



**DISEC**

# Introduction from the Dais

Dear delegates,

Our names are Ahmed Hussein and Frank Yang, and we are your DISEC chairs for StuyMUNC 2019! We are both juniors at Stuyvesant High School, and have a shared passion for the activity that is Model United Nations. Ahmed is a Sports editor of the Stuyvesant Spectator, the school newspaper, and is a part of Stuyvesant's MSA, and likes playing soccer in his free time. Frank is a director for STC, Stuy's theater community. He is also involved in ARISTA and the Big Sibs organization, and likes to learn languages and linguistics as a hobby. We have both been participating in Model UN since our freshman year of high school, and have been to conferences that have taken us across the city and throughout the Northeast.

This will be our second time chairing a committee together, and we're both looking forward to meeting you all, as we await the interesting debate and discussion that is sure to be a staple of this committee!

Best,  
Your DISEC Chairs  
Ahmed Hussein and Frank Yang

[ahusseino0@stuy.edu](mailto:ahusseino0@stuy.edu)  
[fyangoo@stuy.edu](mailto:fyangoo@stuy.edu)

## Committee Introduction

This committee will be conducted in the ordinary GA fashion - it will begin, after calling roll, with the speaker's list, after which we will have several moderated caucuses to debate a range of pertinent topics, as well as some unmoderated caucuses in between to continue discussion and draft up working papers. During the second session, we will review working papers and begin the transition to passing resolutions for the committee. As always, we would like to emphasize communication and collaborations as keys to solving the conflict at hand.

When we were choosing the topics for this committee, we wanted to choose topics that we haven't seen discussed in at other conferences, engaging, and, most importantly, interesting. That is why we decided on The Cyprus Dispute as well as International Security in the Arctic Ocean. We researched both topics extensively to choose the committee spots as well as the questions to consider (and write the background guide of course!) and we implore all the delegates to do so as well, because we want to see engaging debate in committee. That research is something that will make it easier to write your position papers as well as give you confidence in committee. Most importantly, have fun researching, because this is interesting stuff!

While position papers are not required for this committee, they are a demonstration of your diligence and dedication to Model UN. We are happy to read any you may write; however, please make sure to send it to [ahusseini@stuy.edu](mailto:ahusseini@stuy.edu) and [fyangoo@stuy.edu](mailto:fyangoo@stuy.edu) by **Friday, March 29, 2019**. Feel free to have it on hand during the committee as inspiration for topics or ideas to discuss with fellow delegates.

## Topic A: The Cyprus Dispute

The island of Cyprus, located in the east Mediterranean Sea, is home to close to 1.2 million residents, and is also host to a diplomatic dispute resulting in a partition that has manifested there for more than four decades. The impetus of the Cyprus conflict, at its



core, is the fundamental ethnic tensions between the two dominant groups inhabiting the island: the Greek and the Turkish Cypriots. While the conflict has been classified as “non-violent” and “comfortable”, it nevertheless warrants immediate resolution due to the potential volatility of the situation, when considering Cyprus’ location near the war zones of Syria, as well as its status as an EU member.

The root of the conflict, which stems back to a lack of national unity and identity, first starts with the arrival of the Greeks on the island in the 13th century B.C.E. It was soon overrun with an array of distinct peoples- a direct consequence of its notable location,- but was never consistently ruled by one empire until the appearance of the Ottomans in 1571, which brought permanent Turkish settlement to the island. While the Greeks and Turks on Cyprus lived relatively undisturbed and were rather friendly to each other, their protracted attachment to the mainland correspondent of their ethnic group hindered the development of a unified character that would have defined the island’s independence and sovereignty.

Under the Cyprus Convention of 1878, the island came under British control, for its protection against Russia’s aggressive territorial expansion, and in 1925, became a crown colony. Starting during this period was a backlash to British rule, largely originating from the emergence of a movement known as enosis, which called for Greek annexation of Cyprus, and furthered efforts nationwide to establish independence from



Great Britain. This was strongly opposed by the Turkish minority, which comprised roughly 20% of the Cypriot population.

