

## Stabilising Former Soviet Nations (1992)

The dissolution of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) in December 1991 marked the end of one of the most powerful political entities of the twentieth century. Fifteen newly independent states emerged from the collapse, each inheriting complex political, economic, and social challenges. While independence represented an opportunity for self-determination and reform, it also exposed deep vulnerabilities that had been previously managed, or suppressed, by centralized Soviet authority. In 1992, the international community faces the urgent task of assisting in the stabilization of these former Soviet nations to prevent regional instability, economic collapse, and armed conflict.

Throughout the late 1980s, the Soviet Union experienced growing internal strain. Economic stagnation, declining public trust, and rising nationalist movements weakened the authority of the central government. Reforms introduced under General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev, notably *Perestroika* (economic restructuring) and *Glasnost* (political openness), were intended to revitalize the system but instead accelerated its unravelling. By 1991, several republics had declared independence, and the failed August coup further undermined Soviet leadership.

On 26 December 1991, the USSR formally ceased to exist. Russia emerged as its legal successor, inheriting the majority of Soviet military assets, diplomatic responsibilities, and international obligations. The remaining republics, ranging from the Baltic states to Central Asia, found themselves sovereign but often unprepared to govern independently.

Many former Soviet states lack strong political institutions capable of managing democratic transitions. Under Soviet rule, governance was centralized, and local leadership structures often functioned as extensions of Moscow rather than independent authorities. As a result, newly independent governments face difficulties establishing legitimacy, drafting constitutions, conducting fair elections, and maintaining the rule of law.

Ethnic and nationalist tensions pose additional threats. Soviet borders were drawn without full consideration of ethnic distributions, leaving many minority groups outside their perceived national homelands. In several regions, including the Caucasus and parts of Eastern Europe, these tensions have escalated into violent conflicts or separatist movements. Without effective mediation, such disputes risk spreading beyond national borders and destabilizing neighbouring states.

The collapse of the Soviet economy has led to severe economic disruption across the region. Former Soviet states are transitioning from centrally planned systems to market-based economies, often without the legal frameworks, financial institutions, or expertise required for such a shift. Inflation, unemployment, and declining industrial output are widespread.

Additionally, the Soviet economic system was highly integrated; republics depended on one another for raw materials, manufacturing, and energy supplies. Independence disrupted these networks, leaving many states vulnerable to shortages and trade imbalances. Access to international financial assistance may provide relief, but it also raises concerns about debt dependency, austerity measures, and loss of economic sovereignty.

One of the most pressing issues in 1992 is the question of military control and security. The Soviet Armed Forces were among the largest in the world, and their dissolution has left vast

stockpiles of conventional and nuclear weapons across multiple states. Ukraine, Belarus, and Kazakhstan, in particular, possess nuclear arsenals that raise international concern regarding proliferation, command and control, and safety.

At the same time, many former Soviet states lack the capacity to maintain professional national militaries. This weakness increases the risk of internal unrest, border disputes, and reliance on external security guarantees. Russia's role as both a regional power and former imperial centre further complicates security dynamics, as neighbouring states remain wary of potential political or military pressure.

The international community has begun responding through diplomatic recognition, financial aid, and multilateral engagement. Organizations such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank are offering economic assistance, while regional forums aim to facilitate dialogue and conflict prevention. However, there is no consensus on the appropriate balance between intervention and respect for sovereignty.

Some states advocate for rapid integration of former Soviet nations into global political and economic systems, while others caution that rushed reforms may exacerbate instability. Furthermore, disparities in attention and aid risk creating unequal development, potentially fuelling resentment and further conflict.

In addressing the stabilization of former Soviet nations, aspects such as economic recovery, political legitimacy, national sovereignty, and regional security must be taken into account. Solutions may involve international cooperation, mediation mechanisms, financial assistance, or peacekeeping initiatives, but each carries potential risks and long-term consequences.

It is necessary to support emerging states without imposing external agendas, to prevent conflicts without undermining independence, and to ensure that short-term stabilization efforts contribute to sustainable peace. Decisions made may shape the post–Cold War international order for decades to come.

