



United Nations Security Council

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SIMULATION 2024

COMMITTEE GUIDE

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1. Committee Information

I. History

In 1945, after the huge repercussions of World War II, society was left in diplomatic disorder. Therefore, the United Nations was established as an international organisation to maintain worldwide peace and to prevent conflicts of a severe magnitude. The United Nations Security Council is the main organism of the UN. Its primary goal is to maintain international peace and security by diplomatically addressing issues of great concern. This committee was established under the 5th chapter of the United Nations Charter on June 26th, 1945. (Jaramillo, Robles, 2020).

Throughout its history, the United Nations Security Council has been involved in belligerent conflicts, emphasising its significance in resolving threats to international security.

In The Syrian war, the Security Council's contribution to global peacekeeping was successful. Complex geopolitical and humanitarian issues were presented by the conflict, which started in 2011. The Security Council's response to the crisis included resolutions on ceasefires, humanitarian access, and dialogue, demonstrating its dedication to peacefully resolving disputes and reducing the suffering of people.

The committee has made tremendous progress towards achieving its goals by expanding its peacekeeping operations. Peacekeeping operations in places like Mali, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Cyprus have shown the Security Council's dedication to sending out international forces to stabilise troubled areas and to aid in the establishment of long-lasting peace.



II. Structure

The United Nations Security Council operates under Chapter V (articles 23 to 32) of the Charter of the United Nations, which includes the composition, functions, powers, and procedures of the entity. The following is the structure imposed by said articles:

Article 23:

1. The Security Council shall consist of fifteen members of the United Nations. The Republic of China, France, the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America will be permanent members of the Security Council. The General Assembly will elect another ten Members of the United Nations who will be non-permanent members of the Security Council, paying particular attention, first of all, to the contribution of the Members of the United Nations to the maintenance of international peace and security and to the other purposes of the organisation, as well as equitable geographical distribution.
2. Non-permanent members of the Security Council will be elected for two years. In the first election of non-permanent members held after the number of members of the Security Council has been increased from eleven to fifteen, two of the four new members will be elected for one year. Outgoing members will not be re-eligible for the subsequent period.

Each member of the Security Council will have a representative.



