

MUNAPAC'26

H-DISEC Study Guide



Historical Disarmament
and International Security
Committee

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1. Letter from the Secretary-General

Dear Participants of MUNAPAC'26,

My role as the Secretary-General grants me the distinct honor of contributing to a conference that embodies the principles of education, excellence, and collaboration. Engaging with a team of exceptionally dedicated and talented individuals, I am truly excited to help shape an event that reflects the very best of our community. Motivated by our shared vision, we strive to deliver an experience that captures the spirit and ambition of our club. Rooted in a strong tradition of Model United Nations excellence, this year's conference continues to build upon years of dedication and growth.

Every member of our academic and organizational teams has worked tirelessly to ensure that MUNAPAC'26 becomes an unforgettable experience. Not only do we aim to provide three remarkable days, but also to contribute meaningfully to your academic and personal growth. In this spirit, our conference offers a wide and dynamic range of committees designed to appeal to all styles of debate. Notably, this year we are proud to present 12 unique committees, each crafted with immense care and originality.

Among them are Historical GA1: DISEC where you can relieve the political tension of the breakup of a major state, GA4: SPECPOL which brings you an out-of-this-world debate experience; forming the backbone of our General Assembly and international governance discussions.

Moreover, our special committees consist of UNHRC in which you will be the voice of the unheard, Historical UNSC where the dust of the Middle East can be felt, Historical NATO and the desperate need for a reform, Parlamento Italiano with its unique Mediterranean atmosphere, World Trade Organization where global trade is in your hands, and the Worcester Convention where the fight for equality is born; all bringing diverse political perspectives to the table.

Keeping innovation and adrenaline at the core of our crisis committees; the Department of Homeland Security attempts to maintain public security, FCC: Small Council is challenged with the well-being of Westeros, FCC The Apocalypse of St. John plunges delegates into a world of prophecy and chaos, and JCC: Anglo-Soviet Invasion of Iran takes delegates back to WWII to relive the unjust nature of war.

On behalf of the APAC Model United Nations Team, I truly hope MUNAPAC'26 will be an unforgettable experience for each and every one of you, and eagerly anticipate welcoming you all to our conference this June.

Warm regards,
Saniyar Safari
Secretary-General, MUNAPAC'26

2. Letter from the Under-Secretary-General

Dear Delegates,

It is my great honor to welcome you all to the Historical Disarmament and International Security Committee (H-DISEC). As your Under-Secretary-General and as a citizen of Bosnia and Herzegovina, I am incredibly thrilled to see the passion, dedication and diverse ideas you will bring to our debates.

During three days of the conference, we are expecting you to overcome the challenges that occurred aftermath of the Yugoslav Wars and to evaluate NATO's intervention during the war. As the delegates, your main focus will be ensuring a peaceful environment in the Balkans region. Our committee will take place in the year of 2003.

Additionally, I encourage you to do research on your own besides the study guide in order to understand the historical affects, feel the atmosphere in a comprehensive manner.

If you have any questions about the study guide or the committee, you can contact me via vegakenankaalafat@gmail.com address. I truly hope you will have a wonderful three days at MUNAPAC'26.

Best Regards,
Kenan Kaan Kalafat
Under-Secretary-General of H-DISEC, MUNAPAC'26

3. Introduction to the Committee

The Disarmament and International Security Committee (DISEC) of the United Nations (UN) is the primary Main Committee of the General Assembly, which is why it is known as “The First Committee”. It was formed in 1945 following the conclusion of the Second World War. DISEC is likewise an organization under the United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA). The UNODA addresses nuclear arms and weapons of mass destruction, as well as disarmament of conventional arms. DISEC, by engaging in its activities within the General Assembly for substantive norm development, aids in advancing its disarmament efforts. This committee is vital to the UN’s overarching aim of diminishing the international arms race and averting the intensification of military disputes.

The main aim of DISEC is to set out fundamental guidelines for collaboration in preserving international peace and security. DISEC particularly emphasizes the principles related to disarmament and aims to tackle threats from both conventional and unconventional arms. It aims to limit the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, particularly biological, chemical, and nuclear arms. In all its activities, DISEC sought to create global standards that regulate arms control. In summary, DISEC aims to ensure security in all areas and safeguard citizens worldwide by promoting peace and stability through global collaboration, with the goal of supporting enduring solutions.

Despite being referred to as the Main Committee, DISEC lacks the power to implement any resolutions. Since DISEC primarily promotes and writes international agreements pertaining to arms control and disarmament, its influence is restricted. It serves as the United Nations Security Council's (UNSC) advisory board. Despite the political differences among the member nations, DISEC promotes international collaboration by giving member states a venue and highlighting the larger objective of world peace and security throughout treaty drafting. Through facilitating discourse, drafting resolutions, and promoting agreements, DISEC continues to play a crucial role in attaining the Sustainable Development Goals and international peace and security despite lacking the authority to take action.

4. Introduction to the Agenda Item

The Yugoslav Wars occurred in the 1990s when the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia fell apart. These conflicts, which occurred in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kosovo, were driven by rising nationalism, ethnic divisions, and political problems within the region. The wars had severe humanitarian consequences, including a significant number of civilian deaths and extensive displacement, as many individuals were forced to leave their homes based on ethnic identity. Although the conflicts formally ended by the early 2000s, As of 2003, there was still an enormous amount of instability and debate due to unsolved ethnic tensions and uncertain condition about the region's political systems.

Throughout the wars, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) intervened with the aim of limiting violence and addressing the humanitarian crisis. NATO started operations in Bosnia, Herzegovina and Kosovo, including air strikes and the application of no-fly zones. These actions were intended to protect civilians, support humanitarian rights, and contribute to reconstruction and stability of the area. NATO's engagement in conflicts outside of its member nations' borders was a sign of change from its traditional purpose of area defense.

However, NATO's interventions remain as a subject of debate within the international community. Although some claim that these measures were required to stop additional crimes and protect the civilian population. Others question their legality and how they impact state sovereignty, especially in situations where the United Nations didn't approve at all. The long-term effectiveness of these methods in ensuring permanent stability is also still being investigated.

