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

2006 AMUN INTERNATIONAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

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ISSUES AT *AMUN* 2006
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 2006 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** 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**, the *New York Times* on-line, located at **www.nytimes.com**, and the *UN Wire*, located at **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**. 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 13 of the *AMUN Rules and Procedures* Handbook.

THE PURVIEW OF EACH SIMULATION

Each of the following simulation background sections begins with a brief discussion of the "purview" of that simulation. This is a general overview of what types of discussions that simulation might have on the topics in question. This is extremely important in the UN system, where a variety of different Committees and Councils may discuss different aspects of the solution to an international problem. Representatives should exercise great care in researching a topic, and when deliberating should focus on the piece of a problem that is considered by their simulation. These should be considered a guideline for the discussions of each body.

The Palestinian question is an excellent example of this in action. The First Committee might discuss aspects of the situation dealing with weapons shipments. At the same time, the Second Committee may discuss a variety of financing initiatives to help the Palestinian Authority. Similarly, the Third Committee, or in some case ECOSOC, might discuss the social and humanitarian considerations that arise from Israeli occupation of various territories. And the Sixth Committee may discuss legal implications of past agreements, or the impact of terrorism on the situation. Only the GA Plenary Session would discuss the problem in its entirety, including the possible creation of a legal Palestinian State or member status for that State. And the Security Council would deal with any peace and security issues that it deemed appropriate on the situation. Thus it can be seen from this one situation that different aspects of a problem are regularly discussed in different bodies. More importantly, at the UN delegations are typically careful to *only* discuss those aspects relevant to their own Committee/Council, leaving other aspects for others in their delegation.

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

Argentina	Ghana	Russian Federation
China	Greece	Slovakia
Congo	Japan	United Kingdom
Denmark	Peru	United Republic of Tanzania
France	Qatar	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/). 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

In 2003, a rebellion broke out in the Western region of Sudan known as Darfur. The rebels, calling themselves the Sudan Liberation Army, attacked government facilities and military bases in the region. As the fighting spread, local militias, often referred to as the Janjaweed, began to strike back at rebel held territory and villages, killing thousands of people and displacing hundreds of thousands more. Darfur has been called "the world's greatest humanitarian crisis" by the United Nations. Many NGOs and the United States believe the atrocities there constitute genocide. In response, the United Nations has attempted to provide aid to the refugees, but the levels of violence have often seriously impeded their efforts. In many instances, armed men have looted aid convoys and attacked humanitarian workers.

The international community has also tried more forceful responses to the violence in Darfur. In late 2004, the African Union deployed a force of military observers to the region with a mandate that charged it with patrolling the area and documenting any attacks against civilians in the region, but without authorizing it to intervene in the conflict. By all accounts, the African Union force failed to reduce the level of violence in the region, and the peacekeepers have become targets themselves on more than one occasion. Many outside observers believe that the force does not have enough personnel to adequately patrol the area, even after the African Union increased the size of the force from 3000 observers to 7000. In March of 2005, the Security Council took the additional step of referring allegations of war crimes in the region to the International Criminal Court, although the court has not indicted or arrested any of the 51 prime suspects referred to it.

Since the beginning of 2006, the United Nations Security Council has begun to explore the possibility of replacing the African Union force in Darfur with a force under the command of the United Nations. Supporters of the plan believe that the United Nations could expand the force beyond the current capabilities of the African Union, and that the United Nations has more experience with long term, large scale deployments of this kind. However, the Sudanese government has expressed serious reservations about the deployment of peacekeeping troops under the command of the United Nations to Darfur. They have strongly resisted efforts to add non-African troops to the peacekeeping force, and many Arabs in Sudan believe the effort is a Western plot to undermine or replace the Sudanese government. In the meantime, the violence in Darfur spilled across the border into Chad. In April, rebels managed to reach the Chadian capital of Ndjamena, where government forces defeated them in an intense firefight. Chad directed blame for the incident at Sudan for giving the rebels safe haven. The violence has had the side effect of aggravating the living conditions for the hundreds of thousands of refugees who fled the violence in Darfur by moving across the border into Chad.

In May, the Sudanese government and the Sudanese Liberation Army signed a peace treaty under intense pressure from the American and Nigerian governments. However, several smaller factions of rebel fighters did not agree to the terms of the agreement and pledged to keep fighting. Despite diplomatic efforts, the rebel groups remain unwilling to disarm and the violence in the region has continued.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
• What is the proper role of the UN in an internal conflict of a

Member State which has a significant humanitarian dimension?

