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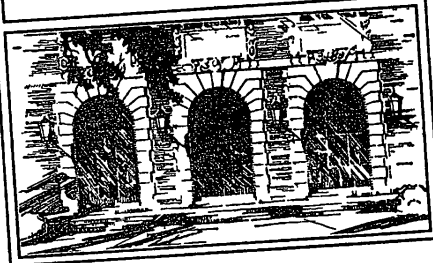
THE ENTEBBE HOSTAGE CRISIS

1982

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THE ENTEBBE HOSTAGES CRISIS*

by Francis A Boyle***

States create the rules of international law for the express purpose of serving and advancing their respective national interests. States do not adopt useless impractical or dangerous rules to regulate their relations in the first place. The requirements of international law are substantially albeit imperfectly congruent with the dictates of vital national interests and vice versa. Any system of law even an imperfect one usually proves to be more beneficial and therefore preferable to each participant than the existence of no legal rules at all. Therefore in times of international crisis adherence to the rules of international law oftentimes proves to be in a state's best interest anyway. The reason why two cars approaching each other on a narrow mountain road obey the rules of the road by each driving on the right hand side supplies an excellent analogy to why states will follow international law in time of crisis.

During an international crisis states do not sacrifice considerations of international law for the promotion of their vital national interests. In situations of apparent conflict between the two governmental decisionmakers commence to define or redefine their vital national interests to include considerations of international law conversely they define or redefine international law to take account of their vital national interests. Invariably decisionmakers engage in both processes simultaneously. In this fashion vital national interests are tailored to the demands of international law and vice versa. An initially perceived gap between the two is narrowed from both sides to a point of at least plausible argument concerning its nonexistence.

This process of dialectical interaction between vital national interests and international law during and following a crisis creates a strong force towards reconciliatory modification upon each. If a similar crisis occurs again in the future the experience of the first crisis will have already altered the contours of the international system so as to render the second dispute more manageable. Or a similar crisis might not even erupt again because a body of national and international law procedures or institutions developed in the aftermath of the first crisis specifically for the purpose of preventing such problems in the future. Likewise vital national

interests will have become altered in the wake of a crisis in order to make recurrence of such a crisis less likely. In such instances international law, international organizations and vital national interests work hand in hand to prevent the recurrence of crises and thereby maintain the stability of the international system for all its members.

The purpose of this article is to develop a theoretical framework for analysis of the various functions performed by international law and international organizations during international crises. It examines the Entebbe hostages crisis in order to elaborate a common schema applicable to the phenomenon of international crisis in general. In chronological order I shall delineate five functions performed by international law and international organizations during the Entebbe crisis: (1) definition (2) decision (3) adjudication (4) resolution and (5) redefinition.¹ This functional approach will permit Entebbe to be understood as one paradigmatic manifestation of the dialectical interaction between international law and international politics in time of crisis. During an international crisis law and politics are so highly interdependent as to be virtually indistinguishable. International politics is and becomes international law while international law is and becomes international politics. A functional analysis of international law will reveal these dynamic processes by which the entire international system proceeds to cope with a crisis in order to survive.

1 On June 24, 1976, Air France Flight 139 from Tel Aviv to Paris was hijacked by three men and a woman who identified themselves as members of the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (a splinter group within the Palestine Liberation Organization) approximately eight minutes after a scheduled stop in Athens where they had boarded the plane. See Smith & Shuster, *Drama in Hijacking of Jet to Uganda: A Long Week of Terror and Tensions*, *N.Y. Times* (July 11, 1976) § 1 at p. 1 col. 4 (hereinafter cited as Smith & Shuster). The jet was then flown to Benghazi, Libya for refueling. See *id.* at p. 16 col. 1. The Rescue. We do the impossible. *Time* (July 12, 1976) at p. 21 p. 22 (hereinafter cited as *The Rescue*). After the release of a pregnant woman at Benghazi, the Airbus continued on to the Entebbe airport in Uganda where it landed at 3:00 a.m. on June 28. Smith & Shuster at p. 16 col. 2. Nine hours later the passengers disembarked and were transferred to a seldom used airport terminal. *The Rescue* at p. 22.

The hijackers demanded the release of 53 imprisoned "freedom fighters" (40 held in Israel with the rest scattered among France, Switzerland, Kenya and West Germany) by the afternoon of July 1 in exchange for the safe return of the 241 passengers and 12 crew members of the hijacked plane. *The Rescue* at p. 22. Otherwise they threatened to kill all the hostages. *Id.* at p. 23. On June 30 the hijackers released 47 non-Israeli women and children. Smith & Shuster at p. 16 col. 4. Shortly before the expiration of the July 1 deadline, Israel agreed to negotiate. *The Rescue* at p. 23. The hijackers subsequently released another 101 captives keeping only Israelis those believed to be Jewish and the Airbus crew. *Id.* The deadline was extended to July 4. *Id.*

At 11:30 p.m. on Saturday, July 3, the Israeli Defense Forces conducted a military raid which rescued the hostages. Smith & Shuster at p. 16 cols. 5-8. During the ensuing battle three captives, one Israeli soldier, at least twenty Ugandan soldiers, and all of the hijackers were killed. *Id.* One other hostage, Dora Bloch, who held dual British and Israeli nationalities, died in Uganda though not in the raid. She had been hospitalized in Kampala prior to the time of the raid after she began to choke on a piece of meat that had lodged in her throat while she was eating. She was left behind and later killed on Idi Amin's orders. H. Kyemba, *A State of Blood* (1977) pp. 166-78 (hereinafter cited as *Kyemba*). See also Y. Ben Porat, E. Haber, & Z. Schiff, *Entebbe Rescue* (1977) (hereinafter cited as *Entebbe Rescue*); Y. Robin, *The Rabin Memoirs* (1979) pp. 282-89; W. Stevenson, *90 Minutes at Entebbe* (1976) (hereinafter cited as *Stevenson*).

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1 DEFINITION

The first function that international law performed in the Entebbe crisis was the definition of the situation for the actors involved. Even before the hijacking of the Air France plane that led to the Entebbe raid, international law had already established standards of behavior that were continually relevant to the facts of the crisis during its various stages of development. These rules of law provided a fountain head for the generation of conceptions of legality or illegality, right or wrong, just or unjust, through which the actors perceived the unfolding of events. The rules shaped the perceptions that conditioned the responses by governmental decision makers to the crisis. There was a dynamic interaction between mutual conduct, its evaluation in accordance with perceived standards of behavior, and responsive conduct at all times.

A functional analysis of international law de-emphasizes the traditional positivist concern with whether a particular set of rules was legally binding in a formal sense upon parties to a crisis. What becomes critically important instead are the perceptions about rules held by decisionmakers themselves. Due to the force of circumstances, crisis management decisionmakers demonstrate a marked tendency to blur obscure or ignore the precise distinctions intrinsic to formal legal technicalities. In their minds, principles *de lege ferenda* can readily be treated as *lex lata*. From that point these perceptions are quickly translated into political action.

1.1 Definitional context of the Entebbe hijacking and hostage-taking

1.1.1 Hijacking

Thus the provisions of the Tokyo Convention on Offenses and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft of September 14, 1963² were relevant to the Entebbe hijacking by way of analogy, although not technically binding upon Israel and Uganda in relation to each other at the time, since the former was a signatory while the latter was not. Article 11 of the Tokyo Convention obligates the state of landing to take all appropriate measures to restore control of an unlawfully seized aircraft to its commander, to permit the passengers and crew to continue their journey as soon as practicable, and to return the aircraft and cargo to those entitled to possession. It has been argued that irrespective of the Tokyo Convention, these provisions are declaratory of principles of customary international law binding upon signatories and non-signatories alike.³ Article 13 of the Tokyo Convention requires the state of landing to take into custody an alleged hijacker, but the state of landing is not required to choose between prosecution or extradition of the alleged hijacker.

² Tokyo Convention on Offenses and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft, done September 14, 1963, 0 UST 2941, TIAS No. 6768.

³ See Lissitzyn, Hijacking: International Law and Human Rights, in E. McWhinney, ed., *Aerial Piracy and International Law* (1971), p. 116 at pp. 117-18.

At the time of the Entebbe crisis, both Israel and Uganda were parties to the Hague Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft of December 16, 1970.⁴ Article 4 thereof required Uganda to take such measures as were necessary to establish its jurisdiction over the hijackers. Under Article 6, Uganda was required to take the hijackers and their accomplices into custody. Article 7 obligated Uganda either to extradite the offenders or to submit their case to its competent authorities for purpose of prosecution. Though the Hague Convention does not specifically require that the hijackers actually be prosecuted, Article 7 required Ugandan authorities to make the decision whether to prosecute as they would for an ordinary offense of a serious nature under domestic law. By the terms of Article 9, Uganda had to take all appropriate measures to restore control of the aircraft to its lawful commander, to facilitate the continuation of the journey of the passengers and crew as soon as practicable, and to return without delay the aircraft and cargo to its rightful owners. These were positive norms of international law directly binding upon Uganda, which created undisputed obligations in its relations with Israel.

The act of unlawful seizure of aircraft would usually include within itself the act of unlawful interference with an aircraft as defined by Article 1 of the Montreal Convention to Discourage Acts of Violence Against Civil Aviation of September 23, 1971.⁵ So the obligations of that convention were brought into play as well. Article 5 requires a contracting state to establish its jurisdiction over the offense. Article 6 to take an offender into custody. Article 7 to extradite the offender or else to submit the case to the state's own competent authorities for prosecution. Article 10 to facilitate the continuation of the journey of the passengers and crew as soon as practicable and without delay to return the aircraft and cargo to those lawfully entitled to possession. Although Israel was a signatory to the Montreal Convention at the time of the crisis, Uganda was not. Nevertheless, its provisions were relevant to Entebbe by way of analogy. Arguably, these principles were generally declaratory of customary international law on this subject.⁶

1.1.2 Piracy

The Entebbe situation also presented an analogy to the international crime of piracy as defined by Article 15 of the 1958 Geneva Convention on the High Seas.⁷ To be sure, this hijacking did not fit within the formal definition of the term.

⁴ Hague Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft (Hijacking), done December 16, 1970, 22 UST 1641, TIAS No. 7192.

⁵ Montreal Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Civil Aviation (Sabotage), done September 23, 1971, 24 UST 565, TIAS No. 7570. See Abramovsky, Multilateral Conventions for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure and Interference with Aircraft, Part II, *The Montreal Convention*, 14 Col. J. Transn. L. (1975), p. 268 at pp. 286-87.

⁶ See Abramovsky, Multilateral Conventions for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure and Interference with Aircraft, Part III, *The Legality and Political Feasibility of a Multilateral Air Security Enforcement Convention*, 14 Col. J. Transn. L. (1975), p. 451 at pp. 466-70.

⁷ Geneva Convention on the High Seas, opened for signature April 29, 1958, Art. 15, 13 UST 2317, TIAS No. 5200.

piracy as set out in the convention since it was neither (1) undertaken for private ends nor (2) directed by or on behalf of another and (3) occurred over Greece and therefore was within territorial jurisdiction of a state. Yet in analogy was there to be seized upon and used to define the context of the crisis?

1.1.3 Hostage taking

Finally, the Entebbe crisis also invoked an analogy to the principle of international law forbidding the taking of civilian hostages during time of armed conflict. Article 34 of the Fourth Geneva Convention of August 12, 1949 explicitly prohibits the taking of civilians as hostages during times of international armed conflict.⁹ Article 147 defines this offense to be a grave breach of the convention warranting severe penal sanctions.¹⁰ Moreover, Article 146 of the Fourth Geneva Convention requires a signatory to search for persons who have committed grave breaches and either bring them before its own courts or else hand such persons over for trial to another concerned party.¹¹ Common Article 3 to all four of the 1949 Geneva Conventions prohibits the taking of hostages with respect to persons having no active part in hostilities in cases of armed conflict not of an international character.¹² Of course none of the four Geneva Conventions was directly applicable to the Entebbe hostage situation because it did not occur during an international armed conflict. But if the taking of civilian hostages is prohibited in times of both international and civil war, then *a fortiori* it is or should be forbidden during peacetime as well. This principle should hold true even during so-called wars of national liberation. Nevertheless, these latter two points had not been codified into positive treaty law by the time of the Entebbe crisis. Entebbe would generate the momentum for closure of the last loophole in the web of international law against the taking of hostages.

1.1.4 State responsibility

Taken together, these authorities established a basic framework of standards for state behavior and responsibility for incidents of international civilian aviation hijacking and transnational hostage taking. A state's failure to live up to the spirit of these authorities and to follow at least in a general fashion the shared pronoun

⁸ See e.g. the comment made by Israeli Ambassador Herzog in the Security Council Entebbe debates. "The act of hijacking can well be regarded as one of piracy." 31 UN SCOR (1939th mtg.) 53-55. UN Doc S/P.V. 1939 (prov. ed. 1976).

⁹ Fourth Geneva Convention of August 12, 1949, Art. 34, 6 UST 3516, 3540, TIAS No. 3365.

¹⁰ Id. Art. 147, 6 UST 3516, 3618, TIAS No. 3365.

