



AtidMUN 2023



Historical Security Council Study Guide



**Topic A: The Collapse of the
USSR**

**Topic B: Tiananmen Square
Protests and Massacre**



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Chair letter

Dear delegates,

We're excited to welcome you to the HSC in ATIDMUN 2023!

We are the Ram siblings - Ayelet, Amit, and Yonatan (twins). We're all graduates of Atid High School. We've each started our MUN journey in different times, ranging from late 2016 to early 2018. We've all participated in different conferences in a wide range of committees, both in Israel and abroad.

The Historical Security Council is a challenging committee we believe every aspiring MUNer should participate in at least once (the more the merrier). As every historical committee, it requires the delegates to put aside their knowledge of the outcomes of the discussed events (the future). This challenge is joined by the twists and rules of the UNSC - veto power, favor of $\frac{2}{3}$ of the committee, execution of the mandate of the committee, etc. This gives you, fellow delegates, the obligation to negotiate, be creative, influence the committee, and other skills you'll need in this advanced committee. The topics at hand influence two large and powerful directly - China and the USSR, as well as many others. No matter where your country is geographically located, both topics concern each and every one of you.

Rest assured, all three of us, have plenty of experience in this particular committee as well as chairing in general. If you feel the need in assistance, you're more than welcome to contact us via email:

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Looking forward to seeing you in November!

Your Chairs.



Introduction to the Committee

Welcome, delegates, to the 31st of December, 1989 to the United Nations Historical Security Council committee.

Besides the Crisis Committee, UNHSC has the privilege of being the most unique committees in most model UN conferences. This is due to the committee having its own set of rules, and being the only committee with the ability to take immediate action. During this conference the UNSC committee will discuss the topics of The Collapse of the USSR and the Tiananmen Square massacre. These two topics are very challenging, as they question and investigate 2 of the most interesting members in our committee. This committee is best suited for advanced delegates for another reason; the playing field is uneven. The Security Council has fifteen members, only five of whom are permanent. The other ten rotate, giving relatively equal power to each continent. The five permanent members are the WWII era Big Four (Russia, China, The UK, and The US), with the extra addition of France to make the amount of members uneven. These five countries are the founders of the United Nations Security Council, and only these five have veto power. This means that in the real world they can decide whether or not topics can even be discussed. In the committee it means that they can shoot down any resolution they do not approve of. Of course, it is easy to see that not all participants have an equal amount of power, but it makes the experience all the more realistic. Do not worry delegates, your chairs are aware of this, and judge accordingly. Additionally, it is important to note that in the Security Council, not only does the committee have power to take action, any resolution that passes is *binding*. So please make sure you as a country have the means and motives before championing solutions of any sort. Please also note, our committee will take place on the 31st of December 1989, which means we went 34 years back in time, the technology is different, many countries' have different perspectives and relationships, everyone has weird hairstyles and most importantly, resolutions and solutions were different from what they are today. Take this "small fact" into consideration when thinking and writing solutions.

Good Luck!



Topic A: The Collapse of the USSR

Background to the Topic

Since the second half of the 20th century the world has faced a global conflict. The Cold War was a prolonged geo-political and ideological conflict that took place between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies from the end of World War II until 1989. It was called the "Cold" War because it never escalated into a direct military confrontation between the two superpowers. The conflict arose due to the fundamental ideological differences between the capitalist, democratic principles upheld by the United States and its allies, and the communist ideology promoted by the Soviet Union and its allies. The United States sought to promote democracy, individual freedoms, and free-market capitalism, while the Soviet Union aimed to spread its communist ideology and establish a global socialist order. Tensions between the two superpowers were evident in various ways, including political, economic, and military competition. The United States and the Soviet Union engaged in an arms race, developing and stockpiling nuclear weapons. Both sides formed military alliances—the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) led by the U.S. and the Warsaw Pact led by the Soviet Union—to protect their interests and project power. The Cold War was marked by proxy wars fought by each superpower's allies in different parts of the world. The Korean War (1950-1953) and the Vietnam War (1955-1975) were two notable examples where the United States supported South Korea and South Vietnam against communist forces backed by the Soviet Union and China. The situation started to change in the 1980s with the rise of reformist leaders in the Soviet Union, such as Mikhail Gorbachev. Gorbachev introduced policies of 'glasnost' (openness) and 'perestroika' (restructuring), which aimed to revitalize the Soviet Union's economy and political system. These reforms also led to a thaw in relations between the United States and the Soviet Union. In 1989, a series of events, including the fall of the Berlin Wall, marked the symbolic end of the Cold War. The wall had divided East and West Berlin since 1961 and its collapse represented the reunification of Germany and the dismantling of the Iron Curtain that had separated the communist and capitalist worlds in Europe. Ultimately, the Cold War was a decades-long struggle for influence, power, and dominance between the United States and the Soviet Union. It shaped global politics, impacted international relations, and influenced the course of history during the second half of the 20th century.



