [Islam](#), including the [Temple Mount](#) / [Al-Aqsa Mosque](#), the [Western Wall](#), the [Dome of the Rock](#) and the [Church of the Holy Sepulchre](#). In 2016, the population of East Jerusalem was 542,400, comprising 61% of Jerusalem's population. Of these, 327,700 (60.4%) were Arabs and 214,600 (39.6%) were Jews.^[27]

Arab residents of East Jerusalem are increasingly becoming integrated into Israeli society, in terms of education, citizenship, national service and in other aspects.^{[28][needs update][29][better source needed]} According to Middle East expert David Pollock, in the hypothesis that a final agreement was reached between Israel and the Palestinians with the establishment of a [two-state solution](#), 48% of East Jerusalem Arabs would prefer being citizens of Israel, while 42% of them would prefer the [State of Palestine](#). 9% would prefer [Jordanian](#) citizenship.^[30]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H6 OSLO ACCORDS

WIKIPEDIA

The **Oslo Accords** are a pair of agreements between [Israel](#) and the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) (PLO): the [Oslo I Accord](#), signed in [Washington, D.C.](#), in 1993;^[1] and the [Oslo II Accord](#), signed in [Taba, Egypt](#), in 1995.^[2] They marked the start of the **Oslo process**, a [peace process](#) aimed at achieving a peace treaty based on [Resolution 242](#) and [Resolution 338](#) of the [United Nations Security Council](#), and at fulfilling the "right of the [Palestinian people](#) to self-determination". The Oslo process began after secret negotiations in [Oslo, Norway](#), resulting in both the [recognition of Israel](#) by the PLO and the recognition by Israel of the PLO as the representative of the Palestinian people and as a partner in bilateral negotiations.

Among the notable outcomes of the Oslo Accords was the creation of the [Palestinian National Authority](#), which was tasked with the responsibility of conducting limited Palestinian self-governance over parts of the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#); and the international acknowledgement of the PLO as Israel's partner in permanent-status negotiations about any remaining issues revolving around the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#). Bilateral dialogue stems from questions related to the international border between Israel and a future [Palestinian state](#): negotiations for this subject are centred around [Israeli settlements](#), the [status of Jerusalem](#), Israel's maintenance of control over security following the establishment of Palestinian autonomy, and the [Palestinian right of return](#). The Oslo Accords did not create a definite Palestinian state.^[3]

A large portion of the Palestinian population, including various [Palestinian militant groups](#), staunchly opposed the Oslo Accords; [Palestinian-American](#) philosopher [Edward Said](#) described them as a "Palestinian [Versailles](#)".^[4]

THE OSLO PROCESS

The Oslo process is the "peace process" that started in 1993 with secret talks between Israel and the PLO. It became a cycle of negotiations, suspension, mediation, restart of negotiations and suspension again. A number of agreements were reached, until the Oslo process ended after the failure of the [Camp David Summit](#) in 2000 and the outbreak of the [Second Intifada](#).^{[5][6]}

During the *Second Intifada*, the [Roadmap for Peace](#) was introduced, which explicitly aimed at a two-state solution and the establishment of an independent Palestinian state. The Roadmap, however, soon entered a cycle similar to the Oslo process, but without producing any agreement.

BACKGROUND

The Oslo Accords are based on the 1978 [Camp David Accords](#) and show therefore considerable similarity with those Accords.^[A] The Camp David's "Framework for Peace in the Middle East" envisioned autonomy for the local, and *only* for the local, (Palestinian) inhabitants of West Bank and Gaza. At the time, there lived

some 7,400 settlers in the West Bank (excluding East Jerusalem),^[7] and 500 in Gaza,^[8] with the number in the West Bank, however, rapidly growing. As Israel regarded the PLO a terrorist organisation, it refused to talk with the sole representative of the Palestinian people. Instead, Israel preferred to negotiate with Egypt and Jordan, and "elected representatives of the inhabitants of the West Bank and Gaza".^[A]

While the final goal in Camp David was a "peace treaty between Israel and Jordan, taking into account the agreement reached in the final status of the West Bank and Gaza", the Oslo negotiations were directly between Israel and the PLO and aimed at a peace treaty directly between these groups. The Oslo Accords, like the 1978 Camp David Accords, merely aimed at an interim agreement that allowed first steps. This was intended to be followed by negotiation of a complete settlement within five years.^[A] When, however, an [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) was concluded on 26 October 1994, it was without the Palestinians.

NEGOTIATION PARTNERS

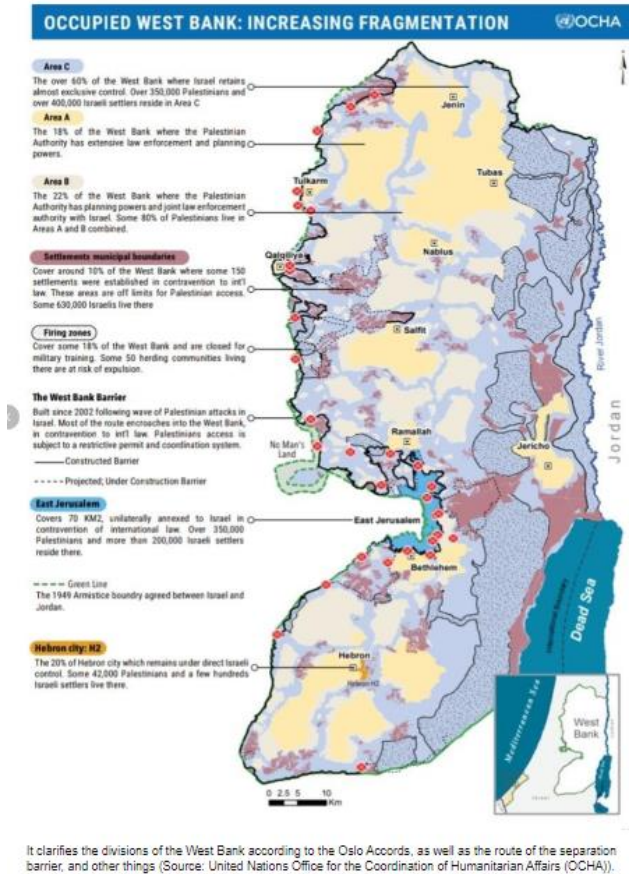
Mutual Recognition of Sides

Only after Israel's acceptance of the PLO as negotiation partner could serious negotiations start. In their [Letters of Mutual Recognition](#) of 9 September 1993, days before the signing of the [Oslo I Accord](#), each party agreed to accept the other as a negotiation partner.^[9] The PLO recognized the State of Israel. Israel recognized the PLO as "the representative of the Palestinian people"; no more, no less.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H7 OSLO II ACCORD

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The **Interim Agreement on the West Bank and the Gaza Strip** commonly known as **Oslo II** or **Oslo 2**, was a key and complex agreement in the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#). Because Oslo II was signed in [Taba](#), it is sometimes called the **Taba Agreement**. The [Oslo Accords](#) envisioned the establishment of a Palestinian interim self-government in the Palestinian territories. Oslo II created the [Areas A, B and C](#) in the West Bank. The [Palestinian Authority](#) was given some limited powers and responsibilities in the Areas A and B and a prospect of negotiations on a final settlement based on Security Council Resolutions 242 and 338. The Accord was officially signed on 28 September 1995.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The Oslo II Accord was first signed in [Taba](#) (in the [Sinai Peninsula](#), [Egypt](#)) by [Israel](#) and the [PLO](#) on 24

September 1995 and then four days later on 28 September 1995 by Israeli Prime Minister [Yitzhak Rabin](#) and PLO Chairman [Yasser Arafat](#) and witnessed by [US President Bill Clinton](#) as well as by representatives of [Russia](#), [Egypt](#), [Jordan](#), [Norway](#), and the [European Union](#) in [Washington, D.C.](#)

The agreement is built on the foundations of the initial [Oslo I Accord](#), formally called the *Declaration of Principles on Interim Self-Government Arrangements*, which had been formally signed on 13 September 1993 by Israel and the PLO, with Prime Minister Rabin and Chairman Arafat in Washington, D.C. shaking hands, and officially witnessed by the United States and Russia.

It supersedes three earlier agreements:

- the [Gaza–Jericho Agreement](#) or Cairo Agreement of 4 May 1994
- the [Agreement on Preparatory Transfer of Powers and Responsibilities Between Israel and the PLO](#) of 29 August 1994
- the [Protocol on Further Transfer of Powers and Responsibilities](#) of 27 August 1995

The Oslo II Accord is called an *interim* agreement because it was supposed to be the basis for subsequent negotiations and the preliminary of an eventual comprehensive peace agreement. Several [additional agreements](#) were concluded following Oslo II, but negotiations did not produce a final peace agreement.

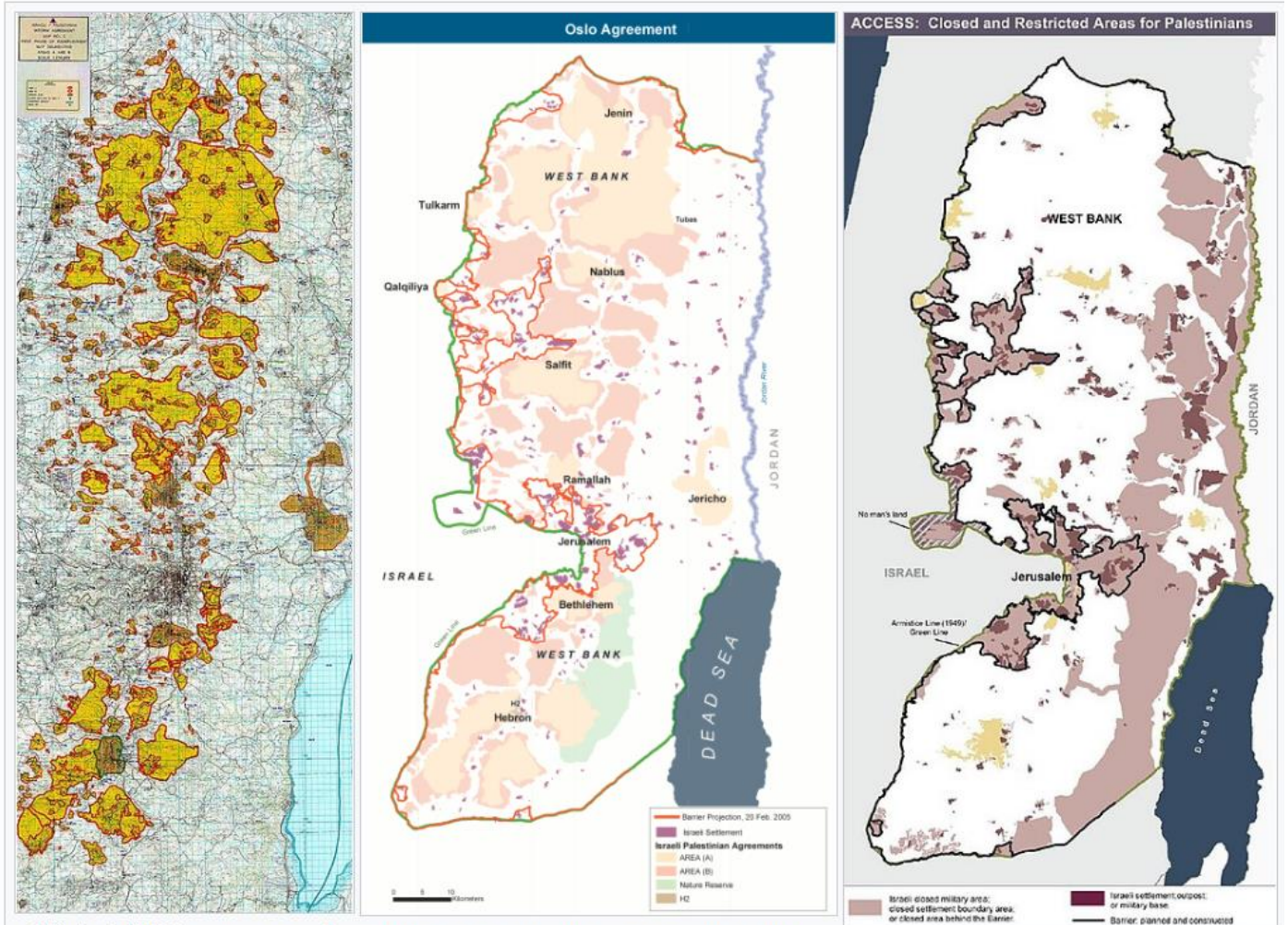
The 2002 [Road map for peace](#) abandoned the Oslo Accords and envisioned a rather loose scheme of withdrawal.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H8 WEST BANK AREAS IN THE OSLO II ACCORD

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The [Oslo II Accord](#) divided the [Israeli-occupied West Bank](#) into three administrative divisions: the [Palestinian enclaves](#) as "Areas A and B" and the remainder, including [Israeli settlements](#), as "[Area C](#)".



Official 1995 agreement map of Areas A and B (with C being defined as the rest of the West Bank)

2005 map showing areas A and B along with nature reserves and Israeli settlements. The red line is a projected route of the [West Bank Barrier](#)

Map highlighting Area C where the access is closed and restricted to Palestinians. Darker areas are Israeli settlements and military posts within Area C.

The Palestinian enclaves were created by a process of subtraction by allocating to Area C everything that the Israeli government considered "important", thereby consigning the vast majority of West Bank [Palestinians](#) to the remaining non-contiguous areas.^{[1][2]}

Area C forms a contiguous territory on 61% of the [West Bank](#), and is administered solely by [Israel](#) via the [Judea and Samaria Area](#) administration. As of 2015, it is home to 150,000 Palestinians^[3] in 532 residential areas, and roughly 400,000 [Israelis](#)^[4] in 135 [settlements](#) and more than 100 [unrecognized outposts](#).

In contrast, Areas A and B are subdivided into 165 enclaves of land that have no territorial contiguity.^[2] Area A is exclusively administered by the [Palestinian National Authority](#); Area B is administered by both the Palestinian Authority and Israel. Area A comprises approximately 18% of the total territory of the [West Bank](#) and Area B about 22% of the territory, together home to some 2.8 million Palestinians.^[5]

DIVISIONS

The Oslo II Accord stipulated that "during the first phase of redeployment" the jurisdiction over Areas A and B would be transferred to the Palestinian Council. Article XI.2.a reads: "Land in populated areas (Areas A and B), including government and Al Waqf land, will come under the jurisdiction of the Council during the first phase of redeployment."

The populated areas were defined by delineations on a map attached to the document. Area C comprised the areas of the West Bank outside Areas A and B.^[6]

Palestinian Enclaves (Areas A and B)

Main article: [Palestinian enclaves](#)

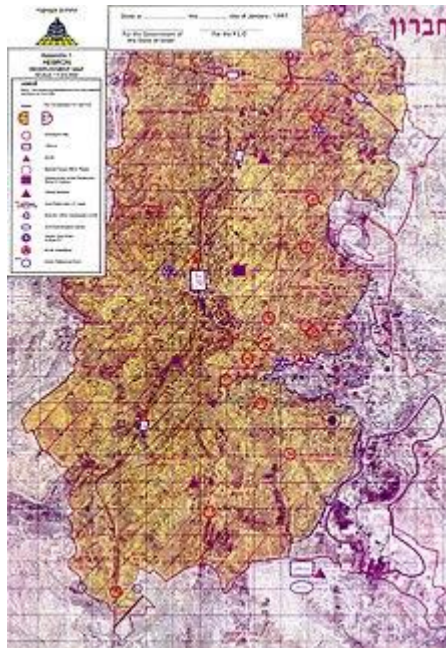
Area A (full civil and security control by the [Palestinian Authority](#)): initially, circa 3% of the West Bank, exclusive [East Jerusalem](#) (first phase, 1995).^[7] As of 2013, Area A formally comprised about 18% of the West Bank.^[2] During the [second intifada](#), the [Israel Defense Forces](#) abolished the prohibition against entering Area A during [Operation Defensive Shield](#) in 2002 and entered the area regularly, mostly at night, conducting raids to arrest suspected militants.^[8] Typically, such raids are coordinated with the Palestinian security forces.^[9] This area includes eight Palestinian cities and their surrounding areas ([Nablus](#), [Jenin](#), [Tulkarem](#), [Qalqilya](#), [Ramallah](#), [Bethlehem](#), [Jericho](#) and 80 percent of [Hebron](#)), with no Israeli settlements.^[10] Entry into this area is forbidden to all Israeli citizens.

Area B (Palestinian civil control and joint Israeli-Palestinian security control): initially, circa 23–25% (first phase, 1995).^[7] As of 2013, Area B formally comprised about 22% of the West Bank.^[2] This area includes some 440 Palestinian villages and their surrounding lands, and no Israeli settlements.^[10] It was defined in the accord as "the populated areas delineated by a red line and shaded in yellow on attached map No. 1, and the built-up area of the hamlets listed in Appendix 6 to Annex I"; this list of hamlets is as follows:

Go to [WIKIPEDIA](#) to see Table

Remainder of the West Bank (Area C), Including Israeli settlements

Main articles: [Area C \(West Bank\)](#) and [Israeli settlement](#)



Official 1997
agreement map of
Palestinian controlled
H1 and Israeli
controlled H2.

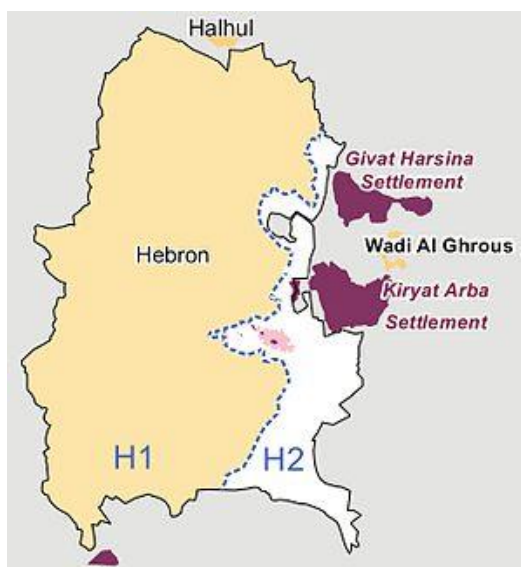
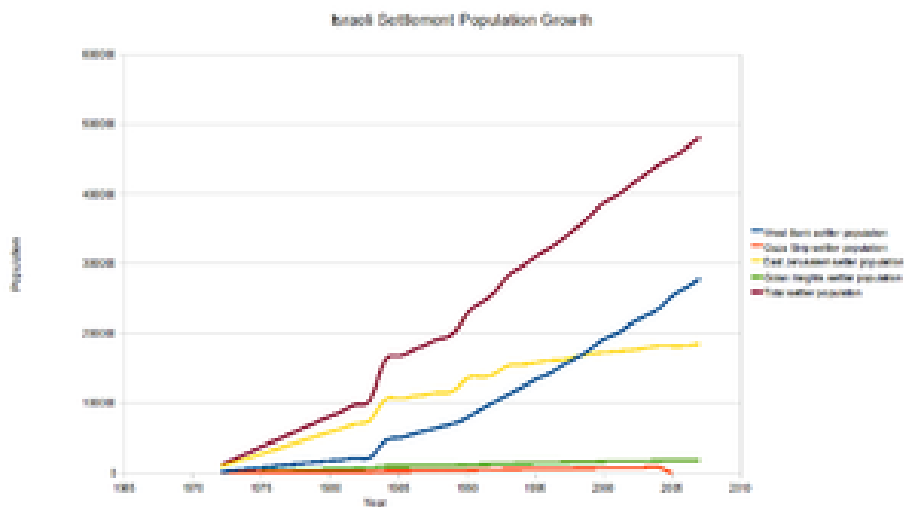


Illustration showing
areas H1 and H2 and
adjacent Israeli
settlements

Area C (full Israeli civil and security control): initially, circa 72–74% (first phase, 1995).^{[7][11]} Under the 1998 [Wye River Memorandum](#), Israel would further withdraw from some additional 13% from Area C to Area B, which officially reduced Area C to circa 61% of the West Bank.^{[12][13]} Israel, however, withdrew from only 2%,^[10] and during [Operation Defensive Shield](#), it reoccupied all territory. As of 2013, Area C formally comprised about 63% of the West Bank, including settlements, outposts and declared "state land".^[2] Including or excluding annexed East Jerusalem, no-man's land and the Palestinian part of the [Dead Sea](#) also determines the percentage. John Kerry, U.S. Secretary of State under the Obama administration, stated that Area C "is effectively restricted for any Palestinian development, and that few building permits had been granted to Palestinian residents of the area."^[14]

All Israeli settlements (except those in East Jerusalem, which was annexed to Israel) are located in Area C.^{[10][2]} Oslo II, Article XII, for example, states: "For the purpose of this Agreement, 'the Settlements' means, in the West Bank the settlements in Area C; and in the Gaza Strip [which were later evacuated during the [disengagement](#)] ..." ^[6]



Settler population by year
in the
[Israeli-occupied territories](#)
from 1972 to 2007

In 1972, there were 1,000 Israeli settlers living in what is now Area C. By 1993, their population had increased to 110,000.^[15] Over 400,000 Jewish settlers live in Area C in [Israeli settlements](#) and [outposts](#).^[16] Approximately 300,000 Palestinians live there as well; who reside in more than 500 households areas located partially or fully in Area C.^[16]

Oslo Definition of Area C

Oslo II defines Area C as follows:

"Area C" means areas of the West Bank outside Areas A and B, which, except for the issues that will be negotiated in the permanent status negotiations, will be gradually transferred to Palestinian jurisdiction in accordance with this Agreement.

The issues that will be negotiated, according to Article XVII, are *"Jerusalem, settlements, specified military locations, Palestinian refugees, borders, foreign relations and Israelis; and ... powers and responsibilities not transferred to the [Council](#)"*.^[6] Parts of Area C are military area closed for Palestinians.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H9 TABA SUMMIT

Editor's Note: Israel was now over 50 years old.

After the Israel Foundation War, Israel occupied West Jerusalem while Jordan occupied East Jerusalem and the West Bank.

In 1967 Israel fought the 6 Day War against the Jordanians and now also occupied East Jerusalem and the West Bank.

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

West Bank authority had been agreed between Israel and the Palestinians in Oslo II
For detail go to Part F7 'West Bank'

Oslo II Map
Outlining Areas A, B, and C



Map of Areas A, B, and C after Oslo II.



Lawrence of Cyberia: Yasir Arafat's Generous Offer

[Visit](#)

The **Taba Summit** (also known as *Taba Talks*, *Taba Conference* or short *Taba*) were talks between [Israel](#) and the [Palestinian Authority](#), held from 21 to 27 January 2001 at [Taba](#), in the [Sinai](#). The talks took place during a political transition period – Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak had resigned six weeks previously on 9 December 2000, and [elections were due](#) on 6 February 2001, and the [inauguration of President George W. Bush](#) had taken place just one day prior, on 20 January 2001.

They were peace talks aimed at enhancing the "final status" negotiations, to end the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#). According to the statement issued by the negotiators at the end of the talks, they came closer to reaching a final settlement than in any previous peace talks. Prime Minister Ehud Barak's government terminated the talks on 27 January 2001 due to the upcoming Israeli election, and the new Sharon government did not restart them.

Part of a series on
the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#)

Israeli–Palestinian peace process



History [\[show\]](#)

Primary concerns [\[show\]](#)

Secondary concerns [\[show\]](#)

International brokers [\[show\]](#)

Proposals [\[show\]](#)

Projects / groups / NGOs [\[show\]](#)

V · T · E

BACKGROUND

Main article: [2000 Camp David Summit](#)

Further information: [The Clinton Parameters](#)

The Taba Summit took place from 21 to 27 January 2001 at [Taba](#), after the failed [Camp David 2000 Summit](#) between Prime Minister of Israel [Ehud Barak](#) and the Palestinian President [Yasser Arafat](#), and against the backdrop of the [Second Intifada](#) that commenced. The parties had first negotiated at [Bolling Air Force Base](#) in [Washington](#), hosted by President [Bill Clinton](#) from 19 to 23 December 2000. The Israelis under Foreign Minister [Shlomo Ben-Ami](#), the Palestinian under senior negotiator [Saeb Erekat](#), Minister [Yasser Abed Rabbo](#) and Gaza security chief [Mohammed Dahlan](#) attended the meeting.^[a] President Clinton presented bridging proposals (the so-called "[Clinton Parameters](#)"). A summit in [Sharm el-Sheikh](#), mediated by Egyptian President [Hosni Mubarak](#), was planned on 28 December. As the Palestinians delayed their acceptance of the Clinton Parameters, Barak decided not to go

POSITIONS

Israeli start positions

At the start of the Taba Summit, Israel held on three main points:^[a]

- no right of Palestinian refugees to return to inside the State of Israel

- no Palestinian sovereignty over the Temple Mount/Haram al-Sharif
- big settlement blocs (containing 80% of Jewish residents of the West Bank and Gaza) will be under Israeli sovereignty

The Moratinos non-paper

January 2001, the [European](#) Special Representative to the Middle East Process [Miguel Moratinos](#) presented a document, known as "The Moratinos non-paper," describing the outcome of the Taba negotiations.^{[4][5]} Although the paper has no official status, it has been acknowledged by the parties as being a relatively fair description of the outcome of the negotiations on the permanent status issues at Taba. It describes observed positions on the permanent status issues territory, Jerusalem, refugees and security, in order to find ways to come to joint positions. "At the same time it shows that there are serious gaps and differences between the two sides, which will have to be overcome in future negotiations." Summary of the paper:

Territory

The two sides agreed that in accordance with the [UN Security Council Resolution 242](#), the 4 June 1967 lines would be the basis for the borders between Israel and the Palestinian state. Israel reduced its demands to 6% with territorial compensation that would offset about 3%, while the Palestinians proposed an Israeli annexation of about 3% along with a territorial compensation of the same amount. The Israeli proposal would have given the Palestinians some 97% of the land area of the West Bank.^[6]

West Bank

Both sides presented their own [maps](#) of the [West Bank](#). The maps served as a basis for the discussion on territory and settlements. The Israeli side presented two maps, and the Palestinian side engaged on this basis. The Palestinian side presented some illustrative maps detailing its understanding of Israeli interests in the West Bank. The Israeli side stated that the Clinton proposals provide for annexation of [Settlement blocs](#), areas which only had a small number of Palestinians. The Palestinian side did not agree that the parameters included blocs, and did not accept proposals to annex blocs. The Palestinian side stated that blocs would cause significant harm to the Palestinian interests and rights, particularly to the Palestinians residing in areas Israel sought to annex.

Gaza Strip

Neither side presented any maps of the [Gaza Strip](#). It was implied that the Gaza Strip would be under total Palestinian sovereignty, but details still had to be worked out. All settlements would be evacuated. The Palestinian side claimed it could be arranged in 6 months, a timetable not agreed to by the Israeli side. Both sides agreed that there was going to be a safe passage from the north of Gaza ([Beit Hanun](#)) to the [Hebron](#) district, and that the West Bank and the Gaza Strip must be territorially linked.

Jerusalem

Both sides accepted in principle the Clinton suggestion of having a Palestinian sovereignty over [Arab](#) neighborhoods and an Israeli sovereignty over [Jewish](#) neighborhoods in [Jerusalem](#). Both sides favored the idea of an [open city](#). The Israeli side accepted that Jerusalem would be the capital of the two states: *Yerushalaim*, capital of Israel and *Al-Quds*, capital of the state of Palestine. Both parties accepted the

principle of respective control over each side's respective holy sites. Israel's sovereignty over the [Western Wall](#) would be recognized although there remained a dispute regarding the delineation of the area covered by the Western Wall and especially the link to what is referred to in Clinton's ideas as the space sacred to [Judaism](#) of which it is part. Both sides agreed that the question of *Haram al-Sharif*/[Temple Mount](#) has not been resolved.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H10 PALESTINIAN ENCLAVES IN THE WEST BANK

WIKIPEDIA

The **Palestinian enclaves** are areas in the [West Bank](#) designated for [Palestinians](#) under a variety of [U.S. and Israeli-led proposals](#) to end the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).^[1] The enclaves are [often compared](#) to the [nominally self-governing black homelands](#) created in [apartheid-era South Africa](#),^[a] and are thus referred to as **bantustans**.^{[b][c]} They have been referred to figuratively as the **Palestinian archipelago**,^[d] among other terms.

The "islands" first took official form as **Areas A** and **B** under the 1995 [Oslo II Accord](#). This arrangement was explicitly intended to be temporary, with [Area C](#) (the rest of the [West Bank](#)) to "be gradually transferred to Palestinian jurisdiction" by 1997; however, no such transfer was made.^{[4][5][e]} The area of the West Bank currently under partial civil control of the [Palestinian National Authority](#) is composed of 165 "islands".^[f] The creation of this arrangement has been described by Israeli journalist [Amira Hass](#) as "the most outstanding geopolitical occurrence of the past quarter century".^[g]

A number of Israeli-U.S. peace plans, including the [Allon Plan](#), the [Drobes World Zionist Organization](#) plan, [Menachem Begin](#)'s plan, [Benjamin Netanyahu](#)'s "Allon Plus" plan, the [2000 Camp David Summit](#), and Sharon's vision of a Palestinian state have proposed an enclave-type territory – i.e. a group of non-contiguous areas surrounded, divided, and, ultimately, controlled by Israel;^{[h][i]} as has the more recent [Trump peace plan](#).^{[6][7]} This has been referred to as the "Bantustan option".^[i]

The consequences of the creation of these fragmented Palestinian areas has been studied widely, and has been shown to have had a "devastating impact on the economy, social networks, [and] the provision of basic services such as healthcare and education".^[k]

NAMES

Enclaves, Cantons or Archipelago

A variety of terms are used by Palestinians and outside observers to describe these spaces, including "enclaves",^[l] "cantons",^[m] "open-air prisons",^[n] [reservations](#),^[8] or, collectively, a "ghetto state";^[o] while "islands" or "archipelago" is considered to communicate how the infrastructure of the [Israeli occupation of the West Bank](#) has disrupted contiguity between Palestinian areas.^[9] "[Swiss cheese](#)" is another popular analogy.^{[10][11]} Of these terms, "enclaves", "cantons"^[12] and archipelago^[p] have also been applied to the pattern of [Jewish settlements](#) in the West Bank. The *Encyclopedia of the Israeli–Palestinian Conflict* entry for "Bantustan" says that they also are called "cantons or enclaves" and makes use of the word "fragmentation" in its analysis as of 2006.^[13]

The process of creating the fragmented enclaves has also been described as "[encystation](#)" by international relations scholar Glenn Bowman^[14] and as "[enclavization](#)" by geographer [Ghazi Falah](#).^{[15][16]} According to a report commissioned for the [United Nations Development Programme](#) (UNDP),

Israel has systematically segregated Palestinians communities into a series of archipelagos (referred to variously as isolated islands, enclaves, cantons, and Bantustans) under an arrangement referred to as 'one of the most intensively territorialized control systems ever created'.^[17]

Bantustans

The enclaves are often referred to as "bantustans",^[18] particularly but not exclusively by those [critical of Israeli policy towards Palestinians](#),^[19] in reference to the [territories set aside for black inhabitants](#) in Apartheid South Africa.^[20] The label implies that the areas lack meaningful political sovereignty and economic independence.^[21] According to Professor Julie Peteet, Chair of the Department of Anthropology at the [University of Louisville](#), the Israeli government's overall [hafrada](#) policy of separation, "exemplified in Jewish settlements, Palestinian enclaves, land expropriation, checkpoints, segregated roads, and the permit system" is a parallel to South African apartheid's pass system, land policies, and Bantustans.^[18]

Usage of the term bantustans to describe the Palestinian areas has been traced back to the 1960s including by Israeli military leader and politician Moshe Dayan, who reportedly suggested bantustans as an explicit model for the Palestinian enclaves.^[22] Other Israelis and Americans who have used similar terminology in various contexts include [Ariel Sharon](#) (reportedly),^[23] [Colin Powell](#),^[19] [James Baker](#),^[24] [John Dugard](#),^[20] [Martin Indyk](#),^[25] Daniel Levy,^[21] [Amos Elon](#),^[22] [Yigal Allon](#),^[23] [I. F. Stone](#),^[26] [Avi Primor](#),^[24] [Ze'ev Schiff](#),^[25] [Meron Benvenisti](#),^[26] [Yuval Shany](#),^[27] [Menachem Klein](#),^[28] and [Akiva Eldar](#).^[29] The [verbal noun](#) "bantustanization" was first used by [Azmi Bishara](#) in 1995,^[29] though [Yassir Arafat](#) had made the analogy earlier in peace talks to his interlocutors.^[30] Many researchers and writers from the [Israeli left](#) used it in the early 2000s,^[31] for example with [Meron Benvenisti](#) referring in 2004 to the territorial, political and economic fragmentation model being pursued by the Israeli government.^[32]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H1 1 ISRAELI PERMIT REGIME IN THE WEST BANK

WIKIPEDIA

The **Israeli permit regime in the West Bank** is the legal regime that requires Palestinians to obtain a number of separate permits from the Israeli [military authorities](#) governing [Palestinians](#) in the [Israeli-occupied West Bank](#) for a wide range of activities.^{[1][2][a]} The first military order requiring permits for the Palestinians was issued before the end of the 1967 [Six-Day War](#). The two uprisings of [1987](#) and [2001](#) were met by increased security measures, differentiation of IDs into green and red, policies of village closures, curfews and more stringent restrictions on Palestinian movement, with the general exit permit of 1972 replaced by individual permits. The stated Israeli justification for this new permit regime regarding movements was to contain the expansion of the uprisings and protect both the IDF and Israeli civilians from military confrontations with armed Palestinians.^[3] The regime has since expanded to 101 different types of permits covering nearly every aspect of Palestinian life,^{[4][5]} governing movements in Israel, in [Israeli settlements](#), transit between Gaza and the West Bank, Jerusalem, the [seam zone](#) and travel abroad via international borders.^[6] The [Israeli High Court](#) has rejected petitions against the permit regime, allowing that it severely impinges on the rights of Palestinian residents but that the harm was proportionate.^[7]



Map of the West Bank

Considered an example of [racial profiling](#) by scholars like [Ronit Lentin](#), Yael Berda and others,^{[8][9][10]} the regime has been characterized as arbitrary and as one that turned such rights as [freedom of movement](#) into mere privileges that could be granted or revoked by the military authority.^[11] The regime itself has been likened to the South African [pass laws](#) under apartheid,^{[b][12][13][14][15]} with [Jennifer Loewenstein](#) writing that the regime is "more complex and ruthlessly enforced than the pass system of the apartheid regime."^[16] Israel has defended the permit regime as necessary to protect Israelis in the West Bank against what it describes as continued threats of attacks by Palestinian militants.^[17]

Definitions

According to Yael Berda of Jerusalem's [Hebrew University](#), the Israeli permit regime is one of three elements underpinning Israel's military management of the occupied population through intelligence, economic control and [racial profiling](#).^[10] Berda defines the "permit regime" as the "bureaucratic apparatus of the occupation modeled around that which developed in the West Bank between the signing of the [Oslo Accords](#) in 1993 through the early 2000s".^[1] [Cheryl Rubenberg](#) argued that the permit system was the most effective instrument in what other scholars have called Israel's techniques of "suspended violence".^[c]

[Neve Gordon](#) of [Ben-Gurion University of the Negev](#) writes that the permit regime is both the "scaffolding for many other forms of control" while also forming a part of the "infrastructure of control" of the Israeli occupation.^[18] Aeyal Gross of [Tel Aviv University](#) defines the permit regime as "a legal regime relating to freedom of movement".^[19] He writes that the regime allows Israel to further control the lives of Palestinians in line with a goal of "frictionless control" that the IDF has pursued.^[20]

[Ariella Azoulay](#) and [Adi Ophir](#) write that the system itself serves as a link between the security services and the civil authorities as any permit approval requires the consent of security agents within administrative offices.^[21] They write that while permits themselves have a long history as a bureaucratic device, that the system "acquired a life and logic of its own in the Occupied Territories".^[22]

HISTORY

The permit regime began to be implemented before the end of hostilities in the 1967 [Six-Day War](#).^[23] Permits would be required for a wide range of activities, and Gordon states that as a whole "the permit regime operated to shape practically every aspect of Palestinian life".^[5] Within ten days of the end of the war a military order was issued that required a permit to conduct any business transaction that involved land or property. That same day an order was declared that required Palestinians to hold a permit to possess any foreign currency, with violations punishable by up to five years imprisonment. Permits would be required to install any water device, or to perform electrical work, including connecting a generator. In order to transport any plant or commodity in to or out of the Palestinian territories, a permit was required. Any form of transportation, including tractors and donkey carts, would require a permit to operate.^[24] Military order 101 issued 2 months into the occupation in that year criminalized any "procession, gathering, or rally"

organized without first obtaining a permit from a military commander, A "rally" was defined as any assembly of ten or more persons that might address either a political matter or anything else that might be interpreted as having the purpose of "incitement". "Incitement" was defined as attempting to influence public opinion in a way that was liable to disturb public peace or order.^[25]

In 1968, Israel issued the "Entry to Israel Directive" which required all people entering Israel to possess a valid permit and gave authority for granting those permits to the regional military commander. This directive had no practical effect at the time as Israel had as a policy allowed travel between the newly occupied Palestinian territories of the [Gaza Strip](#) and the [West Bank](#) to and from Israel.^[26] In 1972, Israel issued general exit permits for all residents of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip to enter Israel and [East Jerusalem](#) between the hours of 5 AM and 1 AM, formalizing what had been an informal open-border policy between Israel and the Palestinian territories.^{[27][28]}

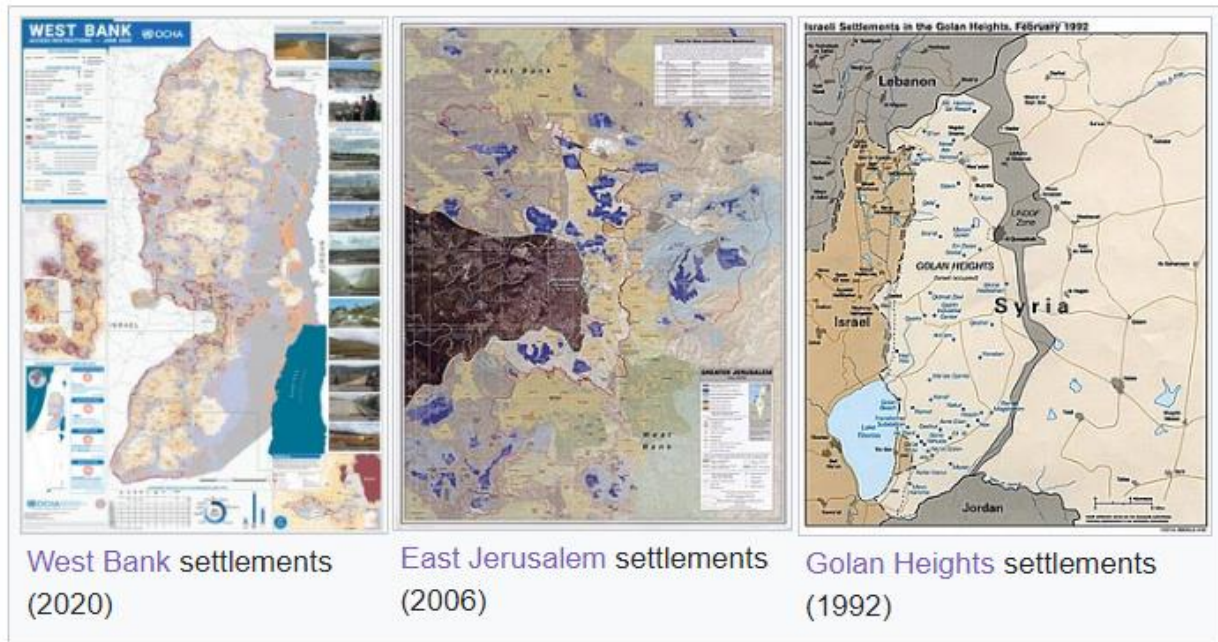
Until the [First Intifada](#) or "uprising" in 1987, over 100,000 Palestinians freely commuted into Israel on a daily basis, in cars with West Bank plates, without serious obstacles. Restrictions only applied to those convicted of security offenses.^[29] With the uprising, the Israeli army placed greater restrictions on Palestinian movement and imposed security measures such as curfews, [closures](#) and the marking of ID cards as either green for those denied entry into Israel, or red for the rest of the population. In 1991 during the [Gulf War](#) the general exit permit was revoked and replaced by a system of individual permits designed to "filter out Palestinian movement under [the] security pretext in Israel."^[3] The interim [Oslo Accords](#) left Israel with partial or full control over 83% of the West Bank and, according to [Rashid Khalidi](#), concomitantly, Israel proceeded to tighten restrictions of what he calls its 'matrix of control, by developing a substantially new system, an intricate "web of procedures" including the "all-encompassing permit system", which suffocated Palestinian movement in the territories.^[29]

After the breakdown of negotiations at [the 2000 Camp David Summit](#) and the outbreak of the [Second Intifada](#), the IDF imposed a total closure on the occupied territories and made the permit system more stringent in order to protect both its perceived security interests and civilians from armed confrontation with Palestinian militants.^[30] After initial attempts to repress the uprising failed, the [Israeli West Bank barrier](#) was constructed beyond the [Green Line](#). This was accompanied by another increase in the types of access permits governing Palestinian movements.^[31] The system of permits, checkpoints and other measures did prove helpful in ending the Second Intifada, but some, even Israel commanders, argue that the frustrations caused by such restrictive policies could prove conducive to fostering the very terrorism they seek to put down.^[d]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H12 ISRAELI SETTLEMENT

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Israeli settlements or **colonies**^{[1][2][3][4]} are civilian communities where [Israeli citizens](#) live, almost exclusively of [Jewish ethnicity](#),^{[5][6][7]} built on [lands occupied by Israel](#) since the [Six-Day War](#) in 1967.^[8] The international community consider Israeli settlements to be illegal under [international law](#),^{[9][10][11][12]} though Israel disputes this.^{[13][14][15][16]}

Israeli settlements currently exist in the [West Bank \(including East Jerusalem\)](#), claimed by the [State of Palestine](#) as its sovereign territory, and in the [Golan Heights](#), which is internationally considered [Syrian](#) territory.^[a] [East Jerusalem](#) and the [Golan Heights](#) have been effectively [annexed](#) by [Israel](#), though the [international community](#) has rejected any change of status in both territories and continues to consider each [occupied territory](#). Although the West Bank settlements are on land administered under Israeli military rule rather than civil law, [Israeli civil law is "pipelined" into the settlements](#), such that Israeli citizens living there are treated similarly to those living in Israel.

As of January 2023, there are [144 Israeli settlements](#) in the [West Bank](#), including 12 in [East Jerusalem](#).^[19] In addition, there are over 100 [Israeli illegal outposts](#) in the West Bank. In total, over 450,000 Israeli settlers live in the West Bank excluding East Jerusalem, with an additional 220,000 Jewish settlers residing in East Jerusalem.^{[20][21]} Additionally, over 25,000 Israeli settlers live in the Golan Heights.^[22]

Israeli settlements had previously been built within the [Egyptian](#) territory of the [Sinai Peninsula](#), and within the Palestinian territory of the [Gaza Strip](#); however, Israel evacuated and dismantled the 18 Sinai

settlements following the 1979 [Egypt–Israel peace agreement](#) and all of the 21 settlements in the Gaza Strip, along with four in the West Bank, in 2005 as part of its [unilateral disengagement from Gaza](#).^[23]

Israel has established Jewish neighborhoods in [East Jerusalem](#) and in the Israeli-occupied portion of the [Golan Heights](#), both of which Israel has effectively annexed, and as such Israel does not consider the developments there to be settlements. The international community regards both territories as held under Israeli occupation and the localities established there to be illegal settlements. The [International Court of Justice](#) found the settlements to be illegal in its 2004 [advisory opinion on the West Bank barrier](#).^{[24][25][26]} In the West Bank, Israel continues to expand its remaining settlements as well as settling new areas,^{[27][28][29][30][31]} despite pressure from the international community to desist.

The transfer by an occupying power of its civilian population into the territory it occupies is a [war crime](#),^{[32][33][34]} although Israel disputes that this applies to the West Bank.^{[15][16]} On 20 December 2019, the [International Criminal Court](#) announced an [International Criminal Court investigation in Palestine](#) into alleged war crimes. The presence and ongoing expansion of existing settlements by Israel and the construction of settlement [outposts](#) is frequently criticized as an obstacle to the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#) by the Palestinians,^[35] and third parties such as the [OIC](#),^[36] the [United Nations](#),^[37] Russia,^{[38][39]} the United Kingdom,^[40] France,^[41] and the [European Union](#) have echoed those criticisms.^[42] The [international community](#) considers the settlements to be [illegal under international law](#),^[43] and the [United Nations](#) has repeatedly upheld the view that Israel's construction of settlements constitutes a violation of the [Fourth Geneva Convention](#).^{[44][45]} The United States for decades considered the settlements to be "illegitimate",^[37] until the [Trump administration](#) in November 2019 shifted its position,^[46] declaring "the establishment of Israeli civilian settlements in the West Bank is not *per se* inconsistent with international law."^[47]

HOUSING COSTS AND STATE SUBVENTIONS

Settlement has an economic dimension, much of it driven by the significantly lower costs of housing for Israeli citizens living in Israeli settlements compared to the cost of housing and living in Israel proper.^[48] Government spending per citizen in the settlements is double that spent per Israeli citizen in [Tel Aviv](#) and [Jerusalem](#), while government spending for settlers in isolated Israeli settlements is three times the Israeli national average. Most of the spending goes to the security of the Israeli citizens living there.^[49]

NUMBER OF SETTLEMENTS AND INHABITANTS

Main article: [List of Israeli settlements](#)

As of January 2023, there are [144 Israeli settlements](#) in the [West Bank](#), including 12 in [East Jerusalem](#).^[19] In addition, there are over 100 [Israeli illegal outposts](#) in the West Bank. In total, over 450,000 Israeli settlers live in the West Bank excluding East Jerusalem, with an additional 220,000 Jewish settlers residing in East Jerusalem.^{[20][21]}

Additionally, over 20,000 Israeli citizens live in settlements in the Golan Heights.^{[50][51]}

CHARACTER: RURAL AND URBAN

Settlements range in character from farming communities and frontier villages to urban suburbs and neighborhoods. The four largest settlements, [Modi'in Illit](#), [Ma'ale Adumim](#), [Beitar Illit](#) and [Ariel](#), have achieved city status. Ariel has 18,000 residents, while the rest have around 37,000 to 55,500 each.

HISTORY

See also: [Israeli settlement timeline](#)

Occupied Territories

Following the 1967 [Six-Day War](#), Israel [occupied](#) a number of territories.^[52] It took over the remainder of the Palestinian Mandate territories of the [West Bank including East Jerusalem](#), from [Jordan](#) which had [controlled the territories](#) since the 1948 Arab-Israeli war, and the [Gaza Strip](#) from [Egypt](#), which had [held Gaza under occupation since 1949](#). From Egypt, it also captured the [Sinai Peninsula](#) and from [Syria](#) it captured most of the [Golan Heights](#), which [since 1981 has been administered under the Golan Heights Law](#).

