

*16<sup>TH</sup> ANNUAL*

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**AMERICAN MODEL UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL**

# ISSUES AT AMUN

*BRINGING GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES TO FUTURE LEADERS*



*CELEBRATING THE UN'S 60<sup>TH</sup> ANNIVERSARY YEAR!*

**19-22 NOVEMBER 2005**  
**CHICAGO, ILLINOIS**

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### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The 2005 American Model United Nations Conference gratefully acknowledges the contributions of the following individuals, without whom this *Issues at AMUN Handbook* would not have been possible:

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*A special thank you for the printing services provided by:  
Harlan Aldort, Graphic Design & Printing, Chicago, Illinois*

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# ISSUES AT AMUN 2005

## 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 2005 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 the 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](http://www.amun.org) for a full list of recommended research links.

Three on-line sources of particular note are the United Nations homepage, located at [www.un.org](http://www.un.org), the *New York Times* on-line, located at [www.nytimes.com](http://www.nytimes.com), and the *UN Wire*, located at [www.smartbrief.com/un\\_wire/](http://www.smartbrief.com/un_wire/). *UN Wire* is a daily briefing on UN issues provided by the United Nations Foundation; note that *UN Wire* articles published prior to August, 2004 can be found at [www.unwire.org](http://www.unwire.org). 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 attempt 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 nine “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 Union (EU).

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 Union.

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	Denmark	Romania
Argentina	France	Russian Federation
Benin	Greece	United Kingdom
Brazil	Japan	United Republic of Tanzania
China	Philippines	United States of America

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/](http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/)). Please note that the bibliographies for these topics focus primarily on UN sources, with some news sources provided for background on 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 Sudan

Despite increasing pressure from the international community, the Darfur region of Sudan remains in the grip of a violent insurgency which is now more than two years old. The conflict started as rebel groups attacked government posts throughout the Darfur region, alleging that the government was favoring Arabs over black Africans in the region. The Sudanese government and allied Arab militia groups, such as the Janjaweed, retaliated against the rebels, causing widespread instability. Estimates vary on the number of dead since the beginning of the rebellion, but at least 180,000 people are believed to have died and millions more have been displaced from their homes.

On 31 March, the Security Council referred allegations of war crimes in the region to the International Criminal Court. The Court is now reviewing a list of 51 suspects who are alleged to have committed war crimes. Additionally, the African Union has decided to expand the African Union Mission in Darfur (AMIS), an observer mission deployed to the region. The observer force will be expanded from its current authorized strength of 3,320 to 7,731 personnel. However, the expansion will be contingent on aid from Western countries to pay for the deployment, as well as significant logistical support from NATO member states. The southern region of Sudan is calm for the first time in years, following the signing of a peace accord on 9 January. The United Nations has authorized 10,000 peacekeepers to oversee the implementation of the accord; however, they only have authorization to operate in southern Sudan.

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

- Why has the crisis in Sudan continued to escalate? What factors have limited the ability of the Council to take action?
- How does the Council's decision to refer Sudanese war criminals to the ICC affect the development of the ICC?
- What effect does the peace agreement in Southern Sudan have on the conflict in Darfur? What effect does it have on the rest of the region?

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- "U.S. Focuses on Aiding African Union in Darfur; The administration says it will help the AU fly peacekeepers into the region. It opposes tougher actions against Sudan's government," *Los Angeles Times*, 12 May 2005.
- "U.S. Presses Sudan for Action on Darfur Crisis," *The Washington Post*, 15 April 2005.
- "U.S. wrestles with response to Darfur crisis", *Sacramento Bee*, 24 April 2005.

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- S/Res/1593 (2005)  
S/Res/1591 (2005)  
S/Res/1590 (2005)  
S/2005/305 – Monthly report of the Secretary-General on Darfur



S/2005/285 -- Report of the Secretary-General on United Nations assistance to the African Union Mission in the Sudan  
S/2005/240 -- Monthly report of the Secretary-General on Darfur  
S/2005/140 -- Report of the Secretary-General on the Sudan pursuant to paragraphs 6, 13 and 16 of Security Council resolution 1556 (2004), paragraph 15 of resolution 1564 (2004) and paragraph 17 of resolution 1574 (2004)

### **The Situation in the Democratic Republic of the Congo**

The peacekeepers of the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) have stepped up efforts to enforce a disarmament agreement between the various armed forces in the region. MONUC has launched several raids against militiamen near the town of Ituri, following the expiration of an ultimatum for the militias to voluntarily disarm. UN forces claim to have killed dozens of militia, but the raids have come under fire from some human rights groups. According to CNN, the NGO Justice Plus has alleged that the raids killed several civilians in addition to the militia, and that the planning of the raids did not sufficiently protect civilians in the area. MONUC has also come under fire after a report from the United Nations Office of Internal Oversight which found that peacekeepers had sexually abused many local girls. The report found that peacekeepers would often engage in sex-for-food deals with girls as young as thirteen. The New York Times believes that the United Nations figure of 150 incidents most likely understates the problem, as many rape victims have been reluctant to talk with investigators. The scandal has damaged relations with locals and raised troubling questions about the effectiveness and impact of MONUC on the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

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

- What role should MONUC take in the ongoing conflict between militias in the Eastern Congo and the government?
- How does the reliance on peacekeepers from nations without a strong tradition of respecting human rights and with limited resources to pay and equip their troops impact the effectiveness of peacekeeping missions?
- What impact does the ongoing conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo have on the surrounding region?

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"U.N. battles sex scandal in Congo; Allegations undermine mission," *The Atlanta Journal-Constitution*, 3 April 2005.  
"UN may act against Rwandan rebels," *The Financial Times*, 30 March 2005.

### *UN Documents:*

S/Res/1596 (2005)  
S/Res/1592 (2005)

S/2005/167 -- Seventeenth report of the Secretary-General on the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

### **The Situation in Cote d'Ivoire**

The situation in Cote d'Ivoire remains tense more than two years after the country erupted into civil war. On 4 May, the Security Council again extended the mandate of the existing peacekeeping force (UNOCI) for a month while the member nations debated expanding the peacekeeping force by 1,200 and extending its mandate to include stabilizing the country in preparation for elections, scheduled for October. Currently, 10,000 UN and French peacekeepers are charged with patrolling a buffer zone between the rebel-held northern and government-held southern regions of the country. Secretary-General Kofi Annan has pushed for the expansion of the force; however, the move comes as UN peacekeepers are increasingly overstretched. The 2005/6 budget for peacekeeping anticipates a five billion dollar budget to keep almost 69,000 peacekeepers in the field, both unprecedented figures.

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

- In light of other peacekeeping commitments around the world, can the UN sustain this peacekeeping force, and can the currently deployed force achieve its mandate?
- 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?

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S/2005/186 -- Fourth progress report of the Secretary-General on the United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire.  
S/2005/135 -- Report of the Secretary-General on inter-mission cooperation and possible cross-border operations between the United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone, the United Nations Mission in Liberia and the United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire.

### **ISSUES IN ASIA**

#### **The Situation in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea**

Six party talks aimed at resolving a crisis over the Democratic People's Republic of Korea's nuclear program remained stalled even as the United States warned that the DPRK may be preparing for a nuclear test. The parties have not met since June of 2004, when the DPRK withdrew from the talks, citing a "hostile attitude" from the United States. Japan has recently taken a stronger stance on the issue, urging that the situation be referred to the Security Council if the DPRK does not return to negotia-



tions. The head of the International Atomic Energy Agency, Mohamed ElBaradei has warned of "disastrous consequences" if the DPRK conducts a nuclear test, and he called the DPRK's demands for concessions from other countries "nuclear blackmail." However, the Republic of Korea and the People's Republic of China have opposed calls to refer the situation to the Security Council. The ROK has stated that it does not believe the DPRK is preparing for a nuclear test, while the Chinese have resisted American pressure to reduce their energy and food aid to the DPRK. Although Chinese officials have privately complained about the DPRK's actions, they have so far been reluctant to pressure their neighbor and ally.

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

- Should the international community give economic, development, or humanitarian aid to the Democratic People's Republic of Korea to encourage it to give up its nuclear ambitions?
- How does the history of the DPRK's nuclear program affect the compromises made in the Non-Proliferation Treaty?
- How does the progression of the DPRK's nuclear program affect the negotiations over the Iranian nuclear program?

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"Shock at N Korea claim on fuel rods," *The Australian*, 12 May 2005.

"U.S. in warning to North Korea on nuclear test," *New York Times*, 16 May 2005.

"White House Warns North Korea Against Nuclear Testing," *The Washington Post*, 16 May 2005

### The Situation in Nepal

In February of 2005, King Gyanendra took power from the Prime Minister of the country and declared a state of emergency in the country. The King justified his move by blaming the elected government for the lack of success against a Maoist insurgency which has killed 12,000 people over the last 10 years. However, outside observers have not noted any improvement in the government's fortunes since the act, and both the government and the rebels have been accused of serious human rights violations as the fighting continues. Nepal's allies initially reacted strongly against the coup, with India, the United States and the United Kingdom suspending military aid to the government. However, Nepal's most important ally, India, has since resumed military aid to Nepal after the King lifted the state of emergency in May. India has been alarmed at the possibility that China might use the weakening of ties to gain influence in the region, especially after the rumored delivery of Chinese made Armored Personnel Carriers to the Nepalese military. Others have expressed concerns that a Maoist victory in the civil war could lead to instability in the region. While the Security Council has not taken up this issue to date, it is of interest to many Council members.

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

- How much pressure should be applied to the government of Nepal to restore democracy while they fight off an insurgency?
- What interests do regional and international powers have in Nepal?
- Should the Security Council take an interest in this situation?

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"The Editor: The Editor briefing: Rebel insurgency pushes Nepal to the brink: Maoist rebels in Nepal have staged a general strike in protest at the king's autocratic rule. Is there any hope of peace for the country after this latest crisis?" *The Guardian* (London), 11 April 2005.

"Maoists take hundreds from schools," *The Australian*, 17 May 2005.

"News roundup: Asia: India ends arms ban on Nepal," *The Guardian* (London), 11 May 2005.

"Vigilantes May Be Nepal's Secret Weapon Against Rebels," *New York Times*, 11 April 2005.

### ISSUES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

#### The Situation in Iraq

More than two years after the United States led invasion of Iraq, the country remains plagued by a tenacious insurgency. The United States is proceeding with its plan of training Iraqi security forces to assume security duties from coalition forces while the newly elected government of Iraq creates a constitution for the country. General George Casey has predicted that the United States will be able to significantly reduce troop levels once the constitution has been finished and a government is elected under that constitution in December. However, there have been serious concerns about the ability of Iraqi forces to fight the insurgency. Although there are now 107 battalions of Iraqi security forces, only 3 are capable of independent operations, and only about one-third are fully capable of operations even with support from coalition forces. Additionally, insurgent attacks have stabilized at approximately 65 attacks per day, but field commanders report the attacks are increasing in their sophistication.

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

- How can the Security Council assist in the restoration of Iraqi sovereignty?
- When should UN personnel be committed to dangerous and unstable environments?

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### UN Documents:

S/Res/1619

S/Res/1557



S/Res/1546  
S/Res/1538  
S/2005/513  
S/2005/377  
S/2005/233

## The Situation in Iran

Iranian leaders have expressed frustration with ongoing talks about the future of their nuclear weapons program. Iran has agreed to suspend the enrichment of uranium pending the outcome of the talks with the European Union; however, they have indicated that they expect to resume enriching uranium as part of any final deal. The United States has expressed alarm at such an outcome, alleging that Iran's program is aimed at producing a nuclear weapon. Iranian officials insist that the program is intended for civilian uses only, and that their country has fulfilled its obligations under the Non-Proliferation Treaty. The Europeans and the United States have differed over their policies towards Iran; the EU has favored incentives and negotiations while the Americans have urged that Iran be referred to the Security Council for possible sanctions. Russia has also played a role in the situation. President Putin stated in April that he was convinced that the

Iranian program was peaceful, and that his country would continue cooperating with the Iranians to construct civilian reactors for electric power.

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

- How does the Iranian nuclear program relate to the implementation of the Non-Proliferation Treaty?
- What are the Iranian's intentions for their nuclear program?
- What assurances should the international community expect from the Iranians about their program?

## Bibliography:

"Britain Backs Penalties if Iran Restarts Nuclear Program," *New York Times*, 13 May 2005.

"Iran Says Nuclear Plans on Hold; Leaders Are Frustrated, but Still Hope for Progress in Talks," *The Washington Post*, 5 May 2005.

"Prospects of breakthrough slim as EU3 and Iran agree to nuclear talks," *Financial Times* (London), 17 May 2005.

"U.S. Demand Deepens Gulf With Iran Over Nuclear Facilities," *New York Times*, 3 May 2005.



## CHAPTER III.

# THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL - 1973

### STATE MEMBERS

Australia  
Austria  
China  
France  
Guinea

India  
Indonesia  
Kenya  
Panama  
Peru

Sudan  
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics  
United Kingdom  
United States of America  
Yugoslavia

### ABOUT THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL

This year, AMUN's Historical Security Council (HSC) will focus on events beginning on 1 January 1973.

**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 1973. 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 1973 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 peacekeeping efforts.

Representatives should approach these issues based on events through 1 January 1973, 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 30+ 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 1972 through January of 1973 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 1 January 1973. The prominent events of 1972 are discussed, as well as some questions which will face the Security Council at the turn of the year. This research is intended merely as a focal point for Representatives continued exploration of the topics.

