

XXXV
TECMUN



**Historical Trusteeship
Council**

“Dream, diversify—and never miss an angle.”

Walt Disney

Dear Delegates,

It’s hard to believe that it’s been over five years since I first participated in TECMUN as a delegate—and over two years since I first participated behind the scenes. As I remember what it was like for me to step into a committee room for the first time, I find myself overrun with nostalgia, wondering how this could possibly be my very last TECMUN. Wondering where the last five years of my life went. Wondering how that scared twelve year old kid ever became brave enough to lead an entire committee. It’s been quite a ride for me, as I’m sure it has been—or is about to be—for many of you.

My high school experience just wouldn’t have been the same without TECMUN. It was through this organization that I made a lot of my closest friends. I found a home in it, a home that the school hadn’t truly offered me before. Over the years, I learned to love TECMUN, just the way I expect all of you delegates to do by the time your participation in this event is over. It might be really stressful and tedious at times, I won’t deny. But the amazing experience of partaking in the resolution of global issues, even if in a simulated way, makes the entire experience totally worth it, in my opinion.

And, well, thus finishes my involvement with TECMUN. If there’s one last message I would like to leave all of you delegates with, it’s that you should enjoy every single minute of it. If there’s one thing these last three years have taught me, it’s that time flies. And TECMUN makes it fly even faster. Whether this is your first, third, or fifth TECMUN, make each moment count. Whatever your experience might be like, I really hope TECMUN makes you grow as a person. I know it sure made me do it. Or at the very least, I know for a fact that I’m not that scared twelve year old kid anymore.

My life was completely changed thanks to TECMUN—and I can only hope that this event continues to change lives for generations to come.

Good luck, and happy debating.

Yours truly,

Dante Uriel Pineda Cortés
President of the Historical Trusteeship Council
XXXV TECMUN

Background of the Historical Trusteeship Council

Established in 1945 as one of the six main organs of the United Nations, the mission of the Trusteeship Council was ensuring justice and legality during the decolonization process of various territories which remained colonized after the Second World War. The Council was tasked with supervising the transitional administration of eleven regions which came to be known as United Nations trust territories, always keeping the best interests of each territory's population in mind. After supervising the independence of Palau, the last remaining trust territory, in the year 1994, the Council suspended operations and has remained inactive ever since. However, it has not been formally disbanded and can resume operations in the future if deemed necessary.

Faculties

The capabilities of the Council are listed in article 87 of the United Nations Charter:

- Reviewing and analyzing reports provided by the administering authority of each trust territory concerning its economic, social, and political conditions;
- Examining petitions submitted, often yearly, by trust territories;
- Carrying out periodic visits and similar missions to trust territories in need of assistance, and;
- Taking any action which is in line with the terms of established trusteeship agreements.

Topic A

Measures to ensure the health and safety of the population of the Marshall Islands in the wake of nuclear testing carried out by the United States of America (1952)

By: Dante Uriel Pineda Cortés, Mariana Alarcón Vázquez, Angel Daniel González Jasso, Eira Velázquez Escobar, Arely Martínez Martínez

Introduction

A major portion of the Trust Territory¹ of the Pacific Islands, the Marshall Islands came to be under the administration of the United States of America in the year 1947 when said country entered a deal with the United Nations Security Council to oversee most of Micronesia. Soon after, the United States began using the Marshall Islands as its Pacific Proving Grounds², testing powerful nuclear weapons that could serve in future warfare. Starting with testing on Bikini Atoll³ in 1946, it is estimated that sixty-seven nuclear bombs were detonated in the Marshall Islands during the United States' so called "Operation Castle". In order for the tests to be carried out, thousands of residents all over the islands had to be displaced from their homes, often being promised compensation in return, yet receiving nothing. This situation led to social crises in various different communities, leading many to question the American administration of the trust territory.

