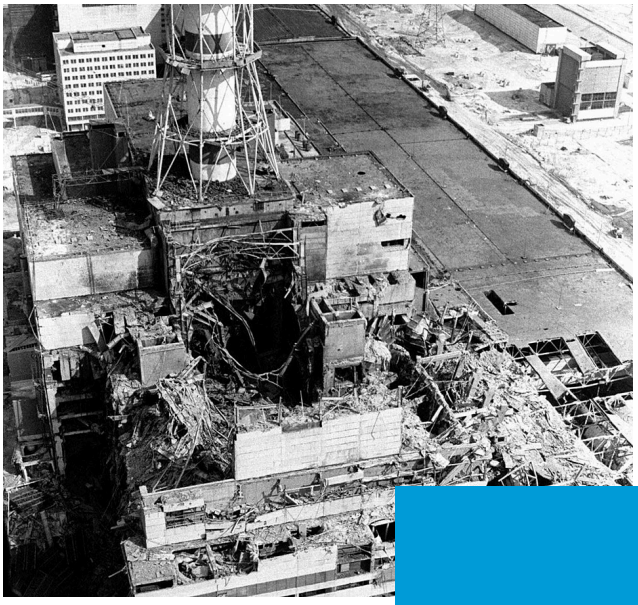
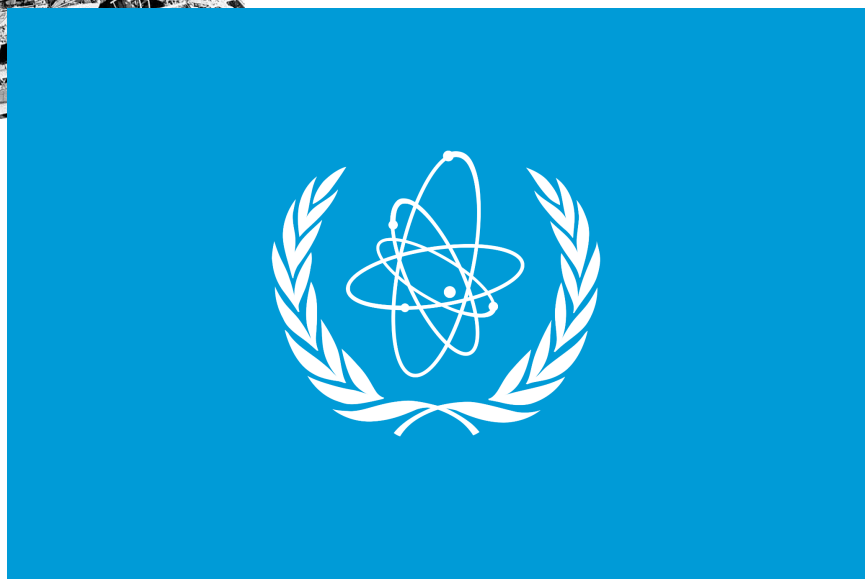
CIMUN
CHICAGO INTERNATIONAL
MODEL UNITED NATIONS



IAEA[1]



IAEA[2]

INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY ASSOCIATION:

Background Guide

Chicago International Model United Nations XXIII

[1] https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:IAEA_02790015_(5613115146).jpg#file
[2] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Flag_of_IAEA.svg

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS....1
LETTER FROM THE CIMUN XXIII STAFF....2
LETTER FROM THE UNDER SECRETARY GENERAL OF SIMULATIONS....4
Topic A: Safety Standards in a Post-Chernobyl World....6
Topic B: Monitoring Nuclear Proliferation Globally....12
THE STATE OF THE WORLD....17
Overview - The World on January 22nd, 1989....17
The Players....17
Committees....18
Cabinets....20
Major Issues....22
The Cold War....22
The Global Narcotics Trade....24
The Emergence of Environmental Politics....24
The Intifada....25
Global Conflict Zones....26
Themes....28
Bipolarity....28
Legitimacy in Chaotic Times....30
The Limits of Superpower Influence....35
Reform and Resistance....37
Individuals and Structures....37
CIMUN XXIII GUIDE TO DELEGATE PREPARATION....40
Introduction to Crisis....40
Cross-Committee Interactions....41
Heads of Government....43
The Media – CIMUN News Network and International Press Delegation....44
International Court of Justice....45
Head Delegates....46
Awards Criteria....47
How to Prepare for CIMUN XXII....48

LETTER FROM THE CIMUN XXIII STAFF

Dear Delegate,

Welcome to the twenty-third Chicago International Model United Nations, better known as CIMUN XXIII! Over the past year, our team of over one hundred college students and young professionals has worked to bring this year's CIMUN to life. We are excited to be able to deliver this background guide to you as a first look at what this year's conference has in store. We cannot wait to welcome you to Chicago this December for a spirited weekend of debate and diplomacy.

This guide will provide you with your committee's topics, our state of the world brief, advice to prepare for CIMUN, and our rules of procedure. We highly recommend that you read this guide thoroughly, as it contains information that will help you make the most of CIMUN this year.

To best prepare, please note the following details regarding your committee, the **INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY ASSOCIATION, 1989**:

- CIMUN differs substantially from traditional Model UN conferences! We recommend that you pay attention to all portions of this guide. Knowledge of the state of the world and the details of our rules of procedure are key to success at CIMUN.
- Each committee and cabinet at CIMUN XXIII exists in the same shared universe, in the historical year of 1989. This means that every committee can interact with the others, and actions in one committee can impact the proceedings of another. **All committees share a start date of January 22, 1989.** (Please see the CIMUN XXIII Delegate Preparation Guide for further details, located in this background guide.)

Prior to the conference, we ask that you write **position papers** to aid in your research and preparation for CIMUN XXIII. (For more detailed information on writing position papers, please see the Delegate Preparation Guide in this background guide, or the position papers hub on cimun.org.)

- Each delegation should write **one white paper per topic** and **one black paper total**.
    - *White Papers* should outline the public-facing policy of your country or position. You will have the opportunity to read the White Papers of the other delegates in your committee prior to the conference.
    - *Black Papers* outline your country or position's strategic priorities and objectives. Black papers will be kept secret, only to be read by CIMUN staff.
- To be eligible for position paper awards, position papers are due on **November 22nd at 11:59 PM**. After that date, to be eligible for other awards, position papers must be

submitted by **November 29th at 11:59 PM**. Delegates should submit their papers by emailing them to position.papers@cimun.org.

- Please note that CIMUN offers position paper awards. Only delegates who submit their position papers on time will be eligible for these awards.

If you have any questions regarding the information in this guide, please reach out to us at questions@cimun.org. We look forward to seeing you in Chicago on December 3rd!

Best Regards,

John Salchak
Secretary General - CIMUN XXIII

LETTER FROM THE UNDER SECRETARY GENERAL OF SIMULATIONS

Greetings Delegate,

My name is Andrew Kruck, and I'm happy to be returning as CIMUN's Under Secretary General for Simulations, and to welcome you to our 1989 historical simulation. With nine committees, eight cabinets, two Ad-Hoc Committees of the Secretary General, and the CIMUN Chronicle, this simulation integrates events from around the world at the very close of the Cold War. We cannot wait for you to arrive and take part.

Across the many committees and cabinets of CIMUN XXIII, you will be tasked with confronting a persistent, evolving, and integrated simulated world. The actions of every delegate have the potential to ripple out to every other delegate at our conference. Below, you will find your topic guides, and the state of the world document. I encourage you to read them carefully. From the moment you arrive this December to the moment the last gavel falls, we will all be immersing ourselves in the shifting and uncertain world of 1989. The better you understand that world and the countries that confronted it, the better prepared you will be to succeed in our simulation.

From the struggles of reform and resistance in the Soviet Bloc, to domestic conversations about patriotism and freedom in the United States, to the internal reforms of the Islamic Republic of Iran, the unique political and diplomatic situation of every country represented at our conference will shape how they respond to a year of upheaval and uncertainty. Your topic guides will serve as a primer for the specific issues your cabinet or committee plans to address, but remember: at any time, it is possible for a crisis to arise which requires any one of the bodies represented at CIMUN to react.

Distant as it may seem, 1989 is yesterday on the historical scale. In 1989, my parents were graduating from high school, and as they began their lives as adults, the tumultuous and world-altering events of this year were their greeting. In 2026, the feeling of an unstable and uncertain international order may be familiar. As you research this year and think about the various global issues that confronted leaders and citizens in 1989, I encourage you to speak to people in your life who remember the year first-hand. I also encourage you to think about the similarities between the issues that confronted the world in 1989, and those that confront the world in 2026. Ask yourself how leaders found solutions to their problems, and if they didn't, ask yourself why. Place yourself in the shoes of someone who sees the familiar world beginning to crumble around them.

The problems you confront in 1989 will not be identical to the problems our world faces in 2026. But the way you approach those problems, the skills you employ in finding solutions, and the challenges you encounter in turning those solutions into agreements are the same as the approaches, skills, and challenges that world leaders encounter today. Consider what might have been done differently, how you would have acted with the information and under the pressures that faced leaders in 1989. Hopefully, you come away from this conference having learned about our historical year, but with ideas about how to confront the problems that face the world you live in now.

CIMUN will not present you a world with easy solutions, but I have full faith that you will work with (and against) each other to overcome the most dire challenges we place in front of you. I can't wait to see the world that you all create this December.

Sincerely,
Andrew Kruck
Under Secretary General for Simulations - CIMUN XXIII

Topic A: Safety Standards in a Post-Chernobyl World

Key Vocabulary

Chernobyl Incident: *On April 26, 1986 at 1:23:58 in the morning two explosions occurred in Reactor no. 4 of the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant. These explosions filled the air with dust, graphite chunks, and high levels of radiation.*
International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group (INSAG): *An international group of atomic energy safety experts under the International Atomic Energy Association (IAEA) created in 1985 to promote safety regarding atomic energy.*
Scram: *Emergency shutdown of a nuclear reactor by terminating the fission reaction.*
Radioactive isotopes (radionuclides): *An unstable nuclide prone to radioactive decay. Prolonged exposure to radioactive isotopes can lead to cell damage, which can lead to cancer in humans and animals.*
Roentgen (REM): *A measurement of radiation exposure. Total body exposure to 50-100 REM causes radiation sickness. In the immediate time after Chernobyl, one would be exposed to about 5.6 REM per second without protective gear.*
Void: *This is the moderating actor in nuclear reactions. To create a nuclear reaction a neutron hits Uranium-235 (a part of the element Uranium), to control the flow of these neutrons a moderating actor is employed. Typically this is steam from boiled water.*
Void Coefficient: *Used to measure how often reactions occur in a nuclear reactor in relation to the void. A positive void coefficient leads to increased reactions as the moderating element increases. A negative void coefficient means that reactions decrease as the void increases.*

Topic Summary

History:

The first international steps towards nuclear safety are considered to have occurred in 1947 when the Reactor Safeguards Committee considered the first proposal for a nuclear reactor. Of course, actions toward individual nuclear safety existed before that, such as lead scientists recommending lunch breaks to their crew when the safest option is to take a break from the experiments. This kind of safety culture plays a key role in mitigating accidents at individual sites, such as Chernobyl. However, most of this is considered "pre-history" of nuclear safety because it did little to address any safety concerns. Safety as we know it started to arise in the late 1950s. Most early nuclear safety procedures (into the 60s and 70s) prioritized design features, but did little to address safety during construction and operation.[3] One major development through the 1960s was the general agreement to build Nuclear sites away from metropolitan areas, in case of events such as containment failure. The 1970s brought the

[3] Pierre Tanguy, "Three Decades of Nuclear Safety," *IAEA Bulletin*, 1988.

development of nuclear energy oversight boards in several states, including the United States of America and France among others. The 1970s should be best remembered by the Rasmussen report (or WASH-1400)[4]. While this report brought controversy, it also led to a push towards a problemestic approach (using random variability) in addition to the existing deterministic one (limiting randomness).

Nuclear Accidents in Review

To debate what the most adequate safety standards are in the context of the Chernobyl incident, causes for nuclear accidents must first be understood. In most cases, and certainly in the case of Chernobyl, the causes can be narrowed into two primary categories: insufficient design and lack of safety culture. The Chernobyl incident is a case study in when both warrant sufficient concern, and should be taken as an example as to why both must be addressed globally.

Insufficient Design

One does not need to understand all the technicalities to understand the importance of sufficient design. Design should prioritize human life and safety over cost of construction and quick results. The Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant used the RBMK-1000 reactor, a model which is specific to the Soviet Union. There is speculation that it was built with a design that would cut corners in both time and financing.[5] However, at present moment little investigation into potential design flaws have come to light. In the initial reports from the months following the Chernobyl Accident, primarily the Legasov Report and the INSAG-1 (1986) that came from it, potential design discrepancies were only mentioned in passing. Much more of these reports emphasized the overall lack of safety culture as the primary condition under which the Chernobyl accident was allowed to happen. Much of the world agrees with this interpretation and it remains the dominant view of Chernobyl in the public consciousness.

