



OAFLMUN'25

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DISEC | The Guerrilla Warfare

STUDY GUIDE



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1. Letter from Secretary General

Dear Participants of OAFLMUN'25,

It is my great pleasure to welcome you all to the Özket Akbilek Science High School Model United Nations Conference.

Our academic team has prepared these study guides with the aim of providing you, our esteemed delegates, with a comprehensive introduction to the various committees. These guides have been meticulously crafted to enhance your understanding of current global issues and historical events that have had a significant impact on the world.

We believe that by following the guidance outlined in the study guides, which are designed to offer a clear framework, you will find the conference experience both enriching and rewarding, not only during individual committee sessions but throughout the entire event.

During the conference, members of the OAFLMUN'25 academic and organization teams will be closely monitoring your progress and active participation in the committees.

As the Secretary General of this conference, I am committed to the professional development of Turkish youth, as well as all participants, whether this is your first MUN or you are an experienced delegate. I sincerely hope that this conference will be both educational and beneficial for everyone involved, helping you enhance your diplomatic skills and global awareness.

Best regards,
Secretary General
Ecem Buse KOÇAK



OAFLMUN'25

2. Letter from Deputy Secretary General

Most esteemed participants of OAFLMUN'25,

As the Deputy Secretary General of OAFLMUN'25, I am delighted to welcome you all to the 2nd Özkent Akbilek Science High School Model United Nations Conference. It is with great pleasure that I present to you the outcome of our months of preparation and planning. We are committed to ensuring that this event will be the best one yet, from our organisation to our academics. Our aim is to facilitate competent and high-level diplomatic deliberations, and to promote valuable and constructive solutions throughout the three days of OAFLMUN'25. We hope that you will enjoy the event and that it will prove to be a valuable learning experience for all participants. As a delegate, the journey toward success begins here with the Study Guide prepared by the dedicated members of our academic team. We encourage you to read the Study Guide thoroughly and to broaden your research to include different perspectives, focusing on your assigned role. It is essential to acknowledge the value of each role and perspective to ensure full preparation for engagement with the Agenda. I wish you success and enlightening discussions during these three days of OAFLMUN'25. I very much look forward to the valuable contributions you will make to our conference.

Best regards,
Deputy Secretary General
Yiğit KÖMÜRCÜ



OAFLMUN'25

3. Letter from Under Secretary General

Esteemed delegates

As your under-secretary-general, I would like to start by welcoming you all to the OAFLMUN'25. I am currently an 11th-grade student at Özkent Akbilek Science High School, and it's been a year since my journey with Mun began, if you told my first-timer self that you would be in this position, she would probably have laughed in your face. However, here I am, very proud to be your USG at this conference, and I will guide you as much as I can. With my help and your hard work, I am pretty sure we will find solutions for the problems this guide includes.

Our committee's agenda item will be about the guerrilla wars that still continue in some parts of the world, the current problems caused by the guerrilla wars that took place in the past, and the solutions to these problems. I would like you to keep in mind that our topic requires lots of research to understand the issue and its impact on the country you will represent. Therefore, I extremely recommend you read this guide carefully to understand the topic, and when you are done with reading, do some deep research to represent your country greatly.

As your under-secretary-general (USG), I assure you we, as your chairboard, will be very happy to encourage you to actively participate, share your divergent perspectives, and collaborate on your resolutions. So, I expect you to participate and come up with innovative, proactive, and efficient solutions.

As I said, I will help you as much as I can, so if you have any questions or need assistance, please don't hesitate to contact me through my email. I hope it will be a joyful and instructive conference for all of us.

Best Regards,
Meryem Sude Balci
Under-secretary-general of DISEC
balcimeryemsude@gmail.com



I. Introduction to the GA1, the Disarmament and the International Security Committee

Disarmament and the International Security Committee, also known as DISEC, is one of the six main committees and the first committee of the UN. The establishment of the Disarmament and International Security Committee (DISEC) was driven by the global situation of World War II (1939–1945)

The unprecedented destruction caused by the war, including the use of nuclear weapons on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, highlighted the urgent need for mechanisms to prevent future conflicts and regulate weapons. In other word, the development and use of atomic bombs created a new dimension in warfare, nations realized the catastrophic potential of nuclear weapons and frameworks to prevent their spreading and encourage disarmament. The international community immediately recognized that unchecked arms races and militarization could lead to further global devastation.

With the recognition; about 50 countries which are United Nations member states, officially established the committee in San Francisco, California USA

Today DISEC mainly deals with disarmament, global challenges and threats to peace that affect the international community and seeks out solutions to the challenges in the international security regime with 193 member states.

DISEC plays a key role in tackling global challenges related to disarmament and security, requiring delegates to deeply understand their country's stance and the core values of the United Nations Charter. Representing their nation, they must address sensitive topics such as global peace with both diplomacy and clarity. The committee's work often involves finding a balance between national interests and global solutions, making collaboration and compromise essential. Delegates are encouraged to contribute thoughtful ideas and work toward effective resolutions, ensuring discussions remain constructive and focused on achieving long-term peace and stability.



(The official logo of DISEC)



II. Introduction to the Agenda Item; Guerrilla Warfare

In modern times, throughout the 20th century, the armed military groups and fighters that employ unconventional tactics in warfare, the guerrillas, have raised their forces all over the world guerrilla. In addition, their numbers increased in parallel with it. Guerrilla military groups differ significantly from traditional militaries in terms of both their power dynamics and operational capabilities. For example, guerrilla groups often operate with decentralized command structures, enabling them to adapt quickly to changes on the battlefield which ensures quick decision-making.

Guerrilla warfare is a type of asymmetric warfare: competition between opponents of unequal strength. It is also a type of irregular warfare: that is, it aims not simply to defeat an invading enemy, but to win popular support and political influence, to the enemy's cost. Accordingly, guerrilla strategy aims to magnify the impact of a small, mobile force on a larger, more cumbersome one. If successful, guerrillas weaken their enemy by attrition, eventually forcing them to withdraw.

Guerrilla insurgencies have disturbed many countries across the world, terrorizing civilian populations, governments and increasing existing economy and social divides within states. Guerrilla activities may seem like terrorism yet there are sharp differences. The term "terrorism" is often used as political propaganda by belligerents (most often by governments in power) to denounce opponents whose status as terrorists is disputed. While the primary concern of guerrillas is the enemy's active military units, actual terrorists largely are concerned with non-military agents and target mostly civilians.

a. The History of the Guerrillas

Primitive (and guerrilla) warfare consists of war stripped to its essentials: the murder of enemies; the theft or destruction of their sustenance, wealth, and essential resources; and the inducement in them of insecurity and terror. It conducts the basic business of war without recourse to ponderous formations or equipment, complicated maneuvers, strict chains of command, calculated strategies, timetables, or other civilized embellishments.

Since ancient times, guerrilla warfare has posed a persistent challenge to established states. However, the factors that render this issue both analyzable and addressable in contemporary discourse began to take shape in the early 20th century. Nevertheless, in no country guerrilla activities did start from a single incident but rather from a combination of historical grievances, political tensions, and external influences.

AFRICA

Guerrilla warfare in Africa has its roots in the continent's colonial history and the struggles against foreign domination. The late 19th and early 20th centuries witnessed European powers dividing



Africa among themselves, leading to widespread oppression. Local populations resisted through various means, including the early forms of guerrilla tactics.

As nationalist movements gained momentum in the mid-20th century, guerrilla warfare became a prominent strategy for achieving independence. Armed groups adopted hit-and-run tactics to combat more powerful colonial armies, highlighting the asymmetry of power inherent in guerrilla conflicts. This approach proved effective in various independence struggles across Africa.