The Structure of the USSR

The USSR, or Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, possessed a significant territory that extended beyond its borders and included the territories of several foreign countries. It consisted of the largest country within its borders, the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, which covered a vast expanse of land in Eastern Europe and Northern Asia. Additionally, the USSR included several other Soviet republics, such as Ukraine, Belarus, Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, and the Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. These territories represented diverse regions with distinct cultures, languages, and histories. The incorporation of these foreign territories into the USSR was a result of geopolitical and ideological considerations, with the Soviet Union seeking to extend its influence and promote its socialist ideology throughout the region.

The population of the USSR, or Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, was vast and diverse, encompassing not only the inhabitants of its own territories but also the populations of several foreign countries that were part of the Soviet Union. The exact population varied over time, but during the peak of its existence, it ranged from approximately 250 million to 290 million people. The Soviet population was composed of numerous ethnic groups, with Russians being the largest, followed by Ukrainians, Kazakhs, Uzbeks, Belarusians, and many others. These ethnic groups had their own distinct languages, cultures, and traditions, contributing to the rich tapestry of the Soviet Union. The incorporation of foreign territories into the USSR brought about a significant blending of ethnicities and cultures, creating a unique multicultural society within its borders.

The government of the USSR, was characterized by a single-party socialist system led by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU). The CPSU held a monopoly on political power, and its General Secretary wielded substantial influence over the country's affairs. The government operated under a centrally planned economy, where the state controlled major industries, resources, and economic decision-making. While the soviet government was accepted and supported by a significant portion of the population, particularly during its early years, it also faced criticism and opposition. Dissent and political pluralism were not tolerated, and dissenting voices were often suppressed or silenced. The level of acceptance varied among different regions and segments of society, with some embracing the Soviet ideology and others holding



reservations or dissenting opinions. The government's control over media and education played a role in shaping public perception and acceptance of the regime.

The acceptance of this sovereignty varied among the different republics and within the diverse population of the USSR. While the government sought to promote a sense of unity and common purpose, there were instances of nationalist aspirations and desires for greater autonomy among certain regions and ethnic groups within the Soviet Union. Nonetheless, the Soviet regime maintained its control over the republics through various means, including political repression and the use of military force when necessary. The level of acceptance of Soviet sovereignty was influenced by a complex interplay of factors such as political ideology, cultural diversity, historical context, and economic considerations.

Key Players

Vladimir Lenin (1917-1924):

As the first leader of the Soviet Union, Lenin implemented a series of policies aimed at establishing a socialist state. His government focused on centralizing power and implementing a planned economy. Lenin's policies included the nationalization of industry and land, the establishment of collective farms, and the implementation of the New Economic Policy (NEP). The NEP allowed limited market mechanisms to revive the war-torn economy while maintaining state control over major industries. Lenin's government also emphasized the spread of communism internationally, supporting revolutionary movements in other countries.

Joseph Stalin (1924-1953):

Under Stalin's leadership, the Soviet Union underwent dramatic transformations. His policies were characterized by rapid industrialization, collectivization of agriculture, and central planning. Stalin implemented a series of Five-Year Plans, setting ambitious targets for industrial growth. The policies aimed to modernize the Soviet economy and transform it into a major industrial power. However, these policies were often implemented through coercive measures, resulting in forced collectivization, mass repressions, and purges. Stalin's rule also saw the consolidation of a highly centralized and authoritarian state.