- Why has the crisis in Sudan continued to escalate? What factors have limited the ability of the Council to take action?
- What actions could be taken to differentiate a UN peacekeeping mission from the current African Union mission? Do these changes serve the strategic interest of your government?

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THE SITUATION IN ETHIOPIA AND ERITREA

The future of the United Nations Mission in Eritrea and Ethiopia (UNMEE) remains in jeopardy as the border conflict between the two countries continues to simmer. The United Nations deployed the peacekeeping force to the region in 2000 as part of a peace accord that ended a two year long war between the two counties over a border dispute. As part of the peace treaty, both sides agreed to have an international boundary commission rule on disputed segments of the border, particularly the contested town of Badme. The commission awarded possession of the town to Eritrea in 2002, but the Ethiopians disputed the ruling. In late 2005, the Eritreans imposed a number of restrictions on the UNMEE peacekeepers, grounding helicopters, prohibiting night patrols, and ending de-mining operations. The restrictions eliminated the ability of the peacekeepers to verify troop deployments along the border, an essential trust-building measure between the two parties. Then, in December of 2005, Eritrea ordered all United States, Canadian, and European peacekeepers to leave the country, reducing the 3,300 strong force by 180. The Security Council called for Ethiopia to abide by the ruling of the border commission and for Eritrea to remove its restrictions on the peacekeepers, but so far neither side seems to be inclined to cooperate.

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

- What distinguishes UNMEE from other UN operations in Africa?
- Do the changing conditions in the region require a change in the objectives of UNMEE?

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ISSUES IN ASIA

THE SITUATION IN THE DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF KOREA

In October of 2002, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) stunned the world by acknowledging that it had hidden a nuclear weapons program for years. In response, the six interested parties (United States, the Republic of Korea, DPRK, China, Japan, and Russia) set up a series of ongoing talks aimed at finding a resolution to the standoff. The talks initially made little progress, and a series of discouraging steps followed. First, the United States withdrew from the KEDO agreement, by which it provided energy aid with the ultimate promise of a pair of light-water nuclear reactors in return for a freeze on the DPRK's nuclear program. Shortly afterwards, the DPRK announced it was withdrawing from the Non-Proliferation Treaty, becoming the first nation in the world to do so. Many outside observers believe that the DPRK has since reprocessed a stockpile of plutonium from its nuclear facility at Yongbyon, which could give it enough nuclear material to make a small number of nuclear weapons.

The six party talks appeared to reach a breakthrough in September of 2005 when the United States and the DPRK agreed that the US would give the DPRK a light-water reactor in return for which the DPRK would abandon its nuclear program and rejoin the Non-Proliferation Treaty. However, the agreement broke down the day after it was announced, as the parties differed over the timing of the implementation of the agreement. The United States has insisted that the DPRK verifiably dismantle its nuclear arsenal before it could build a light-water reactor, while the DPRK has insisted that it must have the reactor before it will give up its deterrent. The talks have recessed while the various parties try to find a new approach to break the impasse.

At the same time, the US launched a crackdown on a DPRK attempt to launder counterfeit US currency through the world financial system. In September, while the six party talks hammered out their agreement, the United States Treasury Department ordered US banks to cut ties with the Banco Delta Asia in Macao as part of a wide reaching money laundering investigation involving the government of the DPRK, members of the Triad organized crime syndicate, and the Irish Republican Army. The action triggered a ripple effect through the world financial system as other banks cut ties to accounts linked to the DPRK to avoid similar measures. The measures appear to have had an effect, as the DPRK has made the removal of "financial sanctions" one of their primary demands before resuming talks on the nuclear issue. In the meantime, the negotiations remain stalled.

For the purposes of the Council, it should be noted that the situation in the DPRK is an important underlying international issue in many discussions. It has not, however, been actively discussed very much in public Council meetings.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Should the international community give economic, development, or humanitarian aid to DPRK 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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The Situation in Timor-Leste