¹¹ Id. Art. 146, 6 UST 3516, 3616, TIAS No. 3365.

¹² First Geneva Convention of August 17, 1949, Art. 3, 6 UST 3114, 3118, TIAS No.

3362, Second Geneva Convention of August 12, 1949, Art. 3, 6 UST 3217, 3222, TIAS No.

3363, Third Geneva Convention of August 17, 1949, Art. 3, 6 UST 3316, 3320, TIAS No.

3364, Fourth Geneva Convention of August 12, 1949, Art. 3, 6 UST 3516, 3520, TIAS No.

3365.

ments contained in them could only sharpen the perceived incongruity between its action and the fundamental requisites of international deportment. Uganda's outright violation of the terms of the Hague Convention could only have contributed to the creation of a strong impression among Israeli governmental decision makers that Uganda's behavior was inexcusable under even minimum standards of international law and politics. As will be demonstrated, these perceptions exerted a profound influence upon the Israeli decisionmakers who launched the raid at Entebbe.

1.2 Definitional context of the Entebbe raid

An entire catalogue of well known principles, structures and doctrines of public international law are directly applicable to the military operation at Entebbe itself or indeed to any contemporary use or threat of force in international relations. Relevant treaty law includes the UN Charter's Article 2(3),¹³ and Article 33(1),¹⁴ obligations for the peaceful settlement of disputes, the Article 2(4),¹⁵ prohibition on the threat or use of force and the Article 51,¹⁶ right of individual or collective self defence. Related to the right of self-defence are its two fundamental requirements for the necessity,¹⁷ and the proportionality,¹⁸ of the forceful response to the threat.

In addition to treaty provisions, principles of customary international law also operate in this area. They include the doctrines of intervention, protection and self help.¹⁹ These three doctrines however were rejected by the International Court of

¹³ UN Charter Art. 2, para. 3 provides: "All Members shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security and justice are not endangered."

¹⁴ UN Charter Art. 33, para. 1 provides: "The parties to any dispute the continuance of which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security shall first of all seek a solution by negotiation, enquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice."

¹⁵ UN Charter Art. 2, para. 4 provides: "All Members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations."

¹⁶ UN Charter Art. 51 states: "Nothing in the present Charter shall impair the inherent right of individual or collective self-defence if an armed attack occurs against a Member of the United Nations until the Security Council has taken measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. Measures taken by Members in the exercise of this right of self-defence shall be immediately reported to the Security Council and shall not in any way affect the authority and responsibility of the Security Council under the present Charter to take at any time such action as it deems necessary in order to maintain or restore international peace and security."

¹⁷ As definitively stated by Secretary of State Webster in the case of *The Caroline*, self defence is justified when the necessity of that self-defence is instant, overwhelming and leaving no choice of means and no moment for deliberation. See *The Caroline*, 2 J. Moore *Digest of International Law* (1906) p. 409 at p. 412. W. Bishop, *International Law* (3d ed. 1962) pp. 916-17.

¹⁸ See e.g. D. Bowett, *Self-Defence in International Law* (1958) p. 13.

¹⁹ See Letter of July 9, 1966 from Myres S. McDougal and Michael Reisman to the Editor *N.Y. Times* (July 16, 1976) at p. A20, col. 3 (hereinafter cited as McDougal & Reisman Letter).

Justice in the *Corfu Channel Case* 20 as incompatible with the conduct of international relations in the post-Charter world 21 Nevertheless the facts of that case unlike Entebbe did not involve an imminent threat to human life A dissenting opinion by Judge Azavedo 22 and an individual opinion by Judge Alvarez 23 recognized the right of a state to intervene and use force in another state in the event of an emergency or exceptional circumstances respectively The Entebbe hostage taking crisis might very well have fit within these putative exceptions to a universal prohibition against the use of force across state lines

Finally three seminal General Assembly resolutions have a distinct bearing on this issue The Declaration on the Inadmissibility of Intervention 24 The Declaration on Principles of International Law concerning Friendly Relations and Cooperation among States in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations 25 and The Definition of Aggression 26 Considered together these three resolutions can be interpreted to stand for the general proposition that in the opinion of the UN General Assembly nonconsensual military intervention by one state into the territorial domain of another state is prohibited for any reason whatsoever

2 DECISION 27

After defining the situation for the actors involved the next function performed by international law during the Entebbe crisis was to serve as an element in the concerned national and international decisionmaking procedures This section of the article will describe how the aforementioned definitional framework of positive legal rules entered into the decisionmaking process of the Israeli government during the Entebbe crisis and once there how international law thereby determined the course of decisions actually taken and thus the outcome of events One crucial reason for the Israeli government's affirmative decision to launch the Entebbe raid was its bona fide belief that the operation was consistent with the requirements of international law Therefore the hypothetical conjecture that Israel would have

Yet fifteen years earlier the doctrine of humanitarian intervention was branded amorphous in *McDougal & Feliciano Law and Minimum World Public Order* (1961) p 536 (hereinafter cited as *McDougal & Feliciano*)

20 Judgment in the *Corfu Channel Case* [CJ Rep (1949)] p 4

21 *Id* at pp 34-35

22 *Id* at p 108

23 *Id* at p 47

24 G.A. Res. 7131 (X) UN GAOR Supp. (No. 14) 11 UN Doc. A/6014 (1965) Art. 1 states unequivocally: "No State has the right to intervene directly or indirectly for any reason whatever in the internal or external affairs of any other State. Consequently, armed intervention and all other forms of interference or attempted threats against the personality of the State or against its political, economic, and cultural elements are condemned."

25 G.A. Res. 7623 (XXV) UN GAOR Supp. (No. 28) 171 UN Doc. A/8028 (1970)

26 C.A.R.S. 3314 (79) UN GAOR Supp. (No. 31) 142 UN Doc. A/9631 (1974)

27 This section is based in substantial part upon an interview with Mr. Gad Yaakobi, Israeli Minister of Transportation during the Entebbe crisis in Boston on October 19, 1977 (hereinafter cited as *Yaakobi Interview*). I would like to thank Mr. Yaakobi for his time and cooperation.

launched the raid even if the government had believed it was illegal becomes immaterial

2.1 Crisis management team

According to its formal practice the Israeli Labor government dealt with international crises by the formation of a crisis management team consisting of a small number of key cabinet ministers and their chief assistants 28 The ultimate decisions were discussed and made under the guiding influence of the Prime Minister and transmitted to the full cabinet for debate and approval Immediately upon receipt of the information that the Air France plane had been hijacked with a large number of Israeli nationals aboard Prime Minister Rabin directed his head of bureau to convene a special meeting of five Ministers of the Government 29 Peres (Defense) Allon (Foreign Affairs) Yaakobi (Transportation) Zadok (Justice) and Galili (Minister without Portfolio) 30 The team was formed on a functional basis and worked on the principle of a highly compartmentalized division of labor 31 Peres was in charge of the design and execution of the military operation Allon handled the foreign affairs aspects of the crisis Yaakobi was designated to supervise bringing the situation to the attention of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) and the International Federation of Airline Pilots Associations (IFALPA) as well as to explain the decisions of the government to the public especially its initial stance of non-negotiation with the hijackers 32 Galili participated as consultant to the Prime Minister

Even at this formative stage of the decisionmaking process it is significant that the Minister of Justice was included in the team Yaakobi later said that the Minister of Justice was routinely included in crisis management teams dealing with international problems in order to present the legal aspects of the crisis to the other members for their consideration For example the Minister of Justice would give the members of the team opinions on the progress of the negotiations and any advice members under relevant international law Yaakobi stated that Zadok was supposed to and did provide his opinion on the legality of the military operation In Yaakobi's view it was necessary for the Minister of Justice to be in the group because considerations of legality are important to Israeli public opinion and to public opinion abroad particularly Israel's friends among the Western democracies

The routine inclusion of the Minister of Justice in Israeli international crisis management teams is especially significant when compared with American practice In the United States this would be equivalent to formally including the Attorney General in crisis management decisionmaking teams for the express purpose of ren-

28 *Id.*

29 Entebbe Rescue *supra* n. 1 at p. 30

30 *Id.* at *passim* at p. 38

31 Yaakobi Interview *supra* n. 27

32 *Id.*

derning legal opinions throughout the process of decision. Instead that task is delegated to the Secretary of State with the assistance of the Legal Adviser and his Office.³³ In effect the Secretary of State must consider and balance both the political and the legal aspects of the situation. This practice risks subordination or at least diminution of legal considerations to the foreign policy dimension of the crisis. Worse yet, legal arguments might be manufactured as *ad hoc* or *ex post facto* justifications for decisions taken on the grounds of national interest and political power irrespective of international legal considerations.³⁴ Because current United States practice does not routinely provide for independent institutional representation of international legal considerations at the highest echelon of crisis decision making, these risks are real ones indeed.

By including the Israeli Minister of Justice in the crisis management team, it became possible to interject legal considerations directly into the entire course of the decisionmaking process. Justice had a voice and a vote equal to that of Defense and Foreign Affairs. Unlike American practice, thus allowed for direct equal and independent institutional access to the highest echelon of the crisis management decisionmaking. The legal aspects of the crisis did not risk dilution by the foreign policy dimension in a stage penultimate to their presentation before the determinative body. Of course, once the legal aspects were presented they had to compete in the marketplace of ideas drawn from other perspectives. But it is significant that those legal ideas were presented and on an independent basis in the first place. During the Entebbe crisis, international law had its own personal advocate. Zadok could use his considerable influence to ensure that Israel protected its vital national interests at stake in Uganda in a manner compatible with his perception of the requirements of public international law.³⁵

2.2 Early decisions

The conclusion that Zadok's influence was considerable is supported by examination of the first set of decisions taken at the initial meeting of the ministerial crisis management team,³⁶ several of which were legal in nature. The first decision was to contact the French government to express the official Israeli position that France as owner of Air France had ultimate legal responsibility for the safety of

all passengers and was obliged to do everything in its power to secure the release of all passengers without discrimination, particularly against Israeli nationals or dual nationals. Second, the team decided that the Minister of Transportation should urgently approach the president of ICAO to demand vigorous action for the release of all passengers. Third, it was decided that the managing director of the Israeli airline El Al should pressure the president of IFALPA for the same purpose.

Other decisions in the early stages of the crisis also had a legal character. Professor Shlomo Avineri, the Director General of the Foreign Ministry,³⁷ suggested to Foreign Minister Allon that Haim Herzog, Israel's Ambassador to the United Nations, be utilized.³⁸ Allon accordingly instructed Herzog to talk to Secretary General Waldheim and secure his personal intervention in an effort to obtain the safe release of all hostages.³⁹ According to Yaakobi, the crisis management team did not take this UN approach seriously because of the constant attacks upon Israel in the UN throughout the preceding several years. But if it could help in some way, why not?⁴⁰

From their intelligence sources, the crisis team knew that Amin was co-operating with the hijackers.⁴¹ The Israeli government had dealt with Amin before, so the decision team felt they knew his nature well enough. Yaakobi characterized Amin as crazy but talented, wild with good intuitions and clever but totally unpredictable. After a period of close co-operation between the two governments, Amin broke diplomatic relations in 1972 because Israel had refused to provide him with bombs to hit Tanzania.⁴² Installed the PLO in the private residence of the Israeli ambassador in Kampala,⁴³ and thoroughly associated himself with the hardline anti-Israel policy of that organization.⁴⁴ These experiences with Amin led the decision team to expect the worst from him and consequently to explore the possibility of a military solution from the immediate outset of the crisis.⁴⁵

These shared perceptions on the need for military intervention were strengthened by the behavior of France. Yaakobi was highly critical of the role the French government played throughout the entire affair. In his opinion, the French were reluctant to help Israel because of France's desire to minimize its involvement in a dispute concerning the Palestinian cause. Presumably, this reluctance was the product of a reorientation of French foreign policy towards a more favorable pro-

33 See Bilder, "The Office of the Legal Adviser: The State Department Lawyer and Foreign Affairs," 56 *AJIL* (1962), p. 633.

34 See e.g. Berger, "The President's Unilateral Termination of the Taiwan Treaty," 75 *N.Y.U.L. Rev.* (1980), p. 577.

35 Zadok had been Minister of Justice since 1974, and before that Minister of Commerce and Industry from 1965 to 1966. A graduate from Jerusalem Law School, he joined the Haganah and Jewish Settlement Police and fought with the Israeli Defense Forces in the War of Independence. He was Deputy Attorney General from 1949 to 1952, Lecturer in Law at Tel Aviv Law School from 1953 to 1961, and among other positions had been Chairman of the key nine set Foreign Affairs and Defense Committee and member of the Knesset Constitutional, Legal and Judicial Committee. See generally I. Ben-Bender and Y. Grunberg, eds., *Who's Who in Israel* (18th ed. 1978), p. 401.

36 See Entebbe Rescue, *supra* n. 1 at pp. 39-40.

37 Preface to *id.* at viii.

38 Entebbe Rescue, *supra* n. 1 at p. 175.

39 Stevenson, *supra* n. 1 at pp. 28-29.

40 Yaakobi Interview, *supra* n. 27. UN Secretary-General Kurt Waldheim originally called the Entebbe raid a serious violation of the sovereignty of a State Member of the United Nations. 31 *UN SCOR* (1939th mtg.) 7.8. UN Doc. S/P.V. 1939 (prov. ed. 1976). UN Press Release S/GSM/2343 (July 8, 1976), at 2, para. 9.