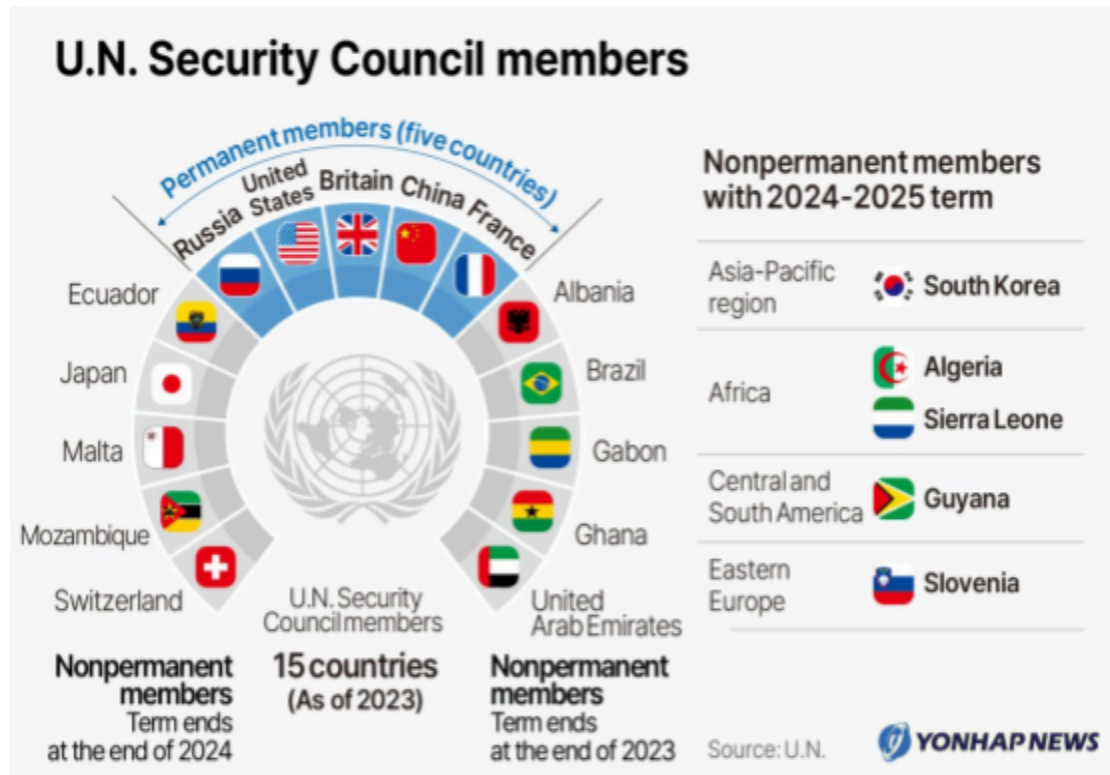


Figure 1: Security Council Members

Article 24:

1. In order to ensure rapid and effective action by the United Nations, its Members give the Security Council the primary responsibility for maintaining international peace and security and recognise that the Security Council acts on their behalf in their performance of the functions imposed by that responsibility.
2. In carrying out these functions, the Security Council shall proceed following the Purposes and Principles of the United Nations. The powers granted to the Security Council for the performance of these functions are defined in Chapters VI, VII, VIII, and XII.
3. The Security Council shall submit annual reports and, when necessary, special reports to the General Assembly.

Article 25

The Members of the United Nations agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council in accordance with the present Charter. (Charter of the United Nations, 1945).

With the above articles in mind, the current members of the United Nations Security Council are as follows:

- **Permanent:** China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States
- **Non-permanent:** Estonia, India, Ireland, Kenya, Mexico, Niger, Norway, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Tunisia, Vietnam.

* The election is held by secret ballot, and there are no nominations. Non-permanent members must be elected by a $\frac{2}{3}$ majority of all member states.

III. Model Structure

In a UN model, this is the only committee in which its delegates have the power to take a variety of actions against other delegations. During the debate it is therefore common to see how different delegations, in pursuit of their countries' interests, are able to move their nations' troops into the conflict zone. However, it must be remembered that such actions can incur an aggressive response from the opposing side, and so a plan of action must be maintained in case this happens. In order to take such actions, the delegation(s) should draw up an official document such as a press release (Directive) expressing, from their nation's perspective, the intention to move troops. This document should include the reason, the location where they will be stationed and the number of troops and other armaments to be moved.

Finally, as previously mentioned, the Security Council is the only committee which has the figures known as the veto powers. Thus, even during the model, the five

delegations possessing this power will have to vote in favour or abstain from voting on a resolution or else it will be immediately discarded. This is why the delegations present are encouraged to constantly convince those delegates to be in favour of their resolution in order to avoid the scenario presented above.

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2. Simulation Topic: *Commencing diplomatic relations between the United Nations and the Kurdish Nation*

I. History/Context

The Kurds are not officially recognised as UN members. The nations where the Kurds live have a vested interest in keeping the subject of Kurdish autonomy out of the United Nations in order to safeguard their own individual geographical integrities. This has primarily been accomplished by keeping tight control of their own minority problems. Kurds have long sought more independence or autonomy, citing cultural, racial, and historical causes. They are typically found in Syria, Turkey, Iraq, and Iran.

Kurdistan may be referred to in two different ways. The first is the Kurdistan region, Iraq's autonomous province. The second could be termed 'larger Kurdistan', a fictional country claimed by Kurdish nationalists. The Kurdistan region is an area in northern Iraq claimed by Kurds following the Iraq war in 1991. It was recognised by the Iraqi government in Baghdad in 2005, following Saddam Hussein's collapse; a referendum was held in 2017 in which 93% of ballots were cast in favour of independence.

