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Subaltern Realities as Critical Methodology: Re-Imagining Kurdish (Statehood) from the lens of Non-Western IR

Premanand Mishra*

Abstract

The normative conception of the state formations has been hegemonically grounded in socio-historical experiences of the Westphalian order. However, post-colonial trajectories have diverged from this model. Subaltern realities challenge the normative crises presented by dominant IR theories on war and peace, conflicts and the process of state formation. This article examines subaltern realities to contextualise the question of Kurdish aspiration for a separate state. A significant challenge for hegemonic IR theories is their inability to account for existing pluralistic structures of international society. Scholars like Acharya and Buzan have contested the status of IR as an inclusive universal "discipline," arguing against the zero-sum choice between mainstream IR and its critical and cultural challenges needs. While alternative realism de-essentialises structural fixity in this context, the Westphalian episteme and its singular language, which dominates IR, present another challenge. As such, re-imagining Kurdish aspiration for statehood needs a rethinking of ideals of Westphalian notions, advocating for informed interpretations of domestic, external and normative ideas. Subaltern realities aim to address this gap by exploring the Kurdish question through its socio-historical processes, relative powerlessness, weak institutional settings, and the domestic and external realities that undermine its aspirations and possibilities.

Keywords: Kurdish Question, International Relations, State, Subaltern Realities

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Introduction: Subaltern Realities and the Idea of the State

The modern state, rooted in the Westphalian order and shaped by realist-liberal debates, is highly grounded in Western epistemic understanding. The idea of the state and its sovereignty, particularly the question of legitimacy, often demands universal recognition. For a state to attain such recognition, it must adhere to a well-established idea of the state.

Sub-altern International Relations (IR) presents a critique of the hegemonic Westphalian model, particularly the (neo)realist and(neo)liberal dominance that continues to shape the notion of the state. The realist-liberal explanations have failed to adequately explain the international structure, conflicts (both inter- and intra-state), and the shifting global order. Within this context, Kurdish aspirations for statehood necessitate a rethinking of the Westphalian order from non-Western epistemic perspectives, shaped by different socio-historical experiences and responses to hegemonic Western modernity.

The emergence of subaltern IR as a field of inquiry has posed significant to the realist dominance. As Robert Gray (2020) argues, "Realism's current lack of legitimacy" can be countered by

"Ayoob's Subaltern Realism, a postcolonial, positivist, neo-classical perspective/theory, possesses rehabilitation potential for realism as a mainstream IR paradigm."1 Traditional realists view the world through the lens of conflict/war, power distribution, and security, with a deterministic focus on hegemonic culturalist and anarchist determinism. In contrast, subaltern IR emphasises the multi-faceted nature of power in the international system, acknowledging the internal-external dynamism of security threats. Mohammad Ayoob, a proponent of subaltern IR, argues that "internal threats are more structural than external threats and thus it requires a multi-faceted approach that subaltern-IR approaches responding to the security dynamism in the world."s2

Neo-realists, such as John Mearsheimer, often overlook the significance of internal security, focusing instead on power only in the context of hegemonic dominance at regional or global levels. This is critiqued by subaltern IR, which challenges the Western-centric fixation on power and sovereignty while calling for a rethinking of the role of the state in the international system. By challenging the positivist, absolutist epistemology, subaltern IR introduces adaptability and contexts as crucial elements of understanding.

Ayoob's Subaltern IR critiques the hegemonic IR theories and their 'mindless scientism,' arguing for a re-evaluation of conflict and order through an internal-external dichotomy rather than adhering to the realist view of an anarchic international system. considers subaltern IR as more of a critical perspective (of one truth and its timelessness) than a theory, challenging the timeless truths that Spivak critiques as an epistemic overhaul in the Foucauldian sense.³ He further engages with the idea of the modern state by drawing from Hobbes's notion of Domestic order, the European historical-sociological understanding of state formation, and insights from the third English school on order in international structure.4

Ayoob argues that theoretical timelessness perpetuates inequality in IR. He draws on Robert Cox's assertion that "all theories have a perspective" to critique the scientific exclusivity of Western IR and its timelessness. For him, realism and liberalism have become more ideological than objective, with Headley Bull describing them as an "exercise of judgement than scientific." As such, Ayoob contends that the path for weak states is "not to transcend the Westphalian state system and adopt post-Westphalian characteristics" but to build political

structures that more closely approximate the Westphalian ideal. For states to achieve long-term stability, they must be both effective and legitimate. Only by moving closer to the Westphalian ideal can post-colonial states establish stable domestic orders and participate more equally in shaping international rules.⁶

The dichotomy between international and world society, shaped by the West in its own sociohistorical experiences, has also shaped the realities of post-colonial states. Spivak's concept of precarious subjectivity and Foucault's notion of "subjugated knowledge" reflect the epistemic challenges faced by non-Western states.⁷ Can then subaltern epistemologies address these challenges and facilitate the reimagination of the state as a sovereign entity, as in the case of Kurdish statehood?