41 Stevenson, *supra* n. 1 at p. 11. Yaakobi Interview, *supra* n. 27. Despite Israeli allegations to the contrary before the Security Council, Amin did not have prior knowledge of the hijacking plan. Yaakobi Interview, *supra* n. 27.

42 31 *UN SCOR* (1939th mtg.) 59-60. UN Doc. S/P.V. 1939 (prov. ed. 1976). Entebbe Rescue, *supra* n. 1 at pp. 99-100.

43 Entebbe Rescue, *supra* n. 1 at p. 89.

44 Stevenson, *supra* n. 1 at pp. 66-69.

45 Yaakobi Interview, *supra* n. 27.

Arad stance after the 1967 S v Day Wa.⁴⁶ France needed to guarantee its oil supplies by not unduly offending Arab pro Palestinian sentiments. Therefore according to Yaakobi the French government informed Israel that any effort on its part that was more than just an appeal to Amun would be counterproductive. Yet France did appeal to the Ugandan government for the safe release of all hostages.⁴⁷

Yaakobi stated that Zedok told the crisis management team that under international law France as the owner of the plane had complete responsibility to secure the release of all passengers. This legal conclusion had a definite impact upon the decisionmakers's perception of French reluctance to act and further narrowed their perception of available options.⁴⁸ If France was shirking its international duties if the UN was paralyzed and largely ineffective if Uganda was actively assisting the hijackers Israel would have to take the matter into its own hands to save the lives of its nationals. Thus conclusion became crystal clear when all of the non-Israeli hostages were voluntarily released by the hijackers and flown to safety.⁴⁹

2.3 Narrowing the options

At a meeting of the Security and Foreign Affairs Committee of the Knesset Prime Minister Rabin and Director General Avnien stated that Israel was not asking for formal Security Council intervention pursuant to Article 35 of the Charter⁵⁰ because Israel did not want to appear willing to relieve France of ultimate responsibility for the fate of the hostages.⁵¹ But a perceived French reluctance to fulfill its duties under international law was not the only reason Israel decided not to go to the Security Council which was in session at this time on another matter.⁵² For the decision had been essentially made to go ahead with the raid and as Israeli Foreign Minister Allon explained when he specifically requested French Foreign Minister Sauvagn argues not to bring the matter to the attention of the Security Council on his own accord this approach would only complicate matters.⁵³ Yaakobi said that the judgment of the crisis management team was that if the matter went to the Security Council a resolution would be passed calling upon the hijackers to release the hostages and in addition calling upon all states not to take any type of military action or use force in any way. The crisis management team feared that Israeli disobedience or a Security Council resolution would have had an adverse impact upon Israeli domestic public opinion and upon international public opinion especially

46 W. Laqueur, *Confrontation: The Middle East and World Politics* (1974) pp. 162-63. Allon, Israel: The Case for Defensible Borders, 55 Foreign Aff. (1976) p. 38 at pp. 52-53.

47 31 UN SCOR (1939th mtg.) 16 UN Doc S/P v 1939 (prov. ed. 1976) Council Fails to Adopt Draft Resolution after Considering Uganda Hijacking Issue, *UN Chronicle* (August-September 1976) at pp. 15-16.

48 Yaakobi Interview *supra* n. 77.

49 Stevenson *supra* n. 1 at p. 31.

50 UN Charter Art. 35 para. 1 states: Any Member of the United Nations may bring any dispute or any situation [which might lead to international friction or give rise to a dispute] to the attention of the Security Council or of the General Assembly.

51 Stevenson *supra* n. 1 at p. 79.

52 See nn. 89-94 and accompanying text *infra*.

53 Entebbe Rescue *supra* n. 1 at p. 263.

cially among those sectors in the West upon which Israel traditionally relied for support whereas the hijackers would not obey a UN Security Council resolution in any event. Thus an Israeli or French approach to the Security Council offered Israel no benefits and would at least add significantly to the political costs of a rescue operation and would likely limit Israel's freedom to pursue a unilateral military solution to the problem. Since the decision to intervene unilaterally if possible had already been made a request for UN intervention would have been counterproductive.

Even in its regrettable failure to go to the Security Council however Israel pursued a course of conduct which minimized the force of any allegations that it had violated international law. The Israeli crisis management team had three basic alternatives before it: (1) not to launch the raid at all; (2) to launch the raid without any prior referral to the Security Council; (3) to bring the matter to the attention of the Security Council and risk having to launch the raid while the debate was in progress or after passage of an antipatched Security Council resolution prohibiting the use of force. Of these three alternatives the second was the least objectionable whether viewed from a legal, moral or political perspective.

Concerning the first option intelligence sources indicated that the hijackers were planning to execute one or more hostages on Sunday July 4 to demonstrate their determination to secure release of their imprisoned comrades.⁵⁴ Permitting the risk of imminent death for the hostages when a raid was possible was viewed as a completely unacceptable alternative to the decisionmakers. Yaakobi stated that the most important shared common denominator within the operative assumptions of the members of the crisis management team was survival. The physical survival of approximately 100 Israeli nationals or dual nationals was perceived to be at stake and with them the very ability of the State of Israel to ensure its own existence. The spirit of the State of Israel was not to surrender its survival or jeopardize its existence in any way. So option one was discarded once a viable military plan was formulated.

The third option would have opened Israel to charges of bad faith and illegality if Israel or France (with Israel's approval) had brought the matter to the attention of the Security Council and Israel had then gone ahead and launched the raid while the debate was in progress. Israel would have found it difficult to avoid the charge that it was obligated by such reference to await the outcome of the debate in the Security Council before acting that its precipitate unilateral action had prevented the Security Council from attempting to achieve a peaceful settlement of the dispute and thus had violated UN Charter Articles 2(3) and 33. Of course to launch the raid in the face of a Security Council prohibition against the use of force would have amounted to a more serious violation of Israel's obligation under Article 25 of the Charter to carry out the decisions of the Security Council.⁵⁵ Option three would also have undercut the Article 51 self-defense argument that Israel needed to

54 Stevenson *supra* n. 1 at p. 56.

55 UN Charter Art. 25 provides: The Members of the United Nations agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council in accordance with the present Charter.

overcome any alleged violation of Article 2(4). This option entailed the risk that the Security Council either would have been in the process of acting or would already have acted when Israel announced the raid, making difficult any Israeli claim to a unilateral right of individual self-defense.

The second option was the most appealing of the three. To be sure, Israel could be left open to the charge that it had violated its Charter obligation to seek a peaceful settlement of its dispute with Uganda before the Security Council. But Israel was pursuing a peaceful settlement of this dispute on all other fronts including negotiations with the hijackers. A gesture to the Security Council would in all probability have been futile and perhaps have occasioned delay in the rescue operation at the expense of the hostages' lives. Option two would also allow Israel to make a solid claim that the raid was a legitimate exercise of its right of self-defense pursuant to Article 51 of the Charter and the legitimacy of this claim could then be tested at the Security Council but at a time when 100 human lives were no longer in jeopardy.

In effect, the Israeli governmental decisionmaking team found itself engaged in the classic dilemma of choosing the least of several evils.⁵⁶ If successful, option two would preserve human life in a manner that was arguably consistent with the standards of international law. It would certainly not have been the expression of disdain and contempt for the Security Council nor the flagrant breach of international law risked by option three. And it did not like option one surrender the lives of the hostages to the good will of the hijackers and Idi Amin. By choosing option two, Israel operated in accordance with the standards of international law to the best of its ability under these unique historical circumstances.

2.4 Decision to intervene

By the time of the final meeting of the ministerial crisis management team, which would decide whether to launch a raid, Defense Minister Peres believed that three out of the six members of the team — Yaakobi, Allon, and himself — would support intervention at any cost or risk. Peres needed one more vote to gain a majority and for that he tried to convince Minister of Justice Zadok to agree to a raid. Zadok had already resolved any questions about the legality of such an opera-

⁵⁶ Compare American Law Institute's Model Penal Code § 3.02 (1962) Justification Generally, Choice of Evils.

(1) Conduct which the actor believes to be necessary to avoid a harm or evil to himself or to another is justifiable provided that (a) the harm or evil sought to be avoided by such conduct is greater than that sought to be prevented by the law defining the offense charged and (b) neither the Code nor other law defining the offense provides exceptions or defenses dealing with the specific situation involved and (c) a legislative purpose to exclude the justification claimed does not otherwise plainly appear.

(2) When the actor was reckless or negligent in bringing about the situation requiring a choice of harms or evils or in appraising the necessity for his conduct, the justification afforded by this Section is unavailable in a prosecution for any offense for which recklessness or negligence as the case may be suffices to establish culpability. See also N. Machavelli, *The Prince* (M. Musa trans. & ed. 1964) p. 191 (prince must choose the least bad as good).

tion in its favor. Upon the approach of Peres before the meeting, Zadok was reported to have said: "The question isn't what Zionism and our sovereignty can expect if we don't rescue the hostages. The question is whether there is a plan for a military rescue — one with a high probability of success?"⁵⁷ Peres responded affirmatively and Zadok nodded.

According to Yaakobi, at that fateful team meeting when Zadok's turn to speak on the proposed raid came, he got up and stated that in his opinion there were no international legal obstacles to a military operation. Apparently, Zadok had checked this matter with the Attorney General of Israel and his legal advisers.⁵⁸ Yaakobi stated that Zadok's opinion was sufficient as far as he and his colleagues were concerned. In Yaakobi's view, this was Zadok's job and the members of the crisis management team had enough confidence in his ability to trust him completely. The team then voted to approve the raid. Next, Zadok suggested that the Ministerial Defense Committee be convened to formally authorize the launching of the raid. These eighteen ministers, including Zadok, voted unanimously in favor of the military operation.⁵⁹

2.5 The raid

The execution of the raid itself was handled exclusively by the military with little if any input from other sources. According to Yaakobi, the sentiment on the team was that until the military was able to devise a fully detailed plan that looked as if it could work, there was no point in launching the raid and further imperiling the lives of the hostages. An enormous amount of intelligence work was performed by Et Al, the Mossad, and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and unless all these details could be collected and a viable plan formulated out of them, the team would not give its approval to a raid.

Yaakobi said that the raid was to be executed so as to minimize the risk for the hostages. Therefore, the team decided to employ only the amount of force necessary to effect the rescue. Israel had no reason or desire to fight or punish the Ugandan army even though its members were assisting the hijackers in detaching the hostages. Orders were given to the Israeli soldiers to scare Ugandan soldiers away if possible and to keep Ugandan casualties to the minimum extent consistent with accomplishing the mission.⁶⁰ On the other hand, orders were given to kill all hijackers

⁵⁷ Entebbe Rescue *supra* n. 1 at pp. 253-54.

⁵⁸ Yaakobi interview *supra* n. 27. Compare Embassy of Israel, Washington, D.C., *Information Background, Legal Aspects of Israel's Rescue Action in Uganda* (n.d.) with Department of State Briefing Memorandum from Legal Adviser Monroe Leigh to the Secretary of State, *Legal Aspects of Entebbe Hijacking Incident, July 8, 1976* (released in 1978 pursuant to a Freedom of Information Act request), excerpts reprinted in 73 *AJIL* (1979) pp. 122-24.

⁵⁹ Entebbe Rescue *supra* n. 1 at pp. 290-92. *N.Y. Times*, July 4, 1976, § 1 at p. 1, cols. 7-8.

⁶⁰ Entebbe Rescue *supra* n. 1 at p. 769.

on sight ⁶¹ According to Yaakobi all the hijackers were killed and Israeli forces took none back to Israel for interrogation ⁶

Concerning the destruction of the Ugandan MIG planes at Entebbe hangers ⁶³ Yaakobi stated that although the reason given in public for this action was to prevent the pursuit of the rescue planes by the MIGs the primary reason for their destruction was to serve as a penalty upon the Ugandan government for involving itself with the hijackers to the degree it had. The members of the crisis management team felt that Uganda had to pay some price for what it had done. So the MIGs were destroyed and with them the bulwark of the Ugandan air force obliterated. Thus the destruction of the MIGs was not necessary to the success of the Entebbe rescue mission.

2 6 Easy case

At this juncture a skeptic might interject that the *Decision* stage of the analytical framework proves little of any consequence since Israel is the easy case because it is a Western liberal democracy which by definition can be expected to conform with the requirements of the Western view of international law in its conduct of foreign affairs. The validity of that objection however depends upon one's perspective. Today there exist a substantial number of Arab African Asian and Communist states which definitively repudiate the notion that Israel possesses even a rudimentary commitment to upholding the fundamental principles of international law. To these nations Israel is a militaristic aggressive and expansionist state that has consistently violated the most sacred principles of international law and international politics in pursuit of a comprehensive policy of conquest subjugation and intimidation throughout the Middle East. On many of these complaints Third World and Second World states have been joined in their condemnation of Israel by the latter's erstwhile friends among the so-called Western liberal democracies of the First World and even occasionally by Israel's nominal ally the United States of America. On some of these issues Israel has stood alone in a seemingly willful refusal to adhere to even the most basic requirements of international law in its relations with other states and peoples. The list of abuses is so extensive and universally held that Israel has gradually become a pariah state within the international community. A status it shares with the apartheid regime of South Africa.