Herero and Namaqua Genocide (1904-1908)

The Herero and Namaqua Genocide occurred in German South West Africa (now Namibia) after the Herero and Nama people rebelled against German colonial rule in 1904 due to land seizures and forced labor. In response, General Lothar von Trotha launched a brutal military campaign, defeating the Herero at the Battle of Waterberg and driving survivors into the Omaheke Desert, where thousands died of thirst. Von Trotha then issued an extermination order, leading to mass killings and forced labor camps, where many perished from starvation and disease. By 1908, up to 80% of the Herero and 50% of the Nama populations had been wiped out, marking the first genocide of the 20th century.

Maji Maji Rebellion (1905-1907)

The Maji Maji Rebellion was a large-scale uprising against German colonial rule in East Africa (now Tanzania), sparked by forced labor, high taxation, and mandatory cotton cultivation. Inspired by Kinjeketile Ngwale, who claimed a sacred water ("maji") would protect them from bullets, thousands of Africans launched attacks on German outposts in 1905. Initially successful, the rebellion was crushed when German forces used a scorched earth policy, burning villages and destroying crops, leading to mass starvation. By 1907, the uprising had collapsed, with an estimated 250,000 deaths, making it one of the deadliest anti-colonial revolts in Africa.

Algerian War of Independence (1954-1962)

The Algerian War of Independence was a bloody conflict between France and Algerian nationalists, primarily led by the National Liberation Front (FLN), seeking to end French colonial rule. The war began in 1954 after years of French repression and escalated into widespread guerrilla warfare, urban bombings, and brutal counterinsurgency tactics. The conflict became infamous for the use of torture, executions, and civilian massacres by both sides. Despite heavy French military efforts, growing international pressure and the determination of the FLN led to Algeria gaining independence in 1962, marking the end of one of the most violent anti-colonial struggles of the 20th century.

Mau Mau Uprising (1952-1960)

The Mau Mau Uprising was a violent rebellion against British colonial rule in Kenya, primarily led by the Kikuyu people, who had been displaced from their lands and subjected to forced labor and political repression. The uprising began in 1952, with Mau Mau fighters launching guerrilla attacks against British settlers and government forces from forest strongholds. In response, the British declared a



state of emergency, detaining thousands in concentration camps and executing suspected rebels. Although the rebellion was suppressed by 1960, it intensified demands for Kenyan independence, which was finally achieved in 1963.

Portuguese Colonial Wars (1961–1974)

The Portuguese Colonial Wars were a series of armed conflicts fought by independence movements in Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea-Bissau against Portugal's authoritarian colonial rule. Beginning in 1961, groups like MPLA (Angola), FRELIMO (Mozambique), and PAIGC (Guinea-Bissau) used guerrilla warfare to resist Portuguese forces, who responded with mass executions and forced relocations. Despite military superiority, Portugal struggled to maintain control, and after the Carnation Revolution in 1974, the new Portuguese government granted independence to its African colonies in 1975, ending over four centuries of colonial rule.

Congo Crisis (1960–1965)

The Congo Crisis was a period of extreme political instability and conflict following the Democratic Republic of the Congo's independence from Belgium in 1960. Tensions escalated when the mineral-rich Katanga and South Kasai regions seceded, backed by Belgium and Western powers, while Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba sought Soviet support. Lumumba was soon overthrown and assassinated in 1961, leading to a prolonged conflict involving rebellions, mercenaries, and Cold War rivalries. After years of fighting, Mobutu Sese Seko seized power in 1965, establishing a long-lasting dictatorship.

Rwandan Civil War (1990–1994)

The Rwandan Civil War was fought between the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), a Tutsi-led rebel group, and the Hutu-dominated Rwandan government, which sought to maintain power amid ethnic tensions. The conflict began in 1990 when the RPF, made up of exiled Tutsis, invaded Rwanda from Uganda, demanding political reforms and the right to return. A ceasefire in 1993 temporarily halted fighting, but in 1994, the assassination of President Juvénal Habyarimana triggered the Rwandan Genocide, in which extremist Hutu militias killed 800,000 Tutsis and moderate Hutus. The RPF resumed its offensive, seizing control in July 1994, ending both the genocide and the civil war.

Liberian Civil Wars (1989–1997, 1999–2003)

The Liberian Civil Wars were two brutal conflicts that devastated Liberia, fueled by ethnic tensions, political corruption, and struggles over natural resources. The first war began in 1989, when Charles Taylor's rebel group, the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL), launched an armed rebellion against President Samuel Doe. The conflict led to mass atrocities, child soldier recruitment, and intervention by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). After years of fighting, Taylor became president in 1997, but a second civil war erupted in 1999, as new rebel groups sought to overthrow him. The war ended in 2003, when Taylor was forced into exile, leading to a peace agreement and democratic elections in 2005.



Boko Haram Insurgency (2009–Present)

The Boko Haram Insurgency began in 2009 in northeastern Nigeria, with the militant group Boko Haram—whose name means "Western education is forbidden"—waging an armed rebellion against the Nigerian government. Initially, the group targeted government institutions, but it soon escalated to attacks on civilians, including bombings, abductions, and massacres. The group's most notorious act was the 2014 abduction of 276 schoolgirls from Chibok, which drew international attention. Boko Haram seeks to establish an Islamic state in Nigeria and has engaged in violent tactics alongside Islamic State affiliates. The insurgency has led to the deaths of tens of thousands and the displacement of millions, destabilizing regions of Nigeria, Chad, Cameroon, and Niger.

Al-Shabaab Insurgency (2006–Present)

Al-Shabaab is a radical Islamist militant group that emerged in 2006 as a splinter faction of the Union of Islamic Courts in Somalia. The group aims to establish an Islamic state governed by a strict interpretation of Sharia law. Al-Shabaab's insurgency has been marked by terrorist attacks, bombings, assassinations, and attacks on Somali government forces and African Union peacekeepers. The group is known for using violent tactics to control southern and central Somalia, along with cross-border attacks in Kenya and Ethiopia. Al-Shabaab's reign of terror has contributed to a humanitarian crisis and continues to destabilize the Horn of Africa.

MIDDLE EAST and ASIA

The Arab Revolt (1916–1918) Against Ottoman Rule

The Arab Revolt, which began during World War I, is considered one of the earliest instances of organized guerrilla warfare in the region. Arab nationalists, led by figures like Sharif Hussein bin Ali, launched a rebellion against the Ottoman Empire, which had controlled much of the Arab world for centuries. With support from the British, the Arab forces used guerrilla tactics such as ambushes, sabotage, and raids against Ottoman supply lines, military posts, and infrastructure. This revolt laid the foundation for later independence struggles in the Middle East and the development of armed resistance movements.

The Creation of Israel (1948) and the Palestinian Resistance

The creation of the State of Israel in 1948 and the subsequent displacement of Palestinian Arabs sparked the first Palestinian guerrilla movements. The 1948 Arab-Israeli War, which followed the declaration of Israeli independence, saw Palestinian militias and Arab forces engage in guerrilla-style warfare against the newly formed Israeli state. This led to the formation of resistance organizations such as the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) and its factions like Fatah, which adopted guerrilla tactics to resist Israeli control over Palestinian lands and advocate for the establishment of a Palestinian state.

The Suez Crisis (1956)



The Suez Crisis (also known as the Second Arab-Israeli War) was a major turning point in the Middle East, as it marked the intervention of British, French, and Israeli forces in Egypt. Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser's nationalization of the Suez Canal and his defiance of Western powers led to a military intervention. Although the Egyptian military was overwhelmed by the invasion, Nasser's call for resistance and anti-imperial sentiment led to an increase in guerrilla activities throughout the region, especially as other Arab nations sought to expel Western influences and counter Israeli expansion.

The Algerian War of Independence (1954–1962)

Though not in the Middle East, the Algerian War of Independence had a major impact on the region, influencing Arab and Muslim nationalist movements throughout North Africa and the Middle East. The FLN (National Liberation Front) in Algeria used guerrilla tactics against French colonial rule. The success of the Algerian revolution in gaining independence from France inspired other groups in the Middle East to take up arms against colonial and imperial powers. This inspired movements like the Palestinian fedayeen and the Egyptian Free Officers Movement, which adopted guerrilla tactics to challenge colonial and oppressive regimes.

