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AMERICAN MODEL UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL *ISSUES AT AMUN* REPRESENTATIVE HANDBOOK

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Issues at AMUN 2004
Introduction

The *Issues at AMUN* Handbook has been published to assist Representatives in their preparations for the American Model United Nations (AMUN) Conference. When utilized to complement the research students conduct on the nation 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 Committees and Councils at the 2004 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 on appropriate sources of additional information.

The overviews give a brief background into each topic and state 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 parts of a highly complex issue. For example, the general issue of "the Environment" may have dozens of sub-issues -- in such a case, the overview may provide direction for 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.

Chapter I - The United Nations is provided as essential background to give all Representatives a common ground about the history of the UN. This section begins with the origins of the UN and covers some important points about the organization. Finally, focus is given to problems confronting the UN today.

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.**

Use of the Internet

Note that many of works cited in this *Issues at AMUN* Handbook are resources located on the World Wide Web. Full text of many of AMUN's periodical sources are available to AMUN participants on-line. Feel free to visit AMUN's homepage at **www.amun.org** for a full list of recommended research links.

Three on-line sources of particular note are the United Nations homepage (**www.un.org**), *UN Wire* (**www.unwire.org**), a daily briefing on UN issues provided by the United Nations Foundation, and the *New York Times* on-line (**www.nytimes.com**). These sources are heavily referenced throughout the issues briefings in this handbook. Additionally, the on-line copy of this handbook, also available from AMUN's homepage, contains direct links to all available documents cited in the *Issues* bibliographies.

For a more thorough discussion of on-line research sources, see "Utilizing the Internet" on page 14 of the *AMUN Rules and Procedures* Handbook.

CHAPTER I.
THE UNITED NATIONS

Representatives participating in American Model United Nations should be familiar with the history of the United Nations, as well as the rapidly changing role that the organization plays in international affairs. This section is intended to provide 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 produced by the First and Second World Wars. The United Nations developed as a successor to the League of Nations, which represented the first attempts by nations to achieve this unity. The League failed in large part because the United States never joined as a member.

In 1942, President Roosevelt first coined the term "United Nations," when the Declaration of the United Nations was signed by forty-seven nations in support of the Atlantic Charter. In 1944, the United States, United Kingdom, USSR 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 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 and 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 the discussion of international disputes. Also, Member States recognize that the United Nations has an established machinery which can be utilized as the means of solving international problems. The United Nations seeks, both through its principal organs and various subsidiary bodies, to settle disputes through peaceful means, without resort 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 the five Permanent Members (China, France, Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and the United States) along with ten "at-large" members who are elected by the General Assembly 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 six "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. The TC today 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

The system of "bloc politics" in the UN is one in which nations have organized themselves into groups based on areas of mutual interest. These blocs tend to be made up of nations with similar political, historical or cultural backgrounds. They are often formed on a geographic 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.

Bloc politics in the UN today is a misunderstood and rapidly changing phenomenon. The necessity of blocs in the UN was formally established in 1957, when four regional groups were endorsed by the General Assembly: the Latin American, the Asian and African, the Eastern European and the Western European and Others. Since that time, the bloc system has grown to encompass many of the political, economic and military organizations of the world. Examples of the major blocs include the Non-Aligned Movement, the Group of 77, the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), the African Union (AU), the Organization of American States (OAS), the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and the European Community (EC).

Major changes in the utilization of blocs at the UN have occurred within the past five years, as explained below. Please note, however, that these groups do not have "official" standing as caucus groups at the UN, but are rather groups that meet, depending on the circumstances, to attempt to reach a consensus on various issues.

Blocs are often thought of as "Voting Blocs," but this is a definite misnomer. They can be more realistically seen as "Caucusing Blocs:" groups which discuss issues together based on areas of mutual interest, but that often do not reach full agreement on all issues. A key consideration is that every country in a bloc will have different priorities **based on its own national interests**. Countries will often discount bloc considerations and vote in their own best interest in these priority areas.

Blocs usually attempt to form a consensus among their members which will allow them to act as a cohesive group. The effectiveness of any given bloc in exerting its positions in the General Assembly will often depend upon its ability to form a consensus among its own members. These acts of compromise form the basis of UN politics, and often must occur within the various caucusing groups before they can begin to apply to the UN as a whole.

Bloc politics have changed considerably in the last few years. Their viability as a political tool is diminishing; blocs are falling out of use. The most historically cohesive bloc, the Warsaw Pact, has ceased to exist as a military and political unit. Several other blocs, including the Western, are undergoing structural changes that will have a profound effect on the future of UN politics. The more organized blocs at present are the African Union (formerly the Organization of African Unity), the Organization of American States, and the European Community.

One often misinterpreted area of bloc politics is that of the "Third World," or developing bloc. A "Third World Bloc" has never existed. In actuality, several blocs of developing countries have existed. The Group of 77 (now consisting of 125+ nations) is the largest and is still sometimes thought of as the Third World Bloc. There are, however, developing nations which are not members of this organization, and many members also belong to several other organizations, particularly the Non-Aligned Movement.

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 circumstances. For example, at the June 1992 Environmental Summit in Rio de Janeiro, several Group of 77 countries including India, a previous leader of the bloc, ignored bloc positions on environmental issues and followed their own national interests when participating at the Summit. The most accurate thing which can be said about bloc politics today is that they are in a state of flux. Many states are increasingly neutral on issues on which they once held strong views and that were shared with other members of their respective bloc. Other states are becoming increasingly independent on issues, or are concerned only with regional issues. One example of a new bloc which has formed in recent years is the "Alliance Against Biopiracy," formally known as the "Group of Allied Mega-Biodiverse Nations," which was formed to work together on sustainable development and similar issues. This group is comprised of 12 of the most biodiverse countries on the planet (China, Brazil and India, among others), with a combined total of over 70% of the world's biodiversity within their collective borders.

For the purposes of the AMUN Conference, blocs will not be treated as "official" bodies. Representatives are encouraged to caucus in their bloc groups **only when appropriate**. Please remember there are many issues which cross bloc lines and many opportunities to invite an "involved nation" to another bloc caucus in an effort to achieve a consensus.

CHAPTER II.
THE SECURITY COUNCIL

STATE MEMBERS

Algeria	China	Romania
Angola	France	Russian Federation
Benin	Germany	Spain
Brazil	Pakistan	United Kingdom
Chile	Philippines	United States

Representatives to the Security Council should note that the agenda provided is only provisional. The Security Council may discuss any international peace and security issue brought before it. For this reason, Representatives must have a broad base of knowledge on current events in the international community. Also, the overviews provided below are only current through the publication of this handbook. **Many of the topics listed below will change significantly before the Conference, and Representatives should be familiar with the up-to-date situations**. Periodicals are one of the best recommended sources available for day-to-day updates. These include among others: *New York Times, UN Chronicle, London Times, Foreign Policy, The Economist* and *Keesing's Record of World Events.* Also, the UN Foundation's on-line daily newsletter, the *UN Wire*, is an excellent resource for timely information. Whenever possible, AMUN recommends that Representatives familiarize themselves with the most recent report(s) published by the Secretary-General on each situation, along with other UN documents. These can be found on the UN homepage under the Security Council documents section (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 important aspects of the various situations.

Initial background research is provided below for each region, with one or two topics receiving a brief analysis. Security Council representatives are neither limited to the main topics discussed nor to any of the topics listed. Should world events move in a different direction from the topics provided in this handbook, the Security Council is welcome to discuss any peace and security matter which it desires.

Please note that draft resolutions should be written on the sub-topics of each regional area: i.e., resolutions would not be written about "Issues in Africa," but rather about "The Situation in Sierra Leone" or similar sub-topics within the region.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

ISSUES IN AFRICA

The Situation in Côte d'Ivoire

In recent years, West Africa has been plagued by instability and war. There are currently United Nations peacekeeping missions deployed to Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Côte d'Ivoire. All are active areas of concern for the United Nations, with Côte d'Ivoire being the most unstable.

In September of 2002, an uprising in Côte d'Ivoire left the country divided. The rebellion began as a military coup, but it expanded to encompass complaints by the predominantly Muslim population of the north that they were victims of discrimination. Governmental forces have controlled the southern portion of the country since the uprising, while rebel factions have controlled the northern portion. Initially, a peacekeeping force consisting of mostly French and West African troops was deployed to create a buffer zone between the two; the force has since been augmented by a UN peace keeping force.

The French quickly brokered a peace deal between the warring parties, which called for a unity government that included the rebels, new elections in 2005, and disarmament by both sides. This agreement has never been fully implemented and has encountered significant roadblocks. First, rebel forces have refused to begin disarming until after the elections scheduled for 2005 have taken place. Also, in March an opposition rally in the capital of Abidjan ended in violence, leaving an unknown number of innocent victims. The Agence France-Presse has published parts of a leaked UN report on the incident, alleging that there were at least 120 victims at the demonstration. The government has condemned the report, and claims that only 37 peo-

ple died at the demonstration. More recently, in May President Gbagbo fired three prominent rebel ministers from the unity government that had been established. The rebels responded by announcing that they no longer recognized the authority of the President, and many of the rebels as well as the international community now look to Prime Minister Diarra to find a way to reconcile the two sides.

The Situation in Liberia

The situation in Liberia seems to be more hopeful. The UN envoy declared on June 3 that the peace process was "firmly on track and irreversible." He announced that the deployment of UNMIL (the UN Mission in Liberia) to the area had stabilized the country and that disarmament programs were proceeding smoothly. However, the disarmament program has not had much success in collecting heavy weapons from the former combatants. In addition, only 82 of the fighters in the program have identified themselves as foreign combatants. This issue is especially important because of complex ties between the governments of the region and rebel groups in neighboring countries. For instance, the government of Charles Taylor supported the RUF rebels during the civil war in Sierra Leone, and many of those fighters returned to Liberia to fight for Mr. Taylor following the end of the war in 2001. The rebel groups in Liberia that overthrew Mr. Taylor are also known to have received support from Guinea and Côte d'Ivoire during their campaign to oust President Taylor. The multinational nature of this conflict, and of the other areas of concern in the region, present the UN with special difficulties in restoring peace to the region.

The Situation in Sierra Leone

In Sierra Leone, the peace process is on track and nearly complete. The National Committee for Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration completed its work on February 5, 2004 after disarming some 72,490 fighters in the country. UNAMSIL (the UN Mission in Sierra Leone) has had its mandate extended to keep UN peacekeepers in the country until June of 2005, but it will slowly reduce in size from 10,000 soldiers to approximately 3,400 UN personnel. UNAMSIL was originally scheduled to be disbanded in December of 2004, but West African leaders requested the extension due to fears that instability in Liberia could spread to Sierra Leone, especially if UNMIL encounters difficulties in demobilizing fighters in Liberia. Also, the Special Court for Sierra Leone has started prosecuting war criminals. These prosecutions may eventually include former Liberian President Charles Taylor, who has been indicted by the court but who has received sanctuary from the Nigerian government.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on these issues include:

- How can the international community encourage both sides in Côte d'Ivoire to disarm and cooperate in a unity government?
- What does the conflict in Côte d'Ivoire mean for the surrounding region?
- What are the motivating factors behind the conflict? How can the peacekeeping force address these factors most effectively?
- In light of other peacekeeping commitments to French speaking countries, can the UN sustain this peacekeeping force, and can the currently deployed force achieve its mandate?
- What steps does the UN need to take to continue to support the peace processes in Liberia and Sierra Leone?

Bibliography (for all West African issues):

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"Sierra Leone Has Post-Conflict 'Golden Opportunity,' UNHCR says." *UN Wire*, 16 Sep 2003.

"Sierra Leone War Crimes Court Rules Charles Taylor can be Tried." *UN Wire*, 1 Jun 2004

"UN Concerned about Schism in Ivory Coast Government." *UN Wire*, 21 May 2004.

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"U.N. Peacekeepers in Liberia Enter Rebel-Controlled Area." *UN Wire*, 29 Dec 2003.

"U.N. Rights Report Finds 120 Died in March Riots in Ivory Coast." *UN Wire*, 3 May 2004.

"U.N. to Keep Peacekeepers in Sierra Leone Through June 2005." *UN Wire*, 31 Mar 2004.

UN Documents:

S/2004/430 – Third Progress on the UN mission in Liberia

S/2004/428 – Report pursuant to S/RES/1521(2003) regarding Liberia

S/2004/272 – Report pursuant to S/RES/1478(2003) regarding Liberia

S/2004/229 – Second progress report on the UN mission in Liberia

S/2004/228 – Twenty-first report on the UN Mission in Sierra Leone

S/2004/200 – Report on ways to combat subregional and cross-border problems in West Africa

S/2004/3 and S/2004/3/Add 1 and S/2004/3/Add 2 – Report on the UN mission in Côte d'Ivoire

S/2003/1201 – Twentieth report on the UN mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL)

S/Res/1547 (2004)
S/Res/1537 (2004)
S/Res/1532 (2004)
S/Res/1528 (2004)
S/Res/1527 (2004)
S/Res/1521 (2003
S/Res/1514 (2003)
S/Res/1509 (2003)
S/Res/1508 (2003)
S/Res/1498 (2003)
S/Res/1497 (2003)
S/Res/1492 (2003)
S/Res/1467 (2003)
S/Res/1446 (2002)
S/Res/1346 (2001)

Additional Web Resources:

UNOCI (peacekeeping mission in the Côte d'Ivoire) – www.un.org/Depts/dpko/missions/unoci/index.html

UNMIL (peacekeeping mission in Liberia) – www.un.org/Depts/dpko/missions/unmil/index.html

UNAMSIL (peacekeeping mission in Sierra Leone) – www.un.org/Depts/dpko/missions/unamsil/index.html

The Situation in Sudan

In Sudan, a peace accord has been largely agreed upon by both sides of the 21 year long civil war that has ravaged the southern part of that country, although a comprehensive accord has yet to be signed. However, in the Darfur region of western Sudan, a new humanitarian crisis looms. The US Agency for International Development (USAID) has warned that between 300,000 and 1,000,000 people have died or will die in Darfur, and that interference by the government of Sudan has prevented the flow of

emergency supplies to the region. The international community has accused the Sudanese government of sponsoring militias in the region which have terrorized the people of the Darfur region as part of a civil war within the country. The Security Council has only made cursory efforts to act on the issue, but the UN Undersecretary General for Humanitarian Affairs has called the Darfur region the "biggest humanitarian crisis in the world today."

Exacerbating the humanitarian crisis are two factors, the fact that the UN has yet to receive much of the international aid pledged to help the Darfur region, and the recent balking of the government of Sudan to disarm the Arab Janjawid militias. Of the $349 million in aid pledged to the Darfur region, only $158 million has been received. This deficit of $191 million is threatening to increase the humanitarian disaster that is already taking place.

On 30 July 2004, the Security Council passed Resolution 1556 calling for the government of Sudan to disarm the militias who are currently actively killing and raping in the Darfur region within 30 days. Sudan's response to Resolution 1556 was to condemn it, stating that it would implement the previous timeline of 90 days agreed to on 3 July 2004. While this is occurring, the United Kingdom has put its 12th Mechanised Infantry Brigade on standby in case they are needed to deal with the Darfur emergency.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can countries which have pledged money to the crisis in Darfur be convinced to release those funds as soon as possible? Is additional aid available from any source?
- Given the lessons of the humanitarian crises in Africa in the early and mid 1990s, what can the Security Council do to head off or stop an escalating crisis in the Sudan?
- What steps are feasible if the Sudanese government refuses to accept international forces?

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"U.N. Sending Mission To See If Sudan Is Meeting Promises." *UN Wire*, 22 Jul 2004.
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UN Documents:

S/2004/453
S/RES/1556

Other Issues in Africa

A number of other peace and security issues face countries on the African continent. In particular, the UN Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) has recently encountered serious difficulties in executing its mission. Rebel forces in the eastern part of the DRC seized the city of Bukavu, looting the town and killing many civilians. The rebels have pledged to withdraw from the city, but the situation is still confused. In response to the capture of Bukavu, riots broke out in the capital of Kinshasa. The rioters blamed the UN for not protecting the city, and some claimed the UN was in league with the rebels. UN forces have periodically encountered hostile forces while executing their mission, although the resistance does not seem to be organized or even specifically targeting UN forces.

ISSUES IN ASIA

The Situation in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea

The standoff over the Democratic People's Republic of Korea's nuclear program continues almost two years after the United States first accused the DPRK of having a nuclear program. The negotiating positions of the DPRK and United States remain far apart, with the United States insisting on a verifiable disarmament of the nuclear program before any other issues are discussed, while the DPRK wants energy and food aid in exchange for any dismantling.

Several incidents have changed the nature of the negotiations in the past few months. First, Dr. Abdul Khan of Pakistan has made several disturbing revelations about his involvement in the nuclear black market. Among other things, he claims to have assisted the DPRK in creating a uranium enrichment program, and to have given the DPRK a list of all the equipment they would need to implement this program. The DPRK has denied that it has any such uranium enrichment program, although the United States claims that the DPRK admitted to such a program in private negotiations during 2002. Also, Dr. Khan claims to have seen three working nuclear weapons during a visit to the DPRK in 1999. In addition, US intelligence agencies are considering significantly revising their estimates of the size of the nuclear arsenal of the DPRK. The United States had previously estimated that the DPRK had enough plutonium for two nuclear weapons, but the reprocessing of fuel rods following the breakdown of negotiations over the last two years has given the DPRK enough plutonium to increase its arsenal to as many as eight weapons, according to internal intelligence reports and a number of private sector estimates. Talks are scheduled to resume in Beijing in mid- May, following a visit by Kim Jung Il to Beijing in April.

