23RD ANNUAL
AMERICAN MODEL UNITED NATIONS
INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

# ISSUES AT AMUN

BRINGING GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES TO FUTURE LEADERS

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# 2012 AMUN International Executive Committee

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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

# American Model United Nations International Conference
# Issues at AMUN

# INTRODUCTION

The *Issues at AMUN* Handbook is published to assist Representatives in their preparations for the American Model United Nations (AMUN) Conference. When combined with students' own research on the nations they represent and the topics of discussion, this handbook provides Representatives with all the substantive information they will require to function effectively at the simulation. Its sister handbook, *AMUN Rules and Procedures*, provides an overview of the Committee/Council rules and Conference logistics with which Representatives need to familiarize themselves for the simulation.

The following pages contain brief overviews of the topics to be discussed in the Committee/Council/Commission and International Court of Justice at the 2012 Conference. These are intended as a guideline and basis for Representatives' further research of the issues involved. In keeping with this, each overview includes a bibliography to guide Representatives to appropriate sources of additional information.

The overviews give a brief background concerning each topic and states some areas of current United Nations (UN) and international activity on the topic. In many cases, the overviews will frame the topic in terms of a few, limited aspects of a complex issue. For example, the general issue of "the environment" has dozens of sub-issues — in such a case, the overview may direct Representatives to concentrate their research on "Ozone Depletion" and "Limiting the Destruction of the Rain Forests," only two of the many smaller issues. This format allows Representatives to go into greater detail in their preparations, without the need to research all aspects of the multifaceted main issue.

AMUN's philosophy in providing these topic overviews is to give Representatives *direction* in their research, but to leave the work up to them. **These overviews are not intended to be the sole source of Representatives' research on the topics prior to the Conference.**

In addition, *Chapter I - The United Nations* provides essential background information to give all Representatives a common orientation to the history of the UN. This section begins with the origins of the UN and covers some important points about the organization. Finally, the chapter focuses on problems confronting the UN today.

## USE OF THE INTERNET

Many of the works cited in this *Issues at AMUN* Handbook are resources located on the Internet. Full text of many periodical sources is available to AMUN participants online. Please visit AMUN's homepage at **www.amun.org** for a list of recommended research links. Three online sources of particular note are the United Nations homepage (**www.un.org**), the *New York Times* online (**www.nytimes.com**), and the *UNWire* (**www.smartbrief.com/un_wire/**). The *UNWire* is a daily briefing on UN issues provided by the United Nations Foundation; note that *UNWire* articles published prior to August, 2004 can be found at **www.unwire.org**. These sources are heavily referenced throughout the issues briefings in this handbook. Most documents cited in these bibliographies can be found with the help of an internet search engine. For a more thorough discussion of online research sources, see "Utilizing the Internet" on page 11 of the *AMUN Rules and Procedures* Handbook.

## THE PURVIEW OF EACH SIMULATION

Each simulation's background guide contains a brief overview of that simulation's purview, which provides a general outline of the types of discussions each simulation might have on the topics in question. This is extremely important in the UN system, where a variety of different Committees and Councils may discuss different aspects of an international problem. Representatives should exercise great care in researching a topic, so their deliberations can focus on the piece of the problem considered within their simulation's purview. These purview briefs are guidelines for the discussions of each body.

An excellent example of this shifting focus among Committees and Councils is the Palestinian question. The First Committee might discuss aspects of the situation dealing with weapons shipments. At the same time, the Second Committee may discuss a variety of financing initiatives to help the Palestinian Authority. Similarly, the Third Committee, or in some cases the Economic and Social Council, might discuss the social and humanitarian considerations that arise from Israeli occupation of various territories. And the Sixth Committee may discuss the legal aspects of treaty violations in the region if this is specifically encompassed in one of that Committee's topics. Only the GA Plenary Session would discuss the problem in its entirety, including the possible creation of a legal Palestinian State or member status for that State. The Security Council would deal with any appropriate peace and security issues that arose on the situation. Clearly, different aspects of a single problem are regularly discussed in different bodies. More importantly, at the UN, delegations are typically careful to *only* discuss those aspects relevant to their own Committee/Council, leaving other aspects to others in their delegation to address in the appropriate forum.

# CHAPTER ONE
# THE UNITED NATIONS

Representatives participating in the American Model United Nations Conference should be familiar with the history of the United Nations, as well as the rapidly changing role the organization plays in international affairs. This section provides a brief background on the UN system and on some of the issues it faces today.

## ORIGINS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The United Nations came into existence on 24 October 1945. On that day, the United Nations Charter became operative, having been signed by the fifty-one original Members. The concept of all nations uniting together in one organization designed to settle disputes peacefully was born of the desire of civilized nations to avoid the horrors of and produced by the First and Second World Wars. The United Nations developed as a successor to the League of Nations, which represented the first attempt by nations to achieve this unity.

In 1942, American President Franklin D. Roosevelt first coined the term "United Nations," when forty-seven nations signed the Declaration of the United Nations in support of the Atlantic Charter. In 1944, the United States, the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and China met in Washington, DC at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, where the first blueprint of the United Nations was prepared. In 1945, the final details for the United Nations were worked out at the Yalta Conference. Fifty-one nations gathered from 24 April through 26 June in San Francisco to draft the Charter of the United Nations, which was signed on 26 June 1945.

## PURPOSE OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The primary purposes for which the United Nations was founded are detailed in Chapter I, Article 1 of the Charter. These are:
1. To maintain international peace and security;
2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;
3. To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinctions as to race, sex, language or religion;
4. To be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

## HOW THE UNITED NATIONS SEEKS TO ACHIEVE ITS PURPOSE

Since 1945, the United Nations has established itself as a forum for discussing international disputes. Also, Member States recognize that the United Nations has an established machinery which can be utilized to solve international problems. The United Nations seeks, both through its principal organs and various subsidiary bodies, to settle disputes through peaceful means without resorting to the threat or use of force. It should be recognized that the United Nations is not a world government, nor does it "legislate." Rather, the actions of the United Nations, as evidenced by resolutions passed by its bodies, have a strong moral persuasive effect. The Member States frequently find it within their own best interests to follow UN recommendations.

## STRUCTURE OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The United Nations has six primary bodies:

The General Assembly (GA): The GA is the central organ of the United Nations. The GA has been described as the nearest thing to a "parliament of mankind," as all Member States are Members of the GA, and each Member has one vote. The GA makes recommendations on international issues, oversees all other UN bodies which must report to the GA annually, approves the UN budget and apportions UN expenses. On the recommendation of the Security Council, the GA elects the Secretary-General and holds the authority to admit and expel Member States. Voting in the GA is ordinarily by simple majority, although on "important questions" a two-thirds majority is required.

The Security Council (SC): The Security Council is charged with the primary responsibility for maintaining international peace and security. It has the power to employ United Nations forces and direct action against threats to the peace. Fifteen Members sit on the Security Council, including five Permanent Members (China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and the United States) and ten at-large Member States, which the General Assembly elects for two-year terms. A majority in the Security Council consists of nine Members voting "yes;" however, a "no" vote by any of the Permanent Members has the effect of vetoing or blocking motions.

Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC): ECOSOC is the primary body dealing with the economic, social, humanitarian and cultural work of the United Nations system. ECOSOC oversees five regional economic commissions and nine functional, or "subject-matter," commissions, along with a sizeable system of committees and expert bodies. ECOSOC is composed of fifty-four Member States, elected by the GA for three-year terms.

Trusteeship Council (TC): In 1945 there were eleven Trust Territories, which were regions without their own governments. These eleven regions were placed under the TC, which helped them prepare for and achieve independence. With the admittance of Palau as a UN Member State in 1994, the TC has now completed its original mandate. Today, the TC is inactive, but is formally composed of the permanent Security Council Members.

The International Court of Justice (ICJ): The International Court of Justice, or World Court, is the primary judicial organ of the UN and decides international legal disputes. All UN Members are automatically able to bring matters before the ICJ; however, States must agree to accept the jurisdiction of the ICJ before it can decide a dispute involving that State. Fifteen judges serving nine-year terms sit on the Court.

Secretariat: The Secretariat is composed of the Secretary-General and the United Nations staff. Approximately 16,000 people are employed as the staff of the UN, one-third of whom work at the UN headquarters in New York City. The other two-thirds work for various subsidiary bodies of the United Nations. The Secretary-General serves a five-year renewable term.

In addition to the six main bodies, the United Nations includes a large family of specialized agencies and programs which the UN administers. Examples include the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Health Organization (WHO), and the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF).

## Bloc Politics

Historically, nations with mutual interests have used a system of "bloc politics" to organize their efforts within the UN. These blocs tend to be made up of nations with similar political, historical or cultural backgrounds. They were often formed on a geographical basis, but this is not exclusively the case. By organizing themselves with other nations that hold similar interests, bloc Members hope to increase their influence above the level that they would have as a single nation in the General Assembly.

The necessity of blocs in the UN was formally established in 1957, when the General Assembly endorsed four regional groups:  the Latin American group, the Asian and African group, the Western European and Others group, and the Eastern European group. These regional blocs are still used today to manage elections; for instance the Vice-presidents of the General Assembly are chosen by regional groups, with the actual election mostly a formality. Since that time, the bloc system has grown to encompass many of the political, economic and military organizations of the world.

Blocs usually attempt to form a consensus among Members, allowing them to act as a cohesive group. The effectiveness of any given bloc in exerting its positions in the General Assembly depends upon its ability to form a consensus among its own Members, and then get their Members to vote accordingly. These acts of compromise form the basis of UN politics, and often occur within the various caucusing groups before they can begin to apply to the UN as a whole. The consensus position that comes out of the bloc is often the starting point for debate in the larger UN body.

Bloc politics have changed considerably over time. Some regional blocs are still coherent, like the Nordic countries, while others, like the Western European and Others group, lack continuing cohesion. In general, their viability as a political tool is diminishing, and blocs are falling out of use as a predictable measure of votes. A bloc's influence is measured by its ability to get its Members to reach consensus, and then to vote in a certain way; this has become an increasingly difficult proposition. Often today, blocs get together to draft resolutions that begin the discussion, but when it comes time to vote, each Member will almost certainly vote in its own interest, regardless of its bloc membership. Additionally, Members may be part of multiple blocs, with diverging interests.

However, blocs are not completely irrelevant; often they are used to get an initial proposal to the floor when consensus cannot be found quickly in the larger body. Today, the most common blocs today are small, temporary negotiating groups that gather around one issue to try to overcome stalemate in the larger membership bodies. Additionally, Member States in the Global South often bind together to maximize their power, especially in the face of a relative lack of economic power. Some blocs have their own secretariat staff, whose job it is to draft proposals and find solutions that the larger body is unable to find. Some of the more well-funded and organized blocs have a formally recognized role as permanent observers with permanent observer missions at the UN headquarters. Examples include the African Union, the Caribbean Community, the European Union, the Arab League, and the Organization of Islamic Cooperation. These blocs are a powerful example of Member States coming together to advance goals that may be independent of the regions they represent.

At AMUN, blocs will not be treated as official bodies. Representatives are encouraged to caucus in their bloc groups only when appropriate. Representatives should be aware that the Member State they represent may no longer actively participate in bloc politics, or may vote outside of its traditional bloc based on the circumstances. Above all, remember that you represent your country and your countries' interests, regardless of your participation in a bloc while caucusing and drafting.

# 2 CHAPTER TWO
# THE SECURITY COUNCIL

Representatives of the Security Council should note that the agenda provided is only provisional and represents a fraction of the issues the Security Council discusses. Any issue regarding international peace and security may be brought before the Council. Many topics listed in this guide will change significantly before the conference. Additional topics may be added as necessary or as the Council sees fit. For this reason it is highly advised that representatives have a broad knowledge base regarding current events in the international community. Periodicals are some of the best sources available for day-to-day updates. Recommended periodicals include, among others: The New York Times, UN Chronicle, The London Times, Foreign Policy, and The Economist. The UN Foundation's online daily newsletter, UN Wire, is also an excellent resource for timely information. Whenever possible it is also recommended that representatives familiarize themselves with the most recent report(s) published by the Security Council along with other UN documents. These can be found via the UN homepage under the Security Council section (http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/). Please note that the bibliographies for these topics focus primarily on UN sources with some news sources provided for background on certain aspects of topics.

Unlike many other simulations, Security Council members are able to make declarative statements and operational decisions which will change the course of the simulation. It will be the job of Council Representatives to actively involve their country's national policies and national capabilities in solutions to the problems throughout the simulation. While AMUN Simulation Staff will frequently consult with SC members, representatives are welcome and encouraged, as their nation's spokesperson, to make whatever declarative statements they like. Declarative statements would include any comments or actions (including real or implied threats or deals) that an individual at the UN could normally make. Representatives must, however, always consult with the Simulation Staff before making ANY operational decisions. Operational decisions would include announcements of the movements or actions of military forces, as well as any other actions which would have an effect outside of the UN. In these cases, the Simulation Staff would be equated with the actual "home office" of the involved nation(s).

## OTHER INVOLVED COUNTRIES

From time-to-time, other countries will be involved in the deliberations of the Security Council. Delegations representing these countries, if present at AMUN, will be asked to participate in deliberations by the body, if they are not present or choose not to participate in deliberations an AMUN staff member will represent them as necessary. It is customary for the Council to request the presence of relevant Member States during discussion of topics, however it is not required. Any nation mentioned in the following background research is a potential candidate for an outside participant in the Council as well as any related to any topic of current relevance to international peace and security.

## BACKGROUND RESEARCH

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Council as of Spring 2012. It is recommended that representatives have a solid foundational knowledge of background of major international issues. The topics laid out in this handbook are provided as a starting point for further research.

# ISSUES IN AFRICA
## THE SITUATION IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

The Great Lakes region has seen nearly-perpetual violence from civil wars, ethnic conflicts and military interventions for nearly 20 years. Although the Second Congo War (1998-2003) ended almost a decade ago, the eastern part of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) has been particularly vulnerable to spill-over violence from neighboring states. In particular, ethnic conflict between Hutu and Tutsi groups in Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi, along with military interventions intended to destroy rebel groups that sought refuge in eastern DRC, caused the death of millions as a result of war and humanitarian crisis.

During the Second Congo War, the Security Council established the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) to monitor the cease-fire agreements between warring factions within the DRC. Even as foreign armies eventually left the DRC, ethnic violence increased as militant domestic factions evolved, merged and split over time, ultimately creating significant instability in the eastern provinces of Orientale, North Kivu, and South Kivu. The shifting security situation required greater peacekeeping forces over time, and the MONUC mandate shifted from monitoring ceasefires and the withdrawal of military forces to protecting civilians and monitoring human rights. Eventually, the mandate shifted further to include active pursuit of armed groups operating within DRC as well as supporting the Congolese army, Forces Armees de la Republique Democratique du Congo (FARDC).

In July 2010 the United Nations Organization and Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUSCO) replaced MONUC. The change was largely symbolic and emphasized

the political aspects of the mandate. The change also reinforced the Mission's mandate to support the DRC government and its efforts to aid in the political stabilization and peace efforts in eastern DRC following normalization of relations with its neighbors.

While relations with neighboring states have improved, the situation within DRC is still volatile. To the extent possible, MONUSCO has attempted to protect civilians in areas where FARDC is not present due to re-deployments or incapable of doing so as a result of reorganization, chaos within the ranks and violence following the November 2011 elections.

Even given the cooperation between MONUSCO and FARDC, many militant groups continue to perpetrate violence in the eastern DRC. MONUSCO has worked with FARDC to combat militant groups including the Yakutumba Alliance, the Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda (FDLR), the Ugandan Allied Democratic Front (ADF), the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA), several Mayi-Mayi factions, as well as splinter factions from several formerly integrated militant groups. Violence still remains especially high within South Kivu and Orientale provinces.

The African Union Peace and Security Council called for regional cooperation against the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) in November 2011. MONUSCO supported this action since the LRA is currently dispersed throughout portions of South Sudan, the Central African Republic, and the DRC. The LRA is no longer considered a security risk to the DRC, but LRA attacks have exacted a high humanitarian cost in Orientale province. The number of active LRA members is estimated at 500; however LRA attacks and attacks by copycat groups are extremely high (254 attacks between January and August 2011). FARDC has also attempted to stabilize the security situation in the DRC by integrating members of militant groups into its ranks, but this inclusion has resulted in an undisciplined army responsible for numerous human rights abuses. In 2006, the International Criminal Court (ICC) called for the arrest of Bosco Ntaganda, the former head of the rebel group, the National Congress for the Defense of the People (CNDP) for war crimes committed in the CNDP, including the use of child soldiers, during the Second Congo War. After the Second Congo War, Ntaganda had been serving as a general in FARDC. He defected following the call for his arrest, and a wave of other defections followed, with many of his troops taking up arms against FARDC. Joseph Kabila, the President of the Democratic Republic of Congo, has said that Ntaganda would be tried by a military tribunal instead of being turned over to the ICC.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following::
- How can the international community further aid in the stabilization of the Democratic Republic of Congo?
- How can neighboring states help minimize the threat of militant groups without violating national sovereignty?
- Should MONUSCO be supporting FARDC? Are there changes that should be made to MONUSCO's mandate?

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## THE SITUATION IN SOMALIA

For the past 25 years, the people of Somalia have been engaged in a civil war that has drawn international attention and spilled the blood of combatants and civilians of multiple nations. Recent events there have given rise to both hope and despair for the situation in Somalia: The Transitional Federal Government (TFG) continues to face stiff opposition led by al-Shabaab, but has made gains by recapturing Mogadishu and improving governance. Furthermore, the drawn-out instability has facilitated increased piracy in the Gulf of Aden, which has adversely affected worldwide commerce.

The international community has authorized a number of missions in an attempt to provide peace and security for the people of Somalia. The current mission is the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM), which was originally chartered in 2007. Since late 2011, international support for AMISOM has increased. In November 2011, Kenyan troops, which had been operating independently inside Somalia, joined Ugandan and Burundian troops under the banner of AMISOM. Djibouti has also contributed troops to AMISOM, and Sierra Leone has announced its intent to assist, despite threats from al-Shabaab. AMISOM support for the TFG was critical in recapturing the capitol in February 2012.

In addition to the increased physical security provided by AMISOM support, internal political and regional stability is also on the rise. On 18 April 2012 the constitutional convention of Puntland successfully passed a 141-article constitution. Puntland president Abdirahman Mohamed Farole commented on this occasion by saying, "I can confidently say that Puntland is out of the transitional period that we were in for 14 years and we have progressed into democratic government, a step in the right direction."

Even as some improvements have been made, the main opposition group, al-Shabaab, has also been gaining strength. In February 2012,

al-Shabaab announced that it was joining the international group Al-Qaida. This follows al-Shabaab's attacks on Ugandan and Kenyan citizens in the past few years including a high profile attack in Kampala, Uganda that killed more than 70 people during the final match of the 2010 World Cup.

Pirates based in Somalia have taken thousands of people hostage, and the economic damage from piracy is estimated to be between five and seven billion U.S. dollars per year. The EU, Russia and China, among others, have contributed ships to protect their commercial assets as well as international humanitarian ships from pirates. The United States has used unmanned drones in a further attempt to provide safe passage for ships in the Horn of Africa region.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following::
- How can the international community further aid in assisting the development of a stable Somali state?
- How can nations help minimize the threat of al-Shabaab without violating national sovereignty?
- What actions can be taken by the international community to more effectively deal with piracy?

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## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

amisom-au.org/about/amisom-mandate/ - AMISOM Mandate

## THE SITUATION IN SUDAN

The Sudanese Civil War, which left two million dead, four million internally displaced, and six hundred thousand refugees, ended in 2003, but hostilities between the Sudanese government in Khartoum and the Sudanese Peoples Liberation Movement/Army have continued. Since 2004, the United Nations Advance Mission in the Sudan has been attempting to ease tensions in the region and deal with the aftermath of the war, including the situation in Darfur, which many Western nations labeled as genocide. South Sudan officially became independent on 9 July 2011; however, independence has done little to stabilize the situation in Sudan.

The ever-changing political and security situation has prompted the international community to continually update the extent and kind of assistance to Sudan and South Sudan. In March 2005, the first peacekeeping troops arrived with the United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS), which was tasked to assist in maintaining North-South peace, protecting human rights, and protecting civilians from imminent threat of violence. UNMIS was unable to protect civilian populations in Darfur, however, during the emerging insurgency and counterinsurgency. This failure resulted in the establishment of a hybrid United Nations-African Union mission specifically aimed at addressing human rights and protecting humanitarian aid in Darfur (UNAMID). The United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) followed the dismantling of UNMIS, as South Sudan gained independence and Sudan requested an end to the peacekeeping mission's presence in Sudan. As South Sudan gained independence the referendum in the state of Abyei was delayed and violence erupted, which led to the creation of the United Nations Interim Security Force for Abyei (UNISFA), a mission specifically aimed at stabilizing the disputed state.

Currently there are three peacekeeping missions in the Sudan: UNAMID, UNMISS, and UNISFA. The situation on the ground has improved in Darfur, which has led to a recommendation for a UNAMID troop reduction. The security situation in Abyei has also largely improved since the deployment of UNISFA. However, while the immediate security situation has stabilized within Abyei, both Sudan and South Sudan are in direct violation of the 20 June 2011 Agreement on Temporary Security and Administrative Arrangements for the Abyei Area and have failed to remove their armed forces from Abyei. No political progress has been made toward the resolution of the final status of Abyei. The security improvements in Darfur and Abyei, however, have come at a time of increased conflict along the North-South border.

Current conflicts center on the issues of oil revenue and transit fees as well as unrest in border states. The most recent fighting follows a shutdown of oil production in late January by South Sudan under the claim that Sudan was stealing its oil, thus cutting off revenues to Sudan from transit fees it collects from South Sudanese oil flowing through its pipelines. Sudan also faces rebel-group uprisings in the South Kordofan and Blue Nile states; these rebel groups are predominantly African Christians affiliated with South Sudan, but whose lands remained in Sudan after the referendum. Additionally, movements of nomadic groups between Sudan and South Sudan have caused tension in border-states.

