

The Doon School Model United
Nations Conference 2017

BACKGROUND GUIDE



UNITED NATIONS
HISTORICAL SECURITY
COUNCIL

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DSMUN '17

ABOUT DSMUN

The Doon School Model United Nations Conference is one of India's biggest and most reputed high school MUN conference. Inaugurated in 2007, the Doon School Model United Nations Society has consistently hosted a series of engaging, entertaining and intellectually stimulating conferences, with each leaving a unique legacy behind it. DSMUN has grown to be one of the key entries in every MUNning calendar. DSMUN has a history of attracting the best of, both, the Indian and the international delegates from the Pan-Asiatic Region. Over the years, DSMUN has never failed to surprise, with an array of committees ranging from the orthodox to specialised and unconventional simulations, from the regional to the international and covering a range of time periods.

The Doon School, one of India's most reputed and prestigious institutions, is a member of the G20 Group of Schools, The Headmasters' and Headmistresses' Conference, The International Boys' Schools Coalition and the Round Square Conference. With its motto, "Knowledge our Light", the school aims to mold its students into leaders for the future and gentlemen of service. Model United Nations has now become one of the largest and most popular activities in school with over 200 students being involved in it. The beautiful and serene 72 acre Chandbagh estate, in which the school is set, creates a scenic backdrop to the challenging and pertinent issues being discussed.

The DSMUN Secretariat is proud to host The 11th Doon School Model United Nations Conference from the 18th to the 20th of August, 2017. Popularly referred to as DSMUN '17, this year's conference promises to engage delegates with 14 diverse committees, each of which will discuss various relevant, thought-provoking agendas.

We look forward to seeing you in Dehradun later this year as the rains drench the Chadbagh estate.

Crises to keep you on your toes, unforgettable memories, interesting new people to meet and an experience worth a lifetime! DSMUN '17 will have it all.

DSMUN '17



Divij Mullick
SECRETARY GENERAL

Deep Dhandhanian
PRESIDENT

Someone
CHAIRPERSON

Someone
CRISIS DIRECTOR

Someone
Someone
DEPUTY CHAIRPERSONS

A LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY GENERAL

Greetings!

It gives us great pleasure to welcome you all to the 11th Doon School Model United Nations Conference. Over the years, DSMUN has grown into one of the finest and most reputed high school MUN conferences in the country. This year too we hope to deliver the goods and make this year's session an unforgettable one. With agendas ranging from religious turmoil in the Middle East to the manhunt for Edward Snowden and Julian Assange, this year's simulations promise to be exciting, engaging and challenging.

I am a Humanities student and have a keen interest in Economics and History. Besides being a MUNner, I am a passionate theatre person and public speaker. I also have an interest in cricket and boxing.

I have served DSMUN in various capacities ranging from the Secretariat to being a delegate and eventually the Vice-president. DSMUN is an activity which has been very important to me during my school life and this time I am excited to head this very significant event.

I am indeed honoured to be working with such an accomplished and hard-working team on the Executive Board and look forward to a memorable time this fall!

Warm Regards,
(Divij Mullick)

DSMUN '17



Divij Mullick
SECRETARY GENERAL

Deep Dhandhanian
PRESIDENT

Someone
CHAIRPERSON

Someone
CRISIS DIRECTOR

Someone
Someone
DEPUTY CHAIRPERSONS

A LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT

Greetings!

It is an honour and privilege to welcome all of you to the 11th Doon School Model United Nations Conference. Over the years, DSMUN has grown to be one of the most prestigious and competitive high school conferences in the country, and we hope that this year's conference will be a bigger success. With fourteen different committees ranging from the All India Political Parties Meet to the United Nations High Commission for Refugees, we have strived to design an exciting and engaging conference for participating delegates.

I have been involved in DSMUN for the past 5 years in various capacities including Media and the Secretariat. I have an avid interest in history, politics and international affairs and wish to pursue international relations in college. I am also a passionate hockey player and the Editor-in Chief of The Doon School Yearbook.

This year, Divij and I hope to make this conference a successful and a truly memorable experience for one and all.

Looking forward to meet all of you at Chandbagh this August!

Warm Regards,
(Deep Dhandhanian)

DSMUN '17



Divij Mullick
SECRETARY GENERAL

Deep Dhandhania
PRESIDENT

Ishan Jhawar
CHAIRPERSON

Someone
CRISIS DIRECTOR

Someone
Someone
DEPUTY CHAIRPERSONS

A LETTER FROM THE CHAIRPERSON

Hello delegates,

Welcome to the Historic Security Council at DSMUN 2017.

My name is Ishan Jhawar and I am honored to be your chairperson this year. I'm in the twelfth standard and pursuing (atleast trying to pursue) the International Baccalaureate.

My journey in MUNing began as a mere chitboy at DSMUN. I have ever since been in love with the heated debate, dynamics, tensions and diplomacy involved in it and am now an avid munner. It is my first time as a chairperson and I aim to create an unforgettable experience for you all at DSMUN this year.

To tell you a little but about myself, I love playing table tennis and have even played at various state and national levels. I enjoy playing hockey, serving the community and writing on issues pertaining to economics and International Relations.

I am extremely excited to be heading the Historical Security council this year, and I expect a high level of research and preparation from the delegates. The agendas selected for this year are undoubtedly going to challenge the delegates on a myriad of levels, hopefully being exciting and engaging at the same time. I look forward to skillful diplomacy and heated debate in committee.

Do feel free to reach out to me for any and all concerns you may have.

I can't wait to meet you all at Chandbagh this year!

Sincerely,

(Ishan Jhawar)

Chairperson – Historic Security Council.

"History, despite its wrenching pain, cannot be unlived, but if faced with courage, need not be lived again."

— Maya Angelou

AGENDA 1: IRAN IN 1979

INTRODUCTION

In December of 1979, Iran was in a situation of vulnerability and uncertainty as the repercussions of a revolution. Few Iranians saw the revolution as a period of fearlessness and sacrifice for a greater good i.e. the Islamic State. Others trusted that this was a period during which the general population had lost touch with reality. Many also were under the impression that the leaders had guaranteed that a move in both political power and beliefs would free Iran of its dependence on other foreign nations and enhance the quality of life for its residents making Iran truly, sovereign. In 1978 and 1979 itself, approximately 2,781 protestors and revolutionaries were killed. Alongside this, the exiled Ayatollah Khomeini; the newly self-appointed supreme leader and a person who was hostile towards Shah, was building another government in the city of Tehran. These circumstances sent a ripple of political instability and tensions throughout the globe. The United Kingdom lost its stake in Iran's oil reserves. Ayatollah Khomeini housed himself in France as he designed strategies for the Islamic

Republic of Iran. It remained obscure whether the French government was just offering him political shelter, or were clandestinely aiding and abetting his plans for the revolution. The United States of America had to deal with one of the most remarkable and surprising hostage crisis of the century. The Middle East expected the unsteadiness in Iran would spread to different states. The Security Council faced a predicament of their own i.e. to maintain the sovereignty of the Iranian state and at the same time also maintain international peace and security.



HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The latter half of the twentieth century was a tortuous time for Iran. In 1941, Reza Shah Pahlavi was deposed in favour of his son, Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, the Shah whose health concerns provided the ignition point for the hostage crisis. The coup that attempted to oust the first Shah was supported by the USSR and the UK. These Allied powers did so to guarantee that oil-rich Iran doesn't supply oil to the Axis Powers. By introducing the new Shah, the Allies could secure Iranian oil for the rest of the war. In the middle of the two Pahlavi rulers, there was a short period of democracy, after which there was a coup d'état supported by USA and United Kingdom, which brought the second Shah to control in 1953. The United States was compelled to take part in this coup keeping in mind its interests, i.e. to re-establish its oil dominance in Iran. As a major aspect of the Shah's reform programs,

he initialized the "White Revolution", which broke apart large land holdings, thereby effectively ending feudalism in Iran, and allowed religious minorities to hold office. These changes made the religious conservatives, driven by Ruhollah Khomeini, to get agitated with the government. The religious conservatism of Khomeini's group was based on the restoration of Shi'a belief system that was spreading all through Iran at the time. Khomeini's faction demanded the return of customary Islamic beliefs, and considered Westernization a path through which Muslim countries become pawns in Western-centric geopolitics. After the White Revolution, Khomeini was captured and exiled and the general population of Iran held riots for three days straight to demonstrate their support for the banished Ayatollah Khomeini. The Shah's rule was rather too Western if compared to the Iran of today. The free enterprise of the West

had pervaded Iranian culture; much to the dislike of Ayatollah and this coupled with the spending by the Shah was the cause of resentment of a large segment of the Iranian people. Economic inconveniences created by development from oil incomes, overall changes that incorporated the privatization of land once possessed by religious groups and inflation altogether added to this predicament. All of these components led to the Iranian Revolution of 1979 and eventual overthrow of the Shah who was replaced by Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini. The Iranian Revolution resulted in many losses, mostly because of fights between the military and protesters, with



evaluations extending from 3,000 to 60,000. Militarization was not the Shah's main technique used for quelling the revolution. Rather, he favoured peaceful negotiation over direct battle. With Khomeini being the direct cause of the revolution,

Shah's administration started falling apart and the general population carried out demonstrations in

the streets. In general, the deposition of the Shah amazed, most interior and exterior observers as the Shah was abruptly overthrown after Khomeini came back from the exile. After his overthrow, the Shah took asylum in Egypt, and later Morocco, the Bahamas, and Mexico. When he was in need of an urgent gallbladder surgery, worsened by cancer, the Shah approached the United States for treatment. At the point when President Carter grudgingly gave permission the Shah to be treated in the US. He unprecedentedly put into action the ultimate straw that pushed the already fervent anti-Western sentiment of the Iranian people over the edge as the Shah was public enemy. As a result the US embassy in Tehran was seized. There were two attempts before an effective takeover, which took place in February and September of 1979, with the successful seizure occurring on November 4, 1979. The last takeover was led by a student body, known as the 'Followers'. This body raged the government office, eventually taking 52 American nationals as hostages. The students demanded that the United States extradite the Shah to Iran to be stand trial, apologize for its mediation in Iranian undertakings and unfreeze Iranian assets taken after the oust of the Shah.

CURRENT SITUATION

The late 1970s was an unpredictable time in the history of Iran. In 1979 the Shah of Iran, Mohammed Reza Pahlavi, the leader of the government backed by the United States, was overthrown in the Iranian Revolution. The revolution originated from dissents that the Shah was excessively inclined towards western ideals. At this point in time, the Iranian people were disappointed with what they saw as unnecessary waste and extravagant spending by the Shah. This agitation exacerbated by financial slips and allegations of social injustice. The Shah was overthrown, and Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini was put to power as the Supreme Leader of a new Theocratic Islamic Republic.

Later when the Shah was admitted for treatment in the United States, the Iranians rebelled against the

American mediation in Iranian undertakings, which the Iranians took as American collaboration with the crimes committed by the Shah against his own people i.e. the Iranians. They requested that the Shah be extradited back to Iran to stand for a trial for the crimes he had committed while in power. In light of the refuge conceded to the Shah by the United States, many attempts were made to take control of the US embassy in Tehran, with gradual accomplishment on November 4th 1979. It is this hostage situation this advisory group will inspect. This committee starts instantly after President Carter gets news of the circumstance in Tehran. He gathers this meeting in a secret location (referred as Camp David). Any move that is made, be it negotiation or attack or otherwise is up to the discretion of the committee.

A definitive objective is to secure the release of the prisoners and bring them home to American soil. At the commencement of the hostage crisis, the Iranian government is in a condition of total confusion. Ayatollah Khomeini, who has of power and popular support, has executed most of the Shah's inner circle. Although Khomeini holds the aforementioned, he is not yet the head of the government. The legislature as of now has been alluded to being in a "revolutionary crisis mode". Economically, Iran is still to completely recover from a short however fierce recession that occurred from 1977-1978, and other monetary changes that were made under the rule of the Shah. Because of protests against westernization by the Iranian individuals, driven by the Ayatollah, there is a profound shift towards religious philosophy that permeates nearly each and every part of day to day life, from clothing to eating

to education. In the meantime, the United States has quite recently started to rise from a period of "stagflation", portrayed by increasing interest rates joined unemployment and, a diminished economy. The US is amidst the Cold War with the USSR, as opposed to the re-established social conservatism exhibit in Iran at the time, the United States was also experiencing a time of radical social change.



DETAILS AND DESCRIPTION OF THE TIME

Reza Shah Pahlavi ruled over Iran from 1925 to 1941. Keeping in mind the end goal to secure his position as the shah i.e. the ruler of Iran, he ousted the previous shah of the Qajar Dynasty, Ahmad Mirza. Often described as immature and under qualified for ruling, Ahmed Shah's organization was filled with corruption. The United Kingdom upheld Reza Shah amidst his coup in order to become Shah. The United Kingdom wanted to secure its oil advantages in Iran but the leader of Iran was a nationalist, who would like to hold Iranian oil solely under the control of the Iranian government. Thus, the United Kingdom would experience issues in achieving its objective. In this manner, the United Kingdom upheld and supported Reza Shah, who was less nationalistic and aimed at maintaining positive relations with Western States. Once Reza Shah Pahlavi came to power, he looked to reconstruct Iran in such a way such that it would be more modernized. One of the most striking aspects of Reza Shah's rule was his concept of having a strong standing army in order to attain his goal. He likewise perceived that he would require adequate finances so as to maintain his control. He incapacitated and settled tribal groups around Iran and in the process put a stop to the

turbulence they caused. Some Iranians assert that this was a positive part of Reza Shah's administration since, it reduced violence in the nearby region while on the other hand; some Iranians were convinced that the settlement was a negative change on the grounds that the government was meddling with the traditional Iranian tribal practices. Some of Reza Shah's other triumphs incorporated the creation of the Trans-Iranian Railway from 1927 to 1938, his call for the secularization of women by encouraging them to remove their veil and the nationalization of Iranian finances and communication which before his coming to power was with outsiders. He was also a great believer of education and building schools. He set up the first college in Iran in 1934. Reza Shah achieved numerous things during his rule, yet they were all undertaken on account of one objective: modernization. The rule of Reza Shah concentrated on two principle objectives: modernizing Iran and liberating it from its dependence on foreign aid. Though United Kingdom at first helped Reza Shah's rise to power, the Shah's main objective was to diminish dependency on other nations, including the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom had a noteworthy involvement in Iranian oil through the

Anglo-Iranian Oil Company; Reza Shah looked to diminish this British impact in Iranian issues.. With a specific end goal to relieve British obstruction, Pahlavi partnered Iran with the Soviet Union and Germany—at the time, Germany was one of Iran's chief exchange accomplices of non-military merchandise, responsible for forty percent of Iran's trade. Keeping in mind the end goal to set this organization together, Reza Shah designated a few Germans as his counsels. But it so happened that after the German attack on Russia amidst the Second World War, the allied forces were worried that Pahlavi was allied with the German government and along these lines, the allies called for Pahlavi to reject his German counsellors and in the end cut-off ties with Germany. Pahlavi declined and therefore because of his refusal, he confronted a British and Soviet invasion on Iran under the appearance of finding a supply course for the universal exchange of different merchandise. Pahlavi was compelled to venture down on September 1941. His child, Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, had his spot as pioneer of Iran.

