

MUNLAWS 19

STUDY

GUIDE

SECURITY COUNCIL

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Introduction to the Committee

The purpose of this study guide is to provide the delegates of Security Council at MUNLawS 2019 some background information and to help them better prepare for the exciting debate at the conference. This document is only an introduction or overview of the topics and should not replace further preparation from the standpoint of each delegate's specific country. The authors try to portrait historic developments that led to each situation, the Security Council needs to deal with, geographic, political, cultural and economic aspects of the issues, as well as some positions of the member states directly involved.

The main purpose of Security Council is maintaining peace and security in the World, that saw many unfortunate and tragic events in its history. This body's decisions and resolutions are legally binding for all members of the United Nations under the Charter of the UN. The Council is comprised of 15 members, of which 5 are permanent (China, France, Russian Federation, United Kingdom and United States) and 10 non-permanent. They are elected for two-year terms by the General Assembly. Current non-permanent members of the Security Council are: Belgium (mandate until 2020), Côte d'Ivoire (2019), Dominican Republic (2020), Equatorial Guinea (2019), Germany (2020), Indonesia (2020), Kuwait (2019), Peru (2019), Poland (2019), Republic of South Africa (2020) (Reference: Official website of the Security Council).

The Security Council of MUNLawS 2019 will have the same composition and will additionally have two chairs who will preside over the debate. Each delegate is expected to write their position paper, which reflects member states' stance on the matter at hand. The position papers must be written in accordance with Position Paper Guidelines, published on MUNLawS official webpage and all the other instructions provided by the Secretariat. Should there be no 'against' vote by any of the Permanent 5 members, the Council is expected to adopt a final resolution on the agenda under consideration.

The Situation in Venezuela

By Peter Grašič

Introduction

The Venezuelan crisis has been severely impacting its people, neighbouring countries and even the global community since 2013 without significant progress being made in resolving the issues. The economic crisis which arose due to Venezuela's dependency on petrol exports has left the population in extreme poverty, forcing many to flee the country. The situation further escalated when President of the National Assembly, Juan Guaido, declared Nicolas Maduro as the illegitimate president, claiming the presidency for himself and thus creating a power struggle between the two. Maduro's government has also been accused of unjust imprisonment, torture, executions and kidnappings of political dissidents and journalists. The Venezuelan crisis therefore entails humanitarian, economic, and ideological issues, which need to be resolved with utmost importance.

Development

During the leadership of Hugo Chavez, Venezuela's dependency on oil exports paid off as the oil prices surged in 2004. Chavez implemented various social policies, such as food subsidies, healthcare and improved education, all of which depended on the money from petroleum production. The fall of oil prices posed a threat to the sustainability of these programs, as Chavez did not scale back on the oil dependency while simultaneously creating a large deficit in the country's budget. Chavez died in 2013, leaving the country to be ruled by Nicolas Maduro, who he had chosen to be his successor (Vox, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). Maduro was elected to lead the country the same year, however his instatement was met with revolt - the opposition claimed the elections to be fraudulent and protests erupted shortly afterwards (Al Jazeera, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). The opposition leaders were arrested, which only increased the uprising.

In 2014, the oil prices plummeted, and Venezuelan economy took a great hit - the GDP decreased by 3.8% in 2014, by 6.2% in 2015 and by 10% in 2016 (CNN Money, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). Hyperinflation started to trouble the country - the Central Bank of Venezuela estimates that the inflation rate of the Venezuelan

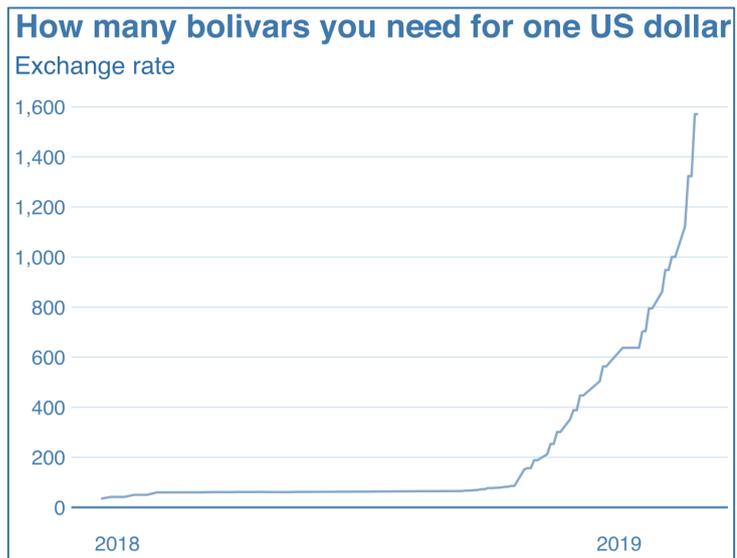


Figure 1: Exchange rate between USD and Bolivar

bolivar between 2016 and April 2019 to be 53,798,500% (Wikipedia, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). As seen in Figure 1, the exchange rate between Venezuelan bolivar and U.S. dollar has risen exponentially between the years 2018 and 2019. Due to this a black market had emerged, where the goods are traded for U.S. dollars. The elite, especially the military, exploits it by taking advantage of the official exchange rate only accessible to them, effectively keeping Maduro in power (Express, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). In 2018, in an attempt to battle hyperinflation, Maduro had announced a plan to erase five zeros off the currency, however, in just a matter of days, the prices already doubled (Washington Post, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019).