### GENERAL BACKGROUND ENTERING 1973

1972 was a pivotal year for international affairs, a time in which several regional crises dramatically heightened world tensions, while new cooperation between the US, USSR, and Communist China began to ease the superpower conflict which had been raging.

With Communist China receiving full recognition and assuming the Chinese seat at the United Nations in 1972, world focus was turned in this direction. US President Nixon's historic visit to China in February, followed by full diplomatic relations between the two countries in March, was a highlight of the spread of detente which occurred in 1972. China pushed for the complete removal of all references to "Taiwan" at the UN, and this request was grudgingly granted. New Secretary-General Kurt Waldheim visited China in August, and China and Japan ended their formal state of war (in existence since WW II) in September. On the opposite side, China disdained international opinion in March by conducting an above ground nuclear test.

US and Soviet relations also dramatically improved in 1972, with Nixon and Brezhnev signing a Strategic Arms Limitation pact in May, and the finalization of a US/Soviet trade pact in October.

Soviet and Chinese relations, however, deteriorated in 1972. This was evidenced with territorial disputes, the Soviets accusing China of attempting to break apart the Communist world, and China supporting anti-Soviet governments wherever possible.

The recognition of Bangladesh as a state, along with its admittance to the UN, was a major stumbling block for international relations in 1972. The Soviets and US led the international community in supporting Bangladesh's independence, with the USSR offering trade agreements in March, and formal US recognition of Bangladesh in April. China, however, continued to support its trading partner Pakistan in efforts to prevent Bangladesh's (formerly East Pakistan) independence. China postponed the issue of Bangladesh's UN admittance for most of the year, and in August cast its first Security Council veto to prevent Bangladesh's admittance as a member state. This deadlock continues into 1973.

Two issues specific to the Security Council highlighted new movements in 1972. The historic UN Security Council meeting in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in February was the first ever meeting in Africa, and served to dramatically highlight African issues. Also, in November Guinean Ambassador Mrs. J.M. Cisse became the first woman ever to preside over the Security Council, giving additional focus to women's equality issues around the world.

Finally, the November agreement by East and West Germany to begin diplomatic relations served to pave the way for their future acceptance as UN Member States. After a year of debates,

the agreement was reached and the US, USSR, United Kingdom and France announced they will support joint admittance to the UN in 1973, upon ratification of a formal treaty.

Overall, 1972 was a difficult year for the United Nations. The permanent members chose to handle many of their conflicts and agreements outside of the UN, leaving the other Member States feeling that internationalism was going backward, and that the UN might go the way of the League of Nations. In particular, US relations with the UN significantly deteriorated in 1972, with the US going so far as to state that they will use their veto more liberally and no longer take a soft stance on "bad" resolutions, namely those which do not actively deal with world problems from a US perspective. This is the atmosphere in which Representatives will begin their deliberations in the 1973 Security Council.

### THE SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

Arab and Israeli hostilities continued as before in the Middle East, with increased hostilities and continual small conflicts vexing the region. On 1 January 1972, the Federated Arab Republic flag was raised over Egypt, Syria and Libya, marking heightened relations between these states, as well as increased antagonism toward Israel. In August, Egypt and Libya took this one step further, agreeing to formally unify their states in September of 1973.

Military incidents involving Israel continued throughout the year, mainly revolving around Arab guerilla bases in Lebanon and Syria. Numerous Israeli attacks occurred, always in response to "terrorist" attacks by Arabs into Israel. The peak of these attacks happened in September, with the 1972 Olympic Games incident in which 11 members of the Israeli Olympic team were killed by Arab gunmen at the Games. This invoked significant world opinion against the attacks, and led to a large scale retaliation by Israel against Arab bases in Lebanon and Syria. The US continued to prevent strong Security Council action against Israel, supporting only resolutions which led to a non-specific cessation of hostilities, and not allowing for Israeli condemnation at the hands of the UN.

The question of a Palestinian state was another continuing issue in 1972, with the most dramatic action being a Jordanian proposal for a semi-autonomous state in the occupied West Bank in March. This proposal was quickly rejected by Israel.

In July, Anwar Sadat took a significant step in expelling all Soviets from Egypt and nationalizing all former Soviet military bases in that country. This move to counter Soviet influence was a significant step toward lessening the superpower conflict which exists in the Middle East. Soviet advisors peacefully departed Egypt by early August.



Finally, heavy border fighting between North and South Yemen occurred in September, and the potential exists for continued clashes in 1973.

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

- What actions can be taken to prevent future Arab/Israeli violence and terrorist activities along the Lebanon and Syria borders?
- How can tensions resulting from the unification of Arab states be prevented from increasing the level of hostilities in the region?
- Can a Palestinian state be successfully achieved in the Israeli occupied territories (or elsewhere)?

## THE SITUATION IN AFRICA

### The Situation in Rhodesia

Southern Africa received significant international attention in 1972, with the Rhodesian issue being a key focus. The lack of change in the government's policies regarding formal discrimination against black Africans was the focus of most UN attention. Additional limits on black land ownership in "European" areas and Rhodesia's continued reticence to accept UN initiatives were two critical issues.

The US and Great Britain's continued tacit support for the Rhodesian government significantly complicated the issue from the UN's perspective. The resumption of trade in chrome and nickel between the US and Rhodesia, in direct violation of the UN's 1968 embargo against trade, flew in the face of international opinion. In July, the US abstained in a 14-0 Security Council vote to condemn "all acts violating" the economic sanctions against Rhodesia, considering US actions to be outside of these sanctions. In September, the United Kingdom vetoed an African sponsored resolution on Rhodesia, calling for stronger economic sanctions and a direct settlement of the Rhodesian issue. This resolution also called for three significant points: no independence before majority rule is established; the use of universal suffrage, including secret ballots and a 1-man, 1-vote process for determining Rhodesia's future; and a request to the UK to "try its utmost to bring about free expression of rights and self-determination" in Rhodesia.

The international community did make a significant statement in 1972, however, in barring Rhodesian athletes from participation in the 1972 Munich Olympic Games. This came in direct response to a threatened boycott of the Games by many African states, as well as by black athletes in the US, and highlighted the country's struggle for international recognition.

### The Situation in Southwest Africa

In direct violation of a UN mandate, South Africa continued to administer the territory of Southwest Africa (known as Namibia by the United Nations), justifying its actions via the League of Nations mandate which made South Africa the original administrator. Throughout 1972, Secretary-General Waldheim, at the request of the Security Council, was in direct contact with the South African government, attempting to resolve the issue of independence.

The dispute continued to revolve around South Africa's insistence on pressing for a "homelands" policy for Southwest African natives, thus limiting independence and continuing South African governance. South Africa also favored the creation of an

"advisory council" of regional leaders to assist South Africa in the governance of Southwest Africa. Both of these proposals were seen as unacceptable by the United Nations.

The Security Council is scheduled to continue the debate on Southwest Africa in early 1973, including the issue of whether to extend the Secretary-General's mandate to continue direct negotiations with South Africa.

### The Situation in Uganda

General Idi Amin's government in Uganda came under increased international scrutiny in 1972, largely because of its potential destabilizing influence on the East African region. September was a very significant month in this country, involving border clashes with Tanzania and the expulsion by Amin of all Asians from Uganda.

Guerilla raids, insurgencies and the incursion of over 1,000 troops from Tanzania into Uganda occurred throughout September of 1972. These troops, consisting mainly of Ugandan rebels sponsored by Tanzania and loyal to ex-Ugandan President Obote, were counting heavily on mass defections by the Ugandan military to supplement their force. When these defections failed to materialize, guerilla raids continued throughout September, ending in mid-October with a formal agreement to end hostilities between Tanzanian and Uganda.

Also in September, General Amin formally ordered the expulsion of all Asians from Uganda, calling them traitors and spies for the imperialist British government. This racist policy was decried by the UN, and provisions were rapidly made to deal with the large exodus of Ugandan refugees. Many went to the United Kingdom, as well as the United States and several European countries. The expulsion began a significant political conflict between Uganda and the United Kingdom, mainly focused on the treatment of the refugees and on their ability to take material goods out of the country, which was severely limited by Uganda.

Finally, the 18 December 1972 seizure by Amin's government of all foreign owned tea plantations and eight of the biggest commercial companies in Uganda (7 British and 1 United States) raised anew the question of Uganda's destabilizing influence in the area. Uganda's break-off of ties with Israel, tenuous new relationship with Libya, and the perceived dangerous and unpredictable nature of Idi Amin all threaten to bring Uganda further into the international spotlight in 1973.

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

- How can the government of Rhodesia be brought into compliance with international desires for a majority government?
- What actions can be taken that will be acceptable to the Western powers, especially the US & UK?
- How can the government of South Africa be enticed or induced into complying with UN mandates for the independence of Southwest Africa (Namibia)?
- What actions, if any, should be taken to prevent the spread of instability or violence in Eastern Africa?

## THE SITUATION IN ASIA: VIETNAM

While the North and South Vietnamese situation was discussed heavily in the General Assembly in 1972, the issue was kept out of formal Security Council discussions because of US insistence that the Vietnam War was strictly in the US sphere of influence. Tensions from this conflict, however, continue to spill over into and influence Security Council relations in other areas.



Vietnam was very much an issue behind the scenes, with the USSR and China continuing support of North Vietnam and with many nations opposed to the continued bombing of North Vietnam by the US.

Significant events in this region in 1972 included: in March, North Vietnam attacked South Vietnam across the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) in the biggest offensive since 1968; in April, the US resumed bombing of the DMZ and North Vietnam after a 3 ½ year pause; in May the US ordered the mining of Haiphong Harbor; also in May martial law was declared in South Vietnam in an attempt to quell pro-North influences there. Bombing by the US continued throughout the year with little abatement.

The Paris Peace talks also continued throughout 1972, with US Secretary of State Kissinger engaging North Vietnamese leaders. These private talks continued to meet with limited political success, although it was rumored that some significant technical and military issues were closer to resolution as a result.

The conflict peaked in December with heavy carpet bombing by the US, along with significant reports of bombing of civilian structures, including some foreign embassies and hospitals. Impartial reports note that significant portions of heavily populated civilian areas in Hanoi were "reduced to rubble" by the bombings.

North Vietnam referred to this as "terror bombing" by the US, and continued ground offensives and the firing of missiles at South Vietnamese troops. The US asserted that the bombing was in response to the North's lack of seriousness at the Paris Peace Talks, as evidenced by their continued aggression.

The UN General Assembly President called this new phase of the Vietnam War "inhuman in all aspects," and stated that it jeopardized the future of detente and carried a risk of increased tensions in international life.

In response to the increased bombings in December, China and the USSR demanded an immediate halt to all attacks and a swift peace settlement. Meanwhile, the Nordic countries expressed strong criticism, and Pope Paul VI said "all the world had thought a peaceful solution was at hand," prior to the bombings. Indonesia, however, in a statement reflecting a minority world opinion, stated that the bombing was "only a tactic of one side in response to the other."

Late in the year, a cease fire was upheld for two days over Christmas, but this was followed by the resumption of heavy bombings by the US. On 31 December though, in a dramatic turn of events, US President Nixon ordered a halt to all bombing of North Vietnamese targets above the 20th Parallel and announced the resumption of private Paris Peace talks on 8 January. It was hoped that these actions will lead to the cessation of hostilities, rather than just another pause in the ongoing war.

A final significant issue was the presence of North Vietnamese troops in neighboring Cambodia. Occupied portions of Cambodia were utilized as a staging area for advances by the North, and the effect of any US/North Vietnam peace negotiations brings into question the possible disposition of troops in Cambodia after a separate US peace.

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

- What actions, if any, are appropriate for the Security Council to take in attempting to reach a resolution to the Vietnam conflict?
- What actions can the Council take to limit the spread of the conflict to other nations in the region?

## OTHER ISSUES

Any issue on the world scene in 1973 is fair game for discussion in the Historical Security Council. Representatives should have broad historical knowledge of the world situation as it stood going into 1973. One other specific issue is:

### The Situation in Northern Ireland

Like the situation in Vietnam, Northern Ireland drew considerable international attention in 1972. It also, however, received limited Security Council attention, due to the United Kingdom's view of the situation as a strictly internal issue.

Increased levels of strife throughout the year between the Catholic minority and the Protestant government led to significant bloodshed and repercussions. Assassinations continued throughout the region, with a total of 105 in 1972. While terrorist attacks continued, police and army retaliations were never far behind. In December the British government passed legislation for sweeping powers to arrest and convict members of the outlawed Irish Republican Army (IRA). This legislation altered the rules of evidence used to prosecute suspected IRA members, and is seen by some nations as unreasonably curtailing individuals rights.

Lending an international element to the hostilities, rumors were made that the USSR was supplying rocket launchers and other weapons to the IRA. While these allegations were denied by the Soviets, they have increased tensions around the conflict.

The United Nations sought to look into what are considered significant human rights violations on the part of the British government, but the United Kingdom resolutely continued to declare this an internal conflict, and that it did not belong before the international community.

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

- What actions, if any, are appropriate for the Security Council to take in attempting to reach a resolution to the conflict in Northern Ireland?

