



# THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1994

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## HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1994

The 2013 American Model United Nations Historical Security Council (HSC) - 1994 will simulate the events of the world beginning on 7 January 1994. Historically, the key international security concerns at this time revolved around the unrest in Somalia, Rwanda and the former Yugoslav Republic. From time-to-time, other countries will be involved in the deliberations of the HSC. Some of the delegations that may be called before the HSC-1994 include Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Slovenia, Somalia, Uganda, Georgia and Haiti.

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Council on 7 January 1994. The prominent events of 1993 are discussed, as well as some questions that will face the Security Council at the turn of the year. This research is intended merely as a focal point for Representatives' continued exploration of the topics. Any issue on the world scene in 1994 will be fair game for discussion in the Historical Security Council. Representatives should have broad historical knowledge of the world situation as it stood through 6 January 1994.

For each topic area, Representatives should consider the following questions. These questions should assist Representatives in gaining a better understanding of the issues at hand, particularly from your country's perspective:

- Should the U.N. be involved in the situation? If yes, what role can the U.N. play in the situation?
- How can regional organizations be utilized?
- Does your government feel that this situation is a threat to international peace and security?
- What are your government's interests in the region?

## THE SITUATION IN RWANDA

In 1962, Rwanda became independent from Belgian colonial rule, organized as a one-party state controlled by the Hutu-dominant government. The new Rwandan government continued discrimination and ethnic quotas created by the colonial powers in employment and education against the Tutsi ethnic group. In response, Tutsi refugees in Zaire and Tanzania began attacking Hutus. The government reacted strongly with violence against Tutsi-guerrilla reprisals. In 1973, General Juvenal Habyarimana took power of southern Hutus over the northern Hutu faction, and promised to restore peace, national development, and unity. However, preferential treatment of Hutus aggravated the ethnic tensions throughout the following years. By the end of the 1980s, nearly 500,000 Tutsis sought refuge in neighboring Burundi, Uganda, Zaire and Tanzania.

In the late 1980s, individuals from the Tutsi refugee diaspora in Uganda created the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF) as a political and military organization to reform the Rwandan government and return Tutsi refugees to Rwanda. Members of the RPF blamed the government for its failure to democratize and to resolve the refugee problem. On 1 October 1990, a force of 7,000 RPF troops launched a major attack from the safe haven of Uganda onto Rwandan Armed Forces (RAF). Despite their small numbers, the RPF troops' prior military experience in the Ugandan civil war allowed them to make significant gains against the Hutu forces.

As ethnic tensions increased, Tutsis inside Rwanda and moderate Hutus were labeled accomplices of the RPF, and designated traitors by the government. Violence from the civil war and reprisals from the RAF increased tension and caused many civilian deaths. The Rwandan government sought military and financial assistance from Belgium, France and Zaire in response to the RPF attacks. The RAF launched a counter-offensive with heavy military equipment but the RPF was unable to sustain a long-term campaign.

France, the United States and the Organization of African Unity organized peace talks in Arusha, Tanzania, on 12 July 1992. An early agreement from these talks set a timetable for ending the fighting, promoted further peace-talks between parties, addressed the repatriation of refugees, and authorized the Organisation for African Unity (OAU) to act as a neutral military observer. The Arusha Accords concluded on 4 August 1993 with a final agreement calling for a democratically-elected government, the formation of a transitional government consisting of power sharing between the current government and the RPF until elections were held and the repatriation of refugees. The Arusha Accords caused an open split among Hutus in power, with radical Hutu groups opposing the Habyarimana government, leading to government formed and trained Hutu militias known as the Interhamwe which, with other radical Hutu militias, conducted organized campaigns to kill Tutsi civilians and Hutu moderates.

In June 1993, the Security Council established the United Nations Observer Mission Uganda-Rwanda (UNOMUR) with the purpose of verifying that no military assistance reached Rwanda over the northern Ugandan border. In October 1993, the Security Council established the United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR) in Resolution 872 to aid in the implementation and monitoring of the Arusha Accords and to support the transitional government for an initial period of six months. UNAMIR's headquarters became operational on 1 November 1993. Shortly after arriving, UNAMIR Commander General Romeo Dallaire informed UN officials that there was the potential for large-scale, serious violence in Rwanda. However, UN officials did not respond.