In 2015, the opposition gained control of the legislative body, National Assembly, due to growing disapproval of Maduro's party. In response, Maduro replaced the Supreme Court justices with his proponents and held a vote to elect a new body called National Constituent Assembly, which would in essence replace the existing National Assembly with a slight change - the new body had the powers to rewrite Venezuelan constitution, furthering Maduro's grasp the three branches of government. The National Constituent Assembly is of course deemed illegitimate by the opposition-controlled National Assembly (The Wall Street Journal, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019).

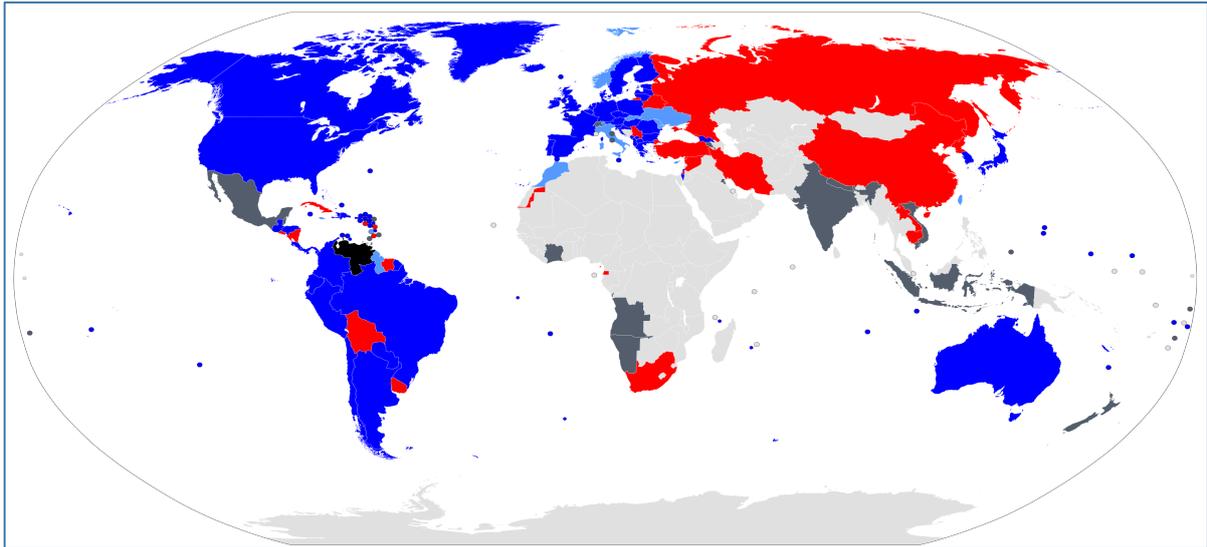


Figure 2: Recognition of presidential power

New elections were held in 2018, which were boycotted by opposition, resulting in low voter turnout and allegations of fraudulence, namely vote-buying. The official election

Nations recognizing presidential power as of 12 July 2019:

- Venezuela
- Vocal neutrality
- No statement
- Support [National Assembly](#)
- Recognize Guaidó
- Recognize Maduro

results determined Maduro to be the winner, however the United States and Lima Group (a multilateral body, consisting of 12 American countries) rejected the outcome of election. After the Maduro's inauguration, the President of the National Assembly Juan Guaidó declared himself the rightful president of the Venezuelan state, citing Article 233 of Venezuelan constitution, which states that in absence of President, new elections need to be held and, in the meantime, the President of the National Assembly acts as provisional president (Opinio Juris, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). Some of the countries, such as the United States and majority of European countries have expressed their recognition of Guaidó as legitimate interim president, while others, such as Russia and China, have continued to have diplomatic relations with Maduro's government (Wikipedia, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019), effectively creating two voting blocs inside the Security Council. The countries in support of Guaidó, especially the United States, are calling for Venezuela to carry out free and fair elections to ensure a democratically elected president (White House, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019), while the countries supporting Maduro consider him to be elected rightfully.