The Iranian Revolution (1979)

The Iranian Revolution of 1979, which overthrew the Shah of Iran, was another pivotal event that sparked guerrilla movements. Iran's new Islamic regime under Ayatollah Khomeini called for a broader Islamic revolution throughout the region, inspiring Islamist groups such as Hezbollah in Lebanon, Hamas in Palestine, and other radical factions to engage in guerrilla warfare against their local governments and foreign influences. The revolution demonstrated the potential for armed resistance to topple long-standing regimes, encouraging the growth of Islamist guerrilla groups.

The Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan (1979)

The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 marked a major turning point, as it sparked one of the most well-known guerrilla insurgencies in the Middle East. Afghan resistance groups, known as the mujahideen, received support from the United States, Pakistan, and other countries in their fight against the Soviet forces. The mujahideen used classic guerrilla tactics, such as ambushes, sabotage, and hit-and-run attacks, leading to the Soviet Union's eventual withdrawal in 1989. This conflict helped to solidify guerrilla warfare as a viable tactic for resistance movements in the region and contributed to the rise of radical Islamic groups in the aftermath.

The Chinese Revolution and the Rise of the Chinese Communist Party (1927–1949)

One of the most significant guerrilla movements in Asia began with the Chinese Civil War between the Chinese Communist Party (CCP), led by Mao Zedong, and the Nationalist Kuomintang (KMT). The Communists, initially a small faction, adopted guerrilla tactics against the much stronger Nationalist forces. Their strategy was based on peasant support and the mobilization of rural areas. The Chinese Communist guerrillas, known as the Red Army, used hit-and-run tactics and sabotage to undermine the Nationalist forces, culminating in the victory of the CCP in 1949 and the establishment of



the People's Republic of China. The CCP's success helped shape the use of guerrilla tactics in other anti-colonial and anti-imperialist struggles across Asia.

The Vietnam War and the Viet Cong (1955–1975)

The Vietnam War is one of the most famous examples of guerrilla warfare in Asia. It began with the resistance against French colonial rule and evolved into a conflict between North Vietnam (led by Ho Chi Minh) and South Vietnam, backed by the United States. The Viet Cong, a guerrilla force in the South, used tactics such as ambushes, sabotage, and underground tunnels to fight against the superior U.S. military. The conflict grew out of the resistance to French colonialism and the subsequent division of Vietnam into a communist North and anti-communist South. The Viet Cong's resistance, supported by North Vietnam, played a key role in the eventual unification of Vietnam and the defeat of American forces.

The Indian Independence Movement (1857–1947)

The Indian Rebellion of 1857, also known as the Sepoy Mutiny, marked the beginning of organized resistance against British colonial rule in India. While it was not initially a guerrilla movement in the modern sense, the revolt sparked widespread resistance in the form of guerrilla tactics in later years. Indian freedom fighters, including Bhagat Singh, Subhas Chandra Bose, and others, used guerrilla warfare, such as bombings, sabotage, and hit-and-run attacks, against the British. The movement for Indian independence gained momentum through the early 20th century, and groups like the Indian National Army (INA), led by Bose, engaged in guerrilla activities against British forces, culminating in India's independence in 1947.

The Malayan Emergency (1948–1960)

The Malayan Emergency was a guerrilla war fought between the Malayan Communist Party (MCP) and British colonial forces. The conflict began in 1948 when the MCP, which had been operating as a resistance group during World War II against the Japanese occupation, turned to guerrilla tactics to fight for independence from British colonial rule. The communists waged an insurgency in the Malayan Peninsula, using hit-and-run tactics and ambushes in dense forests. The conflict lasted until 1960, when the British, supported by local forces, finally defeated the guerrilla insurgency, but the movement laid the foundation for communist influence in Southeast Asia.

The Cambodian Civil War and the Khmer Rouge (1967–1975)

The Khmer Rouge, led by Pol Pot, waged a brutal guerrilla insurgency against the Cambodian government. The movement arose in the context of the Vietnam War and the spillover of Vietnamese communist support. The Khmer Rouge used rural guerrilla warfare to overthrow the government of Lon Nol in 1975, ultimately establishing the Democratic Kampuchea regime, known for the genocidal actions that followed. The group's guerrilla tactics involved ambushes, sabotage, and the recruitment of local peasants to their cause, which contributed to the rapid downfall of the government and the establishment of the regime that killed an estimated 1.5 to 2 million people in the Cambodian genocide.



The Philippine Insurgency (1969–Present)

The Philippine Insurgency began with the Communist Party of the Philippines and its armed wing, the New People's Army (NPA), launching a guerrilla war in 1969 against the Philippine government. The insurgency grew out of widespread frustration over social inequality, poverty, and political repression. The NPA has used guerrilla tactics, including ambushes, bombings, and kidnappings, to challenge both the Philippine military and various political regimes. Despite numerous peace talks, the insurgency continues, and groups such as Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) and Abu Sayyaf also utilize guerrilla tactics in their respective struggles for independence or autonomy.

The Myanmar Civil War (1948–Present)

The Myanmar Civil War began soon after the country gained independence from British colonial rule in 1948. Various ethnic and nationalist groups, such as the Karen, Kachin, and Shan, launched guerrilla movements to fight against the central government for autonomy and rights. Over time, other factions, including communist groups and more recently, ethnic militias and ethno-nationalist forces, have carried out insurgencies using hit-and-run tactics, attacks on military bases, and kidnappings. Despite several ceasefires and peace negotiations, the conflict is ongoing, with guerrilla warfare continuing in several regions of Myanmar.

The Kashmir Conflict (1947–Present)

The Kashmir conflict, a territorial dispute between India and Pakistan, has led to multiple insurgencies in the Kashmir Valley. The secessionist movements in Kashmir, especially after the 1989 insurgency, have been characterized by guerrilla tactics. Various militant groups, some of which have ties to Pakistan, have used ambushes, explosions, and attacks on Indian forces to demand independence or integration with Pakistan. This conflict, which remains unresolved, continues to involve frequent guerrilla operations.

LATIN AMERICA

Foco Theory

In the 1960s, the Marxist revolutionary Ernesto (Che) Guevara developed the 'foco' (Spanish: *foquismo*) theory of revolution in his book *Guerrilla Warfare* based on experiences during the 1959 Cuban Revolution. This theory was later formalized as "focalism" by Régis Debray. Its central principle is that vanguardism by cadres of small, fast-moving paramilitary groups can provide a focus for popular discontent against a sitting regime, and thereby lead a general insurrection. Although the original approach was to mobilize and launch attacks from rural areas, many *foco* ideas were adapted into urban guerrilla warfare movements.

The Cuban Revolution (1953–1959)

The Cuban Revolution is often seen as the key event that inspired the widespread rise of guerrilla movements across Latin America in the 1950s and 1960s. The success of Fidel Castro and Ernesto (Che)



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Guevara in overthrowing the U.S.-backed dictator Fulgencio Batista demonstrated that guerrilla warfare could be an effective means of overthrowing oppressive regimes. The Cuban victory became a symbol of hope for leftist movements throughout Latin America, encouraging revolutionary movements to take up arms against local dictatorships, military regimes, and imperialist influences.

The U.S. Intervention in Guatemala (1954)

In 1954, the U.S. government orchestrated a coup to overthrow the democratically elected government of Jacobo Árbenz in Guatemala, fearing that his policies of land reform and modernization were communist in nature. This intervention shocked many across Latin America and led to the emergence of armed resistance in Guatemala. The coup strengthened anti-American sentiment and led to the creation of guerrilla movements such as the Guerrilla Army of the Poor (EGP), which fought the military government for decades. This marked a direct link between U.S. foreign intervention and the rise of armed resistance movements in the region.