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- "China's first veto: opposing entry of Bangladesh," *Time*, 100:33, Sep. 4, 1972.
- "Council calls on Israel to refrain from military acts against Lebanon," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:10-33, Jul 1972.
- "Council fails to adopt resolution on complaint by Lebanon and Syrian Arab Republic," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:3-10, Aug 1972.
- "Innocuousness abroad: Ethiopia meeting of UN Security Council to investigate Africa's problems," *Time*, 99:29, 14 Feb 1972.
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"Security Council begins discussion of report by Secretary-General (Namibia)," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:21-33, Dec 1972.

"Security Council fails to recommend admission: Bangladesh," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:24-32, Aug 72.

"Security Council extends stationing of UNFICYP," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:50-6, Jul 1972.

"Sense of Irrelevance," *Time*, 101:27, 1 Jan. 1973.

"Situation in the Middle East," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:65-84, Oct 1972.

"Sit. in Namibia," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:17-24, Dec 1972.

"Strengthening the role of the United Nations," *UN Mo. Chronicle*, 9:52-5, Dec 1972.

Tuckerman, A., "U.N.: new look for 1972," *Nation*, 215:258, Oct 1972.

"U.S. and the U.N; contributions to the U.N. reduced," *Nation*, 214:709, 5 Jun 1972.

"UN's affable Chinese," *Newsweek*, 80:54, 23 Oct 1972.

"Who pays what at the UN," *Time*, 100:25, 4 Dec 1972.

The following *New York Times* editions also provide useful background information:

*General United Nations issues:*

"China uses 1st veto to block Bangladesh membership," 26 Aug 1972, 1:1.

"Commenting on Nixon's shift of Amb. Bush from UN post," 12 Dec 1972, 47:1.

"Former US Amb. to UN comments on strained relations," 14 Apr 1972, 4:3.

"Growing fear among UN delegates that UN is going backward," 10 Jun 1972, 2:3.

"Question of admitting Bangladesh to UN," 2 Dec 1972, 34:1.

"US, USSR, GB and France support applications for E & W Germany membership," 10 Nov 1972, 1:6.

"US can no longer be counted on as cornerstone of UN," 25 May 1972, 2:4.

"US will exercise its veto power much more readily," 15 Oct 1972, 4:1.

*Situation in the Middle East:*

"Israeli For. Min. charges that Uganda's sudden dipl. break was plotted," 11 Apr 1972, 3:1.

"Security Council holds emergency session on the Mideast," 11 Sep 1972, 1:8.

"US vetoes Mideast resolution," 11 Sep 1972, 1:8.

*Situation in Africa:*

"African countries move for full scale Council debate on Rhodesia," 1 Jul 1972, 6:5.

"GB uses veto to block condemnation of settlement terms with Rhodesia," 5 Feb 1972, 1:4.

"GB vetoes African-sponsored resolution on Rhodesia," 20 Sep 1972, 3:1.

"Intl Olympic Committee withdraws invitation to Rhodesia," 23 Aug 1972, 1:1.

"Pres. Amin announces seizure of all foreign owned tea plantations," 18 Dec 1972, 22:5.

"Tanzania and Uganda agree to end hostilities," 10 Oct 1972, 2:4.

"UN GA approves resolution condemning US importation from Rhodesia," 8 Dec 1972, 5:3.

"Unacceptable proposals made by S Africa at UN," 19 Nov 1972, 20:2.

"US abstains as Security Council votes 14-0 (Rhodesia)," 29 Jul 1972, 5:1.

"US holding up projected loan over statements by Amin," 14 Sep 1972, 3:5.

*Situation in Asia:*

"Current phase of secret Paris peace talks nears end," 13 Dec 1972, 1:8.

"Nixon announces resumption of full scale bombing," 19 Dec 1972, 1:8.

"Nixon orders halt to bombing; Paris peace talks will resume," 31 Dec 1972, 1:8.

*Situation in Northern Ireland:*

"Irish Republican Parliament approves legislation cracking down on IRA," 2 Dec 1972, 1:1.

"USSR refuses request to help track origin of Soviet made rocket launchers," 21 Dec 1972, 4:5.

*UN Documents:*

S/Res/308 -- Request of the Organization of African Unity concerning the holding of meetings of the Security Council in an African Capital

S/Res/309 -- The Situation in Namibia (4 Feb)

S/Res/310 -- The Situation in Namibia (4 Feb)

S/Res/311 -- The Question of race conflict in South Africa resulting from the policies of apartheid of the Government of the Republic of South Africa (4 Feb)

S/Res/312 -- Question concerning the situation in Territories under Portuguese administration (4 Feb)

S/Res/313 -- The Situation in the Middle East (28 Feb)

S/Res/314 -- Question concerning the situation in Southern Rhodesia (28 Feb)

S/Res/315 -- The Cyprus Question (15 Jun)

S/Res/316 -- The situation in the Middle East (26 Jun)

S/Res/317 -- The situation in the Middle East (21 Jun)

S/Res/318 -- Question concerning the situation in Southern Rhodesia (28 Jul)

S/Res/319 -- The situation in Namibia (1 Aug)

S/Res/320 -- Question concerning the situation in Southern Rhodesia (29 Sep)

S/Res/321 -- Complaint by Senegal (23 Oct)

S/Res/322 -- Question concerning the situation in Territories under Portuguese administration (22 Nov)

S/Res/323 -- The situation in Namibia (6 Dec)

S/Res/324 -- The Cyprus Question (12 Dec)

# 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/59/first/index.html](http://www.un.org/ga/59/first/index.html) -- agenda items relating to disarmament and international security are allocated to this body.
- Second Committee: [www.un.org/ga/59/second/index.html](http://www.un.org/ga/59/second/index.html) -- agenda items relating to economic and financial matters are allocated to this body.
- Third Committee: [www.un.org/ga/59/third/index.html](http://www.un.org/ga/59/third/index.html) -- agenda items relating to social, humanitarian and cultural matters are allocated to this body.
- Sixth Committee: [www.un.org/ga/59/sixth/index.html](http://www.un.org/ga/59/sixth/index.html) -- agenda items relating to international legal matters are allocated to this body.

### BACKGROUND RESEARCH

#### THE CONCURRENT GENERAL ASSEMBLY PLENARY

##### **THE ROLE OF DIAMONDS IN FUELLING CONFLICT: BREAKING THE LINK BETWEEN THE ILLICIT TRANSACTION OF ROUGH DIAMONDS AND ARMED CONFLICT AS A CONTRIBUTION TO PREVENTION AND SETTLEMENT OF CONFLICTS**

Conflict diamonds, according to the United Nations, are rough diamonds used by rebel movements to finance their military activities, including attempts to undermine and overthrow legitimate governments. The relationship between diamonds and conflict is complex, and there are many actors involved including governments, NGOs, the United Nations, the diamond industry, arms dealers and smugglers, finance companies, consumers, traders, as well as paramilitary and extra-governmental groups. Civil wars and violent conflict have erupted recently in Angola, Sierra Leone, Liberia, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), where diamonds are frequently mined by rebel groups to use as capital to buy arms and foster civil conflicts. The diamonds from contested regions in Africa are less expensive, and many corporations have a vested interest in keeping prices low. The language surrounding the issue is politically charged. In recent years, the diamonds in question have been called "conflict diamonds," and "blood diamonds," while first-world consumers and corporations equate diamonds with love, romance, and wealth.

The cycle of trade between diamonds and arms adds increasing difficulty for government intervention and international standards. Governments are often unable to halt diamond mining by rebel groups. In states in conflict, areas run by rebel groups are difficult, if not impossible, to control. Standards and legitimacy

are often non-existent in such situations and often governments themselves are dependent on minerals for their own export purposes. And once diamonds are in the marketplace, their origin is increasingly difficult to trace. After the diamonds are polished, they become unidentifiable.

The United Nations' attempts to restrict the trade in conflict diamonds began in 1998 with Security Council resolutions that placed an embargo on the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) rebels, who profited by selling diamonds in order to facilitate civil war. The Security Council adopted similar schemes with respect to the governments of Sierra Leone and the DRC to deprive each country's rebel groups of income. Even after these Security Council resolutions, the rebels continue to mine and sell diamonds in order to purchase arms to continue the conflict.

In May 2000, in response to growing international concern, governments and industry officials gathered in Kimberly, South Africa, to develop a strategy for ensuring that diamond certification schemes have internationally recognized standards. The result was the Kimberly Process Certification Scheme, which was signed by fifty-two countries by November 2002, and was fully implemented in August 2003. The Kimberley Process provides for participating countries to export their diamonds in tamper-proof containers with a forgery-proof export certificate that would be entered into a universal database upon its arrival. The Kimberley Process has been widely embraced by the international community but significant challenges remain. Many consider the most significant weakness of the Kimberley Process to be its emphasis on "voluntary self regulation" by the diamond industry to ensure that diamonds are not from conflict regions.





The situation is further complicated by the complex relationship between the relevant UN organs including the General Assembly, the Security Council, and various UN missions. The United Nations has been central in advocating the position that promoting legitimate diamond trading will lead to peace, which will lead to development. In addition to diamonds, the situation also brings into question issues of arms trading, labor, and violence directed toward communities and groups of people. The United Nations' relationship with paramilitary and rebel groups, NGOs, and corporations are central issues that must be resolved. The UN General Assembly is considering its relationship to the Security Council and UN missions in affected countries. It has called on states with significant interest in the issue to continue open discussions, and it has asked for further reports and considerations on technical issues. Future actions may include further study, funding, developing a new certification scheme or altering the current one.

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

- Is your country a participant in the Kimberly Process? Why or why not?
- What is the appropriate role of NGOs and corporate or commercial actors in this process? Specifically, what is the role of the industrialized world, as the primary consumers of diamonds, in preventing conflict?
- What is the relationship between the General Assembly and the UN Security Council regarding rough diamonds and conflict?
- What is the relationship between poverty, underdevelopment and conflict diamonds?

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*Special note: for searching purposes in UN Documents, the word "fuelling" is spelled in the British fashion.*

#### FOLLOW-UP TO THE OUTCOME OF THE SPECIAL SESSION ON CHILDREN

Children are among the most vulnerable of the world's population, without the ability to advocate for themselves. The past few decades have seen an exponential increase in the risks to children. According to the High Commissioner for Refugees, nearly half of refugees and asylum seekers are children and nearly nine million children have been directly affected by internal conflicts and war. Children are also used in several regions as soldiers and young girls are often raped and sexually abused in war zones. Millions of children walk and play on ground covered by landmines. Children are deprived of family members through



war, pestilence, and malnutrition, and nearly ten million children will never make it to the age of five.

The welfare and care of children has been a concern of the United Nations since its founding. UNICEF was created in 1945 to help feed and care for children left behind after World War II, and became a permanent agency of the United Nations in 1953. The General Assembly adopted the Declaration of the Rights of the Child in 1959, which stated that every child is entitled to certain generalized rights. The Declaration on the Rights of the Child remained the only document specifically protecting children until 1989, although many of the conventions adopted by the United Nations and other international organizations concentrated on issues that concerned children, such as landmines, refugee status, and human rights.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child was the first action since 1959 to deal specifically with issues concerning children. The Convention called for the 1990 World Summit on Children, which produced the World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children and the Plan of Action for implementing the World Declaration. These documents provided a bill of rights and freedoms for every child, including the right to a healthy childhood without suffering from preventable diseases or illnesses such as polio, tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS, or complications from malnutrition and unsanitary water. The World Declaration also gave children the right to a basic education and the loving support of their family and stated that children should not live in a state of poverty, nor should they be subject to violence and terror during armed conflict.

The Plan for Action for Implementing the World Declaration also outlined the obligations of each government, including the preparation and execution of national plans of action to implement and adhere to the goals set forth in the Declaration. It urged international organizations, including the UN, UNICEF, and NGOs, to contribute to and support the effort to bring a healthy and happy life to every child.

To review and follow up on the plans of action called for in the 1990 World Summit on Children, the General Assembly and UNICEF convened the 2002 Special Session on Children. In addition to analyzing the progress since the World Summit, the session also concentrated on recalibrating the issues and goals to meet the needs of the world a decade after the World Summit for Children. The Special Session focused on giving children "the best possible start in life," discussing women's health, prenatal care, and breast feeding, as well as infant and "under five" mortality rates and preventable diseases. The Special Session also concentrated on making sure each child is provided "a good quality basic education" and "opportunities... for meaningful participation in their communities." Nearly 400 children and adolescents were invited and participated in the session.

The Special Session on Children also called for continual updates and reviews from the United Nations, national governments, and NGOs. The Secretary-General published "A World Fit for Children" after the Special Session, summarizing the goals, hopes, and actions taken by the Special Session assembly. Since then, individual governments and NGOs report regularly to the General Assembly on the progress their government or organization has made to help make the goals of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Millennium Goals, and the Special Session on Children a reality.

However, even with the concentration on children during the past decade, those goals have yet to become standard in every country and new problems arise every year. The situation changes with every change in government, every new disease, and every

new war. Even where the intent is excellent, limited government resources is also a significant obstacle in many countries. Children are affected by many of the issues that are discussed every year within the UN and it is through continual follow-up and recalibration of goals that we can try to help protect them.

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

- What has your government focused on in trying to attain the goals set out by the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Special Session on Children?
- What are some new challenges facing children today that have developed since the World Summit on Children? How has your government approached the problem?
- How have NGOs contributed to children's welfare since the Special Session, and how can NGOs and national governments contribute more to the global problems that affect children?
- How can the UN best work to increase funding for issues involving children?

