

NEGOTIATION MATTERS



NEGOTIATION MATTERS

A poster exhibition on critical negotiations
in recent history



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קרן פורום העתיד גרמניה-ישראל

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These are just words, useless pieces of paper” people sometimes say, tired of the umpteenth high-level meeting, political summit ending with a non-committal statement or even formally signed agreements.

While this may at times be true, we have decided to focus on the opposite – the power of words. Yes, this is an exhibition about talking, and about talks becoming deeds. Each of the 10 international negotiated and signed agreements presented by the students of the Shenkar-College (Tel Aviv) and of the Universität der Künste (Berlin) that were created upon the research of the INSS and German experts have proven powerful instruments that changed the course of history, and arguably more so than many armed conflicts that people are used to remember.

They were, to be sure, not perfect, many compromises had to be made, and often enough it meant overcoming a lot of prejudices and resistance. Still, as the late Amos Oz would have reminded us: you make peace with your enemy, not your friends.

We have also decided to include two conflicts still awaiting a peaceful, sustainable resolution. By juxtaposing them with agreements successfully achieved we hope that this project may also serve as a reminder: imagine that...

We wish to thank all the participating artists and their academic consultants for their great work as well as the German-Israeli Future Fund for its generous financial support.

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WHEN WORDS BECOME DEEDS

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ow to move from a state of conflict, often bloody or life-threatening, to an era of peace, of normal life? Why do we need negotiations, and what are they good for? I have fought in my country's wars and have negotiated my country's peace. Allow me to share a few thoughts.

Political, societal, security, economic and environmental negotiations do not concern only the individuals and their immediate surroundings. Success or failure of dialogue will necessarily affect the lives of hundreds of thousands of people, and in many cases even dozens and hundreds of millions, their safety and well-being.

This was definitely the case with the negotiated agreements included in this project, among which you may find a fresh and often critical outlook at how negotiations changed myriad dimensions of human lives across the globe: the Reparations agreement after WWII and the Holocaust (Israel and Germany, 1952); the London Debt Agreement (Germany and various countries, 1953); the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks, SALT I (US and Soviet Union, 1969-72); the Paris Peace Accords on Vietnam (US, South Vietnam and North Vietnam, 1973); the Camp David Agreement (Israel and Egypt, 1978); the Chemical Weapons Convention (United Nations, 1993); the South Africa National Peace Accord (South Africa, 1992); the Dayton Agreement (Serbia, Croatia, Bosnia & Herzegovina, 1995); the Good Friday Agreement (UK, Ireland, various Northern Irish parties, 1998); and the Paris Climate Agreement (international community, 2015).

The research and the artwork of Negotiation Matters illustrate how much negotiations do matter. They matter a lot.

In most cases, a peace process seems inseparable from bloodshed. When dialogue is going on, it is intertwined with mourning, misery and suffering. Leaders and negotiators operate under tremendous pressure. In such environment of crisis, one must have a compass that points firmly to the goal of the negotiations. And still, heading towards the ultimate end of conflict, one's compass needle shakes, trembles, and one falls face down time and time again while holding it. One then gets up, brushes off the dust, stabilizes the compass and start off his journey anew. Interestingly, in Hebrew, compass – *Matzpen*, the direction North – *Tsafon* – and conscience – *Matzpun* –

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GILEAD SHER

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support to the political process. Above all, such conflict resolution processes, more particularly in protracted, intractable conflicts, require leadership — a sound, reliable, courageous and determined type of leadership, that is ready to take the risks involved in such an endeavor and cope, among other things, with the spoilers, failures, obstacles and opposition.

A Jewish modern prayer written only seventy years ago when the State of Israel was established, reads *Establish peace in the land, and everlasting joy for its inhabitants*. Then, in 1948, there was no peace in sight, but the phrase carries with it throughout the years the hope that the situation will change. Indeed, one of the conflicts included herein which has not been resolved to-date is the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. One day this conflict, too, will be over — because it can, and it should be resolved. One day, Israelis and Palestinians will look around them in awe and say: is it really over? I never thought it could possibly end. A new reality will emerge, a much better one. It will be compliant with the strategic vision of Israel: a democratic national home for the Jewish People within secure boundaries alongside a viable demilitarized Palestinian State. I have never lost hope that this is possible and attainable.

Gilead wholeheartedly thanks his colleagues at the INSS Center for Applied Negotiations, research fellow David Gordon and research assistant Mor Ben-Kalifa for their indispensable, terrific work in initiating and pursuing this project. He is grateful to the Goethe Institute and to Dr. Wolf Iro and Luisa Rath for their esteemed partnership.

all come from the same linguistic root.

The goal of every negotiation is to transform reality. To extract the players from the current grave situation at a certain point in time, to another reality, a better one. And here, precisely, lies the problem for every negotiating leader: there is no certainty that the new reality that would be ultimately attained through negotiations would be better. This uncertainty about the future often de-motivates leaders at the outset from starting a dialogue altogether and thwarts negotiations throughout the process even if it does start.

In between war and peace there are countless situations that are not an all-out war — nor are they peace and tranquility. Arrangements, understandings, tacit agreements or the turning of a blind eye by the other party, coordinated unilateral steps, partial arrangements, and transitional arrangements. An all-out confrontation can be gradually reduced to a limited, subsided one.

When blood is boiling, people are filled with vengeance and anger, along with despair, bereavement, mistrust and frustration. Add to that the high probability of failure and you get the recipe for the suspension of one's will to engage in a negotiation process.

And yet, there is no substitute for negotiations.

Often, the key to resolving a dispute would not be the "truth", the "justice" or the objective facts, but what's in the minds of the respective parties. One needs to change peoples' habits and attitudes towards transformation. Once the public opinion is supportive of the change, because mindsets have been accommodated to it over time, it will help overcoming instinctive and natural resistance. From then onward, the next generation will speak a new language, use different words, address a different reality and relate to other texts. This post-conflict era is no less challenging: there are wounds that would not have yet healed, there is hatred that would have to be tempered and transformed into a contained sentiment to live with.

Achieving peace and security often necessitates hard, Sisyphean work, negotiation skills and painful compromises. Ending war and conflict is one thing, building peace is seldom a smaller challenge. Reconciling societies from within and without requires changing basic attitudes towards the other, altering stereotypes and reversing demonization. These are indispensable components in providing

REPARATIONS AGREEMENT WIEDERGUTMACHUNGSABKOMMEN הסכם השילומים

On 10 September 1952, Israeli foreign minister Moshe Sharett, representatives of the Jewish Claims Conference, and Chancellor of the Federal Republic of Germany Konrad Adenauer came together in the city of Luxembourg to sign a treaty, later referred to as the Luxembourg Agreements, marking a profound turning point in the tangled relations between Germany and the Jewish people after the Shoah.

Only a few years had passed since the German death and concentration camps had finally been liberated by the Allies, and the international community had slowly begun to grasp the unprecedented and monstrous crimes committed by the Germans and their collaborators against European and North African Jews during the Nazi regime (victims of the Nazi regime included communists, homosexuals, so-called 'anti-socials', political opponents, disabled patients, Sinti and Roma, and Russian POWs). Six million Jewish men, women and children were murdered by the Germans during the Holocaust; thousands of Jewish communities were completely destroyed; families were torn apart; and hundreds of thousands of Jewish refugees, devastated after losing their loved ones, were now looking for a new home. It was against this background that the two delegations, the State of Israel and the Federal Republic of Germany, got together in Luxembourg to sign the agreement about reparations (German: *Wiedergutmachung*).

According to the agreement, the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) was to transfer goods and services in an amount equivalent to DM 3 billion to the State of Israel for the duration of twelve years (1953–1965), as compensation for the great economic damage and loss of Jewish property caused by the Nazi regime. Furthermore, a sum of DM 450 million was to be transferred to the Jewish Claims Conference, principally for the benefit of Holocaust survivors who were living outside Israel at the time.

The negotiations six months prior to the signing of the agreements did not pass without controversy in Israel. Those in favor of the agreement, such as

'Adenauer's Germany is not Hitler's Germany. Today's Germany will never again be what it was before World War II. "In those days one will no longer say the parents have eaten sour grapes, and the children's teeth are set on edge". The Nazis were criminals, they will suffer. But not their children.'

David Ben Gurion, 1968

"Wiedergutmachung". Do you know what it means in Hebrew? Correcting injustice! [...] they didn't just kill six million men, women and children. They robbed our blood [...] Correcting the historical injustice that you have done to the Jewish people?! [...] We don't want German money!