Lack of safety culture

The lack of safety culture is incredibly apparent in the Chernobyl Incident. While safety tests on Chernobyl Reactor no. 4 were conducted in 1982, 1984, and again in 1985, each time they indicated the reactor insufficient, adjustments unsuccessful, or failing to produce results at all. Despite this, due to intense pressure the reactor was declared operational in 1983. A test was scheduled again for April 25th, 1986, with the day-shift conducting the test. This presents two key points: the day shift was composed of the more experienced individuals and was informed

[4] Norman Rasmussen, *The Reactor Safety Study: An Assessment of Accident Risks in U.S. Commercial Nuclear Power Plants* (National Technical Information Service, 1975).
[5] World Nuclear Association, "RBMK Reactors – Appendix to Nuclear Power Reactors," World Nuclear Association, April 15, 2026, https://world-nuclear.org/information-library/appendices/rbmk-reactors.

on the reactor's unusual operating conditions. However, shortly before the test was scheduled to take place one of the other regional power stations experienced an unexpected outage. As a result, the test was postponed again to meet demands for evening energy usage. It became the evening shift's, and eventually night shift's, responsibility to carry out the test. The night shift had limited time to conduct the test, creating more pressure on the already intense test[6].

In general the safety culture surrounding the reactor and the test was lacking. In preparation for the test, the day shift had started tasks such as disabling the emergency core cooling system. While this did not end up influencing the disaster, there was no responding action from any of the shifts based on the required steps. Again indicating a lack of safety culture.[7] Even in steps to control the damage, safety was diminished. Eight hours after the explosions sand, clay, boron, lead and dolomite were dumped into the burning core by helicopters–as a result the pilots were exposed to incredibly high levels of radiation.

For on-site clean up there was an initial use of robots[8], but following the failure of these the clean up was done by Chernobyl Liquidators, who were composed of both civil and military personnel. There have been several reports from these liquidators claiming they were not informed of what they would have to do and the risk that would come with it. While the liquidators did wear protective gear, this did little to protect them from the extremely high levels of radiation. When they had been exposed to 25 roentgens of radiation, as much as a human body can handle for a lifetime, they were supposed to be dismissed from work. Many continued to be asked to work after exceeding 25.

The final major safety precaution implemented was a concrete "sarcophagus" designed to encapsulate the reactor and chimney, and prevent the further spread of radiation by wind, birds, and water. Due to the high levels of radiation on site construction was nearly impossible, meaning the sarcophagus could not be fully sealed. Just one month ago Soviet officials announced this design would last 20-30 years before needing restorative work.While the flaws in safety culture are most apparent in the wake of a large disaster such as Chernobyl, these are systemic flaws that must be addressed at an international level, state level, or both.

Human and environmental safety

Nearly 3 years after the Chernobyl accident, concerns for human and environmental safety persist. Primarily, the current response systems of multiple different nuclear power plants around the world. Again, the Chernobyl incident serves as an extreme example, but relevant in its recency and the holes it exposes in current global capabilities. The lack of safety concern

[6] Elliot Kenaston, "The Accident: A Timeline of the Chernobyl Reactor Explosion," The Reactor Room, November 22, 2023, https://ds-pages.swarthmore.edu/reactor-room/projects/accident/.
[7] International Atomic Energy Agency, *INSAG-7, The Chernobyl Accident: Updating of INSAG-1* (1997).
[8] Christopher Anderson, "Soviet Official Admits That Robots Couldn't Handle Chernobyl Cleanup," *The Scientist Magazine*, 1990, https://web.archive.org/web/20190410204859/https://www.the-scientist.com/news/soviet-official-admits-that-robots-couldnt-handle-chernobyl-cleanup-61583.

extended beyond those involved with the reactor. In the hours after the explosion officials from the nearby city of Pripyat responded with perhaps blissful ignorance. The initial fire team sent to respond to the fires from the explosions did not wear any protective gear for the radiation. The citizens of Pripyat continued with their lives as usual. Children went to school. People went to their jobs. One woman inquired with the local authorities about the safety of her wedding, they reassured her that all local events would continue on like usual.[9] It was not until 36 hours after the accident that official evacuation began. Citizens were told it would be temporary and that they should only pack vital documents and belongings, and perhaps some food. Today, the citizens of Pripyat still can not return. Additionally, hospitals in Kyiv (the primary treatment centers for those impacted by radiation) had neither proper training nor proper equipment in treating radiation patients.

The environmental impacts of the Chernobyl incident did not follow state borders. The spread of radioactive isotopes has lead to the banning of reselling much fresh water fish throughout the Scandinavian region[10]. The invertebrate population (many of which are pollinators) around Chernobyl has seen a decline[11]. A primary impact has been seen in milk-producing animals. The radioactive isotopes primarily settle on the top levels of soil and grass, including the grazing land of animals such as cows and sheep. Due to this, some states such as the United Kingdom have committed to mandatory testing of farm animals before allowing any of their goods to be sold.[12] While much of the environmental impacts have been in Europe, they have been seen elsewhere as well. The Irish Dairy Board sold milk powder made from milk produced while there was a radioactive cloud over Ireland to Mexico. Mexico distributed what has been determined to be radioactive milk over the past few years, including infant formula[13][14]. When considering nuclear safety standards, it is important to consider what happens in the aftermath of an accident, to both human life and the environment.

International Response

[9] BBC World Services, *What Happened at Chernobyl: 40 Years On*, 2026, https://youtu.be/f5Z-1DfEtAM?si=MbY2chVvh4gQmK42.
[10] National Institute of Radiation Protection, *Chernobyl - Its Impact on Sweden* (1986).
[11] Anders Pape Møller and Timothy A. Mousseau, "Reduced Abundance of Insects and Spiders Linked to Radiation at Chernobyl 20 Years after the Accident," *Biology Letters* 5, no. 3 (2009): 356 - 359, https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2008.0778.
[12] BBC News, "Post-Chernobyl Disaster Sheep Controls Lifted on Last UK Farms," *BBC News*, June 1, 2012, https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-england-cumbria-18299228.
[13] REDACCIÓN, "Caso Sobre Leche Radioactiva En México: Salud Obligada a Abrir Expedientes," *La Silla Rota*, July 13, 2022, https://lasillarota.com/nacion/2022/7/13/caso-sobre-leche-radioactiva-en-mexico-salud-obligada-abrir-expedientes-384131.html.
[14] Laura González, "Leche Radiactiva. Historia de Una Infamia," Revista Ciencias, 1997, https://www.revistacienciasunam.com/en/196-revistas/revista-ciencias-47/1865-leche-radiactiva-historia-de-una-infamia.html.

While the Chernobyl Incident is widely considered the worst of nuclear accidents, it is not the only one. The world's first was Chalk River Laboratories in Canada, 1952[15]. Since then there have been reported accidents of varying degrees in the Soviet Union, United Kingdom, Switzerland, Germany, Chezcholzovakia, France, West Germany, Brazil, and an alarming 10 accidents (though most minor) in the United States of America. While many of these countries and others had developed nuclear energy programs, none of them had a response plan for nuclear incidents that occurred outside of their territory. With the Chernobyl Incident, many have realized the issue in this, especially much of Europe. Many states have since stopped or delayed the development of new nuclear power plants[16]. Despite this, nuclear development is still expected in the near future. Some reports still claim it has potential to be one of the safest forms of energy. At this point the question arises, how do we prevent future accidents and respond properly should they occur? Lead policy makers in the IAEA promote increasing policy that works toward mitigation and operational safety[17]. Solutions should address both the prevention of future nuclear accidents as well as better preparation for response in the event of a future accident.

Sources for Further Research

***BBC Newsnight*. BBC Politics, 1986.**

https://youtu.be/ET6ov0Kvp1M?si=a2wGTGdi_4tImVAv.

This is a recording of news programming 'NEWSNIGHT' on the Chernobyl incident. It depicts some early European reaction and understanding of what happened April 26, 1986.

***World News: Chernobyl Nuclear Disaster, Gorbachev Speaks*. ABC News, May 14, 1986.**

https://youtu.be/0k3wnXBE5S0?si=gaTETLbTxfdXun8z.

On May 14, 1986 Soviet Leader Mikhail Gorbachev finally spoke to the world about the Chernobyl incident. These are his words.

International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group. *Summary Report on the Post-Accident Review Meeting on the Chernobyl Accident*. 1986. https://inis.iaea.org/records/8e700-gms57.

[15] Mélissa Guillemette, "Chalk River: The Forgotten Nuclear Accidents," *The Walrus*, July 13, 2022, https://thewalrus.ca/nuclear-accidents/.
[16] Ortwin Renn, "Public Responses to the Chernobyl Accident," *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 10, no. 2 (1990): 151 - 167, https://doi.org/10.1016/s0272-4944(05)80125-2.
[17] Pierre Tanguy, "Three Decades of Nuclear Safety," *IAEA Bulletin*, 1988.

Also referred to as 'INSAG-1', this is the initial assessment by the IAEA body "International Nuclear Safety Group" on the causes and consequences. It is primarily based on the 'Legasov Report'[18] presented by the Soviet delegation. The executive summary & sections IV-VII are highly important for context in debating future nuclear safety.

Tanguy, Pierre . "Three Decades of Nuclear Safety." *IAEA Bulletin*, 1988.
https://www.iaea.org/sites/default/files/publications/magazines/bulletin/bull30-2/30202085157.pdf.

Published in 1988 and based on an oral presentation from Mr. Tanguy (inspector general of Surete et Securite Nucleates, Electricite de France (EDF), Paris), this report gives an overview of historic international nuclear safety and recommendations for future nuclear safety measures to the IAEA.

Schoeppner, Ove. "World Map of Nuclear Power Plants." Explore Nuclear | Your Gateway into the Nuclear Industry, May 19, 2024.
https://explorenuclear.com/maps/world-map-of-nuclear-power-plants/.

In today's world one of the most pertinent topics in nuclear safety is nuclear power plants. This is a map of all current, decommissioned, and under construction nuclear power plants.

Questions to Consider

1. Given the numerous nuclear accidents in Nuclear Power Plants alone and the recent incident at the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant, should action be taken to limit the development of atomic energy? Are there benefits that outweigh the cost of human life?
2. Should international organizations have more oversight into individual state action? How can this be balanced with state sovereignty?
3. What are the best ways to encourage safety culture surrounding nuclear energy?
4. How can the public be more informed on safety protocol in the event of a nuclear accident?
5. When should nuclear energy development be limited or halted to increase safety and prevent nuclear accidents?

[18] Valery Legasov, *The Accident at the Chernobyl' Nuclear Power Plant and Its Consequences* (1986), https://inis.iaea.org/collection/NCLCollectionStore/_Public/18/001/18001971.pdf.

Topic B: Monitoring Nuclear Proliferation Globally

Key Vocabulary

Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone (NWFZ): *A regional agreement between countries to forgo development of nuclear weapons, and to disallow the making, transport, testing, or deployment of nuclear weapons into their territory by third parties..*
Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT): *Entered into force on March 5th, 1970, it is the primary component of global efforts made to prevent the spread of nuclear weapons, promotes cooperation in the peaceful use of nuclear energy, and outlines a goal of nuclear disarmament.*
Nuclear Weapons States: *Parties involved in the NPT that manufactured and exploded a nuclear weapon or other nuclear device before January 1st, 1967*
Non-Nuclear Weapons States*: Parties involved in the NPT that have not manufactured and exploded a nuclear weapon or other nuclear device before January 1st, 1967*
Nuclear Proliferation: *The spread of nuclear weapons capabilities to other countries*
Manhattan Project*: A top-secret US research and development program that led to the production of the world's first atomic bombs, one dropped on Hiroshima and the other on Nagasaki.*
Non-Attack Agreement*: An agreement made between India and Pakistan prohibiting one another from attacking nuclear installations & facilities.*

Topic Summary

As of January 22nd 1989, there are various regions and/or countries that are involved in nuclear proliferation and there are numerous concerns of the spread of nuclear arms in other select regions such as Israel, India, Pakistan, Iraq, and Iran. The world has urged nuclear-weapons states to end proliferation, and the IAEA is now tasked with finding potential solutions to monitoring nuclear proliferation at a global level.

People don't want nuclear weapons to proliferate for various reasons. First, the sheer power they have means that they can kill thousands, if not millions, instantly. This was shown in the bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. In addition, extreme heat from an explosion can cause vaporization at ground zero as well as severe burns and large firestorms. Second, ionizing radiation contaminates environments and causes long-term health consequences like cancer and/or genetic alterations. These environments also experience climate disruption, eliminating local wildlife and disrupting the ecosystem. Nuclear weapons also require financial support in their development and maintenance. In developing countries, this means that marginalized communities will suffer the most since they are cheap to build in[19].

[19] https://www.icanw.org/catastrophic_harm

The negative impacts are seen throughout history. During WWII, the US launched the Manhattan Project out of fear that their enemies would obtain nuclear weapons technology sooner than them. With the success of the Project and the bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the nuclear age had begun. As tensions rose between the US and Soviet Union, there was a significant threat of nuclear war on the horizon and we needed any form of governing body to step in to mediate the conflicts. The IAEA was created in 1957 for the purpose of promoting peaceful use of nuclear technology and to prevent the proliferation of it. In addition, the IAEA aims to implement safeguards that can verify nuclear energy is not being used for military purposes and promote higher standards of nuclear safety[20].