For Antonio Gramsci, hegemony is both cultural and political. While both elites and subjugated class share a history, the subjugated lack the social, cultural and political institutional apparatus to dismantle the hegemony. Gramsci argues that the only way to achieve freedom is to create their state, calling this a 'permanent victory'. He suggests that individuals must have an inventory to develop the consciousness necessary to challenge

hegemony. As such, for subaltern groups, the state becomes a necessity. Gramsci also notes that "the subaltern classes, by definition, are not unified and cannot unite until they can become a 'State'," given their history "is intertwined with that of civil society, and thereby with the history of States and groups of States."8 For him, institutions are crucial in achieving autonomy as he outlines six steps toward this goal, beginning with changes in economic production and culminating in the affirmation of full autonomy.9 Relatedly, Spivak's concept of voiceconsciousness for the subalterns plays a significant role in addressing the structure-actor and institutional legitimacy questions surrounding Kurdish statehood.

Hegelian notions of self-identity with the nation were significant for movements like Zionism, which led to the formation of a Jewish state (Israel). Kurdish aspirations, however, do not face such moral challenges as the Zionist project or the ideological project that led to the formation of Pakistan. For nationstates to succeed, there must be a relationship between structure and actors, as well as institutional legitimacy. While the Kurdish claims to statehood are rooted in selfidentity and are better positioned to form a sovereign and legitimate state, without the actor-structure relationship and institutional

legitimacy, statehood aspirations, as those of Kurds, risk failure. The challenges of forging a cohesive Kurdish identity across Iraq, Turkey, Iran, and Syria underscore the importance of a conscious nationalism that can translate into a viable nation-state.

Subaltern realism offers a normative understanding of the pluralist structure of the world that could help in re-imagining weak states and forging new paths. It also acknowledges the limitations of epistemic exclusivity of neo-realism and neoliberalism, both of which have shaped state violence and order in the international system. As such, this paper seeks to place the Kurdish question within the broader context of regional and global dynamics, examining how shifting power structures and evolving norms might allow for the re-imagining of Kurdish statehood. Through subaltern realism, which offers a pluralistic understanding of global structures, this paper argues that an alternative lens may provide new insights into the possibilities for Kurdish statehood amidst the limitations of dominant realist and neoliberal frameworks.

Re-Imagining (Statehood) Kurdish Question

Re-imagining Kurdish aspirations for statehood necessitates a rethinking of Westphalian ideals,

even as essentialist realism and neoliberal propositions cooperation and ethnocentrism are acknowledged. This paper seeks to offer a more nuanced interpretation of domestic, external, and normative ideas through the lens of subaltern realities, exploring the complexities of the Kurdish question. Given the unique political landscape surrounding the Kurdish issue, subaltern realities can redefine ethnic identity and civic culture and fill the gaps in established literature. The Kurdish aspiration for statehood faces challenges stemming from the uneven distribution of power in the region, particularly among Turkey, Iraq, Iran and Syria, as well as the role of the United States. Exploring subaltern realities allows for the discovery of new patterns, ideas, norms, theories and methods that may help re-imagine the idea of Kurdish statehood.

Historically, the Kurdish people have endured significant disadvantages. As Mc Dowall (2007) points out, their struggle has been twofold: against the government under which they live and their quest to transform from a people described as 'Kurdish' into a coherent national community "with the essential characteristics of nationhood." The annulment of the Treaty of Sèvres and Lausanne by the Turkish Republic marked a pivotal moment in this struggle. Further challenges emerged in 1994 when the power-

sharing arrangements between the Patriotic Union of Kurdistan (PUK) and the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) collapsed, leading to a civil war which lasted till 1998. Then, following the US invasion of Iraq in 2003 and the national referendum of 2005, the Kurdistan Regional Government (KRG) and Parliament were recognised under the new Iraqi constitution. However, the 2017 referendum in Iraqi Kurdistan, while non-binding, created further uncertainty.

