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Historical Security
Council
Topic A: Bosnian Genocide

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Introduction to the Committee

The Security Council (SC) is the organ of the United Nations in charge of maintaining international peace and security. It is the only council with the power to decree decisions Member States are obliged to follow under the charter. The first committee session of the Security Council was held on January 17, 1946, at Church House in Westminster, London. The council consists of fifteen members: five permanent Members, China, France, Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States; and the ten other non-permanent Members that change every two years (United Nations Security Council [UNSC], 2011).

The Historical Security Council's (HSC) main purpose is to approach problems related to conflicts that have already been resolved, allowing delegates to change the course of history while weighing the real world and historical consequences of their actions, seeking thoughtful and innovative solutions to these historical events. This committee's sessions will simulate a Security Council crisis meeting on November 17, 1995; as such, delegates are not allowed to use any knowledge dated beyond November 17, 1995.

The sessions have the purpose of discussing the United Nations Security Council's next steps and the ongoing forced relocations, addressing the reports of mistreatment and murder of the Muslim civilian population in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and investigating the actions of Dutch peacekeeping troops in Srebrenica.

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Introduction to the Topic

From April 1992 to October 1992, a military conflict broke out right after the independence of Bosnia and Herzegovina, leading to the death of thousands as a consequence of tensions between the different ethnicities in the former Yugoslavia and the division of the Bosnian population between the remaining part of the region. The Bosnian War was Europe's most devastating conflict since World War II, with some of the most violent military tactics, such as ethnic cleansing, systematic mass rape, urbicide and indiscriminate shelling of cities and towns. The most wide-known events of the military conflict were the Siege of Sarajevo and the Srebrenica Massacre.

The term "ethnic cleansing" is employed by perpetrators to cover their intentions and practices that involve sustained, hostile, and violent activities by an organized act against a mostly defenseless population cluster, an unwanted ethnic or a religious group. This "ethnic cleansing" was first used in 1991 as a Serbian military strategy in eastern Croatia, when Serbian forces attempted to rid Croatian regions of non-Serb residents by attacking the Croats.

Another popular term during the Bosnian War was urbicide, which is the massive intentional destruction of a place and its environment, normally ending with the actual killing of a city. It is also used to describe the violence against cities motivated by ethnic-nationalist assaults to annihilate a culture. As such, the Bosnian genocide is considered an urbicide (Spencer, 2019).

The conflict first arose in Slovenia, then Croatia, and finally in Bosnia, shortly after the declaration of Bosnian independence in March 1992. It is estimated that 200,000 people died during the armed conflict and more than 2.6 million were displaced (Kritz 1999, 984). Further, more than 20,000 Bosnian Muslim

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women were raped by Bosnian Serb forces in a systematic campaign of emotional humiliation and psychological terror.

Through most of the conflict, the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo, was besieged and submitted to daily shelling and sniper attacks, first by the Yugoslav People's Army (JNA) and later by the Army of Republika Srpska (VRS). The siege of Sarajevo began on April 5, 1992, with the Srebrenica Massacre taking place three years later. The term "Bosnian Genocide" refers to both the crimes against humanity and the "ethnic cleansing" that occurred throughout the conflict or to the Srebrenica Massacre.

In 1993, the Security Council stated that Srebrenica, Sarajevo, Goradze, Zepa, Tuzla, Bihac, and other Muslim cities were going to be "safe areas" protected by UN peacekeepers. Despite this, UN Dutch peacekeeping troops were unable to stop the attacks by Bosnian Serb forces on the compound, ending in the massacre. This genocide is considered one of the greatest failures in human history, especially due to the lack of significant international action and support. It resulted in an intervention from NATO with airstrikes attacking and protecting the "safe areas", making the USA the instigator for the provision of humanitarian aid efforts in Bosnia, led by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) (Öztürk, 2019).

For its part, the European Union was not eager to make a direct intervention in Bosnia. Their concern was primarily regarding the cost of intervention, and between French and British diplomats, it was long before they came to a collective conclusion on the immediate action that was to be taken in Bosnia (Brazil Model United Nations XIX [BRAMUN], n.d.).

At first, Russia gave little importance to the conflict, but after the USSR collapsed, it had a different approach to the problem compared to the USA.