Also in April, a massive explosion struck the rail center at Ryongchon in the DPRK. Ryongchon is an important link on the rail line from Beijing to Pyongyang, and the explosion may have damaged its ability to transport food aid and other assistance from China. The extent of the damage is largely unknown, due to the secretive nature of the DPRK government; however, the government has allowed some aid from the international community to reach the victims.

While the Security Council has not been actively involved in the situation in the DPRK, this is nonetheless a topic of underlying concern for many Council members.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What role, if any, should the United Nations play in resolving the crisis on the Korean Peninsula?

- How can the United Nations best assist the North Koreans with their humanitarian needs?

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The Situation in Afghanistan

The year 2004 promises to be important for the future of Afghanistan as two important initiatives of the post-Taliban era hang in the balance. First, the United Nations and the government of Afghanistan aim to hold twice delayed presidential elections in October of this year, and parliamentary elections at some point in 2005. The government postponed the vote from a planned June date when UN officials expressed concerns that security issues would prevent voter registration ahead of the election. The UN believes that as many as 10.5 million eligible voters need to be registered; so far, approximately 8 million voters have been registered. The UN has been conducting a major initiative to increase voter registration. However, it has faced resistance from insurgents in the country, who have targeted election workers in an effort to disrupt the election. Many have criticized the registration efforts as focusing on urban areas, and others have noted that women make up only 41% of the registered voters. UN officials have blamed security concerns for the lack of progress, and US, UN, and Afghan officials are working on ways to protect election workers in areas still sympathetic to the Taliban. One solution has been to send Provincial Reconstruction Teams into unstable areas, but NATO members have been slow to contribute the necessary troops to expand the presence of International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) outside of Kabul. As of June 7, the UN has expanded voter registration into all 34 provinces of Afghanistan, but there are concerns that UN personnel are still vulnerable to the insurgents. These concerns were heightened by the murder of five aid workers with Medecins Sans Frontieres (Doctors Without Borders). The attack was particularly surprising because it occurred in the Badghis province, which had been considered one of the safest areas of the country.

Another significant initiative is the planned disarmament of up to 40% of the factional militia left in the country following the war in 2001. The Afghan government, backed by the UN, had hoped to accomplish this goal by June 30, 2004 but they have found many of the militia commanders uncooperative. Even many major figures in the Afghan government, including General Atta Mohammad, who commands an army corps in Mazar-e-Sharif, and Ismail Khan, who is the governor of Herat, have stalled on disarming their militias. The UN has re-launched the disarmament program after a pilot program stalled last October. The Afghan government has announced that it expects the program to proceed without further delays and it believes the program will be accepted by all parties.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the UN encourage the disarmament of militias in Afghanistan?
- What can be done to ensure free and fair elections in Afghanistan?
- What steps are necessary to ensure the security of UN personnel and other aid workers from violence?

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Additional Web Resources:
www.unama-afg.org/ -- United Nations Assistance Mission in
    Afghanistan
www.afnorth.nato.int/ISAF/ -- International Security Assistance
    Force (ISAF)

ISSUES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

The Situation in Iraq

The situation in Iraq represents one of the most difficult challenges for the UN to date. The UN has a tragic history in Iraq. On 19 August 2003, a bomb destroyed the UN headquarters in Iraq, killing envoy Sergio Vieira de Mello. This attack prompted the UN to withdraw all of its international personnel from Iraq, and the continued security problems have remained a serious obstacle to progress. Seven months later, a similar attack resulted in the deaths of 202 people in Madrid, Spain. This tragedy also led to the election of a new government in Spain, who has fulfilled their promise to withdraw Spanish troops by June 30. Although Spanish troops represent only a small fraction of the overall international presence in Iraq, the withdrawal of Spanish support for the operation has left the US with fewer allies in Iraq and a greater feeling of isolation. The Spanish withdrawal prompted Honduras to follow suit, but other coalition partners have maintained their troop commitments.

In addition to security issues, the political transfer of power to Iraq occurred in secret on 30 June 2004, transferring sovereignty to a transitional Iraqi government from the Coalition Provisional Authority. This government was recently unveiled following negotiations between Lakdar Brahimi, the UN special envoy to Iraq, the US, and the Iraqi governing council. Both Brahimi and Ayatollah Ali al-Sistani have given lukewarm endorsements of the new government, with Brahimi reportedly privately expressing his reservations about the new prime minister's reported ties to the American CIA. Many of the ministers in the government are Western-educated or former exiles who are seen as being sympathetic to US policy in the country, but others, including the new president, have been more outspoken on US policies. In addition, a new resolution is under discussion in the Security Council as the international community weighs in with its opinion on what will make the new Iraqi government credible. Lastly, security problems still loom large in Iraq, especially after the 17 May assassination of Ezzedine Salim, then the head of the Iraqi Governing Council. The announcement of the new Iraqi transitional government was met with violence, as a number of bombings greeted the newly appointed government.

In addition to attacks against the military presence in Iraq, a new threat has emerged; the calculated kidnapping of foreign workers. Groups such as the "Holders of the Black Banner" have materialized to kidnap workers and threaten to behead them if their nation does not remove their presence in Iraq. Thus far, this tactic has had moderate success; with a company from Jordan announcing it is suspending operations in Iraq and pulling all of its employees from the country following a kidnapping of two of its employees. Also, the government of the Philippines removed their 51 troops from Iraq several weeks early when a Filipino hostage was captured and threatened with beheading. The hostage was subsequently released, but this action caused significant turmoil among the countries with troops and workers still in Iraq. As this trend increases, the burden on the military forces that still have a presence in Iraq becomes more difficult. This region of the world will be particularly unstable and unpredictable in the months to come.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the Security Council assist in the restoration of Iraqi sovereignty?
- What can be done to protect UN personnel in unstable environments?
- What should a transitional Iraqi government look like?
- What additional roles can the UN play in restoring order and legitimate governmental power to Iraq?

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The Situation in Middle East

The insurgency in the West Bank and Gaza Strip continues, with most of the significant events taking place in the Gaza Strip. Israeli prime minister Ariel Sharon had proposed a unilateral Israeli withdrawal from the Gaza Strip, after receiving support from US President George W. Bush and British Prime Minister Tony Blair. Bush also assured Sharon that the United States would not support any Palestinian right of return, and that Israel would be able to keep some land in the West Bank captured during the 1967 war with Egypt, Jordan, Syria, and Iraq. However, although the idea of unilateral withdrawal has gained support among the Israeli population, the plan failed to win support from a majority of Likud party members, the political party of Prime Minister Sharon. Sharon then forced a cabinet vote on a modified version of the plan, winning its passage after sacking two ministers who opposed the plan. However, the final draft contained contradictory language, leaving the ultimate effect of the plan in doubt.

In addition, the International Court of Justice recently considered the legality of the security barrier under construction in the West Bank. The Court ruled that the security barrier was in violation of international law and should be removed immediately. The Palestinians object to what they consider a de-facto land grab while the Israelis insist the barrier is necessary to prevent terrorist attacks. The General Assembly met in emergency session following this ICJ ruling, and passed a resolution calling the wall "illegal" and demanding that Israel comply with the ICJ ruling by a vote of 150 in favour and 6 opposed.

The Israelis have also launched an offensive targeting the leadership of the Palestinian group Hamas to prevent Hamas from claiming a victory following any Israeli pullout. The Israeli have killed two successive leaders of Hamas, founder Ahmed Yassin and his replacement Abdel Aziz Rantisi. Most recently, intense fighting has raged in the Gaza Strip following Israeli efforts to find and destroy tunnels used to smuggle arms from Egypt. Eleven Israeli soldiers were killed when two APCs used to carry explosives were hit by RPG fire, and dozens of Palestinians have died in firefights raging in the Gaza Strip. Political infighting among Palestinian factions in control of the Palestinian Authority also continues to complicate the situation.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the UN assist the peace process?
- What actions can the UN take to build trust between the two parties?

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CHAPTER III.
THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL - 1993

STATE MEMBERS

Brazil	Hungary	Russian Federation
Cape Verde	Japan	Spain
China	Morocco	United Kingdom
Dijoubti	New Zealand	United States
France	Pakistan	Venezuela

The 2004 American Model United Nations Historical Security Council (HSC) will simulate the events of the world beginning on 23 May 1993. The events of 1993 demonstrated the compelling urgency for the United Nations (UN) to promote three underlying goals of its efforts: peace, development and democracy. In the words of Secretary-General Boutros-Ghali, "these goals must be interlocking and mutually reinforcing."

During the early months of 1993, UN peace operations in the field, most prominently in Cambodia, El Salvador, Somalia and the former Yugoslavia, ranged beyond the traditional notion and definition of peace-keeping, as they took on political, social, humanitarian, and environmental dimensions. The concept of development also adopted an integrated approach; it was no longer merely a matter of economic policy and resources. Development meant social and cultural nation-building and took into account educational and environmental imperatives.

AMUN's HSC is unique not only in its topics, but also in its 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 begins. 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 rote replay of national decisions as they evolved in 1993. 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 made in 1993 was necessarily the wisest. While rote replays must by definition be 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. 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. 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 solving crises. This task must, however, be accomplished without violating the bounds of the member states' national characters.

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 has often been a bystander to regional or international conflict. One major factor in whether or not to be actively involved or to be a bystander which representatives must consider is the costs of peacekeeping with the deployment of regional missions. The increase in costs often caused the Security Council to reprioritize their peace-keeping efforts.

Representatives should approach these issues based on events through 23 May 1993, 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 changes of the past 11 years will not be evident within the chambers of the HSC. While histories of the subject will be fine for a general overview, Representatives should pursue periodicals from late 1992 through May of 1993 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 also 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 role playing the individual assigned as their nation's Representative to the UN. This person may have access to the up-to-the-minute policy decisions of their country, 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 U.N. 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 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/Council, preferably with a second Representative who can cover that Committee/Council while they are away. A floating Permanent Representative would also be ideal for this assignment. These 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.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Council on 23 May 1993. The prominent events of early 1993 are discussed, as well as some questions which may face the Security Council through mid 1993. This research is intended merely as a starting point for Representatives continued exploration of the topics.

THE SITUATION IN SOMALIA

The first elements of the Unified Task Force (UNITAF) came ashore on the beaches of Mogadishu without opposition on 9 December 1992, in an effort to stem the violence resulting from clan conflicts which essentially caused the downfall of the nation. On 13 December, US forces secured the airfield at Baledogle, and by the 16th they seized Baidoa. US Central Command was following a four-phase programme in an attempt to secure key installations and food distribution points, and provide open, free, and secure passage of relief supplies. Approximately 28,000 US forces were expected, augmented by 17,000 UNITAF troops from over 20 countries.

The Security Council established the United Nations Operation in Somalia (UNOSOM II) in Resolution 814 (26 March 1993) and it took over for UNITAF early this May. A military component of 20,000 troops to carry out the assigned tasks and an additional 8,000 personnel for logistic support was required, along with a civilian staff of approximately 2,800. The Council demanded that all Somali parties comply fully with the commitments they had undertaken, and in particular with the Agreement on Implementing the Ceasefire and on Modalities of Disarmament, and that they ensure the safety of the personnel of all organizations engaged in humanitarian and other assistance to Somalia. Additionally, all States were called upon to cooperate in the implementation of the arms embargo established under Resolution 733 (23 Jan 1992).

In other provisions of the resolution, the Council requested humanitarian aide and other assistance including economic relief and rehabilitation of Somalia, the repatriation of refugees and displaced persons within Somalia, the re-establishment of national and regional institutions and civil administration in the entire country, the re-establishment of Somali police, mine-clearance and public information activities in support of UN activities in Somalia.

To achieve these objectives, the UN put together a new Relief and Rehabilitation Programme for the war and drought ravaged country which was adopted at the United Nations Conference on Humanitarian Assistance to Somalia, held from 11 to 13 March 1993 in Addis Ababa. Some 190 Somali representatives, as well as senior representatives of donor Governments, international agencies, regional organizations and NGOs attended the Conference. The Conference on National Reconciliation in Somalia was convened on 15 March 1993 in Addis Ababa. On 27 March 1993, the leaders of all 15 Somali political movements signed an Agreement of the First Session of the Conference of National Reconciliation in Somalia; the agreement was unanimously endorsed by all the participants.

The Agreement comprised four parts: disarmament and security, rehabilitation and reconstruction, restoration of property and settlement of disputes, and transitional mechanisms. The Somali parties resolved to put an end to armed conflict and to reconcile their differences through peaceful means. They also agreed to consolidate and carry forward advances in peace, security and dialogue made since the beginning of 1993. They reaffirmed their commitment to comply fully with the ceasefire agreement signed in Addis Ababa in January 1993, including the handing over of all weapons and ammunition to UNITAF and UNOSOM II. In late March 1993, the international operation simultaneously went through an organizational and leadership transition. UNITAF, the operation under the military command of US Marine Lieutenant General Robert B. Johnson and the diplomatic leadership of US Envoy Robert Oakley, began to wind down after successful completion of its mandate to deliver humanitarian aid. UNSOM II, a more internationalized force commanded by Turkish Lieutenant General Cevik Bir and led politically by UN Special Representative Jonathon Howe, moved into its place. On 4 May 1993, UNSOM II took over responsibility for Kismayo. In mid-May, tensions rose as implementation of the agreements stalled and militia leaders began to move unilaterally to increase their power and maneuver for position. Currently the US is maintaining a minor strike force within the country; however, violence continues to erupt in areas where US troops were formerly stationed.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Are your nation's national interests affected by the presence of UNOSOM II? If so, do you feel that your nation should support this mission?
- How should the Security Council best deal with the issues of transferring command to UNSOM II and what new challenges does this bring up?

THE SITUATION IN RWANDA

The majority of the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF) are Tutsi, and the Hutu government has identified Tutsi within Rwanda as RPF 'accomplices' providing 'cover' for invaders. Using this excuse, the government killed approximately 2,000 Tutsi and arrested or detained about 10,000 others between 1990 and 1992.

In early 1993, there was a threefold increase in the number of displaced persons. Rwanda continued to accuse Uganda of supporting the RPF; Uganda has denied the allegations.

In a 5 February letter to the Federation Internationale des Droits de l'Homme, President Habyarimana argued that the conflict between the Hutu and Tutsi was the inevitable result of the RPF invasion: Hutus naturally saw Tutsis as enemies and would continue to do so until the war ended. On 8 February, the RPF violated the July 1992 cease-fire and drove Rwandan troops south. Subsequently, Rwandan soldiers took vengeance on Tutsi civilians and opponents of the regime. They killed at least 147 persons and beat, tortured and raped many more. They burned and looted hundreds of homes and businesses. In some communities, the military even distributed arms to groups of civilians who supported the President. Approximately 350,000 displaced Rwandans were being fed and sheltered in camps in the northern part of the country.

After hostilities resumed in the northern part of the country in early February, the number of displaced persons escalated to nearly one million. Calculating the need for 13,000 tons of food a month, the International Committee of the Red Cross issued a warning of a major catastrophe and increased its budget for Rwanda eightfold. On 22 February, Uganda and Rwanda sent separate letters to the President of the UN Security Council asking for the deployment of UN military observers along their 150-kilometre common border in order to prevent the military use of the area, specifically arms transportation. In response, the SG sent a goodwill mission from 4 to 18 March.

Meanwhile, efforts by the Organization for African Unity (OAU) and Tanzania led to a meeting between the warring factions from 5 to 7 March in Dar es Salaam. In a joint communiqué, the two sides agreed to reinstate the ceasefire on 9 March and to resume peace talks in Arusha. On 12 March the Security Council in Resolution 812 called on the Government of Rwanda and RPF to respect the renewed ceasefire and requested the SG to examine the requests of Rwanda and Uganda for the deployment of observers. A technical mission was dispatched to the border area of Uganda and Rwanda. The mission reported that it would be possible to deploy UN military observers to monitor the border and verify that no military assistance was being provided, however observers would be limited to the Ugandan side of the border.

The Arusha talks convened on 16 March. As the result of a request by the President of Rwanda, the UN launched an inter-agency appeal on 15 April for international assistance to Rwanda for $78 million to meet the needs of over 900,000 war-displaced people, approximately 13% of the population. An inter-agency mission was fielded between 18 and 25 March to prepare a consolidated appeal focusing on food, nutrition, health, water and sanitation, shelter and household items and education. During April, the only public statements the Rwandan government made were to deny the existence of any "Death Squads," and deny that any of the massacres of February and March were planned. On 20 May, the SG formally recommended the establishment of United Nations Observer Mission Uganda-Rwanda (UNOMUR).

The SG has requested that the Security Council discuss the effect UNOMUR will have on other active UN peacekeeping missions.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Considering your nation's interest in the Rwandan conflict, what should be accomplished by the presence of UNOMUR in the region?

- Also what locations within Rwanda or Uganda would be best served by UN observer presence in their region?