Greater Kurdistan is a broadly defined geocultural realm in which Kurds have a majority or a historical claim to the land. It is usually made up of five areas: Southeastern Turkey, Northern Iraq, northwestern Iran, Northern Syria, and a small portion of Armenia and Azerbaijan. It's worth mentioning that many Kurdish nationalist movements demand for various bigger Kurdistans, which can often extend all the way down Iran to the Persian Gulf.

However, the Kurdish nation has never existed as a recognised state; there have been many Kurdish autonomies throughout history, but none as vast as the one today. In Turkey, the Kurdistan Workers Party, also known as the "PKK," has been

fighting the Turkish state since 1984, but they abandoned the goal of Kurdish independence in the early 2000s and now just seek to have autonomy within Turkey.

Iranian Kurds, who account for about 10% of the population, have strong nationalist sentiments, but they haven't made much progress in their claims for autonomy since Ayatollah Khomeini declared a holy war on nationalist Kurds in 1979, then proceeded to assassinate the leader of the Democratic Party of Kurdistan in 1989 and his successor in 1992. Essentially, Kurds in each of these countries have distinct political goals, which is why no contemporary Kurdish political group has made clear calls for the construction of a Greater Kurdistan.



Figure 1: Kurdistan Lag (Wikipedia)

The first example of an autonomous state is the Zohaib contract, signed in 1639 between the Ottomans and the Safavids, which established an autonomous region for the tribes between the Zagros mountains and the Tigris River, although they were not called Kurds at that time, nor was the area known as Kurdistan. The Ottoman Empire established the Kurdistan eyalet, which was an administrative division of the Ottoman Empire, in 1846; this existed until 1867, the first time any province was formally designated as Kurdistan.

Since then, several territories have been called Kurdistan for short periods of time: there was the Kurdish state in 1918; the Kingdom of Kurdistan from 1921 to 1924; and the Soviet-backed Red Kurdistan from 1923 to 1929. Nonetheless, none of these have looked like the Greater Kurdistan proposed by Kurdish nationalists today.

Given that the Kurdish Nation has never been a defined state, establishing borders was an issue for the nation throughout its history. The first officially proposed map of Kurdistan came after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire post World War I,

during the 1919 Paris Peace Conference. Kurdish delegates proposed the first map of Kurdistan, which is only a bit smaller than the greater Kurdistan region proposed by today's Kurdish nationalists.



Figure 2: First Map of Kurdistan (Edmaps)

In the end, the Treaty of Sevres (Treaty of Sevres) said that the Kurds could have their own smaller autonomous region within Turkey, and if they voted for independence within a year, then they could form their own Kurdish state. Unfortunately for the Kurds, Turkey didn't like this treaty. After winning the Turkish War of Independence, Turkey successfully renegotiated the Treaty of Lausanne (Treaty of Lausanne), which superseded the previous treaty and returned Kurdistan to Turkey with no means of independence.



Figure 3: Second Map of the autonomous Kurdistan (Edmaps)

In January 1946, Rizgari Kurd, an Iraqi Kurdish predecessor of the Kurdistan Democratic Party, made an unsuccessful formal appeal to the United Nations for Kurdish self-determination and sovereignty. Kurds created the Republic of Mahabad, a short-lived, self-governing state in the Kurdish lands of Iran that fell under Soviet authority during WWII. After the Soviets left in December 1946, Iran took back Mahabad. While in exile in the Republic of Mahabad, Mustafa Barzani, considered the founder of Kurdish nationalism, established the Kurdistan Democratic Party of Iraq. It was the only Kurdish party in Iraq until the 1970s when it was renamed the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP), which remains to this day the dominant Kurdish party.

The issue of Kurdish sovereignty arose again after World War II, when Kurdish delegates at the 1945 San Francisco conference argued that Kurdistan should extend all the way down to the Persian Gulf, despite the fact that there were few Kurds in western Iran. It seems that this third map could be the inspiration for

most of today's maps of greater Kurdistan, although it is important to mention that most Kurdish nationalist organisations no longer claim the area of western Iran that goes down to the Persian Gulf, mostly because no Kurds reside there and Iran would never consent to it.