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The former nation opposed the NATO airstrikes, opting for a diplomatic solution with Serbian and the Republic of Srpska authorities, while the latter one adopted a more aggressive position, willing to send NATO airstrikes to punish the Serb forces and protect civilians (Brazil Model United Nations XIX [BRAMUN], n.d.).

According to Zekri (2016), it was estimated that by 1994, approximately two hundred thousand people were murdered and around fifty thousand were tortured in up to 800 prison camps and detention centers in Bosnia. Throughout the military conflict, a huge number of Human Rights violations occurred, such as the said “ethnic cleansing”, rape and torture that the Bosniaks suffered when Serbia, along with Bosnian Serbs, surrounded Sarajevo and attacked Bosniaks with former Yugoslavian military equipment.

Before the conflict, the population of Bosnia-Herzegovina was of 4 million, mainly composed of Bosniaks/Bosnian Muslims (44%), Serbians (31%), Croatians (17%), and Yugoslavs (8%) (United Nations Holocaust Memorial Museum [USHMM], 2013). After the military conflict, the region’s ethnic composition changed considerably, with a significant mono-ethnic demographic concentration of population in the Republika Srpska and Entity Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina became mono-ethnic with 70.40% Bosniaks, 22.44% Croats, and only 2.55% Serbs . On the other hand, the entity Republika Srpska also grew into a mono-ethnic nation with 81.51% Serbs , 13.98% Bosniaks , and only 2.41% Croats.

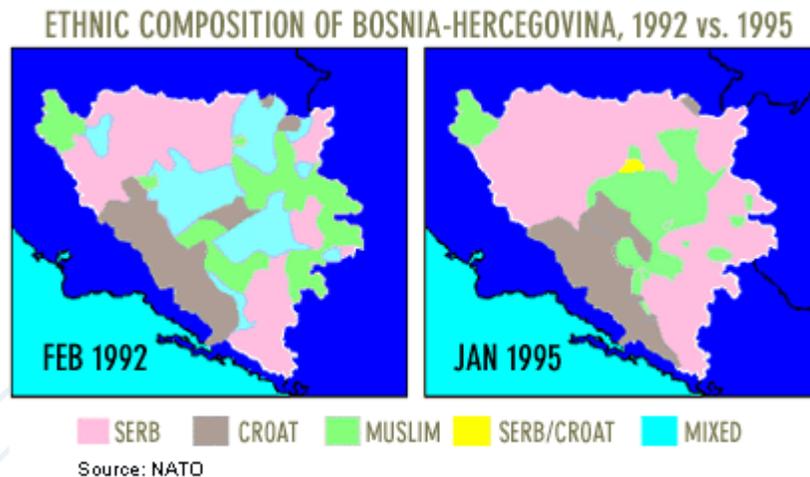
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Ethnic composition in Bosnia and Herzegovina before after the war and Srebrenica Massacre (1992- 1995)
(NATO, n.d.)

Internal conflicts, like the ones in Yugoslavia, are becoming more and more prevalent around the world. These conflicts give rise to a large number of refugees and many people suffering from violence, abuse, discrimination, among others. Hundreds of lives have been lost in the armed conflicts, and thousands of others are displaced. Moreover, even when the conflicts are over, most of the refugees won't feel safe returning to the place from where they were expelled.

Historical Background

Yugoslavia was created after World War I when the territories of Croat, Slovenia, and Bosnia united with the Serbian Kingdom after the defeat of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. However, during World War II, the Nazis took over the control of the country and divided it between the four Axis powers. In 1946, the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was formed when Josip

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Broz Tito, with the help of Yugoslav Partisans (also known as the National Liberation Army), freed the country from German control.

From 1946 to 1980, Josip Tito was the governor of Yugoslavia. He managed to keep Yugoslavia together, despite its mix of nationalities, religions, ethnicities, and languages, and converted the multiethnic State to a member of the Communist Party. As expected, his death brought up significant changes, and, without him, Yugoslavia was divided into 6 republics: Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Bosnia, and Herzegovina (Allcock, 2020).

This is where the territory was divided by populaces; there were too many, but the main ones are the following: the Serbs (Orthodox Christians); the Croats (Christian Catholics); the Bosnians (Muslims); and finally, the Albanians (also Muslim).

