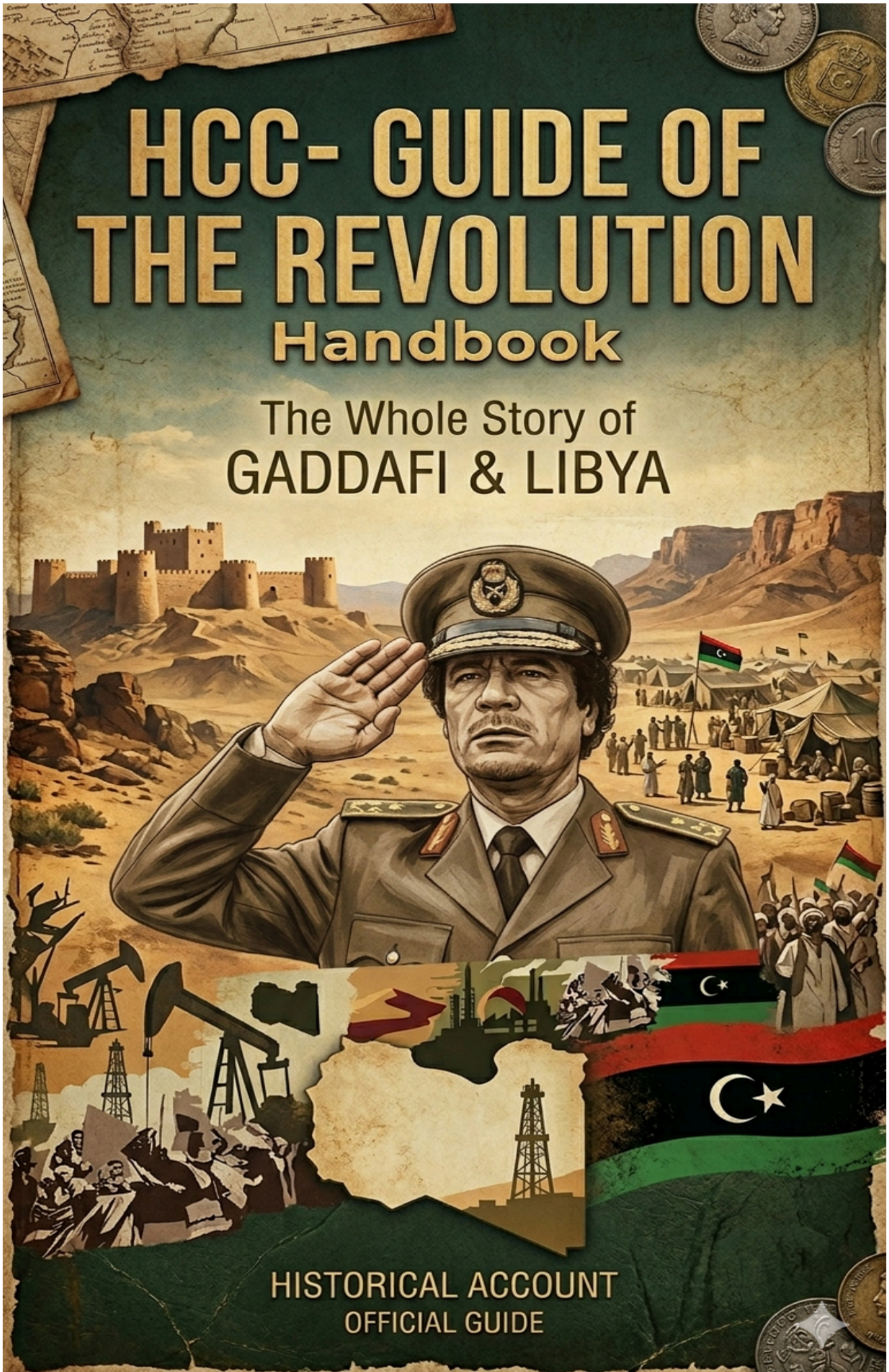

HCC- GUIDE OF THE REVOLUTION
Handbook
The Whole Story of
GADDAFI & LIBYA
HISTORICAL ACCOUNT
OFFICIAL GUIDE

HCC- The Guide of The Revolution Handbook

2. Rules of Procedure

Official Language:

English is the official language of the conference.

Sessions:

Sessions start with the roll call. Every country must say "present" or "present and voting". When a delegate says "present and voting" he needs to vote in every voting process unlike "present".

Caucuses:

There are 3 types of caucuses. Moderated, semimoderated and unmoderated caucuses.

Moderated Caucus: This is the caucus which is managed by the chairboard. Every country needs permission to talk from the chairboard.

Semimoderated Caucus: In a semimoderated caucus, every delegate can stand up and talk while being nice to the other countries. The chairboard manages but not as much as a moderated caucus.

Unmoderated Caucus: In an unmoderated caucus, the chairboard does not manage the caucus. Every delegate can rise up and walk in the committee and talk with delegates. This caucus is taken for writing directives, press releases, communiques etc.

Motions:

Motions are needed to take caucuses. A delegate who gives a motion needs to give a total time, an individual time, type of caucus and topic. When a motion is given to take unmoderated caucus, there is no need to give a topic and individual time. A total time can be maximum 20 minutes and minimum 5 minutes and an individual time can be divided to the total time. An individual time can be maximum 5 minutes and minimum 30 seconds.

Examples:

Motion to have a moderated caucus to talk about the current situation. Total time being 15 minutes and individual time being 1 minute.

Motion to have an unmoderated caucus for 20 minutes.
Motion to terminate the caucus.
Motion to suspend the session.

Voting Procedure:

When either something big happens or a resolution paper is done, a voting procedure is taken. To get something passed, a supermajority is needed. It means ⅔ ratio.

Directives:

Directives are written actions in the crisis committees. When a directive is written, a delegate must answer all the WH questions.

Press Releases:

Press releases are written like directives except WH question. Press releases are used for expressing and informing something to the public.

Bills:

Bills are the important written laws in the legislature cabinets. They are written for changing the laws and adding new laws to the constitution.

Points:

Points are used to make delegates comfortable at the committee. There are four types of points;

Point of Information: is used by a delegate when the delegate did not understand something or wanted to learn more detail.

Point of Personal Privilege: is used by a delegate when the delegate wanted to go to the restroom or wanted to open/close the window or could not hear a delegate who spoke.

Point of Order: is used by a delegate when the delegate notices a mistake of the chairboard in the procedure. It could be harsh. So, use the point of information if you are not sure.

Point of Parliamentary Inquiry: is used by a delegate when the delegate wants to ask something about the procedure.