Sudanese armed forces have been repeatedly striking the border states of Kordofan and Blue Nile within Sudan and Unity State in South Sudan with air strikes and long range artillery since June 2011. Sudan has accused South Sudan of supporting the rebel group Sudanese People's Liberation Movement North (SPLM-N) and other rebels in the border states, while repeatedly denying the aerial attacks against

rebels within Sudan and South Sudan. In response to the aerial as-saults, South Sudanese troops seized the oil production city of Heglig, Sudan on 10 April 2012. South Sudan withdrew its troops after two weeks of international pressure. Both sides blame the other for the recent military-to-military border clashes.

On 24 April 2012, the African Union issued a three-month deadline for resolving these long-standing diputes. Should the parties fail to reach an agreement the ultimatum dictates they will face binding international arbitration. Shortly following the ultimatum from the African Union, the Security Council took action on the issue reinforc-ing the African Union Peace and Security Council's roadmap for peace as well as demanding Sudan and South Sudan address key issues of dispute: oil revenues and transit fees, status of nationals living in the other country, resolution of disputed and claimed border areas and the final status of Abyei. These demands were given additional force with the threat of the use of Article 41 if the parties fail to comply.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following::
- How does the situation in Sudan affect regional stability?
- What changes can be made to current UN missions to better meet the needs of keeping peace along the North-South border while protecting civilians?
- How will sanctions affect Sudan and South Sudan?

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## THE ISSUE IN NORTHERN AFRICA
### THE SITUATION IN LIBYA

After the 2011 Arab Spring uprising, which was assisted by interna-tional forces sanctioned by the Security Council, the National Transi-tional Council (NTC) named an interim government on 22 Novem-ber 2011 and issued a "Declaration of Liberation" the following day.

Even with the establishment of an interim government, concern grew within Libya and in the international community that the civil war could enter a second stage, with the new coalition facing old tribal tensions. The heavy presence of weapons exacerbated the lack of a cen-tral government and led to violence in several areas. In some southern cities, there were reports of as many as 150 deaths, yet because the NTC lacks a formal army it has found it difficult to intervene when tensions flare.

Security Council Resolution 2009 created the United Nations Support Mission in Libya (UNSMIL); Resolution 2040, in March 2012, ex-tended the UNSMIL mandate for another year. Resolution 2040 also called for an end to the asset freeze that had previously been put in place and eased the arms embargo on Libya. The Council did express concern over the continued fighting and called for the Libyan govern-ment to prevent human rights violations such as "reprisals, arbitrary detentions without access to due process, wrongful imprisonment, mistreatment, torture and extrajudicial executions in Libya."

There are concerns that the eastern half of the nation, centered around Benghazi, might follow through on threats to cut off the flow of oil if it does not regain power it feels it did not possess during the Gadhafi reign. Previously a separate territory, eastern Libya contains the ma-jority of Libyan oil. In spring 2012, citizens of Benghazi began to call for autonomy from the rest of the nation.

The NTC has had some recent positive developments. On 20 April 2012, the government took control of Tripoli International Airport from the militias that had been providing security in the aftermath of the fall of Moammar Gadhafi's government. The security force is largely made up of former rebels who participated in a government program in which they exchanged their weapons for jobs.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following::
- With elections coming in June, what role, if any should UN-SMIL play going forward?
- What measures, especially in the realm of governance, might prevent the nation from falling into another civil war?
- What was your nation's relationship with the Gadhafi govern-ment? What is its current relationship with the NTC?
- Did your nation contribute to UNSMIL or the NATO opera-tions?
- What are your nation's economic interests in Libya?

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S/RES/2040 (2012)

# ISSUES IN THE MIDDLE EAST
## THE SITUATION IN SYRIA

Unrest in the Syrian Arab Republic has continued for more than 13 months despite attempts by the international community to quell the violence and bring about a return to normalcy for the citizens of Syria. The Syrian Observatory for Human Rights estimates that 11,000 people have died since tensions first began. Former United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan was appointed the Joint Special Envoy for the United Nations and the League of Arab States, and is working to implement a six point peace plan originally agreed to in March 2012.

Though similar to previous plans between President Bashar al-Assad and the Arab League, the peace plan is based largely on creating an environment for the peaceful discussion of the issues raised by the opposition. A ceasefire was to have gone into effect 10 April 2012, but both sides have ignored the peace plan and continued attacks. United Nations Resolution 2043 established the United Nations Supervision Mission in Syria (UNSMIS) consisting of 300 unarmed military observers. Reports suggest that the Syrian government has been rejecting observers based purely on nationality.

Thus far, the opposition movements are splintered and have failed to establish unity of action, and have not been successful in attracting support from the ruling class. Syrian Deputy Oil Minister Abdo Hussameldin is the highest ranked defector to the opposition movement. The military, on the other hand, has seen the largest number of defections to the Free Syrian Army, which is now estimated to number over 70,000. It is headquartered just beyond the Syrian border in Turkey. Lately the Free Syrian Army has faced criticism for attacks that have harmed both the Syrian Army and civilians.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following::
- The Council will face many decisions ahead. How it decides to move forward will have an impact throughout the region. What will the next steps for the council be?
- Does your nation support the continuation of United Nations Supervision Mission in Syria beyond its initial 90 day mission?
- What relationship did your nation have with Syria before the current uprisings? How has it changed due to the uprisings?

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## THE SITUATION IN IRAN

In late 2002 the exposure of two clandestine nuclear facilities in Iran brought its nuclear power program under scrutiny by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and the international community. Following a 2003 IAEA inquiry, Iran was found to have failed to meet the obligations of the Non-Proliferation Treaty Safeguards Agreement with the IAEA. Iran's initial cooperation with the IAEA investigation revealed facilities and halting enrichment experiments spared it from significant international pressure. However the information provided by Iran over the course of the investigations between 2003 and 2006 raised many questions about the nature of Iran's nuclear program.

Due to the nature of the violations of the Safeguards Agreement, the duration of activities in violation and the secretive nature of the Iranian facilities, diplomatic pressure began to build surrounding Iran's nuclear program. Then in January 2006 cooperation with the IAEA came to a halt with Iran notifying the IAEA that it intended to restart uranium enrichment activities. On 11 April 2006, President Mahmoud Ahmadinejad announced that Iran had joined the "group of countries which have nuclear technology." The United States, United Kingdom, France, Germany, Russia, and China developed a package of incentives and disincentives to persuade Iran to halt its enrichment and comply with IAEA resolution GOV/2006/14. Iran flatly rejected this offer. Open defiance of the Security Council's call for Iran to halt enrichment activities provoked the first of many resolutions sanctioning Iran, with each resolution between July 2006 and June 2010 applying further pressure on Iran in an effort to halt its uranium enrichment.

Sanctions have not deterred Iran from enriching uranium. Several rounds of diplomatic efforts have been launched only to meet with failure. Meanwhile, more Iranian nuclear facilities have been exposed by the international community to the IAEA. Additionally, Member

States have provided detailed information regarding possible military aspects to Iran's nuclear program. These claims are rejected by Iran as fabrications, however they include information about green salt projects, high explosive and synchronous detonator testing as well as redesign of the Shabaab-3 missile payload.

As a second round of talks is set to commence in Baghdad following an initial round in Istanbul, Iran is again facing questions from the IAEA Board of Governors about the possibility of nuclear testing on a military complex at Parchin. This complex, a portion of which was originally examined during the 2003 IAEA inquiry, is the site of suspected high explosives tests. These high explosives, described in information provided to the IAEA by intelligence agencies of Member States, are consistent with lensing semi-hemispherical explosives used in an implosion type nuclear device. Neutron initiator testing may also have taken place at the facility. To date Iran has refused the IAEA access to Parchin, claiming such concerns are based on forgeries. Iran's record of failing to reveal nuclear facilities until they are exposed by members of the international community, inconsistent reports on facility purposes and continued 20% enrichment of uranium without an obvious domestic use, have degraded international trust in Iran.

Despite diminished trust between Iran and the international community, the permanent members of the Security Council plus Germany still seek a diplomatic solution to the nuclear crisis in Iran. This goal continues to grow in importance as Iran approaches nuclear breakout capacity and Israel contemplates possible military action to prevent Iran from building a nuclear weapon.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following::
- How does the presence of the Iranian nuclear program affect regional stability? What steps are necessary to prevent military action against Iran by Israel?
- What actions can be taken by the international community to verify the nature of Iran's nuclear program? Should the Non-Proliferation Treaty be modified to prevent other nations from emulating Iran?
- How will further sanctions affect your nation's economy? Will further sanctions be effective?

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S/RES/1835 (2008)
S/RES/1803 (2008)
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GOV/2006/14 (2006)

## Additional Web Resources

www.iaea.org/newscenter/focus/iaeairan/index.shtml - IAEA & Iran
isisnucleariran.org/ - ISIS: Nuclear Iran

## Other Open Issues

Any world issue involving international peace and security will be fair game for discussion in the Security Council. Representatives should have broad knowledge of the world events. Topics to consider include any current UN Peacekeeping missions (eg. MINUSTAH, UNIFIL, UNMOGIP), volatile situations (eg. Non-Proliferation in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, the Palestinian Question), terrorist attacks, or humanitarian crises from natural disaster or disease.

## A NOTE ABOUT HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCILS

AMUN's HSCs are unique not only in their topics, but also in their treatment of those topics. History and time are the HSC's media and those media are flexible. In the simulation, the HSC will preempt history from the time the Council's simulation is assigned to begin. History will be as it was written until the moment the Council convenes. From that moment forward, however, Council members exercise free will based on the range of all the choices within their national character and upon the capabilities of their governments.

Effective role-playing for an HSC Member State will be not just a routine replay of national decisions as they evolved in that year. Indeed, the problems of the era may not transpire as they once did, and this will force active evaluations - and reevaluations - of national policies. Beyond this, it cannot be said that the policy course a government took in that year was necessarily the wisest. While rote replays must be, by definition, in character, it is not a sure thing that - given a second opportunity to look at events - any given national government would do things exactly the same way twice in a row. History is replete with the musings of foreign ministers and heads of state pining for "second chances."

It will be the job of Council Representatives to actively involve their country's national policies and national capabilities in solutions to the problems and issues which may not have had adequate contemporary resolutions. There is almost always more than one alternative choice in any situation.

In particular, the international community has often chosen not to actively involve itself in many regional disputes or political crises where it might have shown greater involvement. The UN itself has often been a bystander to regional or international conflict. Representatives will need to decide what changes, if any, could have been made to the Security Council's posture on the various issues. One major factor in whether to be actively involved or to be a bystander which Representatives must consider, is the costs of involvement by the United Nations. The increase in costs often causes the Security Council to reprioritize their efforts.

While national governments often did not want international "meddling" in what they felt to be national policies or disputes, this in no way lessens the responsibility of Council members to make the effort and find ways to actively involve themselves in crisis solutions. This task must, however, be accomplished without violating the bounds of the Member States' national characters.

Representatives should approach these issues based on events through the final days of the previous year and should do their research accordingly. In studying their role playing assignments, it is strongly recommended that research be done on these topics using timely materials. The world has changed dramatically over the years, but none of these changes will be evident within the chambers of the HSC. While histories of the subject will be fine for a general overview, Representatives should peruse periodicals from 3-5 years prior to the year in question to most accurately reflect the world view at that time. Magazines featuring an overview of that year may give a particularly good feel for the international mood in which the simulation is set. Periodicals contemporary to the period, which can be easily referenced in a Readers Guide to Periodical Literature or the New York Times Index, should provide a much better "historical perspective" and "feel for the times" than later historical texts, which can be useful for general information.

The HSC simulation will follow a flexible time line based on events as they occurred, and modified by the Representatives' policy decisions in the Council. The Secretariat will be responsible for tracking the simulation and keeping it as realistic as possible. In maintaining realism, Representatives must remember that they are roleplaying the individual assigned as their nation's Representative to the UN. They may have access to the up-to-the-minute policy decisions of their countries, or they may be relatively "in the dark" on their countries' moment-to-moment actions in the world.

In this area, the AMUN Simulation Staff will frequently consult with HSC members. Representatives are welcome and encouraged, as their nation's spokesperson, to make whatever declarative statements they like. Declarative statements would include any comments or actions (including real or implied threats or deals) that an individual at the UN could normally make. Representatives must, however, always consult with the Simulation Staff before making ANY operational statements. Operational statements would include announcements of the movements or actions of military forces, as well as any other actions which would have an effect outside of the UN. In these cases, the Simulation Staff would be equated with the "home office" of the involved nation(s).

## OTHER INVOLVED COUNTRIES

Often other countries will be involved in the deliberations of the HSC. Delegations representing these countries will be notified in advance by the Secretariat, and should have one or more Representatives prepared to come before the HSC at any time. Because these countries will not be involved in all issues, it is highly recommended that the Representative(s) responsible for the HSC also be assigned to another Committee, preferably with a second Representative who can cover that Committee while they are away. A floating Permanent Representative would also be ideal for this assignment. All delegations will be asked to identify their Representative(s) to the HSC at registration, and to indicate where they can be reached if/when needed.

# THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1948

## MEMBERS OF THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1948

ARGENTINA

BELGIUM

CANADA

CHINA

COLOMBIA

FRANCE

SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC

UKRAINIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

UNITED KINGDOM

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

## HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1948

The 2012 American Model United Nations Historical Security Council (HSC) of 1948 will simulate the events of the world beginning on 1 January 1948. Historically, the key international security concerns at this time revolve around the situations in the Middle East and Asia as the end of World War II put a strain on the ability of colonial powers to administer their territories. The conflict in the Middle East is of significant concern, especially with the increased violence between the Arab and Jewish populations in Palestine after the General Assembly passed the Partition Resolution in November 1947. The up-tick in aggression between Pakistan and India over the area of Jammu and Kashmir has also seen increased attention at the United Nations.

From time-to-time, other countries will be involved in the deliberations of the HSC. Some of the delegations which may be called before the HSC-1948: Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Greece, India and Pakistan.

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Council on 1 January 1948. The prominent events of 1947 are discussed, as well as some questions which will face the Security Council at the turn of the year. This research is intended merely as a focal point for Representative's continued exploration of the topics. Any issue on the world scene in 1948 will be fair game for discussion in the Historical Security Council. Representatives should have broad historical knowledge of the world situation as it stood through 31 December 1947.

## THE SITUATION IN PALESTINE

At the end of the First World War, Great Britain became the Mandated Power under the League of Nations in 1922. The Jewish people in Palestine expected the British to follow the path of the Balfour Declaration of 1917, which called for a national home for the Jewish People in Palestine. The Arab nations believed the British had betrayed them and Jewish-Arab violence broke out in Palestine, becoming most intense during the Arab Revolt of 1936-1939. This led to the Peel Commission report in 1937, which recommended partition of Palestine into a Jewish state, an Arab state and a third section, including Jerusalem and Bethlehem, to be retained by the British. However, World War II intervened before the partition could be implemented.

Violence in Palestine slowed with the onset of World War II. The British released a Whitehall Paper in 1939 that curtailed Jewish immigration and promised Palestine's inhabitants statehood and independence within ten years. After the war and with the formation of the United Nations, the Arab and Jewish people began arguing their cause to the British. The British formed the Anglo-American Committee to get the United States to help with the situation.

However, after differing views of the situation and pressure from the Jewish lobbies, the United States left the discussions, which led the British to announce their decision to turn the Palestine issue over to the United Nations on 18 February 1947.

On 28 April 1947, the British asked the UN to convene a Special Session of the General Assembly to discuss the Palestine issue. The General Assembly passed Resolution 106 (S-1) on 15 May 1947, forming the United Nations Special Commission on Palestine (UNSCOP). UNSCOP went to Palestine to assess the situation and delivered their report to the General Assembly on 3 September 1947. The report determined that Palestine should be partitioned into a Jewish state and an Arab state with an economic union between them. UNSCOP also reported that an international trusteeship be formed to administer Jerusalem and Bethlehem, which were not to be part of either state. On 26 September 1947, the British announced their determination to withdraw from Palestine, regardless of any UN resolution, and declared that all troops would be out of Palestine by 1 August 1948.

The General Assembly passed Resolution 181 on 29 November 1947, adopting the Partition Plan as put forth by UNSCOP. The Jewish community accepted the resolution, but the Arab nations rejected it. The Arab countries called for a three day labor strike to start on 2 December. Violence increased and the Arab population began inciting mobs and riots, leading to Jewish retaliation. Throughout December 1947, the Security Council discussed the issue, hearing from both Jews and Arabs as violence increased. With the renewed violence, the British Cabinet decided on 4 December 1947 that they would end the mandate on 15 May 1948, almost three months earlier than the 1 August 1948 agreed up withdrawal date outlined in the Partition Plan.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What actions can be taken to ensure the successful implementation of the Partition Plan?
- What can the United Nations do to help ensure lasting peace in Palestine?
- What was the impact, if any, of the British pulling out before the implementation of the Partition Plan?

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## The Situation in Kashmir

After World War I, the British government introduced the Government of India Act, which provided Princely States with a major regional role while the British were responsible for central administration. These Princely States were allies of the British Crown and helped temper any nationalist tendencies. However, nationalism increased in the colony, and the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League were formed as voices for the people and for future independence in the interim between the two world wars. With the conclusion of the Second World War, the United Kingdom was in a financial state of distress. Burgeoning debt and a need to rebuild their home economy led to the decision to decolonize the Indian subcontinent, but keep India in the Commonwealth.

In August 1946, Muslims launched the Direct Action campaign after failing to secure half of the seats in the new interim government, triggering riots across northern India. On 13 February 1947, the British cabinet announced its decision to leave India by June 1948. It was also decided that power was to be transferred to two separate states: India and Pakistan. On 14/15 August 1947, the British turned over control to Pakistan and India. As part of the partition, each state would be granted the freedom to decide if they would remain part of the Commonwealth. Additionally, each Princely State would be given the choice of whether to accede to India or Pakistan, unless they had large enough numbers to be separated completely.

In the Princely State of Punjab, the British tried to help demarcate lines in an attempt to settle a boundary between the two emergent states. After the demarcation was announced, thousands of Hindus and Muslims began migrating toward their respective sides. This mass migration caused rioting, massacres and sustained fighting, killing hundreds of thousands. Thousands escaped to Jammu and Kashmir. Because of this, the Maharajah of Kashmir delayed joining either nation. On 17 September 1947, Pakistan stated its intention to take the issue of violence in the region to the United Nations General Assembly, which did not happen.

During the delay, many tribal Muslims in the area began to fear that the Maharajah would accede to India. This led to tribal incursions from neighboring areas, resulting in riots in the streets. To keep control, the Maharajah asked India for help. The Indian government agreed, on the condition that the Maharajah sign the Instrument of Accession, which would make Kashmir part of India. Desperate to help stem the riots and massacres in Kashmir, the Maharajah signed the Instrument on 26 October 1947. On 29 October 1947, Pakistan rejected the accession of Kashmir to India believing it to have been inflicted on the people of Kashmir by force. With violence increasing, India deployed troops to secure the area, but insisted that Pakistan had sent in troops first. The Pakistani Defense Minister denied these charges on 12 November.

On 2 November 1947, India announced that it would turn the Kashmir issue over to the United Nations for a Kashmiri referendum once law and order were restored. Pakistan retorted that the maintenance of law and order would allow India to kill or drive out more Muslims and guarantee that Kashmir would join India as a result of the referendum. Fighting continued through November and into December as Pakistani military men on leave began to join the fighting in Kashmir. On 8 December 1947, India and Pakistan met to determine a way to resolve the Kashmir dispute; the meeting ended when the two sides could not agree. Pakistan wanted the entire issue, including the stemming of the violence and the referendum, turned over to the United Nations, but India would only turn it over for a referendum after the violence had been stemmed. By 20 December 1947, India was organizing to send in troops to remove the raiders from their bases.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Does the British government have any remaining responsibility in maintaining peace in the region?
- Did the Maharajah of Kashmir have the authority to enter into the Instrument of Accession, and if so, what impact does this have on Pakistan's claims to the region?
- What options are available to the Security Council to diffuse tensions in the region?

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## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.kmsnews.org/content/1947 – Kashmir Media Service

www.mtholyoke.edu/acad/intrel/sasia.htm – Documents Related to Jammu and Kashmir

## THE SITUATION IN GREECE

Since gaining independence in 1923, Greece was a politically divided state where multiple factions vied for control. In February 1944, various Greek political parties and resistance groups signed the Plaka Agreement, which called for guerilla armies to cease fighting. The Italian and German occupation of Greece ended in October 1944 leaving a power vacuum and, despite the agreement, clashes between the groups began again in December 1944.

In March 1946, the fighting, which had been sporadic, increased. Yugoslavia and Albania supported some of the communist groups, which had camps inside of Yugoslavia. By early 1947, a communist army, known as the Democratic Army, had gained control of over 100 villages, and was engaged in battles against the Royalist government in the mountains of northern Greece. By the end of 1947, communists controlled the majority of the Greek countryside and approximately twenty-five percent of Greece. Meanwhile, as British financial support declined due to economic strains and rising tensions in India, the United States announced support the Greek Royalist government against communist influence, providing military advisors and economic aid. The Soviet Union supported the Greek communists politically, but gave little direct support to the communist campaigns.

On 19 December 1946, the Security Council passed resolution 15 sending a Commission of Investigation, consisting of representatives from members of the Security Council, to investigate alleged border violations between Greece on one side and Albania, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia on the other. On 15 September 1947, the Security Council passed resolution 34 which took the Greek question off of the Security Council's agenda and requested that the General Assembly address the issue.

On 21 October 1947, the General Assembly passed resolution 109 calling on Albania, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia on one side and Greece on the other to establish diplomatic relationships to reach a peaceful settlement of border disputes. It also established the United Nations Special Committee on the Balkans with the purpose to observe compliance and assist in implementation of recommendations. The Special Committee consisted of the eleven members of the Security Council and Poland. The Special Committee investigated allegations that Greek guerrillas received military supplies from the Yugoslav side and crossed into Greece while the Greek Army conducted military operations on 21 April 1947.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What actions can the Security Council take that will increase the stability of the region?
- How can the Security Council act upon the reports of the United Nations Special Committee on the Balkans?