As mentioned before, Josip Tito oversaw maintaining order and peace, even when he faced some problems trying to keep it due to the ethnic and cultural differences that existed between the republics in Yugoslavia repressing nationalism and separatist movements, but when he died, the populace, who had previously had problems with each other, unleashed themselves with nationalist movements and actions.

Chiefly, the acts that began to be more notorious in the territory of Serbia, which was the largest territory. In 1989, a man named Slobodan Milošević became president of Serbia and began to give more nationalist speeches, encouraging the hatred that the territory already had and ending Josip Tito's peace and order. His main objective was to expand the Serbian territory to other republics, creating what is known as Greater Serbia. The other republics did not agree with the idea, in response, the republics of Slovenia and Macedonia declared themselves independent in 1991. During that time,

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Albanians also started to grow in numbers, something the Serbs interpreted as a loss of power.

When Croatia wanted to become independent in 1991, Serbia reacted by sending armed forces since a large part of Serbs lived in Croatia, thus creating the beginning of a civil-military conflict that still remains. Due to the continuing fighting, and the increasing tensions in the territory, the United Nations Security Council decided through resolution 713 to impose a complete embargo on all deliveries of arms and military equipment to Yugoslavia until the Council considered necessary.

However, that did not stop other nations of the Balkans region from becoming independent. Bosnia and Herzegovina also wanted to have their independence, but given the region's ethnic composition of Bosnians (mostly Muslims) and Serbs, not all civilians were willing to separate from Yugoslavia. On March 3, 1992, Bosniak President, Alija Izetbegovic, was able to declare their independence. Most of the population accepted it, with the exception of the Serb minority in that territory, who even boycotted the referendum while 64% of the population voted for independence (Gul & Ozturk, 2021). From the Serbian minority emerged a new leader named Radovan Karadzic.

Before long, the people who rejected that independence formed their own State within Bosnia with Karadzic at the helm. His main objective was to be able to unite his republic with Serbia to create the previously mentioned Greater Serbia using the Yugoslav armed forces he'd managed to control. His followers began to take some Bosnian towns, most of the border with Serbia.

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Historical boundaries of the Balkans from 1919 to 1992
(Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc., n.d.)

On April 5, 1992, Bosnian Serbs encircled the capital of Sarajevo, occupying nearly 70% of Bosnia Herzegovina's land to get territory for Greater Serbia (Staff, 2008). They wanted to expel Bosniaks and Croats from the region through the process of "ethnic cleansing" (History.com Editors, 2019), and this is when people (especially Muslims) started fleeing to be able to get to safety in order to avoid being killed.

The Army of Republika Srpska (VRS) blocked any road that led to the city, shut the airport, cut off the electricity, the water, and the suppliers of food and medicines. More than 400,000 civilians were trapped in the siege and most had to face roundups, mass executions, confinement in concentration camps, torture, and systematic rape (United States Holocaust Memorial Museum [USHMM], 2013). Bosnia's cultural heritage was further threatened when the invaders destroyed historical archives, monuments, books, and unique manuscripts. Another factor that contributed to the fall of Sarajevo was the armed embargo established by the UN, which allowed the Serbs to occupy a position of overwhelming military dominance and deprived the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina for its right to defend itself, as provided for in the Charter of the United Nations (El País, 1999).

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Near the beginning of August 1992, the international community noticed the war crimes committed in the former Yugoslavia territories and recognized the actions carried out in Serbian concentration camps as genocide. Thereupon, the UN decided to provide aid and protection for the population of Sarajevo. They managed to regain control of the airport from the Serbs and in 1993, they constructed a tunnel under the airport that allowed the entry of food, medicines, and armament from the mountains outside Serbia's control to the city (Lety, 2020). On May 25 of the same year, the United Nations Security Council established the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) taking place in the Balkans to prosecute those responsible for the crimes of murder, torture, rape, enslavement, genocide, among others.

Despite the situation, the UN refused to military interfere in the Bosnia War, leading to UN Ambassador Diego Arria's 1993 proposal to declare Srebrenica, Zepa, and Gorazde (places of refuge for most people) areas under protection from the UN, with nearly 400 Dutch peacekeepers placed in Srebrenica. Although that did not help much, no other UN action was taken by the Security Council until July 1995, when the Serbian armed forces took the city of Srebrenica, marking the Srebrenica Massacre's beginning.

