Aftermath of the Korean War
CRISIS COMMITTEE AT HAMUN 43

In the aftermath of the Korea War, millions were left displaced or, at worst, dead. However, North Korea charged onwards and tightened its grip on its people, developing a cult of personality of Kim Il-Sung, which was enforced through dismissal and/or death of the opposition. During this time, North Korea faced censure from the international community, but was hesitant to accept the advice from allies from the Soviet Union and China. The concentration of anti-Western sentiment in the region unite the three world powers, but skepticism and plays for power divide them. Delegates will be tasked with balancing ideology and influence in this historical crisis.
Letter from the Crisis Director

Dear Delegates,

My name is Sneha Jain, and I will serve as your Crisis Director for the Aftermath of the Korean War Double Joint Crisis Committee. I welcome you all, new and experienced delegates, to HAMUN 43 and am excited you will be participating in this committee.

I’ll start off with a brief introduction: I am a fourth-year student at the University of Texas at Austin, where I study Chemical Engineering, Plan II Honors, Economics, and Russian, East European, & Eurasian Studies. I currently serve as a Member of the Board of Directors for Central Texas Model United Nations, 501(c)(3) and have a passion for mentorship, both in and out of MUN.

Although also known as “The Forgotten War”, the Korean War plays an important role in contemporary issues in the Asia-Pacific region. This conflict defined North Korea’s interactions with the Western world, and America, in particular. Although the initiator of the conflict, North Korea was devastated by No Gun Ri massacre, Bodo League massacre, Sinchon massacre, and other war atrocities, all while being continuously bombed by UN forces. Historian Charles Armstrong writes, “more than any other single factor, [the American air war] gave North Koreans a collective sense of anxiety and fear of outside threats, that would continue long after the war’s end”. Thus, the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea’s aversion to Western interference today is understandable. However, DPRK also largely spurns the influence of former allies, as per its principle of juche, or self-reliance, introduced in 1955.

This committee explores the dynamics of North Korean, Soviet, and Chinese leadership to complement North Korea’s reconsolidation and reconstruction during this post-war period. It additionally aims to answer the question of why Russia and China today do not exhibit control or direction over North Korea’s actions. I look forward to the direction you take to change history, for better or worse!

Please feel free to reach out to me at SnehaJain@utexas.edu for questions you may have.

Sincerely,

Sneha Jain
Japanese Independence

From 1910 to 1945, the Korean peninsula was under Japanese rule. Broadly speaking, the Koreans lived under oppression; the Japanese colony was ruled by police-state methods and attempts were made to eradicate Korean culture and national consciousness. A failed declaration of independence and mass demonstration in March 1919 resulted in arrests, injury, and death. The following month, a provisional government was formed with Syngman Rhee as president; other movements existed in exile in the United States, Japan, Manchuria, and the USSR, with Kim Il-Sung stationed in Manchuria before being forced to retreat to the Soviet Far East in 1940.

Upon the defeat of Japanese Imperial forces in World War II, the Koreans finally were granted independence. However, in order to facilitate independence, the nation was split into two occupation zones at the 38th parallel, with the Soviet forces in the north and American forces in the south.

Division of the Korean Peninsula

After the initial division, a number of failed attempts to unify the peninsula followed. At the Moscow Conference in December 1945, the Soviet Union proposed a five-year trusteeship proposal, in which the USSR and USA would temporarily remain in the region to promote reunification efforts. This attempt was vehemently rejected by Koreans as another means for colonial control, though the northern communists acquiesced with pressure from the Soviets.

With frustration over increasing failures, the United States brought the Korean question to the United Nations. As a result, the United Nations Temporary Commission on Korea (UNTCOK) was established to oversee elections and establish governance in the region. With American support, UNTCOK established the Republic of Korea (ROK)\(^1\) with Syngman Rhee as president. The Soviets, rejecting UN influence, established the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK)\(^2\) with Kim Il-Sung as premier.

Both ROK and DPRK laid claim over the entire Korean peninsula, each claiming UN support and the people’s support, respectively. Military skirmishes were not uncommon, particularly at the border. By the summer of 1949, all foreign troops withdrew from the peninsula, leaving the tension unresolved.