3.Muammer Gaddafi

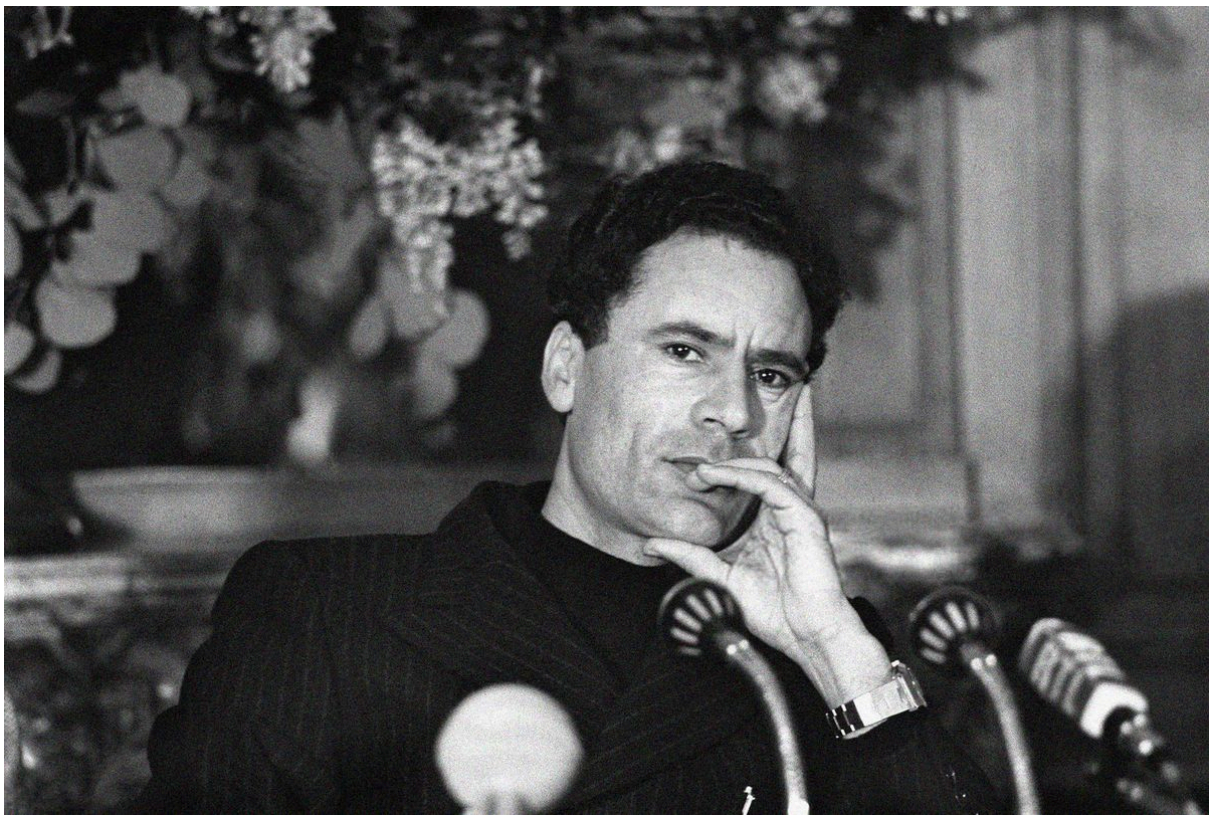
So the first words for this man who once ruled Libya nearly perfectly according to a lot of historians should be some questions. In this part of the handbook you will get the majority of answers of your possible questions that should be asked and getting Gaddafi and his mind explained.

‘’How did this man who is a Bedouin succeed to be one of the dictators whose era lasted the longest?’
‘’ Did he get misunderstood ? ‘’
‘’ Was he a normal man before being dictator ? ‘’

Muammar Gaddafi remains one of the most controversial, mysterious, and influential political leaders of the modern era, a man whose life continues to divide historians, political scientists, journalists, and ordinary citizens across the world. For some, he was a revolutionary

hero who transformed Libya from one of the poorest nations in North Africa into a country with free education, healthcare, and one of the highest living standards in Africa. For others, he was an authoritarian ruler whose obsession with power, control, and political dominance crushed opposition and isolated Libya from much of the international community. Yet before understanding the successes and failures of Gaddafi's rule, one important question must first be asked: how did a man born into a poor Bedouin family in the Libyan desert manage to become one of the longest-ruling dictators in modern history? The answer is not simple, because Gaddafi's survival in power for more than forty years was built upon a unique mixture of ideology, charisma, fear, tribal politics, economic control, and his extraordinary ability to adapt to changing global circumstances.

Born in 1942 near the coastal city of Sirte during the final years of Italian colonial influence in Libya, Gaddafi grew up in a deeply traditional Bedouin environment. His family belonged to a small tribal community that lived a modest and difficult life in the desert. Unlike many future political leaders who came from wealthy or educated backgrounds, Gaddafi experienced poverty and social inequality from a young age. Libya itself was underdeveloped and politically weak during his childhood, having suffered from colonial occupation, war, and foreign interference. These early experiences deeply shaped his worldview and helped create his strong hatred toward colonialism and Western influence in the Arab world. As a young student, Gaddafi became fascinated with Arab nationalism and especially admired Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser, whose speeches about Arab unity, socialism, and resistance to imperialism inspired millions across the Middle East. Nasser's influence on Gaddafi was enormous; he saw him not only as a political role model but almost as the embodiment of Arab pride and revolutionary leadership.



Determined to follow a similar path, Gaddafi joined the military academy in Benghazi, where he quietly began organizing a network of young nationalist officers who shared his revolutionary ideas. At the time, Libya was ruled by King Idris I, whose monarchy was widely criticized for corruption, conservatism, and close ties with Western governments. Although Libya had become rich because of newly discovered oil reserves, much of the population still lived in poverty, and many young officers believed the monarchy had failed to use the country's wealth for national development. On September 1, 1969, while King Idris was abroad for medical treatment, Gaddafi and his fellow officers launched a nearly bloodless coup that successfully overthrew the monarchy. At only twenty-seven years old, Gaddafi suddenly became the leader of Libya and immediately declared the beginning of a revolutionary era.

From the beginning of his rule, Gaddafi sought to create a political system entirely different from both Western capitalism and Soviet communism. He rejected parliamentary democracy, claiming that elections and political parties only created corruption and division within society. Instead, he promoted what he called the "Third Universal Theory," which he explained in his famous political manifesto known as the "Green Book." According to Gaddafi, true democracy

could only exist when ordinary people governed themselves directly through local committees and congresses rather than through elected representatives. In theory, this system was meant to eliminate class divisions and return power to the masses. Libya was officially renamed the “Great Socialist People’s Libyan Arab Jamahiriya,” a term roughly meaning “state of the masses.” However, despite the language of popular rule, the reality was very different. Political opposition was heavily suppressed, independent media did not exist, and ultimate authority always remained in Gaddafi’s hands. Even after he formally stepped down from government titles in 1979 and began calling himself only the “Brother Leader” or “Guide of the Revolution,” he continued controlling Libya through loyal security forces, revolutionary committees, tribal alliances, and personal influence.

One of the key reasons Gaddafi remained in power for so long was his ability to use Libya’s massive oil wealth strategically. Oil revenues transformed Libya economically during the 1970s and 1980s, allowing the government to invest heavily in infrastructure, education, healthcare, and social welfare programs. Literacy rates rose dramatically, universities expanded, electricity and clean water reached many rural areas, and the state provided housing support for countless families. Under Gaddafi, Libya achieved one of the highest Human Development Index rankings in Africa for many years. Supporters therefore argued that despite his authoritarian style, Gaddafi genuinely improved the living standards of ordinary Libyans and redistributed oil wealth more fairly than many neighboring governments. One of his most ambitious projects was the Great Man-Made River, a massive engineering system designed to transport underground water from the Sahara Desert to Libya’s coastal cities. Gaddafi described it as the “eighth wonder of the world,” and it symbolized his desire to portray himself as a visionary modernizer.