In such context, subaltern realities aim to bridge gaps in understanding the Kurdish question by analysing its socio-historical processes, the relative powerlessness of Kurdish people, the weakness in institutional settings, and the domestic and extern realities that have undermined Kurdish aspirations and possibilities of a statehood. These perspectives provide critical insights into how to re-imagine Kurdish statehood in a way that challenges dominant ideas despite acknowledging essentialist realism and neoliberal propositions of cooperation and ethnocentrism while incorporating the necessary domestic and external factors.

Since the annulment of the Treaty of Sèvres, the Kurdish issue, with a national community divided across countries, has remained one of the most contentious in the region, along with the Arab-Israeli conflict over

Palestine. Geostrategic factors, instability due to the rise of the Islamic State, instability in Iraq, the Syrian civil war, political instability in Turkey, and the continued Saudi-Iranian rift have all contributed to regional instability. The 2017 referendum in Iraqi Kurdistan, though non-binding, further complicated the region's already volatile dynamics. The broader implications of the referendum are discussed in a regional and global context to nuance this debate around the question of Kurdish statehood.

Genealogy of the Kurdish **Question**

Like the Arab-Israeli conflict over Palestine, the Kurdish question is another significant political problem in the West Asian region. Kurds, spread across Iraq, Iran, Turkey, and Syria, have long struggled for statehood on their shared identity. Kurds are present in four countries in this region: Iraq, Iran, Turkey and Syria. The recent Kurdish referendum in Iraq brought renewed attention to this long-standing issue, especially amid the chaos in Iraq, the Syrian civil war, Turkey's political instability and the emergence of the Islamic State.

David McDowall notes that the term "Kurdistan" first emerged in the twelfth century under the 'Saljuqs'. ¹¹ Today, the Kurdish population is estimated to be between 25-35

million, making them one of West Asia's largest ethnic groups.¹² The Kurds live primarily along the geopolitical fault line of the region, at the intersection of Iran, Iraq, Turkey and Syria, with a significant diaspora scattered globally.¹³ Before World War I, Kurdistan was split between the Ottoman and Persian Empires.¹⁴

Following the war, it came to be divided among five states, with Turkey holding the largest Kurdish population at 43%, followed by Iran at 31%, Iraq at 18%, and Syria at 6%. The Kurds, predominantly Sunni Muslims, have a strong ethnic identity that often supersedes political and religious nationalism. Though the Kurds too redefined their ethnic identity like Arabs and Turks, but as McDowall (2007) asserts, they "were fatally disadvantaged because they lacked both a civic culture and an established literature." ¹⁵

At the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, the Treaty of Sevres momentarily bolstered Kurdish nationalist aspirations. However, these hopes were dashed when the Treaty of Lausanne annulled Sèvres, marking the rise of the Turkish Republic. The PUK-HDP civil war from 1994 to 1998 created further fragmentation within the Kurdish movement. It was not until the Washington Agreement between Masoud Barzani (KDP) and Jalal

Table 1
Distribution of Kurds in Turkey, Iran, Syria and Iraq

Country	Population	Kurds as % of National Population	Kurdish Population (in million)	Prominent Kurdish majority regions
Iran	82,021,564	10	8-10	Western provinces of Kermanshah, Ilam, West Azerbaijan and Kordestan
Iraq	39,192,111	15-20	4-5	Northern Iraq (KRG- governed areas)
Syria	18,028,549	10	3-3.5	Afrin in the northwest, Kobani in the north and Jazira in the northeast.
Turkey	80,845,215	18-19	20	Eastern and South Eastern Anatolia, Istanbul, Izmir, Diyarbakir Province

Sources: CNN (2017); Central Intelligence Agency- World Fact Book (2017); Kurdish Institute of Paris (2017); UNPO (2017); World Population Review (2017); BBC News (2017); Aljazeera (2017).