Before World War II ended, Iran was a desirable financial accomplice for both pro Western and pro Soviet nations because of the state's oil holdings. Nonetheless, But in June of 1950 when General Ali Razmara became the Prime Minister of Iran, open support developed for the nationalization of Iran's oil industry. The Prime Minister was killed in March of 1951 because of his estrangement of a few residential political groups. Nevertheless, even without the late leader, Iran was on the way towards the nationalization of its resources. As a result of this domestic bolster, Mohammad Mossadegh was designated Prime Minister, in place of Razmara, which enraged the British. The nationalization of Iranian oil was a risk to British control of the area's assets; the United Kingdom cautioned Iran that any endeavour to procure British oil properties without deliberations would result in grave outcomes. The British tried to send a mission to Iran to talk about the issue, yet the Iranian government declined the mission. Iran and the Prime Minister Mossadegh pushed ahead with for nationalizing the oil industry. By July 1952, Mossadegh surrendered. Many hold

this to be an immediate after-effect of the developing friction between the Shah and Mossadegh over oil. The Shah's absence of support for Mossadegh's expanded association in Iran's defence planning may have moreover added to Mossadegh's resignation. Ahmed Ghavam, an important figure in Iranian legislative issues, assumed control as Prime Minister. Three days of revolting followed. Protestors called Ghavam a "worker of the British," supporting Mossadegh's hostile (towards United Kindom) ways. While Ghavam guaranteed the Iranian people after his arrangement that he would retain some of Mossadegh's nationalistic strategies, the protestors were not convinced. Almost thirty years preceding the transformation of 1979, the Iranian individuals were careful about impedance in their issues, especially, any obstruction from the West. At last, under pressure from both his subjects and his parliament, Mohammad Reza Shah reappointed Mossadegh to his previous position. 1953 was a significant year in Iranian history. A crusade called "grey propaganda" filled the streets of Tehran, undermining Mossadegh and his government. It was evident that the anti-Mossadegh group looked to expel him from power. Mossadegh had his doubts; as a result, he required the disintegration of the Iranian parliament. A coup started to topple Mossadegh. The Shah fled to Baghdad.

Articles were published in a few daily papers on 19 August 1953 connecting the Shah to the attempted coup and, thus, supporters of the Shah started showing in the boulevards, driven by General Zahedi, the man with whom the planners of the coup had proposed to replace Mossadegh. By dusk, Iran was under Zahedi. Mossadegh was sentenced to three years in prison; individuals from his administration were either put into total isolation or joined Mossadegh in prison.

In January of 1963, Mohammad Reza Shah proposed the White Revolution—a peaceful plan with the aim to achieve six objectives: land reform, the selling of select state-owned factories to finance the land reform, the enfranchisement of women, nationalization of natural areas such as forests and pastures, formation of literacy corps, and the institution of profit-sharing for workers in industry.

The Shah's first priority was land change. He tried to redistribute roughly, one half of private agrarian land to workers holding conventional sharecropping rights. This would influence one portion of all town families in the region. The ramifications of the White Revolution are two-fold. A large portion of a million workers was given adequate land to participate in beneficial cultivating; they were monetarily enabled and were given access to better training and profiting by government improvement activities. In any case, the government raised the expectations of the Iranian individuals but more often than not they didn't meet them. Regarding land change, half of the worker families did not get any land and the majority of the individuals got practically nothing, simply meeting the sum fundamental for subsistence cultivating. Eventually, this brought about a disillusioned greater part; villagers were being presented to strategies that profited a chosen few while overlooking the requirements of the rest. They became disgruntled with the government. This disappointment kept on spreading all through Iran for the rest of the 1960s and into the 1970s. It planted the seed for the revolutionary tone that grasped Iran in the late 1970s.

Beginning in 1977, a series of demonstrations against the Shah set the stage for the revolution in 1979. The first of these many acts of demonstrations was the Cinema Rex Fire that occurred on 19 August 1978 in Abadan, Iran. While, there was controversy at the time regarding who began the fire, it was later discovered that Islamic militants had set the building on fire. The motive of the revolutionaries was primarily to create public detest towards the Shah and his administration; they knew that anti-Shah groups would immediately accuse the government of such an act. This act of revolution was the first to set the tone for change because it showed that common people, turned militants, could rise up against the Shah and succeed in their mission paying little heed to the mercilessness of their acts. This event also showed that Iranian citizens were already acting against the Shah's regime, in mid-1977, long before the insurgency had actually begun. Historians consider the Cinema Rex Fire one

of the deadliest terrorist attacks in modern history. A precise death toll has never been agreed upon, but sources claim that between 400 to 800 deaths occurred as a result of the fire. Another key act of defiance that historians claim helped to bring on the 1979 revolution was "Black Friday": on 8 September 1978, people protesting against the Shah and the Pahlavi Dynasty in Jaleh Square in Tehran were the victims of a mass shooting by the Shah's officials. The gunfire killed about 80 demonstrators, and hundreds were injured. Many opposition leaders were imprisoned as well. On the morning following the shooting, the Shah declared martial law in order to strike down any protests that arose in response to the shooting. Many argue that this series of events was the key to the revolution because it closed the door for non-violent compromise between the Shah and the Iranian people.



Towards the beginning of 1979, public opposition against Mohammad Reza Shah reached its peak, even within his own military forces. The Shah, faced with an armed force insurrection and increasingly violent and popular demonstrations against his regime, was forced to flee Iran in January of 1979. While his alienation of Muslim religious leaders, strict militant policies, closeness with the United States was not enough on its own to bring about the change many Iranian people sought at this time, his flight opened the door for another administration to take control. Ayatollah Khomeini took control of the Iranian government on 11 February 1979 and established an Islamic theocracy. This denotes the peak of the Iranian Revolution. Khomeini returned to Iran after 18 years of being in a state of banishment on 1 February 1979.