The Korean War

On June 25, 1950 North Korea mounted a large-scale attack on South Korea, capturing Seoul. An emergency UN Security Council meeting called for a cessation of North Korea’s military activity and retreat to the 38th parallel. However, DPRK pressed on, and the American-led Security Council resolved to aid South Korea. During this time, the USSR was boycotting Security Council meetings, as the UN had

\(^1\) Republic of Korea, ROK, and South Korea will be used interchangeably in this document

\(^2\) Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, DPRK, and North Korea will be used interchangeably in this document
not granted the People’s Republic of China representation. In this way, much international coordination was led by American forces.

With Western support, the war turned around as UN forces drove North Korean forces past the 38th parallel and towards the Yalu River, which comprised the Chinese-Korean border. With the threat to their border, Chinese Communists intervened and sent the “Chinese People’s Volunteers” in October 1950 to aid the North Korean forces. Again, the tide turned, as the Communist forces retook Seoul. South Korean forces soon reclaimed Seoul, but a stalemate took hold.

Though military operations continued, truce negotiations began in 1951. Finally, on July 27, 1953, an armistice was signed. The agreement made provisions for a 155-mile demilitarized zone (DMZ), release of prisoners of war, the withdrawal of foreign troops, and a meeting in 3 months to discuss peaceful settlement.

**Soviet Involvement**

Beginning with Korea’s independence from Japan, the Soviet Union offered support to its Korean Communist comrade. In an attempt to harass Rhee’s government, Premier Joseph Stalin advised Kim Il-Sung to stage frequent border raids in 1948 and 1949, though these were largely met with failure. In 1949, Kim approached Stalin for approval to escalate these skirmishes into an attack on South Korea; Stalin asked Kim to reconsider. Sources remain unclear, but indicate that Kim may have received approval by March 1950, as Kim offered a quick victory with no US intervention and the support of Mao Zedong from the Chinese Communist contingent, though this turned out to be far from the case.

Regardless of whether approval was attained, President Truman of the United States of America immediately jumped to the conclusion that the USSR was a primary instigator. America feared that the Korean attack was a Soviet plan to divert NATO’s attention away from contemporary problems in Europe immediately following World War II. This claim may have support, as the USSR began stockpiling arms, likely for a local attack if the Korean War proved successful and NATO remained ill-equipped militarily.

In support of DPRK, the Soviet Union sent supply tanks, warplanes, artillery, mortar, naval vessels, and other military weaponry and equipment readily. To minimize perception of support (though the
rationale for this is unclear), few Soviet troops were sent and those deployed were instructed to dress in the uniform of the North Korean forces and to avoid capture; a maximum of 26,000 troops were deployed at a time. After further UN threats in October 1950, the USSR sent aircraft support, but only acted defensively against incoming UN air attacks. For this reason, the UN forces maintained air control and bombed indiscriminately through the northern peninsula.

The USSR’s desire to become involved in the conflict is often questioned. Much friction existed within the Communist states during the time: Stalin yielded in the Berlin crisis, Yugoslavia was expelled for heresy and hostility, and Stalin began eliminating deviationists in other states. Internal disputes within the Kremlin further raised complications and drew attention away from the Korean conflict. Although Russia long desired warm water seaports and strategic bases for trade and military, it largely pursued a “Europe first” policy. With regards to the Korean War, the USSR desired to maintain North Korea as a friend, but refrained from military support in conquering the peninsula unless minimal Soviet involvement was required.

Chinese Involvement

The People’s Republic of China, having been established in 1949, faced many internal problems at the onset of the Korea question. Within China, Chairman Mao Zedong had to consolidate political power, rebuild the economy, and finish reunification. Although the Chinese Communists greatly benefitted from the North Korean Communists’ support during the Chinese Civil war (1946-1949), as a fledgling nation, China was ill-prepared for international conflict.

The “China under threat” hypothesis suggests that China did not desire to intervene in the conflict, but was forced to upon threat from the UN forces. Moreover, some sources indicate that China was not involved in Kim’s planning for the invasion, but merely was informed of his decision. Chinese representatives additionally attempted to end the conflict via political settlement through August 1950. As UN forces began marching towards the Yalu River, China began military preparations and used public and private channels to prevent the UN forces from crossing the 38th parallel and approaching the Chinese-Korean border.