From an Arab perspective Israel would definitely not be the easy case for proving the proposition that considerations of international law do in fact play a crucial role in governmental decisionmaking processes during times of international crisis. Instead Israel would constitute the worst case possible under the circumstances and therefore establishing the validity of this proposition for Israeli crisis management decisionmaking should be the acid test for its general applicability. If even Israel pays heed to international law during a crisis then any state must do

so since no other state appears to be so essentially lawless in its conduct of foreign affairs.

3 ADJUDICATION

The third function of international law in the Entebbe crisis was adjudication of the outstanding dispute between Israel and Uganda. The immediate crisis was over the mode of its termination however had transformed the dispute between Israel and Uganda from a single issue problem concerning state responsibility for hijacked hostages into a more complicated problem concerning the legitimacy of a nonconsensual foreign military intervention launched to rectify an alleged failure to discharge that initial state responsibility. The Israeli government believed that its behavior had comported with the conditions required for a legitimate exercise of its right to self-defense under international law. It expected the reasonableness of this belief to be tested in debate — in essence adjudicated under international law — but nevertheless Israel was certain that its actions were defensible. Meanwhile international law had progressively narrowed the contours of this dispute to manageable proportions thus facilitating ultimate resolution of the crisis.

3 1 By the OAU

The first institutional adjudication of the Entebbe dispute was by the Organization of African Unity (OAU) of which Uganda was a member. On July 2 five days after the crisis began Amun travelled to Mauritius to open the thirteenth session of the OAU's Assembly of Heads of State and Government and to hand over the chairmanship of the Organization to the Prime Minister of that country. ⁶⁴ For this reason the hijackers extended the original deadline for compliance with their demands from Thursday July 1 to Sunday July 4. It was the extension of that deadline which gave Israel the necessary time to prepare and launch a raid with a reasonable chance of success. ⁶⁵ Ironically a consideration of international law (in respect for the OAU) thus entered into the decisionmaking process of even the hijackers themselves and exercised a decisive impact upon the outcome of events. Thus respect for the OAU by the PLO/PFLP hijackers/hostages takers is explainable by the fact that in 1974 the OAU had adopted a resolution in which it declared its full support for the PLO as the sole legitimate representative of the Palestinian people. ⁶⁶

Later in a unanimous resolution adopted by the Assembly of the Heads of State and Government the OAU condemned the Israeli raid at Entebbe as a violation of

61 Yaakobi Interview *supra* n 27

62 Contra Stevenson *supra* n 1 at p 121

63 See Entebbe Rescue *supra* n 1 at p 324

64 31 UN SCOR (1939th mtg) 16 UN Doc S/P v 1939 (prov ed 1976) *Kyamba supra* n 1 at p 169

65 *N.Y. Times* July 6 1976 at p 4 col 1

66 See *Mogadishu Notebook* West Africa June 24 1974 at pp 750 751

Uganda's sovereignty.⁶⁷ It charged its new chairman together with Curran and Egypt to support Uganda in submission of its case to the UN Security Council. This action was undertaken in accordance with Article VIII of the OAU Charter which gives the Assembly the power to discuss matters of common concern to Africa with a view to co-ordinating and harmonizing the general policy of the Organization.⁶⁸

3.2 By the Security Council

The resolution of condemnation by the OAU set the stage for consideration of the Entebbe crisis by the UN Security Council. Unlike the OAU however the Security Council has the primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security.⁶⁹ Any adjudication of the merits of the dispute between Israel and Uganda by the Security Council would not be subject to the criticism leveled at the OAU — that it proceeded *ex parte* and merely manifested regional prejudice in favor of a member against a non member. The Chairman of the OAU registered the Organization's complaint in a letter⁷⁰ to the President of the Security Council in accordance with the right of UN members to bring any dispute or any situation which might lead to international friction or give rise to a dispute to the attention of the Security Council under Article 35 of the Charter. No state questioned the right of the OAU to bring the Entebbe crisis to the attention of the Security Council pursuant to Article 35 of the Charter. Once the matter had been submitted to the Security Council all interested parties (except the PLO/PFLP)⁷¹ appeared and presented their claims and counterclaims during the course of the debate. The parties expected the dispute to be brought to the Security Council and they wanted the opportunity to present their respective cases before that body in its capacity as the so-called court of world public opinion.

The OAU Chairman's letter charged that the unprecedented aggression by Israel against Uganda constituted a danger not only to Uganda and Africa but to international peace and security as well. The matter was inscribed on the Security Council agenda as 'Complaint by the Prime Minister of Mauritius current Chairman of the OAU of the act of aggression by Israel against the Republic of Uganda'.⁷² The United States and Israel's other sympathizers on the Council did their collective best to broaden the terms of the debate to also include consideration of the issue of international hijacking and terrorism.⁷³ This was part of an effort to place the question of Israeli legal responsibility for the raid within the overall con-

text of a campaign of repeated military attacks against Israel by the PLO and its splinter organizations.

This effort to broaden the scope of the debate was strenuously resisted during the Security Council Entebbe debates by those countries lining up for the condemnation of Israel.⁷⁴ Eventually two draft resolutions reflecting these opposed positions were introduced.⁷⁵ A three power draft resolution sponsored by Benin, Libya and Tanzania would have had the Security Council condemn Israel's flagrant violation of Uganda's sovereignty and territorial integrity and demand that Israel meet the just claims of Uganda for full compensation for the destruction inflicted.⁷⁶ A two power draft resolution introduced by the United States and the United Kingdom would have had the Security Council condemn hijacking and all other acts which threaten the lives of passengers and crews and the safety of international civil aviation and call upon all states to take every necessary measure to prevent and punish all such terrorist acts.⁷⁷ Under the US-UK draft resolution the Council would have also deplored the tragic loss of human life which had resulted from the hijacking of the French aircraft, reaffirmed the need to respect the sovereignty and territorial integrity of all states in accordance with the UN Charter and international law and enjoined the international community to give the highest priority to consideration of further means of assuring the safety and reliability of international civil aviation.

The African draft resolution would have placed guilt squarely upon the shoulders of Israel while the US-UK draft resolution would have avoided an explicit adjudication of either Israeli or Ugandan guilt or innocence. By implication however the adoption of the US-UK resolution would have absolved Israel from any alleged violations of international law committed by the raid. The Security Council met five times on Entebbe between July 9 and July 14.⁷⁸ The three power African draft resolution was not pressed to a vote⁷⁹ because it seemed obvious that even if it obtained the nine votes necessary for adoption at least the United States would veto it. The US-UK draft resolution was actually brought to a vote but failed to be adopted because it lacked the requisite majority. The final vote was 6 in favor (France, Italy, Japan, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States) to none against with 2 abstentions (Panama and Romania).⁸⁰ Seven delegations (Benin, China, Guyana, Libya, Pakistan, USSR and Tanzania) did not participate in the vote on

⁷⁴ See e.g. 31 UN SCOR (1940th mtg.) 6 UN Doc S/P v 1940 (prov. ed. 1976) (Libyan delegate).

⁷⁵ See Council Fails to Adopt Draft Resolution after Considering Uganda Hijacking Issue. *UN Chronicle* (August/September 1976) at p. 15.

⁷⁶ 31 UN SCOR, Supp. (July/September 1976) 15 UN Doc S/12139.

⁷⁷ *Id.* UN Doc S/12138.

⁷⁸ See 31 UN SCOR (1939th mtg.) 1 UN Doc S/P v 1939 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1940th mtg.) 1 UN Doc S/P v 1940 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1941st mtg.) 1 UN Doc S/P v 1941 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1942d mtg.) 1 UN Doc S/P v 1942 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1943d mtg.) 1 UN Doc S/P v 1943 (prov. ed. 1976).

⁷⁹ Council Fails to Adopt Draft Resolution after Considering Uganda Hijacking Issue. *UN Chronicle* (August/September 1976) at p. 15.

⁸⁰ See 31 UN SCOR (1943d mtg.) 81 UN Doc S/P v 1943 (prov. ed. 1976).

⁶⁷ AHG/Res. 83/XIII (1976).
⁶⁸ Charter of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) Art. 8.
⁶⁹ UN Charter Art. 24 para. 1.
⁷⁰ See 31 UN SCOR, Supp. (July/September 1976) 6 UN Doc S/12176 (1976).
⁷¹ Their exclusion from the proceedings was purposeful. See nn. 83-94 and accompanying text *infra*.
⁷² 31 UN SCOR (1939th mtg.) 45 UN Doc S/P v 1939 (prov. ed. 1976).
⁷³ See e.g. 31 UN SCOR (199th mtg.) 88 UN Doc S/P v 1929 (prov. ed. 1976) (French delegate).

the two power draft resolution ostensibly because it was not representative of the item which was inscribed on the agenda as an act of aggression by Israel against Uganda.⁸¹ During the debates however both the vote's abstainers and non-participants had argued against the legality of the Israeli raid under the UN Charter and general principles of public international law.⁸²

3 3 The Security Council debates

Can this seemingly inconclusive result be deemed to constitute an adjudication of the Entebbe crisis by the Security Council under international law? A functional analysis of international law looks behind and beyond the non adoption of a Security Council resolution on Entebbe in order to determine the true meaning and significance of this outcome. Mere failure to adopt a formal resolution on the Entebbe incident does not mean that the Security Council vote lacked substantive significance and was therefore essentially irrelevant to this international crisis. In Security Council practice what is not said in the form of an adopted resolution is oftentimes at least as important as what is expressed in this manner. A careful analysis of the content of its Entebbe debates reveals the nature and extent of an underlying consensus among Security Council members on fundamental principles deemed so basic as to require no formal enunciation or imprudent Delimitation of the elements of this consensus sheds light upon the true meaning of the seemingly indeterminate outcome of the Security Council Entebbe vote. In order to accomplish this it is necessary to examine both the arguments that were made and the arguments that were not made by each side in the debates. Such line of analysis will allow derivation from the Security Council proceedings of the real lessons of Entebbe for future instances of international crisis akin to it.

3 3 1 Consensus on Israel's right to exist

It is striking to observe the high degree of underlying consensus that existed among the participants in the Security Council Entebbe debates to the effect that this was not the time nor were these the appropriate circumstances to raise the general question of the right of Israel to exist as a state. Consequently, no arguments were presented in the debates directly focusing on that issue. To be sure Israel's Ambassador Herzog chose to view the Entebbe incident as part of a continued attack upon Israel's existence⁸³ and Libya castigated Israel for its alleged violation of Palestinian national rights⁸⁴ yet there was no outright attack upon Israel's right to exist. That there were only a few oblique and tangential references

indicating that this might even be a contested issue of international relations today was somewhat remarkable.⁸⁵

A variant on the same theme would have begun with an argument that Uganda was entitled to assist the PFLP hijackers at Entebbe because this operation was part of their legitimate war of national liberation against Israel. This position could have been premised upon the assertion that such assistance was permitted by the seek and receive support language of the Declaration on Principles of International Law concerning Friendly Relations and Co-operation among States in Accordance with the Charter of the United Nations⁸⁶ which was incorporated into Article 7 of the Definition of Aggression⁸⁷ and therefore was consistent with and not in violation of the requirements of international law. Yet not one participant in the Entebbe debates made that argument for it would have opened up the question of Israel's existence from another direction. Quite apparently, no one wanted to do that.

It is also significant that a representative of the PLO was not invited to participate in the Security Council Entebbe debates. The very presence of a PLO representative in front of Ambassador Herzog would have dramatically raised the question of Israel's existence.⁸⁸ Conversely, his absence tends to indicate that the members of the Council deemed such a confrontation to be neither necessary nor desirable under the circumstances.

This purposeful failure to question the right of Israel to exist as a state is even more remarkable since during the outset of the Entebbe crisis the Security Council was in session on the question of the exercise by the Palestinian people of its inalienable

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⁸⁵ See e.g. UN Doc S/12136 (1976) (telegram from Saad Barre to Amin circulated as a Security Council document).

⁸⁶ G.A. Res. 2625, 25 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 28) 121, 123-24 UN Doc A/8028 (1971) states in relevant part: *The principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples*. By virtue of the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations, all peoples have the right freely to determine without external interference their political status and to pursue their economic, social and cultural development and every State has the duty to respect this right in accordance with the provisions of the Charter.

Every State has the duty to refrain from any forcible action which deprives peoples referred to above in the elaboration of the present principle of their right to self-determination and freedom and independence. In their action against and resistance to such forcible action in pursuit of the exercise of their right to self-determination, such peoples are entitled to seek and to receive support in accordance with the purposes and principles of the Charter.