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## THE SITUATION IN BERLIN

After the end of World War II, the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union signed the Potsdam Agreement regarding the fate of postwar Europe, which divided defeated Germany into four temporary occupation zones that would function as one economic unit. These zones were located roughly around the current locations of their armies, and split Germany among the Eastern and Western blocs. Berlin was to be divided into four sectors: French, British, American and Soviet. Located 100 miles into the Soviet Sector, Berlin became the seat of the Allied Control Council ("ACC"), which would govern Germany until the conclusion of a peace settlement. The ACC consisted of a commander for each sector, who exercised supreme control in their respective sectors, but matters concerning Germany as a whole could only be decided by agreement of all four members.

The denazification of Germany was an early agenda item that all four members agreed upon. The ACC also agreed to severely restrict civilian industries that could have military potential, dramatically curbing all industries. In January 1946, the ACC capped German steel production to approximately 25% of pre-war production. However, by 1947, the United States began to pull back from the idea of such dramatic demilitarization, recognizing that resuming operation of Germany's industry was necessary for the growth of the European economy, and for establishing strength against pressure from the Soviet Union.

Berlin quickly became the focal point of both US and Soviet efforts to re-align Europe to their respective visions. The Soviets expected to gain control over Berlin and establish a Communist domain by controlling the access of the Allies to the city. The Soviets also began a massive industrial dismantling campaign that was larger than that in the Allied sectors. Virtually all German industrial and natural resources were diverted to the USSR as war reparations. The French envisioned a prostrate German state, intent that Germany would never have the strength to threaten France again. Although not a party to the Potsdam Agreement, as a member of the ACC, the French emphatically supported industrial disarmament. The French plan included gaining economic and political control over the Rhineland, Ruhr and Saar areas and their large coal and mineral deposits, leaving Germany an agrarian economy. Like the US, the UK believed that a strong Germany was needed so that both their economy and that of Europe could prosper and that democracy could flourish.

The ACC meeting in the spring of 1947 concluded with little progress on the major economic and political issues because the Council could not function without the agreement of all four members. In November 1947, the ACC reconvened in London and struggled again to reach an agreement on the structure of the German state that their treaty would create.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What role should the Security Council take in reorganizing post-war Germany?
- What is your country's perspective regarding the political reorganization of Germany?
- What will happen if an agreement establishing a unified Germany cannot be reached?

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## THE SITUATION IN INDONESIA

Japanese forces invaded the Dutch East Indies in December 1941, coveting the economic resources of the islands. On 7 September 1944, the Japanese Prime Minister told the Japanese Parliament that progress would be made toward Indonesian independence. Continuing to be occupied by war, it was not until May 1945 that the Japanese authorized a constitutional congress to discuss statutes for future independence. With the Japanese surrender in August 1945, the Dutch planned to take over colonial possession of Indonesia once again. But, on 17 August 1945, a proclamation of Indonesian independence was announced by Indonesian nationalists.

In September 1945, British forces came to Indonesia to disarm and repatriate the surrendering Japanese forces and to liberate and protect Allied prisoners of war. The British had no intention of being caught in the internal political struggle on Indonesian independence. Yet, when Dutch troops did return to Indonesia, they were very provocative toward the local population, causing the British to step in to negotiate peace. The Linggadjati Agreement was initialed on 15 November 1946, recognizing de facto authority of Indonesia over some islands and calling on both parties to cooperate in the formation of the Republic of Indonesia. With the agreement signed, the last British forces left Indonesia on 30 November 1946. On 25 March 1947, the Linggadjati Agreement was signed by both sides.

During the next few months, negotiations were conducted on implementing the Linggadjati Agreement. However, when Indonesia refused some of the Dutch demands, the Dutch believed that military action was necessary. On 21 July 1947, the Dutch launched a 'police action,' causing Indonesian forces to retreat. On 30 July 1947, Australia and India brought the issue before the United Nations Security Council. On 1 August 1947, Resolution 27 passed, calling on both sides to cease hostilities and to settle their disputes by arbitration. Resolution 30, passed on 25 August 1947, congratulated the work that had been done on implementing a cease-fire and called for a Commission of Observers to report on the progress. Resolution 31 allowed Indonesia to select one representative, the Netherlands one representative, with the final representative to be selected by the other two. Indonesia chose Australia, the Netherlands chose Belgium, and the United States was chosen as the third representative forming the Committee of Good Offices.

These resolutions did little to curb the violence in the East Indies and on 26 August 1947, the Security Council passed Resolution 32, reminding the Governments of Indonesia and the Netherlands of Resolution 27 calling upon them to follow the recommendations of the Security Council. The Council passed Resolution 35 on 3 October 1947, calling on the Secretary-General to convene the Committee of Good Offices and have them finish their work quickly. The Committee reported back to the Council that the cease fire was being violated and neither side was working to implement it. The Council adopted Resolution 36, requesting that the Committee of Good Offices assist the Netherlands and Indonesia in reaching an agreement to ensure the observance of Resolution 27 and for both parties to desist in using armed force to extend control over territories not occupied by it on 4 August 1947.

On 8 December 1947, the Netherlands and Indonesia began negotiations on the US ship Renville. The Dutch talked of creating a Republic of the United States of Indonesia (RUSI) with or without Indonesia while Indonesia worried about continued police actions and economic turmoil. On 25 December 1947, the US issued a compromise proposal which called for the Netherlands to move back to the areas they controlled prior to the July 1947 police action and Indonesia would resume control of the civilian administrations. Indonesia agreed with all of the proposals, but the Netherlands has yet to respond.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:

- What options are available to the Security Council if the Netherlands do not agree to US compromise proposal?
- What options are available to the Security Council to control the violence in the East Indies?
- Where the claims of violations of the Linggajati Agreement legitimate?

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## THE SITUATION IN ASIA

At the end of World War II, the former Japanese colony of Korea was occupied by military forces from the United States and the Soviet Union, divided along the 38th parallel. Despite the initial plan of a unified Korea, efforts to create an independent Korean nation-state foundered, and the United States turned to the United Nations for assistance. In 1947, the UN General Assembly passed Resolution 112 (II), which created the United Nations Temporary Commission on Korea (UNTCOK), whose mandate was to supervise free and open elections, assist in the withdrawal of the occupying forces and guide the new political entity to full independence. However, political factions competed for dominance and, internally, Korea grew into a hotbed of unrest. The People's Army of North Korea began to mobilize in 1947 at the same time the US indicated its intentions to withdraw. The differing internal Korean parties, as well as the presence of other nations, caused increasing instability and volatility.

At the end of World War II, the Chinese Nationalist Party (KMT) and the Communist Party of China (CCP) each sought control over all of China and began fighting one another. At the first post-World War II peace negotiations in 1945, the KMT and the CCP both stressed a peaceful reconstruction. However, the conference did not produce a tangible result. Battles between the two sides continued until a truce was reached in January 1946, which temporarily stopped large campaigns and full scale conflicts. The truce fell apart when full scale war between the CCP and KMT broke out on 26 June 1946. Heavy fighting continued into March 1947.

In October 1945, 35,000 French soldiers arrived in Indochina to restore French rule after the Japanese surrender. The Viet Minh immediately began a guerilla campaign in opposition to the restoration of French rule. The Vietnamese people and the Viet Minh sought independence; negotiations between France and the Viet Minh went on for almost a year. The talks produced no compromise and the guerilla attacks continued. The French had an overwhelming superiority in weapons, which they demonstrated by the bombardment of Haiphong Harbor in November 1946. The Viet Minh quickly agreed to a ceasefire, but with no intention of surrendering. In 1947, the Viet Minh command moved to the city of Tan Trao. The French sent military expeditions to attack; the Viet Minh would not meet the French forces head-on in battle, preferring guerilla warfare. The battles continued with the French controlling most of the cities and the Viet Minh controlling most of the rural and remote areas.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective:

- What is the Security Council's role in the decolonization of Asia?
- What is your country's position regarding the formation of new governments of independent nations in Asia?
- How can the United Nations bring stability to the region?

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## OTHER OPEN ISSUES

Any issue on the world scene in 1948 will be fair game for discussion in the Historical Security Council. Representatives should have broad historical knowledge of the world situation as it stood through 31 December 1947.

# THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1990

## MEMBERS OF THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1990

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| CANADA | DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO | ROMANIA |
| CHINA | ETHIOPIA | RUSSIAN FEDERATION |
| COLOMBIA | FINLAND | UNITED KINGDOM |
| COTE D'IVOIRE | FRANCE | UNITED STATES OF AMERICA |
| CUBA | MALAYSIA | YEMEN |

## HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1990

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Council on 26 February 1990. The prominent events of late 1989 are discussed, as well as some questions which may face the Security Council in early 1990. This research is intended merely as a focal point for Representatives' continued exploration of the topics.

Some of the delegations which may be called before the HSC during the 1990 time frame include: Iraq, Iran, Israel, Syria, Lebanon, Palestine, Kuwait, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Angola, Namibia (SWAPO), Mozambique, Kampuchea, Vietnam, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Panama.

## THE SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

1989 was a transitional year for the Middle East. The Iran-Iraq war had just ended and the Palestinian Intifada against Israel was growing stronger. Superpower intervention in the region was becoming one-sided as the United States continued to protect Israeli interests while the Soviet Union shifted focus to its internal problems. The Security Council watched the entire Middle East very closely, but three conflicts came to the foreground: Israel-Palestinian relations, Lebanon, and Iran-Iraq.

## THE SITUATION WITH THE ARAB/ISRAELI CONFLICT

After two years of the Palestinian Intifada, a violent Palestinian uprising against the Israeli occupation directed at Israeli soldiers and citizens, over 700 people were dead and thousands had been injured on both sides. Despite what appeared to be a softening in Prime Minister Shamir's position in negotiations on the Occupied Territories, the new Israeli coalition government, between the Likud and Labor parties, seemed to be moving away from negotiations.

In July 1989, Likud's Central Committee forced Shamir to agree to a list of promises in his efforts to end the hostilities. These included promises that he would not: negotiate with the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO); surrender any of the Occupied Territories; or agree to a Palestinian state. Terrorism and violence in the region picked up as a result of this stiffening in the Israeli position. In November, the US offered a plan for peace talks which was accepted by both Egypt and Israel. The PLO accepted the plan contingent upon their direct representation at the talks. Israel rejected this condition and the stalemate has continued.

## THE SITUATION IN LEBANON

As the Lebanese Civil War continues to unfold, sectarian violence in Lebanon has been worsening over the past five years, including recent clashes between Lebanese Armed Forces and the Lebanese Front. Since the war erupted in 1975, Lebanon's economy has been devastated, cities have been reduced to rubble, the population has suffered massive casualties and internal Lebanese factions have clashed violently for power. General Michel Aoun, president of a Christian-led government, asserted that his was the only legitimate government in Lebanon and that the Syrians, who maintained a military occupation of Lebanon and supported a rival administration, must be removed from Lebanese soil.

The fighting that had plagued Lebanon for so long returned to the battered country in April 1989 as Syria rebuffed General Aoun's attempt to prove the legitimacy of his government. In September 1989, the Arab League got both parties to agree to a ceasefire so that the surviving members of the 1972 Lebanese Parliament could work on a new constitutional government. Their proposal, called the Taif Agreement, was rejected by many of the actors, including General Aoun, who felt that the security arrangements were ambiguous and needed a timetable for withdrawal of Syria's 40,000 soldiers from Lebanon. Since General Aoun retained the loyalty of the Army, he was able to thwart the factions that were supportive of the government suggested by the Taif Agreement.

By the end of 1989, a stalemate existed between General Aoun and President Hrawi, who had been installed as a result of the Taif Agreement. On 19 February 1990 violence erupted again as United Nations Interim Forces in Lebanon came under fire, resulting in the death of two Nepalese peace keepers with six more wounded.

## THE SITUATION IN IRAN AND IRAQ

The Iran-Iraq war ended in 1988 when Security Council Resolution 598 was finally accepted by Iran and the ceasefire it called for was initiated. However, the tension and instability in the region continued. Ayatollah Khomeini died in June; in July Hashemi Rafsanjani succeeded him as President, unsettling the political situation in Iran. Iran and Iraq each accused the other of violating the ceasefire in numerous ways, including Iraq's flooding of an area of land occupied by a large majority of Shiites in Southern Iran. The peace talks continued but there was little success as both sides continued to politically spar with each other. This was demonstrated again in mid-December as Iraq announced the successful completion of tests on new missile technology.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:

- What role can the Security Council play in the Israeli/Palestinian peace process? How can Israel be encouraged to comply with the relevant UN resolutions dealing with the Occupied Territories? What can the UN do to discourage further violence in the area while the peace process continues?
- What actions can the Council take to assist a peaceful settlement of the internal and external disputes involving Lebanon? How can the cease-fire be bolstered and moved into a peace process?
- What role can the UN play in assuring that hostilities do not resume between Iran and Iraq? How can the UN move the peace process forward?

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## The Situation in South Africa

1990 opened with continuing hope for political change in South Africa. Newly appointed President de Klerk has promised further changes in apartheid laws, including abolishing the ban on anti-Apartheid political groups. De Klerk showed further good will toward peaceful negotiations and released political activist Nelson Mandela from prison. Doubt does remain, however, about how successful de Klerk can be. Though he has promised to continue with some important reforms, his statements about the overall political solution to apartheid have been less encouraging, as they back up and perpetuate inequality in voting and governance.

UN efforts against Apartheid remain strong. Sanctions have dropped South Africa's economic power to that of one of the lowest in the world. In a special session in December 1989, the General Assembly passed the "Declaration on Apartheid and Its Destructive Consequences in Southern Africa" as a new guide to dealing with Apartheid and the newly cooperative South African government. In addition, the Security Council continued to pressure South Africa on its role within South-Western Africa, in particular Namibia, calling for South Africa to disengage itself in the region. Although de Klerk announced an official end to South Africa's "Front-Line" policy, a political tactic aimed at destabilizing South Africa's neighbors in an effort to protect Apartheid policies, the effects of the policy are still far-reaching and continue to threaten progress in the region.

## The Situation in Namibia

In 1989 Namibia proceeded toward holding elections and finalizing its independence. The UN deployed the United Nations Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG) to Namibia in April, 1989 to aid in the registration of voters, oversee the upcoming election and monitor the ceasefire between the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) and South African backed forces. Despite fighting in the late spring and summer of 1989, the election preparation proceeded as planned. Between 7 and 11 November, 96% of registered voters did vote; SWAPO won the majority of seats in the new Assembly. The South African supported Democratic Turnhalle Alliance (DTA) finishing with the second largest percentage of seats. On 9 February, 1990, the Constituent Assembly adopted a constitution, but the potential for violence still remains. South Africa's role in the process is still uncertain. Cooperation from the new de Klerk government would help to ease tensions and bring peace.

## The Situation in Angola

On 22 December 1988, South Africa, the People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA), the government of Angola and Cuba signed the Angola Namibia Accords at the UN in New York. These Accords were to be a framework for Cuban and South African troop withdrawal from the conflict and for an end to the civil war between the MPLA and the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA). UNITA was not party to the Accords, and fighting eventually ended the ceasefire. Despite diplomatic efforts from all sides, the war continued throughout the second half of 1989. A step toward another ceasefire came late in 1989, when South Africa honored its end of the agreement and withdrew troops from Namibia, effectively ending one front in the war. Hostilities persist between UNITA, MPLA and Cuban forces, and the potential for future violence continues to throw a shadow over the peace process. The United Nations is continuing its work through the United Nations Angola Verification Mission (UNAVEM), which has been tasked with overseeing the withdrawal of Cuban forces from the area, as well as continuing to facilitate peace among the parties.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What can be done to encourage the democratic process and bring an end to the Apartheid policies of South Africa?
- What can the Security Council do to assist in the stabilization of Namibia as it moves toward independence?
- With the apparent end of South Africa's destabilization policies and the continuing withdrawal of Cuban troops, what can be done to encourage the peace process in Angola?

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## THE SITUATION IN INDOCHINA

The Cambodian situation is complicated due to the number of parties involved and their basic disputes over the future of the country. There are four main parties: the People's Republic of Kampuchea (PRK), which in April 1989 changed its name to the State of Cambodia (although this change has not yet been recognized by the UN); the Khmer Rouge, who are currently the representatives in the Kampuchean UN seat; the National United Front for an Independent, Neutral, Peaceful and Cooperative Cambodia (FUNCINPEC), led by Prince Sinanouk; and the Khmer People's National Liberation Front (KPNLF) led by former Prime Minister Son Sann. The latter three groups joined to form the Coalition Government of Democratic Kampuchea (CGDK). The PRK is supported by Viet Nam and the USSR. The CGDK is supported by the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), China and the US, among others.

The key points of discussion include: the withdrawal of Viet Namese forces; a ceasefire; the beginnings of a blueprint for the territorial integrity of Cambodia; the repatriation of refugees; and, most importantly, the beginnings of discussions on government building in post-war Cambodia. Discussions began in 1989 among the Permanent Members and various parties to the dispute on the formation of a United Nations Transitional Authority on Cambodia (UNTAC), the purpose of which would be to assist the people of Kampuchea/Cambodia in a transition to a peaceful, democratic form of government. Strong disagreements on all sides, however, led to slow progress toward agreement. In September, Viet Nam completed its withdrawal of troops, but following increased CGDK military activity, more than 2,000 Viet Namese troops were reintegrated into Cambodia in late 1989. Military activities continue from both sides. The situation in early 1990 is more hopeful than in the past, due mainly to the new willingness of all sides to come to the negotiation table. The year could see increased political action toward a lasting solution to the crisis.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How can the Security Council best facilitate the political process and allow all parties a voice in future negotiations?
- How can the Council further encourage all parties to attend? Is the situation in Cambodia at such a point that UNTAC can be finalized and given an official mandate?
- What actions can the Council take to assist in a cessation of hostilities in Cambodia? How can a complete withdrawal of all foreign troops be best accomplished?

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## THE SITUATION IN CENTRAL AMERICA

The situation in Central America has been promising over the past few years. The Guatemala City agreements, made between Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua in August 1987 have helped Central America move toward reform and peace. The process was abetted in January 1988 and again in February 1989, with two Joint Declarations made by the Presidents of these nations to continue to push forward and expand the peace and reform process. 1989 was a pivotal year for the region and international action. A key breakthrough in the US and Soviet positions on El Salvador and Nicaragua came in March when the US made good on promises to halt military aid to paramilitary groups and converted $45 million in aid to the Contras into strictly humanitarian aid. Following this, in July, the Security Council voted to halt all outside military aid to the paramilitary groups in the region, and to pledge the support of the UN to the ongoing peace process.

## THE SITUATION IN NICARAGUA

The United Nations has held a very active role in Nicaragua over the past year. In early 1989, Nicaragua officially requested that the Secretary-General provide UN Observers for the elections (A/44/375). This was the first time that the UN would serve in this capacity in a sovereign country. The election observer force, ONUVEN (United Nations Observer Mission for the Verification of the Elections in Nicaragua), began its pre-election duties in August 1989, with additional participation from the Organization of American States (OAS). The months leading to the election were not without drama. Criticisms mounted over the behavior of both the Contras and the US in the lead up to the elections. There were reports of Contras threatening violence, as well as accusa-

tions that the U.S. was using overt political pressure on the Nicaraguan people. In November the Security Council approved a resolution sponsored by the United States for an additional observer group, ONUCA (United Nations Observer Group in Central America), to assist in the peace process. International verification was seen as the key to the peace process, and this observer force had a multi-part mission, including: ensuring the non-use of territory to support destabilization; confirming free and fair elections; and facilitating the voluntary demobilization, repatriation, and/or relocation of irregular forces. The elections were held on 25 February 1990, and were won by the candidate of the United Nicaraguan Opposition, Violeta Barrios de Chamorro, with 54.77% of the vote. Initial accounts are that the election met ONUVEN's standards.

## THE SITUATION IN EL SALVADOR

While El Salvador also participated in and benefited from the peace discussions which occurred in 1989, hope for peace was short-lived. Violence escalated with increased activity by left wing Farabundo Martí National Liberation Front (FMLN) toward the end of 1989. In November, a growing number of murders were reported, perpetrated both by the left wing and by the government. On 11 November, the FMLN launched a major attack in San Salvador, inflicting many casualties. In response, the government declared a state of siege, and began a counter-offensive with numerous air attacks on rebel-held areas. Currently, the political situation continues in this heightened state of military anxiety. The Secretary-General announced in January that he would act as an intermediary in the Salvadoran peace talks.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What help can the UN and the Council give to the situation?
- How can the UN best exert influence on both Nicaragua and El Salvador to continue their efforts toward a more stable, democratic environment?
- What further efforts can the UN make to limit cross-border insurgency by para-military units in the region?
- How will the Council deal with its member's own actions in the region?

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## Introduction

The General Assembly is the main deliberative policy-making body of the United Nations (UN) and is empowered to address all international issues covered by the Charter. In many ways, it acts as the central hub of the United Nations. Many UN bodies report to the General Assembly, but not all of these bodies are subsidiary to the GA. For example, the Security Council constantly updates the General Assembly on its work, but it is an independent body; its work does not require the General Assembly's independent approval. In contrast, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) is a subsidiary body of the General Assembly and is governed by General Assembly mandates. Other subsidiary bodies, such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), also have direct reporting relationships with the General Assembly.

The UN Charter assigns each of the main Committees of the General Assembly specific tasks and topics to discuss during each session. Because every Member State has a seat in every Committee, it is important to note that the points of discussion do not overlap; that is, even if two or more Committees are discussing a general topic area, each Committee is responsible for discussing a very specific point or aspect of that topic. For example, the Fourth Committee may discuss the Israeli-Palestine conflict with regard to its political components. However, issues concerning the legal, social, or economic components of the Israeli-Palestine conflict are left to other Committees, the General Assembly Plenary, or the Security Council. Therefore, Representatives in each Committee should take care not to expand the discussion of any topic beyond the limitations set by their Committee's mandate and into another Committee's area of discussion. This is known as the Committee's purview.

A note concerning funding: The Fifth Committee makes financing decisions concerning only the UN's regular, annual budget, not those decisions dealing with voluntary contributions or new outlays. Even though AMUN will not be simulating the Fifth Committee, other Committees generally do not act unless sufficient funds are available for their proposals, thus financial questions should still be considered during the other Committees' deliberations. Therefore, if a Committee creates a new program or initiative, that Committee should specify how the program can or will be funded, and if the program falls within the UN's regular annual budget, that resolution should defer to the Fifth Committee to establish funding.