The Assassination of Ernesto (Che) Guevara (1967)

Ernesto (Che) Guevara's attempt to export the Cuban revolution to other Latin American countries was a major turning point. After his failure in Bolivia in 1967, Guevara was captured and executed by the Bolivian military, which was supported by the CIA. Guevara's death turned him into a martyr and symbol of revolution, galvanizing other guerrilla movements in countries like Argentina, Peru, Colombia, and Nicaragua. The idea of spreading revolutionary violence and socialist ideals through guerrilla warfare became even more deeply entrenched in the region's political movements.

The FARC and ELN in Colombia (1964)

The Colombian government's violent response to rural uprisings in the 1950s and the concentration of land in the hands of a few wealthy families sparked the foundation of two of the most influential guerrilla groups in Latin American history: The Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) and the National Liberation Army (ELN). Both groups were born out of frustration with the deep inequalities in Colombia, particularly in rural areas where peasants had no land and were subject to exploitation. They were also inspired by the Marxist ideology and the success of the Cuban Revolution. This marked the start of decades of guerrilla warfare in Colombia, with the FARC becoming one of the longest-running insurgencies in Latin America.

The Sandinista Revolution in Nicaragua (1979)

The Nicaraguan Sandinista National Liberation Front (FSLN) overthrew the Somoza dictatorship in 1979 after years of armed struggle. The Somoza family had ruled Nicaragua for decades with U.S. backing and brutal repression. The success of the Sandinista revolution in overthrowing a brutal dictatorship inspired similar movements in neighboring countries. It showed that a well-organized guerrilla force could successfully overthrow a powerful military dictatorship, which led to the rise of leftist guerrilla movements in El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras.



The "Dirty War" in Argentina (1976–1983)

In the mid-1970s, Argentina was under a military dictatorship that engaged in widespread human rights abuses and repression against political opponents, including kidnappings, torture, and killings. The Montoneros, an armed leftist group, fought against the military junta during this period. The military dictatorship's brutal response to left-wing activism led to the rise of urban guerrilla groups like the Montoneros. The state's violence against civilians created an environment in which armed resistance was seen by many as the only means of opposing the military regime. This conflict is part of what became known as Argentina's Dirty War.

The Peruvian Shining Path (Sendero Luminoso) (1980)

The founding of the Shining Path by Abimael Guzmán in the 1980s in Peru was a response to the social and economic inequalities in the country, particularly in the rural highlands. Guzmán's Maoist ideology sought to replace the government with a communist state through violent revolution. The Shining Path's radical, Maoist-inspired tactics and its rejection of traditional political processes led to violent uprisings, particularly in rural areas where peasants and Indigenous people faced severe exploitation. The group's violent actions marked the beginning of one of the bloodiest guerrilla wars in Latin American history.

The Mexican Zapatista Uprising (1994)

The Zapatista Army of National Liberation (EZLN), led by Subcomandante Marcos, launched an armed rebellion in Chiapas, Mexico, on January 1, 1994, the same day that the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) went into effect. The Zapatistas fought for indigenous rights, land reform, and opposition to neoliberal economic policies. The Zapatista uprising, while not as violent as earlier guerrilla movements, sparked a new wave of activism focused on indigenous rights and social justice. It showed that even in a modern, globalized era, armed struggle could still be a powerful form of resistance against economic systems perceived as unjust.

b. The Relevant Points in the Continuation of the Guerrilla Issue Until Modern Times

Guerrilla movements in **Africa** have persisted due to the lasting effects of colonialism, post-independence instability, and ethnic divisions. When European powers withdrew, many African nations were left with *weak governance* and artificial borders that did not reflect ethnic or tribal realities. This created long-term internal conflicts, as marginalized groups turned to guerrilla tactics to challenge state authority. Movements like Boko Haram in Nigeria and the Lord's Resistance Army in Uganda took advantage of weak state control, using asymmetric warfare to gain influence. Many of these groups originated as ideological or religious movements but evolved into militant organizations.

Another major driver of guerrilla movements in Africa is *resource-driven conflict*. Countries rich in natural resources, such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, have seen armed groups fight for control over lucrative assets like diamonds, gold, and oil. These resources often fund insurgencies,



allowing guerrilla groups to sustain prolonged conflicts. Additionally, foreign interventions—whether from Western powers, regional forces, or private military companies—have often complicated these conflicts rather than resolving them. External actors have supported different factions based on economic or geopolitical interests, prolonging instability.

Proxy wars in Angola, Mozambique, and Ethiopia left behind well-trained militias that later evolved into modern insurgent movements. Corruption, weak state institutions, and lack of economic opportunities continue to create an environment where guerrilla movements thrive, making lasting peace difficult to achieve.

Guerrilla warfare in the **Middle East** remains deeply rooted in colonial history, sectarian tensions, and foreign interventions. The *Palestinian-Israeli conflict* is one of the most well-known examples of ongoing guerrilla warfare in the Middle East. Groups like Hamas and Islamic Jihad use guerrilla tactics, including ambushes, rocket attacks, and urban warfare, to resist Israeli occupation. Similarly, Hezbollah in Lebanon has engaged in guerrilla warfare against both Israeli forces and internal Lebanese rivals, maintaining a strong presence in the region. The unresolved nature of these conflicts means that guerrilla tactics continue to be a key strategy for non-state actors resisting state control.

The Arab Spring uprisings of 2011 initially aimed to bring democratic reforms, but in many cases, they led to civil wars and power vacuums. This was especially true in Syria, Libya, and Yemen, where armed opposition groups adopted guerrilla warfare against ruling governments. In Syria, rebel factions, including Islamist and secular groups, engaged in guerrilla-style fighting against the Assad regime, leading to a long, brutal conflict. Additionally, groups like ISIS emerged during this period, using guerrilla tactics alongside terrorist methods to establish territorial control in Iraq and Syria.

Proxy wars have further fueled guerrilla movements, with regional and global powers backing different factions for their own strategic interests. Iran, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, and the U.S. have all played roles in supporting various armed groups, often prolonging conflicts rather than resolving them. Sectarian divides between Sunni and Shia militias, as seen in Iraq, Lebanon, and Yemen, have also contributed to the continuation of guerrilla-style warfare. As governments struggle to maintain stability, insurgent groups continue to exploit weak state structures, ensuring that guerrilla tactics remain relevant in the region.

In **Asia**, guerrilla warfare has been shaped by ethnic struggles, communist insurgencies, and religious extremism. Many movements originated during *struggles for independence or as resistance against oppressive regimes*. The Moro insurgency in the Philippines, the Karen National Union (KNU) in Myanmar, and the Tibetan resistance against Chinese rule are examples of groups that have used guerrilla tactics to fight for autonomy. These movements, often rooted in historical grievances, continue to engage in armed resistance against state forces.

The influence of communism has also played a major role in guerrilla conflicts in Asia. The Naxalite movement in India and Maoist insurgencies in Nepal and the Philippines have continued to challenge governments through guerrilla warfare. Inspired by Mao Zedong's strategies of rural



insurgency, these groups target state forces through ambushes, sabotage, and hit-and-run attacks. Even though many communist insurgencies have weakened in recent decades, some remain active in remote regions, where economic inequality and state neglect fuel discontent.

Islamist guerrilla movements have also become prominent in parts of Asia. Groups like the Taliban in Afghanistan and Jemaah Islamiyah in Southeast Asia have used guerrilla tactics to challenge state authority and establish Islamic governance. The Taliban, in particular, has effectively used mountain warfare, ambushes, and local support networks to resist both Afghan and foreign forces, ultimately leading to their return to power in 2021. These groups often benefit from weak central governments and cross-border networks, allowing them to sustain their insurgencies over long periods.

Foreign military interventions have also played a key role in guerrilla conflicts in Asia. The U.S. military presence in Afghanistan, China's occupation of Tibet and Xinjiang, and India's counterinsurgency operations in Kashmir and northeastern states have all contributed to ongoing guerrilla resistance. In response, guerrilla groups have adapted their tactics, increasingly using urban guerrilla warfare in major cities. This shift from rural-based insurgencies to urban settings reflects the evolution of guerrilla strategies in response to modern counterinsurgency efforts.