For many years, he had been the unofficial leader of the anti-Shah revolutionaries and when he returned to Iran after the Shah's flight, the revolutionaries decided it was time to act. On this significant day in Iranian history, two main factions took up arms against each other: military units loyal to the Shah's regime and Prime Minister Bakhtiar and military units loyal to Ayatollah Khomeini. After two days of fighting, the units loyal to the old regime pulled their support from the government and claimed to be neutral. The remaining ministers of Mohammad Reza Shah's government submitted their resignation, leaving the government in the hands of Ayatollah Khomeini. During this time, Iran was without a parliament. The scene in Iran was excessively violent: gas bombs destroyed tanks; buses, buildings (including the highly-guarded police departments around Tehran) were set on fire, and military leaders

and fighters filled the streets. Armed revolutionaries shot at their enemies from rooftops. As the fighting was taking place, other revolutionaries began to plunder the surrounding areas, claiming that they were procuring goods for the Islamic Republic. When it was over, the revolutionaries paraded through the streets gladly showing the weapons they had used. In spite of the fact that they deemed the violence necessary for the success of the revolution, reports show that the revolutionaries were also very saddened by the violence that had taken place. On 11 February, the armed revolutionaries defeated the Imperial Guard, the Shah's previous army. With this defeat, Khomeini and a coalition of other opposition leaders came into power. On 1 April, Khomeini declared Iran an Islamic republic, in this manner authoritatively making the Islamic Republic of Iran.

STANCES ON THE ISSUE

United States

The United States had an intricate association with Iran for a long time paving the way to the Iranian Revolution. Maybe one of the best cases of this confused relationship was the United States' part in the White Revolution. The United States had given Iran \$3.5 million, dependent upon the structural changes in the nation and was one of Iran's key sources of monetary and military help. Hence, Mohammad Reza Shah was bent upon reinforcing ties with America and hesitant to alienate the American government. With regards to the Cold War, the United States favoured approaches that diminished the interest of rebellious developments. Subsequently, the United States upheld and energized the Shah's territory change program. According to the Americans, land reforms would guarantee that country stayed stable and would prevent the outrageous monetary discontent of the worker classes that time and again gave the stimulus to the insurgency. By 1979, the United States had not yet broken strategic ties with Iran, but rather the United States saw the likelihood of the Iranian Revolution before it turned into a reality. The American government expected that mass uprisings would happen in Iran. So, the United States played

a dynamic part in alleviating the tensions of the region. Though the United States saw their attempt as stabilizing, the progressive Iranian government saw as impedance. Maybe the most essential part of the Iranian Revolution to the United States was the Hostage Crisis. In light of the emergency, the United States suspended oil imports from Iran and immobilized billions of dollars in Iranian resources keeping in mind the end goal that was to pressurise the Iranian government and compel them to discharge the prisoners.

United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has a complex history with Iran, especially concerning its oil industry. The Anglo-Iranian Oil Company was built up in 1908, however throughout the years brought only displeasure and misery to Iran. Nationalizing Iranian oil turned out to be more and more prevalent, both in the minds of the general public and important politicians, for example, Prime Minister Mossadegh, a vital figure to the Coup of 1953. The British were not willing to effortlessly surrender the assets they had declared to be theirs for years. Due to this, when Khomeini came to power he connected the United Kingdom with the external supremacy of Iran by Western forces.

France

Ayatollah Khomeini was ousted in 1964 and settled in France under political shelter in 1978. He was responsible for the greater part of the Iranian insurgency from his home in the Parisian suburb of Neauphle-le-Chateau. Khomeini met with media reporters to scheme out a coup against the Shah. He took an active part in all this while he was under the cautious watch of the French government. When he came back to Iran in 1979, the French arranged for Khomeini an Air France flight to Tehran. Regardless, the French did not sincerely back Khomeini's idea of the revolution and allied with various Western states to face the new government.

Soviet Union

One of the main parts of the Iranian Revolution was de-Westernization, and alongside it came de-capitalization. This move gave the Soviet Union the perfect chance to align itself with Iran and decline the credibility of the West, especially the United States, in the Middle East. The Soviet government in Moscow

understood the delicacy and unpredictability of the circumstance in Iran in 1979; it had high expectations in a post-revolutionary association with Iran that would spread Soviet goals to the Middle East in a more comprehensive manner.

Middle East

In 1979, many Middle Eastern countries were worried about the stability of their areas, after the turmoil had taken place. The Iranian Revolution was proof of the potential for the Islamic belief to realize a huge political change, especially in light of the fact that the religion had weight with the majority of the people. The way that Islam could activate the average citizens in Iran into getting to be progressives was an essential aspect of what made the Iranian Revolution effective; growing progressives in other Middle Eastern countries with high Muslim populaces could endeavour to comparatively utilize Islam as an apparatus for the change that they looked for in their own nations.

COMMITTEE AIM

Presently, in December 1979, The Security Council confronts an overwhelming task, as its members must alleviate the intensifying situation in Iran. This body must evaluate the risk that changes in Iranian legislative issues can pose to the worldwide community and come with an answer that respects the Iranian government while preserving the peace and security within the area. Keeping in mind the issue of the heightening clash in Iran member nations ought to bear in mind a few important objectives. Firstly, it is the need of the Security Council to keep up peace and strength inside the worldwide group. Any resolution drafted by the panel needs to address this. Besides, the Security Council must build up a

solution that pertains to the present circumstance in Iran as well as incorporates arrangements to guarantee that comparable clashes don't emerge later on. It is essential that the Security Council be set up to react to any advancement in Iran if they emerge. Delegates are to note that such an answer must be decided on timely in a convenient and productive way. The circumstance in Iran today develops unstable with each passing day. If the situation is left unattended, the situation in Iran couldn't just represent a risk to the peace and security of the local area, it would additionally do so to the worldwide community overall.

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AGENDA 2: YUGOSLAVIAN WARS

INTRODUCTION

Yugoslavia came into existence after World War I and comprised mostly Catholic regions of Slovenia and Croatia with the Eastern Orthodox Kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro. It also included the land of Bosnia, ethnically and religiously divided among Catholic Croats, Orthodox Serbs and Muslim Slavs. The region remained intact fairly well until World War 2. During the Second World War it was invaded by the Axis Powers and fell under the Germans and the Italians. The old ethnic divisions during this period surfaced into a very bitter civil war. This conflict primarily pitted the Croats, who allied themselves with the Axis, against Serbs. The Yugoslav Partisans established the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia after liberating the country under the leadership of Marshall Josip Broz Tito.

On 31st January 1946, the new constitution of Yugoslavia was modeled after the Soviet Union and established six republics, Socialist Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Socialist Republic of Croatia, Socialist Republic of Macedonia, Socialist Republic of Montenegro, Socialist Republic of Serbia (Socialist Autonomous Province of Kosovo, Socialist Autonomous Province of Vojvodina), Socialist Republic of Slovenia. The country distanced itself from the Soviets and started moving towards its own socialist lines under the leadership of Josip Marshal Tito.

After the death of Tito in 1980 the ethnic tensions increased in Yugoslavia and the weakened system could not cope up with the economic and political changes in the country. There was no clear successor to Yugoslavia after Tito's death. Certain measures had been taken to form a plan for Yugoslavia after Tito's death. The constitution of 1974 had outlined a plan for Tito's succession through a system of rotating Presidency on a yearly basis, where each republic gained overall control of the presidium comprising representatives from each individual republic and province. This system had two major flaws: first it led to an ineffective decision process and secondly

it deprived the country of a strong and consistent leadership.