In 1962, the US discovered Soviet nuclear missiles being constructed in Cuba, roughly 100 miles from the coast of Florida, which became known as the Cuban Missile Crisis. After pressure from the US, the Soviet agreed to dismantle the missiles. The US had also agreed to not attack Cuba and to secretly remove missiles from Turkey so that they were out of striking range of the Soviet Union.

In 1967, the Treaty of Tlatelolco established Latin America as the first nuclear-weapon-free zone (NWFZ) which was followed by the countries of the South Pacific establishing their own NWFZ in 1985. Then, the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) was signed in 1968, where several major global powers pledged to cooperate in curbing proliferation of nuclear weapons. While it didn't end nuclear proliferation, it did succeed in advocating for more weapons control and it set a precedent for international cooperation between the nuclear and non-nuclear states to prevent proliferation[21].

In 1972, President Richard Nixon and Soviet Union leader Leonid Brezhnev signed the Strategic Arms Limitations Treaty (SALT I), agreeing to put limitations on their nuclear arsenals- a victory for nonproliferation 10 years after the Cuban Missile Crisis. By May 1974, India conducted their first nuclear test "Smiling Buddha", marking the first time a country outside of the original 5 NPT recognized states had tested a nuclear bomb. Following India was Pakistan, testing their first atomic bomb in 1983.

The Cold War was defined by the tension between the US and Soviet Union, with the threat of nuclear war always looming on the horizon. Even though all 5 NPT-recognized states agreed to disarm nuclear weapons eventually, there was no guarantee that they would not be used at any point in time. As of 1989, there are 6 confirmed nuclear-armed states: The US, Soviet Union, United Kingdom, France, India, and China.

The tensions between Pakistan and India create a space of nuclear anxiety because even though both Prime Ministers signed the Non-Attack Agreement in late 1988, both countries

[20] https://www.cfr.org/education/learn/timelines/history-nuclear-proliferation
[21] https://history.state.gov/milestones/1961-1968/npt

suspected the other to have secret nuclear installations and had potential to strike at any moment.[22]

When President Dwight Eisenhower gave his "Atoms for Peace" speech in 1953, he warned that nuclear weapons could result in "the annihilation of the irreplaceable heritage of mankind." This quote is just a glimpse into what the general population believes: Nuclear weapons need to be kept in check, and nuclear proliferation needs to be monitored closely. Protests around the globe are urging policymakers to end nuclear proliferation and promote nuclear safety. Throughout these time periods, there were constant anti-nuclear protests beginning as early as 1946 and continuing into today. People didn't want proliferation because it posed a major risk to humanity as a whole– this is made clear by countries creating NWFZs and growing protests around the world.

There are numerous directions we could go in terms of "solving" these issues. On one hand, we could implement even more safeguards for international peace and security. This might mean doing more frequent on-site checks to confirm that power plants and labs are running as reported and not missing any materials. There could also be environmental tests of the soil and water in suspected areas to find traces of any forbidden nuclear work being done. In general, we need to review the safety status of all nuclear power plants by expanding the IAEA's program of expert peer review missions. We could also make more of an effort to limit the spread of this technology, promoting the implementation of more NWFZs and expanding our role in receiving and disseminating information as it comes to enhance the effectiveness of national nuclear regulatory bodies. Another possible solution would be to extend the NPT indefinitely. At the moment, it has to be renewed every 5 years. By making the treaty indefinite, we can continue to focus on more pressing issues rather than revisiting whether it be renewed.

Sources for Further Research

***BBC Newsnight*. BBC Politics, 1986.**

https://youtu.be/ET6ov0Kvp1M?si=a2wGTGdi_4tImVAv.

This is a recording of news programming 'NEWSNIGHT' on the Chernobyl incident. It depicts some early European reaction and understanding of what happened April 26, 1986.

***World News: Chernobyl Nuclear Disaster, Gorbachev Speaks*. ABC News, May 14, 1986.**

https://youtu.be/0k3wnXBE5S0?si=gaTETLbTxfdXun8z.

[22]https://nsarchive.gwu.edu/document/32966-document-4-us-department-state-bureau-intelligence-and-research-inr-report-india

On May 14, 1986 Soviet Leader Mikhail Gorbachev finally spoke to the world about the Chernobyl incident. These are his words.

International Atomic Energy Agency, The IAEA and the Non-Proliferation Treaty, https://www.iaea.org/topics/non-proliferation-treaty
This source explains more about the NPT and the IAEA's role in enacting it. It explains exactly how it was created and the contents of it, which can help you understand what safeguards they aimed towards when creating the treaty.

Gareth Evans & Yoriko Kawaguchi, Eliminating Nuclear Threats: A Practical Agenda for Policymakers, 2009, https://ycsg.yale.edu/sites/default/files/files/ICNND_Report-EliminatingNuclearThreats.pdf
This is a great source for learning about ways to curb nuclear threats. While it was written post-1989, it still has valuable information in terms of solutions to be brought up and it describes risks associated with nuclear-armed states.

Office of the Historian, U.S. Department of State, Strategic Arms Limitations Talks/Treaty (SALT) I and II, https://history.state.gov/milestones/1969-1976/salt
This explains the significance of SALT I and II and highlights the history behind them. It also grants more information about the tensions between the US and Soviet Union and steps taken to avoid war.

Nasir Hafeez, The Legacy of India's Nuclear Weapons Test, 2024, https://www.armscontrol.org/act/2024-11/features/legacy-indias-nuclear-weapons-test
Hafeez gives an in depth explanation of the "Smiling Buddha" project. Since India was the first state to do a nuclear test outside of the 5 original NPT-recognized nuclear states, there is a unique perspective on their nuclear involvement.

Center for Arms Control and Non-Proliferation, Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones, 2023, https://armscontrolcenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/03/Nuclear-Weapon-Free-Zones-Fact-Sheet.pdf
This fact sheet gives a history of NWFZ's and an explanation of what they are. Even though it is a brief read, it's still a valuable source that explains the history behind these zones

Questions to Consider

1. What actions could the IAEA take if there were a country suspected of violating international nuclear safeguards? Should the IAEA have more power to inspect suspected countries, and how would they do so?
2. Should nuclear-armed states be held to the same standards as non-nuclear states, and what should those standards be?
3. Can the IAEA effectively ban nuclear proliferation completely? Why or why not? What steps would need to be taken in order to do so?

4. In what ways can we monitor nuclear proliferation at a global scale in order to maintain peace? Should we increase the way we monitor things, or is it okay just as it is?

THE STATE OF THE WORLD

Sunday January 22nd, 1989

Overview - The World on January 22nd, 1989

It is January 22nd, 1989. Through times of both heightened tension and detente, the global Cold War has been ongoing for forty years, and has cemented into a relatively stable geopolitical order. Through diplomacy and proxy conflicts, the United States and Soviet Union have continued to promote their ideological convictions, while each has remained, largely, dedicated to maintaining the international order of the United Nations System. However, the world is not defined just by superpowers posturing and maneuvering on the world stage.

In Britain, Margaret Thatcher continues to promote neoliberalism, free markets, and private enterprise. In Iran, the aftermath of the Iran-Iraq War is at the fore as the Islamic Republic finally sees its first period of peace since the revolution. Germany, East and West, still grapple with how to survive as a country on the front lines of the Cold War, and one which remains divided. The Solidarity trade union in Poland has driven such fervor that the government has agreed to sit down and negotiate. Students protest in China, even as it continues to open up to the rest of the world.

Perhaps most importantly of all, today is Superbowl Sunday, with the Bengals and the 49ers facing off in Miami.

At CIMUN XXIII, you will encounter a world beset by growing instability and uncertainty. The bedrock of the international order is beginning to shift, and actors on both the national and international scale must decide how to react. Some welcome change, others fear what it will mean. As you enter the world of 1989, you should try to put yourself in the shoes of someone who lived through these shifts. Without hindsight, what would world leaders have thought as events unfolded?

Below, you will find more detailed information about the various cabinets and committees which will be present at this year's conference, as well as the general state of the world and major issues confronting it. While some of these issues may seem remote to your particular position, it is important to remember that at CIMUN, everything is interconnected, and you never know how issues will present themselves across the conference.

The Players

This year's 1989 simulation narrowly beats out our 1956 simulation to be the largest simulation CIMUN has ever put on. To help you keep track of things, this section will detail the cabinets and committees which will be represented at CIMUN XXIII. Regardless of which cabinet or committee you are personally participating in, knowing these other players is

important, as they represent bodies that might interact with you or your committee directly or indirectly throughout our integrated simulation.

Committees

United Nations General Assembly

The United Nations General Assembly is the plenary body of the United Nations. With representatives from every UN member state, the General Assembly is the most universal global forum, and it is tasked with addressing major global issues of all descriptions. This year, the General Assembly will be discussing *The Emerging Phenomenon of Global Warming*, and *The Role of the United Nations in Regions Recovering From Conflicts*. Though UNGA resolutions are not legally binding and the UNGA cannot independently enforce them, they carry significant weight and often represent a broad consensus of the international community.

United Nations Security Council

The United Nations Security Council is tasked with maintaining international peace and security. Unlike the General Assembly, the UNSC has the authority and responsibility to take concrete action to respond to global security concerns. In 1989, the Security Council will be discussing *The Aftermath of the Iran-Iraq War*, *The Namibian War of Independence*, and *The Situation in the Occupied Arab Territories*. In addition, the UNSC will be the UN body responsible for addressing any emergent threats to global peace or security.

International Atomic Energy Association

The International Atomic Energy Association is a global organization which seeks to promote the use of atomic energy for peaceful purposes, while maintaining safety and impeding the use of atomic energy for military purposes. In 1989, the IAEA will discuss *Safety Standards in a post-Chernobyl Era*, and *Monitoring Nuclear Proliferation Globally*.

Organization of American States

The Organization of American States is a regional body composed of almost every country in the Western Hemisphere. Headquartered in Washington, D.C., the organization's stated purpose is to promote peace, democracy, and human rights in the hemisphere. In 1989, the OAS will discuss *Promoting Peace in Central and South America*, and *Financial Stability in the Western Hemisphere*.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization was founded just under forty years ago in April, 1949. Since then, it has served as a multilateral alliance aimed at assuring collective defense for

its member states. In 1989, NATO will discuss *Responding to the Faltering Soviet Bloc*, *Modernization of Short Range Nuclear Missiles*, and *Rising Tensions in Yugoslavia*.

Warsaw Pact Organization Summit

The Warsaw Pact Organization was founded in 1955 as a political and military treaty between members of the Eastern Bloc. Since then, it has aimed to collective defense for its member states. At this summit, the Warsaw Pact member states will be joined by several countries which are not members of the Warsaw Pact, but which have political or strategic reasons to consider cooperation with the organization. In 1989, the Warsaw Pact Organization Summit will discuss *Consideration of Strategic Coordination with Members and Aligned Countries*, *Concerted Action in Response to Political Crises*, and *Rising Tensions in Yugoslavia*.

Senate of the United States of America

The Senate of the United States of America is the upper chamber of the United States' bicameral legislature. Its functions include passing legislation, confirming political appointments, and ratifying treaties. The Senate also exercises several oversight functions. In 1989, the U.S. Senate will discuss *The Flag Protection Act of 1989*, and *Maintaining Our System of Checks and Balances in the Wake of the Iran-Contra Affair*.

Guardian Council of the Constitution of Iran

The Guardian Council of the Constitution is a body which exercises legal and clerical oversight within the Iranian legal system. The Guardian Council ensures that legislation aligns with the requirements of Islamic law, and the country's written constitution. This sitting of the Guardian Council will include several non-members who have been invited by Ayatollah Koameini to participate in discussion of reforms to Iran's constitution, which the Guardian Council will work with the Council of Ministers to complete. In 1989, the Guardian Council will discuss *Reforming the Constitution of the Islamic Republic*, *Promoting Islamic Morality at Home and Abroad*, and *Continuing Reconstruction After the Iran-Iraq War*.

International Court of Justice

The International Court of Justice serves as the highest judicial body within the United Nations System, and the primary forum for resolving international legal disputes. In addition to its pre-set docket, the ICJ will be responsible for considering and potentially ruling on any international disputes which countries bring before it. In 1989, the ICJ's docket includes *Aerial Incident of 3 July 1988 (Iran v. United States)*, *Certain Phosphate Lands in Nauru (Nauru v. Australia)*, and *(Applicability of Article VI, Section 22, of the Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations (United Nations v. Romania)*.

Cabinets

Cabinet of the United States of America

Since the end of the Second World War, the United States of America has been the indisputable leader of the Western Bloc, and arguably the most powerful nation in the world. Alongside the Soviet Union, it shepherded in the rules-based international order that has governed geopolitical affairs for the last forty years. At the same time, it has been in a deep and ongoing ideological conflict against the Soviet Union, aiming to promote capitalism globally in opposition to Soviet Communism. In 1989, with newly elected President Bush sworn in just two days ago, the Cabinet of the United States will discuss *The Impending Collapse of the Soviet Empire*, *Addressing the International Flow of Narcotics*, and *Texas v. Johnson and the Issue of Anti-American Sentiment*.