Guerrilla activities in **Latin America** evolved significantly after the Cold War. While groups like the FARC in Colombia and the ELN continued insurgencies, funding their operations through *drug trafficking and criminal activity*, others like the FMLN in El Salvador and Sandinistas in Nicaragua transitioned to political participation through peace agreements. The Zapatista uprising in Mexico (1994) shifted focus from traditional Marxist tactics to indigenous rights, autonomy, and anti-globalization, gaining global attention.

Despite peace efforts, many groups persisted, particularly in Colombia and Peru, where remnants of groups like the Shining Path continued *armed struggles*, often linked to the drug trade. The rise of criminal organizations, fueled by the drug trade, and the militarization of conflict through U.S. counterinsurgency efforts marked the post-guerrilla landscape. Modern movements increasingly focus on indigenous rights and environmental justice, often adopting nonviolent tactics while addressing issues of inequality and imperialism.

c. Current Situation

In contemporary times, guerrilla warfare in **Africa** has evolved significantly while preserving its core principles. Groups engaged in this form of conflict have adapted their strategies to address unique political, social, and economic conditions within various nations. Today, these movements often leverage advanced technology while continuing to mobilize local populations.

A discernible trend in contemporary guerrilla warfare is the increase in urban guerrilla tactics. Insurgents now frequently operate within cities, using the densely populated environments to blend in with civilians and execute surprise attacks. This shift complicates counterinsurgency efforts and blurs the lines between combatants and non-combatants.



Another notable trend is the role of social media in guerrilla warfare strategies. Insurgent groups utilize digital platforms for propaganda and recruitment, reaching a broader audience than ever before. This reliance on technology fosters rapid dissemination of information and helps sustain popular support for their causes.

Guerilla warfare significantly impacts African societies, influencing socioeconomic conditions, causing population displacement, and altering cultural dynamics. The unconventional strategies employed in these conflicts disrupt local economies, contributing to poverty and hampering development efforts.

Conflict zones often experience mass displacement as civilians flee violence, leading to refugee crises and strained resources in host communities. This disruption fosters instability and challenges local governance, complicating peacebuilding efforts.

Moreover, the regional dynamics in Africa significantly influence contemporary guerrilla movements. External support from foreign nations and transnational organizations contributes to the sustainability and effectiveness of these factions.

In addition, the prolonged nature of guerilla warfare has lasting cultural effects. Societies might adopt militarized norms and values, which can impede social cohesion and foster cycles of violence. The legacy of these struggles can persist for generations, shaping identities and political landscapes.

Socioeconomic consequences

Guerilla warfare in African contexts has profound socioeconomic consequences that ripple through societies long after hostilities have ceased. The immediate aftermath of such conflicts often leads to disrupted economic activities, resulting in diminished agricultural output and stunted local businesses. The destruction of infrastructure further exacerbates these issues, complicating efforts to restore stability and growth.

Displacement of populations due to guerilla tactics compounds socioeconomic challenges. As communities relocate to safer areas, they may encounter insufficient resources and lack of livelihood opportunities. This displacement can create urban slums, straining public services and increasing competition for scarce jobs.

Moreover, prolonged guerilla warfare stifles investments, both domestic and foreign. Many regions become economically stagnant as unstable conditions discourage entrepreneurial initiatives and deter essential international partnerships. This economic isolation hinders recovery efforts and perpetuates cycles of poverty and instability.

Over the long term, guerilla warfare also alters social structures, as communities grapple with the socio-political aftermath. This transformation can lead to altered social norms and values, fundamentally changing how societies function and interact, thereby impacting overall socioeconomic health.



Displacement of populations

Displacement of populations is a significant consequence of guerilla warfare in African contexts. Armed conflicts often force communities to flee their homes, seeking safety from violence and instability. This phenomenon leads to a range of socio-economic and humanitarian challenges.

The displacement of populations can result in:

- Increased refugees and internally displaced persons.
- Strain on host communities and resources.
- Long-term disruption to education, healthcare, and livelihoods.

In many cases, displaced individuals encounter dire living conditions in makeshift camps or urban centers, exacerbating existing vulnerabilities. Social cohesion within refugee populations may erode, leading to increased tensions, crime, and discrimination.

Moreover, the legacy of displacement can persist for generations, hindering community rebuilding efforts and national stability. The complexities of post-conflict recovery are often intertwined with the ongoing impacts of prior guerilla warfare, as displaced populations strive to reintegrate into their home regions or settle in new environments.

Long-term cultural effects

The upheaval caused by guerilla warfare in African contexts has led to profound long-term cultural effects across the continent. These conflicts often disrupt traditional societal structures, altering community bonds and cultural practices. As guerilla factions engage in protracted campaigns, cultural identities can become fragmented, resulting in diminished communal cohesion.

Furthermore, the legacy of conflict significantly influences artistic expression and literature. Themes of resistance and struggle permeate various cultural outputs, reflecting the harsh realities faced during warfare. This shift not only preserves historical narratives but also shapes the collective memory of entire nations.

The erosion of indigenous customs occurs as populations are displaced or altered by ongoing violence. Communities may adopt new practices and beliefs, often influenced by external ideologies brought in by guerilla movements or international entities. This cultural amalgamation can lead to the loss of traditional knowledge and languages, thereby impacting the transmission of cultural heritage.

Long-term cultural effects following guerilla warfare also manifest in societal roles, particularly concerning gender dynamics. Women often find themselves thrust into non-traditional roles, assuming leadership positions or participating in combat, challenging historical gender norms. Such shifts redefine the cultural landscape and contribute to evolving identities within affected societies.

The Middle East is one of the regions that still experiences guerrilla warfare in very current times. Movements of those guerrillas in the Middle East still continue and the ones who got affected by



that the most are civilians in many ways. To be specific, some activities that happened or happening in the Middle East by guerrillas include;

Islamic State (ISIS) in Syria and Iraq:

It has been more than a month since the launch of military operations by Syrian regime forces and their allies, with air support from the Russian air force, in the Syrian *Badia* — the country's expansive central desert region — in an attempt to eliminate ISIS cells deployed there. To date, however, these operations have not yielded any tangible results.

The military attacks by the regime and its allies have not changed at the operational and strategic levels. They have been exclusively incursion operations carried out by ground forces armed with light and medium weapons. Russian warplanes provide air cover, proceeded by air strikes, while helicopters accompany the advancing forces on the ground in anticipation of counterattacks by ISIS.

Since its beginning in February, the operation in Deir ez-Zor has not made any progress in the governorate's southern Badia region or near the city of Sokhna in the eastern countryside of Homs. If the operations continued in this manner, the Syrian regime and its allies would need a considerable amount of time to sweep the remaining desert areas in Homs, Hama, and the eastern Sweida Governorate, where ISIS is active.

If the question "Why has not the operation shown a result?" would be asked, there are several reasons why the military operations have shown no tangible results to date, including the mentality of the attacking forces as well as ISIS's handling of the attacks. However, following the main problem of this page; the most suitable reason would be;

Despite the military superiority of the regime and its allies over ISIS, ISIS has an important advantage that enables it to narrow the military gap: detailed knowledge of the geography of the Badia and the ability to maneuver within it, unlike the other parties that lack such knowledge. Moreover, given the extensive experience it has built up in Iraq and Syria, ISIS excels in desert warfare. By contrast, the regime and its allies possess guerrilla warfare skills that are specifically suited to the context of urban warfare, not the desert.

Hezbollah in Lebanon:

Hezbollah, an Iran-backed Shia militia established in the 1980s, has developed extensive guerrilla warfare capabilities. Following the 2006 Lebanon war, the group has significantly expanded its arsenal, now possessing over 150,000 missiles and rockets, making it one of the world's most heavily armed non-state militias. Hezbollah has constructed a vast network of military tunnels in southern Lebanon, enabling fighters to conduct ambushes and retreat underground, complicating Israeli military operations.