Yugoslavia had always been a country with not only diverse nationalities but also multiple religions. The drastic change in the population occurred during the Second World War and the friction between communities was evident but during Tito's rule the nationalistic sentiments were relatively contained. The largest states of Yugoslavia (Serbia and Croatia) had never been in the best of terms. The Croats after Tito's believed that the excessive influence of the Serbs had led to the failure of the first attempt at a Yugoslav Union during the Civil War years. The grievances between the communities remained throughout the communist years and led to a widespread prejudice. Tito was of mixed ethnicity and had a Slovenian mother and Croatian father. Tito aimed to create a Yugoslav identity that would unify the constituent republics. The concept of Yugoslavism was promoted in the people to unify under Tito, but the population that identified them as Yugoslavs remained low. In a study in 1991 only 6.6 percent of the entire population identified them as Yugoslav's. Thus the state was in a stage to collapse. In the 1980s after Tito's death the relation between the six republics worsened. Slovenia and Croatia demanded for greater autonomy within Yugoslavia, while Serbia desired to strengthen the federal authority. There was no solution agreeable to all six republics, therefore Slovenia and Croatia moved towards secession. The tensions in Yugoslavia had rising since the 1980s but in 1990 they proved decisive. Yugoslavia came under the midst of an economic crisis, it was facing rise in provincial loyalties among the 6 republics. By the early 1990s, no effective authority was present at the federal level. The Federal system comprised six republics, two provinces and the Yugoslav People's Army (JNA). The loyalists of the Serbian President Slobodan Milošević replaced the representative of Vojvodina, Kosovo and Montenegro, to gain majority of four

out of eight federal presidency votes. As all the other Yugoslav republics had only one vote, Serbia heavily influenced decision making at the federal level. Even though Croatia and Slovenia demanded a multi party system, Serbia demanded an even more centralized federation and its dominated role in it. At the 14th Extraordinary Congress of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia in January of 1920 it was decided that the single part system was to be abolished. Despite this Slobodan Milošević used his influence in the assembly and rejected the proposal. This made the

Slovenian and Croatian delegation leave the Congress and represented the end of brotherhood and unity between the Republics.

Croatia and Slovenia declared their independence in 1991, thus the Yugoslavian government forcibly tried to prevent the breakup of Yugoslavia. Thus the Prime minister of Yugoslavia declared the secession of Slovenia and Croatia illegal and through the help of the Yugoslav People's Army tried to secure the integral unity of Yugoslavia.

TEN-DAY WAR

The first conflict was initiated by the JNA on 26th June 1991 after the secession of Slovenia on 25th June 1991.

The Yugoslav People's Army was ordered to secure the border crossings in Slovenia. The Slovenian police and the Slovenian Defence Force barricaded roads to

limit the battles around the Republic. The conflict was resolved by a negotiation at Brioni on 7 July 1991, when Slovenia and Croatia agreed to a three-month moratorium on secession. The Yugoslav People's Army completely withdrew on 26 October 1991 from Slovenia.

CROATIAN WAR

Independence was declared by Croatia on 25th June 1991, but due to the Brioni Agreement it was postponed. Croatia finally, cut all ties with Yugoslavia on 8th October 1991.

The JNA started occupying Croatia and tried to keep it within Yugoslavia. The Serbs formed the self-proclaimed Republic of Serbian Krajina (RSK) within Croatia after the failure of the JNA. The Republic of Croatia was recognized as a sovereign state. On January 1992 the United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) was deployed, and combat became largely erratic in the following years. The RSK had captured about 13913 sq. km in the past years which is about more than a quarter of Croatia. Croatian authorities signed the Daruvar Agreement with the local Serb leaders in western Slavonia. The agreement aimed to normalize life for the local population near the frontline. The Serb leaders responsible were arrested when the authorities in Knin learned about it.

In January 28 1993, the Croatian forces captured Peruća Hydroelectric Dam. The UN forces had been present there since summer of 1992. The Serbs had planted approximately 37 tons of explosives; spread over seven sites on the dam, which prevented their removal. The Serbs detonated three explosives in an attempt to flood the area downstream. Mark Nicholas Grey, who was a UN military observer at the site, prevented the disaster. His action saved the lives of 20,000 people who would have drowned in the accident.

In 1992 the conflict between Bosnia Herzegovina occurred. It was being fought between the Croatian Defence Council and The Army of the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The war between the Croats and the Bosnians ended with the Washington Agreement on 18th March 1994 forming the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

BOSNIAN WAR

By 1971 the Bosnians dominated the population in the Socialistic Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina but by 1991 Croats and Serbians emigrated. A study revealed that out of 4 million people in Bosnia 44% were Bosnians, 31% Serbians and only 17% of them were Croats. These three ethnicities combined after a coalition government split between parties during elections in 1990 led by Bosnian Alija Izetbegovic. Because of the suffocating tensions between parties and ethnicities, Radovan Karadzic, the Bosnian Serb leader, withdrew his Serbian Democratic Party from government and formed the 'Serbian National Assembly.' The United Nations began condemning the acts of violence and murder within Bosnia and Herzegovina in late 1991 and knew it was becoming necessary to take action. On February 15, 1992, the Security Council established the United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) to provide humanitarian aid and security in a peaceful and unbiased manner. The Security Council resolution 743 supported the new protection force and declared that it would be initially implemented for a 12 month period. It was paramount for the UNPROFOR to find a middle ground of action that was in between a traditional peacekeeping mission and an enforcement plan that would consist of having an active military. In the early 1992 the Serbian forces captured Srebrenica killing and expelling Bosnians. On March 3, 1992, after a referendum vote President Izetbegovic declared Bosnia independent. The ethnic groups previously under the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia began to wage war upon each other in order to gain control of the territory within the region.

In May 1992 under the leadership of Orić the Bosnian forces recaptured the Srebrenica. On May 5, 1992, the Security Council Resolution 752 demanded that the Yugoslav People's Army, factors of the Croatian Army, and all other forms of interference to stop their actions and respect the sovereignty of Bosnia-Herzegovina. In early May 1992, two days after the United Nations and the European Community recognized Bosnia's newfound independence; Bosnian Serb forces launched their offensive by

bombing Sarajevo, Bosnia's new capital. Milosevic and the Yugoslav army backed the attack in order to push towards creating an envisioned 'Greater Serbia.' Bosnia Serbs wanted to join forces with the dominant Serbian state supported by Serbian separatists which disapproved of independence. In addition, they forcibly caused Bosnian civilians to flee the regions of eastern Bosnia to carry out 'ethnic cleansing,' displacing a large number of persons and making many refugees. Acts of ethnic cleansing have ranged from curfews and forced relocations to castration, imprisonment in concentration camps, rape, and death. Bosnian government forces attempt to regain control of these conflict areas with the assistance of the Croatian army, however Bosnian Serb forces controlled almost three fourths of the country. Karadzic's party had established 'Republika Srpska' in the east.