During the 1950s, the National Organization of Cypriot Fighters, or EOKA, fought a belligerent guerrilla campaign against British colonial control, and pursued enosis as their end goal. In response, the Turkish Cypriots formed the Turkish Resistance Organization, known as TMT, which advocated taksim, the Turkish word for division, or partition of the island. The Greek Cypriot leader, Archbishop Makarios III, who had generally favored enosis, now recognized Cypriot independence as a viable option to establish peace on the island, as fighting between the

two guerrilla groups had now led to domestic unrest and increased casualties. In 1959, in order to settle the situation, British, Turkish, Greek, and Cypriot leaders came together and agreed upon the London-Zurich Agreements, which declared the island finally independent. However, Article IV of the Treaty of Guarantee allowed any of the three former countries (the UK, Turkey, and Greece) to step in to “[re-establish] the state of affairs created by the present Treaty,” therefore inviting further foreign intervention on the island.

By 1974, escalating tensions on Cyprus, as well as foreign circumstances, such as the military takeover of Greece, combined to create the boiling point of the conflict to date. In July of that year, with the full support of the leader of Greece’s military junta, the Cypriot National Guard staged a coup d’etat that unseated Archbishop Makarios, and sent him into exile, and replacing him with Nikos Sampson, who ultimately sought reunification with Greece for the island. Turkey, which saw enosis as an immediate threat to the Turkish minority, who were already targeted by EOKA for their “undesirable” status, launched a small invasion of Cyprus to secure their safety, with

control over about 3% of the island's population, citing Article IV of the Treaty of Guarantee. Following a ceasefire and the collapse of the Greek military dictatorship, Turkey sent a second wave of troops in what it called Operation Attila, which now captured 40% of Cypriot territory, in the north of the country. More than 150,000 Greek Cypriots were summarily displaced -for most, permanently- from their homes in the north. Despite the return of Archbishop Makarios and the restoration of peace and order on the island, the partition was maintained by Turkey, whose invasions became increasingly condemned in the international community. The UN, which had already established a buffer zone, or Green Line, on Cyprus in the 1960s due to conflict between the two ethnic groups, further extended it to ensure that fighting would not re-emerge. This has been, to date, the present situation and state of affairs of Cyprus.

## **Issue in the Present**

Cyprus has effectively been partitioned since 1974, its Greek and Turkish communities separated by the aforementioned buffer zone known as the Green Line. But unlike most conflict zones, Cyprus is more or less at peace today, and a popular tourist destination. Hundreds of thousands of people have crossed the line since travel restrictions were eased in 2003. The following year, the country joined the European Union. Yet, the conflict continues to defy so many efforts at resolution. This has as much to do with domestic politics on both sides of the island as with pressures from Turkey and Greece as well as Britain, the colonial-era ruler of Cyprus, James Ker-Lindsay, a scholar at the London School of Economics and the author of several books on the Cyprus conflict, said in a phone interview. In 2016, the Greek Cypriot leader, Nicos Anastasiades, and the Turkish Cypriot leader, Mustafa Akıncı, began five days of talks brokered by the United Nations at Mont Pèlerin, a Swiss resort. The secretary general, Ban Ki-moon, urged them “to do their utmost in order to reach a settlement within 2016,” and said “the prospect of a solution in Cyprus is within their reach.”

Such hopes have been dashed before. In 2004, the Greek Cypriot community rejected a peace plan brokered by Mr. Ban's predecessor, Kofi Annan. "Society just wasn't ready for a deal," Mr. Ker-Lindsay said. "What we're seeing now, though, is that the two leaders are much more aligned. The question is whether they can bring their communities along with them." But what went wrong in 2004? The proposal included a power-sharing plan, along with a compromise on former Greek Cypriot property. The plan also allowed a limited right of return for displaced members of both communities, and gradual reductions of Greek and Turkish troops. Momentum for the deal was considerable. In 2003, the Turkish Cypriot authorities relaxed travel restrictions, and within two weeks, 200,000 people had crossed the Green Line. Turkey's new prime minister, Recep Tayyip Erdogan, supported the talks. One major incentive was the Republic of Cyprus's candidacy for membership in the European Union. But in April 2004, a week before the country formally joined the European Union, Greek Cypriots rejected the deal in a referendum, while Turkish Cypriots voters approved it. Subsequently, the peace envoy in the region was decommissioned. Fast forwarding back to 2016, Turkish President Recep Tayyip Erdogan has further complicated the situation by saying that Turkish troops would not be withdrawn until all Greek troops are withdrawn, which the Greeks refuse to do to maintain their security.