Council of Ministers of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

In 1945, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics emerged from the Great Patriotic War having suffered catastrophically, but triumphant. Since then, the Soviet Union has worked to maintain the bloc of communist states in Eastern Europe, and to assist communist movements in various parts of the world to overthrow imperialist governments. However, the Cold War has not been easy, and both the Soviet Union and the broader Eastern Bloc now face severe internal and external crises. Mikhail Gorbachev, however, believes that reform is possible, and that it will lead to the revitalization of the Soviet project. In 1989, the Cabinet of the Soviet Union will discuss *Bolstering the International Position of the Soviet Union*, *Delivering on the Promises of Glasnost and Perestroika*, and *Completing the Withdrawal of the Red Army from Afghanistan*.

Council of Ministers of the German Democratic Republic

This year marks the fortieth anniversary of the German Democratic Republic's founding. Though the country certainly faces many issues, it is often regarded as one of the most successful in the Eastern Bloc. As the country on the front line of the Iron Curtain, and a country which remains divided from the other half of Germany, Erich Honecker and his government must always keep international affairs in mind. In 1989, the Council of the GDR will discuss *Maintaining the Party's Control Over East German Politics*, and *The Relationship Between the German Democratic Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany*.

Council of Ministers of the Polish People's Republic

In 1939, the Second Polish Republic was wiped from world maps as the first outbreak of the Second World War in Europe. But Poland is not yet lost. Despite drastic territorial changes following the Second World War, the Polish People's Republic returned to world maps, and it remains. Within the Eastern Bloc, Poland's international affairs have been limited, and its internal politics have frayed significantly in the past decade. Between 1981 and 1983, a military

junta governed the country, and the Solidarity trade union has arisen as a very popular outlet for political discontent. Now, Wojciech Jaruzelski and his government must navigate the various internal crises which threaten the Polish People's Republic. In 1989, the Council of Ministers of Poland will discuss *International Support for Internal Dissent and Poland's Place in the Eastern Bloc*, and *The Government's Stance Towards the Solidarity Trade Union*.

National Security Council of the Federal Republic of Germany

This year marks forty years since the Federal Republic of Germany was founded and the Allied occupation of Germany ended. Since then, West Germany has become an example of the Western Bloc's successes, with reconstruction producing a thriving economy and high standard of living. Nevertheless, as a "front line country," the FRG remains one of the countries most likely to suffer ruin if the Cold War were to become a third world war. Chernobyl has also increased the pressure of anti-nuclear activists within Germany on Helmut Kohl's government. In 1989, the National Security Council of the FRG will discuss *The Relationship Between the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic*, and *Environmental Policy and the Public Outcry Surrounding Nuclear Energy*.

Cabinet of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland may not be the world's preeminent power anymore, but it is still one of the most important countries in the Western Bloc. For the last eight years, the rapport between Margaret Thatcher and now former President Ronald Raeagan put the so-called special relationship at the forefront of people's minds. Now, Britain is at a crossroads. Several years have passed since the United Kingdom agreed to return Hong Kong to China, and the Thatcher government must navigate how the United Kingdom will handle its relationships to countries that are not liberal democracies. In 1989, the Cabinet of the United Kingdom will discuss *Britain's Stance Towards China*, and *The Satanic Verses Controversy*.

State Council of the People's Republic of China

The People's Republic of China has undergone an unimaginable transformation. In 1945, China emerged from the War of Resistance against Japanese Aggression into a continuation of the Chinese Civil War. In 1949, Mao Zedong proclaimed the establishment of the People's Republic of China in Tiananmen Square. Over the past forty years, China has gone from being broken by war and a largely rural economy, to industrialization, and in the last decade, explosive growth as it has opened up to the broader world. Now, Deng Xiaoping's government faces growing discontent amongst students in major cities, and a question of how to position China on the global stage. In 1989, the State Council of the PRC will discuss *Student Unrest in the People's Republic*, and *The People's Republic of China's Place in Global Superpower Competition*.

Council of Ministers of the Islamic Republic of Iran

Ten years ago, the Western-backed Shah of Iran was overthrown in the Islamic Revolution. Less than a year later, Iraq attacked the fledgling Islamic Republic of Iran, a war which only ended in the latter half of last year. Now, Ayatollah Khomeini's health is ailing, and he has called for reforms to be made to the constitution of the Islamic Republic. The Council of Ministers will meet with the Guardian Council of the Constitution to discuss constitutional issues, but Prime Minister Mousavi's government will also be faced with considering Iran's place in global affairs in the wake of the Iran-Iraq War. In 1989, the Council of Ministers of Iran will discuss *Navigating Between Regional Stability and Revolution Principles*, and *Reforming the Constitution of the Islamic Republic*.

First and Second Ad-Hoc Committees of the Secretary General

The First and Second Ad-Hoc Committees of the Secretary General will be announced to participants at CIMUN XXIII's opening ceremony.

CIMUN Chronicle

Press delegates writing for the CIMUN Chronicle will be tasked with investigating the ongoing events of the conference, chasing down leads, and writing stories which will be published to inform the rest of the conference of major events as they are happening. What you do or do not tell a member of the press, how you present information to them, and the relationships you build or refuse to build with them all contribute to the way that your country will be presented. It is the job of the press to seek the truth, and for non-press delegates, it is your choice to decide how forthcoming you are willing to be.

Major Issues

The Cold War

There is no one recognized starting date to the Cold War. Though historians agree that it did not start immediately at the end of the Second World War, there is disagreement on when the wartime alliance transitioned into a state of competition. Some say that the Soviet occupation of Eastern Europe after the war was the beginning, others point to Winston Churchill's *Iron Curtain* speech in 1946, and yet others point to the Truman Doctrine's inauguration in 1947. Whenever it started, by 1989, the Cold War had entered its fifth decade.

The Cold War developed through distinct phases throughout the second half of the 20th century. From its beginning to 1962, the Cold War went through a period of escalation. This period saw the beginning of the Space Race, the formation of NATO and the Warsaw Pact, the construction of the Berlin Wall, and the Cuban Missile Crisis. It also saw the beginning of proxy

conflicts, wars fought within individual countries where different sides were backed by each superpower. Such conflicts remain an enduring feature of the Cold War even in 1989.

By 1969, the Cold War entered a period known as "Detente," with both Washington and Moscow reaching out to ease tensions. This period saw the end of the Vietnam War, President Richard Nixon's visit to China, and the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks signed. Though there was certainly still conflict and tension, including continued proxy wars, coups, and revolutions, the superpowers consciously pursued policy aimed at reducing the possibility of global war.

Detente ended in 1979, with the Soviet Union's invasion of Afghanistan. The Soviet-Afghan war has continued ever since, and even now the Soviet Union has not yet completed the withdrawal of its military forces from Afghanistan. Ronald Reagans's presidency, from 1981 to January 1989, also contributed to increased military spending and diplomatic tensions. Sometimes called the "Second Cold War," these elevated tensions sharply heightened the conflict between the two superpowers.

Since 1985, the Cold War has been in a renewed period of easing tensions. Mikhail Gorbachev's introduction of Glasnost and Perestroika in 1985 has contributed to the sense that the superpowers are no longer preparing for war, and the recent election of President George H.W. Bush in the United States presents an opportunity for the superpowers to reset their relationships. Nevertheless, the Cold War remains the preeminent feature of the geopolitical landscape.

It is also important to remember that the Cold War is not just a conflict between the two superpowers. Both the United States and the Soviet Union lead their geopolitical bloc, but those blocs are not monolithic. In the west, even a close ally such as the United Kingdom has issues on which it differs from the United States, and frontline nations such as West Germany confront the reality that if the Cold War went "hot," they would be much more certain to face destruction than the United States itself. The Eastern Bloc is more tightly aligned with the Soviet Union, but the Solidarity movement in Poland and other unrest within the Eastern Bloc represent challenges to that authority.

Though the Non-Aligned Movement never coalesced into a third pole in the global Cold War, there are still many countries that don't fit neatly into either bloc. The People's Republic of China is the most clear example, having broken with the Soviet Union several decades ago, and now opening its economy up to the west while maintaining the Communist Party of China's control. Iran, on the other hand, overthrew a western-backed government in 1979, but maintains a state ideology which is opposed to Soviet communism, leaving it in neither superpower's camp. Proxy conflicts also continue to be a major issue in Central America and South Africa, where the United Nations may step in to aid in ongoing peace processes.

In 1987, the United States and the Soviet Union signed the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty. This was the first, and so far only, arms reduction treaty between the superpowers, and may represent a move towards a real end to the Cold War. Whether the superpowers will ever reach a state of what Nikita Khrushchev called "peaceful coexistence" is yet to be seen. In

the meantime, lingering tensions and proxy conflicts continue to demonstrate that the Cold War is a live conflict.

The Global Narcotics Trade

Beginning in the late 1970s, the "cocaine boom" was a period in which the price of cocaine increased drastically, leading to increased cocaine production by organized cartel groups in Central and South America, and increased transnational trade of the substance. The development of these sophisticated transnational narcotics trafficking networks has globalized an issue that was previously domestic.

The global response to this development has been mixed. In the United States, the so-called "War on Drugs" began in the 1970s with an emphasis on treatment, but has evolved to include mandatory minimum sentences for the sale and possession of illegal substances. One of the challenges to resolving this issue, however, is that it requires cooperation between states with varying legal regimes, and with varying levels of state capacity to combat organized criminal enterprise. Particularly in Central and South America, where ongoing conflicts and political instability reduce the ability of governments to combat organized crime, the ability of governments to effectively combat cartels is limited, presenting challenges to international efforts to curb the drug production that takes place in those countries.

The Emergence of Environmental Politics

Over the last two decades, there has been a growing awareness amongst scientists and the global public about the impact that human beings have had on the natural environment. Though there have been some political efforts around environmental policy for over a century, early environmental efforts against smog and heavy pollution in cities were typically framed around human health and happiness. On the other hand, efforts to preserve certain land as national parks or preserves were also largely framed around human concerns. These efforts date back to the middle of the 19th century, but are of a different character than the environmental concerns that have developed over the last several decades.

The more recent development has been a concern for not just human health, but the natural environment itself, and particularly the natural environment on a global scale. Beginning in the 1960s, activists in the United States began to draw attention to the impact that farming practices, such as the widespread use of pesticides such as DDT, were having on natural populations. The early 1960s saw the low point in the population of the American Bald Eagle, which became a symbolic representation of how human activity was hurting the natural world. 1970 saw the celebration of the first Earth Day, and the United States became the first country with a widespread environmental movement seeking political change.

Though the environmentalist movement began in the United States, it has since taken on global prominence as scientists have developed a better understanding of the ways that human

activity is affecting the global environment. Over the past decade, scientists identified that the use of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) was creating an expanding hole in Earth's protective ozone layer around Antarctica. This led to the 1987 Montreal Protocol, the first example of global international cooperation on an environmental issue.

Other issues, such as acid rain, high profile incidents of oil spills and industrial accidents, and deforestation of rainforests are also examples of global concerns that are animating current environmental activism. Since the 1950s, various groups have opposed the use of nuclear energy as an extension of concerns surrounding the spread of nuclear weapons. In 1986, the accident at the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant which spread radiation over much of Europe and required the evacuation of more than three hundred thousand people from the surrounding regions, galvanized anti-nuclear activism, and activism against nuclear power remains a major concern for political environmentalists.

One of the most impactful emerging environmental problems is "climate change," which has taken on the moniker "global warming" after a highly publicized report to the United States senate last year. Scientists have identified that human use of fossil fuels, particularly coal, oil, and natural gas, is releasing concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO2) into the atmosphere which have the potential to change weather patterns and temperatures on a global scale. However, the international community remains divided on how to address this problem.

The 1987 United Nations report "Our Common Future" called for sustainable development, meaning meeting the current needs of the human population without harming future generations. However, this focus on changing developmental policy highlights the divisions which make a unified international response difficult. While developed economies may be able to move away from reliance on fossil fuels, many nations with developing economies point out that "sustainable development" would mean severe delays and restrictions on their efforts to improve the standard of living of their citizens, and to develop their economies. Though there are some pressures on the international community to find a solution to the problem of global CO2 emissions, a solution which countries with developed economies and those with developing economies will accept is a difficult proposition.

The Intifada[23]

Beginning in 1987 and still ongoing, the Intifada is a series of protests and clashes between Palestinians living in the occupied territories, and the government of Israel. The conflict began in December of 1987 when an Israeli military truck collided with cars at the Jabalia refugee camp in the Gaza Strip, killing four Palestinians. The resulting protests quickly spread throughout Gaza, the West Bank, and East Jerusalem.