As the committee takes place in 2003, it will not focus on ongoing conflict, instead its main goal will be reviewing past events and taking lessons from them. The committee's objective is to evaluate and judge NATO's actions during the Yugoslav Wars, identifying which strategies proved effective and which did not. Furthermore, it seeks to examine how the international community should respond to similar situations in the future while considering state sovereignty. The role of international organizations, such as the United Nations, in maintaining peace and security will also be considered. In general, the committee will use the Yugoslav Wars to gather essential lessons for international action in the future.

4.1. Key Terms and Definitions

To fully understand the discussion on NATO's role in the Yugoslav Wars and the broader implications for international intervention, it is important to clarify key terms and phrases used in this committee:

Yugoslav Wars: Conflicts in the 1990s following the dissolution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, primarily in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kosovo.

Dissolution: The breakup or disbanding of a state or organization. In this context, it refers to the end of Yugoslavia as a federal state.

Yugoslav People's Army (JNA): The official military force of the Social Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. It was founded by Josip Broz Tito in 1945. On 20 May 1992, the JNA was formally dissolved.

United Nations Protected Areas (UNPA): Special areas in the war zone that have been demilitarized by the United Nations Security Council in order to protect the civilians in the region.

Contact Group: An organization aiming to negotiate to immediately end the war in Bosnia and sign a cease-fire agreement including the USA, Russia, France, Britain, France, and Germany.

Bosnian Serbs: One of the three constitutive nations of the country, predominantly residing in the political-territorial entity of Republika Srpska and declaring themselves Orthodox Christians and speakers of the Serbian language.

United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR): The first United Nations peacekeeping force in Croatia and in Bosnia and Herzegovina during the Yugoslav Wars.

Nationalism: Political ideology emphasizing the interests of a particular nation or ethnic group, often leading to conflict when multiple groups coexist within the same state.

Ethnic Divisions: The separation of communities based on ethnic identity, which contributed to tensions and violence in the region.

Political Instability: A state in which government structures are weak, contested, or unable to maintain order, often increasing the risk of conflict.

Civilian Casualties: Non-combatants who are injured or killed during armed conflict.

Displacement: Forced movement of people from their homes due to conflict, persecution, or violence.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO): A military alliance of member states that intervened during the Yugoslav Wars to protect civilians and support humanitarian efforts.

Air Strikes: Military attacks from aircraft targeting strategic locations, often used to limit enemy operations or protect civilians.

No-Fly Zones: Areas in which certain aircraft are prohibited from flying, enforced to reduce hostilities and protect civilians.

Humanitarian Crisis: Situations in which large populations face threats to life, health, or safety, often requiring international assistance.

State Sovereignty: The principle that a state has authority over its territory and internal affairs without outside interference.

Intervention: Actions taken by external parties, such as NATO, to influence the outcome of a conflict or prevent harm to civilians.

Post-Conflict Stability: The period after a conflict when political, social, and economic structures are being rebuilt to prevent renewed violence.

International Community: The collective group of nations and organizations involved in global governance, humanitarian aid, and security efforts.

4.2. Timeline

This timeline highlights the reasons, humanitarian effects, and international reaction to significant events that occurred during the Yugoslav Wars and NATO's involvement:

1991

Croatia and Slovenia claimed their independence after the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia divided apart. After an immediate armed confrontation with the Yugoslav federal forces, The Yugoslav wars had started. Significant civilian casualties and displacement were caused by the conflict, which started an ethnic tension that would last until the 1990s.

1992

After Bosnia and Herzegovina's declaration of independence, Bosniaks, Croats, and Serbs engaged in the war. Escalation of ethnic divisions resulted in massacres, forced relocation and assaults on civilian populations. Calls for assistance and intervention started as the international community realized how serious the humanitarian crisis was.

1992–1995

NATO created a no-fly zone over Bosnia in order to protect people from air attacks. During this time, relief activities for displaced individuals were handled by humanitarian aid organizations with help from the UN and NATO. Even though some direct hazards to civilians were reduced by these efforts, ethnic cleansing and violence remained in several areas.

1994–1995

In order to protect civilian populations and apply pressure on Bosnian Serb forces to stick to the terms of the ceasefire, NATO carried out targeted airstrikes. These attacks signaled a change toward active participation in humanitarian situations and showed NATO's willingness to go beyond its typical collective defense role.

December 1995

The Dayton Peace Agreement formally ended the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In order to stabilize the area, it created a framework for territorial division and political governance. Even though the deal put an end to hostilities, underlying ethnic tensions remained. Underlining the challenges of post-war recovery

1998–1999

The conflict between Yugoslav troops and ethnic Albanian groups fighting for independence in Kosovo grew more violent. There were serious humanitarian problems, mass displacement, and widespread human rights violations, all of which required immediate international response. The circumstances made it clear that coordinated action is required to protect civilians.

March–June 1999

Targeting Yugoslav military structures, NATO launched a 78-day air campaign. In addition to facilitating humanitarian access, the operation intended to stop ethnic cleansing. Although it was successful in pressuring Yugoslav forces to leave, debates over its legality and effects on civilian populations emerged, highlighting the conflict between state sovereignty and humanitarian objectives.

June 1999

Yugoslav forces left Kosovo after NATO intervened to stabilize the area and help displaced individuals return home. International peacekeepers, humanitarian organizations, and reconstruction teams were sent in the area. Although difficulties remained, this was a sign that conflict was about to end.

2000–2003

In Bosnia, Kosovo, and other affected regions, reconstruction activities had begun. Rebuilding facilities, public services and governance institutions have been coordinated by international organizations including : NATO, the United Nations, the European Union, the World Bank, UNDP, and humanitarian NGOs like UNICEF and the Red Cross. Despite these initiatives, rehabilitation was made difficult by unequal funding, security issues and ongoing ethnic differences. Highlighting the difficulties of post-conflict reconstruction.