## **Bloc Positions**

Cyprus: The internationally recognized Republic of Cyprus, constituting the southern portion of the island and comprising of an ethnically Greek majority, calls for “bizonal, bicomunal federation”, based on cooperation between the Greek and Turkish Cypriots. The country holds reunification as the prominent goal of peace talks, and is generally dismissive of Turkish autonomy as an option to divvy up the island, instead favoring a closer union. Cyprus also favors demilitarization of the island by all foreign parties, and insists upon this as a way to de-escalate potential conflict and maintain sovereignty.

Turkey: While it is not completely clear what Turkey desires from the resolution of the Cyprus conflict, they currently exercise considerable influence, and wish to continue doing so, over the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, as they are the only country to recognize it as a nation. Turkey is not in strong support of reunification of the island, but does want an officiation of the current partition as the state of affairs on Cyprus, and wishes to expand the territory under Turkish Cypriot control.

Greece: Ever since the height of tensions in 1974, the appetite for enosis has long disappeared, and Greece, in the midst of dealing with a crippling economic crisis, has no vested interest in reunification with the mainland. However, like the officially recognized Republic of Cyprus, the nation seeks a strongly linked and interconnected federation of the two people groups on the island, where power is not determined by ethnicity.

United Kingdom: The UK has acted most prominently as an administrator over the Cyprus peace negotiations, and seeks reunification of the island as the only way to return peace and stability. It does, however, seek to maintain control of its two military bases in Cyprus, due to their strategic importance, and has insisted that their *modern* presence has done little to rile up tensions, and thus, should be preserved.



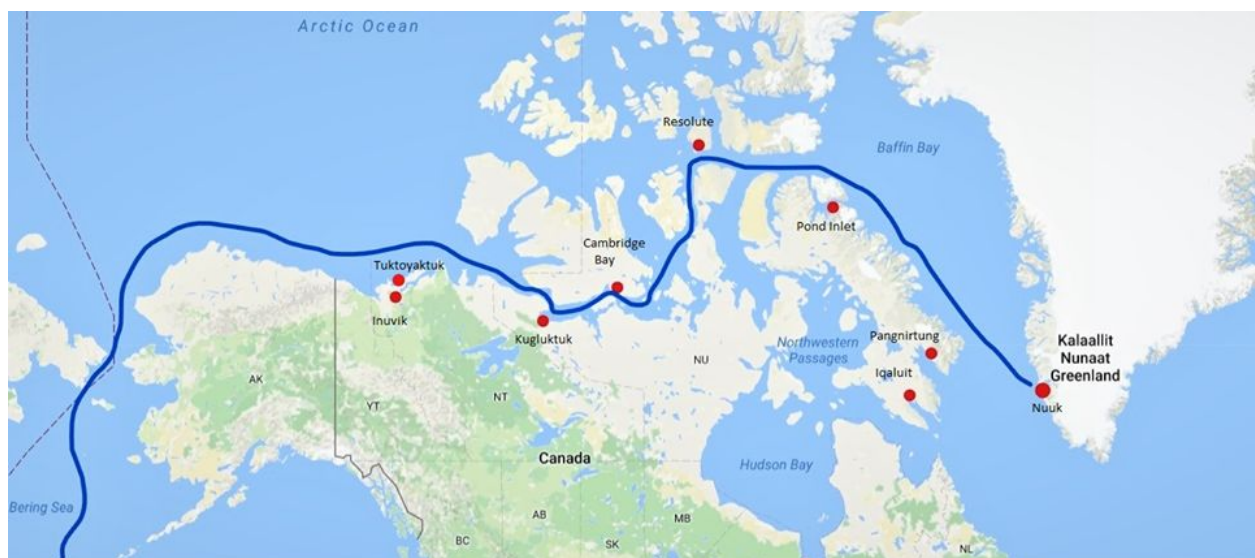
## Questions to Consider

1. *Does there exist a significant minority population residing within your country? If so, how has your country dealt with providing them with equal representation?*
2. *What is the significance of Cyprus' location in the Mediterranean? Does this play a role in the outcome of the conflict?*
3. *Since the Cyprus conflict is presently non-violent, what circumstances may lead to an escalation thereof, and what can be further done to prevent it?*

## Topic B: International Security in the Arctic



The phenomenon of global warming undoubtedly exerts a drastic impact on our changing world, and one of the regions most severely affected is the Arctic Ocean. Starting in the 1970s, the pattern of the abnormal thawing of Arctic ice has resulted in a drastic transformation of the North Pole seascape, with a melting rate of about 12.8



percent per decade. By analyzing these statistics, climate scientists believe the Arctic will be ice-free as early as 2050. While it is still possible to reverse the damage already done, it is unlikely that the original state of the Arctic Ocean to be entirely restored. Therefore, as this major body of water evolves, it has become a top priority of the UN to iron out the international complications of a newly invaluable source of promising wealth. The dilemma of the Arctic Ocean crisis is also one of the first times the UN has to politically and economically accommodate such a sizable environmental shift.

