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Future Of Water & International Community: Water Scarcity as a Potent Weapon Triggers National & International Conflict & Threatens Peace

Rind Ali
LL. B 3rd Year Law Student at Department of Law, University of Sindh, Jamshoro
rindali11223@gmail.com
Obhayo Khan
Subject Specialist Pakistan Studies, School Education & Literacy Department Government of Sindh
obhayoshar786@gmail.com
Ali Ghulam
M.Phil Scholar
alighulam274@gmail.com
Sadia Karim
Law Graduate government Jinnah law college Hyderabad affiliated with University of Sindh, Jamshoro
ayzalfatima911@gmail.com

ABSTRACT
The role of water in wars has a long history and remains both a regional and global concern, as water resources and infrastructure continue to be threatened in many conflicts, while this research examined how the exploitation of freshwater resources in the 21st century exacerbated water scarcity, climate change, and population growth. These factors served as key drivers of national and international conflicts and violence. It further investigated how agricultural and industrial use of water across the globe raised fears of shortages and serve as a warning that water may be used as a weapon. The sharing of transboundary rivers emerged as a central source of future wars, which may trigger armed conflict between two or more states over scarcity, affecting millions of communities dependent on river water. Using a qualitative research approach, this study examined patterns and causes behind three main grounds of future water wars: quality, quantity, and control in disputes over river water sharing. The central focus of this study is to exploring how water wars could be managed and resolved in the face of growing water scarcity. Ultimately, this research argued that water conflicts escalated from domestic disputes to international confrontations, with future wars fought over water, disturbing global peace and security; therefore, in conclusion, this research establishes that strengthening international law, cooperative treaties, technological innovation, and conflict-prevention mechanisms is essential, as past efforts have left gaps that failed to prevent disputes, thus water may shift from being a source of life to a weapon of future wars.

Keywords: *Water Scarcity, Freshwater Resources, Climate Change, Water Conflicts, Transboundary Rivers.*

Introduction

Water is a largest natural resource of our planet for mankind that is finite and irreplaceable with increasing frequency, conflict over shared water resources may create unrest as water resources become scarcer due to growing water demand concomitant with increased precipitation variability associated with global climate change. Water scarcity can create tensions between national and international groups. Furthermore, the situation is complicated by the fact data large portion of major freshwater basins in the world fall within the jurisdiction of more than one nation. Although the number of river basins, that can be classified as international, number has increased recently as newly independent countries emerge, there are some 261 international river basins covering 46% of the planet's land area. Nineteen of these basins are shared by five or more states. (wolf et al. 1999)

In the modern era, humanity can no longer assume an endless supply of clean and accessible water, and therefore the global community must learn to manage, protect, and replenish its water resources responsibly to ensure sustainability for future generation, as water resources face tremendous and ever increasing pressure across the globe, primarily due to rapid population growth, urbanization, and industrial expansion, while the world's population has more than tripled over the last century, creating major challenges for governments worldwide in maintaining a balance between water availability and demand.

Water has always been central to human survival, economic development, and environmental stability as the history of water management can be traced back to ancient civilization such as Mesopotamia, where one of the earliest recorded boundary water treaties-the Treaty of Mesilim (c. 2550 B.C.)- was established to resolve disputes over shared rivers. Water gradually became not only a basic necessity but also a strategic and economic resource, integrated into the frameworks of trade, law, governance and further, in the modern era, the value of water extends beyond its physical utility; it embodies complex dimensions of sovereignty, sustainability, and cooperation, furthermore, a comprehensive discussion of water must encompass both its historical foundations and its current global significance, from its role in sustaining life to its management under international treaties and conventions.

As water connects nations globally but also creates tension when needs and interests differ and these escalating pressures not only threaten food security and public health but also intensify competition over shared water sources, making effective water governance and international cooperation more essential than ever, since many rivers and lakes are shared by more than one country, which makes water both a possible cause of disputes and a reason for cooperation, and with over 300 rivers, about 100 lakes, and many underground water sources crossing national borders, the use of shared water has direct effects on other countries.

In modern time, some of these disputes have been settled peacefully through agreements, while others are still unresolved, increasing the risk of conflict, confrontation and mistrust among neighboring states. Following examples include the major disputes across various continents (Pakistan–India, Egypt–Ethiopia–Sudan, United States of America–Mexico, etc.).