[23] After the Second Intifada from 2000-2005, the 1987-1993 event (also known as the "Uprising of the Stones") came to be known as the First Intifada. Because this background guide is written in accordance with the world as it existed in 1989, the "first" is omitted.

Since then, protests and clashes have continued throughout the occupied territories. Israel has responded with the use of military and police force, enforcing curfews and closing schools and universities in the West Bank. Hundreds of Palestinians and dozens of Israelis have died. Palestinian leadership has advocated for Palestinians to avoid violence, particularly lethal violence, but no single authority has effective control over Palestinians in the occupied territories. Outside the leadership of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), the Unified National Leadership of the Uprising (UNLU) has gained credibility, and many Palestinians comply with its communiques. However, militant groups, most notably Hamas and Palestinian Islamic Jihad (PIJ), have gained some sway in the occupied territories, rejecting the leadership of the PLO and UNLU, and advocating for the destruction of Israel. In early 1988, Israel arrested many of PIJ's leadership, and the group has faded into the background since then.

Protests continue now, with the rocks thrown by protesters earning the uprising the epithet "The Uprising of The Stones." Though no unified set of demands on the side of the protesters exists, the most widespread set of goals calls for the establishment of an independent Palestinian State, and the withdrawal of Israel from all territory it occupied during the 1967 Six Days' War. This so-called "Two State Solution" contrasts with resolutions to the conflict which would see a single state in which Israelis and Palestinians both live.

The international community's response to the crisis has been divided. The west, led by the United States, has criticized tactics employed by Israel. The Soviet Union and the east have generally been sympathetic to Palestine, and have advocated for moderation, negotiations, and a two state solution. This period of escalated conflict has also led to political leaders in the Arab world reconsidering their approach to the Israel Palestine conflict.

Global Conflict Zones

Though some say that the Cold War is drawing to a close and the world may be moving towards an era of global peace, there are still numerous regions in the world which are in the midst of conflict, where tensions remain high, or which are recovering from conflicts which recently ended. The international community continues to debate how best to deal with the humanitarian impacts of war and conflict, and the political dimension of these conflicts often complicates things further as countries take sides in regional conflicts based on broader geopolitical concerns.

In the Middle East, the Intifada continues to highlight tensions that exist not just between Israel and Palestinians, but more broadly between Israel and neighboring Arab states. There have been several wars fought between the two sides, and though steps have been taken to normalize relations in the region and build towards peace, the ongoing flashpoint reinforces that those tensions have not been erased. Additionally, the ceasefire which brought fighting to an end in the nearly decade long Iran-Iraq War remains in place, but the United Nation's efforts to end the conflict are largely untested, and the international community as a whole continues to debate

how best to prevent another conflict between Iran and Iraq, as well as how to assist in rebuilding following nearly a decade of war between the neighboring countries.

The Soviet Union is expected to complete its withdrawal from Afghanistan within the next few months. After a decade of fighting, most analysts agree that the Soviet people and the armed forces themselves had no more will to fight in a war that had become not just a quagmire, but an opportunity for the Soviet Union's geopolitical opponents to give it its own "Vietnam." The Soviet-backed communist government in Kabul remains in power, but it is fragile, and many doubt its ability to withstand the Afghan Mujahideen without continued Soviet support. The conflict stands as a further example of how asymmetric warfare has made conventional military invasion and occupation increasingly costly and difficult to sustain.

In Central and South America, several conflicts continue between the governments of individual countries, and militant groups therein. In both El Salvador and Nicaragua, armed conflicts continue between the sitting governments and opposition forces. Both of these conflicts have significant Cold War dimensions, but neither has been brought to an end even as the superpowers have sought a degree of peace. Further South, the Maoist Shining Path guerilla movement continues its insurgency in Peru. More broadly, the region has several dictatorships which face opposition from within, and the prevalence of conflict and tension is a contributing factor to the rise of cartels and organized crime regionally.

In southern Africa, agreements have been reached to withdraw Cuban troops from Angola, where they had been stationed in support of the Angolan government, as part of a broader settlement that also provides for South African withdrawal from Namibia. The Security Council will debate the role of the United Nations in securing peace in the region going forward. Namibia has sought independence from South African administration since 1966, and the asymmetric conflict there is now well over a decade old. With a resolution in sight, the international community must still consider what allowed such a prolonged conflict to persist, and what can be done to resolve similar conflicts elsewhere.

Finally, though no active conflict has yet broken out, ethnic tensions are rising in Yugoslavia, and some question the long-term stability of the federated state. Josip Broz Tito, who led the country until his death in 1980, was a unifying figure who helped hold its diverse regions together. In the years since, economic conditions have worsened considerably, and ethnic nationalism has emerged as a significant political force. The ruling communist party retains formal control of the country, but its actual grip on power is increasingly in question amid widespread unrest and dissatisfaction.

Themes

Bipolarity

Since the late 1940s, the world has operated on a bipolar model of power distribution. The United States and its allies, also known as the "first world," have stood in opposition to and conflict with the Soviet Union and its allies, also known as the "second world." Though efforts were made for the "third world," those countries aligned with neither power, to assert itself as an independent bloc, those efforts did not culminate in the formation of a strong alternative power against the superpowers. Now, it seems that bipolarity may be reaching its end.

The failure of a third pole to materialize during the Cold War serves to illustrate the factors which have allowed each superpower to become a pole around which other countries orbit. Each has an economic base capable of supporting not just itself, but a distributed network of states which it trades with and offers support to. Each is also able to develop and maintain a sophisticated independent military which is on par with its superpower opponent. Each has a network of aligned states which it leads and which broadly cooperate with it. Finally, each has an ideological vision which unifies its block, places it in opposition to the other pole of the international system, and which it can export globally. Looking at these factors, the failure of the Non-Aligned Movement to coalesce into a third pole may have some explanation rooted in the fact that it was an ideologically diverse group of developing countries which did not share a unified political or military cause. There are many other ways to think about the Non-Aligned Movement, its goals, and how and whether it failed, but this framing also allows us to look at the present state of the world in 1989.

As the Soviet Union's grip on the Eastern Bloc appears to be weakening, some are speaking of an emerging unipolar order, with the United States as the undisputed global power without equal. That has not yet come to pass, and it is not the only alternative to a bipolar world order. Other thinkers have pointed to the emerging economic strength of Japan, or a more integrated Western Europe, and argue that the future may not be a unipolar nor bipolar distribution of global power, but a multipolar world in which several significant blocs exist with their own centers of gravity. As you consider this guide and the events of this year, consider how a unipolar or multipolar world would differ from a bipolar world. Also consider how countries would make decisions under each system, and what factors might lead the world towards or away from these varying distributions of power. How do political actors need to change their calculus if there are one, two, or more major blocs that they need to maneuver around? Do more power blocs represent more tools that a non-aligned country can play off each other, or is each bloc a different threat to those countries' independence and sovereignty? Finally, you should consider whether the other proposed poles of a multipolar world order currently have the capacity to become a pole in the way the United States and Soviet Union are, what they might lack as compared to the existing superpowers, and what the costs and benefits of attaining

superpower status might be. Western Europe has no integrated military, nor a particular ideological vision. Japan has a self defense force, consciously not styled as a military, which is primarily concerned with defending its own territorial integrity. Taking these examples and others you can think of, what are the challenges to becoming a pole of the international system, and how might policy makers consider whether to pursue that goal?

Also keep in mind, however, that the world remains in a bipolar distribution of power. Though the Soviet Union has certainly faltered, it remains a superpower not only due to its nuclear arsenal, but also due to its global influence and standing internationally. On paper, it still remains a pole of the international system, and one of the major outstanding questions for the international community is how close that perception is to reality. Consider how a policy maker can determine the difference between a power which has stumbled, and one which is in true decline, and what the impacts of that difference are. Also consider how a policy maker can navigate a situation where the answer to that question remains deeply uncertain.

A weakening superpower does not only present a challenge to the state in question. For its allies, who may rely on the superpower for economic, military, and political support, the weakening poses a threat to those pillars of support. For adversaries, potential instability may not be limited to the weakening power, and the loss of a predictable opponent may require refiguring the adversary's own geopolitical and strategic considerations. Consider how both allies and enemies of a declining superpower may need to reorient themselves in the wake of a superpower's collapse, and how each group should act when that collapse is still largely theoretical.

What benefits does superpower status convey to a country, and do those benefits outweigh the costs of maintaining global superpower competition? What would descending from the status of superpower actually mean in practice, and how far should a superpower or its allies go to maintain the status quo rather than accept that decline? Are there different interests at play between the people of a superpower and that country's leadership, and if so, how should the international community weigh or address that difference? More importantly, are there limits to what international actors can legitimately or effectively do to influence the internal politics of a powerful country, even one that appears to be faltering?

Finally, remember that this is not the first time the international system has undergone a shift in its distribution of power. At the turn of the 20th Century, the world was divided in a multipolar system of European great powers in contest with each other. The transition to a bipolar world order arguably began in 1914, and though the bipolar world was taking shape in 1945, many argue that the bipolar world order was not cemented until 1956.[24] What does the historical precedent suggest for leaders looking at a potential transition of power in 1989? Are there particular lessons to be learned or traps to be avoided?

[24] CIMUN XXII's state of the world document discusses this period of hegemonic transition in more detail. You can also see CIMUN XXII in review on cimun.org for analysis of how last year's 1956 simulation addressed this seminal period.

Legitimacy in Chaotic Times

Legitimacy is the story that a state tells about its own existence in order to justify why it is governed the way it is. A state which is seen as very legitimate is one in which many citizens accept and support the story of that state's legitimacy. A state which is illegitimate, on the other hand, is one in which some critical mass of the population rejects that story. Throughout the world, 1989 represents a time of crisis. Student unrest, political instability, and geopolitical uncertainty are widespread, and each presents a challenge to the legitimacy of the countries which are impacted. As we consider how countries will respond to the crises impacting their legitimacy, it is helpful to think about the ways that a state can assert its legitimacy in the first place.

Types of Legitimacy:

An inexhaustive list of types of legitimacy includes procedural legitimacy, results-based legitimacy, legitimacy based in tradition or national identity, and ideological legitimacy. It is important to note that no single model can explain every way that a government or social structure maintains legitimacy. Additionally, remember that even outside of a state's perceived legitimacy, the ability to use police or military force is another lever which can suppress dissatisfaction. This is even more true where a powerful external backer is willing to help provide force to maintain a government.

Within this simplified framework, procedural legitimacy is legitimacy that a government claims via the procedures, usually elections, which are used to select a country's leadership. In liberal democracies, procedural legitimacy is embodied in the idea that the government has the right to make decisions because it was put into place via electoral procedures that represent the will of the governed. While this is by far the most common type of procedural legitimacy in the modern world, systems which use meritocratic selection to appoint government figures, or which use particular decision-making techniques also fall under this umbrella.[25] Remember that even within these four categories, there are significant and meaningful differences. The story of legitimacy in a republic (such as the United States), which derives procedural legitimacy purely from its elections as an embodiment of popular will, is subtly different from procedural legitimacy in a constitutional monarchy (such as the United Kingdom) where procedural legitimacy is partly bound up in tradition, and the connection of modern procedure back to a legacy of prior sources of legitimacy.

Results-based legitimacy, on the other hand, is when a government justifies its existence on the basis of the things which the government provides for the population of the country. The

[25] For an example of the latter: democratic centralism, the concept of internal debate within a political party, but strict public adherence to a decision once it has been made, is a form of procedural legitimacy. The perceived legitimacy of a decision is rooted in the process of internal debate, while that decision's legitimacy is projected outward by members of that party agreeing not to criticize or disagree with that decision.

classic example of this type of legitimacy is the so-called petrostate, such as Saudi Arabia. One theory for how autocratic governments remain in power in many of these states is that when governments can provide basic services and low or nonexistent tax burdens via oil proceeds, citizens do not expect an active say in governance, and are generally willing to accept an autocratic government so long as it continues to provide results. This form of legitimacy is not limited to petrostates, however. Every government, to some degree, is perceived as legitimate or illegitimate based on that government's ability to provide for the people it governs. What a government is expected to deliver has changed greatly over time. In the medieval era, the perceived legitimacy of a monarch might be tied to expectations that they should provide safety from violence, and access to food for citizens. In the modern era, more complex demands such as access to consumer goods, healthcare, economic opportunity, and increasing standards of living are all an extension of what we have termed results-based legitimacy.

Legitimacy based in tradition and national identity are in some sense simpler than the previous two categories. Here, the legitimacy of a state and its government is tied to a narrative of that state's connection to the past, or its embodiment of an imagined community. This kind of legitimacy can be seen in stories that tie a state's origin to a mythologized or heightened past, such as a monarchy which traces its origins back to a mythologized king,[26] or to a heightened memory of the country's origin.[27] Of our four categories, legitimacy based in tradition or national identity is the most direct case of storytelling as the direct source of legitimacy. Identification with a historical tradition or an imagined community says almost nothing about how a government functions or what a government should do, relying on emotional association rather than results, processes, or promises to contribute to a state's legitimacy.