Talabani (PUK) in 1998 that the conflict subsided, allowing for a degree of peace and cooperation.¹⁷

The 2003 US invasion of Iraq once again reshaped Kurdish fortune, as the Kurdish Peshmerga played a significant role in toppling Saddam Hussein's regime, and subsequent 2005 constitution recognised the Kurdistan Regional Government, established after the Gulf War, and the Kurdistan Parliament. As McDowall (2007) explains, the modern history of the Kurds must address two key questions: their struggle against the governments to which they are subject and their quest to become a coherent national community.¹⁸

The Kurds, who are predominantly Sunni Muslims and scattered across parts of eastern Turkey, northern Syria, northern Iraq and northwestern Iran, have long faced hostility from both Baghdad and Ankara. This is particularly evident in the efforts of Turkey and Iraq to coordinate the suppression of Kurdish nationalist aspirations, fearing the potential for broader pan-Kurdish movements. The 2003 American invasion of Iraq shifted this delicate balance, with the Kurds emerging as key allies to the US, further complicating regional relations.

Kurdistan Region of Iraq

The 2017 referendum in Iraqi Kurdistan raised significant concern regarding the future of Kurdish aspirations for independence. The protracted struggle for autonomy, deeply rooted in the region's history, may provoke political upheavals, especially considering the current complexities of West Asia, particularly Iraq. However, to grasp these evolving political dynamics, it is essential to explore the cause and effect of the referendum, as Iraq has long been central to Kurdish statehood aspirations.

Iraqi Kurdistan has endured a turbulent history since the establishment of modern Iraq. Following the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire, Iraq was placed under British protection under the mandate system agreed upon by France and Britain. Since then, the Kurds have consistently fought for independence. However, Iraqi Kurds have been able to organise more forcefully and hence garnered more international attention than other Kurds in neighbouring countries of Turkey, Syria and Iran. As Michael M. Gunter (2004) explains, "Iraqi Kurds constitute a greater proportion of the population than any other state they inhabit," Which is around 20 per

cent of Iraq's population (See Table 1). Furthermore, Iraq's political legitimacy is more precarious compared to Turkey and Iran, largely due to its status as an "artificial state" created during the mandate period. Additionally, the sectarian divisions that exist in Iraq between Shia and Sunni populations are not as prevalent in Turkey or Iran, and even in Syria, before the civil war that started following the Arab uprising protests of 2011, these divisions were less pronounced.²⁰

Two key events stand out in the Kurdish struggle: the formation of the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) in 1946 and the recognition of Kurdish nationality in Iraq's post-revolution constitution in 1958. Historically, Iraqi Kurds have enjoyed more national rights than their counterparts in neighbouring states due to various factors. However, despite this, they have never accepted the arbitrary national borders drawn during the Mandate period, and their efforts to achieve independence have been

Table 2
Parliamentary Election in Iraqi Kurdistan,
1992, 2005

Date	Total	Result
	Vote Cast	
		1. KDP, 45.3% votes, 51 seats
19 May 1992	971,953	2. PUK, 43.8% votes, 49 seats
		1. Democratic Patriotic Alliance of Kurdistan, 89.55%
30 January	1,753,919	votes 104 seats
2005		2. Kurdistan Islamic Group, 4.85% votes, 6 seats
		1. Kurdistan List (KDP and PUK), 57.34% votes, 59 seats
25 July 2009	1,866,264	2. Change List (Gorran), 23.75% votes, 25 seats
		3. Reform and Service Coalition, 12.8% votes, 13 seats
		1. KDP, 38.15%votes, 38 seats
21 September	1,968,775	2. Change Movement, 24.42% votes, 24 seats
2013		3. PUK, 17.97% votes, 18 seats
		4. Kurdistan Islamic Union (KIU), 9.58% votes, 10 seats
		5. Kurdistan Islamic Group (KIG), 6.08% votes, 6 seats

Sources: Kurdistan National Assembly (Parliament 1992); Relief Web (2006)²¹

met with violent suppression on multiple occasions.

Major Issues between Baghdad and the Ethnic Kurds

The Kurdish support for the 2003 US invasion of Iraq had a significant impact on their demands for autonomy within Iraq to begin with. Three key factors reinforced Kurdish aspirations: the 2005 constitution, shifts in post-Saddam Iraq politics, and a strategic alliance with the United States. While the changing regional power dynamics, instability and internal chaos within Iraq seemed to favour Kurdish interests, the reactions from Baghdad, Ankara and Tehran were overwhelmingly negative, as reflected in their leaders' rhetoric following the 2005 Kurdish referendum. This fuelled concerns in these regional capitals about thel implications of Kurdish assertiveness.

Participation in National Politics and Government: Kurdish political parties believed that participation in post-Saddam Iraq's political system would strengthen their position. In the 2005 national elections, the KDP and PUK allied (See Table 2 for results and outcome), although the prospect of full-term participation in national governance was weakened by the participation of Sunni Arabs in the elections.