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Nikita Khrushchev (1953-1964):

Khrushchev's policies represented a departure from the repressive Stalinist era. He initiated a period of relative political liberalization known as the "Thaw." Khrushchev denounced some of Stalin's excesses in a secret speech delivered to the Communist Party's 20th Congress in 1956, exposing the crimes committed during the purges. He implemented policies aimed at decentralization, allowing more decision-making power at lower levels, and agricultural reforms to increase food production. Although Khrushchev's presidency did not witness large-scale wars, his tenure was marked by significant geopolitical tensions and conflicts that brought the world to the brink of nuclear confrontation. Khrushchev pursued a policy of coexistence with the West, but his actions and decisions during these incidents played a crucial role in shaping the dynamics of the Cold War.

Leonid Brezhnev (1964-1982):

Brezhnev's leadership marked a return to a more conservative and centralized approach. His policies emphasized stability, social welfare, and the preservation of the Soviet system. Brezhnev focused on maintaining a planned economy and expanding social benefits for the population. However, the economy began to stagnate, characterized by inefficiency, corruption, and a lack of innovation. Brezhnev also pursued a policy of detente with the United States, seeking to reduce tensions through arms control agreements and diplomatic engagement.

Yuri Andropov (1982-1984):

Andropov's brief presidency focused on combating corruption and inefficiency within the Soviet system. He launched an anti-corruption campaign, aiming to root out bureaucratic abuses and promote discipline within the party and state apparatus. Andropov also attempted limited reforms to address the country's economic and social challenges, but his impact was limited due to his declining health and short tenure.

Konstantin Chernenko (1984-1985):

Chernenko's rule was brief, and his policies were largely a continuation of the previous leadership's approach. However, due to his declining health, his impact on policy-making was limited, and the country faced ongoing economic challenges and political stagnation.



Current Situation

In 1989 several countries within the Soviet Union showed signs of seeking independence. This year marked a significant turning point in the history of the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, as it was a period of major political and social upheaval known as the "Fall of Communism" or the "Revolution of 1989". In some republics, particularly those on the periphery of the Soviet Union, there was a growing sense of discontent and frustration with the central government in Moscow. Many people felt that the Soviet regime was oppressive and stifled their national identities, cultural expressions, and political aspirations. They yearned for greater autonomy and self-determination. The Baltic states, namely Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, were among the first to demand independence. They formed human chains, known as the Baltic Way, where people joined hands across the three countries to show their solidarity and desire for independence. Other Soviet republics, such as Ukraine, Belarus, Armenia, Georgia, and Moldova, also witnessed growing movements for independence. Protests, rallies, and mass demonstrations were held in these republics, demanding political and economic reforms and expressing aspirations for self-rule. People were discontent with the centralized control exerted by Moscow and demanded more rights, freedoms, and economic opportunities. However, it is important to note that there were also segments of the population who remained loyal to the Soviet system and its rulers. Some individuals believed in the principles of socialism and the ideology of the Communist Party, while others benefited from the existing power structures and were reluctant to see any significant changes. Overall, the sentiments in 1989 varied across the USSR, ranging from demands for independence and greater autonomy to desires for political and economic reforms. It makes sense because the thoughts of citizens in the countries of the USSR towards their rulers varied depending on the specific circumstances and the individual's perspective. The country was a vast and diverse entity, comprising multiple republics with different cultural, ethnic, and historical backgrounds. So although it makes sense the sentiments and attitudes towards the rulers differed across the various regions, ultimately they contributed to the unraveling of the Soviet Union and the subsequent emergence of independent nations.



Mikhail Gorbachev

As the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, Gorbachev became the leader of the Soviet Union in 1985. In his time in office he implemented a series of policies known as 'perestroika' and 'glasnost', which aimed to reform and revitalize the Soviet Union's political and economic systems until 1989. Perestroika, meaning "restructuring," involved significant economic reforms to address the stagnation and inefficiencies of the Soviet economy. Gorbachev sought to introduce elements of market mechanisms, decentralization, and limited private enterprise to increase productivity and efficiency. Alongside 'perestroika', Gorbachev implemented 'glasnost', meaning "openness." This policy aimed to promote transparency, public participation, and freedom of expression. It allowed for increased freedom of the press, criticism of the government, and greater political openness. Gorbachev's policies encouraged a more open dialogue with the West, leading to arms control negotiations and improved relations with the United States. These policies sought to reduce Cold War tensions and promote peaceful coexistence. However, Gorbachev's reforms unintentionally led to the loosening of control over the Soviet satellite states in Eastern Europe. This resulted in a wave of popular uprisings, such as the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989, as citizens demanded political and economic reforms. In summary, Gorbachev's policies of 'perestroika' and 'glasnost' aimed to rejuvenate the Soviet Union by addressing economic stagnation, increasing transparency, and reducing tensions with the West. These policies had unintended consequences, ultimately leading to significant political and social transformations both within the Soviet Union and in Eastern Europe.