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## THE FIRST COMMITTEE: DISARMAMENT AND INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

### THE ILLICIT TRADE IN SMALL ARMS AND LIGHT WEAPONS IN ALL ITS ASPECTS

The illicit trade in small arms and light weapons has only been a specific topic of discussion within the United Nations since the 50th session, but the problem is neither new nor unrelated to previous discussions. Small arms and light weapons have taken more lives than any nuclear, chemical, or biological weapon. Nearly every committee in the United Nations has dealt with the problem of small arms and light weapons whether in the use, traffic or repercussions thereof. In the last ten years, the General Assembly has passed twenty-five resolutions that have dealt solely with the issue of the Illicit Trade of Small Arms and Light Weapons and there have been six different reports published by the United Nations Disarmament Commission dealing with small arms and light weapons.

In 1999 the first Conference on the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects took place. A number of recommendations were set forth such as monitoring of production, tougher import and export restrictions on weapons, safer storage facilities and regional cooperation amongst law enforcement and governments to spin a less penetrable web for illicit trade to slip through. But with weapons such as stinger missiles, which have the ability to bring down an aircraft and yet fit in a golf bag, the problem with curbing the illicit trade of these weapons is self-evident.

Presently, the United Nations is encouraging local and regional governments to take an active role in diminishing this prolific problem. Better storage facilities for military weapons caches have been called for, as well as marking systems that manufacturers can use to ascertain the origin of these weapons. The UN has also pushed for states to implement more stringent laws regarding the ownership and licensing of said weapons. Regional organizations such as the EU and OAS have been working to provide better transparency and cooperation in targeting arms traffickers and halting their actions. The illicit trade, however, does not appear to be severely hampered. In particular, those regions recently affected by conflict such as Kosovo and Iraq are apexes of illicit arms trade. Voluntary weapons turn-in programs have been met with limited success in these areas, partly due to culture and partly due to fear and continued instability. While post-conflict areas are difficult to address, these are where the effects of small arms trade are most evident.

Despite the scope of the problem, there are a number of ways in which the situation could be improved. Most importantly, information sharing with regard to identifying smugglers and their methods is crucial to understanding and combating the

problem. Individual states could also develop marking systems for weapons manufacturing in order to more accurately ascertain where these weapons came from. Voluntary turn-in and destruction of surplus small arms are also a target for reform, as seven million small arms are produced each year and far less than that are recovered, despite many efforts. The UN also promotes initiatives to safeguard the storage of weapons caches as they are prime targets for smuggling operations. In regard to post-conflict situations it has been suggested that more immediate financial aid to these areas could help. While the World Bank has financially supported many efforts, this is not always enough to turn the tide; the faster governments are back on their feet, the greater the chance of reasserting control of the area and bringing the loss of life to a minimum. Voluntary moratoriums on the export, import and manufacture of small arms and light weapons could also help curb this problem. In addition to controlling the weapons, restricting the ammunition and explosives which are employed by these weapons is a prime method to be explored in an effort to combat this issue. Thus the First Committee is charged with addressing the issue of the illicit trade in small arms and light weapons in a practical and cost-effective manner, while still allowing nations to adhere to Article 51 of the United Nations Charter.

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

- What sort of individual measures enacted by a member state would be most effective in combating this problem?
- What endeavors can be made within post-conflict areas to aid in combatting illicit arms trading?
- In what way can regions communicate more effectively to strengthen international cooperation?
- How can UN bodies with mandates to eradicate and limit small arms and light weapons work more efficiently to achieve their goal?
- How can the UN effectively limit or eradicate small arms and light weapon trafficking without infringing on the sovereignty of States?

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**THE RISK OF NUCLEAR PROLIFERATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST**

Since the formation of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) and the Comprehensive Nuclear Test Ban Treaty (CTBT), the proliferation of nuclear weapons and the acquisition of nuclear technology have been of great concern to the United Nations and its member states. As signatories to the NPT develop, acquire and test nuclear weapons, the impact and the enforcement of the treaty have become more difficult. The region that has been most affected is the Middle East, an area which the United Nations defines to include North Africa, the Gulf States, and eastward towards India. The concerns regarding the Middle East have centered on the lack of stable relations between the states of the Middle East and the large number of non-governmental actors operating and originating within the region.

The First Committee and the Security Council pass several resolutions each year regarding nuclear proliferation in the Middle East, but very little concrete action has been taken. One current proposal is the formation of a Nuclear Weapon Free Zone (NWFZ) in the Middle East. The Members of the Arab

League proposed a resolution asking all Middle Eastern states to sign the NPT and allow the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) to monitor all of their nuclear power plants. The United States, Israel and other states oppose the creation of a NWFZ. The General Assembly has also condemned those states unwilling to sign the NPT, and has called on all nations, especially those in the Middle East, to sign the NPT and the CTBT.

The IAEA, an organization that reports to the General Assembly and is responsible for monitoring the proliferation of nuclear weapons, broadened its mandate in 1999 to track nuclear materials throughout NPT signatories and to attempt to determine the activity of undeclared nuclear weapons programmes. More recently, the IAEA has been working to secure and protect nuclear materials in Iran, which was produced during the development of nuclear energy but has raised concerns that Iran is developing nuclear weapons.

Another goal of the United Nations is the establishment of a universal nuclear weapons accord. Since the end of the Cold War the number of states possessing nuclear weapons has increased. Despite a growing concern with regard to nuclear weapons, many states have failed to ratify treaties such as the CTBT. Among the numerous challenges that the United Nations faces in accomplishing its goals are religious differences, historical conflicts, and the presence and activities of multiple non-governmental groups which could be involved in terrorist activities.

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

- How does the United Nations bridge the gap between nations with the technology and nations without technology to develop nuclear capacity?
- How can a common ground be formed between the Arab League and other nations in the region?
- What are the tradeoffs between securing nuclear weapons and allowing provisions for developing nuclear energy?

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## THE SECOND COMMITTEE: ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

### CONVENTION ON BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY

The world population surpassed six billion people in 1999, and both the population and the global economy continue to grow, with an incumbent increase on the demand for natural resources. Most of this demand is concentrated in a relatively few industrialized countries. By consuming more resources, we have gained more abundant food and better shelter, sanitation, and health care. But in the long run, these gains have the potential to result in environmental degradation and declines in local economies. The loss of biodiversity threatens food supplies, opportunities for recreation and tourism, and sources of wood, medicines and energy.

Although biodiversity is typically associated with a decline in animal species, there has also been a rapid decline in plant species. In addition to the loss of individual species, the fragmentation, degradation and outright loss of forests, wetlands and coral reefs is possibly the gravest threat to biological diversity. This weakens the productivity of ecosystems, and weakens their ability to deal with natural disasters and human-caused stresses, such as pollution and climate change.

The Convention on Biological Diversity was adopted at the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, and entered into force on 29 December 1993. As of July 2005, there were 188 parties to the Convention. The Convention outlines commitments for maintaining the world's ecological diversity, while pursuing economic development. It establishes three main goals: the conservation of biological diversity, the sustainable use of its components, and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits from the use of genetic resources. The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety to the Convention entered into force on 11 September 2003. The Protocol addresses the protection of biological diversity from potential risks posed by living modified organisms.

The Convention links traditional conservation efforts to the economic goal of using biological resource sustainably. While traditional conservation efforts were primarily aimed at protecting particular species or habitats, the Convention recognizes that ecosystems, species and genes are needed for the benefit of humans. However, it emphasizes that they should be used in such a way that it does not lead to the long-term decline of biological diversity. The Parties committed themselves to achieve by 2010 a significant reduction of the current rate of biodiversity loss at the global, regional and national levels, as a contribution to poverty alleviation and to the benefit of all life on Earth. However, Parties are able to adopt their own plans within the flexible framework of the Convention.

At its fifty-ninth session, the General Assembly noted that reaching the goal of a reduction by 2010 will require action at all

levels, including the implementation of national biodiversity strategies and action plans, and the provision of new and additional financial and technical resources to developing countries. Of highest importance is the transfer of technology and resources to developing countries, including the contribution of developed countries to the Convention trust fund and strengthening of national capacities for making the required information available to the Biosafety Clearing House. Another important issue is that of including considerations of biodiversity in trade and economic policies. There has been a historical tension between economic development and the protection of biodiversity. The Convention has attempted to bridge this gap and accommodate all parties, but there is still much to be done if the 2010 target can be reached.

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

- How can biological diversity considerations be incorporated into economic development policies?
- What partnerships would improve the prospects of reaching the 2010 target?
- In what ways do developing and industrialized countries differ in their approaches to biological diversity? How can these best be reconciled?
- How does the Convention on Biological Diversity fit with other environmental conventions?
- Are other Protocols to the Convention needed? If so, on what topic?

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### **ROLE OF MICROCREDIT AND MICROFINANCE IN THE ERADICATION OF POVERTY**

The idea of combating poverty using microfinance techniques and microcredit is a topic that has gained increasing interest within the United Nations over the past decade. What started as a subtopic interest within the UN's focus on poverty and development has gained such attention that the United Nations has named 2005 the Year of Microcredit. The idea behind microfinance and microcredit is to provide financial services to the poor in the hopes of empowering them to become economically successful. There are many types of microfinance and microcredit models or strategies, but each seeks to impact poverty by providing basic financial services to persons who cannot meet traditional banking requirements.

Although microfinance and microcredit are related, there are key differences between them. Microfinance describes financial services such as savings, insurance, and loans. The hope behind microfinance is that access to basic financial services will help the poor become more financially stable. Microcredit specifically refers to the loans given under microfinance programs. The microloans are generally small amounts of money, as little as one hundred dollars, given at reduced interest rates. These loans can be given to either a group or an individual, and are often used to help the borrower become a small scale entrepreneur with the goal of not only bettering the individual but their community as well.

Since the 1980s increased confidence in microcredit has resulted in billions of dollars being poured into these programs. There are an estimated 3,000 microfinance projects that presently

aid the poor of the world, and anywhere from 70 million to 750 million people use microcredit programs to improve their conditions. The pioneering institution in the microloan movement has been the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, which has been making loans since 1976. Some microcredit programs now provide additional skills training and grants of food in addition to monetary loans. Other programs give goats and cows instead of loans.

The UN's focus on microfinance and microcredit first began in the 1970s when microcredit institutions such as the Grameen Bank began grabbing global attention, although the focus at that time was mostly informal and observatory. The UN's interest heightened in the 1990s, first with a microcredit summit held in Washington, D.C. in 1997, and later that year in two General Assembly resolutions. Both resolutions recognized the potential role of microfinance in the eradication of poverty and called for members to focus on microfinance development. In 1998 the United Nations declared 2005 the International Year of Microcredit, and in 2003 called for members and observers to prepare their own information and recommendations for the microcredit year. Such efforts reflect the growing importance of microcredit in building sustainable financial sectors and achieving the first of the UN Millennium Development Goals.

It is estimated that about 90 to 95 percent of the borrowers of microcredit have been women. Microloan strategies are intended to help support small-business in local economies around the world. Microloans used to be small loans of \$50 to \$100, enough to buy medicine or help a child attend school. Now loans of hundreds or thousands of dollars enable individuals to set up a business, hire workers, and continue operations. The growth of small-businesses typically requires larger commercial financial institutions to meet such new demand for services. However, larger financial institutions are not yet established in many countries, and others lack the confidence needed to invest in bigger microcredit projects.

While loan repayment success rates are generally high, suggesting program success, there is still some question as to whether this actually translates into poverty reduction. Microcredit programs seem to have helped people on the fringe of poverty, but there is little evidence on how beneficial the microcredit programs will be for the very poor of the world. Some research has shown that the very poor are more likely to drop out of microcredit programs. Creative ways may be needed to improve microfinance solutions for the very poor. Much research is being done to determine how much skills training the very poor will require in order to benefit from microfinance programs. The question of the use of public or private channels in the finance and distribution of microfinance is also vital. Increasing support and cooperation with high-tech, venture capitalist markets and large commercial financial institutions have the potential to spur growth of microfinance programs.

In addition to financial hurdles, certain traditions and biases impede the growth of small businesses in developing countries. For example, culture and tradition influence the role of women in business. Despite the challenges, microfinance programs have helped nutrition, health, education, and entrepreneurial needs of the poor worldwide. Microcredit and microfinance programs may not prove to be a panacea, but continued research and improvement of these programs can significantly impact the poor of the world.

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

- How can microcredit programs help maximize poverty eradication? Should the UN take steps to ensure that financial sec-



- tors become more involved in low-income communities?
- How can the UN help microfinancial programs become more self-sufficient?
- What strategies can be implemented to maximize global access to microfinance and microcredit?
- How can UN member states, NGOs, UN organizations, and the private sector collaborate to promote microfinance initiatives?

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### Additional Web Resources

- [www.grameen-info.org](http://www.grameen-info.org)  
[www.yearofmicrocredit.org](http://www.yearofmicrocredit.org)

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## THE THIRD COMMITTEE: SOCIAL, HUMANITARIAN AND CULTURAL

### PROTECTION OF MIGRANTS

Over the last 25 years, the global migrant worker population has more than doubled to include 175 million people, or almost 3 percent of the entire population. Migrant workers and their families often feel driven to seek out low paying jobs in areas away from their homes; the definition of migrant workers emphasizes that they are not natives of the country they are living and working in. Much of the growth of migrant worker populations has occurred in developing areas, including many of the eastern European countries which are now a part of the European Union. The tenuous situation of migrant workers puts them at high risk in areas hit by disaster, such as in Thailand and Indonesia, where the situation is even more dangerous for workers not protected by the laws of the countries affected.

