Cyprus conflict and social capital theory: a new perspective on an old conflict

Raymond Saner, Diplomacy Dialogue, Geneva

Published as: Saner, Raymond; "Cyprus conflict and social capital theory: a new perspective on an old conflict", in Michaelene Cox, "Social Capital and Peace Building", creating and solving conflict with trust and networks", Routledge, London, 2009, pp 139-155.

Abstract

This article brings a new perspective to the analysis of the Cyprus conflict. Borrowing from Social Capital theory, an attempt is made to revisit this long lasting conflict and to re-interpret the causes which have led to so many stop-go cycles of inter-communal negotiations. Building on Pfaffenholz (this book), Korac (this book) and xx, a new analysis based on application of "bad" social capital theory shows that previously existing social capital between both communities was systematically destroyed (old trust, links and networks) and emerging new social capital disrupted (social capital built through peace building efforts) by key power brokers of both communities as well as by third parties benefitting from disunion between Greek and Turkish Cypriots. The chapter closes with an overview of measures which could be undertaken to rebuild social capital needed to make emerging cooperation be based on acquisition and maintenance of sustainable social capital.

A) Current Developments

The election of Demetris Christofias on 17th February as new President of Cyprus was followed by a quick succession of meetings between him and Mr Mehmet Ali Talat, president of de facto Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (KKTC) ¹and by an equally speedy set of agreements and actions between both

1

¹ Distinction needs to be made according to de iure and de facto use of terminology. According to UN practice, the Republic of Cyprus is the legitimate government representing the whole of the island while the TRNC has been declard legally invalid by the United Nations (Resolutions Nr. 541 (1983) and Nr. 550 (1984). The author acknowledges the existing legal distinctions but for the sake of clarity and editorial expediency, de iure and de facto titles and denominations will be abstracted to Southern Cyprus (controlled by Republic of Cyprus) and Northern Cyprus (controlled by Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus), and titles of heads of governments simplified to leader of Greek Cypriots (Mr. Christofias) and leader of Turkish Cypriots (Mr. Talat).

leaders to ease tensions between both Cypriot communities. Hopes are high that the two leaders will be able to break the impasse left after the paralysing results of the vote on the so called Annan 5 plan for reunification on 24th April 2004 which was rejected by the Greek Cypriots by 76% but approved by the Turkish Cypriots by 65% paralysing the UN effort of reaching reunification before the official entry of Cyprus (whole island territory) into the European Union on 1st May 2004.² Since then, new initiatives were tabled by the United Nations, supportive measures proposed by the EU and encouraging gestures extended by the US government but all in vain. The reunification process remained in impasse. However, judging by the speed of actions undertaken by both sides, cautious optimism is not unrealistic. The future will of course tell whether the signs of cooperation will hold when the road to reunification runs into predictable hard places.

Mr Christofias and Mr. Talat met on 21 March 2008 and quickly decided to form six working groups and seven technical committees to move the reunification process forward. Specifically the following workings groups were formed: Governance and power sharing, EU matters, Security and guarantees, Territory, Property and Economic Matters. The seven technical committees consist of: Crime/Criminal matters, Economic and commercial mattes, cultural heritage, crisis management, humanitarian matters, health and environment.³ Both leaders nominated representatives, Mr. George Iacovou and Mr. Ozdil Nami, who meet on a regular basis working out the remaining issues. Compared to the stalemate and inertia since the inconclusive vote on the Annan 5 plan, the speed of working meetings and the general climate of courtesy and expressed mutual appreciation has been impressive leaving a many "Cyprus experts" astonished and in need of reconfiguration of established views and positions.

Christofias won against Ioannis Kassoulides, the former government's foreign minister by 53.36% against 46.64% in the second round. The former President Tassos Papadopoulos who did not make it into the run off round. Kassoulides, member of the right wing party DISY, was in favour of the Annan 5 plan while the left winger Christofias, leader of the communist AKEL party was against it. This seemingly paradoxical behaviour of voting no on the Annan 5 plan while now engaging in speed negotiations with the Turkish Cypriots might surprise but should be seen in the light of local politics. AKEL was coalition partner with DISY and both jointly rejected the Annan 5 plan.

AKEL, with roots in socialist politics, much like the party led by Mehmet Talal in power on the Turkish Cypriot side, has always maintained ties with the Turkish Cypriots to the north. AKEL has been the driving force for unification

² The whole of the island is considered part of the EU. However, in the northern part of the island, in the areas in which the Government of Cyprus does not exercise effective control, EU legislation is suspended in line with Protocol 10 of the Accession Treaty 2003. These areas are outside the customs and fiscal territory of the EU. However, Turkish Cypriots are considered as EU citizens. They are citizens of a Member State, the Republic of Cyprus, even though they may live in the areas not under government control. In fact, many TC have applied for a EU passport and obtained it from the GC government authorities.