Hamas in Gaza:



In the Gaza Strip, Hamas has engaged in guerrilla tactics against Israeli forces. The group has developed an extensive network of tunnels, often referred to as the "Gaza metro," used for smuggling, movement of militants, and storage of weapons. These tunnels facilitate surprise attacks and provide strategic advantages in urban warfare. The ongoing conflict has seen cycles of ceasefires and hostilities, with recent tensions highlighting the fragile nature of truces in the region.

Guerrilla warfare has profoundly impacted **Asian** nations, shaping political landscapes and national identities. The unconventional tactics employed by guerrilla forces often led to significant changes in governance, as seen during the Vietnam War, where Viet Cong actions contributed to the eventual withdrawal of U.S. forces.

In many cases, successful guerrilla campaigns resulted in the establishment of new regimes. For instance, Mao Zedong's strategies during the Chinese Civil War transformed China's political structure, leading to the rise of communist governance that influenced regional ideologies.

Economically, guerrilla warfare has left lasting scars. Prolonged conflicts can devastate infrastructures, crippling local economies and creating humanitarian crises. The aftermath of such warfare often sees nations struggling with rebuilding efforts and social cohesion.

Moreover, the legacy of guerrilla warfare continues to influence modern military strategies across Asia, showcasing the adaptability of combat tactics. The effects of these historical campaigns resonate in contemporary conflicts and civic movements, illustrating their enduring significance.

To be more specific some significant regions of guerrilla warfare in Asia include;

Myanmar

Over a month after the launch of the most successful campaign by anti-junta resistance forces in Myanmar's civil war, some overarching realities are emerging from events that have been widely hailed as a turning point in the conflict.

The most important is arguably the least obvious: the dangers of triumphalism and a rush to victory by guerrilla forces that are militarily still ill-prepared to confront a trained army in conventional combat.

Those dangers are arguably today playing out on the streets of Loikaw, the capital of eastern Karen state, and in other smaller towns where lightly armed fighters have been thrown into battles against heavy artillery and unremitting air strikes launched by a military that appears unconvinced by reports of its own imminent demise.

Since the military coup in February 2021, Myanmar has been embroiled in a civil war characterized by guerrilla tactics employed by various resistance groups. Ethnic armed organizations and newly formed militias, such as the People's Defense Forces (PDFs), have utilized hit-and-run attacks and ambushes against the junta's forces. These groups have gained control over substantial rural territories, confining the military's dominance primarily to urban centers. The conflict has led to significant casualties and widespread displacement among the civilian population.



Philippines

In the southern Philippines, particularly in regions like Mindanao, guerrilla warfare has been a persistent issue. Groups such as the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) have historically engaged in insurgent activities. Despite a peace agreement in 2014 and the establishment of the Bangsamoro Autonomous Region, internal conflicts persist. Recently, a land dispute between rival factions resulted in deadly clashes, underscoring the ongoing volatility in the area.

Afghanistan

Afghanistan has a long history of guerrilla warfare, with various groups employing such tactics against foreign and domestic forces. Following the Taliban's return to power in 2021, insurgent activities have continued, particularly from groups opposing the Taliban regime. The complex terrain and socio-political dynamics of the country have perpetuated the use of guerrilla strategies.

Kashmir

The Kashmir region has been a hotspot for guerrilla warfare, with insurgent groups engaging in asymmetric combat against Indian security forces. The conflict, rooted in territorial disputes and demands for independence or accession to Pakistan, has led to prolonged violence and instability in the area.

The second half of the 20th century was marked by the emergence of guerrilla groups across the length and breadth of **Latin America**. Most of these groups followed the model of the Cuban Revolution and the “foco” theory used by Ché Guevara. Some of these groups used guerrilla tactics in rural areas, from where they planned attacks on towns and cities that would allow them to take power when the time came. Other guerrilla groups, such as the Montoneros in Argentina, the Tupamaros in Uruguay and M-19 in Colombia, fought directly in the cities with dramatic actions.

With the exceptions of the Cuban Revolution in 1959 and the Sandinista Revolution in 1979, none of Latin America's revolutionary experiences were successful, either due to the signing of peace agreements, as occurred in Guatemala, El Salvador, Venezuela and Colombia; because the movements retreated into the jungle, as was the case with the Shining Path in Peru and the Zapatista Army of National Liberation (EZLN) in Mexico; or because they were defeated or wiped out, for example, the Montoneros and the ERP in Argentina, the Tupamaros in Uruguay, and the MIR in Chile, to name just a few.

Although the transition towards peace and democracy seemed to usher in fulfillment of the promises of equality and well-being, disenchantment soon spread throughout the region. Poverty, inequality and corruption emerged as the main problems in many Latin American societies. This disenchantment led to a wave of social movements in some countries, with varying results: in Chile, for example, they succeeded in calling a Constituent Assembly to replace the constitution created under the Pinochet dictatorship, as well as managing to get one of the leaders of the movement, Gabriel Boric, elected as President for the period 2022-2026; the social movements in Colombia, however, were met

Top 20 most homicidal cities: 2020-2023 (homicide per 100,000)

Rank	City	Country	Rate per 100.000
1	Durán Nelson	Ecuador	148.000
2	Mandela Bay	South Africa	102.82
3	Manta	Ecuador	95.60
4	Camaçari	Brazil	90.93
5	Cajeme	Mexico	88.99
6	Tijuana	Mexico	87.88
7	Guayaquil	Ecuador	83.80
8	Machala	Ecuador	77.50
9	eThekwni - Durban	South Africa	76.89
10	Portoviejo	Ecuador	76.00
11	Feira de Santana	Brazil	74.65
12	Kingston	Jamaica	70.73
13	Celaya	Mexico	68.07
14	Macapá	Brazil	67.75
15	Port-au-Prince	Haiti	67.20
16	Cape Town	South Africa	66.80
17	Mgungundlovu (Msunduzi)	South Africa	66.25
18	Ciudad Juárez	Mexico	66.20
19	Buffalo City	South Africa	65.59
20	Caucaia	Brazil	65.58

with police violence and vigilantism, while the Government responded with reactive reforms that increased police powers and jeopardized the rule of law

Crime rates have been rising steadily, and Latin America is currently one of the most dangerous regions on the planet. In 2016, El Salvador and Venezuela were the most dangerous countries in the region, with homicide rates of 81 and 59 homicides per 100,000 people (Hx100), respectively. Chile emerged as the safest country, with a rate of 3.6 homicides per 100,000 people. In 2017 there were no substantial changes, except that Venezuela took first place with a rate of 89 Hx100, while El Salvador dropped to 60. Chile remained in last place, with a rate of 3.3 Hx100. In 2018, Chile continued its downward trend, with 2.7 Hx100, and the overall situation improved slightly, although still without significant changes. In 2019, the homicide rate in Venezuela dropped to 60 Hx100, while in El Salvador it fell to 36, taking the country several places down the list. Jamaica stood in second place with a rate of 47.4 Hx100, seemingly due to the declaration of a state of emergency and the fact that the police were given wide-ranging powers.

Violence in the region declined dramatically in 2020, although this can be explained by the lockdowns imposed to counter the COVID-19 pandemic. However, for the same reason, inequality and poverty increased across the region, with very clear effects on rates of homicidal violence. In that first year of the pandemic, rates in Venezuela fell, but they remained stable in Jamaica. Thus, Jamaica had a rate of 49 Hx100, while in Venezuela the figure was 40. The rest of the countries saw their homicide rates rise, although not to the high levels of these first two. Chile halted its downward trend with a rate of 3.6 Hx100, which is still the lowest in the region.

Poverty and inequality have increased in the region. Nearly 173 million people were living in poverty in 2015. Due to the economic effects of the pandemic in Latin American countries, the number of



poor people has risen to 209 million, close to 37% of the region's population. States have failed to channel resources into mitigating this serious social problem, pouring them instead into strengthening their police forces and defense, making the repressive face of the state the only one known to a high percentage of people in the region. In addition, some governments, such as Colombia's, are set on antagonizing their neighbors, as we have seen in the disputes with Venezuela, Nicaragua and Cuba. To this, we can add the unwarranted intervention of the Colombian president's governing party in the 2020 US elections, with the result that Colombia has lost an important ally in international politics.