In 1999, the former Portuguese colony of Timor-Leste voted for independence from Indonesia after a 24 year long occupation noted for its human rights abuses. When Indonesian backed militias rampaged through the newly born nation, the United Nations sent in peacekeepers to restore order and advisors to help the Timorese create a new nation. The United Nations administered the area until 2002, when the UN mission handed control over to an elected Timorese government. Timor-Leste was considered a major success in nation-building until May of 2006, when approximately 600 disgruntled soldiers resigned from the army complaining of ethnic discrimination. Shortly afterwards, a riot broke out during a demonstration in support of the former soldiers, and the violence spread across the capital. Both the national army and the police have been torn apart by the fighting, and both will likely take many years to reconstitute into an effective force. Even more disturbing, the violence seems to have taken on an ethnic character, despite the lack of pre-existing ethnic tensions. It is estimated that up to 65,000 people have fled the violence in the capital, and the refugees are disproportionately from the Eastern section of the country. Peacekeepers have now returned to the country, led by an Australian battalion, and long term plans are being made for a UN mission to return to the country. However, the relatively small Australian military has found itself increasingly strained by multiple simultaneous deployments across the South Pacific, calling into question its ability to sustain another long term deployment to Timor-Leste.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What bearing does the United Nations experience in Timor-Leste have on other conflicts in the world?
- What is the appropriate priority of the situation in Timor-Leste relative to other conflicts in the world?

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ISSUES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

THE SITUATION IN IRAQ

Iraq is a frequent topic of discussion in the Security Council, but the Council's active role since the removal of Saddam Hussein's government in 2003 has been limited. While the UN was forced to withdraw much of its presence in Iraq due to safety concerns following the August and September 2003 bombings of UN offices and personnel, this presence has increased again recently in an attempt to further assist the Iraqi people.

The Council's primary action since that time was to establish the UN Assistance Mission for Iraq (UNAMI) on 14 August 2003, and to renew the work of that mission on an annual basis. UNAMI was instrumental in assisting the Iraqi government in holding widely acclaimed elections in December, 2005. It has also been active in assisting the Iraqi people and government with political and economic development, as well as in coordinating reconstruction and humanitarian assistance efforts. Problematically, ongoing violence, including recently increased sectarian violence, is a constant, underlying impediment to the successful work of UNAMI, the allied forces in Iraq, and the Iraqi people on these issues.

In 2006, the Council had not passed a resolution on Iraq as of this writing. Most meetings on Iraq conclude with a Presidential Statement to describe the ongoing situation. The Secretary-General also frequently reports to the Council on UNAMI's progress, as well as the overall situation in Iraq. While the establishment of the new government in late 2005 was a hopeful step, progress is nonetheless difficult.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Is there more that the Council can do to assist the Iraqi people?
- What is the proper role of the Security Council in this situation?

What role would your government like the Council to take?

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S/2006/630 (2 Jun 2006) - SG Report

The Situation in Iran

Although there have long been allegations of a secret Iranian program to develop nuclear weapons, these rumors took on a new life when an Iranian opposition group revealed two previously unknown nuclear sites in 2002. Although Iran claimed that its nuclear program exists solely to provide electrical power, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) increased its inspections in the country attempting to definitively prove whether or not Iran had a military nuclear program operating alongside its civilian program. Over the past few years, the IAEA has found numerous instances where Iran failed to report nuclear activities and nuclear facilities to the IAEA, but it has yet to conclusively determine whether Iran has a second, clandestine military program in addition to its declared civilian nuclear program.

Although the United States refused to negotiate with the Iranians over the dispute, as has been standing US policy, France, Germany, and the United Kingdom (often known collectively as the EU3) began negotiations with Iran. The Europeans sought to broker a deal that would allow Iran to develop nuclear reactors that would produce electric energy without allowing Iran technology that could later serve as the building blocks for a military program, such as the enrichment of uranium. The Iranians agreed to suspend controversial activities, such as enrichment, while the negotiations continued. In August of 2005, the negotiations reached a climax, as the EU3 made their final offer to Iran, consisting of a series of economic and political incentives to Iran in return for Iran's suspension of nuclear activities. In particular, the Europeans insisted that Iran give up its right to enrich uranium domestically in return for a guarantee that Iran would be allowed to purchase uranium for its power plants. Iran rejected the offer and resumed enriching uranium shortly thereafter.

In April, President Ahmadinejad announced that Iran had "joined the nuclear countries of the world", and that Iran had no intention of giving up its right to enrich uranium as part of ne-

gotiations over its nuclear program. This preempted a scheduled report of the IAEA to the Security Council on Iran's nuclear program. Although some outside experts have questioned Iran's proficiency at uranium enrichment, the announcement raised the stakes in the diplomatic talks. Other Iranian leaders have also shown their support for the nuclear program. Supreme Leader Khamenei warned that Iran would respond to any "harsh measures" imposed on the Iranians by possibly restricting oil exports or transferring nuclear technology to other nations. On April 28th, the IAEA submitted its report to the Council with its findings on the Iranian program. The report detailed the decreasing levels of cooperation from the Iranians as well as many areas of open questions on the Iranian program. The agency was able to confirm Iran's ability to enrich uranium to low levels, but it admitted that significant gaps existed in its understanding of the Iranian enrichment program. One official admitted, "With the information we have, we cannot proceed any further. We are stuck."