³ www.cyprusembassy.net/hoe/index.php?module=article, dated 27 March 2008.

for a long period. However, as AKEL has now formed a coalition government together with right wing party called DIKO, it will have to be seen how the current Greek Cypriot government will be able to manage negotiating for a settlement with the Turkish Cypriot while at the same time having to find an agreement which would be acceptable to their DIKO coalition parties and the Greek Cypriot citizens at large.

What ever the agreement might be, it has to be acceptable enough so that a majority of the Greek Cypriots commit it to it. This is no easy undertaking since about 1/3 of them are refugees from the North who still request that they are to be given back property and land taken from them after the landing of the Turkish Army on the island on 1974 leading to the subsequent de facto partition of the island. In addition, the previous Annan 5 deal included other aspects which the Turkish Cypriots will not so easily give up but which are impossible to accept for the Greek Cypriots such as allowing a 20 year presence of Turkish troops and a scheme which consists of the Greek Cypriot taxpayers paying the money which would be given as compensation for land and property lost in the North. In other words, Greek Cypriots who lost land and property would have to pay themselves for the loss they incurred in 1974. A deal which is difficult if not impossible to sell to the Greek Cypriots. In other words, the challenges ahead are substantial, some say, impossible, but both leaders appear determines to find a way out of the current stalemate.

B) Re-analyzing the history of the Cyprus conflict

Cyprus, an island state of 788,457 people (July 2007 est.)⁴ living with varying degrees of conflict ranging form violence to diplomatic manoeuvres since its independence in 1960 has generated an astonishingly high amount of UN Security Council and UN General Assembly resolutions. Starting from 1965, there are 17 UN General Assembly resolutions and as of 1964, one can count 89 UN Security Council Resolutions. The UN Force on Cyprus (UNFICYP) had troops from various countries stationed along the green line namely 4,500 from 1965 to 1968, and 3,500 from 1969 to 1972, exceptionally a temporary increase to 4,440 for a period after the 1974 fighting and invasion of Turkish Troops and since 1990 about 2000 UN soldiers are keeping peace on the island at about 26 million US Dollars per year. ⁵ The conflict at times flares up resulting in violence and death, also of UN soldiers. A long succession of UN Secretary Generals, elected heads of states, elected Greek and Turkish Cypriot leaders, as well as third parties like the UK, USA and the EU just to name the most prominent ones have all attempted to solve the so called Cyprus conflict but all in vain.

The Cyprus conflict has attracted an enormous coterie of conflict scholars who all were either offering conflict resolution advice, peace making suggestions or conducted various trainings for officials from both sides with low levels of

-

https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/print/cy.html

⁵ http://lcweb2.loc.gov/cgibin/query/r?frd/cstdy:@field(DOCID+cy0160)

success. ⁶.While trying their best to bring about some form of conflict resolution, many also used their experiences to reflect on the seemingly impossible solution and wrote books, articles and advocacy type publications for the benefit of either side to the conflict including this author himself (De Soto, 2005; Diamond & Fisher 1995, Dodd 1998, 1999; Evrivriades & Bourantonis, 1994; Evrivriades, 2007, Evrivriades E., 2005; Fisher 1998; Fitchett, 1998; Moran, 1999; Palley, 2005;, Salih, 1978; Saner, 2001; Volkan, 1979; Yesilada & Sozen, 2002).

Other conflicts have an equally long or even longer history such as the Kashmir conflict, the Israel-Palestine conflict or the North-South Korean conflict. Still, for the size of the population at hand and the resources made available to first contain then to solve the Cyprus conflict, it remains a bit of a mystery why the Cyprus conflict could not be solved either through reunification or through separation. The other conflicts cited above started with local armed conflict and later on got changed to become a regional or international conflict as third party countries got involved in addition to the United Nations. The same might apply to Cyprus.

Involvement of third parties in the Cyprus conflict has not been discussed sufficiently by conflict scholars. This author has written a first article on third party involvement looking at the Cyprus conflict form a multi-actor perspective (Saner, 2007). Other scholars make at times allusions to third parties but mostly as an additional factor of their primarily bilateral conflict analysis.

In this regard, the comment made by President Christofias during the recent election campaign deserves closer attention. He stated:

"We have a vision, we have a history of struggle and contact with the people in our efforts to reunify our country without foreign troops," Mr Christofias said after casting his vote.⁷

His comment can be interpreted several ways. Fist, the most immediate target of his statement could be the Turkish troops stationed on the island considered by the great majority of the Greek Cypriots as occupation army. However, he did not mention the Turkish troops by name. This could have been an omission or a diplomatic tactic to avoid making comments which could be seen as too aggressive towards the Turkish Cypriots with whom he wanted to negotiate provided of course that he would win the elections.