Countries' Policy Towards the USSR

United States: The United States, as a key player in the Cold War, generally had a negative view of the USSR. The Soviet Union was seen as an ideological and geopolitical adversary, with tensions running high between the two superpowers. The U.S. government and media often portrayed the USSR as a repressive regime, highlighting human rights abuses and emphasizing the differences in political and economic systems.



Western Europe: Western European countries had a more nuanced perspective on the USSR. While they recognized the Soviet Union as a significant global power, there were concerns about its political system and human rights record. However, many European nations also engaged in diplomatic relations and trade with the USSR, particularly in areas such as energy and arms control.

Eastern Europe: In the Eastern European countries under Soviet influence or direct control, such as East Germany, Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and others, there was a growing sense of discontent and opposition to Soviet domination. The USSR's intervention and control over these countries were resented by many citizens, leading to protests and movements for political and economic reforms.

China: The USSR's relationship with China had been strained for several decades, following ideological and territorial disputes. In 1989, China had a cautious and wary view of the Soviet Union. The Chinese government was concerned about the potential spread of Soviet-style reforms or political movements into China, particularly in the aftermath of the Tiananmen Square protests.

Non-aligned countries: Many non-aligned countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America had mixed views of the USSR. Some saw the Soviet Union as a powerful advocate for decolonization, anti-imperialism, and economic cooperation. However, others were critical of the USSR's expansionist policies and its involvement in regional conflicts, such as the Soviet intervention in Afghanistan.

How Gorbachev was Seen by Different People in the World

Mikhail Gorbachev's policies in 1989, particularly his reform agenda known as 'perestroika' (restructuring) and 'glasnost' (openness), elicited various responses both within the Soviet Union and internationally. Here are some key points regarding the reception of Gorbachev's policies in 1989.



Soviet Union: Within the Soviet Union, Gorbachev's policies were met with a mix of hope, skepticism, and increasing demands for change. Many citizens, particularly younger generations, welcomed the promises of greater political openness, economic restructuring, and improved living standards. However, there were also concerns and resistance from conservative factions within the Communist Party and the bureaucracy, who feared losing their privileges and power.

Eastern Europe: Gorbachev's policies had a significant impact on Eastern Europe, where several countries were under Soviet influence or control. His policies sparked a wave of political and social changes throughout the region. As Gorbachev advocated for greater political pluralism and economic liberalization, it emboldened pro-democracy movements and led to popular uprisings against communist governments, culminating in events like the fall of the Berlin Wall and the overthrow of communist regimes in countries like Poland, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia.

United States and Western Europe: Gorbachev's policies were met with cautious optimism in the United States and Western Europe. While there was recognition of the need for reform in the Soviet Union, there was also skepticism about the extent and sustainability of Gorbachev's efforts. Western leaders closely monitored the changes in the USSR, balancing support for reform with concerns over the potential destabilization of the region and the impact on geopolitical dynamics.

China: China's response to Gorbachev's policies was mixed. The Chinese government expressed reservations about the Soviet Union's reform agenda, fearing that it could inspire similar demands for political liberalization within China. However, China also sought to improve relations with the USSR and engaged in dialogue with Gorbachev, leading to a normalization of relations between the two countries in 1989.

Main events

1985 - Mikhail Gorbachev becomes the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) and initiates reforms, including perestroika (restructuring) and glasnost (openness).



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1986 - The Chernobyl nuclear disaster occurs in Ukraine, revealing the Soviet government's failure to address safety concerns and increasing public discontent.

1987 - Gorbachev announces the policy of 'demokratizatsiya', aiming to introduce political reforms and limited political pluralism.

1988 - The Soviet Union faces growing nationalist movements in various republics, such as Armenia, Georgia, and Azerbaijan, leading to clashes and unrest.

1989 - The USSR withdraws troops from Afghanistan, ending a costly and unpopular decade-long war.