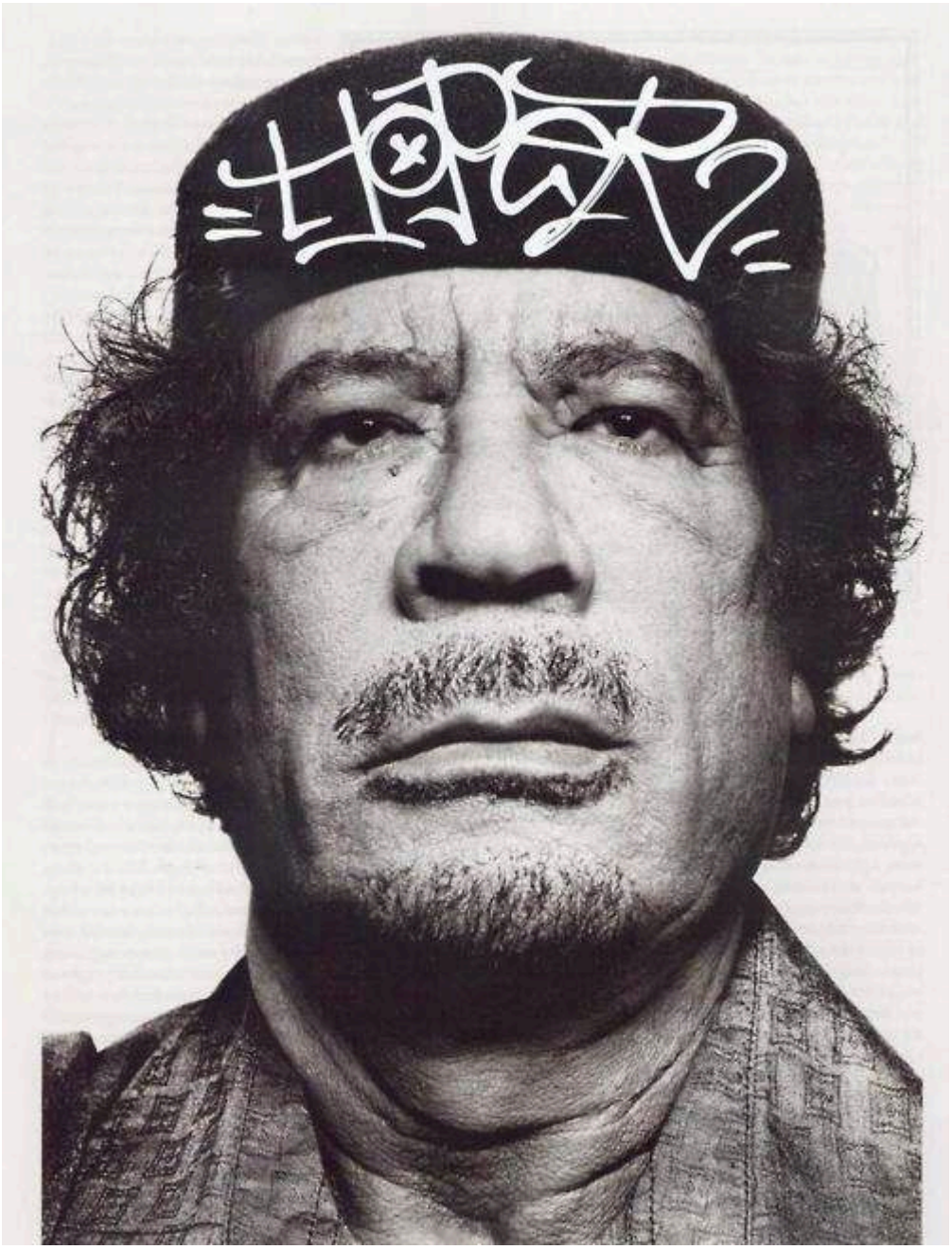
At the same time, Gaddafi developed a reputation internationally as unpredictable, eccentric, and dangerous. He frequently appeared in elaborate military uniforms, traveled with female bodyguards, lived in Bedouin tents even during foreign visits, and delivered long speeches filled with revolutionary rhetoric. Beyond his unusual public image, however, he actively supported numerous militant and revolutionary movements across Africa, the Middle East, and even Europe. He presented himself as a global anti-imperialist leader fighting against Western domination, colonialism, and Zionism. Libya under Gaddafi funded liberation groups in countries such as South Africa, Palestine, and Ireland, but it was also accused of sponsoring terrorism. The most famous accusation involved the 1988 Lockerbie bombing, in which Pan Am Flight 103 exploded over Scotland, killing 270 people. Although

Libya eventually accepted responsibility and paid compensation, the incident severely damaged Gaddafi's international reputation and led to years of sanctions and isolation from Western nations.

Despite international pressure, Gaddafi proved remarkably skilled at political survival. During the 1990s and early 2000s, after witnessing the collapse of other isolated regimes, he gradually changed his approach toward the West. He abandoned Libya's nuclear weapons program, improved diplomatic relations with Europe and the United States, and reopened Libya to international business and investment. Western leaders who once treated him as a dangerous dictator began visiting Libya and negotiating with him, demonstrating his ability to adapt whenever necessary to protect his rule.

However, Gaddafi's greatest challenge emerged during the Arab Spring in 2011, when waves of protests spread across the Arab world demanding political change. Demonstrations against his government quickly escalated into armed rebellion after violent crackdowns by security forces. Unlike previous opposition movements, this uprising received major international support, including NATO military intervention. After months of civil war, rebel forces captured Gaddafi near Sirte in October 2011, where he was beaten and killed, ending his forty-two-year rule in dramatic fashion.

Even after his death, Gaddafi remains a deeply divisive figure. Some Libyans remember his era as a time of stability, national pride, and economic security, especially compared to the chaos and civil conflict that followed his fall. Others remember decades of repression, fear, censorship, and political imprisonment. Historians continue debating whether he should primarily be remembered as a revolutionary reformer who modernized Libya and resisted foreign domination or as an authoritarian ruler whose concentration of power ultimately prevented Libya from developing democratic institutions. Regardless of perspective, Muammar Gaddafi undeniably left one of the most complex and unforgettable legacies in modern political history.



a. Historical Background of Libya

Before Libya, which all of us know, there was a huge desert in the north of Africa. People had been living near the sea, especially the Mediterranean Sea, and had known the part of Africa which is the west part of Nile River as Libya. The people who had been living there were Berberis such as Nasomons and Pyslls.

At the Ancient Age, they had been colonized by Phoenicians and Greeks and then, they had been colonized by Persians. After years with

the Migration of Peoples, Vandals had established a kingdom there and it had been destroyed by Byzantion. After Byzantion, the Ottoman Empire had made it a state in 1553 and It was a part of the Ottomans until the 1911 Tripoli War between Italians and Ottomans. Italians had conquered it with this war. After World War II, Italians had given them to France and England. Last of all, it had been set free and the United Kingdom of Libya had been established.

i. King Idris I. Era in Libya

Idris of Libya ruled Libya during one of the most important transitional periods in the country's modern history, overseeing the transformation of Libya from a poor and recently colonized territory into an independent kingdom with growing international importance. Born in 1889 in the eastern region of Cyrenaica, Idris came from the Senussi dynasty, a powerful Islamic and political movement that played a major role in resisting foreign occupation in North Africa. Before becoming king, Idris was already respected as the leader of the Senussi Order, which combined religious authority with tribal influence. During the early twentieth century, Libya suffered heavily under Italian colonial rule, especially after Italy invaded the region in 1911. The Italians attempted to suppress Libyan resistance movements, and many Libyans viewed Idris and the Senussi movement as symbols of national identity and resistance against colonial domination.

During the years of Italian occupation, Idris spent periods in exile, particularly in Egypt, while continuing to support efforts against colonial rule. After World War II and the defeat of Italy, Libya came under temporary British and French administration. At this moment, international debates began concerning Libya's future, and Idris emerged as the most acceptable political figure capable of uniting the country's deeply divided regions: Tripolitania in the west, Cyrenaica in the east, and Fezzan in the south. On December 24, 1951, Libya officially declared independence, becoming the United Kingdom of Libya, and Idris was crowned as the country's first king. His coronation marked the beginning of Libya as a modern independent state after decades of foreign domination.

King Idris ruled Libya through a constitutional monarchy and generally followed a conservative and cautious style of leadership. In the early years of independence, Libya was one of the poorest countries in the world, lacking infrastructure, education systems, and economic resources. The government depended heavily on foreign aid which was the most important reason that got him overthrown later on , especially from Britain and the United States, both of which

established military bases in Libya in exchange for economic assistance. Idris believed that maintaining close relationships with Western powers would help secure Libya's stability and development. However, critics later argued that these foreign ties weakened Libya's sovereignty and increased outside influence over national affairs.

The discovery of massive oil reserves in the late 1950s dramatically changed Libya's economic future. Oil revenues rapidly increased government income and allowed for modernization projects, including roads, schools, hospitals, and urban development. Under Idris, Libya slowly began moving from a poor desert kingdom toward becoming a wealthy oil-producing nation. Nevertheless, despite economic growth, many Libyans believed that the wealth from oil was not distributed fairly. Corruption accusations emerged within the royal administration, and large sections of society, especially younger military officers and Arab nationalists, became frustrated with what they saw as an outdated and ineffective monarchy.

Another major challenge for King Idris was the growing influence of Arab nationalism during the 1950s and 1960s. Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser inspired many young Arabs with his calls for unity, socialism, and resistance against Western influence. Compared to Nasser's revolutionary image, Idris appeared old-fashioned, cautious, and too closely aligned with Western governments. This dissatisfaction grew stronger after Libya's defeat and humiliation during regional political crises involving Arab nationalism and foreign policy.

By the late 1960s, opposition to the monarchy had increased significantly, especially among younger military officers. On September 1, 1969, while King Idris was abroad in Turkey for medical treatment, a group of officers led by the young captain Muammar Gaddafi carried out a bloodless military coup that overthrew the monarchy. The revolution ended Idris's eighteen-year reign and marked the beginning of a completely new political era in Libya. Although King Idris spent the remainder of his life in exile in Egypt until his death in 1983, his legacy remains important in Libyan history as the leader who guided the country to independence and established the foundations of the modern Libyan state.