In October 1950, Mao sent “Chinese People’s Volunteers” to aid the North Korean effort in the war. This support was intended to be coordinated with a Soviet “air umbrella” for the Chinese forces, but Stalin reneged on the agreement, leaving the Chinese forces to fend for themselves. As such, the forces primarily adopted deterrent tactics. Upon driving UN forces to the 38th parallel, the Chinese realized that no total victory could be achieved, as over-extended supply lines and lack of air support prevented them from pushing UN forces out of the peninsula. Although China was pressured to offer support, motivation for intervention grew as both the Chinese and Koreans believed that the US conducted biological and chemical warfare in Korea in the winter of 1951-52. Strategy through the remainder of the conflict involved rotating troops, supplying troops, preventing attacks from the rear, and holding all land gained.

Overall, up to 1.35 million Chinese forces fought at one time during the conflict. The war resulted in 152,000 deaths and 230,000 injuries of Chinese forces, and China expended the equivalent of $2.7 billion, of which $810 million was on weapons from the Soviet Union.

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3 Note that American sources make no mention of these events
The PRC both wanted and expected an armistice by the end of 1951, but the issue was prolonged due to consideration over prisoners of war. The elongation of the war prevented Communist recovery of Taiwan from Nationalists, made China increasingly dependent on the USSR, and pushed back its own UN entry. However, involvement in the war also stimulated political and social revolutions in China, marked China’s rise to prominence, strengthened Mao’s political power, and refined China’s national security strategy.

Committee Objectives
The committee begins soon after the Korean Armistice Agreement is signed. Major events in the near future include the 1954 Geneva conference “to insure the peaceful settlement of the Korea question” and the installation of a new leader of the Soviet Union, due to the death of Joseph Stalin.

The Democratic People’s Republic of Korea
At the conclusion of the Korean War, DPRK is left in destruction. Repeated air strikes, intended to bomb “every brick that was standing on top of another, everything that moved” left only two buildings in all of Pyongyang standing, with the rest of the northern peninsula faring no better. The Communist leadership of DPRK must rebuild the infrastructure, implement policies for economic growth, and consolidate political power. Additional consideration must be given to maintaining friendly relationships with its Communist neighbors the Soviet Union and China, as well as continuing to assert legitimacy over the entire Korean peninsula.

Factionalism
During the attempted resolution of the Korean question, four factions arose in DPRK: the domestic, Manchurian (or Kapsan or guerilla), Soviet, and Chinese (or Yan’an) Communists. Kim Il-Sung, from the Manchurian faction allied with the Soviet and Chinese factions to purge the domestic faction leading up to the Korean War. Now that the war is over, factionalism is presenting friction in political unification and consolidation and is becoming a growing concern for domestic stability.

Economy
North Korea holds most of the peninsula’s mineral and hydroelectric resources. Much of the infrastructure for heavy industry has been destroyed, but can be rebuilt. Problems with light industry (including consumer products) and agriculture are anticipated as these economic activities were primarily conducted in the southern portion of the peninsula.

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
The death of Joseph Stalin mere months ago has instigated political instability within the Union. New leadership was announced, led by Georgy Malenkov as premier. However, the Politburo grew concerned as Malenkov led both the Communist Party and the ministries of government, concentrating significant power in one individual. Malenkov stepped down, retaining Chairmanship of the Council of Ministers, but leaving the position of premier vacant.

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4 Descriptors are largely based upon location of exile during Japanese colonial rule; all members of the factions are Koreans
Despite internal friction, the Soviet Union intends to maintain a position as a world power. Political power and military might remain important, particularly in the face of growing Western concern of Communism. However, rigid relationships with Communist neighbors, namely China, remain.

The People’s Republic of China

As a newly formed nation, the People’s Republic of China, like DPRK, is focused on state development. China seeks political and economic growth, as well as international recognition. The Korean War left China dependent on the Soviet Union, but also revealed the lack of trust the USSR holds for China; as follows, China aims to become increasingly independent and capable as a world power.

Though the conflict had mobilized many Chinese in the “Great Movement to Resist America and Assist Korea”, some internal political wrinkles remain. Notably, China intends to respond to Nationalists exiled to Taiwan in a continuation of the Chinese Civil War.