The purpose of the Combined Plenary session on the final day is to ratify the resolutions which passed in the four Main GA Committees and build consensus. While a small amount of additional debate is typical, it is expected that the work done by each Committee over the first three days of the Conference will be respected. It would thus be rare for significant changes to be made, or for a resolution to fail in the Plenary session after passing in Committee.

The following are brief descriptions of each Committee simulated at AMUN, along with the Committee's agenda, a brief purview of each committee, a brief background and research guide for each agenda topic, and the Committee's website address. Representatives should use this information as the first step in their research on the powers and limitations of their particular Committee in relation to the agenda topics.

## Purview of the Concurrent General Assembly Plenary

The General Assembly Plenary typically considers issues that several Committees would have the power to discuss, but which would best be addressed in a comprehensive manner. Likewise, the General Assembly Plenary is also responsible for coordinating work between the many different bodies of the United Nations. For example, the 60th General Assembly recently established a Peacebuilding Commission that oversees the United Nations' peacebuilding processes and coordinate the work of the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Secretary-General, and Member States emerging from conflict situations. Note that if the Security Council, which is given the primary task of ensuring peace and security by the Charter, is discussing a particular issue, the General Assembly Plenary will cease its own deliberations and defer to the Security Council.

**Website:** http://www.un.org/ga/

## International Cooperation on Humanitarian Assistance in the Field of Natural Disasters, from Relief to Development

While most governments have emergency planning to deal with disasters when they strike, governments often require outside assistance to fully meet the needs of their people during larger disasters, like the 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami, the 2010 Haiti Earthquake or the 2011-12 Drought in the Horn of Africa. In the wake of a major disaster, the United Nations offers coordinated international responses and provides on–the-ground assistance. The United Nations also helps countries prepare for disasters and prepare to mitigate their worst effects. Despite its successes, the UN humanitarian relief system is occasionally slow and ineffective, and additional steps are needed to improve its ability to deliver rapid and effective relief.

In 1971, the General Assembly created the Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Coordinator (UNDRO) in Geneva, which was tasked with coordinating United Nations responses to natural disasters. Over time, a greater number of aid agencies, non-governmental Organizations (NGOs), and international organizations became involved in relief efforts in the wake of natural disasters. In 1991, the General Assembly reformed the United Nations disaster relief system in order to increase coordination among a wide range of international actors. The UNDRO was merged into the United Nations Secretariat's Department of Humanitarian Affairs (DHA) and created the Central Emergency Revolving Fund to disburse funding to international organizations engaged in disaster response.

Member States were also working to improve national efforts to prevent the worst effects of natural disasters. At the 1994 World Conference on Natural Disaster Reduction, the United Nations approved the Yokohama Strategy for a Safer World, a series of guidelines for the prevention of, preparedness for, and mitigation of natural disasters. The Yokohama Strategy also offered recommendations for improving the United Nations' response to disasters in the face of an increasingly complex set of response and fundraising mechanisms. In response, the humanitarian offices were restructured in 1998, consolidating all humanitarian coordination into the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), which currently directs the United Nations system's humanitarian efforts. The office coordinates inter-agency responses to complex emergencies, including needs assessments, consolidated appeals, field coordination arrangements and the development of system-wide humanitarian policies. In 2005, the Yokohama Strategy was updated and superseded by the Hyogo Framework for Action, which increased the focus on prevention and pushed for a greater emphasis on including medium-term recovery and long-term development as part of disaster response.

Currently, OCHA coordinates over $7 billion in emergency relief funding. It is also responsible for administering an increasingly complex disaster response system. One of the most prominent recent innovations is the cluster system. First implemented during the 2009 United Nations Integrated Mission in Timor-Leste, the cluster system creates teams of international organizations and NGOs that are responsible for a specific area of disaster response, such as health, logistics, and camp coordination and management. Each of the 11 clusters is responsible for planning for both immediate humanitarian relief and long-term recovery. Each cluster is headed by the relevant United Nations agency or NGO partner. The system is intended to improve the delivery of related resources by increasing coordination among the involved parties.

Despite this series of structural revisions, humanitarian response to natural disasters remains a complex issue. The response to the 2010 Haiti earthquake was widely criticized as ineffective, and United Nations officials admit that their systems were overwhelmed by it, their largest disaster relief operation to date. The international response to this high-profile crisis was rapid and massive, but severely damaged transit infrastructure and Haitian government institutions that were all but destroyed during the Earthquake both hindered response efforts. Some critics have also argued that the international community's handled the crisis poorly, blaming poor performance on lack of coordination under the cluster system. To critics, the cluster system only increased the bureaucratic layering while disconnecting providers from local and state partners and populations, degrading into a system of sub-clusters that made identifying responsible parties all too difficult. Despite the criticisms, the system successfully oversaw the delivery of emergency aid to millions of Haitians and continues to provide stability and assistance to hundreds of thousands two years later.

Currently, the General Assembly is moving forward on two key areas: improving the UN system's efforts to move countries from relief to recovery, and encouraging Member States to adopt disaster risk reduction measures. As the United Nations has improved its early response to disasters, focus is now turning to how to pivot immediate response into long-term recovery and development. Disaster risk reduction, also known in the UN system under the framework of Strategic Disaster Reduction, includes a number of steps from better city planning and building codes to the development of tsunami warning systems.

Looking forward, the General Assembly will need to consider additional steps to coordinate the wide range of State and non-State actors that now perform direct humanitarian assistance in the wake of disasters. Better coordination mechanisms are needed with organizations that will perform long-term recovery operations. Like many other elements of the United Nation's mission, disaster response requires close coordination not only between United Nations entities and national governments, but also with subnational governments, search and rescue teams from around the globe and NGOs like the International Committee of the Red Cross and Doctors Without Borders. The ability of the United Nations and its staff to coordinate and cooperate with these diverse partners in harsh circumstances means the difference between life or death, recovery or ruin. As the world becomes increasingly urban, disaster risk reduction measures will also become more and more important in mitigating the impact of natural disasters. With the cost and frequency of major disasters both increasing, the General Assembly should consider what steps the international community can take to further disaster risk reduction.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What lessons can be learned from the UN experience in Haiti, and how can the UN's coordination system be improved?
- What role should governmental and private organizations play in disaster relief and recovery?
- How effective is the cluster system, and how can it be improved?
- How can the UN encourage States to improve their preparedness for disasters?

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Hyogo Framework for Action

## Additional Web Resources

www.unocha.org – UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
www.un.org/en/humanitarian/ – United Nations Humanitarian Affairs
www.humanitarianresponse.info – Humanitarian Response Portal

## Strengthening Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Responses to Violence Against Women

Despite strides made in other aspects of gender equality, one out of every three women worldwide will be beaten or sexually abused in her lifetime. Since its creation, the United Nations and its individual Member States have worked to promote equal standing between men and women and to prevent violence against and abuse of women. Historically, this has been viewed as a human rights issue: the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights both state the importance of equal rights for men and women.

The United Nations has worked to reduce crime against women by focusing on finding regional and international methods of violence reduction and prevention. While there is little that the United Nations can do on a case-by-case basis, international organizations have worked to target factors that have been identified as potential root causes, with varying degrees of success. Among these underlying issues are the exclusion of women from the political process and policy formation of a State, poverty, low levels of education, attitudes concerning violence against women in a society and weak legal sanctions for physical and sexual violence.

The international community has worked to address these issues through regional and international cooperative efforts, as well as through actions by individual Member States. In practice, violence against women has been addressed through three lenses in the United Nations system: gender equality, human rights, and violence prevention. Historically, the General Assembly's role is to coordinate these responses and ensure that the entire system is working together to achieve its shared goals.

In 1993, the United Nations declared its intent to seriously address violence against women during the World Conference on Human Rights. The Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action states that "the United Nations system and Member States should work towards the elimination of violence against women in public and private life." In 1995, the United Nations adopted the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, a seminal document that was designed to promote gender empowerment and equality by the year 2000. The Declaration focused on empowering women in the political realm, ensuring healthcare and reproductive rights, and enabling women to pursue education without the fear of discrimination or violence against them.

In 2000, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime to address the trafficking of persons, particularly women. The Protocol entered into force in 2003. Human trafficking continues to be a major cause of violence against women; the legal instrument compels signatories to take measures to end human trafficking and related crimes. More recently, the United Nations has started to focus on how to best protect rural and migrant women. Migrant women are frequently abused and trafficked, and the combination of lax law enforcement and extreme poverty combine to make rural women vulnerable to abuse. The United Nations system has been working to organize regional and international programs to assist rural women, but the results have been mixed.

Currently, the United Nations is focused on encouraging technical steps by Member States that reduce the rising number of women that are victimized per year. In 2010, the General Assembly adopted the revised Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Women. The revised Model Strategies offer Member States a series of measures to take that can help reduce violence against women. Looking forward, the General Assembly will need to determine how to best encourage States to implement the Model Strategies. The United Nations could promote the use of an internationally-endorsed database on violent crimes and registered perpetrators. Of particular concern are ensuring that measures in the Model Strategies effectively protect the rights of migrant women, regardless of their immigration status. Migrant women face significant risks of sexual violence, exploitation, and human trafficking, These women may have a difficult time pursuing legal remedies due to the cross jurisdictional nature of these crimes.

The General Assembly is also responsible for guiding the work of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), which offers technical support for States implementing the Model Strategy and conducts other follow-up activities. The General Assembly should assess whether the work of the UNODC has been effective and what additional measures the Office might take to improve its work on the topic. The UNODC and the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice have offered technical guidance to Member States to create mechanisms for offering psychological care for women after physical violence.

Finally, the General Assembly will need to consider what progress they expect to achieve on this topic before the UN convenes its next major conference on women, currently slated for 2015.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:

- What policies does your country have to prevent crimes against women, and how might these policies assist other countries?
- What actions need to be taken by the United Nations to continue to build upon past work? What are new areas of concern that require attention on national and regional levels?
- How can the United Nations system improve Member State responses to violence targeting migrant women?
- Does the United Nations have the right or responsibility to condemn acts of perceived violence against women even when they are acts of cultural tradition or are socially acceptable norms?

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The Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action
United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime
Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

## Additional Web Resources

www.unwomen.org – UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
www.unodc.org – UN Office on Drugs and Crime

# The General Assembly First Committee
# Disarmament and International Security

## Purview of the General Assembly First Committee

The General Assembly First Committee addresses the disarmment of conventional weapons, weapons of mass destruction and related international security questions. The First Committee makes recommendations on the regulations of these weapons as they relate to international peace and security. The First Committee does not address legal issues surrounding weapons possession or control complex peace and security issues addressed by the Security Council. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 21.

**Website:** http://www.un.org/ga/first/index.shtml

## Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction

The Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction (BWC) was drafted in 1972 in an effort to exclude biological agents from modern warfare. Since that time, 165 Member States have ratified the Convention. The Convention calls for the prohibition of any microbial or biological agent that has no justifiable use for the purposes of peace, protection or preventive measures.

Since the Convention's entry into force, the United Nations has held seven reviews of the Convention, most recently in December 2011. These reviews attempt to create and strengthen Confidence Building Measures (CBMs), update the Convention to reflect technological progression and reaffirm the responsibility of parties to adhere to the Convention's articles. CBMs are voluntary exchanges of information covering issues related to controlling biological weapons, such as information on biological defense research facilities, vaccine production facilities and outbreaks of infectious diseases caused by toxins. In the years between reviews, the Intersessional Process brings experts together to debate provisions and implications of the Convention and recent scientific developments that help establish the context and content of the next review session.

During the December 2011 review of the Convention, several areas of debate were raised. States remained focused on improving confidence in the BWC, supporting national implementation and promoting its universal ratification. Outside experts hoped the review would address the improvement of biosafety for health workers and the question of scientific responsibility or the need for scientists to understand the possible ramifications of their research and their responsibility to mitigate these risks. Scientific responsibility became a highly contested subject following a request by the U.S. National Science Advisory Board for Biosecurity to the journal Science to withhold the publication of details contained in two papers on the modification of the H5N1 influence virus. The Advisory Board contented that the paper might provide a publicly available template for the creation of a bioweapon that would require minimal training and equipment to produce. In February 2012, the World Health Organization convened a group of technical experts, who concluded that the papers should be published in full. On 30 March, 2012, the Advisory Board reversed its decision, and the first of the two papers was published in June 2012.

Despite the broad commitment to the Convention, there is not a process to verify compliance. While States Parties to the Convention are obligated to report their implementation of the Convention, this is a voluntary report with no method of independent verification. The lack of compliance verification in the Convention has been a subject of great debate as no binding language has been added to the Convention. Currently the only means of verification is the investigation of compliance established by the General Assembly in resolution 44/561, and even this method is often after the fact and difficult to enforce.

Another issue that remains a problem within the Convention is the underutilization of Article X. Article X calls for the fullest possible exchange of information and equipment in the use of biological agents and toxins for peaceful uses. This Article aims to improve transparency in bio-weapons-related activities. Technology in this field has the distinction of being almost entirely dual-use, and States are wary to transfer technology without a concrete method of compliance verification.

The General Assembly also continues to wrestle with how to properly balance strong voluntary verification measures with the goal of universal ratification. A strong verification system may improve the security of biological weapons in States, but fail to identify the development and use of biological weapons by States that have not ratified the Convention. The Secretary-General continues his efforts to offer technical assistance to States in their efforts to come into compliance with the BWC.

The Eighth Review Conference will be held in Geneva in 2016 with the Intersessional Process lasting through at least 2012 and 2013. Discussion will focus on operations of the Convention itself, as well as taking into account new scientific technology, progress made by Member States and review the progress of decisions made by the Seventh Review Convention in 2011. Looking forward, the General Assembly will need to review the outcomes of the Seventh Review Conference and determine what measures it can take to support broader participation in CBMs and ratification of the Convention.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- Should the United Nations have a role in reviewing the biosecurity aspects of newly developed scientific knowledge? If so, what role should it play, and how might such a review be implemented?
- Would a verification process improve efforts to reduce and eliminate biological weapons?
- How can the international community balance the goals of universal ratification of the Convention and the strengthening of voluntary Confidence Building Measures?

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BWC/CONF.VII/7
BWC/MSP/2005/MX/INF.5
BWC/AD_HOC_GROUP/55-1
BWC/SPCONF/1
DC/2567 – Press Release

## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.armscontrol.org - Arms Control Association
www.un.org/disarmament – UN Department for Disarmament Affairs
www.opbw.org - The Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention Website
www.un.org/disarmament/WMD/Bio/ – The Biological Weapons Convention, UN Office of Disarmament Affairs
www.who.int/influenza/human_animal_interface/avian_influenza/h5n1_research/en/index.html – H5N1 Research Issues, World Health Organization
www.nas-sites.org/biosecurity/ – Biosecurity at the National Academies

## PREVENTING THE ACQUISITION BY TERRORISTS OF RADIOACTIVE SOURCES

Nuclear security has long been a priority of the international community. From its inception in 1957, the United Nations' International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) has been vested with the responsibility of helping States to safeguard nuclear materials and protect them from military use. With the entry into force of the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) in 1970, States with nuclear weapons also agreed to not transfer any nuclear weapons or assist any State with the manufacturing or acquisition of such a weapon. The IAEA was designated as the enforcing and monitoring agency for these provisions.

In 1980, the United Nations approved the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Materials. The Convention obligates States Parties to adhere to international standards for the security of nuclear materials and facilities, particularly during transportation. It also offers a legal framework for inter-State cooperation on the protection and recovery of stolen nuclear materials, and requires States Parties to make certain offenses punishable by law. In 2005, States Parties to the Convention approved an Amendment that would expand inter-State cooperation and add additional obligations concerning safe storage of nuclear materials intended for peaceful use.

Following the breakup of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in 1991, the international community grew increasingly concerned that nuclear weapons and radioactive materials might fall into the hands of non-State actors bent on using them for acts of terrorism. Of particular concern was chance of materials being stolen during the transfer of nuclear materials from the USSR to its successor States and the possibility that terrorists could purchase or acquire nuclear materials on the black market. These fears were only confirmed when Chechen separatists attempted to use illegally acquired nuclear materials to create dirty bombs in 1995 and 1998.

Recognizing the grave threat posed by nuclear terrorism, the United Nations has increasingly focused its attention on preventing terrorists from acquiring nuclear materials. In 1998, the United Nations General Assembly began negotiations on a draft International Convention for the Suppression of Nuclear Terrorism. The Convention imposes a legally-binding obligation on States Parties to criminalize nuclear

terrorism, create both territorial and extraterritorial jurisdiction for these offenses, improve coordination on combating nuclear terrorism, and create mechanisms for extradition of alleged terrorists. The final Convention entered into force in 2005 and has since been ratified by 79 countries.

The IAEA has been the primary agency responsible for preventing nuclear proliferation, and in recent years it has focused on improving the transparency and cooperation by Member States. In response to the growing concern, the IAEA launched the Illicit Trafficking Database in 1995 to identify the trafficking of radioactive materials, as well as determine vulnerabilities in security systems. IAEA has reported 399 incidents of illegal possession, movement or attempts to trade in or use illegally acquired nuclear materials since it began tracking incidents in 1993.

The Security Council has also consistently reaffirmed the international community's commitment to prevent proliferation of radioactive sources and nuclear weapons. Beginning in 2004 with Security Council Resolution 1540, the Council has emphasized security in storage and transport, strengthening law enforcement measures, and developing effective national controls. Resolution 1540 also calls on Member States to not support any non-State actors attempting to acquire such weapons, to strengthen laws to prosecute those non-State actors, to strengthen border controls and to refuse to finance non-State actors who seek to obtain radioactive materials for use as weapons. In 2006, the Council added additional Member State obligations to prevent the financing of nuclear proliferation activities. These mandates have been extended twice, in 2008 and 2011.

Member States have also participated in two Nuclear Security Summits, in 2010 and 2012. These two summits reinforced the international community's commitment to take significant steps in ratifying relevant treaties and conventions, gain commitments for funding the IAEA and undertake domestic measures to secure radioactive materials and monitor illicit activity.

Despite this ambitious program of work, there is a great deal yet to be done to prevent terrorists from acquiring radioactive materials. While the Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism has entered into force, only 79 States have ratified the Convention. As more governments develop civilian nuclear programs, securing materials will be increasingly important. The United Nations is currently working to implement its Nuclear Security Plan for 2010-2013. This plan includes a major focus on strengthening national and regional institutions to prevent terrorism and to secure radioactive materials. The plan also emphasizes security during the transfer of radioactive materials and the development of transparent processes for the import and export of radioactive materials.

Looking forward, the General Assembly will need to determine the best ways to urge Member States to better secure nuclear material and improve compliance with the Security Council's resolutions and the relevant international treaties. Despite the concern over a potential act of nuclear terrorism, many States have not yet taken action on the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism. The General Assembly will need to determine how to best encourage States to ratify the treaty. Additionally, the General Assembly should consider steps to increase the ratifications of the 2005

Amendment to the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material. While the Amendment has been opened to ratification, it has not yet secured enough ratifications to enter into force. Finally, Member States might consider how best to assist the IAEA's efforts to help States secure their nuclear materials. One possible area for growth is an improvement of the technical training and education options available on the security of radioactive materials and increasing access to these resources.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What are the risks to secure storage of radioactive materials, and how can the UN system work to improve security?
- What measures are in place in your country to ensure the security of the transfer of radioactive materials and sources?
- What can be done to prevent the financing of non-State actors that would enable use of radioactive materials in a terrorist act?

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GC(53)/RES/10
GOV/2009/54-GC(53)/18 – IAEA Nuclear Security Plan 2010-2013
S/RES/1540
S/RES/1673
S/RES/1977
Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons
International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism
Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material
2005 Amendment to the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material
Code of Conduct on the Safety and Security of Radioactive Sources

## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.iaea.org - International Atomic Energy Agency
www.un.org/sc/1540 - UN Security Council 1540 Committee

# THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY SECOND COMMITTEE
# ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

## PURVIEW OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY SECOND COMMITTEE

The Second Committee makes recommendations on means to improve the economic development of Member States and maintain the stability of the international financial and trade network. The economic issues considered by the Second Committee are distinguished from those considered by the Fifth Committee in that this Committee deals solely with financing the economic assistance to Member States, whereas the Fifth Committee address the budgetary issues within the UN System. The Second Committee does not address social issues that affect development; such issues are considered by the Third Committee. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 21.

**Website:** http://www.un.org/ga/second/index.shtml

## GROUPS OF COUNTRIES IN SPECIAL SITUATIONS: SPECIFIC ACTIONS RELATED TO THE PARTICULAR NEEDS AND PROBLEMS OF LANDLOCKED DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: OUTCOME OF THE INTERNATIONAL MINISTERIAL CONFERENCE OF LANDLOCKED AND TRANSIT DEVELOPING COUNTRIES AND DONOR COUNTRIES AND INTERNATIONAL FINANCIAL AND DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTIONS ON TRANSIT TRANSPORT COOPERATION

By the early 2000s, trade liberalization removed many of the traditional barriers to trade: high tariffs, import quotas, and other regulatory restrictions. Yet other barriers to international trade and development remain, most notably the inability of landlocked developing countries (LLDCs) to freely access sea-based trade routes and the correspondingly high transit costs LLDCs incur when moving their exports across the borders of other countries to get them to the global marketplace.

LLDCs are among the least developed countries (LDCs); as a group, they face lower growth rates than other developing countries and are often at the mercy of the politics and infrastructure of transit countries. All of these factors make LLDCs vulnerable to external shocks and prevent them from fully harnessing the benefits of an open world market. Additionally, countries through which the goods from LLDCs are transported (transit countries) are often also developing and face their own challenges. These challenges include developing transport and communications infrastructures capable of handling the movement of goods and services from their own markets and those of their landlocked neighbors.

In 2001, the United Nations established the Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and the Small Island Developing States (OHRLLS) to support LLDCs with these challenges and to assist them to meet the Millennium Development Goals. OHRLLS is designed to aid the Secretary-General with coordinating development efforts for these countries and to monitor and follow-up on the effectiveness of such efforts.