Finally, we have identified ideological legitimacy. Rather than being a story about the history or origin of the state, ideological legitimacy is based on what a state says about how the world should function, and how it embodies those ideals. In Marxist-Leninist states, ideological legitimacy comes from the belief that communism is the next stage in historical development after capitalism, that that transition is inevitable, and that a world where class society gives way to shared ownership of the means of production is a moral good. In these countries, part of the state's legitimacy is tied to the idea that the state is working to achieve the goal of creating communism. In the United States, as an alternative example, ideological legitimacy comes from ideas like the United States being a "melting pot," that its system of government provides freedom to citizens, and that it provides everyone with the opportunity to succeed on their own merits. These particular stories do not merely provide an explanation for why a form of

[26] As an example, the Norwegian monarchy currently traces its origins to Harald Fairhair, a king whose historical existence has been questioned. Though modern British monarchs no longer do so, in the Tudor period, they traced their family's origin to the legendary figure of King Arthur.

[27] Think, for example, of the outsized status that figures like George Washington, Mao Zedong, and Vladimir Lenin are given in the memory of their country's origin. Though these figures were certainly important, even crucial to the events that led to their countries being established, modern recollection of these figures paints them as larger than life.

government is good, they can also provide a balm for less savory aspects of a form of government. In the American context, societal inequality is often explained as a result of the meritocratic system provided by the country's free-market system. In Marxist-Leninist states, a lack of popular participation in governance is explained by the idea that the government must be insulated from those who may seek to waver from the path towards communism. Ideological legitimacy can also be a double-edged sword. If a state's account of its own legitimacy is rooted in an argument that the state adheres to a particular ideology, failure to make good on that ideological promise can undermine the state's legitimacy. In many Eastern Bloc countries, the Marxist-Leninist promise of a rational, planned economy, has sharpened criticisms as those centrally planned economies have faced periods of stagnation and economic malaise.

Crises of Legitimacy:

Most states rely on some combination of these and other factors to establish their legitimacy and to argue why their system of government should continue to exist. To some extent, even the most seemingly-authoritarian system is only able to function because the people that system governs are willing to accept its existence.[28] If enough members of a society are unhappy with a system of government, and are willing to work against that government actively, that government cannot persist. Some political scientists argue that if 3.5% of a population is willing to join in nonviolent protest for a cause, that cause is likely to succeed.[29] While this particular figure can be argued, the underlying truth that all governments require some amount of consent from the governed in order to function remains true.

In 1989, the challenge that many countries face is how to maintain legitimacy in the face of unprecedented chaos, and breakdowns in the traditional levers that were used to project their governments' legitimacy. When economic crises hit, that often means that the "results-based" legitimacy of the state falters. People expect their government to succeed at providing certain benefits, and disruptions to those benefits make them more willing to question whether a different government would be better.

[28] Note that what "acceptance" means in this context can vary. Some scholars argue that a sufficient degree of coercion may be enough to maintain an autocratic form of government indefinitely by force alone. In this framing, "acceptance" is less about being satisfied or ambivalent towards the existing form of government, and more about whether a person who is unsatisfied with a form of government is willing to risk the potential consequences of speaking out.

[29] Note that the so-called 3.5% rule in political science was not formulated until Erica Chenoweth's work in 2013, which drew on work done in the 1990s by Mark Lichbach. There is not a firm consensus on the validity of the 3.5% rule, and it is best understood as one idea about how power functions amongst many. In particular, keep in mind that the 3.5% rule has been criticized for failing to account for violent revolutions, and that even its proponents describe it primarily as a way of understanding actions taken against autocratic regimes, not as a model which generalizes to protest in a liberal democracy or other political context.

Crises of Legitimacy in Autocratic Systems:

In autocratic systems, these questions turn not just to a different government, but different forms of government, in part because an autocratic system provides limited means for dissatisfied citizens to seek change. In these circumstances, governments must seek to bolster their legitimacy in other ways. Can leaning on nationalism or ideological conviction help to spur citizens through an uncertain time? Alternatively, can the use of force (either via the domestic police or military, or via external backing) contain discontent? If either leaning on other forms of legitimacy or leaning on force can work for a time, what happens when that time is up and a crisis still hasn't been resolved? What happens when a state has relied on external backing to maintain control for a long time, and the source of that external backing seems to be wavering in its conviction?

Another important factor many countries in 1989 need to consider is elite fracture. When a country's ruling elites are unified in their outlook, their monopoly on established forms of power can make it difficult for those who are discontent to bring about change. If, however, elites disagree on how to respond to a crisis, that creates openings for popular movements to advocate for change. In particular, many countries in 1989 have factions within their governments who seek political and economic reform, and others who are opposed to those reforms. This division creates political ground for reformist factions to enter, but it also raises a question. What does it say about a state's legitimacy when the leaders of a government cannot agree on how to govern?

Taken from another direction, we can ask how legitimacy factors into the success or failure of a reformist movement. What does a movement seeking reform have to do to establish that it should change the way that power is exercised in a country? How can a reformist movement act against the legitimacy of an existing government, and how can it establish its own legitimacy? Because popular movements typically do not have the backing of police or military force to push for reform in the way that a state can use those levers of power to account for a lack of legitimacy, the story that a popular movement tells about itself and the legitimacy of its cause is even more central than for state actors. Think about what story the reformist movements of 1989 want to tell about themselves, and how state actors can respond to those efforts.

Finally, returning to the various crises that are eroding the legitimacy of states around the world in 1989, consider one other lever that the governments of these states may control: information. Throughout the Cold War, countries on both sides attempted in various ways to spread information and propaganda across the Iron Curtain, and alternatively to contain information within their own bloc or country. In the face of unrest, how can a government use control over information to impact the course of events? What are the potential consequences to utilizing control over information? What happens if information spreads despite a government's best efforts to contain it, or if the government's control over the spread of information is suddenly reduced?

As you approach 1989, consider what levers are available to an autocratic government when a chaotic period of time or confluence of unfavorable events lead to an acute crisis of legitimacy. How can popular pressure be addressed before it overthrows the system entirely? How does popular pressure impact these systems differently than in a more liberal form of government? Are there methods for an autocratic government to project or demonstrate legitimacy even if major segments of the population feel unrepresented or failed by the government?

Crises of Legitimacy in Liberal Systems:

On the other hand, consider the impact of chaotic times in a liberal system of government. With regular elections, how does chaos and dissatisfaction put different pressures on leaders as compared to a more autocratic system? While regular elections may provide an outlet for dissatisfied citizens to vote out an incumbent, elections happen on a fixed schedule, and political crises do not. If a political crisis occurs well before an election is scheduled, is the prospect of that future election enough to relieve discontent in the meantime?

Another advantage that a liberal system has is that dissatisfaction with a government and its decisions can be disentangled from dissatisfaction with the system as a whole. If a government's legitimacy is fatally compromised, a liberal system offers the opportunity to replace that government while the system remains intact. In an autocratic system, the failure of the government often becomes a failure of the system because the system and the government are so deeply intertwined. However, what happens in a liberal system of government if successive elections continue to provide governments that do not resolve a problem or set of problems? How might this impact the legitimacy of the system as a whole? Even if a crisis is eventually resolved, does the disconnect between the government and the system mean that the memory of a long-term problem will linger in citizens' minds as an issue with the system itself?

Liberal systems also face the issue of elite fracture, but in a different form. Disagreement between opposing parties is expected, but what happens when it leads to gridlock? If a government is consistently unable to make decisions because opposing factions prevent a decision from being made, does that impact the perceived legitimacy of the system? What are the impacts on a state's procedural legitimacy if citizens start to believe that the procedures themselves are giving rise to issues of paralysis and indecision? In systems which rely on coalition governments, such fractures can become glaringly obvious as even small parties within a coalition government may be able to grind government activity to a halt if their particular demands are not met, or they find government policy disagreeable.

It is also worth noting that the four forms of legitimacy discussed above do not belong to a single group in a liberal system. While we have considered that an opposition movement in an autocratic system may need to develop and assert its own form of legitimacy, that type of contested legitimacy is the norm between opposing parties in a liberal system. Parties will argue about whether they will provide better results, how their party embodies national ideals or

history, and distinctions in ideological disposition. These kinds of arguments do not happen in an autocratic system. How does institutionalizing these divisions impact legitimacy in a liberal system of government? Does it provide an outlet for discontent? Does it allow for more widespread buy-in by allowing competing narratives of legitimacy to coexist? Does contesting legitimacy make a liberal system more resilient by creating an outlet for grievances, or does it create vulnerabilities by giving dissatisfied groups a ready-made vehicle to capitalize on dissatisfaction?

Expanding on the idea of capitalizing on dissatisfaction, chaotic times in liberal systems often produce candidates and political movements which reject the "establishment" narrative about their legitimacy. These candidates, who present themselves as something outside the system, present an interesting question. When they are elected, is that the system successfully absorbing and channeling discontent back into the established systems of power, or is there something damaging to the legitimacy of a liberal system of government when it brings someone to power who has challenged that system's legitimacy?

Taken together, these various questions point towards a larger, overarching question. What is the difference between a crisis of legitimacy in an autocratic system and a liberal system? Can a liberal democracy experience the kind of terminal decline that an autocracy can, or is it fundamentally different? Do procedural safety valves mean that a crisis can always be averted, that a terminal crisis is simply harder to reach, or do those safety valves merely delay a crisis which will eventually arrive?

There are no simple answers to any of these questions, and you should think about them as you consider the issues facing the world in 1989.

The Limits of Superpower Influence

Since the beginning of the Cold War, the unspoken contract undergirding the superpower blocs has been that the superpower would provide political, military, and economic support in exchange for the political alignment of its bloc members. In the West, soft power has generally been the tool used to maintain that discipline, along with the fact that the United States's allies have typically shared in its opposition to Soviet communism without a need for prior intervention.[30] In the Soviet Bloc, on the other hand, military force has repeatedly been used to uphold the political alignment of bloc members, such as in Budapest in 1956 when Hungary attempted to withdraw from the Warsaw Pact, or in the 1968 suppression of the Prague Spring.

However, by 1989, the structure of that agreement, particularly in the Soviet Bloc, is uncertain. General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev has spoken explicitly of socialist states having "freedom of choice" in how they manage their internal affairs, suggesting that Moscow may not employ military force to maintain control over its bloc going forward. This comes alongside

[30] Though note China, Greece, Turkey, Korea, Vietnam, Cuba, and regime change in Central and South America as examples where the United States was willing to use hard power to establish (or attempt to establish) an allied state.

Gorbachev's own push for reforms within the Soviet Union, and is a clear suggestion that such reforms should not be limited to just the Soviet context. While no crisis has yet tested Moscow's true willingness to let countries in the Eastern Bloc diverge from their prior political cohesion to the Soviet Union, the question is not merely academic. In February, the government of Poland is going to sit down with Solidarity, an independent trade union which seeks serious reforms to Poland's system of government, and which would certainly have been met with military force in prior years. The question now is whether Moscow will accept the results of these talks, whether it will allow them to commence without interference, and what this apparent change in policy would mean. Is it a result of Gorbachev's reformist vision, or a tacit acknowledgment that the Soviet Union no longer has the power to maintain its firm grip on states in Eastern Europe?

On the other hand, East Germany represents an inversion of Poland. Erich Honecker has rejected Soviet reform, and remarked that the German Democratic Republic is under no obligation to follow the Soviet lead in "redecorating," as he calls it. This too is a test of the cohesion of the Soviet Bloc. The GDR is widely acknowledged as one of the most successful states within the Eastern Bloc, and its refusal to follow the Soviet lead towards reform begs another question. If the Soviet Union itself is undergoing reforms, will Mikhail Gorbachev accept an ally within the bloc which is unwilling to do so?

In the West, superpower influence is being challenged more subtly. NATO, the premier emblem of the American bloc, has never rested its cohesion solely on treaty language. Fundamentally, it relies on the members of the organization viewing American leadership as serving their own interests, and benefitting their own countries. The threat of American occupation has never been a credible factor in these countries' decisions, rather the existential threat underlying NATO has been the reliance of Western Europe on the United States in the face of Soviet conventional military forces.

As political and diplomatic winds shift, the stability of NATO is far from certain. France has characteristically remained somewhat aloof from NATO's integrated command structure, and still retains its own nuclear deterrent. West Germany, on the other hand, is facing growing internal pressure from citizens who view NATO membership as something which may invite destruction in the event of war rather than averting war entirely. With the INF treaty eliminating intermediate range nuclear weapons, short range systems which would primarily impact German soil in the event of war are what remains to be modernized. While the United States and United Kingdom favor such modernizations, domestic pressure in West Germany opposes them. Additionally, West Germany has pursued its own diplomatic stance towards East Germany and the Soviet Union. Particularly as the Soviet Union appears to be softening, and thus the existential threat to Western Europe may be softening as well, the operative question is what influence the United States will have to continue maintaining its bloc alliances.

Thus, on both sides of the Cold War, the evolving geopolitical situation of 1989 raises serious questions about what the function of geopolitical blocs truly is, who those blocs serve, and how they can respond to an evolving world.