Bibliography


Character List
Note that due to differences in transliteration, some names may be expressed with multiple spellings. If there is any confusion, feel free to contact me. Portfolio powers will additionally be provided at the beginning of committee.

DPRK Committee
A recommended reference for character details is *Kim Il Sung: The North Korean Leader* by Dae-Sook Suh.

Soviet Faction
1. Pak Chang-ok

After the suicide of Ho Ka-I (Alexei Ivanovich Hegai), Pak Chang-ok became the leader of the Soviet Koreans. Pak emerged as a new top leader of the party in support of Kim soon after most of the South Korean Communists were expelled from the party.

Primary role: chairman of state planning commission, leader of Soviet Faction

2. Pak Yong-bin

Pak Yong-bin established “The Central Senior Leadership Academy” in 1946 in order to educate the top leadership within the North Korean polity. He was reassigned to the Korean Workers’ Party (KWP), where he was Director of the Central Committee’s Organizational and Structural Steering Department, and also served as one of the committee Politburo members.

Primary role: specializes in party organization

3. Kim Yol

Kim Yol condemned domestic Communists O Ki-sop, Chong Tal-hyon, and Chang Sun-myong in 1946, but was also later publicly admonished by Kim Il-sung in 1950 and relieved of his position. With the Chinese Volunteer Army’s recovery of territory, Kim was appointed vice-minister of heavy industry.

Primary role: vice-minister of heavy industry

4. Kim Sung-hwa

Kim Sung-hwa heads the central party school where all new party cadres were trained. He, with Pak Chang-ok, spearheaded the purchase of machinery from the Soviet Union, which allowed workers to surpass their quotas and devise more efficient working methods.

Primary role: head of central party school

5. Nam Il

Nam Il was the chief North Korean negotiator at the military armistice commission after the Korean War and serves as the foreign minister of North Korea, accompanying Kim Il-sung on visits to many countries. Nam has completely dissociated himself from other Soviet Koreans in the North.

Primary role: foreign minister
6. Pak Ui-wan

Pak Ui-wan is the Vice Premier and Minister of Light Industry. He has some reservations about some of Kim Il-sung’s decisions, particularly those involving factionalism.

Primary role: vice premier, minister of light industry

7. Yim Hae

Yim Hae is a Soviet Korean loyal to Kim Il-Sung. After the purge of South Korean Communists, he had taken over the unofficial Liaison Bureau for underground operations in South Korea. He also served as a diplomat.

Primary role: leader of Liaison Bureau

Chinese/Yan’an Faction

8. Kim Chang-Man

A loyal supporter of Kim Il-sung, Kim Chang-man serves as Vice Chairman of the Korean Workers’ Party. Kim Chang-man’s focuses primarily on North Korea’s economic development program.

Primary role: vice chairman of KWP, specializes in economic development

9. Kim Tu-Bong

Kim Tu-bong was party Chairman at the Second Party Congress; Kim Il-sung was Vice-Chairman at this Congress, and thus sees Kim Tu-bong as a rival.

10. Choe Chang-ik

Choe Chang-ik is the leader of the Yan’an faction. He is one of the vice-premiers, and was first minister of finance in Kim Il-sung’s first cabinet. In criticism of North Korea’s economic development, he believes the overemphasis on heavy industry is leading to unbearable hardship for the common workers.

Primary role: vice-premier, leader of Yan’an faction, specializes in economic development

11. So Hwi

So Hwi is the Chairman of the Korean Trade Union. He argued that workers in the trade union should maintain political independence and reserve the right to strike when necessary.

Primary role: chairman of Korean Trade Union

12. Yun Kong-hum

Yun Kong-hum criticized Kim Il-sung for his personality cult and urged for collective leadership. He additionally encouraged development of light industry to support the “people’s livelihood.”

Primary role: minister of commerce

Domestic/Kapsan Faction

13. Pak Chong-ae
Pre-and post-Korean War, Pak Chong-ae emerged as a prominent supporter of Kim Il-sung, to the extent that she delivered some of his decisions and accompanied him on state visits. At her peak, she was the most powerful woman in the North and led the Democratic Women’s Union. Shortly after the war, she was also appointed secretary in the party.