In 2003, the United Nations held the International Ministerial Conference of Landlocked and Transit Developing Countries and Donor Countries and International Financial and Development Institutions on Transit Transport Cooperation in Almaty, Kazakhstan. The Almaty Declaration and Programme of Action was adopted at the end of the conference; the Declaration created a new global framework for developing efficient transit transport systems in both landlocked and transit transport systems. The priorities in the Almaty Declaration include: developing effective national and regional transportation policies, improving infrastructure development and maintenance, reducing the costs of international trade and trade harmonization, and improving international development cooperation.

Since the Almaty Declaration was developed in 2003, LLDCs and transit developing countries in Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America have had some success in strengthening their policy and governance reform efforts. Additionally, donor countries, financial and development institutions, and international and regional organizations have been more focused on establishing efficient transit systems. Also, there has been a greater emphasis placed on the role of the private sector in meeting the goals established under the Almaty Declaration.

Furthermore, some 20 United Nations systems and international organizations have adopted decisions to harmonize their strategic plans with the efforts of the Programme of Action. Organizations such as the United NationConference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the World Trade Organization (WTO) regularly assess their efforts to assist the success of the Almaty Declaration. In addition, there has been a greater emphasis placed on the role of the private sector in meeting the goals established in the Almaty Declaration.

In 2008, the General Assembly held a midterm review meeting of the Almaty Declaration and Programme of Action. Although there has been some success on improving regulatory policies and trade harmonization, much remains to be done with respect to infrastructure building, as well as other development initiatives such as debt relief, greater investment, and pro-poor strategies for poverty eradication. The review concluded that there are several areas for action, including encouraging LLDCs to join the WTO and reduce legal obstacles to international trade, as well as pushing development partners to offer greater financial assistance and debt relief. It also asks the international community to reduce non-traditional barriers to trade, improve cross-border coordination with transit countries, and create new public-private partnerships.

In the future, it will be important to address several major issues. First and foremost is the limited funding for infrastructure investments and other changes needed to support the Almaty Declaration. Particularly following the global financial crisis, both aid budgets and access to capital have been limited, making it increasingly difficult for LLDCs to make the necessary investments to gain access to international markets. While some promising innovative financing mechanisms exist, demand for such mechanisms is far greater than the current supply. Additionally, many of these mechanisms are focused solely on infrastructure and do not address the other goals of the Almaty Declaration. Finally, the Second Committee will need to consider how

it can best achieve the areas for action identified during the 2008 mid-term review.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How successful has the Almaty Declaration been in mobilizing the international community to meet the needs of LLDCs and transit countries?
- What type of incentives would encourage donors and the private sector to increase investment in transportation and communication infrastructure for LLDCs and transit countries?
- What ideas or new policies do you think would be effective in increasing trade and transit in LLDCs?

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Almaty Programme of Action: Addressing the Special Needs of Land-locked Developing Countries within a New Global Framework for Transit Transport Cooperation for Landlocked and Transit Developing Countries
Brussels Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) for the Decade 2001-2010
Declaration of African Ministers Responsible for Transport and Infra-structure
Istanbul Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2020

## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.unohrlls.org – UN Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States
www.wto.org – World Trade Organization
www.ifc.org – International Financial Corporation
www.unctad.org – UN Conference on Trade and Development

## AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT AND FOOD SECURITY

One of the most basic human needs is access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food. Yet this basic need frequently goes unmet. The ability of individuals and communities to meet this need is frequently referred to as food security. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) defines food security with four facets: food availability, food access, food use and stability. Food availability refers to sufficient quantities of quality food; food access is the ability to purchase or obtain food. The fourth facet, stability, is the ability to maintain the first three facets over time, particularly through spikes in food prices, droughts, and other sudden events.

Since early 2008, rising global food prices have posed a major threat to global food security. In addition to food prices roughly doubling in nominal terms over the last decade, prices have been incredibly unstable. Price spikes have driven prices up to 250 percent of the 2002-04 baseline measurements several times. These prices have created a global food crisis. Numerous factors have contributed to the crisis, including a steadily increasing global population, decline in agricultural development and investments, environmental degradation and climate-related events such as droughts and floods.

Residents of developing countries have been the most affected by the rise in food prices. The global economic downturn has also increased hardship for the world's most vulnerable groups, particularly women and children in developing countries. Before the food crisis began, there was an estimated 854 million undernourished people worldwide. Today, challenging conditions have increased the number of undernourished people to almost one billion. Rising, volatile food prices directly undermine countries' efforts to achieve the poverty reduction and hunger elimination goals set out in Millennium Development Goal One.

In response, the United Nations created the High-Level Task Force on the Global Food Security Crisis (HLTF) in 2008 to develop a unified strategy for addressing challenges to food security, particularly rapidly rising food prices. The Task Force is officially chaired by the UN Secretary-General and brings together heads of specialized UN agencies and other multilateral organizations, including the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD).

In June 2008, the HLTF created the Comprehensive Framework for Action (CFA) to respond to the immediate food crisis and improve long-term food security mechanisms to prevent a new crisis. The CFA also calls upon governments, international and regional organizations,

and civil society groups to implement recommendations that can assist communities and countries with improving food security. To address the immediate crisis, the CFA identifies four key objectives: improving emergency food assistance; increasing availability of food from smallholders and supporting agricultural development; adjusting trade and tax policies; and managing macroeconomic expectations. The CFA also identified four objectives for addressing long-term structural barriers to food security: expanding social protection systems; increasing availability of food from smallholders and supporting agricultural development; protecting and managing ecosystems; and improving international food markets. In 2010, the HLTF updated the CFA with lessons learned from the first two years of implementation.

Notably, agricultural development and assistance to smallholder farmers is a key strategy for both short-term and long-term food security. Globally, over two billion people live and work on small farms. These farmers are critical to the success of the global food system: improving their agricultural techniques can dramatically increase crop yields, reduce environmental damage and help to stabilize global food prices. The FAO is the primary UN agency responsible for assisting in this mission. The FAO offers technical expertise and training to both States and sub-national governments, primarily aimed at improving agricultural policies and crop yields. It also helps to publish and disseminate the latest information on effective food and agriculture policies. In recent years, the FAO has been increasingly focused on identifying the potential ramifications of global climate change on agriculture.

In 2011, the UN General Assembly adopted several resolutions related to agriculture and food security. Through these resolutions, the General Assembly urged the strengthening of international efforts to develop sustainable agricultural technologies and promoted their transfer to developing countries under fair terms. The General Assembly has also urged Member States to remove restrictions on food exports. The General Assembly also supports the FAO's efforts to promote, support and facilitate the exchange of experiences among Member States on ways to augment sustainable agriculture and management practices. Previously, the UN has also stressed the need for additional training and assistance for smallholders and women farmers.

While the FAO has examined the ramifications of climate change on agricultural producers, it is the role of the General Assembly to analyze the work of the FAO and determine what measures need to be taken to alleviate negative impacts of climate change on agriculture and food security. Many strategies – ranging from increased investment in new research to the development of alternative crops – have been suggested, but the debate continues on the most effective measures for addressing the implications of climate change. As food prices have risen, States have also debated the impacts of increasing production of biofuels on global food prices. Some experts argue that the use of staple foods in the creation of biofuels is driving food prices even higher. The issue is contentious; pitting food security against sustainable energy development, and it is unclear how the General Assembly will balance the two.

Another issue before the Assembly is how to best empower women and girls who participate in agricultural production. Rural women and girls are one quarter of the world's population, and many of these women are directly engaged in agriculture. The United Nations estimates that female farmers represent only five percent of agricul-

ture extension service recipients globally. At the same time, they are frequently not offered the same opportunities for education and exposure to new farming techniques, lowering their crop yields and diminishing their economic opportunities. While the UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) and the FAO have continued to call for the empowerment of rural women, there is much room for improving the lives of women. The United Nations estimates suggest that closing the gender gap in agricultural development could help alleviate hunger for more than 150 million people, almost entirely in developing countries.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How are States and other stakeholders implementing the CFA, and are these steps improving food security?
- What steps should the FAO and UN system take to offer better opportunities to women and girls in agriculture?
- How will climate change affect agricultural development, and what role does the international community have in mitigating its effects?
- How is the increasing production of biofuels affecting the cost of staple foods, and how should the international community balance food security with the need for sustainable energy?

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## Additional Web Resources

www.fao.org/giews/pricetool2/ – National basic food prices, Food and Agriculture Organization,

www.who.int/nutrition/topics/emergencies_collaboration/en/index.html – Health Impacts of the Global Food Security Crisis, World Health Organization

www.srfood.org – UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food

www.un.org/millenniumgoals – Millennium Development Goals

www.reliefweb.int – Relief Web

www.un.org/en/issues/food/taskforce/background.shtml – Global Food Security Crisis, United Nations

# The General Assembly Third Committee
## Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural

## Purview of the General Assembly Third Committee

While the Committee's areas of concern and its work often overlaps with other United Nations organs, the Third Committee focuses its discussions on social, humanitarian and cultural concerns that arise in the General Assembly. The Third Committee discusses issues with, recognizes reports of, and submits recommendations to the General Assembly in coordination with other United Nations organs, such as the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 21.

**Website:** http://www.un.org/ga/third/index.shtml

## United Nations Literacy Decade: Education for All

Literacy is an essential tool for social and human development. It has been linked to higher levels of economic growth, improved social cohesion, and better knowledge of effective health practices. Yet for 793 million adults around the world, the ability to read and write remains elusive. Women, who comprise over 64% of the world's illiterate adult population, are particularly hard hit.

The United Nations has long worked to end illiteracy. Since its first meeting in 1946, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has made literacy a core part of its work. In its first decades, UNESCO helped to advocate for effective national policies on literacy and increased investment in addressing illiteracy. Early efforts were focused on mobilizing mass campaigns to promote literacy, though these efforts were largely ineffective at actually improving literacy rates. As individual countries and the United Nations system gained a deeper understanding of literacy and its impact on education and workforce participation, UNESCO refocused its efforts on including literacy in formal education systems rather than mass movements. Through the 1970s and 1980s, new research suggested a positive association between literacy rates and economic development. As the ties between high literacy rates and economic development became more apparent, more countries and international organizations, like the World Bank, began to invest in literacy efforts under the aegis of human development. As this evidence base has grown, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and other United Nations agencies have also taken an interest in literacy and joined UNESCO's efforts.

With an increasing international focus on the importance of literacy, the United Nations system works in several ways to further the goal of universal literacy. Today, the United Nations continues to serve as a key advocate for literacy, making a case about its importance to governments around the world. In 2003, the General Assembly proclaimed 2003-2013 the United Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD) with the aim of increasing literacy levels and empowering people through literacy. UNLD aimed to raise public awareness and to make literacy a political priority around the world. It also aimed to focus the international community's efforts on ending illiteracy around the world. Since 2003, the General Assembly's resolutions on literacy have worked on monitoring activities under the UNLD.

The United Nations has also increasingly served as a platform for setting international development goals in literacy and education. Under Millennium Development Goal Two, States agree that by 2015, all children will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. Under the Education for All (EFA) Goals, States have agreed to reduce literacy rates by 50 percent by 2015.

UNESCO continues to lead the United Nations system's technical work on literacy, serving as an advocate, a source of expert knowledge on effective policies, and a monitor of progress on literacy around the world. The UNESCO Institute of Statistics also publishes the Education for All Global Monitoring Report (GMR), an annual report on the status of literacy and education around the world. The GMR includes statistical information that assists governments in tracking progress, as well as analysis on the current challenges in education. Other agencies, like UNICEF, manage and fund programs aimed directly at improving literacy rates.

Recently, UNESCO has also announced a World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education. This publication helps to illustrate the extent to which gender disparities in education have changed since 1970 and offers some brief analysis on the state of education for women and girls. Future actions of the Atlas of Gender Equality will, if successful, be able to help put together a comprehensive set of data which would be crucial for monitoring and evaluating progress in gender parity in education.

Despite these concerted efforts, illiteracy continues to be a major challenge and will likely persist unless new strategies are developed. While there has been some progress in reducing illiteracy, many countries are not expected to meet their commitments to increase access to education and decrease illiteracy by 2015. Two areas present a particular challenge for the international community: the rural poor in South and East Asia – who comprise the bulk of the world's illiterate persons – and the residents of countries affected by armed conflict. Women represent a disproportionate number of the illiterate in both groups. These two groups present different challenges, and concerted efforts to reach both groups must be made if the world is to achieve universal literacy. The General Assembly must also consider the United Nations system's role in promoting literacy after the end of the UNLD in 2012 and what the next actions of the international community should be.

In addressing all of these challenges, Member States will need to consider why past approaches have failed, how to reach marginalized groups and, critically, how to fund programs at a time when national education budgets and international development assistance are both stretched thin.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- With the United Nations Literacy Decade ending this year, what actions should the United Nations take to promote literacy beyond 2012?
- What strategies can the United Nations use to bring literacy training to those affected by armed conflict and other emergencies?

• How can the United Nations help to address the gender gap in literacy?

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E/2011/L.28 (2011 ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration on "Implementing the internationally agreed goals and commitments in regard to education")
177 EX/8
186 EX/5
186 EX/Decision 5

## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES
www.unesco.org/en/literacy – UNESCO: Literacy
www.proliteracy.org – Proliteracy

www.uis.unesco.org/literacy – UNESCO Institute for Statistics Literacy Data

## GLOBAL EFFORTS FOR THE TOTAL ELIMINATION OF RACISM, RACIAL DISCRIMINATION, XENOPHOBIA AND RELATED INTOLERANCE AND THE COMPREHENSIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF AND FOLLOW-UP TO THE DURBAN DECLARATION AND PROGRAMME OF ACTION

Since its creation, the United Nations has considered the elimination of racism and intolerance a core part of its mission to promote human rights and support personal dignity. Despite persistent efforts by the United Nations and its Member States, hate crimes, genocide, and xenophobia continue to be a problem today. The United Nations first discussed racism and racial intolerance in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide in 1948.

In 1963-65, the United Nations adopted two documents aimed specifically at addressing the issue of racial discrimination: the 1963 Declaration on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination and its legally binding successor, the 1965 International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination. Under the Convention, Member States are obligated to guarantee equal rights for all people, regardless of race, as well as take steps to punish public and private entities that promote racial intolerance. The Convention also created the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, which monitors how States implement the Convention and receives national reports on efforts to combat racism. The United Nations General Assembly designated three decades from 1973 to 2003 to take action against all forms of racism and intolerance and support all those struggling to find equality.

In 2001, the United Nations convened the World Conference against Racism in Durban, South Africa. The conference was a response to growing concerns within the international community that racism, racial discrimination, and xenophobia were on the rise and that international action would be needed to address them. The agenda was focused on concrete national and international actions that could end racism, though it was also asked to review the history and context of modern racism. Nonetheless, the conference created the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action, which represented a plan of action for addressing racism in the 21st century.

Since 2001, most of the United Nations' work on racial intolerance has focused on improving monitoring steps taken to implement the Convention and on follow-up activities to the Durban Declaration. Multiple United Nations agencies and bodies have continued their work to combat racism. In 2009 and 2011, the General Assembly held meetings to review progress on implementing the Durban Declaration. The Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action continues to monitor implementation by the United Nations, Member States and other stakeholders. The Human Rights Council regularly debates the issue and has created a Special Rapporteur on contemporary forms of racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance, who reports on incidents of racism around the globe and on Member

State initiatives to combat racism. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) manages the International Coalition of Cities against Racism, which is renewing its Ten Point Action Plan to reflect the updates from the 2011 Durban High-level Meeting.

Moving forward, the United Nations faces difficulties in implementing the Durban Declaration and the Programme of Action. Some countries still lack the legal framework for appropriately addressing discrimination and intolerance. Others lack mechanisms to enforce laws that already exist. In addition, some Member States lack the will to enforce discrimination laws, particularly regarding historically disadvantaged minorities. Human rights organizations have also alleged that non-democratic governments have used bans on hate speech as a tool for censorship. A small group of countries continues to oppose the Durban Declaration due to concerns about freedom of expression. As an alternative, the United States has proposed an Action Plan with measures that states can take to address intolerance. This plan, however, has not been accepted by the General Assembly at large.

Furthermore, the increasing prevalence of social media presents a challenge. Increasingly, social media platforms are being used to spread intolerant rhetoric and occasionally incite racially or religiously intolerant violence. It is often unclear what laws apply when hate speech crosses borders via the Internet, or what extra-legal steps countries can take to address the problem.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What mechanisms should Member States put into place to prevent intolerance, and how can the United Nations assist them in doing so?
- What can be done to help Member States that have ratified the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination remain compliant with its provisions?
- How have new media platforms, such as social media, affected the spread of racism? What steps should States take to address racism and racial intolerance on the internet?
- What restrictions on freedom of expression can be justified to prevent racially intolerant speech?

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Universal Declaration of Human Rights
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
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## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.un.org/WCAR/ - World Conference against Racism, Racial Intolerance, Xenophobia and Related Discrimination

www.un.org/durbanreview2009/ - Durban Review Conference

www.un.org/en/ga/durbanmeeting2011/ - 10th Anniversary of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action

www.unesco.org - The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

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# The General Assembly Fourth Committee
# Special Political and Decolonization

## Purview of the General Assembly Fourth Committee

The Fourth Committee is charged with addressing a variety of political and peacekeeping issues. Its political work covers aspects of decolonization, mine action, and Palestinian refugee issues. Its recommendations should address political aspects of an issue and not focus on the economic, social, or development aspects of the topic. For example, while the Fourth Committee may discuss the political problems of the Syrian Golan, it cannot discuss the details of how to promote development in the area, a task better suited for the Second Committee.

The Fourth Committee is also charged with the coordination and operational aspects of UN peacekeeping missions and the oversight of the Department of Peacekeeping Operations. This is an important distinction from the Security Council, which develops peacekeeping missions and objectives. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 21.

**Website:** http://www.un.org/en/ga/fourth/

## The Occupation of the Syrian Golan

Israel took control of the Syrian Golan at the end of the 1967 Six Days War. The conflict caused between 90,000-115,000 former residents, including 17,000 Palestinian refugees, to move to other parts of Syria. After the war a population of approximately 6,000, mostly Druze, remained in villages in the territory under Israeli control. Following a renewed conflict in 1973 between Syria and Israel, the United Nations set up a mission to monitor the cessation of hostilities, the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF), which remains in place. The Israeli government has undertaken efforts to establish population centers of Israeli nationals in the Syrian Golan. In December 1981, Israel's legislature extended Israeli law, jurisdiction and administration to the area. In response the United Nation's Security Council unanimously adopted Resolution 497 which declared the Israeli law "null and void and without international legal effect." In November 2010, the Israeli parliament adopted legislation that mandated either approval by two-thirds of the parliament or public referendum on any Israeli withdrawal from the territory.

The situation in the Middle East, Middle East Peace, and the Question of Palestine are topics that the General Assembly has addressed from nearly the United Nations' inception. The Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the Human Rights of the Palestinian People and Other Arabs of the Occupied Territories (Special Committee) was established in 1968 by the General Assembly. Despite the existence of other forums for discussing alleged violations of human rights, such as the Human Rights Council, the Fourth Committee (Special Political and Decolonization) continues to focus particular attention on the allegations of Israeli abuse of Arab populations in the territories captured during the Six Day War. Sri Lanka, Malaysia and Senegal are the current members of the Special Committee, which reviews Israeli practices affecting the human rights of the population in the Syrian Golan as well as the West Bank, Gaza Strip and East Jerusalem. The Permanent Representatives of the three Member States of the Special Committee make an annual trip to the region to gather information for their annual report. Israel has not facilitated a visit by the Special Committee to the West Bank, East Jerusalem or the Syrian Golan. In 2011, because of the violence on the ground inside Syria, the Special Committee was not able to travel there and instead conducted its inquiry regarding the Golan via phone interviews. The General Assembly annually adopts a resolution which calls on Israel to desist from changing the physical character, demographic composition, institutional structure and legal status of the occupied Syrian Golan, to refrain from imposing Israeli citizenship on the occupants of the territory and their descendants and calls on Member States not to recognize any of the Israeli measures taken in the Syrian Golan. The resolution has broad support with only Israel opposing and a handful of abstentions.

The United Nations has advocated for a comprehensive Middle East peace and undertaken efforts to end the internal violence in Syria. In May and June 2011 protests twice disrupted the calm along the demilitarized zone between Israel and Syria. Syria claimed that between 20 and 24 Syrians were killed by Israeli forces on 5 June 2011. Following these clashes, the Special Committee heard complaints that Israel was planning to construct a wall near the area of the 2011 protests. The Special Committee recommended asking Israel to conduct an investigation into the deaths of Syrian citizens killed during the 2011 incidents and that Israel facilitate visits for families separated by the decades old conflict.

The Syrian Golan area is a key water source, estimated to supply one-third of Israel's water. In phone interviews with witnesses, the Special Committee heard complaints about Israeli policies on water use that favored agricultural production in Israeli settlements and allegations of damage to Syrian farmers from water restrictions. Should a comprehensive Middle East Peace remain elusive, the Special Committee will continue to address issues relating to the human rights of the Arab populations of territories under Israeli control. Past debate on this issue has been divisive. Israel asserts that the Special Committee distorts the truth and does not help advance the peace process. Many Member States view the Committee's work as an opportunity to bring attention to alleged Israeli actions, even if it has not yielded changes on the ground.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How can Member States encourage cooperation on issues related to the Golan's water supply?
- Are there ways to encourage Israel to cooperate with the Special Committee? Should this topic be debated in the Fourth Committee or in the Human Rights Council? Should the international community simultaneously address the human rights situation inside Syria and that of the Arab residents of the Syrian Golan?
- What mechanisms exist for the population of the Syrian Golan to directly express their views and how should the United Nations take those views into consideration in formulating its actions?

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## ASSISTANCE IN MINE ACTION

International organizations estimate that landmines injure or kill 4,000 to 5,000 individuals each year, yet these direct injuries pale in comparison to the immense social, emotional, economic, environmental and political impact of landmines. Despite efforts in recent decades, more than 110 million landmines are estimated to still be active in 78 countries, with especially high numbers in Egypt, Iran, Angola and other nations that experienced significant conflict in the late 20th century. While originally 90 percent of landmine victims were military personnel, in post-conflict areas 80 percent of victims are civilians. Thus, mine action is of the utmost concern for promoting political and social stability across the globe, especially in post-conflict areas.