An alternative interpretation would be that he meant the British Forces stationed on the island. British forces were on the island before independence – Cyprus was a colony of the United Kingdom de facto

⁶ See for instance: Marion Peters Angelica (1999) Conflict Resolution Training in Cyprus: An Assessment",a Fulbright Scholar assessment published in 1997, www.cyprus-conflict.net/angelica%rpt%20-%201.htm

⁷ Upstate NY, Sun Feb 24th, 2008 at 03:54:27 PM EDT, AFP. http://www.eurotrib.com/?op=displaystory;sid=2008/2/24/155427/427

since 1878, de iure since 1925. ⁸ When looking at the map of Cyprus below, one can see the location of the Sovereign Base Areas (SBAs). The straddle at one place the Green line separating the Greek and Turkish Cypriot front lines, one section going into the Turkish Cypriot area while another section of the SBAs is clearly within Greek Cypriot area at the southern most tip of the island. In general, all of the SBAs are located in the southern part of the island facing the Near East across the Mediterranean.



Citing official UK information, the history and the current use of the bases can be summarized and cited as fellows:

The Sovereign Base Areas (SBAs) are sovereign British territory and cover 98 square miles of the island of Cyprus. The SBAs are purely military in nature. They are run by the SBA Administration and have their own legislation, police force and courts. They are very closely linked with the Republic of Cyprus with whom they are in a customs and currency union.

Under the 1878 Convention of Defensive Alliance between Britain and Turkey, Britain took over the administration of Cyprus from Turkey, although Turkey retained formal sovereignty. In 1914, when Turkey

-

⁸ For historical and legal background on UK bases see: http://www.fco.gov.uk/servlet/Front?pagename=OpenMarket/Xcelerate/ShowPage&c =Page&cid=1007029394365&a=KCountryProfile&aid=1019233785265

entered the First World War on the side of the Central Powers, Britain annexed Cyprus. British sovereignty was recognised by Turkey under the terms of the 1923 Treaty of Lausanne and Cyprus became a Crown Colony in 1925.

The official UK website does not explain in more detail the status of the SBAs nor how it came about that this territory was ceded in perpetuity to the UK at the time of independence of Cyprus in 1960. The process of negotiating the constitution of the independence of Cyprus remains murky and has been a contentious issue right at the beginning of the young republic leading to disputes between Greek and Turkish Cypriots as to the structure of government, the laws regulating the division of power between the two communities and the legitimacy of the SBAs ceded to UK in perpetuity.

The legitimacy of Cyprus ceding the bases on perpetuity has not been discussed extensively in the conflict literature. Taking into account the military importance of the SBAs for the UK and US forces as crucial link for military operations in the Near Eastern theatre e.g. in regard to Iraq, Syria, Iran, Israel, Egypt, Turkey as refuel base, overhaul and launching base of air born reconnaissance and strike operations, it can be hypothesized that any effort at re-writing the constitution leading to a cancellation of the SBA special status would be resisted by the UK and the USA.

Because Cyprus is located in such a highly sensitive geographical region, involvement of third parties in the Cyprus conflict is not surprising since involvement on either side can also provide third parties with secondary gains for other conflicts outside or beyond the conflict on the island (Saner, 2007 in press).

When discussing the Cyprus conflict, many often allude to the inter-communal conflict between Greek and Turkish Cypriots going back to pre-independence times. However, due to the fact that three guarantor countries (UK, Turkey, Greece) have the constitutional right to intervene unilaterally if seen needed, the intercommunal conflict was immediately lifted up to the level of conventional war (e.g. Turkey's landing of troops on the island in 1974 leading to war with the forces of the Greek Cypriot government¹⁰.

In addition, subsequent to the conventional war between official Cyprus and Turkey, the Security Council of the UN following multiple resolutions passed by the US Assembly gave a specific mandate to the UN Secretary General and his office to create a peace enforcing group of UN soldiers to interpose themselves between both belligerent parties (green line) and to initiate diplomatic efforts which should lead to reconciliation and reunification.

From a conflict theory point of view, one could hence classify the Cyprus conflict as consisting of a bilateral conflict (Cyprus-Turkey) mediated by a third party namely the UN Secretary General and influenced by multiple stakeholders (e.g. two remaining guarantor countries Greece and UK, the EU as political supranational umbrella representing Greece, UK, since May 2004 Cyprus (Southern Cyprus) and all the other EU member countries.¹¹

Figure 1 below gives an overview of the multiple coalitions that have direct or indirect impact on the outcome of any negotiated solution of the Cyprus conflict, if ever achievable at all. Third parties to the conflict can either try to be constructive or help bring about a resolution of the conflict or they might be interested in using the conflict to obtain concessions elsewhere.