David Rohde, a reporter for the Christian Science Monitor, has published a series of articles depicting the conflict, spanning from August to present day. Below, a summary of his findings will be added to provide context and create a timeline that sheds light on the situation in Srebrenica.

August 18, 1995; Eyewitness Report Supports Charges by US of Killings.

Seven days before the publication of Rohde's piece, The Guardian published an article describing images obtained by several US spy planes and satellites monitoring the area, which showed large areas of freshly disturbed earth and leading to the first claims of mass killings (Tran, 1995). These concerns only

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grew once Rohde, the newspaper's Eastern Europe correspondent, paid a visit to the area. Among the things he found were what appeared to be a human leg, decomposing in the overturned dirt; evidence of people being locked up, and perhaps even shot, at a soccer stadium near the city; empty ammunition boxes near the disturbed area; and personal belongings of Serbian Muslims, such as diplomas and photos, scattered nearby.

At the time, UN officials estimated between 4,000 and 6,000 Muslim men were missing from the area after the assaults, with little to no evidence they were being held prisoner. US Ambassador Madeline Albright stated the aforementioned pictures proved at least 2,700 Bosnian Muslims were executed and buried. This information was corroborated by an elderly Muslim refugee, who gave an account of his escape; he was left for dead among the corpses of his fellow prisoners and escaped before the pile was pushed into the mass grave. Serbian officials denied all accusations (Rohde, 1995a).

October 2, 1995; Bosnian Muslims Were Killed by the Truckload. Rohde and The Christian Science Monitor were able to interview nine witnesses, all Muslim men who claim to have survived execution. These accounts were deemed credible given the fact that they both corroborated the other survivors' stories and that they matched the physical evidence described previously. According to the survivors, up to 2,000 prisoners were executed near Karakaj alone. Other events described by the witnesses include the capture of around 400 elderly and sick men who had either been expelled or turned away from the UN compound by peacekeepers; Bosnian Serb officers driving UN personnel carriers who escorted prisoners from Bratunac to Karakaj; captured men being beaten, tortured and robbed before their execution; and multiple sightings of Serbian general Mladic. Out of the 10,000 men that escaped Srebrenica on August 11, around 3,700 remained missing (Rohde, 1995b).

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October 24, 1995; Serbia Held Responsible For Massacre Of Bosnians. A report published by Human Rights Watch (1995) on October 15 criticized the dutch peacekeeping mission's failure to protect the UN "safe area". Two weeks later, Rohde wrote another article in light of Slobodan Milosevic's visit to the US. By then, investigators believed between 3,000 and 4,000 had been executed in the massacre (Rohde, 1995c). Five days after the publication of this article, David Rohde was arrested by Serbian officials for espionage. He was released on November 8 after international pressure.

November 16, 1995; Graves Found That Confirm Bosnia Massacre. Yesterday, Rohde summarized his three month long investigation into the Srebrenica Massacre in a final article. From July 14 to 16, up to 5,000 Muslim prisoners were executed following orders from General Mladic. The US found evidence of at least 6 mass graves, four of which were visited by the Christian Science Monitor. Although Serb officials claimed the executions had been carried out in an effort to demilitarize the area, evidence that the victims were civilians was found. Among these, there were a crutch, 3 canes, 100 civilian jackets, photos with Muslim names written on them, civilian IDs, and eyeglasses.

The International Committee of the Red Cross reported that 8,500 Srebrenican men are still unaccounted for, with 3,700 of them last seen in Serb custody. "US officials estimate that as many as 6,000 Muslims were executed by the Serbs. War crimes investigators estimate that 4,000 to 6,000 Muslims were massacred" (Rohde, 1995d). The United Nations International Crime Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia has indicted Radovan Karadzic and Ratko Mladic once more for their crimes in Srebrenica. In its press release, the tribunal stated:

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They are charged with: Genocide, Crimes against humanity and Violations of the laws or customs of war, for: - the summary executions of Bosnian Muslim men and women in and around the UN-Military compound of Potocari (12 and 13 July 1995), - the summary executions of Bosnian Muslim men who were hors-de-combat because of injuries, surrender or capture after fleeing into the woods towards Tuzla (between 13 July and 22 July 1995), - the summary executions of Bosnian Muslim men which occurred at mass execution sites in and around Karakaj (on or about 14 July 1995) (1995).