While ensuring safe and accessible drinking water, the vision also promotes a system where water is managed through fair and affordable practices, greenhouse gas emissions are minimized, and the sector becomes resilient to climate change and population growth. This forward-looking approach highlights that effective planning, conservation, and international cooperation are crucial to building a water-secure future for all. However, in reflecting on the global significance of water, a famous scholar **Shimon Peres** once stated that "*If roads lead to*

civilization, then water leads to peace." Similarly, **John F. Kennedy** highlighted the gravity of this issue by asserting that "*Anyone who can solve the problems of water will be worthy of two Nobel Prizes—one for peace and one for science*." These timeless insights underscore that water is not a natural resource but a foundation for peace, development, and human progress.

This paper analyzes both national and international legal frameworks to assess the accountability of states and other actors in resolving international water disputes and to investigate whether existing legal doctrines applicable to territorial sovereignty, shared resource management, and transboundary harm can be effectively extended to the governance of shared water systems.

Literature Review

Research on future water wars has gained important scholarly attention as global water scarcity continues to intensify due to population growth, industrialization, and climate change. Many Scholars, experts and Environmental Scientists who played important role, globally, in the research, discussion over water and its resources, such as **Peter H Gleick, Boutros Boutros-Ghali**, **A.P.J Abdul Kalam** and **Ban Ki-moon** argue that in future wars will not be occurred on oil, politics, economics, internet or trade but future wars will be take place on water that will be used as a weapon instead of atomic power. If we use more and more water than we will to a point where its causes more harmful than its benefits. From 805 AC to 1984, there were 3600 treaties related with transboundary water, signed (FAO) and from 2000 and 2023, 998 recorded instances of water weaponization, compared with just 160 cases documented during the 20th century, according to the water conflict chronology and this data suggests that water has been progressively instrumentalized as a strategic weapon by state and non-state actors, specifically during violent conflicts.

Results of current research paper has refined to better understand of disputes, hostiles, and violent conflicts including water, because the conclusion is that in the transboundary river basins where hostile, violent, and conflicts have not occurred, there were, or were created, institutions to regulate, manage, dilute, and address those conflicts although, there remains a significant gap in integrating legal accountability frameworks and international dispute-resolution mechanisms into these discussions, Collectively, the existing literature of future water wars is real, proactive governance, equitable legal regimes, and regional cooperation can transform potential conflicts into opportunities for sustainable peace and shared prosperity.

Methodology

This research adopts a qualitative and doctrinal methodology design to investigate the complex socio-legal and geopolitical dimensions of future water-related conflicts, further, it aims to bridge a significant gap in the existing literature, which often prioritizes political and environmental analyses while under emphasizing the legal and institutional frameworks essential for conflict prevention and resolution. The research evaluates freshwater scarcity, population growth, climate change, and transboundary disputes to explore how these factors contribute to potential future wars driven by control, quality, and quantity of water resources. This research paper reviewed the problems associated with water scarcity and future water wars. The methodology approach is structured around four interconnected thematic areas, which guide the data collection and analysis:

Data Sources

The research draws on a blend of primary and secondary materials. Primary sources include international agreements, treaties, national and international case laws, national water

legislation, and authoritative policy documents, and secondary sources consist of academic publications, books, institutional reports, and contemporary analyses from water-governance experts, However, these sources collectively help build a balanced understanding of how theory and policy realities interact, while also allowing comparison between diverse regional contexts.

Scope

The scope of this study is global, with particular attention to regions where water scarcity, political instability, and competing claims over shared rivers pose serious risks and it also examines the legal, environmental, and geopolitical factors influencing the management of freshwater, focusing on how shifting climate patterns, agricultural expansion, industrial growth, and population pressures amplify stress on existing water system. Beyond describing conflicts, this study explores how cooperation, negotiation, and legal mechanisms can serve as preventive tools.

Limitations

The study faces certain limitations. Data on transboundary water conflicts is often incomplete or inconsistently reported by states, making direct comparisons difficult. Political sensitivities also restrict access to detailed information in conflict-prone regions. Climate based predictions depend on changing environmental conditions, creating uncertainty in long-term analysis. Additionally, reliance on English language scholarship limits coverage of regional studies available in other languages.