Menachem Begin, 1952

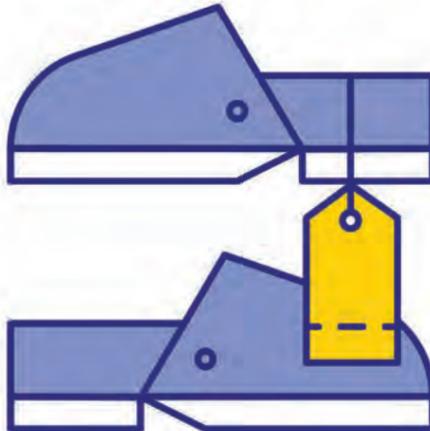
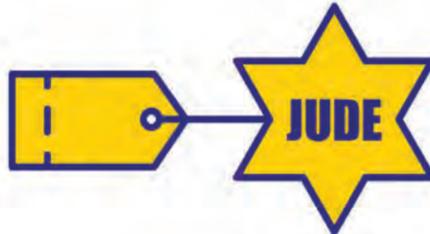
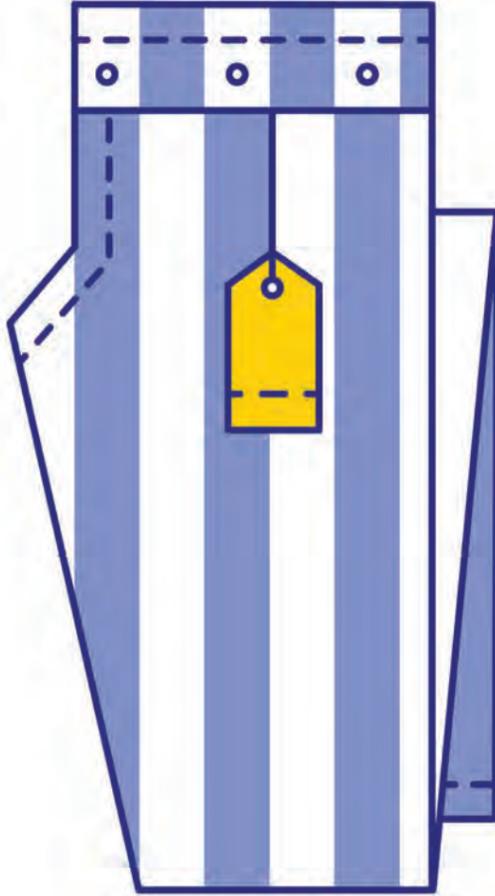
Prime Minister David Ben-Gurion (Mapai party) and Foreign Minister Sharett, took a pragmatic approach, according to which receiving reparations from post-war Germany by no means meant 'forgiving' the Germans for the crimes of the past; on the contrary, the agreement would prevent a situation in which 'the murderers become the heirs as well' (Ben Gurion). Furthermore, Ben Gurion claimed that 'Adenauer's Germany is not Hitler's Germany' and that the 'children's generation is not to blame for the crimes of their fathers'. Economic support from the FRG would, according to the supporters' camp, contribute to the existence of the young Israeli state and build its strength considerably. Israel during the 1950s suffered a great deal from poor economic condition. This, along with the constant fight for existence, served as fertile ground for the signing of the agreement. It allowed Ben-Gurion and Sharett to argue in favour of signing the agreement out of pure Israeli interest and concern for the future of Israeli society.

The opposition, on the other hand, led by Menachem Begin, head of the Herut party, along with the General Zionists and the communist party Mapam, strongly opposed the agreement, claiming that 'Jewish blood' could never be negotiated or compensated for, and that taking German money was the equivalent of 'forgiving' the Nazis. This led to a heated public debate in Jerusalem's Zion Square, which almost ended in the opponents invading the Knesset.

The Luxembourg Agreements were finally signed in 1952, in spite of the heated debate within Israeli society and voices calling for its cancellation. The financial aid provided by the FRG to the State of Israel undoubtedly contributed massively to the economy of the Israeli state, established only a few years previously, and boosted its growth in the decades to come. Signing the agreement never meant, by any of the sides, to 'compensate' or 'make up' for the horrific crimes committed by the Germans against the Jews during the Shoah. They signified, however, an important basis for diplomatic relations in the future.

SALE

NO EXCHANGE • NO RETURN • NO REFUND



THE ELYSEE TREATY

Germany and France before the treaty

How a 75 year-long dispute started

Poor relations between Germany and France lasted so long that the German people even had a word for it: Erbfeindschaft, hereditary enmity.

It started in 1870, when most of the German kingdoms were slowly uniting to form one nation. Napoleon III had started to fear an imbalance of power created in 1815 by the Congress of Vienna. On 16 July 1870 the French parliament voted to declare war on the German Kingdom of Prussia. However, in 1871 the German Empire was founded under the rule of Prussian king Wilhelm I. The war ended with the Treaty of Frankfurt, which gave Germany large parts of previously French-owned Alsace and Lorraine. The French were determined to gain their lost territory back.



French emperor / Napoleon III



Charles de Gaulle, president of France from 1959 to 1969



Konrad Adenauer, German Chancellor from 1949 to 1963

Germany and France after the treaty

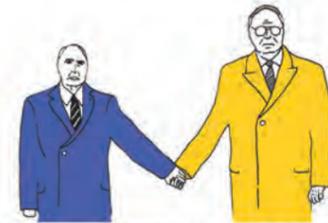
A rough start

At first it seemed that the Élysée Treaty was not very effective beyond its symbolic meaning. The regular meetings and consultations took place but did not show the desired results. It was only over the course of several years that the results began to show.

First results

The military cooperation started off well in 1988, with the creation of the French-German Defence and Security. A French-German brigade established in 1989 promoted contact between soldiers of both countries and started mutual missions abroad.

The goals set for joint youth education projects were met and even exceeded, with the DFJW (German-French youth foundation) organising over 300,000 exchange programs. Over eight million adolescents have participated in bilateral activities since its creation.



As for the treaty's symbolic meaning: in the 1960s and 1970s, the treaty's anniversaries were met with little enthusiasm. But that changed with French president François Mitterrand. In 1984, Mitterrand and West German Chancellor Helmut Kohl were pictured holding hands in front of the war memorial in Verdun.

The two World Wars

World War I



During World War I, the western front between France and Germany became the stage for one of the most gruelling battles in Franco-German history, the Battle of Verdun. This battle alone claimed around 300,000 lives. In 1919, the Treaty of Versailles was signed, officially ending World War I and clearly painting Germany as the main antagonist. Germany had to disarm and pay large reparations to the winning states, but it struggled to pay its debts. In 1923, French forces invaded the Ruhr region, Germany's biggest industrial complex.



In 1929, Germany found itself in complete economic crisis. Unemployment and hyperinflation allowed the rise of nationalism, with Hitler seizing power in 1933.

World War II



During World War II, German forces invaded France. France was forced to surrender, and large parts were occupied by the Germans. However, the Free French Forces, led by Charles de Gaulle, kept on fighting alongside the Allies until they succeeded in the liberation of France in 1944 and the defeat of the German Reich.

Negotiating the treaty

After the World War II, Konrad Adenauer, the first Chancellor of the Federal Republic of Germany, stated that one of his main priorities was reconciliation with neighbouring France. On the French side, the foreign minister, Robert Schuman, took a big step towards friendship through the Schuman Declaration in 1950. The declaration proposed uniting the coal and steel production of both countries under a common High Authority.

Earning trust

Adenauer maintained good relations with France through the 1950s, but when Charles de Gaulle became President in 1958, Adenauer was skeptical. He feared that de Gaulle would try to re-establish Franco-Russian relations. During the Berlin Crisis, however, France stood firmly alongside West Germany to oppose the attempted extortion by the Soviet Union, thereby earning the trust and respect of Konrad Adenauer.

Europe, a third world power



De Gaulle was trying to unite Europe in a third bloc between East and West. Adenauer was more in favour of protection by the US. However, with John F. Kennedy vacillating on promises of protection, Adenauer started to embrace the idea of a political union in Europe.

The signing of the treaty

In a memorandum in 1962, France proposed 'organic and regular cooperation' between the two countries through a protocol. This ultimately led to the signing of the Élysée Treaty on 22 January 1963 in the Élysée Palace in Paris.



What the treaty states

The treaty's goal was to rebuild the bilateral relationship from the ground up, binding the two countries to regular consultations in the present and trying to forge bonds between future generations. This would also be an important step towards a unified Europe.

Laying the foundation

In the first part of the treaty, a schedule for consultations was fixed which had to be followed regardless of the political situation: heads of state had to meet every two years; ministers at shorter intervals. Commissions had to be set up to coordinate the meetings and report about them.

Moving together

The second part stated that foreign policy and defence strategies should be discussed together, so that they would not act in opposing ways on an international level.

Planting the seeds for a better future



The third part was written with education and youth in mind. Efforts should be made to offer language courses in French or German respectively; diplomas should have equal worth; and research relations should be fostered and extended. To strengthen the bonds between both populations' young people, a joint youth foundation would be established.

Gaullists and Atlanticists

But the treaty was not without complications. A preamble added by the German Bundestag referred to a close relationship to the United States, the United Kingdom and NATO. This led to a split in Adenauer's party, with the 'Gaullists' on one side with Konrad Adenauer; the 'Atlanticists' on the other. The latter were in favour of close relations across the Atlantic Ocean and feared that the treaty would threaten West Germany's protection by the US. The preamble even led to de Gaulle stating that the treaty had lost its meaning, and that it was a failed marriage.

Future of the relationship

On the fifty-fifth anniversary of the treaty, Germany and France decided to take their relationship a step further. On 22 January 2018, the German Bundestag and the French Assemblée Nationale decided to rework the existing Élysée Treaty within a year to strengthen their ties.



The resolution was approved by both heads of state, Angela Merkel and Emmanuel Macron. Some of the extended treaty's goals will be. To create a common economic zone, to develop better cooperation in the border region and to improve collaboration concerning education.

The signing of the Élysée Treaty in 1963 sowed the seeds for a growing friendship. The results have not always been immediately visible, but France and Germany have succeeded in transforming hostility that had been passed down through several generations into mutual respect between nations.