International Actions

Given the worsening situation in Bosnia and the growing discontent with US policy, in May 1995, Tony Lake (American diplomat and political advisor who served as the 18 United States National Security Advisor) first began to consider how US policy toward Bosnia might be changed in a more productive direction.

For nearly a year, the United States and its Contact Group partners (Britain, France, Germany, and Russia) had sought to pressure the Bosnian Serb leadership headquartered in Pale into agreeing to commence serious negotiations by convincing Milosevic to cut off economic and, especially, military assistance to the Bosnian Serbs. Despite being offered various incentives (including direct negotiations with the United States and the suspension of UN economic sanctions), Milosevic never followed through. Even when it became clear that the attacks in Srebrenica were being planned, the international community did not offer the UN peacekeepers stationed there additional support or assistance. Providing humanitarian aid instead of confronting atrocities against civilians was the central focus of the international response to the conflict in Bosnia. Turkish private individuals and groups

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financially supported the Bosnian Muslims, hundreds of Turks joined as volunteers. The greatest private aid came from Islamist groups, such as the Islamic Relief, the IHH, however other NGOs, like the International Committee of the Red Cross, also delivered humanitarian aid.

Islamic Relief. This agency was founded in 1984 in the United Kingdom in order to address key issues that affect the world, like climate change, gender justice, peacebuilding, child protection, and inclusion. It was one of the first non-governmental organizations to provide humanitarian aid during the Bosnian War. They distributed food, water, clothes, and other essentials around their offices and warehouses of the region. They also helped to reconstruct buildings that were damaged by the siege of Sarajevo and provided support to the orphaned children and vulnerable families (Islamic Relief, n.d.).

Foundation for Human Rights and Freedoms and Humanitarian Relief (IHH). In 1992, a group of Islamic volunteers created the IHH to provide aid to Bosnian Muslims during the armed conflict with the Serbs. They were the first NGO that broke the siege in Sarajevo to give aid and report the war crimes that happened in Bosnia to the rest of the world (Foundation for Human Rights and Freedoms and Humanitarian Relief [IHH], n.d.).

International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC). When the armed conflict started in Croatia in 1991, the ICRC established a long-term presence in the region. The ICRC is an independent, neutral organization established in 1863 that furnishes humanitarian assistance for victims of situations of violence to protect their lives (International Committee of the Red Cross, n.d.).

During the Bosnian War, this committee delivered massive amounts of essential supplies, such as food, shelter materials, and medicines, aiding

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civilians from dying of hunger, cold, or disease. The programme was the biggest and most expensive project the ICRC had at that time, laying out more than 47 million Swiss francs on medical assistance.

It is worth stressing that the ICRC was the only major humanitarian organization to operate outside the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) framework. Near the end of the conflict, it had visited more than 54,000 detainees around 500 places, reunited over 4,500 families, evacuated almost 5,000 civilians to Croatia, and distributed 100,000 metric tons of food. Furthermore, the ICRC staff received pre-deployment security training to handle some threats, like shelling, snipping, and landmines. Unfortunately, nine members of their staff were killed in the Srebrenica Massacre (Young, 2001).

Caritas Bosnia and Herzegovina. Caritas' mission is to coordinate support and emergency operations regarding conflicts and disasters. The institution of Bosnia and Herzegovina was founded in 1995 to aid the humanitarian crisis of the Bosnian War and coordinate other responses of the Caritas Network. It is a Catholic non-governmental charity organization that operates out of Croatia to usually deliver humanitarian supplies to territories nearby Croatia and Serbia (Caritas Europa, 2021; Cutts, 1999).

Médicines Sans Frontières (MSF). Also known as Doctors without Borders, MSF is a non-profit independent medical organization established in 1971 in Paris. They provide medical assistance to victims of natural and man-made disasters, as well as for victims of armed conflicts.

In 1993, MSF opened a medical and health programme in Srebrenica and informed the media about the situation in the nation. In fact, they were one of the few who alerted the international community about the lack of protection of

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the civilians living in the “safe areas” when the enclaves were attacked in 1994. A team of MSF volunteers was present during the Srebrenica Massacre, however, after the July 11 attack, twenty-two members and hospital employees were reported dead or missing (Médecins Sans Frontières International Movement, 2015).