While the Security Council has often been divided on the issue, the so-called "six powers" (the United States, United Kingdom, France, Germany, Russia, and China) agreed in early June on a set of proposals for Iran, containing both incentives and disincentives for Iran to cease enriching uranium. At the same time, the United States offered to join the negotiations with the Europeans, if Iran agreed to a freeze on uranium enrichment, while rejecting an Iranian proposal for direct talks. Both the American and Iranian offers are diplomatic firsts, as neither country has had diplomatic relations of any kind since the 1979 revolution in Iran. As of this writing, the Iranians have not definitively answered the proposals. The situation may be referred to the Council again if an answer is not forthcoming.

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?

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CHAPTER III.
THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL - 1990

STATE MEMBERS

Canada	Ethiopia	U.S.S.R.
China	Finland	United Kingdom
Colombia	France	United States
Cote d'Ivoire	Malaysia	Yemen
Cuba	Romania	Zaire

ABOUT THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL

This year, AMUN's Historical Security Council (HSC) will simulate the events of the world beginning on 26 February 1990. Historically, the key international security concerns at this time revolve around the situations in Central America, including the beginnings of the peace process in El Salvador and Nicaragua; Southern Africa, including Apartheid, Namibia, Angola and the Front-Line States; Indochina, particularly in Cambodia; and the Middle East, including the aftermath of the Iran/Iraq war and continued Arab/Israeli tensions. The liberalization of Soviet politics under Gorbachev is also a constant undercurrent in the changing world of international politics in 1990.

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 is assigned to begin. History will be as it was written until the moment the Council convenes. From that moment forward, however, Council members exercise free will based on the range of all the choices within their national character and upon the capabilities of their governments.

Effective role-playing for an HSC member-state will be not just a rote replay of national decisions as they evolved in 1990. Indeed, the problems of the era may not transpire as they once did, and this itself will force active evaluations -- and reevaluations -- of national policies. Beyond this, it cannot be said that the policy course a government made in 1990 was necessarily the most wise. 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 twice in a row. History is replete with the musings of foreign ministers and heads of state pining for "second chances."

It will be the job of Council Representatives to actively involve their country's national policies and national capabilities in solutions to the problems and issues which may not have had adequate contemporary resolutions. There is almost always more than one alternative choice in any situation. In particular, the international community has often chosen not to actively involve itself in many regional disputes or political crises where it might have shown greater involvement. The UN itself has often been but a bystander to regional or international conflict. This inability or unwillingness to actively work toward solutions of crises was rarely more evident than during the late years of colonialism and early years of the Cold War. Representatives will need to decide what changes, if any, could have been made to the Security Council's posture on the various issues.

While national governments often did not want international "meddling" in what they felt to be national policies or disputes, this in no way lessens the responsibility of Council members to make the effort and find ways to actively involve themselves in crisis resolution. This task must, however, be accomplished without violating the bounds of the member states' national characters. This year's simulation will have the dichotomy of many regional crises being treated as "internal" by the superpowers, and other crises which are so global in nature that the UN must become involved.

Representatives should approach these issues based on events through the final days of 1989, and should do their research accordingly. In studying their role playing assignments, it is strongly recommended that research be done on these topics using timely materials. The world was changing dramatically in the early 1990s, and has changed even more over the past 10 years, but none of the later changes will 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 mid to late 1989 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 Home Government organization 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 Home Government organization before making ANY operational statements. Operational statements would include announcements of the movements or actions of military forces, as well as any other actions which would have an effect outside of the UN. In these cases, Home Government 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.