Political Orientation of the Kurds:

In post-Saddam Iraq, sectarian politics favoured the Shia majority, who had been marginalised under Saddam's Sunni-dominated regime. The rise of a Shia-led government under Nour al-Maliki altered the country's political dynamics. Kurds supported Shia Islamists parties between 2003-2008 for their benefit.²² In this new political reality, between 2003 and 2008, Kurdish parties aligned with Shia Islamist parties to further their interests, helping al-Maliki to consolidate his political legitimacy. However, by 2008, tensions between the al-Maliki government and the KRG escalated exponentially, particularly over issues concerning Kurdish autonomy.

Budgetary Issues: Though the 2005 Iraqi Constitution (Article 117) recognises Iraqi Kurdistan as a federal region with its parliament and judiciary and Erbil as the regional capital, however, budgetary disputes, particularly over revenue sharing and salary payments, became a persistent issue. Earlier, Kurds demanded a 17 per cent revenue share, but without a formal census in the country, this figure remained contested between Erbil and Baghdad.

The 2017 referendum had a direct bearing on the Iraqi Kurds as the 2018

national budget reduced the KRG share from 17 to 12.6 per cent. Baghdad has been reluctant to resolve these budgetary disputes, but Prime Minister Abadi stated that his government is willing to cover Kurdish salaries. This is significant given that KRG struggled financially due to falling oil prices, the war on ISIS, and budget cuts since 2014.²³

Arms Purchase and Issue on Peshmarga: The Iraqi central government and the KRG have long disagreed over the size and armament of the Peshmerga forces, which are central to Kurdish strength. As such, Bagdad has consistently pushed for the reduction of Peshmerga numbers. After the 2017 referendum, Iraqi Prime Minister Haidar al-Abadi insisted that the

Peshmarga either be integrated into the Iraqi military or reduced to a small local force.²⁴ However, despite these tensions, Baghdad did not oppose a reported KRG arms purchase from Bulgaria in November 2008.²⁵

Control Over Oil Resources/Oil Laws: The KRG's economic base relies heavily on oil, with agriculture contributing minimally to its revenue (see Economic Cost of Referendum for more). Oil has been a major point of contention between Baghdad and the KRG, particularly regarding laws, exploration and revenue sharing. While the 2005 Iraqi Constitution granted the Kurds autonomy over oil exports, Baghdad has consistently ensured it receives a share of the revenues to manage national energy investment. According to Katzman

Table 3
Results of the referendum in Iraqi Kurdistan, 2017
Referendum figures

Registered Voters	4,581,2251	NA
Total participants in the	3,305,925	72.16%
referendum (voter turnout)		
Invalid votes	40011	1.21%
Empty votes	9368	0.28%
Exiled/conditional votes	170611	5.16%
Valid votes	3085935	NA
Votes saying YES	2861471	
Votes saying NO	224464	

Source: The Independent High Elections and Referendum Commission (2017); Lee (2017)²⁸

(2010), Baghdad fears that the Kurdish control of oil resources could bolster Kurdish aspiration for independence. However, the KRG faces a dilemma as "oil exports need to flow through the National oil pipeline grid." The 2017 referendum has intensified these concerns, further complicating the relationship between Baghdad and KRG.

Issues and Assessment Referendum 2017: In 2017, the Kurds finally defied the concerns of regional and international powers, including the United States and the United Nations, and took a significant step toward their long-held aspiration for statehood by holding a referendum. Despite being non-binding, over 90 per cent of Kurdish people voted for the independence of Kurdistan. The referendum, conducted through 2065 polling stations, saw 5.6 million eligible voters from Iraqi Kurdistan answer whether they wanted "the Kurdistan region and Kurdish areas outside the region to become an independent state?"27 This raised alarms in neighbouring Turkey, Iran, and Syria, concerned that the move could inspire their Kurdish minorities to seek independence.