On 10 December 1993, the Rwandan government, the RPF, and the Special Representative of UNAMIR issued a joint declaration reaffirming their commitments to the Arusha Accords, and agreed to set up a broad-based transitional government before 31 December 1993. On 20 December 1993, the Security Council passed Resolution 891 extending UNOMUR's mission for six months.

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## THE SITUATION IN BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA

In 1946, the Socialist Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina became a constituent republic of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia, which governed numerous ethnic groups. After the death of President Joseph Tito in 1980, Yugoslavia quickly plunged into political and economic turmoil. Ethnic unrest spread, and the republics of the Social Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY) began to declare their independence. Bosnia-Herzegovina seceded from SFRY and became an independent state on 3 March 1992. However, Bosnia-Herzegovina's declaration of independence was opposed by Bosnian Serbs and the Serbian-controlled federal government of Yugoslavia. Following Bosnia-Herzegovina's declaration of independence, ethnic groups previously incorporated under the SFRY began to wage war upon one another in an effort to gain territorial control within the former Yugoslav territory.

When Bosnia's independence was recognized by the European community and the United States, Serbian National Forces immediately began strikes upon Sarajevo, the newly-declared capital of Bosnia-Herzegovina. Over the next several months, the Serbian National Forces gained control over nearly two-thirds of Bosnian territory. As part of their attacks, Serbian forces drove out nearly all of the non-Serbians in the Serbian controlled areas, creating a large displaced persons and refugee population. Additionally, reports of ethnic violence against Bosnians and Croats began surfacing.

Accordingly, the UN passed Resolution 743 on 21 February 1992, which created the United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) with the purpose of promoting peace talks and maintaining peace in UN safe-zones and no-fly zones. Initially, UNPROFOR redirected observers from other parts of Yugoslavia to Bosnia, but later brought in additional observers. Although UNPROFOR was able to achieve some success, the continued fighting led to a series of economic sanctions against all of Yugoslavia in May 1992. Through a series of resolutions, the Security Council imposed stricter sanctions prohibiting all import, export, and transportation of weapons and military equipment to Yugoslavia; the embargo excluded weapons and military equipment intended for UNPROFOR.

The UNPROFOR mandate was expanded by a series of resolutions passed in October and November 1992. These resolutions aimed to bring stability to Bosnia by deploying additional observers and limiting military flights to only those that were part of the UNPROFOR mission. By March 1993, fighting had increased in eastern Bosnia, with Serb military forces attacking civilian populations and interfering with humanitarian operations. Fighting intensified as Muslims from surrounding areas were driven into the town of Srebrenica by Serbian military forces.

The large populations of Croats and Serbs further complicated the ethnic tension in Bosnia-Herzegovina, after the Croat-Serb war began in 1991 upon Croatia's declaration independence. In May 1993, Muslim and Bosnian Croat forces were in a tenuous alliance against Serb forces when fighting erupted in central Bosnia. The fighting interrupted main supply routes to northern Bosnia and disrupted UNPROFOR operations. Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali stated that a significant lack of funding for UN missions threatened to interrupt necessary day-to-day operations in the coming months. On 4 October 1993, the Security Council extended the UNPROFOR mandate for an additional 6 months to 31 March 1994. In November 1993, the Security Council issued statements noting its concern that the increasing military actions posed significant threats to the civilian population and demanding that the attacks stop. Numerous peace plans and cease-fires were signed in November 1993, but failed to curb fighting and stop attacks on UNPROFOR.

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## THE SITUATION IN SOMALIA

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, war with Ethiopia as well as the actions of the corrupt Siad Barre regime decimated the Somali economy through military spending and foreign debt. Increasingly oppressive tactics including jailing and the disestablishment of clanism by government caused the Somali population to grow dissatisfied. Civil war erupted with opposition groups overthrowing the Barre government in 1991. In November 1991, Somalia's interim president Ali Mahdi Mohamed and anti-government factions fought heavily in Mogadishu. The fighting started during a severe drought, both of which caused extreme food shortages with experts estimating that nearly 300,000 people died of starvation by 1992. Additionally, nearly two million people were displaced due to the fighting, driving them into in different parts of Somalia or neighboring countries.