Set in the year the world's first hydrogen bomb was detonated at the Enewetak Atoll, this topic is set to explore the repercussions that the United States' nuclear testing had on the population of the Marshall Islands and the humanitarian crisis that ensued by the displacement of such large amounts of people. The aim is to bring alternative, more efficient solutions to those given by the American government in the real situation, ensuring a more humane displacement of islanders all over the territory. This topic has the aim of preventing the poor living conditions and the lack of supplies the native inhabitants of the Marshall Islands underwent for almost two decades. This will be achieved by focusing on the social side of the issue—making sure the conditions in this trust territory are up to the standards of the Trusteeship Council.

The Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands

The Pacific Islands are mainly located in the continent of Oceania, between Australia and the Americas. They are divided into Micronesia, Polynesia, and Melanesia. They were originally discovered by migrants from southeast Asia around 4000-3000 B.C., and first colonized in the sixteenth century when Portuguese, Spanish, English, German, and Dutch ships arrived in the

¹**Trust Territory:** Former colonial territory which, after the Second World War, was placed under the supervision of the United Nations Trusteeship Council, with the main objective of obtaining its independence via the aid of the Council.

² **Proving Ground:** Military installation where weapons are tested.

³ **Atoll:** A ring-shaped chain of islands that surround a shallow lagoon.

islands. Prior to the First World War, the islands were largely under the administration of the British Empire, and after it, they became part of the League of Nations' mandate system—a precursor to the United Nations' Trusteeship system. During the Second World War, they found themselves overtaken by the expanding Japanese Empire. With the end of the conflict and the dissolution of the Japanese Empire in the year 1947, the islands remained under the authority of the United States of America, which had secured the islands as part of the Pacific Campaign.

On February 17th, 1947, Warren Austen, American Ambassador to the Security Council, wrote a letter to the Secretary General of the United Nations (UN) which contained the draft for a Trusteeship Agreement. Said agreement established that the United States would become the Administering Authority for the former Japanese-mandated islands, which were to become a Strategic Trust Territory. The draft agreement was discussed in the Security Council's 113th meeting on February 26th of the same year, during which Mr. Austen reminded the international community of President Truman's plead to assume responsibility over all Japanese-mandated islands after the Second World War. He established that, by becoming the Administering Authority, the United States' main purpose would be to “defend the security of the islands in a manner that would contribute to the building up of genuine, effective and enforceable collective security for all Members of the United Nations” (Austen, 1947). He concluded by stating that the American government profoundly believed that the agreement would “contribute both to the maintenance of international peace and security and to the well-being and advancement of the inhabitants of the islands” (Austen, 1947).

After consideration by the Security Council, the transfer of power over a large portion of the region of Micronesia from Japan to the United States of America took place on March 10th, 1947. It was resolution S/RES/21 which established that, as Japan had ceased to exercise any authority over the islands as consequence of the Second World War, the Pacific Islands would be designated as strategic area and placed under the Trusteeship System. The United States of America were designated as the Administering Authority and came to have full power over the legislation, administration and jurisdiction of the islands. As a strategic territory, they were also allowed to place bases in the region—something no other Administering Authority was allowed to do.

Under American administration

With the newly approved Trusteeship Agreement, the Pacific Islands remained under control of the United States Navy until the year 1951, when authority over them was transferred to the United States Department of the Interior. That same year, the administrative headquarters of the territory were moved from Guam to Saipan, the largest of the Mariana Islands. Populated by approximately 52,000 people scattered across 2,000 islands located throughout 7 million square kilometers, the Strategic Trust Territory was divided into six districts: the Marshall Islands, the Mariana Islands, Palau, Yap, Truk, and Ponape. Despite now being a part of the same Trust Territory, the native populations of each district all had significantly different cultures.

The United States began its administration over the Pacific Islands in a time when they had been devastated by the outcome of the Second World War. The main urban centers were in poor conditions as they continued to operate with infrastructure which dated back to the years of Japanese mandate over the islands. The rapid introduction of electricity and innovations such as the television led to a large portion of the population becoming distracted, leaving the islands in a precarious state that the United States set out to improve during its first years of mandate over the region. By 1951, the department of the Navy noted a significant improvement upon the islands' political, economic, and social conditions, as was detailed in the report on the administration of the Trust Territory.