5. Details of Yugoslav Wars



5.1. Slovenian War of Independence

The Ten-Day War or the Slovenian War of Independence was an armed conflict that followed Slovenia's declaration of independence from Yugoslavia on 25 June 1991. It was fought between the Slovenian Territorial Defence and the Slovenian National Police Force on one side, and the Yugoslav People's Army on the other. On 25 June 1991, a constitutional law on independence was adopted by the Slovenian Assembly. Yugoslav signs and flags at border crossings were replaced with Slovenian ones, and border crossings with Croatia set up. The evening of the same day, the Federal Executive Council assembled in Belgrade. It issued a command for the protection of the national borders in Slovenia, which gave the JNA forces the green light for an armed attack on Slovenia.

After 10 days from the start of the war, on July 3 1991, JNA forces agreed to sign a ceasefire and the JNA forces were allowed to withdraw peacefully back to their barracks. The war concluded with the victory of Slovenia. It was agreed that all Yugoslav military units would leave Slovenia, with the Yugoslav government setting a deadline of the end of October to complete the process. The Slovenian government insisted that the withdrawal should proceed on its terms; the JNA was not allowed to take much of its heavy weaponry and

equipment, which was later either deployed locally or sold to other Yugoslav republics. The withdrawal began about ten days later and was completed by 26 October.

According to rough estimates, the YPA had 44 casualties and 146 wounded, and the Slovenian side 19 casualties and 182 wounded. 12 foreign citizens were killed. There is no data available as to the number of Slovenian soldiers killed while attempting to escape from the JNA forces.

5.2. Croatian War of Independence

The Croatian War of Independence was an armed conflict fought in Croatia from 1991 to 1995 between Croat forces loyal to the Government of Croatia, which had declared independence from the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY) on the same day as Slovenia, and the Serb controlled Yugoslav People's Army (JNA).

The ethnic Serb minority in Croatia openly rejected the authority of the newly proclaimed Croatian state pointing to the right to remain within Yugoslavia. With the help of the JNA and Serbia, Croatian Serbs rebelled, declaring nearly a third of Croatia's territory under their control to be an independent Serb state. Croats and other non-Serbs were expelled from its territory in a violent campaign of ethnic cleansing. Heavy fighting in the second half of 1991 witnessed the bombing of the ancient city of Dubrovnik and destruction of Vukovar by Serb forces.

After the ceasefire of January 1992 and international recognition of the Republic of Croatia as a sovereign state, the United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) was deployed, and combat became largely intermittent in the following three years. In January 1992, the Vance Plan established UN controlled (UNPA) zones for Serbs in the territory which was claimed by the Serbian rebels as the self-proclaimed proto-state Republic of Serbian Krajina (RSK) and brought an end to major military operations, but sporadic artillery attacks on Croatian cities and occasional invasions into UNPA zones by Croatian forces continued until 1995. The war in Croatia effectively ended in the fall of 1995 with a victory of Croatia, as it achieved the goals it had declared at the beginning of the war: independence and preservation of its borders. Approximately 21–25% of Croatia's economy was ruined, with an estimated \$37 billion in damaged infrastructure, lost output, and refugee-related costs. Over 20,000 people were killed in the war, and refugees were displaced on both sides. The Serbian and Croatian governments began to progressively cooperate with each other, but tensions remain in part due to lawsuits filed by each country against the other.

5.3. Bosnian War of Independence

The Bosnian War was an international armed conflict that took place in Bosnia and Herzegovina between 1992 and 1995. The war is commonly seen as having started on 6 April 1992 when the newly independent Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina was internationally recognized. The war was part of the breakup of Yugoslavia. Following the Slovenian and Croatian secessions from the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1991, the multi-ethnic Socialist Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which was inhabited by mainly Muslim Bosniaks (44%), Orthodox Serbs (32.5%) and Catholic Croats (17%), passed a referendum for independence on 29 February 1992. Political representatives of the Bosnian Serbs boycotted the referendum and rejected its outcome. Anticipating the outcome of the referendum, the Bosnian Serb leadership proclaimed the "Republic of the Serb People of Bosnia and Herzegovina" on 9 January 1992.

Following the independence declaration of the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina on 1 March 1992, the Bosnian Serbs, led by Radovan Karadžić, supported by the government of the president of Serbia Slobodan Milošević, and supplied by the Yugoslav People's Army (JNA), mobilized their forces inside Bosnia and Herzegovina and over the following months seized control of approximately 70% of the country's territory in a campaign characterized by widespread ethnic cleansing of Bosnian Croats and Bosniaks. The Bosnian War was characterised by bitter fighting, unselective bombing of cities and towns and ethnic cleansing,

Several peace plans have been proposed but they were mainly rejected. The conflict continued to escalate between sides despite the struggle to establish peace in the region. In the following years the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) imposed embargoes on Serbia and the UN declared 'safe areas' which were intended to be protected in Bosnia by UN troops.

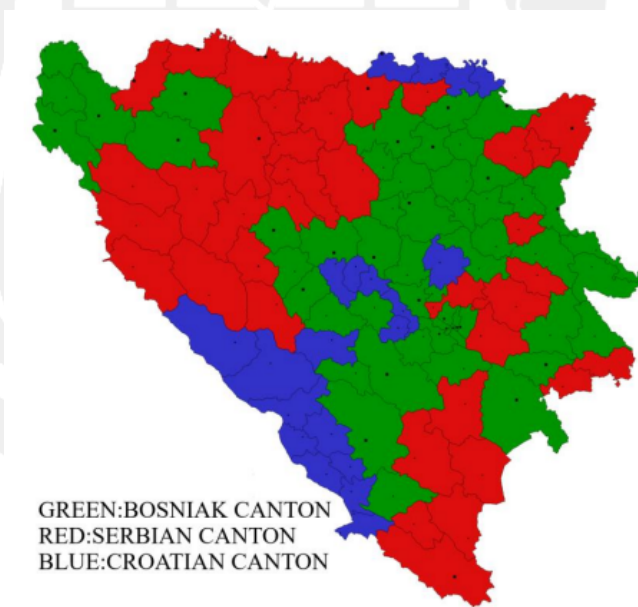
The Serbs, although initially militarily superior due to the weapons and resources provided by the JNA, eventually lost momentum as the Bosniaks and Croats allied against the Republika Srpska with the creation of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina following the Washington Agreement signed between the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Croatian Republic of Herzeg-Bosnia.