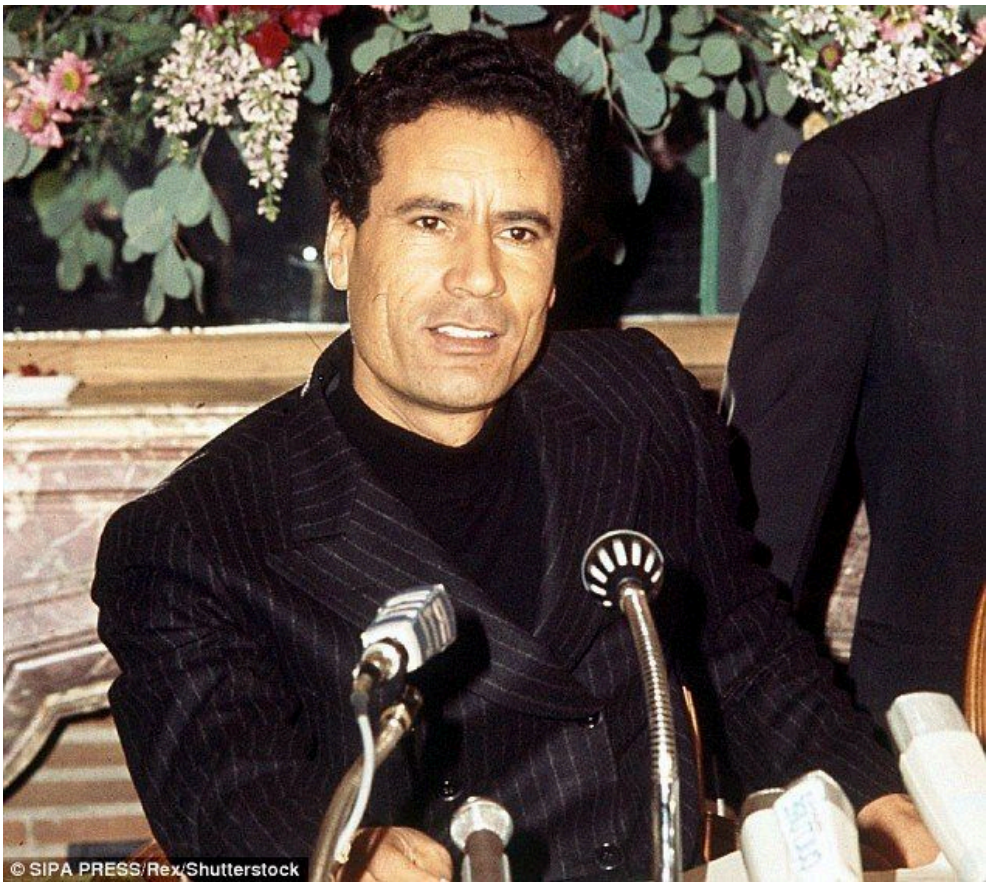
ii. The Rise of Muammer Gaddafi

The rise of Muammar Gaddafi began inside the Libyan military during the 1960s, where he quietly built the foundations of a revolution that would eventually overthrow the monarchy and completely reshape Libya's political system. Unlike traditional political leaders who rose through elections, wealthy families, or public popularity, Gaddafi's path to power was secretive, strategic, and heavily influenced by military organization. As a young officer, he understood that Libya's political environment was weak and vulnerable. The country was ruled by King Idris I, whose government increasingly appeared outdated, conservative, and disconnected from the younger generation. Although Libya's oil wealth was growing rapidly, many military officers and students believed corruption, inequality, and foreign influence were preventing the country from becoming truly independent and powerful. Gaddafi recognized this growing frustration and saw an opportunity to position himself as the leader of a revolutionary movement.

While serving in the military academy and later as an army officer, Gaddafi formed a clandestine group known as the Free Officers Movement. Inspired by similar revolutionary organizations in Egypt, the group consisted mainly of young nationalist officers who believed Libya needed radical political change. Gaddafi operated carefully and patiently, avoiding public attention while building loyalty among fellow soldiers. He focused on recruiting officers who were ideologically committed, disciplined, and willing to challenge the monarchy. Over time, the movement expanded quietly within the armed forces, especially among younger military personnel who felt alienated by the old political system. Unlike many political conspiracies that collapsed because of poor planning or betrayal, Gaddafi's organization remained highly secretive and organized, allowing it to survive without attracting major suspicion from the government.

By the late 1960s, Libya's political atmosphere had become increasingly unstable. King Idris spent long periods outside the country for health reasons, and many citizens viewed the monarchy as passive and ineffective. Gaddafi realized that the timing for revolution had arrived. In the early hours of September 1, 1969, he and the Free Officers launched a military coup while King Idris was abroad in Turkey receiving medical treatment. The operation was executed with

remarkable speed and precision. Key military bases, airports, radio stations, and government buildings were seized before loyalist forces could organize resistance. Because the monarchy lacked strong military support and because the coup leaders controlled communication systems quickly, the revolution succeeded almost without bloodshed. Within hours, the Libyan monarchy collapsed, ending nearly two decades of royal rule.



Although Gaddafi was only twenty-seven years old at the time, he immediately emerged as the dominant figure of the revolution. He announced the establishment of the Libyan Arab Republic and presented the coup not merely as a seizure of power but as the beginning of a national transformation. Through radio broadcasts and public speeches, he portrayed the revolution as a movement against corruption, foreign influence, and political stagnation. Gaddafi quickly gained attention throughout the Arab world because of his passionate rhetoric, confidence, and revolutionary image. He positioned himself as a leader who would restore Arab pride and ensure Libya's wealth benefited ordinary citizens rather than elites or foreign powers.

After securing control, Gaddafi moved rapidly to strengthen his authority. Foreign military bases belonging to Britain and the United States were closed, oil companies faced increasing government control, and political institutions connected to the monarchy were dismantled. He also promoted younger revolutionary figures into positions of power while removing individuals considered loyal to the old regime. Through these actions, Gaddafi consolidated support among nationalist groups, military officers, and parts of the population that desired rapid social and political change. At the same time, he carefully prevented potential rivals from becoming powerful enough to challenge him directly.

One of the most important aspects of Gaddafi's rise was his ability to transform himself from an unknown officer into a symbol of revolution. He used speeches, media appearances, and political symbolism to build a powerful public image. His military uniforms, revolutionary language, and rejection of Western influence helped him appear as a bold and fearless leader during a period when revolutionary politics were admired across much of the Arab world. He frequently compared his movement to larger anti-colonial struggles and presented Libya as part of a broader Arab awakening. This gave his leadership ideological significance beyond Libya itself and increased his popularity internationally among nationalist and anti-imperialist movements.

Gaddafi's rise was therefore not simply the result of one successful coup. It was the product of years of secret organization, careful military planning, ideological ambition, and his ability to exploit political weakness at exactly the right moment. By combining revolutionary nationalism with strict control over the military and state institutions, he transformed himself from a junior officer into the undisputed leader of Libya in only a matter of days. His rapid ascent to power marked the beginning of one of the longest and most controversial political eras in modern Middle Eastern and African history.

iii. Revolutions During Gaddafi's Era

Close your eyes for a moment and imagine yourself standing in Libya in the year 1969. The air is hot, heavy with desert wind, and the country around you feels trapped between two worlds. On one side stands the old Libya a conservative monarchy ruled by King Idris I, heavily dependent on Western support and increasingly disconnected from its younger population. On the other side, a wave of revolution is

sweeping across the Arab world. Egypt has already experienced revolution under Gamal Abdel Nasser. Military officers are becoming symbols of change. Young Arabs everywhere are speaking about unity, dignity, socialism, and freedom from foreign influence. Now ask yourself this: if you were a frustrated young Libyan officer watching your country's enormous oil wealth enrich elites while ordinary people struggled, would you continue obeying the old system or would you try to destroy it completely?

This is the exact atmosphere in which Muammar Gaddafi began his revolutionary journey.