On 3 March 1992, the warring parties signed a ceasefire agreement. The Security Council created the United Nations Operation in Somalia (UNISOM I) on 24 April 1992, to provide observers and facilitate the ceasefire. In July 1992, the UNISOM I mandate was strengthened, and four operational zones established. At the same time, the UN Secretary-General called for a 100-day plan to address the dire humanitarian crisis. Conditions continued to deteriorate as factions became increasingly hostile toward the UN operation.

After the Security Council passed resolution 794 on 4 December 1992, the United States agreed to take control of the Unified Task Force (UNTAF). As troops came aground during Phase I of UNTAF, the Secretary-General convened a meeting for national reconciliation in January 1993, ultimately reaching the Addis Ababa Agreement in March 1993. Meanwhile, the Security Council passed resolution 814 where UNISOM II replaced UNTAF. UNISOM II was tasked with monitoring all factions' compliance with the ceasefire; preventing the resumption of violence; seizing small arms from unauthorized elements; maintaining control of heavy weapons; securing ports and means of communication necessary for the delivery of humanitarian aid; protecting UN and NGO operations and their workers; demining the region; and repatriating refugees and displaced persons in Somalia.

By May 1993, it became clear that not all signatories to the March Addis Ababa agreements intended to cooperate. General Mohammed Farah Aidad, leader of the Somali National Alliance, teamed with other factions and began engaging in armed attacks against UNISOM II, killing international troops and workers. Resolution 837 condemned these attacks and called for ground and air operations in Mogadishu, which began on 12 June 1993. UNISOM II continued operations and

additional ground forces from the United States were brought in for support, but fighting continued until October 1993 when Aidad unilaterally stopped actions against UNISOM II, but reports indicated that fighting between factions and against UNISOM II continued elsewhere.

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## THE SITUATION IN HAITI

On 16 December 1990, democratic elections were held in Haiti under supervision by the United Nations. Father Jean Aristide was elected on a platform of a new economic deal for the poor and a cleansing of the civil service, though most of the legislation was blocked by the Haitian Parliament. On 29 September 1991, a military coup ousted Aristide but allowed him to escape to Venezuela after diplomatic intervention by the U.S., French, and Venezuelan ambassadors. Under the leadership of General Raoul Cedras, the military immediately began slaughtering supporters of Aristide, killing more than a thousand in two weeks. Over 200,000 people fled the capital in response to the killings. The Organization of American States (OAS) imposed economic sanctions on Haiti and the United States, France and Canada suspended all economic assistance. On 8 October 1991, the OAS urged all member countries to freeze Haitian assets and proposed a civilian force that would mediate disputes and monitor compliance.

The OAS and the United States pushed for Aristide's return to power. On 23 February 1992, an OAS-mediated agreement granted amnesty to the coup plotters. However, on 27 March, the Haitian Supreme Court and Senate rejected the accord. Hostilities continued in Haiti





as international pressure mounted to make the trade embargo on oil and weapons universal. On 23 April 1993, the General Assembly authorized the United Nations to take part in a UN/OAS Civilian Mission in Haiti to deploy human rights monitors in the country, after which, the Security Council passed Resolution 841, imposing a comprehensive fuel and arms embargo in Haiti. On 3 July 1993, Cedras and Aristide signed the Governor's Island Agreement, which stated that Aristide would resume power on 30 October 1993. On 27 August 1993, the Security Council passed Resolution 861 suspending the sanctions against Haiti. Four days later, Resolution 862 was adopted and called for the dispatch of a small contingent to assess requirements for the UN Mission in Haiti.