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

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

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

THE SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

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

The Situation with the Arab/Israeli Conflict

After over two years of the intifadah, over 700 people are dead and thousands injured from both sides as a result of the fighting. Despite what appeared to be a softening in Prime Minister Shamir's personal position in negotiations on the Occupied Territories, the new Likud-Labor coalition government seemed to be moving in the opposite direction. In July 1989, Likud's Central Committee forced Shamir to agree to a list of promises in his efforts to end the hostilities. These included a promise not to negotiate with the PLO, not to surrender any of the Occupied Territories, and not to agree to a Palestinian state. Terrorism and violence in the region picked up as a result of this stiffening in the Israeli position. In November, the US offered a plan for peace talks which was accepted by both Egypt and Israel. The PLO accepted the plan contingent upon their direct representation at the talks. Israel did not accept this and the stalemate has continued.

The Situation in Lebanon

Gen. Aoun, president of a Christian-led government, asserted that his was the only legitimate government in Lebanon and the Syrians must be removed from Lebanese soil. The bloody fighting that had plagued Lebanon for so long returned to the battered country in April 1989 as Syria rebuffed Gen. Michael Aoun's attempt to prove the legitimacy of his government. In September

1989, the Arab League got the parties to agree to a cease fire for the purpose of letting the surviving members of the old Lebanese Parliament work on a new constitutional government. Their proposal, called the Taif Agreement, was rejected by many of the actors, including Gen. Aoun. Since Aoun retained the loyalty of the Army, he was able to thwart the factions that were supportive of the government which the Taif Agreement was trying to create. By the end of 1989, a stalemate existed between Gen. Aoun and President Hrawi, the most recent President created by the supporters of the Taif Agreement. This is a dangerous stalemate with bloody possibilities. In fact, on February 19, 1990, United Nations Interim Forces in Lebanon came under fire, resulting in two Nepalese fatalities and six woundings.

The Situation in Iran and Iraq

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

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

- How can the Israeli/Palestinian peace process best be facilitated by the Security Council? How can Israel be encouraged to comply with the relevant UN resolutions dealing with the occupied territories? What can the UN do to discourage further violence in the area while the peace process continues?
- What actions can the Council take to assist a peaceful settle-

ment of the internal and external disputes involving Lebanon? How can the cease fire be bolstered and moved into a peace process?

- What role can the UN play in assuring that hostilities do not resume between Iran and Iraq? How can the UN move the peace process forward?

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THE SITUATION IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

The international community looks upon the region of Southern Africa with cautious optimism. The Security Council is once again focused on four major problems in this area: Apartheid in South Africa, Namibian Independence, Angolan civil war and the effect of South Africa's "Front-Line" policy.

The Situation in South Africa

As the grips of international sanctions continued to take hold in South Africa, political change marked 1989 with hope for progress in the struggle to end Apartheid. In early 1989, P.W. Botha was forced to resign his position as National Party Chairman to F.W. de Klerk. In a constitutional crisis later in the year, Botha was also forced to resign as President and de Klerk was elected President. De Klerk's election sent mixed signals to the international community. Those seeing his election as a posi-

tive change looked to his ostracization of the hard-line Afrikaners and his repealing of the law prohibiting peaceful demonstration by blacks. Critics of de Klerk, however, pointed to his demand for "racially defined groups" in government as a sign that Apartheid was not about to be dismantled without a fight. In December, 1989, a special session of the General Assembly passed the "Declaration on Apartheid and Its Destructive Consequences in Southern Africa" as a guide to dealing with Apartheid in the new decade. Positive steps have recently been made: on 2 February 1990, de Klerk announced the legalization of the African National Congress, and on the 11th, Nelson Mandela was released from prison.

The Situation in Namibia

1989 was a dramatic year for Namibia as well, as it approached its first elections and its independence. The UN deployed the United Nations Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG) to Namibia in April, 1989 to aid in the registration of voters, to oversee the upcoming election, and to monitor the cease fire between SWAPO and South African backed forces. Despite some bloody fighting in the late spring and summer of 1989, the election preparation proceeded as planned. Between 7 and 11 November, 96% of those registered to vote did so with SWAPO winning the majority seats in the new Assembly, and the South African supported DTA finishing with the second most seats. On February 9, 1990, the Constituent Assembly adopted a constitution, but there is still a potential for violence.

The Situation in Angola

On 22 December 1988, South Africa, the MPLA government of Angola, and Cuba signed the Angola Namibia Accords at the UN in New York. These Accords were to be a framework for Cuban and South African troop withdrawal from the conflict and for an end to the civil war between the MPLA and UNITA. In early 1989, UNITA, not being a party to the accords, was nervous about its potential political losses and relied heavily on US assurances of support within the peace process. Fighting eventually ended the cease fire, however, and the civil war raged again by mid-1989. Despite diplomatic efforts from all sides the war continued to rage throughout the second half of 1989. A step toward another cease fire came late in 1989, when South Africa honored its end of the agreement and withdrew its troops from Namibia. UNITA has continued to attack Cuban and MPLA forces, however. This caused a temporary suspension of Cuban withdrawal, starting on 21 January. Unfortunately, the potential of future violence continues to throw a shadow over the peace process.