UN Actions

The UN peacekeeping mission in Bosnia started in 1992 after the war began as Bosnian Serbs tried to achieve independence from Bosnia-Herzegovina and join with Serbia. Although the UN force was extremely important in helping Bosnia’s impoverished population, much of the fighting could not be stopped where there were approximately 25,000 troops.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). The UN High Commissioner for Refugees led an operation aiding those displaced, malnourished, and needing medical treatment as a result of the war. The program is considered one of the most complex the organization has ever carried out and managed to coordinate a humanitarian airlift into Sarajevo to deliver more than 160,000 tons of humanitarian assistance and to distribute over 950,00 tons of humanitarian relief supplies to 2.7 million Bosnia civilians. Moreover, the UNHCR was in charge of coordinating almost the whole humanitarian operation in the region because in 1992 they were established by the General Secretary as the lead UN agency for delivery assistance in the Balkans. In addition, UNHCR helped journalists to cross-frontier lines and report the armed situation (Young, 2001).

United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR). A few days after the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) approved the resolution 819 to make Srebrenica a “safe place” in response to the conflict, an agreement was signed in which it was requested the full cessation of violence in Srebrenica, the

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demilitarization of the enclave, and the transfer of the United Nation Protection Forces (UNPROFOR) to Srebrenica since they were previously established in Croatia. In said place, the UNPROFOR established a small command center and a larger main compound five kilometers to the north of the town of Potočari. The UNPROFOR was looking to supervise the demilitarization of the region from these bases.

UNPROFOR's main mission was to ensure the protection of the "safe areas" established by the UNSC and to assist UNHCR in the effective delivery of humanitarian assistance. They accomplished to keep some of the country's key routes open. Some UNPROFOR missions, however, were unsuccessful due to the failure of improving the access for other humanitarian organizations to the government enclaves surrendered by Bosnian forces. The problem was that they needed to ask permission from Bosnian Serb authorities for safe passage through its territory, so UNHCR convoys sometimes were not having any real protection (Cutts, 1999).

In April 1993, troops roamed the enclave every six months with the arrival of the original UNPROFOR force contingent and in March 1995, the president and supreme leader of the armed forces of the self-proclaimed Republika Srpska, Radovan Karadžić, ordered Bosnian Serb forces to expel the Muslim population from the enclaves of Srebrenica and Žepa. On May 25, NATO attacked their armament depot; the next day the Serb forces took hostage over 200 UNPROFOR troops and used them as human shields against the NATO airstrikes (Birn, 2018).

United Nations Security Council (UNSC).

Resolution 770 (1992). In 1992, the Security Council emitted the resolution 770, in which the organ expresses its concern and urgency to send

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humanitarian assistance wherever needed in Bosnia and Herzegovina, requests that all parties and other States provide support for the actions in order to pursue the resolution, and exhorts that said States to report to the Secretary-General on the measures that are being taken along with the UN to accomplish this resolution (UNSC, 1992a).

Resolution 776 (1992). Later on, that same year, resolution 776 was released. In this resolution, the Security Council (SC) highlighted the importance of aerial measures, such as the ban on military flights that could strengthen the security of humanitarian activities in Bosnia and Herzegovina; authorizes the enlargement of UNPROFOR's mandate and strength, including the protection of convoys of retained detainees if requested by the International Committee of the Red Cross; and urges that, through national or regional agencies, Member States provide with financial or other assistance to the secretary-general as he considers appropriate (UNSC, 1992b).

Resolution 758 (1992). Noting the continuation of the fighting in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Security Council approved resolution 758. It authorized the Secretary-General to display the military observers, related personnel, and equipment required for the condemnations to all the parties and others that are responsible for violations of the cease-fire established on the agreement of June 5, 1992, on the reopening of the Sarajevo Airport for humanitarian purposes.

It contained modalities for the demilitarization of Sarajevo Airport, removal of obstacles currently preventing the airport from operating, and guarantees from all parties for the mobility of aircraft, airport workers, and humanitarian personnel ("PA-X: Peace Agreements Database," 2021). It was annexed to the report of the Secretary-General and requests that all parties and others concerned fully cooperate with the force and international humanitarian

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organizations to create the needed conditions for the unimpeded delivery of humanitarian supplies to Sarajevo and other places in Bosnia and Herzegovina (UNSC, 1992c).