The Situation in Haiti

In March 1993, the UN and the Organization of American States (OAS) launched a consolidated appeal for a humanitarian plan of action designed to respond to the urgent humanitarian needs of the Haitian people. In his 24 March 1993 report to the General Assembly, the SG recommended that the Assembly establish the UN component of the joint International Civilian Mission in Haiti. The UN component of the Mission would comprise some 200 international staff, including 133 human rights observers. OAS would provide another 133 international observers, plus other required personnel for its component. The report also contained the proposals submitted by the team of three international human rights experts, which had visited Haiti from 15 to 22 February 1993, including its recommendations on the deployment of the Mission throughout Haiti, the modalities of its operation and its needs in terms of personnel and resources.

On 20 April 1993, the General Assembly adopted, without a vote, its resolution 47/20B approving the SG's report and authorizing the UN participation, jointly with OAS, in the International Civilian Mission to Haiti. The Assembly reiterated the need for an early return of President Aristide to resume his constitutional functions as President and strongly supported the process of political dialogue under the auspices of the Special Envoy with a view to resolving the political crisis in Haiti. It reiterated that any entity resulting from actions of the de facto regime, including the partial elections to the Parliament in January 1993, was illegitimate.

In a push to finalize an agreement on deploying an international police force in Haiti, envoys of the Clinton Administration and the UN arrived in Port-au-Prince, Haiti for talks with the country's military leaders. For two weeks diplomats have described the planned deployment of about 500 foreign police officers in Haiti as a crucial final element to reaching a negotiated settlement to this country's political crisis, which began with a violent coup against the elected president, the Rev. Jean-Bertrand Aristide, in September 1991. The drive to deploy the police force, led by the UN mediator for Haiti, Dante Caputo, and President Clinton's special advisor on Haitian affairs, Lawerence A. Pezzullo, has been repeatedly delayed, however, by negotiations with Father Aristide, many of whose supporters are opposed to any armed international presence in Haiti.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Does your nation feel that deployment of a police force within Haiti would truly promote or hinder the resolution of Haiti's political crisis?
- What can the UN do to assist legitimate government and the people of Haiti?

The Situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina

In June 1992, the UN recognized Croatia and Bosnia as independent states. The Security Council then extended the United Nations Protection Force's (UNPROFOR) mission to Bosnia, and over the past three years has mandated UNPROFOR to (1) facilitate and protect the delivery of humanitarian aid; (2) use necessary means, including air power from regional organizations, to deter attacks against six safe areas (i.e., areas such as

Sarajevo to be protected against armed attacks and any other hostile actions); and (3) other actions to support an environment leading to peace. Most of UNPROFOR's activities in Bosnia, such as deterring attacks on safe areas, were authorized under Chapter VII of the UN Charter, which allows forceful means to carry out mandates.

On 16 March 1993, the SG reported that three aircraft dropped bombs three days prior on two villages east of Srebrenica, before leaving in the direction of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro). This was the first time since the Security Council had instituted the "no-fly zone" in Bosnia and Herzegovina that aircraft were used in combat activity in that country. UNPROFOR has not been able to determine to whom the aircraft belonged. On 24 March, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro) was asked to provide any information relevant to the incident. The only response was a statement by the Government declaring, "airplanes and helicopters of the Air Forces of the Army of Yugoslavia have not violated the airspace of Bosnia and Herzegovina since the no-fly zone came into effect." Exactly one month later, the Security Council adopted Resolution 819 (16 April 1993), demanding all parties treat Srebrenica and its surroundings as a "safe area" which should be free from any armed attack or any other hostile act. It demanded the immediate withdrawal of Bosnian Serb paramilitary units from areas surrounding Srebrenica and the cessation of armed attacks against that town. The Council requested the SG take steps to increase the presence of UNPROFOR in Srebrenica and other parts of Bosnia and Herzegovina as part of a campaign to halt 'ethnic cleansing'. On 17 April, UNPROFOR's Force Commander, the Commander of the Serb forces and the Commander of the Bosnian Muslim forces signed an agreement for the demilitarization of Srebrenica. In late April, UNPROFOR's Force Commander reported that 170 UNPROFOR troops, civilian police and military observers had been deployed in Srebrenica to collect weapons, ammunition, mines, explosives and combat supplies and that by noon on 21 April they had successfully demilitarized the town.

The situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina was further aggravated when, in the first week of May 1993, intense fighting between the Muslim and Bosnian Croat forces erupted in central Bosnia and Herzegovina. Despite calls by the Security Council, efforts of the Co-Chairmen of the Steering Committee and UNPROFOR, hostilities between the two former allies have continued since. The fighting has intermittently blocked the main supply routes for humanitarian assistance into northern Bosnia, and has further restricted the freedom of movement of UNPROFOR and UNCHR in the area. Consequently, UNPROFOR and UNHCR initiated a humanitarian 'Operation Lifeline' to keep the main routes open to help ensure the survival of up to 2.7 million people in Bosnia and Herzegivina during the winter.

In addition to monitoring the actions of UNPROFOR, since the passage of Resolution 808 (22 Feb 1993), the Council has been reviewing proposals for an ad hoc international tribunal in relation to events in the territory of the former Yugoslavia. The Council is currently at work preparing a list of potential judges to be submitted to the General Assembly for review and approval. The Council will soon be responsible for electing a prosecutor of the tribunal.

A report coming out of Belgrade, Yugoslavia, on 22 May has led the SG to believe that President Slobodan Milosevic of Serbia has tacitly withdrawn an offer to allow international monitors along the border with Bosnia and Herzegovina. Mr. Milosevic and President Dobrica Cosic of Yugoslavia, now consisting of Serbia and Montenegro, told Russia's Foreign minister, Andrei V. Kozyrev on Tuesday that they would accept foreign monitors only if Croatia did too and also withdrew all its military forces from Bosnia. Mr. Cosic said in interviews on 21 May that UN monitors along the Serbian-Bosnia border would be unacceptable Publicly, Mr Milosevic has not withdrawn the monitor offer or repudiated his delayed support for the Bosnia peace plan that was put forward.

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

- Which individual countries or block of countries does your nation feel are most suited to collaborate on the creation of an international tribunal of the former Yugoslavia? And why are they suited for this job?
- What actions should the Security Council take to secure the safety of UNPROFOR personnel located on the border of Bosnia and Herzegovina?

The Situation in the Middle East

Three peace keeping operations currently remain in place within the region: two peace-keeping forces, the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) and the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL), and an observer mission, the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO).

In August of 1992, Iraqi aggression had spiked, leading the coalition (without explicit Council approval) to institute a second no-fly zone to protect civilians and prevent further aggression, this time south of the 32nd parallel. For a time Iraqi aggression subsided however, during the latter months of 1992, aggression was renewed for a brief period; this included several small incursions by Iraqi troops into the demilitarized zone along the border with Kuwait. In January 1993, this led to a Security Council condemnation of Iraq, followed by a series of US, UK and French air raids in southern Iraq. Air raids continued through March of 1993, primarily by the US and UK. On 5 February 1993, the Security Council authorized the UN Iraq-Kuwait Observer Mission (UNIKOM), the peace keeping force along the border, to take direct physical action in response to any future violation of the demilitarized zone.

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

- Does your nation feel that authorizing UNIKOM to take 'direct physical action' in response to violations of the demilitarized zone is warranted at this time?
- Does your nation support the second no-fly zone instituted by the coalition?

Territories occupied by Israel

The increase in violence in both the territories and Israel led Israeli authorities to impose complete closure of the territories on 31 March. The closure created unprecedented hardship to the population of the territories, the majority of whom already lived below the poverty line. It also deprived approximately 120,000 persons of their means of livelihood, as they were suddenly cut off from $2.75 million per day in wages previously earned in Israel. Special permits were required for entry into Jerusalem and Israel as well as for travel between the West Bank and Gaza and within the West Bank itself, the measure had a seriously negative

impact on commerce, medical care, education and access to services, including those provided by the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA). Restrictions regarding freedom of expression continued as the Israeli authorities, on 31 March closed the Hebron-based Al Zahra Press Service for six months on charges that seditious material had been found on its premises.

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

- How can the Security Council best influence the parties in the region to limit violence and move toward a peaceful resolution to the conflict?

THE SITUATION IN CAMBODIA

On 13 October 1992, in Resolution 783 the Security Council officially expressed its support for elections in Cambodia held no later than May 1993. In March of 1993, the Council endorsed the proposed democratic election dates and expressed its readiness to support the constituent assembly to be elected. As the election process developed, violence escalated.

On 30 March, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) closed Site 2, the last and largest of nine refugee camps along the Thai-Cambodian border. On 5 April, in a presidential statement, the Council strongly condemned attacks on personnel with the United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC), which resulted in the death of two Bangladeshis and three Bulgarians.

The electoral campaign began as scheduled on 7 April 1993. During the six week period, scores of political meetings and rallies attended by tens of thousands of people took place without major incident. UNTAC civilian police monitored these rallies, and also provided protection for political party offices considered most at risk. On 13 April, the Party of Democratic Kampuchea (PDK) declared that it would not participate in the elections, closed its office in Phnom Penh and withdrew from the Capital.

The pre-election period saw an unfortunate amount of violence and intimidation. Cease fire violations included small scale clashes and exchanges of fire in the central and western parts of the country. Banditry increased, often committed by former soldiers. According to UNTAC investigations, between the beginning of April and the middle of May, 100 Cambodians were killed as a result of violence and a further 179 injured. By the end of April 1993, more than 21,000 ethnic Vietnamese, many of them second or third generation residents of Cambodia, fled their homes in search of safety.

On 15 May, in his final pre-election report to the Security Council, the SG outlined the security measures that were taken to protect the polling. By mid-May all necessary electoral equipment and supplies were delivered to Cambodia under heavy guard. Training was under way for some 900 International Polling Station Officers from 44 countries and the Inter-Parliamentary Union, 130 more from the UN Secretariat and 370 more within UNTAC, as well as for more than 50,000 Cambodian electoral staff.

On 20 May 1993, in Resolution 820 (1993) the Security Council expressed its satisfaction with the arrangements made for the conduct of elections, deplored all acts of non-cooperation with the Paris Agreements and condemned all acts of violence committed on political and ethnic grounds, as well as intimidation of and attacks on UNTAC personnel. It expressed full support for the measures taken by UNTAC to protect the polls and reminded all Cambodian parties of their obligation to comply fully with the election results. The Foreign Ministers of the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) issued a statement of support on 18 May. On 22 May, in an important act of support for the elections, Prince Sihanouk returned to Phnom Penh from Beijing and urged Cambodians to vote for the parties of their choice.

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

- Once the results of the elections are calculated, what support does your nation feel is necessary for UNTAC to provide the new government in taking power?

OTHER POSSIBLE TOPICS

The Withdrawal of the Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea from the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT)

The Security Council met on 11 May to discuss the DPRK's notice of withdrawal from the NPT. In a statement to the Council, the DPRK asserted that neither legal nor technical grounds existed for a Council discussion of the so-called nuclear problem. It reiterated its reasons for withdrawing from NPT: the increasing nuclear threats from the United States and its manipulation of IAEA to demand opening military bases of the DPRK in order to disarm it.

On 12 May, the DPRK characterized Resolution 825 (11 May 1993) as unreasonable and resolutely rejected it as interference in its internal affairs and a grave infringement of its sovereignty. An ultimate imposition of sanctions based on the resolution would be construed as a declaration of war against the DPRK.

The UN Peacekeeping Budget

On 14 May, the UN announced to the world that peacekeeping costs were expected to rise by more than a third this year to $3.7 billion, and the failure of member countries to pay their share is raising doubts about the organization's ability to finance future operations. Unpaid peacekeeping dues amounted to $1.5 billion at the end of April. And that shortfall does not include another $970 million in unpaid dues for the regular budget. The cash crisis has stirred doubt about the UN's ability to finance operations like the mission assembled in Somalia, which is expected to cost $1.2 billion a year, or a new mission in Mozambique initially estimated to cost about $264 million. If Serbs in Bosnia can be persuaded to accept an international peace plan for ending war there, the UN plans to deploy up to 70,000 troops to oversee it and disarm fighters. Such an effort could cost up to $2 billion a year.

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S/Res/821 (28 Apr 1993) - Federal Republic of Yugoslavia

S/Res/820 (17 Apr 1993) - Bosnia and Herzegovina

S/Res/819 (16 Apr 1993) - Bosnia and Herzegovina

S/Res/818 (14 Apr 1993) - Mozambique

S/Res/816 (31 Mar 1993) - Bosnia and Herzegovina

S/Res/815 (31 Mar 1993) - Croatia

S/Res/814 (26 Mar 1993) - Somalia

S/Res/813 (26 Mar 1993) - Liberia

S/Res/812 (12 Mar 1993) - Rwanda

S/Res/810 (8 Mar 1993) - Cambodia

S/Res/809 (2 Mar 1993) - Western Sahara

S/Res/808 (22 Feb 1993) - Tribunal (Former Yugoslavia)

S/Res/807 (19 Feb 1993) - Croatia

S/Res/805 (4 Feb 1993) - International Court of Justice

S/Res/802 (25 Jan 1993) - Croatia

S/Res/792 (30 Nov 1992) - Cambodia

S/Res/794 (3 Dec 1992) - Somalia

S/Res/783 (13 Oct 1992) - Cambodia

S/Res/775 (28 Aug 1992) - Somalia

S/Res/767 (27 Jul 1992) - Somalia

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S/Res/746 (17 Mar 1992) - Somalia

S/Res/733 (23 Jan 1992) - Somalia

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S/25700 Report to the Security Council

Any issue on the world scene in 1993 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 23 May 1993.

CHAPTER IV.
THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

All delegations are represented on the Concurrent General Assembly Plenary and each committee of the General Assembly. Two topics will be discussed in each committee, as listed below. Any resolutions passed on these topics will be automatically submitted to the Combined General Assembly Plenary session on the last day of the conference for final approval. To allow all Representatives an equal opportunity for preparation, resolutions will only be accepted on the topics listed in this handbook. No new topics will be accepted in the General Assembly.

Each of the Main Committees of the General Assembly are assigned specific tasks and topics to discuss during the session. Since all Member States are seated on each of these Committees, it is important to note that the topics of discussion usually do not overlap, or when they do each Committee is responsible for discussion of a very specific area within that topic. Participants in each Committee should take care to not expand the discussion of their topic in a direction that would normally be discussed by another Committee. As an example, the Sixth Committee might discuss a topic that deals with the legal issues faced by states in alleviating poverty and improving the legal climate in each state, but this Committee would not discuss the broader topic. A full treatment of the poverty topic would be left to the Third Committee or more likely to ECOSOC. A brief description of each Committee simulated at AMUN is provided below, along with that Committee's web page link.

- First Committee: www.un.org/ga/58/first/index.html -- agenda items relating to disarmament and international security are allocated to this body.
- Second Committee: www.un.org/ga/58/second/index.html -- agenda items relating to economic and financial matters are allocated to this body.
- Third Committee: www.un.org/ga/58/third/index.html -- agenda items relating to social, humanitarian and cultural matters are allocated to this body.
- Sixth Committee: www.un.org/ga/58/sixth/index.html -- agenda items relating to international legal matters are allocated to this body.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH
THE CONCURRENT GENERAL ASSEMBLY PLENARY

FOLLOW-UP TO THE OUTCOME OF THE TWENTY-SIXTH SPECIAL SESSION: IMPLEMENTATION OF THE DECLARATION OF COMMITMENT ON HIV/AIDS

The twenty-sixth special session: implementation of the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS took place from 25 to 27 June 2001 at the United Nations. Assembled to address the issue of HIV/AIDS, effectively encompassing all areas, the special session focused on pushing the issue of AIDS proliferation into the international spotlight. Hoping to secure assistance from the global community, this session emphasized the necessary implementation of regional, national and international efforts in attempting to combat the spread of this disease, whether regionally or worldwide.

The session emphasized areas at risk of becoming hotbeds for HIV/AIDS outbreaks, and focused on many of the least developed areas, including, but not limited to, Africa, Eastern Europe, and various parts of Asia, including China. It was acknowledged that developed areas also contained populations suffering from the disease, and these areas were also examined, calling attention to the situation and the behaviors that put their populations at risk. Both developed and developing nations were aware that funding measures would be a central focus of the session. It was seen as essential to make the respective populations aware of the potential disaster that would await if the proper monies, both at the national and international levels, were not allocated to the prevention and treatment of the disease.

Following the conference, the UN has taken action in implementing measures to attempt to fund both prevention and treatment programs. Ultimately though, the major contributions to each country's HIV/AIDS suppression programs will rely on that government's willingness and ability to contribute to the programs. Resolutions such as A/RES/57/7 have attempted to address the problem by calling on outside assistance for the further development of African nations, realizing that a stable, strong economy is key to the implementation and follow-through required for such HIV/AIDS prevention and treatment measures. Further build-up of stable internal economies would also possibly help to quell national violence and instability, factors seen as contributing to the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Additional UN actions have included plenary meetings in order to monitor the follow-up to the special session of June 2001, along with a report published by the Secretary-General detailing the progress achieved as well as the measures that require further attention. A greater emphasis on prevention and treatment of HIV/AIDS led the Security Council to pass a resolution in 2003 requesting the further assistance of the Secretary-General in this manner. Recent briefings have outlined the treatment methods deployed in various areas, but also stress the need for further funding and assistance in locales all across the world.

A future goal of the committee stressed voluntary testing of peacekeepers sent into areas, in order to assist with the prevention and treatment of HIV/AIDS as outlined at the special session and in subsequent resolutions. One major breaking point in this matter deals with the internal stability of nations, and a heavy, though necessary burden lies with each sovereign state; asking them to attempt to create long-term national strategies dealing with HIV/AIDS prevention, education, voluntary/involuntary testing, and counseling, along with assuming primary responsibility to make sure peacekeepers were well-informed and competent, may indeed take large amounts of both time and available resources.