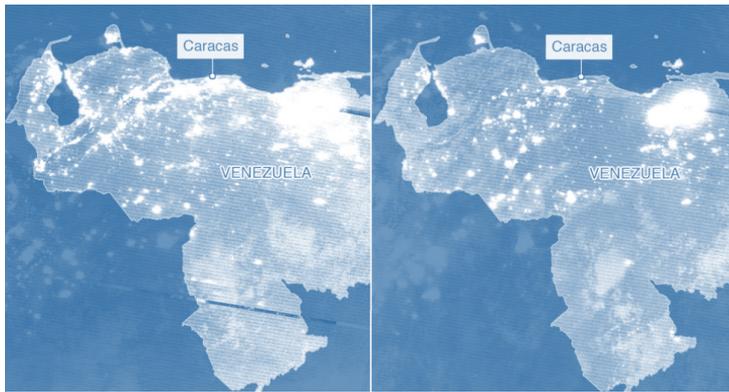


Figure 3: Power struggle in Venezuela. Image from March 7th on the left and March 8th on the right.

This power struggle has resulted in various other issues - Guaidó called for humanitarian aid to be sent to the impoverished citizens, and the United States responded by sending 180 metric tonnes of supplies (John Bolton, Twitter, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019).

Maduro in turn closed the borders, while the citizens who wanted to assist the transportation of the aid from Brazil to Venezuela revolt on both sides (BBC, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). Maduro's government has also been accused of burning the aid sent to his people (The Straits Times, accessed on 29. Aug. 2018), while Guaidó and the countries that support him were accused by Maduro of plotting a number of coups. Representatives of Venezuelan government and opposition have held peaceful talks in Oslo and Barbados, which did not have any significant results, however both sides have agreed to their continuation (BBC, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019). Many attempts have also been made by the UN Security Council to resolve the crisis but have not resulted in a noteworthy and productive resolution - in February 2019, two resolutions had been proposed, one by countries that support Guaidó, and one by countries that support Maduro. Both of them failed to pass (UN News, accessed on 30. Aug. 2019).



Figure 4: Paper money becoming obsolete due to hyperinflation thrown on the streets

Living conditions all over the country are rapidly worsening with the hyperinflation crippling people's access to basic necessities, all while enduring recurring power outages, which among other issues affect the water distribution system and already low supplies of food and medicine. Among other issues, because of the living conditions and decreased access to medical care, infant

mortality rate has risen to a such degree, it has set back pre-crisis efforts to reduce it by 18 years (The Washington Post, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). Maduro's government had been denying humanitarian aid to the country as of April 2019, when they allowed Red Cross to deliver medical equipment. Maduro claimed that the reports of humanitarian crisis were false and politically influenced, therefore he denied the aid from the governments backing Guaido (BBC, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). UN agencies report that over four million people have already fled the country, deeming it one of the worst refugee crises. The country is also experiencing significant brain drain, since many of those refugees are highly skilled workers, such as doctors and nurses (The Washington Post, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). UNHCR and International Organization for Migration (IOM) have said in the joint statement that Venezuelans are now "one of the single largest population groups displaced from their country" (BBC, accessed on 29. Aug. 2019), however, these figures have been disputed by Vice-President Delcy Rodríguez, as he deemed them to be over-exaggerated in order to give justification for a military intervention (BBC, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). The civilian population is the most vulnerable one in this crisis, however their conditions are worsening day by day.

The Venezuelan crisis also poses a threat to free speech - Maduro had been expelling and arresting journalists in attempt to further his grasp on power. The intimidation was further intensified by the government ordering newsrooms to avoid covering opposition rallies and speeches, closing down radio stations, raiding TV channel offices, and blocking websites. Additionally, according to an anonymous reporter, Guaido cannot be interviewed or being referred to as the president by the TV networks to avoid being shut down (The Washington Post, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). In February this year, Univision anchor Jorge Ramos and his crew were deported from Venezuela to Miami (The Guardian, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019) after being detained during an interview with Maduro. Ramos claims Maduro was shown footage of people eating off a garbage truck because of the lack of food (The Time, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). Furthermore, Maduro had been expelling foreign diplomats, working in the country. German ambassador to Venezuela, Daniel Kriener had been declared a persona non grata and accused of meddling in internal affairs after helping Juan Guaidó return to Venezuela. Venezuela's foreign ministry had given a reason for his expulsion to be

that they would not accept foreign diplomats to be aligned with conspiracy agenda of the extremist sectors of the opposition (BBC, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). Mr Kriener has since returned to Caracas (Deutsche Welle, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). The U.S. diplomats have also been threatened with expulsion, but the U.S. did not relent, making Maduro's government to backtrack and provide a 30-day window for negotiations with the U.S. officials (Al Jazeera, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019).