Nuclear testing in the Marshall Islands

After the role of nuclear weapons in the surrender of Japan in the Second World War, and amidst fears of a future conflict with the Soviet Union, the United States established the Atomic Energy Commission in the year 1946. With the purpose of undergoing research and development of atomic technology, the commission began carrying out nuclear tests across the continental United States soon after its inception. The commission soon saw the need of testing the effects of nuclear weapons on naval warships. As a result of its location away from regular sea and air traffic, the Marshall Islands, and, more specifically, the Bikini Atoll, provided the ideal nuclear testing ground for said experiments, and thus became the United States' Pacific Proving Grounds.

In the year 1946, Operation Crossroads was put into action, becoming the first nuclear test carried out by the United States after Operation Trinity in New Mexico one year earlier. It was the very first nuclear test in the Marshall Islands, and consisted of three nuclear weapons—out of which only two were tested before the third one was cancelled. The trial occurred in the

Bikini Atoll and resulted in contaminated water which remained after poor cleanup attempts. In this test several animals would be put to the test to measure the capabilities of such weapon and the survival rate of the beings. The next test done by the United States of America in the Marshall Islands thereafter would be Operation Sandstone in the year 1948, which consisted of a total of three tests. Carried out in the Enewetak Atoll, these tests resulted in the obsolescence of the old nuclear cores and the mass production of the Mark 4 nuclear weapons.

In the year 1951, the fifth nuclear test of the United States would take place in the Enewetak Atoll. Codenamed Operation Greenhouse, it consisted of four tests with the intention to test the features for the creation of a thermonuclear bomb. Many buildings and bunkers were constructed to test their effectiveness. Operation Ivy is the latest nuclear weapon test done in the Marshall islands—the eighth test carried out by the United States in the region. This test consisted in the use of Mike, the first thermonuclear bomb to be successfully tested, and it occurred in the Enewetak Atoll. The aftermath of the explosion led to a pilot crash landing and another one being lost to the sea and never found.

Displacement of islanders

In February 1946, Commodore Ben H. Wyatt, the military governor of the Marshall Islands, asked the 167 inhabitants of the Bikini Atoll to evacuate the islands in order for the American government to use it as a bomb testing area for “the good of mankind and to end all world wars”. After a long and sorrowful deliberation between the Bikinians, King Juda, their leader, agreed to the relocation request by announcing "We will go believing that everything is in the hands of God". A month later, the residents were transported 125 miles (201 kilometers) eastward on a United States Navy landing craft to the sparsely vegetated Rongerik Atoll. Rongerik was about one-sixth the size of the Bikini Atoll and had remained uninhabited mainly due to the inadequate food and water supply. The Navy administration had left them with a few weeks stock of food and water that was later proven to be insufficient for the community. The population could not grow enough food on their own and the fish in the lagoon were uneatable after they became poisonous due to what they ate on the reef. The islanders were left alone and soon began starving to death as they begged the United States officials to allow them to return home.

Two years later, in January 1948, Dr. Leonard Mason, an anthropologist from the University of Hawaii visited Rongerik Atoll and was shocked by the living conditions of the islanders. He soon requested both food and medical aid for the Bikinians but it was not until

March 1948 that the United States authorities understood the urgency of relocating the islanders. 184 malnourished Bikinians were moved again, this time to the Kwajalein atoll where they were temporarily given a small strip of grass alongside the United States military airport runway to live in tents. As alarming as these precarious conditions had become, they were not reported to the United Nations by the United States at any given point.

In June 1948, the islanders chose Kili Island as their permanent home and sent two dozen men to start building their homes along with eight United States Naval Construction Battalions. After five months, in November 1948, the now 184 Bikini residents moved to Kili Island. With 81 hectares (0.93 square kilometers), Kili was one of the smallest islands in the Marshall Island chain and was uninhabited due to its size. Lacking both a coral reef and a lagoon, and being constantly surrounded by waves between 10 and 20 feet tall, the residents soon discovered that their ingrained culture of fishing and island-hopping canoe voyages to islets around their homes became obsolete on Kili Island and starvation began rising again. Although in 1949 the Trust Territory administration donated a 40-foot long ship for transporting goods between Kili and other atolls, the ship was destroyed while delivering copra and other fruits. Since then, the United States Trust officials airdropped food onto Kili, which included rice and canned goods.