In February 1994, in NATO's first-ever use of force, its fighters shot down four Bosnian Serb aircraft that were violating the UN-imposed no-fly zone over the country. Later that year, at the UN's request, NATO launched isolated and ineffective air strikes against

Bosnian Serb targets. After the Srebrenica and Markale massacres, NATO intervened in 1995 with Operation Deliberate Force, targeting the positions of the Army of the Republika Srpska, which proved key in ending the war. This action led Bosnian Serb forces to agree to the United States sponsored peace talks in Dayton in November. The war ended with the Dayton Peace Agreement initiated on 21 November 1995. Following the Dayton Agreement, a NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR) was deployed to Bosnia-Herzegovina. This 80,000 strong unit, was deployed in order to enforce the peace, as well as other tasks such as providing support for humanitarian and political aid, reconstruction, providing support for displaced civilians to return to their homes, collection of arms, and mine and unexploded ordnance clearing of the affected areas. It was originally estimated that at least 200,000 people were killed and more than 2,000,000 displaced during the war.

6. Peace Plans

6.1. Carrington–Cutileiro Plan

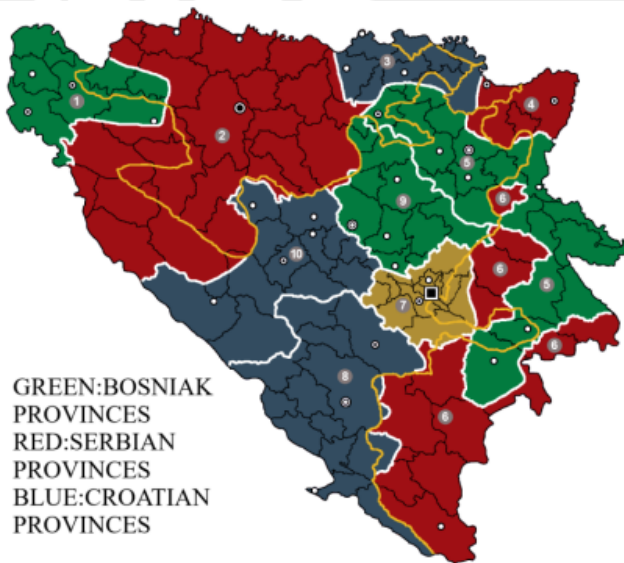


The original Carrington–Cutileiro peace plan, named for its authors Lord Carrington and Portuguese ambassador José Cutileiro, resulted from the EC Peace Conference held in February 1992 in an attempt to prevent Bosnia-Herzegovina going into war. It was also quoted as the Lisbon Agreement. This plan aimed to avert conflict by restructuring the republic along ethnic lines while preserving its external borders and independence. This peace plan

classified Bosnian districts as Bosniak, Serb, or Croat and proposed ethnic power-sharing on all administrative levels and the devolution of central government to local ethnic communities. Bosnia would be divided into 3 cantons, both 44% for Bosnian and Serbian cantons and 12% for Croatian cantons. On 18 March 1992, all three sides signed the agreement; Alija Izetbegović for the Bosniaks, Radovan Karadžić for the Bosnian Serbs and Mate Boban for the Bosnian Croats. The plan had assigned each of the 109 municipalities to

be divided amongst the three ethnic sides. The allocation of the municipalities was mostly based on the results of the 1991 population census that was completed a year before the signing of the agreement. On 28 March 1992, after a meeting with US ambassador to Yugoslavia Warren Zimmermann in Sarajevo, Izetbegović withdrew his signature and declared his opposition to any division, pointing out the plan's division of territory as incompatible with a unified, multi-ethnic Bosnia.

6.2. Vance–Owen Peace Plan

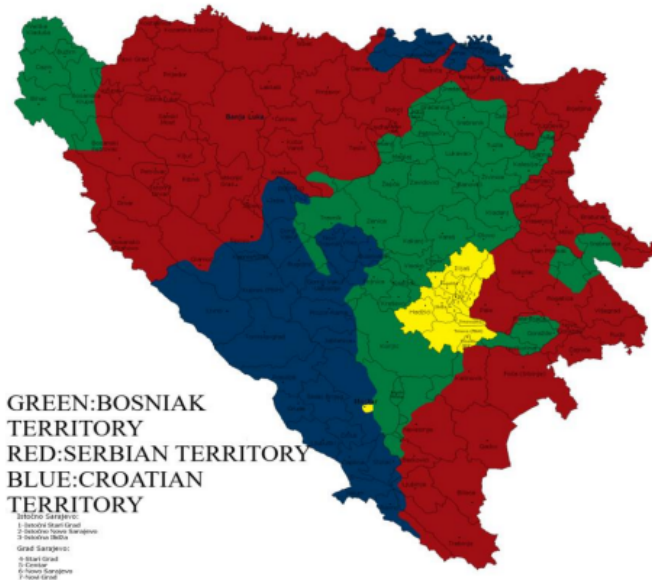


The Vance–Owen Peace Plan was proposed by the UN Special Envoy Cyrus Vance and EC representative Lord Owen in early 1993 as an international effort to end the Bosnian War. The proposal, which became known as the "Vance-Owen Peace Plan", involved the division of Bosnia into ten semi-autonomous regions and received the backing of the UN. Territorially, the arrangement allocated approximately 43% of

Bosnia's land to Serb-majority provinces, 30% to Bosniak-majority areas, 17% to Croat-majority provinces, and 10% to a mixed-ethnicity province. Constitutionally, it established a tripartite presidency rotating among the three constituent peoples, Bosniaks, Serbs, and Croats, with executive and legislative powers largely devolved to provincial levels, overseen by a constitutional court including international judges to safeguard human rights and minority protections. Military provisions commanded an immediate ceasefire upon Security Council approval, separation of forces within days, withdrawal of heavy weapons, and progressive demilitarization under UNPROFOR supervision, alongside commitments to restore civil utilities like power and water. Bosnian Croats and Bosniaks formally signed the detailed constitutional and territorial maps in New York on March 25, 1993, but Bosnian Serb delegates conducted a referendum on May 2 where 96% opposed it, followed by an assembly

vote on May 6 rejecting the peace plan. On June 18, Lord Owen declared that the plan was "dead".