Illustration: Dirk Reinke

Text: Dirk Reinke / Consulting by Dr. phil. Birgit Kemper

2018

**IF MY GREAT-GRAND-
PARENTS KNEW:
I am kissing
a French girl!**



SALT I 1972		SALT II 1974		OSV I 1972		OSV II 1974	
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SALT I 1972 — SALT II 1974

After the end of World War II, and the detonation of nuclear bombs over Hiroshima and Nagasaki by the United States, a nuclear arms race began between the two new superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union. The two competed in the scientific field and in the 'space race' (ballistic missiles, satellites and missile defence mechanisms).—The Soviet Union (USSR) conducted its first successful nuclear weapons test in 1949, thereby becoming a nuclear power. The nuclear arms race was an integral part of the Cold War and was also the rational basis for why the war stayed cold and did not evolve into an actual war. The two powers knew a war might lead to the use of nuclear weapons, which would cause 'mutually assured destruction' (MAD) on both sides. In 1962, the Cuban Missile Crisis represented the world's first existential threat – nuclear war between the two superpowers, the US and the USSR.—During the 1960s, the Americans learned that the Soviet Union had already started manufacturing ballistic missiles which could reach the United States. In 1967, the US discovered that the USSR had also started producing missile defence mechanisms. These technological developments began to undermine the concept of MAD – now, one side could attack the other and avoid destruction, thanks to missile defence mechanisms.—The above developments led US President Lyndon B. Johnson to call for Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT), and so, in 1967, the US president and Soviet Union Premier Alexei Kosygin met in Glassboro, New Jersey. While full disarmament was not an option, limitations on the development of offensive and strategic defensive systems succeeded in stabilising relations between the United States and the Soviet Union.—Johnson's successor, Richard Nixon, also believed in SALT, and on 17 November 1969, the official SALT talks began in Helsinki, Finland. Over two and a half years, both sides focused on how to reduce the possibility of nuclear war and build confidence between the two superpowers. Nixon and Soviet Union General Secretary Leonid Brezhnev signed an interim agreement on certain measures limiting strategic offensive arms; and the ABM Treaty on the limitation of strategic defensive systems in Moscow on 26 May 1972. For the first time since the beginning of the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union agreed to limit the number of nuclear missiles in their stockpiles.—The negotiations for SALT II began in late 1972. Since SALT I did not prevent the enlargement of nuclear arsenals held by both sides, SALT II proposed to ban new missiles programmes. The negotiations spanned the administrations of Nixon, Gerald Ford and Jimmy Carter.—In November 1974, in Vladivostok, Ford and Brezhnev agreed on a basic framework for the SALT II treaty, which reduced nuclear weapons arsenals. SALT II was signed in Vienna by Carter and Brezhnev in 1979. The United States Congress never officially authorised the agreement, due to opposition in Congress to a deal with the Soviets on the grounds of human rights violations in the Soviet Union. Nonetheless, although it was never officially ratified, both parties adhered to the terms of the agreement.

OSV I 1972 — OSV II 1974

После окончания Второй мировой войны, и атомных бомбардировок Хиросимы и Нагасаки, осуществленных США, между двумя новыми сверхдержавами, Соединенными Штатами и Советским Союзом, началась гонка ядерных вооружений. Страны состязались в научной сфере и в «космической гонке» (баллистические ракеты, спутники, и ракетные защитные механизмы).—Первые успешные испытания ядерного оружия Советский Союз (СССР) провел в 1949 году, и таким образом превратился в ядерную державу. Гонка ядерных вооружений была неотъемлемой частью «холодной войны», а также рациональной основой того, почему война оставалась холодной и не перерастала в настоящую. Обе державы понимали, что война может привести к применению ядерного оружия, что приведет к «взаимному гарантированному уничтожению» (MAD) с обеих сторон. В 1962 году карибский кризис впервые продемонстрировал миру экзистенциальную угрозу ядерной войны между двумя сверхдержавами – США и СССР.—В течение 60-х американцы узнали, что Советский Союз уже начал производство баллистических ракет, способных достигать территории Соединенных Штатов. В 1967 году США обнаружили, что СССР также начал производить механизмы противоракетной обороны. Эти технологические разработки начинали подрывать доктрину MAD – теперь одна сторона могла атаковать другую и избежать разрушения, благодаря механизмам противоракетной обороны.—Такое развитие событий заставило президента США Линдона Джонсона призвать к переговорам об ограничении стратегических вооружений (ОСВ), и в 1967 году президент США и премьер-министр Советского Союза Алексей Косыгин встретились в Глассборо, штат Нью-Джерси. Хотя полное разоружение не рассматривалось, ограничения на развитие наступательных и стратегических оборонительных систем позволили стабилизировать отношения между Соединенными Штатами и Советским Союзом.—Преемник Джонсона, президент США Ричард Никсон, также верил в ОСВ, и 17 ноября 1969 года в Хельсинки, Финляндия, начались официальные переговоры по ограничению стратегических вооружений. В течение двух с половиной лет обе стороны сосредоточились на снижении вероятности ядерной войны и укреплении доверия между двумя сверхдержавами. 26 мая 1972 года Никсон и генеральный секретарь Советского Союза Леонид Брежнев подписали в Москве временное соглашение о некоторых мерах в области ограничения стратегических наступательных вооружений и договор по ПРО об ограничении стратегических оборонительных систем. Впервые с начала холодной войны Соединенные Штаты и Советский Союз согласились ограничить количество ядерных ракет в своих арсеналах.—Второй раунд переговоров по ОСВ начался в конце 1972 года. Поскольку договор по ОСВ I не препятствовал расширению ядерных арсеналов обеих сторон, то договор ОСВ II предлагал запретить новые ракетные программы. Переговоры растянулись на время администрации Никсона, Джеральда Форда и Джимми Картера.—В ноябре 1974 года во Владивостоке Форд и Брежнев договорились об основных рамках договора ОСВ II, предусматривающего сокращение арсеналов ядерного оружия. ОСВ II был подписан в Вене Картером и Брежневым в 1979 году. Конгресс Соединенных Штатов официально так и не ратифицировал это соглашение из-за сопротивления Конгресса развитию отношений с Советами в свете нарушений прав человека в Советском Союзе. Тем не менее, хотя официальной ратификации так и не последовало, обе стороны придерживались условий соглашения.



КОВІ FRANCO

BUILDING THE PARIS PEACE ACCORDS INSTRUCTION MANUAL FOR ENDING THE WAR IN VIETNAM

SUPPLIED ACCESSORIES

This negotiation comes with the following negotiators:



US would be the named parties. NLF officials could join the North Vietnam team without being recognised by South Vietnam, while Saigon's representatives joined their US allies.



The final major breakthrough came on 8 October 1972. In a meeting with Kissinger, Tho significantly modified his bargaining line, allowing that the Saigon government could remain in power and that negotiations between the two South Vietnamese parties could develop a final settlement. Within ten days the secret talks resulted in a final draft. Kissinger held a press conference in Washington during which he announced that 'peace is at hand'.



STEP 3: BUILD THE RIGHT TABLES

A similar debate concerned the shape of the table to be used at the conference. North Vietnam favoured a round table, at which all parties, including NLF representatives, would appear to be of 'equal' importance. The South Vietnamese argued that only a rectangular table was acceptable, for only a rectangle could show two distinct sides to the conflict.

Eventually a compromise was reached whereby representatives of the northern and southern governments would sit at a round table, with the representatives of all other parties sitting at individual square tables around them.

South Vietnamese premier Nguyen Cao Ky refused to consent to any permanent seating plan that would place the National Liberation Front (NLF) on an equal footing with Saigon. North Vietnam and the NLF likewise balked at any arrangement that would effectively recognise Saigon as the legitimate government of South Vietnam. Prolonged discussions over the shape of the negotiating table were finally resolved by the placement of two square tables separated by a round table.

STEP 5: KEEP ALL PARTIES INFORMED

When Thieu, who had not even been informed of the secret negotiations, was presented with the draft of the new agreement, he was furious with Kissinger and Nixon and refused to accept it without significant changes. However, as US casualties had escalated throughout the conflict since 1965, American domestic support for the war had deteriorated, and by the autumn of 1972 the Nixon administration was under major pressure to withdraw from the war. Consequently, the US exerted great diplomatic pressure on their South Vietnamese ally to sign the peace treaty even if the concessions Thieu wanted could not be achieved.

QUICK GUIDE

The Paris Peace Accords, officially titled the Agreement on Ending the War and Restoring Peace in Vietnam, was a peace treaty signed on 27 January 1973 to establish peace in Vietnam and end the Vietnam War. It ended direct US military combat, and temporarily stopped the fighting between North and South Vietnam. The negotiations that led to the accord began in 1968, and lasted almost five years. However, Saigon fell to the North Vietnamese army supported by Viet Cong units on 30 April 1975.

The main negotiators of the agreement were US National Security Advisor Henry Kissinger and North Vietnamese politburo member Le Duc Tho. The two men were awarded the 1973 Nobel Peace Prize for their efforts, although Le Duc Tho refused to accept it.

Five main hurdles came up during the discussions. This 'manual' will display the 'steps' the negotiators took to overcome those hurdles and sign the treaty.



STEP 4: OVERTHROW UNACCEPTABLE PARTS

For three years, North Vietnam insisted that the agreement could not be concluded unless the United States agreed to remove South Vietnamese president Nguyen Van Thieu from power and replace him with someone more acceptable to Hanoi.

ATTENTION!

On 15 January 1973 President Nixon announced a suspension of offensive actions against North Vietnam. Kissinger and Tho met again on 23 January and signed off on a treaty that was basically identical to the draft of three months earlier. The agreement was signed by the leaders of the official delegations on 27 January 1973 at the Hotel Majestic in Paris, France.

STEP 1: STOP THE BOMBING

In March 1968, US halted bombing operations over the northern portion of North Vietnam, in order to encourage Hanoi to begin negotiations. For five months, negotiations stalled when North Vietnam demanded that all bombing of North Vietnam be stopped, while the US demanded that North Vietnam agree to a reciprocal de-escalation in South Vietnam. It was not until 31 October 1968 that the US agreed to end the air strikes and serious negotiations could begin.

IMPORTANT!

On 8 May 1972 President Richard Nixon made a major concession to North Vietnam by announcing that the US would accept a ceasefire as a precondition for its military withdrawal. In other words, the US would withdraw its forces from South Vietnam without North Vietnam doing the same. The concession broke a deadlock and resulted in progress in the talks over the next few months.



STEP 2: RECOGNITION

One of the most problematic issues during the negotiations was that of recognition. Neither North nor South Vietnam was willing to recognise the other. North Vietnam and its ally in South Vietnam, the National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam (NLF, or Viet Cong), refused to recognise the government of South Vietnam. With equal persistence, the government in Saigon refused to acknowledge the legitimacy of the NLF.

Averill Harriman, the US representative at this time, resolved this dispute by developing a system whereby North Vietnam and the



AFTERMATH: MAINTAIN YOUR SUCCESS?

The Paris Peace Accords effectively removed the United States from the conflict in Vietnam. However, the agreement's provisions were routinely flouted by both the North Vietnamese and the South Vietnamese, eliciting no response from the United States, and ultimately resulted in the Communist government of North Vietnam enlarging the area under its control over the next two years. The South Vietnamese capital, Saigon (later renamed Ho Chi Minh City), fell to the North Vietnamese army, supported by Viet Cong units, on 30 April 1975.