Reform and Resistance

In numerous countries around the world, the question of the day is whether the government will bow to calls for reform, or maintain an existing autocratic system. In the Soviet Union, Mikhail Gorbachev is championing reform from the heights of power. In Iran, the Ayatollah has called together important figures to debate revising the country's constitution. In Poland, a mass movement has given rise to upcoming talks about reforming the country's system of government. In China, the rumblings of student protest ask why political liberalization has not accompanied economic liberalization.

In each of these examples, though the groups which advocate reform are different, the same fundamental questions are being asked. Who currently holds power? Who is asking for a change in how power is distributed within the country? What motivates the reformist movement? What obstacles does that movement face, both in terms of overt opposition, and entrenched power structures?

The wide range of groups that seek reform demonstrates that there is no one-size-fits-all answer to these questions. In the case of the Soviet Union, the Communist Party itself has numerous members, including many within the government, who do not agree with Mikhail Gorbachev's vision, and who are resistant to reform. In Poland and China, while there are calls for reform amongst the population, the bulk of those holding government power support the system within which they currently hold power. In Iran, though there is no single group opposed to reform, opening the door to reform raises questions about how changing the distribution of power within the system of government will impact those who currently hold power.

As you consider various examples of groups seeking reform throughout this conference, keep in mind the full picture of who those reforms will benefit, and who may feel threatened by those reforms, and consider how those shifting perspectives influence the likelihood that these reforms will succeed.

Individuals and Structures

While this guide has often spoken of "the Soviet Union," "West Germany," "the United States," and other countries as monolithic entities acting on the world stage, it is important to remember that these countries are not actually single entities, nor do they make decisions or take actions. Each action taken by a country is, in reality, a decision made by its government, whether a single person or a collection of people is responsible. The implementation of those decisions is communicated by individuals, and carried out by even more individuals. This section asks you to consider two opposing ideas. On one hand, the idea that individual people at particular moments can have a significant personal impact on the course of events on the global stage, and on the other hand, that there are significant factors outside of any person's control which constrain the actions and decisions of even the most powerful individual people.

Consider first the factors which can make the individual character of a leader important. The health, temperament, ideological outlook, and personal relationships of a leader can all influence how they might react to a crisis, communicate with another world leader, or be seen by audiences both domestic and international. A powerful leader who advocates reform will have a very different impact than one who opposes it wholeheartedly. A leader who is sick at the moment of an international crisis will react with less vigor and clarity than one who is healthy. Even the personal rapport that one world leader develops with another may influence the flow of high level negotiations between nations. All of these are very personal, individual factors. Going beyond these factors, which are abstract, decisions made by individual leaders in moments of crisis have an unmistakable influence on how those crises play out. Whether or not to mobilize for war may be the decision that changes whether or not a war will happen. Whether to escalate a conflict or seek accord may completely reshape how an action is seen by the international community. Consider not just the personality and ideology of individual policy makers, but how their history, the institutional context they find themselves in, and the personal stakes of their decisions might influence how they make those decisions.

On the other hand, consider what context a leader or policy maker makes decisions within. Even in the most autocratic system, orders from the top must be delegated to people who will implement them, and further delegated to those who will carry out whatever plan eventually forms. The systems that exist to carry out these decisions have their own inertia: established ways of doing things, expectations of what form a plan should take and how resources should be allocated, even established rivalries and politics within and between groups within the government and society. Each of these pieces of context is a restriction on how a policy maker can actually make decisions. They are not overt, written rules, but invisible barriers that influence what is achievable within the existing system.

Beyond the individual and the institutional, consider forces that operate beyond any human control. A prior decade of economic policy creates the expectations, concerns, and anxieties which new economic policy must respond to. Ideological precepts upheld for generations create broad societal expectations about how government should function. Population dynamics and demographic trends enforce certain requirements and limitations on government policy, and do so in a way that cannot be shaped by any leader. To what extent are leaders able to freely make decisions once you consider the myriad structural factors that create the conditions they are making decisions within, and the acceptable decisions which are available to them.

The tension between these two ideas: individual agency and structural forces, is at the heart of analyzing historical and political events. If we treat outcomes as purely a result of individual actors, we may attribute something to a single person in the right (or wrong) place at the right (or wrong) time which was actually the result of years or decades of planning and preparation. On the other hand, if we ignore individuals entirely, we may assume that concrete, measurable explanations exist where human decisionmaking actually had a stronger influence.

Neither extreme gives an accurate understanding of historical events, nor of how politics and diplomacy function. The correct answer is a synthesis of the two, understanding the role of humans in making history even in the midst of circumstances that they had no role in choosing.

As you prepare, apply this thinking to the topics you are asked to consider. Which individual people had a role in creating the crisis, and which individual people might have a role in resolving it? What structural factors contribute to the ongoing crisis, and to what degree are those structural factors something that people can influence directly? How can we evaluate the balance between these two explanations in an individual context? Does the strength, determination, or persona of an individual leader or policy maker have the potential to overcome structural obstacles that a different ruler may have been unable to overcome? To what degree do we base our analysis of a leader on things that are truly within their power, as opposed to projecting ideas of strength, success, and accomplishment onto them which may have arisen from factors outside their control? Alternatively, consider where pointing towards structural factors may be an excuse for poor leadership, and where more adroit decision making might have salvaged a situation.

There are no simple answers to these questions. This December, as you participate in CIMUN XXIII, consider how your experiences reflect the unstable balance between personal and structural influence, and whether you can identify particular moments where the opportunity for individual action and influence presents itself.

CIMUN XXIII GUIDE TO DELEGATE PREPARATION

Is this your first Model United Nations Conference? Are you an experienced delegate who is not experienced with the unique nature of CIMUN? Are you an experienced CIMUN attendee looking for advice? If you fit any of those descriptions, this memo was written for you. The purpose of this memo is to explain the features of our conference that are different from others you may have attended in the past. We hope this memo helps you and your fellow delegates prepare for all CIMUN has to offer.

Introduction to Crisis

Traditional Model UN committees consist of delegates representing countries in UN bodies, or other international organizations. For example, you could represent Senegal in the United Nations General Assembly, or Brazil in the World Trade Organization.

These committees have *agenda items*, which are topics that are set by the conference before it begins. Throughout the conference, delegates debate these issues and form coalitions (or *blocs*) with other countries they want to work with. Then, these delegates work together to write *resolutions,* which are long-form pieces of legislation expressing policy positions and developing solutions to the issues raised in the agenda item. All of the conference is spent discussing these issues, then writing and debating resolutions. Your Model UN team or club has likely taught you this flow of debate.

Crisis adds a wrinkle to this predictable flow. Crises are unpredictable, emergent scenarios that delegates must respond to immediately. For example, imagine you are a delegate for France in the United Nations Security Council. Suddenly, while your committee is discussing one of its topics, an analyst enters the room to inform your committee that American and Chinese ships have fired on each other in the Taiwan Strait. This is a *crisis update*. These crisis updates can come in many forms, from your committee's Political Officer presenting an issue, to a breaking news article in the CIMUN Chronicle, to a CNN briefing.

Certain Model UN committees do not debate resolutions. Instead, they spend the whole conference responding to these crises, debating and creating action plans. Additionally, instead of representing countries in UN bodies, they represent specific people in smaller committees like national cabinets. At CIMUN, these committees are called *Cabinets*, as many of them simulate national cabinets; they can also be referred to as *continuous crisis committees* or simply *crisis committees*.

Even so, at CIMUN, it is entirely possible for non-Cabinets to be asked to respond to occasional crises, as our world is constantly changing and evolving. Any committee at CIMUN could receive a crisis to handle, no matter how large. For example, the IAEA could be called on to respond to a nuclear accident, the United Nations General Assembly could be called to respond to imminent matters of international peace and security, the Organization of American States could be called to address an emerging diplomatic breach between countries in the Western hemisphere – all situations requiring immediate action from the most important players on the global stage.

At CIMUN, we have a specific department whose job is to make these crises for the whole conference. The *Department of Simulations* consists of CIMUN staffers who pick its committees and topics, write background guides, and create the different updates and scenarios you will respond to during the conference weekend. They fulfill the same role that traditional Model UN conferences call *Crisis Directors* or *crisis staff*. Think of Simulations like the brain of the whole conference – we take information on what's happening and being decided in every individual committee and cabinet, process it, and determine how it all fits together. We then send out the results in the form of crisis updates. These updates take many different shapes, from guest speakers in different committees to breaking news updates to classified memos.

Simulations staff at CIMUN are not limited to the backroom! Every committee will have a *Political Officer* posted to their Dais. The role of the Political Officer is to serve as the substantive expert for the committee, monitoring debate and substantive documents for the accuracy of national positions and content. Political Officers are also there to serve as a liaison between your committee and your *Home Government*, the team in the backroom which processes and responds to the events of the conference. If you are in a general committee and looking to contact your Home Government or interact with a crisis update in a creative way, your Political Officer is the first person you should speak to or pass a note to.

Cross-Committee Interactions

Many Model UN conferences have *Joint Crisis Committees* – usually two continuous crisis committees that are related to each other and exist in the same universe. Consequently, the actions one committee takes directly impacts the other. Crisis updates can impact both committees at the same time.

CIMUN is special – all of CIMUN is, in a sense, one giant Joint Crisis Committee. Every single one of CIMUN's committees and cabinets exist in the same universe as part of the same crisis arc. Thus, each has the ability to impact the overall story of the conference. This year, all

CIMUN's committees will take place in 1989, with the same start date of **January 22nd, 1956**. What happens in any committee has the potential to directly affect all the others.

For example, if CIMUN XXIII's Cabinet of the United Kingdom was to embargo the Islamic Republic of Iran, the Council of Ministers of the Islamic Republic of Iran would receive a crisis update detailing the United Kingdom's embargo. What makes CIMUN special is that every other relevant committee and cabinet will receive this same update, and all committees and cabinets will be able to read and follow the news on the CIMUN Chronicle, our in-conference newspaper. Every other committee and cabinet then has the ability to choose how to respond. Other cabinets could choose to ignore or support this embargo, the Security Council or General Assembly could choose to condemn the action or work to organize negotiations, the Economic & Social Council could choose to send humanitarian aid if the embargo causes prolonged suffering. The limit on how events play out is the creativity and political will of the bodies participating in our simulation.

Any committee or cabinet has the capacity to influence and even directly interact with any other committee or cabinet at CIMUN. The Security Council can try and negotiate peace talks between various cabinets. Cabinets can arrange meetings with other cabinets, try to petition other committees for help, even create unofficial agreements and official treaties with each other. The Organization of American States can provide unified support to Cabinet actions. The Council of Ministers of the Islamic Republic of Iran can write legislation for the Guardian Council to debate and pass. The U.S. Senate can conduct oversight hearings on the work of the U.S. Cabinet. Our rules of procedure provide ways for some of these interactions to play out formally, but our Department of Simulations is equipped to respond to actions outside of those predicted in the rules of procedure. *The CIMUN team **highly** encourages you to be creative – if you are unsure if your idea will work, just ask your committee's Political Officer!* Delegates should also note that CIMUN gives out specific, full-conference awards for delegates who do a notably good job interacting in a creative, intelligent manner across different committees.

How much interacting your committee does with others will significantly vary depending on what committee you are in. If you are in a committee whose primary focus is writing and debating resolutions, it is unlikely you will spend much time interacting with other bodies. However, even if you are in a resolution-focused committee, we encourage you to read the news and stay invested in what's happening in the world around you. You never know when a general committee may become enmeshed in an international crisis when they least expect it. The level of interactivity you can expect depends on whether you are in a non-crisis committee, such as the United Nations General Assembly or IAEA, a hybrid committee such as the United States Senate or NATO, or a crisis committee such as the Cabinet of the United States or the Cabinet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Heads of Government

One of the most distinguishing features of CIMUN is its Heads of Government, or HOGs. In real-life politics, national cabinets are advisory committees to Heads of Government, the individuals with ultimate decision-making power over a country's government. (They are not bodies that pass all policy via a simple majority vote on directives.) As an example, the United States' President is its Head of Government. This means that cabinets do not make decisions by majority rule. Rather, the Head of Government gets the input of their advisors and makes a final decision on how to proceed.

Each national cabinet at CIMUN will have its HOG present – if you are in the 1989 U.S. Cabinet, for example, President George H.W. Bush will be there to guide debate. Instead of cabinet members voting on individual solutions or directives, with the ones getting a majority vote passing and being enacted, HOGs will have final say over everything that gets done in their Cabinet. Some HOGs may take the majority opinion into account when making their choices on how to respond to crisis updates. Others may have strong opinions and go against the wishes of their Cabinet ministers.

Delegates in general committees (i.e. not cabinets) are advised that HOGs still exist and actively impact the rest of CIMUN's world, even outside the Cabinets. For example, the Chancellor of the Federal Republic of Germany, Helmut Kohl, could still give a speech to the UN General Assembly that will have a significant impact on the country's international reputation. HOGs will be active forces in shaping the story of CIMUN XXIII, whether or not they are the head of your specific committee.