⁸⁷ G.A. Res. 3314, 29 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 31) 142, 144 UN Doc A/9631 (1974). Art. 7 provides: Nothing in this Definition could in any way prejudice the right to self-determination, freedom and independence as derived from the Charter of peoples forcibly deprived of that right and referred to in the Declaration on Principles of International Law concerning Friendly Relations and Co-operation among States in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations particularly peoples under colonial and racist regimes or other forms of alien domination nor the right of these peoples to struggle to that end and to seek and receive support in accordance with the principles of the Charter and in conformity with the above mentioned declaration. See Stone, *Hopes and Loopholes in the 1974 Definition of Aggression* 1 AJIL (1977) p. 224 at pp. 231, 239.

⁸⁸ See Palestinian National Charter Arts. 2, 8, 15, 22, reprinted in 3 *The Arab-Israeli Conflict* (J. Moore ed. 1974) p. 706. Compare Deuteronomy 20: 16-18.

⁸¹ See e.g. 31 UN SCOR (1943d mtg.) 78-80 UN Doc S/P v 1943 (prov. ed. 1976) (Guyana delegate).

⁸² See e.g. 31 UN SCOR (1942d mt.) 13 UN Doc S/P v 1942 (prov. ed. 1976) (Panama delegate).

⁸³ See 31 UN SCOR (1939th mtg.) 32 UN Doc S/P 1939 (prov. ed. 1976).

⁸⁴ See 31 UN SCOR (1939th mt.) 106 UN Doc S/P v 1939 (prov. ed. 1976).

able rights.⁸⁹ On June 29, 1976, the United States vetoed a draft resolution which would have had the Council affirm the inalienable rights of the Palestinians to self-determination, including the right of return and the right to national independence and sovereignty in Palestine in accordance with the United Nations Charter.⁹⁰ Both the United States and the four abstainers from the vote (France, Italy, Sweden, and the United Kingdom) refused to support the draft resolution because it did not recognize the right of Israel to live within secure and recognized boundaries.⁹¹ A representative of the PLO was invited to participate in the debate,⁹² with the same rights of participation as those conferred upon a UN member under Rule 37 of the Council's Provisional Rules of Procedure.⁹³ In this context, the right of Israel to exist was called into question directly. Yet there was no spill-over effect on this issue from the Palestinian debates to the Entebbe debates which commenced immediately afterward on July 9.⁹⁴

3.3.2 Consensus on the illegality of aerial hijacking, hostage taking and on state responsibility in such crises

All debate participants were in basic agreement that the appropriate source for derivation of relevant rules was the United Nations Charter and the extant body of public international law. Here too there existed a remarkable degree of underlying consensus on what constituted acts that were inconsistent with the requirements of international law. (1) Engagement in a war of national liberation was not a sufficient justification for specific instances of hijacking in international civil aviation by so-called freedom fighters. (2) Likewise, fighting a war of national liberation would not justify the detention of hijacked hostages. (3) Consequently, *a fortiori*, a state could not provide assistance to alleged freedom fighters in such enterprises.

89 The Security Council met eight times between June 9-29, 1976, to consider the Palestinian issue. See 31 UN SCOR (1924th mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1924 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1928th mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1928 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1933d mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1933 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1934th mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1934 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1935th mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1935 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1936th mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1936 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1937th mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1937 (prov. ed. 1976); 31 UN SCOR (1938th mtg.) 1 UN Doc. S/P v 1938 (prov. ed. 1976).

90 31 UN SCOR (1938th mtg.) 62 UN Doc. S/P v 1938 (prov. ed. 1976). The text of the draft resolution can be found in 31 UN SCOR Supp. Capr. June 1976: 73 UN Doc. S/12119 (1976).

91 See e.g. 31 UN SCOR (1938th mtg.) 63 UN Doc. S/P v 1938 (prov. ed. 1976).

92 31 UN SCOR (1924th mtg.) 67 UN Doc. S/P v 1924 (prov. ed. 1976).

93 Rule 37 Provisional Rules of Procedure of the Security Council UN Doc. S/96/Rev. 6 (1974) provides: Any Member of the United Nations which is not a member of the Security Council may be invited, as the result of a decision of the Security Council, to participate with or without vote in the discussion of any question brought before the Security Council when the Security Council considers that the interests of that Member are specially affected or when a Member brings a matter to the attention of the Security Council in accordance with Article 35(1) of the Charter.

94 See Proposal for Israeli Withdrawal from Occupied Territories by June 1977, *Faith UN Chronicle* (July 1976) at p. 22.

To the contrary, when considered collectively, the participants in the Entebbe debates (1) condemned acts by anyone that would disrupt international civil aviation (2) opposed the detention of hijacked hostages and (3) asserted that states are under an obligation to refrain from participation in such activities and should take effective measures to prevent their occurrence or else to secure the release of hostages in the event that a hijacked plane lands within their territorial jurisdiction.

On these points, Uganda merely argued, and Israel emphatically denied, that it had indeed lived up to these recognized standards of international behavior at Entebbe.⁹⁵ By entering negotiations with the hijackers, Amun had successfully obtained the release of the non-Israeli nationals and, by implication, given more time could have secured the release of the remainder of the hostages.⁹⁶ Naturally, Israel had good cause to disbelieve these factual assertions. The important point, however, is that the disagreement between Israel and Uganda in this regard was confined to a comparatively simple issue of fact, whereas the principles of law involved were not at all contested. By arguing that it had done everything in its power to secure the release of the Israeli hostages, Uganda implicitly admitted the existence of its obligation to do so in the first place. Contention over these purely factual matters became the essence of the dispute between Uganda and Israel.

Moreover, the members of the Security Council evidently perceived that Uganda was not telling the truth on the facts and thus must have affected the Africans's decision to withdraw their draft resolution condemning Israel. The shocking disappearance and then suspected death of Dora Bloch,⁹⁷ must have had a similarly chastening effect upon even the most virulently anti-Israeli participants in the debate. Probably for these reasons, the Israeli antagonists sought to limit the Security Council debate to the legality of the Israeli raid at Entebbe without reference to Ugandan conduct. Since Uganda could only lose on the facts of the case, it was essential to concentrate exclusively upon the assertion of an absolute prohibition under international law against nonconsensual military intervention by a state into the territory of another. Israel's opponents thus had to argue that the Israeli raid at Entebbe could not be justified even if Amun had been an accomplice to the hijackers and hostage takers.

3.3.3 Consensus on the illegality of foreign military intervention

No participant in the Security Council Entebbe debates argued that standards of behavior did not exist concerning nonconsensual foreign military intervention in

95 For Uganda's argument, see 31 UN SCOR (1939th mtg.) 11-25 UN Doc. S/P v 1939 (prov. ed. 1976). For Israel's argument that Uganda had co-operated with the terrorists, see id. at pp. 32-50.

96 Id. at pp. 13-15, 16.

97 On Friday, July 7, Dora Bloch, a hostage who held dual British-Israeli nationality, was taken from Entebbe to Mulago Hospital when she began to choke on a piece of meat she had been eating. In the evening of Sunday, July 4, after the Entebbe raid had been completed, four men from Amun's State Research Bureau (the secret police) dragged her out of the hospital in plain view to all who were present and subsequently killed her. See Kyamba *supra* n. 1 at pp. 170-78.

international relations.⁹⁸ All parties essentially agreed that military intervention by one state within the territorial domain of another ordinarily is illegal conduct. By founding, in essence, the Security Council squarely upon the right of individual self-defense in international law, Israel implicitly admitted that it was not free to do whatever it wanted to Uganda. Once again, a primary issue in the Security Council debates was not presented in a posture that would have turned upon the issue of existence or non-existence of any rules at all.

3.3.4 Dissensus concerning exceptions to the rule

When it came to the general prohibition on nonconsensual foreign military intervention in international law, Israel merely argued and Uganda emphatically denied (1) that there were exceptions to this rule and (2) that these exceptions encompassed the facts of the Entebbe incident. Uganda and its protagonists argued that nonconsensual foreign military intervention by one state within the territorial domain of another is forbidden for any reason whatsoever.⁹⁹ — in other words, that the Article 2(4) prohibition of the UN Charter is absolute. A *prima facie* breach could not therefore be justified on the ground that it was not directed against the territorial integrity or political independence of the target state or for the reason that it was consistent with the Purposes of the United Nations (e.g., humanitarian intervention).¹⁰⁰ Under this interpretation, Article 2(4) precludes military intervention by a state to protect its nationals abroad from even a gross deprivation of their fundamental human rights by another state.

Implicit in the Ugandan position were a number of subsidiary arguments that the principles of intervention, protection, and self-help are not included within the body of public international law that these principles do not survive under the regime of the Charter as elements of the Article 51 right to self-defense and therefore cannot take precedence over the Article 2(4) prohibition that there must be an actual armed attack by one state against another for the Article 51 right of self-defense to come into play. That it was Israel which had perpetrated an Article 51 armed attack against Uganda and not vice versa, that the Israeli raid at Entebbe was neither necessary nor proportional under the circumstances and finally that Israel had violated its Charter obligation to attempt a peaceful settlement of its dispute with Uganda. Of course, Israel took a diametrically opposed position on all these points. Yet these arguments, as well as the dispute over the actual facts themselves, did not dilute the high degree of underlying consensus among the partici-

pants in the debates over the following points: (1) that hijacking in international aviation is illegal; (2) that the detention of hijacked hostages is illegal; (3) that states have a responsibility to refrain from participation in such activities and where possible to prevent or thwart their occurrence and continuation; finally, (4) that the general prohibition on nonconsensual foreign military intervention is a fundamental principle of international law and international politics. The elements of dissensus among the participants in the Security Council Entebbe debates proved to be both legally and politically insignificant when compared to these elements of consensus.

If the Entebbe debates had entered upon the right of Israel to exist as a state, the participants might never have achieved any consensus on the fundamental principles of international law set out above. Such lack of consensus might very well have rendered stultum the momentous suggestion made by the delegate from the Federal Republic of Germany during the course of the Entebbe debates that consideration be given by the next session of the UN General Assembly to preparation of a convention against the taking of hostages.¹⁰¹ Conversely, the existence of a Security Council consensus upon these essential points paved the way for the appointment of an ad hoc committee on the drafting of a hostages convention by the General Assembly in December of 1976,¹⁰² and for the eventual adoption by the General Assembly in 1979.¹⁰³ These matters will be analyzed in the fifth and final section of this article under the concept of *Redefinition*.

3.4 Result

From a functional perspective, the seemingly indeterminate outcome of the voting in the Security Council can indeed be viewed as constituting an adjudication of the dispute between Israel and Uganda. Israeli governmental spokesmen argued that given the bias of the United Nations Organization against Israel, the Security Council's failure to adopt a resolution condemning or even critical of the Entebbe raid must be interpreted as tacit recognition that the rescue operation at least did not violate public international law.¹⁰⁴ Moreover, in statements made directly after the vote on the US-UK draft resolution, Mr. Bennett speaking on behalf of the United States Government took considerable satisfaction in that not one member of the Security Council could bring itself to vote against such a balanced draft resolution.¹⁰⁵ The implication of his statement was quite clear: in Mr. Bennett's opinion, the Security Council had fully vindicated the Israeli position on Entebbe.

98 Compare with a *New York Times* editorial of July 6, 1976, at p. 24, col. 1, which bluntly asserted that in such situations, the ordinary rules of international law simply cannot apply. In a press conference of July 9, 1976, President Ford drew a parallel between the Entebbe raid and the American intervention into Cambodia to rescue the crew of the *Mayaguez*. See 75 Dept. State Bull. (August 2, 1976), at p. 161. Perhaps some had madly implied that both actions stood or fell on the same legal grounds. See Faust, *The Seizure and Recovery of the Mayaguez*, 85 *Yale L.J.* (1976), p. 774.

99 See e.g., 31 UN SCOR (1941st mtg.) 41-53 UN Doc. S/P. 1941 (prov. ed. 1976).

100 Support for this absolute interpretation of Art. 2(4) can be found in its *travaux préparatoires*. See J. Stone, *Aggression and World Order* (1958), pp. 97, 103.

101 31 UN SCOR (1941st mtg.) 23-25 UN Doc. S/P. v. 1941 (prov. ed. 1976).

102 G.A. Res. 31/103, 31 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 186 UN Doc. A/31/39 (1976), 35 Member Group Established to Draft Convention Against Taking Hostages, *UN Chronicle* (January 1977), at p. 81.

103 See Convention Against Hostage-Taking Approved, Call for Appropriate Penalties *UN Chronicle* (January 1980), at p. 85.

104 *N.Y. Times*, July 15, 1976, at p. 1, col. 1.

105 31 UN SCOR (1943d mtg.) 87 UN Doc. S/P. v. 1943 (prov. ed. 1976).