Settlement Policy

As early as September 1967, Israeli settlement policy was progressively encouraged by the [Labor government](#) of [Levi Eshkol](#). The basis for Israeli settlement in the West Bank became the [Allon Plan](#),^{[53][54]} named after its inventor [Yigal Allon](#). It implied Israeli annexation of major parts of the [Israeli-occupied territories](#), especially [East Jerusalem](#), [Gush Etzion](#) and the [Jordan Valley](#).^[55] The settlement policy of the government of Yitzhak Rabin was also derived from the Allon Plan.^[56]

The first settlement was [Kfar Etzion](#), in the southern West Bank,^{[53][57]} although that location was outside the Allon Plan. Many settlements began as [Nahal settlements](#). They were established as military outposts and later expanded and populated with civilian inhabitants. According to a secret document dating to 1970, obtained by [Haaretz](#), the settlement of [Kiryat Arba](#) was established by confiscating land by military order and falsely representing the project as being strictly for military use while in reality, Kiryat Arba was planned for settler use. The method of confiscating land by military order for establishing civilian settlements was an open secret in Israel throughout the 1970s, but publication of the information was suppressed by the [military censor](#).^{[58][59]}

In the 1970s, Israel's methods for seizing Palestinian land to establish settlements included requisitioning for ostensibly military purposes and spraying of land with poison.^[60]

The Likud government of Menahem Begin, from 1977, was more supportive to settlement in other parts of the West Bank, by organizations like [Gush Emunim](#) and the [Jewish Agency](#)/World Zionist Organization, and intensified the settlement activities.^{[56][61][62]} In a government statement, Likud declared that the entire historic Land of Israel is the inalienable heritage of the Jewish people and that no part of the West Bank should be handed over to foreign rule.^[63] Ariel Sharon declared in the same year (1977) that there was a plan to settle 2 million Jews in the West Bank by 2000.^[64] The government abrogated the prohibition from purchasing occupied land by Israelis; the "Drobes Plan", a plan for large-scale settlement in the West Bank meant to prevent a Palestinian state under the pretext of security became the framework for its policy.^{[65][A]} The "Drobes Plan" from the [World](#)

[Zionist Organization](#), dated October 1978 and named "Master Plan for the Development of Settlements in Judea and Samaria, 1979–1983", was written by the Jewish Agency director and former Knesset member [Matityahu Drobles](#). In January 1981, the government adopted a follow up-plan from Drobles, dated September 1980 and named "The current state of the settlements in Judea and Samaria", with more details about settlement strategy and policy.^{[66][B]}

Since 1967, government-funded settlement projects in the West Bank are implemented by the "Settlement Division" of the [World Zionist Organization](#).^[67] Though formally a [non-governmental organization](#), it is funded by the Israeli government and leases lands from the Civil Administration to settle in the West Bank. It is authorized to create settlements in the West Bank on lands licensed to it by the Civil Administration.^[63] Traditionally, the Settlement Division has been under the responsibility of the Agriculture Ministry. Since the Oslo Accords, it was always housed within the Prime Minister's Office (PMO). In 2007, it was moved back to the Agriculture Ministry. In 2009, the Netanyahu Government decided to subject all settlement activities to additional approval of the Prime Minister and the Defense Minister. In 2011, Netanyahu sought to move the Settlement Division again under the direct control of (his own) PMO, and to curtail Defense Minister Ehud Barak's authority.^[67]

At the presentation of the [Oslo II Accord](#) on 5 October 1995 in the Knesset, PM [Yitzhak Rabin](#) expounded the Israeli settlement policy in connection with the permanent solution to the conflict. Israel wanted *"a Palestinian entity, less than a state, which will be a home to most of the Palestinian residents living in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank"*. It wanted to keep settlements beyond the [Green Line](#) including Ma'ale Adumim and Givat Ze'ev in East Jerusalem. Blocs of settlements should be established in the West Bank. Rabin promised not to return to the 4 June 1967 lines.^[68]

In June 1997, the Likud government of [Benjamin Netanyahu](#) presented its "Allon Plus Plan". This plan holds the retention of some 60% of the West Bank, including the "Greater Jerusalem" area with the settlements Gush Etzion and Ma'aleh Adumim, other large concentrations of settlements in the West Bank, the entire Jordan Valley, a "security area", and a network of Israeli-only bypass roads.^{[69][70]}

In the [Road map for peace](#) of 2002, which was never implemented, the establishment of a Palestinian state was acknowledged. Outposts would be dismantled. However, many new outposts appeared instead, few were removed. Israel's settlement policy remained unchanged. Settlements in East Jerusalem and remaining West Bank were expanded.

While according to official Israeli policy no new settlements were built, at least some hundred [unauthorized outposts](#) were established since 2002 with [state funding](#) in the 60% of the West Bank that was not under [Palestinian administrative control](#) and the population growth of settlers did not diminish.

In 2005, all 21 settlements in the Gaza Strip and four in the northern West Bank were forcibly evacuated as part of [Israeli disengagement from the Gaza Strip](#), known to some in Israel as "the Expulsion".^[23] However, the disengagement was more than compensated by transfers to the West Bank.^[71]

After the failure of the Roadmap, several new plans emerged to settle in major parts of the West Bank. In 2011, *Haaretz* revealed the [Civil Administration's "Blue Line"](#)-plan, written in January 2011, which aims to increase Israeli "state-ownership" of [West Bank land](#) ("state lands") and settlement in strategic areas like the

Jordan Valley and the northern Dead Sea area.^[72] In March 2012, it was revealed that the Civil Administration over the years covertly allotted 10% of the West Bank for further settlement. Provisional names for future new settlements or settlement expansions were already assigned. The plan includes many Palestinian built-up sites in the [Areas A and B](#).^[73]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H13 PALESTINIAN FREEDOM OF MOVEMENT

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Restrictions on the movement of [Palestinians](#) in the [Israeli-occupied territories](#) by Israel is an issue in the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#). According to [B'Tselem](#), following the [1967 war](#), the occupied territories were proclaimed closed military zones. In 1972, general exit orders were issued allowing residents of those territories to move freely between the [West Bank](#), [Israel](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#). Following the First Intifada by 1991, the general exit orders were revoked, and personal exit permits were required. According to B'Tselem, a measure of overall closure of the territories was enacted for the first time in 1993, and would result in total closures following rises in [Palestinian political violence](#).^[2]

In the mid-1990s, with the signing of the [Oslo Accords](#) and the division of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip into three separate [administrative divisions](#), there was little change to these restrictions. Comprehensive closures following the outbreak of the [Second Intifada](#) resulted in a few months of almost complete prohibition on [Palestinian](#) movement into Israel and between the West Bank and Gaza Strip. Israel then allowed limited travel by Palestinians into Israel for medical treatment, trade, and other needs, and a limited number of workers were allowed to work in Israel. This situation was still in place as of 2010. Israel occasionally still places comprehensive closures and cancels permits following acts of violence by Palestinians and during Israeli holidays.^[2] Israel says that the restrictions are necessary to protect Israelis living in Israel and [Israeli settlements](#).^{[3][4]}

Israel enforces restrictions on the freedom of movement of Palestinians in the West Bank by employing a system of permanent, temporary and random manned checkpoints, the [West Bank Barrier](#) and by forbidding the usage of roads by Palestinians.^[5] A 2007 [World Bank](#) report concluded that the West Bank "is experiencing severe and expanding restrictions on movement and access, high levels of unpredictability and a struggling economy".^[6] Unmanned physical obstructions to block roads and paths might include dirt piles, concrete blocks, large stones, barriers, ditches, and metal gates. The physical obstructions might be altered often, on the basis of political and security circumstances.

According to Israeli authorities, during 2008–09, a significant number of checkpoints were removed. As of July 2009, Israeli authorities reported that 27 checkpoints and 140 roadblocks had been removed in order to ease security restrictions in the West Bank. An additional 140 roadblocks were said to have been opened to traffic in 2008. As of 2009, there were 504 dirt roadblocks and 14 checkpoints in the West Bank.^[7]

BACKGROUND

The ongoing Israeli occupation of the Palestinian Territories and expansion of [Israeli settlements](#), until 2005 also in Gaza, furthered hostilities between Palestinians and Israelis. During the [Second Intifada](#) in 2000, in response to Palestinian attacks on both Israeli soldiers and civilians, Israel tightened the borders. A comprehensive system of restrictions on the freedom of movement of Palestinians within the West Bank was developed. This

system consists of physical obstacles (checkpoints, roadblocks, the [West Bank barrier](#)), and administrative restrictions (prohibited roads, permit requirements, age restrictions.^[8] Since [Hamas' takeover of Gaza](#) in 2007, Israel imposes a complete [blockade of the Gaza Strip](#), restricting imports and fishing areas, and the movement of goods and people between West Bank and Gaza.^[9]

The systematic restriction on the freedom of movement of Palestinians is also known as the "*Israeli Closure Policy*",^{[10][11][12]} or the "*policy of separation between the Gaza Strip and the West Bank*".^[9] The closure policy is imposed on the Palestinian population as a collective measure. It affects movement within parts of the OPT, between West Bank and Gaza, between the OPT and Israel as well as between the OPT and the rest of the world. While Israel directly controls the borders between Israel and the OPT, it controls the borders with Egypt and Jordan indirectly through provisions in the [Agreement on Movement and Access](#) (AMA) and the [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) respectively.^[13]

HISTORY

Further information: [Israeli permit regime](#)

Subsequent to the 1967 [Six-Day War](#), Israel's military proclaimed the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#) to be closed military areas by [Military Order No. 1](#). In 1972, general exit orders were issued allowing residents of the West Bank and Gaza Strip to freely leave, and travel between the Gaza Strip and the West Bank. Palestinians were also allowed to travel to Israel, which included [East Jerusalem](#) following its annexation by Israel. Palestinians were not allowed to be in Israel between 1.00 and 5.00 a.m. These exit orders were restricted for the first time in June 1989, shortly after the start of the [First Intifada](#).^[2] Israel set up a [magnetic card](#) system and only those with such a card were allowed to enter Israel from the Gaza Strip. Magnetic cards were not issued to released prisoners, former [administrative detainees](#), or people who had been detained and released without charges being filed against them.^[14]

In 1991, during the [Gulf War](#), general exit orders were revoked and a new policy requiring each resident to obtain a personal exit permit to enter Israel. At first, most Palestinians could continue to enter Israel routinely since Israel issued many permits for relatively long periods. Gradually, however, Israel's permit policy became more and more strict. Under the permanent closure policy, residents of Gaza required a personal exit permit to travel within Israel or the West Bank.^[14]

In March 1993, Israel imposed an overall closure on the Gaza Strip with newly built checkpoints. The overall closure policy was imposed following the killing of nine Israeli civilians and six security forces personnel by Palestinian residents of the Palestinian territories. Israel claimed the closures provide security for Israelis and curtail Palestinian political violence. Amal Jamal, professor of political science at [Tel Aviv University](#) says that the policy was used as "a political weapon to force Palestinians into accepting short-term economic improvements over long-term territorial and political solutions".^[15]

In September 2000, the start of the [Second Intifada](#) triggered Israeli closures and restrictions on the movement of Palestinians. From October 2000, Israel imposed a comprehensive closure of the Gaza Strip.^[14] In 2005, Israelis of the [Gush Katif Israeli settlements](#) were evacuated as part of [Israel's unilateral disengagement plan](#), and all Israeli restrictions on internal movements ceased. In 2007, [Hamas](#) took over

the Gaza Strip, after which Israel and [Egypt](#) imposed a [blockade of the Gaza Strip](#) and largely closed its borders. Israel further tightened the blockade after Hamas began [firing rockets](#) into Israel. The blockade restricts the movement of people into Israel and to other parts of the Palestinian territories.^[2] According to B'tselem, Israel's current restrictions on Palestinian movement, implemented since the beginning of the Second Intifada, are the strictest so far implemented by Israel.^[16]

RESTRICTION OF MOVEMENT IN THE WEST BANK

Israeli rights group B'Tselem called the checkpoints and physical roadblocks set up in the West Bank illegal and a collective punishment. According to B'Tselem, the original purpose of response to "specific security threats" has also become to facilitate the safe passage of settlers on roads that are restricted to Palestinians. Many of the restrictions violate the principle of proportionality and therefore are illegal. The roadblocks split the West Bank into six hardly-connected sections, and make it complicated for Palestinians to reach medical services, travel to work, transport goods and visit relatives. The [Israeli Ministry of Justice](#) said in reaction that the roadblocks were put in place to protect Israeli citizens after a long range of suicide and shooting attacks by Palestinian militants, and have prevented hundreds of such attacks.^[17]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

H14 JULY 2023 JENIN INCURSION

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

July 2023 Jenin incursion

Part of the Israeli–Palestinian conflict



View of the Jenin refugee camp in 2011

Date

3 July 2023 – 5 July 2023

Location

Jenin, West Bank

Result

Israeli victory, Palestinian militants killed
Israeli forces tactically withdraw with minimal losses

Belligerents

 Israel

 PIJ

 Hamas

Other militants

Commanders and leaders

Herzi Halevi

Unknown

Units involved

 IDF

 Al-Quds Brigades

 Al-Qassam Brigades

Jenin Battalion

Strength

1,000 soldiers, per IDF^[1]

Unknown

Several armed drones

Air support

Casualties and losses

1 killed^[2]

12^[3] (18 per IDF), including^[4]
at least 8 PIJ militants and 1 Hamas militant^{[5][6]}
100 wounded, 20 critically^[7]
(unknown number of civilians and militants)

Other incursions

← June 2023

On 3 July 2023, the Israeli military conducted a major assault on the [Jenin refugee camp](#) in the Palestinian city of [Jenin](#), located within the [Israeli-occupied West Bank](#). The Israeli government stated that the goal of the operation, named "Operation Home and Garden", was to target militants within the camp.^[8]

The Jenin refugee camp was established in 1953, housing Palestinians who [fled or were expelled](#) by Israeli forces in the [1948 Palestine War](#). It has an estimated population of 18,000, with a high population density, estimated at 33,000/km2 by the [UNRWA](#). The camp suffers from high rates of poverty and unemployment, and faces difficult living conditions, largely due to Israeli sanctions affecting up to 80% of Jenin's economy.^{[9][7]} It has been a frequent location for many incidents in the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).^[7]

The attack began in the early hours of 3 July and resulted in the deaths of at least 12 Palestinians, including at least 9 militants,^[5] and injuries to 100 others.^{[3][10]} The military emphasized that the operation is "one in a series", limited to the refugee camp area in Jenin.^[11] Up to 500 Palestinian families were forced or had to leave their homes due to the Israeli assault.^[12]

The assault was the largest incursion and deployment of aerial force against militants in the West Bank in 20 years, since fighting during the [Second Intifada](#).^{[10][13][14]} Israeli military and political echelons appear to hold differing views about the scale and intent of the operation.^{[15][11]}

.

BACKGROUND

The Jenin refugee camp was established in 1953, housing Palestinians who fled or were expelled by Israeli forces in the [1948 Palestine War](#). It has an estimated population of 18,000, and suffers from high rates of poverty and unemployment.^[7] It has been a frequent location for many incidents in the [Israeli-Palestinian conflict](#). Since the escalation of Israeli-Palestinian violence in the spring of 2022, the Jenin camp and its neighboring town have remained a focal point of tension. Jenin has historically been a stronghold for armed resistance against Israel and was a significant source of friction during the [Second Intifada](#). Israeli foreign minister [Eli Cohen](#) has described the camp as a "hub for terrorist activities" and accuses Iran of funding its militants.



Graffiti in the Jenin camp in 2011, which read "Not to forget"

In 2023, the refugee camp has been repeatedly targeted by Israeli forces due to the Israeli government's belief that it shelters militants responsible for attacks inside Israel. The Israeli government has prioritized cracking down on the camp.^[16] The incursion took place amidst increasing violence in the West Bank, which included another violent clash in Jenin two weeks prior, a rocket incident originating from the area, the first Israeli drone attack in the West Bank since 2006, and attacks by settlers on Palestinian villages.^[17] Furthermore, there was growing domestic pressure to respond to a series of attacks on Israeli settlers, including a [shooting incident in June](#) that resulted in the deaths of four Israelis. Influential members within [Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu](#)'s right-wing government have also advocated for a more extensive military retaliation to address the ongoing violence in the region.^[13]

[**CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING**](#)

H15 RAWABI

WIKIPEDIA

	
<p>Location of Rawabi within Palestine</p> <p>Coordinates:  32°0'36"N 35°11'6"E</p>	
Palestine grid	173/164
State	State of Palestine
Governorate	Ramallah and al-Bireh
Government	
• Type	City (from 2010)
• Head of Municipality	Ibrahim Natour
Area	
• Total	6,300 dunams (6.3 km ² or 2.4 sq mi)
Website	www.rawabi.ps 

Rawabi (*Arabic*: روابي, meaning "The Hills") is the first [planned city](#) built for and by [Palestinians](#)^{[1][2][3]} in the [West Bank](#), and is hailed as a "flagship Palestinian enterprise."^{[4][5][6]} Rawabi is located near [Birzeit](#) and [Ramallah](#). The master plan envisages a high tech city with 6,000 housing units, housing a population of between 25,000 and 40,000 people,^{[4][7]} spread across six neighborhoods.^{[1][8]} Construction began in January 2010.^[9] By 2014, 650 family apartments housing an estimated 3,000 people^[10] had been completed and sold, but could not be occupied^[4] while negotiations over supplying the city with water stalled.^[7] The city remained without water; the delay was attributed to the [Israeli–Palestinian Joint Water Committee](#), with Israelis blaming Palestinians for the delay and Palestinians blaming Israelis.^[11] On 1 March 2015, its developer, [Bashar al-Masri](#), announced that Israel would finally connect the city up to the Israeli-controlled water grid.^[12] In Israel Rawabi is called "The Palestinian [Modi'in](#)."^[13] The project was criticized by certain Palestinian movements, such as the [Palestinian National BDS Committee](#),^[14] and some Israeli settler groups, the former claiming the use of Israeli materials normalizes the occupation, the latter asserting the project invades Israel and could become a terrorist base.^{[15][16]} Buyers started moving into

apartments in August 2015.^[17] By May 2017, despite difficulties with flying Israeli checkpoints controlling the road to the city, 3,000 Palestinians had taken up residence there.^[18]

LOCATION

Rawabi is 9 kilometres (5.6 mi) northwest of [Ramallah](#),^[2] 3.5 kilometres (2.2 mi) north of [Birzeit](#), 20 kilometres (12 mi) to the north of [Jerusalem](#), 40 km to the east of Tel Aviv, and 25 kilometres (16 mi) south

of [Nablus](#). [Amman](#), the capital of [Jordan](#), is 70 kilometres (43 mi) to the east.^[19] In addition, the [Israeli settlement](#) of [Ateret](#) is nearby. Masri envisages the latter as becoming a suburb of Rawabi in the future.^[16] The construction site stretches over two ridges, 700 meters (2,300 ft) above sea level.^[20] On a clear day, it is possible to see the [Mediterranean Sea](#), 40 kilometres (25 mi) to the west,^[19] and the [Israeli](#) coastal city of [Tel Aviv](#) from the site.^[21] Rawabi's municipal boundaries will encompass 6,300,000 square meters of land.^[22] Residential and commercial development is based on a population estimate of 40,000.^{[23][24]}

FINANCING

One problem was that the West Bank lacked a traditional mortgage system.^[25] To that end, the development was linked to a \$500m affordable mortgage scheme.^[26] The [Washington Post](#) reports that Rawabi "is specifically designed for upwardly mobile families of a sort that in the United States might gravitate to places such as [Reston, VA](#). The developments are also relying on another American import, the home mortgage, including creation of a Fannie Mae-style institution for the West Bank".^[27]

Rawabi is the largest private sector project in Palestinian history.^{[28][29]} It was initiated at the [Palestine Investment Conference](#), which took place in [Bethlehem](#) in 2008.^[30] The project involves a [public-private partnership](#) between Masri's property investment firm, Bayti (*My home*) Real Estate Investment Company, and his primary corporation, Masser International, which provided a third of the billion dollar investment,^[31] together with financial backing from Qatari Diar Real Estate Investment Company (the [Qatar Investment Authority](#)'s property investment fund), Massar International,^[32] and the [Palestinian National Authority](#).^[33]

The total cost of the development, mostly funded by the [Qatari](#) company LDR and Masri, a native of [Nablus](#)^[14] and Palestinian multimillionaire, is estimated at US\$850 million.^[8] As of June 2015, the total investment in Rawabi is US\$1.2 billion.^[13] Masri sees the development as an integral part of a nation-building project, the construction of a future Palestinian state. He makes the claim that when he was a boy in Nablus, merely carrying a Palestinian flag on the streets was sufficient to get one shot by Israeli soldiers.^[1] To complete the project, it was calculated that 8,000 and 10,000 new jobs would be created in the Palestinian construction sector.^[34] The Palestinian Authority is responsible for providing off-site infrastructure, while Bayti is tasked with the design and development of the city.^[35] According to The Rawabi economic growth strategy, from 3,000 to 5,000 new jobs in "[knowledge economy](#)" industries including [information technology](#), [pharmaceuticals](#) and [health care](#) would result from its development.^[36]

On 15 March 2010, two grant agreements were signed by Bashar Masri, Managing Director of Bayti Real Estate Investment Company and chairman of Massar International, and [Leocadia I. Zak](#), Director of the [United States Trade and Development Agency](#) (USTDA), in the presence of US [Consul General Daniel Rubinstein](#). The USTDA grants funded two feasibility studies. The first study to develop a master plan for Rawabi's ICT infrastructure and services was won by American management consultancy company Decision/Analysis Partners LLC of [Fairfax, Virginia](#).^[37] The second study examined the possibility of

building a tertiary [waste water treatment facility](#) for Rawabi and surrounding communities.^[38] Previously, [United States Senator John Kerry](#) visited the construction site on 28 February along with Rubenstein and David Harden, senior advisor to the American special envoy to the Middle East, [George J. Mitchell](#).^[39] In 2009 the Palestinian Authority undertook to provide \$150 million to cover infrastructural costs for power, water, sewerage, schools and roads, but failed to honour its promise. As a result, purchasers must pick up the tab, which translates into a rise of 10 to 12 percent to the cost of houses.^[31]

The development faced a financial crunch in 2014 due to a cash flow crisis when Masri was unable to collect \$70 million from homeowners and mortgage banks for the first batch of 600 apartments, because they cannot be delivered until the access road, and a water supply, are given Israeli permits.^[4]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

I GOLAN HEIGHTS

I1 GOLAN HEIGHTS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Golan Heights هَضْبَةُ الْجَوْلَان רמת הגולן	
Location of the Golan Heights Coordinates: 33°00′N 35°45′E﻿ / ﻿	
Status	Internationally recognized as Syrian territory occupied by Israel ^{[1][2][note 1]} see Status of the Golan Heights .
Area	
• Total	1,800 km ² (700 sq mi)
• Occupied by State of Israel	1,200 km ² (500 sq mi)
• Controlled by Syrian Arab Republic (including <i>de jure</i> UNDOF Zone)	600 km ² (200 sq mi)
Highest elevation	2,814 m (9,232 ft)
Lowest elevation	−212 m (−696 ft)
Population of Israeli-occupied area ^{[5][6][7][8]}	
• Total	40,000–50,000+
• Arabs (nearly all Druze)	20,000–25,700
• Israeli Jewish settlers	c. 25,000
Time zone	UTC+2
• Summer (DST)	UTC+3

The **Golan Heights** ([Arabic](#): هَضْبَةُ الْجَوْلَان, [romanized](#): *Haḍbatu l-Jawlān* or مُرتَفَعَاتُ الْجَوْلَان, *Murtafa'ātu l-Jawlān*; [Hebrew](#): רמת הגולן, [romanized](#): [Ramat HaGolan](#)), or simply the **Golan**, is a region in the [Levant](#) spanning about 1,800 km² (690 sq mi). The region defined as the Golan Heights differs between disciplines: as a geological and [biogeographical](#) region, the term refers to a [basaltic plateau](#) bordered by the [Yarmouk River](#) in the south, the [Sea of Galilee](#) and [Hula Valley](#) in the west, the [Anti-Lebanon](#) with [Mount Hermon](#) in the north and [Wadi Raqqad](#) in the east. As a [geopolitical](#) region, it refers to the [border region](#) captured from [Syria](#) by [Israel](#) during the [Six-Day War](#) of 1967; the territory has been [occupied by the latter since then](#) and was subject to a [de facto Israeli annexation in 1981](#). This region includes the western two-thirds of the geological Golan Heights and the Israeli-occupied part of Mount Hermon.

The earliest evidence of human habitation on the Golan dates to the [Upper Paleolithic](#) period.^[9] Throughout the Biblical period, the Golan was "the focus of a power struggle between the [kings of Israel](#) and the [Arameans](#) who were based near modern-day [Damascus](#)."^[10] After [Assyrian](#) and [Babylonian](#) rule, the region came under the domination of [Persia](#), and later under the control of [Alexander the Great](#) in 332 BCE.^{[11][12][13]} The [Itureans](#), an [Arab](#) or [Aramaic](#) people, settled in the area in the 2nd century BCE.^{[14][15][16]} By the third century AD, the Christian Arab [Ghassanid](#) kingdom controlled the Golan.^[17] The region was later annexed by the [Rashidun Caliphate](#) during the [Muslim conquest of the Levant](#) in the early seventh century. In the 16th century, the Golan was conquered by the [Ottoman Empire](#). Within [Ottoman Syria](#), the Golan was part of the [Syria Vilayet](#).^[18] The area later became part of the [French Mandate in Syria](#) and the [State of Damascus](#).^[19] When the mandate terminated in 1946, it became part of the newly independent [Syrian Arab Republic](#).

Since the Six-Day War of 1967, the western two-thirds of the Golan Heights has been occupied and administered by Israel,^{[1][2]} whereas the eastern third remains under the control of Syria. Following the war, Syria dismissed any negotiations with Israel as part of the [Khartoum Resolution](#) at the [1967 Arab League summit](#).^[20] Construction of [Israeli settlements](#) began in the remainder of the territory held by Israel, which was [under a military administration](#) until the [Knesset](#) passed the [Golan Heights Law](#) in 1981, which applied [Israeli law](#) to the territory;^[21] the move has been described as an [annexation](#). The Golan Heights Law was condemned by the [United Nations Security Council](#) in [Resolution 497](#),^{[21][22]} which stated that "the Israeli decision to impose its laws, jurisdiction, and administration in the occupied Syrian Golan Heights is null and void and without international legal effect", and [Resolution 242](#), which emphasizes the "inadmissibility of the acquisition of territory by war". Israel maintains it has a right to retain the Golan, also citing the text^[23] of Resolution 242, which calls for "secure and recognized boundaries free from threats or acts of force".^[24]

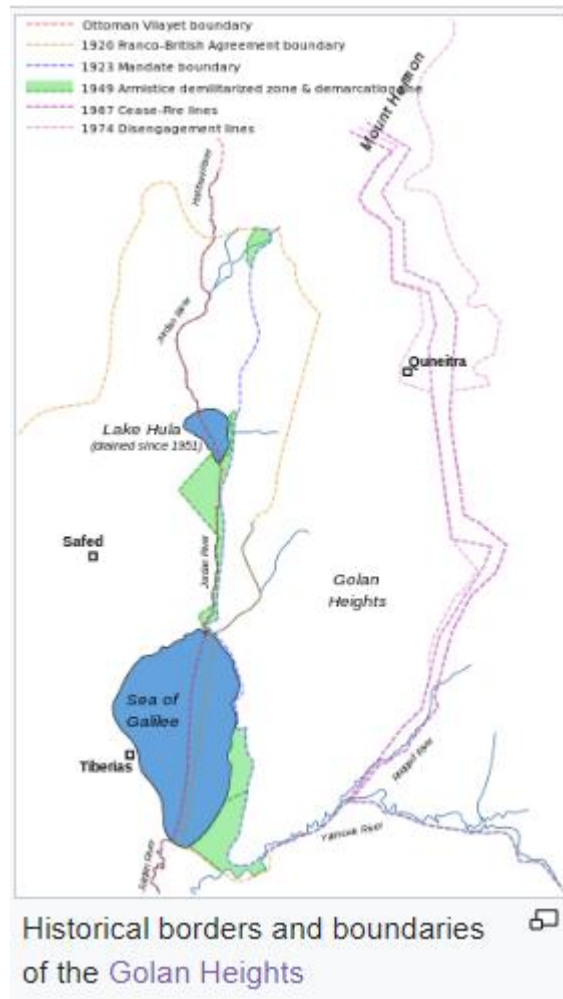
After the onset of the [Syrian Civil War](#) in 2011, control of the Syrian-administered part of the Golan Heights was split between the [state government](#) and [Syrian opposition forces](#), with the [United Nations Disengagement Observer Force](#) (UNDOF) maintaining a 266 km² (103 sq mi) [buffer zone](#) in between to help implement the Israeli–Syrian ceasefire across the [Purple Line](#).^[25] From 2012 to 2018, the eastern half

of the Golan Heights became a scene of repeated battles between the [Syrian Army](#), rebel factions of the Syrian opposition (including the United States-backed [Southern Front](#)) as well as various [jihadist](#) organizations such as [al-Nusra Front](#) and the [Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant](#)-affiliated [Khalid ibn al-Walid Army](#). In July 2018, the Syrian government regained full control over the eastern Golan Heights.^[26]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

I2 STATUS OF THE GOLAN HEIGHTS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The [Golan Heights](#) are a rocky plateau in [Western Asia](#) that was captured by [Israel](#) from [Syria](#) in the 1967 [Six-Day War](#). The international community widely considers the Golan Heights to be Syrian territory held by Israel under [military occupation](#). Following the war, Syria dismissed any negotiations with Israel as part of the [Khartoum Resolution](#).^[1]

The Golan was under military administration until the [Knesset](#) passed the [Golan Heights Law](#) in 1981, which applied Israeli law to the territory; a move that has been described as an [annexation](#). In response, the [United Nations Security Council](#) unanimously passed [UNSC Resolution 497](#) which condemned the Israeli actions to change the status of the territory declaring them "null and void and without international legal effect", and that the Golan remained an occupied territory. In 2019, the [United States](#) became the only state to recognize the Golan Heights as Israeli sovereign territory, while the rest of the international community continues to consider the territory Syrian held under Israeli military occupation.^{[2][3]}

BRITISH AND FRENCH MANDATES

Following [World War I](#), portions of the former territory of the [Ottoman Empire](#) was split into several [League of Nations mandates](#) under the control of one of the victorious [Allied countries](#) of the war. The [British Mandate for Palestine](#) and the [French Mandate for Syria](#) were two such mandates, with the border finalized between the two in the [Paulet–Newcombe Agreement](#). The border, drawn in 1923, was the first international border between Syria and Palestine and to date is the last,^[4] with the remaining boundaries since then having been a result of armistice agreements. The boundary placed the entirety of the [Sea of Galilee](#), along with a ten meter wide strip on the eastern shore, within the British Mandate.^[5] The French Mandate ended in 1946 with the independence of the Republic of Syria, and Syria demanded changes to the border to allow for greater access to fresh water sources, demands the British refused on the basis that the border had been submitted and approved to the [League of Nations](#) and Britain thus considered the matter closed.^[6]

POST-MANDATE PERIOD

The [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), which followed [Israel's declaration of independence](#), resulted in the newly formed state of Israel in control over roughly 77% of what had been the territory of the British Mandate.^[7] Syria had however advanced to the eastern shoreline of the [Sea of Galilee](#), where the border as delineated by the British and the French was ten meters east of the shoreline.^{[8][5]} In the armistice negotiations that followed the declaration of a ceasefire, that ten meter strip was included in a [demilitarized zone](#) as Israel had argued for.^[9]

SIX-DAY WAR AND AFTERMATH

In the 1967 [Six-Day War](#), Israel captured and occupied a majority of the Golan Heights from Syria. Following the war, the United Nations Security Council passed [Resolution 242](#), which called on Israel to withdraw from territories occupied in the war in exchange for the termination of all states of belligerency and recognition of Israel as a sovereign state by the Arab states.^[10] The [1973 Arab-Israeli War](#) saw further territorial gains by Israel, though Israel agreed to return to the 1967 ceasefire line in the [1974 disengagement agreement](#) between Israel and Syria.^[11] Syria has continued to insist on the return of the Golan in any negotiated peace agreement between the two countries.^[12]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J STATE OF PALESTINE

GO TO [WIKIPEDIA](#) TO USE LINKS

Part of a series on Palestinians


Demographics Definitions · Palestine · History · Name · People · Nakba · Diaspora
Politics <i>Previous</i> Arab Higher Committee (Depopulated villages) · All-Palestine Protectorate (Government · Fedayeen militias) · PLO · National Authority (PNA) (political parties) <i>Current</i> Fatah · Hamas · PFLP · Islamic Jihad · Politics of the Palestinian National Authority (Enclaves · Governorates · Cities) · Gaza Strip governance (Hamas) (Governorates of the Gaza Strip) · National Council (PNC) · Legislative Council (PLC) Flag · Law Palestine (West Bank · Gaza Strip · E. Jerusalem)
Religion / religious sites Christianity · Islam · Judaism · Al-Aqsa · Basilica of the Annunciation · Cave of the Patriarchs · Church of the Holy Sepulchre · Church of the Nativity · Dome of the Rock · Great Mosque of Gaza · Joseph's Tomb · Lot's Tomb · Nabi Samwil · Rachel's Tomb
Culture Art · Cinema · Costume and embroidery · Cuisine · <i>Dabke</i> (dance) · Handicrafts · Language · Literature · Music
List of Palestinians V · T · E

Part of a series on the History of Palestine

Prehistory [show]
Ancient history [show]
Classical period [show]
Islamic rule [show]
Modern era [show]
 Palestine portal
V · T · E

J1 STATE OF PALESTINE

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

<p>State of Palestine^[a]</p> <p>دولة فلسطين (Arabic)</p> <p><i>Dawlat Filasṭīn</i></p>	<p>Population</p> <p>2023 estimate 5,483,450^[9] (121st)</p> <p>Density 731/km² (1,893.3/sq mi)</p>
<p>Anthem: "فدائي" "Fida'i"^[a] "Fedayeen Warrior"</p>	<p>GDP (PPP) 2022 estimate</p>
 <p>Territory claimed by Palestine (green)^[a] Territory also claimed by Israel (light green)</p>	<p>Total ▲\$33.9 billion^[10] (138th)</p> <p>Per capita ▲\$6,354^[10] (140th)</p>
	<p>GDP (nominal) 2022 estimate</p> <p>Total ▼\$19.6 billion^[10] (121st)</p> <p>Per capita ▼\$3,517^[10] (131st)</p>
	<p>Gini (2016) ▼ 33.7^[11] medium</p>
	<p>HDI (2019) ▲ 0.708^[12] high · 115th</p>
<p>Status UN observer state Recognized by 139 UN member states</p>	<p>Currency</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Egyptian pound (EGP) Israeli new shekel (ILS) Jordanian dinar (JOD)^[1]
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proclaimed capital Administrative center 	<p>Time zone UTC+2 (Palestine Standard Time)</p> <p>Summer (DST) UTC+3 (Palestine Summer Time)</p>
<p>Largest city Gaza City</p>	<p>Date format dd/mm/yyyy</p>
<p>Official languages Arabic</p>	<p>Driving side right</p>
<p>Demonym(s) Palestinian</p>	<p>Calling code +970</p>
<p>Government Unitary semi-presidential republic^[3]</p>	<p>ISO 3166 code PS</p>

President	Mahmoud Abbas ^a	Internet TLD	.ps
Prime Minister	Mohammad Shtayyeh	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Also the leader of the state's government.^[4] b. The territory claimed is under Israeli occupation. c. Ramallah is the administrative center of the Palestinian National Authority.^[14] 	
Speaker of Parliament	Aziz Dweik		
Legislature	National Council		
Formation			
Declaration of Independence	15 November 1988		
UNGA observer state resolution	29 November 2012		
Sovereignty dispute with Israel	Ongoing ^{[c][4][5]}		
Area			
Total	6,020 ^[6] km ² (2,320 sq mi) (163rd)		
Water (%)	3.5 ^[7]		
West Bank	5,655 km ²		
Gaza Strip	365 km ² ^[8]		

Palestine (Arabic: فلسطين, romanized: *Filasṭīn*, pronounced [fɪ.lɪs.tʃiːn]), [officially](#) the **State of Palestine**^[a] (دولة فلسطين, *Dawlat Filasṭīn*), is a state located in the [Southern Levant](#) region of [West Asia](#). Officially governed by the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) (PLO), it claims the [West Bank](#) (including [East Jerusalem](#)) and the [Gaza Strip](#) as its territory, though the entirety of that territory has been [under Israeli occupation](#) since the 1967 [Six-Day War](#).^{[5][18]} As a result of the [Oslo Accords](#) of 1993–1995, the West Bank is currently divided into 165 [Palestinian enclaves](#) that are under partial [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA) rule; the remainder, including 200 [Israeli settlements](#), is under [full Israeli control](#). The Gaza Strip has been ruled by the militant Islamic group [Hamas](#) and has been subject to [a long-term blockade by Egypt and Israel](#) since 2007.^[c]

After [World War II](#), in 1947, the [United Nations](#) (UN) adopted a [Partition Plan](#) for [Mandatory Palestine](#), which recommended the creation of independent Arab and Jewish states and an [internationalized Jerusalem](#).^[27] This Partition Plan was accepted by the [Jews](#) but rejected by the [Arabs](#). Immediately after the [United Nations General Assembly](#) adopted the plan as Resolution 181, [a civil war broke out](#)^[28] and the plan was not implemented.^[29] The day after the [establishment of the State of Israel](#) on 14 May 1948,^{[30][31][32]} neighboring Arab countries invaded the former British Mandate and engaged Israeli forces in

the [First Arab–Israeli War](#).^{[33][34]} Later, the [All-Palestine Government](#) was established by the [Arab League](#) on 22 September 1948 to govern the [All-Palestine Protectorate](#) in the [Egyptian-occupied Gaza Strip](#). It was soon recognized by all Arab League members except [Transjordan](#), which had occupied and later [annexed the West Bank](#), including [East Jerusalem](#). Palestine is currently [recognized by 138 of the 193 United Nations \(UN\) member states](#). Though jurisdiction of the All-Palestine Government was declared to cover the whole of the former Mandatory Palestine, its effective jurisdiction was limited to the Gaza Strip.^[35] [Israel](#) later captured the Gaza Strip and the [Sinai Peninsula](#) from Egypt, the West Bank and East Jerusalem from Jordan, and the [Golan Heights](#) from [Syria](#) during the Six-Day War in June 1967.

On 15 November 1988 in [Algiers](#), then-Chairman of the PLO [Yasser Arafat](#) proclaimed the [establishment of the State of Palestine](#). A year after the signing of the [Oslo Accords](#) in 1993, the PNA was formed to govern (in varying degrees) [areas A and B](#) in the West Bank, comprising 165 enclaves, and the [Gaza Strip](#). After Hamas became the [PNA parliament](#)'s leading party in the most recent elections (2006), [a conflict broke out](#) between it and the [Fatah](#) party, leading to Gaza being taken over by Hamas in 2007 (two years after the [Israeli disengagement](#)).

The State of Palestine's mid-year population in 2021 is 5,227,193. Although Palestine claims [Jerusalem](#) as its capital, the city is under the control of Israel; both Palestinian and Israeli claims to the city are [mostly unrecognized by the international community](#). Palestine is a member of the Arab League, the [Organisation of Islamic Cooperation](#), the [G77](#), the [International Olympic Committee](#), as well as [UNESCO](#), [UNCTAD](#) and the [International Criminal Court](#).^[36] Following a [failed attempt](#) in 2011^[e] to secure full United Nations member state status, the United Nations General Assembly voted in 2012 to recognize Palestine as a [non-member observer state](#).^{[38][39][40]}

ETYMOLOGY

Further information: [Palestine \(region\) § Etymology](#), and [Timeline of the name "Palestine"](#)

Although the concept of the [Palestine region](#) and its geographical extent has varied throughout history, it is now considered to be composed by the modern State of Israel, the West Bank and the Gaza Strip.^[41] General use of the term "Palestine" or related terms to the area at the southeast corner of the [Mediterranean Sea](#) beside [Syria](#) has historically been taking place since the times of [Ancient Greece](#), with [Herodotus](#) being the first historian writing in the 5th century BC in [The Histories](#) of a "district of Syria, called Palaistine" in which [Phoenicians](#) interacted with other maritime peoples.^{[42][43]} The term "Palestine" (in Latin, *Palæstina*) is thought to have been a term coined by the Ancient Greeks for the area of land occupied by the [Philistines](#), although there are other explanations.^[44]

Terminology

This article uses the terms "Palestine", "State of Palestine", "occupied Palestinian territory" (oPt or OPT) interchangeably depending on context. Specifically, the term "occupied Palestinian territory" refers as a whole to the geographical area of the Palestinian territory occupied by Israel since 1967. In all cases, any references to land or territory refer to land claimed by the State of Palestine.^[45]

HISTORY

Main article: [History of the State of Palestine](#)

See also: [History of Palestine](#)

In 1947, the UN adopted a [partition plan](#) for a two-state solution in the remaining territory of the mandate. The plan was accepted by the Jewish leadership but rejected by the Arab leaders, and Britain refused to implement the plan. On the eve of final British withdrawal, the [Jewish Agency for Israel](#), headed by [David Ben-Gurion](#), declared the establishment of the [State of Israel](#) according to the proposed UN plan. The [Arab Higher Committee](#) did not declare a state of its own and instead, together with [Transjordan](#), [Egypt](#), and the other members of the [Arab League](#) of the time, commenced military action resulting in the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#). During the war, Israel gained additional territories that were designated to be part of the Arab state under the UN plan. Egypt [occupied](#) the Gaza Strip and Transjordan [occupied and then annexed](#) the West Bank. Egypt initially supported the creation of an [All-Palestine Government](#) but disbanded it in 1959. Transjordan never recognized it and instead decided to incorporate the West Bank with its own territory to form [Jordan](#). [The annexation](#) was ratified in 1950 but was rejected by the international community. The [Six-Day War](#) in 1967, when Israel fought against Egypt, Jordan, and [Syria](#), ended with [Israel occupying the West Bank](#) and the Gaza Strip, besides other territories.^{[46][[better source needed](#)]}

In 1964, when the West Bank was controlled by Jordan, the Palestine Liberation Organization was established there with the goal to confront Israel. The [Palestinian National Charter](#) of the PLO defines the boundaries of Palestine as the whole remaining territory of the mandate, including Israel. Following the Six-Day War, the PLO moved to Jordan, but later relocated to [Lebanon](#) in 1971.^{[47][[better source needed](#)]}

The October [1974 Arab League summit](#) designated the PLO as the "sole legitimate representative of the Palestinian people" and reaffirmed "their right to establish an independent state of urgency."^[48] In November 1974, the PLO was recognized as competent on all matters concerning the question of Palestine by the [UN General Assembly](#) granting them [observer status](#) as a "non-state entity" at the UN.^{[49][50]} After the 1988 Declaration of Independence, the UN General Assembly officially acknowledged the proclamation and decided to use the designation "Palestine" instead of "Palestine Liberation Organization" in the UN.^{[17][51]} In spite of this decision, the PLO did not participate at the UN in its capacity of the State of Palestine's government.^[52]

In 1979, through the [Camp David Accords](#), Egypt signalled an end to any claim of its own over the Gaza Strip. In July 1988, Jordan [ceded its claims to the West Bank](#)—with the exception of guardianship over [Haram al-Sharif](#)—to the PLO. In November 1988, the PLO legislature, while in exile, declared the establishment of the "State of Palestine". In the month following, it was quickly recognised by many states, including Egypt and Jordan. In the Palestinian Declaration of Independence, the State of Palestine is described as being established on the "Palestinian territory", without explicitly specifying further. Because of this, some of the countries that recognised the State of Palestine in their statements of recognition refer to the "1967 borders", thus recognizing as its territory only the [occupied Palestinian territory](#), and not Israel.

The UN membership application submitted by the State of Palestine also specified that it is based on the "1967 borders".^[2] During the negotiations of the Oslo Accords, the PLO recognised Israel's right to exist, and Israel recognised the PLO as representative of the Palestinian people. The 1988 [Palestinian Declaration of Independence](#) included a PNC call for multilateral negotiations on the basis of [UN Security Council Resolution 242](#) later known as "the Historic Compromise",^[53] implying acceptance of a two-state solution and no longer questioning the legitimacy of the [State of Israel](#).^[54]

After Israel captured and occupied the West Bank from Jordan and Gaza Strip from Egypt, it began to establish [Israeli settlements](#) there. Administration of the Arab population of these territories was performed by the [Israeli Civil Administration](#) of the [Coordinator of Government Activities in the Territories](#) and by local [municipal councils](#) present since before the Israeli takeover. In 1980, Israel decided to freeze elections for these councils and to establish instead Village Leagues, whose officials were under Israeli influence. Later this model became ineffective for both Israel and the Palestinians, and the Village Leagues began to break up, with the last being the Hebron League, dissolved in February 1988.^[55]

In 1993, in the [Oslo Accords](#), Israel acknowledged the PLO negotiating team as "representing the Palestinian people", in return for the PLO recognizing Israel's right to exist in peace, acceptance of [UN Security Council resolutions 242](#) and [338](#), and its rejection of "violence and terrorism".^[56] As a result, in 1994 the PLO established the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA or PA) territorial administration, that exercises some governmental functions^[6] in [parts of](#) the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#).^{[57][58]} In 2007, the [Hamas takeover](#) of Gaza Strip politically and territorially divided the Palestinians, with [Abbas's Fatah](#) left largely ruling the West Bank and recognized internationally as the official [Palestinian Authority](#),^[59] while Hamas secured its [control over the Gaza Strip](#). In April 2011, the Palestinian parties signed an agreement of [reconciliation](#), but its implementation had stalled^[59] until a [unity government](#) was formed on 2 June 2014.^[60]

As envisioned in the Oslo Accords, Israel allowed the PLO to establish interim administrative institutions in the Palestinian territories, which came in the form of the PNA. It was given civilian control in [Area B](#) and civilian and security control in Area A, and remained without involvement in [Area C](#). In 2005, following the implementation of Israel's unilateral disengagement plan, the PNA gained full control of the Gaza Strip with the exception of its borders, airspace, and [territorial waters](#).^[6] Following the [inter-Palestinian conflict](#) in 2006, Hamas took over control of the Gaza Strip (it already had majority in the PLC), and Fatah took control of the West Bank. From 2007, the Gaza Strip was [governed by](#) Hamas, and the West Bank by Fatah.^[61]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J2 TIMELINE OF THE NAME ‘*PALESTINE*’

WIKIPEDIA

This article presents a list of notable historical references to the name *Palestine* as a [place name](#) in the [Middle East](#) throughout the history of the region, including its counterparts in other languages, such as Arabic *Filasṭīn* and Latin *Palaestina*.

The term "[Peleset](#)" ([transliterated](#) from [hieroglyphs](#) as *P-r-s-t*) is found in five inscriptions referring to a neighboring people, who are generally identified with the [Philistines](#),^[2] or their land [Philistia](#), starting from circa 1150 BCE during the [Twentieth Dynasty of Egypt](#). The first known mention is at the [Medinet Habu](#) temple which refers to the Peleset among those who fought against [Egypt](#) during [Ramesses III](#)'s reign,^[3] and the last known is 300 years later on [Padiiset's Statue](#). The [Assyrians](#) called the same region "Palashtu/Palastu" or "Pilistu," beginning with [Adad-nirari III](#) in the [Nimrud Slab](#) in c. 800 BCE through to an [Esarhaddon treaty](#) more than a century later.^{[4][5]} Neither the Egyptian nor the Assyrian sources provided clear regional boundaries for the term.^[6]

The term "Palestine" first appeared in the 5th century BCE when the [ancient Greek](#) historian [Herodotus](#) wrote of a "district of Syria, called *Palaistinê*" between [Phoenicia](#) and [Egypt](#) in [The Histories](#).^[7] Herodotus provides the first historical reference clearly denoting a wider region than biblical Philistia, as he applied the term to both the coastal and the inland regions such as the [Judean Mountains](#) and the [Jordan Rift Valley](#).^{[8][9][10][11]} Later Greek writers such as [Aristotle](#), [Polemon](#) and [Pausanias](#) also used the word, which was followed by Roman writers such as [Ovid](#), [Tibullus](#), [Pomponius Mela](#), [Pliny the Elder](#), [Dio Chrysostom](#), [Statius](#), [Plutarch](#) as well as Roman Judean writers [Philo of Alexandria](#) and [Josephus](#).^[12] There is not currently evidence of the name on any [Hellenistic](#) coin or inscription.^[13]

In the early 2nd century CE, the term "[Syria Palaestina](#)"^[a] (literally, "Palestinian Syria"^{[14][15]}) was given to the [Roman province](#) of [Judaea](#) either before or after the suppression of the [Bar Kokhba revolt](#) in 135.^{[16][17][18][19]} In around the year 390, during the [Byzantine period](#), the imperial province of [Syria Palaestina](#) was then reorganized into [Palaestina Prima](#), [Palaestina Secunda](#)^[20] and [Palaestina Salutaris](#).^[20] Following the [Muslim conquest](#), [place names](#) that were in use by the Byzantine administration generally continued to be used in Arabic,^{[4][21]} and the [Jund Filastin](#) became one of the military districts within the [Umayyad](#) and [Abbasid](#) province of [Bilad al-Sham](#).^[22]

The use of the name "Palestine" became common in [Early Modern English](#),^[23] was used in English and Arabic during the [Mutasarrifate of Jerusalem](#). The term was used widely as a [self-identification](#) by [Palestinians](#) from the start of the 20th century onwards.^[24] In the 20th century the name was used by the British to refer to "[Mandatory Palestine](#)," a territory from the former [Ottoman Empire](#) which had been divided in the [Sykes–Picot Agreement](#) and secured by Britain via the [Mandate for](#)

[Palestine](#) obtained from the [League of Nations](#).^[25] Starting from 2013, the term was officially used in the eponymous "[State of Palestine](#)".^[26] Both incorporated geographic regions from the land commonly known as [Palestine](#), into a new state whose territory was named Palestine.

ETYMOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The English term "Palestine" itself derives from the [Latin](#) *Palaestina*,^[27] which, in turn, derives from the [Koine Greek](#) Παλαιστίνη, *Palaistínē*, used by the world's first known historian, Herodotus, in the 5th century BCE.^[7] Per [Martin Noth](#), the name likely comes from a [proto-Semitic word](#), albeit there is a strong similarity between *Palaistínē* and *palaistēs*, the Greek word for "wrestler/rival/adversary", which has [the same etymological meaning](#) as the Hebrew word "Israel."^[28] This was expanded by David Jacobson to theorize the name being a [portmanteau](#) of the word for Philistines with a direct translation of the word Israel into [Greek](#) (in concordance with the Greek penchant for punning on place names.)^{[29][30][31]}

Whilst the term was used in Egyptian and Assyrian times, prior to the time period in which the Bible is thought to have been written, scholars generally conclude that the term is cognate with the [Biblical Hebrew](#) פְּלִשְׁתִּים *Pəlišṭīm*.^{[32][33][34]} The further etymology is uncertain; it is unknown whether the term was an [endonym or exonym](#), no word for Philistia has been found in the sparse attestations of [the Philistine language](#), and it is unknown whether the Hebrew, Egyptian, and Assyrian terms derived from a common source, or if they simply borrowed the name from one another and changed it to match their own phonological customs.

In English versions of the Bible, *Pəlišṭīm* is translated as "[Philistines](#)"; however, it is thought that the word means different things in different parts of the Bible. The word and its derivatives are used more than 250 times in [Masoretic](#)-derived versions of the [Hebrew Bible](#),^{[35][36]} of which 10 uses are in the [Torah](#) (the first use being in Genesis 10, in the [Generations of Noah](#)),^[37] with undefined boundaries and no meaningful description, and almost 200 of the remaining references are in the later [Book of Judges](#) and the [Books of Samuel](#) that contain the well known story of a coastal state in biblical conflict with the Israelites.^{[4][12][38]} By the time the [Septuagint](#) was translated the term *Palaistínē* (Παλαιστίνη), first used by Herodotus, had already entered the Greek vocabulary. However, it was not used in the LXX – instead the term *Land of Phylistieim* (Γη των Φυλιστιειμ) is used.^[39] The Septuagint instead used the term "allophuloi" (Ἀλλόφυλοι, "other nations") throughout the Books of Judges and Samuel,^{[40][41]} such that the term "Philistines" has been interpreted to mean "non-Israelites of the Promised Land" when used in the context of Samson, Saul and David,^[42] and Rabbinic sources explain that these peoples were different from the Philistines of the [Book of Genesis](#).^[40]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J3 PALESTINIAN NATIONALISM

Further information: [History of Palestinian nationality](#)

"Palestinian liberation" redirects here. For other uses of the term or organizations with that term in their name, see [Palestinian liberation \(disambiguation\)](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Palestinian nationalism is the [national movement](#) of the [Palestinian people](#) that espouses [self-determination](#) and [sovereignty](#) over the [region of Palestine](#).^[1] Originally formed in opposition to [Zionism](#), Palestinian nationalism later internationalized and attached itself to other ideologies;^[2] it has thus rejected the [occupation](#) of the [Palestinian territories](#) by the government of [Israel](#) since the [1967 Six-Day War](#).^[3] Palestinian nationalists often drawn upon broader political traditions in their [ideology](#), examples being [Arab socialism](#) and [ethnic nationalism](#) in the context of Muslim [religious nationalism](#). Related beliefs have shaped the [government of Palestine](#) and continue to do so.

In the broader context of the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#) in the 21st century, Palestinian nationalist demands have included an end to the [refugee status of individuals](#) separated from their native lands during the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#), advocates stating that a "[right of return](#)" exists either to the occupied territories or to both those areas plus places within Israel itself. Nationalists have additionally worked to advance specific causes in terms of current residents' lives such as [freedom of assembly](#), [labor rights](#), the [right to health care](#), and the [right to travel](#). Divisions between nationalists frequently stir up tense standoffs over particular ideological goals, an example being the gulf between [Islamist](#) Palestinians favoring a more [authoritarian](#) state compared to [centrist](#) and [secular](#) peoples supporting [democratic](#) self-determination. Palestinians favoring [nonviolence](#) also frequently clash with [ultranationalists](#) who advocate for and engage in [political violence both inside and outside Israel](#).

The [flag](#) of the [Arab Revolt](#) against the [Ottoman Empire](#) is a prominent symbol of Arab nationalism. Its design and [colors](#) are the basis of many of the [Arab states' flags](#).

ORIGINS AND STARTING POINTS

Before the development of modern nationalism, loyalty tended to focus on a city or a particular leader. The term "Nationalismus", translated as nationalism, was coined by [Johann Gottfried Herder](#) in the late 1770s. Palestinian nationalism has been compared to other nationalist movements, such as Pan-Arabism and Zionism. Some nationalists ([primordialists](#)) argue that "the nation was always there, indeed it is part of the natural order, even when it was submerged in the hearts of its members."^[4] In keeping with this philosophy, [Al-Quds University](#) states that although "Palestine was conquered in times past by [ancient Egyptians](#), [Hittites](#), [Philistines](#), [Israelites](#), [Assyrians](#), [Babylonians](#), [Persians](#), [Romans](#), [Muslim](#)

Arabs, Mamlukes, Ottomans, the British, the Zionists ... the population remained constant—and is now still Palestinian."^[5]

Zachary J. Foster argued in a 2015 *Foreign Affairs* article that "based on hundreds of manuscripts, Islamic court records, books, magazines, and newspapers from the Ottoman period (1516–1918), it seems that the first Arab to use the term "Palestinian" was Farid Georges Kassab, a Beirut-based Orthodox Christian." He explained further that Kassab's 1909 book *Palestine, Hellenism, and Clericalism* noted in passing that "the Orthodox Palestinian Ottomans call themselves Arabs, and are in fact Arabs", despite describing the Arabic speakers of Palestine as Palestinians throughout the rest of the book."^[6]

Foster later revised his view in a 2016 piece published in *Palestine Square*, arguing that already in 1898 Khalil Beidas used the term "Palestinian" to describe the region's Arab inhabitants in the preface to a book he translated from Russian to Arabic. In the book, Akim Olesnitsky's *A Description of the Holy Land*, Beidas explained that the summer agricultural work in Palestine began in May with the wheat and barley harvest. After enduring the entire summer with no rain at all—leaving the water cisterns depleted and the rivers and springs dry—"the Palestinian peasant waits impatiently for winter to come, for the season's rain to moisten his fossilized fields." Foster explained that this is the first instance in modern history where the term 'Palestinian' or 'Filastini' appears in Arabic. He added, though, that the term Palestinian had already been used decades earlier in Western languages by the 1846–1863 British Consul in Jerusalem, James Finn; the German Lutheran missionary Johann Ludwig Schneller (1820–1896), founder of the Syrian Orphanage; and the American James Wells.^[7]

In his 1997 book, *Palestinian Identity: The Construction of Modern National Consciousness*, historian Rashid Khalidi notes that the archaeological strata that denote the history of Palestine—encompassing the Biblical, Roman, Byzantine, Umayyad, Fatimid, Crusader, Ayyubid, Mamluk and Ottoman periods—form part of the identity of the modern-day Palestinian people, as they have come to understand it over the last century,^[8] but derides the efforts of some Palestinian nationalists to attempt to "anachronistically" read back into history a nationalist consciousness that is in fact "relatively modern."^[9] Khalidi stresses that Palestinian identity has never been an exclusive one, with "Arabism, religion, and local loyalties" playing an important role.^[10] He argues that the modern national identity of Palestinians has its roots in nationalist discourses that emerged among the peoples of the Ottoman Empire in the late 19th century which sharpened following the demarcation of modern nation-state boundaries in the Middle East after World War I.^[10] He acknowledges that Zionism played a role in shaping this identity, though "it is a serious mistake to suggest that Palestinian identity emerged mainly as a response to Zionism."^[10] Khalidi describes the Arab population of British Mandatory Palestine as having "overlapping identities", with some or many expressing loyalties to villages, regions, a projected nation of Palestine, an alternative of inclusion in a Greater Syria, an Arab national project, as well as to Islam.^[11] He writes that, "local patriotism could not yet be described as nation-state nationalism."^[12]

Israeli historian [Haim Gerber](#), a professor of Islamic History at [Hebrew University of Jerusalem](#), traces Arab nationalism back to a 17th-century religious leader, [Mufti Khayr al-Din al-Ramli](#) (1585–1671)^[13] who lived in [Ramla](#). He claims that Khayr al-Din al-Ramli's religious edicts (*fatwa*, plural *fatawa*), collected into final form in 1670 under the name *al-Fatawa al-Khayriyah*, attest to territorial awareness: "These fatawa are a contemporary record of the time, and also give a complex view of agrarian relations." The 1670 collection mentions the concepts *Filastin*, *biladuna* (our country), *al-Sham* (Syria), *Misr* ([Egypt](#)), and *diyar* ([country](#)), in senses that appear to go beyond objective geography. Gerber describes this as "embryonic territorial awareness, though the reference is to social awareness rather than to a political one."^[14]

[Baruch Kimmerling](#) and [Joel Migdal](#) consider the [1834 Arab revolt in Palestine](#) as the first formative event of the Palestinian people,^[15] whereas [Benny Morris](#) attests that the Arabs in Palestine remained part of a larger Pan-Islamist or [Pan-Arab](#) national movement.^[16]

In his book *The Israel–Palestine Conflict: One Hundred Years of War*, [James L. Gelvin](#) states that "Palestinian nationalism emerged during the [interwar period](#) in response to Zionist immigration and settlement."^[17] However, this does not make Palestinian identity any less legitimate: "The fact that Palestinian nationalism developed later than Zionism and indeed in response to it does not in any way diminish the legitimacy of Palestinian nationalism or make it less valid than Zionism. All nationalisms arise in opposition to some "other." Why else would there be the need to specify who you are? And all nationalisms are defined by what they oppose."^[17]

[Bernard Lewis](#) argues it was not as a Palestinian nation that the Palestinian Arabs of the Ottoman Empire objected to Zionists, since the very concept of such a nation was unknown to the Arabs of the area at the time and did not come into being until later. Even the concept of Arab nationalism in the Arab provinces of the Ottoman Empire "had not reached significant proportions before the outbreak of World War I."^[18]

[Daniel Pipes](#) asserts that "No 'Palestinian Arab people' existed at the start of 1920 but by December it took shape in a form recognizably similar to today's." Pipes argues that with the carving of the [British Mandate of Palestine](#) out of [Greater Syria](#), the Arabs of the new Mandate were forced to make the best they could of their situation, and therefore began to define themselves as [Palestinian](#).^[19]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J4 PALESTINIAN VIEWS ON THE PEACE PROCESS

For Alternative Views see F6-8 (Israel) 'Land for Peace'

WIKIPEDIA

[Palestinians](#) hold a diverse range of **views on the [peace process](#)** with [Israel](#), though the goal that unites them is the end of the [Israeli occupation of the West Bank](#). Some Palestinians accept a [two-state solution](#), with the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#) forming a distinct [Palestinian state](#), whereas other Palestinians insist on a [one-state solution](#) (Palestinian or binational) with equal rights for all citizens whether they are Muslims, Christians or Jews.^[1] In this scenario, [Palestinian refugees](#) may be allowed to resettle the land they were forced to flee in the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#).^[2] However, widespread [anti-Semitic sentiments](#) in Palestinian society and Palestinian militancy have hindered the peace process.^{[3][4]}

BACKGROUND

[Palestinians](#) have held diverse views and perceptions of the peace process. A key starting point for understanding these views is an awareness of the differing objectives sought by advocates of the Palestinian cause. 'New Historian' Israeli academic [Ilan Pappé](#) says the cause of the conflict from a Palestinian point of view dates back to 1948 with the creation of [Israel](#) (rather than Israel's views of 1967 being the crucial point and the return of occupied territories being central to peace negotiations), and that the conflict has been a fight to bring home [refugees](#) to a [Palestinian state](#).^[5] Therefore, this for some was the ultimate aim of the peace process, and for groups such as [Hamas](#) still is. However, Jerome Slater says that this 'maximalist' view of a destruction of Israel in order to regain Palestinian lands, a view held by [Arafat](#) and the [PLO](#) initially, has steadily moderated from the late 1960s onwards to a preparedness to negotiate and instead seek a two-state solution.^[6] The [Oslo Accords](#) demonstrated the recognition of this acceptance by the then Palestinian leadership of the state of Israel's [right to exist](#) in return for the withdrawal of Israeli forces from the [Gaza Strip](#) and [West Bank](#).^[7] However, there are recurrent themes prevalent throughout peace process negotiations including a feeling that Israel offers too little and a mistrust of its actions and motives.^{[5][8]} Yet, the demand for the "Right of Return" (ROR) by descendants of Palestinian refugees to Israel has remained a cornerstone of the Palestinian view and has been repeatedly enunciated by Palestinian president Mahmud Abbas who is leading the Palestinian peace effort.

YASSER ARAFAT AND THE PLO

Yasser Arafat Main articles: [Yasser Arafat](#) and [Palestine Liberation Organization](#)

Our basic aim is to liberate the land from the Mediterranean Seas to the Jordan River.... The Palestinian revolution's basic concern is the uprooting of the Zionist entity from our land and liberating it.

The [PLO](#) has complex, often contradictory attitudes to peace with [Israel](#). Officially, the PLO accepted Israel's right to exist in peace, which was the first of the PLO's obligations under the [Oslo Accords](#). In

Yasser Arafat's 9 September 1993 letter to Israeli Prime Minister [Yitzhak Rabin](#), as part of the first Oslo Accord, Arafat stated that "The PLO recognizes the right of the State of Israel to exist in peace and security."^[10] These remarks from Arafat was seen as a shift from one of the PLO's previous primary aims—the destruction of Israel.^[11]

However, during the 1990s and 2000s the PLO leadership has stated that it considered any peace with Israel was to be temporary until the dream of Israel's destruction could be realized.^{[12][13][14]} Arafat often spoke of the peace process in terms of "justice" for the Palestinians; terms historian [Efraim Karsh](#) described as "euphemisms rooted in Islamic and Arabic history for the liberation of the whole of Palestine from 'foreign occupiers.'"^[13] When describing his views of the peace process among Arab leaders and in the media of the Arab world, Arafat's rhetoric became noticeably more bellicose than it was when among Western leaders and media outside of the Arab world.^[13] The period saw a disconnect between what the PLO's second in command [Abu Iyad](#) referred to as "the language of peace" and support of Palestinian terrorism.^[15]

Since the 1990s, there has been a debate within the PLO as to whether to halt terrorist activities completely or to continue attacking Israel as well as negotiate diplomatically with Israel.^[16] In practice, terrorism was never fully banned. Furthermore, assassination attempts by radical Palestinian factions within the PLO since the early years of the peace process kept Arafat from expressing full, public support of the peace process or condemnation of terrorism without risking further danger to his own life.^[17]

In 2000, after Yasser Arafat rejected [the offer](#) made to him by [Ehud Barak](#) based on a [two-state solution](#) and declined to negotiate for an alternative plan,^[18] it became clear that Arafat would not make a deal with Israel unless it included the full [Palestinian right of return](#), which would demographically destroy^[19] the Jewish character^[when defined as?] of the State of Israel.^{[20][21]} For this reason, critics of Arafat claim that he put his desire to destroy the Jewish state above his dream of building an autonomous Palestinian state.^[22]

HAMAS AND THE PALESTINIAN ISLAMIC JIHAD



A flag, with the [Shahadah](#), frequently used by Hamas supporters

The stated goal of [Hamas](#) and the [Palestinian Islamic Jihad](#) is to conquer Israel and replace it with an [Islamist](#) state.^[23] Both groups reject the [Oslo Accords](#) and other plans for peace with Israel. Throughout the 1990s and 2000s, the two groups worked together to derail the peace process by attacking Israeli civilians.^[24] Hamas undertook a [ceasefire](#) with Israel in August 2004. The Palestinian Islamic Jihad was

unhappy with the ceasefire.^{[25][26]} In September 2005, Hamas was criticized by Islamic Jihad for calling off rocket attacks on Israel from Gaza.

In 2008, Hamas publicly offered a long-term [hudna](#) (truce) with Israel if Israel agreed to return to its 1967 borders and to grant the "[right of return](#)" to all [Palestinian refugees](#). In 2010, Ismail Haniyeh announced that Hamas would accept the outcome of a Palestinian referendum on a peace treaty with Israel even if the results were not in line with their ideology. This represented a departure from their earlier insistence that they would not be bound by any such result.^[27] In 2012, [Mousa Abu Marzook](#), a high-ranking Hamas official in competition with Haniyeh for Hamas' top leadership post, gave an interview in which he expressed a range of opinions, some of which differed from the organisation's actual stance. He said that Hamas will not recognize Israel and will not feel bound to understand a peace treaty negotiated by Fatah as a recognition of Israel, calling instead for a *hudna* (temporary truce). Abu Marzook echoed Haniyeh's demand that Palestinians should be given the unconditional right to return into what is now Israel proper.^[28]

PROMINENT PALESTINIANS

[Rashid Abu Shbak](#), a senior PA security official declared, "The light which has shone over [Gaza](#) and [Jericho](#) [when the PA assumed control over those areas] will also reach the [Negev](#) and the [Galilee](#) [which constitute a large portion of pre-1967 Israel]."^{[29][30]}

The PA's Voice of Palestine radio station broadcast a Friday prayer sermon by [Yusuf Abu Sneineh](#), official preacher at Jerusalem's [Al-Aqsa Mosque](#), over the radio. In it, he asserted, "The struggle we are waging is an ideological struggle and the question is: where has the Islamic land of Palestine gone? Where [are] Haifa and Jaffa, Lod and Ramle, Acre, Safed and Tiberias? Where is Hebron and Jerusalem?"^{[31][32]}

PA cabinet minister Abdul Aziz Shaheen told the official PA newspaper, *Al-Havat Al-Jadida*, on January 4, 1998, "The Oslo accord was a preface for the Palestinian Authority and the Palestinian Authority will be a preface for the Palestinian state which, in its turn, will be a preface for the liberation of the entire Palestinian land."^[citation needed]

[Faisal Hussein](#), former Palestinian Authority Minister for Jerusalem, compared the [Al-Aqsa Intifada](#) following the [Oslo peace process](#) to the tactic of coming out of the [Trojan Horse](#) used by the Greeks in the myth of the [Trojan War](#).^[33]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

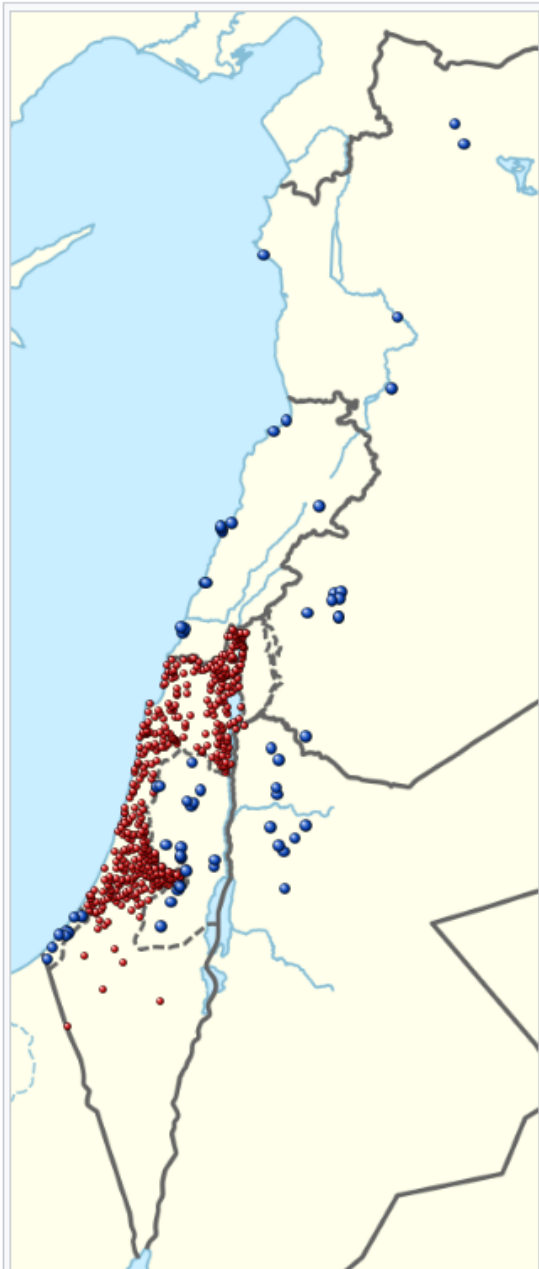
J5 PALESTINIAN REFUGEES

(Editors Note UNWRA Refugees includes descendants.

The result is the (estimated 20-50,000 surviving refugees have grown to over 5,000,000.

Those from all other countries are under UNHCR and so dwindle do not grow.)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Clickable map of the [more than 400](#) depopulated towns and villages of the 1948 [Palestinian exodus](#) (red) and the [c.60](#) modern day [Palestinian refugee camps](#) (blue)

Go to

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

To click map

Palestinian refugees are citizens of [Mandatory Palestine](#), and their descendants, who fled or were expelled from their country over the course of the [1947–49 Palestine war](#) ([1948 Palestinian exodus](#)) and the [Six-Day War](#) ([1967 Palestinian exodus](#)). Most Palestinian refugees live in or near 68 [Palestinian refugee camps](#) across [Jordan](#), [Lebanon](#), [Syria](#), the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#). In 2019 more than 5.6 million Palestinian refugees were registered with the United Nations.

In 1949, the [United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East](#) (UNRWA) defined Palestinian refugees to refer to the original "**Palestine refugees**" as well as their [patrilineal](#) descendants. However, UNRWA's assistance is limited to Palestine refugees residing in UNRWA's areas of operation in the Palestinian Territories, Lebanon, Jordan and Syria.^{[1][2]}

As of 2019, more than 5.6 million Palestinians were registered with UNRWA as refugees,^[3] of which more than 1.5 million live in UNRWA-run camps.^[4] The term "Palestine refugee" does not include [internally displaced Palestinians](#), who became Israeli citizens, or displaced Palestinian Jews. According to some estimates, as many as 1,050,000–1,380,000^[5] people, who descend from displaced people of Mandatory Palestine are not registered under UNRWA or UNHCR mandates.

During the [1948 Palestine War](#), around 700,000^[in 1] Palestinian Arabs or 85% of the total population in what became Israel [fled or were expelled from their homes](#), to the [West Bank](#), the [Gaza Strip](#), and to the countries of [Lebanon](#), [Syria](#) and [Jordan](#).^[6] They, and their descendants who are also entitled to registration, are assisted by UNRWA in 59 registered camps, ten of which were established in the aftermath of the [Six-Day War](#) in 1967 to cope with the new wave of displaced Palestinians.^[7] They are also the world's oldest unsettled refugee population, having been under the ongoing governance of Arab states following the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), the refugee populations of the West Bank under Israeli governance since the Six-Day War and Palestinian administration since 1994, and the [Gaza Strip](#) administered by the Islamic Resistance Movement ([Hamas](#)) since 2007.

Today, the largest number of refugees, over 2,000,000, live in [Jordan](#), where by 2009 over 90% of [UNRWA](#)-registered Palestinian refugees had acquired full citizenship rights. This figure consists almost exclusively of [West Bank](#)-descended Palestinians;^[8] however, as of December 2021, Palestinians with roots in the [Gaza Strip](#) are also still kept in legal limbo. In 2021, Jordanian politician [Jawad Anani](#) estimated that roughly 50% of [Jordan's population](#) had [West Bank](#)-Palestinian roots.^{[9][10][11]} Another approximately 2,000,000 refugees live in the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#), under Israeli occupation and blockade. Approximately 500,000 refugees live in each of Syria and Lebanon respectively, albeit under very different circumstances. While Palestinian refugees in Syria maintained their stateless status, the Syrian government afforded them the same economic and social rights enjoyed by Syrian citizens;^[12] they are also [drafted](#) into the [Armed Forces](#) despite not being citizens.^{[13][14]} Citizenship or legal residency in some host countries is denied, most notably for the [Palestinian refugees in Lebanon](#), where the absorption of Palestinians would upset a delicate [confessional](#) balance. For the refugees themselves, these situations


mean they have reduced rights: no right to vote, limited property rights and access to social services, among other things.

On 11 December 1948, the [General Assembly of the United Nations](#) (UNGA) adopted [Resolution 194](#) which affirmed the [Palestinians right to return](#) to their homes.^{[\[15\]](#)[\[16\]](#)}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J6 PALESTINIANS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Palestinians <i>Al-Filasṭīniyūn</i>	
Total population	
14.3 million ^[1]	
Regions with significant populations	
 State of Palestine	
5,350,000 ^[1]	
– West Bank	3,190,000 ^[1] (of whom 809,738 are registered refugees as of 2017) ^{[2][3][4]}
– Gaza Strip	2,170,000 (of whom 1,386,455 are registered refugees as of 2018) ^{[1][5][2][3]}
 Jordan	2,175,491 (2017, registered refugees only) ^[2] –3,240,000 (2009) ^[6]
 Israel	2,037,000 ^[7]
 Syria	568,530 (2021, registered refugees only) ^[2]
 Chile	500,000 ^[8]
 Saudi Arabia	400,000 ^[9]
 Qatar	295,000 ^[9]
 United States	255,000 ^[10]
 United Arab Emirates	200,000 ⁽¹¹⁾
 Lebanon	174,000 (2017 census) ^[12] –458,369 (2016, registered refugees) ^[2]
 Honduras	27,000–200,000 ^{[9][13]}
 Germany	100,000 ^[14]
 Kuwait	80,000 ^[15]
 Egypt	70,000 ^[9]
 El Salvador	70,000 ^[16]
 Brazil	59,000 ^[17]
 Libya	59,000 ^[9]
 Iraq	57,000 ^[18]
 Canada	50,975 ^[19]
 Yemen	29,000 ^[9]
 United Kingdom	20,000 ^[20]
This is a partial list/ FOR TREATMENT GO TO LOCATION Go to Wikipedia for full list	

Part of a series on Palestinians

Demographics Definitions • Palestine • History • Name • People • Nakba • Diaspora
Politics <i>Previous</i> Arab Higher Committee (Depopulated villages) • All-Palestine Protectorate (Government • Fedayeen militias) • PLO • National Authority (PNA) (political parties) <i>Current</i> Fatah • Hamas • PFLP • Islamic Jihad • Politics of the Palestinian National Authority (Enclaves • Governorates • Cities) • Gaza Strip governance (Hamas) (Governorates of the Gaza Strip) • National Council (PNC) • Legislative Council (PLC)
Flag • Law Palestine (West Bank • Gaza Strip • E. Jerusalem)
Religion / religious sites Christianity • Islam • Judaism • Al-Aqsa • Basilica of the Annunciation • Cave of the Patriarchs • Church of the Holy Sepulchre • Church of the Nativity • Dome of the Rock • Great Mosque of Gaza • Joseph's Tomb • Lot's Tomb • Nabi Samwil • Rachel's Tomb
Culture Art • Cinema • Costume and embroidery • Cuisine • <i>Dabke</i> (dance) • Handicrafts • Language • Literature • Music
List of Palestinians V • T • E

Palestinians (Arabic: الفلسطينيون, *al-Filasṭīniyyūn*; Hebrew: פְּלֶשְׁתִּינִים, *Fālasṭīnīm*) or **Palestinian people** (الشعب الفلسطيني, *ash-shaʿb al-Filasṭīnī*), also referred to as **Palestinian Arabs** (العرب الفلسطينيون, *al-ʿArab al-Filasṭīniyyūn*), are an ethnonational group^{[30][31][32][33][34][35][36]} descending from peoples who have inhabited the region of Palestine over the millennia, and who are today culturally and linguistically Arab.^{[37][38][39][40][41][42][43]}

Despite various wars and exoduses, roughly one half of the world's Palestinian population continues to reside in the territory of former Mandatory Palestine, now encompassing the West Bank and the Gaza Strip (the Palestinian territories) as well as Israel.^[44] In this combined area, as of 2022, Palestinians constitute a demographic majority, with an estimated population of 7.503 million or 51.16% (as compared to Jews at 46-47%) of all inhabitants, taking in the Gaza Strip, the West Bank, East Jerusalem, and almost 21 percent of the population of Israel proper as part of its Arab citizens.^{[45][46][47]} Many are Palestinian refugees or internally displaced Palestinians, including more than a million in the Gaza Strip,^[48] around 750,000 in the West Bank,^[49] and around 250,000 in Israel proper. Of the Palestinian population who live abroad, known as the Palestinian diaspora, more than half are stateless, lacking legal citizenship in any country.^[50] Between 2.1 and 3.24 million of the diaspora population live as refugees in neighboring Jordan,^{[51][52]} over 1 million live between Syria and Lebanon, and about 750,000 live in Saudi Arabia, with Chile holding the largest Palestinian diaspora concentration (around half a million) outside of the Arab world.

In 1919, Palestinian Muslims and Palestinian Christians constituted 90 percent of the population of

Palestine, just before the third wave of Jewish immigration under the British Mandate after World War

^{[53][54]} Opposition to Jewish immigration spurred the consolidation of [a unified national identity](#), though Palestinian society was still fragmented by regional, class, religious, and family differences.^{[55][56]} The history of the Palestinian national identity is a disputed issue amongst scholars;^{[57][58]} the term "[Palestinian](#)" was used to refer to the nationalist concept of a Palestinian people by Palestinian Arabs from the late 19th century and in the pre-World War I period.^{[41][42]} The [dissolution](#) of the [Ottoman Empire](#) and subsequent creation of an individual British Mandate for the region replaced Ottoman citizenship with Palestinian citizenship, solidifying a national identity. After the [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#), the [1948 Palestinian expulsion](#), and more so after the [1967 Palestinian exodus](#), the term "Palestinian" evolved into a sense of a shared future in the form of aspirations for a [Palestinian state](#).^[41] Today, the Palestinian identity encompasses the heritage of all ages from [biblical times](#) up to the [Ottoman period](#).^[59]

Founded in 1964, the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) is an umbrella organization for groups that represent the Palestinian people before international states.^[60] The [Palestinian National Authority](#), officially established in 1994 as a result of the [Oslo Accords](#), is an interim administrative body nominally responsible for governance in Palestinian population centres in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip.^[61] Since 1978, the [United Nations](#) has observed an annual [International Day of Solidarity with the Palestinian People](#). According to British historian [Perry Anderson](#), it is estimated that half of the population in the Palestinian territories are refugees, and that they have collectively suffered approximately US\$300 billion in property losses due to Israeli confiscations, at 2008–2009 prices.^[62]

ETYMOLOGY

See also: [Timeline of the name Palestine](#)

The [Greek](#) toponym *Palaistinē* (Παλαιστίνη), which is the origin of the [Arabic](#) *Filasṭīn* (فلسطين), first occurs in the work of the 5th century BCE [Greek](#) historian [Herodotus](#), where it denotes generally^[63] the coastal land from [Phoenicia](#) down to [Egypt](#).^{[64][65]} Herodotus also employs the term as an [ethnonym](#), as when he speaks of the 'Syrians of Palestine' or 'Palestinian-Syrians',^[66] an ethnically amorphous group he distinguishes from the Phoenicians.^{[67][68]} Herodotus makes no distinction between the inhabitants of Palestine.^[69]



**A depiction
of Syria and Palestine
from CE 650 to 1500**

The Greek word reflects an ancient Eastern Mediterranean-Near Eastern word which was used either as a [toponym](#) or [ethnonym](#). In [Ancient Egyptian](#) *Peleset/Purusati*^[70] has been conjectured to refer to the "[Sea Peoples](#)", particularly the [Philistines](#).^{[71][72]} Among [Semitic languages](#), [Akkadian](#) *Palaštu* (variant *Pilištu*) is used of 7th-century Philistia and its, by then, four city states.^[73] [Biblical Hebrew](#)'s cognate word *Plištim*, is usually translated [Philistines](#).^[74]

When the [Romans](#) conquered the region in the first century BCE, they used the name [Judaea](#) for the province that covered most of the region. At the same time, the name *Syria Palestina* continued to be used by historians and geographers to refer to the area between the [Mediterranean Sea](#) and the [Jordan River](#), as in the writings of [Philo](#), [Josephus](#) and [Pliny the Elder](#). During the early 2nd century CE, [Syria Palaestina](#) became the official administrative name in a move viewed by scholars as an attempt by emperor [Hadrian](#) to disassociate Jews from the land as punishment for the [Bar Kokhba revolt](#).^{[75][76][77]} Jacobson suggested the change to be rationalized by the fact that the new province was far larger.^{[78][79]} The name was thenceforth inscribed on coins, and beginning in the fifth century, mentioned in [rabbinic texts](#).^{[75][80][81]} The Arabic word *Filastin* has been used to refer to the region since the time of the earliest [medieval Arab geographers](#). It appears to have been used as an [Arabic adjectival noun](#) in the region since as early as the 7th century.^[82]



Khalil Beidas (1874–1949)
 was the first person
 to self-describe
 Palestine's Arabs
 as "Palestinians"
 in the preface of a book
 he translated in 1898.

In modern times, the first person to self-describe Palestine's Arabs as "Palestinians" was [Khalil Beidas](#) in 1898, followed by Salim Quba'in and [Najib Nassar](#) in 1902. After the 1908 [Young Turk Revolution](#), which eased press censorship laws in the Ottoman Empire, dozens of newspapers and periodicals were founded in Palestine, and the term "Palestinian" expanded in usage. Among those were the Al-Quds, Al-Munadi, [Falastin](#), [Al-Karmil](#) and Al-Nafir newspapers, which used the term "Filastini" more than 170 times in 110 articles from 1908 to 1914. They also made references to a "Palestinian society", "Palestinian nation", and a "Palestinian diaspora". Article writers included Christian and Muslim Arab Palestinians, Palestinian emigrants, and non-Palestinian Arabs.^{[83][84]}

During the [Mandatory Palestine](#) period, the term "Palestinian" was used to refer to all people residing there, regardless of religion or [ethnicity](#), and those granted [citizenship](#) by the British Mandatory authorities were granted "Palestinian citizenship".^[85] Other examples include the use of the term [Palestine Regiment](#) to refer to the Jewish Infantry Brigade Group of the British Army during World War II, and the term "Palestinian Talmud", which is an alternative name of the [Jerusalem Talmud](#), used mainly in academic sources.



1936 issue of
 the [Falastin](#) newspaper
 established in 1911 that
 often referred to its
 readers as "Palestinians"

Following the 1948 [establishment of Israel](#), the use and application of the terms "Palestine" and "Palestinian" by and to [Palestinian Jews](#) largely dropped from use. For example, the English-language newspaper [The Palestine Post](#), founded by Jews in 1932, changed its name in 1950 to [The Jerusalem Post](#). [Arab citizens of Israel](#) identify themselves as Arabs and/or Palestinians.^[86]

The [Palestinian National Charter](#), as amended by the PLO's [Palestinian National Council](#) in July 1968, defined "Palestinians" as "those Arab nationals who, until 1947, normally resided in Palestine regardless of

whether they were evicted from it or stayed there. Anyone born, after that date, of a Palestinian father – whether in Palestine or outside it – is also a Palestinian."^[87] Note that "Arab nationals" is *not* religious-specific, and it includes not only the Arabic-speaking Muslims of Palestine but also the [Arabic-speaking Christians](#) and other religious communities of Palestine who were at that time Arabic-speakers, such as the [Samaritans](#) and [Druze](#). Thus, the [Jews of Palestine](#) were/are also included, although limited only to "the [\[Arabic-speaking\] Jews](#) who had normally resided in Palestine until the beginning of the [pre-state] [Zionist](#) invasion." The Charter also states that "Palestine with the [boundaries](#) it had during the British Mandate, is an indivisible territorial unit."^{[87][88]}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J7 POLITICS

OF THE PALESTINIAN NATIONAL AUTHORITY

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The politics of the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA) take place within the framework of a [semi-presidential multi-party republic](#), with a [legislative council](#), an executive [president](#), and a [prime minister](#) leading the cabinet.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS SINCE 1993

In 1994, [Israel](#) and the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) signed the [Gaza–Jericho Agreement](#), which established the [Palestinian National Authority](#), a governing body for the interim period pending final status negotiations.

EXECUTIVE BRANCH

The [President of the State of Palestine](#) is the highest-ranking political position, the equivalent to [head of state](#), in the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA). The President is elected by popular elections. The last presidential election was the [2005 Palestinian presidential election](#).

The Prime Minister is appointed by the President and not directly elected by the [Palestinian Legislative Council](#) (parliament) or Palestinian voters. Unlike prime ministers in many other countries, the Palestinian Prime Minister does not serve as a member of the [legislature](#) while in office. Instead, the appointment is made independently by the ruling party. The Prime Minister is expected to represent the majority party or ruling coalition in the Legislative Council.

The leadership of the PNA has been disputed since the national unity government broke up on 14 June 2007 when President [Abbas](#) declared a [state of emergency](#) moved to dismiss [Ismail Haniyeh](#) as Prime Minister but he and the Legislative Council, which was controlled by Hamas, did not acknowledge the legitimacy of this step.^{[1][2]} [Fighting](#) between Fatah and Hamas has left the former in control of the West Bank and the latter in control of the Gaza Strip resulting in separate *de facto* leaderships in the territories both with dubious constitutional legitimacy.^{[3][4]} The situation was aggravated on 9 January 2009 when Abbas's term of office should have expired and [Hamas](#) appointed its own acting president in the form of [Abdel Aziz Duwaik](#), who as the [Speaker of the Palestinian Legislative Council](#) can take over the post for 60 days under certain circumstances.^{[5][6][7]}

Main office-holders

Office	Status	Name	Party	Since	Till
President in the West Bank	Mahmoud Abbas	Fatah	15 January 2005		
Prime Minister in the West Bank	Mohammad Shtayyeh	Fatah	10 March 2019		
Acting President in the Gaza Strip	Abdel Aziz Duwaik	Hamass	9 January 2009		
Prime Minister in the Gaza Strip	Ismail Haniyeh	Hamass	29 March 2006		

LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

The legislature of the Palestinian Authority is the [Palestinian Legislative Council](#), which is not to be confused with the [Palestine National Council](#), which remains the national legislature of the Palestinian people as a whole. The PLC passed a new law in June 2005 to increase the number of members of the PLC from 88 to 132, half of which were to be elected under a system of [proportional representation](#) and half by traditional constituencies.

The first [legislative elections](#) under the new rules took place on 25 January 2006, which were decisively won by Hamas. There have not been legislative elections since.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS



This article **needs additional citations for [verification](#)**. Please help [improve this article](#) by [adding citations to reliable sources](#). Unsourced material may be challenged and removed.
Find sources: "Politics of the Palestinian National Authority" – [news](#) · [newspapers](#) · [books](#) · [scholar](#) · [JSTOR](#) (October 2010) ([Learn how and when to remove this template message](#))

See also: [Administrative divisions of the Oslo Accords](#) and [Governorates of Palestine](#)

After the signing of the [Oslo Accords](#), the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#) were divided into [Areas A, B, and C](#), and 16 [governorates](#), 11 in the West Bank and 5 in the Gaza Strip:

- In Area A, the [PA](#) has responsibility for civilian matters and control over security.

- In Area B, the PA has responsibility for civilian matters while [Israel](#) has control over security.
- In Area C, Israel has full control, including settlements.

Since June 2007, there have been two governments claiming to be the legitimate government of the Palestinian Authority, one based in the West Bank and the other based in the Gaza Strip.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION PARTICIPATION

[UN](#) ([observer](#)), [OIC](#), [AL](#), [NAM](#), [G-77](#) [UNESCO](#)

United Nations

Further information: [State of Palestine](#), [International recognition of the State of Palestine](#), [List of current Permanent Representatives to the United Nations § United Nations General Assembly observers](#), and [Category:Permanent Observers of Palestine to the United Nations](#)

The United Nations General Assembly recognized the PLO as the "representative of the Palestinian people" in Resolution 3210 and Resolution 3236, and granted the PLO observer status on 22 November 1974 in Resolution 3237. On 12 January 1976 the [UN Security Council](#) voted 11–1 with 3 abstentions to allow the Palestinian Liberation Organization to participate in a Security Council debate without voting rights, a privilege usually restricted to UN member states. It was admitted as a full member of the [Asia group](#) on 2 April 1986.^{[8][9][10]}

After the 1988 [Palestinian Declaration of Independence](#), the PLO's representation was renamed Palestine.^[11] On 7 July 1998, this status was extended to allow participation in General Assembly debates, though not in voting.^[12]

By September 2012, with their application for full membership stalled due to the inability of Security Council members to 'make a unanimous recommendation', the Palestine Authority had decided to pursue an upgrade in status from "observer entity" to "[non-member observer state](#)". On 27 November it was announced that the appeal had been officially made, and would be put to a vote in the General Assembly on November 29, where their status upgrade was expected to be supported by a majority of states. In addition to granting Palestine "non-member observer state status", the draft resolution "expresses the hope that the Security Council will consider favourably the application submitted on 23 September 2011 by the State of Palestine for admission to full membership in the United Nations, endorses the two state solution based on the pre-1967 borders, and stresses the need for an immediate resumption of negotiations between the two parties."

On Thursday, 29 November 2012, In a 138-9 vote (with 41 abstaining) [UN General Assembly resolution 67/19](#) passed, upgrading Palestine to "non-member observer state" status in the United Nations.^{[13][14]} The new status equates Palestine's with that of the [Holy See](#). The change in status was described by [The Independent](#) as "[de facto](#) recognition of the sovereign state of Palestine".^[15]

The vote was a historic benchmark for the [sovereign State of Palestine](#) and its citizens; it was a diplomatic setback for Israel and the United States. Status as an observer state in the UN will allow the State of Palestine to join treaties and [specialised UN agencies](#), such as the International Civil Aviation Organisation,^[16] the Law of the Seas Treaty and the International Criminal Court. It shall permit Palestine to claim legal rights over its territorial waters and air space as a sovereign state recognised by the UN. It shall also provide the citizens of Palestine with the right to sue for control of the territory that is rightfully theirs in the International Court of Justice and with

the legal right to bring war-crimes charges, mainly those relating to the illegal occupation of the State of Palestine, against Israel in the [International Criminal Court](#).^[17]

The UN has permitted Palestine to title its representative office to the UN as "The Permanent Observer Mission of the State of Palestine to the United Nations".^[18] Palestine has started to retitle its name accordingly on postal stamps, official documents and passports;^{[14][19]} moreover, it has instructed its diplomats to officially represent "State of Palestine", as opposed to the "[Palestine National Authority](#)".^[14] Additionally, on 17 December 2012, UN Chief of Protocol Yeocheol Yoon decided that "the designation of 'State of Palestine' shall be used by the Secretariat in all official United Nations documents",^[20] thus recognising the PLO-proclaimed [State of Palestine](#) as being sovereign over the territories of Palestine and its citizens under international law.

J8 ECONOMY OF THE STATE OF PALESTINE



This article's [lead section](#) may be too short to adequately [summarize](#) the key **points**. Please consider expanding the lead to [provide an accessible overview](#) of all important aspects of the article. *(September 2021)*

The economy of the State of Palestine refers to the economic activity of the State of Palestine.

Editors Note: For current data see

‘The Palestinian Economy Remains Vulnerable Amid Socio-Political Instability’

[‘The World Bank](#), May23 2023

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

HISTORY

GDP per capita in the Palestinian territories rose by 7% per year from 1968 to 1980 but slowed during the 1980s. Between 1970 and 1991 life expectancy rose from 56 to 66 years, infant mortality per 1,000 fell from 95 to 42, households with electricity rose from 30% to 85%, households with safe water rose from 15% to 90%, households with a refrigerator rose from 11% to 85%, and households with a washing machine rose from 23% in 1980 to 61% in 1991.^[23]

Economic conditions in the West Bank and Gaza Strip, where economic activity was governed by the Paris Economic Protocol of April 1994 between [Israel](#) and the Palestinian Authority, deteriorated in the early 1990s. Real per capita GDP for the West Bank and Gaza Strip (WBGS) declined 36.1% between 1992 and 1996 owing to the combined effect of falling aggregate incomes and robust population growth. The downturn in economic activity was due to Israeli closure policies in response to terrorist attacks in Israel, which disrupted previously established labor and commodity market relationships. The most serious effect was the emergence of chronic unemployment. Average unemployment rates in the 1980s were generally under 5%; while by the mid-1990s it had risen to over 20%. After 1997, Israel's use of comprehensive closures decreased and new policies were implemented. In October 1999, Israel permitted the opening of a safe passage between the West Bank and the Gaza Strip in accordance with the 1995 Interim Agreement. These changes in the conduct of economic activity fueled a moderate economic recovery in 1998–99.

As a result of the Israeli blockade, 85% of factories were shut or operated at less than 20% capacity. It is estimated that Israeli businesses lost \$2 million a day from the closure while Gaza lost approximately \$1 million a day.^[24] The World Bank estimated the [nominal GDP](#) of the territories at US\$4,007,000 and of Israel at US\$161,822,000. [Per capita](#) these numbers are respectively US\$1,036 and US\$22,563 per year.