Despite the staggering cost of landmines, the international community was, until recently, reluctant to react. In 1996, Member States revised Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons (CCW) Protocol II to strengthen its provisions. Protocol II severely restricts the use of mines, booby-traps and other devices, and requires that all devices be equipped with deactivation mechanisms. A year later, States adopted the Anti-Personnel Mine-Ban Treaty (APMBT), also known as the Ottawa Convention. The treaty was developed and implemented through the International Campaign to Ban Landmines (ICBL), an unprecedented coalition of over 90 States, the United Nations and other international organizations, including 1,400 nongovernmental organizations. This treaty called for the complete destruction of all anti-personnel landmines (APMs) around the world. In 2011, the UN Secretary-General reported that 86 States had completely destroyed their stockpiles and an additional ten States had requested extensions to finish the destruction efforts. These countries represent a little over half of the 160 States bound by the Convention. While many States continue to have stockpiles, the number of APMs eliminated under the Convention is significant – totaling 45 million.

In addition to the physical destruction of landmines, 2000-2010 proved to be a busy decade for mine action acknowledgement in international agreements. In 2006, the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons Protocol V on Explosive Remnants of War entered into force, which bound Member States to bear responsibility for the effects of remaining explosives in their territory after the end of a conflict. Currently, 26 nations have ratified Protocol V. In 2007, the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities reaffirmed key pillars of mine action regarding victim assistance.

The United Nations has also developed an extensive network of organizations to carry out mine action activities. Mine action efforts have been guided by the United Nations Inter-Agency Mine Action Strategy for 2006-2010. The document sought to coordinate the actions of the 14 separate United Nations agencies working on mine action activities including the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the World Food Programme (WFP), the World Bank and more. The strategy established four quantifiable goals to reach by 2010: a 50 percent reduction in mine-related injuries and deaths; expand freedom of movement for at least 80 percent of the most seriously affected communities; integrate mine-action national development and budgets in 15 countries; and assist countries to develop institutions to manage the landmine threat in 15 countries. These objectives build upon the United Nations' efforts in mine surveying, marking and clearance, mine risk education, victim assistance, stockpile destruction and advocacy. The 2011 report by the Secretary-General (A/66/292) showed significant progress toward all four objectives. A 2011-2015 Inter-Agency Mine Action Strategy is currently under development, with hopes that a plan can be finalized in 2012.

Aside from international agreements, frameworks and strategies, local mine action activities are in full operation across the world. The 2011 Portfolio of Mine Action Projects catalogues 238 active projects by 71 governments and organizations. Most projects in the portfolio are focused on the identification and removal of landmines and the destruction of stockpiles. These projects have a combined projected need of $438 million, but so far have only secured $131 million. The funding shortfall has impacted mine projects and will continue to do so, despite generous pledges by nations in the past; it is estimated to cost nearly $3,000 to remove a single landmine. In 2005, the General Assembly declared 4 April as the International Day of Awareness and Assistance in Mine Action in 2005. Most activities associated with the International Awareness Day are coordinated by the ICBL and the United Nations Mine Action Team.

With a framework in place and countless organizations active in mine action efforts, progress will continue to be made. The United Nations Inter-Agency Mine Action Strategy for 2011 – 2015 will be published in the near future, updating the strategic objectives and possibly introducing new strategies. With the vast number of organizations involved in mine action, the United Nations may need to evaluate the effectiveness of the current structure and decide if new partnerships or consolidations will promote a more expansive, effective and efficient system. Furthermore, efforts will need to be made to find additional sources of funding for these vital efforts. The international community has made significant progress in mine action over the past 15 years and, with proper review of past actions and strategic thinking for future actions, the United Nations can continue to move closer to a landmine-free world as envisioned in the Ottawa Convention 15 years ago.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:

- How effective is the current United Nations structure for mine action? Should efforts be consolidated or expanded?
- Are there additional actions that can be taken to further integrate mine action strategies and awareness into additional internal frameworks and conventions?
- What can the international community do to promote additional funding for mine action efforts and should financial assistance be focused on particular efforts?
- Are the strategic objectives and five pillars of action presented in the 2006-2010 strategy still relevant today? If not, how should they change?

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Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons Protocol V on Explosive Remnants of War

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www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/issues/mineaction.shtml – Mine Action, UN Department of Peacekeeping

www.icbl.org – International Campaign to Ban Landmines

www.the-monitor.org – Landmine and Cluster Munition Monitor

# 5 CHAPTER FIVE
# THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL (ECOSOC)

## MEMBERS OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ARGENTINA | CHINA | GERMANY | MALAWI | RWANDA |
| AUSTRALIA | COMOROS | GHANA | MEXICO | SENEGAL |
| BAHAMAS | CUBA | INDIA | MONGOLIA | SLOVAKIA |
| BANGLADESH | DOMINICAN REPUBLIC | INDONESIA | NETHERLANDS | SPAIN |
| BELARUS | ECUADOR | IRAQ | NICARAGUA | SWITZERLAND |
| BRAZIL | EGYPT | IRELAND | NIGERIA | TURKEY |
| BULGARIA | EL SALVADOR | ITALY | PAKISTAN | UKRAINE |
| BURKINA FASO | ETHIOPIA | JAPAN | PHILIPPINES | UNITED KINGDOM |
| CAMEROON | FINLAND | LATVIA | QATAR | UNITED STATES OF AMERICA |
| CANADA | FRANCE | LESOTHO | REPUBLIC OF KOREA | ZAMBIA |
| CHILE | GABON | LIBYA | RUSSIAN FEDERATION | |

## PURVIEW OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

The Economic and Social Council is the principal UN organ responsible for coordinating economic, social and related works of 14 specialized agencies, 10 functional commissions and five regional commissions. ECOSOC accepts reports and recommendations from other UN bodies, including the Commission on Population and Development (CPD) and the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP). Along with its coordinating role, ECOSOC gathers information and advises Member States on economic, social, humanitarian and human rights programs. ECOSOC also coordinates and collaborates with autonomous specialized agencies that work closely with the United Nations. These organizations include multilateral financial and trade institutions, such as the World Bank and the World Trade Organization.

**Website:** www.un.org/en/ecosoc/

## RECOVERING FROM THE WORLD FINANCIAL AND ECONOMIC CRISIS: A GLOBAL JOBS PACT

As the 2007 financial crisis evolved into a broader global economic and social crisis, the world experienced a collapse in the labor market. In countries around the world unemployment rates and poverty increased dramatically, with young people disproportionately affected. The International Labour Organization (ILO) warned there could be further consequences, including increased social unrest and failure to meet Millennium Development Goal 1 of eradicating extreme poverty and hunger by 2015. A 2009 Report of the Commission of Experts of the President of the United Nations General Assembly on Reforms of the International Monetary and Financial System argued that a global response was needed for a global crisis. With all Member States interdependent in the era of globalization, the action of one Member State or institution directly affects a multitude of other Member States.

Within the United Nations system, the ILO is responsible for addressing labor and employment issues. Founded in 1919, it is the only tripartite agency within the United Nations. The ILO brings together delegates from 185 Member States representing governments, employers and workers to improve the labor market, promote social justice and develop labor standards. The primary mission of the ILO is to promote labor peace as an essential component of global prosperity. Labor peace is the promotion of social justice and internationally recognized human and labor rights for all; however, this goal has been threatened by the current financial and economic crisis.

In 2008, the ILO unanimously adopted the Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization at the International Labour Conference in Geneva. The Declaration reaffirmed ILO values and objectives in the context of globalization and the financial crisis. Member States pledged to enhance the capacity of the ILO to advance its strategic objectives through the Decent Work Agenda. In addition, the Declaration focused on four main areas: creating jobs, guaranteeing rights at work, extending social protection and promoting social dialogue. Moreover, the Declaration called for support for Member States from the ILO as well as the development of new partnerships with non-State entities and other economic actors.

The ILO held the Summit on the Global Jobs Crisis in 2009. As a result of the Summit, the Global Jobs Pact was unanimously adopted. Similar to the Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, the Global Jobs Pact was created as a set of policies available for Member States to modify based on their own needs and priorities. The policies within the Pact are job-centered, addressing the social impact of the financial crisis and aiming to ease the impact of the crisis on governments and workers and also accelerate job recovery. Using the Decent Work Agenda as a framework, the Global Jobs Pact is centered on five main objectives: generating employment, extending social protection, respecting labor standards, promoting social dialogue and shaping fair globalization.

The same year, the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) endorsed the Global Jobs Pact. ECOSOC also encouraged Member States, United Nations agencies, and financial institutions to use and promote the Global Jobs Pact based on their national needs and priorities.

Since 2009, ECOSOC has continued to support the Global Jobs Pact. In 2011, ECOSOC expressed its continued global concern about the ongoing crisis and recognized the role of the Global Jobs Pact in the employment recovery process and the need to promote sustained and fair growth to generate employment and eradicate poverty. It also encouraged Member States and United Nations funds and programs to incorporate the Global Jobs Pact in their respective policies and programs. Finally, the Council requested that the Secretary-General prepare a report on the use of the Global Jobs Pact within the United Nations system for the 2012 Annual Ministerial Review (AMR).

The 2012 AMR's theme is "Promoting productive capacity, employment and decent work to eradicate poverty in the context of inclusive, sustainable and equitable economic growth at all levels for achieving the MDGs." ECOSOC will focus on analyzing and assessing current policies, encouraging Member States to launch economy recovery initiatives and develop the engagement of the private and not-for-profit sectors to develop sustainable economic growth.

While some changes have been effective, the 2012 Employment Trend Report from the ILO states that the outlook for job creation is worsening and that there are over 27 million workers without jobs since the crisis began. To prevent further increases in unemployment and to maintain social unity, 600 million new jobs must be created over the next decade. Even with these 600 million new jobs, the report estimates that 900 million workers will still be living in extreme poverty, primarily in developing countries.

While the unanimous adoption of the Global Jobs Pact and subsequent United Nations resolutions shows strong support between Member States to combat the effects of the financial crisis, a great deal of work must be done. In addition to considering how to better implement the Global Jobs Pact, States should also consider what additional steps the UN system can take to promote full employment, particularly for the young people who have been most affected by the crisis. Some States have suggested that a separate Global Youth Employment program is necessary to address the unique needs of young people.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What measures are currently being taken by the international community to promote the use of the Global Jobs Pact and the Decent Work Agenda? Are these measures successful?
- What alternate approaches can ECOSOC take to ensure the success of the Global Job Pact and to promote decent work for all?
- How should the international community approach working together to promote and implement the Global Jobs Pact while simultaneously respecting national sovereignty?

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2012 ECOSOC AMR Ministerial Declaration on the Global Jobs Pact

## Additional Web Resources

www.ilo.org – International Labour Organization
www.ilo.org/jobspact – International Organization webpage on the Global Jobs Pact
www.worldbank.org/financialcrisis/ – Financial Crisis Issue Brief from the World Bank
www.un.org/en/ecosoc/amr/index.shtml – ECOSOC Annual Ministerial Review

## MAINSTREAMING A GENDER PERSPECTIVE INTO ALL POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES IN THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM

At the Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, gender mainstreaming was accepted as a strategy for promoting gender equality. Gender mainstreaming refers to the assessment of implications for gender equality approach that the United Nations committed to achieve. In 1997, the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) adopted Agreed Conclusions 1997/2, which supported mainstreaming the gender perspective into all policies and programs in the United Nations system. The agreed conclusions stated that it is imperative to implement and monitor effective and efficient gender related policies and programs, as well as to ensure the full participation of women in the United Nations' work. Additionally, Member States renewed their commitment to continue promoting the policy of gender mainstreaming in all United Nations systems.

Gender mainstreaming is a strategy for encouraging global gender equality. Since 1997, the Assistant Secretary-General and the Special Adviser to the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women have been charged with implantation of the mainstreaming process. The process has been created to be inclusive to men and women in all areas and levels of legislation, policies, programs and projects. The ultimate goal of gender mainstreaming has been to ensure global gender equality.

The General Assembly has reiterated the importance of gender mainstreaming since its twenty-third special session in June 2000. The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) also emphasize the importance of gender equality.  In response to the call for gender mainstreaming, many development organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have adopted gender mainstreaming strategies. At the country level, governments have established agencies to implement gender mainstreaming throughout governmental institutions, operations and policies. Member States have appointed gender specialists and implemented gender-sensitive training programs for all staff. Member States have also implemented accountability offices to assess the progress of the mainstreaming strategy.

In 2004, the Secretary-General reviewed the 1997 ECOSOC report on mainstreaming a gender perspective. The Secretary-General noted that the efforts have been generally effective but that there was still a large gap between policy and practice. Furthermore, the review noted that lack of communication and failure to disseminate information have become the largest faults of the program.

In July 2010, the United Nations General Assembly created the UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women).  The creation of UN Women combined several United Nations organs that deal with women into one body: the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), the Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI) and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).

Most recently, ECOSOC resolution 2011/6 noted the Security-General's critiques and urged Member States to cooperate with different organs of the United Nations to focus their efforts on gender mainstreaming. The Council acknowledged that simply staffing more women in the United Nations system is not sufficient in meeting the goals set out for gender mainstreaming. Finally, the Council called upon UN Women to ensure that its work leads to more effective coordination and coherence to mainstreaming. Additionally, the Council urged UN Women to fully accept its role in leading, coordinating and implementing the accountability of the United Nations system in its work to promote gender equality and the empowerment of women.

After the United Nations launched UN Women, ECOSOC laid out various institutional requirements for gender mainstreaming. ECOSOC is responsible for mandating gender focal points in all areas, including economic, social, human rights, political, peacekeeping and security areas. The responsibilities also included supporting the development of gender-sensitive policies, advising and supporting staff, developing tools and methodologies, collecting and disseminating information, and assisting in monitoring progress made in gender mainstreaming. Although some of the initial confusion and lack of communication has decreased, there still remains a large gap in this organization from the adoption of the strategy to actual implementation of plans for gender mainstreaming initiatives. Member States must intensify efforts to promote the participation of women in decision-making and leadership positions, especially in political and economic areas.

The United Nations continues to act as a role model to the international community in achieving gender parity and having women in decision-making and leadership roles. Gender mainstreaming cannot simply be the creation of separate United Nations bodies to deal with the process of gender equality; it is creating a perspective on the issue and acting upon it. With the recent increase in female peacekeepers, the United Nations looks to other departments to follow that lead and truly start to mainstream a gender perspective, not only in their policies, but by putting women to work in active leadership roles.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How did the role of ECOSCO evolve since adopting the gender mainstreaming agreement in 1997?
- What are the current and future trends and challenges that need to be addressed by the Council?
- What measures and new approaches can be taken by the international community to further develop the strategy of gender mainstreaming?
- What can international organizations and non-governmental organizations do to improve the effectiveness of the mainstreaming efforts?

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## Additional Web Resources

www.unwomen.org – UN Women
www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/ – Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women
www.un.org/millenniumgoals/gender.shtml – Millennium Development Goals, Goal 3

# Chapter Six
# The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)

## Members of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Afghanistan | France | Maldives | Philippines | Turkmenistan |
| Armenia | Georgia | Marshall Islands | Republic of Korea | Tuvalu |
| Australia | India | Micronesia | Russian Federation | United Kingdom |
| Azerbaijan | Indonesia | Mongolia | Samoa | United States of America |
| Bangladesh | Iran | Myanmar | Singapore | Uzbekistan |
| Bhutan | Japan | Nauru | Solomon Islands | Vanuatu |
| Brunei Darussalam | Kazakhstan | Nepal | Sri Lanka | Viet Nam |
| Cambodia | Kiribati | Netherlands | Tajikistan | |
| China | Kyrgyzstan | New Zealand | Thailand | |
| Democratic People's Republic of Korea | Lao People's Democratic Republic | Pakistan | Timor-Leste | |
| | | Palau | Tonga | |
| Fiji | Malaysia | Papua New Guinea | Turkey | |

### Associate Members of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| American Samoa (United States) | Guam (United States) | New Caledonia (New Zealand) |
| Cook Islands (New Zealand) | Hong Kong, China (China) | Niue (New Zealand) |
| French Polynesia (France) | Macao, China (China) | Northern Mariana Islands (United States) |

This year, AMUN's simulations include the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), one of the five regional commissions of the Economic Social Council (ECOSOC). Participation in ESCAP includes one or two Representatives from each of the Member States currently on the Commission, as well as one or two member-delegations to represent the Associate Members (see list above). ESCAP will meet for all four days of the conference, and will report to a combined ECOSOC Plenary session on Tuesday afternoon.

## About ESCAP

Established in Shanghai, China in 1974, ESCAP is the largest of ECOSOC's regional organizations in both the number of people and span of territory under its scope. The 62 members of ESCAP includes UN Member States in the region, nine ESCAP Associate Members, and four countries with a current or former presence in the region. The geographical range of the Commission stretches from Turkey in the west to the Pacific island nation of Kiribati in the east, and from the Russian Federation in the north to New Zealand in the south. ESCAP is the most comprehensive of the United Nations five regional commissions, and addresses regional development of the Asia-Pacific region for the United Nations.

## Purview of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

There are three main focuses of ESCAP's work in the region: poverty reduction; managing globalization; and tracking emerging social issues. Within these areas, the Commission focuses on development issues that are best addressed through regional cooperation such as those that would benefit from regional or multi-country involvement. This includes issues that face the entire region or several countries, cross border issues, and sensitive or emerging issues that require further negotiation or advocacy. ESCAP also provides technical assistance to its members and monitors progress of, and provides advice to, countries pursuing the UN Millennium Development Goals.

**Website:** www.unescap.org/about/index.asp

## Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific

Access to affordable energy resources is vital in a globalized economy. As the Asia-Pacific region grows in terms of both population and size of their economy, the demand for energy will increase. The region has been challenged with developing greater energy security that is both accessible and sustainable. Although there is no internationally agreed-upon definition, it is generally understood that a country has energy security when it has sufficient systems in place to protect itself against shortages of fuel and other energy resources.

Global demand for energy is estimated to increase by 33 percent by 2035, with half of the demand expected to come from the Asia-Pacific region. Alternative and renewable sources of energy are important to sustainable energy development, yet the region's energy supply is

comprised of less than two percent renewable resources. According to the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), 1.7 billion people in the Asia-Pacific region are still using traditional biomass as an energy source. The lack of access has caused increased poverty, spread of disease, child mortality, and reduced opportunities for women. The United Nations has worked extensively to promote sustainable development and energy security in resolutions, studies, and conferences. In 1992, the United Nations held the Conference on Environment and Development (Rio Earth Summit) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. From that conference, Agenda 21 was created to promote a global action plan for sustainable development.

In 2002, the World Summit on Sustainable Development was held in Johannesburg, South Africa. During the Summit, world leaders developed the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation that focused on protecting and managing the natural resource base of social and economic development, eradicating poverty and changing unsustainable patterns of production and consumption of energy. In 2005, Member States from the Asia-Pacific region adopted the Ministerial Declaration on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific, the Regional Implementation Plan for Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific 2006-2010 and the Seoul Initiative on Environmentally Sustainable Economic Growth (Green Growth).

More recently, ESCAP has encouraged discussion between Member States on challenges the region faced concerning energy security and sustainable development. In 2008, ESCAP published a theme study entitled Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific. The study highlighted the need for comprehensive solutions on both the national and international levels as energy resources are unevenly distributed across the region. The study noted that the recent economic growth has created an exceptionally large energy demand than formerly expected, and the trend will continue in the future. In addition, many ESCAP Member States are heavily dependent on imported energy. Finally, the study also proposed the development of an Asian-Pacific sustainable energy security framework.

Moreover, the study suggested that a successful overall strategy for energy security and sustainable development in the region would need to: reduce the gap between energy demand and supply; improve energy efficiency and conservation by lowering energy and resource intensity; achieve the optimal energy mix; diversify sources of energy supply; invest in energy infrastructure development; shift to alternative and renewable sources of energy; encourage innovation and competition through research and development; reduce vulnerability to energy price fluctuations; and achieve good energy sector governance.

In December 2010, the United Nations General Assembly declared 2012 to be the Year of Sustainable Energy for All and encouraged all Member States to bring awareness to the urgency of energy issues as well as promote action at the local, national, regional and international levels. In 2012, Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon launched the Sustainable Energy for All initiative. The initiative is centered on three objectives: providing universal access to modern energy services; doubling the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency; and doubling the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix. In June 2012, the United Nations hosted the Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20), which built on Agenda 21 and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation.

ESCAP's members will continue their efforts to secure sustainable sources of energy in the future. Currently, energy security issues are mainly addressed at the national level despite the regional demand. ESCAP has the opportunity to ensure energy security through regional energy cooperation. Additionally, ESCAP members will have to create a comprehensive and strategic energy solution that includes alternative energy supplies and environmentally friendly technology.

In September 2012, ESCAP will be part of the 3rd International Forum for Sustainable Development. In addition, in May 2013, ESCAP will host the Asian and Pacific Energy Forum (APEF 2013) in Vladivostok, Russian Federation to discuss regional cooperation for enhanced energy security as well as the sustainable use of energy.

Overall, it is important to view energy as a global commodity that cannot be discussed solely at the national level. Cooperation among Member States is a key component of accelerating sustainable development. Sustainable solutions must be found that provide more efficient and accessible energy resources in a way that is effective and sustainable thereby protecting resources and eco-systems for future generations and ensuring energy security.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What energy reserves does the Asia-Pacific region possess, and how will the region's geographical features affect the type of energy infrastructure that the region will require?
- Taking into account the conclusions of Rio+20, how can the region contribute to the international energy trade and management networks?
- What measures has ESCAP supported to promote greater energy security and sustainable development? What can the region do to further strengthen cooperation on developing sustainable energy sources?