This argument draws additional credence from the African failure to press the three power draft resolution to a vote. If the African countries really intended to express their strong disapproval of the raid at Entebbe and to avoid an expected Israeli claim that the Council's failure to condemn was tantamount to implicit approval they could have brought the resolution to a vote and forced the United States (if not Great Britain and France also) to veto the resolution. According to the Tanzanian ambassador who announced the decision not to press the African resolution to a vote, this action was taken because of the confrontations which had been exhibited in the Security Council and in light of the Council's seeming determination to ignore Africa's legitimate complaint.¹⁰⁶

But these considerations do not appear sufficient to account for the retreat. For example, African countries have not been deterred by the threat of a United States veto in matters concerning South Africa. In that context, they have persisted to the point of eliciting the veto precisely in order to embarrass South Africa and the vetoers as well as to put themselves firmly on record as virulently opposed to that regime.¹⁰⁷ A forced US veto of a resolution condemning Israel for the Entebbe raid could have caused significant embarrassment to both countries in the eyes of a substantial number of Third World states. Veto of the resolution by the United States would have added to Uganda's credibility and could have been denounced as part of the continuing Zionist imperialist racist conspiratorial plot fomented by Israel. The United States and for good measure South Africa. A fairly large number of propagandist points could have been scored by the African countries by pressing the matter to a vote and a veto. Simultaneously, the Israeli claim to victory because of the Security Council's non-adoption of a formal resolution on Entebbe would have been undercut.

It is likely that the African draft resolution was not brought to a formal vote as a result of an honest disbelief of the Ugandan factual position on Entebbe, the negative if not deprecatory attitude that many African leaders held toward Amin and a feeling that Amin had received a well-deserved comeuppance from Israel. After an initial period of euphoria with Amin throughout Africa over his humiliating expulsion of the United Kingdom from Uganda, Amin's buffoonery on the international scene and his systematic repression and massacre of opponents at home led African leaders to consider him a serious embarrassment to their collective stature.¹⁰⁸ Even the Soviet Union thought he had gone too far when he suggested the erection of a monument in tribute to Adolph Hitler for his policy of extermination of the Jews.¹⁰⁹ More serious at least from an African perspective were his bellicose pro-

106 31 UN SCOR (1943d mtg.) 76 UN Doc S/P v 1943 (prev. ed. 1976).

107 See e.g. Security Council Fails to Adopt Resolution Recommending Expulsion of South Africa, *UN Chronicle* (November 1974) at p. 9 (implied veto by US, UK, and France of proposed Security Council resolution to recommend the expulsion of South Africa from the United Nations).

108 See generally Kyemba *supra* n. 1 at pp. 238-48; Deming, Sullivan & MacPherson, *Idi Amin's Rule of Blood*, *Newsweek* (March 7, 1977) at p. 78; Kaufman, *Amin Cuts a Broad but Erratic Swath and People Love Him or Hate Him*, *N.Y. Times* (July 10, 1976) at p. 3 col. 1.

109 See *enison supra* n. 1 at p. 199.

ouncements directed toward his immediate neighbors, the Sudan, Kenya, and Tanzania.¹¹⁰ It was Israel's refusal to provide Amin with bombers capable of striking Dar-es-Salaam that led him to break diplomatic relations with Israel in 1972.¹¹¹ Dares-Salaam and Amin's precipitate invasion of Tanzania ultimately led to his overthrow by President Julius Nyerere's armed forces and Ugandan rebels in April of 1979.¹¹² Moreover, there was a strong collective sentiment that Amin had simply gone too far in formally associating an African government with the activities of the hijacker/hostage takers. Granted, Arab African states such as Libya and Algeria provided assistance to the PLO. But no state let alone a Black African state had ever gone so far as to actively aid and identify itself with a specific hijacking/hostage taking incident to the extent Amin had at Entebbe.¹¹³ All states in the region had a stake in the preservation of the safety and freedom of international civil aviation and none could afford to have Africa become known as a haven for hijackers and hostage takers.

The Third World generally believed that PLO hijackings and hostage takings had lost their utility and were probably even counterproductive to securing the recognition of formal legitimacy for the organization, especially by those countries in the West which alone could bring real pressure to bear on Israel. The PLO had more to gain at the conference table than in the cockpit. The period after Entebbe was to witness a marked decline in the number of such spectacular hijacking and hostage taking operations by the PLO and its splinter groups. To be sure, the PLO still launched military raids into Israel proper and the West Bank. But with the encouragement of Arab states, the PLO seemed to enter a new, evolutionary phase in which the military war against Israel took second place to a diplomatic offensive.¹¹⁴ Subsequent history was testified to the wisdom of that decision.

4. RESOLUTION

Public international law's third function of *Adjudication* merges imperceptibly into the fourth function here denominated as *Resolution* of the outstanding dispute among the parties to a crisis. Amin had threatened to initiate retaliatory action against Israel for the Entebbe rescue operation,¹¹⁵ raising the specter of continuing

110 See e.g. Kyemba *supra* n. 1 at p. 256 (1976 threat to invade Kenya); *N.Y. Times* (July 9, 1971) at p. 3 col. 4; *id.* (December 7, 1971) at p. 19 col. 1 (threat to attack Tanzania and subsequent border skirmishes); *id.* (January 31, 1971) at p. 2 col. 3; *id.* (February 1, 1971) at p. 6 col. 1 (threat to counterattack Sudanese forces alleging that Sudan was the original aggressor).

111 See nn. 42-44 and accompanying text *supra*.

112 An *Idi* *etc.* invasion, *Time* (November 13, 1978) at p. 51; *N.Y. Times* (April 12, 1979) at p. A1 col. 1.

113 See Introduction to Stevenson *supra* n. 1 at 11.

114 See e.g. Middleton, 1979 Terrorist Toll Put at a Record 587, *N.Y. Times* (May 11, 1980) at p. 14 col. 1; Wesseltier, *The Sabbath Ambush*, *The New Republic* (May 24, 1980) at p. 18. See also, *Through the Barrel of a Gun*, *The Middle East* (July 1980) at pp. 8, 10, 11.

115 In a letter addressed to the president of the Security Council, Amin declared that Uganda reserves her right to retaliate in whatever way she can to redress the aggression against

the crisis in their relations into the indefinite future at considerable cost to themselves and to the peace and stability of this highly volatile region surrounding the Horn of Africa. Yet the intentions and provisions of international law played a critical role in forestalling Amin's threat to retaliate for Entebbe. International law reserved the Entebbe crisis not necessarily to the complete satisfaction of either Uganda or Israel but in the sense that it provided the means for the interruption and termination of the cycle of force and counterforce that had developed between Uganda and Israel. The rules of international law and the vital national interests of all concerned states coincided and reinforced each other in an urgent effort to find a peaceful resolution of the Entebbe crisis at the UN Security Council.

4.1 Submission to the Security Council

Despite the threat of retaliation, it was in Amin's interest to achieve a peaceful resolution of the Entebbe crisis by submission of the dispute to the Security Council. Amin was trapped by his threat of retaliation. He had to make it but it was too dangerous to carry out. Assured Israeli counter-retaliation would have destabilized his domestic political situation even further, perhaps to the point of Amin's violent deposition, which had already been attempted several times before.¹¹⁶ Amin had to terminate the crisis immediately and not retaliate but in a manner that would salvage whatever prestige his regime possessed after the raid. Debates in the Security Council would satisfy this criterion. They would shift the focus of public attention from the manifest military disaster at Entebbe airport to abstract arguments over legal principles in New York. And even if Uganda could not win the war of words in the Security Council, a seemingly inconclusive result would permit Amin to claim vindication and victory by virtue of pure majoritarian rhetoric alone. Without the Security Council as an outlet to express rage and receive some degree of legitimizing support, however, Amin might have felt impelled by circumstances to make good on the threat to retaliate simply in order to shore up his internal power position. Submission of the dispute to the Security Council provided Amin with a face-saving and peaceful alternative response to the humiliation he had suffered at Entebbe.

Certainly, retaliation is not a legitimate exercise of the right to self-defense.¹¹⁷ Yet by its voluntary participation in the submission of the dispute to the Security Council, Uganda substantially undercut both its putative right and whatever limited ability it possessed to retaliate against Israel for Entebbe. Non-submission would have preserved intact at least an alleged right to act unilaterally against Israel. In going to the Security Council, however, Uganda effectively committed itself both legally and politically to abide by the Council's decision, whatever that might be. To use force without even a plausible claim for legal authority to do so adds significantly to the political and military costs already involved. These additional costs

can serve to increase the number and strength of other factors deterring a contemplated course of violent conduct. After voluntarily submitting the dispute to the Security Council, it would have been extremely costly for Uganda to have countermanded the Council's collective decision not to disturb the status quo existing after the Entebbe raid.

The non-adoption of a resolution by the Security Council automatically established the political and military situation existing after the raid as the legal status quo and the prohibition of Charter Article 2(4) immediately operated to protect this status quo. Uganda could not plausibly retaliate pursuant to any alleged right of individual self-defense under Article 51 without a new separate and independent breach of Article 2(4) by Israel through the threat or use of force. Yet Israel neither threatened nor undertook further retaliatory measures against Uganda for what the latter had done at Entebbe. The Security Council's non-action thus effectively ensured that the cycle of violence would cease at the Entebbe airport.

Moreover, the status quo approved by the Security Council's non-adoption of a resolution was not out of line with the merits of the dispute between Israel and Uganda as adjudicated by the Council. Since the members generally agreed that Israel should not be held at fault for the Entebbe raid, it was both proper and convenient to do nothing further and allow the post-raid status quo to become permanent. The equities of the situation had been fairly well adjusted by the design, execution and success of the raid itself.

4.2 Lessons of Entebbe, Mogadishu and Larnaca

In the aftermath of the West German raid at the Mogadishu airport in Somalia, it was publicly revealed that a large number of states had created special commando groups for the express purpose of undertaking Entebbe-like rescue operations.¹¹⁸ Unlike the Entebbe raid, however, the raid at the Mogadishu airport was undertaken with the consent of the Somali government.¹¹⁹ Fortunately, it too was successful.¹²⁰ But like the Entebbe raid, the Egyptian raid at the Larnaca airport in Cyprus did not have the permission of the territorial government,¹²¹ and the consequences there were tragic.¹²² Larnaca clearly demonstrated that Entebbe could have easily become a human disaster of the first magnitude.

This rapid succession of similar crises demonstrated to the entire international community the urgent need to suppress the incidence of transnational hostage taking and thus to attenuate the conditions conducive to non-permissive hostage

¹¹⁶ 31 UN SCOR Supp. (July-September 1976) 4, 5 UN Doc. S/121.4 (1976).

¹¹⁷ 116 Kyamba *supra* n. 1 at p. 750; Kaufman, Amin Cuts a Broad but Erratic Swath and People Love Him or Hate Him, *N.Y. Times* (July 10, 1976), at p. 3, col. 1, at p. 3, col. 5.

¹¹⁸ D. Bower, *Self-Defense in International Law* (1958) p. 13. Resort to War and Armed Force Reprisals 73 AJIL (1979) pp. 489-97.

¹¹⁸ Nations known to maintain anti-terrorist commando units include the US, Great Britain, France, West Germany, and Italy. Willenson & Nater, *Getting Tough* (Newswatch (October 1977)) at p. 51.

¹¹⁹ *N.Y. Times* (October 18, 1977) at p. A1, col. 6, at p. 12, col. 1.

¹²⁰ Two German soldiers were wounded but no hostages were harmed in the raid. *Id.* at p. A1, col. 6.

¹²¹ Willenson, Jenkins, Schmidt & Clifton, *Debauchery in Cyprus* (Newswatch (March 6, 1978)) at p. 33.

¹²² Fifteen Egyptian soldiers died, though the hostages were released unharmed. The hostage takers had agreed to surrender prior to the action. *Id.*

rescue interventions. From a functionalist perspective however, they collectively illustrate a fundamental axiom of the dialectical interaction between international law and international politics. By its very nature international law represents an attempt to legitimate pre-existing or proposed power relationships, an attempt that either succeeds or fails. Consequently, determinations of legality or illegality are essentially dependent upon the political success or political failure, respectively, of the course of state conduct at issue. A pattern of successful political action creates new legal rules through legitimation of that state behavior by lack of effective political opposition to it. An accumulation of political failures also creates law by generating political pressures to establish legal rules prohibiting the unsuccessful political conduct. The success phenomenon is responsible for the development of customary international law. The failure syndrome oftentimes leads to the conclusion of a treaty on the subject. Conversely, successful international legal rules create the political environment necessary and conducive to the passage of more of the same. Unsuccessful international legal rules are either formally terminated by agreement or informally abandoned by a pattern of successful contrary political practice that evolves into the formation of a new customary legal regime. Once again international law is and becomes international politics and vice versa.

In regard to Entebbe Mogadishu and Larraca universal fear of permitting the development of a failure syndrome for hostage rescue operations proved to be the motivating force behind the negotiation and adoption of a hostages convention. Here the analysis enters upon the fifth and final function of international law in time of crisis. This consists of an examination of the political processes by which the legal standards of acceptable political behavior are redefined for all actors in the international system in light of the successes and failures of this dialectical interaction between existing legal rules and political practice that are produced and illustrated by an international crisis.