For 30 years, Israel permitted thousands of Palestinians to enter the country each day to work in construction, agriculture and other blue-collar jobs. During this period, the Palestinian economy was significantly greater than the majority of Arab states.^[25] Until the mid-1990s, up to 150,000 people—about a fifth of the Palestinian labor

force—entered Israel each day. After Palestinians unleashed a wave of suicide bombings, the idea of separation from the Palestinians took root in Israel. Israel found itself starved for labor, and gradually replaced most of the Palestinians with migrants from Thailand, Romania and elsewhere.^{[26][27]}

In 2005, the PNA Ministry of Finance cited the [Israeli West Bank barrier](#), whose construction began in the second half of 2002, as one reason for the depressed Palestinian economic activity.^[28] Real GDP growth in the West Bank declined substantially in 2000, 2001, and 2002, and increased modestly in 2003 and 2004.^[29] The World Bank attributed the modest economic growth since 2003 to "diminished levels of violence, fewer curfews, and more predictable (albeit still intense) closures, as well as adaptation by Palestinian business to the contours of a constrained West Bank economy". Under a "disengagement scenario" the Bank predicted a real growth rate of -0.2% in 2006 and -0.6% in 2007.^[30]

In the wake of [Israel's unilateral disengagement from Gaza](#), there were shortages of bread and basic supplies due to closure of the al Mentar/Karni border-crossing into Israel. Israel's offer to open other crossings was turned down by the Hamas-run Palestinian authority.^[31]

Following the [January 2006 legislative elections](#), decisively won by [Hamas](#), the [Quartet](#) (apart from Russia) cut all funds to the [Palestinian Authority](#) led by [prime minister Ismail Haniyah](#) (Hamas). The PA had a monthly cash deficit of \$60 million-\$70 million after it received \$50 million – \$55 million a month from Israel in taxes and customs duties collected by Israeli officials at the borders. After the elections, the Palestinian stock market fell about 20%, and the PA exhausted its borrowing capacity with local banks.^[32] Israel ceased transferring \$55 million in tax receipts to the PA. These funds accounted for a third of the PA's budget and paid the wages of 160,000 Palestinian civil servants (among them 60,000 security and police officers). The United States and the European Union halted direct aid to the PA, while the US imposed a financial blockade on PA's banks, impeding the transfer of some of the [Arab League's](#) funds (e.g. [Saudi Arabia](#) and [Qatar](#)).^[33] In May 2006, hundreds of Palestinians demonstrated in Gaza and the West Bank demanding payment of their wages. Tension between Hamas and [Fatah](#) rose as a result of this "economic squeeze" on the PA.^[34]

In 2009, the Israeli military removed its checkpoint at the entrance of Jenin in a series of reductions in security measures.^[35] In September 2012, EU activists stated that the Palestinian economy "lost access to 40% of the West Bank, 82% of its groundwater and more than two-thirds of its grazing land" due to the occupation and settlement construction.^[36]

The first planned Palestinian city named [Rawabi](#) is under construction north of [Ramallah](#), with the help of funds from Qatar.^[37] In 2013, commercial trade between Israel and the Palestinian territories was valued at US\$20 billion annually.^[38]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J9 PALESTINE LIBERATION ORGANISATION (PLO)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

<div> <h2>Palestine Liberation Organization</h2> </div> <div> <p>منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية 🔊 <i>Munazzamat at-Taḥrīr al-Filasṭīniyyah</i> (help·info)</p> </div> <div> </div> <table border="0"> <tr> <td>Abbreviation</td><td>PLO</td></tr> <tr> <td>Chairman</td><td>Mahmoud Abbas</td></tr> <tr> <td>Founded</td><td>28 May 1964^[1]</td></tr> <tr> <td>Headquarters</td><td>Al-Bireh, West Bank^{[2][3]}</td></tr> <tr> <td>Ideology</td><td>Palestinian nationalism</td></tr> <tr> <td>Anthem</td><td>Fida'i^[4]</td></tr> <tr> <td>Palestinian Legislative Council</td><td>50 / 132</td></tr> </table> <div> <p>Politics of Palestine · Political parties · Elections</p> </div>	Abbreviation	PLO	Chairman	Mahmoud Abbas	Founded	28 May 1964 ^[1]	Headquarters	Al-Bireh, West Bank ^{[2][3]}	Ideology	Palestinian nationalism	Anthem	Fida'i ^[4]	Palestinian Legislative Council	50 / 132	<div> <h2>Palestine Liberation Organization</h2> </div> <table border="0"> <tr> <td>Headquarters</td><td>Palestine</td></tr> <tr> <td>Ideology</td><td>Palestinian nationalism</td></tr> <tr> <td>Opponents</td><td> State opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israel Non-state opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hamas </td></tr> <tr> <td>Battles and wars</td><td>Israel-Palestine conflict</td></tr> <tr> <td>Designated as a terrorist group by</td><td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israel^[5] </td></tr> </table>	Headquarters	Palestine	Ideology	Palestinian nationalism	Opponents	State opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israel Non-state opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hamas 	Battles and wars	Israel-Palestine conflict	Designated as a terrorist group by	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israel^[5]
Abbreviation	PLO																								
Chairman	Mahmoud Abbas																								
Founded	28 May 1964 ^[1]																								
Headquarters	Al-Bireh, West Bank ^{[2][3]}																								
Ideology	Palestinian nationalism																								
Anthem	Fida'i ^[4]																								
Palestinian Legislative Council	50 / 132																								
Headquarters	Palestine																								
Ideology	Palestinian nationalism																								
Opponents	State opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israel Non-state opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hamas 																								
Battles and wars	Israel-Palestine conflict																								
Designated as a terrorist group by	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Israel^[5] 																								

Politics of Palestine



Officeholders whose status is disputed are shown in *italics*



Member state of the Arab League

Government	[show]
National symbols	[show]
Legislative Council	[show]
Elections	[show]
Administrative divisions	[show]
Foreign relations	[show]



Palestine portal

[Other countries](#)

V · T · E

GO TO [WIKIPEDIA](#) to click links

The **Palestine Liberation Organization** (PLO; Arabic: منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية *Munazzamat at-Taḥrīr al-Filasṭīniyyah*) is a [Palestinian nationalist coalition](#) that is internationally recognized as the official representative of the [Palestinian people](#).^{[5][6]} Founded in 1964, it initially sought to establish an [Arab state](#) over the entire territory of the former [Mandatory Palestine](#), advocating the elimination of the [State of Israel](#). However, in 1993, the PLO recognized Israeli sovereignty with the [Oslo I Accord](#), and now only seeks Arab statehood in the [Palestinian territories](#) (the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#)) that have been militarily occupied by Israel since the [1967 Arab–Israeli War](#).


It is headquartered in [Al-Bireh](#), a city in the West Bank. As the officially recognized government of the *de jure* [State of Palestine](#), it has enjoyed [United Nations observer status](#) since 1974.^{[7][8][9]} Prior to the [Oslo Accords](#), the PLO's militant wings openly engaged in [acts of violence against Israeli civilians](#), both within Israel and outside of Israel.^{[10][11][12]} Consequently, the [United States](#) designated it as a terrorist group in 1987, though a presidential waiver has permitted [American–PLO contact](#) since 1988.^{[13][14]} Mediated talks between the Israeli government and the PLO in 1993 (the Oslo I Accord) resulted in the PLO recognizing [Israel's right to exist in peace](#) and accepting [United Nations Security Council Resolution 242](#),

while Israel recognized the PLO as a legitimate authority representing the Palestinian people.^[15] Despite the [Israel–PLO Letters of Mutual Recognition](#), in which PLO leader Yasser Arafat renounced "terrorism and other acts of violence" against Israel, the PLO continued to engage in militant activities, particularly during the [Second Intifada](#) (2000–2005). On 29 October 2018, the [PLO Central Council](#) suspended the [Palestinian recognition of Israel](#), and subsequently halted all forms of security and economic cooperation with Israeli authorities.^[16]

FOUNDING

At its [first summit meeting](#) in [Cairo](#) in 1964, the [Arab League](#) initiated the creation of an organization representing the Palestinian people.^[17] The [Palestinian National Council](#) convened in [Jerusalem](#) on 28 May 1964. After concluding the meeting, the PLO was founded on 2 June 1964. Its stated "complementary goals" were Arab unity and the liberation of [Palestine](#).^[18]

IDEOLOGY



This section **relies excessively on [references](#) to [primary sources](#)**. Please improve this section by adding [secondary or tertiary sources](#).

Find sources: "[Palestine Liberation Organization](#)" ideology – [news](#) · [newspapers](#) · [books](#) · [scholar](#) · [JSTOR](#) (July 2020) ([Learn how and when to remove this template message](#))

The ideology of the PLO was formulated in the founding year, 1964, in the [Palestinian National Covenant](#).^[18] In 1968, the Charter was replaced by a comprehensively revised version.^[19]

Until 1993, the only promoted option was armed struggle.^[citation needed] From the signing of the Oslo Accords, negotiation and diplomacy became the only official policy.^[citation needed]

In April 1996, a large number of articles, which were inconsistent with the [Oslo Accords](#), were wholly or partially nullified.^[20]

At the core of the PLO's ideology is the belief that [Zionists](#) had unjustly expelled the Palestinians from Palestine and established a Jewish state in place under the pretext of having historic and Jewish ties with Palestine. The PLO demanded that [Palestinian refugees](#) be allowed to return to their homes. This is expressed in the National Covenant:

Article 2 of the Charter states that "Palestine, with the boundaries it had during the [British mandate](#), is an indivisible territorial unit",^[19] meaning that there is no place for a Jewish state. This article was adapted in 1996 to meet the Oslo Accords.^[20]

Article 20 states: "The [Balfour Declaration](#), the Mandate for Palestine, and everything that has been based upon them, are deemed null and void. Claims of historical or religious ties of Jews with Palestine are incompatible with the facts of history and the true conception of what constitutes statehood. Judaism, being a religion, is not an independent nationality. Nor do Jews constitute a single nation with an identity of its own; they are citizens of the states to which they belong".^[19] This article was nullified in 1996.^[20]

Article 3 reads: "The Palestinian Arab people possess the legal right to their homeland and have the right to determine their destiny after achieving the liberation of their country in accordance with their wishes and entirely of their own accord and will".

Secularism Versus Adherence to Islam

The PLO and its dominating faction, Fatah, are often contrasted to more religious orientated factions like [Hammas](#) and the [Palestinian Islamic Jihad](#) (PIJ). All, however, represent a predominant Muslim population. Practically the whole population of the Territories is Muslim, mostly Sunni. Around 50,000 (ca 1%) of the 4.6 million [Palestinians](#) in the occupied [Palestinian territories](#) (OPT) are [Palestinian Christian](#).^{[21][22]}

Under President Arafat, the Fatah-dominated [Palestinian Authority](#) adopted the 2003 Amended Basic Law, which stipulates Islam as the sole official religion in Palestine and the principles of Islamic [sharia](#) as a principal source of legislation.^[23] The draft Constitution contains the same provisions.^{[24][25]} The draft Constitution was formulated by a Constitutional Committee, established by Arafat in 1999 and endorsed by the PLO.^{[26][27]}

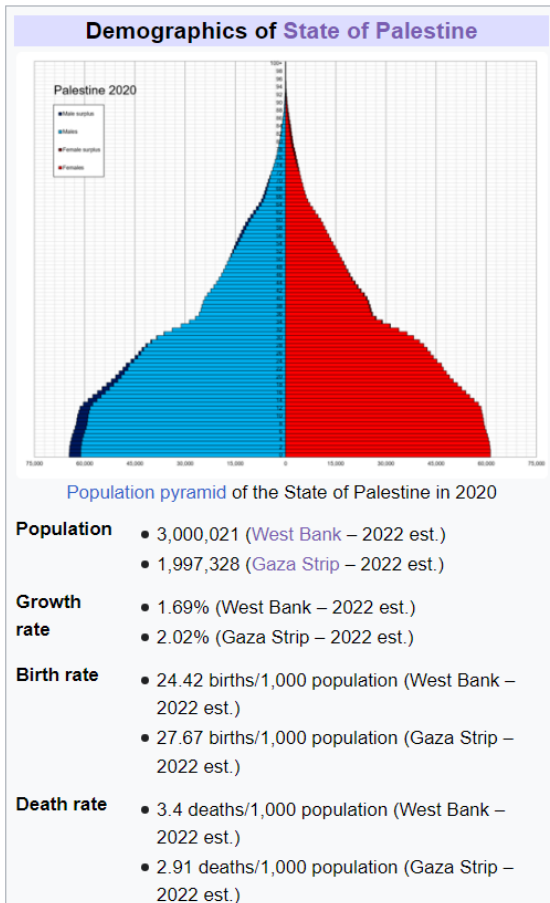
[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J10 DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE STATE OF PALESTINE

Click [WIKIPEDIA](#)
For detailed statistics

"Demographics of Palestine" redirects here. For historical overview,
see [Demographic history of Palestine \(region\)](#).

[WIKIPEDIA GO TO SITE FOR DETAILED STATISTICS](#)

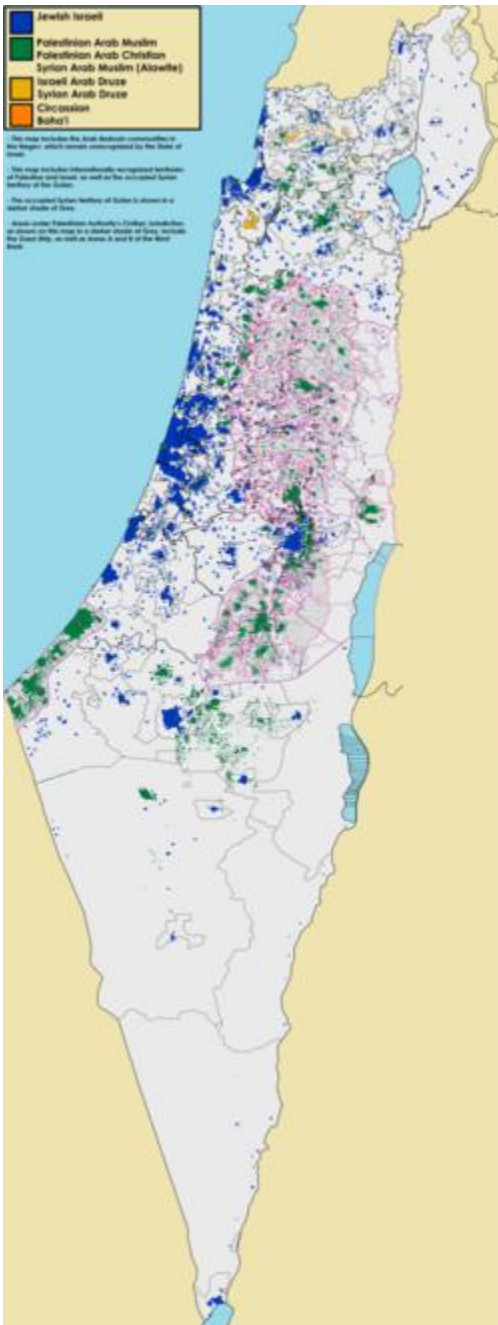


Population (mid-year, millions) ^{[17][18][19]}			
Year	West Bank	Gaza	Total
1970	0.69	0.34	1.03
1980	0.90	0.46	1.36
1990	1.25	0.65	1.90
2000	1.98	1.13	3.11
2010	2.52	1.60	4.12
2014	2.73	1.82	4.55
Source: U.S. Census Bureau			
2006	2.5	1.5	4.0
2009	2.48	1.45	3.94
Source: Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics			

[Demographic](#) features of the [population](#) of the area commonly described as [Palestinian territories](#) includes information on [ethnicity](#), education level, health of the populace, economic status, religious affiliations and other aspects of that population.

According to a commonly used definition as relating to an application of the [1949 Armistice Agreement green line](#), the [Palestinian territories](#) have contributory parts of the [West Bank](#) (including [East Jerusalem](#)) and the [Gaza Strip](#).

The [Palestinian National Authority](#), the [United Nations Security Council](#),^[1] the [United Nations General Assembly](#),^[2] the [European Union](#),^[3] the [International Court of Justice](#),^[4] and the [International Committee of the Red Cross](#)^[5] use the terminology "Palestinian territories" or "occupied Palestinian territories". [Israel](#) refers to the administrative division encompassing Israeli-controlled Jewish-majority civilian areas of [Area C](#) of the West Bank, excluding East Jerusalem, as [Judea and Samaria Area](#) ([Hebrew](#): אזור יהודה ושומרון, *Ezor Yehuda VeShomron*).^[6]



OVERVIEW

The demographic statistics of [The World Factbook](#) and the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#) estimated that the collective Palestinian Arab population in the region of [Palestine](#), including Israel, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip, amounted to 5.79 million people in 2017.^{[7][8]} Thereof, 2.16 million Arabs live in the West Bank, 1.84 million Arabs live in Israel, and 1.79 million Arabs live in the Gaza Strip.^{[7][8]}

The demographic statistics of *The World Factbook* and the [Israel Central Bureau of Statistics](#) estimated (2017) that the collective population in the Palestinian territories amounted to 4,543,126 people in 2017. Thereof, 2,155,743 Arabs live in the West Bank, 1,795,183 Arabs live in the Gaza Strip, and 391,000 Jews live in the West Bank.^[8] Approximately 214,600 Jews live in East Jerusalem.^[9] East Jerusalem, once administered by Jordan, came under Israeli occupation after the 1967 [Six-Day War](#).^[10] In the Palestinian territories, c. 86% of the population is Arab (predominantly [Sunni](#)), c. 13% is Jewish, other <1% (cf. [Israel](#): Jewish 74%, Arab 21%, other 5%).^[8]

According to the [UN](#), the population in the [State of Palestine](#) was c. 4.9 million in 2017, resulting in an estimated [population density](#) of 817 [capita](#) per km².^[11] According to the [Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics](#) (PCBS), the number of Palestinians in the Palestinian Territory was 3,935,249 in 2009, resulting in a calculated population density of 654 capita per km², of which 433 capita/km² in the [West Bank](#) including Jerusalem and 4,073 capita/km² in [Gaza Strip](#).^[12] In the mid-2009, the share of population less than 15 years was 41.9% and above 65 years 3%.^[12]

Out of 224 listed countries and territories, the West Bank ranked 48th with a [total fertility rate](#) (TFR) of 3.2, and the Gaza Strip ranked 31st with a TFR of 3.97 according to *The World Factbook* in 2018.^[13] In 2018, the West Bank had an estimated [population growth rate](#) of 1.81% (country comparison to the world: 56th) and the Gaza Strip had a population growth rate of 2.25% (35th).^{[14][15][16]}

<p>Part of a series on</p> <p>Palestinians</p>

<p>Demographics</p> <p>Definitions • Palestine • History • Name • People • Nakba • Diaspora</p>
<p>Politics</p> <p><i>Previous</i></p> <p>Arab Higher Committee (Depopulated villages) • All-Palestine Protectorate (Government • Fedayeen militias) • PLO • National Authority (PNA) (political parties)</p> <hr/> <p><i>Current</i></p> <p>Fatah • Hamas • PFLP • Islamic Jihad • Politics of the Palestinian National Authority (Enclaves • Governorates • Cities) • Gaza Strip governance (Hamas) (Governorates of the Gaza Strip) • National Council (PNC) • Legislative Council (PLC)</p> <hr/> <p>Flag • Law Palestine (West Bank • Gaza Strip • E. Jerusalem)</p>
<p>Religion / religious sites</p> <p>Christianity • Islam • Judaism • Al-Aqsa • Basilica of the Annunciation • Cave of the Patriarchs • Church of the Holy Sepulchre • Church of the Nativity • Dome of the Rock • Great Mosque of Gaza • Joseph's Tomb • Lot's Tomb • Nabi Samwil • Rachel's Tomb</p>
<p>Culture</p> <p>Art • Cinema • Costume and embroidery • Cuisine • <i>Dabke</i> (dance) • Handicrafts • Language • Literature • Music</p>
<p>List of Palestinians</p> <p>V • T • E</p>

J11 PALESTINIAN REFUGEE CAMPS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Clickable map
of the
Palestinian refugee camps
(Click [WIKIPEDIA](#)
to go to
Click Map)

Camps are set up by the [United Nations Relief and Works Agency](#) (UNRWA) in [Jordan](#), [Lebanon](#), [Syria](#), the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#) to accommodate [Palestinian refugees](#) registered with UNRWA, who fled or were expelled during the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#) after the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) or in the aftermath of the [Six-Day War](#) in 1967, and their patrilineal descendants.^[1] There are 68 **Palestinian refugee camps**, 58 official and 10 unofficial,^[2] ten of which were established after the Six-Day War while the others were established in 1948 to 1950s.

Whilst only a third of registered Palestinian refugees live within the boundaries of the refugee camps,^[3] Palestinian refugees "show extraordinary social and economic integration outside the camps and

informal gatherings".^[4] Many Palestinian refugees live in adjacent or nearby "gatherings", defined as "the geographic area, outside the official camps, which is home to a minimum 15 Palestinian households."^[5]

The total number of registered Palestine refugees has grown from 750,000 in 1950 to around 5 million in 2013.^[6]

DEFINITION OF PALESTINIAN REFUGEE

UNRWA's mandate is to provide assistance to Palestinian refugees, including access to its refugee camps. For this purpose, it defines Palestinian refugees as "persons whose normal place of residence was Palestine during the period 1 June 1946 to 15 May 1948, and who lost both home and means of livelihood as a result of the 1948 conflict."^[6]

UNRWA also extends assistance to the patrilineal descendants of such refugees, as well as their legally adopted children.^[6]

ROLE OF UNRWA

For a camp to be recognized by UNRWA, there must be an agreement between the host government and UNRWA governing use of the camp. UNRWA does not itself run any camps, has no police powers or administrative role, but simply provides services to the camp. UNRWA recognizes facilities in 58 designated [refugee camps](#) in [Jordan](#), [Lebanon](#), [Syria](#), the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#), and it also provides facilities in other areas where large numbers of registered Palestine refugees live outside of recognized camps. UNRWA also provided relief to Jewish [displaced persons](#) inside [Israel](#) following the 1948 conflict until the Israeli government took over responsibility for them in 1952. Refugee camps developed from tented cities to rows of concrete blockhouses to urban ghettos indistinguishable from their surroundings (effectively becoming urban developments within existing cities or by themselves), that house around one third of all registered Palestine refugees.

The [funding for UNRWA](#) activities comes almost entirely from voluntary contributions from UN member states. UNRWA also receives some funding from the Regular Budget of the United Nations, which is used mostly for international staffing costs.^[6]

LIST OF CAMPS

The camps are divided between five regions:

- Gaza Strip: The [Gaza Strip](#) has eight official and no unofficial refugee camps,^[2] and 1,221,110 registered refugees.
- West Bank: The [West Bank](#) has 19 official and four unofficial refugee camps,^[2] and 741,409 registered refugees.
- Syria: [Syria](#) has nine official refugee camps and three unofficial refugee camps,^[2] and 499,189 registered refugees.
- Lebanon: There are 12 official refugee and no unofficial camps in [Lebanon](#),^[2] and 448,599 registered refugees.
- Jordan: There are 10 official and three unofficial refugee camps in [Jordan](#),^[2] and 2,034,641 registered refugees.

The table below (Click [WIKIPEDIA](#) to go to Table) shows the population of registered refugees, other registered people, and refugees residing in camps, in 2018.^[76] UNRWA's definition of Other Registered Persons refer to "those who, at the time of original registration did not satisfy all of UNRWA's Palestine refugee criteria, but who were determined to have suffered significant loss and/or hardship for reasons related to the 1948 conflict in Palestine; they also include persons who belong to the families of other registered persons."^[77]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J12 JENIN REFUGEE CAMP

(Editors Note: This is an example of Refugee Camp Conditions)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

View from the Jenin refugee camp in 2011	
Nicknames: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Martyr's Capital (by Palestinians) • The Hornet's Nest (by Israelis) 	
	
Location of Jenin Camp within Palestine Coordinates:  32°27′41″N 35°17′11″E	
Country	State of Palestine
Governorate	Jenin Governorate
Area	
• Total	473 dunams (0.42 km ² or 0.16 sq mi)
Population	
• Total	11,674 (PCBS estimate) 13,000–15,000 (UNRWA estimate) More than 22,000 (Al Jazeera report)

The **Jenin refugee camp** ([Arabic](#): مخيم جنين للاجئين), also known as the **Jenin camp** ([Arabic](#): مخيم جنين), is a [Palestinian refugee camp](#) located in the city of [Jenin](#) in the northern [West Bank](#). It was established in 1953 to house Palestinians who [fled or were expelled](#) from their homes by Israeli forces during and in the

aftermath of the [1948 Palestine War](#). The camp has since become a stronghold of [Palestinian militants](#), and has become known as "the martyr's capital" by Palestinians, and "the hornet's nest" by Israel.

The camp was the location of several incidents relating to the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#), most notably the [2002 Battle of Jenin](#) between [Israel](#) and [Palestinian militants](#) and the 2022 killing of [Al Jazeera](#) journalist [Shireen Abu Akleh](#), and remains the site of frequent clashes between Israeli forces and Palestinians.

The camp has a high population density, estimated at 33,000/km² by the [UNRWA](#). Refugees in the camp face difficult living conditions, which are caused in part by Israeli restrictions. The camp has a high unemployment rate compared to the rest of the West Bank, and many refugees live in substandard shelters, with poor sewage networks and common shortages in water and electricity.

HISTORY

Establishment

The Jenin refugee camp was formally established in 1953, after a [snowstorm](#) had destroyed a previous refugee camp in the region.^[1] The camp was established over 372 [dunams](#) of land that was leased to the [United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East](#) (UNRWA) for an extended period of time,^[2] and was later expanded to 473 dunams (0.42 km²).^[3]

The camp is located in the [city of Jenin](#). To its north is the [Jezreel Valley](#) or Marj Ibn Amir ([Arabic](#): مرج ابن عامر), and to its east is [Jordan Valley](#). The camp, and the entirety of the West Bank, was under Jordanian control at the time of its establishment, following the [Jordanian annexation of the West Bank](#) that took place in 1950.^[4]

Israeli Occupation and Rise of Militancy

Further information: [Six-Day War](#)

Following the defeat of the Arab Armies in the [Six-Day War](#) of 1967, the West Bank, including the Jenin camp, came under Israeli occupation.^[5]

Following the [Israeli invasion of southern Lebanon in 1982](#), the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) (PLO) was forced out of the country, settling in [Tunisia](#).^[6] However, many PLO militants chose to return to the occupied Palestinian territories, leading to the emergence of a number of militant groups, a number of which were centered in the vicinity of Jenin. These groups included the 'Black Panthers' of [Fatah](#) and the 'Red Eagles' of the [Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine](#) (PFLP).^[2]

First Intifada and Oslo years

Further information: [First Intifada](#)

See also: [Oslo Accords](#) and [West Bank Areas in the Oslo II Accord](#)

The residents of the Jenin camp participated in the [First Intifada](#), a major Palestinian uprising against Israel that took place in the late 1980s and early 1990s.^[7] During that intifada, the camp was the target of several

Israeli raids conducted in search of militants.^[2] The [Oslo Accords](#), signed at the end of the First Intifada, transferred the control and administration of the camp to the then-newly established [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PA).^[8]

Second Intifada and Battle of Jenin

Main article: [Battle of Jenin \(2002\)](#)

The Jenin camp was heavily involved the [Second Intifada](#), another major Palestinian uprising against Israel that took place in the early 2000s. In April 2002, after a string of [Palestinian suicide attacks](#), Israeli forces entered the camp as part of [Operation Defensive Shield](#), commencing the [Battle of Jenin](#). Israel claimed that the camp was a hotbed of [Palestinian militancy](#), and prevented relief workers and reporters from entering the camp, claiming that [booby traps](#) set up by the Palestinians were a serious concern. Palestinians later acknowledged that explosives were placed throughout the camp.^{[9][10]}

The battle lasted for ten days between 1 April and 11 April, and Israel began withdrawing its troops on 18 April. Over the course of the battle, over 400 homes were destroyed, and hundreds more were severely damaged.^[11] A UN envoy likened the camp to an earthquake zone,^[12] as did a reporter for the [Associated Press](#) who later visited the camp.^[13] The [BBC](#) reported that ten percent of the camp was "virtually rubbed out by a dozen armored Israeli bulldozers".^[14]

A report by the [United Nations](#) stated that 52 Palestinians and 23 Israeli soldiers were killed in the battle, although the Palestinians claim that the Israeli military killed 500 people during the battle.^[15] 4,000 people, a quarter of the camp's pre-battle population, were left homeless because of the destruction.^[16]

After the battle, the [Israeli housing minister](#) offered to rebuild the camp at a nearby location and with enlarged roads. However, the camp's residents rejected the proposal, which they saw as an attempt to erase the political symbolism of Palestinian refugee camps, whose existence they see as a living testament to the [Nakba](#).^[17]

By 2005, the UNRWA had completed the reconstruction of the camp, in an operation that was described as "the largest humanitarian intervention during the Second Intifada". However, this rebuild has been criticized by the camp's residents, who said that the new network of roads exposed them to greater violence and insecurity as it made it easier for Israeli jeeps and tanks to enter the camp.^[18]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J13 PALESTINIAN RIGHTS IN ARAB COUNTRIES

Editors Note

Iraq is the only Arab country under this heading in Wikipedia
Iraq and other Arab countries are in Block Z

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Palestinians in Iraq



Palestinians in Iraq are people of [Palestinians](#), most of whom have been residing in [Iraq](#) after they were displaced in [1948](#).^[1] Before 2003, there were approximately 34,000 Palestinians thought to be living in Iraq, mainly concentrated in Baghdad. However, since the 2003 [Iraq War](#), the figure lies between 10,000–13,000, although a precise figure has been hard to determine.^{[2][3][4]} The situation of Palestinians in Iraq deteriorated after the fall of [Saddam Hussein](#) and particularly following the bombing of the [Al-Askari Mosque](#) in 2006.^[citation needed] Since then, with the rise in insecurity throughout Iraq, they have been the target of [expulsion, persecution and violence](#) by Shia militants, and the new Iraqi Government with militant groups targeting them for preferential treatment they received under the [Ba'ath Party](#) rule.^[5] Currently, several hundred Palestinians from Iraq are living in border camps, after being refused entry to neighbouring [Jordan](#) and [Syria](#). Others have been resettled to third countries.^[6]

HISTORY

The birth of the Palestinian community in modern Iraq dates back to 1948, when the Iraqi army, which had been fighting in Palestine, returned to Baghdad with a group of Palestinians who had been forced to flee their homes in Haifa and Jaffa.^[7] In addition, some Palestinian villagers had been forcibly drafted by the invading Iraqi army, and they and their families were allowed to resettle in Iraq.^[8] Following the [1967 war with Israel](#), a second larger wave of Palestinians sought refuge in Iraq.^[7] The third and final wave occurred in 1991 after the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, when those Palestinians living in Kuwait fled.^[7] Over the years, there were also many Palestinians who came to Iraq in search of work. Prior to 2003, there were approximately 25,000 registered Palestinian refugees living in Iraq.^[9] In December 2010, approximately 10,000 Palestinians remained in Iraq, the majority of whom were living in and around Baghdad.^[10]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J14 PALESTINIAN RIGHT OF RETURN

(See also [G13 Palestinian Right to Return](#))

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Use [WIKIPEDIA](#)
to go to web page
to access links

The **Palestinian right of return** is the political position or principle that [Palestinian refugees](#), both [first-generation](#) refugees (c. 30,000 to 50,000 people still alive as of 2012)^{[3][4]} and their descendants (c. 5 million people as of 2012),^[3] have a [right to return](#), and a right to the [property](#) they themselves or their forebears left behind or were forced to leave in what is now [Israel](#) and the [Palestinian territories](#) (both formerly part of the [British Mandate of Palestine](#)), as part of the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#), a result of the [1948 Palestine war](#), and due to the [1967 Six-Day War](#).

Formulated for the first time on 27 June 1948 by United Nations mediator [Folke Bernadotte](#),^[5] proponents of the [right of return](#) hold that it is a sacred right,^[citation needed] as well as a [human right](#), whose applicability both generally and specifically to the [Palestinians](#) is protected under [international law](#).^[6] This view holds that those who opt not to return or for whom return is not feasible, should receive compensation in lieu. Proponents argue that Israel's opposition stands in contrast with its [Law of Return](#) that grants all Jews the right to settle permanently, while withholding any comparable right from Palestinians.^[7]

Opponents of the right of return hold that there is no basis for it in international law, and that it is an unrealistic demand.^[8] The [government of Israel](#) does not view the admission of Palestinian refugees to their former homes in Israel as a right, but rather as a political issue to be resolved as part of a final peace settlement.^{[9][10]}

BACKGROUND

Overview

The number of [Palestinian refugees of the 1948 war](#) is estimated at between 700,000 and 800,000, and another 280,000 to 350,000 people were [refugees of the 1967 war](#).^{[11][12][13][14]} Approximately 120,000–170,000 among the 1967 refugees are believed to have also been refugees from the 1948 war, fleeing a second time.^[15] Today, the estimated number of Palestinian refugees exceeds four million.^[16] The right of return has been of great importance to Palestinians since then.^[17]

The first formal move towards the recognition of a right of return was in [UN General Assembly Resolution 194](#) passed on 11 December 1948 which provided (Article 11):

Resolves that the refugees wishing to return to their homes and live at peace with their neighbours should be permitted to do so at the earliest practicable date, and that compensation should be paid for the property of those choosing not to return and for loss of or damage to property which, under principles of international law or in equity, should be made good by the Governments or authorities responsible.

[UN General Assembly Resolution 3236](#), passed on 22 November 1974 declared the right of return to be an "inalienable right".^[17]

The right of return was defined as the "foremost of Palestinian rights" at the 12th [Palestine National Council](#) meeting in 1974 when it became the first component of the [Palestine Liberation Organization's](#) trinity of inalienable rights, the others being the right of self determination and the right to an independent state.^[18]

Israel has since the birth of the refugee problem consistently rejected that the Palestinians would have any inherent "right" of return. In June 1948, the Israeli government stated its position, which was reiterated in a letter to the United Nations on 2 August 1949, that in its view a solution to the Palestinian refugee problem must be sought, not through the return of the refugees to Israel, but through the resettlement of the Palestinian Arab refugee population in other states.^[19]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J15 PALESTINIAN RETURN TO ISRAEL

(See also [G12 Palestinian Return of Israel](#))

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Palestinian return to Israel refers to the movement of [Palestinians](#) back into the territory of present [Israel](#).

The period from 1948 to 1956 saw extensive attempts by Palestinians to cross the border, leading to violent clash between Israeli border guards and border-crossers (residential, political and criminal). Between 2,700 and 5,000 Palestinians were killed by Israel during this period, the vast majority being unarmed and intending to return for economic or social reasons.^[1] The [Palestinian Fedayeen insurgency](#) took place during this period.

From 1967 to 1993, a period of mass employment in Israel of Palestinian workers from the Israeli-occupied [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#) prevailed, although immigration and naturalization remain largely inaccessible. During the 1990s, following numerous attacks against Israeli citizens by Palestinians, escalating policies of closure of the [Green Line](#) replaced labor mobility. In the 2000s, this policy has been supplemented by physical barriers in the West Bank and Gaza, and increasingly tight restrictions on family reunification.

ISRAELI POLICY

Israeli policy to prevent the refugees returning to their homes was initially formulated by [David Ben-Gurion](#) and [Yosef Weitz](#) and formally adopted by the Israeli cabinet in June 1948.^[2] In December of that year, the UN General Assembly adopted [resolution 194](#), which resolved "that the refugees wishing to return to their homes and live at peace with their neighbors should be permitted to do so at the earliest practicable date, and that compensation should be paid for the property of those choosing not to return and for loss of or damage to property which, under principles of international law or in equity, should be made good by the Governments or authorities responsible."^{[2][3]} Despite much of the international community, including the US President Harry Truman, insisting that the repatriation of [Palestinian refugees](#) was essential, Israel refused to accept the principle.^[3] In the intervening years Israel has consistently refused to change its position and has introduced further legislation to hinder Palestinians refugees from returning and reclaiming their land and confiscated property.^{[2][3]}

In 1950, the Israeli Foreign Ministry published a booklet arguing against the return of Palestinian refugees to the country. It stated that any return of refugees would introduce the problem of a national minority, "which has been almost eliminated by the war".^[4]

[Yitzhak Pundak](#), commander of the 6th brigade, later testified:

One day I was summoned to the central front. In the bureau of Maj. Gen. Zvi Ayalon, and in the presence of intelligence officer Binyamin Jibli, I was ordered to liquidate every infiltrator encountered

by our forces, and as deterrence to leave the body in the field, to make an example of it. ... When I asked why there was no order in writing, the general and the intelligence officer emphasized that they were speaking in the name of the chief of staff. Gradually the trails filled up with bloated bodies. ... The stench that spread through the area reached our outposts and soldiers started to suffer from headaches, dizziness, nausea and breathing difficulties.^[5]

DEMOGRAPHIC ESTIMATES

[Alan Baker](#), then legal adviser to the [Israeli Ministry of Foreign Affairs](#), said that from 1948 until 2001, Israel allowed about 184,000 Palestinians to settle in Israel.^[6] The then deputy minister of the [Israeli Ministry of Public Security](#), [Gideon Ezra](#), said that 57,000 Jordanians came illegally from 1998 to 2001. An expert in the Ministry of Labor said that number is "totally illogical".^[7]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J16 PALESTINIAN IDENTITY

This article **needs additional citations for [verification](#)**. Please help [improve this article](#) by [adding citations to reliable sources](#). Unsourced material may be challenged and removed.

Find sources: ["Palestinian identity"](#) – [news](#) · [newspapers](#) · [books](#) · [scholar](#) · [JSTOR](#) (March 2016) ([Learn how and when to remove this template message](#))

The term "Palestinians" tends mainly to be used as a short form for the Palestinian people, defined as equivalent to Palestinian Arabs, i.e., an Arabic-speaking people descended from the people who have lived in Palestine over the centuries.

This usage may be intended to imply that other residents of Palestine (historical or otherwise), particularly [Palestinian Jews](#), are not Palestinians.

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

TYPES OF PALESTINIAN IDENTITY PAST AND PRESENT

By geography, pre-1948

Prior to the [1948 Palestine war](#) and the establishment of the [State of Israel](#), a "Palestinian" could mean any person who was born in or hailed from the [region of Palestine](#) or was a citizen of the [Mandatory Palestine](#). The term covered all the inhabitants of the region, including people from Muslim, Christian and Jewish backgrounds, and all ethnicities, including the [Dom people](#), [Samaritans](#), [Druze](#), [Bedouins](#) and the traditional [Jewish](#) communities of Palestine, or [Old Yishuv](#), whose ancestors already living there prior to the onset of [Zionist immigration](#).

By geography, post-1948

In the aftermath of the [1948 Palestine war](#) and the establishment of the [State of Israel](#), a "Palestinian" tends to refer to individuals from non-Jewish communities born in the West Bank and Gaza, and citizens of the [State of Palestine](#), including the populations of [Palestinian refugees](#) living in the wide Middle East and other [Palestinian diaspora](#) populations worldwide.

In Israeli, former [Palestinian Jews](#) that acquired [Israeli citizenship](#) became [Israelis](#), while non-Jewish Palestinians that acquired [Israeli citizenship](#) came to be referred to as [Israeli Arabs](#) or [Druze](#).

The [Jewish Virtual Library](#) notes: "Although anyone with roots in the land that is now Israel, the West Bank and Gaza is technically a Palestinian, the term is now more commonly used to refer to non-Jew Arabs with such roots ... Most of the world's Palestinian population is concentrated in Israel, the West Bank, the Gaza Strip and Jordan, although many Palestinians live in Lebanon, Syria and other Arab countries."^[1]

Palestinian refugees

[UNRWA](#) defines the Palestinian refugees as those whose normal place of residence between June 1946 and May 1948 was in the land that is now Israel, but they went outside during the 1948 war. UNRWA, however,

provides aid to Palestinian refugees defined as such, as well as the descendants of those Palestinians. UNRWA does define "Palestinian refugees" to include descendants of "refugees".^[2]

By Ethnic Grouping

The word "[Palestinian](#)" is also sometimes used by ethnographers and linguists to denote the specific Arab subculture of the [southern Levant](#); in that sense, it includes not only the [Arabs](#) of British Mandate Palestine, but also those [inhabitants](#) of [Jordan](#) who are originally from Palestine and the [Druze](#), while excluding both [Bedouin](#) (who culturally and linguistically group with the [Arabian Peninsula](#)) and ethnic minorities such as the [Dom](#), the [Circassians](#), and the [Samaritans](#).^[3]

Part of a series on Palestinians

Demographics Definitions · Palestine · History · Name · People · Nakba · Diaspora
Politics <i>Previous</i> Arab Higher Committee (Depopulated villages) · All-Palestine Protectorate (Government · Fedayeen militias) · PLO · National Authority (PNA) (political parties) <i>Current</i> Fatah · Hamas · PFLP · Islamic Jihad · Politics of the Palestinian National Authority (Enclaves · Governorates · Cities) · Gaza Strip governance (Hamas) (Governorates of the Gaza Strip) · National Council (PNC) · Legislative Council (PLC)
Flag · Law Palestine (West Bank · Gaza Strip · E. Jerusalem)
Religion / religious sites Christianity · Islam · Judaism · Al-Aqsa · Basilica of the Annunciation · Cave of the Patriarchs · Church of the Holy Sepulchre · Church of the Nativity · Dome of the Rock · Great Mosque of Gaza · Joseph's Tomb · Lot's Tomb · Nabi Samwil · Rachel's Tomb
Culture Art · Cinema · Costume and embroidery · Cuisine · <i>Dabke</i> (dance) · Handicrafts · Language · Literature · Music
List of Palestinians V · T · E

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J17 INTERNATIONAL AID TO PALESTINIANS

This article needs to be **updated**.

Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (May 2021)

WIKIPEDIA

International aid has been provided to **Palestinians** since at least the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#). The Palestinians view the aid as keeping the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#) going, while the Israelis claim that it is used to fund terrorism^[1] and removes the imperative to Palestinians to negotiate a settlement of the [Israel-Palestinian conflict](#). The [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PA), within the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#), receives one of the highest levels of aid in the world.^[2] Aid has been provided to the Palestinian Authority, [Palestinian non-governmental organizations](#) (PNGOs) as well as Palestinian political factions by various foreign governments, international organisations, [international non-governmental organizations](#) (INGOs), and charities, besides other sources.

The [Ad Hoc Liaison Committee](#) coordinates the delivery of most aid to Palestinians. The entities that provide such aid are categorized into seven groups: the [Arab nations](#), the [European Union](#), the [United States](#), [Japan](#), international institutions (including [agencies](#) of the [UN system](#)), European countries, and other nations.^[3] In July 2018, Australia ceased providing direct aid to the PA, saying the donations could increase the PA's capacity to pay Palestinians convicted of politically motivated violence, and that it will direct its funds through United Nations programs.^[4]

UNRWA

Main article: [UNRWA § Funding](#)

The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East ([UNRWA](#)) was set up in 1949 to provide humanitarian relief to Palestinians displaced by the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#). Originally, it was intended to provide jobs on public works projects and direct relief. Today, UNRWA provides education, health care, and [social services](#) to more than 5 million registered [Palestinian refugees](#) and their descendants, and other segments of Palestinian society, as well as providing some financial aid to Palestinians. UNRWA has also been a donor to the PA.^[5] UNRWA employs over 30,000 staff, 99% of whom are locally recruited Palestinians.^[6] Most of UNRWA's funding comes from European countries and the United States. Between 2000 and 2015 the European Union contributed €1.6 billion to UNRWA.^[7] In addition to its regular budget, UNRWA receives funding for emergency activities and special projects.

In 2009, UNRWA's total budget was US\$1.2 billion, of which it received US\$948 million.^[8] In 2009, the retiring Commissioner General spoke of a \$200 million shortfall in UNRWA's budgets.^[9] Officials in 2009 spoke of a 'dire financial crisis'.^[10]

In 2010, the biggest contributors to its regular budget were the United States and the [European Commission](#) with \$248 million and \$165 million respectively. Sweden (\$47m), the United Kingdom (\$45m), Norway (\$40m), and the Netherlands (\$29m) were also important donors.^[11]

In 2011, the US was the largest single contributor with a total contribution of over \$239 million, followed by the European Commission's \$175 million contribution.^[12]

According to World Bank data, for all countries receiving more than \$2 billion international aid in 2012, Gaza and the West Bank received a per capita aid budget over double the next largest recipient, at a rate of \$495.^{[13][14]}

In 2013, \$1.1 billion was contributed to UNRWA,^[15] of which \$294 million was contributed by the United States,^[16] \$216.4 million by the EU, \$151.6 million by Saudi Arabia, \$93.7 million by Sweden, \$54.4 million by Germany, \$53 million by Norway, \$34.6 million by Japan, \$28.8 million by Switzerland, \$23.3 million by Australia, \$22.4 million by the Netherlands, \$20 million by Denmark, \$18.6 million by Kuwait, \$17 million by France, \$12.3 million by Italy, \$10.7 million by Belgium as well as \$10.3 million by all other countries.^[17]

In 2016, the US contributed \$368 million to UNWRA, and \$350 million in 2017, but has cut around one third of its contributions for 2018.^[18] In January 2018, the US withheld \$65 million, roughly half the amount due in the month, again creating a financial crisis for UNRWA.^[19] Belgium and the Netherlands announced a plan to increase their contributions to UNRWA.^[18] In August 2018, the US cut its annual contribution of \$360m to UNWRA, citing many complaints, including the number of Palestinians UNWRA recognizes as refugees, which number more than 5 million.^[20] In mid-2019, Netherlands, Belgium and Switzerland temporarily suspended funding to UNRWA. In December 2019, the Netherlands restored funding to UNWRA, increasing its donation by €6 million for 2019, to €19 million.^[21]

In April 2021, the US contributed \$150m to UNRWA,^[22] on condition that the funds are not used to assist any refugee receiving military training or has participated in any terrorist act.^[23]

HISTORY

Before Oslo Accords

Before the signing of the [Oslo Accords](#), international aid for the West Bank and Gaza came mainly from [Western](#) and Arab states, mostly through UN agencies such as [UNRWA](#). Most programs were started or developed during the 1970s, and expanded during the 1980s. Most of the aid was channeled through PNGOs or INGOs.^[24] Although the stance of the donors during the pre-Oslo period is regarded by some analysts, such as Rex Brynen, as controversial and linked with phenomena such as corruption, nationalism and factional rivalries,^[25] international aid effectively financed a series of programs in the sectors of agriculture, infrastructure, housing and education.^[26]

Oslo Accords

The [Oslo Accords](#), officially signed^[27] on September 13, 1993, contained substantial provisions on economic matters and international aid: Annex IV of the Declaration of Principles (DoP) discusses regional

cooperation and implicitly calls for major international aid efforts to help the Palestinians, Jordan, Israel and the entire region.^[28]

On October 1, 1993, the international donor community (nations and institutions^[29]) met in Washington to mobilize support for the peace process, and pledged to provide approximately \$2.4 billion to the Palestinians over the course of the next five years.^[30] The international community's action was based on the premise that it was imperative to garner all financial resources needed to make the agreement successful, and with a full understanding that in order for the Accords to stand in the face of daily challenges on the ground, ordinary Palestinians needed to perceive positive change in their lives.^[31] Therefore, the donors had two major goals: to fuel Palestinian economic growth and to build public support for negotiations with Israel.^[32] According to Scott Lasensky, "throughout the follow-up talks to the DoP that produced the Gaza-Jericho Agreement (May 1994), the Early Empowerment Agreement (August 1994), the [Interim Agreement](#) (September 1995), and the [Hebron Accord](#) (January 1997), [...] economic aid hovered over the process and remained the single most critical external component buttressing the PNA."^[33]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

J18 BOYCOTT, DIVESTMENT AND SANCTIONS (BDS)

WIKIPEDIA

Boycott, Divestment and Sanctions (BDS) is a [Palestinian](#)-led^[6] movement promoting [boycotts](#), [divestments](#), and [economic sanctions](#) against [Israel](#). Its objective is to pressure Israel to meet what the BDS movement describes as Israel's obligations under [international law](#),^[7] defined as withdrawal from the [occupied territories](#), removal of the [separation barrier](#) in the [West Bank](#), full equality for [Arab-Palestinian citizens of Israel](#), and "respecting, protecting, and promoting the [rights of Palestinian refugees to return to their homes and properties](#)".^[8] The movement is organized and coordinated by the Palestinian BDS National Committee.^[9]

BDS is modelled after the [anti-apartheid movement](#) in South Africa.^[10] Its proponents [compare the Palestinians' plight to that of apartheid-era black South Africans](#).^[11] Protests and conferences in support of the movement have been held in several countries. Its mascot, which features on its logotype, is [Handala](#), a symbol of Palestinian identity and "[right of return](#)".^[12]

Some critics accuse the BDS movement of [antisemitism](#),^{[13][14][15]} a charge the movement denies, calling it an attempt to conflate antisemitism with [anti-Zionism](#). The [Israel lobby in the United States](#) has made opposing BDS one of its top priorities.^[16] Since 2015, the Israeli government has spent millions of dollars to promote the view that BDS is antisemitic and have it legally banned in foreign countries.^[17] BDS supporters see it as a [human rights movement](#).^[18]

BACKGROUND

See also: [Boycotts of Israel](#) and [Arab League boycott of Israel](#)



Area C (blue),
the part of the
West Bank
under full
Israeli control,
in 2011

Many authors trace BDS's origins to the NGO Forum at the 2001 [World Conference Against Racism](#) in South Africa (Durban I).^[19] At the forum, Palestinian activists met with anti-apartheid veterans who identified parallels between Israel and apartheid [South Africa](#) and recommended campaigns like those they had used to defeat apartheid.^[20] The forum adopted a document that contained many ideas that would later reappear in the 2005 BDS Call; Israel was proclaimed an [apartheid](#) state that engaged in human rights violations through the denial of the Palestinian refugees' right of return, the occupation of the Palestinian territories, and discrimination against Arab citizens of Israel. The declaration recommended comprehensive sanctions and embargoes against Israel as the remedy.^[21]

In March 2002, while the Israeli army reoccupied all major Palestinian cities and towns and imposed curfews, a group of prominent Palestinian scholars published a letter calling for help from the "global civil society." The letter asked activists to demand that their governments suspend economic relations with Israel in order to stop its campaign of apartheid, occupation, and ethnic cleansing.^[22] In April 2002, Steven and Hilary Rose, professors at the Open University and the University of Bradford, initiated a call for a moratorium on academic collaboration with Israeli institutions.^[23] It quickly racked up over 700 signatories,^{[24][25]} among them [Colin Blakemore](#) and [Richard Dawkins](#), who said they could no longer "in good conscience continue to cooperate with official Israeli institutions, including universities."^[26] Similar initiatives followed in the summer.^[27]

In August, Palestinian organizations in the occupied territories issued a call for a comprehensive boycott of Israel.^[27] The majority of the statements recalled the declarations made at the NGO Forum the year before.^[28] In October 2003, a group of Palestinian intellectuals called for a boycott of Israeli academic institutions.^[27] Attempts to coordinate the boycotts in a more structured way led to the formation of the Palestinian Campaign for Academic and Cultural Boycott of Israel (PACBI) in April 2004.^{[29][28]}

Colin Shindler argues that the [Oslo peace process](#)'s failure created a political void that allowed what had been a marginal rejectionist attitude to Israel to enter the European far-left mainstream in the form of proposals for a boycott.^[30] [Rafeef Ziadah](#) also attributes BDS to the peace process's failure. She argues that BDS represents a rejection of the peace process paradigm of equalizing both sides in favor of seeing the situation as a colonial conflict between a native population and a settler-colonial state supported by Western powers.^[31]

Others argue that BDS should be understood in terms of its purported roots in the [Arab League](#)'s boycott of Zionist goods from [Mandatory Palestine](#).^{[32][33][34]} According to the archaeologist and [ancient historian Alex Joffe](#), BDS is merely the spearhead of a larger anti-Western juggernaut in which the dialectic between [communism](#) and [Islam](#) remains unresolved, and has antecedents in the [Palestine Solidarity Campaign](#), the [General Union of Palestinian Students](#) and the [Muslim Brotherhood](#).^[35] [Andrew Pessin](#) and [Doron Ben-Atar](#) believe that BDS should be viewed in a historical context of other [boycotts of Israel](#).^[32]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

K ARABS AND ISRAEL

K1 ARAB LEAGUE AND THE ARAB-ISRAEL CONFLICT

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The [Arab League](#) was formed in Cairo on 22 March 1945 with six members: [Egypt](#), [Iraq](#), [Transjordan](#) (renamed Jordan after independence in 1946), [Lebanon](#), [Saudi Arabia](#), and [Syria](#). [Yemen](#) joined on 5 May 1945. Since its formation the Arab League has promoted the Palestinian Arab cause in the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#), including by imposing the [Arab League boycott of Israel](#). The Arab League opposed the [United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine](#) in 1947. On 15 May 1948, the then seven Arab League members coordinated an invasion of what was by then the former British Mandate, marking the start of the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#).