The increase in migrant worker populations has highlighted a number of issues at the global level. The primary issue of concern has been the increase in human trafficking of migrant workers and their family members, mainly women and children. Migrants are also subject to poorer working conditions than citizens of the country in which they reside. The migration of labor has resulted in a technological outflow, as the migrants may have skills needed in their home countries. These migrants often leave their native countries due to the lack of general welfare available for them and their families, along with a greater potential to move up in the work force once they have established themselves in another country. The general lack of skilled workers in certain parts of the world has made this a truly global issue, as most underdeveloped countries have neither the power nor the resources to maintain the loyalty of skilled workers within their borders.

In 1990 the UN passed the International Convention on the

Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, which formalized the rights of migrant workers and the responsibilities of the receiving nations. The Convention emphasized that the human rights of migrant workers and their families are essential and declared that migrants have the rights to equal access to education, freedom of opinions and expression, reunification with their families, access to health and medical care, and authorization to stay and work, in addition to many other provisions. The UN has also passed numerous resolutions relating to the protection of migrant workers and their families.

The United Nations is currently conducting research into migrant patterns and the effects of migrants on development as well as supporting monitoring groups such as the International Organization for Migrants (IOM) and the Human Rights Watch group on Migrant Rights. The position of Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights for the human rights of migrants was extended until 2005, and the question of continuing this position is scheduled for discussion this year. Along with the International Labour Migration's assistance, the UN has also discussed a project to attempt to come to global consensus on understanding migration and implementing safer migration practices. Finally, the situations of migrants in disaster-affected areas needs close monitoring so as to avoid a complete erosion of the human rights of those migrants and their family members.

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

- How can the UN ensure the protection of migrant workers and their families in areas affected by natural disaster?
- How can the UN effectively implement existing international migrant agreements?
- Should the protection of migrants be a regional issue or an issue addressed by the international community as a whole?



- What actions can the United Nations take to reduce the amount of illegal activities that take place within the current system that threaten the lives and safety of migrants?

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A/Res/58/190  
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- [www.hrw.org/campaigns/migrants](http://www.hrw.org/campaigns/migrants) -- Human Rights Watch Report on Migrants
- [www.humantrafficking.org](http://www.humantrafficking.org) – Human Trafficking resources
- [www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/migrant/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/migrant/index.htm).  
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- [www.unhchr.ch/html/menu2/6/cmw/features.htm](http://www.unhchr.ch/html/menu2/6/cmw/features.htm). Committee on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families; Main Features of the Convention.

## THE RIGHT TO FOOD

Two divergent trends have emerged at the beginning of the 21st century. Many countries in the developed world find themselves facing dramatically increasing obesity rates, while the developing world confronts the problem of growing numbers of hungry and malnourished persons. In 2004 nearly 852 million people suffered from hunger, according to Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) estimates. Further, the World Food

Programme estimates that nearly 33% of children under the age of five suffer from chronic malnutrition. Hunger and malnutrition thus affect more people than AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis combined.

Access to food has historically been considered a basic human right. According to the UN, "The right to food is the right to have regular, permanent and free access, either directly or by means of financial purchases, to quantitatively and qualitatively adequate and sufficient food corresponding to the cultural traditions of the people to which the consumer belongs, and which ensures a physical and mental, individual and collective, fulfilling and dignified life free of fear." This right is spelled out in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, enshrining it as both an individual right and as a collective responsibility.

The international community has a long history with varying success in eliminating hunger. In 1976, at the World Food Conference, governments pledged to end hunger within a decade. Over twenty years later, the international community came together once again in the 1996 World Food Summit. The outcome of the summit, the Rome Declaration, which was adopted by 112 heads of state, pledged to halve the number of persons in the world who suffer from hunger by 2015. The summit also reaffirmed that food should be a basic right guaranteed to all people. It further requested that the United Nations High Commissioner on Human Rights become engaged in the process of protecting the right to food. In 2002, world leaders came together again to assess the progress made.

The Human Rights Commission created the position of the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food in 2000. The Special Rapporteur was given the mandate "to seek, receive and respond to information on all aspects of the realization of the right to food, including the urgent necessity of eradicating hunger." In addition to making annual reports on the general progress toward eliminating hunger, the Special Rapporteur makes country visits to monitor progress in individual countries. Complimenting the work being done by the Special Rapporteur and other UN agencies such as the FAO, the Millennium Development Project has also been committed to reducing the global burden of hunger and malnutrition. Both the Rome Declaration and the Millennium Development Project call for those who go hungry on a daily basis to be reduced in half by 2015.

In spite of the high level of public commitment to reducing hunger, it appears that in many parts of the world, the situation is worsening. The 2004 State of Food Insecurity Report (SOFI) from the FAO states that the number of persons who are hungry has increased in 2004 to 852 million from 842 million in 2003. Even more alarming is that overall, the number of persons who are hungry has increased by 9 million since the 1996 World Food Summit. In order to reach the goals outlined in both the Rome Declaration and the Millennium Development Project, the number of persons who are hungry needs to decrease to approximately 400 million by 2015. According to the Special Rapporteur, important progress has been made, but the overall trend in recent years has been one of increased hunger. In his 2004 report he states that "it appears that hunger has increased every year since the 1996 World Food Summit."

That is not to say that no progress has been made. Approximately 30 countries are on track to meet both World Food Summit and MDP goals. The common approach in all of these countries involves strengthening social safety nets to put food on the tables of those who need it most on the one hand,





while attacking the root causes of hunger with initiatives to stimulate food production, increase employability and reduce poverty on the other.

Another promising effort is the creation of a set of Voluntary Guidelines which were developed by the Intergovernmental Working Group (IGWG) of the FAO "to elaborate, with the participation of stakeholders, in a period of two years, a set of voluntary guidelines to support Member Nations' efforts to achieve the progressive realization of the right to adequate food in the context of national food security." A draft of these guidelines was produced in 2003. They are intended to serve as a practical tool in order to direct state activity in eliminating hunger.

Many believe that the goal of reducing hunger, as stated by the Rome Declaration and the Millennium Development Project, can be achieved. They stress that it can only be reached through a strong and sincere commitment by individual state governments and actions that follow through on this commitment.

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

- What is the Green Revolution, what has its effect been in your country, and how does it relate to the right to food?
- What is the relationship between the status of women and the right to food? How does your country view the relationship between the two?
- How can the Least Developed Countries best combat food scarcity? How can industrialized countries provide more assistance, financial or otherwise?

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[www.fian.org/fian/index.php](http://www.fian.org/fian/index.php) - FIAN International – Defending the Right to Food Worldwide

[www.foodfirst.org](http://www.foodfirst.org) -- Institute for Food and Policy Development

## THE SIXTH COMMITTEE: LEGAL

### MEASURES TO ELIMINATE INTERNATIONAL TERRORISM

The 11 September 2001 attacks on the United States of America brought the issue of international terrorism to the forefront of global affairs. The international community had worked on eliminating various elements of terrorism since the inception of the League of Nations in 1937, but it only took concerted efforts to eliminate the problem as a whole after 2001.

Since 1963, the United Nations General Assembly has negotiated 12 conventions designed to prevent and suppress terrorism. These conventions address such issues as airplane and ship safety, the illegal use of nuclear materials, terrorist bombings and terrorist financing. Each convention follows a basic format of: 1) addressing and defining a particular element or type of terrorist violence; 2) requiring members to adopt state laws that penalize the activity; 3) defining the jurisdiction for each State over the crime; and, 4) requiring the prosecution of the offense. In addition,

the General Assembly adopted the Declaration on Measures to Eliminate International Terrorism in 1994 and its supplement in 1996. These declarations, among other things, condemn all terrorist acts performed by anyone anywhere.

The Security Council had also adopted a number of resolutions on international terrorism prior to the 11 September 2001 attacks on the United States, though it too became more active following those attacks. Its most significant work to date is Resolution 1373, passed on September 28, 2001, which created the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC). This Committee, composed of all 15 members of the Security Council, monitors the implementation of the resolution and attempts to increase member states' capability to fight terrorism. Resolution 1373 requires States to: 1) deny financial support to terrorist groups; 2) refuse safe-havens for terrorists; 3) share intelligence information with other governments; 4) help other governments investigate and deter terrorist acts; 5) domestically criminalize the giving of

assistance to terrorists; and, 6) become party to relevant international conventions relating to terrorism.

Today, the United Nations is looking at ways to improve the international response to terrorism. The Security Council has adopted two other resolutions on international terrorism: the Declaration on the Global Effort to Combat Terrorism, Resolution 1377, and the Declaration on the Issue of Combating Terrorism, Resolution 1456. Similarly, it adopted Resolution 1566 in October 2004, which expanded the Security Council's focus from Al Qaeda and the Taliban to other terrorist organizations. The Security Council also created a Working Group to study the feasibility of a fund to compensate victims of terrorist activities, with the money coming from frozen terrorist assets, as well as more effective methods to prevent the financing and movement of terrorists.

The Security Council has started working on increasing the potency of the CTC in 2004. Although all Member States are bound by Resolution 1373, many have not fulfilled the requirement of submitting a report on their activities to stop terrorist financing and support and were not party to the existing conventions on terrorism. The Security Council established the Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (CTED) in 2004 to effectively carry on its capacity-building work, which includes encouraging cooperation between States and international organizations in the fight against terrorism.

Most recently, the Secretary General has created a five-point strategic plan to fight terrorism. The "five D's" of his plan are: 1) dissuading people from choosing the tactic of terrorism; 2) denying terrorists the means to carry out their attacks; 3) deterring state support; 4) developing state preventative capacities; and, 5) defending human rights in the struggle against terrorism. In his plan, Secretary-General Kofi Annan called for a comprehensive definition of terrorism that prohibits any act meant to deliberately kill or maim civilians, even in acts of resistance against occupation. He also called for the creation of a position of a Special Rapporteur who would report to the UN Commission on Human Rights on whether counter-terrorism measures were in line with international law and human rights.

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

- Does there need to be an international definition of terrorism? If so, what is a comprehensive definition of terrorism that does not offend traditional notions of state sovereignty?
- How can the international community address the problem of terrorism as a whole when it involves so many interconnected elements and issues (e.g. poverty, lack of opportunity, etc.)? What are the roots of terrorism?
- How can the United Nations combat terrorism and still respect human rights and international law?
- How will the United Nations encourage Member States to ratify the existing conventions against terrorism and to change their countries' laws to curtail terrorist financing and punish convicted terrorists?

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S/Res/1535  
S/Res/1456  
S/Res/1377  
S/Res/1373

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[www.un.org/Docs/sc/committees/1373/](http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/committees/1373/) -- The Security Council's Counter-Terrorism Committee  
[www.un.org/terrorism/](http://www.un.org/terrorism/)  
[www.unodc.org/unodc/en/terrorism.html](http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/terrorism.html)

## IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROVISIONS OF THE CHARTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS RELATED TO ASSISTANCE TO THIRD STATES AFFECTED BY THE APPLICATION OF SANCTIONS

Chapter VII of the Charter of the United Nations permits the Security Council to take action with respect to threats to peace, breaches of peace, and acts of aggression. One specific act the Security Council may undertake is the levying of sanctions against a state that is threatening the peace. Article 41 allows the Security Council to recommend that member states take actions that may include complete or partial interruption of economic relations. Although sanctions are to be applied only when necessary, because of the globalized economy sanctions against one state may have unintended effects on other states. A targeted nation may play an important economic role in the region, and



the sanctions can harm both their own commerce and their regional trading partners.

Article 50 grants member countries the right to appeal for financial assistance as compensation for their losses when sanctions taken against another state causes special economic problems to their own country. In an Article 50 application, third party states appeal their case to an established sanctions committee handling these appeals. The sanctions committee then recommends a course of action to be taken by the Security Council. The committee or Security Council considers the recommendation and may issue a request for other member states to provide assistance to the third party state. When member states are unable to assist, the Security Council has sought assistance from other sources such as other organs of the UN, aid agencies, world financial institutions, and regional banks.

In the case of Iraq, the Security Council passed sanctions in August, 1990 in response to Iraq's invasion of neighboring Kuwait. Following the passage of the sanctions, twenty-one states filed under Article 50. Jordan was the first to appeal. The sanctions committee heard Jordan's appeal and made a recommendation for action to the Security Council, which in turn asked the Secretary-General to make the assessment. The Secretary-General dispatched a special representative to visit Jordan and make an assessment. Following this process, the Security Council adopted Resolution 669 (1990) that charged the sanctions committee with examining all requests and making recommendations for action. Article 50 has also been used by states in the Balkans region following sanctions and NATO military actions that contributed to the collapse of the Serbian-Montenegrin economy.

In June of 1998, the Secretariat convened an ad-hoc expert group (Resolution 53/107) meeting on assistance to third States affected by the application of sanctions. The ad-hoc group devised a recommended methodology for assessing the impact to third States affected by the application of sanctions. Methods that could potentially be used included: (a) a time-series analysis of balance-of-payments changes; (b) sample surveys of affected entities; (c) a gravity model of bilateral trade flows; (d) a regression equation of income shocks; and (e) an analytic hierarchy process for perception surveys. The ad-hoc expert group expressed the opinion that the choice of applicable method(s) would depend on particular circumstances of the affected State in the context of a specific sanctions regime.