Picture Gaddafi not as the older dictator the world later came to know, but as a young army officer in his twenties, quietly moving through military barracks, speaking carefully with trusted friends, testing loyalty, and building a secret movement inside the Libyan army. He understood something critical: revolutions are not created overnight. They grow silently in frustration, anger, and ambition long before the first shot is fired. While Libya appeared stable from the outside, beneath the surface dissatisfaction was growing rapidly. Younger military officers believed the monarchy was weak, corrupt, and too dependent on Britain and the United States. Every conversation in cafés, universities, and army camps seemed to circle around the same question: when would Libya finally experience its own revolution?

Then the moment arrived.

It is the early morning of September 1, 1969. Imagine yourself waking up in Tripoli to the sound of military vehicles moving through the streets. Soldiers occupy radio stations. Tanks secure important government buildings. Confusion spreads quickly. Rumors race through the city faster than facts. Has there been a war? A foreign invasion? A rebellion? Within hours, the answer becomes clear. The monarchy has fallen. King Idris is gone. A young unknown officer named Muammar Gaddafi appears on national radio announcing the birth of the Libyan Arab Republic. Suddenly, Libya belongs to the revolution.

Now imagine being an ordinary Libyan citizen hearing Gaddafi speak for the first time. He is confident, emotional, and full of revolutionary energy. He speaks about dignity, independence, and justice. He attacks colonialism and promises that Libya's oil wealth will finally

belong to the people rather than foreign powers or corrupt elites. For many Libyans, especially the youth, this felt electrifying. Gaddafi did not speak like an old politician. He spoke like a revolutionary determined to reshape history itself.

But here is where the story becomes even more dramatic.

Most revolutions end once power is seized. Gaddafi's revolution was different because he believed revolution should never stop. Ask yourself: what happens when a leader becomes obsessed not only with ruling a country, but with constantly reinventing society itself? During the 1970s, Gaddafi launched what he called the "Popular Revolution." Political parties were abolished because he claimed they divided the people. Traditional government systems were dismantled. Libya was transformed into what Gaddafi called the "Jamahiriya," or "state of the masses." He argued that ordinary citizens would now rule directly through local congresses and revolutionary committees instead of elected politicians.

At first, this sounded radical and exciting to many people. Imagine attending public meetings where citizens supposedly debated national issues directly. Imagine hearing daily speeches about freedom, equality, and liberation from oppression. Libya no longer presented itself as an ordinary country; it presented itself as a revolutionary experiment unlike anything else in the world.

But revolutions can slowly change shape.

As years passed, revolutionary committees gained more power. Citizens were watched closely. Public criticism became dangerous. Opponents disappeared into prisons or exile. Executions of dissidents were sometimes shown publicly to frighten potential enemies of the state. Ask yourself this difficult question: when does a revolution stop protecting the people and start controlling them? For supporters, Gaddafi was defending Libya from conspiracies and foreign enemies. For critics, the revolution was becoming authoritarian and oppressive.

Yet Gaddafi's ambitions did not stop at Libya's borders. He wanted revolution everywhere. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, Libya supported liberation movements, militant groups, and anti-colonial struggles across Africa and the Middle East. Gaddafi saw himself as more than a national leader; he saw himself as a global revolutionary

figure fighting imperialism worldwide. To some, he became a hero of resistance. To others, he became one of the world's most dangerous and unpredictable leaders.

Then came the tension with the United States. Imagine living in Tripoli in 1986 as American warplanes suddenly appear in the night sky. Explosions shake the capital. Buildings collapse. Smoke fills the streets. The United States accuses Libya of supporting terrorism and launches airstrikes against Gaddafi's regime. But instead of weakening him politically, the bombing initially strengthened his revolutionary image. Gaddafi presents himself as the fearless leader of a small nation standing against a superpower. Across parts of the Arab world and Africa, many admire this defiance.

But history has a strange habit of turning revolutions against their creators.

By the 2000s, many Libyans were tired. The revolutionary slogans that once inspired excitement now felt repetitive to younger generations. Economic problems, corruption, unemployment, and political repression created growing frustration beneath the surface. Then came

2011 and the Arab Spring. Revolutions exploded across the Arab world once again. Governments fell in Tunisia and Egypt. Protesters filled the streets demanding freedom and political change.

Now imagine the irony: the man who built his identity around revolution suddenly faced a revolution against himself.

Demonstrations spread across Libya. Soon protests transformed into armed rebellion. Cities turned into battlefields. NATO warplanes intervened. Libya descended into civil war. For months, Gaddafi refused to surrender, insisting the revolution would survive. But the system he had built over forty-two years was collapsing around him.

Finally, in October 2011, Gaddafi was captured near Sirte. Videos of his final moments spread instantly around the world. The revolutionary who once promised to change history died during the chaos of another revolution.

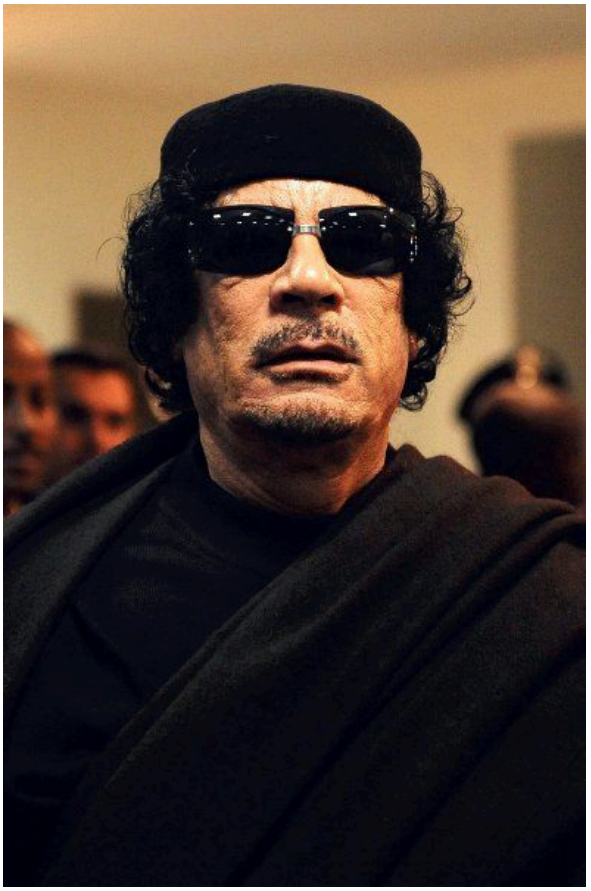
And perhaps that is the greatest irony of Gaddafi's era: revolution gave him power, shaped his identity, defined his rule, and ultimately destroyed him.

iv. The Polemics With the Western Bloc

The polemics between Muammar Gaddafi and the Western bloc formed one of the most intense and ideologically charged confrontations of the Cold War and post–Cold War eras, shaped by political ideology, oil interests, military conflict, and competing visions of global power. From the moment Gaddafi came to power in 1969, relations with Western countries especially the United States, the United Kingdom, and later NATO allies shifted rapidly from cautious engagement to deep hostility. Gaddafi's revolutionary ideology placed him in direct opposition to Western capitalism, liberal democracy, and military presence in the Middle East and North Africa. He consistently framed the West as a continuation of colonial domination, arguing that Western governments were attempting to control Arab and African nations through economic influence, military bases, and political interference. This ideological stance created a foundation for decades of diplomatic confrontation and mutual distrust.

One of the earliest points of tension came when Gaddafi ordered the closure of foreign military bases in Libya shortly after taking power.

The United States and the United Kingdom had maintained strategic bases in Libya during King Idris's reign, viewing the country as an important Cold War ally due to its geographic position and oil reserves. Gaddafi saw these bases as symbols of foreign occupation, and their removal in the early 1970s marked a decisive break with Western strategic interests in the region. Soon after, Libya nationalized its oil industry, increasing state control over energy production and revenues. This move significantly affected Western oil companies, which had previously held major influence over Libya's resources. While Libya benefited economically from increased control over oil wealth, Western governments and corporations viewed these policies as hostile to international business interests.