Although the referendum results were later suspended due to threats from Iraq, Turkey and Iran, it created significant regional and international attention. The referendum marked a

critical moment for the Iraqi Kurds, as it hovered over the relations between them and Baghdad. Though the non-binding nature of the vote helped calm the tensions, it internationalised the issue while perturbing the regional players. The immediate impact was negative for the Kurds, with Masoud Barzani resigning from the KRG presidency amid opposition calls for a "national salvation" Government to replace the KRG's cabinet.²⁹

The referendum also heightened tensions in disputed areas, such as the oil-rich province of Kirkuk. Baghdad responded by condemning the referendum and calling for control over international borders and airports. Despite this, Kurdish leader Masoud Barzani defended the vote, framing it as a democratic exercise and calling for constructive dialogue with Baghdad to implement its outcome and secure better relations.³⁰

Iraq's Response to Kurdish Referendum:

Before the 2017 referendum, the KRG President Masoud Barzani urged millions of Kurds to vote, framing it as a step toward future negotiations with Baghdad. However, opposition parties within Iraqi Kurdistan accused him of using the referendum as propaganda to consolidate his power under the guise of pursuing independence.³¹ While

Barzani reassured the international community that the referendum would not redraw regional borders, Iraq's central government reacted strongly against it. Despite Barzani's claim that the vote was a democratic expression of Kurdish aspirations, he was open to negotiations with Baghdad to settle the matter.

Prime Minister Haider al-Abadi declared the referendum 'unconstitutional', Vowing to protect Iraq's unity and rejecting any attempts at 'disintegration'.32 The Iraqi government categorically dismissed it as non-binding and unacceptable, with al-Abadi emphasising steps to preserve the country's unity and integrity.³³ Despite Barzani's claim that the vote was a democratic expression of Kurdish aspirations, he insisted that the Kurds were open to negotiating with Baghdad to settle the matter.

The Kurdish government reached out to both Baghdad and the US, advocating for dialogue despite the failed referendum. The Kurdish government reached out to both Baghdad and Washington, seeking dialogue as the referendum ruffled feathers in the region.³⁴ Further, Barzani framed the vote as a response to the Iraqi central government's violation of power-sharing agreements and the growing sectarianism in post-Saddam Iraq, arguing that the Kurdish autonomy was under threat and could be salvaged only through independence.³⁵ The US response also disappointed the KRG. Washington did not support the referendum, prioritising stability in the fight against the Islamic State and regional interests over the Kurdish aspirations.

Barzani faced criticism from within Kurdistan as well, with Srwa Abdulwahid of the Gorran Party accusing him of using the referendum to serve his political agenda rather than advancing Kurdish democracy.³⁶ Interestingly and in contrast to Barzani's calculations, the referendum's failure bolstered al-Abadi's standing among non-Kurds in Iraq and across the region, as many saw maintaining Iraq's unity as critical to fighting terrorism.³⁷

Regional Responses and Global Concerns

The 2017 Kurdish referendum raised alarms throughout the region, particularly in Turkey, Iran and Syria. Despite international and regional objections, including from the United States and the United Nations, the KRG proceeded with the vote. Though non-binding, the referendum fuelled concerns that it could destabilise borders and provoke regional responses, forcing the global powers and multilateral

cum international agencies to push for restraint from all actors. While the referendum did not immediately lead to secession, it remains a central issue in relations between regional players and unfulfilled Kurdish aspirations for sovereign statehood.

Iran and Turkey: As the KRG proceeded with the referendum, Iran's semi-official Tasnim News *Agency* claimed that Tehran ordered the closure of its Bashmagh border crossing with the Kurdish region in response to the vote. However, the Iranian government denied these claims, stating that only air traffic to KRG-controlled areas was suspended.³⁸ Additionally, the Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps (IRGC), the elite multi-service armed force directly controlled by the country's supreme leader, apparently conducted military exercises near its border with the Iraqi KRG territory, further escalating tensions, even as its Foreign Ministry continued denying these reports.³⁹ Interestingly, Tehran claimed that the decision to block the Kurdish airspace was made at the request of Iraq's central government. Vice President Eshaq Jahangiri condemned the vote as sedition, fearing it would encourage Iran's Kurdish population.⁴⁰

Turkey, similarly, also adopted an aggressive stance, including launching military exercises on its border with Iraqi Kurdistan and

blocking several Kurdish television channels from airing in the country. Additionally, President Erdogan even threatened to invade northern Iraq if necessary. 41 Ankara threatened to close the Habur border crossing and block key oil exports from the Kurdish region. Erdogan bluntly warned that Turkey held control over the oil pipeline, stating, "The moment we close the tap, it's done."42 During his Tehran visit in October 2017, the Turkish president called for punitive measures against the KRG and insisted that they "want security and stability" in the region.43 While Erdogan warned that stronger steps would be taken to prevent further regional instability, he condemned Israel for supporting the Kurdish referendum even as Iranian President Hassan Rouhani likened it to "a sectarian plot by foreign countries."44