The Secretary-General has issued several reports on the implementation of the provisions of the Charter related to assistance to third States affected by the application of sanctions under Chapter VII of the Charter. These reports have included A/50/361, A/51/317, A/52/308, A/53/312, A/54/383 and A/55/295. These reports are recommended readings for representatives looking to familiarize themselves with the issue.

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

- What are some steps that can minimize the impact of sanctions on third party states?
- What method should be used to assess the impact of sanctions on third party states?

- Are third party states being adequately compensated for their special economic problems arising from sanctions on other states, or are more resources needed? Where could those resources come from?

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# 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

Albania	Costa Rica	Jamaica	Poland
Armenia	Cuba	Japan	Republic of Korea
Australia	Dem. Republic of the Congo	Kenya	Russian Federation
Azerbaijan	Denmark	Lithuania	Saudi Arabia
Bangladesh	Ecuador	Malaysia	Senegal
Belgium	France	Mauritius	South Africa
Belize	Germany	Mexico	Thailand
Benin	Greece	Mozambique	Tunisia
Brazil	Guinea	Namibia	Turkey
Canada	Iceland	Nicaragua	United Arab Emirates
Chad	India	Nigeria	United Kingdom
China	Indonesia	Pakistan	United Republic of Tanzania
Colombia	Ireland	Panama	United States of America
Congo	Italy		

### BACKGROUND RESEARCH

#### HIGH-LEVEL SEGMENT: ACHIEVING THE INTERNATIONALLY AGREED DEVELOPMENT GOALS, INCLUDING THOSE CONTAINED IN THE MILLENNIUM DECLARATION AS WELL AS IMPLEMENTING THE OUTCOMES OF THE MAJOR UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCES AND SUMMITS: PROGRESS MADE, CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

The Millennium Summit was the culmination of a number of international conferences and summits held throughout the 1990s that addressed development issues. At the Millennium Summit, leaders laid the framework for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which were adopted by the General Assembly in September 2000. All 191 member nations pledged to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve "Universal Primary Education," promote gender equality and the empowerment of women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability, and develop a global partnership for development. Specific target figures and dates were set for these goals. The MDGs, however, are only a part of a broader international development agenda that also addresses middle income countries and longer-term goals. The 2005 ECOSOC high-level segment is an attempt to discuss the integration of the MDGs into the international development framework and will provide input to the General Assembly's 2005 high-level review of the progress made on the MDGs.

On 16 and 17 March 2005, ECOSOC held an informal preparatory meeting for the high-level segment. Roundtables were held on structural reform, finance and trade liberalization, monetary policies, social policies, and the relationship between economic and human development. They reinforced the notion that bold new thinking is needed to achieve gender equality, particularly in conflict and post-conflict zones. Issues highlighted included the ability of economic systems to offer opportunities for adequate income generation, the ability of social systems to facilitate the accumulation of capabilities, and the capacity for economic systems to provide adequate resources.

The Secretary-General released a report in May 2005 in preparation for both the high-level segment of ECOSOC and the September high-level review by the General Assembly. The report highlighted that the MDGs and the various international conferences are highly interlinked and should be approached as complements to one another. The Secretary-General emphasized nine areas of development and their associated goals as a tool to develop an integrated policy framework. Among the recommendations included in the report, he suggested that rural development, universal primary education, essential medicines, gender mainstreaming, employment, and groups with special needs should all be made priorities in the upcoming years in order to realize the MDGs.

Currently, much of the work on international development is fragmented, with numerous conferences and agendas that are not linked in any coherent form. One of the aims of the ECOSOC high-level review is to coordinate policy priorities and streamline the implementation process. To that end, the Secretary-General noted in his report that the Economic and Social Council provides an appropriate platform for serving as Development Cooperation Forum, where global, regional and national strategies can be reviewed, and policy guidance provided to maximize its contribution to the pursuit of the United Nations development agenda, including the Millennium Development Goals. ECOSOC will need to continue to hold meetings to evaluate the progress of the development agenda, but the high-level segment provides an opportunity to bring together the various policy priorities into a coherent framework.

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

- Is additional development assistance needed in order to make significant progress on the international development agenda?
- How can all the priorities of development conferences, summits, and agendas be brought together under one framework?
- What is the role of ECOSOC in the implementation and monitoring of international development goals?
- What is the relationship between economic and social development?



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- International Institute for Sustainable Development -- [www.iisd.ca/sd/ecosoc2005/](http://www.iisd.ca/sd/ecosoc2005/)
- Millennium Indicators Database -- [millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mi/mi\\_goals.asp](http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_goals.asp)

## ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL QUESTIONS: HUMAN SETTLEMENTS

Five decades ago, two-thirds of the world's population lived in rural areas. Today, more than half live in cities. With this massive wave of urbanization has come many problems, including an increase in poverty levels. By 1997 the problems were bad enough that the Habitat Agenda was created to address the problems of human settlements in an urbanizing and globalizing world. It focuses on two core areas: ensuring adequate housing for all and developing sustainable human settlements.

Urban areas are focal points for investment, trade, finance, communications and production, causing many resources to flow through them. As the population is increasingly concentrated in urban centers, it is critical to properly allocate those resources to those who need them the most. This is the essence of sustainable development promoted by various UN programs and campaigns. The Habitat Agenda defines sustainable development as having three interdependent components: economic development,

social development and environmental protection.

UN-Habitat, a subsidiary organ of the UN, deals with funding, oversight, and development of human settlements. UN-Habitat has 2 major campaigns right now: the Global Campaign on Urban Governance and the Global Campaign for Secure Housing. These include City Alliance, a joint initiative with the World Bank to upgrade slums, promoting effective housing development policies and strategies, campaigning for housing rights, promoting sustainable cities and urban environmental planning and management, aiding post-conflict land management, and reconstructing countries devastated by war or natural disasters.

UN-Habitat also has 154 technical programs and projects in 61 countries, most of them in the least developed countries. These include major projects in post-war areas such as Afghanistan, Kosovo, Somalia, Iraq, Rwanda, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The agency's operational activities help governments create policies and strategies aimed at strengthening management capacity at both national and local levels. They focus on promoting shelter for all, improving urban governance, reducing urban poverty, improving the living environment, and managing disaster mitigation and post-conflict rehabilitation.

The Millennium Declaration called for improving the lives of 100 million slum dwellers by the year 2020. This seemingly large number is only 10% of the present slum population worldwide; it is estimated that if left unchecked, it will rise to 3 billion by 2050. Unfortunately, there are many negative trends that threaten the feasibility of these goals. The 1976 Vancouver Declaration identifies seven: inequitable growth; social, economic, ecological and environmental deterioration; world population growth trends; uncontrolled urbanization; rural backwardness; rural dispersion; and involuntary migration.

These are the underlying problems that the UN must address in order to reach its goal. ECOSOC, in its role as the oversight agency for all UN activities in the economic and social fields, bears special responsibility in this area for supporting and coordinating the work of UN Habitat as it relates to the other agencies and programmes in the UN system.

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

- In what ways can the international community assist UN-Habitat?
- What additional resources are needed to meet the Millennium Declaration's goals?
- What kinds of incentives or disincentives could be put in place to encourage greater improvement of economic and social development and environmental protection?
- What areas, sectors, issues need more focus? More resources? More oversight?

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**SOCIAL AND HUMAN RIGHTS QUESTIONS:  
 GENETIC PRIVACY AND NON-DISCRIMINATION**

Recent advancements in genetic engineering technologies have led to improvements in treatment and testing of disabling diseases, but have also produced discussions surrounding the dangers of these new technologies. The same tests that are used to identify diseases such as cystic fibrosis and sickle cell anemia can also be used to discriminate against those who have been identified as at-risk for developing such diseases. The Economic and Social Council has recognized this possibility and has attempted to reach solutions through debate and resolutions, but has not yet come to an agreement on all the relevant issues.

ECOSOC discussions on the question of genetic privacy and non-discrimination began in 2001. The topic has three primary goals. The first is to discourage use of genetic testing as an evaluation criterion for personal development, such as career choice and advancement or health insurance. The second is to alert others to the use of genetic information for classification. The final goal is to assist in providing privacy and protection in handling genetic information. The establishment of the topic and its goals was followed later that year by a resolution targeting these issues. In addition to urging member states to protect the privacy of subjects of genetic testing and prevent discrimination, the resolution encouraged development of national legislation and standards to provide protection of collected data. It also encouraged member states to continue developments in the field of genetic engineering while keeping these principles in mind. Finally, it requested that the Secretary-General bring the resolution to the attention of all member states, collect

comments on the issue, and present a report to the Council in 2003.

In 2003, the Secretary-General provided the Council with the requested report. However, several issues prevented the report from being completed in time to be thoroughly discussed by the Council. In addition, only a single member state, along with a few organizations in the United Nations system, provided comments on the document. As a result, the Council postponed discussions until 2004, when a follow-up report was provided to the Council. The reports contain comments from several member states regarding their progress in implementing regulations for protecting genetic information. The member states also offered several suggestions for areas where improvement is still needed. In response to the reports the Council approved a resolution encouraging states to continue to develop standards for the protection of genetic data and to prevent all forms of discrimination based on genetic data. The Council also decided to continue considering the various implications of genetic privacy and non-discrimination.

Several areas of this topic are still open to further discussion by this Council. For example, several member states have expressed concerns about development of biobanks, which are collections of genetic data used in genetic research. Recommendations could be made to limit collection based on patient permission, and to require disassociation of genetic data from the original patient. The Council could also recommend specific solutions to control access of genetic data by employers, insurance companies, and related organizations. In addition, the Council could address issues with respect to the potential misuse of personal genetic data by medical practitioners for personal gain, such as obtaining patents without patient consent. Existing resolutions in this area have also neglected to differentiate the use of genetic data in the administration of justice, such as criminal, paternity and identity cases.

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

- How can legislation be created that effectively deals with the issues of genetic privacy and non-discrimination, while keeping in accordance with ECOSOC resolutions and the International Declaration on Human Genetic Data?
- How can the competing need for genetic research and the desire for non-discrimination be balanced?
- How can the access to genetic data by employers and insurance companies be limited?
- What other international agreements might have implications for genetic privacy and non-discrimination?

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## REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

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 the Status of Women (CSW). As a functional commission established by ECOSOC, the CSW is required to make annual reports on its activities to the members of ECOSOC. The CSW 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 CSW may also present their recommendations in resolution format, allowing ECOSOC the chance to review and formally pass the CSW's proposals.

To facilitate this process, the final session of ECOSOC and CSW will culminate in a joint session at which the CSW 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 CSW 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 CSW (Chapter VII), and Representatives may choose to do some additional research into these topics.



# CHAPTER VI.

## THE COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

### STATE MEMBERS

Algeria	Cuba	Iran, Islamic Republic of	Russian Federation
Armenia	Dominican Republic	Japan	South Africa
Belgium	El Salvador	Kazakhstan	Sudan
Belize	Gabon	Mali	Suriname
Bolivia	Germany	Mauritius	Thailand
Botswana	Ghana	Morocco	Turkey
Burkina Faso	Guatemala	Netherlands	United Arab Emirates
Canada	Hungary	Nicaragua	United Kingdom
China	Iceland	Peru	United Republic of Tanzania
Congo	India	Qatar	United States of America
Croatia	Indonesia	Republic of Korea	

This year, AMUN is simulating the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW), 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 CSW 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 CSW may seem overwhelming, significant work on the topics of discussion is nonetheless achievable with thoughtful preparation.

### ABOUT THE COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

The CSW was established in June 1946 to promote implementation of the principle that men and women shall have equal rights. The Commission has forty-five members elected by ECOSOC for four year terms with broad regional representation. It meets annually for a period of ten working days to prepare recommendations and reports to the Council on promoting women's rights in political, economic, civil, social and educational fields. The CSW also makes recommendations to the Council on urgent problems requiring immediate attention in the field of women's rights.

In 2000, as part of a comprehensive review and appraisal of progress made in the implementation of the Platform for Action (Beijing +5), the General Assembly adopted a "Political Declaration" and "Further Actions and Initiatives to Implement the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action" (the Outcome Document). The CSW's multi-year programme of work 2002-2006 is closely related to both the Platform for Action and the Outcome Document in an effort to ensure their effective implementation. At its forty-ninth session in February and March 2005, the CSW convened a high-level session to review the implementation of the Platform for Action and the Outcome Document with a focus on implementation at the national level and with the goal of identifying achievements, gaps and challenges.

### THE SIMULATION

During the 2005 AMUN Conference, to allow for more detailed substantive debate the CSW simulation will be limited to two topics: The Role of Men and Boys in Achieving Gender Equality and Eradicating poverty, including Through the Empowerment of Women Throughout their Life Cycle in a Globalizing World. 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 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action as well as the Outcome Document from Beijing +5. In addition, documents from past sessions that considered the topics under discussion 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.





## THE ROLE OF MEN AND BOYS IN ACHIEVING GENDER EQUALITY

In places throughout the world, women and girls are treated as lesser citizens; in some cases they are not even afforded the rights of basic citizenship. Gender inequalities not only affect women's and girls' daily lives, but also affect the health, peace, and stability of the societies in which they live. While often seen strictly as a women's issue, the place of men and boys in achieving the goal of gender equality is tantamount.