Prior to Aristide's return to power in October, however, violence broke out in Haiti. Anti-Aristide gunmen menaced government workers and a UN team in the area, causing the Security Council to pass Resolution 867 on 23 September to immediately dispatch the United Nations Mission in Haiti (UNMIH). American and Canadian troops sailed to Haiti but were blocked by anti-Aristide forces from docking, and the United States ordered the ship to return. The Security Council passed Resolution 873 on 13 October reinstating the sanctions of Resolution 841. UN envoy Dante Caputo organized talks with the Haitian military leaders to restore Aristide to power, but the talks fell apart. With the failure of the talks and continued violence, Caputo withdrew all civilian monitors from the island by the end of October.

On 22 December 1993, the United States, France, Canada and Venezuela cautioned Haiti's military leaders that the embargo would be expanded if Aristide were not allowed to return to power by 15 January 1994. Meanwhile, Aristide announced that he was organizing a conference in Miami on 15 January 1994 to help restore democracy to Haiti.

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## THE SITUATION IN GEORGIA

In 1917, Abkhazia gained independence after the Russian revolution, but maintained treaty relations with Georgia. Between 1921 and 1931, Abkhazia and Georgia were constituted as a full Soviet Socialist Republic. By 1931, Abkhazia became an autonomous republic within Georgia. During Stalin's rule, Georgian assimilation of Abkhazia was enforced, causing nearly 46 percent of the Abkhaz population to be of Georgian ethnicity by the end of 1989. Clashes broke out as the Georgians began an anti-Abkhaz campaign and relations between the two deteriorated. In March 1991, Georgia proposed a new law that ensured a small Abkhaz majority would be elected, but was boycotted in the elections.

The Republic of Georgia declared independence from the Soviet Union in April 1991, fueling separatist and nationalist concerns by citizens in the Abkhaz region of Georgia. On 23 July 1992, the Abkhaz Supreme Soviet voted to return to the 1925 Constitution where Abkhazia was a Soviet Union republic and not part of Georgia. The State Council of the Republic of Georgia declared the act void. In response, Abkhazian separatists took 11 hostages of the Georgian Ministry of Internal Affairs when they went to negotiate for peace. On 14 August 1992, 3,000 Georgian troops headed into Abkhazia and attacked the Abkhaz Supreme Soviet, sending many into hiding. After Russian troops in Abkhazia came under fire, Russian forces evacuated nearly 12,000 Russian nationals. Russian President, Boris Yeltsin, called for a ceasefire and helped broker a successful one on 3 September 1992; however, hostilities continued with both sides blaming the other for the violation.

On 17 September 1992, a United Nations mission was sent to Abkhazia on a fact-finding investigation. Abkhazian forces resumed the conflict with Georgia in October 1992, reinforced by Russian equipment and assisted by Russian helicopters. In November 1992, a brief ceasefire agreement was reached, but was broken within weeks as Abkhazian separatists bombed Sukhumi while Georgians shelled two Abkhazian strongholds. Hostilities continued on 16 March 1993 when Abkhazian secessionists attacked the Georgian-held capital of Tbilisi. More than 25 Georgian troops were killed and 52 wounded in the fighting.

On 2 July, Abkhazian forces attacked the Abkhaz capital city, Sukhumi, killing 39. Georgia declared martial law in Abkhazia on 6 July as separatist forces advanced towards the capital. On 9 July, the Security Council passed Resolution 849, calling for plans to dispatch military observers once a ceasefire began. The ceasefire came into effect on 27 July and on 6 August, in Resolution 854, the Security Council called for an advance team of 10 military observers to be sent to Abkhazia. On 24 August, Resolution 858 established the UN



Observer Mission in Georgia (UNOMIG), authorizing 88 military observers to verify compliance with the ceasefire and investigate violations.

Abkhazian forces launched another attack on Sukhumi on 16 September 1993, winning control of the city on 27 September. The Security Council passed Resolution 881 on 4 November, approving the extension of UNOMIG until 31 January 1994. On 1 December 1993, UN-sponsored negotiations began in Geneva where Georgia and Abkhazia signed a Memorandum of Understanding and promised not to use force against each other during the negotiations. The negotiations stalled when Abkhazia refused to recognize Georgia's territorial integrity. On 22 December 1993, the Security Council passed Resolution 892 authorizing the phased deployment of 50 additional military observers.

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