In June 1961, Political leader General Mustafa Barzani called upon Iraq's leader General Karim Kassem to release political prisoners and end the brutality made by the Iraqi government during the Kurdish rebellion. During the following years, there were temporary truces during the conflict, even though violence did not cease. Iraqi leaders made agreements and pledges of autonomy to the Kurdish population which they then reneged upon. Furthermore, in 1974, the Kurds rejected an autonomy plan and the armed conflict continued with fierce fighting from both sides.



Figure 4: Third map of the State of Kurdistan (Edumaps)

In 1962, Syria stripped the citizenship of more than 120,000 Kurds, violating their right to nationality and labelling them as foreigners with red identity cards that led to various restrictions such as marriage, land ownership and employment.

For more information, read the following Human Rights Watch report: [HRW Syria](#).

In 1978 the Kurdistan Workers Party or the PKK was founded as a Marxist organisation by Kurdish Militants along with the help of Abdullah Öcalan a political Kurdish nationalist. This group was created with the intention of having an independent Kurdish state in areas of Turkey, Iran, Iraq and Syria. Furthermore, it was created due to the discontent of the Kurdish population of not having rights and acknowledgement.

The Baathist administration in Iraq under Saddam Hussein's rule pushed an Arabisation programme in the country's north, especially in Kirkuk and other places with sizable Kurdish populations. Deliberately designed to undermine Kurdish identity and resistance, it has resulted in tensions and territorial issues in post-Saddam Iraq. Furthermore, the 1975 Algiers Accord was a deal between Iran and Iraq to resolve their boundary issues in the Shatt al-Arab waterway.

Jalal Talabani and other Kurdish leaders established the Patriotic Union of Kurdistan (PUK) in 1975 in response to the events of Saddam Hussein's dictatorship. The PUK was a key player in the Kurdish resistance movement against Saddam Hussein's administration, working to advance the rights and interests of the Kurdish people.



Figure 5: Kurdish fighters are seen in Rawanduz, Iraq, in September 1974. Michel Artault/Gamma-Rapho/Getty Images

After the 1979 Islamic revolution in Iran, the Kurdish population made an uprising which then led to an armed conflict with the Iranian

government. Years later, during the Iran-Iraq armed conflict (1980-1988), Kurdish communities found themselves in the crossfire, therefore, their militias took up against the Iranian government, collaborating with Iraqi forces and further complicating their relations.

Continuing with Saddam Hussein's dictatorship, in 1988 the Kurdish genocide, also known as the Anfal Campaign, occurred. A deliberate and ruthless assault against the Kurdish population caused more than 100,000 deaths and was strongly condemned by the international community as a violation of human rights and acts of genocide.



Figure 6: A Kurdish father and his babe in arms were among thousands of victims of a poison gas attack on Halabja (BBC)

On April 5, 1991, the United Nations Security Council passed Resolution 688, which denounced the repression of the Iraqi civilian population in Kurdish-populated areas and urged that Iraq put an end to the suppression of its population. “Condemns the repression of the Iraqi civilian population in many parts of Iraq, including most recently in Kurdish populated areas, the consequences of which threaten international peace and security in the region; demands that Iraq, as a contribution to removing the threat to international peace and security in the region, immediately end this repression and expresses the hope in the same context that an open dialogue will take place to ensure that the human and political rights of all Iraqi citizens are respected” (Year: 1991), 1991)

This was by far the most significant particular acknowledgement of Kurds that the UN has ever made.

The Iraqi-Kurdish Civil War started in 1994, it was a conflict between the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) and the Patriotic Union of Kurdistan (PUK). It had political and territorial disputes which led to the region being controlled by the KPD on the

western part and by the PUK in the eastern part. However, the civil war ended in 1998 with the Washington Agreement that led to the creation of the Kurdistan Regional Government (KRG).