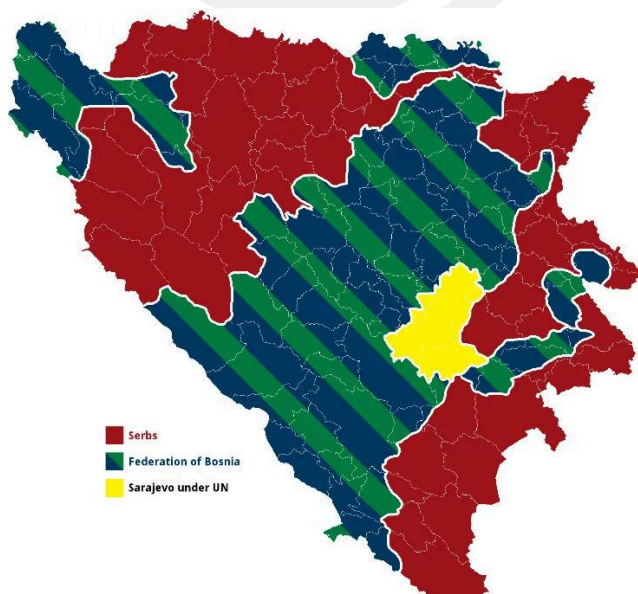
6.3. Owen–Stoltenberg Plan



The Owen-Stoltenberg Plan emerged in June 1993 as a diplomatic initiative by David Owen, the European Community's chief negotiator, and Thorvald Stoltenberg, the United Nations' special representative, following the collapse of the Vance-Owen framework due to Bosnian Serb rejection. This proposal aimed to resolve the Bosnian War by restructuring Bosnia and Herzegovina into a confederation of three republics: Serb, Croat, and Bosniak. Each exercising sovereignty over internal affairs, with a minimal central authority limited to foreign policy, defense coordination, and monetary policy. According to the plan, Bosnian Serbs would control over 52%, Bosniaks 28%, and Bosnian Croats 17% of the land, based on a map drawn to minimize inter-ethnic boundaries while acknowledging demographic realities and military lines. The plan included provisions for population exchanges, demilitarization of certain zones, and international guarantees for corridors linking the republics. On September 30, 1993, the Bosnian parliament in Sarajevo rejected the plan.

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6.4. Contact Group Plan



The Contact Group, formed in April 1994 by ambassadors from the United States, Russia, France, the United Kingdom, and Germany. The purpose of this plan was to show diplomatic efforts and make progress regarding the stalled peace talks. On July 6, 1994, the group

unveiled its peace proposal, which built upon the March 1994 Washington Agreement establishing the Bosniak-Croat Federation and proposed a territorial settlement allocating 51 percent of Bosnia and Herzegovina's land to the Federation and 49 percent to the Bosnian Serbs' Republika Srpska. The plan emphasized Bosnia's sovereignty and territorial integrity, prohibiting separation and included demilitarization of heavy weapons in designated zones, and safeguards for refugee returns and human rights. Unlike other plans, this plan incorporated incentives tied to economic reconstruction and NATO enforcement threats. The Bosniak-led government in Sarajevo initially resisted the 51 percent allocation, viewing it as insufficient, but President Alija Izetbegović accepted it by late July 1994. However, Bosnian Serb leaders, controlling territories far beyond the proposed 49 percent, rejected the plan and their assembly voted against it on August 3, 1994, followed by a referendum on August 27-28 where 97% of voters opposed.

7. Reasons of the Breakup of Yugoslavia

7.1. Ethnic Heterogeneity

Yugoslavia comprised six republics and two autonomous provinces, uniting a mix of different people such as Serbs, Croats, Bosniaks, Slovenes, Macedonians, Montenegrins and Albanians. Each group had its own history and dreams for the future. Although the government preached "Brotherhood and Unity," old tensions always simmered just below the surface. In the 1980s, with the weakening of the central government, nationalist ideas became stronger and the leaders started to use ethnicity to gain political power. This was one of the reasons for the country to fall apart.

7.2. Religious motivations

In Yugoslavia, religion often was the same as ethnic identity. Serbs were primarily Orthodox Christian, Croats were mostly Catholic, and Bosniaks were primarily Muslim. These problems were not usually caused directly by religion itself, but politicians sometimes exploited these differences to gain support or push their own agendas. This made it harder for

people to trust each other, and made the gaps between communities even wider, making peaceful compromise even harder.

7.3. Political instability

The death of Josip Broz Tito in 1980 marked a turning point for Yugoslavia. Tito had managed to balance the country through strong leadership. Without him the new leaders couldn't keep things together. Some republics wanted more freedom, some wanted a stronger central government. There were disagreements about political power. These disagreements weakened Yugoslavia and contributed to even greater instability.

7.4. Income Inequality

The breakup of Yugoslavia was in large part due to economic problems. In the 1980s, the country experienced high inflation, growing foreign debt, unemployment, and lower living standards. At the same time, wealthier republics such as Slovenia and Croatia felt that they were contributing more than they were receiving from the federal economy, while poorer regions demanded more financial assistance. These differences made political arguments more contentious. They argued that their contribution to the federal economy was greater than the benefits they received while less developed areas were looking for continued federal assistance. These economic disparities deepened political differences and strengthened separatist movements.

7.5. External Factors

External forces also played a role in the breakup of Yugoslavia. The end of the Cold War and the collapse of communist regimes in Eastern Europe spurred democratic reforms and independence movements. The crisis intensified when several nations recognized Slovenia and Croatia as independent. Debates about state sovereignty, humanitarian assistance and the responsibilities of the international community then became centrally focused on the international engagement in these conflicts.