Resolution 761 (1992). After taken in consideration the progress towards securing the evacuation of Sarajevo airport and its reopening by UNPROFOR, resolution 761 authorizes the Secretary-General to deploy additional elements of the United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) to ensure the security and functioning of Sarajevo airport and the delivery of humanitarian assistance to Sarajevo and its environs. It also urges all parties and others concerned to comply fully in maintaining an absolute and unconditional cease-fire and contribute to the international humanitarian efforts for the second time (UNSC, 1992d).

Resolution 764 (1992). Resolution 764 authorizes the Secretary-General to deploy additional UNPROFOR elements for the security and operation of the Sarajevo airport; urges all States the provision of humanitarian assistance; and reiterates its call on all parties to comply with the agreement of June 5, 1992, and to put an end to any hostile military activity in Bosnia-Herzegovina. It demanded that all parties fully cooperate with UNPROFOR and international humanitarian agencies for the evacuation by air of cases of special humanitarian concern and take the necessary measures to ensure the safety of UNPROFOR personnel (UNSC, 1992e).

Resolution 824 (1993). Resolution 824 calls to cease all taking of territory by force and declared that the capital city of Sarajevo and other threatened areas, in particular the cities of Tuzla, Zepa, Gorazde, Bihac, among others, must be treated as safe areas, free of armed attacks and any other hostile acts (UNSC, 1993a).

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Resolution 836 (1993). Resolution 836 decides to guarantee full respect of the safe areas mentioned in resolution 824. For this purpose, it extended the mandate of UNPROFOR. This resolution allowed to deter attacks against the mentioned safe areas, promote the withdrawal of military units other than those of Bosnia and Herzegovina and occupy points on the ground, in addition to participating in the delivery of humanitarian aid; affirmed that these areas safe are temporary and that the main objective remained to allow people displaced from their homes in Bosnia and Herzegovina to return to their homes (UNSC, 1993b).

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). Since 1992, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) air force has been monitoring and enforcing the UN no-fly zone to prevent airstrikes over Bosnia and Herzegovina and provide support in case UN peacekeepers are threatened. On February 28, 1994, NATO led its first armed intervention to handle four Bosnian Serb warplanes carrying out a bombing mission in the zone. As a NATO member, Turkey supported and participated in NATO operations, including sending 18 F-16 planes that participated in the previously mentioned attack. Its latest operation was on May 26, 1995, when NATO aircrafts attacked the Serb stronghold of Pale to destroy the heavy armament of the Serbs (Clinton, 2020).

Points to Discuss

1. Context

- a. Actions that should have been taken then
 - i. Eased tensions between Bosniaks, Bosnian Serb forces, and Croats.
 - ii. Guaranteeing the safety of civilians
 - iii. International humanitarian aid
 - iv. Serb nationalism

- v. Tracking missing persons

2. Development

- a. Effectiveness of UN missions
 - i. Earlier access to UN humanitarian aid convoys
 - ii. Insufficient safeguarding of regions declared to be “safe areas”
 - iii. Lack of resources
 - iv. Why was the UNPROFOR unable to protect Srebrenica?
 - v. Why did the international community not offer additional support to UN peacekeepers when the situation became unstable?
 - vi. If the dutch troops had been well-equipped and adequately armed, could they have stopped the massacre of July 11, 1995?
- b. How can we prevent this in future conflicts?
- c. Since the beginning of the conflict, the UN and international leaders had refused to confront the Bosnian Serbs, fearing strong action would complicate peace negotiations or jeopardize humanitarian aid efforts. Could all of this have been prevented by confronting the Bosnian Serbs?
- d. Tardiness and poor timing of international aid.
- e. Was there something that any country could have done to stop it? If so, how?

3. Consequences

- a. Learning from the conflict
 - i. Avoiding actions that may lead to similar conflicts
 - 1. Providing humanitarian aid instead of confronting atrocities against civilians.
 - 2. Establishing peacekeeping measures to avoid armed conflicts.

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- ii. Justice for humanitarian crimes
 1. Assisting actively in the efforts of the International War Crimes Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia to identify, prosecute, and punish war criminals and to prevent war crimes.
 2. Investigating the conduct of UN troops



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