2003 was a great step towards Kurdish autonomy; in Iraq, the US invasion terminated Saddam Hussein's regime and allowed for the KRG to operate with autonomy, establishing its own institutions and developing a thriving economy. During the same year, in Turkey, political and legal reforms were implemented known as the "Kurdish Opening" or the "Democratic Opening" to resolve the Kurdish issues in Turkey. These reforms aimed to minimise tensions between the Turkish government and Kurdish populations while advancing the rights to the Kurdish language and culture. Finally, in Syria, Kurds created the Democratic Union Party (PYD) to fight for the rights and sovereignty of their people.

The United Nations released a comprehensive report in April 2009 urging Iraqi Kurds not to advocate for a referendum on whether or not Kirkuk should be incorporated into the KRG. This advice ran counter to the Kurdish intention to execute Article 140 of Iraq's permanent constitution, which called for a referendum on the issue and was fiercely criticised by KRG President Masoud Barzan.

Some Kurdish people were awarded Syrian citizenship by President Bashar al-Assad in an effort to reduce tensions and acknowledge the Kurdish community. The Kurdistan Regional Government (KRG) in Iraq was able to increase its autonomy and diversify its trading partners. Additionally, an important step towards self-governance was taken when Kurdish organisations, mainly the Democratic Union Party and the People's Protection Units, proclaimed autonomy in Rojava, northern Syria.

II. Current Situation

The Kurds are not actually a particularly well-defined ethnic group; broadly, the Kurds are groups of tribespeople from eastern Asia Minor and the Zagros

Mountains, who are not Turkish, Arabic, or Persian speaking. Today, Kurds in different regions follow a whole variety of religions and even speak different languages, which is why smaller subgroups including Dimili, Zaza, Bakhtiyari, Luri, Alevi, Yazidis, and Kaka'i, are now considered distinct from the Kurds, even though they used to be considered Kurdish. Kurds also differ in their politics; Kurds in Iraq have their own autonomous province, whilst Kurds in Syria have carved out a de facto autonomy in the north which they call Rojava. This area exists, but may not necessarily be recognised as an autonomous area by law.

Kurdistan's borders are difficult to define because it's never had an established state in the past, it doesn't track a well-established ethnic group, and no contemporary Kurdish political party has explicitly called for its creation. The borders of greater Kurdistan are questionable, as they include non-Kurdish majority areas; however, that is a usual situation with every border, as it's basically impossible to draw borders that perfectly map ethnicity because ethnicities aren't perfectly separable. It's also notable that every large ethnic group within the region, Arabs, Persians and Turks, all enjoy, or at least have enjoyed in the past, their own ethnic majority states. Contrarily, only the Kurds have been a permanent minority, and they are alone in being a permanent minority in the region.

The Kurds have no legal status as members of Kurdistan because it is an international organisation made up of people from different sovereign independent states. To protect their own individual geographical integrities, the governments where the Kurds reside (Turkey, Iran, Iraq, and Syria) have a vested interest in keeping the Kurdish subject out of the United Nations. Therefore, the UN had nothing to do with the Kurdish issue up to the end of the first Gulf War in 1991. However, it's ironic that more than half of the UN members, who by definition have a voice in the international body, also have populations smaller than that of the Kurds. (The total population of Kurds is estimated to be around 25 to 30 million of Kurds all around the world, including communities in Armenia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Lebanon, Syria, and Europe)



The UN Charter Article 1 also lists as one of its purposes “to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights”, as well as “to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples,” and “to bring the Kurdish issue to the attention of the United Nations.” Furthermore, according to UN Charter Article 14, “the general assembly may recommend measures for the peaceful adjustment of any situation, regardless of origin, which it deems likely to impair the general welfare or friendly relations among nations”.

United Nations, Charter of the United Nations, 1945, Charter Article 14, available at: <https://legal.un.org/repertory/art14.shtml> [accessed 2 November 2023]

Recent Events

In 2015, Syrian Kurds took over Tel Abyad. The YPG (Kurdish People’s Protection Unit) forces and their allies among the Arab rebels ended their current offensive against the Islamic State with the capture of Tel Abyad, a city that was used as a transit point to the Islamic State's capital. Expanding to the Kurdish-controlled



Figure 7: YPG fighters take control of Tal Abyad, dealing a blow to the Islamic State. (Ahmet Sik/Getty Images)

territory in northern Syria, which now includes three separate, the northern part of the Jazira, the central Euphrates Region around Kobanî and in the west the area around Afrin.