Moreover, according to Human Rights Watch, Maduro's government is carrying out a crackdown on political opponents and protest activity. The organization claims that in 2018 "Venezuelan prisons and intelligence services offices held more than 230 political prisoners". The opposition leader Leopoldo Lopez was, among others, reported to be serving a sentence under house arrest, as he was charged with inciting violence during an anti-government demonstration in Caracas, even though the charge was lacking in credible evidence. Many political opponents are awaiting trial in detention, and many of them were forced into exile. The anti-government demonstrations were met with brutal force from Venezuelan security forces and armed pro-government groups called "colectivos" - the demonstrators were shot at and brutally beaten, even if they were not resisting, apartment buildings were violently raided. Since 2014, more than 12,500 people were arrested for crimes regarding the demonstrations, including peaceful demonstrators, bystanders and people removed from their homes without warrants. Other forms of violence carried out by security forces were electric shocks, asphyxiation, and sexual abuse.

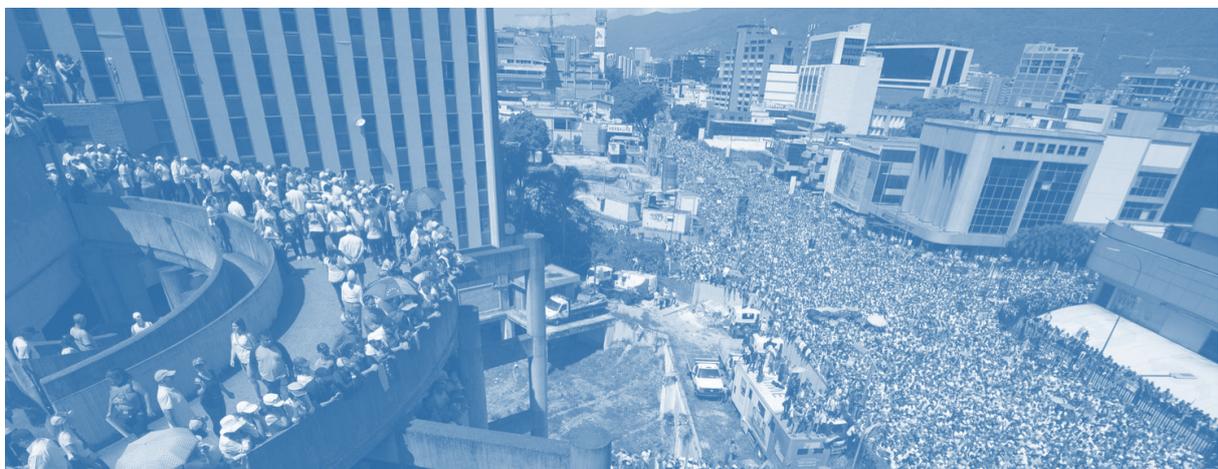


Figure 5: Protests on the streets of Caracas

Maduro's government was also accused of extra-judicial killings - the government launched "Operation Peoples' Liberation" in 2015, in which the police and members of Bolivarian National Guard (part of the National Armed forces of Venezuela) raided several buildings, creating allegations of extra-judicial killings, mass arbitrary detentions, forced evictions, arbitrary deportations and destruction of homes. Victims of such killings were claimed by government officials to be killed in confrontations, while in many cases, witnesses and family members of victims claim otherwise (Human Rights Watch, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019).

The Security Council has so far discussed Venezuelan crisis once under "any other business" and in two Arria-formula meetings. The first formal discussion on Venezuela crisis was in January 2019 on a meeting, requested by the United States and in which U.S. Secretary of State Mike Pompeo and the foreign minister of Venezuela, Jorge Arreaza participated (Security Council Report, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). The meeting was requested due to Juan Guaido invoking article 233 of Venezuelan constitution and declaring himself interim president (What's in Blue, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). In February 2019, the Security Council voted on two separate draft resolutions regarding the issue, one proposed by the United States and one proposed by Russian Federation. The former was vetoed by Russian Federation and China, while the latter failed to garner enough votes (What's in Blue, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019). In April 2019, the Security Council met again, this time to address the humanitarian situation in the country (Security Council Report, accessed on 31. Aug. 2019).

Issues to Address

The **power struggle** between Maduro and Guaidó poses a great threat, as it can result in violent coup or violent civil uprising if tensions increase, all while crippling the possibility of outside help. Delegates are encouraged to discuss what Security Council can do to resolve the question of the legitimate presidency and thus prevent more violence to take place. **Humanitarian crisis**, especially the lack of food, water, and medicine poses a great threat to the increase of inter-civilian violence and clashes between civilians and Maduro-backed forces. Malnutrition and lack of basic healthcare are already threatening millions of lives inside the country. Numbers of **refugees** are becoming a burden on the neighbouring countries, as they lack the resources for such huge numbers. Delegates should discuss how the Security Council can use its powers to resolve the humanitarian crisis and help neighbouring countries with the increasing numbers of people seeking refuge. **Free speech obstructions and alleged human rights abuses** by the Maduro's government should also be addressed.