In 1964, the Arab League created the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) to operate within the territory of Israel. During the [Six-Day War](#), the Arab League was instrumental in the [oil embargo](#), which lasted until the [Khartoum Resolution](#) in September 1967. The League members also agreed to continue the state of belligerency with Israel and not to negotiate a settlement to the conflict. The signing of the [Egypt–Israel peace treaty](#) was condemned, and Egypt was suspended from the Arab League in 1979, which lasted until 1989. The Arab League on 15 November 1988 recognized the proclamation of the [State of Palestine](#). The Palestine Liberation Organization and Israel signed the [Oslo Accords](#) in 1993 which led to the setting up of the [Palestinian National Authority](#). The Arab League has not made any official statements either supporting the establishment of the Palestinian Authority or condemning it. In October 1994, Jordan signed the [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) with Israel, and it was not ostracized by the Arab League, as Egypt had been in 1979. In 2002, the Arab League endorsed a [Saudi Arabian Arab Peace Initiative](#) which called for full withdrawal by Israel "to the 1967 borders" in return for fully normalized relations.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

K2 ARAB NATIONALISM

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Part of a series on the Politics of the Arab world	
	
Issues	[show]
Geography	[show]
Governance	[show]
Unity	[show]
Foreign relations	[show]
Military	[show]
Economy	[show]
Transportation	[show]
Culture	[show]
Demographics	[show]
V · T · E	

Arab nationalism ([Arabic](#): القومية العربية *al-Qawmīya al-ʿArabīya*) is a political ideology asserting that [Arabs](#) constitute a single nation. As a traditional nationalist ideology, it promotes [Arab culture and civilization](#), celebrates [Arab history](#), glorifies the [Arabic language](#) as well as [Arabic literature](#), and calls for the [rejuvenation of Arab society through total unification](#).^[1] It bases itself on the premise that the people of the [Arab world](#) — from the Atlantic Ocean to the Indian Ocean — constitute one nation bound together by [a common identity](#): ethnicity, language, culture, history, [geography](#), and [politics](#).^{[2][3]}

One of the primary goals of modern Arab nationalism is ridding the Arab world of influence from the [Western world](#) (seen as a "nemesis" of Arab strength), and the removal of those Arab governments that are considered to be dependent upon Western hegemony. This form of the ideology is rooted in the undesirable outcome of the [Arab Revolt](#); in successfully

achieving their primary goal of [dissolving the Ottoman Empire](#), the Arab rebels simultaneously enabled the [partitioning of their would-be unified Arab state](#) by Western powers. [Anti-Western sentiment](#) grew as Arab nationalists centralized themselves around the newfound [Palestine cause](#), promoting the view that [Zionism](#) posed an existential threat to the territorial integrity and political *status quo* of the entire region, and that the resulting [Arab–Israeli conflict](#) was directly linked to Western imperialism due to the [British fostering of Jewish sovereignty](#).^{[4][5]} Arab unity was considered a necessary instrument to "restoring this lost part" of the nation, which in turn meant eliminating the "relics" of foreign colonialism.^[6] However, the ideology as a whole began to decline across the Arab world following the decisive Israeli victory in the [Six-Day War](#).^{[7][8]}

Notable personalities and groups that are associated with Arab nationalism include [Faisal I of Iraq](#), [Gamal Abdel Nasser](#), the [Arab Nationalist Movement](#), [Michel Aflaq](#), [Muammar Gaddafi](#), [Saddam Hussein](#), the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#), and the [Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party](#).

IDEOLOGY

Arab nationalists believe that the Arab nation existed as a historical entity prior to the rise of nationalism in the 19th–20th century. The Arab nation was formed through the gradual establishment of [Arabic](#) as the language of

communication and with the advent of [Islam](#) as a religion and culture in the region. Both Arabic and Islam served as the pillars of the nation. According to writer Youssef M. Choueiri, Arab nationalism represents the "Arabs' consciousness of their specific characteristics as well as their endeavor to build a modern state capable of representing the common will of the nation and all its constituent parts."^[9]

Within the Arab nationalist movement are three main ideas: that of the [Arab nation](#); Arab nationalism; and [pan-Arab unity](#). The [1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine](#) led to the foundation of the Arab nationalist [Ba'ath Party](#), which asserts that the Arab nation is the group of people who speak Arabic, inhabit the [Arab world](#), and who feel they belong to the same nation. Arab nationalism is the "sum total" of the characteristics and qualities exclusive to the Arab nation, whereas pan-Arab unity is the modern idea that stipulates that the separate Arab countries must unify to form a single state under one political system.^[10]

Local patriotism centered on individual Arab countries was incorporated into the framework of Arab nationalism starting in the 1920s. This was done by positioning the [Arabian Peninsula](#) as the homeland of the [Semitic peoples](#) (the [Canaanites](#) and [Arameans](#) of the [Levant](#) and the [Assyrians](#) and [Babylonians](#) of [Mesopotamia](#)) who migrated throughout the [Near East](#) in ancient times or by associating the other pre-Islamic cultures, such as those of [Egypt](#) and North Africa and [Horn of Africa](#), into an evolving [Arab identity](#).^[11]

The modern Arabic language actually has two distinct words which can be translated into English as "nationalism": *qawmiyya* قومية, derived from the word *qawm* (meaning "tribe, ethnic nationality"), and *wataniyya* وطنية, derived from the word *watan* (meaning "homeland, native country"). The term *qawmiyya* means attachment to the Arab nation, while *wataniyya* means loyalty to a single Arab state. *Wataniyya* is sometimes disparaged as "regionalism" by those who consider pan-Arabism the only legitimate variant of Arab nationalism.^[12]


In the post-World War years, the concept of *qawmiyya* "gradually assumed a [leftist](#) coloration, calling for ... the creation of revolutionary Arab unity."^[13] Groups who subscribed to this point of view advocated opposition, violent and non-violent, against Israel and against Arabs who did not subscribe to this point of view. The person most identified with *qawmiyya* was [Gamal Abdel Nasser](#) of Egypt, who used both military and political power to spread [his version of pan-Arab ideology](#) throughout the Arab world. While *qawmiyya* still remains a potent political force today, the death of Nasser and the Arab defeat in the [Six-Day War](#) has weakened faith in this ideal. The current dominant ideology among Arab policy makers has shifted to *wataniyya*.^[14]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

K3 ARAB-ISRAELI CONFLICT





This article is about the broader conflict between Israel and the Arab world. For the specific conflict between Israel and Palestine, see [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Arab–Israeli conflict	
 <p>The main parties in the Arab–Israeli conflict</p> <p>■ Israel ■ West Bank and Gaza Strip ■ Egypt ■ Jordan ■ Lebanon ■ Syria ■ Iraq</p>	
Date	c. 15 May 1948 – ongoing (75 years, 1 month, 3 weeks and 5 days) Main phase: 1948–1982 ^[2]
Location	Middle East
Result	Normalization : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Egypt–Israel peace treaty (1979) • Israeli–Lebanese peace treaty attempt (1983) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oslo Accords (1993) • Israel–Jordan peace treaty (1994) • UNSC 1701 (Israel–Lebanon ceasefire treaty) (2006) • Approachment of Israel and Gulf States in light of mutual stance against Iran (2010s)
Territorial changes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Establishment of Israel and All-Palestine Protectorate (1948); Jordanian annexation of the West Bank; □ Dissolution of All-Palestine Government (1953) and Egyptian occupation of the Gaza Strip □ Israeli occupation (1967–1982) of the Sinai Peninsula, West Bank, Gaza Strip, Golan Heights □ Egyptian–Israeli peace and formation of the Israeli Civil Administration (1982)

- [Oslo Accords](#) and formation of the [Palestinian National Authority](#) in areas A, B of the West Bank and Gaza in 1994.
- [Israel–Jordan peace treaty](#) – transfer of [Al Ghamr](#) enclave (2019)

Belligerents

-  [Israel](#)
- [Mahal volunteers](#) (1947–1949)
-  [United Kingdom](#)
(1956 [Suez Crisis](#))
-  [France](#)
(1956 [Suez Crisis](#))
- [Free Lebanon State](#) (1978–1984)
- [South Lebanon Army](#) (1984–2000)
- Supported by:**
-  [United States](#) (1967–present)

-  [Arab League](#)
-  [Egypt](#) (1948–1978)
-  [Jordan](#) (1948–1994)
-  [Lebanon](#) (1948–present)
-  [Iraq](#) (1948–present)
-  [Sudan](#) (1948–2020)
-  [Syria](#) (1948–present)
-  [All-Palestine](#) (1948–1959)
 - [AHW](#) (1947–1949)
 - [Fedayeen](#) (1949–1964)
-  [PLO](#) (1964–1993)
-  [Palestinian Authority](#) (2000–2005)
- Supported by:**
-  [Soviet Union](#) (1967–1991)¹¹

 [Gaza Strip](#) (2006–present)

Supported by:

-  [Iran](#) (2006–2012)

Commanders and leaders

-  [David Ben-Gurion](#) (1948–1963)
-  [Yigael Yadin](#) (1948–1952)
-  [Yaakov Dori](#) (1948–1949)
-  [Yitzhak Rabin](#) (1948–1995)
-  [Ariel Sharon](#) (1948–2005)
-  [Ehud Barak](#) (1948–2013)
- [Moshe Dayan](#) (1948–1979)
- [Saad Haddad](#) (1978–1984)
- [Antoine Lahad](#) (1984–2000)

-  [King Abdullah I](#) (1948–1951)
-  [John Bagot Glubb](#) (1948–1986)
-  [King Hussein](#) (1953–1994)
-  [Habis al-Majali](#) (1948–2001)
-  [Abd al-Qadir al-Husayni](#) †
 -  [Hasan Salama](#) †
-  [Fawzi Al-Qawuqji](#) (1948–1977)
-  [Ahmed Ali al-Mwawi](#) (1948–1979)
-  [Haj Amin Al-Husseini](#) (1948–1974)

-  [Bachir Gemayel](#) (1978–1982)

-  [King Farouk I](#) (1948–1965)
-  [Ahmad Ali al-Mwawi](#) (1948–1979)
-  [Muhammad Naguib](#) (1948–1984)
-  [Saad El Shazly](#) (1948–2011)

Casualties and losses

≈22,570 military deaths^[3]

≈1,723 civilian deaths^[4]

≈1,050 SLA militiamen deaths^[5]

91,105 total Arab deaths^[6]

Part of a series on the Arab–Israeli conflict

[Timeline](#)

[Views on the conflict](#)

[Media coverage](#)

[International law](#)

V · T · E

The **Arab–Israeli conflict** is an ongoing intercommunal phenomenon involving political tension, military conflicts, and other disputes between various [Arab countries](#) and [Israel](#), which escalated during the 20th century, but had mostly faded out by the early 21st century. The roots of the Arab–Israeli conflict have been attributed to the support by [Arab League](#) member countries for the [Palestinians](#), a fellow League member, in the ongoing [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#); this in turn has been attributed to the simultaneous rise of [Zionism](#) and [Arab nationalism](#) towards the end of the 19th century, though the two national movements had not clashed until the 1920s.

Part of the Palestine–Israel conflict arose from the conflicting claims by these movements to the land that formed the British [Mandatory Palestine](#), which was regarded by the [Jewish people](#) as their [ancestral homeland](#), while at the same time it was regarded by the [Pan-Arab](#) movement as historically and currently belonging to the [Arab Palestinians](#),^[7] and in the [Pan-Islamic](#) context, as [Muslim lands](#). The [sectarian conflict](#) within the British Mandate territory between Palestinian Jews and Arabs escalated into a full-scale [Palestinian civil war in 1947](#). Taking the side of the Palestinian Arabs, especially following the [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#), the neighbouring Arab countries invaded the by-then former Mandate territory in May 1948, commencing the [First Arab–Israeli War](#). Large-scale hostilities mostly ended with ceasefire agreements after the 1973 [Yom Kippur War](#). [Peace agreements](#) were signed between Israel and

Egypt in 1979, resulting in Israeli withdrawal [from the Sinai Peninsula](#) and the abolition of the [military governance system](#) in the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#), in favor of [Israeli Civil Administration](#) and consequent unilateral annexation of the [Golan Heights](#) and East Jerusalem.

The nature of the conflict has shifted over the years from the large-scale, regional Arab–Israeli conflict to a more local Israeli–Palestinian conflict, which peaked during the [1982 Lebanon War](#) when Israel intervened in the Lebanese Civil War to oust the Palestinian Liberation Organization from Lebanon. By 1983, Israel reached [normalization](#) with Christian-dominated Lebanese government, but the agreement was annulled the next year with [Muslim and Druze militias' takeover of Beirut](#). With the decline of the 1987–1993 [First Palestinian Intifada](#), the interim [Oslo Accords](#) led to the creation of the [Palestinian National Authority](#) in 1994, within the context of the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#). The same year, Israel and [Jordan](#) reached a peace accord. In 2002, the Arab League offered recognition of Israel by Arab countries as part of the resolution of the Palestine–Israel conflict in the [Arab Peace Initiative](#).^[8] The initiative, which has been reconfirmed since, calls for normalizing relations between the [Arab League](#) and Israel, in exchange for a full withdrawal by Israel from the [occupied territories](#) (including [East Jerusalem](#)) and a "just settlement" of the [Palestinian refugee](#) problem based on [UN Resolution 194](#). In the 1990s and early 2000s, a cease-fire had been largely maintained between Israel and [Baathist Syria](#), as well as with [Lebanon](#). Despite the peace agreements with Egypt and Jordan, the interim peace accords with the Palestinian Authority and the generally existing cease-fire, until the mid-2010s the Arab League and Israel had remained at odds with each other over many issues. Among Arab belligerents in the conflict, [Iraq](#) and [Syria](#) are the only states who have reached no formal peace accord or treaty with Israel, both however turning to support [Iran](#).

Developments in the course of the [Syrian Civil War](#) reshuffled the situation near Israel's northern border, putting the Syrian Arab Republic, [Hezbollah](#) and the [Syrian opposition](#) at odds with each other and complicating their relations with Israel, upon the emerging warfare with [Iran](#). The conflict between Israel and [Hamas](#)-ruled Gaza, is also attributed to the [Iran–Israel proxy conflict](#) in the region. By 2017, Israel and several Arab [Sunni](#) states led by [Saudi Arabia](#) formed a [semi-official coalition](#) to confront Iran. This move and the [Israeli normalization with Gulf States](#) was marked by some as the fading of the Arab–Israeli conflict.^[9]

BACKGROUND

Religious Aspects of the Conflict

The Arab–Israeli conflict has a religious aspect, the beliefs of the various sides and their ideas and views of the [chosen people](#) in their policies with regard to the "[Promised Land](#)" and the "Chosen City" of [Jerusalem](#).^[10]

The Land of [Canaan](#) or *Eretz Yisrael* ([Land of Israel](#)) was, according to the Hebrew Bible, [promised](#) by God to the [Children of Israel](#). This is also mentioned in the Qur'an.^[11] In his 1896 manifesto, [The Jewish](#)

[State](#), [Theodor Herzl](#) repeatedly refers to the Biblical [Promised Land](#) concept.^[12] [Likud](#) is currently the most prominent Israeli political party to include the Biblical claim to the [Land of Israel](#) in its platform.^[13]

Muslims also claim rights to that land in accordance with the [Quran](#).^[14] Contrary to the Jewish claim that this land was promised only to the descendants of [Abraham](#)'s grandson [Jacob](#) (*Yisrael*),^[15] they argue that the Land of Canaan was promised to what they consider the elder son of Abraham, [Ishmael](#), from whom [Arabs](#) claim descent.^{[14][16]} Additionally, Muslims also revere many sites also holy for Biblical Israelites, such as the [Cave of the Patriarchs](#) and the [Temple Mount](#). In the past 1,400 years, Muslims have constructed Islamic landmarks on these ancient Israelite sites, such as the [Dome of the Rock](#) and the [Al-Aqsa Mosque](#) on the [Temple Mount](#), the holiest site in Judaism. This has brought the two groups into conflict over the rightful possession of [Jerusalem](#). Muslim teaching is that [Muhammad](#) passed through Jerusalem on his first journey to heaven. [Hamas](#), which governs the [Gaza Strip](#), claims that all of the land of Palestine (the current Israeli and Palestinian territories) is an Islamic [waqf](#) that must be governed by Muslims.^[17]

[Christian Zionists](#) often support the State of Israel because of the ancestral right of the Jews to the Holy Land, as suggested, for instance, by [the apostle Paul](#) in his letter to the [Romans, chapter 11](#), in the [Bible](#). Christian Zionism teaches that the return of Jews to Israel is a prerequisite for the [Second Coming of Christ](#).^{[18][19]}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

K4 ARAB/ISRAELI ALLIANCE

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Arab–Israeli alliance

Nickname	Israeli–Sunni alliance
Type	Unofficial coalition
Purpose	Regional security
Region	Middle East
Membership	<div> <div>Israel</div> <div>Morocco</div> <div>Egypt</div> <div>Bahrain</div> <div>Saudi Arabia^[1]</div> <div>Sudan</div> <div>United Arab Emirates^[2]</div> </div>

To click on links

Click [WIKIPEDIA](#)

The **Arab–Israeli alliance**,^[3] sometimes called the **Israeli–Sunni alliance**,^{[4][5]} refers to an unofficial security coalition comprising [Israel](#) and various [Arab countries](#). Formed in the interest of the [Gulf Cooperation Council](#), it is primarily focused on deterring the political and military ambitions of [Iran](#) (see [Iran–Saudi Arabia proxy conflict](#) and [Iran–Israel proxy conflict](#)),^[1] and has been actively promoted by the [United States](#) since the [February 2019 Warsaw conference](#).

HISTORY

The roots of the alliance started in the 2000s, due to the decreasing importance of the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#) as a wedge issue and mutual tensions with Iran.^[6] By 2016, GCC states had sought strengthened economic and security cooperation with [Israel](#), which is involved in [its own proxy conflict](#) with Iran.^[7] The de facto coalition emerged by November 2017,^[8] upon warming ties between Israel and the Gulf States and received broad media attention in light of the [February 2019 Warsaw Conference](#), "This week's global summit in Warsaw will test the main pillar of the [Trump administration](#)'s policy in the Middle East: The belief that Israel and key Arab states can form an alliance against Iran, even when peace talks between Israel and the Palestinians seem more distant than ever."^[9]

The Trump administration tried to launch a "Middle East Strategic Alliance" (also known as the "Arab [NATO](#)") including the GCC states, Egypt, Jordan, and possibly Morocco. In April 2019 Egypt announced that it would not participate. The pact has not been announced as of 11 January 2021. "The late 2020 UAE, Bahrain, and Morocco agreements to normalize relations with Israel could have constituted an

alternative, insofar as the UAE and Bahrain normalization decisions were related, at least in part, to countering Iran."^[10] In 2020, as part of the [Abraham Accords](#), various countries normalized relations with Israel, these countries were: the [United Arab Emirates](#),^[6] [Bahrain](#), [Sudan](#),^[11] and [Morocco](#).^[12] The [Marshall Center](#) analysed the Abraham Accords in October 2020, including the involvement of the United Arab Emirates and Bahrain, but before Sudan and Morocco took action; the Marshall Center described that the Abraham Accords "strengthens the informal anti-Iran alliance in the region".^[13]

According to authors Yoel Gozansky an Iran expert at the [Institute for National Security Studies](#), a Tel Aviv think tank, and professor Clive Jones, a Middle East security specialist: "Our approach lies in understanding Israel's ties with many of the Gulf monarchies, notably Saudi Arabia, the UAE, and Bahrain, not as some formal alliance but rather as a manifestation of a Tacit Security Regime. This regime allows for the evolution of ties between Israel and the Gulf monarchies to be explored and analyzed while allowing us to be mindful that these relations have rarely been linear, let alone underpinned by any shared normative values."^[14]

In an anniversary analysis of the [Abraham Accords](#), [Haaretz](#) said that the accords were premised on the idea of an "Israel-Sunni" anti-Iran coalition and that normalization would help but that "it's very doubtful there ever was such a coalition, and the accords did nothing to create or solidify one."^[15] In March 2022, Saudi Crown Prince Mohammed bin Salman said reconciliation talks with Iran would continue and "We look at Israel as a potential ally but before that it should solve its problems with the Palestinians."^[16]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

K5 ISRAELI–PALESTINIAN PEACE PROCESS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The **Israeli–Palestinian peace process** refers to the intermittent discussions held by various parties and proposals put forward in an attempt to resolve the ongoing [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).^[1] Since the 1970s, there has been a parallel effort made to find terms upon which peace can be agreed to in both the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#) and in the Palestinian–Israeli conflict. Some countries have signed [peace treaties](#), such as the [Egypt–Israel](#) (1979) and [Jordan–Israel](#) (1994) treaties, whereas some have not yet found a mutual basis to do so.

[William B. Quandt](#), in the introduction of his book *Peace Process*, says:

Sometime in the mid-1970s the term peace process became widely used to describe the American-led efforts to bring about a negotiated peace between Israel and its neighbors. The phrase stuck, and ever since it has been synonymous with the gradual, step-by-step approach to resolving one of the world's most difficult conflicts. In the years since 1967 the emphasis in Washington has shifted from the spelling out of the ingredients of "peace" to the "process" of getting there. ... The United States has provided both a sense of direction and a mechanism. That, at its best, is what the peace process has been about. At worst, it has been little more than a slogan used to mask the marking of time.^[2]

Since the 2003 [road map for peace](#), the current outline for a Palestinian–Israeli peace agreement has been a [two-state solution](#); however, a number of Israeli and US interpretations of this propose a series of non-contiguous [Palestinian enclaves](#).

VIEWS OF THE PEACE PROCESS

Palestinian views on the peace process

Main article: [Palestinian views on the peace process](#)

[Palestinians](#) have held diverse views and perceptions of the peace process. A key starting point for understanding these views is an awareness of the differing objectives sought by advocates of the Palestinian cause. 'New Historian' Israeli academic [Ilan Pappé](#) says the cause of the conflict from a Palestinian point of view dates back to 1948 with the creation of [Israel](#) (rather than Israel's views of 1967 being the crucial point and the return of occupied territories being central to peace negotiations), and that the conflict has been a fight to bring home [refugees](#) to a [Palestinian state](#).^[3] Therefore, this for some was the ultimate aim of the peace process, and for groups such as [Hamas](#) still is. However Slater says that this "maximalist" view of a destruction of Israel in order to regain Palestinian lands, a view held by [Arafat](#) and the [PLO](#) initially, has steadily moderated from the late 1960s onwards to a preparedness to negotiate and instead seek a two-state solution.^[4] The [Oslo Accords](#) demonstrated the recognition of this acceptance by the then Palestinian leadership of the state of Israel's [right to exist](#) in return for the withdrawal of Israeli forces from the [Gaza Strip](#) and [West Bank](#).^[5] However, there are recurrent themes prevalent throughout peace process negotiations including a feeling that Israel offers too little and a mistrust of its actions and motives.^{[3][6]} Yet, the demand for a [right of return](#) by the Palestinian refugees to Israel has remained a cornerstone of the Palestinian view and has been repeatedly enunciated by Palestinian president Mahmoud Abbas who is leading the Palestinian peace effort.^[7]

Israeli views on the peace process

Main article: [Israeli views on the peace process](#)

There are several [Israeli](#) views of the peace process. The official position of the State of Israel is that peace ought to be negotiated on the basis of giving up some control of the [occupied territories](#) in return for a stop to the conflict and violence.^[8] Israel's position is that Palestinian President Mahmoud Abbas ought to be the negotiating partner in the peace talks, and not Hamas, which has at times engaged with Israel in escalations of the conflict and attacks Israel's civilian population.^{[9][10]} The [Oslo Accords](#) and the [Camp David 2000 summit](#) negotiations revealed the possibility of a two state system being accepted by Israeli leadership as a possible peace solution.

The [two-state solution](#) is the consensus position among the majority of Israelis.^[11] However, the violence of the [second intifada](#) and the political success of [Hamas](#) (a group dedicated to Israel's destruction)^[12] have convinced many Israelis that peace and negotiation are not possible and a two state system is not the answer.^[5] Hardliners believe that Israel should annex all Palestinian territory, or at least all minus the [Gaza Strip](#).^[5] Israelis view the peace process as hindered and near impossible due to [terrorism](#) on the part of Palestinians and do not trust Palestinian leadership to maintain control.^[5] In fact, Pedahzur goes as far as to say that suicide terrorism succeeded where peace negotiations failed in encouraging withdrawal by Israelis from cities in the [West Bank](#).^[13] A common theme throughout the peace process has been a feeling that the Palestinians give too little in their peace offers.

US views on the peace process

There are divergent views on the peace process held by US officials, citizens and lobbying groups. All recent US Presidents have maintained a policy that Israel must give up some of the land that it conquered in the 1967 war in order to achieve peace;^[14] that the Palestinians must actively prevent terrorism; and that Israel has an unconditional [right to exist](#). Presidents Bill Clinton and George W. Bush publicly supported the creation of a new [Palestinian state](#) out of most of the current Palestinian territories, based on the idea of self-determination for the Palestinian people,^[15] and President Obama continued that policy.^[16] Secretary of State Hillary Clinton thought that peace can only be achieved through direct, bilateral negotiations between Israel and the Palestinians.^[17] Obama outlined the pursuit of the [two-state solution](#) as American policy for achieving Palestinian aspirations, Israeli security, and a measure of stability in the Middle East.^[18]

According to the sociologist [Mervin Verbit](#), [American Jews](#) are "more right than left" on peace process issues. Verbit found that [surveys](#) of American Jews often reflect the view of the poll's sponsors. Often it is the wording of the survey questions that bias the outcome (a headline illustrating this point reads "ADL poll shows higher support for Israel than did survey by dovish J Street"). Using survey data from the [American Jewish Committee](#) where findings could not be attributed to wording biases, Verbit found American Jews took a rightward shift following the collapse of the Camp David talks in 2000, and the 9/11 attacks in 2001.^[19]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

K6 HISTORY OF THE JEWS IN THE ARABIAN PENINSULA

Not to be confused with [History of the Jews in Saudi Arabia](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



The history of the [Jews](#) in the [Arabian Peninsula](#) dates back to Biblical times. The Arabian Peninsula is defined as including the present-day countries of [Bahrain](#), [Kuwait](#), [Oman](#), [Qatar](#), [Saudi Arabia](#), [United Arab Emirates](#) (a [federation](#) of seven [Sheikhdoms](#): [Abu Dhabi](#), [Ajman](#), [Dubai](#), [Fujairah](#), [Ras al-Khaimah](#), [Sharjah](#), and [Umm al-Quwain](#)) and [Yemen](#) [politically](#) and parts of [Iraq](#) and [Jordan](#) [geographically](#).

Jewish communities have lived mainly in present-day Iraq and Yemen, but most have migrated to [Israel](#) as a result of the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#). Currently, some Jewish communities develop in the Arabian peninsula as a result of expanding business and commerce as well as increased tolerance to Jews, such as in Bahrain and the United Arab Emirates.

HISTORY OF THE JEWS IN IRAQ

Main articles: [Babylonian captivity](#), [History of the Jews in Iraq](#), [Baghdad Arabic \(Jewish\)](#), and [Operation Ezra and Nehemiah](#)

The [history of the Jews in Iraq](#) is documented over twenty-six centuries, from the time of the [Babylonian captivity](#) c. 600 BCE, as noted in the [Hebrew Bible](#) and other historical evidence from the period, to modern [Iraq](#). [Iraqi Jews](#) constitute one of the world's oldest and most historically significant Jewish communities.

In the 1930s, the situation of the Jews in Iraq deteriorated. Previously, the growing Iraqi Arab nationalist sentiment included Iraqi Jews as fellow Arabs, but these views changed with ongoing conflict in the Palestinian Mandate. Despite protestations of their loyalty to Iraq, Iraqi Jews were increasingly subject to discrimination and harsh laws. On August 27, 1934 many Jews were dismissed from public service, and quotas were set up in colleges and universities. Zionist activities were banned, as was the teaching of Jewish history and Hebrew in Jewish schools. Following [Rashid Ali's](#) pro-[Axis](#) coup, the [Farhud](#) ("violent dispossession") [pogrom](#) of June 1 and 2, 1941, broke out in [Baghdad](#) in which approximately 200 Jews were murdered (some sources put the number higher), and up to 2,000 injured—damages to property were estimated at \$3 million. There was also looting in many other cities at around the same time. Afterwards, Zionist emissaries from Palestine were sent to teach Iraqi Jews self-defense, which they were eager to learn.^[1]

From 1950 to 1952, [Operation Ezra and Nehemiah](#) airlifted 120,000 Iraqi Jews to Israel via Iran and Cyprus. By 1968 only 2,000 Jews remained in Iraq. Immediately prior to the [Gulf War](#), the [U.S. State Department](#) noted that there was no recent evidence of overt persecution of Jews, but travel, particularly to [Israel](#), was restricted, as was contact with Jewish groups abroad. In 1997, the [Jerusalem Post](#) reported that in the previous five years, some 75 Jews had fled Iraq, of whom about 20 moved to Israel and the rest mostly went to the [United Kingdom](#) and [Netherlands](#).^[2] In the aftermath of the [2003 invasion of Iraq](#), the [Jewish Agency](#) launched an effort to track down all of the remaining Iraqi Jews to present them with an opportunity to emigrate to Israel, and found a total of 34 Jews. Six chose to emigrate, among them Ezra Levy, the father of Emad Levy, Baghdad's last rabbi.^[3]

After the defeat of the Ba'ath regime, the process of establishing a new democratic government began. Among the subjects for debate over the [Iraqi constitution](#) was whether Jews should be considered a minority group, or left out of the constitution altogether.^[4]

In October 2006, Rabbi Emad Levy announced that he was leaving for Israel and compared his life to "living in a prison". He reported that most Iraqi Jews stay in their homes "out of fear of kidnapping or execution" due to sectarian violence.^[5]

Current estimates of the Jewish population in Baghdad are eight (2007),^[6] seven (2008)^[7] five (2013).^[8] or ten (2018).^[9] In 2020 the Jewish Population of Iraq is four.^[10] In March 2021 one Jew died leaving only four alive.

J7 INTERNATIONAL LAW AND THE ARAB—ISRAELI CONFLICT

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

The [International law](#) bearing on issues of [Arab—Israeli conflict](#), which became a major arena of regional and international tension since the birth of [Israel](#) in 1948, [resulting](#) in several disputes between a number of [Arab countries](#) and Israel.

There is an international consensus that some of the actions of the states involved in the Arab—Israeli conflict violate international law, but some of the involved states dispute this.

In the [Six-Day War](#) in 1967, Israel pre-empted what many Israeli leaders believed to be an imminent Arab attack^[1] and invaded and occupied territory that had itself been invaded and occupied by neighboring [Egypt](#), [Syria](#) and [Jordan](#) in the [1948 Arab—Israeli War](#). Following the peace treaties between [Israel and Egypt](#) and [Israel and Jordan](#), in which the states relinquished their claims to the Israeli-occupied territory, the conflict today mostly revolves around the [Palestinians](#).

The main points of dispute (also known as the "core issues" or "final status issues") are the following:

- Israel's annexation of [East Jerusalem](#) (Israel has also annexed the [Golan Heights](#), but that territory isn't claimed by Palestinians), construction of [Israeli settlements](#) in the [Palestinian territories](#) and the erection of the [Israeli West Bank barrier](#);
- how borders should be decided between Israel and a [Palestinian state](#);
- the [right of return](#) of the [Palestinian refugees](#) from the 1948 and 1967 wars.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L GAZA

<div><div>V • T • E</div><div><div>Gaza–Israel conflict</div><div>[hide]</div></div></div> <div><div>Timeline • Palestinian rocket attacks (Lists)</div><div><div>Gaza cross-border raid • Summer Rains • Autumn Clouds • Gaza–Egypt border breach • Hot Winter • 2008–2009 Gaza War • March 2010 clashes • Southern Israel cross-border attacks • March 2012 clashes • Pillar of Defense • 2014 war (Shuja'iyya • Beach bombing incidents) • 2018 border protests • November 2018 clashes • May 2019 clashes • November 2019 clashes • 2021 Israel–Palestine crisis • 2022 clashes • 2023 clashes</div></div></div>	<div><div>Politics of the Gaza Strip</div><div><div></div><div><div>Covenant</div><div>[show]</div></div><div><div>Government</div><div>[show]</div></div><div><div>National symbols</div><div>[show]</div></div><div><div>Legislative Council</div><div>[show]</div></div><div><div>Elections</div><div>[show]</div></div><div><div>Administrative divisions</div><div>[show]</div></div><div><div>Foreign relations</div><div>[show]</div></div><div><div>V • T • E</div></div></div></div>
--	--

L1 GAZA STRIP

WIKIPEDIA

The **Gaza Strip** (/ˈɡɑːzə/^[3] Arabic: قِطَاعُ غَزَّةَ *Qīṭāʿ Ġazzah* [qɪˈtʕɑːʕ ˈjaz.zɑ]), or simply **Gaza**, is a [Palestinian exclave](#) on the eastern coast of the [Mediterranean Sea](#).^[4] The smaller of the two [Palestinian territories](#),^[5] it borders [Egypt](#) on the southwest for 11 km (6.8 mi) and [Israel](#) on the east and north along a 51 km (32 mi) border. Together, the Gaza Strip and the [West Bank](#) make up the [State of Palestine](#), while being under [Israeli military occupation](#) since 1967.^[6]

The territories of Gaza and the [West Bank](#) are separated from each other by Israeli territory. Both fell under the jurisdiction of the [Palestinian Authority](#),^[7] but the Strip is governed by [Hamas](#), a militant, fundamentalist Islamic organization,^[8] which came to power in the [last-held elections in 2006](#). Since then, Gaza has been under a full Israeli-led [land, sea and air blockade](#). This prevents people and goods from freely entering or leaving the territory.^[9]

The Strip is 41 km (25 mi) long, from 6 to 12 km (3.7 to 7.5 mi) wide, and has a total area of 365 km² (141 sq mi).^{[10][11]} With around 2 million [Palestinians](#)^[12] on some 365 square kilometers, Gaza, if considered a top-level political unit, ranks as the 3rd most densely populated in the world.^{[13][14]} [Sunni Muslims](#) make up the predominant part of the population in the Gaza Strip. Gaza has an annual population growth rate of 2.91% (2014 est.), the [13th highest](#) in the world, and is often referred to as overcrowded.^{[11][15]} Gaza suffers from shortages of water, electricity and medicines. The [United Nations](#), as well as at least

Gaza Strip

Status

- Under the [Palestinian National Authority](#) according to the [Oslo Accords](#)^[1]
- *De facto* administrated by [Hamas](#) since July 2007
- Claimed by the [State of Palestine](#)^a

Capital and largest city

Gaza City
 31°30′53″N 34°27′15″E﻿ / ﻿

Official languages

Arabic

Ethnic groups

Palestinian

Demonym(s)

Gazan
 Palestinian

Area

- Total 365 km² (141 sq mi)

Population

- 2022 estimate 2,375,259^[2]
- Density 6,507/km² (16,853.1/sq mi)

Currency

[Israeli new shekel](#)^b (ILS) (see also [Palestine pound](#))

Time zone

- UTC+2 ([Palestine Standard Time](#))
- Summer (DST) UTC+3 ([Palestine Summer Time](#))

Calling code

+970

ISO 3166 code

PS

- The [State of Palestine](#) is recognized by 138 members of the [United Nations](#) as well as the [Holy See](#).
- Used since 1986; as in Israel, replaced the [old Israeli shekel](#) (1980–1985) and the [Israeli pound](#) (1967–1980).

Despite the 2005 [Israeli disengagement from Gaza](#),^[26] the United Nations, international human rights organisations, and the majority of

governments and legal commentators consider the territory to be still occupied by Israel, supported by additional restrictions placed on Gaza by Egypt. Israel maintains direct external control over Gaza and indirect control over life within Gaza: it controls Gaza's air and maritime space, as well as six of Gaza's seven land crossings. It reserves the right to enter Gaza at will with its military and maintains a no-go buffer zone within the Gaza territory. Gaza is dependent on Israel for water, electricity, telecommunications, and other utilities.^[26] An extensive Israeli buffer zone within the Strip renders much land off-limits to Gaza's Palestinians.^[27] The system of control imposed by Israel was described in the Fall 2012 edition of *International Security* as an "indirect occupation".^[28]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L2 OCCUPATION OF THE GAZA STRIP BY THE UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC (EGYPT)

WIKIPEDIA

 <p>Gaza Strip after the 1949 Armistice.</p>	
Status	Area occupied by the United Arab Republic/Arab Republic of Egypt
Capital	Gaza
Common languages	Arabic
Religion	Sunni Islam
Government	Military occupation
Historical era	Cold War
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Established Disestablished Egyptian claim relinquished 	1959 1967 17 September 1978
Currency	Egyptian pound
Preceded by  All-Palestine Protectorate	Succeeded by Israeli Military Governorate 

The **occupation of the Gaza Strip by the United Arab Republic** refers to the time period in which the present-day [Palestinian territory](#) known as the [Gaza Strip](#) was [occupied](#) by Egyptian forces of the [United Arab Republic](#) from 1949 to 1967. The Egyptian occupation of Gaza began with the inception of the territory in 1949 following the [First Arab–Israeli War](#), and ended after Egypt's defeat to [Israel](#) in the [Third Arab–Israeli War](#) of 1967, after which the [Israeli occupation of the Gaza Strip](#) commenced. Egyptian rule in Gaza before the 1967 war had been continuous with the exception of a brief period from October 1956 to March 1957, when Israel invaded and occupied Gaza as well as the [Sinai Peninsula](#) during the [Suez Crisis](#).

From September 1948, until its dissolution by [Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser](#) in 1959, the Gaza Strip was officially administered by the [All-Palestine Government](#). Although largely symbolic, the government was recognized by most members of the [Arab League](#). Following its dissolution, Egypt did not [annex](#) the Gaza Strip but kept it under [military rule](#), pending a resolution of the [Israel–Palestine question](#).

BACKGROUND

After World War I, the [League of Nations](#) granted the [United Kingdom](#) authority over the [Mandate for Palestine](#) composed of former Ottoman territory, including the [Gaza Strip](#).^[1] What became known as the [British](#)

[Mandate for Palestine](#) was formally confirmed by the Council of the [League of Nations](#) on 24 July 1922 and which came into effect on 26 September 1923.^[2]

Three years after [World War II](#) on 15 May 1948, the [British Mandate for Palestine](#) ended. Prior to this, on 29 November 1947, the [United Nations General Assembly](#) approved the [1947 UN Partition Plan](#) to create in Palestine two states, one Jewish and one Arab. The [1947–1948 Civil War in Mandatory Palestine](#) broke out in response. On 14 May 1948, [David Ben-Gurion](#) declared the independence of the state of [Israel](#) and the following day the armies of Egypt, Jordan and Syria declared war and invaded, aided by soldiers sent from Iraq, starting the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#). Egypt made gains early in the war, but these were reversed in late December 1948 when the Israeli army, in "[Operation Horev](#)", drove Egyptian forces out of the Negev and encircled the Egyptian Forces in the [Gaza Strip](#), forcing Egypt to withdraw and accept a ceasefire. On 7 January 1949, a truce was achieved. Israeli forces proceeded to withdraw from Sinai and Gaza, leaving them to be occupied by Egypt.

On 24 February 1949, the [Israel–Egypt Armistice Agreement](#) was signed in [Rhodes](#). Under the agreement, the armistice line was drawn along the [international border](#) (dating from 1906) except near the [Mediterranean Sea](#), where Egypt remained in control of a strip of land along the coast, which became known as the [Gaza Strip](#).^[3] (See [1949 Armistice Agreements](#).)

EGYPT OCCUPATION: ALL-PALESTINE PROTECTORATE (1948–1950s)

The [All-Palestine Protectorate](#) was an entity established by the [Arab League](#) on 22 September 1948, during the 1948 Arab–Israeli War, purportedly to provide Palestinian governance for Palestine. After the war, the Gaza Strip was the only former-Mandate territory under the jurisdiction of the [All-Palestine Government](#). However, the members of the Government were consequently removed to Cairo, and had little or no influence over events in Gaza.^[4]

According to Avi Shlaim:

[T]he contrast between the pretensions of the All-Palestine Government and its capability quickly reduced it to the level of farce. It claimed jurisdiction over the whole of Palestine, yet it had no administration, no civil service, no money, and no real army of its own. Even in the small enclave around the town of Gaza its writ ran only by the grace of the Egyptian authorities. Taking advantage of the new government's dependence on them for funds and protection, the Egyptian paymasters manipulated it to undermine Abdullah's claim to represent the Palestinians in the Arab League and in international forums. Ostensibly the embryo for an independent Palestinian state, the new government, from the moment of its inception, was thus reduced to the unhappy role of a [shuttlecock](#) in the ongoing power struggle between Cairo and Amman.^[4]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L3 GOVERNANCE OF THE GAZA STRIP

This article is about the Gaza Strip government.

For the geography and general history of the area, see [Gaza Strip](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Hamas Government in Gaza		FOR LINKS GO TO SITE	
Overview		Politics of the Gaza Strip	
Established	14 June 2007		
State	Gaza Strip	Covenant	[show]
Leader	Prime Minister of the Palestinian National Authority	Government	[show]
Appointed by	Palestinian Legislative Council	National symbols	[show]
Main organ	Cabinet	Legislative Council	[show]
Ministries	12	Elections	[show]
Headquarters	Gaza City	Administrative divisions	[show]
Website	[2]	Foreign relations	[show]
		V • T • E	

The **governance of the Gaza Strip** since the [Hamas takeover of the Gaza Strip](#) in June 2007 has been carried out by [Hamas](#), which is often referred to as the **Hamas government in Gaza**.^{[1][2][3]} The Hamas administration was led by [Ismail Haniyeh](#) from 2007^[4] to 2014 and again from 2016.

After Hamas won the [Palestinian legislative elections](#) on 25 January 2006, Ismail Haniyeh was nominated [Prime Minister](#),^[5] establishing a Palestinian national unity government with [Fatah](#). This government effectively collapsed with the outbreak of the [violent conflict between Hamas and Fatah](#). After the takeover of the Gaza Strip by Hamas on 14 June 2007, Palestinian Authority Chairman Abbas dismissed the Hamas-led government and appointed [Salam Fayyad](#) Prime Minister.^[6] Though the new Ramallah-based Palestinian government's authority was claimed to extend to all [Palestinian territories](#), in effect it became limited to the [West Bank](#), as Hamas would not recognize the dismissal and continued to rule the Gaza Strip.^[7] Both administrations – the [Fatah government in Ramallah](#) and the Hamas government in Gaza – regarded themselves as the sole legitimate government of

the [Palestinian National Authority](#). The international community and [Palestine Liberation Organization](#), however, recognized the Ramallah administration as the legitimate government.^[citation needed]

Since the division between the two parties, there have been conflicts between Hamas and similar factions operating in Gaza, and with [Israel](#), most notably the [Gaza War](#) of 2008-2009 and the [2014 Gaza War](#). The radicalization of the Gaza Strip brought internal conflicts between various groups, in events like 2009 Hamas crackdown on [Jund Ansar Allah](#), an [al-Qaeda](#) affiliated group, resulting in 22 people killed; and the April 2011 Hamas crackdown on [Jahafil Al-Tawhid Wal-Jihad fi Filastin](#), a [Salafist](#) group involved in [Vittorio Arrigoni](#)'s murder.^{[8][9]} Since 2015, [ISIL-affiliated groups in Gaza](#) have also become Hamas' matter of concern.

Negotiations toward reconciliation between Fatah and Hamas, which were mediated by [Egypt](#), produced a preliminary agreement in 2011, which was supposed to be implemented by May 2012 through joint elections. Despite the peace plan, Palestinian sources were quoted in January 2012 as saying that the May joint elections "would not be possible". In February 2012, [Khaled Meshal](#) and Palestinian Authority President [Mahmoud Abbas](#) signed the [Hamas–Fatah Doha agreement](#) towards implementation of the 2011 Cairo accords, though Hamas officials in the Gaza Strip expressed their discontent and "unacceptability" of the Doha agreement. A unity government was sworn on 2 June 2014.^[10] The government was supposed to exercise its functions in Gaza, or to form a government of national unity whose members would be from all Palestinian factions, including Hamas, Fatah and all other factions, and which would be responsible for Gaza and the West Bank and prepare for elections but it did not happen because of disagreements between the two parties.^[11] Nevertheless, the unity government had failed to implement authority over Gaza Strip and from September 2016 Hamas gradually expanded the authority of its Deputy Minister and Director General-level positions based in Gaza, in a move widely referred as establishment of an [alternative government](#).

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L4 HAMAS

"Islamic Resistance Movement" redirects here. Not to be confused with [Islamic Resistance Movement of Azerbaijan](#) or [Islamic Resistance Movement \(Iraq\)](#).

For the Algerian political party known by the abbreviation Hamas, see [Movement of Society for Peace](#).

Not to be confused with [Hama](#) or [hummus](#).

For other uses, see [Hamas \(disambiguation\)](#).

WIKIPEDIA

Islamic Resistance Movement	
حركة المقاومة الإسلامية	
	
Spokesperson	Fawzi Barhoum
Chairman	Ismail Haniyeh
Deputy Chairman	Mousa Abu Marzouq Khaled Mashal ^[1]
Founder	Ahmed Yassin Abdel Aziz al-Rantissi ... and others [show]
Founded	10 December 1987; 35 years ago
Split from	Muslim Brotherhood
Headquarters	Gaza City, Gaza Strip
Military wing	Izz ad-Din al-Qassam Brigades
Ideology	Palestinian nationalism ^[8] Islamism ^{[8][9]} Islamic nationalism ^{[a][b][8][12]} Anti-Zionism Anti-communism ^[13] Antisemitism ^[14]
Religion	Sunni Islam
Political alliance	Alliance of Palestinian Forces
Colours	 Green
Most seats in the PLC (c. 2006)	74 / 132 
Party flag	
	
Website	
hamas.ps/en 	
Politics of Palestine · Political parties · Elections	

Hamās (**UK:** /hæˈmæs, ˈhæməs/, **US:** /hɑːˈmɑːs, ˈhɑːmɑːs/; **Arabic:** حماس, **romanized:** *Ḥamās*, IPA: [ħaˈmaːs]; an **acronym** of حركة المقاومة الإسلامية *Ḥarakah al-Muqāwamah al-ʾIslāmiyyah*, lit. 'Islamic Resistance Movement')^[29] is a **Palestinian Sunni-Islamic fundamentalist**,^[a] **militant**,^[31] and **nationalist** organization.^[d] It has a social service wing, **Dawah**, and a military wing, the **Izz ad-Din al-Qassam Brigades**.^{[e][f]} It won the **2006 Palestinian legislative election**^[35] and became the *de facto* governing authority of the **Gaza Strip** following the **2007 Battle of Gaza**.^{[36][37]} It also holds a majority in the **parliament** of the **Palestinian National Authority**.