Reliance on international cooperation regarding this endeavor is both an asset and a hindrance. The international community

appears to be well aware of the resources and efforts necessary to combat the disease, but the internal situations of many nations may prevent some of these states from fully devoting the necessary time and resources to combat the spread of HIV/AIDS. Two issues directly at the forefront of the global crisis deal with the availability of necessary HIV/AIDS drugs in both developed and developing countries, and the primary and secondary effects of the disease among children and adolescents in developing countries.

The UN World Youth Report (2003) outlined the areas of most concern with regard to the prevalence of the disease among youth and adolescents. A large focus on areas that might not be largely known to have major outbreaks of the disease explored the rates of prevalence, underlining the fact that prevention and treatment methods need to be expanded in these areas in order to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS to nearly epidemic proportions. Education within nations is necessary to even attempt to put a stop to the catastrophic spread of the disease, but effective tools have yet to be fully implemented.

Funding of treatment and prevention methods has been a hot topic, with some suggesting that more developed nations contribute much larger efforts to eradicating the voracious spread of HIV/AIDS. The availability of drugs varies from region to region, and the fact remains that many areas do not have enough funds to purchase and distribute medication from drug companies. A large side effect of this problem has been the emergence of black market drugs and other supposedly effective holistic treatments in areas such as sub- Saharan Africa. Efforts by the World Health Organization have fallen woefully short in attempting to treat those living with HIV/AIDS; a plan to deliver anti-retroviral drugs to three million AIDS patients by the end of 2005 has already come close to collapse due to a lack of funding.

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

- How can the UN further persuade governments to contribute necessary funding and resources for the treatment and prevention of HIV/AIDS within their own countries?
- How can countries that cannot afford treatment programs best be assisted in confronting the HIV/AIDS issues in their populations?
- What methods for treatment and prevention have your government enacted, and how has that affected both your state and the international community?
- How can UN peacekeepers, where present, be fully integrated into each respective country's efforts to prevent and treat the spread of HIV/AIDS?

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A/RES/57/7
A/RES/57/144
A/RES/57/299
A/RES/58/3
A/RES/58/179
A/RES/58/236
SC/7086 (Press Release)
SC/7921 (Press Release)
World Youth Report, 2003, www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/wyr/

Additional Web Resources:
www.unaids.org --UNAIDS Homepage
www.aids.org -- Nonprofit AIDS information website
www.hopkins-aids.edu -- Johns Hopkin's AIDS Information Site
www.aidsinfo.nih.gov -- US Government AIDS Education Website
www.unaids.org/html/pub/Publications/IRC- pub04/UNAID-Scompanion_0103_en_doc.htm -- UNAIDS Companion Report to the SG report.

QUESTION OF EQUITABLE REPRESENTATION ON AND INCREASE IN THE MEMBERSHIP OF THE SECURITY COUNCIL AND RELATED MATTERS

From the time of the creation of the United Nations, the design and makeup of the Security Council has been a constant dispute. From its first meeting in 1946, to the most recent session this year, the Security Council's membership consists of member states with different levels of power. Of the 15 seats available, five members of the United Nations hold permanent seats on the Security Council. The General Assembly elects the other 11 non-permanent members of the council to sit for two-year terms. Along with a permanent seat on the Security Council, permanent members also have the privilege of the veto. Veto power, an authoritative prohibition or rejection of a resolution or act, is the most disputed power given to any member of the United Nations. As the body responsible for amending the UN Charter, the General Assembly has taken on the problem in an attempt to find solutions that are agreeable to the entire membership of the United Nations. It is important to note that ultimately, any changes to Security Council membership or to the veto power of the Permanent Members will require a revision to the Charter. Any such revision must be adopted by a vote of two-thirds of

the members of the General Assembly and ratified in accordance with their respective constitutional processes by two-thirds of the Members of the United Nations, including all the permanent members of the Security Council. Thus any solution must coincide with the political will of most Member States, including the Permanent Members, if it is to eventually be ratified.

From original GA membership rolls of just 53 states in 1945, to the current membership of 191 states, the membership of the Security Council has only expanded once, from eleven states to the current fifteen states. With the many changes in the world both during the Cold War and in its immediate aftermath, the issue was brought to the forefront of discussion when on 11 December 1992, the GA requested that the Secretary-General invite Member States to submit comments on the membership of the Security Council. These were codified through the passage of A/RES/47/62, leading to the formation of the Open Ended Working Group on Equitable Representation on and Increase in the Membership of the Security Council and Related Other Matters Related to the Security Council (Working Group) on 3 December 1993 (A/RES/48/26).

The GA tasked the Working Group to "consider all aspects with respect to the increase in the membership of the Security Council, and other matters related to the Security Council." With this mandate, the Working Group published its second report in 1995, outlining a list of the most pertinent reform questions. This list included permanent members, non-permanent members, veto power, and increasing the membership of the council. The world viewed this report as being the first major step towards reforming the Security Council.

In this and consecutive reports, the Working Group "emphasized that the review was taking place in view of the substantial increase in membership of the United Nations, especially by developing countries, as well as important changes in international relations (A/50/47)." A consensus has since developed that both of these issues suggest an increase in the size of the Council, but the specifics, including the question of potentially extending the veto power to some new Permanent Members in the future, is still very much in question.

Although there is much agreement in the Working Group for the need for Security Council reform, little progress has been made in the ten years of its existence. Debate has centered on increasing membership of both permanent and nonpermanent states, the veto power, and creating a sustained program of review for Security Council. In particular, many non-permanent members of the Council argue that the evolution of international relations tools such as the veto power, as it is currently constituted, is outdated and should either be abolished or greatly limited. Realistically, however, there is a realization that none of the current Permanent Members are likely to give up their status, and thus talks on this issue have stalled beyond the initial rhetoric.

When accounting for these ideas, there is still limited agreement on how to accomplish these tasks and a wide array of ideas. Many nations, including Japan, Germany and more recently India, argue that they should become permanent members of the Security Council, while developing nations argue that representation should be based on geographic region. These countries contend that geographic allocation in the Security Council is the only method that gives representation regional parity. They believe that with regional parity, the Security Council would become a more stable and impartial organization. Within the regions, however, there is still significant contention over which country(s) should receive a Permanent seat, or whether more rotating seats should be added by region. Permanent members, conversely, have been silent on the issue, speaking out only to support their indisputable right to the veto power. In several cases, they have suggested that the regions need to decide on a workable formula from their perspective before any further work can be accomplished.

Despite the effort of the Working Group, coming to a mutually acceptable agreement continues to evade the members and the outcome of ten years of work by the international community remains in question. In reviewing the work done so far, GA sessions in the past have focused on finding ways to overcome the political difficulties inherent in this issue.

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

- What is your country's position on reform of the Security Council?
- How does your country feel about the current makeup of the Security Council?
- What options are available to reform the Security Council?
- Is mutually agreeable reform of the Security Council necessary with the current state of international community? Is it possible?

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A/57/47
A/56/47
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A/AC.247/1996/CRP.2
A/AC.247/1996/CRP.9

A/AC.247/1996/CRP.16
A/AC.247/1996/CRP.20
GA/9945

Additional Web Resources:
www.globalpolicy.org/security/reform – The Global Policy
   Project
www.un.org/reform/

THE FIRST COMMITTEE: DISARMAMENT AND INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

PROMOTION OF MULTILATERALISM IN THE AREA OF DISARMAMENT AND NON-PROLIFERATION

From the outset of the Cold War, the world community has used multilateralism as a mechanism to facilitate disarmament and non-proliferation. Treaties such as the Non-Proliferation Treaty, Comprehensive Test-Ban Treaty, and the Chemical Weapons Convention were integral in reducing the number of weapons of mass destruction flowing into the world's zones of conflict. Agreements such as the Declaration Renouncing the Use, in Time of War, of Explosive Projectiles Under 400 Grammes Weight have regulated the use and distribution of conventional weapons. The problem that many of these treaties and conventions face is that, while they are multilateral in nature, they are not accepted on a global scale, through a global entity such as the UN.

Starting in 1947 the UN has considered disarmament and non-proliferation to be among the most significant goals on its agenda. In 1978, for the first time, the UN held a Special Session on Disarmament that tackled the issue at its heart. The culmination of this Special Session was the passage of GA/10/2. This document, passed during a heated time in the Cold War, recognized the situation the world was heading toward. With proliferation flowing out of control, it saw the need for control in the outlay of weapons and called for disarmament of all nations. While focused primarily on nuclear arms, this Final Act also called for general and complete disarmament and reduction in proliferation of all arms. The UN General Assembly has held six Special Sessions dealing specifically with disarmament and non-proliferation since the first in 1978. With each ensuing session, more and more discussion has centered on the need for multilateralism to affect the desired results.

Discussion continued to grow at the UN regarding how the world could multilaterally disarm and create non-proliferation regimes to ensure the security of member nations. Dialogue has not only centered on how proliferation leads to a lack of international peace and security, but also centered on the fact that it prevents much needed resources from reaching areas of importance such as economic and social development. When governments focus their budgets on military and defense priorities, they by definition have less money for the development of their country and the betterment of their citizens. Globalization, which has helped many nations throughout the world develop and better the lives of their citizens, has also created an atmosphere that makes it much easier for weapons to proliferate, and thus the need for disarmament has increased.

With rising acts of terrorism throughout 1990's and the attacks of 2001 in the USA, the world community has struggled to sustain the multilateral regimes created at the inception of the UN. These recent events opened the dangers of proliferation to the world. Instead of coming together and uniting to prevent weapons from falling into the hands of regimes intent on conflict and organization bent on violence, some states in the world community unilaterally attacked suspected adversaries. This created an atmosphere of tension that has yet to lift.

For the world to move into an era of peace, multilateralism in the areas of disarmament and non-proliferation needs to again be the primary measure of preventing conflict. With the seventh Special Session on Disarmament, the UN General Assembly continued to stress the need for this multilateralism.

Problematically, movement toward disarmament is still not the status quo in all areas. Though negotiations continue regarding non-proliferation and disarmament throughout the world, their outcome, and the failure of parties to abide by the it, lessens the world's hope for international peace and security through multilateralism. Areas such as the Korean Peninsula, many parts of Africa, and the Middle East remain rife with weapons, with large amounts still flowing in and out to other zones of conflict. This is also complicated by the fact that the primary weapons suppliers are some of the very countries whose support will be needed if more complete disarmament can ever be achieved.

With the culmination of the seventh Special Session on Disarmament, the GA decided to add multilateralism in the area of disarmament and non-proliferation to the provisional agenda of the fifty-ninth session, continuing the effort that began when the world created the UN.

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

- What efforts are currently being made by the UN to promote multilateralism in the area of disarmament and non-proliferation?
- What stands in the way of the success of these efforts, and what steps can the UN take improve the chance of success?
- What commitments or obligations has your state agreed to implement multilateralism in the area of disarmament and non-proliferation?

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DEVELOPMENTS IN THE FIELD OF INFORMATION AND TELECOMMUNICATIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

Since 1998 a new topic has brought to the forefront of international security discussions in the United Nations (UN): information and telecommunications. This is due to the emergence of programs geared at information warfare and the vital nature of telecommunications within the modern world. The first resolution was introduced when the Russian Federation likened such tactics to the ramifications of weapons of mass destruction. Since that time similar resolutions on the issue have been passed in each consecutive session.

The issues at hand in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security are two-fold. First, the use of technologies as an offensive weapon, and second, the need to protect vital information and telecommunication pathways from debilitating attacks. The problem inherent in the very nature of utilizing information as a weapon is that conventional methods of arms control prove ineffective. Despite the fact that programs for developing information warfare can be monitored, the weapons themselves are intangible. Moreover, the destructive potential of such actions can be universal. With global connectivity on the rise, the introduction of information weapons, which may be less than discriminating, stands to effectively damage or cripple critical information systems throughout the world. This blowback effect has the potential to inhibit most States from employing such tactics. However, the concern is with rogue groups seeking to employ such means to disrupt governmental assets around the world.

The current focus upon this issue within the UN as well as that of regional organizations and non-government organizations, is the prevention of damage to critical systems in the event of cyber-terrorism. A number of steps have been taken to harmonize the laws regarding cyber- security and the standards to which they apply. The UN has discussed such actions in the Second and Third Committees. Within the First Committee, resolution A/RES/56/19 has set up a study to report on technological developments in the military and civilian realms with regard to their potential impact on international peace and security, which is due to be presented by the 60th plenary session. Another upcoming event of relevance to the topic is the World Summit on Information Society, to be held in November of 2005, which will discuss a number of aspects of this problem. Currently the ideas regarding this issue within the international community lay along the lines of sharing information in an effort to better improve the security for infrastructure. Obviously there is a need for further action on the issue. In the realm of disarmament, a first step toward addressing the problem would be the establishment of international norms for the use or non-use of information warfare. While it is not the charge of the First Committee to establish the laws that would govern specific acts of cyber-crime or warfare, setting principles to abide by can lay a framework for such laws. As there are no current methods that could effectively monitor information warfare programs, efforts should be made to build infrastructures that are capable of surviving catastrophic attacks. The current efforts of sharing information in attempts to prevent network attacks from infiltrating systems should also continue to be encouraged.

In the area of protecting vital information, it is crucial to note that technology is now integral to the workings of almost all governments, particularly in the functioning of the world's militaries, and thus the threat of a cyber-attack on information has also grown. We are flooded with the constant release of news about new methods used to break into computer networks. Governments and major corporations are the primary targets, though the goal of the attackers is not always known. The UN General Assembly has called for the Secretary-General to conduct a study of the ways to strengthen the global information and telecommunications networks. The International Telecommunications Union gives the UN a body to work with that studies and releases information about the threat of cyber-attacks, and how to prevent them. Another international organization that studies ways to protect against attacks is Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN). While ICANN's primary objective is to assign and manage the address system of the internet, it also holds a standing committee to look for and combat threats. The threat of information attacks destabilizing governments and militaries around the world has compelled the UN and governments to make this issue a high priority.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What is the role of the First Committee in addressing information technologies and international security?
- What are effective means by which to deter cyber-terrorism or other attacks on vital information?
- How can the effects of such tactics be minimized?
- What is the current vulnerability of your nation and how might a future cyber-attack impact your nation?

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THE SECOND COMMITTEE: ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

MACROECONOMIC POLICY QUESTIONS: EXTERNAL DEBT CRISIS AND DEVELOPMENT

The amount of debt owed by developing nations has risen rapidly over the past decade, adding to the already significant amounts owed by many countries prior to that time. The total debt stock of developing countries rose from $1.4B in 1990, to almost $2.4B in 2002. Problematically, given loan cycles, a significant amount of external debt is due for many countries over the next several years. "External debt" encompasses debt taken in several forms. This may include private bank loans, securities issued abroad, non-bank export credits, bilateral loans from other (often industrialized) countries, and multilateral loans from groups such as the regional development banks, the World Bank or the International Monetary Fund. As a result, large amounts of capital are flowing out of these debtor nations to pay down their debts, or more commonly just to pay the service (e.g. minimum interest payment) on those debts. Some nations have been forced to engage in debt cascading, or taking out new loans for no purpose other than to pay off old debts. In 1984, the General Assembly declared that external debt was its own issue, and the problems caused by debt continue to this day.

Most of these debtor nations would like to see some sort of debt relief or even debt cancellation from their various debtors, and this is frequently a topic of discussion at the UN. High levels of debt are important and problematic for several reasons. Firstly, an unsustainable crisis has developed around debt. Many nations do not have enough income to pay off their debts, and with debt cascading, the problem gets even worse. This is then complicated by the fact that debt is a significant impediment to development in many countries. Funds used to make required payments on debt could be better used to fight poverty or develop infrastructure within developing countries. And if these funds are not available for development purposes, it is difficult (if not impossible) for countries to build their economies, and thus they must go into still more debt, replicating the cycle.

While creditor nations and institutions recognize (at least in principle) the problems caused by debt, it is also often stated that internal factors, like government corruption and inefficiency, have made the problems worse. Some have gone so far as to suggest that fighting poverty and development can be accomplished without debt relief, if only the governments of developing countries would practice "good governance" and work for their people, instead of for the government officials. The truth of the matter lies somewhere between of these two perspectives. While corruption and inefficiency certainly exist in many countries, the current debt crisis (which in some cases was certainly exacerbated by internal problems) is much more significant to the future ability of these countries to develop. An additional complication, sometimes expressed by creditors, is the legitimate concern about what a sudden cancellation of all of this debt might do to the international economy.

The role of the UN on this issue has been limited to making recommendations both to debtor nations and creditor groups, but these recommendations are nonetheless seen as significant by many parties. Having the UN behind a particular plan is a significant boost in the legitimacy of discussions that occur on this issue. The Secretary-General has included this as a major issue in his reports and has made it one of the primary issues that he is personally addressing. But without any direct jurisdiction over other Inter-Governmental Organizations (like the World Bank and IMF), over creditor governments, or over the banks that issue external debt, the UN has been forced to take a role as a forum for discussion; a body that endorses plans and continually reminding nations as to the severity of this crisis.