1989 - Multi-party elections are held in several Soviet republics, including the Baltic states, resulting in the victory of pro-independence candidates.

1989 - The fall of the Berlin Wall in November marks a symbolic end to the Cold War division in Europe and inspires pro-democracy movements across Eastern Europe.

1989 - The Baltic Way, a human chain spanning across Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, demonstrates the demand for independence in the Baltic states.

1989 - The Central Asian republics witness anti-Soviet demonstrations and growing demands for sovereignty and independence.

Questions to Consider:

1. What are your current relations with the USSR?
2. How is your country affected by the instability of it and what will happen if it continues and becomes worse?
3. Has your country been affected by the USSR's reforms we mentioned?
4. What are the connections between your country's economy and USSR's economy?
5. How similar is your country to the USSR? In terms of economic values, view of the world and so on.
6. How and on what grounds should the UNSC respond to the situation in the USSR? How can it address one of its core members?



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Topic B: Tiananmen Square Protests and Massacre

Background to the Topic:

May the fourth movement - its connection to the foundation of the CCCP

The roots of “May Fourth Movement” began to grow in China after the revolution which took place in 1911 to establish a republican government. The movement defined itself as anti-imperialist and anti-feudal. It blamed traditional culture for the dramatic and rapid fall of China into a subordinate international position and maintained that China's cultural values prevented China from matching the industrial and military development of Japan and the West, especially after WW1 after the announcement of the terms of the Versailles Treaty, which according to the treaty Germany's territorial rights in China were not returned to the Chinese, as had been expected, but were instead turned over to the Japanese. These terms caused massive protests in China on May fourth, 1919, and the movement's name was taken from those protests. Many members believed that the most efficient way for China to move forward and become as advanced as its Japanese neighbor was by adopting Western notions of equality and democracy. However, the Versailles Treaty was viewed as a betrayal. Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points were seen as an example of Western hypocrisy as the United States of America didn't try to convince the other global powers of the time to follow the Fourteen Points. The Fourteen Points was a statement of principles for peace that was to be used for peace negotiations in order to end World War I. Many of the points focused on: trade equality, ending of secrete treaties, and alliances, freedom of the seas, and the establishment of the League of Nations.

As a result, like many other countries that took a part in the Proletarian Revolution, China turned away from Western liberal democracy, and Marxism began to take hold in Chinese intellectual circles, particularly among those already on the Left. For example, Chen Duxiu and Li Dazhao shifted more to the Left and joined the leading founders of the 1921 Communist Party of China. In 1919, With the aid of Mao Zedong and Liu Shaoqi, the “Chinese Communist Party” was established. The CCP joined the Nationalist Party (KMT) in 1924, and for a short time, the alliance proved to be successful. However, in 1927, the KMT turned violently against the communists and were driven to hide. That action caused the infliction of the Chinese civil war between the CCP and the Nationalists from 1927 to 1937. In 1937 Japan invaded China and started the Second Sino - Japanese War. The invasion led to a temporary truce between both sides of the civil war as they



united to fight the common enemy. While the KMT forces basically sat out the war in the city of Chongqing, the CCP tremendously expanded its strength by fighting the Japanese invaders. By the war's end (1945), the party controlled base areas of some 100 million people and had an experienced army and a workable political program of alliance between peasants, workers, the middle class, and small capitalists. After the defeat of Japan in 1945, the civil war between the CCP and the KMT resumed. The CCP, led by Mao Zedong, capitalized on popular discontent with the KMT's corruption and ineffective governance. They gained support by promising land reforms, appealing to peasants, and mobilizing the masses. The CCP forces achieved several military victories, culminating in capturing major cities like Beijing and Shanghai. On October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong proclaimed the establishment of the People's Republic of China (PRC) with the CCP controlling the government. After coming to power, the CCP implemented land reforms, redistributing land to peasants and dispossessing landlords. This move helped consolidate support from rural communities, The CCP implemented various social and economic policies, including the collectivization of agriculture and the establishment of state-owned industries. To maintain peace and security, The CCP maintained tight control over the media, education, and ideology, shaping public perception and limiting dissenting voices by maintaining tight control over the media, education, and ideology, shaping public perception and limiting dissenting voices.