As part of the fight against the Islamic State, Turkey joined in and started to bombard the group's positions in

Syria. At the same time, Turkey attacked PKK targets in Iraqi Kurdistan, putting a stop to the two-year battle. Two years later, the U.S intervened by providing arsenal aid for Syrian Kurds. As the US-led coalition against the Islamic State got ready to take Raqqa, President Donald Trump of the United States accepted a plan to arm the Syrian Democratic Forces (SDF), a militia dominated by the YPG, directly through the Defence Department.

Despite protests from the Iraqi government, Iraqi Kurdistan's voters chose independence in a referendum sponsored by the region's leadership. The central government refused to engage in negotiations and instead threatened to isolate the area, as did Iran and Turkey. KRG (Kurdistan Regional Government) President Barzani had hoped that a resounding "yes" vote would strengthen the KRG in negotiations with Baghdad regarding the secession of Iraq. However, and sadly enough, the 15-member council issued a unified statement warning that the upcoming referendum, back in 2017, would impede efforts to aid refugees in returning home and harm the military battle against the Islamic State group. The action increased pressure on Iraqi Kurdish authorities to cancel the vote, after calls from Turkey, Iran, and Iraq to do so. The United States also opposed the proposal.

As the territorial captures continued, in 2018, Erdogan, Turkey's current president, claimed that Turkish forces and allied Syrian rebels had taken complete control of

Afrin, a city in northern Syria that had been previously held by YPG forces. According to the United Nations, tens of thousands of residents were forced to leave their homes. A year-long battle followed and the Syrian Kurds announced victory over the Islamic State. The SDF (Syrian Democratic Forces) took control of areas



Figure 8: Fighters from the Syrian Democratic Forces (SDF) fly a flag in Baghouz, Syria. (Giuseppe Cacace/AFP/Getty Images)

around the Syrian town of Baghouz, near the Iraq-Syria border, the last populated area held by the Islamic State.

After the US retired their troops, Turkey moved into northern Syria. During the initial days of the invasion, hundreds of thousands of civilians exited the territory. The SDF sought assistance from the Syrian government, enabling its forces to re-enter territories long controlled by the Kurds. On the other hand, Kurdish forces agreed to withdraw from the border as part of a compromise that terminated the offensive.

The UN Security Council gathered in 2019 to talk about the military action Turkey claimed was a "measured and responsible" anti-terror operation in northeastern Syria. The majority-Kurdish forces in the area were reported as asking for immediate help in order to "save our people from genocide" in the midst of the Turkish invasion. Due to the unilateral action in northeastern Syria, there were worries about potential assaults by ISIS sleeper cells. The Kurdish-led Syrian Democratic Forces reported fighting Turkish forces and ISIS members in the area.

I. Kurdish authorities criticised U.S. representatives, charging them with abandoning the Kurds and leaving them open to attack from their foes.

II. President Trump asserted that the United States did not support the Turkish attack and that they still pulled out its soldiers from the area.

In 2020, the PKK attacked Turkish military installations, and as a result, Turkey launched two operations, aerial and ground, called "Claw-Eager and Claw-Tiger", against PKK targets in Iraqi Kurdistan. Following the murder of a Turkish diplomat that Ankara had blamed on the PKK the previous year, Turkey had started to increase its military presence in Iraq.

These attacks led to a report by UN investigators claiming that the Syrian National Army (SNA), which is supported by Turkey, committed war crimes in Syria's north. The investigation carried out during the first semester of 2020, found that the SNA committed murders, tortures, and arbitrary detentions in addition to forcing them

out of their homes. The UN team also accuses the Kurdish forces of illegal detention and kidnapping of minors.