## Acid Rain (1976)

By 1976, industrial growth has become a defining feature of economic development across much of the world. Expanding manufacturing sectors, increased electricity production, and rising fossil fuel consumption have contributed to higher standards of living in many nations. However, these gains have also produced unintended environmental consequences. Among the most concerning of these is acid rain, a phenomenon increasingly linked to industrial air pollution and now recognized as a transboundary environmental threat.

Although scientific understanding of acid rain remains incomplete, growing evidence suggests that emissions released in one country can cause environmental damage far beyond its borders. This realization presents the international community with a complex challenge: how to address environmental harm while balancing economic development, national sovereignty, and scientific uncertainty.

The concept of acid rain is not entirely new. As early as the nineteenth century, scientists observed that rainfall in industrial areas exhibited unusually high acidity. In recent decades, however, the scale of the problem appears to have intensified. Research conducted in Europe and North America during the 1960s and early 1970s has linked sulphur dioxide ( $\text{SO}_2$ ) and nitrogen oxides ( $\text{NO}_x$ ), primarily released from coal-fired power plants, factories, and motor vehicles, to the acidification of precipitation.

Once emitted, these pollutants can travel hundreds or even thousands of kilometres through the atmosphere before returning to the Earth's surface in the form of rain, snow, fog, or dry deposition. This long-range transport means that countries with relatively strict pollution controls may still suffer environmental damage caused by emissions originating elsewhere. As a result, acid rain challenges traditional notions of responsibility and accountability in environmental governance.

The most visible impacts of acid rain have been observed in freshwater ecosystems. Lakes and rivers in parts of Scandinavia and North America have experienced declining fish populations, with some waters becoming unable to support aquatic life. Acidification disrupts biological processes, damages fish eggs, and increases the presence of toxic metals such as aluminium.

Forests are also showing signs of stress. Acidic deposition can leach essential nutrients from soils, weaken tree root systems, and reduce resistance to disease and harsh weather. While direct causation is still debated, correlations between air pollution and forest decline are increasingly difficult to ignore.

Beyond ecosystems, acid rain poses risks to infrastructure and cultural heritage. Acidic precipitation accelerates the deterioration of buildings, bridges, and monuments, particularly those constructed from limestone and marble. For many nations, this represents not only an economic burden but also a threat to historical and cultural identity.

Efforts to reduce emissions associated with acid rain raise significant economic concerns. Industrialized nations rely heavily on coal and oil for energy production, and pollution control technologies remain expensive and unevenly available. Retrofitting power plants with emission-reduction equipment or transitioning to alternative energy sources could slow economic growth and increase energy costs.

Developing and industrializing states argue that environmental restrictions may hinder their ability to modernize and compete internationally. These countries often emphasize that industrialized nations achieved their prosperity with few environmental constraints and now seek to impose limits on others. This debate complicates attempts to reach international agreement and highlights broader questions of equity and shared responsibility.

Acid rain has become an early test case for international environmental cooperation. Bilateral discussions between neighbouring countries have begun, particularly where scientific data suggests cross-border pollution pathways. Regional organizations and scientific bodies are working to improve monitoring and data collection, but no binding international framework currently exists to regulate transboundary air pollution.

Scientific uncertainty further complicates diplomacy. While evidence of environmental damage is mounting, the precise relationships between emissions, atmospheric transport, and ecological effects are still under study. Some governments remain hesitant to commit to costly policy changes without definitive proof, while others argue that precautionary action is necessary to prevent irreversible harm.

This problem intersects science, economics, and international law. Key questions include how to balance environmental protection with industrial development, how to allocate responsibility for cross-border pollution, and how to act under conditions of incomplete scientific certainty.

Potential approaches may include cooperative research initiatives, shared monitoring systems, non-binding guidelines for emission reductions, or frameworks for future agreements. The committee must also consider whether environmental harm should be addressed through voluntary cooperation or formal international regulation.

In 1976, acid rain represents not only an environmental issue but also a broader challenge to the international system. How states respond may set precedents for future global efforts to manage environmental problems that transcend national borders.