Chinese social and economic reforms between 1974 to 1989:

In this study guide, we will not dive into the precise details of the reforms themselves. However, we will explain their purpose and effects. Between 1974 and 1989, China underwent significant economic and social reforms that transformed the country's economy and society. These reforms were implemented under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping, who sought to introduce market-oriented reforms, attract foreign investment, promote private entrepreneurship, and, most importantly, open up China to the world and modernize its economy; Xiaoping tried to achieve that goal through the active introduction of foreign capital and technology while maintaining its commitment to socialism. One of the most significant changes was the dismantling of collective farming and the opening of the Household Responsibility System in rural areas. This policy allowed individual farmers to contract land and keep surplus production, giving them greater incentives to work harder and boost agricultural productivity. As it was mentioned before, Xiaoping wanted to open the Chinese economy to the global market by establishing several Special Economic Zones, such as Shenzhen, Zhuhai, and Xiamen, which were given more liberal economic policies to attract



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foreign investment and promote export-oriented industries. These SEZs served as experimental grounds for economic reforms. China was encouraging joint ventures with foreign companies and promoting exports. The special economic zones which were mentioned above and other coastal areas were at the forefront of these efforts. China had experienced economic growth and increasing exposure to the outside world, which brought new ideas and challenges to the established order. Students, in particular, were exposed to global trends and became more aware of political systems in other countries, leading to calls for similar reforms in China. Even though Xioping implemented many economic reforms, he was very cautious about implementing liberalization reforms which could affect China's political status as a Communist state.



1986 Student Demonstration

The student demonstrations of 1986 in China were sparked by a combination of factors, including political dissatisfaction from the government due to its lack of political reforms, frustration with corruption which was a significant problem within the Chinese government and Communist Party during that time. There were concerns about nepotism, embezzlement, and misuse of power, leading to public discontent and demands for greater transparency and accountability, and demands for greater social reforms. The demonstrations were part of a broader wave of protests that occurred during the mid-1980s, where Chinese citizens, particularly students, expressed their grievances and aspirations for change. The protesters strongly believed that in the status quo, the government isn't following its own constitution, specifically article 35 which proclaims that "citizens of the People's Republic of China enjoy freedom of speech, of the press, of assembly, of association, of procession, and of demonstration". The demonstrations of 1986 in China began on December 5 at the University of Science and Technology in the city of Hefei where students demanded to nominate one of their own candidates to the National People's Congress (NPC). The protests spread all around the country and even to the capital itself. After only 2 weeks, police were sent to remove the demonstrators all across the country and the demonstrations were stopped a few weeks after. The demonstrations were never able to gain wide support in the region as only 2% of students took active roles in them across only 7 cities. Hu Yaobang, the current General Secretary of the PRC at that time and a strong supporter of the freedom of expression, was ordered by Xioping to dismiss Fang Lizhi, Wang Ruowang and Liu Binyan, 3 members of the communist party who inspired the students to protest, from the party itself but Yaobang refused to do so. This action, combined with the fact that Yaobang seemed to be "too liberal" and not harsh enough on the protests led to his firing on January 16th 1987. Just a few years later, on the 8th of April 1989, Yaobang suffered a heart attack while attending a meeting and died a few days later.

Tiananmen Square Protests and Massacre

Following his death, tens of thousands of students and intellectuals who viewed him as a martyr for political reform began to gather on April 22 in the Tiananmen Square in Beijing to mourn and commemorate him. What started as a mourning event for Hu Yaobang quickly evolved into larger demonstrations that called for political reform, freedom of speech, and an end to corruption. The



initial response from the government was to warn the protesters but take no action. The demonstrations expanded to other major cities such as Shanghai, Xi'ang and many more. The protests caused heavy debates in the government on how to approach the situation, some, including Hu Yaobang's successor as the GS, Zhao Ziyang believed that negotiations with the protesters is the most efficient and cautious solution, however many feared the protests could lead to the erosion of the Communist Party's authority and challenge its monopoly on power especially at a time where many communist states in eastern Europe are changing their colors and are becoming more western and democratic. This fear caused many members to support a swift and forceful response to maintain control in the form of Martial Law which was declared in May 20th after Zhao Ziyang was removed from office a few days earlier. 2 Garrisons, 1 Artillery Division and 6 armies were sent to Beijing alone in order to stop the 1 million protesters who were currently present in the square. During the Martial Law, most of the encounters between the protesters and soldiers were peaceful, but on the night of the martial law, in the Fengtai district in Beijing there was a clash between the protesters and the 337th, 338th, artillery and armored regiments of the 38th Army's 113th division as they were trying to advance but were blocked by many residents. This clash caused many to be injured and 10 citizens to be arrested. On May 24th the People's Liberation Army pulled back from Beijing in order to call in additional soldiers and to re-educate the soldiers about the importance of the Martial Law. Martial Law was reinforced again on the 2nd of June as it was announced to the citizens to stay off the streets and especially the Tiananmen Square as something was cooking.