Several interest alliances are known to be influential in the region and linked to the Cyprus conflict. On one hand there is configuration of countries tied to each other through various pacts and cooperation agreements ranging e.g. from cooperation in the military sector (Turkey, Israel, USA) to alliance against a common enemy or competitor e.g. Turkey and Israel together against Syria, Lebanon and Iraq (former Sadam regime)

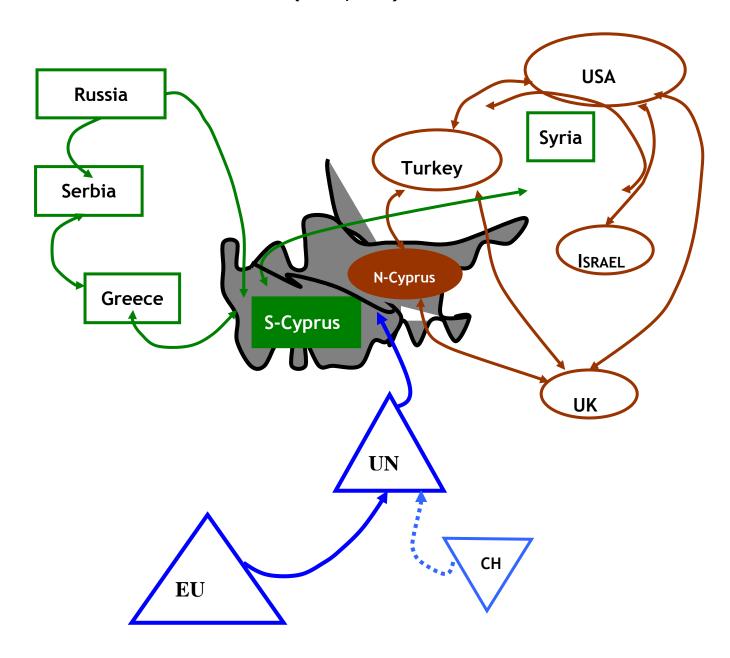
On the other hand, a very old alliance exists between fellow Christian orthodox countries such as Greece, with Serbia and Russia (formerly Soviet Union) against Macedonia, Kosovo, Albania, and Turkey and a strategic alliance going back to the cold war with Syria against Turkey and later on Israel (as ally of Turkey).

Another link based on common interest and years of active cooperation exists between the UK and the USA. The two bases ceded in perpetuity to UK are used for high tech espionage work covering the near East, the Black See and the Caucasus area. The airbase has been used during the Iraq war and is intended to be at service for any other armed conflict situation. A fully reunited and harmonious Cyprus could question the legitimacy of the two bases and even ask the UK to retrocede them to the sovereign country of Cyprus.

The UN secretariat has its own concern and tactical alliances. The Cyprus conflict has meant continuous expenditure, troop presence and fulfilling the mandate to be a conciliator of this old conflict. Having had to face increasing criticism especially form the US and the UK, it is perfectly understandable that the UN SG would like to see an end to the Cyprus conflict. Not to find a solution means continued expenditures that are actually needed elsewhere. Also, not being able ton find a solution represents the risk of negative PR with third parties.



Constellation of Cyprus Negotiations (Saner,2007)



The alliance network depicted in Figure 1 is not exhaustive. It solely serves to illustrate the complexity of the Cyprus conflict and the obvious links to other business that countries might have with each other or with other groups and where a solution or the withholding of a solution on the island could be to these third parties best interests but to the detriment of the concerned two communities. –

A classic case of such opportunistic use of conflicts is for instance the use of veto power by Greece to block internal EU and NATO decision making processes. To opt for a negotiators behaviour called "nuisance factor", third partiers can score points for their protégé (here Greek Cyprus) as well as use their blocking power to bar entry of Turkey to the EU until Turkey e.g. makes concession in other domains.

It is unrealistic to expect a solution to the Cyprus conflict without a simultaneous package deal covering all the additional external conflicts described above. In other words, a solution to the Cyprus conflict necessitates a comprehensive solution covering the Cyprus conflict but also the other stakeholder interests and conflicts now so clearly linked to the Cyprus conflict.¹²

C) Need to adapt social capital theory to the complexity of multi-actor conflicts

Resolving the Cyprus conflict would hence require a mix of interventions along the lines suggested by Paffenholz (this book) consisting of Track I conflict management by official negotiators and mediators who approach conflicts from a rational choice understanding that parties can win more at the negotiation table compared to continuing fighting or in the case of Cyprus to upholding the status quo of a high risk stalemate.

At the same time, Track II diplomacy could be used in parallel involving civil society representatives of both sides to explore underlying causes of conflict, build trust and rebuild destroyed relationship along the lines of the women for woman and Woman in Black (WIB) support groups working on re-establishing ties with victims and representatives of other ethnic groups in Belgrade during and after the horrors of the wars in the former Yugoslavia (Korac, this book).