The Situation in Southern Africa - Front-Line Policy

In 1977, South Africa started a policy of regional destabilization and dependence creation called the "Front-Line" policy. This policy sought to insure the perpetuation of Apartheid by insuring that South Africa's neighbors were either too dependent on it or too unstable to do anything about Apartheid. This policy, as last addressed by A/Res/44/27/A-L, has had and continues to have lasting repercussions in the region. Accompanying the political changes in South Africa, de Klerk announced in November 1989 that the policy of destabilization was ending and that the South African Defense Forces would no longer make raids into the front-line states. This is probably most important to Mozambique which has been fighting a civil war with the South

African backed RENAMO rebels. Despite South Africa's new proclamations, this policy has had lasting effects that will need to be dealt with by this body for some time to come.

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

- What can be done to encourage the democratic process and bring an end to the Apartheid policies of South Africa?
- What can the Security Council do to assist in the stabilization of Namibia as it moves toward independence?
- With the apparent end of South Africa's destabilization policies and the continuing withdrawal of Cuban troops, what can be done to encourage the peace process in Angola?

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THE SITUATION IN INDOCHINA

Discussions began in 1989 among the Permanent Members and various parties to the dispute on the formation of a United Nations Transitional Authority on Cambodia (UNTAC). The purpose of this group would be to assist the people of Kampuchea/ Cambodia in a transition to a peaceful, democratic form of government. Continued strong disagreements on all sides, however, have led to a very slow process toward agreement.

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

The key component of current discussions came after the Paris Conference on Cambodia, held in July and August of 1989. This conference began the process of discussion on several key points, including: the withdrawal of Vietnamese forces; a cease fire; the beginnings of a blueprint for the territorial integrity of Cambodia; the repatriation of refugees and most importantly the beginnings of discussions on government building in post-war Cambodia.

In September, Vietnam completed its withdrawal of troops, but following increased CGDK military activity, 2000+ Vietnamese troops were reintegrated into Cambodia in late 1989. Military activities continue from both sides.

The situation in early 1990 is more hopeful than in the past, due mainly to the new willingness of all sides to come to the negotiation table. The year could see increased political action toward a lasting solution to the crisis.

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

- How can the Security Council best facilitate the political process and allow all parties a voice in future negotiations? How can the Council further encourage all parties to attend? Is the situation in Cambodia at such a point that UNTAC can be finalized and given an official mandate?
- What actions can the Council take to assist in a cessation of hostilities in Cambodia? How can a complete withdrawal of all foreign troops be best accomplished?

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THE SITUATION IN CENTRAL AMERICA

With the Guatemala City agreements, made between Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua in August of 1987, the Central American situation began to move toward reform and a lasting peace. This process was abetted in January 1988 and again in February 1989, with two Joint Declarations made by the Presidents of these nations to continue to push forward and expand the peace and reform process.

1989 was a pivotal year for the region and for international action. A key breakthrough in the US and Soviet positions on El Salvador and Nicaragua came with discussions of halting outside military aid to the para-military forces in the region. The US first showed its good faith on this in March by converting $45 million in aid to the Contras into strictly humanitarian aid. In July of 1989, the Security Council voted to halt all outside military aid to the para-military groups in the region, and to pledge the support of the UN to the ongoing peace process.

The Situation in Nicaragua

Security Council actions were driven even more by a pledge from Nicaragua to move its democratic elections up ten months. This was hailed as a positive move by Ortega's government, and was supported even more when Nicaragua officially requested that the Secretary-General provide UN Observers for the elections (A/44/375). This was the first time that the UN would serve in this capacity anywhere. On 25 February, the elections were won by the candidate of the United Nicaraguan Opposition, Violeta Barrios de Chamorro, with 54.77% of the vote.

The election observer force, named ONUVEN (United Nations Observer Mission for the Verification of the Elections in Nicaragua), began its pre-election duties in August 1989, with additional participation from the OAS and with former US Deputy Secretary of State Elliott Richardson in charge of the operation. Initial accounts are that the election met ONUVEN's standards.