8. NATO Intervention in Yugoslav Wars

8.1. International Conference on the Former Yugoslavia (ICFY)

The ICFY was an international diplomatic effort to negotiate peace during the Yugoslav Wars, established in August 1992. This conference aimed to negotiate ceasefires and peace agreements, address territorial disputes and state recognition, protect human rights and minorities, coordinate humanitarian assistance and develop long-term political solutions. The organisation was jointly organised by The United Nations and The European Community.

During the conference, there have been noticeable amounts of peace plans proposed including the Vance-Owen Peace Plan. However this peace plan collapsed due to the rejection of the Serbian side. In addition, the cooperation with the UN continued through the conference in order to facilitate aid delivery, address refugee crisis and monitor human rights conditions.

Despite its efforts, the ICFY faced major challenges such as lack of enforcement power, conflicting interests of countries, deep ethnic divisions and mistrust and ongoing war on the ground. In late 1995, after the signing of the Dayton Agreement, the ICFY effectively ended.

8.2. Operation Deliberate Force

Operation Deliberate Force was a sustained air campaign conducted by NATO, in concert with the UNPROFOR ground operations, to undermine the military capability of the Army of Republika Srpska (VRS), which had threatened and attacked UN-designated safe areas in Bosnia and Herzegovina during the Bosnian War, with the Srebrenica genocide. The operation was carried out between 30 August and 20 September 1995, involving 400 aircraft and 5,000 personnel from 15 nations. During the operation, over 338 Bosnian Serb targets were struck, including air defenses, command-and-control nodes and ammunition depots.

Within three weeks of the first bomb on target, Serb leaders agreed to enter serious negotiations in the three-year-old war. Within two months, the Dayton Accords had been signed, effectively bringing the war to an end. The operation is regarded as the prime modern

example of the use of airpower, can stop a ground force in its tracks and bring the worst of enemies to the bargaining table.

8.3. Dayton Accords

The General Framework Agreement for Peace in Bosnia and Herzegovina, also known as the Dayton Accords is the peace agreement ending the three-and-a-half-year-long Bosnian War, an armed conflict part of the larger Yugoslav Wars. It was signed on 21 November 1995 in Dayton, Ohio, United States.

These negotiations were initiated following the unsuccessful previous peace efforts and arrangements, the August 1995 Croatian military Operation Storm and its aftermath, the government military offensive against the Republika Srpska, conducted in parallel with NATO's Operation Deliberate Force. During September and October 1995, world powers, gathered in the Contact Group, pressured the leaders of the three sides to attend settlement negotiations; Dayton, Ohio was eventually chosen as the venue.

The agreement mandated a wide range of international organizations to monitor, oversee and implement components of the agreement. The NATO-led Implementation Force (IFOR) was responsible for implementing military aspects of the agreement and deployed on 20 December 1995, taking over the forces of the UNPROFOR. The Office of the High Representative was charged with the task of civil implementation. The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe was charged with organising the first free elections in 1996.

The warring parties agreed to peace and to a single sovereign state known as Bosnia and Herzegovina composed of two parts: the largely Serb-populated Republika Srpska and mainly Croat-Bosniak-populated Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Bosnian Serbs got large tracts of mountainous territories back but they had to surrender Sarajevo and some vital Eastern Bosnian and Herzegovian positions. Bosniaks got most of Sarajevo and some important positions in eastern Bosnia and Herzegovina while they lost only a few locations in western Bosnia.

8.4. The Implementation Force (IFOR)

The Implementation Force (IFOR) was deployed in Bosnia and Herzegovina in December 1995 with a one-year mandate to supervise implementation of the military aspects

of the Dayton Peace Agreement, the accord ending the Bosnian War. Its main task was to guarantee the end of hostilities and separate the armed forces of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, on the one hand, and Republika Srpska, on the other.

The Implementation Force supervised the transfer of territory between the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Republika Srpska, ensuring that heavy weapons were placed in approved storage areas.

As conditions on the ground improved, IFOR also supported organizations responsible for carrying out the civilian aspects of the Dayton Agreement, including the Office of the High Representative, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, and the United Nations.

By the elections held in September 1996, IFOR had largely achieved its main objectives. However, as the tension remained between parties and further progress was needed on civilian matters, NATO established the Stabilisation Force starting in December 1996.

8.5. The Stabilisation Force (SFOR)

The Stabilisation Force (SFOR) was a peace enforcement operation that was more generally referred to as a peace support operation. SFOR's primary task was to contribute to a safe and secure environment conducive to civil and political reconstruction.

Specifically, SFOR was tasked to deter or prevent a resumption of hostilities; to promote an environment in which the peace process could continue to move forward; and, to provide selective support within its means and capabilities to civilian organisations involved in this process.

SFOR's activities ranged from patrolling and providing area security through supporting defence reform and supervising de-mining operations, to arresting individuals indicted for war crimes and assisting the return of refugees and displaced people to their homes.

SFOR also collected and destroyed unregistered weapons and ordnance in private hands, in order to contribute to the overall safety of the population and to build confidence in the peace process.

9. Post-War Issues

9.1. Political Problems and Government Rebuilding

After the end of the Yugoslav Wars, one of the biggest challenges facing the Balkan region was rebuilding stable political systems. The collapse of Yugoslavia created several new independent states, but many of them had weak institutions, damaged economies, and deep ethnic divisions. Countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina faced difficulties creating effective governments because power had to be shared between different ethnic groups after years of conflict. Corruption, political disagreements, and nationalism continued to influence politics in many Balkan nations. International organizations such as the European Union, United Nations, and NATO became involved in helping countries strengthen democracy, improve governance, and maintain peace. Although progress was made over time, political instability remained a major issue, as some countries continued to experience tensions over national identity, borders, and the legacy of the wars.