Contention over the Arctic Ocean began with the European obsession with the Northwest Passage connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, an understandably vital, if real, corridor for trade between the European continent and the countries of eastern Asia, which held massive potential for economies on both sides of the world. Dating as far back as to the 2<sup>nd</sup> century C.E, interest in the Northwest Passage piqued when the Ottoman Empire seized a monopoly on intercontinental trade through the Silk Road in the 15<sup>th</sup> century. Numerous European explorers of various nationalities made countless attempts to find the forsaken passage, a large majority of which originating from England, with names such as John Cabot, John Davis, and Henry Hudson; however, none found success due to the thick ice that laced the North Atlantic and the waters of modern-day Canada. The search however, continued past the first colonial era of the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. From 1910-1912, Norwegian explorer Roald Amundsen made the first expedition to the North Pole. While he was successful in his journey, the thick ice of the Northwest Passage, which traversed Canada's Arctic Archipelago added immense impediments that significantly lengthened his trip. Nevertheless, his expedition, combined with that of his predecessors, confirmed the existence of the Northwest Passage, despite the difficulty to passing through it.

## **Issue in the Present**

The Arctic ice is melting- there's no question about that. Some may debate the cause of the melt, but one cannot debate that there's simply less ice up north than there

was 50 years ago. This melt has profound consequences. Whole countries like Tuvalu and the Maldives could be largely underwater by the end of the century because of the rising sea levels from melting ice. But the melt has a different, more obvious effect—where there was once ice there's now liquid, navigable water. This has opened up the way for the Northwest Passage to create a path between arctic countries and the Pacific ocean that doesn't require going through the Panama Canal. The significance of the Northwest Passage is that, until 1914 when the Panama Canal opened, traffic from the Atlantic could only reach the Pacific by sailing around Cape Horn. This meant that a sea route between London and San Francisco took 15,000 miles. This was not efficient. It was a significant hamper to development to the American west coast. The Northwest passage would've revolutionized maritime trade. In September of 2013, however, for the very first time, a commercial bulk carrier, the MS Nordic Orion, transited an almost ice-free Northwest Passage on its journey from Vancouver, Canada to Pori, Finland, and this was far from a publicity stunt. This ship saved \$80,000 in fuel costs and was able to take 25% more cargo than if it had gone through the Panama Canal. Even thousand passenger cruise ships are now making the journey. Ironically, global warming is actually opening a route that's better for the environment.

Despite the benefits, conflicts are beginning to arise between nations with interests in this new passage. Surprisingly, it is between Canada and the United States. Usually, when there's a navigation choke-point restricting certain countries from accessing an ocean, it's convention to declare that waterway an international waterway. For example, the Danish Straits—fully surrounded by Denmark—are an international waterway in order to give the Baltic and Scandinavian countries ocean access. When a waterway is declared an international waterway no country can restrict access or charge dues to passing boats except during a time of war. Canada considers the waterways comprising the northwest passage in their archipelago as their own waters. This was never challenged before, because no country ever needed to use the strait when it was ice. With its promise to cut shipping routes by thousands of miles, the northwest passage will almost certainly become an important shipping route so that's why

countries like the US firmly believe that the northwest passage should be and already is an international waterway. One of the tensest moments in history between the US and Canada was when, in 1985, a US Coast Guard Icebreaker travelled through the northwest passage without prior permission from Canada. In Canada's mind, this was a military invasion of their sovereign territory—debatably an act of war. Canada argues that the northwest passage is not an international waterway because it has failed to meet an important criteria—usefulness. Of course the northwest passage is useful on paper—it shortens the route between the oceans—but Canada has pointed out that in previous cases determining whether a waterway is international, what proves a route's usefulness is if a significant number of ships has already successfully transited it. Canada also argues, rightly, that commercial traffic in their archipelago would require escorts by Canadian Coast Guard, as many previous trips have. If a ship traveled in their sovereign waters without their protection, ships that sink or are in a state of emergency would not have the help they need. So, if in a few years, hundreds of ships were to travel the passage, Canada would be obligated to provide protection for them being the closest nation. This costs money and Canada gains nothing except gratitude for these services if the passage is deemed and international one. Understandably, Canada want to charge a passage fee in exchange for the services and infrastructure they will provide for commercial traffic. On the flip side, one country would have control over which countries gain access to the faster route. Canada would have the ability to dictate a country's economy if it refuses to grant passage to certain country's goods. This would make that country unable to compete in its respective market, hindering its economy.