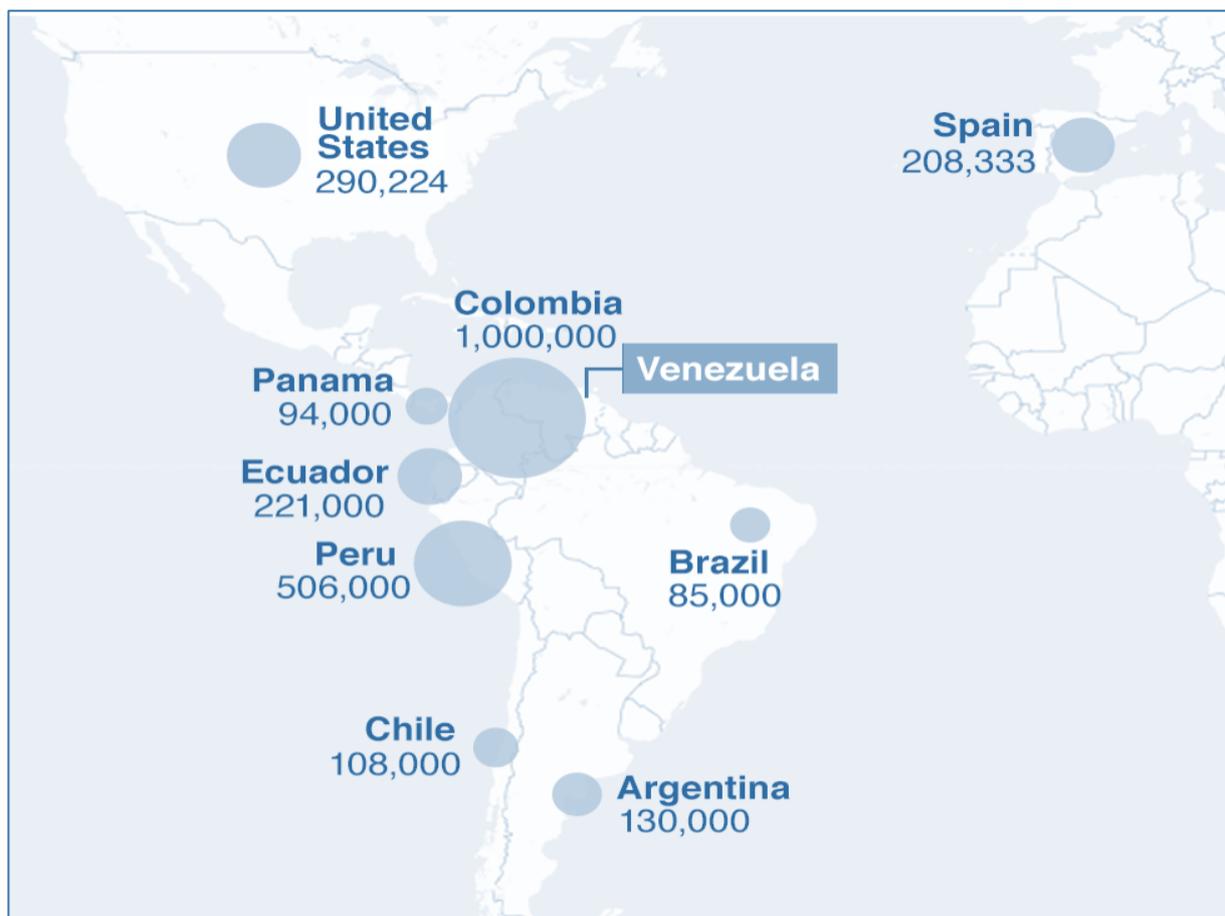


Figure 6: Main destinations of Venezuelan migrants

Recommended Further Reading

- UNSC draft resolution (proposed by United States of America) **S/2019/186**
Available on: <https://undocs.org/en/S/2019/186>
- UNSC draft resolution (proposed by Russian Federation) **S/2019/190**
Available on: <https://undocs.org/en/S/2019/190>
- Security Council meeting to discuss the humanitarian situation in Venezuela **S/PV.8506**
Available on: <https://undocs.org/en/S/PV.8506>
- UN General Assembly Resolution **46/182**
Available on: <https://undocs.org/A/RES/46/182>
- Security Council meeting to discuss the situation in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (proposed by the United States) **S/PV.8452**
Available on: <https://undocs.org/en/S/PV.8452>

Sources of Images

FIGURE 1: <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-latin-america-46999668>

FIGURE 2: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2019_Venezuelan_presidential_crisis

FIGURE 3: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2019_Venezuelan_blackouts

FIGURE 4: <https://i.redd.it/5l08hy28rll21.png>

FIGURE 5: <https://www.washingtonpost.com/world/2019/02/02/massive-protests-are-taking-place-venezuela-heres-what-they-look-like/>

FIGURE 6: <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-latin-america-46999668>