Discussion

Challanges Of Freshwater Sacrcity in the 21st Century

As much as one fourth of the world's population now faces lack of water and If there is no water, politicians are going to try and get their hands on it and they might start to fight over it said by **Kitty van der Heijden**. Global freshwater demand will exceed supply by 40% by 2030. Almost half of humanity will face water scarcity by 2030. We are 5 years away from that scathing fact. The water wars of the “future” are here today in the world. In upcoming decades, escalating water insecurity will intimidate many states’ internal stability, challenge the viability of large cities worldwide, and worsen international clashes further the world’s leadership lacks even an intellectual framework to conceptualize this threat, let alone take meaningful action. The Vice President of the World bank, **Ismail Serageldin** stated in 1995 that as of the 20th century had been about oil, the wars of the 21th century will be about water.

United Nations Secretary-General **Kofi Annan** warned that “fierce competition for fresh water may well become a source of conflict and wars in the future” and a recent report of the U.S. National Intelligence Council concludes that next 15 years will increase international conflicts “as countries press against the limits of available water.” Pressure on freshwater resources is expected to rise as demand increases and rainfall becomes more irregular. Conflicts may occur between countries, within nations, or among different users such as farms, industries, and households. Institutional approaches are most important to encourage cooperation between states for the sustainable use of shared water sources. Shared water resources, instead of causing disputes, can provide opportunities for collaboration and mutual benefits if threats are acknowledged and cooperative systems are established. According to the International Food Policy Research Institute, approximately 1.8 to 2.4 billion population, in upcoming years, will be living in countries with physical water scarcity.

Only 2.5% of the world's water is freshwater, and only a small fraction of that amount is readily available for human use. Human beings require a minimum of five gallons of water per day in order to meet their most basic needs. This renewable but not infinite resource is becoming increasingly limited access. Last fifty years are witness in which population of the world highly increased from 2.5 to 6 billion that created major issue of water scarcity and scarcity has various causes that are able to be remedied or alleviated. Lessons from the Global Environment Facility, which supports management of shared water resources, show experiences from Africa, Central Asia, and Latin America. It is important to involve all areas and stakeholders whose actions influence these water bodies at national, and local levels. Using science-based assessments helps identify threats to ecosystems and break complex problems into smaller, manageable parts for planning strategic actions. Political commitment is key to implement institutional, policy, and legal reforms that ensure sustainable development and proper management of shared freshwater resources.

Freshwater scarcity, associated to both water availability and water quality, is boosting worldwide. The main reason for this shortage is rising water utilize due to a steadily growing global population. This growth alone is placing enormous pressure on freshwater resources at the same time, as economies expand and people become billionaires, water use individual person is also rising significantly. The most combustible imbalance will be in Asia due to population and available water supplies where irrigation uses unlimited water to produce crop. World's 60% population live in the Asia but only 36% of the world's has renewable freshwater. China, Pakistan, India, and Iran are among the countries where a significant share of the irrigated land is now jeopardized by groundwater depletion, scarce river water, a fertility-sapping buildup of salts in the soil, or some combination of these factors. Groundwater depletion alone places 10 to 20 percent of grain production in both China and India at risk.

Agriculture is the main consumer of freshwater as there is need to grow more food the possibilities for expanding the framed area are limited, to augment the yields per area unit is the only solution. This can be done agricultural chemicals and irrigation water on which highly yield crop varieties are dependent. Nearly 70% of global water used goes to irrigation in agriculture, even though it covers only 17% of all farmland. However, this irrigated land produces around 40% of the world's total food. In the coming years, water shortages may reduce food production in some regions.

Transboundary Conflicts

Transboundary water conflicts pop up any time different groups whether political, economic, environmental, or legal compete over shared water. These disputes aren't limited to international borders. Sometimes it's a fight between local farmers, or between city and countryside. But when water crosses political lines, things get really complicated. Managing these shared basins means dealing with more than just the science of water it drags in politics, culture, and history. Regional tensions can make the job even harder, turning complex systems into political battlegrounds. Lately, people have started looking at international water disputes as security issues. Poverty and political instability feed off each other, and the way countries handle water can tip the balance in either direction.

The numbers are worrying. According to the World Water Commission back in 2000, water withdrawals for all sectors are set to jump by 50%. That's not a small bump. If that happens, the regions where rivers meet the sea will suffer. Reduced river flow messes with delicate ecosystems

and lets saltwater creep into groundwater. We've already seen these problems in places like the Aral Sea (fed by the Amu Darya and Syr Darya), the Colorado River and the Gulf of California, the Tigris-Euphrates system and Mesopotamian wetlands, the Dead Sea and Jordan River, the Ganges delta, the Rio Grande and the Gulf of Mexico, and even in the Yellow River delta, Tarim Lake in China, and Lake Chapala in Mexico. Wolf and his team (2003) dug into the roots of these disputes by looking at everything from rainfall patterns to politics and economics. They built the Transboundary Freshwater Dispute Database at Oregon State University to track these things. Turns out, big water fights usually flare up where rainfall and river flows swing wildly from year to year. Places where water is scarce, used heavily in farming, or polluted are especially shaky.