During the 1970s and 1980s, tensions escalated further as Libya adopted a more openly confrontational foreign policy. Gaddafi supported numerous liberation movements and revolutionary groups across Africa, the Middle East, and Europe, many of which were in direct conflict with Western-backed governments or interests. Western intelligence agencies accused Libya of supporting militant organizations involved in attacks against Western targets. These

accusations intensified hostility and led to Libya being increasingly isolated diplomatically. The relationship reached a critical breaking point in the mid-1980s, when several violent incidents were attributed to Libyan-linked groups, including attacks on Western civilians and military personnel.

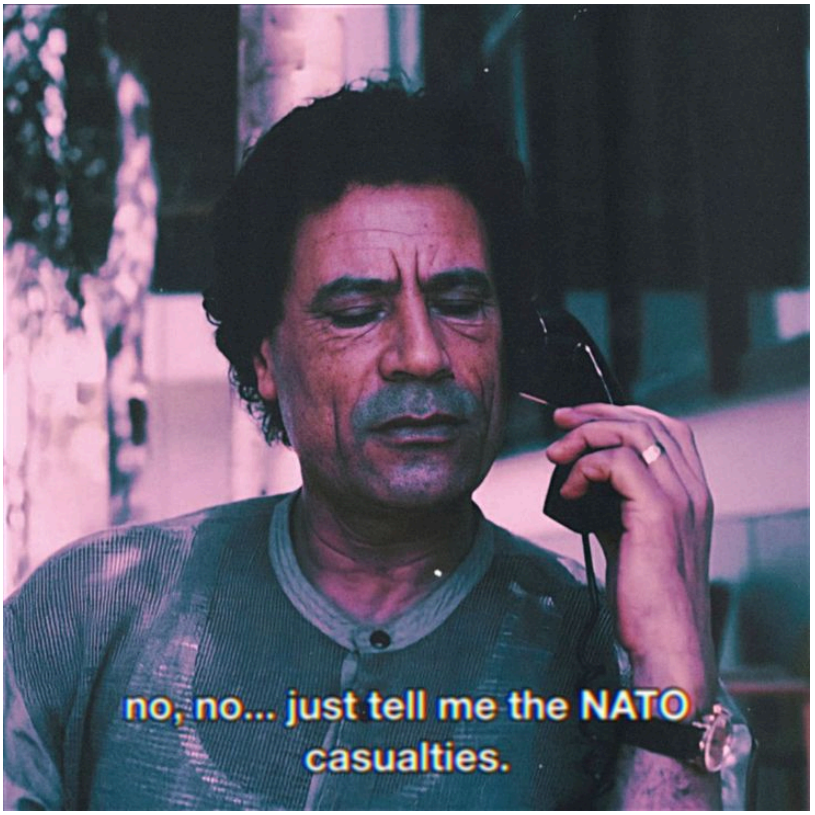
The most dramatic escalation occurred in 1986, when the United States, under President Ronald Reagan, launched airstrikes against Libya, targeting military installations and government sites in Tripoli and Benghazi. The operation was justified by the U.S. government as a response to Libyan involvement in international terrorism, including the bombing of a nightclub in West Berlin frequented by American soldiers. The airstrikes resulted in civilian casualties and caused significant destruction within Libya. Gaddafi survived the attack but responded by portraying it as evidence of Western imperial aggression. This event deepened hostility and reinforced Gaddafi's image in Western media as a dangerous and unpredictable leader, while in parts of the developing world he was sometimes seen as resisting superpower domination.

The most infamous moment in Libya's confrontation with the Western bloc came in 1988 with the bombing of Pan Am Flight 103 over Lockerbie, Scotland, which killed 270 people. Western governments accused Libyan intelligence operatives of carrying out the attack, leading to long-term international sanctions against Libya. In the early 1990s, the United Nations imposed strict economic and diplomatic sanctions, severely limiting Libya's international trade, air travel, and access to global financial systems. These sanctions had a major impact on the Libyan economy and increased the country's isolation from the Western-led international order. During this period, Gaddafi remained defiant, refusing to fully comply with Western demands, while continuing to accuse Western governments of targeting Libya unfairly for political and economic reasons.

However, the polemics between Libya and the West did not remain static. By the late 1990s and early 2000s, global political conditions began to change. The end of the Cold War, shifting energy interests, and regional security concerns encouraged a gradual diplomatic re-engagement. Gaddafi also began adjusting Libya's foreign policy, signaling willingness to normalize relations with Western countries. A major turning point came in 2003 when Libya agreed to abandon its

weapons of mass destruction programs and accept responsibility for the Lockerbie bombing, leading to the lifting of international sanctions. This marked a significant shift from decades of hostility toward cautious cooperation.

In the years that followed, Western leaders gradually re-established diplomatic and economic ties with Libya. Oil companies returned, political relations improved, and Gaddafi even hosted Western officials in Tripoli. Despite this temporary normalization, underlying mistrust never fully disappeared. Many Western policymakers continued to view Gaddafi as an unpredictable authoritarian leader, while he remained deeply skeptical of Western intentions in Libya and the broader region. The relationship ultimately collapsed again in 2011 during the Arab Spring, when Western countries supported NATO intervention against Gaddafi's government, leading to his overthrow.



The polemics between Gaddafi and the Western bloc therefore reflect a long and complex cycle of ideological confrontation, strategic conflict, temporary reconciliation, and final rupture. At its core, this relationship was shaped by competing visions of global order: Gaddafi's revolutionary anti-imperialism versus the Western liberal-capitalist system. This ideological divide, combined with

geopolitical interests and regional instability, ensured that relations between Libya and the Western world remained one of the most contentious dynamics of modern international politics throughout Gaddafi's rule.

v. The Fall of The King of The Kings of Africa

The fall of Muammar Gaddafi, who once styled himself as the "King of Kings of Africa," was not a sudden collapse but the result of decades of accumulated political tension, internal dissatisfaction, and shifting regional dynamics that finally erupted during the Arab Spring in 2011. By the early 21st century, Gaddafi had spent more than forty years in power, making him one of the longest-ruling leaders in the world. His regime had already gone through phases of revolutionary zeal, international isolation, partial reintegration with the West, and renewed authoritarian control. Yet beneath the surface, Libya remained a tightly controlled state with limited political freedoms, growing social frustration, and unresolved regional and tribal divisions. When protests began spreading across the Arab world in 2011, Libya was already primed for instability.

The first sparks of the uprising in Libya emerged in February 2011, inspired by revolutions in Tunisia and Egypt. What began as small demonstrations quickly escalated into mass protests in cities like Benghazi, where citizens demanded political reform, an end to corruption, and greater freedoms. The government's response was immediate and forceful. Security forces used live ammunition against demonstrators, which dramatically intensified public anger and transformed protests into a full-scale rebellion. Unlike earlier periods of unrest during Gaddafi's rule, this uprising spread rapidly beyond isolated cities, as entire regions began rejecting central authority. Military defections also played a crucial role, as some army units and officers broke away from the regime and joined opposition forces, weakening Gaddafi's control over the country.

As the uprising developed, Libya quickly descended into civil war. The country split between forces loyal to Gaddafi and newly formed rebel groups organized under the National Transitional Council. Cities

changed hands repeatedly, and frontlines shifted across the desert and coastal regions. Gaddafi attempted to maintain control by relying on loyal military units, mercenaries, and remaining security forces. He also used public speeches to rally supporters, portraying the conflict as a foreign-backed conspiracy aimed at destroying Libya and its independence. He insisted that he was defending the country from chaos and external interference, framing the uprising as an attack on national sovereignty rather than a legitimate revolution.

The international dimension of the conflict soon became decisive. As reports of heavy civilian casualties emerged, global pressure increased on Gaddafi's government. The United Nations Security Council imposed sanctions and authorized measures to protect civilians. This led to military intervention by NATO, which began air operations against Libyan government forces in March 2011. The intervention significantly altered the balance of power on the ground, as rebel forces gained air support and strategic advantages against Gaddafi's military. Key cities gradually fell under rebel control, and the government's territorial authority shrank steadily throughout the year. The capital, Tripoli, eventually came under intense pressure as opposition forces advanced from multiple directions.

Despite losing ground, Gaddafi refused to step down or leave the country. He continued to appear in public and on state media, delivering defiant speeches in which he vowed to fight until the end. His rhetoric emphasized resistance, sovereignty, and rejection of Western intervention. However, his regime was increasingly fragmented, with communication lines breaking down and loyal forces becoming isolated. The once centralized revolutionary state he had built over decades was disintegrating under the pressure of war, defections, and external military involvement.