On The night between the 3rd and 4th of June, tanks and heavily armed troops advanced toward the Square, with orders to clear Tiananmen Square of protesters by any means necessary. Soldiers advanced with rifles, bayonets, and armored vehicles, firing live ammunition at the crowds. shooting or crushing all those who tried to oppose them. By the morning the area was clear from protesters as thousands of protesters were arrested and detained in the aftermath of the crackdown. Many were subjected to harsh treatment and faced lengthy prison sentences. The Chinese Government tried to control the narrative as much as possible, it engaged in efforts to sanitize the scene and remove evidence of the violence. In an effort to prevent information from leaving the square, the government imposed a media blackout and cut off communication lines. International journalists' access was restricted, making it difficult for accurate information to reach the outside world.



Current Situation:

Media Control and Censorship

Many important figures who were all supporters and related to the protests in one way or another. Some were arrested in order to “minimize the damage” such as Zhao Ziyang who even after his removal from office, was put under house arrest until this day. Wu'er Kaixi, a Chinese student who was one of the leaders of the protest was put on the government’s most wanted list. Bao Tong, one of Ziyang’s associates was sent to prison as he also supported the protests, and many more. Since the Massacre all news and reports about the events were tightly controlled and censored. Channels such as Xinhua News Agency and People's Daily were strictly controlled by the government. They served as propaganda tools, disseminating the official government narrative and avoiding any coverage or discussion of the protests that deviated from the government's stance. Domestic media outlets were forbidden from reporting on the protests and any discussions about the events were censored. If any coverage deemed critical of the government or sympathetic to the protesters was censored or suppressed. Even though the internet was still in its early days, it was possible to search up information online, write blogs and spread information. Due to that, the government took measures to restrict access to information online. Discussion forums and websites related to the protests were shut down, and keywords associated with the events were blocked from search engines.

China’s Foreign Policy and Countries’ Reactions

The level of official dialogue between China and the West has fallen sharply. Western nations have suspended military relations for the most part, The United States suspended military sales to China and imposed restrictions on exports of certain technologies and goods shortly after the Tiananmen Square Massacre. The decision to impose sanctions came in June 1989, at the same time the EU decided to impose a complete arms embargo on China. although some low-level contacts involving the sharing of intelligence, discussion of strategic issues, and design of weapons systems appear to continue. Moscow, unlike many other countries, expressed



understanding for the Chinese government's actions and praised the Chinese for maintaining stability. With Mikhail Gorbachov, the Soviet president, the Soviet leadership became more guarded in their public statements about China's internal affairs. It's important to understand that the Soviet Union was undergoing its own political transformation during this time, and Gorbachev's policies of reform and openness marked a departure from the previous Soviet leadership's approach. In August 1989, Li Lu, a Chinese student, former leader of the protests movement who is wanted by the Authorities contacted the UNHRC to have a meeting and to adopt a resolution condemning the massacre. China reacted defensively to what it claimed to be foreign interference in its internal affairs. Chinese diplomats were forced to counter attempts to pass condemnatory resolutions at the then UN Commission on Human Rights. Eager to put its foreign relations on a better footing, China sought to channel discussion of human rights away from multilateral institutions like the UN and into bilateral dialogues entered into on the basis of "equality and mutual respect".

Question to consider:

1. Did your country implement any sanctions against China after the incident? if so, what kind?
2. Has your country been affected by China's economic reforms?
3. Does your country censor freedom of speech? If so, in what way and what is your justification to the public?
4. Has your country ever faced large demonstrations? In that case, what was your government response?
5. What are your current relations with China? how will they be affected if a resolution which will harm China in one way or another will be passed?



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