From their research, two points really stand out: First, when rivers run through several countries, especially after empires fall apart, like the British Empire in the 1940s or the USSR in the 1980s, the risk of conflict jumps. Rivers like the Jordan, Nile, Tigris-Euphrates, Indus, and Aral Sea basin have all seen this pattern. Second, whether countries have joint river commissions or basin organizations says a lot about their ability to cooperate. When these institutions are missing, disputes flare up. When they exist, they can help countries sort out technical and political problems together.

But it's not just about politics. Pollution from cities, industries, farms, and mines fuels these conflicts, too. As water gets dirtier, there's less clean water to go around for things like drinking and washing. Right now, about half the world's people live in cities, many in fast-growing, poorly planned mega-cities, especially in developing countries. This urban sprawl puts even more pressure on water resources. In plenty of places, water's gotten too polluted to use safely, and fixing that mess will cost a fortune. Sharing water is the rule, not the exception. Roughly 40% of people live in river and lake basins that cross at least one international border. There are at least 214 basins shared by more than two countries and thirteen where five or more countries have a stake. Nearly 50 countries across four continents have three-quarters of their land inside international river basins. When neighbors don't understand each other or refuse to work together, conflict is almost guaranteed, especially as water grows scarcer.

At the heart of all this is a tough political problem. Managing shared water often clashes with national pride and sovereignty, making it one of the touchiest issues in international politics. Water keeps everything running, food, power, health, industry, so it's no surprise that fights over who gets to use it can get ugly fast. Hydropower dams might provide energy, but they often end up at odds with environmental sustainability and navigation rights. When states ignore solid water management or skip real environmental protections, small water problems don't just stay local, they spill over borders, stirring up tension and sometimes threatening the stability of an entire region. You can see this happening when the ecosystems downstream start to fall apart; that's usually a warning sign that bigger conflicts between countries relying on the river could be just around the corner.

Now, when it comes to sorting out disputes, there's more than one way to get the job done. Sure, courts like the International Court of Justice exist, but not every disagreement heads straight there. Usually, countries try negotiation, mediation, fact-finding, basically, whatever works to get both sides talking. But sometimes, nothing else makes sense and a case land directly in front of the ICJ, like it did with the Hostages case or the Bosnian Genocide case. Water disputes sometimes follow this path too, like the Gulf of Maine case between Canada and the USA. The real test for how a dispute gets resolved comes down to two things: Is there an actual dispute,

not just a vague conflict? And if there is, can you solve it using the law? Rivers do a lot. They supply water for drinking, farming, and energy; they feed fisheries and offer space for recreation. When they're big enough to navigate, they even turn into highways, linking countries and communities. What people often miss is that these same rivers can double as borders. It's a bit ironic, water that brings cultures and nations together can also split them apart, turning into official boundaries that block movement and contact. Still, that's reality for a lot of the world's rivers and lakes, and it makes shared water projects complicated. These projects mix social, political, economic, and geographic challenges, so managing them takes more than just technical know-how. You need trust, a shared goal, and a sense of responsibility from everyone involved.

Getting there isn't easy. It usually starts with small steps that chip away at political or institutional walls, encouraging dialogue and joint troubleshooting. When countries openly share data, assess situations together, and work through joint analyses, they find common ground and can focus on what's actually doable. All this work lays the foundation for a Strategic Action Programme basically a roadmap that helps countries turn potential fights into real chances for working together. At the end of the day, strong cooperation means these international waters can bring peace instead of conflict. Like Einstein said, "Peace cannot be kept by force; it can only be achieved by understanding."

Quality, Quantity and Control of Water Resources

The word stress defines the problems with water quantity, or the ability of freshwater. It is crucial to know when, where and how water is being removed from drinking water source and compare it to how fast that source can be naturally refill or recover and it is also significant to look at water takings and water supply trends. What outcomes from looking at these factors is a water budget, which is helpful in predicting water supply crisis and planning for that scarcity. Water quantity pressure led to water quality problems, as too little water in a source can make pollutants more concentrated and thus, possibly exceed acceptable limits. Water quantity pressures include water withdrawn by municipalities for drinking purposes; water extracted by industry for production processes; water utilized by business for operations like food and beverage processing; water drawn by agricultural for irrigation; and even private well. Under the Clean Water Act, 2006, drinking water usage will be measured in relation to the total water supply available, in order to more effective plan for and discover results of both current and future water quantity needs. In Addition, key political leaders and senior government officials must engage to build awareness of the social and economic benefits of providing freshwater to their citizens.