In November, the Security Council approved a resolution sponsored by the United States for an additional observer group, ONUCA (United Nations Observer Group in Central America), to assist in the peace process. International verification was seen as the key to the peace process, and this observer force had a multi-part mission, including: ensuring the non-use of territory to support destabilization; confirming free and fair elections; and facilitating the voluntary demobilization, repatriation, and/or relocation of irregular forces. This resolution was another significant breakthrough, in that it was the first time the US acknowledged the credibility of any international organization to assist in solving problems in the Western hemisphere.

Even while the peace process was proceeding, the Nicaraguan backed Farabundo Marti National Liberation Front (FMLN) was continuing its military activities in El Salvador. Following a major October bombing, the FMLN significantly stepped up their fighting through October and November.

The Situation in El Salvador

While El Salvador also participated in and benefited from the peace discussions which occurred in 1989, violence escalated with the increased FMLN activity toward the end of 1989. In November, a growing number of murders were reported, perpetrated both by the left wing and by the government. On 11 November, the FMLN launched a major attack in San Salvador, inflicting many casualties. In response, the government declared a state of seige, which included the launching of numerous helicopter and aircraft attacks on rebel-held areas. It is in this heightened state of military anxiety that the country entered 1990. The Secretary-General announced in January that he would act as an intermediary in the Salvadoran peace talks.

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

- With the improving regional situation, how can the UN best exert influence on both Nicaragua and El Salvador to continue their efforts toward a more stable, democratic environment?
- What further efforts can the UN make to limit cross-border insurgency by para-military units in the region?

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S/20895: Secretary-General's Report
SG/SM/4365: SG's report on El Salvador hostilities
SC/1549 (Nov 1989): Security Council statement on the state of seige in El Salvador

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.

The General Assembly is the main, deliberative, policy-making body of the United Nations and is empowered to address all international issues covered by the UN Charter. In many ways it acts as the "central hub" of the United Nations. Many of the other main bodies report to the General Assembly, but not all of these are subsidiary. For example, the Security Council provides the General Assembly with a report on its work, but it is an independent body; its work does not need to be approved. In contrast, ECOSOC is a subsidiary body of the General Assembly, which means that the General Assembly can provide them with a mandate. Other subsidiary bodies, such as UNDP and UNICEF, also have direct reporting relationships with 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.

AMUN will not be simulating Fifth Committee, but financial questions should still be considered during Committee deliberations. While financing decisions are made in Fifth Committee, other Committees generally won't act unless they know that funding is available for their proposals. In addition, the Fifth Committee only makes financing decisions that concern the UN regular budget, not those dealing with voluntary contributions or new outlays. Therefore, if one of the General Assembly Committees creates a new program or initiative, that Committee should specify how that program can be funded.

A brief description of each Committee simulated at AMUN is provided along with the background research for that Committee, along with the Committee's web page link.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

THE CONCURRENT GENERAL ASSEMBLY PLENARY

PURVIEW OF THIS SIMULATION: The General Assembly Plenary typically considers issues that cross over the mandates of several different Committees and would not be adequately addressed by allocating separate aspects of the issue to each Committee. The General Assembly Plenary is also responsible for coordinating work between many different bodies of the United Nations. For example, while the General Assembly is responsible under the UN Charter for peace and security, the Security Council is given primary responsibility for this task. This generally means that when the Security Council is discussing an aspect of international peace and security, the General Assembly will cease deliberating on the topic and defer to the Security Council.

More information is available on-line at: www.un.org/ga/60/plenary/index.html

SUPPORT BY THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM OF THE EFFORTS OF GOVERNMENTS TO PROMOTE AND CONSOLIDATE NEW OR RESTORED DEMOCRACIES

As authoritarian governments began to falter in the mid-1980s, many emerging nations turned toward democracy as the preferred method of governance. The concern of many new or restored democracies is that democracy is not just affected by internal issues, but also influenced by forces that are outside of their control. These include market forces, globalization, and terrorism, and are often larger obstacles than those presented within a nation to democratic processes. Learning how to operate as a democracy also presents a challenge, in which civil society can play a helpful role by educating the public and reinforcing the necessary trust in the democratic institutions that govern. Realizing that a true change in government requires external sup-port in addition to internal changes, thirteen nations met in Manila, the Philippines in 1988, at the First International Conference on New or Restored Democracies (ICNRD). Along with recognizing the struggles that new or restored democracies faced, the members of the conference also pointed to the link between peace and development. As the interest grew in the democratic movement, a Second ICNRD was held in Managua, Nicaragua in 1994. There, states formed a Plan of Action for democracy and pushed for a permanent item to be included on the General Assembly agenda regarding developing democracies. Subsequent ICNRDs in 1997 and 2000 further defined the commitment to democracy while recognizing the diversity of the regions where new or restored democracies are found.