To combat this contention, the UN has established the Arctic Council, which includes the eight countries with sovereignty in the Arctic region: Canada, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Russia, Sweden, and the United States. Some nations such as Germany, the Netherlands, and Poland have observer status in the Council. The Arctic

Council convenes every six months somewhere in the Chair's country for a Senior Arctic Officials (SAO) meeting. SAOs are high-level representatives from the eight member nations. Sometimes they are ambassadors, but often they are senior foreign ministry officials entrusted with staff-level coordination. Representatives of the six Permanent Participants and the official Observers also are in attendance.

At the end of the two-year cycle, the Chair hosts a Ministerial-level meeting, which is the culmination of the Council's work for that period. Most of the eight member nations are represented by a Minister from their Foreign Affairs, Northern Affairs, or Environment Ministry.

A formal, though non-binding, "Declaration", named for the town in which the meeting is held, sums up the past accomplishments and the future work of the Council. These Declarations cover climate change, sustainable development, Arctic monitoring and assessment, persistent organic pollutants and other contaminants, and the work of the Council's five Working Groups.

Arctic Council working groups document Arctic problems and challenges such as sea ice loss, glacier melting, tundra thawing, increase of mercury in food chains, and ocean acidification affecting the entire marine ecosystem. Arctic Council members agreed to action points on protecting the Arctic but most have never materialized. The last Ministerial meeting took place May 11, 2017 in Fairbanks, Alaska, United States. If the need arises, discussion of the sovereign rights to the Northwestern Passage can be a possible discussion point in future sessions of the Council, but it is yet to be discussed in depth in any previous session.

## **Bloc Positions**

Canada: As the home of the famous Northwest Passage, Canada holds the key to a prized commercial trade route that can fundamentally change global economies in both the East and the West. However, the instability of the Arctic ice and the rate at which it is

melting makes the situation incredibly precarious, and places great responsibility on the northern nation, which must carry the burden of any accidents and disasters that may occur in this region. Thus, it is vital that Canada is able to make the region economically profitable by making it sovereign territory, thereby securing funds for developing the Far North.

United States: The United States, as a geopolitical giant, sees tremendous value in the Arctic Ocean, one of the few bodies of water separating it from Russia, its rival across the globe. While Cold War fears of nuclear attacks over the Arctic have long dissipated, the U.S. considers it essential to maintain a major military and economic presence in the Arctic, and considers the ocean and surrounding passages to be international waters, which would make it possible for American vessels to legally patrol the region without infringing on any country's territory.

Russia: Much like the U.S., Russia is deeply invested in the Arctic, and has already made several claims to the UN for millions of square kilometers of Arctic territory. Russia is most interested in the energy resources held in this ocean, which include 30% of the world's remaining natural gas and 15% of remaining oil. Such exports comprise a critical portion of Russia's GDP. In addition, the nation has ramped up militarization in the North, including the expansion of a northern naval fleet, in order to defend their claims.

China: Characterizing itself as a near-Arctic state, China maintains a strong claim to being active in the Arctic Ocean, despite not holding any territory in the polar waters. It alleges its interest in upholding environmental concerns in the region, as well as incorporating into their current Belt and Road Initiative, an extensive trade network connecting Africa, Asia, and Europe, with China evidently at the center. However, it must contest actual Arctic neighbors, such as the U.S. and more prominently, Russia, if it wishes for its claims to be actualized.

## Questions to Consider

1. *Is it too early to determine an appropriate solution to the Arctic Ocean situation? Why or why not?*
2. *What value does your country hold in the Arctic Ocean i.e. trade, resources, etc? In other words, consider the national interest of such a body of water.*
3. *How should current international marine law and regulations be adapted for the Arctic Ocean? What may be the drawbacks of doing so?*

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