However, since both Track I and Track II have so far failed in facilitating reunification for all the reasons analysed elsewhere (Saner, 2001). The Cyprus conflict is no longer a classic case of intra-national conflict (whether bilateral or multi-party local actors) but rather a multi-actor conflict with internal and external actors involved in causing the current conflict to remain in an impasse:

Hence, it might be useful to enlarge the focus of analysis and make the scope of intervention more inclusive of the key external actors partaking in the Cyprus conflict either directly or indirectly namely the UK, the US, Greece, Turkey, the EU and the UN. The Cyprus conflict is no longer a matter between two communities that no longer trust each other and hence cannot agree to power

sharing but rather it is a matter of looking at the larger field of actors who actively play constructive or destructive roles in this multi-stakeholder environment.

D) Revisiting the multi-actor-multi-stakeholder Cyprus conflict from a social capital theory perspective

What follows is an attempt to look at the Cyprus conflict from broader perspective than the habitual bi-communal perspective. By including third party actors in the analysis, a larger field is being created which lends itself to an application of some tenants of social capital theory allowing for a questioning of current main-stream Cyprus conflict paradigms mostly based on well known assumptions of ethnic hatred. This is not to claim that ethnic distrust and even hatred between Greek and Turkish Cypriots does not exist.

After so many years of past violence and victimization of the other and more than 34 years of separation, personal relations and perception of the other meaning here representatives of the other community, has become affected by a mix of remembered atrocities committed by both sides mixed with classic psychological processes of denigrating members of the other ethnic group.

Vamik Volkan, professor emeritus in psychiatry, a leading scholar in conflict analysis of Turkish Cypriot origin with professional orientation and training in psychoanalysis, has followed the Cyprus conflict since its beginning. His classic publications (Volkan, 1988, 1994, 1997, 2004) have been essential reading for scholar's intent in understanding the complex psychological processes motivating Greek and Turkish Cypriots in their relations with each other.

His latest publication (2008) ends on a pessimistic note observing that Turkish Cypriots have for too long internalised self-hatred and self-depreciation which originated from the way Greek Cypriots have treated them and hence are not able to defend themselves. Their identities remain weak and for that reason Volkan rejects the idea of "Cypriotness" often suggested by international NGOs who might be well intentioned but who are not aware of the less than secure self-identities of the minority Turkish Cypriots. For that reason, Volkan suggests continuity of separateness between both communities.

Looking back at both communities, self-identities fluctuated on both sides. Sharing the island on the basis of equality as human beings independent of ethnic background became increasingly difficult as the independence struggle intensified and British repression stiffened. The independence fighters were almost exclusively Greek Cypriots who faced a good number of Turkish Cypriots who were hired by the British colonial power as police auxiliaries. This in turn did not help trust building in the build up towards independence.

Matters got worse four years after independence when both communities were at logger heads in regard to the constitution which was "agreed" in 1960 based on expert "advice" by the colonial overlord. The initial constitution assigned the presidency to a Greek Cypriot and the Deputy Presidency to a Turkish Cypriot

with considerable veto power. ⁹ Further constitutional provisions in regard to ethnically assigned seats in parliament made it further difficult if not impossible to change the constitution thereby ensuring status quo in regard to the ceding of the SBA to the UK.

The Greek Cypriots in power wanted to change the constitution while the Turkish Cypriot leadership resisted calls for constitutional change fearing that they would be relegated to a permanent minority position with little power to defend their interest. The stand-off lasted for the initial four years but then turned into violent conflict.

As a consequence and following the nationalistic leaders of the Turkish Cypriot community (leading figure was Rauf Denktash, the later leader of the TC community), Turkish Cypriots were grouped together in self-defence enclaves scattered over the island but mostly situated in towns and cities (see Annex 2 for reference). The newly formed enclaves were labelled as armed enclaves (Greek Cypriot leadership) or Ghettos (Turkish Cypriot leadership).

Nationalists on both sides used the emerging divisions to consolidate power, eliminate opponents and force their respective communities into psychological bonding with each other. In that sense, social capital theory in the form of bonding (Woolcock 1998) bridging and linking was used to create separate identities. Mihaylova (2004) summarizes the three concepts as follows:

Bonding social capital describes strong bonds between people such as family members or members of the same ethnic group; bonding social capital is good for "getting by" in life. Bridging social capital is characterized by weaker but more crosscutting ties for example between business associates, acquaintances, friends from different ethnic groups, friends of friends, etcetera The final form of social capital is linking social capital. This describes vertical (or hierarchical) connections between people in different positions of power.