A humanitarian crisis

Afterwards it began to be heard internationally that the inhabitants who had left the islands or had been evicted, did not have food nor basic things to survive and that they were not allowed to return due to the high pollution that had been created due to the tests. This pressured the United States to come to light and clarify that it would offer financial support to displaced people, as well as send food and survival items to the inhabitants. This situation happened around 1948, the United States forgot about their promise and left people to their own. Besides the negative impacts that the nuclear tests had on the living conditions of the native inhabitants of the islands, the consequences of said tests proved to be hazardous to their health as well. The nuclear leftovers of the tests have exponentially increased the population's risk of developing cancer and cancer-related illnesses, as well as several other diseases which can be caused by the nuclear fallout left behind by the tests. These effects of the United States' nuclear tests around the region are foreseen to continue to affect the residents of the Marshall Islands for years to come, for as long as radioactive components can still be found in the island's environment and its surroundings.

The population of the Marshall Islands has, as such, found itself in an unreliable condition with an insecure future. Despite the United States trying to improve upon the situation, its efforts have proven to be lackluster and provide significant practical aid to the inhabitants of the islands. The Trusteeship Council has found itself in the wake of expanding uneasiness among the native population of the Marshall Islands, having been displaced just six years prior, and increasing international awareness about this impending humanitarian crisis. As such, Council calls upon the international community to work together and draft solutions to improve the conditions that the inhabitants of the islands have found themselves in— solutions that can be preferably implemented prior to 1953. The international community is exhorted to create solutions to ensure the wellbeing of all the population of the Marshall Islands.

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Topic B

Strategies to define the frontier between the Ethiopian Empire and the trust territory of Italian Somaliland (1956)

By: Dante Uriel Pineda Cortés, Mariana Alarcón Vázquez, Angel Daniel González Jasso, Eira Velázquez Escobar, Arely Martínez Martínez

Introduction

For over four centuries, the relationship between the two African nations of Ethiopia and Somalia has always found itself in a state of tension. During the years following the Second World War, the main source of conflict were the regions of the Haud and the Ogaden, which were given to Ethiopia by British authorities, causing unrest among the population of both Somaliland territories. The Trusteeship Council—along with the United Nations General Assembly—exhorted Ethiopia and the trust territory of Italian Somaliland to work on an agreement regarding the delimitation of the frontier as early as the year 1950. By 1954, however, the lack of progress in solving this issue was alarming, and the dispute was brought focus to again during the sixteenth session of the Trusteeship Council in the summer of 1955. Both nations had recently acquired independence, leading to a poor management of the crises that ensued over the following decades.

Despite the constant conflicts between Somalia and Ethiopia going back many centuries, both nations share a rich history and a large part of their traditions. As established by the researcher Ghelawdewos Araia in his 2002 book *The Enigma of the Ethiopia-Somalia Relations and the Islamic Factor*, “the peoples of Ethiopia and Somalia have a lot in common when it comes to physiognomy, culture, social organization, and thousands of years of interaction, although this contiguous network was sometimes uneasy and many times turned into violent clashes” (Araia, 2002). Some of these clashes might be attributed to the largely different ideological views of both countries—namely, their contrasting religions. Nevertheless, border disputes among both nations have also provided fuel for larger conflicts, many of which proved during the second half of the twentieth century to be especially challenging. As such, this topic aims to address this issue far before it first escalated into a belic conflict in 1964, exploring how the border disputes between these two nations might have been carried out when the Somali territories were still backed by European countries. The year is 1956—a year after concerns of the rising tensions between the two countries were brought to the attention of the Trusteeship Council, and the same year the Emperor of Ethiopia visited the most problematic region of the conflict in an effort to promote peace.