Amidst these regional threats, KRG President Masoud Barzani, while admonishing both Iran and Turkey for their century-long oppression of Kurds, declared that Kurds were ready to pay 'any price', including their lives, for the Kurdish independence. ⁴⁵ As such, this KRG defiance prompted Baghdad to seek control over the international border of northern Iraq, including military outposts and airports and "called on foreign countries to stop importing oil from the Kurdish region" and asked them to deal with and through the

Iraqi central government.⁴⁶ Prime Minister Haider al-Abadi, while seeking consensus with Tehran and Ankara, demanded the annulment of the referendum by describing it as a threat to Iraq's unity, something no Iraqi would allow.

Syria: On the other hand, Syria's initial reaction was muted. However, Damascus shifted its approach by but later, Damascus shifted its approach by offering further autonomy to Syrian Kurds, who constituted up to 15 per cent of Syria's population before its 2011-12 Arab uprising turned into a civil war. This move by the Syrian government was seen as a strategic gesture, as Damascus had lost control over significant parts of the country following the 2011 Syrian civil war. Syria's foreign minister even asserted that the government of President Bashar Al-Assad would initiate the dialogue over the contours of internal autonomy with the country's Kurdish population "once the military campaign" against ISIS concluded.47

Israel: Israel was the only regional country to openly support the Kurdish referendum, driven by its geopolitical strategy amidst shifting dynamics in the region. Israeli Prime Minister Netanyahu publicly endorsed the Kurdish vote, stating, "The world should take care of Kurds' future. The Kurds demonstrate

national maturity and international maturity." He also expressed sympathy for their aspirations and emphasised the need for global concern regarding Kurdish safety and the future. He Interestingly, while the Israeli PM also lobbied with the US Congressmen seeking support for the Kurdish cause, He is was mostly perceived as a threat to Tehran and Ankara to draw down on their support to various Palestinian resistance groups battling Israeli occupation of their land.

Global Concerns

Russia: Russia reaffirmed its stance on maintaining relations with Iraq as a unified state, emphasising respect for Iraq's constitution. A joint statement from the Iraqi foreign ministry stressed that Russia conducts its dealings with the central government in Baghdad and not with any separatist entities or actors.⁵⁰ Russia's Foreign Minister Sergey Lavrov declared that while the Kremlin will continue business interactions with the Erbil-based KRG, these will be only coordinated through Baghdad.⁵¹

United Nations: The UN described the Kurdish referendum as having a "potentially destabilising effect" (UN News Centre 2017). It offered to mediate between Erbil and Baghdad, contingent on the agreement between these parties. 52 However, the UN

firmly backed Iraq's central government and emphasised its support for the country's unity and the need to resolve disputes in accordance with the constitution. It expressed confidence in the "Iraqi people's determination to maintain their unity, overcome the challenges they face, unite and achieve the greatest victory against the terrorists."⁵³

United States: The US, a crucial supporter of the Kurdish people for both strategic and historical reasons, opposed the 2017 referendum, describing it as "deeply disappointing." Although Washington offered to mediate between Erbil and Baghdad, it opposed the joint air blockade imposed by Iraq, Iran and Turkey, which led to flight suspensions to Erbil.⁵⁴

For the US, Kurdistan has been one of the few successes in its broader nation-building efforts in the region. Back in 2014, President Barrack Obama even acknowledged that the KRG functioned in Washington's desired way and was a model for Baghdad to emulate.55 As such, despite their close relations, the US perceived referendum timing as 'problematic' and a strategic misstep that could destabilise the region amidst deepening sectarianism in Iraq and the rise of ISIS. Ahead of the vote, it had even urged its postponement, fearing it would divert attention from its fight against ISIS and exacerbate ethnic tensions in Iraq.