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A/CONF.199/20 - Johannesburg Plan of Implementation
Outcome Document of the 2012 United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20)

## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.ieej.or.jp/aperc/ – Asia Pacific Energy Research Centre

www.sustainableenergyforall.org – Sustainable Energy For All Initiative

www.un.org/esa/dsd/ – United Nations Division for Sustainable Development

www.unescap.org/esd/ – United Nations ESCAP - Environment and Development Division

www.uncsd2012.org – United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development

www.un.org/millenniumgoals/ – Millennium Development Goals

## DEVELOPMENT OF HEALTH SYSTEMS IN THE CONTEXT OF ENHANCING ECONOMIC GROWTH TOWARDS ACHIEVING THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Economic growth and the development of health are interdependent and strongly correlated. As the economy grows, the resources for health systems increase, poverty decreases, and quality of life significantly improves. As health systems progress, labor productivity increases, leading to higher household incomes and improved educational outcomes. Therefore, improving health systems is not only a consequence of economic growth, but a critical component of eradicating poverty and improving the overall quality of life.

In recent decades, the Asia and Pacific region experienced major economic and social transformation. Between 1988 and 2005, the annual rate of growth in the region's developing countries was twice the world average. Although significant economic growth helped the region make progress toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the health-related MDGs continue to be an area of concern.

Economic growth conceals the large gap between and within countries in the region regarding the level of development and overall health status. For the least developed countries in the region, the levels of poverty, hunger and malnutrition are alarming. The Asia and Pacific region continues to have a major share of the world's malnourished children and the number of individuals living on less than a dollar a day. With the deadline for meeting the eight MDGs looming, the success of health-related MDGs (improving children's health, improving maternal health, and combating HIV and AIDS) depends heavily upon the abilities of Asian and the Pacific countries to extend healthcare into less developed areas. Developing countries in the region still have high levels of poverty, under-5 mortality, malnutrition and maternal mortality, in addition to a lack of access to clean water and sanitation

Recently, healthcare has become more widely available in some countries. In Japan, citizens are able to receive care regardless of their economic standing through universal health coverage. In Cambodia, a hybrid system has emerged where care is provided through international non-profits which have been hired by the Cambodian government to manage its national healthcare system. The countries that have implemented comprehensive universal healthcare systems have managed to reduce the financial burden on their populations, reducing poverty levels.

Currently in Southeast Asia, non-communicable diseases (NCDs) are responsible for 7.9 million deaths each year—approximately 55 percent of the total deaths in that region each year. Without changes to health policy in Southeast Asia, a 21 percent increase in the number of deaths due to non-communicable diseases is predicted over the next 10 years. The majority of those dying of NCDs are younger than 60 and almost entirely members of the workforce. To reduce the number of deaths and increase the size of the workforce, better healthcare systems are necessary.

In addition to the region's rapid economic growth, the Asia and Pacific also has the most rapidly aging population in the world. According to a recent study by the World Health Organization (WHO), approximately eight percent of Southeast Asia is currently 60 years or older. That percentage is expected to increase to 12 percent by 2025, and increase again to 20 percent by 2050. The changing demands of the aging population causes other challenges as the costs of health care for the elderly increase. These demographics make the case for a comprehensive health care system in the region even stronger.

In an effort to develop comprehensive health systems in the context of economic development, the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) made this the theme of their sixty-third session in 2007. The Commission developed the Regional Road Map to 2015 to provide a framework to reach the poverty reduction and health related MDGs. The Regional Road Map focused on analysis of key policy issues and highlighted priority areas for policy

intervention. The assessment was prepared in a partnership between ESCAP, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB).

During the sixty-third session, ESCAP assessed the multiple linkages between health systems development, economic growth and achieving the MDGs. The Commission recommended strengthening the current infrastructure of health systems, analyzing functioning health systems, and establishing a regional mechanism for financing health systems. Additionally, the Commission emphasized the need for strengthening regional cooperation to cope with the huge disparities of economic growth in the region.

At the General Assembly High-level Plenary meeting in September 2010, Member States, including leaders of Asia and the Pacific, renewed their commitment to achieving the MDGs by 2015. The meeting particularly stressed promoting economic growth and universal access to comprehensive health systems. Member States also expressed an interest in strengthening public-private partnerships for health-care service delivery and developing new and affordable technologies, vaccines, and medicines needed for developing countries.

Despite these recent efforts, health systems and economic growth challenges continue to be major obstacles in achieving the MDGs. Health is a fundamental tool for reducing poverty and creating sustainable economic growth. Financial investments, effective policies, and cooperation are required at the national and regional levels for the development of health systems in Asia and the Pacific region.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How can the Asia and Pacific region decrease the significant economic growth gap between and within countries?
- How might the demands of the aging population affect the economy and the development of health systems?
- What other special regional consideration should be addressed by the Commission?
- What can be done to promote the accessibility and use of modern medicines and treatments in rural regions?

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www.unescap.org – The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

## MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION ON POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ALGERIA | CUBA | GUATEMALA | KENYA | SAINT LUCIA |
| ANGOLA | DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | HAITI | LUXEMBOURG | SENEGAL |
| BANGLADESH | OF THE CONGO | HUNGARY | MALAWI | SWITZERLAND |
| BELARUS | ECUADOR | INDIA | MALAYSIA | TUNISIA |
| BELGIUM | EL SALVADOR | INDONESIA | NETHERLANDS | TURKMENISTAN |
| BRAZIL | FINLAND | IRAN | PAKISTAN | UGANDA |
| CHINA | GABON | ISRAEL | PHILIPPINES | UNITED KINGDOM |
| COLOMBIA | GEORGIA | JAMAICA | PORTUGAL | UNITED STATES OF |
| COTE D'IVOIRE | GERMANY | JAPAN | RUSSIAN FEDERATION | AMERICA |
| CROATIA | GHANA | KAZAKHSTAN | RWANDA | |

This year, AMUN's simulations include the Commission on Population and Development (CPD), one of the ten functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). Participation on the Commission is open to one or two Representatives from any country currently represented on the CPD (see above list). The CPD will meet for all four days of the conference and will report to a combined ECOSOC Plenary session on Tuesday afternoon.

## ABOUT CPD

A functional commission of ECOSC, CPD monitors and studies population trends and the interrelationship of those trends with development issues. Established in 1946 as the Population Commission and renamed in 1994, the CPD's primary mandate from ECOSOC is the monitoring, analysis and follow-up of the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD). CPD is composed of 47 Member States elected every four years by ECOSOC.

## PURVIEW OF THE COMMISSION ON POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT

In its review of Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), the CPD directly reviews policies and implementation of the Programme at local, national and international levels. CPD is also tasked with arranging studies about and advising ECOSOC concerning: integrating populations with development policies, strategies and other programs; providing population assistance to developing countries and those economies in transitions upon their request; or addressing other population or development questions that arise from UN organs.

**Website:** www.un.org/esa/population/cpd/aboutcom.htm

## THE CHANGING AGE STRUCTURES OF POPULATIONS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR DEVELOPMENT

Population age structures are rapidly changing. The relative size of specific age groups are shifting as fertility and mortality rates change and large proportions of countries' populations are transitioning between dependent and productive phases which strongly impact economic development. The Asian and Latin America and the Caribbean regions are seeing dramatic increases in productivity while Northern America and most of Europe face an aging, increasingly dependent population. Still others, including many developing countries, are seeing burgeoning numbers of youth.

As age structures change, populations transition through three phases. The first phase is characterized by a decrease in mortality in infants and youth and an increase in fertility, contributing to a dramatic increase in a young, dependent population. As young dependents increase, relative to the rest of the population, fertility generally decreases and mortality remains low. In this second phase, populations see an increase in productivity per capita as the young, dependent population ages into productive adults. The third phase is characterized by an overall aging population, with decreased fertility and productivity.

During the second phase of changing age structures, the increased productivity per capita is known as the first dividend (also known as the "demographic window of opportunity"). This is a temporary increase in productivity that fades as populations age. It is largely over in North America and Europe and estimated to end in Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean between 2030 and 2035 and in Africa in 2050. The second dividend is increased accumulated wealth, which offsets decreased productivity and can be a permanent feature of populations if developed and encouraged. In anticipation of the development needs of changing demographics, international organizations have focused on developing strong macroeconomic policies while encouraging social policies that address the particular needs of populations within swiftly changing demographics.

The changing age structure of populations has important social and economic implications for development at the local, regional and international levels. Member States will have to respond to the changing age structures to meet the needs of education, employment and health care of the population. New policies and programs are required to support the education and health requirements for the growing number of youth, as well as the social, financial and medical requirements for

the elderly. This remains a significant concern in developing countries that might not have the resources or systems to support the current population.

As a way to address the development concerns in regard to the change age structures, the Programme of Action was adopted at the International Conference on Population and Development in 1994, guiding future actions by the Commission on Population and Development (CPD). The Programme outlines a broad initiative to facilitate changing age structures where demographic rates and social, economic and environmental goals are imbalanced. It also calls attention to four issues impacted by population growth: the protection of children and youth, social security systems for the elderly, often unique demographics of indigenous people and the rehabilitation of persons with disabilities.

In addressing aging populations, the Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing was adopted in 2002. The Plan outlined policy priorities to anticipate the needs of aging populations. In addition, national policies on the viability of social security and supporting families in low-fertility settings were also reviewed. The objective of the Plan was to create a framework that helps Member States develop new national-level policies on aging and increase the age-specific technical assistance provided by the Division for Social Policy and Development.

In 2005, the specific challenges of changing demographics were detailed at the Expert Group Meeting on Social and Economic Implications of Changing Population Age Structures. In particular, the need for educated young people and increased employment opportunities as populations transition from the young population of the first stage to the high productivity of the second stage was emphasized. The importance of anticipating when a population begins to rapidly age – the third stage – was also highlighted, detailing the need for and challenges of support, employment and health care for an aging population.

CPD focused its annual session on changing age structures in 2007. During the session, the Commission examined key policies and international actions to reduce poverty in aging populations. The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), in partnership with numerous inter- and nongovernmental bodies, has focused on youth populations primarily in the context of poverty reduction through national programs and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). During the 2007 CPD annual session, it was concluded that while somewhat predictable, demographic change is difficult to control, it has an impact on almost all aspects of development policy. CPD and other international bodies were encouraged to address the challenges of changing age structures today by creating policies and priorities that anticipate the needs of expected demographic changes and that have the potential for stronger dividends from demographic change.

In 2011, the Commission focused on fertility, reproductive health and development. Resolution 2011/1 notes that effective development policy is deeply interlinked with changing age structures. The resolution noted that the promotion and protection of the rights of the socio-economic needs of young people plays an important role in eradicating poverty. In addition, the Resolution encouraged policies that ensure access to maternity and paternity leave without discrimination; a policy promoted by the Commission to also encourage productivity in low fertility. The Commission's 2012 draft resolution

(2012/1), focusing on adolescents and youth, similarly addressed the issues of changing age structures.

Future actions by the Commission will need to carefully balance many interrelated, sometimes apparently conflicting, priorities. From within the frameworks set forth by the Programme of Action and other international agreements, the Commission must anticipate the policies necessary to prepare for future demographic changes. Countries experiencing booms in youth population today will need developed economic opportunity tomorrow. Yet the youth of today are still disproportionately vulnerable to epidemic disease, social unrest and poverty and need protection.

Concurrently, the Commission will need to consider new ways to assist countries to simultaneously capitalize on the temporary growth of increased productivity and to prepare and develop costly long term safety nets for an aging population. Programs must also be developed and supported where demographic changes have not been addressed, particularly in countries where imbalances have lead to high youth unemployment rates or decreasing, aging productivity has limited the opportunity to accumulate wealth.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
• How will the changing demographics affect development needs in different regions?
• How can intergovernmental and nongovernmental organizations support demographic changes in developing countries?
• What steps can Member States take to encourage development as age structures change?

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## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.un.org/esa/population/cpd/aboutcom.htm – Commission on
Population and Development

www.unfpa.org – United Nations Population Fund

www.un.org/esa/population/meetings/EGMPopAge/EGMPopAge.
htm – United Nations Expert Group Meeting on Social and Eco-
nomic Implications of Changing Population Age Structures

## INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

The total number of international migrants in the world was 214 mil-
lion in 2010, a 22 percent increase since 2000. Economic globalization
and technological advances have increased demand for labor, reduced
the costs of travel, and strengthened ties between migrant workers and
their countries of origin. While most international migration occurs
between neighboring countries, migration has become an increasingly
regional issue; particularly migration to developing countries. Interna-
tional migration is affected by peace and security issues, poverty and
environmental degradation, and human rights violations. Countries
of origin and destination are increasingly looking for a comprehensive
international policy to address these issues.

The United Nations first expressed concerns about international mi-
gration in 1972, when the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)
noted with concern the illegal transportation and exploitation of labor.
The General Assembly condemned discrimination changing age st
migrant workers and encouraged Member States to treat immigrant
populations more fairly. At the request of ECOSOC, a report was
drafted in 1976 that identified two problematic elements of interna-
tional migration: illegal operations facilitating migration, and discrim-
inatory treatment of migrants in countries of destination.

The General Assembly formed a working group in 1979 to develop an
international convention to address international migration. The Gen-
eral Assembly adopted the International Convention on the Protection
of the Rights of All Migrant Works and Members of Their Families on
18 December 1990. The treaty entered into force in 2003. The major-
ity of Member States who have signed or ratified the treaty are those
that are primarily seeing immigrants leave their countries, rather than
the countries with the largest net immigration. In 2000, the General
Assembly established 18 December as International Migrants Day,
which has been marked by a statement from the Secretary-General
since 2003.

The International Conference on Population and Development was
held in 1994, establishing a Programme of Action with recommen-
dations for Member States and other stakeholders. The Programme
addresses many issues surrounding population trends, including in-
ternational migration and development. The Commission on Popula-
tion Development (CPD), as part of a multi-tiered intergovernmental
mechanism, is tasked with the monitoring and analysis of the Pro-
gramme's implementation through organizations within and outside
of the United Nations, and provides recommendations to ECOSOC
based on its analysis and reports.

The United Nations General Assembly held a High Level Dialogue
on Migration and Development in 2006. Participants agreed that
migration could be developmentally beneficial for both the country of
origin and destination, citing remittances, migrant entrepreneurs and
social and cultural contributions. Participants also noted that while
the positive benefits of migration could contribute to the Millennium
Development Goals (MDGs), root causes of migration must also be
addressed to ensure migration occurs by choice, not necessity.

An informal thematic debate on international migration and develop-
ment was held in 2011, substantively serviced by CPD. Many partici-
pants recognized the role of global initiatives and organizations, such
as the Global Commission on International Migration, the Global
Forum on Migration and Development and the International Organi-
zation for Migration, to strengthen regional and bilateral cooperation
which in turn compliment national policies to control international
migration and development. Attention was directed toward circular
migration, co-development projects involving migrant communities
and adverse effects on families.

CPD addressed international migration within the larger context of
adolescents and youth in a 2012 report to the Secretary-General. The
report identifies several trends and cross-cutting issues particular to
youth and international migration, including an increased propor-
tion of migrants aged ten to twenty-four in developing countries. The
report recommended increased support to facilitate migration for
education, citing benefits in both immediate expertise and broad social
and cultural changes.

Successful policies addressing international migration and devel-
opment should consider the issues facing documented migrants,
undocumented migrants, refugees and other displaced persons, while
considering the specific concerns and needs of both countries of origin
and countries of destination. Policies should also address the unique
impacts of immigration on women and children, especially in the
universal application of human rights. International policies should
strengthen existing regional and bilateral agreements. Policies should
encourage and foster the development of international cooperation

where such agreements do not exist. Future recommendations of the CPD will look at existing, successful initiatives; current trends within migration; and addressing the concerns of and facilitating dialogue among its Member States.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- What are some of the current successful initiatives? How can they be implemented worldwide?
- How does international migration affect development? How will this shape development policies in the future?
- What are the unique impacts of immigration on women and children? What steps can Member States take to address these concerns?

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## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.december18.net – December 18
www.un.org/esa/population/unpop.htm – Department of Economic and Social Affairs Population Division
www.un.org/ecosocdev/geninfo/populatin/icpd.htm – International Conference on Population and Development
www.iom.int – International Organization for Migration

# 8 CHAPTER EIGHT
# THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL (HRC)

Along with simulating the General Assembly Plenary and its First, Second, Third and Fourth Committees, AMUN will be simulating the Human Rights Council (HRC). HRC will meet all four days of the Conference, and will report on its findings to the Combined General Assembly Plenary on Tuesday afternoon. HRC's membership is open to all Member States, and as such, participation is open to one Representative from each delegation represented at the Conference. Requests for a second seat on this simulation should be directed to the AMUN Executive Office.

## ABOUT HRC

HRC is the United Nations body responsible for strengthening the protection of human rights around the globe. The Council replaced the former UN Commission on Human Rights in 2006. It is comprised of 47 Member States elected by the General Assembly. The Council reports to the General Assembly's Third Committee. While its resolutions are non-binding, the Council serves as a moral authority within the UN system.

## PURVIEW OF THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

The Council serves two primary functions: it sets human rights standards and it attempts to bring non-compliant countries into compliance through persuasion, capacity building, and – if necessary – highlighting human rights abuses on the world stage. The Council also deploys Special Rapporteurs to monitor human rights and study topics of interest. While the Security Council, General Assembly and HRC often address similar issues, the HRC is limited to addressing the human rights aspect of a problem, not broader security and development issues.

**Website:** www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/HRC/Pages/HRCIndex.aspx

## THE HUMAN RIGHT TO SAFE DRINKING WATER AND SANITATION

Access to safe and clean drinking water is necessary for the most basic levels of human development. Despite this, more than 1 billion people live without access to safe drinking water and 2.6 billion lack access to adequate levels of sanitation. On 3 August 2010, the General Assembly affirmed the crucial importance of access to safe drinking water and sanitation with Resolution 64/292, which declares that water and sanitation are a basic human right. Furthermore, on 30 September 2010, the United Nations Human Rights Council (HRC) confirmed that all individuals have the right to an adequate standard of living that includes safe drinking water and sanitation.

These actions came at a time of new and ongoing issues that continue to create challenges for water management. In extremely underdeveloped regions, just securing water supplies and the most basic levels of sanitation has proven challenging. In Asia and the Pacific, rapid urbanization has made freshwater scarce, increased the levels of pollution, and resulted in inadequate sanitary conditions. Additionally, questions have arisen on how to deal with changes in weather patterns and water allocation.

The United Nations has long considered drinking water and sanitation to be of high importance, holding the United Nations Water Conference in 1977, the International Conference on Water and the Environment, and the Earth Summit in 1992, which all focused on water. The United Nations declared 1981 through 1990 as the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade. Over those ten years, the efforts of the United Nations and Member States resulted in 1.3 billion people receiving better access to drinking water.

One region where drinking water is becoming of increased concern is Asia and the Pacific. Asia is home to 60 percent of the world's population, but only 38 percent of the world's available freshwater. With this ratio, the region faces uncertainties regarding access to water, which is crucial for continued human development. Furthermore, it is estimated that 50 percent of the population in Asia and the Pacific will live in urban areas by 2025. Much of this urbanization is expected to take place in slums, where the sanitary conditions that are essential to maintaining a healthy population are poor.

Another result of rapid urbanization is increasingly high levels of pollution, which further threaten access to water. 70 percent of China's rivers and lakes are now polluted, and 60 percent of lakes in Malaysia are eutrophic due to pollution. The rising levels of pollution are also taking a growing financial toll. The cost of cleaning up water pollution in Jakarta alone is expected to exceed one billion dollars. High levels of sewage from poor sanitation systems are the primary cause of water contamination, but industrial waste is also a factor. Surface water is especially vulnerable, given that 32 percent of the region's population receives its drinking water from these sources. The 2006 United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP) Global International Water Assessment estimated that over half of Asian sub-regions have ground water that is severely polluted. Addressing these problems within the context of Asia's booming growth remains a problem for Member States.

In extremely underdeveloped regions, access to sanitation hinders economic growth. Lack of adequate sanitation is linked to dramatically increased levels of diarrhea, the second leading cause of death for children under five in underdeveloped regions. Additionally, poor sanitation facilities harm immune systems and increase the spread of communicable diseases. The practice of open defecation is common in certain regions of sub-Saharan Africa, which creates sanitation challenges.

There is also significant concern over water allocation. Agriculture accounts for the vast majority of global water usage, taking up as much as 80 percent of the available groundwater in some areas. However, water is becoming more scarce in many regions that rely on it for drinking, sanitation and food production. Observed changes in the climate, including increased atmospheric water vapor content, more extreme drought/non-drought cycles and reduced snow and ice runoff are causing a larger percentage of available water to go towards agricultural usage.

Recently, the General Assembly has recognized these challenges and named 2005-2015 as the International Decade for Action, Water for Life. The goal of the Water for Life Decade is to meet the Millennium

Development Goals' target that the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation is halved by 2015. Furthermore, 2003 was declared the International Year of Water and 2008 the International Year of Sanitation.

In addition to the declaration that water is a legal human right, Resolution 64/292 calls upon Member States to provide financial resources, capacity building, and technology transfer to developing countries to provide safe and cheap drinking water and sanitation for all. Resolution 64/292 is the strongest statement that the United Nations has made on the need for safe drinking water and sanitation.

Following Resolution 64/292, HRC has passed Resolution 7/22 in September 2010. The Resolution adds that safe drinking water is a part of the agreed upon international law. The Resolution codifies that Member States have the main responsibility of assuring that all human rights, including the right to water, have been met. HRC recommends that governments adopt effective regulatory frameworks that cover vulnerable groups. In addition, HRC recommends creating an accountability systems for governments that violate water and sanitation related human rights.

Even though Member States have agreed to support the universal rights to clean and sanitary drinking water, decisions must be made regarding the level of central planning necessary for areas with booming populations. In addition, Member States must also decide how to effectively and efficiently deal with the increased water needs in different regions, while realizing that these decisions will have serious economic, social and political dimensions.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How can Member States manage the allocation of water for agriculture without harming agricultural yields?
- Given the right to clean water and sanitation, what role does the international community have in managing rapid urbanization?
- Given the lack of existing infrastructure, what can be done to provide proper sanitation to underdeveloped regions?
- What role should the United Nations have in clean-up for nations with polluted water supplies?