9.2. Humanitarian Issues and Social Consequences

The Yugoslav Wars left a devastating humanitarian impact on the people of the Balkans. Millions of civilians were affected by violence, displacement, and the destruction of their homes and communities. Many people became refugees or internally displaced, creating one of the largest refugee crises in Europe since World War II. After the wars ended, governments and international organizations focused on helping civilians return home, providing medical assistance, and rebuilding communities. However, many survivors continued to experience the psychological effects of war, including trauma caused by violence and loss of family members. Another major issue was the large number of missing persons, with families continuing to search for information about relatives who disappeared during the conflicts. Reconciliation between different ethnic communities also became a major challenge, as memories of the violence continued to affect relationships between groups.

9.3. Economic Recovery and Reconstruction

The Yugoslav Wars caused severe economic damage throughout the Balkans. Cities, factories, roads, and other important infrastructure were destroyed, while trade and investment declined because of instability. Many countries faced high unemployment, poverty, and difficulties rebuilding their economies after years of conflict. International aid from countries such as the United States and European nations played an important role in reconstruction efforts. Foreign governments and organizations helped repair infrastructure, restore public services, and support economic development. Over time, Balkan countries began rebuilding their economies and increasing cooperation with European markets. However, economic recovery was uneven, and some areas continued to struggle with poverty and limited opportunities. The long-term goal for many Balkan nations became creating stable economies and improving living standards while moving closer to European integration.

9.4. War Crimes and Justice

One of the most important post-war issues was addressing war crimes committed during the Yugoslav Wars. Serious crimes, including ethnic cleansing, massacres, and violations of human rights, occurred throughout the conflicts. To investigate and prosecute those responsible, the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY) was established by the United Nations in 1993. The tribunal investigated crimes committed in Bosnia, Croatia, Kosovo, and other areas, bringing many political and military leaders to trial. These efforts aimed to provide justice for victims and prevent future conflicts. However, the process was often controversial, as different communities had different views about responsibility and justice. Despite these challenges, war crimes investigations became an important part of rebuilding trust, recognizing victims, and creating a foundation for peace in the region.

9.5. International Influence and Peacekeeping Presence

After the wars ended, international organizations continued to play a major role in maintaining stability in the Balkans. NATO, the United Nations, and the European Union remained involved through peacekeeping missions, security assistance, and political support. NATO forces were deployed in areas such as Bosnia and Kosovo to prevent renewed violence

and support the implementation of peace agreements. International actors also helped train local security forces and encouraged cooperation between former opposing groups. While foreign involvement helped maintain peace, it also created debates about the level of outside influence in Balkan countries. Nevertheless, international support was considered important for preventing further conflict and assisting countries during their transition from war to peace.

9.6. The Future of the Balkans and European Integration

A major post-war goal for many Balkan countries has been closer integration with European institutions, especially the European Union. After the conflicts, many nations focused on improving democracy, strengthening economies, and creating better relations with neighboring countries in order to move toward European membership. The European Union encouraged reforms related to human rights, rule of law, and economic development. Countries such as Croatia successfully joined the EU, while others continued working toward membership. However, challenges remained, including unresolved political disputes, corruption, and ethnic tensions. Despite these difficulties, regional cooperation increased compared to the years immediately after the wars. The future of the Balkans continues to depend on political stability, economic progress, and the ability of countries to overcome the divisions created by the conflicts.

10. Major Parties Involved

10.1. United States of America

The United States initially adopted a cautious and somewhat passive stance toward the Yugoslav Wars, preferring to support European-led diplomatic efforts rather than intervene directly. In the early 1990s, under President George H. W. Bush, the U.S. emphasized the preservation of Yugoslavia's territorial integrity and avoided early recognition of breakaway republics such as Croatia and Slovenia.

However, as the conflicts intensified, especially during the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina and reports of ethnic cleansing increased, U.S. policy shifted. Under President

Bill Clinton, the United States took a more active role. It supported sanctions against Serbia and played a leading part within NATO.

In 1995, NATO, strongly backed by the U.S., launched airstrikes against Bosnian Serb forces, which helped push the parties toward negotiations. This led to the Dayton Agreement, brokered largely through American diplomacy.

Later, during the Kosovo War, the U.S. again supported NATO intervention, including a sustained bombing campaign against Serbian targets to stop humanitarian abuses. After the conflicts, the United States played a major role in reconstruction and stabilization across the Balkans. It provided financial aid, supported infrastructure rebuilding, and helped establish democratic institutions in war-torn countries. Through cooperation with organizations like NATO and the United Nations, the U.S. contributed to peacekeeping missions and security reforms. Additionally, it backed war crimes investigations through the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia, promoting accountability and justice.

Overall, the United States moved from initial reluctance to decisive military and diplomatic leadership, playing a key role in ending major conflicts and shaping post-war stability in the Balkans.

10.2. Russian Federation

The Russian Federation played a complex and evolving role during the Yugoslav Wars, largely shaped by historical, cultural, and political ties with Slavic and Orthodox nations in the Balkans. In the early stages, Russia, emerging from the collapse of the Soviet Union, was internally weakened and limited in its ability to project power abroad. Nevertheless, it generally supported Serbia diplomatically, opposing Western recognition of breakaway republics such as Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

During the 1990s, under President Boris Yeltsin, Russia often criticized the actions of NATO, especially its military interventions. While Russia participated in diplomatic efforts and peace negotiations, including those leading to the Dayton Agreement, it remained strongly opposed to NATO's 1999 bombing campaign during the Kosovo War, viewing it as a violation of state sovereignty.

Despite political disagreements with the West, Russia contributed to post-war stabilization efforts. It took part in international peacekeeping missions in Bosnia and Kosovo alongside NATO forces, demonstrating limited cooperation. Additionally, Russia supported

reconstruction and humanitarian aid, though on a smaller scale compared to Western countries, due to its own economic struggles.

Overall, Russia's role combined diplomatic support for Serbia, opposition to Western military intervention, and selective participation in peacekeeping and recovery efforts, reflecting its attempt to maintain influence in the Balkans during a period of reduced global power.