At the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, goals for attaining gender equality were set forth in the Beijing Platform for Action. Beyond establishing actions to be taken by and on behalf of women directly, the Platform for Action also discusses the roles that men and boys play in the gender issue. As the political and social leaders in most societies, as well as their direct links to the education of women and girls and their accountability in the health and safety of women, the Platform for Action calls upon the international community to help educate men and boys regarding their responsibilities in achieving gender equality.

As part of its mandate from the General Assembly, the Commission on the Status of Women regularly reviews the progress of the Platform for Action. In its 2003 session, and continuing through the current session, the CSW has held expert discussion on the role of men and boys in achieving gender equality. The conclusions drawn from this discussion focus on the imbalances of power between women and men and suggest steps that should be taken to eliminate gender inequalities. The CSW points to men as decision-makers, care-givers, educators, partners, and protectors, and how each of the roles can be used to drive out stereotypes and move toward gender equality. The Commission calls upon those in power – largely men – to develop social and economic programs, as well as create and enforce legislation, to empower women through partnership and outreach.

The trafficking and exploitation of women in their lives and through the media has prompted the international community to continually call for steps to be taken to correct areas in which the rights, health and safety of women and girls are compromised. For example, the education of girls and women is often a lower priority than the education of boys. Basic education is not the only goal. In the conclusions of the CSW's expert meetings, the Commission urges education of men and boys about their contributions and responsibilities in gender equality. Specifically, the commission continues to call for the development of training and education programs for parents and care-givers to help raise children in a manner oriented towards gender equality. The development of programs for youth is also part of the call for education. Through schools, community, sports and other activities involving children, the Commission encourages the promotion of gender equality and mutual respect for individuals and the human rights of all.

Violence against women is also a major problem faced in the pursuit of gender equality, and one for which men and boys hold direct responsibility. Violence by soldiers and partners, often committed in societies in which women and girls have no redress against their attackers, strengthens inequalities. Not only does this harm societies and women on a broad social scale, but it also perpetuates critical health problems like HIV/AIDS and other STDs, and can increase unplanned pregnancies. Through education, advocacy, treatment, local legislation, and international aid, the CSW holds that these gender-based violations of women's and girl's rights can be curtailed. As the threat of the HIV/AIDS

pandemic spreads and as war and violence continue to be a daily factor in many lives, this issue is on the forefront of work to attain gender equality.

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

- What role should the Commission on the Status of Women play in pursuing gender equality? What are other UN organs and outside organizations doing to address the problem?
- What is the legal status of women and girls in your country and region?
- How do the educational, legislative, economic, and social conditions in your country affect how men and boys understand gender equality?
- How can men and boys be encouraged to better support gender equality, particularly in those countries with cultures that include male dominance?

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## ERADICATING POVERTY, INCLUDING THROUGH THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN THROUGHOUT THEIR LIFE CYCLE IN A GLOBALIZING WORLD

The challenge of poverty eradication is a high priority on both international and national agendas in the new millennium. Within the context of the recent emphasis on eradicating poverty throughout the UN system, including the current UN decade dedicated to that topic, the empowerment of women has gained additional prominence. Through global United Nations conferences and summits, a set of interconnected and mutually reinforcing goals, targets and strategies on combating poverty have been agreed upon by Governments. These events also highlighted the different causes and impacts of poverty on women and men, as well as their respective capacities to cope with it. This consequently emphasized the importance of directly addressing gender differences in poverty eradication efforts.

In the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, the international community recognized that women and men experience poverty differently. This led to agreement that these differences need to be taken into account in order to adequately understand and deal with the causes of poverty. The Platform highlighted the empowerment of women as a critical factor in the eradication of poverty. Emphasizing the multidimensional nature of poverty, the Platform recommended that poverty eradication strategies should address such factors as autonomy, dignity and participation in decision-making. Furthermore, Governments agreed to promote the gender mainstreaming strategy in all policies and programmes, including those aimed at poverty eradication.

In preparation for the Commission's discussion of eradicating poverty through the empowerment of women in 2002, the Division on the Advancement of Women convened an expert group meeting in New Delhi in 2001. The group emphasized that the concept of human poverty includes not only the condition of economic insufficiency, but also social and political exclusion, so that discussions should take into account more than material well-being and acknowledge its gender dimension. The group's final report made a number of recommendations that centered around liberalizing the economy, creating better social services concerning education, health, and social security, and opening more doors for female participation in traditionally male dominated institutions.

At the Commission's 46th session in 2002, discussions centered on a distinction between the concerns of developed and developing countries, as well as the fulfillment of women's human rights as an important strategy to eradicate poverty. Other issues addressed included land and property rights of women and allocating funds for gender mainstreaming in UN conferences. The importance of guaranteeing reproductive and sexual health services and rights as a tool to eradicate poverty was debated, but not accepted into the final conclusions of the session. With the decade on the eradication of poverty coming to a close in 2006, now is an important time to evaluate the success of past actions and consider how to move forward to ensure the empowerment of women and the eradication of poverty.

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

- How have states responded to the Beijing Platform for Action and the CSW's conclusions? How can further action be best encouraged?
- Are there different concerns regarding the empowerment of women for countries at varying levels of development?

- If so, how do they differ? How is trade liberalization affecting impoverished and near-impoverished women?
- How can the UN mainstream a gender perspective into its other major conferences and commissions?

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- [www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/) -- Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW)
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## CHAPTER VII.

# THE UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES

### INTRODUCTION TO THE UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES (UNHCR)

In keeping with the tradition of presenting a unique simulation of a United Nations body or affiliated organization, AMUN 2005 will simulate the Executive Committee of the High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). Participation will be voluntary and open to one Representative from each delegation attending AMUN. The UNHCR 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 UNHCR will give participants a diverse, more challenging atmosphere in which to use their skills of diplomacy, research and analysis. The topics are detailed and will require careful preparation prior to the 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 UNHCR, the relevant policies of the Member State they represent, and an awareness of refugee issues worldwide.

### ABOUT UNHCR

The UNHCR was established by the United Nations General Assembly on 14 December 1950. Its mandate is to lead and coordinate international action to protect refugees and resolve refugee problems worldwide. UNHCR strives to ensure that all refugees can exercise the right to seek asylum and find safe refuge in another state, and to return home voluntarily. Its actions are guided by the United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol, as well as by other instruments of international refugee law. The Executive committee of the UNHCR meets annually in Geneva to approve the programmes and budget of the UNHCR and to give advice on issues of international protection.

### THE SIMULATION

During the 2005 AMUN Conference, the UNHCR will focus on two issues: Implementing the Goals and Objectives of Convention Plus, and Strengthening UNHCR Repatriation Operations. The Committee may create either reports or resolutions to cover these issues. The UNHCR will present a final summary of their work, including reports and/or resolutions, to the Combined General Assembly Plenary session during the last session of the Conference.

Note that each delegation may place one Representative on the UNHCR simulation. AMUN may make exceptions to this policy and allow a second Representative; this is typically allowed when a delegation has filled all other Committee/Council assignments.

### PREPARATION

As a foundation for subsequent research, Representatives are strongly encouraged to familiarize themselves with the UNHCR Statute and the 1951 Refugee Convention, as well as the summaries and supporting documents for each topic on the UNHCR website. Careful review of the following topic overviews and 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

#### IMPLEMENTING THE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF CONVENTION PLUS

In the aftermath of World War II states began to realize the importance of an international framework for the protection of refugees. The first instrument to this end was the 1951 Refugee Convention, which was limited in scope to protecting European refugees and was expanded on by the 1967 Protocol and several regional agreements. These documents were the first to spell out the basic human rights that a refugee should have and to recognize the international scope of the refugee crisis. They define what a refugee is, what a refugee's rights are, and explicitly lists who is not covered by the agreement.

New issues have arisen in the past decades that are beyond the original Convention and Protocol. As a result, UNHCR launched the "Convention Plus" program. This process is designed to create a number of generic agreements focusing on particular issues in an attempt to create a durable solution to problems facing refugees. There are three initial priority areas: the strategic use of resettlement as a tool of protection; how to more effectively target development assistance to support refugees; and clarification

of the responsibility of states with respect to irregular secondary movements of refugees and asylum-seekers. These generic agreements will provide a basic framework for addressing these problems. When confronted by a refugee situation, these generic frameworks will be incorporated into situation-specific multilateral agreements aimed at resolving that situation. One of the primary goals of Convention Plus is to delineate the burden-sharing responsibilities of states, while increasing the level of state involvement by focusing on agreements between states involved in a specific refugee situation. To this end, the Convention Plus process is currently implemented on the state level, with facilitated discussions between interested states and NGOs. Twice a year the High Commissioner convenes a Forum, which is open to all member states, of the Executive Committee and observers of the Standing Committee.

In June 2004, a "Multilateral Framework of Understandings on Resettlement" (MFU) was reached. The October 2004 Forum gave this agreement broad support, and the Executive Committee gave the MFU its support and encouraged nations to make full use of it. The MFU sets out guidelines for states to register and document refugee situations in a timely fashion, ensur-



ing the protection of family unity, and expresses the need for transparency while also protecting the privacy rights of individuals. The next step is to put the MFU into practice by organizing and facilitating situation-specific agreements that follow its guidelines.

A series of meetings have been held with regard to targeting development assistance. It was agreed that efforts should be focused initially on two refugee situations: Somali refugees/returnees in Ethiopia, and Somali and Sudanese refugees in Uganda. Focus groups consisting of donors, UN agencies and NGOs have met several times to discuss the targeting of aid and developments in these refugee situations. In November 2004, UNHCR, in coordination with the government of Uganda, launched its Self-Reliance/Development Assistance for Refugees program. UNHCR has also prepared a draft "Issues Paper on Targeting of Development Assistance," which lays out the main issues facing a generic agreement on targeting development assistance in the context of Convention Plus. This paper has been presented to the World Bank, major aid donors, and NGOs, and it has been discussed with the African Group. Further modifications to the Issues Paper and beginning the process of drafting a multilateral framework are the next steps in the area of targeting development assistance.

The group addressing the third priority area, irregular secondary movements, is in the beginning stages of analyzing the reasons for secondary movements and how they can best be addressed in a future multilateral framework. The group commissioned a survey of the movements of Somali refugees to inform their discussions. During the September, 2004 meeting, several components of a multilateral framework began to emerge, and it was decided that the key principle for this framework should be the sharing of burdens and responsibilities. Further discussion occurred on issues important to secondary movements, such as registration and fair asylum procedures. The group met in March, 2005 to begin readings of a draft multilateral framework for understandings. Meanwhile, work on the Somali refugee survey is continuing, with preliminary results in several countries already presented in February and March of 2005.

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

- How should the emerging multilateral frameworks be incorporated into a process to facilitate situation-specific agreements?
- What form should these frameworks take? Should the scope be more generic, more widespread, or some combination of the two? Is this dependent on the specific framework in question?
- How can UNHCR try to get more nations to ratify the Convention and Protocol? How can more nations be encouraged to become involved in the Convention Plus process?

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"World must seek lasting social, economic solutions for refugees – UN," *UN News Centre*, 17 March 2004.

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A/Res/58/151

A/Res/58/149

A/Res/57/187

A/Res/57/183

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Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, [www.unhcr.org](http://www.unhcr.org).

"High Commissioner's Forum Meeting 2005," Collection of Documents, May, 2005, [www.unhcr.ch](http://www.unhcr.ch).

"High Commissioner's Forum Meeting 2004," Collection of Documents, May, 2005, [www.unhcr.ch](http://www.unhcr.ch).

Multilateral Framework on Understandings for Resettlement, FORUM/2004/6, Sep 2004.

UNHCR Standing Committee and Convention Plus Report, June 2003, [www.crr.unsw.edu/au/documents](http://www.crr.unsw.edu/au/documents).

## Additional Web Resources:

[www.migrationpolicy.org](http://www.migrationpolicy.org)

[www.reliefweb.int](http://www.reliefweb.int)

[www.unhcr.ch](http://www.unhcr.ch)

## STRENGTHENING UNHCR REPATRIATION OPERATIONS

Under existing international agreements, refugees are entitled to the protection and assistance of the international community. Most refugees, however, would eventually like to return to their home country rather than permanently settling elsewhere. UNHCR views voluntary repatriation as the most durable solution to refugee crises, and to that end works with both host countries and countries of origin to ensure safe and dignified repatriation. The goal of repatriation is to provide refugees with the ability to maintain sustainable livelihoods, access basic services and fully reintegrate into their communities.

The role and responsibilities of UNHCR with regard to voluntary repatriation have expanded from the initial belief that UNHCR's responsibility ended when repatriates crossed the border back into their home country. Now, UNHCR remains involved with refugees after they have returned home, providing transportation, financial incentives and practical help such as seeds, farming equipment and building materials. In an effort to obviate the need for international protection, UNHCR also began using Quick Impact Projects (QIPs) in the 1990s as tools to link international relief with long-term development. The aim



of QiPs is to create a conducive environment inside the countries of origin, not only preventing mass outflows, but also facilitating sustainable repatriation.

In May 2003, as part of the High Commissioner's Framework for Durable Solutions, the Repatriation, Reintegration, Rehabilitation and Reconstruction (the 4 Rs) approach was adopted. This was translated into practice in the Handbook for Repatriation and Reintegration Activities. The 4Rs approach was first used in Afghanistan, Eritrea, Sri Lanka, and Sierra Leone and is now being used as well in Angola, Liberia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and the Republic of the Congo.