Building the Paris Peace Accords



DANA PORAT & HAGAR BAREKET



اتفاقيات كامب ديفيد
 הסכמי קמפ-דיוויד
 CAMP DAVID ACCORDS



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ישראל
 EGYPT
 مصر
 ISRAEL



The current circumstances present both sides with an opportunity to upgrade the relations between the two nations. Prospects of 'a warmer peace' between the two countries are supported by common regional threats and interests, the close coordination of counterterrorism measures, the trustful collaboration among government and military officials and the potential for economic cooperation, particularly in light of the discovery of natural gas in the eastern Mediterranean Sea. Another significant development is the positive view of Israel held by young Egyptians since the upheavals of the past few years, known as the "Arab Spring". These trends have created a window of opportunity for the warming of relations between the two countries and their people; both nations will need to initiate groundbreaking measures. In the aforementioned speech, president Sādāt predicted that this kind reconciliation, coexistence and normalisation of Israeli-Egyptian relations will first be achieved by future generations, because it takes time for bitter sentiments held in people's hearts for many years to be eradicated.

As members of Sādāt's 'future generations', we feel that the time has come for a change. We firmly believe that the Camp David Accords built a strong foundation that should be further developed - now more than ever.



Israel and Egypt will mark the forty-second anniversary of Egyptian president Anwar el-Sādāt's dramatic visit to Jerusalem, when from the podium of the Knesset, the Egyptian president articulated his historic call for peace: *'the last of wars and the end of sorrows... a new beginning to a new life - the life of love, prosperity, freedom and peace.'* This event was followed by drawn-out negotiations that concluded successfully with the signing of a peace treaty on 26 March 1979.

The main features of the treaty were mutual recognition, cessation of the state of war dating back to the 1948 Arab-Israeli War and culminating in the Yom Kippur War, normalisation of relations and Israel's complete withdrawal of its armed forces and civilians from the Sinai Peninsula, which Israel had captured during the Six-Day War in 1967. Egypt agreed to leave the area demilitarised. The agreement also provided for the free passage of Israeli ships through the Suez Canal and recognition of the Strait of Tiran and the Gulf of Aqaba as international waterways.

With the approaching fortieth anniversary of the Israeli-Egyptian peace treaty, the foundations of peace laid by President Sādāt and Prime Minister Menachem Begin remain stable and strong. The current relations between Israel and Egypt, however, may be best defined as 'a cold peace',

a term coined in 1982 by Egypt's minister of state for foreign affairs, Boutros Boutros-Ghali, to describe the limited, reserved and at times hostile relations between the two countries. It represents peace between the governments and militaries, rather than the populations of the two nations.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE Chemical Weapons Convention

Perfidious weapons

Toxic chemicals have a long history of being stigmatised as tools of war. Contempt for, or even a taboo against, these weapons has been a recurring theme since ancient times. Commonly seen as unnecessarily cruel, unfair and beneath the standards of 'civilised' battle, chemical weapons have been proscribed in texts ranging from ancient manuscripts to modern international agreements. Culturally, poisons are seen as weapons of subterfuge, deceit and duplicity, and are connected with a special kind of dread and abhorrence. Conversely, they are, at times, weapons of the weak, weapons of cunning in myth and legend, and weapons of the dark arts in covert operations and secret services.



The early days

The first international agreement limiting the use of chemical weapons dates back to 1675, prohibiting the use of poison projectiles. In 1874, the Brussels declaration was a first step towards the codification of the laws of war to prohibit the employment of poison or poisoned weapons and other material that would cause unnecessary suffering. This initiative of Czar Alexander II of Russia was not accepted by all of the fifteen European states present as a binding convention, and so it was not ratified. However, it provided the foundation for later treaties.



International prohibitions

Agreements on the conduct of war concluded in The Hague in 1899 and 1907 laid the groundwork for the Protocol for the Prohibition of the Use in War of Asphyxiating, Poisonous or Other Gases, and of Bacteriological Methods of Warfare, commonly known as the 1925 Geneva Protocol. This agreement followed the widespread and large-scale use of chemical weapons during World War I, when more than 120,000 tonnes of chlorine, mustard and other chemical agents gruesomely killed more than 90,000 soldiers and blinded, disfigured or caused debilitating injuries to almost a million more. The Geneva Protocol does not, however, prohibit the development, production or possession of chemical and bacteriological (biological) weapons; it only bans the use of such weapons in war.



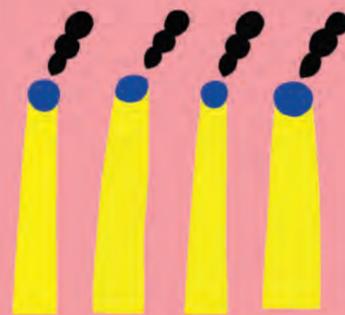
To use or not to use

Concerns over nuclear weapons dominated the years following World War II, and serious negotiation of an international treaty banning chemical weapons only started in 1968, despite their use in the 1920s and 1930s and the discovery of nerve agents renewing interest in chemical armament in the late 1930s. All the major powers involved in World War II anticipated that large-scale chemical warfare would take place, but apart from Japanese operations in China, chemical weapons were not used on the battlefield.



If you have them, you will use them

Many countries spent considerable resources on the development and stockpiling of chemical weapons in the interwar period, during WWII and thereafter. During the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union (USSR) maintained enormous stockpiles of tens of thousands of tonnes of chemical weapons. Negotiations to ban chemical and biological weapons continued all the while. In the first half of the 1930s negotiations had been conducted in the League of Nations to reduce the levels of armaments, including proposals to prohibit the development and production of chemical and biological weapons in peacetime and to destroy existing stockpiles.

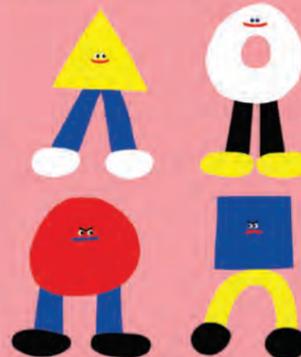


The Disarmament Conference ceased its activities in January 1936 as a consequence of the worsening international climate in Europe and Asia. Already in 1935, until 1939, Italy used chemical weapons in Abyssinia, and the international community failed to take action. In the 1960s, Egypt used chemical weapons in Yemen, and again the international community failed to take action. From the mid-1960s onwards, as a consequence of massive employment of tear gases and anti-plant agents by the US during the Vietnam War, the United Nations General Assembly adopted several resolutions interpreting the scope of the Geneva Protocol and inviting states to accede to it so as to make it as universal as possible.



Negotiations continue

The United Nation's Eighteen Nation Committee on Disarmament began negotiating banning chemical and biological weapons in 1968. Difficulties led to chemical and biological weapons being treated separately. This separation led to the agreement and signature of the Biological Weapons Convention (BWC) in 1972. The BWC committed States Parties to negotiate chemical weapons disarmament.



International mood swings

A marked deterioration of East-West relations in the late 1970s made negotiations difficult. The Cold War constellation of Western, Socialist, and Neutral and Non-Aligned blocs presented a challenge to negotiations, as there was difficulty in agreeing on the character and reach of verification measures and in banning a proven weapon. In 1980, the Committee on Disarmament, the UN forum where these questions were being negotiated, established an Ad Hoc Working Group on Chemical Weapons. In 1984, the group was assigned the task of elaborating on what a ban on chemical weapons would contain, resulting in the provisional, annually updated 'rolling text' of the Convention. East-West relations improved in the latter half of the 1980s, and renewed impetus was given by the extensive use of chemical weapons during the Iran-Iraq war, including the chemical attack on Halabja, Iraq, in 1988.



Passing the buck, reluctant renouncement

Meanwhile the USSR and the US both continued to pursue chemical weapons—the US was interested in binary weapons, whilst there was increasing speculation over the extent of chemical weapons production and stockpiling in the Soviet Union. In binary chemical weapons, two chemicals are mixed to produce the toxic chemical. Mixing can be done inside munition whilst firing the weapon. This design allows safer transport, handling and storage of the weapon.



In 1984, the United States submitted a proposal which became known by its document number, CD/500. The proposed draft treaty contained inspection provisions with no right of refusal, a proposal that the US was sure the Soviets would reject, thereby providing justification for the US to push for further development of binary weapons.



US-Soviet bilateral talks, held from 1986 until 1991, renewed and accelerated the multilateral negotiation process by looking at inspections and procedures in the event of an alleged violation. The Soviet Union began to open up weapons facilities, allowing US and British visits in 1987 and 1988. Trial inspections were also carried out in chemical industries. In 1987, the USSR announced the cessation of chemical weapons production and accepted the US proposal of 'anytime, anywhere' inspections, otherwise known as challenge inspections. The USSR thereby effectively called the US's bluff on the CD/500 draft treaty.

Numerous issues remained, including the definition of a chemical weapon. A major concern for a large number of countries was the desire to enable free trade in chemicals and consequent economic and technological developments not prohibited by the Convention. The intrusiveness of the verification regime in the chemical industry, in particular its challenge inspections, concerned many states. Until very late in the negotiation process, the US wanted a right to retaliate in kind if attacked with chemical weapons.

Global changes break intractable positions

The collapse of the Soviet Union had a significant impact on negotiations. The looming threat of chemical weapons use in the Gulf War focused negotiators on reaching an agreement and concluding the negotiation of the Chemical Weapons Convention. In March 1992, Australia submitted a draft Convention based on the previously established consensus. The German chair of the Ad Hoc Committee on Chemical Weapons for that year produced his own 'vision text', based on consensus found in the 'rolling text'. Further negotiations resolved outstanding issues, resulting in the final draft of the Convention.

The Conference on Disarmament adopted the draft text on 3 September 1992. The text of the Convention opened for signature in Paris on 13 January 1993. Within the first two days, 130 states signed the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction, commonly known as the Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC). It was subsequently deposited with the United Nations Secretary-General in New York.