The Situation in Kashmir

By Gal Veber

Geographic Outline of the Area

Kashmir is a geographical region, situated in the north-western part of the Indian subcontinent in Asia. Geographically, it is bordered by the Uygur region in Xinjiang to the northeast, Tibet to the east (nowadays both part of China), Himachal, Pradesh and Punjab (Indian states) to the south, Pakistan to the west and Afghanistan to the Northwest (Britannica, accessed



Figure 7: Division of Kashmir

on 18. Sep. 2019). Politically, the region of Kashmir is divided among China (territories of Azad Kashmir and the Trans-Karakoram Tract), India (Jammu and Kashmir province) and Pakistan (Azad Kashmir and Gilgit-Baltistan). The surface of area of the region is approximately 222,000 square kilometers (Britannica, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). The area is known for its natural beauties and high political, economic, military and agriculture potential – circumstances that can help understand why the region is subject to long lasting power-play. Until the middle of the 19th century, the name Kashmir was used to describe only the Kashmir valley between Great Himalayas and the Pir Panial Range (Wikipedia, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Today, the term is used to describe the region as outlined before.

Historic Outline

The conflict between India and Pakistan over the predominantly Muslim region of Kashmir emerged in 1947. The roots of the conflict date back to the countries' colonial past (17th to 20th century), when the two countries were ruled by the British (National Geographic, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). In the same year, the partition of the Indian subcontinent occurred along religious lines. Consequently, India and Pakistan were formed and despite all, a problem of approximately 650 states, run by princes, remained within the newly formed borders (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). In theory, the inhabitants of princely states had the possibility of choice, whether to join India, Pakistan or remain independent. The power of majority population was decisive when making this historic decision. Kashmir's location meant that they could either join India or Pakistan, and this is the point where the conflict started. Maharaja Hari, at that time the ruler of Kashmir, was Hindu, whereas the majority population in the territory was Muslim (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Due to severe tensions over the decision which country to join, Hari chose to remain neutral and sought Kashmir's independence. In order to avoid further tensions, a standstill agreement with Pakistan was signed (BBC, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). It allowed the citizens of Kashmir and Pakistan to pursue further trade and travel across the border. India, on the other hand, did not sign such an agreement (National Geographic, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). In the following months, violence emerged in the newly formed countries because of the partition, and Kashmiri authorities were encouraged to join the rebellion by the Pakistani government. Western part of Kashmir was taken over by Pakistani-funded rebels in September 1947 (National Geographic, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). In the desire to gain back control, Kashmiri leader Maharaja Hari asked for India's help and military assistance and sought refuge in the country as well. In order to gain it, Kashmir would have to accede to India and become its integral part. Instrument of Accession was therefore signed in October 1947, and Kashmir was granted a special status by New Delhi authorities, which enraged leaders from the Pakistani side (National Geographic, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). The first war over Kashmir further began. It lasted until 1948, when India referred the dispute to the UN, which asked Pakistan to remove its

troops from Kashmir. In accordance with the Security Council resolution 47, India was to remove its troops too (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). The UN established a commission (United Nations Commission for India and Pakistan - UNCIP) which, in its resolution from January 5, 1949, proposed a plebiscite, so that the inhabitants of Kashmir would determine their future freely (ThoughtCo, accessed on 19. Sep. 2019). Due to the fact that former Kashmiri leader Hari fled to India, a new government needed to be formed. Sheikh Abdullah, the most influential mass leader in Kashmir at the time, became Prime Minister of the state's emergency government, which was formed in October 1948 (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). The SC Resolution 47 was ignored by the Pakistani forces, as they continued fighting and holding its portion of Kashmir, until a ceasefire agreement was signed in January 1949. 65 percent of the territory remained under Indian control and the remainder under Pakistani (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Line of Control was later established between the two possessed parts of Kashmir, and it remains a de facto border between India and Pakistan even nowadays. Special status was affirmed in Article 370 of Indian Constitution, where Kashmir was guaranteed complete independence with an exception in communications, foreign affairs and defense (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Ceasefire lasted until 1965, when tensions and fighting arose again. Ceasefire was then again established in September 1965 (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Indian PM Shastri and Pakistani President Khan signed the Tashkent Agreement in January a year later. The leaders decided to settle the dispute, however Shastri's death came in between, resulting into a deadlock on the matter at hand (Learning Religion, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). A third war started in 1971, when a new country, formerly referred to as East Pakistan, was formed: Bangladesh. As the war broke out in 'East Pakistan', India experienced an influx of over one million refugees (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). After Indian troops marched into Dhaka (today the capital of Bangladesh) and blocked Pakistani port city of Karachi, a ceasefire was reached once again. Indira Gandhi and Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, leaders of India and Pakistan, signed the Simla Agreement in 1972 and renewed commitments from the Tashkent Agreement. The countries also agreed to settle the dispute by peaceful means (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Both sides managed to maintain status quo as domestic issues dominated their agendas. Status quo lasted until 1989 when pro-Pakistani paramilitary forces struck in the