RECENT EVENTS

In 2021, an attempt was made by the Turkish military to rescue four of its nationals who had been taken hostage by the PKK, but all of them were found dead. Ankara claimed that the PKK murdered them, but the terrorist organisation blamed a Turkish bombardment campaign. The US Department of State did not blame the PKK for the incident, however, the US found it non-beneficial to present suspicion towards Turkey given their tight relations.

Following the attempted rescue, a rocket violently struck a US military base in Erbil, (Iraq's Kurdish capital), with the aim of taking down this air base that hosted forces of the US-led coalition against the Islamic State. At least 9 people were hurt in the attack; an organisation known as Saraya Awliya al-Dam claimed the attack and declared that it would continue to target American forces, particularly those of the Kurdistan region of Iraq.

In 2022, Kurdish opposition groups in northern Iraq were bombarded by Iran for supporting anti-government demonstrations. The death of an Iranian Kurdish woman under police custody sparked protests. Attacks with missiles and aircraft kill at least twenty people in two months. The attacks there are classified as a violation of national sovereignty by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

In response to an attack that resulted in six deaths and more than eighty injuries in Istanbul on November 13, 2022, Turkey launched an aerial offensive against Kurdish militants in Iraq and Syria. Ankara blames PKK for the attack and its allies, who were supported by the United States.

li. Resolution 688 by the UN Security Council

“Condemns the repression of the Iraqi civilian population in many parts of Iraq, including most recently in Kurdish populated areas, the consequences of which

threaten international peace and security in the region; demands that Iraq, as a contribution to removing the threat to international peace and security in the region, immediately end this repression and expresses the hope in the same context that an open dialogue will take place to ensure that the human and political rights of all Iraqi citizens are respected; insists that Iraq allow immediate access by international humanitarian organizations to all those in need of assistance in all parts of Iraq and to make available all necessary facilities for their operations; requests the Secretary-General to pursue his humanitarian efforts in Iraq and to report forthwith, if appropriate on the basis of a further mission to the region, on the plight of the Iraqi civilian population, and in particular the Kurdish population, suffering from the repression in all its forms inflicted by the Iraqi authorities; requests further the Secretary-General to use all the resources at his disposal, including those of the relevant UN agencies, to address urgently the critical needs of the refugees and displaced Iraqi population.”

With all these events in mind, it is important to decide once and for all whether Kurdistan should become a country in its own right.

III. Key points of the debate

- Kurdish Nationhood: the identification of Kurds as a unique ethnic group with a common identity and cultural links.
- Autonomy vs. Independence: should Kurds pursue total independence from their nations or varied levels of autonomy within them.
- Territorial Claims: differing opinions exist over how to define Kurdistan's boundaries and the country's intended territorial size.
- UN Recognition: concerns have been raised concerning Kurdish participation in the UN organisation and its implications for global involvement.
- Human Rights and Minority Issues: concerns about overcoming the past oppression and persecution of Kurdish minorities in human rights and minority issues.

- **Role of Armed Movements:** the influence of Kurdish armed groups and their part in the Kurdish struggle.
- **International Involvement:** participation of regional and international authorities and their worries about the establishment of a Kurdish state.
- **Humanitarian Crises:** the Kurds have experienced a number of humanitarian crises, including eviction and genocidal assaults.
- **Self-Determination and International Law:** how self-determination principles relate to the fight of the Kurds.
- **Peacebuilding and Reconciliation:**
- **GOAL:** The promotion of peace, reconciliation, and communication between Kurdish populations and their various governments.

IV. Guiding questions

1. What influence would the region's peace and security have if the Kurdish Nation was recognised?
2. What existing conflicts or prospective tensions may be heightened if Kurdish independence is supported?
3. What is the neighbouring nations' stance on the Kurdish Nation's recognition, and what are they concerned about?
4. Could promoting the Kurdish nation put diplomatic ties with significant regional actors at risk?
5. Has the Kurdish Nation made any attempts to engage in diplomatic relations with the nations it wants to secede from in order to reach a peaceful resolution?
6. Does the ruling provide any precedents for other separatist movements pursuing independence, and how does it fit in with accepted international norms and principles



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