What now, what next

Now the Chemical Weapons Convention enjoys almost universal adherence. Just a few states remain outside the widely shared global norm — North Korea, South Sudan, Egypt, and Israel, which signed but never ratified the Convention. The challenges facing this unique international agreement to ban some of the most horrendous weapons on earth include unfinished destruction of stockpiles, doubts over complete destruction of declared stockpiles and facilities, frequent use of chemical weapons during the Syrian civil war, a spate of high-profile assassinations with toxic chemicals as well as renewed and wide-spread military interest in chemical weapons.



HUMANS ARE NOT PESTS



NIKLAS APFEL

cover only a small part of the property looted and stolen during the war, but more importantly, there is no price for the lives that were taken. The moral question of whether repayment could be accepted for the Holocaust was posed to Israel in the 1950s, just as Israel was facing financial collapse; at the time, it was struggling to absorb millions of Jews fleeing persecution around the globe. David Ben-Gurion, then Prime Minister of Israel, decided to forge the agreement in spite of countrywide protests against accepting reparations. Even after all was said and done, controversy and debate continued.

Our conclusion was that the agreement did indeed express regret and was critical to the rehabilitation of the Jewish people. Correction can never be accomplished, however, since it is impossible to erase the past. We encourage everyone to prevent future wrongs and irremediable damage. Remember that we can never correct past injustices, but we can bury old hatreds beneath new friendships.

SELECTION OF ARTISTS' STATEMENTS

REPARATIONS AGREEMENT SHAKKED BRONSTEIN & RONY KOCH

At the first meeting, in which we were presented the list of to be agreements included in the project, it was immediately clear to us that we wanted to deal with the reparations agreement; we were fascinated by its complexity.

The uniqueness of the agreement became particularly evident during the workshop in Berlin, since the countries that signed the agreement were actually the countries where the project participants came from—Israel and Germany. We had fascinating conversations on the subject with German students and lecturers in the workshop. Afterwards, we realised the complexity and sensitive nature of this topic and its relevance to our lives.

The agreement itself as well as the events that preceded and followed it are highly complex and have influenced much of society in Israel and Germany today. It is amazing how the agreement succeeded in changing relations between Israel and Germany, despite their terrible shared history, resulting in good and even warm relationships.

One of the issues that immediately caught our attention was the terminology. The terms used in the treaty actually embody the complexity of the agreement. For example, the German title of the agreement translates to 'Correcting the injustice', a potentially controversial wording. Some may see it as implying that the Nazi crimes can be rectified or even undone. Israelis believe the injustices of the Holocaust can never be corrected. Not only do the reparations

SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL PEACE ACCORD NICOLA MARINA SEDLMAYR

When I first heard about South Africa's Truth and Reconciliation Commission, it struck me that this century-long conflict was so traumatic for those involved, the solution could not be solely political. To build a peaceful and stable society with a future, the South Africans approached their trauma in a deeply human, emotional and individual way. They nurtured empathy and respect for all South African citizens, regardless of gender, skin colour or an individual's past. For the most part, the victims conquered their desire for vengeance and were led by the ideals of freedom and equality for all. This strength of spirit and moral accomplishment deeply impressed me.

With this work, I designed, produced and communicated a picture of South Africa. What images or aspects of a story influence our perception of a country? I needed to condense information. What details could I omit? Omit that Mandela fought for freedom peacefully for so many years, that the government killed protesters, or that Mandela looked like a vicious terrorist for his more violent actions? There are multiple truths. The truth a white person experiences certainly does not match that of someone at the bottom of a society under apartheid. How should I position myself?

How do I deal with the fact that I am another white European telling the history of an African country? (Most sources of African history go back to colonialists, who may have been biased.) Who is allowed to tell whose story? That was a big question for me. I tried to address this issue, for example, by including numerous quotations, thereby allowing those who experienced apartheid first-hand to tell their own stories.

STRATEGIC ARMS LIMITATION TALKS, SALT KOBİ FRANCO

The first poster presents the SALT I and SALT II treaties using the English and Russian descriptive paragraphs as a design tool: two blocks of text for each superpower – USA on the left and USSR on the right, analogous to the Western and Eastern blocs. Using the same text, two languages and symbolic colours are organised into a graphic grid as if they were arranged in an armoury. Everything is numbered, controlled and regulated.

The second poster illustrates typographically what would have happened if the treaties had been cancelled. The lack of control and regulation would have created a situation of global chaos and would have eventually led to a nuclear war. An explosion scatters the text in all directions and dismantles the paragraphs into broken sentences, the sentences into words and the words into vague letters. There are no winners, only losers. War does not distinguish between languages, colours and nationalities; it represents a total destruction of the human race.

PARIS PEACE ACCORDS ON VIETNAM HAGAR BAREKET & DANA PORAT

We had no prior knowledge of the details surrounding the negotiations that ended the Vietnam War. When we read the material provided by our specialist, we were shocked by the ‘simple’ depiction of the hurdles government officials faced during five long and bloody years. One of the most conspicuous obstacles was the table for negotiators and officials. The solution was two square tables, one round table and thousands of casualties. It was absurd. Are these the problems whose solution could have prevented so much suffering? This feeling was the starting point for our project. We decided to design a guide, an instruction manual. The images are illustrated in a naive manner. The colours are taken from the flags of the countries involved. And the builder is large and clumsy as he attempts to construct the ideal tables for negotiation.

through you*



I am me



NICOLA MARINA SEDLMAYR

The Bosnian War and the Dayton Peace Agreement

The Bosnian War, 1992–1995, was the bloodiest conflict in Europe since World War II. It ended when the General Framework Agreement for Peace in Bosnia and Herzegovina was signed, also known as the Dayton Agreement. This treaty laid the groundwork for the different ethnic groups of Bosnia and Herzegovina to live together peacefully.

Before War

Past Wounds

The Balkans had been rocked by conflicts and wars for centuries. World War I erupted after Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated in Sarajevo by a man who wanted a united Great Serbia. More violence found its way into the region with the Nazis. The fascist Croatian Ustaša regime was involved in genocidal killings of Jews, Roma and Serbs. A division of the Waffen-SS, comprising mostly Bosnian Muslims, was formed. Serb partisans fought the fascist occupation and retaliated with ethnically motivated violence themselves.



Map 1: The former Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and its six republics.



The Federal Republic of Yugoslavia

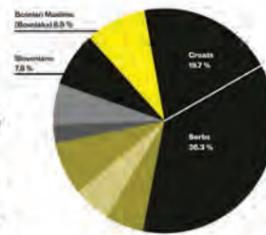
After 1945, under the authoritarian leadership of Josip Broz Tito, Yugoslavia thrived economically as a non-aligned state. The communist government swept the memory of World War II under the carpet. Bosnia and Herzegovina was one of six republics that made up the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Six ethnic groups were considered constitutive peoples: Bosnian Muslims (Bosniaks), Croats, Macedonians, Montenegrins, Serbs and Slovenes. In addition non-constitutive peoples such as Albanians, Hungarians and other minorities lived

together throughout Yugoslavia. Ethnic diversity was a lived reality and not a dividing factor. The republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina was of particular note, as there was no absolute ethnic majority. The nationalities that were most represented among the Bosnian population were Bosniaks, Croats and Serbs. Tito's passing in 1980 left a power vacuum. This led to an institutional crisis that affected the whole political system. Ethnic differences came to the fore once more.

The disintegration of Yugoslavia

In the late 1980s the economic situation was dire. Workers went on strike demanding policy changes, while the elites continued to push their nationalist agenda. Fear and mistrust came to dominate in relationships between ethnic groups. Slovenia and Croatia were the first to split from the federation. Both republics were fairly homogenous in terms of their ethnic make-up — in

1991, 75–78% of the Croatian population declared themselves Croats, while in Slovenia more than 80% of the population were Slovenes. Upon Slovenia's declaration of independence, the Ten-Day War broke out, which marked the beginning of the Yugoslav Wars. The armed conflicts after Croatia's independence lasted four years.



The major ethnic groups in the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1991.



War



Attempting independence

In 1992 Bosnia and Herzegovina held a referendum: 99.7% voted to leave the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Bosnia and Herzegovina declared its independence and was internationally recognised as an independent state. However, the referendum had been boycotted by many of the Bosnian Serbs. Their representatives had left the parliament to form the Assembly of the Serb People of Bosnia and Herzegovina. They established their own state on Bosnian soil, which came to be called Republika Srpska, but it never gained international recognition.



War and war crimes

Shortly after the referendum, hostilities broke out between the Bosniak, Croat and Serb populations and escalated drastically. Serb forces shelled Sarajevo and besieged several majority Croat and Muslim cities. The alliance between Croats and Bosniaks against the Serb forces faced internal tensions. On 7 January 1993, orthodox Christmas day, Bosniak forces started an attack on unprepared Serbs in the village of Kravica. The Bosniak–Croat alliance broke and the two forces fought over territories in central Bosnia.

As the war escalated throughout 1994 and 1995, over 2.2 million people were displaced. Many sought refuge in neighbouring states and in other parts of Europe. Around 100,000 were killed, including 8,000 men massacred in Srebrenica by the Bosnian Serb Army,

under the command of General Ratko Mladić. Apart from this most egregious war crime, several others were committed during the Bosnian War. In euphemistically termed ethnic cleansings, many were driven out of their homes, murdered and raped. Up to 200,000 women are estimated to have been sexually violated as a means of warfare. The war devastated the whole country and left the international community in shock.



In 1992 Alija Izetbegović became the first president of the newly independent Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina. As Serbia's president, Slobodan Milošević supported the Bosnian Serbs and their military during the Bosnian War. He was charged with war crimes in the Bosnian War by the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia.



Ratko Mladić led the Serb army during the Bosnian War. As the top military official, he was deemed responsible for the Srebrenica massacre and nine other war crimes by the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia, and received a life sentence. American diplomat Richard Holbrooke was instrumental in creating the Dayton Accords. As the architect of the Dayton Agreement, he managed to get opposing sides to the same table and sign the treaty on 14 November 1995.