Since 1996, the primary work of the UN system on the relief of external debt has been through the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative. The HIPC is a comprehensive approach to debt reduction that requires the participation of all creditors, with the intent of eliminating unmanageable debt burdens in poor countries. While including all creditors, it is focused around IMF and World Bank programs, with a central focus on each country making a continued effort toward agreed to macroeconomic adjustment, as well as structural and social policy reforms. Importantly, the HIPC also focuses on ensuring additional financing for social programs, including particularly primary basic health care and education. The program promises debt cancellation when each country achieves a certain "Decision Point," which involves enacting policies to ensure that the debt relief can be sustainable over the long term, and fulfilling the preconditions for joining the program. Thus countries that join the HIPC receive significant debt relief, in exchange for showing their willingness to develop in a sustainable manner and keep debt manageable in the future. To date, debt reduction packages have been approved for 23 countries in Africa and an additional four in other areas, providing $31 billion in debt service relief.

A comprehensive review of the HIPC in September 1999 led to a number of modifications, including the ability to provide faster, deeper and broader debt relief. Linkages were also strengthened between debt relief, poverty reduction and social

policies. Countries' continued efforts toward macroeconomic adjustment and structural and social policy reforms are now central to the "enhanced" HIPC Initiative, including higher spending on social sector programs like basic health and education. A Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), developed using a broad-based participatory process, is now a central component for every country. Even with this program, and even if all external debts were forgiven, the least developed countries will still need significant concessional external assistance to be able to develop sustainably in the future.

The HIPC Initiative, along with discussions at the recent Monterrey Conference and the commitments made in the Millennium Development Goals, have all led to significant improvements in debt situations, but there is still a long way to go. Many industrialized countries, led by the Paris Club, have canceled large amounts of bilateral debt owed by those eligible for the HIPC Initiative. The World Bank and IMF are also following suit when HIPC goals are met. Problematically, private lending institutions have been more reticent to participate in the HIPC process, and with 60%+ of all developing world debt in private hands, this creates a significant road block to long term success. Also, while the industrialized countries of the world have committed in principle to providing significant Official Development Assistance (ODA) to the least developed countries (with the amount of 0.7% of GDP reiterated in both Monterrey and in the Millennium Goals), in fact ODA has dropped rapidly during the 1990s. While the HIPC makes it clear that debt relief should not replace ODA, this is in fact the reality for many countries.

While the world is committed in principle to combating the problems associated with high external debt, there is still much work to be done before a comprehensive solution is found that eliminates this problem for the current heavily indebted countries.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this topic include:
- What impact would debt cancellation or debt relief beyond the scope of the HIPC Initiative have on your external debt (or credit) and on the international financial system?
- How closely are poverty, development and the external debt crisis linked?
- Do creditor groups have an obligation to cancel their debt to debtor nations? If so, on what is this obligation based?
- How can private lenders be convinced to either cancel debt, or at least to restructure debt payments in a sustainable fashion?

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www.oecd.org/home - Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
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www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/fields/2079.html - CIA World Factbook, External Debt Listing
www.un.org/esa/ffd/ – UN Financing for Development page. See in particular www.un.org/esa/ffd/ffdrelatedissues.htm for issues taken up by the General Assembly
www.imf.org/external/np/exr/facts/prgf.htm IMF poverty reduction site

INTERNATIONAL YEAR OF FRESHWATER 2003

In December 2000, General Assembly Resolution 55/196 proclaimed 2003 the International Year of Freshwater. This resolution was adopted to "increase awareness of the importance of sustainable freshwater use, management and protection" (About Water Year 2003). Water is a fundamental necessity for life. Freshwater resources are needed to support Earth's ever- increasing population and to provide healthy, functioning global ecosystems. In addition to natural needs, freshwater is also utilized by various human activities, including sanitation, agriculture, industry, urban development, hydropower generation, inland fisheries, transportation and recreation. It is enough that there are so many different sources requiring freshwater for it to be an issue; however the concerns surrounding the availability of clean freshwater become even more pressing when considering that water is a scarce resource that is being actively polluted, consumed wastefully, and mined.

Competing needs require that action be taken on the part of the international community immediately, or the world's finite water supply will be unable to support life. Health risks, environmental degradation, political crises over shared water resources, precarious development, and economic instability are other potential outcomes of dwindling quality freshwater supplies.

In 1977, issues surrounding freshwater were brought to international attention at the UN Conference on Water. This conference produced the Mar Del Plata Action Plan, which outlined the importance of assessing water resources, water use, and the efficiency of water programs, specifically with regards to drinking water and sanitation. Three years later, the GA passed Resolution

35/18, proclaiming 1981-1990 the International Drinking Water and Sanitation Decade (A/RES/45/181). This decade did not meet all of its goals, but it did produce the realization that water and sanitation problems must be solved using comprehensive, country- specific solutions and that the success of these goals would necessitate more funding. Two noteworthy international conferences were held in 1990: the Global Consultation on Safe Water and Sanitation for the 1990's in New Delhi, and the World Summit for Children in New York, both of which further clarified goals for sanitation and drinking water. The International Conference on Water and the Environment in Dublin in 1992 produced a list of principles declaring water as a "finite and valuable resource," suggesting the use of local participation, including women, in water development, and recognizing water as an economic good. In that same year, two of the most comprehensive and influential pieces of international documentation concerning the issue of water were written at the UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro. The Rio Declaration on Environment and Development "establish[ed] a new and equitable global partnership through the creation of new levels of cooperation among states, key sector societies and people" (Rio Declaration). Also, Agenda 21, specifically chapter 18, provided guidelines for the holistic management of freshwater and the integration of sectoral water plans within the framework of national economic and social policy. A symbolic line was crossed in 2000 when, in its Millennium Declaration, the UN resolved to "halve, by the year 2015, the proportion of people without access to safe drinking water" (UN Millennium Declaration). This resolution was further established at the World Summit on Sustainable Development, Rio+10, in Johannesburg in 2002. Although the focus of this Summit was not solely freshwater, it brought together many working groups of people from a variety of states and NGOs to create feasible, country-specific, all-encompassing plans of implementation for achieving this goal. In addition, many partnerships were forged to bring their objectives to fruition.

In the initial attempts, the actions of the international community were not widely successful. Freshwater concerns are pervasive, which makes it difficult to create solutions. Various regions required contrasting plans, so blanket solutions were ineffective. As more research was completed, the vastness and interconnectedness of the problems were discovered, thus making it possible to address the many problems. This ability to identify all freshwater concerns is one success. Another productive success during the 1990's was that nearly one billion people gained access to safe water and sanitation. The need for clean freshwater resources has been recognized; it is now time to act.

Currently, the UN is continuing to implement Agenda 21 and the Plan of Implementation from the World Summit on Sustainable Development, as well as monitoring global progress on these initiatives and having follow-up meetings among partners. In addition, the UN released its World Water Development report, "Water for People, Water for Life."

One of the biggest difficulties in the implementation of freshwater initiatives is that many regions lack the technology, skills, and knowledge needed to reverse the freshwater depletion trends. Capacity building and education at the grassroots level are sorely needed to overcome this difficulty. Second, rapidly expanding population is another major difficulty. As more people populate the earth, the demand for clean freshwater rises but the supply stays the same. Political instability is yet another obstacle. If governments are not able to cooperate, both within their country and with other states, freshwater problems are difficult to solve. Finally, funding for freshwater management initiatives is an ongoing challenge that will continually need to be addressed.

The key to successful global freshwater management is to sustain current initiates, while constantly reevaluating these initiatives to improve them. The UN is already considering proclaiming 2005-2015 as the International Decade on Water for Life, at which time the initiates will be revisited.

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

- What is the status of your country's freshwater resources?
- In what ways is your state implementing the various freshwater initiatives, including those specified in the Millennium Goals and Chapter 18 of Agenda 21?
- What obstacles does your country have to overcome in order to carry out freshwater initiatives?
- What are the next steps in the process of improving the global freshwater resources?

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THE THIRD COMMITTEE: SOCIAL, HUMANITARIAN AND CULTURAL

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE OUTCOME OF THE FOURTH WORLD CONFERENCE ON WOMEN AND THE TWENTY-THIRD SPECIAL SESSION OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY ENTITLED: WOMEN 2000: GENDER-EQUALITY, WOMEN AND PEACE IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

During the inaugural session of the United Nations the issue of women's rights was brought to the table. The open letter to the women of the world gave women around the globe the opportunity and responsibility to promote the goals of women in the United Nations and their respective countries, while also providing an outline for the role of women to play in international politics. When it was signed in 1945, the Charter of the United Nations was the first international agreement to declare gender equality as a fundamental human right. Though many steps have been taken, women continually face issues regarding their fundamental human rights, from violence against women to the rights of family planning. Many measures have been taken to combat gender inequality, including the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985) and the ongoing Women's World Conferences.

At the Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, the emphasis on women shifted; it was no longer on achieving equality and eradicating poverty, but on the empowerment of women so that they could become equal partners in the decision making process. There, delegates produced the most comprehensive set of commitments towards women's equality ever made. Known as the Beijing Platform for Equality, Development and Peace (PFA), it assessed the global situation from women's viewpoints in 12 areas of concern and set objectives and proposals for action.

The Twenty-Third Special Session of the General Assembly entitled: Women 2000: Gender- equality, women and peace in the Twenty-First Century, was the five year appraisal on the implementation of the Beijing PFA, known as Beijing +5. Beijing+5 outlined many of the achievements of the PFA; at the same time it also revealed many shortcomings. One such shortcoming is economic expansion through globalization, which has had some repercussions on both developing and industrialized countries. For the richer nations, the fact of corporations moving to poorer nations has in some cases lessened the available funds to support UN agencies. The decline in funding has also spurred rampant noncompliance, and a lack of implementation by the UN and recipient countries of the plans adopted at the world conferences. Government downsizing, privatization of public services, and the withdrawal of subsidies have all exacerbated the feminization of poverty, which is now recognized as a key factor facing women in the developing world. Another trend is the growing rate of HIV infections around the world. Especially in Africa, certain customs and beliefs have caused infection rates among women and girls to climb at a sometimes much greater rate than the already high incidence among men.

In addition, although violence against women has been criminalized in nearly every corner of the world, it is still increasing. Despite the condemnation of honor killings, forced marriages, female genital mutilation and marital violence, all are still prevalent practices in societies throughout the world.

Finally, there are a number of significant issues that remain unsolved, in particular: ensuring greater follow-up by the General Assembly and member states to implement resolutions and decisions addressing gender equality, and ensuring member-state compliance with respect to the PFA and the Beijing +5.

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

- How can the UN better encourage countries to implement the PFA and the Beijing +5?
- Should the UN have a greater role in protecting violence against women?
- Is there a need for another women's conference?
- How can the UN limit or alleviate the feminization of poverty?

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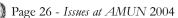E/2003/27
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www.unifem.org/ -- Homepage for the United Nations Development Fund for Women

www.un.org/issues/m-women.asp -- United Nations homepage for issues relating to Women and Gender

ELIMINATION OF RACISM AND RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

The United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) was established in 1993 to enforce the standards that were established by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and subsequent human rights documents, and to act as a voice for victims of human rights violations. The OHCHR also provides support to the Committee on Human Rights and the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination. Since its adoption in 1948, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights has given the international community the tools to make important advances in the fight against racism and racial discrimination. In 1965, the General Assembly adopted the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. Not only did the Convention establish guidelines for signatory member states to follow to eliminate racial discrimination, but it also created the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD) to enforce the policies of the Convention. These documents have been the basis of which all race and racial discrimination policy has been developed in the international community.

From 1973 to 2003 the General Assembly designated three decades to combat racism and support those affected by racial discrimination. The first decade, 1973-1982, was used to implement UN instruments and the promotion of a worldwide education campaign. The second decade, 1983-1992, dealt with creating and refining procedures for supporting victims of racial discrimination. The final decade, which ended in 2003, emphasized the role of human rights education as a prevention tool. In 1997 the General Assembly passed Resolution 52/111, which convened a conference against racism and racial discrimination. The General Assembly declared 2001 as the International Year of Mobilization against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and other Related Intolerance. In 2001, the international community held the World Conference Against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance in Durban, South Africa.

Though much time and effort has been dedicated to solving issues involving racism throughout the world, issues such as ethnic cleansing, racial superiority, and ethnic violence remain grave problems for the world's people. Globalization has added to the problem, causing increased inequality as well as ethnic and racial exclusion. Issues of race and racial discrimination are becoming a more complex and greater challenge to the international community. To solve these unique challenges the UN will have to use unique solutions and seek cooperation from the entire world.

As the definition of racism and racial discrimination has expanded, it encompasses more situations and in some cases, the definition is in itself a cause for controversy. The situation between Israel and Palestine, religious wars in Indonesia, and the situation in South Africa, are all examples of situations defined as involving the discrimination against certain racial groups. War and conflict in Africa are causing indigenous peoples to be in danger of discrimination more than ever before. Inter-ethnic clashes remain a leading cause of conflicts in the Great Lakes Region as well as other parts of Africa including Rwanda,

Uganda, Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan, and Liberia. Other examples include Brazil in 2001 and current Turkish government policies. In Brazil indigenous people were threatened, forcefully evicted, and even killed during land disputes between local tribes and powerful ranchers. In Turkey, state policies that deny recognition to the Kurdish minority are enforced through censorship and imprisonment. While all of these are accepted by most countries under the category of racism, not all are as universally accepted as the South African and similar cases. Cases of religious, ethnic or other discrimination sometimes cause contention about the very definition of the word when they are included in the broader category of "racism," and this can further complicate the search for solutions on the topic.

After September 11, 2001, the "war on terrorism" added a new dimension to xenophobia and racial intolerance in many regions of the world. Recently, the inter-ethnic conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq have been brought to the attention of the international community due to the United States' actions in these areas of the world. Human Rights Watch documented a series of incidents where largely ethnic Pashtun Taliban forces committed summary executions and destroyed civilian homes belonging to minorities it associated with rivals suspected of supporting anti-Taliban Northern Alliance forces.

There are still many regions of the world that do not recognize international laws created to combat and prevent racial discrimination. The international community should not only promote greater awareness of racism and racial discrimination but also implement decisive action at the national, regional, and international levels in order to help individuals that suffer on a daily basis. The United Nations will not only need the support of its member states, but also intergovernmental organizations, nongovernmental organizations, and other specialized bodies within the UN itself.

Racial discrimination occurs throughout the world, and the CERD is not a large enough organization to combat all the situations that occur. Many member states have recommended the strengthening of the CERD, however due to lack of resources this idea has yet to be implemented. Monitoring is also an issue that the CERD believes needs to be addressed, with the key question of how CERD can monitor the implementation and enforcement of international agreements when a member states is found in violation. There has also been a movement to remove specification of which groups fall under the protections of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, because some believe that this excludes groups like indigenous peoples, minorities, and refugees. A small number of countries, some of which are very influential, argue in opposition that including these groups makes the definition too broad. There is also been a push to have gender included in the Convention.

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

- How will the UN encourage the implementation of recommendations put forth in previous conventions to member states?
- What measures has your government taken to eliminate racial discrimination in your country and abroad?
- How can CERD ensure state compliance to the international laws that have been agreed upon?
- Where can CERD obtain more resources (i.e. funding) for its program? Should its mandate be expanded, and if so how?

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Human Rights Watch - www.hrw.org/
Convention on the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms International Human Rights Instruments - www.unhchr.ch/html/intlinst.htm
The Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination - www.unhchr.ch/html/menu6/2/fs12.htm
World Conference Against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia, and Related Intolerance Durban Declaration and Programme of Action - www.un.org/WCAR/

THE SIXTH COMMITTEE: LEGAL

SCOPE OF LEGAL PROTECTION UNDER THE CONVENTION ON THE SAFETY OF UNITED NATIONS AND ASSOCIATED PERSONNEL

United Nations and associated personnel currently work in the world's most hostile open warfare situations. The protection of UN forces and personnel must be a priority for both humane and practical reasons because states contributing troops will be increasingly unwilling to send their domestic forces to keep or secure peace in foreign conflicts, as evidenced in the current situation in Iraq.

The General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Safety of United Nations and Associated Personnel ("Safety Convention") by resolution in December of 1994. The Convention did not enter into force until 1999, however, because it took over five years to secure the necessary 22 instruments of ratification. To date there are only 71 parties to what would seem to be a treaty of necessity and humanitarian concern. In comparison, over 179 states have ratified the Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations.

The international legal community heralds the four historic Geneva Conventions on the Laws of War for their protection of individuals in wartime. During the drafting of these Conventions, the international community had not yet considered the future role of UN personnel around the world, in capacities ranging from humanitarian to peacekeeping forces. None of the four conventions addresses the treatment of peacekeeping and humanitarian forces or other UN personnel.

The primary purpose of the Safety Convention is to criminalize acts against UN peacekeeping personnel. The Convention provides a mechanism for prosecuting attacks on UN personnel as crimes against international law. Each state party to the Convention undertakes to criminalize such attacks under its domestic law and to prosecute offenders. The secondary purpose of the Safety Convention is to ensure the protection of peacekeepers under the Geneva Conventions discussed above.

Even upon the passing of the resolution supporting the Convention, many states and scholars criticized the Safety Convention for its inability to enforce its provisions. The Secretary-General's main concern with the treaty is its narrow scope of application to only certain UN endeavors. The Safety Convention applies in only two situations: (1) "where the operation is for the purpose of maintaining or restoring international peace and security;" or (2) "where the Security Council or the General Assembly has declared… that there exists an exceptional risk to the safety of the personnel participating in the operation." Unfortunately the convention provides no direction or requirements for when the Security Council or General Assembly must declare the existence of an "exceptional risk". The result is that the Convention provides no automatic protection for "non-peacekeeping personnel" although the death rate of non-peacekeeping to peacekeeping personnel is almost equal.