Anything that creates conflicts with, or has the chance to create a dispute with, the quality of public drinking water is considered a water quality concern. Issues may arise at the origin of the freshwater, such as a surface water intake or municipal well, or they may develop in areas used to observe or monitor the local water source. In general water quality concerns are long term or recurring, meaning they have existed for an extended time or return seasonally, and are likely to persist if no action is taken to resolve them.

Water quality concerns exist when pollution or contamination approaches or exceeds acceptable government limits. Factors affecting water quality may include pollutants such as road salt, non-point pollution like runoff, or multiple discharge sources such as wastewater treatment plant effluent. Under the Clean Water Act, 2006, the quality of drinking water is assessed in relation to specific land uses so that proper measures can be implemented to manage contamination risks. By identifying and linking pollution sources, local protection committees can prioritize immediate

actions based on the most serious threats. Safeguarding both the quality and quantity of drinking water is crucial, primarily to protect public health. Moreover, preventing contamination is far more cost-effecting than dealing with it afterward. Protecting water resources also providing additional long-term benefits, such as reducing the needs for expensive cleanup efforts and ensuring a steady clean water supply that supports economic growth and community wellbeing. Major benefits that will protect water quality and quantity are following

1. Securing a consist supply of water in the long term.
2. Lowering the expenses related to water treatment.
3. Preventing the necessity of cleaning contaminated water
4. Avoiding the need to find new water sources when current ones are polluted
5. Fostering a healthy environment for economic prosperity.

The Value of Water

Water is often seen as a basic human right, but it is also a limited and valuable resource. Many experts believe that putting an economic value on water can encourage people and industries to use it more carefully. However, others argue that treating water as a product for sale may make it harder for poor communities to access safe water. Finding the right balance between these two views one is water as a right and other is water as a resource, one of the main challenges in modern water management. Water is not strictly limited to the status of an economic good but it is also social good, and it has cultural and religious value as well. Water quality affects public health in the short and long term. Water is not only essential for human being but also for all living organisms (Gleick, 2003). The main discussion about the value of water covers many different areas. Water is the significant element for living things on earth, it is also treated as a tradable resource in modern economies. To fully understand its importance, we must look at how water plays a role in both basic survival and in advanced technological and economic systems.

Case Studies

This research paper includes a set of case studies that show how water pricing works in different situations. The cases include both international examples of water transfers and trades, as well as domestic examples where water pricing is clearly defined. These case studies cover both past and recent experiences. Since water pricing is a complex issue affected by many local and global factors, direct comparison between cases is not always possible. Instead, this summary provides an overview of how the cost and value of water have been understood and applied in various real-world situations.

The Indus Water Treaty 1960 between the Government of India and Government of Pakistan

Basin: Indus River

Date: September 19, 1960

Parties: India, Pakistan, and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development

Summary: India and Pakistan entered in this agreement concerning the usage of different sections of the Indus River system. The river network was primarily divided into the Eastern Rivers and Western Rivers including the Indus, the Jhelum, and the Chenab. The Eastern Rivers are unrestricted use of India and Pakistan used the water of the Western Rivers without restriction. On the agreement both countries Pakistan and India agreed to allow the other's share of waters to flow without any obstruction. The Indus Water Treaty was signed in1960 after long discussions, challenges by World Bank. The treaty is the most important and well defined in

document form that consist of 12 articles and 8 annexures that cover about 150 pages. For the future conditions the treaty was also signed by the World Bank for specific purposes. This is only one international water treaty that was signed by a third party (Salman, 2003).

Price Consideration: Since the water from Western Rivers and other resources were intended to substitute the water that had previously been supplied from the Eastern Rivers to Pakistan, India consented to provide a fixed contribution of 62,060,000 to cover the expenses of the infrastructure projects required to convey the Western River's water to Pakistan. Furthermore, this amount was to be remitted in ten uniform annual installments. A 10 Transition Period was established, during which the replacement of Eastern River water with Western River water in Pakistan would be fully accomplished. In case this Transition Period was prolonged, India would be reimbursed a portion of its payment. The treaty does not specify the quantities of water, and the agreed costs only relate to infrastructure development; thus, the monetary value of the water is considered negligible.