Canada, the European Union, Israel, Japan, Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States have designated Hamas as a [terrorist organization](#). New Zealand and Paraguay have designated only its military wing as a terrorist organization. It is not considered a terrorist organization by Brazil, China, Egypt, Iran, Norway, Qatar, Russia, Syria and Turkey. In December 2018, a resolution to condemn Hamas as a terrorist organisation failed to pass the [United Nations General Assembly](#).^[a] Hamas leaders [Ismaïl Haniyeh](#) and [Khaled Mashaal](#) are based in Qatar.

Egyptian [Muslim Brotherhood](#)^[40] which in its Gaza branch had previously been nonconfrontational toward Israel and hostile to the [Palestine Liberation](#)

Headquarters	Gaza City, Gaza Strip
Allies	State allies: <ul style="list-style-type: none">  Iran  Qatar^[15]  Syria^[16]  Turkey (partial)^[15] Non-state allies: <ul style="list-style-type: none">  Hezbollah
Opponents	State opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none">  Egypt^[15]  Israel  Jordan^[17]  Saudi Arabia  United Arab Emirates^[16] Non-state opponents: <ul style="list-style-type: none">  Fatah  People's Mujahedin of Iran^[18]
Battles and wars	Israel-Palestine conflict Fatah-Hamas conflict
Designated as a terrorist group by	<ul style="list-style-type: none">  Australia^[19]  Canada^[20]  European Union^[21]  Israel^[22]  Japan^{[23][24]}  Jordan^[17]  Organization of American States^[25]  Paraguay^[26]  United Kingdom^[27]  United States^[28]

OVERVIEW

Hamas was founded in 1987,^[4] soon after the [First Intifada](#) broke out, as an offshoot of the Egyptian [Muslim Brotherhood](#)^[40] which in its Gaza branch had previously been nonconfrontational toward Israel and hostile to the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) (PLO).^[41] Co-founder [Sheik Ahmed Yassin](#) said in 1987, and the [Hamas Charter](#) affirmed in 1988, that Hamas was founded to liberate [Palestine](#), including modern-day Israel, from [Israeli occupation](#) and to establish an [Islamic state](#) in the area that is now Israel, the West Bank and the Gaza Strip.^[42]

Since 1994,^[43] the group has frequently stated that it would accept a truce^[4] if Israel withdraws to the 1967 borders, paid reparations, allowed free elections in the territories^[45] and gave [Palestinian refugees the right to return](#).^[4]

Israel and Hamas have [engaged in several wars](#) of varying intensity.^[47] Hamas's military wing has launched attacks against Israeli civilians and soldiers, often describing them as retaliations, in particular for assassinations of the upper echelon of their leadership.^[48] Tactics have included [suicide bombings](#) and, since 2001, [rocket attacks](#).^{[49][50]} Hamas's rocket arsenal, though mainly consisting of short-range homemade [Qassam rockets](#) with a range of 16 km (9.9 mi),^{[51][6]} also includes [Grad-type rockets](#) (21 km (13 mi) by 2009) and longer-range (40 km (25 mi)) that have reached major Israeli towns such as [Beer Sheva](#) and [Ashdod](#).^[51] [Human Rights Watch](#) has condemned as [war crimes](#) and [crimes against humanity](#) both Hamas and Israel for attacks on civilians during the conflict, stating that the rationale of reprisals is never valid when civilians are targeted.^[4]

In the January 2006 Palestinian parliamentary elections, Hamas won a majority in the PNA Parliament,^[54] defeating

the PLO-affiliated [Fatah](#) party. After the elections, the [Quartet](#) (the European Union, Russia, the United Nations and the United States) made future foreign assistance to the PNA conditional upon the PNA's commitment to nonviolence, recognition of the state of Israel, and acceptance of previous agreements. Hamas rejected those

conditions, which led the Quartet to suspend its foreign assistance program and Israel to impose [economic sanctions](#) on the Hamas-led administration.^{[55][56]}





In March 2007, a [national unity government](#) headed by Prime Minister [Ismail Haniyeh](#) of Hamas was briefly formed, but this failed to restart international financial assistance.^[57] Tensions over control of Palestinian security forces soon erupted in the [2007 Battle of Gaza](#),^[57] after which Hamas took control of Gaza, while its officials were ousted from government positions in the West Bank.^[57] Israel and Egypt then imposed an economic [blockade of the Gaza Strip](#) on the grounds that Fatah forces were no longer providing security there.^[58]




Terrorist Designation









The United States designated Hamas as a terrorist organisation in 1995, as did Canada in November 2002,^[446] and the United Kingdom in November 2021.^[447] The [European Union](#) designated Hamas's military wing in 2001 and, under US pressure,^[448] designated Hamas in 2003.^[449] Hamas challenged this decision,^[450] which was upheld by the [European Court of Justice](#) in July 2017.^[451] Japan^[452] and New Zealand,^[453] have designated the military wing of Hamas as a terrorist organization.^[454] The organization is banned in Jordan.^[455]



Hamas is not regarded as a terrorist organization by Iran,^[456] Russia,^[457] Norway,^[458] Switzerland,^[459] Turkey,^[460] China,^[461] Egypt, Syria, and Brazil.^{[461][462][463][464][465][466][ac]}

According to Tobias Buck, Hamas is "listed as a terrorist organisation by Israel, the US and the EU, but few dare to treat it that way now" and in the Arab and Muslim world it has lost its pariah status and its emissaries are welcomed in capitals of Islamic countries.^[468] While Hamas is considered a terrorist group by several governments and some academics, others regard Hamas as a complex organization, with [terrorism](#) as only one component.^{[469][470]}

Country	Designation
 Australia	Australia announced they would designate Hamas as a terrorist organization in its entirety in 2022. Prior to that, Hamas' military wing, the Izz ad-Din al-Qassam Brigades , were recognized as one but the political branch were not. ^{[471][472][473][474]}
 Brazil	Hamas is not regarded as a terrorist organization by Brazil. ^{[461][462]}
 Canada	Under the Anti-Terrorism Act, the Government of Canada currently lists Hamas as a terrorist entity, thus establishing it as a terrorist group, since 2002. ^{[475][476]}
 China	As of 2006, China does not designate Hamas to be a terrorist organization and acknowledges Hamas to be the legitimately elected political entity in the Gaza Strip that represents the Palestinian people. In June 2006, a spokesperson for the Chinese Foreign Ministry stated: "We believe that the Palestinian government is legally elected by the people there and it should be respected." ^{[477][478]}

 Egypt	<p>In June 2015, Egypt's appeals court overturned a prior ruling that listed Hamas as a terrorist organization.^[479] In February 2015, Cairo's Urgent Matters Court designated Hamas as a terrorist organization, as part of a crack down on the Muslim Brotherhood movement following the 2013 Egyptian coup d'état. The court accused Hamas of carrying terrorist attacks in Egypt through tunnels linking the Sinai Peninsula to the Gaza Strip.^[480] In March 2014, the same court outlawed Hamas' activities in Egypt, ordered the closure of its offices and to arrest any Hamas member found in the country.^{[481][482]}</p>
 European Union	<p>The EU designated Hamas as a terrorist group from 2003. In December 2014, the General Court of the European Union ordered to remove HAMAS from the register. The court stated that the move was technical and was not a reassessment of Hamas' classification as a terrorist group. In March 2015, EU decided to keep Hamas on its terrorism blacklist "despite a controversial court decision", appealing the court's judgment.^{[483][484][485][486][487][488][489][490]} In July 2017, this appeal was upheld by the European Court of</p>
 Iran	<p>Hamas is not regarded as a terrorist organization by Iran.^{[456][467]}</p>
 Israel	<p>The Israeli Ministry of Foreign Affairs states, "Hamas maintains a terrorist infrastructure in Gaza and the West Bank, and acts to carry out terrorist attacks in the territories and Israel."^[493]</p>
 Japan	<p>As of 2005, Japan had frozen the assets of 472 terrorists and terrorist organizations including those of Hamas.^[494] However, in 2006 it publicly acknowledged that Hamas had won the 2006 Palestinian legislative elections democratically.^[495]</p>
 Jordan	<p>Hamas was banned in 1999, reportedly in part at the request of the United States, Israel, and the Palestinian Authority.^[196] In 2019, Jordanian sources are said to have revealed "that the Kingdom refused a request from the General Secretariat of the Arab League in late March to ban Hamas and list it as a terrorist organization."^{[496][better source needed]}</p>
 New Zealand	<p>The military wing of Hamas, the Izz al-Din al-Qassam Brigades, has been listed as a terrorist entity since 2010.^[497]</p>
 Norway	<p>Norway does not designate Hamas as a terrorist organization.^[498] In 2006, Norway distanced itself from the European Union, "claiming that it was causing problems for its role as a 'neutral facilitator.'"^[458]</p>
 Organization of American States	<p>OAS designated Hamas a terrorist organization in May 2021.^{[499][500]}</p>

 Paraguay	The military wing of Hamas, the Izz ad-Din al-Qassam Brigades, is listed as a terrorist organization.
 Qatar	The Qatari government has a designated terrorist list. As of 2014, the list contained no names, according to The Daily Telegraph . ^[501] In September 2020, Qatar brokered a ceasefire between Israel and Hamas that is reported to include "plans to build a power station operated by Qatar, the provision of \$34 million for humanitarian aid, provision of 20,000 COVID-19 testing kits by Qatar to the Health Ministry, and a number of initiatives to reduce unemployment in the Gaza Strip." ^[502]
 Russia	Russia does not designate Hamas a terrorist organisation, and held direct talks with Hamas in 2006, after Hamas won the Palestine elections, stating that it did so to press Hamas to reject violence and recognise Israel. ^[503]
 Saudi Arabia	Banned the Muslim Brotherhood in 2014 and branded it a terrorist organization. While Hamas is not specifically listed, a non-official Saudi source stated that the decision also encompasses its branches in other countries, including Hamas. ^[504] ^[better source needed] As of January 2020, ties between Saudi Arabia and Hamas remain strained despite attempts at a rapprochement. Wesam Afifa, director general of Al-Aqsa TV is quoted as saying that "Saudi Arabia did not sever ties with Hamas, and even when Riyadh made public its list of terrorists in 2017, Hamas was not added to the list." ^[505] ^[better source needed]
 Switzerland	Switzerland does not designate Hamas as a terrorist organization. In accordance with Swiss neutrality , its policy of contact with the main actors of a conflict is characterized by impartial inclusiveness, discretion and pragmatism. Switzerland has direct contacts with all major stakeholders in the Israeli–Palestinian conflict, including Hamas. ^[506]
 Syria	Syria does not designate Hamas as a terrorist organization. Syria is among other countries that consider Hamas' armed struggle to be legitimate. ^[467]
 Turkey	The Turkish government met with Hamas leaders in February 2006, after the organization's victory in the Palestinian elections. In 2010, Prime Minister Recep Tayyip Erdoğan described Hamas as "resistance fighters who are struggling to defend their land". ^[507] ^[508]
 United Kingdom	Hamas in its entirety is proscribed as a terrorist group and banned under the Terrorism Act."The government now assess that the approach of distinguishing between the various parts of Hamas is artificial. Hamas is a complex but single terrorist organisation." ^[447]

 United Nations	The list of United Nations designated terrorist groups does not include Hamas. ^[509] On 5 December 2018, the UN rejected a U.S. resolution aimed at unilaterally condemning Hamas for Palestinian rocket attacks on Israel and other violence. ^{[510][511][38][512]}
 United States	Lists Hamas as a "Foreign Terrorist Organization" ^[513] The State Department decided to add Hamas to its U.S. State Department list of Foreign Terrorist Organizations in April 1993. ^[514] As of 2009, Hamas is still listed. ^[515]

VIOLENCE AND TERRORISM

Hamas has used both political activities and violence in pursuit of its goals. For example, while politically engaged in the 2006 Palestinian Territories parliamentary election campaign, Hamas stated in its election manifesto that it was prepared to use "armed resistance to end the occupation".^[379]

From 2000 to 2004, Hamas was responsible for killing nearly 400 Israelis and wounding more than 2,000 in 425 attacks, according to the Israeli Ministry of Foreign Affairs. From 2001 through May 2008, Hamas launched more than 3,000 Qassam rockets and 2,500 mortar attacks into Israel.^[380]

Attacks on Civilians

Hamas has attacked Israeli civilians. Hamas's most deadly suicide bombing was an attack on a [Netanya](#) hotel on March 27, 2002, in which 30 people were killed and 140 were wounded. The attack has also been referred to as the [Passover massacre](#) since it took place on the first night of the Jewish festival of [Passover](#) at a [Seder](#).

Hamas has defended suicide attacks as a legitimate aspect of its [asymmetric warfare](#) against Israel. In 2003, according to Stephen Atkins, Hamas resumed suicide bombings in Israel as a retaliatory measure after the failure of peace talks and an Israeli campaign targeting members of the upper echelon of the Hamas leadership.^[aa] but they are considered as [crimes against humanity](#) under international law.^{[381][382]} In a 2002 report, Human Rights Watch stated that Hamas leaders "should be held accountable" for "war crimes and crimes against humanity" committed by the al-Qassam Brigades.^{[383][384][385]}

In May 2006, Israel arrested a top Hamas official, [Ibrahim Hamed](#), who Israeli security officials alleged was responsible for dozens of [suicide bombings](#) and other attacks on Israelis.^[386] Hamed's trial on those charges has not yet concluded.^[387] In 2008, Hamas explosives engineer Shihab al-Natsheh organized a deadly [suicide bombing in Dimona](#).^{[388][389]}

Since 2002, paramilitary soldiers of al-Qassam Brigades and other groups have used homemade Qassam rockets to hit Israeli towns in the [Negev](#), such as [Sderot](#). Al-Qassam Brigades was estimated in 2007 to have launched 22% of the rocket and mortar attacks,^[390] which killed fifteen people between the years 2000 and 2009 (see [Palestinian rocket attacks on Israel](#)).^[391] The introduction of the *Qassam-2* rocket in 2008 enabled Palestinian paramilitary groups to reach, from Gaza, such Israeli cities such as [Ashkelon](#).^[392]

In 2008, Hamas leader [Khaled Mashal](#), offered that Hamas would attack only military targets if the IDF would stop causing the deaths of Palestinian civilians.^[393] Following a June 19, 2008 ceasefire, the al-Qassam Brigades ended its rocket attacks and arrested Fatah militants in Gaza who had continued sporadic rocket and mortar attacks against Israel. The al-Qassam Brigades resumed the attacks after the November 4 Israeli incursion into Gaza.^{[261][394]}

On June 15, 2014, Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu accused Hamas of involvement in the [kidnapping of three Israeli teenagers](#) (including one who held American citizenship), saying "This has severe repercussions."^[395] On July 20, 2014, nearly two weeks into [Operation Protective Edge](#), Netanyahu in an interview with CNN described Hamas as "genocidal terrorists."^[396]

On August 5, 2014 Israel announced that Israeli security forces arrested Hussam Kawasme, in [Shuafat](#), in connection with the murders.^[397] During interrogation, Kawasme admitted to being the mastermind behind the attack, in addition to securing the funding from Hamas.^[398] Officials have stated that additional people arrested in connection with the murders are still being held, but no names have been released.^[399]

On August 20, Saleh al-Arouri, a Hamas leader in exile in Turkey, claimed responsibility for the kidnapping of the three Israeli teens. He delivered an address on behalf of [Khaled Mashal](#) at the conference of the [International Union of Muslim Scholars](#) in [Istanbul](#), a move that might reflect a desire by Hamas to gain leverage.^[400] In it he said: "Our goal was to ignite an [intifada](#) in the West Bank and Jerusalem, as well as within the 1948 borders. ... Your brothers in the [Al-Qassam Brigades](#) carried out this operation to support their imprisoned brothers, who were on a hunger strike. ... The [mujahideen](#) captured these settlers in order to have a swap deal."^[401] Hamas political leader Khaled Mashal accepted that members of Hamas were responsible, stating that he knew nothing of it in advance and that what the leadership knew of the details came from reading Israeli reports.^[402] Meshaal, who has headed Hamas's exiled political wing since 2004, has denied being involved in the "details" of Hamas "military issues", but "justified the killings as a legitimate action against Israelis on "occupied" lands."^[403]

Palestinian Rocket Attacks on Israel

For Links, go to [site](#)

By year (list)

2001 • 2002–2006 • 2007 • 2008
2008 ceasefire • Gaza War • 2009 • 2010
2011 • 2012 • 2013 • 2014
2015 • 2016 • 2017 • 2018
2019 • 2020 • 2021

Groups responsible

Fatah • Hamas • Islamic Jihad
PFLP • DFLP • PRC
Ansar al-Sunna • Force 17
Army of Islam • Tawhid wal-Jihad
Abdullah Azzam Brigades
Mujahideen Shura Council

Rocket types

Mortar • Qassam • Al-Quds
Katyusha • Grad • Fajr-5

Cities affected

Ashdod • Ashkelon • Beersheba
Eilat • Gedera • Kiryat Gat
Kiryat Malakhi • Netivot
Sderot • Ofakim • Yavne
Tel Aviv • Jerusalem

Regional Council areas affected

Hof Ashkelon
Karmia • Netiv HaAsara • Yad Mordechai • Zikim)
Eshkol
(Nir Oz • Nirim • Yesha)
Sha'ar HaNegev
(Kfar Aza • Nahal Oz • Nir Am)
Sdot Negev
(Alumim • Sa'ad)
Merhavim • Be'er Tuvia • Yoav
Bnei Shimon • Gush Etzion

Settlements affected (evacuated)

Atzmona • Dugit • Elei Sinai
Gadid • Ganei Tal • Katif
Kfar Darom • Morag
Netzarim • Netzer Hazani
Neve Dekalim • Nisanit
Rafiah Yam • Slav

Defense and response

Civil defense in Israel
Red Color • Iron Dome • ZAKA

See also

Rocket attacks on Eilat
Projectile attacks from Lebanon

Rocket Attacks on Israel

Hamas and other Palestinian armed groups have launched thousands of rockets into Israel since 2001, killing 15 civilians, wounding many more, and posing an ongoing threat to the nearly 800,000 Israeli civilians who live and work in the weapons' range. Hamas officials have said that the rockets were aimed only at military targets, saying that civilian casualties were the "accidental result" of the weapons' poor quality. According to Human Rights Watch, statements by Hamas leaders suggest that the purpose of the rocket attacks was indeed to strike civilians and civilian objects. From January 2009, following [Operation Cast Lead](#), Hamas largely stopped launching rocket attacks on Israel and has on at least two occasions arrested members of other groups who have launched rockets, "showing that it has the ability to impose the law when it wants".^[404] In February 2010, Hamas issued a statement regretting any harm that may have befallen Israeli civilians as a result of Palestinian rocket attacks during the Gaza war. It maintained that its rocket attacks had been aimed at Israeli military targets but lacked accuracy and hence sometimes hit civilian areas. Israel responded that Hamas had boasted repeatedly of targeting and murdering civilians in the media.^[405]

According to one report, commenting on the 2014 conflict, "nearly all the 2,500–3,000 rockets and mortars Hamas has fired at Israel since the start of the war seem to have been aimed at towns", including an attack on "a kibbutz collective farm close to the Gaza border", in which an Israeli child was killed.^[406] Former Israeli Lt. Col. Jonathan D. Halevi stated that "Hamas has expressed pride in aiming long-range rockets at strategic targets in Israel including the nuclear reactor in Dimona, the chemical plants in Haifa, and Ben-Gurion Airport", which "could have caused thousands" of Israeli casualties "if successful".^[407]

In July 2008, [Barack Obama](#), then the Democratic presidential candidate, said: "If somebody was sending rockets into my house, where my two daughters sleep at night, I'm going to do everything in my power to stop that, and I would expect Israelis to do the same thing."^[408] On December 22, 2008, Secretary of State [Condoleezza](#)

December 28, 2008, Secretary of State [Condoleezza Rice](#) said in a statement: "the United States strongly condemns the repeated rocket and mortar attacks against Israel."^[409] On March 2, 2009, Secretary of State [Hillary Clinton](#) condemned the attacks.^[410]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L5 HAMAS CHARTER

WIKIPEDIA

The **Hamas Covenant** or **Hamas Charter**, formally known in English as the **Covenant of the Islamic Resistance Movement**, was originally issued on 18 August 1988 and outlines the founding identity, stand, and aims of [Hamas](#) (the Islamic Resistance Movement).^[1] A new charter was issued by Hamas leader [Khaled Mashal](#) on 1 May 2017 in [Doha](#).^[2]

The original Charter identified Hamas as the [Muslim Brotherhood](#) in Palestine and declares its members to be [Muslims](#) who "fear [God](#) and raise the banner of [Jihad](#) in the face of the oppressors." The charter states that "our struggle against the Jews is very great and very serious" and calls for the eventual creation of an [Islamic state](#) in Palestine, in place of [Israel](#) and the [Palestinian Territories](#),^[3] and the obliteration or dissolution of Israel.^{[4][5]} It emphasizes the importance of jihad, stating in article 13, "There is no solution for the Palestinian question except through Jihad. Initiatives, proposals and international conferences are all a waste of time and vain endeavors."^[6] The charter also states that Hamas is humanistic, and tolerant of other religions as long as they "stop disputing the sovereignty of Islam in this region".^[7] The Charter adds that "renouncing any part of Palestine means renouncing part of the religion [of Islam]".^[1] The original charter was criticized for its violent language against all Jews, which some commentators characterized as [incitement to genocide](#).^{[8][9]}

In 2008, the Hamas leader in Gaza, [Ismail Haniyeh](#), stated that Hamas would agree to accept a Palestinian state along the [1967 borders](#), and to offer a long-term truce with Israel.^[10] In contrast to this, Hamas leader [Mahmoud al-Zahar](#) stated that any talk of the 1967 lines is "just a phase" until Hamas has a chance to "regain the land...even if we [Hamas] have to do so inch by inch."^[11] In 2009 interviews with the BBC, [Tony Blair](#) claimed that Hamas does not accept the existence of Israel and continues to pursue its objectives through terror and violence; [Sir Jeremy Greenstock](#) however argued that Hamas has not adopted its charter as part of its political program since it won the [2006 Palestinian legislative election](#).^[12] Instead it has moved to a more secular stance.^[13] In 2010, Hamas leader Khaled Meshaal stated that the Charter is "a piece of history and no longer relevant, but cannot be changed for internal reasons."^[14] Hamas has moved away from its charter since it decided to run candidates for office.^[13]

The 2017 charter accepted for the first time the idea of a Palestinian state within the borders that existed [before 1967](#) and rejects recognition of Israel which it terms as the "[Zionist](#) enemy".^[2] It advocates such a state as transitional but also advocates "liberation of all of Palestine".^{[15][16]} The new document also states that the group doesn't seek war with the [Jewish people](#) but only against Zionism which it holds responsible for "occupation of Palestine".^[17] Mashal also stated that Hamas was ending its association with the [Muslim Brotherhood](#).^[15] After a new charter was scheduled to be issued in May 2017, [Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu](#)'s office issued a statement in which it accused Hamas of trying to fool the world and also asked it to stop its terror activities for a true change.^[18]

BACKGROUND

In 1987, twenty years after the [Six-Day War](#), the [First Intifada](#) (1987–1993) began.^[19] In the late 1980s, the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#) sought a negotiated solution with Israel in the form of a [two-state solution](#). This was not acceptable to Hamas, the [Palestinian](#) wing of the [Muslim Brotherhood](#),^[20] and the covenant was written to bridge the ideological gap between the PLO and Muslim Brotherhood.^[21] According to Hamas's Deputy Foreign Minister Dr. [Ahmed Yousef](#), the Charter "was ratified during the unique circumstances of the Uprising in 1988 as a necessary framework for dealing with a relentless occupation".^[22]

While the PLO was nationalistic, it was more secular in nature, while Hamas subscribed to a neo-[Salafi](#) jihadi theology and nationalism.^[20] Hamas was a shift from the Muslim Brotherhood's more universal Islamic vision to a focus on Palestinian nationalism and a strategy of armed struggle, or violent [jihad](#).^[21] Its political goals were identical to those of the [PLO's charter](#) and was essentially an armed struggle to retrieve the entire land of [Palestine](#) as an Islamic [waqf](#).^[21]

The movement later came under pressure to update its founding charter issued in 1988 which called for Israel's destruction and advocated violent means for achieving a Palestinian state.^[2] The original charter's tone and casting the Israeli-Palestinian conflict as part of an eternal struggle between Muslim and Jews became an obstacle for the movement to be able to take part in diplomatic forums involving Western nations. The new charter also sought to question the ability of [Fatah](#) and its leader [Mahmoud Abbas](#) to act as the sole legitimate representative for the Palestinians.^[23] In addition, its ties to the Muslim Brotherhood had also damaged relationship with [Egypt](#) which considers the movement to be a terrorist organisation.^[24]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L6 ISLAMIC STATE

This article is about the modern violent extremist group. For the concept of a state based on Islamic law, see [Islamic state](#). For other uses, see [Islamic state \(disambiguation\)](#).

"ISIL", "ISIS", "Daesh", and "Daish" redirect here. For other uses, see [ISIL \(disambiguation\)](#), [Isis \(disambiguation\)](#), [Daesh \(disambiguation\)](#), and [Daish \(surname\)](#).

WIKIPEDIA

Part of [a series](#) on the

Arab–Israeli conflict

[Timeline](#)

Views on the conflict

[Media coverage](#)

[International law](#)

The **Islamic State** (IS),^[144] [also known as](#) the **Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant** (ISIL; /ˈaɪsɪl/), **Islamic State of Iraq and Syria** (ISIS; /ˈaɪsɪs/),^{[145][146]} and by its [Arabic](#) acronym **Da'ish**^{[147][148]} or **Daesh** (داعش, *Dā'ish*, IPA: [ˈdaːʕɪʃ]),^[149] is a transnational militant [Islamist terrorist](#) group and former [unrecognized quasi-state](#)^{[150][151][152][153][154]} that follows the [Salafi jihadist](#) branch of [Sunni Islam](#).^[155] It was founded by [Abu Musab al-Zarqawi](#) in 1999 and gained global prominence in 2014, when it captured a large amount of Iraqi territory,^{[156][157]} ^[158] and took advantage of the [civil war in Syria](#) to take control of chunks of territory in Eastern Syria.^{[159][160][161]} By the end of 2015, it held an area estimated to contain eight to twelve million people stretching from western [Iraq](#) to eastern Syria,^{[99][100][162]} where it enforced its interpretation of [Islamic law](#), administered an annual budget of more than US\$1 billion and had more than 30,000 fighters under its command.^[163] By 2019 it had lost the last of its Middle Eastern territories and returned to insurgency in the regions it once controlled, operating from remote hideouts, and continuing its [propaganda efforts](#).^{[164][165]}

From 2003 to 2013, the group pledged allegiance to [Al-Qaeda](#) (mostly under the name "[Islamic State of Iraq](#)") and participated in the [Iraqi insurgency](#) against the United States and [allies](#). The group changed its name again to "Islamic State of Iraq and Levant" for about a year,^{[166][167]} before proclaiming itself to be a worldwide [caliphate](#),^{[168][169]} called simply the Islamic State (الدولة الإسلامية, *ad-Dawlah al-Islāmiyah*).^[170] As a caliphate, it demanded the religious, political, and military obedience of [Muslims worldwide](#),^[171] despite the

rejection of its [legitimacy](#) by mainstream [Muslims](#) and its [statehood](#) by the [United Nations](#) and various governments.^[172]

For the next few years the [Iraqi Armed Forces](#) and the [Syrian Democratic Forces](#) beat back "the Islamic State" and degraded its financial and military infrastructure,^[173] assisted by advisors, weapons, training, supplies and airstrikes by the U.S. coalition,^[174] and later by Russian airstrikes, bombings, cruise missile attacks and [scorched-earth](#) tactics across Syria, which focused mostly on razing [opposition](#) strongholds rather than IS bases.^[175] By March 2019, IS lost one of its last significant territories in the [Middle East](#).

[Designated a terrorist organisation](#) by the United Nations and others, the group was known for its [massive human rights abuses](#);^[176] [genocide against Yazidis](#) and [Christians](#) on a historic scale, [systematic persecution of Shia Muslims](#);^{[28][177][178]} [its videos of beheadings \(and other kinds of executions\)](#)^[179] of soldiers, journalists, aid workers; as well as [its destruction of cultural heritage sites](#).^[180]

As of November 2022 the leader of the "state" is reportedly Abu al-Husain al-Husaini al-Quraishi, its previous leaders having been killed in fighting or suicides.^[181]


[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L7 GAZA–ISRAEL CONFLICT

WIKIPEDIA

This article is about the broad conflict ongoing since 2006. For the fighting that took place in July and August 2014, see [2014 Gaza War](#).

GO TO [WIKIPEDIA](#) FOR LIVE LINKS

<div> <div> <div>Gaza–Israel conflict</div> <div>Part of the Israeli–Palestinian conflict, the spillover of the Sinai insurgency and the Iran–Israel proxy conflict</div> </div>  <div> <div>Date</div> <div>28 June 2006 – ongoing (17 years, 2 weeks and 3 days)</div> </div> <div> <div>Location</div> <div>Gaza Strip · Southern Israel and parts of Egypt</div> </div> <div> <div>Status</div> <div>General cease-fire between Israel and Hamas (from 2014) punctuated by sporadic clashes between the IDF and Palestinian militant organizations.</div> </div> </div>	<div> <div>V · T · E</div> <div>Gaza–Israel conflict</div> <div>[hide]</div> </div> <div> <div>Timeline · Palestinian rocket attacks (Lists)</div> </div> <div> <div>Gaza cross-border raid · Summer Rains · Autumn Clouds · Gaza–Egypt border breach · Hot Winter · 2008–2009 Gaza War · March 2010 clashes · Southern Israel cross-border attacks · March 2012 clashes · Pillar of Defense · 2014 war (Shuja'iyya · Beach bombing incidents) · 2018 border protests · November 2018 clashes · May 2019 clashes · November 2019 clashes · 2021 Israel–Palestine crisis · 2022 clashes · 2023 clashes</div> </div>
--	--

Casualties and losses	
185 killed ^{[18][19]}	~3,476 killed ^{[20][21]}
	~15,000 wounded

The **Gaza–Israel conflict** is a part of the localized Israeli–Palestinian conflict, but is also a scene of power struggle between regional powers including Egypt, Iran and Turkey together with Qatar, supporting different sides of the conflict in light of the regional standoff between Iran and Saudi Arabia^[22] on one hand and between Qatar and Saudi Arabia on the other, as well as crisis in Egyptian-Turkish relations.^[23]

The conflict originated with the election of the Islamist political party Hamas in 2005^[24] and 2006,^[25] in the Gaza Strip and escalated with the split of the Palestinian Authority Palestinian government into the Fatah government in the West Bank and the Hamas government in Gaza and the following violent ousting of Fatah after Fatah lost the election to Hamas. Palestinian rocket attacks on Israel,^[26] Israeli airstrikes on Gaza, and the joint Egyptian-Israeli blockade of Gaza have exacerbated the conflict.

The international community considers attacks on civilians and civilian structures that do not discriminate between civilians and military targets illegal under international law.^{[27][28]}

As part of its 2005 [disengagement plan](#), Israel retained exclusive control over Gaza's airspace and territorial waters, continued to patrol and monitor the external land perimeter of the Gaza Strip, with the exception of its southernmost border (where Egypt retained control of the border and border crossings were supervised by European monitors) and continued to monitor and [blockade](#) Gaza's coastline. Israel largely provides and controls Gaza's water supply, electricity and communications infrastructure.^{[29][30]} According to [Human Rights Watch](#) and [Amnesty International](#), Israel remains an [occupying power](#) under international law.^[31] The [United Nations](#) has stated that under resolutions of both the [General Assembly](#) and the [Security Council](#), it regards Gaza to be part of the "Occupied Palestinian Territories".^[32] Meanwhile, the Fatah government in the West Bank, internationally recognized as the sole representative of the [State of Palestine](#), refers to the Gaza Strip as part of the Palestinian state and does not recognize the Hamas government.

BACKGROUND

Main article: [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#)

Israel–Gaza Barrier

Main article: [Israel–Gaza barrier](#)

The [Israel–Gaza barrier](#), completed in 1996, has helped reduce infiltration from [Gaza Strip](#) into [Israel](#).^[citation needed] Since the beginning of the Second Intifada, Gazans have not been permitted to enter Israel for work purposes. Special permits to enter Israel for medical purposes were also greatly reduced,^[citation needed] which has made travel for Palestinians difficult.^[33]

[Daniel Schueftan](#), in his 1999 book, *Disengagement: Israel and the Palestinian Entity*^{[34][35]} ("The Need for Separation: Israel and the Palestinian Authority"), reviews new and existing arguments underlying different separation stances, in order to make the case for separation from the [Palestinians](#), beginning with those in the [West Bank](#) and Gaza. Schueftan favors the "hard separation" stances of politicians like [Yitzhak Rabin](#) and [Ehud Barak](#).^[35]

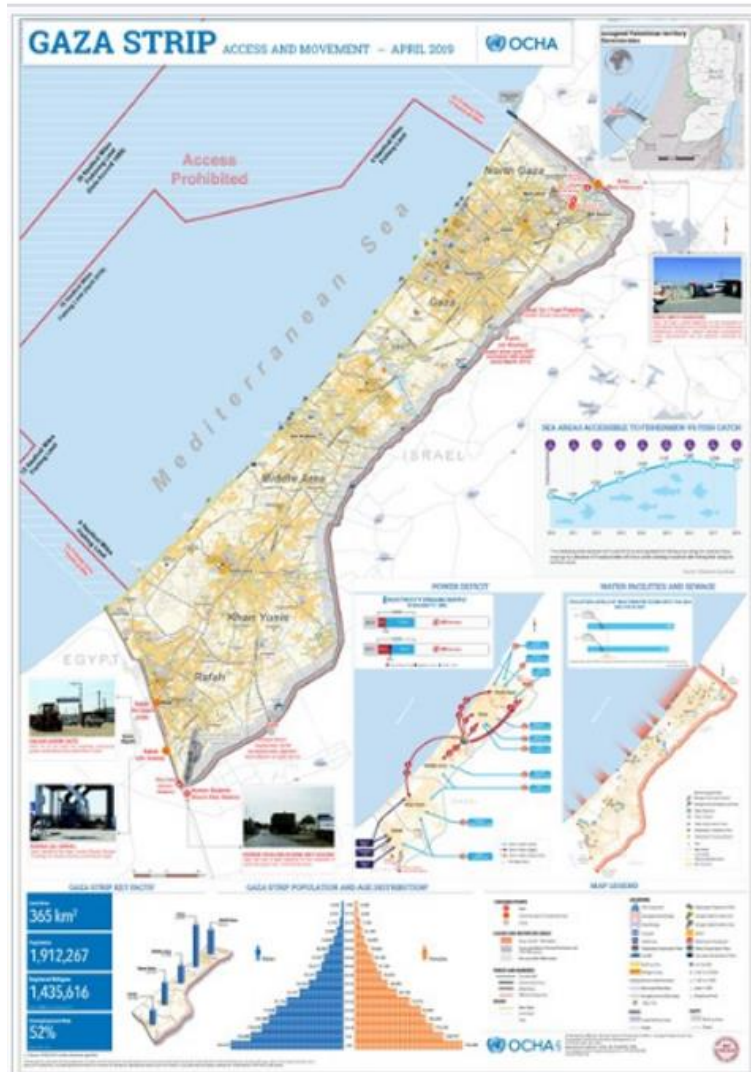
[Yitzhak Rabin](#) was the first to propose the creation of a physical barrier between the Israeli and Palestinian populations in 1992, and by 1994, construction on the first barrier – the [Israel–Gaza barrier](#) – had begun; it is actually a wire fence equipped with sensors. Following an attack on Bet Lid, near the city of [Netanya](#), Rabin specified the objectives behind the undertaking, stating that:

This path must lead to a separation, though not according to the borders prior to 1967. We want to reach a separation between us and them. We do not want majority of the [Jewish](#) residents of the state of Israel, 98% of whom live within the borders of sovereign Israel, including a united [Jerusalem](#), to be subject to terrorism."^{[36][37]}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L8 GAZA–ISRAEL BARRIER

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Map of the Gaza Strip in 2019



Gaza Strip

The **Gaza–Israel barrier** is a [border barrier](#) located on the Israeli side of the Gaza–Israel border.^[1] The [Erez Crossing](#), in the north of the Gaza Strip, is the only crossing point for people and goods coming from Israel into Gaza; there exists a second crossing point in the barrier, called the [Kerem Shalom border crossing](#), which is exclusive for the crossing of goods coming from Egypt, as Israel does not allow goods to go directly from Egypt into Gaza through the [Egypt–Gaza border](#).^{[2][3]}

A fence along the border was first constructed by [Israel](#) in 1994 as a security barrier, and has been rebuilt and upgraded since. It was constructed by Israel to control the movement of people as well as goods between the Gaza Strip and Israel, which it could not achieve by normal border crossings.

There is also one crossing along the [Egypt–Gaza border](#), the [Rafah Crossing](#), though it is limited to the crossing of people; as per Israel's demand, any cargo or goods that are to enter Gaza must go through Israel, usually through the [Kerem Shalom border crossing](#).^{[4][3]}

POLITICAL BACKGROUND

In 1993, Israel and the [Palestinian Liberation Organization](#) signed the [Oslo Accords](#) establishing the [Palestinian Authority](#) with limited administrative control of the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#). Pursuant to the Accords, Israel continues to maintain control of the Gaza Strip's [airspace](#), land borders (with the exception of Gaza's border with Egypt, abandoned by Israel in 2005), and [territorial waters](#).

In 2005, [Israel unilaterally withdrew its troops](#) from the Gaza Strip, along with thousands of Israeli settlers. Israel thus claims to have ended the occupation. However, this claim has been challenged on the basis that Israel continues to exercise control over Gaza's territorial waters and airspace, despite Gaza not being part of Israel and Gazans not having [Israeli passports](#).^[5]

Tunnels under the barrier

Main article: [Palestinian tunnel warfare in the Gaza Strip](#)

Because of the effectiveness of the barrier in stopping infiltration of Israel by militants, they adopted a strategy of digging tunnels under the barrier. On 25 June 2006, Palestinians used an 800-metre tunnel dug over a period of months to infiltrate Israel. They attacked a patrolling Israeli armored unit, killed two Israeli soldiers, and captured another one, [Gilad Shalit](#).^[27]

Between January and October 2013, three other tunnels were identified – two of which were packed with explosives.^[28] The discovery of similarly constructed tunnels in other parts of the world have led to updated [threat assessment](#) estimates.^{[29][30]}

During the [2014 Gaza war](#), Israel encountered Hamas militants who popped out of tunnels into Israel and attacked soldiers along the border. After the war, Israel located and destroyed 32 tunnels. In 2018, Israel destroyed three new tunnels.^[31]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

L9 ECONOMY OF GAZA CITY

For current data see [Palestinian economic growth to slow in 2023, World Bank Reuters](#)

WIKIPEDIA

The **economy of Gaza City** was dependent on small industries and agriculture. After years of decline, economic growth in [Gaza](#) is now on the rise, boosted by [foreign aid](#).^[1] According to the [International Monetary Fund](#), the economy grew 20 percent in 2011, and the per capita gross domestic product increased by 19 percent.^[2]

HISTORY

19th century

In the 19th century, Gaza was among six soap-producing cities in the Levant, overshadowed only by Nablus. Its factories purchased *qilw* (alkaline soda) from merchants from Nablus and [Salt](#) in [Jordan](#).^[3] Gaza's port was eclipsed by the ports of Jaffa and [Haifa](#), but it retained its fishing fleet.^[4] Although its port was inactive, land commerce thrived because of its strategic location. Most caravans and travelers coming from [Egypt](#) stopped in Gaza for supplies, likewise Bedouins from [Ma'an](#), east of the [Wadi Araba](#), bought various sorts of provisions from the city to sell to [Muslim](#) pilgrims coming from [Mecca](#). The [bazaars](#) of Gaza were well-supplied and were noted by Edward Robinson as "far better" than those of Jerusalem.^[5] Its principal commercial crop was cotton which was sold to the government and local [Arab](#) tribes.^[6]

Modern era

Many Gazans worked in the Israeli service industry while the border was open, but in the wake of Israel's 2005 disengagement plan, Gazans could no longer do so. According to [OXFAM](#), Gaza suffered from serious shortages in housing, educational facilities, health facilities, infrastructure, and an inadequate sewage system, contributing to serious hygiene and public health problems.^[7] [Food prices](#) rose during the blockade, with wheat flour going up 34% and rice up 21%. The number of poor Gazans increased sharply, with 80% relying on humanitarian aid in 2008 compared to 63% in 2006. In 2007, households spent an average of 62% of their total income on food, compared to 37% in 2004. In a decade, the number of families depending on UNRWA food aid increased ten-fold.^[7]

Increasing prosperity has led to the widespread replacement of donkey carts with [tuk-tuks](#).^[8]

According to the [International Monetary Fund](#), the unemployment rate is falling. The economy of Gaza grew by 16% in the first half of 2010, almost twice as fast as the economy of the [West Bank](#).^[9]

The [European Union](#) paid €420 million in aid to the Palestinian territories in 2001.^[10] This was in addition to contributions by individual member states. This included €55 million from Germany, €67 million from

France, and £63.6 million (about €76 million) from Great Britain in 2007 alone.^[10] Donation levels have since increased, with the United States and the European Union giving \$7.7 billion in 2008-2010.^[10]

In 2011 Gaza's economy increased by 27% while unemployment fell to 29%, its lowest in a decade.^[11] In 2012, Qatar donated 400 million dollars towards construction projects in the Gaza Strip.^[12]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

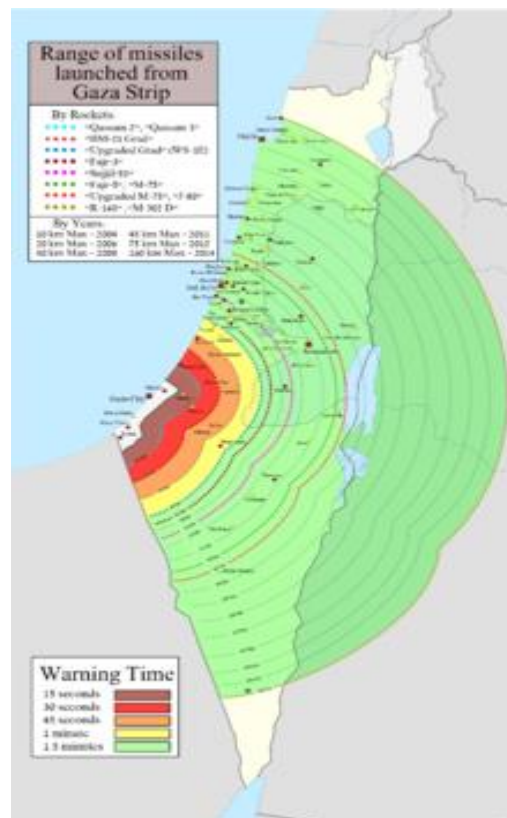
L10 PALESTINIAN ROCKET ATTACKS ON ISRAEL

For information pertaining to the wider conflict, see [Gaza–Israel conflict](#) and [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).

WIKIPEDIA

Palestinian rocket attacks on Israel

**Range of missiles
launched
from Gaza Strip
(10-160 km).**



Since 2001, [Palestinian militants](#) have launched thousands^{[1][2][3][4]} of [rocket](#) and [mortar](#) attacks on Israel from the [Gaza Strip](#) as part of the continuing [Arab–Israeli conflict](#). The attacks, widely condemned for targeting civilians, have been described as [terrorism](#) by the [United Nations](#), the [European Union](#), and Israeli officials, and are defined as [war crimes](#) by [human rights](#) groups [Amnesty International](#) and [Human Rights Watch](#). The international community considers [indiscriminate attacks](#) on civilian targets [to be illegal under international law](#).^{[5][6]}

From 2004 to 2014, these attacks have killed 27 Israeli civilians, 5 foreign nationals, 5 IDF soldiers, and at least 11 Palestinians^[7] and injured more than 1900 people.^[citation needed] Their main effect is their creation of

widespread [psychological trauma](#) and disruption of daily life among the Israeli populace.^[8] Medical studies in [Sderot](#), the Israeli city closest to the Gaza Strip, have documented a [post-traumatic stress disorder](#) incidence among young children of almost 50%, as well as high rates of [depression](#) and [miscarriage](#).^{[9][10][11]} A public opinion poll [conducted](#) in March 2013 found that a majority of Palestinians do not support firing rockets at Israel from the Gaza Strip, with only 38% favoring their use.^[12] Another poll conducted in September 2014 found that 80% of Palestinians support firing rockets against Israel, if it does not allow unfettered access to Gaza.^[13] These rocket attacks have caused flight cancellations at [Ben Gurion airport](#).^[14]

The weapons, often generically referred to as [Qassams](#), were initially crude and short-range, mainly affecting Sderot and other communities bordering the Gaza Strip. In 2006, more sophisticated rockets began to be deployed, reaching the larger coastal city of [Ashkelon](#), and by early 2009 major cities [Ashdod](#) and [Beersheba](#) had been hit by [Katyusha](#), [WS-1B](#)^[15] and [Grad](#) rockets.^[16] In 2012, [Jerusalem](#) and Israel's commercial center [Tel Aviv](#) were targeted with locally made "M-75" and Iranian [Fajr-5](#) rockets, respectively,^[17] and in July 2014, the northern city of [Haifa](#) was targeted for the first time.^[18] A few projectiles have contained [white phosphorus](#) said to be recycled from unexploded munitions used by Israel in bombing Gaza.^{[19][20][21][22][23]}

Attacks have been carried out by all Palestinian armed groups,^[24] and, prior to the 2008–2009 [Gaza War](#), were consistently supported by most Palestinians,^{[25][26][27][28]} although the stated goals have been mixed.

Israeli defenses constructed specifically to deal with the weapons include fortifications for schools and bus stops as well as an alarm system named [Red Color](#). [Iron Dome](#), a system to intercept short-range rockets, was developed by Israel and first deployed in the spring of 2011 to protect Beersheba and Ashkelon, but officials and experts warned that it would not be completely effective. Shortly thereafter, it intercepted a Palestinian Grad rocket for the first time.^[29]

In the cycle of violence, rocket attacks alternate with Israeli military actions. From the outbreak of the [Al Aqsa Intifada](#) (30 September 2000) through March 2013, 8,749 rockets and 5,047 mortar shells were fired on Israel,^[30] while Israel has conducted several military operations in the Gaza Strip, among them [Operation Rainbow](#) (2004), [Operation Days of Penitence](#) (2004), [Operation Summer Rains](#) (2006), [Operation Autumn Clouds](#) (2006), [Operation Hot Winter](#) (2008), [Operation Cast Lead](#) (2009), [Operation Pillar of Defense](#) (2012), [Operation Protective Edge](#) (2014), and [Operation Guardian of the Walls](#) (2021).

In the cycle of violence, rocket attacks alternate with Israeli military actions. From the outbreak of the [Al Aqsa Intifada](#) (30 September 2000) through March 2013, 8,749 rockets and 5,047 mortar shells were fired on Israel,^[30] while Israel has conducted several military operations in the Gaza Strip, among them [Operation Rainbow](#) (2004), [Operation Days of Penitence](#) (2004), [Operation Summer Rains](#) (2006), [Operation Autumn Clouds](#) (2006), [Operation Hot Winter](#) (2008), [Operation Cast](#)

[Lead](#) (2009), [Operation Pillar of Defense](#) (2012), [Operation Protective Edge](#) (2014), and [Operation Guardian of the Walls](#) (2021).