By August 2011, rebel forces had entered Tripoli, marking a major turning point in the conflict. Government resistance weakened rapidly, and Gaddafi's control over the capital effectively collapsed. He fled the city as opposition forces took over key institutions. For several weeks, his exact location remained uncertain, symbolizing the final breakdown of his long-standing authority. The man who had once dominated

Libyan politics for more than four decades was now in hiding, moving between loyalist strongholds as the last remnants of his regime collapsed.

The final chapter came in October 2011 in the city of Sirte, Gaddafi's hometown and one of the last strongholds of loyalist resistance. As rebel forces surrounded the city, Gaddafi attempted to flee but was intercepted by opposition fighters. He was captured alive, humiliated, and killed shortly afterward during chaotic and violent circumstances that were widely broadcast around the world. His death marked the definitive end of his rule and the collapse of the political system he had created.

The fall of Gaddafi represents one of the most dramatic political endings in modern history. A leader who once presented himself as the "King of Kings of Africa," a revolutionary icon, and a defiant opponent of Western power ultimately fell not through a traditional coup or negotiated transition, but through a combination of internal uprising, civil war, and international military intervention. His downfall left Libya in a state of deep political fragmentation, the consequences of which continue to shape the country long after his death.

bro made it different than the other ones

The fall of Muammar Gaddafi did not begin in 2011—it began long before, slowly forming beneath the surface of a system that had ruled Libya for more than four decades. By the time he had taken the title "King of Kings of Africa," Gaddafi was no longer just a revolutionary leader; he had become the center of an entire political structure that depended heavily on personal authority, shifting alliances, and tight control over state institutions. But systems built around one figure carry a hidden weakness: when that figure is challenged, the entire structure can shake at once.

In the years leading up to his fall, Libya looked stable on the surface. Oil revenues were strong, diplomatic relations with Western countries had improved after years of sanctions, and Gaddafi had re-entered global politics as a controversial but accepted actor. Foreign leaders visited Tripoli, international companies returned, and Libya was no longer the isolated state it once had been. However, stability did not mean unity. Beneath official narratives of development and reconciliation, Libya remained politically rigid. Power was centralized,

dissent was tightly controlled, and many younger Libyans felt disconnected from the system that governed them. The revolutionary ideology that once energized the country had, for many, turned into a structure of surveillance and limitation.

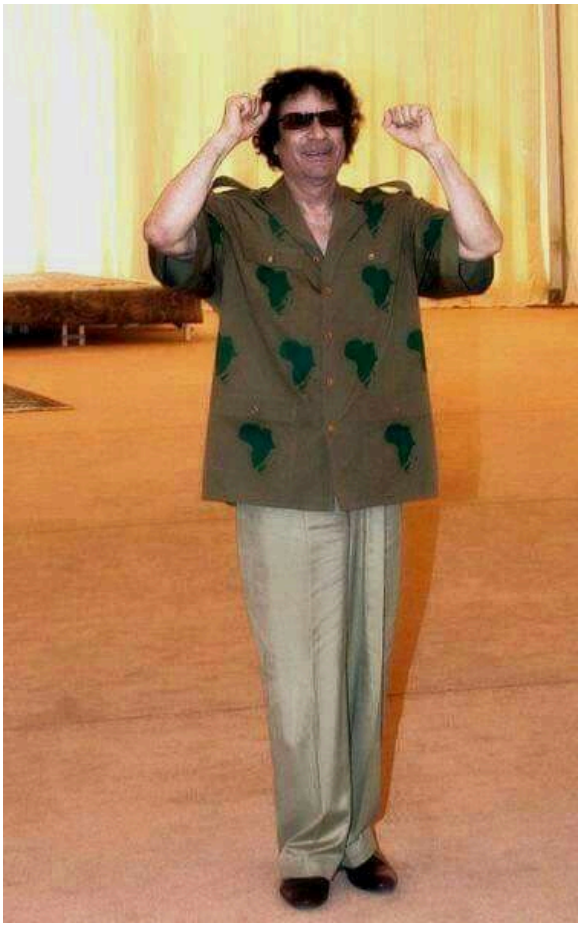
When the wave of uprisings known as the Arab Spring began spreading across the region in 2011, Libya did not initially appear to be the most likely candidate for immediate collapse. But once protests began, they moved quickly from isolated gatherings to widespread demonstrations, particularly in the eastern city of Benghazi. What made Libya different from other states at the time was how fast these protests transformed into armed resistance. Security forces responded with force, and that response dramatically changed the nature of the conflict. What had begun as political demonstrations became a full-scale confrontation between state power and armed opposition groups.

At this stage, the fall of Gaddafi's system started accelerating. Military defections weakened government control, as entire units and commanders broke away from the regime and joined the opposition. Libya's geography also played a role in the collapse. The country's vast desert terrain and decentralized tribal structure made it difficult to maintain unified control once central authority began weakening. Instead of a single front, the country fractured into multiple zones of influence almost overnight. The illusion of total control that had lasted for decades began to dissolve.

International involvement then reshaped the trajectory of the conflict. As reports of violence increased, global attention intensified. A coalition led by NATO intervened militarily, enforcing no-fly zones and conducting airstrikes against government forces. This intervention did not create the rebellion, but it significantly altered its balance. Rebel groups gained protection from aerial attacks, while government forces lost key strategic advantages. The war became faster, more fragmented, and increasingly unpredictable. Cities changed hands repeatedly, and the once-centralized state structure effectively began to collapse into competing armed groups.

Inside Libya, Gaddafi's response was to double down on resistance. In public appearances and audio messages, he rejected the legitimacy of the uprising, describing it as foreign interference and a conspiracy

against Libya's independence. He appealed to loyalty, nationalism, and fear of chaos, attempting to rally supporters around the idea that the state itself was under attack. However, his control over communication, military coordination, and territorial authority was steadily shrinking. What remained of his power depended on loyal pockets of resistance rather than unified national control.



By mid-2011, the fall had become visible in concrete terms. Rebel forces advanced toward Tripoli, and government defenses weakened under sustained pressure. When the capital eventually fell, it marked not just a military defeat but the symbolic end of a political era. The central authority that had governed Libya since 1969 effectively dissolved in a matter of months. Gaddafi himself fled, moving between remaining loyalist areas as his options narrowed.

The final collapse took place in Sirte, a city that had both symbolic and strategic importance as one of Gaddafi's strongholds. Surrounded and outnumbered, he attempted to escape as opposition fighters closed in. His capture and death in October 2011 did not occur in a formal battlefield setting but in the chaotic closing moments of a

collapsing state. With his death, the system he had built over forty-two years ended abruptly, not through a structured transition but through fragmentation and force.

The fall of Gaddafi was not simply the removal of a leader, it was the disintegration of an entire political order built around him. The speed of the collapse revealed how deeply centralized systems can weaken when legitimacy, control, and loyalty begin to fracture at the same time. What remained afterward was not a stable successor state, but a divided landscape still shaped by the long shadow of his rule.

vi.”What did I do to you.”

The final hours of Muammar Gaddafi unfolded during the complete collapse of the system he had ruled for more than forty years. By October 2011, Libya was no longer a functioning centralized state. Military command had broken apart, cities were controlled by different armed groups, and loyalist forces were retreating rapidly as rebel fighters advanced with the support of NATO air strikes. Gaddafi, once the most powerful figure in the country, was no longer issuing orders from a stable capital or protected residence. Instead, he was constantly moving between insecure locations, relying on small groups of remaining loyal fighters while trying to avoid detection in an environment that had turned against him.

In the final days, Sirte became the last major stronghold of his support. The city was under heavy siege, with intense street fighting and widespread destruction. Communication between loyalist units was minimal or completely lost, and coordination had largely disintegrated. Many of his supporters had already surrendered or fled, leaving him increasingly isolated. The authority he once exercised through state institutions, intelligence networks, and military command had effectively disappeared. What remained was a collapsing defense surrounded by advancing opposition forces.