In 2004, the UNHCR Executive Committee underlined the need for cooperation among host countries, countries of origin, UNHCR, and the international community to ensure that repatriation is sustainable. It highlighted the need for fair and effective restitution mechanisms, recognizing that in cases of illegal or discriminatory property seizure, all returning refugees should have the right to have property restored to them or be compensated for any property that they were deprived of during exile. In addition, the Executive Committee stressed concerns about family unity, along with the need to develop skills that will allow repatriates to reintegrate into the local economy.

Repatriation is often hampered in post-conflict areas by security concerns, lack of basic services, the slow pace of reconstruction, and insufficient possibilities for income generation. Often, concerns of recurring violence hamper repatriation efforts. The UNHCR has increasingly become involved with partnerships, including with the Department of Peace Keeping Operations (DPKO) on rule of law issues. Successful reintegration of returnees is closely linked to the re-establishment and proper functioning of national protection mechanisms. Fair judicial systems and effective law enforcement are not only necessary for preventing the recurrence of past abuses, but also to address various legal issues that can seriously complicate the repatriation and reintegration process.

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

- What can be done to increase the efficiency of the UNHCR repatriation system?
- Are there special concerns for women and children refugees? How can they be addressed?
- When conditions change in a home country such that repatriation is not a feasible option, what can and should be done for refugees?
- What risks are involved in voluntary repatriation and what can be done to alleviate these risks?

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## UN Documents:

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A/AC.96/988  
A/Res/59/172  
Convention of 1951 and Protocol of 1967 Relating to the Status of Refugees

## Additional Web Resources:

- [www.unhcr.ch](http://www.unhcr.ch)  
[www.reliefweb.int](http://www.reliefweb.int)



# 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

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

Malaysia and Singapore are before the ICJ on the question of sovereignty over a number of small islands off the coast of the Malaysian state of Johor. The primary dispute is over an island known as Pedra Branca to Singapore and Pulau Batu Puteh to Malaysia. The island lies in a strategic position near the Singapore Straits and controls access to the South China Sea. With ownership of the island, a government would also gain control of the 200 mile Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) around the island. Reassignment of the EEZ would significantly impact the economic balance of the area. The two countries have been in conflict over this strategic location for more than 20 years.

The dispute arose in 1979, when Malaysia published a new map that included the island as Malaysian territory. Malaysia claims Pulau Batu Puteh has been Malaysian territory since 1513, during the Johore Sultanate. However, an Anglo-Dutch treaty gave Britain control over the region in the mid-1800s. The British colonial government built Horsburgh Lighthouse to steer ships safely past the island. The British lost control of the region in 1963 when the Federation of Malaysia was formed. Singapore succeeded the Federation in 1965 and continued to administer the island throughout its transition period. There was no protest by Malaysia until 1979, but the conflict has escalated in recent years with a gunboat standoff in 2002, and general political acrimony on both sides.

Malaysia's case is based strongly on US military maps that consistently showed the island as Malaysian. The Malaysian government also claims that Singapore was merely serving as administrator of the lighthouse, and that this is not sufficient reason to assume ownership rights. Instead, Malaysia argues that it traces its legal ownership rights to the Johore Sultanate, which predates the occupation of the island by the British. Malaysia also claims Singapore has been secretly building on the island to enhance its claim of ownership. Adding to the tensions between the two nations, the Singapore Coast Guard has turned Malaysian journalists on Malaysian marine patrol boats away from the island, prompting an escalation as Malaysian patrol boats entered the waters surrounding the island.

In response, Singapore claims that it has held possession of the island for over 150 years and that possession should determine the sovereignty of the island. With over a century of Malaysian maps showing Singaporean ownership of the island, Singapore believes the time for contesting sovereignty has long past. Singapore has built a radar facility and a helipad on the island to aid in the safety of ships in and out of the Straits of Singapore, and although Malaysia claims recent construction on

the island, there are no signs of any current work being completed on Pedra Branca.

By September 1, 2003, both parties had filed their Memorials and Counter-Memorials. Both countries have until November 25, 2005 to file a reply.

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

- Is it significant that Malaysia did not raise the issue of sovereignty over Pedra Branca/Pulau Batu Puteh earlier than 1991, even though it had been independent since 1963?
- Does possession show ownership of territory? If so, is this acceptable means for determining legal government in a region?
- How might the occupation of Pedra Branca/Pulau Batu Puteh affect the outcome of the case, considering the prior decision in the dispute between Indonesia and Malaysia over Pulau Litigan and Pulau Sipadan?
- Does the union under a colonial power (Great Britain) affect the position of either side?

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### Additional Web Resources:

International Court of Justice Homepage, <http://www.icj-cij.org>



## HUNGARY V. SLOVAKIA - GABCIKOVO-NAGYMAROS PROJECT

On 16 September 1977, Hungary and Czechoslovakia signed a bilateral treaty in which they agreed to build a cross border system of dams on the Danube River. The joint investment was aimed at the production of hydroelectricity, the improvement of navigation on the relevant section of the Danube, and the protection of the areas along the banks against flooding. Work on the Project started in 1978.

Due to economic hardships in Hungary, construction was mutually suspended in 1983. In a Protocol signed on 6 February 1989 the two parties agreed to restart the project at an accelerated pace. As a result of intense environmental criticism of the Project generated in Hungary, the Hungarian Government suspended the works at Nagymaros on 13 May 1989, and again on 21 July 1989. Finally, on 27 October 1989, Hungary decided to abandon the works at Nagymaros and to maintain the status quo at Dunakiliti.

The two parties entered into negotiations surrounding the completion of treaty obligations but were never able to come to an agreement. On 19 May 1992, the Hungarian Government transmitted to the Czechoslovak Government a Note Verbale terminating the 1977 Treaty effective 25 May 1992. Czechoslovakia, succeeded by Slovakia in 1993, continued the construction of the Gabčíkovo dam in accordance with a provisional solution that allowed it to maximize use of the Danube. Hungary instituted proceedings with the court on 23 October 1992, arguing that it had lawfully ceased construction due to necessity, impossibility of performance, a fundamental change in circumstances, and a material breach by Slovakia. Further, Hungary believed that Slovakia had wrongfully continued with construction. Slovakia, on the other hand, argued that Hungary had breached the treaty by failing to construct the dam and that it had acted to mitigate damages.

The Court issued a judgment on 25 September 1997, which held that both Slovakia and Hungary breached their obligations under the treaty on the construction and operation of the Gabčíkovo-Nagymaros System of Locks. The Court found that Hungary violated the treaty by unilaterally suspending and subsequently abandoning the project and that Slovakia violated the treaty by subsequently unilaterally diverting the Danube River after the notice given by Hungary in 1992. The Court also ruled that the treaty is still in effect and that the parties should enter into good faith negotiations to resolve the dispute.

The Court gave the parties six months to negotiate a new solution to generate hydroelectric power while also replenishing the environment. Hungary postponed the negotiations on 5 March 1998 and on 3 September 1998 Slovakia filed a request for an additional judgment from the Court arguing that Hungary had not implemented the 1997 judgment. The parties still have not come to any agreement on a solution.

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

- Is Slovakia a party to the 1977 treaty as a successor to Czechoslovakia?
- How did circumstances change between 1977 and 1992?
- Was it lawful for Hungary to abandon the project?
- Was Slovakia justified in continuing construction on the dam in 1991? How about in 1992?
- Is either party entitled to compensation?
- What effect does Soviet control of Hungary and Czechoslovakia have over the validity of the treaty?

## Bibliography:

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Convention of 18 August 1948 Concerning the Regime of Navigation of the Danube  
Vienna Convention of 1969 on Law of Treaties  
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## Additional Web Resources:

- [www.icj-cij.org/icjwww/idocket/ihs/ihsframe.htm](http://www.icj-cij.org/icjwww/idocket/ihs/ihsframe.htm) --International Court of Justice Website.  
[www.slovakia.org/history-gabcikovo.htm](http://www.slovakia.org/history-gabcikovo.htm)

## ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN V. UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: CASE CONCERNING OIL PLATFORMS (HISTORICAL CASE)

On 2 November 1992, the Islamic Republic of Iran (Iran) brought proceedings against the United States of America (the United States) before the International Court of Justice (ICJ) in regards to the destruction of three off shore oil production complexes owned by Iran. The case arises from acts that occurred during the ground war between Iran and Iraq from 1980-1988.

In 1984 Iraq began attacking oil tankers traveling in the Persian Gulf in an attempt to disrupt Iran's oil trade. These attacks continued and were condemned by the U.N. Security Council on 1 June 1984 (Resolution 552). As a result of these attacks, which Iran alleged were supported by the United States, Iran began attacking neutral ships in the Persian Gulf primarily bound for ports in Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. On 16 October 1987, a Kuwaiti tanker flying a United States flag, the Sea Isle City, was hit by a missile. Although Iran blamed Iraq for the attack, the United States claimed Iran was using oil platforms to attack neutral shipping, and the United States retaliated with strikes against two Iranian offshore oil platforms in the Reshadat complex. As a result of the attack, one platform was completely destroyed and the other was 90 percent destroyed, with this



destruction resulting in the complete stoppage of oil production.

On a separate occasion, in April 1988, the U.S.S. Samuel B. Roberts hit a mine off the coast of Bahrain. The United States asserted Iran had laid the mines. Again, the United States retaliated by attacking two Iranian off-shore oil platforms, destroying both the Nasr and Salman complexes. On 2 November 1992, Iran instituted proceedings against the United States in respect of a dispute "aris[ing] out of the attack [on] and destruction of three offshore oil production complexes, owned and operated for commercial purposes by the National Iranian Oil Company, by several warships of the United States Navy on 19 October 1987 and 18 April 1988 respectfully."

As the basis for the Court's jurisdiction Iran cited the 1955 Treaty of Amity, Economic Relations and Consular Rights between the United States and Iran (the Treaty) signed 15 August 1955, and entering into force 16 June 1957. The Treaty addresses the freedom of commerce and navigation of shipping between the two contracting parties. However, the United States argued that the Treaty provided no basis for the Court's jurisdiction because the Treaty does not apply to questions pertaining to the use of force or self defense.

Iran is asking the Court to hold the United States responsible in conjunction with the aforementioned attacks and to make reparations to Iran for violations of the Treaty in a "form and amount" to be determined by the Court. First, the Court must decide if it does in fact have jurisdiction under the 1955 treaty. If the Court decides it does have jurisdiction it would be the first time the Court has relied solely on a compromissory clause in a bilateral treaty to establish jurisdiction.

The United States is asserting that the Court does not have jurisdiction. However, even assuming the Court does have jurisdiction, the United States is asserting its right to self defense under the UN Charter in relation to the attacks on the Iranian oil platforms. The United States also argues that Iran violated its obligations under the Treaty because Iran engaged in mining and/or missile attacks on United States' ships on two separate occasions. The United States is asking the Court for reparations from Iran.

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

- Does the Court have jurisdiction in this matter? If so, to what extent and on what issue?
- Was the freedom of commerce and navigation guaranteed in the Treaty violated by the United States, Iran, or both?
- Was the destruction of the oil platforms necessary for the United States' self-defense?
- Were the mining and missile attacks against the United States vessels the responsibility of Iran?

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### Legal Documents:

- United Nations Charter  
Treaty of Amity, Economic Relations, and Consular Rights Between the United States of America and Iran, 15 Aug 1955.

### UN Documents:

- S/Res/598  
S/Res/582  
S/Res/552

### Additional Web Resources:

- [www.icj-cij.org](http://www.icj-cij.org) -- International Court of Justice  
[www.un.org/law](http://www.un.org/law)  
[www.icj-cij.org/icjwww/idocket/iop/iopframe.htm](http://www.icj-cij.org/icjwww/idocket/iop/iopframe.htm)  
[www.asil.org](http://www.asil.org) -- American Society of International Law

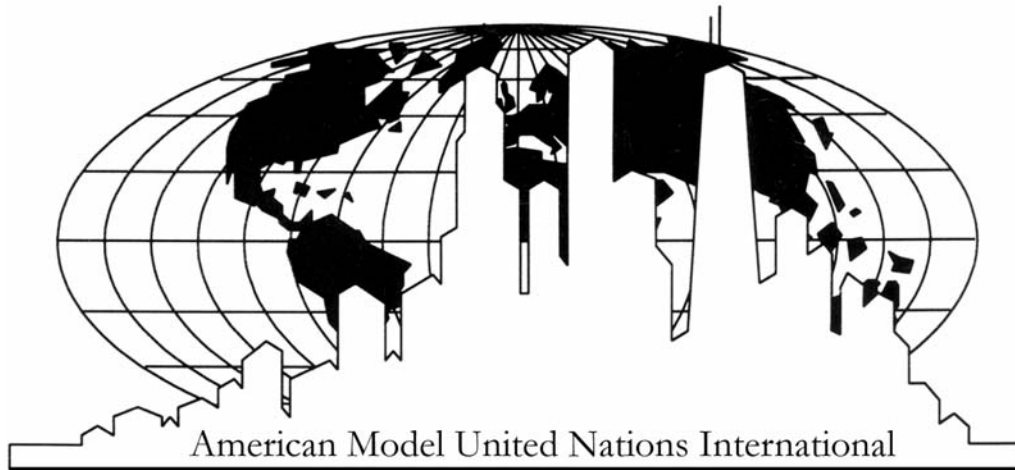




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