OVERVIEW

Attacks began in 2001. Since then (August 2014 data), almost 20,000 rockets have hit southern Israel,^{[31][32]} all but a few thousand of them since [Israel withdrew from the Gaza Strip](#) in August 2005. Hamas justified these as counter-attacks to the [Israeli blockade of Gaza](#). The rockets have killed 28 people and injured hundreds more. The range of the rockets has increased over time. The original Qassam rocket has a range of about 10 km (6.2 mi) but more advanced rockets, including versions of the old Soviet Grad or Katyusha have hit Israeli targets 40 km (25 mi) from Gaza.^[33]

Some analysts see the attacks as a shift away from reliance on [suicide bombing](#), which was previously Hamas's main method of attacking Israel, as an adoption of the rocket tactics used by Lebanese group [Hezbollah](#).^[34]

Participating Groups

All the Palestinian armed groups carry out rocket and mortar attacks, with varying frequency.^[24] The main groups are [Hamas](#), [Islamic Jihad](#),^[35] the [Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine](#),^[36] the [Popular Resistance Committees](#),^[37] [Fatah](#),^[38] and the [Democratic Front for the Liberation of Palestine](#).^[24] In June 2007 Hamas took over from Fatah as the de facto governing authority in the Gaza Strip,^[39] while Fatah holds the presidency of the [Palestinian National Authority](#).

Islamic Jihad has involved other Palestinians in the activities, running summer camps where children were taught how to hold a Qassam rocket launcher.^[40] One Islamic Jihad rocket maker, [Awad al-Qiq](#), was a science teacher and headmaster at a United Nations school. Christopher Gunness, a UNRWA spokesman, said the UN had "zero-tolerance policy towards politics and militant activities in our schools", but that they "cannot police people's minds."^[41]

A 2007 report by [Human Rights Watch](#) found "little evidence that Palestinian security forces were making efforts to prevent rocket attacks or to hold responsible the militants who launch them." In some cases, "Palestinian security officials themselves acknowledged they were not acting to stop the attacks."^[42]

The Israeli [Intelligence and Terrorism Information Center](#) estimated that in 2007^[43] the proportions of rockets fired from the Gaza Strip were:

- 34% – [Palestinian Islamic Jihad](#) ([Al Quds](#))
- 22% – [Hamas](#) ([Qassam](#))
- 8% – [Fatah](#) ([Kafah](#))
- 6% – [Popular Resistance Committees](#) ([al Nasser](#))
- 30% – unknown

M UNWRA and UN

MI ISRAEL AND THE UNITED NATIONS

This article needs to be updated.

Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information.
(July 2019)

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

State of Israel

	
United Nations membership	
Membership	Full member
Since	1949
UNSC seat	Non-permanent
Permanent Representative	Gilad Erdan

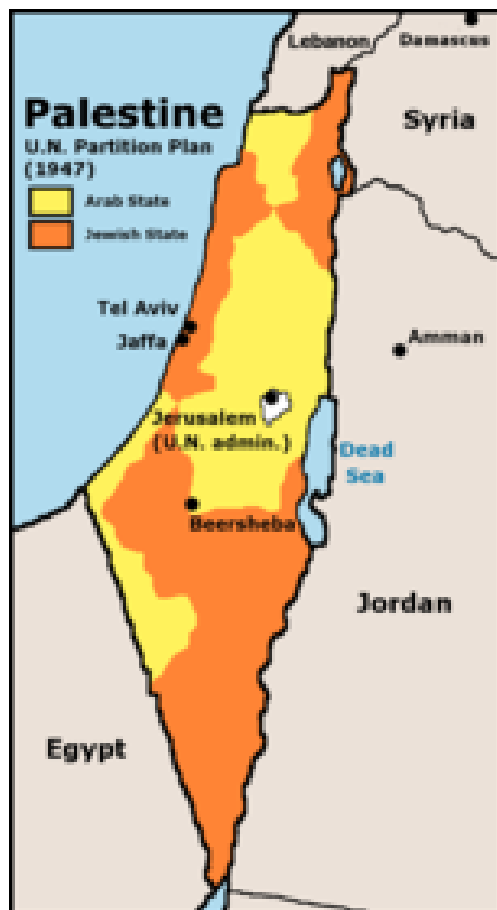
Issues relating to the [State of Israel](#) and aspects of the [Arab–Israeli conflict](#) and more recently the [Iran–Israel conflict](#) occupy repeated annual debate times, resolutions and resources at the United Nations. Since its founding in 1948, the [United Nations Security Council](#), has adopted 79 resolutions directly related to the Arab–Israeli conflict as of January 2010.^[1]

The adoption on November 29, 1947, by the [United Nations General Assembly](#) of a resolution recommending the adoption and implementation of [a plan of partition](#) of [Mandatory Palestine](#) was one of the earliest acts of the United Nations. This followed the report of the [United Nations Special Committee on Palestine](#).^[2] Since then, it has maintained a central role in this region, including the [Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the Human Rights of the Palestinian People](#). The UN has sponsored several peace negotiations between the parties, the latest being the 2002 [Road map for peace](#).

HISTORY

UN Partition Plan for Palestine

See also: [United Nations Special Committee on Palestine](#) and [United Nations Partition Plan for Palestine](#)



Map showing the [1947 UN partition plan for Palestine](#) in UNGA Res. 181(II).

The [United Nations General Assembly](#) on 15 May 1947 created the [Special Committee on Palestine](#) (UNSCOP) in response to a [United Kingdom](#) government request that the General Assembly "make recommendations under article 10 of the Charter, concerning the future government of [Palestine](#)".^{[3][4]} UNSCOP was "to prepare for consideration at the next regular session of the Assembly a report on the question of Palestine." UNSCOP consisted of representatives of eleven members: [Australia](#), [Canada](#), [Czechoslovakia](#), [Guatemala](#), [India](#), [Iran](#), [Netherlands](#), [Peru](#), [Sweden](#), [Uruguay](#) and [Yugoslavia](#). In the final report of 3 September 1947,^[5] seven members of the Committee in Chapter VI "expressed themselves, by recorded vote, in favour of the Plan of Partition with Economic Union" (reproduced in the Report). The Plan proposed "an independent Arab State, an independent Jewish State, and the City of Jerusalem". The Palestinian Arabs and members of the [Arab League](#) had rejected any partition of Palestine.

On 29 November 1947, the General Assembly passed [Resolution 181](#) (commonly known as the UN Partition Plan for Palestine) which recommended the adoption and implementation of a slightly modified version of the UNSCOP majority Partition Plan, by 33 votes in favor, 13 against, and 10 abstentions,

achieving the required two-thirds majority.^[6] The resolution was rejected by the Palestinian Arabs; and all members of the Arab League voted against.

UN Mediator in Palestine

See also: [1947–48 Civil War in Mandatory Palestine](#), [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#), [1949 Armistice Agreements](#), and [United Nations General Assembly Resolution 194](#)

Within a few days of the passing of the Partition Plan (Resolution 181), full scale [Jewish–Arab fighting](#) broke out in Palestine.^[7] It also led to anti-Jewish violence in Arab countries,^[8] and to a [Jewish exodus from Arab and Muslim countries](#). In an attempt to mediate the continuing Jewish–Arab fighting in Palestine, UN General Assembly by Resolution 186 of 14 May 1948 called for the appointment of "United Nations Mediator in Palestine".^[9]

Also on 14 May 1948, the day on which the British Mandate of Palestine was to expire, Israel declared "[the establishment of a Jewish state](#) in [Eretz Israel](#), to be known as the [State of Israel](#)".^[10] The territory of Israel was to be that of the Jewish State proposed in Resolution 181.

On the day after the British Mandate expired, on 15 May, five neighbouring Arab states [invaded](#) and rapidly occupied much of the Arab portion of the Partition Plan, and threatening to take the whole of Palestine. In the introduction to the [cablegram](#)^[11] from the Secretary-General of the League of Arab States to the UN Secretary-General on 15 May 1948, the Arab League gave reasons for its "intervention": "On the occasion of the intervention of Arab States in Palestine to restore law and order and to prevent disturbances prevailing in Palestine from spreading into their territories and to check further bloodshed". The invasion changed the dynamic of the region, transforming a two-state plan into [a war between Israel and the Arab world](#).

[Folke Bernadotte](#) was appointed Mediator on 20 May 1948. Bernadotte succeeded in achieving a truce by May–June 1948 during which the British evacuated Palestine. He proposed two alternate partition plans, the second calling for a reduction in the size of the Jewish State and loss of sovereignty over the harbour city of [Haifa](#). Both were rejected. [Lehi](#), a Zionist group, assassinated him and his aide, UN observer Colonel [André Serot](#) on 17 September 1948. Bernadotte was succeeded by [Ralph Bunche](#), who was successful in bringing about the signing of the [1949 Armistice Agreements](#).

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

M2 UNWRA

CREATION AND ORGANISATION

(Editors Note: The UN has two refugee organisations – UNWRA which is responsible for Palestinians and UNHCR which is responsible for the rest of the world)

WIKIPEDIA

The **United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA)** is a [UN agency](#) that supports the relief and [human development](#) of [Palestinian refugees](#). UNRWA's mandate encompasses Palestinians [displaced](#) by the [1948 Palestine War](#) and subsequent conflicts, as well as their descendants,^{[3][4]} including legally adopted children.^[5] As of 2019, more than 5.6 million Palestinians are registered with UNRWA as refugees.^[6]

UNRWA was established in 1949 by the [UN General Assembly](#) (UNGA) to provide relief to all refugees resulting from the 1948 conflict. It also provided relief to Jewish and Arab Palestine refugees inside the State of Israel following the 1948 conflict until the Israeli government took over responsibility for them in 1952.^{[7][8][9]} As a subsidiary body of the UNGA, UNRWA's mandate is subject to periodic renewal every three years; it has consistently been extended since its founding, most recently until 30 June 2023.^[10]

UNRWA employs over 30,000 people, most of them Palestinian refugees, and a small number of international staff.^[11] Originally intended to provide employment and direct relief, its mandate has broadened to include providing education, health care, and [social services](#) to its target population. UNRWA operates in five areas: [Jordan](#), [Lebanon](#), [Syria](#), the [Gaza Strip](#) and the [West Bank](#), including [East Jerusalem](#);^[12] aid for Palestinian refugees outside these five areas is provided

**United Nations Relief and Works
Agency for Palestine Refugees
in the Near East**



Abbreviation	UNRWA
Formation	8 December 1949; 73 years ago
Type	United Nations Programme
Purpose	Provide direct relief and works programmes for Palestinian refugees
Headquarters	Amman , Jordan and Gaza , Palestinian Authority
Region	Levant

by [United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees \(UNHCR\)](#).^[13]

UNRWA is the only UN agency dedicated to helping refugees from a specific region or conflict.^[14] It is distinct from the UNHCR, established in 1950 as the main agency to aid all other refugees worldwide. Unlike UNRWA, UNHCR has a specific mandate to assist refugees in eliminating their refugee status by local integration in the current country, resettlement in a third country or repatriation when possible.^[15]

HISTORY AND OPERATIONS

Following the outbreak of the [1948 Arab-Israeli War](#), and the subsequent exodus of Palestinian Arabs, the [United Nations General Assembly](#) passed Resolution 212 (III), dated 19 November 1948, which established the UN Relief for Palestine Refugees (UNRPR) to provide emergency relief to Palestine refugees in coordination with other UN or humanitarian agencies.^[16] In response to the political aspects of the conflict, less than a month later the General Assembly [adopted Resolution 194](#), creating the United Nations Conciliation Commission for Palestine (UNCCP), mandated to help achieve a final settlement between the warring parties, including facilitating "the repatriation, resettlement and economic and social rehabilitation of the refugees" in collaboration with the UNRPR.^[16] By that time, the conflict had displaced over 700,000 people.^[17]

Unable to resolve the "Palestine problem", which required political solutions beyond the scope of its mandate, the UNCCP recommended the creation of a "United Nations agency designed to continue relief activities and initiate job-creation projects" while an ultimate resolution was pending.^[16] Pursuant to this recommendation, and to paragraph 11 of Resolution 194, which concerned refugees, on 8 December 1949, the General Assembly

Services	Education, health care, relief/social services, infrastructure/camp improvement, microfinancial assistance and emergency response ^[1]
Fields	Humanitarian aid
Commissioner-General	Philippe Lazzarini
Deputy Commissioner-General	Leni Stenseth
Parent organization	United Nations
Budget (2020)	US\$806 million ^[2]
Staff	30,000
Website	www.unrwa.org

adopted Resolution 302(IV), which established the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA).^[18] The resolution was adopted and passed unopposed, supported by [Israel](#) and the [Arab](#) states, with only the [Soviet bloc](#) and South Africa abstaining.^[19]

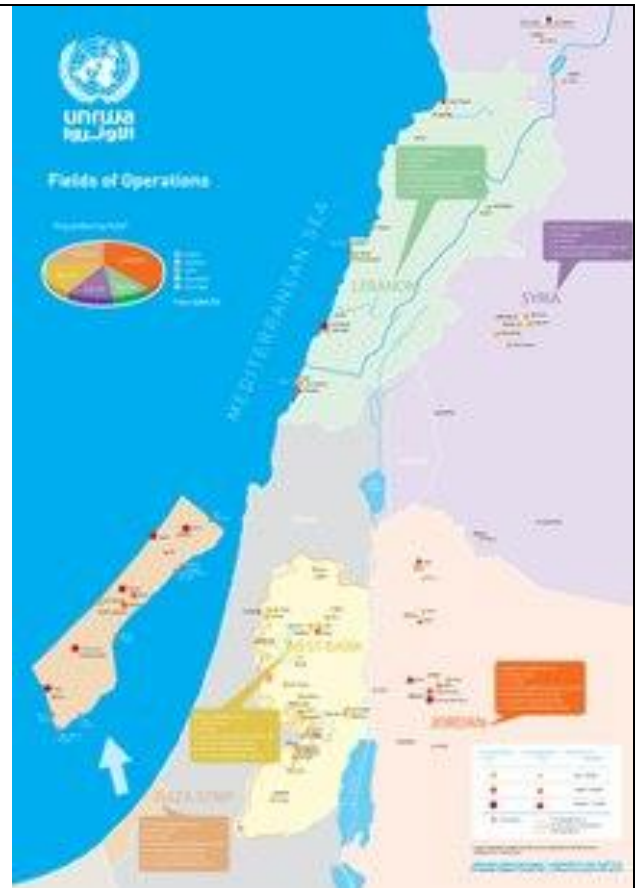
UNRWA succeeded the UNRPR with a broader mandate for humanitarian assistance and development, and the requirement to function neutrally.^[20] When it began operations in 1950, the initial scope of its work was "direct relief and works programmes" to Palestine refugees, in order to "prevent conditions of starvation and distress... and to further conditions of peace and stability".^[20] UNRWA's mandate was soon expanded through Resolution 393(V) (2 December 1950), which instructed the agency to "establish a reintegration fund which shall be utilized ... for the permanent re-establishment of refugees and their removal from relief". A subsequent resolution, dated 26 January 1952, allocated four times as much funding on reintegration than on relief, requesting UNRWA to otherwise continue providing programs for health care, education, and general welfare.^[16]

DEFINITION OF REFUGEE

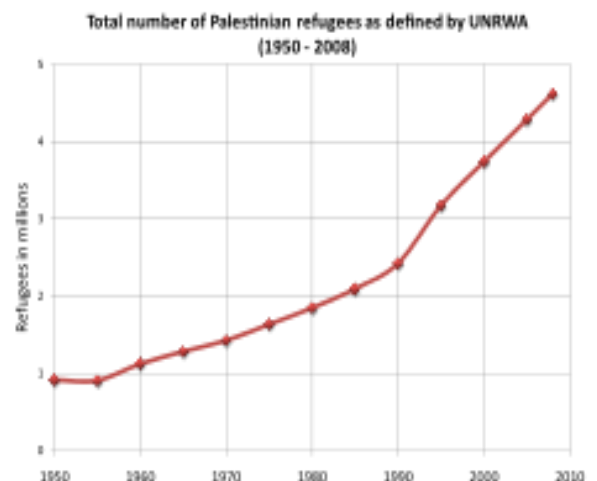
UNRWA has developed its own working definition of "refugee" to allow it to provide [humanitarian assistance](#). Its definition does not cover final status.^[21]

[Palestine refugees](#) are "persons whose regular place of residence was Palestine during the period 1 June 1946 to 15 May 1948, and who lost both home and means of livelihood as a result of the 1948 conflict."

The [Six-Day War](#) of 1967 generated a new wave of Palestinian refugees who could not be included in the original UNRWA definition. Since 1991, the UN General Assembly has adopted an annual resolution allowing the 1967 refugees within the UNRWA mandate. UNRWA's "mandate" is not a single document but the sum of all relevant resolutions and requests of the General Assembly. While focused on Palestine refugees, it also



UNRWA operations, as of 1 January 2017



Total number of Palestinian refugees registered by UNRWA (1950–2008)

Nakba

Main Articles

- [1947–1949 Palestine war](#)

extends to persons displaced by "the 1967 and subsequent hostilities" and, occasionally, to a broader cross-section of the local community. Several categories of persons have long been registered as eligible to receive UNRWA services although not "Palestine refugees".^[22]

The descendants of Palestine refugee males, including adopted children, are also eligible for registration as refugees.

[**CLICK HERE**](#)
[**TO CARRY ON READING**](#)

- [1947–1948 civil war](#)
- [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#)
- [1948 Palestinian expulsion and flight](#)
- [Causes of the expulsion and flight](#)
- [Nakba Day](#)
- [Palestinian refugee](#)
- [Palestinian refugee camps](#)
- [Palestinian right of return](#)
- [Palestinian return to Israel](#)
- [Present absentee](#)
- [Transfer Committee](#)
- [Resolution 194](#)
- [Geographic erasure](#)
- [Paraguay plan](#)

Background

- [Mandatory Palestine](#)
- [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#)
- [Timeline of the Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#)
- [New Historians](#)
- [Palestine · Plan Dalet](#)
- [1947 partition plan · UNRWA](#)

Key incidents

- [Battle of Haifa](#)
- [Deir Yassin massacre](#)
- [Expulsion from Lydda and Ramle](#)

Notable writers

- [Constantin Zureiq · Aref al-Aref](#)
- [Edward Said · Yoav Gelber](#)
- [Efraim Karsh · Walid Khalidi](#)
- [Nur Masalha · Benny Morris](#)
- [Ilan Pappé · Tom Segev](#)
- [Avraham Sela · Avi Shlaim](#)
- [Rashid Khalidi](#)

Symbols

- [Key · Handala](#)

Related categories/lists

- [List of depopulated villages](#)
- [List of estimates of the refugee flight](#)

Related templates

- [Palestinians](#)
- [v](#)
- [t](#)
- [e](#)

Part of a series on **[Palestinians](#)**

Demographics

- [Definitions](#)
- [Palestine](#)
- [History](#)
- [Name](#)
- [People](#)
- [Nakba](#)
- [Diaspora](#)

Politics*Previous*

- [Arab Higher Committee](#)
 - [Depopulated villages](#)
- [All-Palestine Protectorate](#)
 - [Government](#)
 - [Fedayeen militias](#)
- [PLO](#)
- [National Authority \(PNA\)](#)
(political parties)

Current

- [Fatah](#)
- [Hamas](#)
- [PFLP](#)
- [Islamic Jihad](#)
- [Politics of the Palestinian National Authority](#)
 - [Enclaves](#)
 - [Governorates](#)
 - [Cities](#)
- [Gaza Strip governance \(Hamas\)](#)
 - [Governorates of the Gaza Strip](#)
- [National Council \(PNC\)](#)

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">Legislative Council (PLC)	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none">FlagLawPalestine<ul style="list-style-type: none">West BankGaza StripE. Jerusalem	
		Religion / religious sites <ul style="list-style-type: none">ChristianityIslamJudaismAl-AqsaBasilica of the AnnunciationCave of the PatriarchsChurch of the Holy SepulchreChurch of the NativityDome of the RockGreat Mosque of GazaJoseph's TombLot's TombNabi SamwilRachel's Tomb	
		Culture <ul style="list-style-type: none">ArtCinemaCostume and embroideryCuisine<i>Dabke</i> (dance)HandicraftsLanguageLiteratureMusic	
		List of Palestinians	

M3 UNHCR

"UNHCR" redirects here. Not to be confused with UNHRC, the [United Nations Human Rights Council](#).

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees	
	
Abbreviation	UNHCR, HCR
Formation	14 December 1950; 72 years ago
Type	United Nations Programme
Legal status	Nonprofit
Headquarters	Geneva, Switzerland
Head	Filippo Grandi (High Commissioner for Refugees)
Parent organization	United Nations General Assembly United Nations Economic and Social Council
Website	unhcr.org
 Politics portal	

The **United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)** is a [United Nations agency](#) mandated to aid and [protect refugees](#), [forcibly displaced communities](#), and [stateless people](#), and to assist in their [voluntary repatriation](#), local integration or [resettlement to a third country](#). It is headquartered in [Geneva, Switzerland](#), with over 18,879 staff working in 138 countries.^[1]

BACKGROUND

UNHCR was created in 1950 to address the refugee crisis that resulted from [World War II](#). The [1951 Refugee Convention](#) established the scope and legal framework of the agency's work, which initially focused on Europeans uprooted by the war. Beginning in the late 1950s, displacement caused by other conflicts, from the [Hungarian Uprising](#) to the [decolonization](#) of [Africa](#) and [Asia](#), broadened the scope of UNHCR's operations. Commensurate with the [1967 Protocol to the Refugee Convention](#), which expanded the geographic and

temporal scope of refugee assistance, UNHCR operated across the world, with the bulk of its activities in developing countries.^[2] By its 65th anniversary in 2015, the agency had assisted more than 50 million refugees worldwide.

As of June 2020, UNHCR has over 20 million refugees under its mandate.^[3] Consequently, its annual budget has grown from US\$300,000 in 1951 to US\$8.6 billion in 2019, making it one of the largest UN agencies by expenditure.^{[3][4]} The vast majority of UNHCR's budget comes from voluntary contributions, mostly from member states; the largest donors are the United States, the European Union, and Germany.^[5] The agency's work includes providing [protection](#), shelter, [healthcare](#) and [emergency relief](#), assisting in resettlement and repatriation, and advocating for national and multilateral policies on behalf of refugees.^[6]

In recognition of its work, UNHCR has won two [Nobel Peace Prizes](#), in 1954 and 1981 and a [Prince of Asturias Awards for International Cooperation](#) in 1991.^[7] It is a member of the [United Nations Development Group](#), a consortium of organizations dedicated to [sustainable development](#).^[8]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

M4 INTERNATIONAL AID TO PALESTINIANS

This article needs to be updated. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (May 2021)

WIKIPEDIA

International aid has been provided to **Palestinians** since at least the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#). The Palestinians view the aid as keeping the [Israeli–Palestinian peace process](#) going, while the Israelis claim that it is used to fund terrorism^[1] and removes the imperative to Palestinians to negotiate a settlement of the [Israel-Palestinian conflict](#). The [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PA), within the [West Bank](#) and [Gaza Strip](#), receives one of the highest levels of aid in the world.^[2] Aid has been provided to the Palestinian Authority, [Palestinian non-governmental organizations](#) (PNGOs) as well as Palestinian political factions by various foreign governments, international organisations, [international non-governmental organizations](#) (INGOs), and charities, besides other sources.

The [Ad Hoc Liaison Committee](#) coordinates the delivery of most aid to Palestinians. The entities that provide such aid are categorized into seven groups: the [Arab nations](#), the [European Union](#), the [United States](#), [Japan](#), international institutions (including [agencies](#) of the [UN system](#)), European countries, and other nations.^[3] In July 2018, Australia ceased providing direct aid to the PA, saying the donations could increase the PA's capacity to pay Palestinians convicted of politically motivated violence, and that it will direct its funds through United Nations programs.^[4]

UNRWA

Main article: [UNRWA & Funding](#)

The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East ([UNRWA](#)) was set up in 1949 to provide humanitarian relief to Palestinians displaced by the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#). Originally, it was intended to provide jobs on public works projects and direct relief. Today, UNRWA provides education, health care, and [social services](#) to more than 5 million registered [Palestinian refugees](#) and their descendants, and other segments of Palestinian society, as well as providing some financial aid to Palestinians. UNRWA has also been a donor to the PA.^[5] UNRWA employs over 30,000 staff, 99% of whom are locally recruited Palestinians.^[6] Most of UNRWA's funding comes from European countries and the United States. Between 2000 and 2015 the European Union contributed €1.6 billion to UNRWA.^[7] In addition to its regular budget, UNRWA receives funding for emergency activities and special projects.

In 2009, UNRWA's total budget was US\$1.2 billion, of which it received US\$948 million.^[8] In 2009, the retiring Commissioner General spoke of a \$200 million shortfall in UNRWA's budgets.^[9] Officials in 2009 spoke of a 'dire financial crisis'.^[10]

In 2010, the biggest contributors to its regular budget were the United States and the [European Commission](#) with \$248 million and \$165 million respectively. Sweden (\$47m), the United Kingdom (\$45m), Norway (\$40m), and the Netherlands (\$29m) were also important donors.^[11]

In 2011, the US was the largest single contributor with a total contribution of over \$239 million, followed by the European Commission's \$175 million contribution.^[12]

According to World Bank data, for all countries receiving more than \$2 billion international aid in 2012, Gaza and the West Bank received a per capita aid budget over double the next largest recipient, at a rate of \$495.^{[13][14]}

In 2013, \$1.1 billion was contributed to UNRWA,^[15] of which \$294 million was contributed by the United States,^[16] \$216.4 million by the EU, \$151.6 million by Saudi Arabia, \$93.7 million by Sweden, \$54.4 million by Germany, \$53 million by Norway, \$34.6 million by Japan, \$28.8 million by Switzerland, \$23.3 million by Australia, \$22.4 million by the Netherlands, \$20 million by Denmark, \$18.6 million by Kuwait, \$17 million by France, \$12.3 million by Italy, \$10.7 million by Belgium as well as \$10.3 million by all other countries.^[17]

In 2016, the US contributed \$368 million to UNWRA, and \$350 million in 2017, but has cut around one third of its contributions for 2018.^[18] In January 2018, the US withheld \$65 million, roughly half the amount due in the month, again creating a financial crisis for UNRWA.^[19] Belgium and the Netherlands announced a plan to increase their contributions to UNRWA.^[18] In August 2018, the US cut its annual contribution of \$360m to UNWRA, citing many complaints, including the number of Palestinians UNWRA recognizes as refugees, which number more than 5 million.^[20] In mid-2019, Netherlands, Belgium and Switzerland temporarily suspended funding to UNRWA. In December 2019, the Netherlands restored funding to UNWRA, increasing its donation by €6 million for 2019, to €19 million.^[21]

In April 2021, the US contributed \$150m to UNRWA,^[22] on condition that the funds are not used to assist any refugee receiving military training or has participated in any terrorist act.^[23]

HISTORY

Before Oslo Accords

Before the signing of the [Oslo Accords](#), international aid for the West Bank and Gaza came mainly from [Western](#) and Arab states, mostly through UN agencies such as [UNRWA](#). Most programs were started or developed during the 1970s, and expanded during the 1980s. Most of the aid was channeled through PNGOs or INGOs.^[24] Although the stance of the donors during the pre-Oslo period is regarded by some analysts, such as Rex Brynen, as controversial and linked with phenomena such as corruption, nationalism and factional rivalries,^[25] international aid effectively financed a series of programs in the sectors of agriculture, infrastructure, housing and education.^[26]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

M5 UNWRA AND PALESTINE REFUGEE CAMPS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)



Camps are set up by the [United Nations Relief and Works Agency](#) (UNRWA) in [Jordan](#), [Lebanon](#), [Syria](#), the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#) to accommodate [Palestinian refugees](#) registered with UNRWA, who fled or were expelled during the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#) after the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) or in the aftermath of the [Six-Day War](#) in 1967, and their patrilineal descendants.^[1] **There are 68 Palestinian refugee camps**, 58 official and 10 unofficial,^[2] ten of which were established after the Six-Day War while the others were established in 1948 to 1950s.

Whilst only a third of registered Palestinian refugees live within the boundaries of the refugee camps,^[3] Palestinian refugees "show extraordinary social and economic integration outside the camps and informal gatherings".^[4] Many Palestinian refugees live in adjacent or nearby "gatherings", defined as "the geographic area, outside the official camps, which is home to a minimum 15 Palestinian households."^[5]

The total number of registered Palestine refugees has grown from 750,000 in 1950 to around 5 million in 2013.^[6]

Press [WIKIPEDIA](#) to go to map

DEFINITION OF PALESTINIAN REFUGEE

UNRWA's mandate is to provide assistance to Palestinian refugees, including access to its refugee camps. For this purpose, it defines Palestinian refugees as "persons whose normal place of residence was Palestine during

period 1 June 1946 to 15 May 1948, and who lost both home and means of livelihood as a result of the 1948 conflict."^[6]

UNRWA also extends assistance to the patrilineal descendants of such refugees, as well as their legally adopted children

ROLE OF UNRWA

For a camp to be recognized by UNRWA, there must be an agreement between the host government and UNRWA governing use of the camp. UNRWA does not itself run any camps, has no police powers or administrative role, but simply provides services to the camp. UNRWA recognizes facilities in 58 designated [refugee camps](#) in [Jordan](#), [Lebanon](#), [Syria](#), the [West Bank](#) and the [Gaza Strip](#), and it also provides facilities in other areas where large numbers of registered Palestine refugees live outside of recognized camps. UNRWA also provided relief to Jewish [displaced persons](#) inside [Israel](#) following the 1948 conflict until the Israeli government took over responsibility for them in 1952. Refugee camps developed from tented cities to rows of concrete blockhouses to urban ghettos indistinguishable from their surroundings (effectively becoming urban developments within existing cities or by themselves), that house around one third of all registered Palestine refugees.

LIST OF CAMPS

The camps are divided between five regions:

- Gaza Strip: The [Gaza Strip](#) has eight official and no unofficial refugee camps,^[2] and 1,221,110 registered refugees.
- West Bank: The [West Bank](#) has 19 official and four unofficial refugee camps,^[2] and 741,409 registered refugees.
- Syria: [Syria](#) has nine official refugee camps and three unofficial refugee camps,^[2] and 499,189 registered refugees.
- Lebanon: There are 12 official refugee and no unofficial camps in [Lebanon](#),^[2] and 448,599 registered refugees.
- Jordan: There are 10 official and three unofficial refugee camps in [Jordan](#),^[2] and 2,034,641 registered refugees.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

M6 TEXTBOOKS IN THE ISRAELI–PALESTINIAN CONFLICT

(Editors Note: This is very important as these books determine the student's attitude of mind of from an early age)

WIKIPEDIA

Textbooks in [Israel](#) and the [Palestinian territories](#) have been an issue within the larger [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#).

Several studies have been done on Palestinian textbooks. A report by [IMPACT-SE](#) listed troubling references throughout all grades and subjects to [anti-Semitic](#) content and imagery, [hate speech](#), and incitement to [violence](#), [martyrdom](#), and [jihad](#).^{[1][2]} According to the [EU](#)-commissioned [Georg Eckert Institute](#) [\[de\]](#), Palestinian textbooks display anti-Semitic narratives.^{[3][4][5]} The U.S. Consulate General in [Jerusalem](#) commissioned studies from [IPCRI – Israel/Palestine Center for Research and Information](#). The [Hebrew University](#)'s Harry S. Truman Research Institute for the Advancement of Peace has also published papers on this issue.

From 2019 to 2023, the [European Parliament](#) passed four resolutions denouncing the [Palestinian Authority](#) for the "hateful" content of its textbooks and stipulating that any future financing for education be conditioned on the removal of anti-Semitic content. The 2023 resolution made a direct connection between textbook material and [Palestinian terrorism](#) for the first time, highlighting the need of education and giving students access to unbiased and impartial textbooks in light of the growing involvement of teenagers in terrorist activities.^[5]

[Textbooks in Israel](#) also have been studied and some problems found. Israel has ordered the word [Nakba](#), meaning *disaster* or *catastrophe* and which refers to the foundation of Israel in 1948 and the subsequent forced flight of the Palestinians from Israel-captured land, to be removed from Israeli Arab textbooks. The term was introduced in books for use in Arab schools in 2007 when the Education Ministry was run by [Yuli Tamir](#) of the [Labor party](#). Israeli Prime Minister [Benjamin Netanyahu](#) justified the ban by saying that the term was "propaganda against Israel."^[6]

Israel has used the issue as a cornerstone of its [Hasbara](#) campaign against the [Palestinian Authority](#).^[7] Palestinians say that their textbooks rightly focus on their own national narrative, which includes the privations of life under occupation.^[8]

• [CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

Y BIOGRAPHY

His opposition to the British peaked during the [1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine](#). In 1937, evading an arrest warrant, he fled Palestine and took refuge successively in the [French Mandate of Lebanon](#) and the [Kingdom of Iraq](#), until he established himself in [Fascist Italy](#) and [Nazi Germany](#). During [World War II](#) he collaborated with both Italy and Germany by making propagandistic radio broadcasts and by helping the Nazis recruit Bosnian Muslims for the [Waffen-SS](#) (on the grounds that they shared four principles:



Haj Amin al-Husseini meeting with Adolf Hitler (28 November 1941).

family, order, the leader and faith).^[15] On meeting [Adolf Hitler](#) he requested backing for Arab independence and support in opposing the establishment in Palestine of a Jewish national home. Upon the [end of the war](#) he came under French protection, and then sought refuge in [Cairo](#) to avoid prosecution for [war crimes](#).





In the lead-up to the [1948 Palestine war](#), Husseini opposed both the [1947 UN Partition Plan](#) and [King Abdullah](#)'s designs to annex the Arab part of British [Mandatory Palestine](#) to [Jordan](#), and, failing to gain command of the "Arab rescue army" (*jaysh al-inqadh al-'arabi*) formed under the aegis of the [Arab League](#), built his own militia, *al-jihad al-muqaddas*. In September 1948 he participated in the establishment of an [All-Palestine Government](#). Seated in [Egyptian-ruled Gaza](#), this government won limited recognition by Arab states but was eventually dissolved by Egyptian president [Gamal Abdel Nasser](#) in 1959. After the war and the [1948 Palestinian exodus](#), his claims to leadership were wholly discredited and he was eventually sidelined by the [Palestine Liberation Organization](#), losing most of his residual political influence.^[16] He died in [Beirut](#), [Lebanon](#) in July 1974.

Husseini was and remains a highly controversial figure. Historians dispute whether his fierce opposition to Zionism was grounded in [nationalism](#) or [antisemitism](#), or a combination of both. Opponents of [Palestinian nationalism](#) have pointed to Husseini's wartime residence and propaganda activities in Nazi Germany to associate the Palestinian national movement with [antisemitism in Europe](#).^[a]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

Y2 YASSER ARAFAT

WIKIPEDIA

<div> <div>1st President of the Palestinian National Authority</div> <div>In office</div> <div>5 July 1994 – 11 November 2004</div> <div>Prime Minister Mahmoud Abbas Ahmed Qurei</div> <div>Succeeded by Rawhi Fattouh (interim)</div> </div> <div> <div>3rd Chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization</div> <div>In office</div> <div>4 February 1969 – 29 October 2004</div> <div>Preceded by Yahya Hammuda</div> <div>Succeeded by Mahmoud Abbas</div> </div> <div> <div>Personal details</div> <div>Born</div> <div>Mohammed Abdel Rahman Abdel Raouf Arafat al-Qudwa al-Husseini 4/24 August 1929 Cairo, Egypt</div> <div>Died</div> <div>11 November 2004 (aged 75) Clamart, Hauts-de-Seine, France</div> <div>Resting place</div> <div>Arafat's compound</div> <div>Nationality</div> <div>Palestinian</div> <div>Political party</div> <div>Fatah</div> <div>Spouse</div> <div>Suha Arafat (m. 1990)</div> <div>Children</div> <div>1</div> <div>Alma mater</div> <div>University of King Fuad I</div> <div>Profession</div> <div>Civil engineer</div> <div>Signature</div> <div></div> <div>Nickname</div> <div>Abu Ammar^[1]</div> </div>	<div> <div></div> <div>This article is part of a series about Yasser Arafat</div> </div> <div> <div>Early life · Death · PLO</div> <div>President of the Palestinian National Authority</div> <div>Chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization (1969–2004)</div> <div>Pre-presidency</div> <div>War of Attrition · Battle of Karameh · Black September · Palestinian insurgency in South Lebanon (PLO in Lebanon) · First Intifada · Operation Wooden Leg · Israeli–Palestinian conflict</div> <div>Lebanese Civil War</div> <div>Battle of the Hotels · Aishiyeh massacres · Chekka massacre · 1978 South Lebanon conflict · Battle of Zahleh · 1982 Lebanon War · Battle of Tripoli · War of the Camps · Battle of Sidon</div> <div>Presidency</div> <div>Israeli–Palestinian conflict · Oslo Accords · 2000 Camp David Summit · Second Intifada</div> <div>Elections</div> <div>1996</div> <div></div> <div></div> <div>Media gallery</div> <div>V · T · E</div> </div>
--	--

Mohammed Abdel Rahman Abdel Raouf Arafat al-Qudwa al-Husseini (4^{[2][3]} / 24^{[4][5]}:²⁶⁹ August 1929 – 11 November 2004), popularly known as **Yasser Arafat** (/ˈærəfæt/ *ARR-ə-fat*, also US: /ˈɑːrəfɑːt/ *AR-ə-FAHT*^[6]; Arabic: محمد ياسر عبد الرحمن عبد الرؤوف عرفات القدوة الحسيني, romanized: *Muḥammad Yāsir ʿAbd al-Raḥmān ʿAbd al-Raʿūf ʿArafāt al-Qudwa al-Ḥusaynī; Arabic: ياسر عرفات, romanized: *Yāsir ʿArafāt*) or by his kunya **Abu Ammar** (Arabic: أبو عمار, romanized: *ʿAbū ʿAmmār*), was a Palestinian political leader. He was [Chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization](#) (PLO) from 1969 to 2004 and [President](#) of the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA) from 1994 to 2004.^[7] Ideologically an [Arab nationalist](#) and a [socialist](#), he was a founding member of the [Fatah](#) political party, which he led from 1959 until 2004.*

Arafat was born to Palestinian parents in [Cairo](#), Egypt, where he spent most of his youth and studied at the [University of King Fuad I](#). While a student, he embraced Arab nationalist and [anti-Zionist](#) ideas. Opposed to the 1948 creation of the [State of Israel](#), he fought alongside the [Muslim Brotherhood](#) during the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#). Following the defeat of Arab forces, Arafat returned to Cairo and served as president of the [General Union of Palestinian Students](#) from 1952 to 1956.

In the latter part of the 1950s, Arafat co-founded Fatah, a paramilitary organization seeking the removal of Israel and its replacement with a Palestinian state. Fatah operated within several Arab countries, from where it launched attacks on Israeli targets. In the latter part of the 1960s Arafat's profile grew; in 1967 he joined the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) and in 1969 was elected chair of the [Palestinian National Council](#) (PNC). Fatah's growing presence in Jordan resulted in [military clashes](#) with [King Hussein](#)'s Jordanian government and in the early 1970s it relocated to Lebanon. There, Fatah assisted the [Lebanese National Movement](#) during the [Lebanese Civil War](#) and continued its attacks on Israel, resulting in it becoming a major target of Israel's [1978](#) and [1982 invasions](#).

From 1983 to 1993, Arafat based himself in Tunisia, and began to shift his approach from open conflict with the Israelis to negotiation. In 1988, he [acknowledged](#) Israel's [right to exist](#) and sought a [two-state solution](#) to the [Israeli–Palestinian conflict](#). In 1994 he returned to Palestine, settling in [Gaza City](#) and promoting self-governance for the [Palestinian territories](#). He engaged in a series of negotiations with the Israeli government to end the conflict between it and the PLO. These included the [Madrid Conference of 1991](#), the 1993 [Oslo Accords](#) and the [2000 Camp David Summit](#). The success of the negotiations in Oslo led to Arafat being awarded the [Nobel Peace Prize](#), alongside Israeli Prime Ministers [Yitzhak Rabin](#) and [Shimon Peres](#), in 1994. At the time, Fatah's support among the Palestinians declined with the growth of [Hamas](#) and other militant rivals. In late 2004, after effectively being confined within [his Ramallah compound](#) for over two years by the Israeli army, Arafat fell into a coma and died. While the [cause of Arafat's death](#) has remained the subject of speculation, investigations by Russian and French teams determined no foul play was involved.^{[8][9][10]}

Arafat remains a controversial figure. Palestinians generally view him as a martyr who symbolized the national aspirations of his people. Israelis regarded him as a terrorist.^{[11][12][13][14]} Palestinian rivals,

including [Islamists](#) and several [PLO leftists](#), frequently denounced him as corrupt or too submissive in his concessions to the Israeli government.

EARLY LIFE

Birth and Childhood

Arafat was born in [Cairo](#), Egypt.^[15] His father, Abdel Raouf al-Qudwa al-Husseini, was a Palestinian from [Gaza City](#), whose mother, Yasser's paternal grandmother, was [Egyptian](#). Arafat's father battled in the Egyptian courts for 25 years to claim family land in Egypt as part of his inheritance but was unsuccessful.^[16] He worked as a textile merchant in Cairo's religiously mixed [Sakakini District](#). Arafat was the second-youngest of seven children and was, along with his younger brother [Fathi](#), the only offspring born in Cairo. [Jerusalem](#) was the family home of his mother, Zahwa Abul Saud, who died from a kidney ailment in 1933, when Arafat was four years of age.^[17]

Arafat's first visit to Jerusalem came when his father, unable to raise seven children alone, sent Yasser and his brother Fathi to their mother's family in the [Mughrabi Quarter](#) of the [Old City](#). They lived there with their uncle Salim Abul Saud for four years. In 1937, their father recalled them to be taken care of by their older sister, Inam. Arafat had a deteriorating relationship with his father; when he died in 1952, Arafat did not attend the funeral, nor did he visit his father's grave upon his return to Gaza. Arafat's sister Inam stated in an interview with Arafat's biographer, British historian Alan Hart, that Arafat was heavily beaten by his father for going to the Jewish quarter in Cairo and attending religious services. When she asked Arafat why he would not stop going, he responded by saying that he wanted to study Jewish mentality.^[17]

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

Y3 ORDE WINGATE

WIKIPEDIA

Major General Orde Charles Wingate, [DSO](#) & [Two Bars](#) (26 February 1903 – 24 March 1944) was a senior [British Army](#) officer known for his creation of the [Chindit](#) deep-penetration missions in Japanese-held territory during the [Burma Campaign](#) of the [Second World War](#).

Wingate was an exponent of unconventional military thinking and the value of surprise tactics. Assigned to [Mandatory Palestine](#), he became a supporter of [Zionism](#), and set up a joint British-Jewish counter-insurgency unit. Under the patronage of the area commander [Archibald Wavell](#), Wingate was given increasing latitude to put his ideas into practice during the Second World War. He created units in [Abyssinia](#) and Burma.

At a time when Britain was in need of morale-boosting generalship, Wingate attracted [British Prime Minister Winston Churchill](#)'s attention with a self-reliant aggressive philosophy of war, and was given resources to stage a large-scale operation. The last Chindit campaign may have determined the outcome of the [Battle of Kohima](#), although the offensive into India by the Japanese may have occurred because Wingate's first operation had demonstrated the possibility of moving through the jungle. In practice, both Japanese and British forces suffered severe supply problems and malnutrition.

Wingate was killed in an aircraft accident in March 1944. The casualty rate the Chindits suffered, especially from disease, is a continuing controversy. Wingate believed that resistance to infection could be improved by inculcating a tough mental attitude, but medical officers considered his methods unsuited to a tropical environment.

.....

PALESTINE AND THE SPECIAL NIGHT SQUADS

In September 1936, Wingate was assigned to a staff officer position in the [British Mandate of Palestine](#), and became an [intelligence officer](#).^[29] From his arrival he saw the creation of a [Jewish State](#) in Palestine as being a religious duty, and immediately put himself into absolute alliance with Jewish political leaders. [Palestinian Arab](#) guerrillas had at the time of his arrival begun a [campaign of attacks](#) against both British mandate officials and [Jewish](#) communities.

Wingate became politically involved with a number of Zionist leaders, and became an ardent Zionist himself.^[30] He always returned to Kibbutz [En Harod](#)—because he felt familiar with the biblical judge [Gideon](#), who fought in this area, and used it himself as a military base. He formulated the idea of raising small assault units of British-led Jewish commandos armed with grenades and light infantry small arms to combat the Arab revolt. Wingate took his idea personally to Wavell, who was then the commander of British forces in Palestine.

After Wavell gave his permission, Wingate convinced the Zionist [Jewish Agency](#) and the leadership of [Haganah](#), the Jewish armed group. In June 1938, the new British commander, General [Haining](#), gave his

permission to create the [Special Night Squads](#) (SNSs), armed groups formed of British and Haganah volunteers. The Jewish Agency helped pay salaries and other costs of the Haganah personnel.

Wingate trained, commanded and accompanied them on their patrols. The units frequently ambushed Arab saboteurs who attacked oil [pipelines](#) of the [Iraq Petroleum Company](#), raiding border villages the attackers had used as bases. In these raids, Wingate's men sometimes imposed severe [collective punishments](#) on the villagers, which was criticised by Zionist leaders as well as Wingate's British superiors.

Wingate disliked Arabs, once shouting at Haganah fighters after a June 1938 attack on a village on the border between Mandatory Palestine and Lebanon, "I think you are all totally ignorant in your [Ramat Yochanan](#) [the training base for the Haganah] since you do not even know the elementary use of bayonets when attacking dirty Arabs: how can you put your left foot in front?"^[a] But the brutal tactics proved effective in quelling the uprising, and Wingate was awarded the [DSO](#) in 1938.

However, his deepening direct political involvement with the Zionist cause and an incident where he spoke publicly in favour of the formation of a Jewish state during his leave in Britain, caused his superiors in Palestine to remove him from command. He was so deeply associated with political causes in Palestine that his superiors considered him compromised as an intelligence officer in the country. He was promoting his own agenda rather than that of the army or the government. In May 1939, he was transferred to Britain. Wingate became a hero of the [Yishuv](#) (the Jewish Community), and was loved by leaders such as [Zvi Brenner](#) and [Moshe Dayan](#), who trained under him and claimed that Wingate had "taught us everything we know."^[32]

.....

COMMEMORATION



**Orde Wingate Square
in
Jerusalem's [Talbiya](#) neighbourhood**

In a tribute to Wingate, Churchill called him "one of the most brilliant and courageous figures of the second world war ... a man of genius who might well have become also a man of destiny".^[76]

A [memorial to Orde Wingate and the Chindits](#) stands on the north side of the [Victoria Embankment](#), near [Ministry of Defence](#) headquarters in London. The facade commemorates the Chindits and the four men awarded the [Victoria Cross](#). The battalions that took part are listed on the sides, with non-infantry units

mentioned by their parent formations. The rear of the monument is dedicated to Orde Wingate, and also mentions his contributions to the state of Israel.^[77]

To commemorate Wingate's great assistance to the Zionist cause, Israel's National Centre for Physical Education and Sport, the [Wingate Institute](#) (*Machon Wingate*) was named after him. A square in the [Talbiya](#) neighbourhood of [Jerusalem](#), Wingate Square (*Kikar Wingate*), also bears his name, as does the [Yemin Orde youth village](#) near [Haifa](#).^[78] A [Jewish](#) football club formed in London in 1946, [Wingate Football Club](#) was also named in his honour.

The General Wingate School, on the western city limit of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, commemorates Orde Wingate's contribution (along with the Gideon Force and the Ethiopian Patriots) to the liberation of Ethiopia in 1941, following the defeat of the Italian forces in that country.^[79]

A memorial stone in his honour stands in [Charlton Cemetery](#), London, where other members of the Orde Browne family are buried. There is a memorial in Charterhouse School Chapel.

Wingate Golf Club, Harare, Zimbabwe is named after the general and there are photographs of him in the Clubhouse. The club was set up to accommodate Jewish and Catholic members since The Royal Harare Golf Club in the past didn't admit either.

The deep-penetration tactics pioneered by the Chindits were adopted by the [Indonesian National Army](#) during the [Indonesian National Revolution](#) against the [Netherlands](#). As conventional defensive tactics failed to make up for the technological advantage held by the Dutch, Indonesian General [A.H. Nasution](#) ordered Indonesian units to carry out 'Wingate' actions by penetrating into enemy lines and setting up pockets of resistance during the closing stages of the revolution in 1948.