After War



Finding common ground

As early as 1992, the United Nations deployed peacekeepers in the region. Nato established a no-fly zone over Bosnia and Herzegovina. An embargo was put on all weapons imports. In coordination with the UN, Nato flew several air strikes. However, these measures proved insufficient in creating peace. Many criticised the lack of international involvement, especially after the massacre of Srebrenica, where UN peacekeepers stood by and failed to prevent the genocidal killings. In response to Srebrenica and the 1995 shelling of Sarajevo, Nato launched Operation Deliberate Force. Large-scale bombing forced Serb leaders to the negotiation table alongside their Bosniak and Croat counterparts.

Alija Izetbegović, Franjo Tuđman and Slobodan Milošević met for a peace conference in Dayton, Ohio. US Secretary of State Warren Christopher and diplomat Richard Holbrooke led the talks.

A peace agreement was reached on 14 November 1995. All sides agreed to end the fighting and cede control over several regions, thus forming the two entities that constitute the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with a majority Croat and Bosniak population, and

Republika Srpska, with a majority Serb population. The General Framework Agreement for Peace in Bosnia and Herzegovina, also called the Dayton Agreement, laid the groundwork for peaceful coexistence in the new state.

The International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia prosecuted serious crimes committed during the war. The Tribunal was closed at the end of 2017, with all trials completed. 94 Serbs, 29 Croats and 9 Bosniaks were convicted of war crimes.



Map 2: Bosnia and Herzegovina today.



Bosnia today — divided together

Since the implementation of the Dayton Agreement, Bosnians have lived side by side peacefully, albeit in ethnic segregation.

The presidency is held by three members — one Bosniak, one Croat and one Serb — who rotate as chair in eight-month intervals.

Some people would still prefer an ethnically homogenous state, or the inclusion of Republika Srpska into Serbia.

The internal division of Bosnia and Herzegovina is also reflected in how the nation's history and events of the war are taught and perceived across

the different ethnic groups. The economy has never fully recovered and is one of the weakest in Europe. Unfortunately, Bosnia and Herzegovina has also become the playground for external powers who are competing for influence in the region.

War— then Peace—



then
What?

Peace is a laudable achievement. In order to enjoy a future of peace and prosperity, however, we must all embrace a multi-ethnic society.
This is true for Bosnia-Herzegovina and the world at large.



Background

1921 Representatives of the British government and Irish nationalist rebels signed the Government of Ireland Act which provided for the partition of Ireland. The British government released twenty-six counties on the island of Ireland to become the Irish Free State and retained six counties in the north-east, which it renamed Northern Ireland, as part of the UK.

The six counties comprising Northern Ireland were predominantly Protestant. The partition of the island into two separate entities created, within the six counties of Northern Ireland, a powerless, oppressed Catholic minority. Thus, there were four main protagonists in the Northern Ireland conflict: the British government, the Irish government, the Protestant unionist loyalist bloc in Northern Ireland, and the Catholic nationalist republican bloc in Northern Ireland.

The importance of the Good Friday Agreement

Two points worth considering in assessing the importance of the Good Friday Agreement (GFA) are its ability to flesh out a governing mechanism acceptable to all sides and the headway it made to legitimise protagonists. As such, the GFA asserted that the daily functioning of the province would be placed in the hands of a proportionally represented assembly, in which all parties with enough votes would be able to hold seats, and that the government would be based in Belfast. It further asserted that the Irish government would remove its claim to Northern Ireland from its constitution, and in return, the Republic of Ireland would be guaranteed limited involvement in cross-border agencies which would be established to promote economic growth and development in both countries. In subsequent simultaneous referendums, the GFA was overwhelmingly endorsed by the people of Northern Ireland and Ireland. To the second point, worth mentioning is that in the process leading up to the GFA the extreme

matter and adopting a 'criminalisation' approach whereby responsibility for countering terrorism was transferred from the British army to the police, and people convicted of terrorist crimes were treated as criminals rather than political prisoners. In addition, the UK used its veto to block attempts to bring the matter to the UN Security Council. The end of the Cold War and the effects of globalisation, which enabled communication regardless of geographical borders and differing

time zones, opened politics in Northern Ireland to the influence of international forces. This, together with the apparent movement towards the resolution of conflicts in South Africa and the Middle East, created an international climate that made the resolution of the conflict in Northern Ireland seem within reach. Furthermore, the end of the Cold War enabled the United States to look beyond its special relationship with the United Kingdom and begin to involve itself in what was considered to be Britain's internal affairs.

With regard to the United States: in addition to granting Gerry Adams a visa, President Clinton sent a special envoy to Northern Ireland, positioned senior advisers to work on Northern Ireland affairs, regularly invited Northern Ireland politicians to the White House and persuaded Senator George Mitchell to chair a crucial international committee on the decommissioning of paramilitary weapons and later preside over the multi-party negotiations that produced the Good Friday Agreement. President Clinton became the first US president to visit Northern Ireland while in office (and did so three times in five years), and he intervened directly during crucial periods of the negotiations.

Paramilitaries operating in Northern Ireland – typically armed, politically motivated organisations – could be divided into two camps:

Republican paramilitaries who wished Northern Ireland to join the Republic of Ireland; and Loyalist paramilitaries who wished Northern Ireland to remain part of the United Kingdom. Political ideology of each of these camps, re-enforced by paramilitary control, provided narratives grounded in victimhood, competition and rivalry.



Republican, nationalist protagonist was engaged, rather than boycotted. While Britain and Ireland sought to strengthen the hands of the more moderate leaders, among the most significant participants in the negotiations leading up to the GFA was Sinn Féin's leader, Gerry Adams, who received a US entry visa from President Clinton, in what was perceived to be a controversial step.

The process leading up to the negotiations

Although the Northern Ireland conflict attracted enormous international attention, there was a lack of international engagement in efforts to resolve it for many years. This can partly be attributed to Britain's policy of relating to the conflict as an internal

With regard to Europe, three central contributions to the process were made: First, the European Parliament provided the opportunity for its members from different political backgrounds and ideologies to work together towards the larger common goal of ending the conflict between their respective communities and helped dissolve distrust between London and Dublin by uniting them within a wider political framework.

Second, the European Union and its institutions provided an example of the ways in which sovereignty conflicts could be overcome by peaceful means. Third, the fact that Ireland was a member of the EU, with representation on important bodies, led Britain to take it more seriously than in the past, resulting in a constructive balance.

1985 The Irish and British governments signed the Anglo-Irish Agreement with the goal of establishing a power-sharing government in Belfast. The agreement did not last but its importance lies in the role that it played in establishing dialogue between British and Irish governments, laying the groundwork for future talks.

1998 The Good Friday Agreement (also known as the Belfast Agreement) was signed in Belfast, determining that Northern Ireland would no longer be controlled directly from London.





THE NORTHERN IRELAND CONFLICT



The Good Friday AGREEMENT

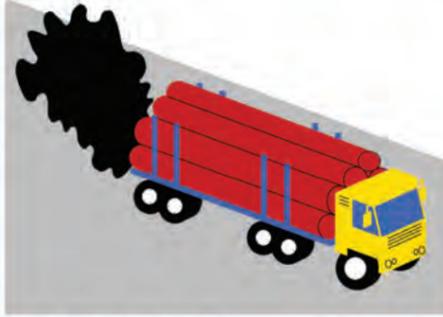


CLIMATE CHANGE IS A FACT

Over the past 150 years, we have changed the balance of our planet by living beyond our means that have resulted in the emission of greenhouse gases. Climate action touches everybody's life, regardless of where one lives, since greenhouse gas emissions and their effects are borderless. The greenhouse effect is a natural occurrence. Without it, the earth would have a mean temperature of ca. -18 °C; with it the mean temperature is ca. 14 °C, making life on earth possible. The effect works as follows:

short-wave radiation from the sun is absorbed by the earth's surface, while some of it is reflected by the atmosphere. Infrared long-wave radiation is emitted by the earth, with some passing through the atmosphere and some absorbed or re-emitted in all directions by greenhouse gas molecules. A problem occurs when human activities substantially increase the atmospheric concentration of greenhouse gases. More infrared waves are re-emitted, which reinforces the greenhouse effect, and the mean temperature rises.

The two-degree-Celsius limit above pre-industrial levels is the level of relative safety, beyond which the effects of global warming – droughts, floods, heat-waves, a rise in sea level – are likely to become catastrophic and irreversible. Climate change cannot be stopped, but it is possible to mitigate its consequences and move back into a safe corridor. Countries must reduce their greenhouse gas emissions drastically within very short time frames. This is why a global transformation towards carbon neutral societies is strongly needed.



1997 KYOTO PROGRESS



The first climate agreement, the Kyoto Protocol, was reached in 1997. The international treaty had the main objective of reducing the onset of global warming by reducing greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere. The industrialised countries agreed to limit their greenhouse gas emissions by 5.2 per cent below levels registered in 1990, in order to prevent emissions from interfering with the climate in an anthropogenic manner. Even though some progress was made, global temperatures still rose not only in some industrialised nations, but also in developing countries.

The 2009 climate change conference in Copenhagen (COP 15) failed to provide the expected breakthrough in climate policy. The goal was for all states to set stricter reduction targets than those of the Kyoto Protocol. A new system was introduced that would no longer set common reduction targets but allow each state to determine its own role in mitigating climate change. These National Determined Contributions (NDC) would not be binding under international law; only reporting a country's progress would be legally binding. In Copenhagen, the contracting states could not agree and an agreement was not reached. The criticism of the negotiation process was that it was overloaded with complexity in terms of issues, agents and structure, and civil society in particular judged it as nontransparent and undemocratic.

2009 COPENHAGEN BIGGEST FAIL EVER



1992 RIO DE JANEIRO FINALLY, A START



After the Stockholm Climate Conference of 1972, Rio was the first major international conference to discuss environmental issues in a global context. The UN sought to help governments rethink economic development and find ways to halt the destruction of irreplaceable natural resources and pollution of the planet. The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) was open for signature at the Rio Earth Summit. The UNFCCC builds the legal framework for concrete negotiations that take place at an annual Conference of the Parties (COP) on climate change.