On October 20, 2011, Gaddafi attempted to escape Sirte in a convoy of vehicles along with a small number of loyal fighters and close associates. The convoy moved through the outskirts of the city under extreme pressure as rebel forces closed in. During this attempt, NATO air power struck the convoy, destroying several vehicles and scattering

those inside. The sudden attack created complete confusion, forcing survivors to abandon any coordinated escape and seek immediate cover wherever possible. At this stage, survival replaced command, and leadership structures no longer existed in practice.

Gaddafi and a small group of companions took refuge in a large drainage pipe near the road, hoping to hide from the fighting and avoid immediate capture. However, rebel fighters soon located the area and surrounded it. The situation escalated quickly into a chaotic confrontation. Gaddafi was pulled out alive, injured, and disoriented, no longer protected by any organized force or institutional authority. The moment marked a complete reversal from his decades of absolute power.

Witness accounts from this moment describe confusion, shouting, and disorder. Among the phrases attributed to him during his capture, the most frequently reported is “What did I do to you.” This line is not officially recorded or confirmed in a formal transcript, but it appears repeatedly in eyewitness recollections and has become symbolic of his final moments. It reflects the sudden collapse of his position from a long-ruling head of state to a captured individual in a rapidly disintegrating battlefield environment.

Shortly after his capture, Gaddafi was killed amid continuing chaos. His death did not occur within any legal or structured process, but during the final breakdown of the conflict in Sirte. The exact details remain disputed due to the absence of official documentation and the highly unstable conditions at the time.

The final hours of Muammar Gaddafi therefore represent the abrupt end of a long political era. A leader who once controlled a highly centralized system of power found himself, within a very short period, reduced to a fugitive figure in a collapsing war zone. His last reported words, “What did I do to you,” are remembered not as a formal declaration, but as a fragment that captures the shock, confusion, and sudden reversal of authority that defined his final moments.

b. The Family of Gaddafi

After the death of Gaddafi in 2011, his family had been separated and were living in different countries.

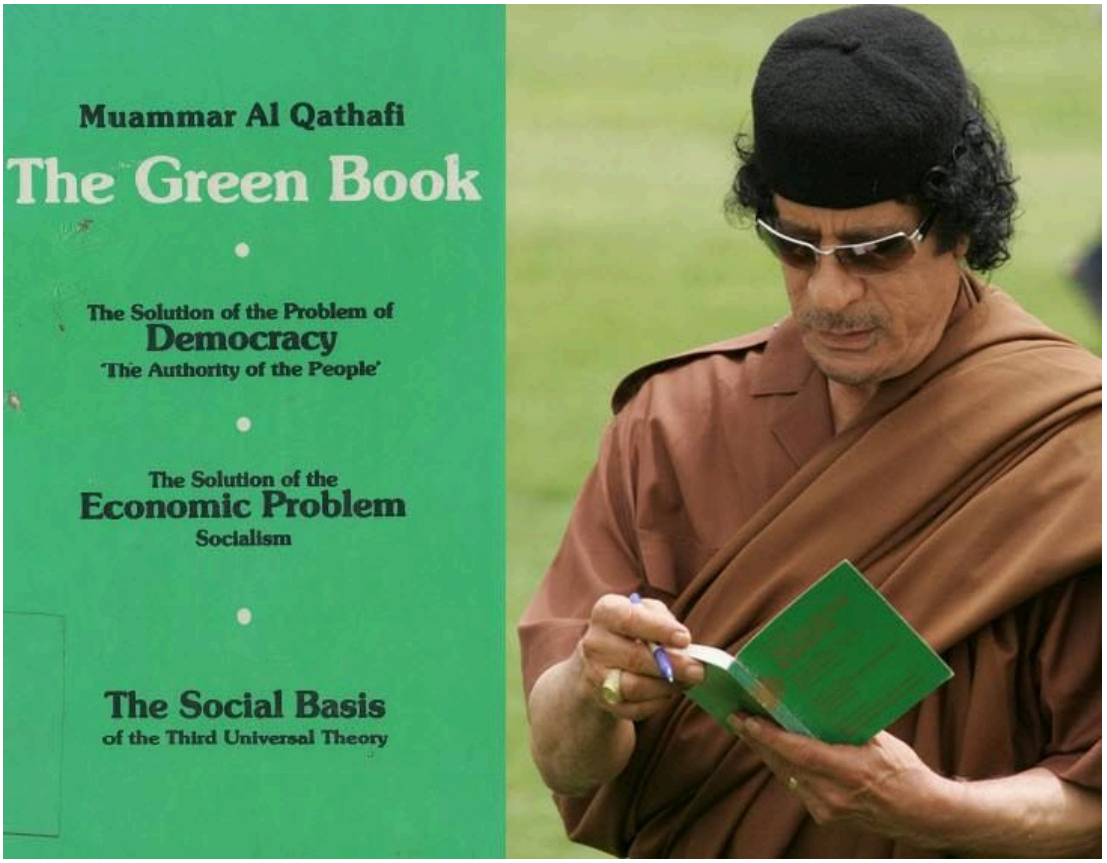
He had 10 children and 8 of them was his biological child and mother of 4 of them was Safiya Farkash, his second wife. His first child was Muhammed Gaddafi. He was not keen on being a politician, he was a sportsman. His second child was Saif al-Islam Gaddafi. He had been thought of as the president after Muammar Gaddafi by people but when his father died in the United States of America, he escaped to different countries. Saadi Gaddafi was his third child. He was not keen on being a politician like his big brother and he was a football player. His fourth child was Mutassim Gaddafi. He was a career soldier who served as Libya's National Security Advisor. He was considered a hardline rival to his brother Saif al-Islam and died alongside his father in 2011. His fifth child was Hannibal Gaddafi. He controlled Libya's sea transport and oil export interests. His sixth child was Ayesha Gaddafi.

She was Gaddafi's only biological daughter. She was a lawyer by profession, she earned the nickname "the Claudia Schiffer of North Africa" in the media and was part of the legal defense team for Saddam Hussein. His seventh child was Saif al-Arab. He was the most low-profile of the siblings. He spent much of his time in Germany and was killed during a NATO airstrike in Tripoli in April 2011. And his last biological child was Khamis Gaddafi. The youngest son, he received military training in Russia and commanded the elite “Khamis Brigade”, the most powerful unit of the Libyan military. He was reported killed during the civil war in 2011.

2 of his children were his stepchilds. His first stepchild was Hana Gaddafi. For decades, the Gaddafi regime claimed that Hana, then just an infant, was killed during the 1986 U.S. airstrikes on Tripoli. She was turned into a "martyr of the revolution," and her image was used to fuel anti-Western sentiment. His last and second stepchild was Milad Abuztaia Gaddafi. He was the life-saver of his father during the 1986 U.S. bombing.

c. The Way Gaddafi Ruled

He had been ruling the country with some rules which were performed with councils of peoples on the paper. He was a dictator and only did what he did with selfpower which he gave himself but he was not a fascist, he cared about his society. He gave houses and cars to the people who were newly married. He explained everything about his ideology in his book, Green Book. He rejected both capitalism and communism. He wanted to give his society a peaceful life with free education and health systems. But while he was wanting it, he pushed the voices of people and prevented people from being dissident. He decreased the power of ministries and collected all power at himself and his close circle.



d. The Current Situation of Libya

Since the end of the 2011 revolution, Libya has remained in a state of prolonged political fragmentation and socio-economic instability. The

nation is currently divided between two primary administrations: the Government of National Unity (GNU) in the west, based in Tripoli, and a rival administration in the east, supported by the Libyan National Army (LNA). Although a fragile ceasefire has prevented a return to large-scale warfare, the political process is frequently hindered by a lack of consensus regarding the legal framework for national elections.

From an economic perspective, Libya continues to be heavily dependent on its hydrocarbon exports. While oil production has recently reached significant milestones, the benefits are not uniformly felt by the population. Frequent fluctuations in the value of the Libyan dinar and a high poverty rate contribute to a challenging daily environment for many citizens. Furthermore, recent reports concerning the death of Saif al-Islam Gaddafi have introduced new uncertainties into the regional power balance, particularly in the southern regions. Consequently, while local governance efforts and infrastructure projects offer glimpses of progress, the path toward a unified and fully sovereign state remains obstructed by deep-seated institutional divisions.