From 1964 on, Turkish Cypriots were forced to live together in difficult and tight living conditions. Bonding was inevitable as a means to survive. Bridging to Greek Cypriots was suspended and sanctioned and linking was reorganised in the sense that the vertical connection now ended with Rauf Denktash, the leader of the TC community. A similar process occurred after the invasion of the Turkish army which resulted in 50% of the Greek Cypriots becoming refugees who had to find new homes and often difficult conditions. Similar to Turkish Cypriots before them, the Greek Cypriots underwent bonding, bridging to TCs

_

⁹ For details of the intricate power sharing or better mutual power paralysis in case on non-cooperation see Drevet 1991, Weston Markides 2001, Oezgür, 2001, O'Malley & Craig, 1999, Goldstein, 2003 as well as other scholars discussing the legal fine points of the Cyprus conflict. Even though some of these authors are more in favour of Greek Cypriot nationalist postions, it is nevertheless useful to consult them since they shed.

were suspended and the linking was redirected to the leaders of the Greek Cypriot community dominated by the nationalists.

One's sense of self identity is affected by the way others interact with oneself. Society with multi-ethnic composition is more vulnerable to lasting psychological impairment after having suffered violence and civil war. Rebuilding trust is very difficult after experience of armed conflict, war, hatred and open aggression or more hidden forms of denigration by representatives of the other community. If one adds to this a form of re-engineering of communities through resettlement, separation of living quarters and interposition of armies (here Turkish army and UN troops), social capital between both communities got progressively lost.

Looking from a historical perspective and bearing in mind social capital theory but put into the context of violent inter-ethnic conflict, then applying this to the Cyprus conflict, one can differentiate the following periods having a bearing on inter-communal relations.

a) 1960-1963: Rupturing of horizontal/interethnic social capital between Greek and Turkish Cypriots

Both communities lived in close proximity with each other sometimes as direct neighbours in the same village sometimes one village of Greek Cypriots leading to a Turkish Cypriot village etc. People of both communities either knew each other personally since childhood or were familiar with each other through trade and other commercial and social activities. ¹⁰

b) 1963-1974: Consolidation of a split of vertical social capital due to power struggles between Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot leadership.

As the stalemate deepened between some of the leaders of both communities calling on one hand for constitutional change (Greek Cypriot nationalist leadership) and on the other hand for status quo (Turkish Cypriot nationalist leadership), tension increased leading to further tensions in both communities.

In both communities, power struggles were carried out between nationalist Greek Cypriots calling for ENOSIS (abolishing Cyprus as a state and integration of Cyprus into Greece) and others calling for maintaining independence and cooperation with the Turkish Cypriots (mostly leftist parties and trade union leaders).

On the Turkish Cypriot side a power struggle emerged between the nationalist Turkish Cypriots calling for TAKSIM (full separation between Greek and Turkish Cypriots, in fact partition and creation of two separate states) and those in the Turkish Cypriot community favouring cooperation with the Greek Cypriots and maintaining of an independent Cyprus. The latter being mostly leftists and trade union leaders.

¹⁰ For reference of how both communities lived along side each other, see Ozgür (2001), also see annex 1, ethnic tapestry of Turkish-Greek Cypriot villages till 1963

Tensions within and between both communities increased further as violence and murders increase in both and between both communities leading to the creation of armed enclaves to which Turkish Cypriots retreated because of armed aggression by nationalist Greek Cypriot gangs or because of psychological pressure exerted on them by nationalist Turkish Cypriot leaders. ¹¹

c) 1974- present: Continuous reduction of transversal social capital through consecutive interventions of third parties

Both communities had to face multiple external interventions which reduced their ability to reach out to each other as well as to sources of support outside of Cyprus. The first intervention of magnitude was the putsch in 1974 organised by the Greek junta which aimed at the overthrow of the then president, Archbishop Makarios, seen as too close to the movement of the non-aligned countries and too dependent on AKEL, the communist party. The goal of the putsch was to take power and to integrate Cyprus into Greece.

The next intervention came about through the armed intervention of Turkey which sent its armed forces onto the island which led to direct war with the Greek Cypriot forces and the Greek forces stationed on the island. Turkey pushed down south in two attacks until it reached the current limits of the green line today patrolled by the UN forces (UNFICYP)

A third and so far most understudied intervention was the non-intervention by the UK forces stationed on the island's SBA areas. Greece, Turkey and the UK were guarantors of the newly independent Cyprus. The three were all supposed to safeguard the integrity of the island's constitution and sovereignty. The UK chose not to intervene when the Greek junta launched the coup against Makarios and the UK forces did not intervene either when the Turkish forces swept deep into southern parts of the island.

Neither the choice not to intervene against the Greek nor the Turkish armed aggression against Cyprus has been linked so far to anti-communist considerations at the behest of the US who was at that time involved in the cold war (O'Malley & Craig, 2001). Related to this is the consideration that the UK and the USA were and remain keen on keeping the SBAs extraterritorial and hence a division between both communities ensures seemingly indefinite use of the SBAs important for military plans in the Near East Theatre.

The result of all foreign interventions has been the same. Horizontal social capital is being lost, vertical power by new ethnic leader's gets to be consolidated and attempts to reach out non-nationalist and non-aligned countries is contained and the country remains split.