Due to the violence within Bosnia, most Bosnian Croats had fled to neighbouring countries and many Bosnians remain in various towns scattered throughout the country. Because Bosnian Serbs continually refuse to give up any territory, any attempts at peace proposals between the Croatian-Bosnian federation and the Bosnian Serbs was unsuccessful. The United Nations has established that Sarajevo, Goradze, Srebrenica and other Muslim enclaves are to be safe areas, protected by a contingent of UN peacekeepers. In addition, to help assure the safety of humanitarian operations, the UN imposed a 'no-fly zone' over Bosnia in October 1992.. With constant violence erupting throughout the region, all

ethnic groups were in danger of attack. The Serbs killed the Deputy Prime Minister of the Republic of Bosnia-Herzegovina, Hakiya Turajlić, on 8 January 1993. On April 1993 the ethnic cleansing of the Lašva Valley took place resulting in the mass killing of the Bosnian Muslims just in a few hours. The Bosnian capital Sarajevo and also Tuzla, Zepa, Goradze, Bihac and Sebrenica were declared safe areas by the United Nations Security Council on 6th May 1993 and on 4th June 1993 the UNPROFOR is assigned by the United Nations Security Council to defend the safe areas in Bosnia and occupy key points in the areas.

The International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY) was established on 25th May 1993 by the United Nations. On 4th June 1993 UNPROFOR was assigned by the United Nations Security Council to defend the safe areas in Bosnia and occupy key points in those areas. The Serbian VRS captured towns in Bosnia-Herzegovina and committed

atrocities against Bosniaks. The worst massacres were in Visegrad, Prijedor, Doboj, Bijeljina and Ahatovici. On 18th March 1993 an agreement known as the Washington Agreement was signed between the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Croatian Republic of Herzeg-Bosnia. The agreement divided the combined territory held by the Bosnians and Croats into ten independent regions and formed the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The foreign ministers of Russia, US, Britain, France, EU Troika and also the Vice President of the European Commission met at Geneva and formed the Contact Group to make attempts for peace between the parties through territorial rearrangements. Republic Srpska rejected the plan and hence, it ended in a failure. Bosnia-Herzegovina was the route to a potential genocide that would have greatly affected neighbouring countries due to the influx of refugees and displaced persons.

BLOC POSITIONS

Slovenia

Slovenia being the first republic to declare its independence from Yugoslavia in June 1991 had to win a short military conflict with the Serbian dominated Yugoslav People's army (JNA) known as the Weekend War. In the months leading up to the declaration of independence, Slovenia resisted the reform of the JNA into a more centrally lead Defence Force. This took away a large portion of the control Slovenia held over JNA forces stationed within its borders. To counter the attempts made by JNA to take control of the Slovenian Territorial Defence Force (TO), Slovenia sets up a parallel military structure. After the Declaration of Independence, the JNA moved into Slovenia and tried to bring it back under Yugoslavian control. However, since Slovenia did not have a substantial Serbian majority, the Serbian-led Yugoslav federal Presidency was reluctant to commit fully to the conflict, especially since the simultaneous Croatian Declaration of Independence was much more important to the Serbs. The intensity of the fighting, and subsequently the amount of casualties became low. The conflict officially ended with the signing of the Brijuni Agreement.

Croatia

Unlike Slovenia, Croatia is home to a large Serbian majority (580,000 or 12.2% of this total population, according to the pre-war census of 1991). Croatian president Franjo Tudman actively strived for Croatian independence from Yugoslavia, much to the discontent of this Serbian majority. Serbian dominated areas of Croatia pre-emptively countered this desire, declared independence from Croatia and formed the Serbian Autonomous Oblast Krajina (SAO Krajina). Within the SAO Krajina, JNA Forces led by Ratko Mladic and Milan Babic began to remove ethnic Croats from their territory. These actions are considered to be the first organized efforts at ethnic cleansing during the Yugoslavian break-up, most notably the Vukovar massacre. The European community, shortly after the Croatian Declaration of Independence, negotiated with Slovenia Croatia and the Yugoslavian government to have the the Brijuni Agreement is signed. The agreement imposed a suspension for three months on the Croatian Independence and accepted Slovenian independence. The suspension did not stop the fighting, which lasted until the Sarajevo Agreement of January 2

1992. SAO Krajina, supported by the JNA, continued to occupy almost a third of all Croatian territory. The Yugoslavian Presidency anticipated further hostilities in Bosnia where the JNA retreated. The war waged between the two Republics but in 1994 ended with the Washington Agreement on 18th March 1994 and the agreement formed the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The foreign ministers of Russia, US, Britain, France, EU Troika and also the Vice President of the European Commission meet at Geneva and formed the Contact Group to make attempts for peace between the parties through territorial rearrangements.

Bosnia and Herzegovina

Bosnia and Herzegovina is a pre-dominantly Muslim republic within Yugoslavia. The Bosnian President Alija Izetbegovic aimed for independence for his country just as his counterparts in Slovenia and Croatia. Bosnia and Herzegovina held large Serbian (Orthodox, 1 350 000 strong, 31% of the total Bosnia population) and Croat (Catholic, 760 000, 17%) majorities at that time. The Serbs favoured being a part of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (FRY) and opposed separation of Bosnia. Izetbegovic nonetheless continued, and organized a referendum. The Serbian minorities claimed that the referendum did not have sufficient majority to demand independence and hence, boycotted it. Izetbegovic did his will anyway, in October 1991. The Bosnian Serbs separated and formed the Serbian Nation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Croatian minorities soon followed this and formed Herzeg-Bosnia. The war began against the Serbs but later hostilities rose against the Croats. The war with the Croats ended with the Washington Agreement but continued with the Serbs. Attempts of peace were made through the Contact peace plan but the Republika Srpska rejected them. The Owen Stoltenberg Plan was accepted which could divide Bosnia into three ethnic states. But later it was rejected by Bosnians. Peace was then, made between the Croats and the Bosnians and the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina was formed which included the republic Herzeg-Bosnia.

Republika Srpska

Formed in response to the Bosnian Declaration of

Independence to defend the rights of the Serbian majority within Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Republic of Srpska rapidly set up its own particular military, the Army of the Republika Srpska (VRS). It got political and, all the more significantly, military support from the FRY and the JNA. The Republika Srpska not only claimed the parts of Bosnia where Serbs framed most of the populace but also those where they would have been the lion's share notwithstanding the ethnic purging by Croatian Ustashe powers amid the Second World War. This meant that in part of the territory they control, Serbs weren't currently the ethnic majority. To remedy this situation, President Radovan Karadzic and VRS commander Ratko Mladic began to employ the tactic of ethnic cleansing. The VRS continued to imprison, rape and murder Bosnians. The ultimate goal of the Republic Srpska was to join its territory with Serbia to form a unitary Serbian state. It made attempts to form a unified Serbian State. In 1994 peace attempts were made but Republika Srpska rejected them.