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

Y4 MAHMOUD ABBAS

[WIKIPEDIA](#)

2nd President of the Palestinian National Authority	
Incumbent	
Assumed office	15 January 2005 ^[a]
Prime Minister	Ahmed Qurei Nabil Shaath (acting) Ahmed Qurei Ismail Haniyeh Salam Fayyad Rami Hamdallah Mohammad Shtayyeh
Preceded by	Yasser Arafat Rawhi Fattouh (interim)
2nd President of the State of Palestine	
Incumbent	
Assumed office	8 May 2005 ^[b] ^[3]
Preceded by	Yasser Arafat
4th Chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization	
Incumbent	
Assumed office	29 October 2004 ^[c]
Preceded by	Yasser Arafat
Prime Minister of the Palestinian National Authority	
In office	19 March 2003 – 6 September 2003 ^[4]
President	Yasser Arafat
Preceded by	Position established
Succeeded by	Ahmed Qurei
Personal details	
Born	15 November 1935 (age 87) Safed, Mandatory Palestine
Nationality	Palestinian
Political party	Fatah
Spouse	Amina Abbas
Children	3, including Yasser
Residence(s)	Ramallah, West Bank ^[5]
Alma mater	Damascus University Patrice Lumumba Peoples' Friendship University

Mahmoud Abbas (مَحْمُود عَبَّاس, *romanized*: *Maḥmūd ʿAbbās*; born 15 November 1935), also known by the *kunya* **Abu Mazen** (أَبُو مَازِن, *ʿAbū Māzin*), is the [president of the State of Palestine](#) and the [Palestinian National Authority](#) (PNA).^[6] He has been the [chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization](#) (PLO) since 2004, PNA president since January 2005, and [State of Palestine](#) president since May 2005. Abbas is also a member of the [Fatah](#) party and was elected chairman in 2009.

Abbas was [elected](#) on 9 January 2005 to serve as President of the Palestinian National Authority until 15 January 2009, but extended his term until the next election in 2010, citing the PLO constitution, and on 16 December 2009 was voted into office indefinitely by the [PLO Central Council](#). As a result, Fatah's main rival, [Hamas](#), initially announced that it would not recognize the extension or view Abbas as the rightful president.^{[7][8][9]} Nonetheless, Abbas is internationally recognized in his position(s) and Hamas and Fatah conducted numerous negotiations in the following years,^[10] leading to [an agreement](#) in April 2014 for a [Unity Government](#) (which lasted until October 2016) and to the recognition of his office by Hamas.^[2] Abbas was also chosen as the president of the State of Palestine by the PLO Central Council on 23 November 2008,^[3] a position he had held unofficially since 8 May 2005.^[11]

Abbas served as the first [prime minister of the Palestinian Authority](#) from March to September 2003.^[12] Before being named Prime Minister, Abbas led the [PLO Negotiations Affairs Department](#). He has been accused of distorting Jewish history and denounced as a [Holocaust denier](#) for his numerous statements throughout the years.^[13]

EARLY AND PERSONAL LIFE

Mahmoud Abbas was born on 15 November 1935^[14] in [Safed](#), in the [Galilee](#) region of [Mandatory Palestine](#) (now [Israel](#)).^[15] His family fled to [Syria](#) during the [1948 Palestine war](#).^[15] Before going to [Egypt](#), Abbas graduated from the [University of Damascus](#), where he studied law.

Abbas later entered graduate studies at the [Patrice Lumumba University](#) in [Moscow](#), where he earned a [Candidate of Sciences](#) degree^{[16][17]} (the Soviet equivalent of a PhD). His doctoral dissertation was [The Other Side: The Secret Relationship Between Nazism and Zionism](#).^[18]

He is married to Amina Abbas and they had three sons. The eldest, Mazen Abbas, ran a building company in [Doha](#) and died in [Qatar](#) of a heart attack in 2002 at the age of 42.^[19] The [kunya](#) of Abu Mazen means "father of Mazen." Their second son is [Yasser Abbas](#), a Canadian businessman who was named after former PA leader [Yasser Arafat](#).^[20] The youngest son is Tareq, a business executive. Abbas has eight grandchildren, six of whom are part of the [Seeds of Peace](#) initiative bringing them in touch with young Israelis.^[21]

POLITICAL ACTIVISM AND CAREER

In the mid-1950s, Abbas became heavily involved in underground Palestinian politics, joining a number of exiled Palestinians in Qatar, where he was Director of Personnel in the emirate's Civil Service. While there in 1961, he was recruited to become a member of [Fatah](#), founded by Yasser Arafat and five other Palestinians in Kuwait in the late 1950s.^[22] At the time, Arafat was establishing the groundwork of Fatah by enlisting wealthy Palestinians in Qatar, Kuwait, and other [Gulf States](#).

According to [Abu Daoud](#), part of the funds raised by Abbas were used, without the latter's knowledge, to implement the 1972 [Munich massacre](#).^[23] He was among the first members of [Fatah](#) to call for talks with moderate Israelis, doing so in 1977. In a 2012 interview, he recalled, "[...] because we took up arms, we were in a position to put them down with credibility."^[24]

Abbas has performed diplomatic duties, presenting a moderating contrast to the PLO's "revolutionary" policies.^[15] Abbas was the first PLO official to visit Saudi Arabia after the [Gulf War](#) in January 1993 to mend fences with the Gulf countries after the PLO's support of Iraq during the Persian Gulf War strained relations. In the [Oslo I Accord](#), Abbas was the signatory for the PLO on 13 September 1993. He published a memoir, *Through Secret Channels: The Road to Oslo* (1995).^[25]

In 1995, he and Israeli negotiator [Yossi Beilin](#) wrote the [Beilin–Abu Mazen agreement](#), which was meant to be the framework for a future Israeli–Palestinian peace deal.

It emerged in September 2016 that Abbas may have once worked for the [KGB](#), as early as 1985 in [Damascus](#), according to a document uncovered in the [Mitrokhin Archive](#), where he is registered as agent "Krotov". Palestinian officials replied that at the time in question, the [PLO](#) collaborated with Moscow, and that Abbas was their liaison man in the Palestinian-Soviet friendship foundation.^{[26][27]}

Prime Minister

By early 2003, as Israel and the United States refused to negotiate with Yasser Arafat, it was thought that Abbas would be a candidate for the kind of leadership role envisaged by both countries. As one of the few remaining founding members of Fatah, he had some degree of credibility within the Palestinian cause, and his candidacy was bolstered by the fact that other high-profile Palestinians were for various reasons not suitable (the most notable, [Marwan Barghouti](#), was a prisoner in Israeli jail after having been convicted on charges of being responsible for multiple murders by an Israeli court). Abbas's reputation as a pragmatist garnered him favor with the West and some members of the Palestinian legislature. Under international pressure, on 19 March 2003, Arafat appointed Abbas [Prime Minister of the Palestinian National Authority](#). According to [Gilbert Achcar](#), the United States imposed Abbas on Arafat, the democratically elected leader, though the majority of Palestinians thought of the former as a [Quisling](#).^[28]

A struggle for power between Arafat and Abbas ensued.^[29] Abbas's term as prime minister was characterised by numerous conflicts between him and Arafat over the distribution of power. The United States and Israel accused Arafat of undermining Abbas and his government. Abbas hinted he would resign if not given more control over the administration. In early September 2003, he confronted the Palestinian parliament over this issue.


Abbas came into conflict with [Palestinian militant groups](#), notably the [Palestinian Islamic Jihad Movement](#) and [Hamas](#) because his pragmatic policies were opposed to their hard-line approach. Initially, he pledged not to use force against the militants in the interest of avoiding a civil war, and attempted negotiation. This was partially successful, resulting in a pledge from the two groups to honor a unilateral Palestinian cease-fire. However, continuing violence and Israeli ["targeted killings"](#) of known leaders forced Abbas to pledge a crackdown in order to uphold the Palestinian Authority's side of the [Road map for peace](#). This led to a power struggle with Arafat over control of the [Palestinian Security Services](#); Arafat refused to release control to Abbas, thus preventing him from using them on the militants. Abbas resigned as prime minister on 6 September 2003, citing lack of support from Israel and the United States as well as "internal incitement" against his government.^{[4][12]}

[CLICK HERE TO CARRY ON READING](#)

Y5 DAVID BEN-GURION

First Prime Minister of Israel

WIKIPEDIA

1st Prime Minister of Israel	
In office	
3 November 1955 – 26 June 1963	
President	Yitzhak Ben-Zvi Zalman Shazar
Preceded by	Moshe Sharett
Succeeded by	Levi Eshkol
In office	
17 May 1948 – 26 January 1954	
President	Chaim Weizmann Yitzhak Ben-Zvi
Preceded by	New office
Succeeded by	Moshe Sharett
Chairman of the Provisional State Council of Israel	
In office	
14 May 1948 – 16 May 1948	
Preceded by	New office
Succeeded by	Chaim Weizmann
Minister of Defense	
In office	
21 February 1955 – 26 June 1963	
Prime Minister	Moshe Sharett Himself
Preceded by	Pinhas Lavon
Succeeded by	Levi Eshkol
In office	
14 May 1948 – 26 January 1954	
Prime Minister	Himself
Preceded by	New office
Succeeded by	Pinhas Lavon
Personal details	
Born	David Grün 16 October 1886 Płońsk, Congress Poland, Russian Empire
Died	1 December 1973 (aged 87) Ramat Gan, Israel
Citizenship	Congress Poland Ottoman Empire Mandatory Palestine Israel
Political party	Poale Zion Ahdut HaAvoda Mapai Rafi National List
Spouse	Paula Munweis (m. 1917; died 1968)
Children	3
Alma mater	Istanbul University
Signature	

David Ben-Gurion (/bɛn ˈɡʊəriən/ *ben GOOR-ee-en*; Hebrew: דָּוִד בֶּן-גּוּרִיּוֹן [daˈvid ben guʁˈjon][ⓘ]; born **David Grün**; 16 October 1886 – 1 December 1973) was the primary [national founder](#) of the [State of Israel](#) and the first [prime minister of Israel](#). Born in [Płońsk](#), then part of the [Russian Empire](#), to [Polish Jewish](#) parents, he immigrated to the [Palestine](#) region of the [Ottoman Empire](#) in 1906. Adopting the name of Ben-Gurion in 1909, he rose to become the preeminent leader of the Jewish community in British-ruled [Mandatory Palestine](#) from 1935 until the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948, which he led until 1963 with a short break in 1954–55.

Ben-Gurion's interest for [Zionism](#) developed early in his life, leading him to become a major Zionist leader and executive head of the [World Zionist Organization](#) in 1946.^[1] As head of the [Jewish Agency](#) from 1935, and later president of the Jewish Agency Executive, he was the *de facto* leader of the [Jewish community in Palestine](#), and largely led the movement for an independent Jewish state in Mandatory Palestine.

On 14 May 1948, he formally proclaimed the establishment of Israel, and was the first to sign the [Israeli Declaration of Independence](#), which he had helped writing. Under Ben-Gurion's leadership, the [1948 Arab–Israeli War](#) saw the uniting of the various Jewish militias into the [Israel Defense Forces](#) (IDF), and the [expulsion and flight](#) of a majority of the Palestinian Arab population. Subsequently, he became known as "Israel's [founding father](#)".^[2] Following the war, Ben-Gurion served as Israel's first prime minister and [minister of defence](#). As prime minister, he helped build state institutions, presiding over national projects aimed at the development of the country. He also oversaw the absorption of [Jewish immigrants](#). A major part of his foreign policy

was improving relations with [West Germany](#) through a [reparations agreement](#) in compensation for Nazi confiscation of Jewish property during [the Holocaust](#).^[3]

In 1954, he resigned as prime minister and minister of defence but remained a member of the [Knesset](#). He returned as minister of defence in 1955 after the [Lavon Affair](#) and the resignation of [Pinhas Lavon](#). Later that year he became prime minister again, following the [1955 elections](#). He led Israel's [reprisal operations](#) to [Arab guerrilla attacks](#), and its invasion of Egypt along with Britain and France during the [Suez Crisis](#) in 1956. He stepped down from office in 1963, and retired from political life in 1970. He then moved to [his modest "hut"](#) in [Sde Boker](#), a [kibbutz](#) in the [Negev](#) desert, where he lived until his death.

Posthumously, Ben-Gurion was named one of *Time* magazine's [100 Most Important People of the 20th century](#).

Z AI INFORMATION

(This block provides current information on what is happening.

Many questions can usually be asked on each topic.

This block gives examples of some asked

Z1 THE FUTURE

Z1.1 What are Possible Futures of the Israel- Palestine Conflict?

[CLAUDE.AI](#)

The Israel-Palestinian conflict is a complex and long-standing dispute between Israelis and Palestinians over issues like borders, security, settlements, the status of Jerusalem, water rights and Palestinian statehood. There are differing perspectives on how to resolve the conflict. However, here are some possibilities that have been proposed for the future:

- A two-state solution - This would involve the creation of an independent Palestinian state alongside Israel. Negotiations would be needed to determine the borders and other details for the Palestinian state. This has been the most commonly proposed solution, but deep divisions remain over issues like Israeli settlements, the status of Jerusalem and Palestinian refugees.
- A one-state solution - In this scenario, Israel and the Palestinian territories would become one state with equal rights for all citizens, whether Jewish or Arab. However, this raises difficult questions about the nature of the state, governance, security, demographics and identity.
- Maintaining the status quo - The conflict could continue in its current form, with the Palestinian territories under varying degrees of Israeli occupation and control. However, the status quo has proven unsustainable for both sides.
- A confederation - Israel and a Palestinian state could co-exist as separate states but with some shared institutions and governance over certain policies.
- A regional peace deal - Some have suggested a comprehensive regional peace agreement involving Arab states and the Palestinians could help resolve the conflict. However, this would require significant diplomacy and concessions from all sides.

There are good-faith arguments on all sides, but no easy solutions. The conflict has defied resolution for decades. While a two-state solution is most commonly discussed, its implementation faces major hurdles. The future likely holds some combination of negotiations, interim confidence-building measures, and efforts by outside parties to broker peace, though a lasting resolution remains elusive. The status and direction of the conflict depends heavily on leadership on both sides and the willingness to make difficult compromises.

Z2 GAZA

Z2.1 Why is Gaza Governed From Outside Gaza

CLAUDE.AI

There are a few key factors that contribute to Gaza being ruled from outside:

- Gaza is part of the Palestinian territories, which have been under varying degrees of Israeli occupation and control since 1967. Israel exerts control over many aspects of life in Gaza, including borders, airspace, maritime access, the movement of people and goods, and more.
- Following Israel's withdrawal of settlements and troops from Gaza in 2005, the Islamic militant group Hamas took control of Gaza in 2007 after winning Palestinian legislative elections. Hamas has ruled Gaza since then, often in tension and conflict with the Palestinian Authority based in the West Bank.
- Egypt also exerts some control over Gaza's southern border and access to the outside world. After Hamas took control, Israel and Egypt imposed a blockade on Gaza, restricting the flow of goods and people in an effort to weaken Hamas.
- The international community has not recognized Hamas' rule in Gaza, but its control has made it difficult for the Palestinian Authority to govern Gaza effectively from the West Bank. Governance is fragmented between the PA, Hamas, and Israel.
- Several attempts at Palestinian reconciliation between Hamas and Fatah, the ruling party in the PA, have failed over the years. This has entrenched the division between the West Bank and Gaza.

So in summary, a mix of Israeli occupation policies, Hamas' control, Egyptian restrictions, and Palestinian political divisions have resulted in Gaza being governed from the outside rather than by a unified Palestinian government based in Gaza itself. The people of Gaza have very limited self-governance under these constraints.

Z2.2 Which Wealthy Business People or Political Figures in Hamas Own Homes in Gulf Countries ?

JW

There is limited public information on specific individuals connected to Hamas that may own homes in Gulf countries. However, some names that have been mentioned in media reports over the years include:

- Khaled Mashaal - Former long-time head of Hamas' political bureau. Some reports claim he owned property in Qatar, where he was based for several years before moving to Turkey in 2012.
- Mousa Abu Marzouk - Hamas political leader who served for a time as deputy chief of the Hamas political bureau. Unconfirmed reports allege he owned property in Jordan before relocating to Egypt and then Gaza.
- Ismail Haniyeh - Current head of Hamas' political bureau. Some reports indicate he may have owned property in Saudi Arabia from before he rose to senior Hamas leadership.
- Mahmoud al-Zahar - Co-founder of Hamas and former foreign minister of the Gaza government. Rumored by some Gazan media to own property in Dubai.
- Mohammed Dahlan - A controversial Fatah politician from Gaza who is now based in the UAE. He is not part of Hamas but has ties to the group.
- Salem and Sameer Al Shair - Brothers and businessmen from Gaza who operate between Gaza and Dubai and have been linked financially to Hamas leaders.

However, solid evidence confirming property ownership or permanent residence in Gulf states can be hard to substantiate in most cases. Hamas' secrecy, along with political rumors and accusations, make it difficult to confirm details.

Here are a few key points about millionaires in Gaza:

- Despite the overall poverty in Gaza, there is a small wealthy elite that has profited from business activities like trading, real estate, and smuggling. Estimates suggest there are around 600-800 millionaires in Gaza.
- Most of the millionaires made their money importing goods through the extensive tunnel network between Gaza and Egypt prior to the tunnels being largely shut down in 2013-2014. The tunnels were used to bring in everything from food and fuel to cars and construction materials.

- Other major sources of wealth include real estate, hospitality, transportation and communications. Some wealthy families own large property portfolios and hotels in Gaza.
- The millionaires tend to keep a low profile and their extravagant homes and lifestyle are largely hidden from view. There are allegations that some have misused aid funding.
- The blockade of Gaza and restrictions on movement have made it harder for millionaires to invest their money outside of Gaza. Investments have focused on property, large homes, luxury consumer goods and restaurants/cafes.
- There is a lot of inequality in Gaza, with poverty and unemployment very high among the general population. The millionaires are seen as evidence of corruption by some. But others argue their investments provide jobs and income.
- Overall, the millionaires represent a small privileged class that has found ways to profit in Gaza's war-torn economy, even as most residents continue to suffer from the dire humanitarian situation.

Z3 PALESTINIANS IN OTHER ARAB COUNTRIES

Z3.1 What are Examples of Palestinian Treatment in Arab Countries?

[CLAUDE.AI](#)

ALGERIA

Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Algeria:

- There are an estimated 18,000-25,000 Palestinians living in Algeria, many of whom migrated during periods of conflict with Israel.
- Palestinians benefited from Algeria's historical support for the Palestinian cause. The PLO was headquartered in Algeria in the 1960s-80s.
- Algeria has provided Palestinian refugees with residency and identification documents, as well as facilitated access to education, healthcare, housing and employment.
- Palestinians are allowed to work in both the public and private sectors in Algeria. The government has helped Palestinians integrate into the labor force.
- Inter-marriage between Palestinians and Algerians is common. Palestinians who marry Algerians can acquire Algerian citizenship after 5 years.
- Palestinians have the right to own property and establish businesses in Algeria. Their children born in Algeria can also be granted citizenship.
- The Algerian government has provided financial aid for Palestinian students and researchers. A number of Palestinians have graduated from Algerian universities.
- Algeria has consistently supported the right of return for Palestinian refugees and backed Palestinian statehood. It has criticized Israel's treatment of Palestinians.
- However, some Palestinians have complained of bureaucratic hurdles in renewing paperwork related to residency, identification, travel documents, etc.
- Overall, Algeria has been one of the most welcoming Arab countries for Palestinians in terms of facilitating integration and providing refugee rights.

So in summary, Algeria has historically provided Palestinians good access to legal rights, employment and citizenship pathways compared to other Arab host countries.

EGYPT**Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Egypt:**

- There are an estimated 50,000-70,000 Palestinians currently living in Egypt, concentrated in Cairo and Alexandria.
- Palestinians migrated to Egypt in several waves, including after the 1948 and 1967 Arab-Israeli wars as refugees and the Gulf War in 1991.
- Palestinians face restrictions on employment in Egypt. Their ability to work legally is tied to residency status and work permits that must be regularly renewed.
- Egypt does not grant citizenship to Palestinians born in the country. They can only get temporary travel documents that must be constantly renewed.
- Syrian Palestinians have been afforded more privileges than Gazan Palestinians in accessing education and employment in Egypt.
- Palestinians face discrimination when it comes to enrollment in public schools and universities in Egypt. They have to pay foreign student fees.
- Egypt has restricted the entry and exit of Palestinians from Gaza through the Rafah border crossing, only opening it sporadically.
- The Egyptian government has accused Hamas of supporting terrorist groups in the Sinai and threatened punitive measures against Gazans.
- Reports indicate increased xenophobia toward Palestinians in Egypt after the overthrow of Morsi and rise in terror attacks.
- Egypt has expressed support for Palestinian statehood and sent aid to Gaza. But the status of Palestinians living in the country remains tenuous.

So in summary, despite Egypt's alignment with Palestinian causes, Palestinian immigrants and refugees face substantial legal restrictions and discrimination in accessing basic rights.

IRAN**Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Iran:**

- There are an estimated 6,000-8,000 Palestinians currently living in Iran, a decline from peak numbers in the 1980s.
- Most Palestinians migrated to Iran following the 1948 and 1967 Arab-Israeli wars. They were given refugee status and initially had access to government aid.
- Palestinians were active in the 1979 Iranian revolution against the Shah. Influential groups like the PFLP-GC had bases in Iran.
- After the revolution, Palestinians were given residence permits and had access to education, healthcare and employment in Iran. Marriages with Iranians were allowed.
- Over time, Palestinian privileges eroded. Refugees had to re-register and faced more restrictions on visas, work permits, subsidies and property ownership.
- Iran's support for Palestinian militant groups like Hamas and Islamic Jihad created tensions with Israel and the West. Palestinian groups' presence was reduced.
- Socioeconomic conditions for Palestinians deteriorated due to the Iran-Iraq war in the 1980s and international sanctions later on Iran.
- Education and healthcare became more difficult for Palestinians to access without Iranian spousal status or citizenship. Poverty among refugees increased.
- Today Iran's domestic economic struggles, tensions with Israel and closer Gulf ties have reduced priority for Palestinian refugee rights.
- Yet Iran continues to rhetorically champion the Palestinian cause, criticize Israel and send aid to Palestine, though largely for geopolitical ends.

So in summary, the rights and conditions for Palestinians in Iran have worsened over time despite Iran's political alignment with Palestinian aspirations.

IRAQ (1)

Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Iraq:

- There are approximately 5,000-10,000 Palestinian refugees and immigrants living in Iraq today. Their numbers have declined over the decades due to conflicts.
- Palestinians first arrived as refugees to Iraq after the 1948 Arab-Israeli war. The Iraqi government initially provided them with aid and rights.
- Palestinians were given residency permits and access to government healthcare and education. They were able to work and live relatively settled lives.
- Iraqi-Palestinian marriages were common and helped Palestinians integrate. But Iraqi citizenship for Palestinians was still limited and not automatic.
- Under Saddam Hussein, Palestinians retained residency rights. Palestinian groups opposed to PLO like the Arab Liberation Front operated from Iraq.
- After the 1990 Gulf War, Iraqi policy toward Palestinians shifted. Their subsidies were cut, residency restricted and many were forced to leave.
- Following the 2003 US invasion of Iraq, Palestinians faced heightened discrimination and violence from militants. Many fled the country.
- Iraq's Palestinian population decline was also due to secondary migration to countries like Sweden, Canada and Australia with large Iraqi diasporas.
- Today those remaining have limited rights. Residency must be constantly renewed under temporary status. Employment is restricted.
- The Iraqi government still rhetorically supports Palestinian causes but domestic instability severely limits meaningful assistance to Palestinians in Iraq.

So in summary, Palestinian rights have progressively eroded in Iraq due to its conflicts, even though Iraq has historically voiced solidarity with the Palestinian struggle.

IRAQ: (2)

Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Iraq:

- There are an estimated 13,000 Palestinians living in Iraq as of 2022. Many are descendants of those who fled or were expelled from Palestine during the 1948 Arab-Israeli war.
- Palestinians in Iraq face discrimination and restrictions on their rights. They are considered foreign residents, not citizens.

- Iraq does not grant Palestinians citizenship or integration. They must renew their residency permits periodically. Access to healthcare, education and employment is limited.
- Palestinians face barriers to owning property, obtaining government jobs, and accessing public welfare services in Iraq. Their movement is restricted and monitored.
- Iraq endorsed UN Resolution 194 on the right of return for Palestinian refugees. But conditions for Palestinians inside Iraq remain poor without a clear path to citizenship.
- After the US invasion in 2003, Palestinians became targets of violence, forcing many to flee Iraq as refugees. Those remaining continue to face insecurity.
- Human rights groups have condemned attacks on Palestinians in Iraq and called on the government to improve conditions and grant them fuller rights. But progress has been very limited.
- Iraq officially supports the Palestinian cause and statehood. But this has not translated into enhanced rights for Palestinians within its borders where they face systemic discrimination.

In summary, Palestinians in Iraq lack citizenship rights and face restrictions, violence and insecure conditions despite Iraq's official support for Palestinian rights and statehood overall. Their status as foreign residents remain a contentious issue.

JORDAN

Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Jordan:

- There are over 2 million Palestinian refugees and their descendants living in Jordan today, making up a major portion of the population.
- Most arrived as refugees in 1948 and 1967 from areas that became Israel. Jordan administered the West Bank including East Jerusalem until 1967.
- Palestinians were given Jordanian citizenship starting in 1949, allowing them access to healthcare, education, employment, property ownership and other rights.
- However, tensions arose between Jordanians and Palestinians, culminating in the 1970-1971 Black September civil war. Afterward, Jordanian-Palestinian relations improved.
- Some refugee camps still exist but most Palestinians live across Jordanian cities and towns. Inter marriage is common.
- Palestinians are well integrated into the economy and society but some discrimination persists in governmental jobs and politics favoring "East Bank" Jordanians.
- Jordan withdrew citizenship from Palestinians in the West Bank after ceding control in 1988. Hundreds of thousands remain stateless.
- Jordan remains a strong supporter of Palestinian rights and hosts large numbers of new Palestinian refugees from Syria's civil war.
- Overall, Jordan has provided extensive rights and integration opportunities to Palestinians but some tensions over identity, politics and resources remain after decades as hosts.

In summary, Jordan has been one of the most welcoming Arab host countries to Palestinian refugees by providing citizenship and socioeconomic inclusion, despite lingering inequities and discrimination.

KUWAIT

Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Kuwait:

- There are an estimated 20,000-40,000 Palestinians currently living in Kuwait. Many migrated for work in the 1950s-60s or were expelled from other Arab states.
- Kuwait has not granted Palestinians citizenship or permanent residency. They must continuously renew temporary residency permits to live and work in the country.
- After the PLO supported Iraq during the 1990 Gulf War, Kuwait expelled over 400,000 Palestinians as punishment. Some later returned but tensions remain.
- Kuwait bans Palestinians from working in the public sector and restricts their work in the private sector as well. Other restrictions are placed on healthcare, education and services.
- Palestinians cannot own property or assets in Kuwait. They face major hurdles transferring money, owning businesses and accessing loans.
- Marriages between Kuwaitis and Palestinians are restricted. Palestinians have no pathway to Kuwaiti citizenship through marriage or birth.
- While rhetoric about the Palestinian cause remains supportive, the Kuwaiti government is wary of Palestinians' political activity and limits their rights.
- Remittances from Palestinians abroad provide a lifeline for the Palestinian community in Kuwait struggling with heavy restrictions.
- Human rights groups have criticized Kuwait's discriminatory policies toward Palestinians as a violation of international law and norms. Calls for reforms continue.

So in summary, Palestinians in Kuwait remain a stateless community with few rights despite the country's professed support for the Palestinian national cause.

LEBANON**Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Lebanon:**

- There are over 174,000 Palestinian refugees registered with UNRWA in Lebanon. Many have lived there for decades since being displaced from Palestine.
- Palestinians face discriminatory laws and restrictions on rights in Lebanon. They cannot become citizens or own property.
- Lebanon bars Palestinians from working in syndicated professions like medicine, law and engineering. Employment is restricted mainly to manual labor and service jobs.
- Palestinian camps suffer from overcrowding, poverty and poor infrastructure. The Lebanese army surrounds the camps.
- Palestinians have no access to Lebanese public healthcare or education. UNRWA provides limited primary care and schooling in the camps.
- Lebanese labor laws do not protect Palestinian workers. They are denied disability benefits, maternity leave and other worker rights.
- Amnesty International, Human Rights Watch and other groups have condemned Lebanon's systemic discrimination against Palestinians as a violation of human rights.
- While Lebanon hosts refugees, it maintains an official policy against permanent settlement or naturalization of Palestinians to preserve demographic balance.
- Lebanon insists any resolution of the refugees' status must happen outside the country, often citing impact on sectarian politics as a reason.

In summary, Palestinian refugees in Lebanon face highly restrictive policies and discrimination in violation of their basic rights. Lebanon justifies this by the need to maintain a sectarian balance and oppose permanent resettlement.

LIBYA**Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Libya:**

- There are an estimated 12,000-15,000 Palestinians currently living in Libya, primarily in Tripoli and Benghazi.
- Palestinians have migrated to Libya in several waves since 1948, including refugees fleeing the Arab-Israeli wars and migrant workers looking for opportunities in Libya.
- Under Gaddafi's rule, Palestinians were treated as equals to Libyans in terms of access to public education, healthcare, housing and employment.
- Marriages between Libyans and Palestinians were common. After 5 years of marriage, a Palestinian could apply for Libyan citizenship.
- Post-Gaddafi governments have retained policies granting Palestinians access to healthcare, education and ability to work in Libya much like citizens.
- However, the conflict and instability after Gaddafi's fall has made the situation more difficult for Palestinians in Libya in terms of insecurity and accessing services.
- Palestinians have been caught up in the civil conflict, targeted by some rebel groups who accuse them of supporting Gaddafi during the war.
- Despite rhetoric supporting the Palestinian cause, post-Gaddafi Libya has reduced financial aid and political engagement, focused on its internal turmoil.
- Libya issues Palestinians travel documents and ID cards valid for two years. But bureaucracy regarding renewals has increased after Gaddafi.
- Overall, Palestinians still have basic rights in Libya but political and economic deterioration has undermined their status and livelihoods.

So in summary, Palestinians historically had extensive rights in Libya, though the changing political dynamics have negatively impacted their situation.

MOROCCO**Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Morocco:**

- There is a large Palestinian community in Morocco estimated to number several tens of thousands. Many arrived as refugees after the Arab-Israeli wars starting in 1948.
- Palestinians have historically had good relations with Moroccans due to Morocco's strong support for the Palestinian cause and king Mohammed V's refusal to hand Moroccan Jews over to Israel after 1948.
- Palestinians were initially given refugee status and travel documents. After 1959, Palestinians were granted residency permits equivalent to Moroccan citizens, allowing them to work, obtain welfare, and attend public schools.
- Palestinians were later granted similar rights to Moroccan nationals except the rights to vote, hold political office and join the army. Intermarriage is common.
- Morocco provides Palestinians integrated access to healthcare, education, and social services on par with citizens. Palestinians can own businesses and property.
- However, as non-citizens, Palestinians face some challenges in employment, banking, bureaucracy and international travel permissions. Periodic paperwork renewals are required.
- Morocco has generally allowed Palestinian students from Gaza to study at Moroccan universities given restrictions of the Israeli blockade on Gaza.
- Morocco has been a strong advocate for the Palestinian cause internationally. But the monarchy maintains Morocco's formal ties with Israel for pragmatic reasons.
- Overall, Palestinians in Morocco enjoy extensive rights and integration but still face some disadvantages due to their non-citizen status in the country.

In summary, Morocco has provided Palestinians significant long-term rights and residence privileges, though some limitations on political rights and non-citizenship issues remain.

SAUDI ARABIA**Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Saudi Arabia:**

- There are an estimated 250,000-500,000 Palestinians living in Saudi Arabia, many of whom migrated for work opportunities decades ago.
- Palestinians have an ambiguous legal status in Saudi Arabia. They are classified as foreign “guests” rather than legal migrant workers.
- As non-citizens, Palestinians face significant restrictions in Saudi Arabia related to employment, healthcare, education, travel documents, ownership of property and businesses.
- Palestinians must renew their Saudi residency permits (iqamas) regularly, which restricts their mobility and access to services. Getting permits can be costly and complex.
- Palestinians generally do not have the right to Saudi citizenship under the kafala sponsorship system. Access to citizenship is very limited.
- Saudi policies have made it difficult for Palestinians to own property, assets and land. There are some exceptions for long-term residents.
- Palestinians in Saudi Arabia face restrictions in sectors like healthcare and education. They have to pay fees as foreigners and cannot receive government subsidies.
- Despite the restrictions, Palestinians have integrated into Saudi society and economy. Many work in the private sector, especially as skilled professionals.
- Saudi Arabia has supported the Palestinian cause and provided aid. But advocates argue more should be done to improve the rights of Palestinians living in the country.

So in summary, while sympathetic to the Palestinian cause, Saudi Arabia treats Palestinians as foreign guests with very limited social and economic rights compared to Saudi citizens.

SYRIA**Key points about the rights and status of Palestinians living in Syria:**

- There are around 526,000 Palestinian refugees registered with UNRWA in Syria, living across the country but concentrated in camps like Yarmouk.
- Palestinians arrived as refugees during the 1948 Arab-Israeli war and subsequent displacements. Syria initially provided them temporary asylum.
- Palestinians were later granted partial residency rights, allowing access to state education, healthcare and employment opportunities. They could own businesses and property.
- Palestinians were exempt from compulsory military service in the Syrian army but barred from government jobs and restricted in their political rights.
- Inter-marriage between Syrians and Palestinians was difficult and discouraged by Syrian authorities. Palestinians lived under travel restrictions within Syria.
- Syria provided political and material support for Palestinian militant groups like Hamas based in Damascus over the years.
- The Syrian civil war since 2011 caused massive displacement among Palestinians, extensive damage to Palestinian camps, loss of access to aid and public services.
- Many Palestinian factions tried to remain neutral during the conflict but got caught up in the violence nonetheless. Some groups sided with the opposition or government at times.
- Overall, Palestinians had partial integration in Syrian society with some rights and opportunities but also legal distinctions that kept them in a marginalized status. The civil war has greatly harmed Palestinian refugees.

In summary, Palestinians in Syria had precarious residency rights that provided basic services but also enforced their outsider status politically and socially over generations. The Syrian conflict has further damaged their situation.

Z3.2 How Long Do Palestinians Stay in Arab countries?

There is no single answer for how long Palestinians stay in Arab countries, as it depends on the individual circumstances. Some key points:

- Many Palestinians became refugees after the creation of Israel in 1948 and fled or were expelled from their homes. Hundreds of thousands settled in neighboring Arab countries like Jordan, Lebanon, Syria and Egypt.
- Jordan has the highest number of Palestinian refugees, estimated around 2 million. Many have obtained Jordanian citizenship, though some still have refugee status. Those without citizenship have limited rights and tend to stay long-term.
- In Lebanon, Palestinian refugees face more restrictions on employment and ownership rights compared to other foreign nationals. Estimates range from 174,000 to 450,000 refugees in Lebanon, many living in cramped camps. Their residency depends on employment and sponsorships.
- Syria had over 500,000 Palestinian refugees prior to the Syrian civil war which began in 2011. Many fled the fighting to Lebanon and other countries. Their status in Syria again depends on employment, sponsorships and other factors.
- In Egypt, there are tens of thousands of Palestinian refugees. Some have lived for decades in Cairo and Alexandria. Their status is precarious and depends on visa renewals.
- Those with citizenship in an Arab host country have more permanent status, while those without depend on renewals, employment and regional politics. Some stay indefinitely or even their whole lives, while others may eventually seek to emigrate elsewhere if possible.

So in summary, there is no fixed duration for how long Palestinians stay in Arab countries. It varies greatly depending on their specific legal status and local conditions in each country. Some effectively remain lifelong refugees while others gain more permanent integration over time.

Z4 UNWRA

Z4.1 What Proportion of UNWRA Income Came from Europe in 2020, 2021 and 2022?

Unfortunately I do not have the specific breakdown of UNRWA's income from Europe for 2020, 2021 and 2022. However, here are some general details about UNRWA's funding from Europe in recent years:

- UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East) receives funding from UN member states on a voluntary basis.
- European countries collectively are the largest donors to UNRWA's budget.
- In 2018, European countries provided around 50% of UNRWA's total funding. The European Union and Germany were the largest European donors.
- In 2019, European donors provided about 40% of UNRWA's budget. The EU and Germany remained the top European donors.
- In 2020, UNRWA received around \$800 million in income. Europe's contribution is estimated to have remained around 40% of the total.
- In 2021, UNRWA experienced a financial crisis as its deficit grew to \$100 million amid reduced funding. Europe remained its main source of funding, providing an estimated \$340 million (43% of total).
- Data is not yet publicly available for 2022. But UNRWA was again facing a large budget shortfall, with funding from Europe likely remaining crucial.

So in summary, Europe has provided an estimated 40-50% of UNRWA's total income in recent years. The EU, Germany, Sweden, Norway and UK are generally the largest European donors. Without the specific financial data, I cannot provide the exact proportions for 2020, 2021 and 2022. But Europe has clearly remained UNRWA's main source of funding and financial lifeline.

Z4.2 How Much and What Proportion of its US Income Did UNRWA Receive?

2021:

- Total UNRWA income: Around \$800 million
- US contribution: \$318 million (40% of total budget)

2022:

- Total UNRWA income: Budget of \$1.6 billion (unmet due to funding shortfall)
- US contribution: \$318 million pledged (20% of total budget)

Key Notes:

- The US has been UNRWA's largest single donor in recent years.
- In 2020, the US provided 30% of UNRWA's total funding.
- In 2021, the US increased its contribution to cover 40% of UNRWA's budget.
- For 2022, the US pledged \$318 million, which was about 20% of UNRWA's intended budget. However, UNRWA has faced a major funding deficit in 2022.
- Overall UNRWA funding from the US decreased in 2022, going back down to around 20% of the total budgeted amount.

So in summary, the US provided 30% of total income in 2020, 40% in 2021, and pledged around 20% for 2022. But the actual proportion for 2022 may end up being higher due to UNRWA's funding shortfall. The US has been the single largest donor for UNRWA in recent years.

Z4.3 What Was the Estimated Proportion of UNRWA's Income was Received from Europe and the USA?

Year	Total UNRWA Income	Estimated Share from Europe	Estimated Share from USA
2020	\$800 million	40% (\$320 million)	30% (\$240 million)
2021	\$800 million	43% (\$344 million)	40% (\$320 million)
2022	\$1.6 billion (budget)	40% (est. \$640 million)	20% (est. \$320 million)

Key points:

- Europe provided an estimated 40-43% of UNRWA's total income in 2020 and 2021.
- The USA provided 30% in 2020 and increased to 40% in 2021.
- For the 2022 budget, Europe's contribution was estimated at 40% based on previous years.
- The USA share dropped back down to around 20% of the total budgeted amount for 2022.
- However, due to funding shortfalls in 2022, the actual US and Europe proportions of the total income may differ from the budgeted estimates.

Let me know if you need any clarification or have additional questions! I'm happy to provide more context about UNRWA's finances and major donor contributions.

Z4.4 Why Does Such a High Proportion of UNWRA Income Come from Europe and the USA?

There are both potential pros and cons if Europe and the US were to significantly reduce their financial contributions to UNRWA:

Potential Pros:

- Could force UNRWA to diversify funding sources and decrease reliance on Europe/US.
- Would allow other donors like Gulf states or private sources to increase contributions.
- Could push Palestinian leadership to initiate reforms within UNRWA.
- Reduces financial burden on major donors dealing with domestic fiscal pressures.

Potential Cons:

- Could severely impact UNRWA services and support for Palestinian refugees if shortfall not filled.
- Risk of intensifying humanitarian crisis and instability in Gaza, West Bank, etc.
- May reduce Europe/US influence over UNRWA policies and operations.
- Could bolster power of states less aligned with Western interests (e.g. Qatar, Iran).
- Potential damage to relations between Western donors and Palestinian leaders.
- Loss of "soft power" lever for Europe/US in Middle East diplomacy.
- Possible reputational risks if seen as abandoning commitment to Palestinian refugees.

In essence, reduced funding from the West could incentivize important reforms but also threatens major instability if other donors fail to step in. It would represent a gamble that could backfire on Europe/US interests. Careful analysis is required to determine if benefits outweigh the substantial risks and potential human costs.

Z4.5 Why Do Arab Countries Contribute Such a Relatively Small Proportion of UNRWA's Income?

There are several reasons why Arab countries contribute a relatively small proportion of UNRWA's income compared to Europe and the US:

- Competing priorities - Many Arab states face economic challenges or priorities like fighting wars/conflicts that limit their capacity to provide voluntary donations. Oil-rich Gulf states have helped fill gaps though.
- Regional politics - There are political sensitivities for Arab regimes about being seen to legitimize Israel's control of Palestinian territories through funding UNRWA operations there.
- Leverage over refugees - Some analysts argue Arab leaders want to keep Palestinian refugees dependent on UNRWA rather than permanently settling them, to retain leverage in negotiations.
- Reluctance to normalize occupation - Providing substantial aid through UNRWA could be seen as accepting/enabling Israel's occupation of Palestinian land from an Arab nationalism perspective.
- Historical tensions - Many Arab hosts like Lebanon have strained ties with Palestinian refugees stemming from the 1970s civil war, limiting motivation to support UNRWA.
- Lack of incentives - Unlike Western donors, Arab states often don't prioritize using UNRWA aid as a tool of soft power or influence over the agency.
- Domestic challenges - The civil wars in Syria and Yemen, political unrest in Iraq, and instability in Libya over the last decade have constrained Arab aid capacity and diverted resources.

In summary, a mix of political sensitivities, strained relations with Palestinian refugees, security preoccupations, and economic limitations constrain Arab funding to UNRWA - despite public rhetoric in support of the Palestinian cause.

Z4.6 What Proportion and Amount of UNRWA Income Comes from Gulf Oil Rich Countries?

Unfortunately the exact proportions and amounts from specific Gulf countries are not available in UNRWA's published financial data. However, here are some estimates and details on overall Gulf state funding to UNRWA:

- In 2018, Gulf states provided approximately 10% of UNRWA's total income. This amounted to around \$50-60 million in contributions.
- The largest Gulf donors have traditionally been Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates (UAE).
- In 2020, total Gulf funding was around \$100 million (approximately 12% of total income).
- In 2021, the Gulf proportion reached 15-20% according to UNRWA, totalling around \$120-160 million.
- For 2022, Saudi Arabia, UAE and Qatar pledged approximately \$100 million combined. This could account for 10-15% of total income, depending on the funding gap.
- Beyond the Gulf, notable donations occasionally come from Egypt, Iraq, and Libya - but these are small compared to Europe, US and Gulf.

So in summary, while the exact percentages vary year-to-year, Gulf Arab states are estimated to provide around 10-20% of UNRWA's income in recent years, with Saudi Arabia and UAE being the biggest contributors. This equates to \$100-200 million annually from the oil-rich Gulf region as a crucial source of voluntary donations.

Z4.7 Why Does UNRWA Have a Unique 'Refugee' Definition?

UNRWA has a different definition of refugees compared to UNHCR (UN High Commissioner for Refugees Agency) mainly for historical and operational reasons:

- UNRWA was established in 1949 specifically to provide aid to Palestinian refugees from the 1948 Arab-Israeli war. Its refugee definition reflects this context.
- The UNRWA definition includes descendants of original 1948 refugees. This is unusual - the UNHCR refugee status cannot normally be inherited or passed down through generations.
- However, an exception was made for Palestinian refugees due to their continued statelessness and inability to return home over decades.
- UNRWA's operational definition helps identify eligible recipients for its services in its five areas of operations. It does not confer legal status.
- UNRWA's definition is contained in its own organizational mandate, it does not modify the legal definition in the 1951 Refugee Convention that applies globally.
- So it is an exceptional definition, but is restricted to UNRWA's scope and doesn't change international law or UNHCR's refugee status criteria.
- No other refugee population in the world has a specific UN agency dedicated to their cause in this way. So in that sense, UNRWA's definition is exclusive to the Palestinian context.

In summary, while UNRWA uses an unusual operational definition of refugees, it is a specialized agency with a specific historical mandate. Its definition has an exceptional status but does not fundamentally alter international refugee law or status granted by UNHCR.

Z4.8 Why Do Groups of Refugees Increase for UNWRA and Decrease for UNHCR?

I believe you are asking why the number of registered Palestinian refugees with UNRWA keeps increasing over time, while refugee populations under UNHCR tend to decrease. There are a few key reasons for this:

- Inherited refugee status - UNRWA registers descendants of original 1948 refugees as refugees, whereas UNHCR refugee status cannot be passed down to children born outside their parents' country of origin.
- Lack of durable solutions - Palestinian refugees under UNRWA do not have access to solutions like local integration and resettlement that could reduce their numbers. Many remain in protracted refugee situations.
- Continued displacement - Ongoing conflicts in the region, like in Syria, continue to displace more Palestinian refugees, adding to UNRWA's numbers.
- Unresolved conflict - The lack of a political resolution to the Israeli-Palestinian conflict means many Palestinian refugees maintain their status.
- Host country policies - Limited naturalization opportunities in UNRWA's main hosts like Lebanon and restrictions on Palestinian rights also perpetuate refugee status across generations.
- UNRWA services - Registration with UNRWA enables access to its education, healthcare and other services, incentivizing refugees to maintain their status.

So in summary, the inheritance of refugee status, lack of durable solutions, continued displacements, and incentive to access UNRWA services all contribute to the increasing number of Palestinian refugees on UNRWA's rolls over time.

Z4.9 Could UNRWA be Abolished?

CLAUDE.AI

Here are a few key points about the possibility of abolishing UNRWA:

- UNRWA stands for the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East. It was established in 1949 to provide assistance and protection to Palestinian refugees displaced by the 1948 Arab-Israeli war.
- UNRWA provides education, healthcare, relief, social services, infrastructure development, microfinance, and emergency response in the West Bank, Gaza Strip, Jordan, Lebanon and Syria. It serves over 5 million registered Palestinian refugees.
- There have been periodic calls by some, including Israel, to abolish UNRWA and have its responsibilities transferred to the UNHCR, the UN refugee agency. Reasons cited include claims that UNRWA perpetuates the refugee issue instead of resolving it.
- However, UNRWA and the refugees it serves argue it provides vital lifeline services and its mandate remains necessary until there is a just solution to the refugee issue based on UN resolutions. Dismantling it would cause further hardship and instability.
- The UN General Assembly regularly renews UNRWA's mandate, most recently in December 2022 for another three years. This indicates there is not sufficient international consensus currently to abolish UNRWA.
- However, its funding remains voluntary and has been declining. Some speculate this may be an attempt to de facto defund and eliminate UNRWA if donor support continues to decrease.

So in summary, while some have called for abolishing UNRWA, there appears to be no near-term prospect of this occurring given its continued UN mandate renewal and the vital services it provides to millions of Palestinian refugees. However, its future remains uncertain due to funding challenges.

Z4.10 Why Did UNRWA Lose Responsibility for Jews Within Israel in July 1952?

There was no formal transfer of responsibilities from UNRWA to Israel in July 1952. However, you may be referring to Israel enacting the Nationality Law in 1952 which granted Israeli citizenship to many Palestinian Arabs remaining within Israel's new borders after the 1948 Arab-Israeli war.

The key points:

- In July 1952, Israel passed the Nationality Law granting automatic citizenship to Palestinian Arabs who remained within Israel's borders after 1948, with some exceptions.
- This law applied to around 156,000 Palestinian Arabs per Israeli government figures at the time.
- Gaining Israeli citizenship meant these Palestinian Arabs were no longer considered refugees by UNRWA's definition. So they became ineligible for UNRWA services.
- However, there was no actual transfer of responsibility for these people from UNRWA to Israel. UNRWA did not actively remove them from their registration database.
- Rather, UNRWA considered them no longer eligible for services once they obtained Israeli citizenship. They were effectively removed from UNRWA's mandate.
- But other Palestinian refugees outside Israel's borders remained fully under UNRWA's remit.

So while Israel's 1952 Nationality Law changed the citizenship status of many Palestinian Arabs within Israel, it did not constitute a formal transfer of responsibility from UNRWA to Israel itself. There was no agreement between the two sides to actively shift oversight from one to the other.