The reason for these limitations is one of history and politics. The convention would not be ratified by those states who believed it did not provide sufficient protection for a broad range of UN personnel working all over the world, while states who believed that the UN has overstepped its traditional peacekeeping role refused to sign if the protections were not limited to these historic functions.

The Secretary-General has also noted that the existence of a Safety Convention does not carry much weight without adequate security training for UN employees, communications equipment and advice from expert professional security officers. Currently, at the Headquarters level, there are only eight professional staff responsible for coordinating and managing the security system covering 70,000 staff and dependants at over 150 duty stations. There are only 60 cost-shared security officers in the field while there are some 80 high-risk duty stations where the presence of at least one field security officer would be warranted.

In response to these concerns, the Secretary-General recommended, and the General Assembly passed, a resolution creating the Ad Hoc Committee on the Scope of Legal Protection under the convention on the Safety of United Nations and Associated Personnel (A/RES/56/89, 12 December 2001). The mandate of the Ad Hoc Committee is to expand the existing scope of legal protections of UN personnel abroad. One of the main issues under consideration is addressing the problem of declarations of exceptional risk. Two solutions are on the table: (1) the possible elimination of the "exceptional risk" requirement for Security Council or Secretary General declarations on applicability of the Safety Convention; and (2) the creation of a detailed declaration mechanism with delineated criteria. In making this or other recommendations to the General Assembly, the Ad Hoc Committee must be constantly aware of the controversial nature of such protection as well as the need to increase the number of signatories and the need to keep the current parties to the convention.

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

- Does your country favor the elimination of the exceptional risk requirement? If not, should it be changed?
- Should a detailed declaration mechanism be created? What criteria should be included in such a mechanism?

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Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed Forces at Sea
Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War
Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War
Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations

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The Ad Hoc Committee on the Scope of Legal Protection under the Convention on the Safety of United Nations and Associated Personnel: www.un.org/law/UNsafetyconvention/

REPORT OF THE INTERNATIONAL LAW COMMISSION ON THE WORK OF ITS FIFTY-FOURTH SESSION

The International Law Commission (ILC) was established by the General Assembly in 1947 in Article 13, paragraph 1 of the UN Charter. The Commission became necessary when it was discovered that many governments were opposed to allowing the United Nations power to enact binding rules of international law. These same nations were also opposed to imposing regulations by majority vote. Although many nations had concerns, they strongly supported a committee with the powers of study and recommendation. The Commission was created to promote the progressive development of international law and its codifica-

tion. With the passage of Article 13, the ILC began its first session.

The ILC is comprised of 34 members who are elected by the GA for a term of five years. Members are elected in part through a regional distribution: nine from African states, eight from Asian nations, eight from Western Europe and other States, six from Latin American and Caribbean states, and three from Eastern Europe. These members do not directly represent their nations while serving on this committee, but serve as individuals. All members gather twice a year to discuss issues that are suggested by the General Assembly. Although the ILC was created to discuss all issues pertaining to international law, the Commission has not forayed into the fields of private international law or international criminal law. In practice, the Commission has stayed within the boundaries of public international law covering issues such as the Nuremberg Principles, the Rights and Duties of States, and the Definition of Aggression.

Reports published by the ILC must hurdle many obstacles before being accepted by the GA. Topics can either be suggested by the GA for the ILC to address, or the ILC may approach the GA with suggestions. After a topic is chosen, the Commission will appoint a Special Rapporteur who prepares discussion and a work plan. The Rapporteur may be assisted by a working group or a drafting committee, and their work is submitted to the General Assembly for written comments. After the first reading, the report is resubmitted to the International Law Commission for a final rewrite. Consequently, it is approved and sent to the GA with recommendations for action.

In its 54th Session, the Commission concentrated on several key issues: diplomatic protections, reservations to treaties, international liability for injurious consequences, responsibilities of international organizations, and the fragmentation of international law. The major discussion centered on the definition of diplomatic protections, i.e. which people were protected underneath the guise of diplomatic protections and whether it should be expanded. The body stressed diplomatic protections were a right granted to the state by a state, and it was not given to an individual. A state does not have to award diplomatic protections to its citizens if it chooses not to. Diplomatic protection is a highly contentious issue because of the ambiguousness of nationality. Should these protections be awarded to citizens of other nations who are married to a national? Where do refugees and stateless people fit into the network? Or military personnel serving abroad? There are many questions regarding diplomatic protections, and the ILC has only begun to address them during this session.

Although most of the discussion involved diplomatic protections, there were several new topics brought up that will be further discussed in future sessions. The proliferation of international judicial systems has been discussed as well as the implications aging treaties have on modern institutions. For example, the Vienna Convention was not meant to be interpreted in the context of today's issues. Does the new frame of reference make the treaty ineffective? The ILC will also be researching international environmental law more in depth in upcoming sessions.

The International Law Commission has been clarifying international law for over a half a century. They have produced yearly reports on each issue with the direct input of the General Assembly and individual states. These reports are essential to the understanding and interpretation of international law. The Commission has reached an apex, however, many of the larger, more visible issues have been researched, discussed, and passed. A new direction must be taken, and the International Law Commission could influence many nations through their topics and subsequent discussion.

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

- How should a nation define nationality? Should diplomatic protections be awarded to all citizens overseas or specific people such as reporters, service persons, and aid workers?
- Should the ILC provide opinions/reports on private and criminal international law?
- During its discussion on Responsibility of International Organizations, a subject of debate was whether states should be held liable for the actions of organizations they belong to. Does your government believe nations should be held responsible for actions of international organizations they are active participants in?
- Should natural resources that cross borders such as groundwater, oil, and migrating animals be considered international property and how should ownership be decided?

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www.un.org/law/ilc/ -- ILC Homepage
www.asil.org/ -- American Society of International Law
www.un.org/law -- UN International Law homepage
www.ila-hq.org -- International Law Commission homepage

CHAPTER V.
THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

AMUN's Economic and Social Council will consider four topics on its agenda. Representatives can choose to explore these topics in a number of forms: through resolutions, in less formal working groups or commissions, or through the creation of treaty or convention documents.

STATE MEMBERS

Armenia	Cuba	Jamaica	Russian Federation
Australia	Ecuador	Japan	Saudi Arabia
Azerbaijan	El Salvador	Kenya	Senegal
Bangladesh	Finland	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	Sweden
Belgium	France	Malaysia	Tunisia
Belize	Germany	Mauritius	Turkey
Benin	Ghana	Mozambique	Ukraine
Bhutan	Greece	Namibia	United Arab Emirates
Burundi	Guatemala	Nicaragua	United Kingdom
Canada	Hungary	Nigeria	United Republic of Tanzania
Chile	India	Panama	United States
China	Indonesia	Poland	Zimbabwe
Colombia	Ireland	Qatar	
Congo	Italy	Republic of Korea	

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

HIGH-LEVEL SEGMENT: PROMOTING AN INTEGRATED APPROACH TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES FOR POVERTY ERADICATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

For the year 2003, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) chose as its high-level segment the issue of "Promoting an integrated approach to rural development in developing countries for poverty eradication and sustainable development." Rural development is crucial to poverty eradication and sustainable development for a number of reasons, including such issues as food security, agricultural sector growth, and the ability to sustain development with large numbers of migrants moving away from their primary source of food and into cities.

Currently more than 60% of the world's population in developing countries live and work in rural areas. Since the 1960s the trend of migration to urban centers has increased, and created a massive explosion in the growth of slums because of the cities' inability to deal with the population influx. The combination of former agricultural producers (often at a subsistence level) migrating to cities has caused a severe strain on many of the least developed countries. While rural agriculture is necessary to feed those in cities, there is not enough labor in many areas to produce the needed food. Additionally, city dwellers often receive higher levels of government benefits than rural citizens, mainly due to their proximity to those in power. And more importantly for poverty eradication and sustainable development, many of the least developed countries still rely on agricultural products as their primary exports; thus a lack of rural development can easily lead to a lack of development for the entire country.

The extreme importance of rural development is recognized by the UN in many forums, with internationally accepted development goals in agreements such as the Millennium Development Goals, and the Brussels Programme of Action for Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. The UN system has taken a coordinated approach to achieving these goals, both within UN bodies and including the entire development community. Inside the UN, work on rural development is coordinated by

ECOSOC, but is primarily accomplished through the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the International Fund for Agriculture Development (IFAD), and the World Food Programme (WFP). The primary goal of the Brussels Programme, which provides direction for much of this work, is to coordinate the efforts of all development agencies in a mutually reinforcing manner. Thus the various UN bodies also work closely with the World Bank, the IMF, the regional development banks, national governments and civil society groups within affected countries, among others.

In May of 2001, the international community met in Brussels, Belgium for the third time to discuss the plight of least developed countries and to create the Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries. The facts presented at this meeting were staggering, and it was clearly recognized that the goals of previous programs, such as those set forth in the Paris Declaration, were not met. Not only were the least developed countries (LDCs) still impoverished, but it also became clear that the positive effects of globalization were bypassing the LDCs, thus leading to their further marginalization in the international community. To help combat this, the Brussels Declaration laid out an array of objectives that would focus on six priorities. These priorities range from the very broad, the significant reduction of poverty, to very specific measures such as removing supply-side constraints, enhancing productive capacity, and promoting the expansion of domestic markets to accelerate growth, income and employment generation. This built on the Millennium Goals, which are still the guiding principles for much of the work in poverty eradication and development. Other conferences have stated very similar and complimentary goals, including the World Food Summit (1996), the Third United Nations Conference on Least Developed Countries (2001), the International Conference on Financing for Development (2002), the World Food Summit +5 (2002) and the World Summit on Sustainable Development (2002). All of these forums have recognized the need to create an environment in which it is possible to severely reduce, if not eliminate rural poverty and promote sustainable development.

Governments have also been involved directly in helping to al-

leviate this problem, with the developing countries accepting their share of responsibility on this issue. All members of the African Union pledged at a recent AU conference to set aside ten percent of their national budgets to increase agricultural production, a significant internal step toward achieving the goal. Also, at the Evian Summit of the G8 (2003), all members recognized the role of agriculture and rural development, and agreed to reverse the recent declines in Official Development Assistance (ODA) in an attempt to help this issue.

At the core of the Brussels Programme is the need to thoroughly integrate all international development efforts, thus reducing waste and duplicative programs or funding, while maximizing the impact of the programmes. The integration also takes a broad based approach to what is included in the category of "rural development." This is now taken to include such important areas as food security, regional cooperation, south-south cooperation, poverty, urban growth and overall population growth. Given the importance of women in development, and especially in rural development, gender issues are also a key focus of these programmes. Programmes are thus integrated across economic, social and environmental areas.

While the problems have now been recognized in a much more realistic fashion than in the past, solving those problems will still require a great deal of work and time. First, to accomplish the goals set out in the Brussels Declaration the international community needs to find ways to increase the level of funding to development programs. With recent shrinkages in ODA, and with some countries hesitant to commit funds to some international programmes, financing is a key issue. Further, the governments of developing countries must take a lead role in ensuring that their countries are prepared to make the best use of the aid that is available, and to waste as little as possible. And finally, the UN system must work hard to constantly coordinate efforts across the many different agencies that do development work.

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

- What can ECOSOC do to better coordinate the work of the various agencies involved in implementing the Brussels Plan of Action?
- What steps can your country take, whether industrialized or developing, to better facilitate the solution to rural development problems?
- How can the programs be best funded at the needed levels?

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Summary of key recommendations from the NGO Forum held on 27 Jun 2003, Palais des Nations, Geneva.

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www.undp.org/ -- United Nations Development Programme
www.fao.org/ -- Food and Agriculture Organization
www.wfp.org/ -- United Nations World Food Programme
www.ifad.org/ -- International Fund for Agricultural Development

ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL QUESTIONS: POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Faced with what many view as a population crisis of Malthusian proportions, the global community must recognize the relationship between population and development and must work to solve the issues surrounding them. If current growth patterns continue, the global population, just over six billion in 2004, could reach between nine and twelve billion by 2050. Worldwide, the growth rate hovers around 1.4%, and most agree it is declining. Problematically, in countries with the scarcest resources, the most demographic pressure, and the highest poverty rates, the rate hovers between 2.5 and 4% -- giving many least developed nations a doubling time (the number of years for a current population to double) of only 17-25 years. Low-income countries constitute as much as 95% of global population growth, while several developed nations actually have negative growth rates. High birth rates are inextricably associated with poverty, poor sanitation, and a low level of education. These things are also associated with high infant and maternal mortality rates as well as lowered life expectancy.

The Commission on Population and Development (CPD) was created in 1946, and charged with creating and implementing programs regarding population and development. Since then, the CPD has been a subsidiary body of ECOSOC, and makes an annual report to them. There are three main areas of discussion within ECOSOC about population and development, and they

are also connected with other ECOSOC programs and initiatives. The three main issues are: access to clean water and sanitation facilities, sexual and reproductive health, and education. The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) in Cairo, Egypt in 1994 formulated a Program of Action, and since then, ECOSOC, the CPD, and other bodies have been working to implement it.

At the UN Millennium Summit in 2000, the international community declared a goal to halve the proportion of people without access to clean water by 2015. In 2004, approximately 1.1 billion people were without such resources (about 18% of the global population), though in some nations the figure is as high as 45%. Recently, however, ECOSOC has expressed concerns that the international community is in serious danger of not meeting this goal unless things improve drastically. Additionally, even if the global goal was met by 2015, it would still result in a significant increase in the number of people without access to clean water.

In the realm of sexual and reproductive health, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases continue to remain a primary focus. The impact of HIV/AIDS on global population trends is just now beginning to make itself known. The epidemic is, for the most part, causing a population crash in the middle (working) age bracket, thus increasing economic, social, and cultural pressures on an increasingly polarized (in terms of age) population.

The issue of education is also a significant one. Studies have shown that an increase in the average level of education in a society is correlated to a decline in birthrates. Regarding sexual and reproductive health and education, gender is at the forefront of the debates in the UN as are issues of family planning. In the future, ECOSOC members can be expected to address each of these areas, implementing both regional and global action.

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

- What are the basic demographic realities for your country and region (birth rates, death rates, population distribution, annual growth rate, population density, etc.)?
- What is your country's official position on family planning initiatives and the reproductive rights of women (i.e. birth control, abortion, pre-natal care, one-child policies, etc.)?
- What solutions does your country support for international population and development problems?
- If you represent a developing country, what are the obstacles to providing your population with access to clean water and sanitation facilities? If you represent an industrialized nation, what efforts does your country support to aid developing countries in this situation?
- To what extent does your country achieve gender parity in education? How can this be improved worldwide?

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www.hsph.harvard.edu/hcpds/research.html – Harvard Center for Population and Development Studies

SOCIAL AND HUMAN RIGHTS QUESTIONS: NARCOTIC DRUGS

The use, abuse, and trade of controlled substances, particularly narcotic drugs has been an ongoing discussion since the beginning of the United Nations. Narcotics have not only been identified as a great health hazard, but also as a source of crime, including the funding of terrorist activities, and causes instabilities in development, economies, and democracy. The UN has continually strived to reduce the abuse and trade of these substances through constantly monitoring and assisting nations in dealing with the continual threat of narcotic drugs and other controlled substances.

The Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND) has been responsible for analyzing the world drug situation and developing proposals to control and combat the world drug problem. Established in 1946, the Commission is the central policy-making body for dealing with drug related matters. In 1991, the CND became responsible for governing the newly formed United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP). The CND gives policy guidance and monitors the UNDCP and works with the UNDCP to establish the budget. This budget finances the Programme's operational activities and accounts for over ninety percent of the resources available to the UN for drug control. The UNDCP is administered as part of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

During the twentieth special session on the world drug problem by the General Assembly, in 1998, the GA requested that Member States report biennially to the Commission on Narcotic Drugs on their progress in meeting the goals agreed upon during the special session (the Action Plan). The Commission is responsible for analyzing these reports and prepares a consolidated report. The first and second of these reports were released in 2001 and 2003.

The Economic and Social Council and the GA have continually addressed the world drug program throughout the years. The resulting resolutions and reports have emphasized the importance of demand and supply reduction to reduce illicit drug trading. To reduce drug demand, the UN bodies have encouraged research, education, and increased public awareness, especially for youth,

who are at a higher risk. The importance of drug rehabilitation and treatment, intervention programs, and social reintegration programs to help those in need has also been stressed. These are further outlined in the Declaration on Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction, also adopted during the twentieth special session of the GA.

These UN bodies have also addressed reducing the illicit trade in narcotics and other controlled substances. They have stressed the importance of local law enforcement initiatives to the countering of such trade, and money laundering associated with this trade. The UN has also encouraged Member States to provide assistance and technical support to the authorities of States affected by illicit trade. The use of voluntary funds, through the UNDCP, to affected states for the purpose of education and training and building of resources for combating the illicit trading has also been suggested. For some States affected by illicit trade, narcotics and other controlled substances are an important economic resource. The need to increase demand for alternative products has also been highlighted as a way to reduce the need for the supply of controlled substances.