Herzeg-Bosnia

The Croatian dominated regions separated from Bosnia and Herzegovina following the example set by the Serbian majority and formed Herzeg-Bosnia. Just as the Republic of Serbia, they claimed to protect the rights of the Croats within Bosnia. However, it was soon clear that the actual purpose was to claim as much territory as possible before joining the independent state of Croatia, thus contributing to the idea of a greater Croatia envisioned by Croatian President Franjo Tudman. Their armed forces, the Croatian Defense Council (HVO) employed the same tactics of ethnic cleansing as their Serbian counterparts, although on a smaller scale. The dispute ended with the Washington agreement and thus formed the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina

The Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia

The SFRY consisted of the two remaining Yugoslavian Republics: Serbia and Montenegro. Its President, Slobodan Milosevic, opposed the dissolution of Yugoslavia. He feared that the Serbs will be scattered across four different states, which are Croatia, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Montenegro and Serbia. The former Yugoslavian People's Army (JNA)

was then exclusively, under Serbian control, and Milosevic used it to provide support to the Serbian Republics within Croatia and Bosnia, most notable in assisting the VRS during the siege of Sarajevo. The JNA also directly attacked Croatia during the siege of Dubrovnik. After Bosnia-Herzegovina declared

independence the Serbian majority separated from Bosnia and Herzegovina and with the support of the JNA the Serbian armed forces lay siege to Sarajevo. The Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia continuously aided the Serbians in Bosnia and Herzegovina with the JNA.

TIMELINE OF THE CONFLICT

4 May 1980 – Josip Broz Tito, the President of Yugoslavia dies. A collective presidency of the SFRY is adopted, with the position of head of state to be rotated between the member republics. Nationalistic sentiments rise in all republics without a unifying head.

20 to 22 January 1989 – The efforts made by the Slovenian and Serbian delegates for democratic reforms are blocked by Serbia, therefore the 14th Extraordinary Congress of the League of Socialists of Yugoslavia results in a political crisis. Tensions rise to the point that nationalistic parties rise in all republics and the control of the communist party comes to an end and Croatia, Macedonia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina leave the congress.

20 December 1990 – After the first free Bosnian elections, Alija Izetbegovic is sworn in as president of Bosnia & Herzegovina. The votes are distinctly split among ethnic lines.

22 December 1990 –Franjo Tudman, the Croatian President, presents a constitution, which is an indication of Croatian Independence. The Serbian community in Croatia vocally protests the weakening of the protection of minorities in the new constitution.

25 March 1991 –The Croatian president Franjo Tudman and Serbian president reach an agreement to partition Bosnia & Herzegovina among ethnic lines, each annexing the respective Croatian or Serbian areas.

25 June 1991 –Slovenia and Croatia spark hostilities with JNA when both issue a Declaration of Independence. Hostilities rise especially with Croatia.

7 July 1991 –The Brijuni Agreement is signed by Slovenia, Croatia and Yugoslavia, which is facilitated by the European community and ends the hostility in Slovenia. It also places a three-month moratorium on the Croatian Independence.

25 September 1991 –The UN Security Council imposes an arms restriction on the SFRY, in its first resolution regarding the Yugoslavian crisis. The Serbian forces controlled the JNA and the Republics could not build a proper military. This was regarded as a major advantage for the Serbian forces. With many Muslim nations supporting Bosnia, the US also tries to withdraw and avoid the restriction.

15 October 1991 –The Bosnian government to secede from the SFRY and form a sovereign nation issues a memorandum. The Croatian and the Serbian minorities in Bosnia in the following weeks form separate political entities: Herzeg-Bosnia for the Croats and the Republic of Serbia for the Serbs.

21 February 1992 –The UN Security Council forms safe zones in Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina, through a UN peacekeeping operation known as the UN Protection Force (UNPROFOR) established by the Security Council. The ‘safe zones’ aimed at protecting the civilians in these regions and providing humanitarian aid.

29 February to 1 March 1992 – The Bosnian vote on independence takes place. A majority of 2/3 is required to withdraw from the SFRY. The vote turnout is only 63.7% out of which 92.7% are in favour of independence. The Serbian minority in Bosnia boycotts the referendum. The question arises whether the vote justifies the declaration of independence. It is decided by the Bosnian Government that it does and it declares independence, even though it angered the Serbian and Croatian minorities.

18 March 1992 – Serbian, Croatian and Bosnian representatives consent to the Lisbon Arrangement. This EC-sponsored peace arrange, otherwise called the Carrington-Cutileiro arrange, requires the characterization of areas in view of ethnic dominant parts, and the devolution of the focal government

to a nearby level. The Bosnian president Izetbegovic notwithstanding pulls back his mark 10 days after the peace arrangement. Starting there on, Izetbegovic restricts any arrangement isolating Bosnia along ethnic lines. It is supposed that the American envoy ensured bolster for Bosnia in protecting its region. The US later denies giving such a certification.

7 April 1992 –The Republic of Serbia protests against the Bosnian declaration of Independence and separate from Bosnia and Herzegovina. With the support of the JNA the Serbian armed forces lay siege to Sarajevo.

6 May 1992 –The delegates of Bosnia-Herzeg and Serbia try to make a peace deal but it results in the partition of the Bosnia and cease-fire between the Serbs and Croats. It is seen by the Bosnians as a confirmation of the Karadordevo plan. Hostilities between Serbs and Croats continue and the plan breaks down.

22 May 1992 –The Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina after being recognized as a sovereign state joins the United Nations.

Summer 1992 –The Serbian VRS capture towns in Bosnia-Herzegovina and commit atrocities against Bosniaks. The worst massacres are in Visegrad, Prijedor, Doboj, Bijeljina and Ahatovici.

9 August 1992 –After the assassination of Blaz Kraljevic, a moderate Bosnian Croat serving as staff member of the Bosnian Army, the Croats resisting the expansionist policies of President Franjo Tudman end all attempts for peace between Croats and Bosniaks.

8th January 1993– Bosnian deputy Prime Minister, Hakija Turajiki, the Bosnian Vice president, is assassinated near Sarajevo airport. The Serbian VRS forces stop his convoy, even though he is escorted by French UNPROFOR troops. Multiple shots are fired at him and he dies instantly.

April 1993– The United Nations Security Council issues Resolution 816, to call on member states to enforce a no-fly zone over Bosnia-Herzegovina.

12 April 1993–NATO commences Operation Deny flight to impose the no-fly zone over Bosnia.

April 1993, was the culmination of the Lašva Valley ethnic cleansing, resulting in mass killing of Bosnian Muslim civilians just in a few hours.

6th May 1993 – The Bosnian capital Sarajevo and also Tuzla, Zepa, Goradze, Bihac and Srebrenica are declared safe areas by the United Nations Security Council.

25th May 1993 –The International Criminal Tribunal of Former Yugoslavia is established by the United Nations.

4th June 1993 – UNPROFOR is assigned by the United Nations Security Council to defend the safe areas in Bosnia and occupy key points in those areas.

27th to 29th August 1993 – The Owen Stoltenberg Plan is accepted which could divide Bosnia into three ethnic states. But later it is rejected by Bosniaks.

5th February 1994 – Sarajevo market place is attacked by the Bosnian Serbs, which results in casualties and numerous civilian deaths.

18th March 1994 – An agreement known as the Washington Agreement is signed between the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Croatian Republic of Herzeg-Bosnia. The agreement divided the combined territory held by the Bosnians and Croats into ten independent regions and formed the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

31st March to 4th April 1994 – An agreement is signed between the Serbian rebels and the Republic of Croatia in Zagreb. It ended the hostilities at the line of contact of the Krajina and the Croatian forces.

26th April 1994 – The first meeting of the Contact Group Plan is held in London. It comprised representatives from Britain, France, Russia, US, France and Germany. The plan aimed to present a united front for the parties involved in the war and focused on securing an agreement on a territorial distribution as the first step for the settlement.