As a general point; militants, guerillas and terrorists often operate out of civilian areas. This makes it impossible for military and state forces to attack them without causing civilian casualties and damage to civilian property. This allows militant groups to use attacks in which there are civilian casualties to claim victory and to turn opinion against the government and military forces.

Colombia

Colombia is mired in a long-running armed conflict, and despite the multiple peace processes, which have been attempted since 1982, the violence continues to exist and, particularly, to change face. With the fall of the Soviet Union in the 1980s, the guerrilla groups turned to drug trafficking, kidnapping and money laundering to fund their operations. The war became the ideal backdrop for criminal organizations to carry out their activities, while organized crime and the drug trade made it possible for guerrilla groups to survive.

With the demobbing of para groups in 2002, it was hoped that paramilitary activities would be brought to an end. However, despite the fact that some 25,000 fighters were demobilized, some groups simply threw over their communist ideology and went full-time into the drug trade. These groups were referred to by the Government as 'criminal groups', and by social organizations as 'neo-paramilitary groups'. In fact, they are both of these things—they are groups with wide geographical control and social control over entire areas of the country, to the extent or more of the former United Self-Defence Forces of Colombia, and they are also criminal organizations that control the illegal markets in the areas where they operate.

As occurred with the paramilitary groups, the demobilisation of the FARC-EP did not bring Colombia's armed conflict to an end, but rather led to the emergence or escalation of five non-international armed conflicts: four between the government and the National Liberation Army (ELN), the Popular Liberation Army (EPL), the Gaitanista Self-Defence Forces of Colombia (AGC), and dissident splinter groups of the former Eastern Bloc of the FARC-EP; as well as a fifth conflict between the ELN and the EPL in the Catatumbo area near the Venezuelan border

At the same time, the daily violence in the cities is rising, the presence of Mexican drug cartels is growing stronger, and the co-optation of the state by criminal organizations is becoming ever more visible. The relationship between the armed conflict, corruption and organized crime has recently been analyzed by the Chamber for Recognition of the Special Jurisdiction for Peace (JEP), which shows how extrajudicial executions falsely presented as combat casualties—known as 'false positives'—responded not only to a body count policy but also to the need to show results so that military commanders could



remain in the area and thus continue to work with criminal organizations. In this way, economic interests made use of the armed conflict in order to perpetuate criminal activities.

The challenges to peace in this country are enormous. They include rampant corruption, the violence of a range of different armed groups and the de-institutionalization of the state through a clear model of delegative democracy in which the executive branch has power over the four control bodies, allowing it to continue contravening the peace agreements and thus maintain the situation of political instability that is so favorable to the interests of organized crime.

Inequality and poverty have triggered widespread social protests across the country. Social movements are gaining momentum, and discontent is being manifested on the streets. The response from the State has been violent. The police have been criticized for their violence and the use of civilians to attack demonstrators. Proposals have been quick to appear for reforms to limit their powers and, above all, to demilitarise them and turn them into a civil force subject to the rule of law. Such reforms have not been possible, and the Government's response has been to increase police powers in a way that contravenes the Constitution and to pass a citizen security act that violates people's right to protest and to express their discontent.

Mexico

Mexico was governed for close to 71 years by the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI), once referred to by Vargas Llosa as the perfect dictatorship, as it involved electoral competition and the illusion of democratic change. The PRI's presence in the different areas of the country led to understandings between the police forces and the drug cartels, which kept the peace and ensured that the black markets continued to be dominated by these illegal groups.

On 18 January 1994, Subcomandante Marcos of the Zapatista Army of National Liberation (EZLN) made a call to arms and established a new form of revolutionary politics. While he did not have any great military success, he did manage to put the discussion of racism and the historical exclusion of indigenous peoples in Mexico on the national agenda. Despite the fact that the country now has a left-wing government under President Andrés Manuel López Obrador, the EZLN distrusts the fulfillment of the agreements made with the Mexican State and therefore prefers to continue working with the communities in the areas where it has influence, in the highlands and the Lacandon Jungle of Chiapas.

When the PRI left power, a new government led by Vicente Fox of the National Action Party (PAN) came in and broke the old agreements between the Mexican government and police and criminal organizations. This meant that this time the dichotomy of peace versus the fight against crime shifted its focus to the fight against organized criminal networks, with support and pressure from the United States. The increase in homicide rates has been such that there has been talk of the emergence of an international armed conflict in Mexico between armed Government forces and the drug cartels. This has led to crimes against humanity being committed by the various actors in this conflict, in the form of the systematic and daily assassination of human rights activists, social leaders and journalists.



The challenges to peace in Mexico are huge. The solutions must involve the implementation of a true public security policy that allows citizens to effectively exercise their rights and permits the State to regain control of the regions currently under the power of criminal groups. This will require a dedicated fight against corruption and the strengthening of the Mexican State's legitimacy. Something that Mexico's current Government is very far from achieving.

Brazil and the criminal triangle of the Southern Cone

The countries that make up the Southern Cone have enjoyed a certain democratic stability since the end of their authoritarian governments in the 1980s. However, both Argentina and Brazil have had right-wing governments that have undermined the social rights enjoyed by people in these countries. In Uruguay, democracy has been consolidated and its economic conditions and public security are among the best in the region. However, the Triple Frontier area, where Brazil, Argentina and Paraguay meet, is one of the areas with the highest levels of criminal activity in the region. It is home not only to drug cartels, with the corresponding effects on state corruption but is also one of the areas with the highest concentration of money laundering operations. Its location and the fact that it is a kind of 'no-man's-land' or Latin American 'Far West' has attracted a range of criminal groups including terrorist organizations such as Hezbollah, which carries out money laundering and the illegal trading of vehicles, tobacco and counterfeit goods.

Brazil made its transition to democracy in the 1980s with the end of Joao Figueiredo's military government and the election of Jose Sarney, who came to power after the death of Tancredo Neves. He was followed by presidents Fernando Collor de Mello, who was impeached for corruption, Itamar Franco, who completed his term of office free from problems, and Fernando Henrique Cardoso, a sociologist of dependency theory who consolidated the transition.

Cardoso's government, which was characterized by neoliberal policies, saw a rise in social mobility. Then, thanks to the support of the Landless Workers' Movement and the Workers' Party, the left-wing trade unionist Luiz Ignacio Lula Da Silva was elected president. His government and that of his successor, Dilma Rousseff, were affected by cases of corruption that became evident during the Olympic Games and the World Cup. As a result, the 2018 elections were won by Jair Bolsonaro, a former military officer who is nostalgic for the authoritarian governments of old and who has tried, without much success, to curtail people's rights in Brazil.

Brazil's guerrillas never represented a risk to the stability of the state and were attacked directly with a heavy hand and serious human rights violations that were condemned by the Inter-American Court of Human Rights. The main challenge to Brazil's stability is posed by criminal organizations, which operate in the country's cities and around the Triple Frontier. They also have a dominant presence in Brazilian prisons, something that poses a risk to the country's democratic governance.



The next elections will be crucial in determining whether Brazil continues its authoritarian drift or whether it is able to tackle its problems by strengthening its welfare state, so that daily violence does not turn into organized political violence.

d. Actions United Nations Has Taken to Adress the Guerrilla Activities and Promote Peace

The United Nations (UN) has implemented various measures to address guerrilla activities and promote peace, primarily through its peacekeeping operations. These missions aim to stabilize conflict zones, protect civilians, and support the implementation of peace agreements. Lengthily through monitoring and supporting post-conflict recovery.

The UN deploys peacekeeping missions to regions experiencing conflict, including those involving guerrilla warfare. These operations are designed to monitor ceasefires, separate opposing forces, and create conditions conducive to lasting peace. As of now, there are 11 active UN peacekeeping missions worldwide.