Varying results have been seen over the past decade in the area of illicit narcotic and drug abuse. For example, heroin abuse has decreased in West Europe. However, increases have been seen in East Europe, Central Asia, and the Russian Federation, fueled mostly by the rapid growth of opium in Afghanistan. On a positive note, the market potential is not yet as great as in West Europe, but the potential for one is large. Abuse of cocaine has shown some improvement. Colombia is the biggest producer of cocaine, but has shown a decrease in production by 37% over two years. Other suppliers such as Peru and Bolivia, have also shown reductions in supply and demand. However, there are signs showing an increase in the markets in South America and Europe.

The changing of drug trends is an indication that adjustments always need to be made to counter new threats. The monitoring and control of drug precursors has gained importance as a close link to the abuse of drugs derived from the precursors. The internet has been identified as a source for illicit drug trade, and the CND has recommended that Member States track and dismantle these sites and implement laws governing such trades. Member States must also combat the popular trend to legalize the use of controlled substances for non-medical purposes. There are also a number of Member States who are not party to the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs of 1961 and the two following conventions on psychotropic substances and illicit traffic of controlled substances.

Questions to consider from your country's perspective on this issue include:
- How has your nation or region been impacted by abuse and trade in narcotics?
- What aspects of the drug control solutions are most important to your nation or region: reduction in supply and demand, education, human and other resources, etc?
- To what extent can the CND, UNODC, and other organizations dictate and implement global policies without violating national sovereignty?

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Convention on Psychotropic Substances 1971
Global Illicit Drug Trends 2003 - Biennial report released by the UNODC
Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, 1961
A/RES/58/141 - International cooperation against the world drug problem
A/RES/S-20/2 - The Political Declaration adopted at the 20th Special Session
A/RES/S-20/3 - Declaration on Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction
E/2003/INF/2/Add.4 - Resolutions and decisions adopted by ECOSOC in the substantive session of 2003
PR SOC/NAR/896 - March 19 press release on the 47th session of the CND

Additional Web Resources:
www.unodc.org
www.unodc.org/unodc/cnd.html -- CND webpage
www.incb.org
www.un.org/issues/docs/d-crime.asp

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

In addition to the three main topics on ECOSOC's agenda, the Council will also receive a report on the final day from the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD). As a functional commission established by ECOSOC, the CSD is required to make annual reports on its activities to the members of ECOSOC. The CSD will present its report only on specified topics. While these reports are generally accepted pro forma, ECOSOC may also choose to take some action on the recommendations contained in the report. The CSD may also present their recommendations in resolution format, allowing ECOSOC the chance to review and formally pass the CSD's proposals.

To facilitate this process, the final session of ECOSOC and CSD will culminate in a joint session at which the CSD will present its recommendations to ECOSOC. Following this presentation, it will be up to the joint session to take further action. Please be aware that, as a functional commission of ECOSOC, the CSD has been given significant responsibilities to study, review, debate and decide on recommended actions within specific topical areas that ECOSOC felt should be dealt with in greater detail than could be addressed by the main body. It is recommended that all Representatives assigned to ECOSOC also review the background section on the CSD (Chapter VII), and Representatives may choose to do some additional research into these topics.

CHAPTER VI.
THE COMMISSION ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

STATE MEMBERS

Algeria	Costa Rica	Hungary	Republic of Korea
Antigua & Barbuda	Croatia	Iran, Islamic Republic of	Russian Federation
Argentina	Democratic Republic of the	Jamaica	Saint Lucia
Australia	Congo	Japan	Saudi Arabia
Austria	Egypt	Kazakhstan	Sierra Leone
Azerbaijan	Ethiopia	Lesotho	South Africa
Bangladesh	Fiji	Luxembourg	Sudan
Belgium	Finland	Nepal	The Former Yugoslav
Belize	France	Netherlands	Republic of Macedonia
Benin	Gabon	Norway	Turkey
Brazil	Germany	Pakistan	Uganda
Canada	Ghana	Paraguay	United Kingdom
China	Guinea-Bissau	Peru	United States
Colombia	Honduras	Qatar	Uzbekistan

This year, AMUN is simulating the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD), one of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). Participation is open to one or two Representatives from any country currently seated on the Commission. The CSD will meet all four days of the Conference, and will present a report to ECOSOC on the final day. While the range of subject matter before the CSD may seem overwhelming, significant work on the topics of discussion is nonetheless achievable with thoughtful preparation.

ABOUT THE COMMISSION ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The CSD was created in December 1992 as a follow up to the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), which addressed the urgent problems of environmental protection and socio-economic development. The UNCED, also known as the Earth Summit, endorsed the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development and adopted Agenda 21, a plan for achieving sustainable development in the 21st century. The objectives of the CSD, as defined by the General Assembly, are to ensure effective follow-up to UNCED, enhance international cooperation, integrate environment and development issues and examine the progress of the implementation of Agenda 21 at the national, regional and international levels.

The CSD is a 53-member commission of ECOSOC and meets annually to monitor and report on the implementation of the Earth Summit agreements. Members are elected to three year terms by ECOSOC with broad regional representation. The CSD also receives assistance from the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Division for Sustainable Development. Non-Member States, UN organizations, and inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations are also encouraged to participate.

A five year review of the Earth Summit (Earth Summit +5) was held in June 1997, where a special session of the GA adopted the CSD's Programme for the Further Implementation of Agenda 21. The ten year review was held in 2002 at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg. The WSSD Plan of Implementation, reiterates the initial mandate and function of the CSD, and calls for an enhanced role for the CSD to respond in an integrated fashion to new demands in sustainable development. The Plan of Implementation focuses not only on linkages between global initiatives and regional and national plans, but also on increased integration between economic, social, and environmental dimensions of sustainable development goals.

THE SIMULATION

During the 2004 AMUN Conference, the CSD will consider topics of Trade and Sustainable Development, addressed in Chapter 2 of Agenda 21 and Chapters V and X of the Plan of Implementation. To allow for more detailed substantive debate, the simulation will be limited to two topics: Making Trade and Environment Mutually Supportive; and Encouraging Macroeconomic Policies Conducive to Environment and Development. The Commission will be able to write both reports on the subjects, as well as resolutions when appropriate to recommend actions.

PREPARATION

As a foundation for subsequent research, Representatives are strongly encouraged to familiarize themselves with the Rio Declaration, Agenda 21, and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation. In addition, documents from past sessions that considered trade and development will be an extremely helpful starting point. Careful review of the following topic overviews and the related bibliographies will provide some assistance in this regard. It should be noted however that the topic overviews should not serve as the terminal point for research efforts but only as the beginning.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

MAKING TRADE AND ENVIRONMENT MUTUALLY SUPPORTIVE

The past three decades have marked a growing awareness of the connection between development and environmental protection. The need for economic growth in the developing world has clashed with the need to preserve vital environmental resources throughout the world.

In 1972, the UN Conference on the Human Environment initiated an investigation of the relationship between development and environmental protection. The UN World Commission on Environment and Development (Brudtland Commission) was the body created for this task. In its 1987 report the commission called for the development of specific strategies for achieving sustainable development.

With the interconnectedness of the world economy, and desiring to promote worldwide economic prosperity and environmental preservation, the UN sponsored the 1992 United Nations Conference of Environmental Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Representatives of 172 states attended, as well as numerous NGOs, representing groups such as women, farmers, trade unions, indigenous peoples, and local authorities. The most significant agreements passed at the conference were the Rio Conference Declaration on Environment and Development, and Agenda 21. The Declaration contains 27 principles that stress universal rights to economic development while addressing the needs of present and future generations. Agenda 21 is a long-term plan laying out how to achieve sustainable development throughout the world. Agenda 21 focuses on social and economic dimensions of development, resource management, and strengthening the role of those directly affected by the developmental policies. Agenda 21 also contains a proposal for the implementation of the above-mentioned issues.

More specifically, Agenda 21 calls for a new global partnership that would strengthen international collaboration and thus promote the implementation of the newly adopted strategies. In addition to states, organizations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund are called on to promote global partnerships and cooperation with developing countries. Further, Agenda 21 contains commitments to promote economic policies that would favor environmental sustainability and highlights the need of a dynamic international environment that would provide the developing countries with the opportunity to grow economically while promoting environmental protection.

Agenda 21 recognizes that trade is one of the principal means to achieve sustainable development. The agreement recognizes that developing countries must make a continued effort to integrate into the international trading system in order to experience economic growth. While international trade provides the developing countries with a fundamental chance to achieve economic growth, it is important that such growth does not occur at the expense of the environment. Therefore Agenda 21 calls for (a) achieving sustainable development through trade liberalization, (b) providing for trade and environment to be mutually supportive, (c) aiding financially the developing countries, and (d) encouraging economic policies supportive of both environment and economic development.

In December 1992, the UN Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) was created to monitor the implementation of Agenda 21. The CSD is a commission of the UN Economic and Social Council. Since 1992 it has been evaluating reports on the implementation of the provisions enshrined in Agenda 21.

From June 23 to 27, 1997 the UN General Assembly gathered in special session in New York, in what was called Earth Summit +5, to discuss the process of implementation of the Earth Summit agreements. Although modest progress was made in areas such as population growth, collaboration between international institutions and world food production, general trends suggested that the commitment demonstrated by States to implement the goals of Earth Summit Agreements are still far from producing sustainable development.

Stressing further the importance of environmental sustainability, the UN in 2000 adopted the Millennium Declaration, containing eight goals to be achieved by 2015. One of these goals was environmental sustainability. The Millennium goals represent an additional commitment of both developed and developing countries to eradicate poverty through promotion of economic growth and environmental sustainability.

In 2002, the Earth Summit +10 was held in Johannesburg, South Africa to follow-up on the grave concerns that emerged during the Earth Summit +5 on the implementation of Agenda 21 (1997). The summit convened to once again assess the progress in the implementation of the aforementioned plan. Nevertheless, it was once again recognized that the provisions contained in Agenda 21 demanded severe structural changes in international and national economic and environmental policies. The Earth Summit +10 was called to reinforce the necessity of the implementation of the provisions of Agenda 21, the failings of which were recognized during the Earth Summit +5. Some of the failures were identified in the field of international aid, which fell since 1992, growing international debt and inadequate technology transfer. States once again re-affirmed the necessity of protecting the environment while encouraging development. It was, once again, recognized that the economies of the developing countries depend heavily on the use of their environment for production. Therefore it is important to reaffirm the necessity of promoting global partnerships that will promote cooperation, technology transfer and protection of the environment while encouraging economic growth of the developing countries. While the Western countries again stressed the importance of the commitments made, the representatives of Group of 77 and the NGOs participating in the conference acknowledged that too little is being done.

While Agenda 21 remains the most comprehensive long-term plan on achieving sustainable development and economic growth in the world, it has also not yet been fully implemented. The 2002 Johannesburg Earth Summit +10 revitalized the work of the CSD, but further commitment is needed on the part of both developed and developing countries to fully implement the principles of Agenda 21.

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

- What steps can your nation take to promote sustainable development?
- What position has your nation taken on issues relative to international cooperation to achieve broad-based equitable growth?
- What additional steps can the UN use to ensure greater compliance with Agenda 21 and other international agreements?
- What steps can the industrialized world take to encourage equitable trade with the developing nations?

- What can the developing nations do to promote environmental protection while improving their national economy and international trade?

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www.foei.org/trade/, Friends of the Earth

www.fao.org/DOCREP/003/X6730E/X6730E01.HTM, FAO

www.unep.org/wssd/Default.asp, UN Environment Program, World Summit on Sustainable Development.

www.unctad.org/Templates/Page.asp?intItemID=1530&lang=1 United Nations Conference on trade and Development (UNCTAD)

earthwatch.unep.net/development/index.php, UN System-Wide Earthwatch.

www.un.org/esa/sustdev/, CSD Homepage

ENCOURAGING MACROECONOMIC POLICIES CONDUCIVE TO ENVIRONMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

The Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development defined sustainable development as "development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." In order to set a solid foundation in which nation states can develop policy that is conducive to sustainable development, world leaders met in 1992 for the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro. The product of the summit was Agenda 21, a framework for the global plan of action for sustainable development. The Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) was created in order to ensure the implementation of Agenda 21. The role of the CSD is to ensure adequate follow up of the Earth Summit and to report on the implementation of Agenda 21. A five year follow up conference was held in 1997 and a ten year follow-up conference was held at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg, South Africa. The WSSD built upon work done by the World Trade Organization's Ministerial Conference (fourth session, Doha, November 2001) and the International Conference on Financing for Development (Monterrey, March 2002). The summit launched the Johannesburg Plan for Implementation which contains specific and time bound goals (A/58/210).

Several key issues have been recognized that can be addressed on the macroeconomic level (Agenda 21, Chapters 2, 33). It has been recognized by the CSD, the World Trade Organization, and numerous NGOs that trade liberalization can have substantial impact on sustainable development. Trade liberalization helps to reduce poverty by creating new markets for goods, along with access to resources; this in turn has an effect on sustainable development. When trade liberalization is properly implemented, new economic avenues are opened to those in poverty, and the poor no longer need to rely on practices that lead to environmental degradation in order to survive. However, it is important to note that policy on the national level must be implemented such that all citizens are ensured equitable access to economic opportunities and natural resources.

A report on the progress of the implementation of Agenda 21 states that, "scientific understanding of the ecological, social and economic implications of biodiversity loss is limited and scattered" (E/CN.17/2004/2). The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment was commissioned to study this complex issue through a global research endeavor. A conceptual framework was developed and published in September 2003.

With the onset of globalization there has been an influx of environmentally sound technologies into developing countries. The transfer of technology typically occurs within the context of "trade, foreign direct investment, and infrastructure projects" (E/CN.17/2004/2). Technology transfer is vital to developing countries in that it allows them to become competitive in the world market and use natural resources more efficiently and with less damage to their ecosystems.

At the national level, strategies for sustainable development generally evolve as poverty reduction strategies that incorporate social, economic and environmental issues. It is important to encourage member states to truly integrate social economic and environmental issues, and not to allow them to become secondary considerations when formulating policy. Also, in many developing countries macroeconomic policy for development and environmental policy are often disjointed, thus the challenge becomes creating cohesive policy.

Also bear in mind that many of the goals and the plans of actions of the Millennium Development Goals are conducive to achieving sustainable development. While sustainable development is not one of the specific MDGs, implementation of several of the major goals including eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, ensuring environmental sustainability and the development of global partnerships for development are related to sustainable development. Achievement of theses development goals will have direct effects on issues of sustainable development. Concurrent implementation of Agenda 21 and the Millennium Development Goals will each reinforce the other.

While real progress has been made in the last decade, it is vital that a continued and sustained effort toward sustainable development be maintained. Several key areas where more progress is necessary include efforts to make consumption and production patterns more equitable as well as strategies to ensure market access for developing countries.

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

- Sustainable development occurs at both the national and international level. What commitments from the international community will your state require to successfully implement Agenda 21? What national commitments will need to be made to successfully implement Agenda?
- What is your country's position on free trade? What barriers stand in the way of free trade for your country?
- How does free trade effect the environment? Are there ways in which "sound macroeconomic policies" may not be the best route for sustainable development?

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A/CONF.198/11, 18-22 Mar 2002, Report of the International Conference on finance for Development, Monterrey Mexico

A/CONF.199/20, 26 Aug - 4 Sep 2002, Report of the World Summit on Sustainable Development, Johannesburg, South Africa

A/RES/55/199, 5 Feb 2001, Ten-year review of progress achieved in the Implementation of the outcome of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

A/RES/55/2, 18 Sep 2000. United Nations Millennium Declaration

E/CN.17/2004/2, 24 Feb 2004 Overview of progress towards sustainable development: a Programme for the Implementation of Agenda 21 and the outcomes of the World Summit on Sustainable Development Report of the Secretary-General: Review of the implementation of Agenda 21, the Programme for the Further Implementation of Agenda 21 and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation Report of the Secretary-General

Additional Web Resources:

www.un.org/esa/sustdev/ -- The Commission on Sustainable Development

www.johannesburgsummit.org -- Official UN website for the Johannesburg Summit 2002

www.un.org/millenniumgoals/ -- Official UN website for the Millennium Development Goals

www.millenniumassessment.org -- Millennium Ecosystem Assessment: Strengthening Capacity to Manage Ecosystems Sustainability for Human Well-Being

CHAPTER VII.
THE INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY

INTRODUCTION TO THE INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY (IAEA)

In keeping with the tradition of presenting a unique simulation of a United Nations body or affiliated organization, AMUN 2004 will simulate the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). Participation will be voluntary and open to one Representative from each delegation attending AMUN. The IAEA will meet for all four days of the Conference.

Before delving into the substantive issues, Representatives should understand why this Agency is distinctive. In the tradition of AMUN special simulations, the IAEA will give participants a diverse, more challenging atmosphere in which to use their skills of diplomacy, research and analysis. The topics to be discussed are detailed, and will require careful preparation prior to conference. In order to fully participate in the simulation, it will be imperative that Representatives have a working knowledge of the structure and mission of the International Atomic Energy Agency, the relevant policies of the Member State they represent, and an awareness of energy and nuclear-related issues worldwide.

ABOUT IAEA

The IAEA was created in 1957 in response to the deep fears and expectations resulting from the discovery of nuclear energy. The IAEA Statute, which 81 nations unanimously approved in October 1956, outlines the three pillars of the Agency's work: nuclear verification and security, safety and technology transfer. The Statute has been amended three times, in 1963, 1973 and 1989.