The Impact of Economic Cost of Referendum

Iraqi Kurdistan's economy remains heavily dependent on oil, with around 90 per cent of its revenue from oil exports, making it extremely vulnerable to external pressures, particularly from its neighbours. Being landlocked, the KRG predominantly relies on Turkey to access the international markets, especially through pipelines transporting crude to the Turkish port Ceyhan. This economic dependence gives Turkey enormous leverage over Kurdistan's financial stability. As Alex Dziadosz (2017) noted, "Because the KRG's roughly 600,000 barrels per day of oil exports are piped almost exclusively through Turkey to the port of Ceyhan, Ankara has enormous leverage not only over the region's economy, but over the resource-distribution systems underlying social stability, such as the government's ability to pay salaries."56

The 2017 referendum created additional risks for the KRG economy, primarily due to strong Turkish opposition to Kurdish statehood aspirations since that has direct geographical implications for Turkey. Given Ankara's vital role in the flow of Kurdish oil and imports, any

punitive measures, such as closing borders or restricting oil transit, would have a devastating impact on the region's economy. Moreover, KRG's reliance on imports from Turkey and Iran compounded the economic vulnerability further, as blockades or sanctions could severely disrupt supplies of food, medicine, and other essential goods.

Erbil's problems deepened following the vote, with its revenuesharing dispute with Baghdad worsening as the Iraqi central government took a maximalist position and even questioned the constitutionality of KRG's direct oil exports. Despite its opposition to KRG's oil business, the Iraqi government had previously made budget allocations for KRG and paid salary payments for its Peshmarga force. However, the referendum strained this uneasy compromise, with Baghdad even threatening to seize Kurdish oil fields.

5. Conclusion

Subaltern International Relations (IR) offers an antihegemonic discourse that challenges the Eurocentric concept of the nation-state by presenting an alternative framework for understanding marginalised identities and their struggle for self-determination. The Kurdish question exemplifies this challenge, raising the issue of

whether the centrist notion of the nation-state needs to be reconsidered. Drawing from Gramsci's notion of national consciousness as a pathway to freedom, the Subaltern Studies movement (notably Ranjit Guha's experiences of silent history and Gayatri Spivak's identity and representation) emphasises the unheard voices and suppressed histories of marginalised groups. Spivak's critique of identity and representation underlines how non-Western peoples continue to be dominated by modernist and postmodernist worldviews. This paper these subaltern integrates perspectives into the realm of IR to re-imagine the Kurdish struggle for statehood.

Mohammad Ayoob's Subaltern Realism in IR critiques mainstream theories like realism and liberalism by challenging the idea of the nationstate rooted in European sociohistorical experiences. Mohammad Ayoob's Subaltern Realism in IR critiques mainstream theories like realism and liberalism challenging the idea of a nation-state that is rooted in European sociohistorical experiences. As such, in exploring the unresolved Kurdish statehood, Ayoob's perspective offers an alternative that delves into the complexities and conflicts of subaltern groups seeking autonomy in a world still governed by the

nation-state model. However, the Kurdish referendum of 2017, despite being non-binding, ultimately failed to produce significant international support or alter the status quo. Yet, it did open the door to rethinking the question of Kurdish aspirations and the entrenched dynamics surrounding statehood in the region.

The referendum elicited three distinct responses: First, Turkey, Iran and Iraq categorically opposed the vote, its non-binding nature notwithstanding, and threatened military action if the referendum was used to mobilise support for the creation of an independent state of Kurdistan. Second, the global powers, primarily the United States and Russia, backed the United Nations in calling for negotiations and a peaceful resolution between Erbil and Baghdad while opposing the unilateral declaration of independence of Kurdistan by the KRG. And lastly, Israel stood alone in openly supporting the referendum, driven by strategic considerations in the region. The referendum had two key implications—immediate and future. In the short term, it exacerbated sectarian divisions, especially in Iraq, where Kurdish separation would disrupt the Shia-Sunni balance, as Kurds are primarily Sunni. In the long term, the larger question remains

whether such a vote would impact the region at a structural level and whether Kurdish statehood will ever gain broad legitimacy and acceptance in the region. The Kurdish referendum, while unsuccessful, did reignite the debate over the future of Kurdish aspirations for independence. The enduring proverb, "Kurds have no friends but the mountains," underscores the isolation the Kurds continue to face post-referendum in their quest for statehood.

Re-imaging the Kurdish aspiration for statehood requires a rethinking of absolutist notions of the Westphalian concept of sovereignty and exploring more flexible interpretations of domestic, external and normative ideas. Subaltern realities provide a theoretical opening for the possibility of Kurdish statehood. However, the realisation of Kurdish independence will depend on resolving socio-historical processes, overcoming institutional weaknesses, and navigating regional and international power dynamics that have consistently undermined its Kurdish aspirations. Achieving this will require not only strategic action but also a transformation of consciousness in the Gramscian sense, allowing Kurdish nationalism to evolve into a permanent and recognised statehood.

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