5 REDEFINITION

Thus last function of international law concentrates upon analysis of the process of redefinition in standards for state behavior by the international community in order to improve those international legal standards existing before the outbreak of a crisis. Entebbe revealed an entire complex of unresolved problems concerning hostage taking, state responsibility in such crises, and foreign military intervention to rescue hostages. During the Security Council Entebbe debates a general consensus emerged that the taking of hostages for any reason violates a fundamental principle of international law and international politics. The Entebbe crisis generated the momentum necessary to propel this consensus into the concrete form of a UN committee for the drafting of a convention against the taking of hostages. A draft hostages convention codified the elements of the Entebbe debate consensus, thereby attempting to remedy those problems of international law and international politics exposed by Entebbe. In the form of a draft hostages convention, thus redefined international law was designed to deter the outbreak of similar crises in the future or at least to allow for their more effective management if they should occur.

5.1 German initiative

The first major initiative undertaken by the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) in the United Nations after becoming a member in 1973 was its request made during the Security Council Entebbe debates for the preparation of an international convention on measures against the taking of hostages.¹²³ The German delegate suggested that the next session of the General Assembly take this matter up. Pursuant to that suggestion, the FRG Vice-Chancellor and Minister for Foreign Affairs, Hans Dietrich Genscher, addressed a letter of September 28, 1976, to the UN Secretary General requesting the inclusion in the agenda of the 31st session of the General Assembly of a separate item entitled "Drafting of an international convention against the taking of hostages."¹²⁴ An attached explanatory memorandum stated that the taking of hostages not only threatened the lives of those directly involved, but the security of many other people as well and frequently also endangered international peace and transnational relations.¹²⁵ Undoubtedly, this was an allusion to the Israeli raid at Entebbe. Because of its legal importance, the proposed item was referred to the Sixth Committee of the General Assembly.

In the Sixth Committee, the FRG proposed a draft resolution for consideration by the General Assembly calling for the drafting of an international convention against the taking of hostages with a key requirement that state parties either prosecute or extradite hostage takers.¹²⁶ In response thereto, Libya introduced an amendment that would have added the word "innocent" before the word "hostages" throughout the text of the proposed draft resolution.¹²⁷ The effect of the Libyan amendment would have been to differentiate between innocent and non-innocent hostages and thus to have raised the issue of whether citizens or leaders of a state against which a war of national liberation has been declared (e.g., Israel) are innocent and therefore entitled to the protection of a hostage convention. In an apparent compromise, the sponsors of the FRG resolution agreed to drop the provision calling for mandatory prosecution or extradition of hostage takers and the Libyan delegate agreed not to press his amendment.

The final resolution adopted by the General Assembly upon recommendation of the Sixth Committee simply decided to establish an *Ad Hoc* Committee on the Drafting of an International Convention against the Taking of Hostages (Hostages Committee) with instructions to draft, at the earliest possible date, an international convention against the taking of hostages.¹²⁸ The Hostages Committee was request

¹²³ See n. 101 *supra*.
¹²⁴ See UN Doc. A/31/242 (1976).

¹²⁵ *Id.* at annex p. 1.
¹²⁶ See UN Doc. A/C.6/31/L.10 (1976), reprinted in UN Doc. A/31/430 (1976) at 2.

¹²⁷ See UN Doc. A/C.6/32/L.11 (1976), UN Doc. A/C.6/31/L.10 Rev. 1 (1976), UN Doc. A/31/430 (1976) at 3. See also *N.Y. Times* (December 16, 1976) at p. 3, col. 3; Grose, UN Assembly's Achievement: A Quiet Session, *id.* (December 24, 1976) at p. A6, col. 1.
¹²⁸ G.A. Res. 31/103, 31 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 186, UN Doc. A/31/39 (1976), UN Doc. A/RES/31/103 (1976).

ed to submit a draft convention to the General Assembly for consideration at its 32nd session and such an item was included in its provisional agenda.¹²⁹

5.2 Circumvention of the Terrorism Committee

On that same day December 15 1976 and in reference to the immediately prior agenda item the General Assembly had adopted resolution 31/1102 on measures to prevent international terrorism etc.¹³⁰ In it the General Assembly invited the *Ad Hoc* Committee on International Terrorism (Terrorism Committee) to continue its work. The Terrorism Committee had been established by General Assembly resolution 3034 (XXVII) of December 18 1972¹³¹ but its work had been suspended since 1973.¹³² The proceedings of the Terrorism Committee had broken down over several interrelated problems (1) the definition of international terrorism (2) the right of national liberation movements to commit putative terrorist acts as part of their struggle (3) the matter of so called state terrorism which allegedly gives rise to and legitimates national liberation movements and (4) whether a thorough study of the causes of terrorism should precede any recommendation of measures to deal with it or vice versa.¹³³ Third World members of the Terrorism Committee feared that a campaign against international terrorism would be turned into a tool against national liberation movements such as the PLO in the Middle East and those operating in southern Africa.¹³⁴ Hence the deadlock.

The Entebbe incident generated enough enthusiasm among UN members to reinvigorate the Terrorism Committee. Yet the thrust of the enthusiasm remained over hostage taking and so the General Assembly created the Hostages Committee.

129 Pursuant to para. 2 of resolution 31/1103 the President of the UN General Assembly appointed thirty four states as members of the Hostages Committee. Of the fifteen members of the Security Council at the time of the Entebbe debates all six of those which had voted in favor of the US-UK draft resolution (France Italy Japan Sweden US UK) and three which had not participated in the vote on the US-UK draft resolution (Libya USSR Tanzania) were appointed to the Hostages Committee. In addition five non members of the Security Council which had participated in the Entebbe debates were also appointed to the Hostages Committee (Federal Republic of Germany Guinea Somalia Yugoslavia). There was thus a carry over of fourteen states from the Security Council Entebbe debates to membership on the Hostages Committee.

130 The official name of this resolution is Measures to prevent international terrorism which endangers or takes innocent human lives or jeopardizes fundamental freedoms and study of the underlying causes of those forms of terrorism and acts of violence which lie in misery frustration grief and despair and which cause some people to sacrifice human lives included in their own in an attempt to effect radical changes. GA Res 31/1102 UN GAOR Supp (No. 39) 185 UN Doc A/31/39 (1976) UN Doc A/RES/31/102 (1976)

131 GA Res 3034 7 UN GAOR Supp (No. 30) 119 UN Doc A/8730 (1972)

132 See 28 UN GAOR Supp (No. 78) LN Doc A/9078 (1973)

133 Id at 6 paras 14-17 at 7 paras 7-74 at 8 para 74 at 11 12 paras 35 38 at 13 14 paras 41-44 at 15 paras 48-49 at 17 para 54 at 18 para 62

134 See e.g. Draft proposal submitted by the Non-Aligned Group in the *Ad Hoc* Committee (Algeria Congo Democratic Yemen Guinea India Mauritania Nigeria Syrian Arab Republic Tunisia United Kingdom of Tanzania Yemen Yugoslavia Zambia) id at 71 para 3 UN Doc A/908 (1973)

to circumvent the deadlock that had developed in the Terrorism Committee.¹³⁵ Suggestions had previously been made in the Terrorism Committee for the adoption of a piecemeal approach to the regulation of international terrorism by drafting several conventions each of which would prohibit a specific type of reprehensible terrorist activity.¹³⁶ A convention against the taking of hostages was among the earlier suggestions but did not succeed.¹³⁷

5.3 Vial national interests concerning hostage rescue operations

An abstract commitment to principles of international peace and security by UN members does not alone account for the breakthrough on a hostages convention. On the level of pure national self interest the Israeli raid at Entebbe demonstrated quite dramatically the marked vulnerability in future hostage taking crises of most Third World states to similar self help measures by multilaterally advanced countries. Failure to control transnational hostage taking might simply prompt stronger countries to intervene multilaterally into weaker countries for the purpose of rescuing hostages or worse yet encourage the use of hostage rescue operations as pretexts for accomplishing additional non humanitarian objectives such as for example a coup d'etat. Self help generally works in only one direction. As a remedy it cannot be relied upon by a weak state against a strong state or even by the weak against the weak. Conversely the adoption of a hostages convention could undermine a militarily advanced state's purported right to undertake self help measures and thereby deter or at least terminate an intervention. In this regard a convention would be especially valuable to prevent nonconsensual intervention in cases where the state of landing was genuinely attempting to secure the safe release of all hostages.

Even foreign military intervention genuinely limited to the humanitarian purpose of securing the release of hostages represents a distinct threat to the internal political security of the established government of the target state. The domestic political question will inevitably arise: what good is this government if it can not protect the country from outside attack? For example in the aftermath of the Entebbe raid there were severe disturbances within the Ugandan army and among

135 During the Sixth Committee debates over the establishment of the Hostages Committee the Soviet delegate suggested that it might be preferable to refer the matter of drafting a hostages convention to the Terrorism Committee. See Nanda Progress Report on the United Nations Attempt to Draft an International Convention Against the Taking of Hostages 6 Ohio NUL Rev (1979) p 89 at p 97. Moreover a desire by the several Third World countries to have the Hostages Committee first study the causes of international terrorism also bore no fruit. Id

136 See 28 UN GAOR Supp (No. 28) at 9 para 29 at 14 para 44 at 17 para 56 UN Doc A/9028 (1973). The United States submitted a comprehensive draft convention against international terrorism but it has not been adopted. Id at 28 33 UN Doc A/9028 (1973). See Franck & Lockwood Preliminary Thoughts Towards an International Convention on Terrorism 68 AJIL (1974) p 69

137 See e.g. 28 UN GAOR Supp (No. 8) at 9 para 79 at 14 para 44 at 17 para 56 UN Doc A/9028 (1973). Draft proposal submitted by Uruguay id at 33 34 para 1 UN Doc A/9028 (1973)

the students at Maker re University directed against the Amin regime. Rumors of a coup d'etat were followed by brutal governmental repression against both the army and students with a further destabilization of what was already a volatile situation.¹³⁹

Militarily weak states had everything to gain from a hostages convention and little to lose — except for a few propaganda points that might possibly be gained from insisting upon the principle that national liberation movements had a right to take hostages as part of their struggle. But why should Third World governments jeopardize their own internal stability for such a tenuous principle? Weighted with in the utilitarian calculus of international politics UN non regulation of hostage taking came out short in comparison to the dangers that foreign military intervention presented to the domestic security of governments that already were fairly unstable to begin with. Entebbe had demonstrated that the negotiation of a hostages convention would promote the vital national interests of almost all Third World states.

5 4 First session of the Hostages Committee

The first session of the Hostages Committee convened at United Nations Headquarters from August 1 to 19 1977.¹⁴⁰ The main working paper before it was a draft convention against the taking of hostages submitted by the Federal Republic of Germany.¹⁴¹ Its key provision was Article 7 which required a contracting state to extradite or prosecute an alleged offender found within its territory. Unfortunately the first session of the Hostages Committee deadlocked over the same general issue that had led to the breakdown of the Terrorism Committee. How should a hostages convention deal with recognized national liberation movements? The Arab and African states wanted a guarantee that a hostages convention would not be used as a legal political tool against legitimate national liberation movements.¹⁴²

138 *N.Y. Times* (August 2 1976) at p. 4 col. 1 id. (August 8 1976) § 1 at p. 4 col. 1 id. (February 23 1977) at p. A2 col. 3. But see Kyemba *supra* n. 1 at pp. 126-27.

139 *N.Y. Times* (February 25 1977) at p. A8 col. 3 id. (February 27 1977) § 4 at p. 4 col. 5.

140 Hostages Committee Recommends That Work Be Continued during 1978 *UN Chronicle* (August-September 1977) at p. 45.

141 UN Doc. A/AC.188/L.3 (1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 106-10 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). For a critique of the German Draft Convention see Kaye, The United Nations Effort to Draft a Convention on the Taking of Hostages 27 *Am. U.L. Rev.* (1978) p. 433.

142 See e.g. Report of the Ad Hoc Committee on the Drafting of an International Convention to Suppress the Taking of Hostages (8th mtg.) 3 para. 6 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.8 (prov. ed. 1977) (hereinafter cited as First Hostages Report) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 30 at 31 para. 6 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report (14th mtg.) 3 para. 9 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.14 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 74 at 75 para. 9 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report (15th mtg.) 2 para. 5 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.15 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 83 at 83-84 para. 5 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). UN Doc. A/AC.188/L.5 (1977) reprinted in 37 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 111 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977).

The earlier disputes over inclusion of a requirement for prosecution or extradition of hostage takers and the protection of only innocent hostages were reviewed.¹⁴³ To this confusion was added a request for the preservation in any hostages convention of a state's right to grant political asylum.¹⁴⁴ Finally underlying these problems was the seminal issue raised by the Entebbe crisis itself. Whether under any circumstances a state could use force to rescue hostages held within the territory of another state? The Israeli raid at Entebbe haunted the proceedings of the first session of the Hostages Committee and numerous allusions to Entebbe were made throughout its debates.¹⁴⁵

Despite these matters of disagreement at the first session of the Hostages Committee however there were strong elements of consensus within the debates as well. In effect they patterned the elements of consensus contained within the Security Council Entebbe debates. Since the laws of war severely condemned the taking of hostages this practice should not be tolerated by the laws of peace either.¹⁴⁶ As for the treatment accorded to national liberation movements by a hostages convention the United States delegate observed¹⁴⁷ that those government members of the Hostages Committee expressing strong support for national liberation struggles had already endorsed the principle that liberation movements should not take hostages at the Diplomatic Conference on the Reaffirmation and Development of Interna-

143 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (7th mtg.) 3 para. 5 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.7 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 76 at 27 para. 5 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977).