Delegates in national legislatures should also be advised that they will be interacting with both their country's Head of Government and their political parties' leader, which we refer to as a mini-HOG. For example, if you are a Democrat in the U.S. Senate, you will also be answering to Senate Majority Leader George J. Mitchell (D-ME), represented by a CIMUN staffer who will lead your party caucus sessions and work to maintain unified strategic objectives among the Democrats in committee.

The Heads of Government for CIMUN XXIII are the following:

- Cabinet of the United States of America, 1989:
    - President George H.W. Bush
- Council of Ministers of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, 1989: President,
    - Mikhail Gorbachev
- Cabinet of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 1989:
    - Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher

- Council of Ministers of the German Democratic Republic, 1989:
    - Chairman of the State Council Erich Honecker
- National Security Council of the Federal Republic of Germany, 1989:
    - Chancellor Helmut Kohl
- Council of Ministers of the Polish People's Republic, 1989:
    - Chairman of the Council of State Wojciech Jaruzelski
- State Council of the People's Republic of China, 1989:
    - Party Military Chief Deng Xiaoping
- Council of Ministers of the Islamic Republic of Iran, 1989:
    - Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini
    - Prime Minister Mir-Hossein Mousavi
- United States Senate, 1989:
    - Vice President and President Pro Tempore of the Senate Dan Quayle
    - Majority Leader: Senator George Mitchell
    - Minority Leader: Senator Bob Dole
- Guardian Council of the Constitution of Iran, 1989:
    - Chairman of the Assembly of Experts Ali Meshkini
    - President of Iran Ali Khamenei

The Media – CIMUN News Network and International Press Delegation

Delegates, advisors, and parents can keep up with conference developments through CIMUN News Network (CNN) broadcast programming; *The CIMUN Chronicle*, a digital newspaper featuring stories written by our press delegates; and the CIMUN social media accounts, which cover both IPD and CNN developments. You can find out more about where to keep up with CIMUN on cimun.org

The *CIMUN News Network*, or CNN, is a staff-produced television news broadcast program. CNN covers breaking news from the conference and is displayed during committee sessions to communicate relevant information about the world. It is essential delegates pay attention to ongoing CNN coverage in order to stay up to date on international political developments.

Delegates can also track ongoing news in greater detail via the website of the *International Press Delegation (IPD)*. The IPD consists of delegates who are all part of a newsroom working together to write stories covering what is happening across CIMUN. With the help of their Executive Editor and Assistant Editors, IPD delegates identify relevant stories and sources, and produce news articles that are published in the CIMUN Chronicle. All CIMUN Chronicle articles are accessible online.

IPD delegates are allowed to move around the hotel and visit various committees throughout the conference. Delegates' credentials, which must be worn at all times, will indicate if a delegate is a member of the IPD. IPD delegates are encouraged to use suspensions in debate to converse with delegates or politely take conversations to the hallway. General and specialized committee delegates are encouraged to use interviews with IPD delegates to advance their nations' or parties' agendas. Coverage in the CIMUN Chronicle can bolster support for a draft resolution or bill, enable delegates or legislators to publicly respond to actions by other delegates, or help pressure fellow committee members to adopt certain positions or shift debate topics. Committees may vote to hold a "closed session" where non-members, including IPD delegates, are cleared out of the room.

To enable cabinet delegates to interact with the IPD, on occasion, all IPD delegates will be gathered for a press conference. A representative from each cabinet will have a limited period of time to deliver a statement to the press. Following those statements, the representatives will take a limited number of questions, then everyone present will be able to speak freely in a "gaggle" setting. It is vital that cabinet representatives are able to confidently answer IPD delegates' questions and determine what information can be shared versus what must be kept secret. The press conferences may be treated as an opportunity to manipulate the press, but such behavior can also provoke greater scrutiny and interest. Cabinet delegates should also be wary of speaking to the press without permission from their Head of Government and the rest of the cabinet, as this can result in serious consequences.

Delegates should think critically about how to use CIMUN's Media to the fullest in order to advance their strategic agenda. Some of CIMUN's most memorable moments – from impeachment to leaks – have begun with a story in the CIMUN Chronicle.

International Court of Justice

The International Court of Justice (ICJ) is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. It exists to adjudicate legal disputes between states that agree to be subject to its ruling. The ICJ has the jurisdiction to rule on cases involving the Charter of the United Nations and other international treaties and conventions in force.

At CIMUN, the International Court of Justice (ICJ) plays a role across the entire conference – non-ICJ delegates are encouraged to take advantage of the ICJ as an alternative route to solve problems, resolve disputes between countries, and advance political agendas. Much like traditional ICJ committees, CIMUN's ICJ will have a pre-set docket of cases to hear. Even so, we encourage delegates at CIMUN to bring their own cases to the ICJ. CIMUN's ICJ

will then debate whether they have jurisdiction, hear arguments from both sides, and make a ruling.

To raise a case before the ICJ, delegates, on behalf of the country they represent, should submit a Written Application to their Political Officer that includes the following pieces of information:

- Subject of the Dispute. Clearly identify what is being disputed and what the ICJ needs to rule on.
- Parties Involved. Identify all States involved in the case.
- Basis of Jurisdiction. Explain why the ICJ has grounds to rule on the case. (Is it related to an international treaty or agreement? Which one?)
- Facts and Grounds. Provide a brief explanation of the facts and legal basis for the claim.

Once the ICJ has received a Written Application, it will then determine whether or not it has standing to make a ruling. If the ICJ decides to take your case, both parties to the dispute will be invited to the ICJ to make arguments in favor of their position. The ICJ will then make a ruling and write a decision on your case. Participants are bound by the ICJ's rulings once they have been made.

Please note that CIMUN gives special Advocacy awards for delegates who argue cases before the ICJ.

Head Delegates

At CIMUN XXIII, each country's delegation will have one position assigned as that country's Head Delegate to represent the country should their presence be requested in a committee that they are not in. For example, if your school is representing Denmark and Mexico, each country will have one position identified as its head delegate. For Denmark, the head delegate will be the delegate to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, and for Mexico, they will be the delegate to the Organization of American States. If the UN Security Council requests the presence of Denmark, we will coordinate with our staff to notify the Denmark Head Delegate that their presence was requested and they will be directed to the appropriate community.

The exception to this rule are the countries that have a cabinet represented at CIMUN XXIII. This year, the United States, Soviet Union, United Kingdom, East Germany, West Germany, Poland, China, and Iran all will have their cabinets represented. If you have one of these countries, your school will be given the Foreign Affairs Minister or equivalent position in that country's cabinet, and they will serve as the Head Delegate for that country.

Head Delegates serve as the on-the-ground managers of a country's policy. They should be thinking about developing a strategy across committees and stay informed on policy decisions in cabinets. Head Delegates should ensure that their country's policy remains consistent across committees. They are also tasked with assisting delegates in other committees to represent their national interests. As the expert on national policy, Head Delegates may receive directives from the Simulations team, which empower delegates to achieve a political victory.

For countries which do not have a national cabinet and with cases before the International Court of Justice (see the above section!), Head Delegates are also responsible for advocating for their country before the Court. Head Delegates may pass this responsibility to another delegate, but they must notify their faculty advisor and CIMUN XXIII staff prior to the conference. Please note those who advocate cases before the ICJ are eligible to win an additional award for ICJ Advocacy.

Here is the list of countries with pending cases before the ICJ, as well as the names of these cases:

- Aerial Incident of 3 July 1988
  - Islamic Republic of Iran v. United States of America
- Certain Phosphate Lands in Nauru
  - Nauru v. Australia
- Applicability of Article VI, Section 22, of the Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations
  - United Nations v. Romania

If you are the Head Delegate from one of these countries (or the Justice Minister or equivalent if the country has a national cabinet), you can prepare to be a strong advocate by reading the background guides for the ICJ and researching the cases on the docket. Please note that the CIMUN staff are aware you may need to spend significant time out of your committee, and will be factoring this into your awards evaluation accordingly.

Awards Criteria

CIMUN prides itself on an objective and balanced awards policy that stresses realistic portrayal of national interest and development of political skill. Committee awards consist of, in ascending order, Honorable Mention, Outstanding Delegate, and Best Delegate. Each committee will also vote on the recipient of a Delegates' Choice award.

The four key areas of evaluation are as follows:

1. Accuracy of Policy – Dais staff will be monitoring political and representational accuracy of delegates. This includes rhetoric in speeches and documents, as well as in caucusing and bloc formation.
2. Rhetorical Skill – The ability of a delegation to relay the message of their country's policy in the correct terms, as well as the manipulation of dialogue to persuade other delegates toward their position.
3. Substantive Development – The ability of a delegation to develop substantive documents (e.g. working papers, resolutions, amendments) with the proper structure, grammar, skill, and context.
4. Procedural Manipulation – The ability to manipulate the rules of procedure and institutional legality to the advantage of your country and its policies.

Awards themselves are determined by a system of both subjective and objective measurements of these various attributes. Member States large and small, involved and distant, all have advantages in different areas of these criteria. Our staff is trained to evenly apply this policy. While those states involved directly in a topic may have an easier time articulating their policy, their policy tasks are much more difficult to achieve. For example, we do not expect North Korea to pass a resolution on nuclear weapons testing, as that would be impossible without many member states being out of character. By the same token, we do not expect strong rhetoric from Sweden, but rather a level of persuasiveness and conflict resolution.

In addition to committee work, CIMUN also awards delegates for excellence across the entire conference. These include the position paper awards, the cross-committee interaction award (also known as the Simulations award), as well as advocacy awards in the International Court of Justice for those who bring and argue cases before the ICJ.

How to Prepare for CIMUN XXII

Research

Research is the process of finding sources, establishing facts, and reaching a conclusion. A source is anything you use in research: websites, books, documents, interviews, etc. Sources range in quality. A "good" source is credible, meaning it comes from an organization or person with expert-level knowledge and an established reputation. A "bad" source is not credible, meaning it is biased or outright false.

The first step of your research is always to read the background guide thoroughly! These are carefully crafted by our staff to provide key knowledge on the issues, provide thematic and narrative framing for the conference, and narrow the topics so that delegates can research the correct information.

Next, using the information and sources provided by your background guide, you'll want to do further research to develop a better understanding of your national policy and the details of the topics you'll be discussing. Here are the most important items to look into:

- *Topic Background.* Is there anything mentioned in the background guide you want to know about in more detail?
- *Past International Action.* Has the United Nations or any international bodies already taken action on this topic? Was it effective or ineffective? Why?
- *Country Profile.* Look into the country you'll be representing. Establish thorough knowledge of its geography, economy, culture, demographics, government – all the elements that define it.
- *Country Policy.* Use the country profile to start crafting an idea of what your country's policy on the topics is. Has your country issued any formal statements? How have they voted on past UN resolutions and treaties? Who are their allies and how would this impact what policies they would favor?
- *Possible Solutions.* Do some research on possible solutions that your country would support, and start outlining proposals you want to push for in your position paper and in committee.

Position Papers

Once you have read the background guide and done additional research, you are ready to write your position papers. You must submit one white paper per topic, and one black paper in total. White papers should be approximately one full page single-spaced, and black papers should also be approximately a full page single-spaced. Please cite all sources. Any standard citation format (MLA, APA, Chicago) is acceptable.

A *white paper* is an official statement of policy from a national government, similar to a national press release. It is intended to be a public statement, and will often include political rhetoric and posturing. A good white paper will attempt to "spin" your country's position on controversial topics to defray any criticism. You will be able to read the white papers of other delegates in your committee, and they will be able to read yours. White papers are similar to position papers you would write at other conferences. It should outline your country's public policies on the topic, and address how your country has dealt with, and will continue to deal with the topic in the future. In your white paper, you should focus on how your country would publicly discuss a particular issue. If your messaging does not match your true intentions, save those true intentions for your black paper.

A *black paper* is a confidential, internal document that discusses a country's strategic interests for a particular topic, which may differ significantly from what your government discusses openly. Whereas the white paper is a public statement, the black paper can be compared to a confidential policy memo for your diplomatic corps. A good black paper will demonstrate a sound understanding of your country's internal motives behind a policy decision. Black papers will only be viewed by the CIMUN staff and will not be accessible by other delegates. A successful black paper should articulate a political victory for your country. You must ask yourself what constitutes a political victory.

For delegates in cabinets, white and black papers function slightly differently. Your white papers should be written as a memo to your head of government, and you should expect that your white paper will be available to other members of your cabinet. Your black paper can be thought of as the "redacted portion," information which fits your political goals and what you envision as a political victory, but which may cover more clandestine elements of that strategy, and may even include details that you would not share with your Head of Government. For delegates in cabinets, black papers are your opportunity to signal your awareness and consideration of the elements of policy-making and strategizing which are not generally public, even within a country's government.

Rules of Procedure

The final step of preparing for conference is familiarizing yourself with CIMUN's Rules of Procedure. For ease of access, we've even included the relevant ones at the end of this background guide! No matter how experienced a delegate you are, CIMUN's ROP is slightly different from other conferences. ROP mastery can help you gain an edge in committee. The CIMUN Rules of Procedure are accessible at cimun.org.