The shared history of Somalia and Ethiopia

The populations that make up the modern day countries of Somalia and Ethiopia have lived side by side for millennia. Despite sharing similar cultures, conflicts between the two territories arose as early as 1520, year in which a Somali man named Ahmed Grag declared a war on

Libne Dingil, the Emperor of Ethiopia. Known as the conquest of Abyssinia, this conflict almost brought about the dissolution of the Ethiopian Empire. In spite of counting with a larger army, the Ethiopians proved to be no match for the modern warfare technology that was wielded by the Somali troops and their Ottoman allies. The Ethiopian army suffered great casualties, many Ethiopian towns were burned to the ground and a large amount of Ethiopian treasure was stolen. It was only with the support of Portugal that the ancient Ethiopian Empire managed to fight back and retain its autonomy. This conflict is largely considered to be the origin of all the hostility which has existed among both regions ever, since it totally redefined the balance of power in the region for centuries to come.

Relative peace was maintained in the region until the 1880s. After acquiring a large portion of the territory of Somalia and occupying Eritrea, the Kingdom of Italy set out to incorporate the Ethiopian Empire into its territory as well. On May 2nd, 1889, the Treaty of Wuchale was signed between Count Pietro Antonelli and King Menelik II, establishing terms that encouraged trade between the two nations and granted Italy control over three major territories of Northern Ethiopia. Nonetheless, misunderstandings arose when translating the document from Amharic to Italian, leading the Italian government to believe it had the capability of turning the entire region into a protectorate. When it tried to do so, King Menelik denounced the treaty, leading to a conflict known as the First Italo-Ethiopian War, which broke out in 1895. As a relatively newborn nation, Italy was unable to fight back after one of its main forts was attacked, and was soon driven out of the region by the Ethiopian army. On October 26th, 1896, with the signing of the Treaty of Addis Ababa, Italy acknowledged the independence of Ethiopia, and the Ethiopian Empire became one of only two African nations that remained independent throughout the age of European colonization.

The territories of Somaliland

The modern history of Somalia begins with the Partition of Africa, which was carried out by European powers during the late nineteenth century. The territory of Somalia was acquired by the Kingdom of Italy, the United Kingdom, and the French Republic in the 1880s, and split into three separate colonies—Italian Somaliland, British Somaliland, and French Somaliland. The three nations acquired the territories through various agreements with the Somali Sultans of the region. Italy was interested in the territory's geographical position as it granted them access to the Suez Canal and the Gulf of Aden, both of which provided gateways to the most important trade routes of the region.

In 1936, the region was incorporated to the territory of Italian East Africa as the Somalia Governorate. It became one of the most developed colonies in Africa during the late 1930s, with Mogadishu as its capital. During the Second World War, the region became a strategic point of conflict between Italy and the United Kingdom. The territory of Italian Somaliland was conquered by the British army in the spring of 1941. Just a few months later, the Italian military carried out an invasion of British Somaliland, successfully defeating the British forces. A guerrilla war ensued in the entire region and lasted for the rest of the Second World War. With the defeat of the Axis Powers in 1945, the entire region came to be administered by the United Kingdom. Despite retaining the name Italian Somaliland, the territory remained under British administration during the years that followed the Second World War.

During the British administration, the Somali Youth Club (SYC), the first modern Somali political party, was established in 1943 in Mogadishu. It was later renamed the Somali Youth League (SYL) and became the dominant party. After the Second World War, during the Allied conference held in Potsdam, Germany, the status of the Somali region was debated and the question remained unanswered for several years. While the rural citizens in the west and north wanted outright independence, the southerners preferred the Italian leadership as it had brought economic prosperity, and a small fraction of the population welcomed the British attempt to maintain order and introduce democracy.

In November 1949, the United Nations decided to grant Italy trusteeship of the Italian Somaliland starting from April 1st, 1950. This ended the British military administration of the region. The Somali Youth League among with other Somali political parties such as Hizbia Digil Mirifle Somali and the Somali National League, first proposed the Trust Territory of Somaliland to remain under close supervision and on the condition that Somalia would achieve its independence within a decade. Although the SYL preferred immediate independence opposing to continue under Italian administration, the decision was taken. The British and French territories of Somaliland, on the other hand, never became United Nations Trust Territories. The former obtained its independence in 1960, while the latter did so in 1967, becoming the independent nation of Djibouti.