Figure 8: Detailed conflict map

Indian Kashmir valley. The guerillas established a terror regime and forced out almost all of the Hindu population, until Indian army interfered. Fire was also regularly being exchanged in the border area (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). By 1998, both countries, India and Pakistan,

successfully tested and obtained nuclear weapons (Arms Control Association, accessed on 19. Sep. 2019), adding a new element to the already ‘spicy’ and long-lasting conflict. It is important to note in this regard, that both countries obtained the lethal military assets contrary to the provisions of the 1968 Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty. In July 1999, Indian customs officials intercepted a shipment of nuclear missiles components from North Korea, which were supposedly designed for Pakistan’s Nuclear Programme (Telegraph, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). By July 1999, following intense two-months long fighting in the western part of Kashmir, India managed to obtain crucial parts of Kashmir, which led to withdrawal of Pakistani forces in the same month (Learn Religions, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Pakistani terrorist movements performed several attacks on the Kashmir Assembly and the Parliament of India in New Delhi, in 2001 (Learn Religions, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). The countries once again drove into a war-like situation, however no calls for ‘official’ war have been made. In the year that followed, military presence along the two countries’ borders had been increasing, diplomatic ties and transport links had been cut off. Inhabitants of the area feared of another, fourth, war in 50 years of Kashmir’s heated history (Learn Religions, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). In 2010, major protests emerged in the area under India’s jurisdiction after a protester was killed by the Indian armed forces. Indian State Human Rights Commission also confirmed presence of more than 2000 unidentified bodies along the line of control (LOC) (BBC, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Indian and Pakistani Prime Ministers met in 2013 and agreed to reduce the number of conflicts, which had been escalating over the previous years, along the LOC, however no significant progress had

been made in years to follow (BBC, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). As the violent clashes continued, the worst attack since 2000 was performed by Pakistani Militants, leaving at least 7 dead and 16 injured (BBC, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). In August 2019, Indian administration, led by Prime Minister Modi, stripped Kashmir of its special Article 370 status, removed its autonomy and legally made the area a part of India (National Geographic, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Tensions escalated even further, and the situation remains unchanged until the time of writing.

This paragraph provides a brief historic outline, some events had to be left out. Delegates are encouraged to further read a more complete timeline of events on the following link: <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-south-asia-16069078>. As the issue is ongoing and developing, delegates are further encouraged to follow the most recent news.

UN Members Involved and their Positions

CHINA

China, among other areas, controls a part of Kashmir, called Aksai Chin (see Figure 7) Geographically, the area is an extension of the Plateau of Tibet (Britannica, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Following British invasion of the Ladakh land (a part of Kashmir region, today administered by India, subject to a dispute between China, India and Pakistan) and downfall of sovereign Sikh Confederacy (until 19th century sovereign entity in the Northern



Figure 9: Joint Pakistan-China patrols on the Xinjiang-Kashmir border in 2016.

India, today part of the wider Kashmir region), borders with China had to be redrawn, and the border of province Aksai Chin remained undetermined (KUMUN, 2016, pages 11 and 12). Until 1950s, this portion of land was of no significant interest to the parties involved

with the conflict due to its remoteness (Britannica, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Previous boundary agreements led by British negotiators (e.g. Johnson Line of 1865, Macartney-Macdonald Line of 1899) have been continuously rejected by the Chinese. In the 1950s, China decided to build a military road in the area, connecting Tibet with Xinjiang, providing them a strategic access (Britannica, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019) They also obtained important control over passes in the region between India and Tibet. As Indians discovered the road, border clashes between the two countries began, leading to the Sino-Indian war in 1962. As the conflict subsided, China retained approximately 38,000 square kilometers of Aksai Ching (Wikipedia, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Until 1980s when India-China diplomatic relations started to improve, China's support leaned towards Pakistani stance. By 1990s, Chinese position slightly changed, as they started to treat the Kashmir issue as bilateral, further calling for peaceful resolution of the conflict. Analysts believe that China's shift in foreign policy is connected with economic decline of Pakistan and advancement of Indian economic power. The change was also most likely affected by Beijing's fear from escalation of the conflict into a nuclear catastrophe, right at China's doorstep (CLAWS Journal, 2016, page 68). Nowadays, China slowly tends to increase its military presence in the region and is also pursuing further infrastructure development projects with Pakistan (e.g. China Pakistan Economic Corridor - CPEC) (CPEC, accessed on 19. Sep. 2019). They expressed concerns over revocation of Article 370 status and continue to call for peaceful resolution (The Economic Times, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019).



Figure 10: Meeting of Indian PM Modi and Chinese president Xi Jinping. India-China diplomatic relations have improved since the Sino-India war in 1962.