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## Additional Web Resources

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www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/human_right_to_water.shtml – International Decade for Action "Water for Life"

www.unwater.org – UN Water

## Protection of the Human Rights of Civilians in Armed Conflict

Armed conflicts have been increasing on a global level for decades, especially in developing countries. Civilians are often caught in the middle of these conflicts and may face daily threats of violence and death. Although the maintenance of peace and protection of human

rights are fundamental principles of the United Nations, civilians continue to be victims of armed conflicts and deliberate violence. These deliberate attacks are often used to instill fear and to obtain compliance from the local population. The United Nations regards the attacks as crimes against humanity and therefore are in violation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the General Assembly in 1948.

The United Nations and the Human Rights Council (HRC) play an important role in promoting human rights of civilians in situations of armed conflicts. The HRC recognizes the urgency of addressing violations to international law and core universal human rights treaties including but not limited to: the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, the Geneva Conventions of 1949, the Additional Protocols of 1977 and the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action of 1993.

In September 2008, the HRC passed Resolution A/HRC/9/9 to reaffirm its commitment to protecting human rights during conflicts. In that Resolution, HRC stated its concern with the violations of international humanitarian laws, specifically those violations impacting vulnerable groups. Additionally, the Resolution urged Member States to renew their commitment of following the law and bringing perpetrators of such crimes to justice. Finally, the Resolution recommended creating a framework to ensure the protection of civilians that are under foreign occupation. The Council recommended that the new framework should include effective measures to guarantee and monitor the implementation of the international humanitarian law.

In 2010, High Commissioner for Human Rights Navi Pillay addressed the United Nations Security Council on the protection of civilians in armed conflict. During her address, she emphasized the importance of monitoring situations where violence appears imminent. Despite past recommendations of the HRC on taking a proactive role in protecting civilians prior to a widespread outbreak of violent activities, Pillay noted that this continues to be a major concern and more should be done by the Council. In addition, Pillay named several conflicts where the protection of citizens is of particular concern, including in Afghanistan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kyrgyzstan, and Israel and the Occupied Palestinian Territories. In Afghanistan, civilian casualties leveled off in 2012, after increasing every year since 2001, but the conflict continues to take a heavy toll on the civilian population. Pillay also discussed the violence shaking Sub-Saharan Africa and the escalating number of civilian casualties, citing at least 2,500 civilian deaths in the Sudan in 2009 alone.

Following the 2010 session, an expert consultation on the protection of human rights of civilians during conflict was created. The advisory committee consisted of ten experts that studied the current conditions and made recommendations on the subject. The experts noted that despite the effectiveness of national justice systems as the first line of protection of civilians, there needs to be alternative international system to protect civilians during conflicts. Furthermore, the experts recommended the creation of a permanent sub-commission to more efficiently respond to inquiries on serious allegations of human rights violations. They argued that this mechanism would prevent investigations from becoming politicized.

Currently, HRC is focusing on three thematic issues related to the subject of the protection of human rights of civilians during conflict. The three themes are: the legal framework of international human rights law in situations of armed conflict; the relationship between international human rights law and international humanitarian law, and the implementation and monitoring of human rights obligations in situations of armed conflict and accountability for violations.

International humanitarian and human rights law offers certain protections to civilians caught in armed conflict, and parties to the conflict have legally binding obligations to those civilians affected. The legal aspect of human rights during armed conflict is framed around the Report of the Office of the High Commissioner on the outcome of the expert consultation on the issue of protecting the human rights of civilians in armed conflict. The Report suggests that increased accountability of human rights violators at the national and international levels could aid in the protection of civilians involved in armed conflict. The Report recommends greater involvement by the International Court of Justice (ICJ) on human rights issues. Currently, the ICJ maintains that there are three possible situations regarding international humanitarian law and human rights law: certain matters pertain exclusively to humanitarian law, certain matters pertain exclusively to human rights law and certain matters pertain to both.

Monitoring human rights obligations creates accountability for violations and encourages compliance with international law. Effective monitoring would strongly encourage Member States to bring violators of international humanitarian and human rights law to justice, as well as prevent armed conflicts from escalating to the point where they violate the rights of civilians.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include the following:
- How can the HRC take a more proactive role in responding to protecting human rights of civilians where violence appears imminent?
- How can the HRC address the three thematic issues of the rights of citizens in armed conflict?
- What kind of monitoring systems would be most effective in assuring accountability regarding armed conflict and civilians?
- What special considerations, if any, should be given to armed conflicts where women and children are especially vulnerable?

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## Additional Web Resources

www.ohchr.org/EN/Pages/WelcomePage.aspx – Office of High Commissioner for Human Rights

www.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/home – Customary International Humanitarian Law, International Committee of the Red Cross

# 9 CHAPTER NINE
# THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE (ICJ)

## PURVIEW OF THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

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## APPLICATION OF THE INTERIM ACCORD OF 13 SEPTEMBER 1995 — THE FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA V. GREECE - 2008

*This is a historical case. For the purposes of the simulation, in accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop at 1 December, 2011. Any and all updates to this case after 1 December, 2011 will not be relevant to the AMUN simulation, nor considered in hearing of case.*

On 17 November 2008, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (Macedonia) instituted proceedings before the International Court of Justice against the Hellenic Republic (Greece) when Greece objected to Macedonia's April 2008 application to join the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). In its application instituting proceedings, Macedonia asks the International Court of Justice to recognize that Greece has violated the "binding obligation under international law" it undertook with the signing of the United Nations Interim Accord on 13 September 1995 to not object to the application by or membership of Macedonia in "international, multilateral and regional organizations and institutions" of which Greece was already a member. In its application, Macedonia requests that the Court order Greece to immediately "comply with its obligations under Article 11" of the Interim Accord and "to cease and desist from objecting in any way, whether directly or indirectly" to its membership in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and "any other international, multilateral and regional organizations and institutions" of which Greece is a member. Macedonia brings this case to the Court to preserve the ability of an independent State to exercise its rights as such, which includes pursuing membership of international organizations.

This case stems from a centuries-old naming dispute, the vestiges of which can be traced to antiquity and the Roman conquest of Greece. In more recent times, in the aftermath of the Second World War, the People's (later Socialist) Republic of Macedonia was established as a federal entity within the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia. With its declaration of independence from Yugoslavia on 8 September 1991, the Socialist Republic of Macedonia took on the constitutional name of the Republic of Macedonia. Throughout this time, Greece stridently opposed the use of "Macedonia" in this Republic's name, concerned that it presaged a claim on Greece's coastal region of Macedonia.

Greece continued to express opposition to the use of "Macedonia" in this new Republic's name in Macedonia's application to the United Nations, the European Community, and a number of other international organizations. On 7 April 1993, the United Nations Security Council (Resolution 817) recommended the admission as a member of the United Nations "this State being provisionally referred to for all purposes within the United Nations as 'the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.'" In its recommendation, the President of the Security Council specifically articulated that the use of the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia "merely reflected the historical fact that it had been in the past a Republic of the former Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia." The Security Council fully considered this designation only temporary until the final settlement of the naming dispute with Greece. The United Nations General Assembly agreed to the recommendation the following day in Resolution 225. In the face of heightened tensions between Macedonia and Greece over the continuing naming dispute, both nations signed the United Nations Interim Accord (Interim Accord) on 13 September 1995. Signed to formalize bilateral relations between Macedonia and Greece, the Parties committed to continuing negotiations on their naming dispute under United Nations auspices. In the intervening time, under Article 11 of the Interim Accord, Greece agreed not to object to the application by or the membership of Macedonia in international organizations of which Greece was a part, as long as Macedonia submitted its applications for membership under the reference name provided for in the United Nations Security Council Resolution 817.

In April 2008, Macedonia submitted an application to join NATO using the reference name stipulated according to Resolution 817. In response, Greek Permanent Representative Ambassador John Mourikis wrote in an official diplomatic communication: "in view of the failure to reach a viable and definitive solution to the name issue, Greece was not able to consent to the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia being invited to join the North Atlantic Alliance." Greece stated that the resolution of the "name issue" was an "essential precondition" for Greece's acceptance of Macedonia's membership in NATO. Membership in NATO requires the consent of all existing members, resulting in an effective veto of Macedonia's application.

In its application before the Court, Macedonia stipulates that it acceded to its obligations under the Interim Accord on 13 September 1995 by submitting its application for membership in NATO with the designation "the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia." Macedonia highlights the finding of the Arbitration Commission of the Conference on Yugoslavia which took the view: "the Republic of Macedonia has, moreover, renounced all territorial claims of any kind in unambiguous statements binding in international law; that the use of the name 'Macedonia' cannot therefore imply any territorial claim against another State." Furthermore, Macedonia points out that it has secured membership in a number of "international, multilateral and regional organizations and institutions" including: the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe; the Council of Europe; the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons; the European Charter for Energy; the Permanent Court of Arbitration; and the World Trade Organization. Its application for membership in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization should be treated no differently.

Macedonia asserts that both the Statute of the Court and the Interim Accord provide jurisdiction in the case. According to Article 36 of the Statute of the Court, "the jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which the Parties refer to it and all matters specifically provided for…in treaties and conventions in force." Furthermore, according to Article 21 of the Interim Accord, "any difference or dispute that arises between the Parties concerning the interpretation or implementation…may be submitted by either of them to the International Court of Justice."

In response to Macedonia's application instituting proceedings before the Court, Greece responds that this case is based on nothing more than an effort by Macedonia to lodge this case before the Court in order to have the Court "usher the fully-qualified [former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia] into the organizations it seeks to join, implicitly deciding on its eligibility in place of the Member States whose collective function this is." With Greece's decision to reject Macedonia's application for membership in NATO, Greece was fulfilling its duties as a Member of NATO. Greece points to Article 22 in the Interim Accord which "expressly preserves from the operation of the other provisions of the Interim Accord, including Article 11(1), 'the rights and duties resulting from bilateral and multilateral agreements already in force that the Parties have concluded with other States or international organizations.'" If the Court found in favor of Macedonia, it would be adjudicating upon the conduct of a NATO Member State acting as an independent State and independent Party to an international, multilateral and regional organization and institution. Greece refers the Court to its 1948 Advisory Opinion in which the Court found that it "could not examine the internal processes of a member State which lead to a decision on a question of membership" of States to the United Nations. In this case, while the conditions for joining the United Nations are relatively open, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization requires "considerable commitments on the part of acceding States." Finally, Greece accuses Macedonia of acting "repeatedly in disregard of the Interim Accord" when, after admission to "international, multilateral and regional organizations and institutions," the 'former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia' "reverted back to its 'constitutional' name." If the Court allows Macedonia to move forward in this manner, it "would have the result of overriding the agreed process of [name] settlement and further undermining the Interim Accord."

Greece rejects Macedonia's stipulation of jurisdiction for the International Court of Justice in this case. This present case hinges on an attempt to adjudicate the "name issue" – which, as stated in Article 5 of the Interim Accord, falls outside the jurisdiction of the Court. Furthermore, Greece points to Article 22 of the Interim Accord, which states that the Accord "does not infringe on the rights and duties resulting from bilateral and multilateral agreements already in force that the Parties have concluded with other States or international organizations."

In successfully adjudication this case, the Court must consider two competing and fundamental claims. First, does the International Court of Justice have jurisdiction to consider the Application submitted by Macedonia to seek redress in the manner outlined above? Second, if the question of jurisdiction is properly found, does the action taken by Greece – prompting the Application filed by Macedonia – fall within the prerogatives of an independent State operating in due course with its obligations and responsibilities as a member of "inter-national, multilateral and regional organizations and institutions" or does this action merely reflect the latest clash in a long-standing and intractable disagreement regarding the "name issue" between Greece and Macedonia?

Questions to consider include the following:
- Does the United Nations Interim Accord impose a binding obligation under international law upon its Parties?
- Both Parties point to different and conflicting Articles in the Interim Accord as the controlling language that should govern the ruling by the Court on the dispute between the Parties. Once presented with the facts of the case, which Article do you believe contains the controlling language in this case?
- Provided that it is generally accepted that an independent State's actions as a sovereign nation are universally respected with very few exceptions, whose argument regarding the exercise of state prerogative do you find most compelling?

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## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

www.icj-cij.org/homepage/index.php – International Court of Justice

## SOVEREIGNTY OVER PEDRA BRANCA/PULAU BATU PUTEH, MIDDLE ROCKS AND SOUTH LEDGE — MALAYSIA V. SINGAPORE - 2003

*This is a historical case. For the purposes of the simulation, in accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop at 1 May, 2008. Any and all updates to this case after 1 May, 2008 will not be relevant to the simulation, nor considered in hearing the case.*

On 9 May 2003, a Special Agreement entered into effect between Malaysia and the Republic of Singapore (Singapore) through which the Parties asked the International Court of Justice to resolve a long-standing territorial dispute over an island formation at the entrance to the South China Sea consisting of Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) and two additional features, Middle Rocks and South Ledge ("the three features"). Under this Special Agreement, both Parties accede to this Court's jurisdiction to resolve their dispute. In their case before the Court, each nation points to several sources to justify their claim of sovereignty over the three features. On these merits, the Court must determine whether Malaysia or Singapore has sovereignty over the three features, individually or collectively.

Malaysia claims the right of sovereignty over Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) due to numerous factors – the clearest being that the island of Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) lies less than eight nautical miles from Malaysia while its distance from Singapore is over 25 nautical miles. Malaysia points to four additional elements that together justify its original title of sovereignty over Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca). First, in the Crawford Treaty, signed in 1824, the Sultanate of Johor (the predecessor state to Malaysia) ceded to Britain "in full sovereignty and property" Singapore and the islands lying within ten geographic miles (11.52 US miles) of its coast. Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) falls outside this range. Second, in 1844, the British sought the permission of the Sultanate of Johor for the construction of a lighthouse on Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca). Finished in 1854, this is the same lighthouse used in Singapore's claim of sovereignty over this island. Had the British recognized Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) as part of the territory the Sultanate had ceded to them in the 1824 Treaty, the British would not have sought the Sultanate's permission for the lighthouse's construction. Third, international law does not recognize that the construction and operation of a lighthouse establishes the sovereignty of the operating nation over the land occupied by the lighthouse – regardless of how long the arrangement may persist. Finally, Singapore did not assert the prerogative of sovereignty over Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) in a territorial waters boundary settlement in 1927 or in a later agreement in 1973. In fact, before the mid-1990's, Singapore produced no map indicating Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) was a part of Singapore.

Furthermore, Malaysia asserts that Singapore's claims of sovereignty over Middle Rocks and South Ledge is invalid because it dates from 1993 and is not based on any form of governmental activity, but rather their relative proximity to Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca). Conversely, Malaysia states that it has actively exercised their sover-

eignty over the three features both in the context of Malaysia's control over the wider range of islands in the region and the use of Malaysian maritime areas in the grant of oil concessions and other bilateral treaties of delimitation. As such, according to Malaysia, if the Court fails to recognize Singapore's claim of sovereignty over Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca), this court cannot justify Singapore's claim over the Middle Rocks and South Ledge islands.

Singapore submits its claim of sovereignty over Pedra Branca (Pulau Batu Puteh) by highlighting that, in the context of this dispute, Singapore is the successor in title to the United Kingdom. Further, over a period of 150 years, Singapore has administered Pedra Branca (Pulau Batu Puteh) as part of its territory without any protest or challenge by Malaysia until the publication of a map the "Territorial Waters and Continental Shelf Boundaries of Malaysia" in 1979 that included the island with Malaysia's territorial waters.

Singapore asserts its claim of sovereignty with several additional points. First, Singapore points to the succession of actions and events surrounding the planning, construction, operation and maintenance of the Horsburgh Lighthouse on Pedra Branca (Pulau Batu Puteh) as evidence that Singapore effectively and peacefully exercised State authority after taking possession of the island. Second, Singapore highlights Malaysia's recognition of Singapore's sovereignty over Pedra Branca (Pulau Batu Puteh), both expressly by Malaysia's official acts and implicitly by Malaysia's persistent silence in the face of Singapore's acts of sovereignty, such as the number of official maps published by the Malaysian government which expressly recognized Pedra Branca (Pulau Batu Puteh) as part of Singapore. Third, in a letter dated 21 September 1953, the Acting State Secretary of Johor declared to the Colonial Secretary of Singapore, that "the Johore Government does not claim ownership of Pedra Branca" (Pulau Batu Puteh). Singapore insists that such a disclaimer is legally binding on Malaysia and must be given effect. Fourth, Singapore insists that Middle Rocks and South Ledge are minor geographical features found very near to Pedra Branca (Pulau Batu Puteh) and must belong to the State adjudicated to have sovereignty over Pedra Branca (Pulau Batu Puteh).

At its core, this case requires the Court to make a final determination as to the competing claims of territorial sovereignty advanced by both parties to this case. In successful adjudication of this case, the Court must consider to what extent international law and the past actions (or inactions) of the participating parties provide the controlling precedent as they relate to the ability of a nation to successfully assert a claim of territorial sovereignty.

Questions to consider include the following:
- Both Parties to this dispute point to the actions of predecessor entities that remain binding on present nations. To what extent should the actions of predecessor entities bear on this Court's decision making?
- According to international law and custom, the claim of national sovereignty often depends on past actions by a State. Which Party's past actions demonstration a greater claim of national sovereignty?
- Do you consider Pulau Batu Puteh (Pedra Branca) and the two additional features, Middle Rocks and South Ledge ("the three features") to be one inclusive unit or three separate and distinct

geographic entities? How does that affect your consideration of each Party's claim of sovereignty?

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## ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

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## ARMED ACTIVITIES ON THE TERRITORY OF THE CONGO — DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO V. UGANDA - 1999

*This is a historical case. For the purposes of the simulation, in accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the timeline for this case will stop at 1 December, 2005. Any and all updates to this case after 1 December 2005 will not be relevant to the simulation, nor considered in hearing of the case.*

In 1997, President Laurent-Desire Kabila deposed Zairean dictator Mobutu-Ssese Seko, and came to power with the assistance of the Ugandan and Rwandese militaries. Following his ascent to power however, Kabila was unable to remove Ugandan and Rwandese troops from the Congo. In August of 1998, the Congo alleged that Ugandan forces invaded and then captured and occupied Congolese towns and territory in direct defiance of Kabila's decision that Rwandese and Ugandan forces should leave the Congo. The Congo further alleged

that Uganda recruited, funded, trained, equipped, and supplied armed Congolese groups opposed to the Kabila government.

As a result, on 23 June 1999, the Democratic Republic of the Congo ("the Congo") instituted proceedings against The Republic of Uganda ("Uganda") in respect to a dispute concerning "acts of armed aggression perpetrated by Uganda on the territory of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, in flagrant violation of the United Nations Charter and of the Charter of the Organization of African Unity." The Congo bases its case on the armed aggression it has faced by Uganda and asserts that it has exhausted its efforts to secure a peaceful solution before bringing the matter to the International Court of Justice ("the Court").

The Congo submitted three claims in its application to the Court. First, that Uganda had violated various principles of international and customary law by its military and paramilitary activities against the Congo. Second, that Uganda had violated its human rights obligations and failed to prevent human rights abuses perpetrated by persons under Uganda's control. Third, that Uganda violated conventional and customary law by exploiting and pillaging Congolese resources.

Uganda responded to the claims of the Congo with three affirmative defenses. First, through 11 September 1998, the Congolese government consented to the presence of Ugandan troops in the Congo, as well as to their Safe Haven capture of several Congolese towns. Second, from 11 September 1998 through July 1999, Ugandan forces in the Congo acted in justifiable self-defense. Third, that after July 1999, the Congolese government had consented to the presence of Ugandan soldiers in the Congo by virtue of the Lusaka Agreement, which had been signed on 10 July 1999, by the Congo and Uganda as well as others, calling for a ceasefire in the Congo.

Uganda filed three counter-claims alleging first that the Congo had acted inconsistently with the prohibition on the use of force under Article 2(4) of the UN charter and under customary international law, as well as in violation of the nonintervention norm. Second, that Congolese attacks on the Ugandan diplomatic personnel and premises, as well as on Ugandan nationals, were inconsistent with the Congo's obligations, particularly under the 1961 Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations. Third, the DRC violated the terms of the Lusaka Agreement.

The Congo asserts that the Court has jurisdiction in this case because the Congo (formerly Zaire) had previously recognized jurisdiction in a declaration from 8 February 1989. The declaration stated that in "accordance with Article 36, paragraph 2, of the Statute of the International Court of Justice: The Executive Council of the Republic of Zaire recognizes as compulsory ipso facto and without special agreement, in relation to any other State accepting the same obligation, the jurisdiction of the Court in all legal disputes...." Uganda accepts the jurisdiction of the Court by citing Article 80 of the Rules of the Court in filing their counter-claim.

The Congo requests that the court declare that Uganda has committed: acts of aggression contrary to Article 2 (4) of the Charter; repeated violations of the Geneva Conventions of 1948 as well as their protocols of 1977; deliberately violating the provision of Article 56 of the Additional Protocol of 1977 by taking forcible possession of the Inga

hydroelectric dam; violating the Convention on International Civil Aviation and the Hague Convention for the Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft and the Montreal Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Civil Aviation by shooting down a Boeing 727, property of Congo Airlines, and causing the death of 40 civilians; and reparations for all damage inflicted upon them as a result of the armed activities.

Uganda requests that the Court declare the request of the Congo relating to activities or situations involving the Republic of Rwanda be declared inadmissible; that the allegations that Uganda is responsible for various breaches of international law be rejected; that the counter-claims presented are upheld; and to reserve the issue of reparation in relation to the counter-claims for a subsequent stage of proceedings.

Questions to consider include the following:
- Does the Court have jurisdiction in this case?
- What other Decisions from the Court may influence this case?
- Was the Ugandan military action in violation of the UN Charter?
- Did Uganda violate human rights and international humanitarian laws?
- Does Congo have the right to claim violations of territorial sovereignty if Ugandan troops were welcomed by a former President of Congo?

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The United Nations Charter

The Charter of the Organization of African Unity

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Geneva Conventions of 1949

The New York Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment or Punishment

The Montréal Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Civil Aviation

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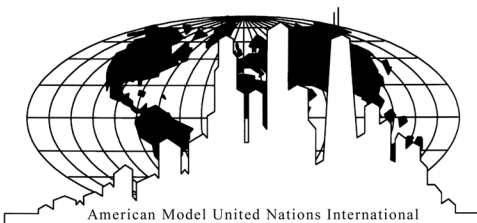
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