THE SIMULATION

During the 2004 AMUN Conference, the simulation of the International Atomic Energy Agency will be a special session. For the purposes of this simulation, all UN Member States will be considered to have a seat in the special session. In order to facilitate a simulation in four days, the special session will focus on two issues: Safeguards and Verification and Safety of Research Reactors. The Assembly may, at their option, create either reports or resolutions to cover these issues. The IAEA will also present a final summary report on their work, including their resolution/reports, to the GA Plenary on the last afternoon session of the Conference. It is also possible, based on the results of the discussion, that a briefing to the Security Council may be necessary.

PREPARATION

As a foundation for subsequent research, Representatives should familiarize themselves with a variety of foundation documents, such as the IAEA Statute and the supporting documents found on the IAEA web page. Careful review of the provided topic overviews and the related bibliographies will provide some assistance in this regard. It should be noted, however, that the topic overviews should not serve as the terminal point for research efforts but only as the beginning.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

SAFEGUARDS AND VERIFICATION

In 2002, a "new" approach was endorsed through the IAEA, called "integrated safeguards." The integrated safeguards incorporate measures that significantly strengthen the efficiency and effectiveness of the safeguards system, which was born in the 1960s to face new kinds of nuclear proliferation challenges. It builds from lessons learned after inspectors -- under far-ranging inspections mandated by the UN Security Council after the 1991 Gulf War -- discovered Iraq's secret nuclear-weapons program.

On 24-26 February 2003, approximately 50 international experts from research institutes and media outlets met at IAEA (International Atomic Energy Agency) Headquarters in Vienna to participate in a Seminar on New Approaches to Nuclear Verification and Nuclear Security. The seminar, organized by the IAEA's Office of External Relations and Policy Coordination and co-sponsored by the United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR), the Agency for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America and the Caribbean (OPANAL), the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the PIR Centre (Moscow), the Monterey Institute Center for Nonproliferation Studies, and the Nuclear Material Control Centre (Japan), provided a forum for senior Agency staff and seminar participants to exchange information and ideas regarding the Agency's evolving approaches to nuclear verification and nuclear security.

During this seminar, there was a lengthy discussion regarding the current challenges facing the nuclear non-proliferation regime. This included an emphasis on: nuclear terrorism, the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), the current increase in terrorist attacks (with the incumbent possibilities of nuclear attacks in the future), the withdrawal of the Democratic Peoples' Republic of Korea from the NPT, and Iran's expressed intent to resume a nuclear program. All of these issues have led to an increased concern about verification and security threats. The IAEA is primarily concerned in these areas with strengthening the detection and trafficking of nuclear and radioactive materials.

Questions to consider from the prospective of your government on this issue include:

- What role do you see your government taking in the strengthening the detection of nuclear weapons?
- What level sanctions should or could be leveled against countries that violate the NPT?
- What can be done to prevent trafficking of nuclear and radioactive materials?

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Treaty on Non-proliferation of Nuclear Weapons. www.iaea.org/Publications/Documents/Infcircs/Others/infcirc140.pdf

The Safeguard Systems of the IAEA. www.iaea.org/OurWork/SV/Safeguards/safeg_system.pdf

Stronger Nuclear Safeguards System Taking Shape. www.iaea.or.at/NewsCenter/News/2002/sgarticle_01.shtml

Additional Web Resources:

www.iaea.org -- IAEA Homepage

www.bullatomsci.org/ -- Homepage of the Bulletin of Atomic Scientists

www.nrdc.org/nuclear/nudb/datainx.asp - NRDC: Archive of Nuclear Data

directory.google.com/Top/Science/Technology/Energy/Nuclear/Safeguards/ - Directory of Nuclear Safeguards

SAFETY OF RESEARCH REACTORS

The Code of Conduct on the Safety of Research Reactors goes before the IAEA General Conference in September 2004 for adoption, having been approved by the Board of Governors at its March 2004 meeting. This will be of particular interest as a topic of discussion at the AMUN conference, as the code will be new to all IAEA members, and implementation issues will be high on the agenda.

The Code establishes "best practice" guidelines for the licensing, construction and operation of research reactors. At its core is "the safety of the public, the environment and the workers," said IAEA Director of Nuclear Installation Safety, Mr. Ken Brockman.

Research reactors were excluded from the Convention on Nuclear Safety when it was drawn-up in the early 1990s. The need for an overarching Code of Conduct came to a head in a resolution at the 2000 IAEA General Conference, prompted by safety concerns as many of the world's research reactors approached the end of their originally planned lifespans. "Increased fears of terrorist threats following September 11, 2001 attacks in the United States also helped to fuel desire for a Code of Conduct," Mr. Brockman said. Just less than half of the world's 272 research reactors still operate using highly enriched uranium - a key ingredient for a nuclear bomb.

The Code is a non-binding international legal agreement, where States determine their own level of commitment to its guidance. The Code was derived from more detailed international standards that have been promulgated for the safe day-to-day operation, construction, shutdown and decommission of research reactors, Mr. Brockman said. "It will pave the way for the continued evolution of these standards," he said.

The Agency has already carried out numerous safety and security missions at research reactors which, among other things, have helped to improve the security infrastructure at reactors.

Questions to consider from the prospective of your government on this issue include:

- Will your government adopt the Code? Will you incorporate the best practices guidelines?
- What implementation challenges will exist once the code is in place?
- What role do you see your government taking in the strengthening the detection of nuclear weapons?
- What can be done to encourage other states to participate and adopt the code?

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IAEA Conference in Chile Focuses on Topical Issues (Staff Report). www.iaea.or.at/NewsCenter/News/2003/reactors20031117.html

IAEA-proposed "International Legal Instrument" on Research Reactor Safety. www.nrc.gov/reading-rm/doc-collections/commission/secys/2001/secy2001- 0169/2001-0169scy.html

New fuel improves proliferation resistance of research reactors. www.anl.gov/OPA/frontiers2001/e4part.html

Radiation Safety Assessment of Small Reactors for Distributed Energy System. www.itn.mces.pt/ICRS-RPS/oralpdf/Monday10/Session6_1/odano03.pdf

Additional Web Resources:

www.iaea.org -- IAEA Homepage

www.bullatomsci.org/ -- Homepage of the Bulletin of Atomic Scientists

directory.google.com/Top/Science/Technology/Energy/Nuclear/Safeguards/ -- Directory of Nuclear Safeguards

www.ns.iaea.org/standards/Publications/rr.htm -- Research Reactor Standards

www.world.nuclear.org/portal/nuclear_safety.htm -- World Nuclear Associations - Nuclear Portal

CHAPTER VII.
THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

The International Court of Justice (ICJ) currently has three cases on its docket, as described below. Additional cases may be added by the AMUN Secretariat, or at the recommendation of any participating delegation and the Secretary-General. If cases are added, background information will be distributed to all delegations participating in the cases (as either Judge or Advocate). Please note that this background is intended only as a brief outline of the issues to be argued before the Court. Significant legal research will be required of the Representatives involved in cases before the Court, either as Advocates or Judges. Representatives should refer to the AMUN *Rules and Procedures* Handbook, Chapter IV - The International Court of Justice for detailed information on the ICJ and on preparing for ICJ cases.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

NICARAGUA V. COLOMBIA: **TERRITORIAL AND MARITIME DISPUTE**

In 2001 the Republic of Nicaragua (Nicaragua) requested adjudication by the International Court of Justice (ICJ) to resolve a dispute with the Republic of Colombia (Colombia) over several Western Caribbean islands and the delimitation of the maritime boundary. The application is similar to a related case filed by Nicaragua against Honduras in 1999, which also sought the determination of a maritime boundary in the Caribbean.

Spain granted independence to all of Central America in 1821, including many islands in the Caribbean. Immediately thereafter the Federation of Central America (also known as the United Provinces of Central America) was formed, claiming sovereignty over the disputed islands. In 1838, the Federation of Central America was dissolved from within after years of civil war, with each member state asserting state sovereignty.

In 1928, Nicaragua, under the alleged occupation of United States forces, signed the Barcenas-Esguerra Treaty with Colombia. In this treaty Colombia recognized Nicaraguan sovereignty over the Mosquito Coast in exchange for Nicaragua recognizing Colombian sovereignty over the islands in dispute. The Nicaraguan government rejected the Barcenas-Esguerra Treaty in 1980, claiming that the islands were geographically and historically part of Nicaragua.

Nicaragua has accused the Colombian navy of interfering with Nicaraguan fishermen in the disputed area. On numerous occasions the Colombian navy has put to chase fishing trawlers that have been granted fishing rights, and seized fishing vessels that are in the disputed territory. Additionally, Nicaragua has banned both Honduran and Colombian fishing trawlers from Nicaraguan waters.

Colombia has held San Andres and Providencia Islands and their associated keys since the nineteenth century, when both Nicaragua and Colombia gained independence from Spain. The islands are located 300 km from Nicaragua and 580 km from Colombia and are part of a chain claimed by Colombia that reaches to within 450 km of Jamaica. The island chain lies on the edge of the Central American continental shelf, a bountiful fishing area.

In 1986 Colombia and the Republic of Honduras (Honduras) signed the Lopes-Ramirez Treaty assigning rights to resources in the Caribbean and which also implicitly recognized Colombian sovereignty over the disputed territory. To preserve their claims over the disputed territory Nicaragua filed a case against Honduras in the ICJ. This case is has yet to be decided by the Court.

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

- Does the International Court of Justice have jurisdiction over this dispute?
- What role does customary international law play in establishing sovereignty over the disputed islands and determining a maritime boundary?
- What was the effect of the independence from Spain on the sovereignty of the islands?
- Is the Barcenas-Esguerra Treaty of 24 March 1928 a valid bilateral treaty?
- What is the definition of occupation under international law?
- Is the Lopes-Ramirez Treaty valid?
- What impact does the 1958 Convention on the Continental Shelf have on this case?
- What impact does the 1982 Convention on the Law of the Sea have on this case?

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1982 Law of the Sea

1958 Convention on the Continental Shelf
Pact of Bogota
Barcenas-Esguerra Treaty of 24 Mar 1928
2 Aug 1986 Lopes-Ramirez Treaty Honduras and Colombia (ratified – 30 Nov 1999)

UN Document:
ICJ Docket. www.icj-cij.org/icjwww/idocket/inicol/inicol-frame.htm

Additional Web Resource:
www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/reference_maps/pdf/central_america.pdf (a detailed regional map that includes the areas in conflict)

BENIN V. NIGER: FRONTIER DISPUTE

From the time that the Republic of Benin (Benin) and the Republic of Niger (Niger) gained independence, they have disputed their 165-mile mutual boundary along the Niger and Mekrou rivers. The main question revolves around possession of a series of islands situated on the river.

In 2001 Benin brought proceedings to the International Court of Justice (ICJ) with the sole purpose of reacquiring l'Ete island and 13 other islands on the Niger and Mekrou rivers. Benin, or Dahomey, historically was a French colony dating back to 1893, the year it gained official status as a colony of France. For over 60 years Benin transitioned from the position of a colony, to a member of the French Union, to an autonomous member of the French Community, and finally became a sovereign state. Niger followed a similar path. In late 1900, it became a military territory in French West Africa, followed by becoming a member of the French Community, and ultimately gaining independence.

The alignment of the boundary between Benin and Niger was delimited by a French Statute of 27 October 1938. This statute delimited the boundary as being "On the northeast, along the Niger to its junction with the Mekrou. On the northwest, by the boundary between Dahomey and the colony of Niger [which from the junction of the two rivers had been determined previously to follow the Mekrou southward]." It is worth noting that Benin and Niger had a concurrent boundary at this time from Togo to Nigeria, due to the realignment of colonial borders in 1932. France again redrew the boundary lines in 1947 returning them to their original lines. Most international maps show the disputed territory as belonging to Niger, but Benin's claim harkens back to the 1938 French Statute as evidence that some of the islands do indeed belong to Benin.

Historically, the islands at the center of the dispute have been populated by sedentary citizens of Benin. Periodically they encountered nomadic peoples of Niger, who then settled on various islands in the disputed territory. The most recent conflict over the islands occurred on the island of l'Ete, when Benin attempted to build an administrative building, and Niger allegedly sent troops to prevent the construction. This case highlights a problem that many former colonies try to solve, colonial powers repeatedly redrawing boundaries causing conflicts with now sovereign neighboring states. Fortunately, in this situation, both parties have committed to a peaceful settlement of the dispute underlined throughout international law.

In 2001, Benin and Niger held bilateral negotiations in an attempt to solve the dispute. These negotiations failed to produce any results, and at that point both parties signed the Cotonou Agreement of 11 June 2001. This agreement, which came into effect on 11 April 2002, set forth the creation of a Special Panel of the International Court of Justice to arbitrate the case. In addition, the agreement removed the titles of "Applicant" and "Respondent" from the parties to the dispute, putting both parties on equal ground for the arbitration. Both parties will present their arguments in a manner set forth by the Court, and ultimately agreed to abide by the decision of the Special Panel.

In June 2004, the parties to the dispute were rewarded a United Nations Trust Fund for their commitment to pacific settlement, with each party being awarded a monetary incentive to continue the arbitration program. The $350,000 (USD) reward comes with the explicit condition that the money is strictly used to defray the expenses incurred in taking a dispute to the International Court.

The advocates and justices should treat the ICJ session at the 2004 AMUN conference as being a session of the Special Panel. To allow for maximum participation, the 5 judge panel will instead be replaced by a full seating of the court. The justices will then outline the manner the advocates will present their arguments, within the Rules of the Court, during the first session of the 2004 AMUN ICJ.

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The fall of the communist system in the former Yugoslavia, accompanied by the elections of ultra-nationalist parties in the former republics, yielded a stage set for violence. The separation of Croatia and Slovenia in 1991 from Serb-controlled Yugoslavia initiated four years of bloodshed that killed thousands and displaced hundreds of thousands of Serbs, Croats, and Muslims of the region. Slobodan Milosevic, on trial before an international tribunal for the crimes of Genocide, led the forces of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia to create a "Greater Serbia". Croatia comes before the Court accusing Serbia and Montenegro of aiding and abetting, as states, in the crimes of Genocide.

The political discord between the Croats and the Serbs is historical. With the creation of the state of Yugoslavia from the remnants of the Hapsburg Empire in the wake of World War II, the two groups engaged in a political struggle within the state system as two competing national groups. This struggle continued at a low level during the period of communist rule and Soviet domination. In 1988, the Serbs finally secured control of government in the post-Tito Yugoslavia with the majority of votes for the Yugoslav presidency. By late 1990, Croatian Serbs had declared a separate "Republic of Serbian Krajina" and, in 1991, began the violent rebellion.

By 1992, the rebels controlled a large part of the newly formed Republic of Croatia, which had been recognized by the United States and the European Union, and a cease-fire agreement was reached. The Serbian controlled areas remained occupied until 1995, when the Republic of Croatia liberated some of the territory through Operation Flash. The Republic of Croatia met with the rebels to negotiate a peaceful settlement of the conflict, which did not materialize. Croatia enacted Operation Storm following the failed negotiations. Consequently, Operation Storm liberated most of the remaining rebel-controlled areas. In 1996 the Republic of Croatia and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia reached an Agreement for Normalization of Relations. Subsequently, Croatia regained control of the remainder of its territory.

The UN was not silent during this period of violence. Following the 1992 peace agreement, the UN created a peacekeeping mission to help stabilize the region (UNPROFOR). The General Assembly also produced two resolutions condemning the violence. GA resolution 47/121 (18 Dec 1992) recognized the genocide by the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and GA Resolution 49/630 (1995) condemned the ethnic cleansing by the Serb-Croats. Croatia brings this case before the International Court of Justice to contest the Yugoslav response to its duties to repay for the destruction of Croatia during the violence. The Republic of Croatia contends that Serbia and Montenegro are responsible for the actions of the Serb-Croats, because they aided and supported rebels who were fighting for their state's ends, and should be bound by the Agreement for Normalization of Relations to pay for the damage done by those rebels.

To understand the ramifications of the actions of the rebels, it is important to understand the definition of genocide, as defined by the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crimes of Genocide. Does the de facto control of the Croatian rebels by the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (Yugoslavia) exist, and does it in-turn create legal liability for their actions by Yugoslavia? Were the rebels fighting for the political goals of Yugoslavia, or did they have their own agenda for a sep-

arate state? Does this effect the perception of the responsible party in international law?

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

- Does the International Court of Justice have jurisdiction over this dispute?
- Do the actions during the conflict constitute genocide as underlined in the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crimes of Genocide?
- When did the Republic of Croatia become a sovereign state?
- What effect does the recognition of The Republic of Croatia have on the legal aspects of the case?
- What is the legal definition of internal conflict?
- Is there a legal differentiation between the national and state groups involved in the case? How will this effect the dispute before the court?

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Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field

Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War

Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War

Declaration on the Inadmissibility of Intervention in the Domestic Affairs of States and the Protection of Their Independence and Sovereignty

Resolution on Definition of Aggression

Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 Aug 1949, and Relating to the Protection of Victims of International Conflicts (Protocol I)

Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 Aug 1949, and Relating to the Protection of Victims of International Conflicts (Protocol II)

Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of

Genocide
Universal Declaration of Human Rights
Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees
Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners
Convention on the Rights and Duties of States
Vienna Convention on Succession of States in Respect of
    Treaties
Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties
Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees

UN Documents:
A/RES/47/21
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Additional Web Resources:
www.icj-cij.org
www.un.org/law

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