PAKISTAN

Islamic Republic of Pakistan is one of the nations directly involved with the conflict. They justify their claim over Kashmir due to its ethnic composition: a Muslim majority that resides within the area. They believe, that Pakistani government is the only one that can assure prosperous life and future for local inhabitants. The ‘Two Nations Theory’, which consequently led to partition of Indian Subcontinent is widely supported by Pakistani politicians, who believe that the theory should apply to Kashmir as well, given the fact that



Figure 11: Protests against Indian presence in Kashmir

it is predominantly Muslim territory, and the Indians continue to ignore plebiscite that was promised decades ago (Kashmiri Library, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Pakistani authorities are in regular contacts with local tribes, that support (potential) Pakistani rule in Kashmir. Supposedly, Pakistani politicians

and other influential individuals provide monetary and material assets to the rebel groups, which have been involved with several incidents and attacks before (KUMUN, 2016, page 16). Those circumstances increase India’s troops’ need to remain present in the area. Pakistan also argues that India did not abide by the Standstill Agreement, further stating that Kashmiri inhabitants of Muslim faith have been subjects to maltreating, abuse and extrajudicial punishments. Accession of 1947 was in their view an act of distress by Maharaja Hari Singh and is therefore not valid because it does not represent free will of the people. Islamabad believes that the partition of the Subcontinent is unfinished in the territory of Kashmir and that a plebiscite should be held in due course as the only possible solution to the long-lasting dispute. The so-called terrorists are, in Pakistani words, fighting for freedom of their oppressed brothers and that claims regarding terrorism are not justified (Kashmiri Library, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019).

INDIA

India argues that Kashmir is an integral part of its territory and that the Instrument of Accession from 1947 is legal and non-disputed. In the country's view, Pakistan is illegally occupying the territory referred to as Azad Kashmir, which in India's view does not exist. Additionally, Indian administration states that events in Kashmir are an internal matter and that international community should stay away from interfering. They also reject any calls for plebiscite and believe that the will of the people can be asserted by indirect democracy, which is a fair substitute to the direct one. People of the province Jammu and Kashmir have, in Indian words, regularly participated in such elections and that the officials are able to conclude that they are satisfied with being under Indian jurisdiction (Kashmiri Library, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019). Furthermore, Delhi believes that the situation in Kashmir would be different and easier should Pakistan refrain from funding terrorist and rebel groups which bring instability to the already ethnically mixed area. Supposedly, there is no need for international response to 'alleged' human right violations, as sufficient judicial mechanisms already exist. India stands ready to hold further dialogue, but only and as long as Kashmir remains part of their country (Kashmiri Library, accessed on 18. Sep. 2019).



Figure 12: Pakistani protesters clash with Indian military personnel after revocation of Article 370

Final Remarks and Recommendations

This long-lasting conflict in the region of Kashmir, one of the most picturesque and strategically important areas in the world could have negative consequences for the entire international community should the conflict escalate even further. After all, there is a danger of nuclear weapons being involved. It looks like the issue is far from bilateral one and that international community will have to thoroughly consider their further actions. The history of the area is extremely complex and full of important events, but due to limited space, some of them had to be left out. To get an even better picture of the situation, delegates are encouraged to watch a video 'The conflict in Kashmir, explained', produced by Vox (Link: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cyayif_nla8). The video includes thorough infographics and maps that are highly important for better understanding of the subject, as well as testimonies of local Kashmiri people who bring totally new dimensions to the story of this disputed land.

Some Questions to Consider in the Debate

- What steps have already been taken by the United Nations? Have they been adequate enough? What is your country's view on India's revocation of Kashmir's special Article 370 status?
- How could Security Council and the United Nations in general encourage parties involved to finally realize the long-awaited Kashmiri Plebiscite? Should there even be one, or should the states involved determine the future of the region bi- or trilaterally? If you do not support plebiscite, what is your country's alternative long-term proposal for Kashmir dispute resolution? Are there any examples that have been successfully settled and could be in any way applied to the subject at hand?
- Would your country support military intervention in case the situation in Kashmir deteriorates even further? Under which circumstances?
- Does your country support possession of Nuclear Weapons by India/ Pakistan (or perhaps both) in spite of the provisions of the 1968 Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty? If not, what should the Security Council or United Nations in general do to prevent any potentially hazardous armed conflicts between the states involved?

Sources of Images

FIGURE 7:

https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/Atlas_of_Kashmir#/media/File:Kashmir_map.svg
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FIGURE 8:

<https://www.nationalgeographic.com/culture/2019/03/kashmir-conflict-how-did-it-start/>
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FIGURE 9:

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FIGURE 10:

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FIGURE 11:

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FIGURE 12:

<https://www.csmonitor.com/World/Asia-South-Central/2018/0625/India-takes-direct-control-in-Kashmir-after-alliance-ends> [Accessed on 19 September 2019]

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