Border disputes

Since the very birth of the relationship between Ethiopia and Somalia, both nations have fought to have full control over the Gulf of Aden and the region known as the Horn of Africa. In more recent years, disputes among both nations have been focused on the region of Ogaden.

Ogaden is a region located between the two nations, which was claimed by both of them in the end of the nineteenth century. Both countries have pursued control over the region given its rich livestock resources and its strategic geographic location, which makes it accessible to many commercial routes. It proved to be a strategic region during the 1896 Battle of Adwa—which was in itself a part of the First Italo-Ethiopian War. During this conflict, the region was occupied by Ethiopia, and it remained under its control during all of its life of independence in the early twentieth century.

The region of Ogaden was disputed again during the Second Italo-Ethiopian War, which took place between 1935 and 1937. The territory of Italian Somaliland played an important role in this conflict. Amidst the thirst for expansion of the Kingdom of Italy during an age of Nationalism, its leader Benito Mussolini launched an invasion of Ethiopia. With the support of the German army, Italy managed to defeat the Ethiopian troops and took control over the region in the year 1935. Forty years after its first attempt at taking over the territory, Italy had succeeded in annexing the Ethiopian territory into the colonies of Italian East Africa—including the highly coveted Ogaden region. Ethiopia was liberated by the British army during its East African campaign in 1941, and the territory of Ogaden remained under British administration.

In 1948, Ethiopia regained control over the Ogaden region after signing an agreement with the British authorities—much to the disapproval of people of Somaliland. Later that year, General Asfaw Wold Giorgis was appointed as the governor of the Ogaden. With the help of the British, peace was kept in the region for many years. The only conflict that took place during the British administration of the area happened in November of 1951, when an uprising of native Somalis occurred, yet was quickly eradicated by the troops of the Ethiopian government. The British ended their administration of the region in 1954, allowing the tensions between Ethiopia and Somaliland to grow unsupervised. The United Nations first became aware of the issue in 1950, and attempted to tackle it further in December of 1954. However, no real progress was being achieved. As established in the official record of the Trusteeship Council's sixteenth session, which took place in July of 1955, “negotiations as may have taken place so far have not yet yielded substantial results” (United Nations, 1955). Sensing rising tensions between the two countries, in 1956, Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie paid a visit to the region with the objective of promoting peace among the two countries.

Preventing future conflicts

After the year 1956, once both the Italian and the British Somaliland had obtained their independence and stopped being United Nations Trust Territories, the 1964 Ethiopian Somali Border War took place. Somalia wanted control over the region of Ogaden with the main purpose of unifying a region they had established as Greater Somalia, a region which has been inhabited by ethnic Somalis for centuries. In the year 1962, the Somali government started supporting various revolts around the Ethiopian-owned territory, mainly led by members from the Somali and Oromo populations. In the year 1963, after a failed attempt by the Ethiopian government to collect taxes, many Somali-supported guerrillas began to break out around the country. The war was officially declared in 1964, yet the Somali revolts were quickly extinguished by the Ethiopian authorities and a ceasefire was signed just a few months later. The Somali insurgents were never truly deemed as a threat by the Ethiopian police. After the conflict was over, both countries recovered their forces from the border, and established the Cairo declaration, an agreement to respect the borders already established. Ethiopia would continue to rule over the Ogaden region.

Other major conflicts between both nations would take place in 1977, 1982, 1998 and 2006, claiming millions of lives in battles which could have been avoided had the issue been resolved since it was first brought to the attention of the United Nations—back when Somalia was still a trust territory and the Trusteeship Council had an opportunity to have a say in the matter. As such, this topic is set four years before Italian Somaliland merged with British Somaliland to become the Somali Republic. Its primary objective is to put an end to the disputes which had taken place since 1956 between Ethiopia and Italian Somaliland regarding the definition of the border between them. By analyzing different strategies and establishing agreements for the geopolitical context of the time period, this topic seeks to prevent the 1964 Ethiopian-Somali border war—as well as all major conflicts that have arisen between the two countries because of the same issue in the years since.

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