13th May 1994 – The foreign ministers of Russia, US, Britain, France, EU Troika and also the Vice President of the European Commission meet at Geneva. They are called for the four-month termination of hostilities and attempts to make negotiations within two weeks, under the Contact Group Plan, on territorial rearrangements, which include 51% for the Bosnian Federation and 49% for the Bosnian Serbs.

20th July 1994 – The Bosnian Serb Declaration sent to the Contact Group that the Contact Group Plan constitutional arrangements were not properly

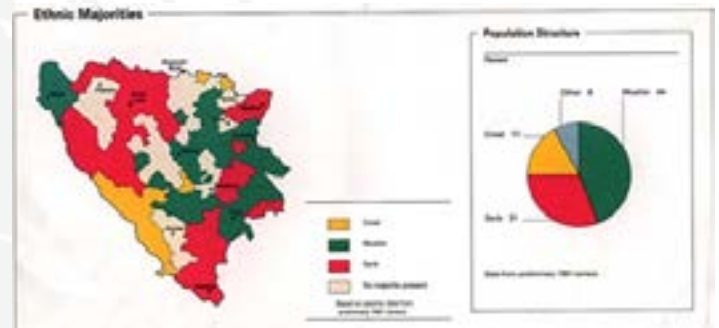
elaborated and required further detailed work to be done. The plan could serve as a base for future negotiations between the republics.

3rd August 1994 – Republika Srpska rejected the Contact Group Plan.

4th August 1994 – Slobodan Milošević, the president of Serbia, announces to end all political and economic ties with the Bosnian Serbs as they rejected the Contact Group Plan.

COMMITTEE AIM

The United Nations Historical Security Council is set in August 1994 after the failure of the Contact Group Plan. The plan aimed to achieve peace between the parties but was later rejected. The hostilities among the Republics are rising and the Delegates must realize the gravity of the situation at hand. The human casualties are increasing day by day and the problem at hand must be resolved immediately. The committee should find a solution and strive to achieve peace between the parties through any means possible.



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DSMUN '17

POSITION PAPER GUIDELINES

Position papers are usually one to one-and-a-half pages in length. Your position paper should include a brief introduction followed by a comprehensive breakdown of your country's position on the topics that are being discussed by the committee. A good position paper will not only provide facts but also make proposals for resolutions.

A good position paper will include:

- A brief introduction to your country and its history concerning the topic and committee;
- How the issue affects your country;
- Your country's policies with respect to the issue and your country's justification for these policies;
- Quotes from your country's leaders about the issue;
- Statistics to back up your country's position on the issue;
- Actions taken by your government with regard to the issue;
- Conventions and resolutions that your country has signed or ratified;
- UN actions that your country supported or opposed;
- What your country believes should be done to address the issue;
- What your country would like to accomplish in the committee's resolution; and
- How the positions of other countries affect your country's position.

SAMPLE DRAFT RESOLUTION

General Assembly Third Committee

Authors: United States, Austria and Italy

Draft Resolution GA/3/1.1

Signatories: Greece, Tajikistan, Japan, Canada, Mali, the Netherlands and Gabon

Topic: "Strengthening UN coordination of humanitarian assistance in complex emergencies"

The General Assembly,

Reminding all nations of the celebration of the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which recognizes the inherent dignity, equality and inalienable rights of all global citizens, **[use commas to separate perambulatory clauses]**

Reaffirming its Resolution 33/1996 of 25 July 1996, which encourages Governments to work with UN bodies aimed at improving the coordination and effectiveness of humanitarian assistance,

Noting with satisfaction the past efforts of various relevant UN bodies and nongovernmental organizations, Stressing the fact that the United Nations faces significant financial obstacles and is in need of reform, particularly in the humanitarian realm,

1. Encourages all relevant agencies of the United Nations to collaborate more closely with countries at the grassroots level to enhance the carrying out of relief efforts; **[use semicolons to separate operative clauses]**
2. Urges member states to comply with the goals of the UN Department of Humanitarian Affairs to streamline efforts of humanitarian aid;
3. Requests that all nations develop rapid deployment forces to better enhance the coordination of relief efforts of humanitarian assistance in complex emergencies;
4. Calls for the development of a United Nations Trust Fund that encourages voluntary donations from the private transnational sector to aid in funding the implementation of rapid deployment forces;
5. Stresses the continuing need for impartial and objective information on the political, economic and social situations and events of all countries;
6. Calls upon states to respond quickly and generously to consolidated appeals for humanitarian assistance;
7. Requests the expansion of preventive actions and assurance of post-conflict assistance through reconstruction and development;
8. Decides to remain actively seized on the matter. **[end resolutions with a period]**

PREAMBULATORY AND OPERATIVE CLAUSES

PREAMBULATORY CLAUSES

The preamble of a draft resolution states the reasons for which the committee is addressing the topic and highlights past international action on the issue. Each clause begins with a present participle (called a perambulatory phrase) and ends with a comma. Perambulatory clauses can include:

- References to the UN Charter;
- Citations of past UN resolutions or treaties on the topic under discussion;

- Mentions of statements made by the Secretary-General or a relevant UN body or agency;
- Recognition of the efforts of regional or nongovernmental organizations in dealing with the issue; and
- General statements on the topic, its significance and its impact.

SAMPLE PREAMBULATORY PHRASES

Affirming

Alarmed by

Approving

Bearing in mind

Believing

Confident

Contemplating

Convinced

Declaring

Deeply concerned

Deeply conscious

Deeply convinced

Deeply Disturbed

Deeply Regretting

Desiring

Emphasizing

Expecting

Emphasizing

Expecting

Expressing it's appreciation

Fulfilling

Fully aware

Emphasizing

Expecting

Expressing its appreciation

Fulfilling

Fully aware

Further deploring

Further recalling

Guided by

Having adopted

Having considered

Having examined

Having received

Keeping in mind

Noting with deep concern

Nothing with satisfaction

Noting further

Observing

Reaffirming

Realizing

Recalling

Recognizing

Referring

Seeking

Taking into consideration

Taking note

Viewing with appreciation

Welcoming

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OPERATIVE CLAUSES

Operative clauses offer solutions to issues addressed earlier in a resolution through the perambulatory section. These clauses are action oriented and should include both an underlined verb at the beginning of your sentence followed by the proposed solution. Each clause should follow the following principles:

- Clause should be numbered;
- Each clause should support one another and continue to build your solution;
- Add details to your clauses in order to have a complete solution;
- Operative clauses are punctuated by a semicolon, with the exception of your last operative clause which should end with a period.

SAMPLE OPERATIVE PHRASES

Accepts	Endorses	Further requests
Affirms	Expresses its appreciation	Further resolves
Approves	Expresses its hope	Has resolved
Authorizes	Further invites	Notes
Calls	Deplores	Proclaims
Calls upon	Designates	Reaffirms
Condemns	Draws the attention	Recommends
Confirms	Emphasizes	Regrets
Congratulates	Encourages	Reminds
Considers	Endorses	Requests
Declares accordingly	Expresses its appreciation	Solemnly affirms
Deplores	Expresses its hope	Strongly condemns
Designates	Further invites	Supports
Draws the attention	Further proclaims	Takes note of
Emphasizes	Further reminds	Transmits
Encourages	Further recommends	Trusts

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