10.3. France

During the Yugoslav Wars, France played an active diplomatic and military role, particularly as part of broader European and international efforts. In the early stages, France supported a unified European response and initially favored diplomatic solutions to preserve stability in the Balkans. However, as violence escalated, especially in Bosnia and Herzegovina, France became more directly involved through peacekeeping missions under the United Nations.

French troops were among the largest contributors to UN peacekeeping forces, tasked with protecting civilians and maintaining ceasefires, although their mandate was often limited. France later supported stronger military action through NATO, including airstrikes that helped lead to the Dayton Agreement. It also backed NATO intervention during the Kosovo War.

After the wars, France contributed to reconstruction by supporting political stabilization, rebuilding institutions, and participating in peacekeeping missions. It also promoted European integration for Balkan states, emphasizing long-term stability through cooperation with European institutions.

10.4. United Kingdom

The United Kingdom was a key international actor during the Yugoslav Wars, combining diplomacy, military involvement, and humanitarian efforts. Initially, the UK favored a cautious approach, prioritizing negotiations and working through international organizations like the United Nations to manage the conflict.

British forces were heavily involved in UN peacekeeping operations, especially in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where they were among the largest troop contributors. As the

situation worsened, the UK supported stronger intervention through NATO, including air campaigns that contributed to ending the Bosnian War and later intervention during the Kosovo War.

Following the conflicts, the UK played an important role in reconstruction and peacebuilding. It provided humanitarian aid, supported the rebuilding of infrastructure, and assisted in establishing democratic governance. The UK also contributed troops to long-term peacekeeping missions and supported international justice efforts, helping stabilize the region in the post-war period.

10.5. Germany

Germany played a significant diplomatic and political role during the Yugoslav Wars, particularly in the early recognition of independence movements. In 1991, Germany was among the first countries to recognize Croatia and Slovenia, which influenced broader European policy but also sparked controversy.

Due to historical and constitutional constraints, Germany was initially limited in direct military involvement. However, it later supported international efforts through NATO, including participation in operations during the Kosovo War, marking one of its first major military engagements since World War II.

Germany was especially active in post-war recovery. It provided substantial financial aid, accepted large numbers of refugees from the Balkans, and supported reconstruction projects. Additionally, Germany promoted political stability and economic development, encouraging Balkan countries to move toward integration with European institutions and long-term peace.

10.6. The Netherlands

Netherlands played a notable role during the Yugoslav Wars, primarily through its participation in United Nations peacekeeping missions. Dutch forces were deployed as part of UN operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, most prominently in the town of Srebrenica.

The Netherlands' role became historically significant due to the Srebrenica massacre, where Dutch peacekeepers were unable to prevent the killing of thousands of Bosniak

civilians. This failure, or better to say ignorance led to deep reflection and criticism within the Netherlands regarding peacekeeping mandates and responsibilities.

Despite this tragedy, the Netherlands continued to support international efforts through NATO and humanitarian aid. After the war, it contributed to reconstruction, justice initiatives, and peacebuilding. The Netherlands also strongly supported the work of the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia, emphasizing accountability and human rights in the post-war Balkans.

10.7. Türkiye

Türkiye took a strong political and humanitarian interest in the Yugoslav Wars, influenced by historical, cultural, and religious connections to Balkan Muslim populations, particularly in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo. From early in the conflict, Türkiye supported the independence and sovereignty of these states and condemned acts of ethnic cleansing.

Türkiye participated in international efforts through NATO, contributing to peacekeeping missions and supporting military interventions, including those during the Bosnian War and the Kosovo War. It also provided diplomatic backing to Bosnia on the international stage.

In the post-war period, Türkiye became highly active in reconstruction and recovery. It invested in infrastructure, cultural restoration, and economic development across the Balkans. Turkish institutions and aid organizations helped rebuild mosques, schools, and public services. Additionally, Türkiye promoted regional cooperation and maintained strong political ties with Balkan countries, positioning itself as an important partner in long-term stabilization and development.

10.8. Italy

Italy played an important regional role during the Yugoslav Wars, due to its geographic proximity to the Balkans. In the early stages, Italy supported diplomatic solutions and worked within European frameworks to manage the crisis. However, as violence escalated, particularly in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Italy became more actively involved through international organizations.

Italy contributed to peacekeeping missions under both the United Nations and NATO, and allowed its territory and airbases to be used for NATO operations, including air campaigns during the Bosnian War and later the Kosovo War. Its strategic location made it a key logistical hub for military and humanitarian efforts.

After the wars, Italy played a significant role in reconstruction and stabilization. It provided humanitarian aid, supported refugee assistance, especially for those crossing the Adriatic, and contributed to rebuilding infrastructure and institutions. Italy also promoted closer economic and political ties between Balkan countries and Europe, emphasizing long-term regional integration and stability.

11. Questions to Be Answered

- What role did the lack of coordination between the UN peacekeeping forces (UNPROFOR) and NATO play in the failure to prevent further conflicts in the region?
- What strategies should be applied in order to collect and destroy illicit arms and weapons left in the hands of non-state actors, militias and civilians in post conflict zones?
- How did NATO's use of force under the context of "humanitarian intervention" affect the principle of state sovereignty?
- What mechanisms should be established in order to prevent diversion of international aid into the illicit arms market caused by corruption and weak state institutions?
- How can the post conflict reconstruction funds be guaranteed to use for humanitarian development and infrastructure rather than military operations
- How did NATO's intervention affect security doctrines and military preparedness of non-NATO states?
- How should the economic damage caused by NATO bombings assessed regarding the responsibility of post-war recovery funding?
- How should the targeting of civilian infrastructure such as hospitals and media buildings during the operations be addressed in the framework of humanitarian law?

- What strategies should be implemented to prevent illicit arms trade in refugee camps due to lack of security?
- How did the displacement of refugees during the NATO air campaign affect the regional stability of countries?
- How can post-war governments manage the return of displaced populations without reigniting local violence?
- How did NATO's actions in the Balkans affect the international community's ability to respond to humanitarian crises and ethnic conflicts in later years?