2015 PARIS A HISTORY-MAKING AGREEMENT

In 2015, 195 countries reached a history-making agreement to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions in order to avert the worst effects of climate change. The governments agreed to:

- keep the increase in global mean temperature below 2°C above pre-industrial levels;
- pursue efforts to limit temperature increase to 1.5°C, recognising that this will significantly reduce the risks and impact of climate change;
- strengthen the ability of countries to deal with the impacts of climate change;
- undertake efforts for rapid reduction in accordance with the best available science.

After twenty-three years of negotiations and international

attempts under the UN to forge a collective action that addresses this global problem, 2015 was the year in which the negotiations finally succeeded: a concrete and scientifically reliable benchmark is now in place for use as an evaluation tool for climate policies worldwide. However the states' commitments are insufficient in limiting climate change to an

acceptable level. The NDCs are still far from reaching this target; their combined effects would achieve a rise of the mean temperature from 2.8 °C to 3.1°C. While the Paris Agreement delivered an ambitious target, its implementation in terms of actual emission reductions is to a large degree unresolved.

FUTURE

Climate change transforms the physical and human geographies of our planet. The damages caused by climate change will increase over time as will the associated costs for affected countries. Global warming accelerates and intensifies common weather events such as

hurricanes, floods, droughts and sea level rise. These catastrophes cause the displacement of millions of people, which often leads to national and international conflicts. All countries will be affected by climate change. But the poorest countries – so often left out of international



consideration – have done the least to cause it but will suffer the most from it. People living in these countries often depend heavily on their natural environment and have the fewest resources to cope with the changing climate. Renewable sources of energy – such as wind, water and sunlight – do not pollute the air and are therefore a crucial factor in the fight against climate change. Not only technological innovations but also a shift in the

mentality of society is necessary to curb and adapt to the changing climate. We have to rethink and transform our habits, overall consumption, mobility of people and goods, nutrition and land use, our lifestyle in general, radically and rapidly, in order to assure a better quality of life for all of us and future generations. Paris was a great success and an important step in developing climate policy. Nevertheless, climate change is an on-going



ACT NOW, ACT TOGETHER!

CLIMATE CHANGE
IS THE BIGGEST
GLOBAL PROBLEM.
LET'S CHANGE OUR
HABITS.



ATHENA GRANDIS

NEGOTIATIONS STILL ON
AFTER FORTY-FOUR YEARS!

THE CYPRUS ISSUE

PEACEFUL NEIGHBOURS

MIXED BUT NOT MERGED

The population of Cyprus is comprised of two main ethnic communities of Greek and Turkish origin.

The Greek Cypriot community constitutes nearly four-fifths of the population; their roots date back to about 1200 BC. Roughly one-fifth of the population consists of Turkish Cypriots who settled in Cyprus during the Ottoman conquest of the island in 1571.

Both communities speak dialects of their mother tongue. The Greek Cypriots are Eastern Orthodox Christians. The majority of the Greek community is religious.

The Turkish Cypriots are Sunni Muslims, who have largely been secular throughout the centuries.

Over the centuries the minority and the majority lived together peacefully; they mixed but did not merge. The main difference between the two communities was in religion, not ethnicity.

Everyday culture, arts, crafts and culinary traditions were shared among the two ethnic groups, creating a unique mix of Oriental and European.



THE MIX OF CULTURE AND CUISINE BETWEEN THE TWO COMMUNITIES WAS ALWAYS A VERY NATURAL OCCURRENCE.

DIVIDE AND RULE

THE RISE OF NATIONALISM AND THE COLONIAL RULE

The waves of national self-determination that arose in nineteenth century Europe did not leave Cyprus untouched. Since the creation of the Greek nation-state in 1830, the nationalistic *enosis* movement, which strives to unite with Greece, has proclaimed the incorporation of the Greek communities outside Greece into the Greek state.

Under British colonial rule, a concerted effort was made to stamp out illiteracy on the island. Because there were no Cypriot school books, educational material was shipped from Greece and Turkey. In this way,

nationalistic values were imported as well.

Enosis was understood as anti-colonialist, and the protests against the British from the 1920s onward caused civil unrest. The policy of 'divide and rule' was applied: British officials hired members of the Turkish Cypriot community for minor civil service positions and the police force.

As a consequence there was not only tension between the Greek Cypriots and the British rulers but also between the two communities, who were mainly peaceful neighbours before.

THE DIFFICULTIES OF BEING A MINORITY WERE WELL KNOWN TO THE TURKISH CYPRIOT COMMUNITY EVER SINCE THE RISE OF NATIONALISM IN THE 19TH CENTURY AND LED TO THE DESIRE TO BE RESPECTED AS EQUALS.



ABANDONED PROPERTIES ON BOTH SIDES OF THE DIVIDED ISLAND REMIND OF THE EVENTS OF 1974.

INDEPENDENCE AS THE REPUBLIC OF CYPRUS

STATE OF WAR

The political situation on the island grew increasingly tense in the 1950s. The National Organisation of Cypriot Fighters (EOKA) was formed within the Greek Cypriot community. The EOKA began an armed campaign against British rule with a series of attacks on police, military and governmental organisations.

In reaction to that, a group of Turkish Cypriots developed the idea of *taksim* (partition of the island), which they perceived as the only way to protect the interests of their community. The Turkish Resistance Organisation (TMT) was formed and took action.

Cyprus was thus on the verge of civil war by the late 1950s. Discussions on the future of Cyprus were held by Greece, Turkey and Great Britain.

The country became independent as a result of the Zurich and London agreements in 1959 and ratified its own constitution without any real participation of its Greek and Turkish communities. The new constitution was built on the principle of mutual agreement.

One of the accompanying agreements was the Treaty of Guarantee, which foresaw the intervention of at least one of three guarantors – Britain, Greece or Turkey – should the peace of the young Republic of Cyprus be in danger.



DARK MEMORIES ARE STILL ALIVE IN MANY FAMILIES ALL ACROSS THE ISLAND.

TAKSIM

CONFLICT AND DIVISION

Within a short period of time, serious disputes arose between the communities, which resulted in a political crisis; the power-sharing government collapsed.

In December of 1963, a communal incident led to the death of two Turkish Cypriots. Within days, fights had spread across the island. In this series of killings, known as the Bloody Christmas of 1963, the Turkish side counted 360 fatalities, the Greeks 175. A total of 25,000 Turkish Cypriots were displaced temporarily or permanently within the island.

To lower tensions, a buffer zone called the Green Line was established and patrolled by the United Nations. Initially one street wide, it divided the southern from the northern part of Nicosia.

The military coup in Greece and a new wave of violence in 1967 exacerbated the situation. The Greek junta replaced the president of

Cyprus, Makarios III, with the pro-enosis nationalist Nikos Sampson in 1974.

To protect the Turkish minority, in August 1974 Turkish troops occupied northern Cyprus down to the Green Line, justifying the action with the terms of the Treaty of Guarantee. Consequently, nearly 40 per cent of the island was under Turkish control and its partition became a permanent reality.

The effect was catastrophic. Thousands of Cypriots were killed, wounded or reported missing. Up to 200,000 Greek Cypriots fled to the south, while 51,000 Turkish Cypriots moved north.

In 1983, the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) was proclaimed by the leader of Turkish Cypriots Rauf Denktaş but was rejected by the UN Security Council. Until today, the TRNC has only been acknowledged by Turkey.



MANY VICTIMS OF INTERCOMMUNAL VIOLENCE IN THE EVENTS OF 1974 DISAPPEARED OVERNIGHT AND ARE STILL OFFICIALLY MISSING.



UNTIL TODAY THE BLUE HELMETS OF THE UN ARE GUARDING THE CONFLICT. THE LAST SHOT WAS FIRED DOZENS OF YEARS AGO.

NEGOTIATIONS AND POSSIBLE SOLUTION

FIRST THINGS FIRST

Since 1974 repeated attempts have been undertaken to negotiate the Cyprus issue.

A comprehensive framework for resolution, introduced in 2004 by UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan, was seen as a real possibility to solve the conflict. The plan was put to vote within both communities: Turkish Cypriots voted for its implementation, while Greek Cypriots rejected the Annan Plan.

Failed attempts at negotiation have since followed a wave-like pattern: Each round has been opened by a declaration to find a fair solution, followed by negotiations on specific topics, which have allowed compromise without larger concessions. Reports on progress have been made public. The next step has been the preparation of a major conference to discuss regulations; guests usually include the UN, Turkey, Greece and Great Britain.

These conferences have focused on a discussion of certain aspects of the conflict, such as the possible structure and functions of a common government, its autonomy and authority of the two states, the stationing of the foreign troops and return

rights of the displaced.

The short time frame allotted such conferences has not facilitated an agreement, especially when both sides held to their maximum requirements. As a result, the negotiation conferences have failed and been followed by mutual recriminations, leading to a complete breakdown in communication, which lasts until the next attempt at negotiation.

In order to reach an agreement, both sides must be willing to compromise on some of their requirements. It would be important to negotiate on the bilateral level to discuss essential aspects of the conflict. Real efforts in this arena are the necessary prerequisites to successful negotiations in a larger conference. Less significant topics – such as transitional periods and financial sources for compensations – could be discussed during the conference.

TEXT AND ILLUSTRATIONS BY KATJA GENDROWA IN COLLABORATION WITH DR. THORSTEN KRUSE

SPECIAL THANKS TO CONSTANZE HEN & HENNING WAGNERBETH

BERLIN - MÜNSTER - LARNACA 2016

OVER THE PAST FORTYFOUR YEARS, THE DIVIDED ISLAND HAS NOT BEEN ABLE TO FIND A SOLUTION FOR THE CYPRUS ISSUE.



Once upon a time

there was a very beautiful island
in the deep blue sea...

But the island was under the curse of a dragon, who had separated it into two parts. He breathed evil fire flowers that made people forget the good and only remember the bad.