_

¹¹ See annex 2 for reference

E) New attempts based on old bonding and re-enforced bridging, and attempts at recreating horizontal, vertical and transversal social capital

So many years were missed to create sufficient trust for reconciliation and cooperation and so many third parties have entered the fray and turned the bilateral conflict into a multi-actor and multi-stakeholder conflict. The situation looks difficult and many Cyprus-watchers predict failure rather than success for the new Greek and Turkish Cypriot counterparts.

Social Capital theory puts a lot of emphasis on trust and civic participation (Putnam, 1993). He defines social capital as those

"Features of social organization, such as trust, norms, and networks that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions" (Putnam 1993:167).

In light of Volkan's observations and also taking into account the 34 years of failed attempts to create good-enough trust for both communities to agree on reunification, if appears difficult to envisage a successful new beginning by the new Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot leaders.

There are indeed many current obstacles and lots of years of accumulated distrust and disappointment. However, there might be a real chance for both leaders to succeed for reasons less apparent on first sight.

Both of the current leaders represent labour unions and have been in favour of reunification before. Both organisations have had difficult times to overcome even to survive physically. Members of AKEL were attacked by nationalist Greek Cypriot groups, even assassinated and the same was true for the Turkish Cypriot labour union whose members got persecuted by their respective nationalist extremists.

Both new leaders might be able to re-kindle horizontal social capital, even attempt some form of new and shared vertical social capital if both sides can agree on power sharing under a new constitutional arrangement.

The third factor of- Woocock's Social Capital- linking – will be more difficult as it would include the possibility of new alliances and cooperation with other countries outside the traditionally assigned "father-motherlands" Greece, Turkey and traditional reference to third external parties such as the UK, USA and the United Nations as extension of western power influence.

Whether both new leaders will be able to fend off their respective nationalist competitors within their communities and find enough resolve and strength to face powerful third parties like Greece, Turkey, the UK and the USA is not clear. Only time will tell whether they will be successul in creating a new Cyprus based on new social capital and social cohesion transcending old divisions based on nationalist identities and subservience to powerful third parties.

The UK, USA, Greece and Turkey have in the past either openly favoured repression of labour union leaders and leftists or passively accepted human rights violations against labour union leaders and leftists on Cyprus, in Greece (e.g. during the period of the military dictatorship) and in Turkey (also during periods of military dictatorships). These common policies still hold strong despite the EU and the UN's repeated call for reconciliation which in itself could endanger the continued existence of the SBAs. The four powers could either try to make reconciliation between both sides difficult or use other influence tactics to prevent rapprochement between the two communities.

The alternative to such a more defensive approach would be to contribute to new creation of social capital at horizontal, vertical and transversal levels with the latter calling the four to be willing to be more of a partner rather than a power dictating terms. Still, a lasting peace and reunification could also be useful for regional stability and free up UN resources for other more urgently needed armed conflicts.

References:

De Soto, A, (2005), The Case of Cyprus, Working Group on Collective representation and identity, Third International conference on Federalism, Brussels, 4 March, 2005 Deutsch, M. (1949). "A theory of cooperation and competition." *Human Relations* 2: 129-152.

Drevet, J.F., (1991), Chypre, île extreme: Chronique d'une Europe oubliée", Syros Alternatives, Paris.

Diamond, L. and R. Fisher (1995). "Integrating Conflict Resolution Training and Consultation: A Cyprus Example." *Negotiation Journal* 11, 3..

Dodd, C.H. (1998). *The Cyprus Imbroglio*. UK: The Eothen Press. ----, ed. (1999). *Cyprus, the Need for New Perspectives*. UK: The Eothen Press.

Evrivriades, M., Bourantonis, D, (1994). "Peacekeeping and Peacemaking: Some Lessons from Cyprus", International Peacekeeping, Vol. 1, No.4, pp.- 394-412, p.1

Evrivriades, M. (2007), "Cyprus and the Strategic Fiasco in Iraq", Research Institute for European and American Studies, Athens.

Evriviades, E., Ambassador of Cyprus to the USA (2005) "Cyprus in the EU: Once Year later- Prospects for Reunification", American Hellenic Institute, Washington, 23 May 2005, p.5.

Fisher, G. (1998). The Mindsets Factor in Ethnic Conflict: A Cross-Cultural Agenda, Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press...

Fitchett, J. (1998). "Threat of Conflict on Cyprus Recedes." *International Herald Tribune*, July 3.

Moran, Michael. (1999). "Resolution 186: its Genesis and Significance", CYREP, Northern Cyprus.

O'Malley, B; Craig, I, (2004); The Cyprus Conspiracy: American Espionage and the Turkish Invasion", Tauris & Co, London

Oezgür, Oe, (2001); Cyprus in My Life: Testimony of a Turkish Cypriot Diplomat", Bibliopolis, Mannheim

Palley, Claire. (2005). "An International Relations Debacle: The UN Secretary-General's Mission of Good Offices in Cyprus 1999-2004", Hart Publishing, Oxford.