The UN plays pivotal role in Africa about guerrilla movements. They often provide peacekeeping missions or facilitate negotiations, aimed at stabilizing regions affected by guerrilla warfare. Notable examples include:

Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC)

The UN Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUSCO) has been active in the DRC, aiming to neutralize armed groups and protect civilians. Despite these efforts, challenges persist, as evidenced by recent offensives by the M23 rebel group, which have led to significant displacement and humanitarian crises.

Mali

The UN Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in Mali (MINUSMA) works to stabilize the country amid ongoing conflicts involving armed groups employing guerrilla tactics. The mission focuses on supporting the implementation of peace agreements and protecting civilians.

Beyond peacekeeping, the UN engages in diplomatic initiatives to address the root causes of conflicts involving guerrilla warfare. This includes facilitating dialogue between conflicting parties, supporting inclusive governance, and promoting socio-economic development to address grievances that often fuel insurgencies. For instance, the UN has been involved in efforts to mediate tensions between the DRC and Rwanda concerning the M23 rebellion, with calls for regional cooperation to resolve the conflict.

UNIFIL

In Lebanon, the UN Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) has been deployed since 1978 to monitor the cessation of hostilities, support the Lebanese Armed Forces, and ensure humanitarian access. UNIFIL plays a crucial role in maintaining stability along the Blue Line between Lebanon and Israel, areas where groups like Hezbollah operate.



The UN has also been involved in mediating ceasefires and facilitating negotiations between conflicting parties in the region. For instance, in the Gaza Strip, the UN has worked alongside Egypt and Qatar to mediate ceasefires between Israel and Hamas, aiming to halt cycles of violence and address underlying issues.

The UN provides extensive humanitarian aid to populations affected by conflicts involving guerrilla warfare. Agencies like the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) offer essential services, including education, healthcare, and emergency relief, to millions of Palestinian refugees impacted by ongoing hostilities.

Despite these initiatives, the UN faces significant challenges in mitigating guerrilla activities in the Middle East. The complex nature of non-state actors, regional rivalries, and the protracted nature of conflicts complicate peace efforts. The UN continues to call for de-escalation, adherence to international law, and the pursuit of political solutions to achieve sustainable peace in the region.

In Central Asia, the UN Regional Centre for Preventive Diplomacy (UNRCCA) collaborates with the UN Office of Counter-Terrorism (UNOCT) to map activities related to preventing violent extremism and countering terrorism. This collaboration aims to coordinate efforts among UN entities and regional organizations to address security challenges.

The STRIVE Asia program, coordinated by UNOCT, the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), and the UN Development Programme (UNDP), focuses on preventing and countering violent extremism in South and Southeast Asia. The initiative emphasizes capacity-building, community engagement, and the promotion of human rights to address the root causes of extremism.

The UN supports conflict prevention and peacebuilding in Asia through South-South cooperation, facilitating dialogues among Asian nations to share experiences and strategies. These efforts aim to address contemporary concerns, including gender-inclusive growth and climate change mitigation, which can contribute to long-term peace and stability.

The UN collaborates with regional organizations, such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), to implement comprehensive partnerships addressing security challenges. The Plan of Action to Implement the Joint Declaration on Comprehensive Partnership between ASEAN and the UN (2021-2025) outlines strategies for cooperation in areas like conflict prevention, counter-terrorism, and sustainable development.

Guatemala – Commission for Historical Clarification (CEH)

The CEH was created in 1996 as a result of the peace accords between the Government of Guatemala and the Guatemalan National Revolutionary Unity, URNG, which put an end to an armed conflict that began in the 1960s between successive civilian and military governments and different coalitions of guerrilla forces. The stated goal of the agreement is to “clarify with all objectivity, equity and impartiality the human rights violations and acts of violence that have caused the Guatemalan population to suffer, connected with the armed conflict” with no specific mention of Indigenous communities and their rights. The commission included a mayan activist as a member.



The commission dedicated a significant part of its methodology to its engagement with Mayan organizations and to ensuring that Mayan interpreters would be available to facilitate the taking of testimony. In terms of the thematic development of the mandate, its work focused on violations of international human rights law and international humanitarian law applicable to internal conflicts (CEH, 1999, 44-47).

The CEH explicitly adopted the legal framework of Indigenous peoples' rights and those aspects of international criminal law—such as the definition of the crime of genocide—that directly touched upon the Indigenous experience. The CEH's findings on the commission of the crime of genocide have been widely recognized as a platform to demand justice, reparations, and reforms from an Indigenous perspective.

Peru – Truth and Reconciliation Commission (CVR)

Peru's CVR was created in 2001 (PCM, 2001) at the end of a period in which an armed conflict between the State and subversive organizations converged with the establishment of a civilian-military authoritarian regime. Unlike in Guatemala and Colombia, Peru's transition was not the result of a political agreement between opposing parties: the subversive groups were defeated militarily with no negotiation process. The authoritarian regime under which these groups were defeated was in turn defeated by citizen mobilization and collapsed when its leaders fled the country.

The result of a non-negotiated transition, in which democratic forces are not compelled to make concessions to authoritarian or armed groups, is that the transitional justice agenda is less constrained in its parameters. Thus, unlike the Guatemalan CEH, the CVR could attribute individual responsibility, and, unlike the Colombian Truth Commission, it could refer its information to the justice system for criminal prosecutions.

There is no question—in the common perception or in their legal recognition—that these communities have traditional practices of self-government and territorial control, with their own cultural and linguistic characteristics that date back to precolonial history. In other words, they possess the characteristics normally considered inherent to Indigenousness. However, their forms of political engagement do not generally invoke the notion of Indigenousness. Only recently, in the context of the recognition of the right to prior consultation, have some Andean communities explicitly claimed this identity.

Peru's CVR, unlike Guatemala's, began its work with a direct mandate to investigate the violations committed against Indigenous peoples. However, particularities in the understanding of Indigenousness in Peru resulted in both a limited approach to the peoples of the Amazon region who perceive themselves as Indigenous and a limited understanding of collective rights. Another notable difference with respect to the Guatemalan Commission is that the CVR does not say that acts of genocide were committed with the intent to exterminate a group explicitly recognized for its ethnic or racial identity. On the contrary, in its conclusions, the CVR states that crimes against humanity were committed by all the armed actors and that, in the case of the Shining Path, a “genocidal potential” was observed, a formulation not further developed.

Colombia – Truth Commission (CEV)



The mandate and implementation of the CEV—still in process at the time of writing—incorporates the Indigenous perspective more fully than the Guatemalan CEH and the Peruvian CVR, both formally and substantively. Not only is its mandate explicit regarding the implementation of an ethnic approach, but, in its procedures, this approach is respected and consequential. The presentation of the CEV's Final Report will demonstrate whether the CEV also goes beyond its predecessors in terms of findings and policy recommendations.

Searching for Disappeared People

The search for disappeared persons is one instrument for enforcing the right to the truth to which victims, their families, and society are entitled. Regarding this issue, the UN and the organizations established under it, CEH CVR and CEV, organized units encouraged activism and took a leading role for the entities -DGBPD- and their actions

Reparation Programs

Victims of the most serious violations of human rights and international humanitarian law are entitled to receive comprehensive reparation, including both a financial compensation element and measures for the restitution of rights, rehabilitation, symbolic satisfaction, and measures to ensure non-repetition. However, in transitional justice processes, generally marked by the scale of the violations and the demands for reparations, judicial systems may not be able to provide reparations effectively and in a way that is not burdensome to the victims. For this reason, several countries have implemented nonjudicial administrative programs that process victims' claims under a simplified procedure.

III. Questions To Be Addressed

1. What are some steps to be taken to stop the establishment of guerrilla groups?
2. How can DISEC take place to ensure security around the world for guerrilla movements?
3. How can DISEC aid the regions which got affected by the past and continuing guerrilla activities?
4. How can DISEC cooperate with the other UN bodies to address the guerrilla movements and promote peace?
5. How can DISEC contribute with the member states to recover from past wars by the guerrillas?

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