On one side of the island lived a small man and on the other a tall one. Both were miserable without realising the cause: the evil fire flowers.

One day a bird visited both men, chanting about the dragon's hateful spell, and revealed that the cure was hidden in a magic lemon: "You will find the fruit in a hidden valley, just below the dragon's cave, at the centre of the island."

The small man arrived there first but could not pick the lemon; he was too little. Then the tall man arrived, but the fruit was also too high, even for him.

Discovering that they both wanted the magic fruit to end the curse, they became allies in an attempt to reach the lemon. The tall man took the small one on his shoulders, and together they were just tall enough to pick the fruit. Inside they found a tiny needle to poke the dragon's eye with. Only the small man was able to hold it.

They climbed to the cave in which the dragon was sleeping. To reach the eye, the tall man stepped over the beast with his long legs while holding the small man, who poked the dragon's eye with the needle, thus breaking the curse. The dragon shrunk into a lizard and swished into the grass. All the evil fire flowers became colourful, and from this moment on, people on the island recalled not only the bad but also the good.

The small man and the tall man looked at each other and remembered that they were long-forgotten brothers. They celebrated for forty-four days and forty-four nights and lived together in peace, trust and harmony for the rest of their days.



A NARROW PASSAGE OR AN OBSTACLE: PLACING THIS SIGNPOST ON ONE SIDE OF THE ROAD MEANS AN OBSTACLE ON THIS SIDE. A CHANGE IN THE DIRECTION OF THE DIAGONAL LINES INDICATES A PROBLEM IN THE ADJACENT LANE.

THE PERCEPTION ASSUMES THAT A FINAL STATUS AGREEMENT IS NOT TO BE SEEN IN THE NEAR FUTURE. THOUGH, ONE MUST STRIVE FOR A COMPREHENSIVE SETTLEMENT, BASED ON A COMMON AGREEMENT ON ALL CORE ISSUES. THIS SHOULD BE DONE IN A GRADUAL AND CONTROLLED PROCESS, WITH TRANSITIONAL STAGES, INTERIM ARRANGEMENTS, AND THE CONDITIONS FOR PROGRESS BASED ON THE TWO-STATE SOLUTION.

DETERMINING THE TEMPORARY BORDER IS THE FIRST PRIORITY. WE ARE TALKING ABOUT AN INITIATED ISRAELI POLICY, ACTING IN THREE PARALLEL EFFORTS THAT COMPLEMENT EACH OTHER: REGIONAL, BILATERAL AND INDEPENDENT. ENCOURAGING INDEPENDENT MEASURES (COORDINATED OR NOT) THAT STRENGTHEN THE REALITY OF TWO STATES, AND THE BORDER BETWEEN THEM. THERE WILL BE NO FORCED EVACUATION OF SETTLERS UNLESS A PERMANENT AGREEMENT IS SIGNED. THE BORDER WITH JORDEN WILL BE ISRAEL'S SECURED EASTERN BORDER. THE IDF WILL REMAIN IN A DIFFERENT STRATEGIC KEY LOCATION (EVEN IN PLACES WHERE SETTLERS VOLUNTARILY EVACUATE). A NATIONAL PLAN FOR ABSORBING SETTLERS WHO WISH TO EVACUATE BEFORE A PERMANENT SETTLEMENT, AND A FORMULA FOR A QUIET NON-ARMAMENT IN GAZA. A REFERENDUM IS PART OF THE "TOOLBOX FOR THE TWO STATES". TWO STATES FOR TWO PEOPLES: AN OUTLINE THAT GUARANTEES ISRAEL ITS FUTURE AS THE DEMOCRATIC AND

SECURE STATE OF THE JEWISH PEOPLE. A POSSIBLE DRAFT OF THE PRINCIPLES FOR A PERMANENT AGREEMENT:

1. Recognition of the two-states to two peoples solution based on; the proclamation of Independence declaring the establishment of a Jewish state, and the Palestinian Declaration of Independence from 1988 calling for the partition of the land into two states, a Jewish state, and an Arab state.
2. End of conflict and claims, on the bases of UN Security Council Resolutions 242 and 338, and the end of the Arab – Israeli conflict within the framework of the Arab Peace Initiative.
3. The outline describes an image of the Permanent Status Agreement but recognizes the need for a gradual process that will be required in order to achieve and implement the outline, in accordance with security arrangements.
4. regarding the core issues, the Parties shall agree to:
 - A democratic Palestinian state which will be established alongside the State of Israel. Israel will preserve its character as defined in the Declaration of Independence.
 - The Palestinian state will be established in the West Bank and Gaza, with equal and agreed territorial exchanges with Israel counter to populated areas

- that Israel will annex. The two parts of the Palestinian state will be connected, subjected to arrangements which will be agreed upon.
- Palestine will not have an army, and the international community will guarantee its security and independence. The security cooperation between the Israel and Palestine will be tightened, and special security arrangements will be formulated.
- The capitals of the two states will be Jerusalem – the neighborhoods with Arab majority will be the capital of Palestine, and the neighborhoods with Jewish majority will be the capital of Israel.
- The Old City will be under a special regime; Israel will have control over the Western Wall; Palestine will have control over the Haram al-Sharif. Freedom of worship and full access to holy sites will be guaranteed to both parties.
- Palestinian refugees may return to Palestine, be rehabilitated in their present countries of residence, or be allowed to immigrate to third countries. An agreed number of refugees will be allowed to return to Israel. An international fund will be recruited to compensate the Palestinian refugees. Palestinian refugees will end.

5. In addition:
 - Settlers living in areas under Palestinian sovereignty will relocate to Israel, with the exception of

- an agreed number that will be allowed to remain under Palestinian sovereignty.
- The Arab League states will end the conflict with Israel and will establish diplomatic relations with it.
- Jews who left their homes and property in Arab countries when immigrating to Israel after 1948 will be compensated.
- Israel and Palestine will establish free trade and will allow work relations between them.
- Both sides will aspire to end incitement, and prevent extremism among their people and work to create an environment in which peace, tolerance, and mutual respect prevail.
- All Palestinian prisoners held by Israel will be pardoned and released, and all Israelis held by Palestinians will be released.
- Israel will make an official apology for the suffering it caused the Palestinian people. Palestine will apologize for the suffering caused to Israeli civilians by violence.

AS STATED, THIS IS A PERMANENT STATUS AGREEMENT, WHICH WILL BE ACHIEVED IN A GRADUAL PROCESS, THROUGH A COMBINED REGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL EFFORT, IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE FRAMEWORK OF THE ARAB PEACE INITIATIVE AND REGIONAL SECURITY ARRANGEMENTS.



DEKEL BOBROV

honours from Bezalel Academy of Arts and Design, Jerusalem, and won the Mike Felheim Prize for typography. Franco is currently completing his master's degree in Shenkar's multidisciplinary master's program.

LENNART NÖLLE born in Wuppertal, is studying illustration at Berlin University of the Arts. His specialties are papercutting and comics.

MIKA AHARONI is a graphic designer based in Tel Aviv. She is studying visual communication at Shenkar College, focusing on mobile application design and print media.

NICOLA MARINA SEDLMAYR grew up in Munich. She made a short detour into linguistics and culture before studying visual communication in Zurich and at Berlin University of the Arts, where she recently graduated with a bachelor's degree in

illustration. Overall, her work is designed to make a complex context easier to understand.

NIKLAS APFEL is an illustrator and painter from Berlin. Since 2017 he has studied in Henning Wagenbreth's illustration class at Berlin University of the Arts. He is active in the fields of drawing, screen-printing, murals and painting.

RONY KOCH was born in Tel Aviv, where she lives and works. She likes typography and dealing with concepts. Currently a fourth year student at Shenkar College, she specialises in web design and typography and participated in a variety of exhibitions.

SHAKKED BRONSTEIN lives in Kfar Bilu in Israel. She is currently a fourth-year student in visual communication at Shenkar Collage, specialising in illustration, animation and application design.

Aesthetics and concepts are of equal importance in her work.

SHIR BEN-DAVID is an illustrator and animator based in Tel Aviv. Ben-David is currently in her last year at Shenkar College and will receive a bachelor's in design, majoring in illustration and animation.

PARTICIPATING ARTISTS

AMIT TRAININ

is a former head of the visual communication department at Minshar Art School and an illustration teacher at Bezalel Academy of Arts and Design. His work has been published in Israel and abroad and received many accolades, including the American Illustration Association Award.

ATHENA GRANDIS

was born and raised in Rome. In 2016 she began her studies in visual communication at Berlin University of the Arts. She is particularly interested in the design of political and current affairs.

DANA PORAT

is a graphic designer based in Tel Aviv. Porat is currently in her last year of her

bachelor's degree at Shenkar College. She is primarily interested in UI/UX design, typography and illustration — and passionate about interesting combinations of all three.

DEKEL BOBROV

is a senior lecturer and head of the visual communication department at Shenkar College. A graphic designer with twenty years of experience, he specialises in design for books and cultural institutions. Graduated from Vital: The Tel Aviv Center for Design Studies.

DIRK KESSELER

is an illustration student currently finishing his bachelor's degree in design at Berlin University of the Arts. He has participated in art shows with his paintings, drawings and photographs. Kessler mainly works with musicians and cultural institutions to create playful and colourful illustrations.

HAGAR BAREKET

is an illustrator and animator based in Tel Aviv. Bareket is currently in her last year at Shenkar College and will receive a bachelor's in design, with a major in illustration, print media and animation. She was chosen to illustrate the Herzl Beer label in a limited edition and participated in various exhibitions throughout Israel.

KATJA GENDIKOVA

is an illustrator working for books and publications. Born in Riga to a Russian-speaking family, she moved to Berlin in 2010 to study visual communication and illustration at Weißensee Academy of Art and Berlin University of the Arts.

KOBI FRANCO

is a designer and curator as well as a senior lecturer and the head of graphic design studies in the visual communication department of Shenkar College. Franco graduated with

MATTERS NEGOTIATION