144 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (8th mtg.) 5 para. 15 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.8 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 32 at 32-33 para. 15 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977).

145 See e.g. First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (7th mtg.) 4-5 para. 12 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.7 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 26 at 28 para. 12 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (9th mtg.) 3 para. 11 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.9 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 38 at 39 para. 11 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (11th mtg.) 10 para. 43 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.11 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 51 at 58 para. 43 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (15th mtg.) 3 para. 6 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.15 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 83 at 84 para. 6 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (8th mtg.) 2 para. 2 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.8 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 30 at 30 para. 2 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977).

146 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (1st mtg.) 2 para. 3 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.1 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 10 at 10 para. 3 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (5th mtg.) 3 para. 5 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.5 (1977) reprinted with additions in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 19 at 20 para. 5 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (5th mtg.) 5 para. 12 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.5 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 19 at 22 para. 12 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (8th mtg.) 5 para. 19 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.8 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 30 at 33 para. 19 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977).

147 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (12th mtg.) 4 para. 11 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.12 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 37 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 60 at 67 para. 11 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977). See also First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (5th mtg.) 3 para. 5 UN Doc. A/AC.188/SR.3 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted with additions in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 19 at 0 para. 5 UN Doc. A/32/39 (1977).

tional Humanitarian Law Applicable in Armed Conflicts¹⁴⁸ Therefore the German delegate argued it was unnecessary for the FRG draft hostages convention to deal with hostage taking by national liberation movements.¹⁴⁹ When the Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions entered into force, liberation struggles would be regarded as international conflicts to which the prohibition on hostage taking applied.¹⁵⁰ In the meantime a national liberation struggle would be treated as an armed conflict not of an international character within the meaning of Article 3 of the Fourth Geneva Convention.¹⁵¹ Article 147 of the Fourth Convention regards the taking of hostages as a grave breach and thus Article 146 of the Fourth Convention would require the prosecution or extradition of hostage takers.¹⁵² Therefore the taking of hostages in violation of Article 3 would obligate a contracting state to prosecute or extradite the hostage taker in accordance with Articles 146 and 147 of the Fourth Geneva Convention.

As far as state terrorism was concerned the German delegate explained that Article 1 of the FRG draft hostages convention covered the case of a person who acting on behalf of a public institution or a state committed an offense of hostage taking within the terms of the convention.¹⁵³ The Mexican delegate subsequently observed that the granting of political asylum to a hostage taker would not prevent prosecution under the terms of the convention.¹⁵⁴ Finally no member of the Hostages Committee was prepared to argue for the inclusion in a draft hostages convention of a provision explicitly granting a state the right to use force to rescue hostages within the territorial domain of another state when the latter violated the convention. Nevertheless the delegates were similarly unwilling to adopt proposals specifically denying the right to use force to rescue hostages.¹⁵⁵ It appeared that

148 In June of 1977 that Conference had adopted two protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions of 1949. Art. 1(4) of the First Protocol applied the entirety of the four Geneva Conventions of 1949 to wars of national liberation. This would include the prohibitions against the taking of hostages contained in Art. 3 common to all four conventions and in Art. 34 of the Fourth Geneva Convention. Art. 75(2)(c) of the First Protocol specifically affirmed the prohibition against the taking of hostages during national liberation struggles. And Art. 4(2)(c) of the Second Additional Protocol reiterated this prohibition for armed conflicts not of an international character. See Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of August 12, 1949 and Relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts (Protocol I) reprinted in 16 ILM (1977) p. 1391 (hereinafter cited as Protocol I). Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of August 12, 1949 and Relating to the Protection of Victims of Non International Armed Conflicts (Protocol II) reprinted in 16 ILM (1977) p. 1442 (hereinafter cited as Protocol II).

149 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 141 (10th mtg.) 3 para. 8 UN Doc A/AC.188/SR.10 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 46 at 47 para. 8 UN Doc A/32/39 (1977).

150 Id.

151 Id.

152 See nn. 9, 12 and accompanying text *supra*.

153 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (12th mtg.) 7 para. 21 UN Doc A/AC.188/SR.12 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 60 at 64 para. 21 UN Doc A/32/39 (1977).

154 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (16th mtg.) 4 para. 16 UN Doc A/AC.188/SR.16 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 88 at 90 para. 16 UN Doc A/32/39 (1977).

155 UN Doc A/AC.188/L.7 (1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 111 UN

the members of the Hostages Committee were willing to settle for the inclusion in the text of the hostages convention of a general reaffirmation of the principles of the United Nations Charter. Thus outcome hunted at a general prohibition against the use of transnational force but essentially left the seminal question of the Entebbe raid unanswered.

To be sure such a compromise would avoid a neat positivist resolution of the issue by failing to determine the legality or illegality of hostage rescue operations under international law. Yet insistence upon a clearcut solution to this abstract problem by either side in the Hostages Committee would have killed the hostages convention insofar as it would have been interpreted by both the opponents and the partisans of the Israeli raid at Entebbe as a *sub silentio* adjudication of the merits of that dispute. All members of the Hostages Committee abstained from a reversal of the Security Council debates on the legality of the Entebbe raid precisely in order to avert a breakdown of the Committee proceedings. Instead they operated on the foundation of the least common denominator among them and drafted a hostages convention on that compromise basis. Under the regime of a hostages convention an Entebbe like crisis would not recur and even if one did it could be dealt with at that time and on its own terms. It would be foolish to defeat an apparent present gain for international law and international politics on account of a possible future loss or of a past concluded tragedy.

5.5 Lamaca and the second session of the Hostages Committee¹⁵⁶

The second session of the Hostages Committee was held from February 6 to 24, 1978 in Geneva. There the realization arose that the deadlock over the treatment to be accorded national liberation movements could be broken by the establishment of a link between the hostages convention and other international legal instruments.¹⁵⁷ The concept of a link between a hostages convention and the Geneva Convention Protocols had been suggested by Syria during the first session of the Hostages Committee.¹⁵⁸ Two distinctive approaches emerged as to how this link should be established. A proposal submitted by Mexico at the first session of the Hostages Committee¹⁵⁹ would have provided that the hostages convention did not apply to any act or acts covered by the rules of international law applicable to armed conflicts,¹⁶⁰ which would include legitimate national liberation struggles. First World states suggested on the other hand that the scope of the hos-

Doc A/32/39 (1977) UN Doc A/AC.188/L.11 (1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 112 UN Doc A/32/39 (1977).

156 The Mogadishu hostages crisis had also exerted a profound influence upon progress in the negotiation of a hostages convention throughout the Fall of 1977.

157 33 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 5 para. 17 UN Doc A/32/39 (1978).

158 First Hostages Report *supra* n. 142 (8th mtg.) 9 para. 31 UN Doc A/AC.188/SR.8 (prov. ed. 1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 30 at 36-37 para. 31 UN Doc A/32/39 (1977).

159 UN Doc A/AC.188/L.6 (1977) reprinted in 32 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 111 UN Doc A/32/39 (1977).

160 33 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 5-6 para. 19 UN Doc A/32/39 (1978).

tages convention should be broad enough to encompass all cases of hostage-taking and therefore that the provisions of the hostages convention should supplement the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and its 1977 Additional Protocols.¹⁶¹

The problem of state terrorism was disposed of by recognizing that under the proposed convention individual responsibility would arise if a government official of any state committed an act of hostage taking.¹⁶² On the other hand, the question of the right of asylum and of respect for the sovereignty and territorial integrity of states with regard to the release of hostages were deemed to constitute minor problems.¹⁶³ Related to the problem of asylum however was a suggestion that the proposed convention contain a provision similar to Article 13 of the Strasbourg Convention allowing refusal of extradition if there were grounds to believe that the request was made for reasons of political, ethnic or religious persecution.¹⁶⁴ On these issues too it seemed a compromise was possible.

The prospects were bright near the end of the second session of the Hostages Committee for the conclusion of a draft hostages convention. And at this point fate itself intervened to invigorate the mandate of the Hostages Committee and give it work a renewed sense of urgency. For on February 18-19 just prior to the final two meetings of the second session of the Hostages Committee on February 24-25, 1978,¹⁶⁵ the hostage-taking at Larnaca airport in Cyprus and the deadly Egyptian rescue operation unfolded towards their tragic denouement.¹⁶⁶ The major concerns discussed above were readily accepted by the members of the Committee at these final meetings in a remarkable spirit of harmonious compromise.¹⁶⁷ and then artfully woven into the textual fabric of the Committee's second report to the General Assembly.

5 6 Third session of the Hostages Committee

The Hostages Committee held its third session in Geneva from January 29 to February 16, 1979.¹⁶⁸ Of the two alternative concepts for the scope of the convention the Committee decided to accept textual language that would preclude the application of the draft hostages convention wherever the Geneva Conventions of 1949 or the Additional Protocols of 1977 were applicable to a particular act of hostage-taking committed in the course of armed conflicts as defined in the Conven-

161 UN Doc A/AC.188/L.20 (1978) reprinted in 33 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 6 para. 20 UN Doc A/33/39 (1978). See also 33 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) para. 2 UN Doc A/33/39 (1978) (French proposal).
162 Id. at 58 para. 5 UN Doc A/33/39 (1978).
163 Id. at 58 para. 6 UN Doc A/33/39 (1978).
164 Id. at 57 para. 2 UN Doc A/33/39 (1978). See European Convention on the Suppression of Terrorism opened for signature January 27, 1977, Art. 13 reprinted in 15 ILM (1976) p. 1272 at p. 1275.

165 33 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 66-74 UN Doc A/33/39 (1978).
166 *N.Y. Times* (February 19, 1978) at p. 1 col. 6; id. (February 20, 1978) at p. A1 col.

167 See e.g., 33 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) at 82 para. 78-79 UN Doc A/33/39 (1978).
168 34 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) para. 3 UN Doc A/34/39 (1979).

tions and Protocols.¹⁶⁹ In effect, the Third World countries prevailed on this point. The draft hostages convention would not, as suggested by First World states, supplement the Geneva Conventions and Additional Protocols by rendering an act of hostage-taking subject to the provisions of both regimes. Nevertheless, the draft convention would serve the purpose of closing the final loophole in international law on hostage-taking.¹⁷⁰ The hostages convention would apply to all instances of transnational hostage-taking not covered by the Geneva Accords.

Language was also adopted to the effect that nothing in the hostages convention shall be construed to justify the violation of the territorial integrity or political independence of a state in contravention of the UN Charter.¹⁷¹ Finally, there was general agreement that the provisions of the hostages convention should not be interpreted to impair the right of asylum.¹⁷² Yet a grant of asylum by a state party to a hostage-taker would not relieve it of the obligation to submit the case to its competent authorities for the purpose of prosecution.¹⁷³

5 7 Tehran and the Hostage Convention

The 34th General Assembly referred the draft hostages convention to the Sixth Committee which substantially upheld the compromises contained therein. Then once again fate added momentum to the hostages convention propelling it successfully through the final stages of the adoption procedure in both the Sixth Committee and the General Assembly. On November 4, 1979, Iranian student militants entered the embassy of the United States in Tehran and seized and detained the US diplomatic staff on the premises.¹⁷⁴ On December 7, 1979, the Sixth Committee adopted without vote a recommendation to the General Assembly that it adopt a

169 Id. at 78 Art. 12 para. 1 UN Doc A/34/39 (1979) (emphasis added). In so far as the Geneva Convention of 1949 for the protection of war victims or the Additional Protocols to those Conventions are applicable to a particular act of hostage-taking, and in so far as States Parties to this Convention are bound under those Conventions to prosecute or hand over the hostage-taker, the present Convention shall not apply to an act of hostage-taking committed in the course of armed conflicts as defined in the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the Protocols thereto, including armed conflicts mentioned in Article 1 paragraph 4 of Additional Protocol I of 1977 in which peoples are fighting against colonial domination and alien occupation and against racist regimes in the exercise of their right of self-determination as enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations and the Declaration on Principles of International Law concerning Friendly Relations and Co-operation among States in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations.

In the final version of Art. 12 adopted by the General Assembly, the word emphasized above is spelled with a lower case 'c' so that the phrase now refers to both the Geneva Conventions and the Geneva Protocols. See Letter from Anthony C.E. Quannon, Director of the State Department's Office for Combating Terrorism to Israel Singer (December 11, 1979) reprinted in 74 AJIL (1980) p. 420 at p. 421.

170 See id. American Branch International Law Association, Report of the Committee on Armed Conflict, *Proceedings and Committee Reports* p. 38 at p. 44.
171 34 UN GAOR Supp. (No. 39) 78 para. 22 UN Doc A/34/39 (1978).
172 Id. at 15-16 paras. 59-61 UN Doc A/34/39 (1978).
173 34 UN Doc A/34/39 (1978).
174 *N.Y. Times* (November 5, 1979) at p. A1 col. 6. See Boyle, Iran, Afghanistan, Cuba and SALT II: The lessons of international law, 1982 *Yale J. World Pub. Order* (forthcoming).