## Partition of India (1947)

In 1947, the Indian subcontinent stands at a critical crossroads. After nearly two centuries of British colonial rule, independence is imminent. However, the process of decolonization has become increasingly complicated by deep political divisions, communal tensions, and competing visions for the future of the region. The proposed partition of British India into separate states threatens to bring about one of the largest and most consequential population transfers in modern history.

This committee convenes at a moment of profound uncertainty. Decisions made in 1947 will determine not only the political boundaries of South Asia but also the fate of millions of people whose lives are tied to the land, communities, and institutions shaped under colonial rule.

British control over India expanded gradually from the mid-eighteenth century, initially through the East India Company and later under direct Crown rule after 1858. While British governance introduced new administrative and legal structures, it also entrenched economic exploitation and political exclusion. Over time, nationalist movements emerged demanding self-rule and independence.

The Indian National Congress, founded in 1885, became the leading voice for a unified, independent India. In contrast, the All-India Muslim League, established in 1906, increasingly argued that Muslims constituted a distinct political community whose rights would be endangered in a Hindu-majority state. These concerns intensified following constitutional reforms and elections in the 1930s, which revealed significant political and communal polarization.

World War II further strained relations between British authorities and Indian political leaders. Britain's weakened post-war position made continued colonial rule untenable, accelerating plans for withdrawal. By 1947, independence was no longer in question; the central issue was whether it could be achieved without partition.

The demand for partition arose from fears over political representation and security. The Muslim League, under the leadership of Muhammad Ali Jinnah, advocated for the creation of Pakistan as a separate homeland for Muslims. Congress leaders, including Jawaharlal Nehru and Vallabhbhai Patel, initially opposed division but increasingly viewed partition as a necessary compromise to avoid prolonged civil conflict.

Communal violence escalated in the years leading up to independence, particularly in provinces such as Punjab and Bengal, where religious communities were deeply intermingled. Riots, massacres, and retaliatory attacks eroded trust between groups and heightened demands for clear political separation. The British administration, struggling to maintain order, faced growing pressure to finalize a rapid exit strategy.

The practical implementation of partition presents immense challenges. The proposed division of territory requires the drawing of new borders in regions with complex demographic patterns. The Radcliffe Commission, tasked with delineating boundaries, must work under severe time constraints and limited information. Decisions regarding land, infrastructure, and resources risk appearing arbitrary and may provoke further unrest.

Beyond borders, partition raises questions about the division of military assets, civil services, and financial resources. Princely states, which were semi-autonomous under British rule, must choose whether to accede to India or Pakistan, adding another layer of uncertainty. These unresolved issues threaten to destabilize both successor states from their inception.

Perhaps the most immediate and severe impact of partition is its humanitarian cost. As borders shift, millions of Hindus, Muslims, and Sikhs may find themselves on the “wrong” side of newly created states. Fears of persecution are already driving mass migrations, often under dangerous conditions.

Refugee flows strain transportation networks, food supplies, and administrative capacity. Reports of violence against civilians, including women and children, are widespread. The scale of displacement threatens to overwhelm local authorities and humanitarian organizations, raising urgent questions about protection, relief, and long-term resettlement.

The partition of India has implications beyond South Asia. It represents a major test of post-war decolonization and the ability of the international system to manage the transition from empire to sovereign states. Relations between India and Pakistan, shaped by the circumstances of their birth, may influence regional security for decades.

Disputes over territory, particularly in regions with mixed populations, risk escalating into armed conflict. At the same time, successful stabilization could offer a model for peaceful decolonization elsewhere. The international community must consider whether, and how, it can assist in mitigating violence, supporting refugees, and encouraging diplomatic engagement between the new states.

Is partition the only viable path to independence, or are alternative political arrangements possible? How can borders be drawn to minimize violence and displacement? What responsibilities do departing colonial authorities and emerging governments bear toward affected populations?

In 1947, the partition of India is not merely a territorial question—it is a defining moment in global history. The choices made now will shape the political, social, and humanitarian landscape of South Asia for generations to come.