Primary role: party secretary

14. Chong Il-yong

Chong Il-yong communicated with the Soviet Union and China to discuss economic cooperation. As a technocrat, he later became vice-premier of the cabinet.

Primary role: vice-premier

Manchurian/Guerrilla Faction

15. Choe Yong-gon

After the establishment of North Korea, Choe Yong-gon was appointed to lead the Internal Security Bureau. In the early days of the war, Choe became minister of national defense. Kim Il-song held Choe in high regard.

Primary role: minister of national defense, inner circle of Kim Il-song

16. Pak Kum-chol

With a history of involvement in anti-Japanese efforts, Pak Kum-chol was quickly elected into the Central Committee in 1948. Post-War, Pak became a vice-chairman of the party. As a high-level official, Pak made official visits to China and was a supporter of North Korean-Chinese relations. However, he is unenthusiastic about the party’s military policy.

Primary role: party vice-chairman

17. Kim II (alternatively Kim Chae-pom)

In the early days of the war, Kim II became vice-minister of national defense. Although expelled during the first retreat of the Korean War due to his defeatism, Kim was reinstated, becoming a vice-premier and growing to be a powerful official.

Primary role: vice-premier

18. Choe Kwang

Having served under Kim Il-song in Manchuria, Choe Kwang is one of Kim’s personal circle. Although admonished amid the war, Kim Il-song reinstated Choe as commander of the Fifth Army Group. Choe is one of the most proficient of the senior military men in modern warfare concepts.

Primary role: army commander, inner circle of Kim Il-song
19. Yim Chun-chu

Although he initially spoke against Kim Il-song’s leadership, Yim Chun-chu became a steadfast supporter. He began his political career relatively late, leading the Kangwon Province KWP Committee from 1950.

Primary role: provincial KWP Committee leader, inner circle of Kim Il-song

The Eastern World Committee

The People’s Republic of China

1. Chairman Mao Zedong

One of the founding members of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP), Chairman Mao Zedong played a pivotal role in the civil war against the Kuomintang. In 1949, Mao proclaimed the foundation of the People’s Republic of China and solidified control through land reforms and a psychological victory in the Korean War.

Primary role: leader of the People’s Republic of China

2. Zhou Enlai

Committed to Communism, Zhou Enlai organized the CCP’s activities in Europe in his youth and continued underground operations in Nationalist China in the years preceding and during the Chinese civil war. Enlai served alongside Mao and aided in consolidating power. As the foreign minister, Zhou formed Chinese foreign policy and advocated for a peaceful coexistence with the West.

Primary role: foreign minister

3. Shen Junru

As a highly regarded intellectual, Shen Junru was educated in both China and Japan. In the Seven Gentlemen Incident, he and 6 other scholars were arrested by the Nationalist Chinese, only to be released after Japanese invasion in 1937. In 1949, he was appointed as the first President of the Supreme People’s Court. In this position, he advocated against ‘boundless magnamity’ towards class enemies and counterrevolutionaries.

Primary role: president of the Supreme People’s Court of China

4. Luo Ronghuan

Luo Ronghuan joined the Communist party in 1927, serving as the security chief during the Long March. During World War II, Luo managed politics between and among troops and the general populace, ensuring troops’ loyalty and popular support of the communists, enabling the communist victory in Northeast China. Initially against Mao’s wishes, Luo stopped widespread persecution of communists with well-to-do family backgrounds after World War II, which maintained popular support and strengthened the communists, a move Mao later praised.

Primary role: Chief of Staff of the People’s Liberation Army
5. Liu Shaoqi

With the close of World War II, Liu Shaoqi became the supreme leader of all Communist forces in Manchuria and northern China. In 1949, he became Vice Chairman of the Central People’s Government. While Mao focused on organizing citizenry, Liu turned his attention to party organization and theoretical affairs. At times, Liu and Mao were at odds, with Liu advocating for material incentives and stressing advancement of production in favor of continual political upheaval.