Exchange of notes constituting an agreement between the United States of America and Mexico concerning the loan of water of the Colorado River

Basin: Colorado River

Date: August 24, 1966

Parties: United States of America and Mexico

Summary: To help address a serve water scarcity in the Valley of Mexico, the United States agreed to provide an additional 40,535 acre-feet of water from the Colorado River, beyond Mexico's annual entitlement under the 1944 Water Treaty. The International Boundary and Water Commission were tasked with preparing the timetable for these water releases during the 1967 calendar year. However, if the Colorado River runoff within the U.S between April and July 1967 was projected to surpass 8.5 million acre-feet, the extra 40,535 acre-feet allocated to Mexico would be stored and gradually delivered over the following three years.

Price Consideration: Mexico consented to compensate the United Sates at market price for any reduction in electricity production at the Hoover and/or Glen Canyon Power Planet that might result from the discharge of the agreed 40,535 acre-feet of water. However, the worth of this water is linked solely to its hydroelectric generation potential, and the intrinsic value of the raw water within this agreement is considered negligible or zero.

Transboundary Dispute Resolution: The Nile waters Agreement

Basin: Nile River

Date: 1929 and 1959

Parties: Egypt, Sudan

Summary: As the Nile riparians gained independence from colonial powers, riparian disputes became international and consequently more contentious, particularly between Egypt and Sudan. The core question of historic versus sovereign water rights is complicated by the technical question of where the river ought to best be controlled upstream or down.

Price Consideration: The Nile Waters Treaty allocated 84 BCM of annual river flow, with Egypt receiving 55.5 BCM and Sudan 18.5 BCM after accounting for losses. It established equal cost-sharing and benefit-sharing for projects enhancing flow, and a joint technical committee for dispute resolution. Egypt also agreed to pay £E 15 million to Sudan for flooding and resettlement, ensuring cooperation and stability in shared water use.

Recommendations

- Bringing together the professionals, experts, lawyers and the government machineries can resolve the water conflicts between the regional countries.
- Water sharing mechanism should be altered depending upon the will of conflicting parties in order to fine peaceful resolution of this conflict.
- There always of be some dialogues, models of cooperation and conflict management mechanisms between the opposite parties in order to resolve the issues through multiple sources.
- There should be a dedicated body whose main aim is to engage with agricultural and industrial stakeholders and to raise awareness among people who use water in daily life more than necessary.
- Laws are made for us and it is our responsibility to uphold them; therefore, each country should respect the treaties and international law to which they have consented and ensure their implementation even during times of war.

Findings

Global data indicates that more than 2 billion people currently face water scarcity, and forecasts suggest that by 2050, over half population of the world lives in areas facing serve water stress. This highlights the growing likelihood of water emerging as a source of international friction. Increase water demand from agriculture, industry, and domestic sectors intensifies competition for limited resources. Mismanagement and population growth exacerbates shortages, reinforcing water as a vital global asset. Treaties and agreements, including the UN Watercourses Convention, provide frameworks for collaboration, yet enforcement mechanisms remain limited and many states lack robust compliance mechanisms, raising the risk that confrontations may escalate into conflicts. Existing laws often fail for handling new challenges such as climate variability and demographic pressures. Insufficient institutional support increases the probability of disputes intensifying into tension.

Case studies from history such as disputes over the Nile, Indus, and Trigis-Euphrates rivers, reveal that water has consistently been a strategic resource. Although most conflicts have been settled diplomatically, these instances demonstrate ongoing tensions over transboundary water management. Difference in upstream and downstream control often create uneven resources access, requiring strategic negotiation to prevent disputes. Persistent conflicts reflect the historical challenges of managing shared water equitably. Considering historical trends, legal gaps, and environmental projections, it is clear that water-related conflicts may increasingly act as a trigger for interstate disputes. Although not unavoidable, the probability of these conflicts escalating into armed confrontations is rising in geopolitically sensitive regions. Water scarcity in politically fragile regions may intensifying existing tensions, raising the chance of confrontation. Control over limited freshwater supplies may play a growing role in shaping international relations.

Conclusion

The role of international water law, like the rest of international law, as a general rule, is to regulate the relationship between states. However, international law requires states not to discriminate on the basis of nationality or residence or place of birth in granting access to judicial or other procedures for persons who suffer serious transboundary harm as a result of activities related to an international watercourse (McCaffrey, 2001).

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