Putnam, Robert D., Robert Leonardi and Raff aella Y. Nanetti (1993), *Making Democracy Work.*, *Civic Traditions in Modern Italy*, Priceton University Press.

Salih, H.I. (1978). Cyprus, The Impact of Diverse Nationalism on a State. University of Alabama Press.

Saner, R. (2001). "External Stakeholder Impacts on Official and Non-Official Third Party Interventions to Resolve Malignant Conflicts: the case of a failed intervention in Cyprus", International Negotiations, 6: 387-416.

Saner, R. (2007, in press), "Cyprus conflict: will it ever end in agreement?"

Volkan, V.D. (1979). Cyprus--War and Adaptation: A Psychoanalytic History of Two Ethnic Groups in Conflict. University Press of Virginia. "Vote on Genocide Bill Dropped." (2000). International Herald Tribune, October 21-22.

Volkan, V. D. (1988) The Need to Have Enemies and Allies: From Clinical Practice to International Relationships. Northvale, NJ: Jason Aronson.

Volkan, V. D. (1997) *Bloodlines: From Ethnic Pride to Ethnic Terrorism*. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Volkan, V. D. (2004) Blind Trust: Large Groups and Their Leaders in Times of Crises and Terror. Charlottesville, VA: Pitchstone Publishing.

Volkan, V. D. (2006a). *Killing in the Name of Identity: A Study of Bloody Conflicts*. Charlottesville, VA: Pitchstone Publishing.

Volkan, V. D., and Itzkowitz, N. (1994) *Turks and Greeks: Neighbours in Conflict.* Cambridgeshire, England: Eothen Press.

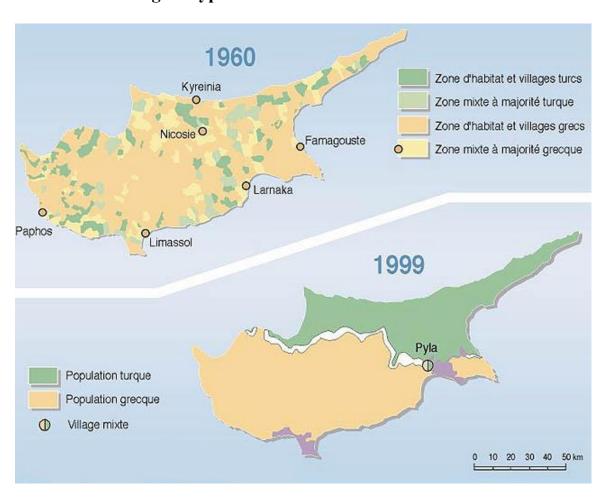
Volkan, V. D. (2008) Consequences of Massive social Trauma and Large Group Identity Confusion in Northern Cyprus", in new Turkish edition of "Cyprus: War and Adaptation"

Weston Markides, D, (2001), "Cyprus 1957-1963: from Colonial Conflict to Constitutional Crisis", University of Minnesota, USA,

Yesilada, Birol A., Sozen, Ahmet (2002) "Negotiating a Resolution to the Cyprus Problem: Is Potential European Union Membership a Blessing or a Curse?", International Negotiations 7: 261-285.

Annex 1

"Ethnic Cleansing in Cyprus" 12

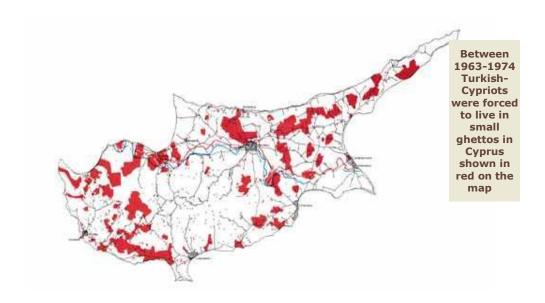


"In 1960 the Greek and Turkish communities formed a mosaic. After more than 25 years of Turkish occupation of the north of the island and the forced transfer of populations, the two communities - Turkish in the north and Greek in the south - are now strictly separated by a demarcation line."13

¹² Rekacewicz, P. (2000). "Ethnic Cleansing in Cyprus." <u>Le Monde diplomatique</u>.

http://mondediplo.com/maps/cyprusmdv49, (accessed April 15, 2008).

Annex 2



 From: C.H. Dodd, (1993), `Cyprus: A Historical Introduction', in C.H. Dodd (ed.), "The Political, Social, and Economic Development of Northern Cyprus", Eothen Press, Huntingdon, Cambridgeshire, England.

See: http://www.cypnet.co.uk/ncyprus/history/republic/breakdown.html

¹³ Ibid.