Primary role: Vice Chairman of Central People’s Government

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

1. Nikita Sergeyevich Khrushchev

In his early years, Nikita Sergeyevich Khrushchev was a metal worker, which prompted his staunch support of workers’ rights. Khrushchev worked his way up the Soviet hierarchy, supporting Stalin’s purges and war efforts throughout, later becoming a close advisor to Stalin. Currently, he manages urban development in Moscow, building large apartment complexes and consolidating collective farms. Khrushchev is one of the candidates to for the position of party leader.

Primary role: Moscow urban development, candidate for leadership

2. Mikhail Andreyevich Suslov

Mikhail Andreyevich Suslov studied economics before leaving his teaching post to join the Communist Party. He adjudicated breaches of discipline and appeals against expulsion, and carried out Stalin’s purges. Following WWII, Suslov had roles in foreign policy, as well as in agitation and propaganda. He had the full confidence of Stalin, and is one of the candidates for Stalin’s heir. Suslov remains Chairman of the Commission of Foreign Affairs.

Primary role: senior secretary in Secretariat and Politburo, foreign affairs specialist, candidate for leadership

3. Pyotr Nikolayevich Pospelov

As an academic, Pyotr Nikolayevich Pospelov wrote on Stalinist party history and held leading positions in the Higher Party School, Academy of Social Sciences, and similar parties. Later, Pospelov delved into agitation and propaganda, currently serving as editor of Pravda for two terms. He also directs the Institute of Marxism-Leninism, curating and publishing materials relating to socialism and organized labor. Pospelov is a staunch Stalinist.

Primary role: editor of Pravda, propagandist

4. Semyon Denisovich Ignatiev

Semyon Denisovich Ignatiev’s initial involvement with Soviet politics was regional; he served as Party Secretary in Buryat, Bashkir, Byelorussian, and Uzbek SSRs until arriving in Moscow in 1950 at Stalin’s behest. Ignatiev serves on the Central Committee and is Minister of the MGB, the secret police. One of his recent successes was unmasking the Doctor’s Plot, a plot by a prominent group of Moscow doctors to conspire to assassinate Soviet leaders.

Primary role: Minster of the MGB (secret police), candidate for leadership
5. Lavrentiy Pavlovich Beria

Beginning his career in state security at a young age in Azerbaijan, Lavrentiy Pavlovich Beria rose in the ranks after repressing a Georgian nationalist uprising and later allying with Stalin. Espionage and manipulation in the Georgian Communist Party led to the advancement of the USSR intelligence-gathering and Beria’s political power, respectively. Stalin later brought Beria to Moscow as head of the NKVD, the state security and police forces, though which Beria executed Stalin’s purges and even initiated some of his own. He has also met with Kim Il-sung and advised Stalin to install a Communist leader in North Korea.

Primary role: head of NKVD, candidate for leadership

6. Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov

Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov rose in the 1920s as a protégé of Stalin, despite disagreements between the two. Molotov implemented Stalin’s initial agricultural and economic plans and later approved many of Stalin’s execution lists during the purges. Known for his diplomatic skills, Molotov was involved in post-WWII negotiations, until he fell out of favor in 1949. However, upon Stalin’s death, Molotov’s reputation rose again.

Primary role: senior Presidium member

7. Georgy Maximilianovich Malenkov

By virtue of family connections with Lenin, Georgy Maximilianovich Malenkov rose quickly through Soviet leadership. Through his ascent, Malenkov met Stalin, becoming heavily involved in Stalin’s purges and leading the Soviet missile program during WWII at his request. After accusing and attacking Georgy Zhukov, the most prominent Soviet military commander during WWII, Malenkov gained strength and became closer to Stalin. Although Malenkov briefly assumed leadership after Stalin’s death, the Politburo’s unease led Malenkov to relinquish control over the party apparatus.

Primary role: Chairman of the Council of Ministers

8. Anastas Ivanovich Mikoyan

Due to his support of Stalin in the power struggle following Lenin’s death, Anastas Ivanovich Mikoyan became a member of the Politburo. Mikoyan imported many ideas and technologies from the West, from ice cream to the manufacture of canned goods. A reluctant participant of the purges, he continued to sign death lists to demonstrate his loyalty to the regime. During WWII, Mikoyan transported food and supplies for the military forces, but did not have significant political weight.

Primary role: Minister of Trade
Appendices

Appendix I: Map of Korean War