In 2003, the Fifth and largest ICNRD was held in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. The two major documents which emerged from Ulaanbaatar focused on providing new or restored

democracies with templates for the evaluation of current democratic processes and institutions and the evolution of these into more stable, participatory democracies. The Ulaanbaatar Declaration created a clear and agreed upon definition of democracy, with basic tenants that all new or restored democracies could strive towards. Some of these include being just and responsible; promoting and protecting the rights and freedoms of all their members; and being open and transparent. The Plan of Action identified ways of implementing this definition at the local, national, regional and international levels, both within and outside the UN system. Prior to the Sixth ICNRD in Doha, Qatar, states were encouraged to compile country information notes, which would analyze the current democratic situation and provide a list of strengths, areas of concern, and potential solutions to difficulties the country faced in creating a robust democracy. It was suggested that these evaluations take place at the local and national levels as a way of allowing for cultural diversity in the democratic process. Regional organizations were encouraged to create similar plans of action, with which they might provide increased institutional and societal support for the new or restored democracies. On the international level, the Plan of Action called for further conferences and discussion to facilitate the flow of ideas and vision between established democracies and new or restored democracies. The final report from Ulaanbaatar also encouraged the General Assembly to continue its support for new or restored democracies by supporting the follow-up mechanisms and conferences.

As momentum in the democratic movement has grown, so too has the depth and breadth of the type and style of democratic government and what these new governments are expected to provide to their citizens. As the international community prepares for the Sixth ICNRD in Qatar, new or restored democracies still face many of the same struggles of two decades ago: balancing their citizens' safety and freedoms; promoting and stabilizing democracy in the face of globalization and terrorism; and educating citizens to operate within a democracy. The Sixth ICNRD will focus on the implementation of the plan of action, how the changing global environment affects new or restored democracies, and what the international system, including the UN, can do to help to promote these democracies.

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

- Does your government view democracy as an important goal for all countries to pursue?
- Has your government been an active participant in the International Conferences on New or Restored Democracies?
- Are the mechanisms for follow-up from the Fifth ICNRD sufficient? What else is needed?
- What cultural and social conditions can assist action on these matters? What actions can be promoted by the international community to better support these democracies?

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Cotonou Declaration
Cotonou Final Report
Ulaanbaatar Declaration
Ulaanbaatar Plan of Action
Ulaanbaatar Final Report

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ww.icsfd.org - International Civil Society Forum for Democracy
www.icsfd.org/icsf-2003.html - International Civil Society Forum 2003
www.icnrd5-mongolia.mn/parl.htm - Parliamentarians' Forum 2003
www.un.org/events/democracies.htm - ICNRD 4 (2000)

ENHANCING CAPACITY-BUILDING IN GLOBAL PUBLIC HEALTH

The international community is becoming increasingly aware of the importance of public health in peace and development goals. Communicable diseases like malaria, HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis present tremendous burdens to both the developing world and the international community. Every year nearly 11 million children die from preventable diseases and another 11 million children are orphaned by HIV/AIDS. True development cannot be achieved without a healthy population. A strong public health system at both the national and international level will be necessary to reduce human morbidity and mortality, which in turn will create opportunities for progress.

The spread of drug resistant tuberculosis and the reemergence of diseases such as polio indicate that public health capacity has been declining in recent years. Capacity building for global public health involves programs to develop infrastructure and human skill in order to reduce risk. A fully developed public health infrastructure will need to have the capacity for surveillance, early detection and diagnosis of, timely communication about, and rapid response to a range of infectious diseases. While primary responsibility for public health activities lies with mem-

ber states, public health systems in developing countries can easily become overwhelmed during public emergencies, when international assistance is required.

The United Nations has a long history with developing public health capacity with primary responsibility delegated to the World Health Organization (WHO). The International Health Regulations (IHR), which were adopted in 1969, deal with the reporting and containment of infectious diseases and are the foundation for public health at the international level. The IHR create the framework for the WHO Global Outbreak Alert and Response Network (GOARN). The GOARN, set up in 1997 and formalized in 2000, brings together member states and technical partners and contributes to global public health by fighting the international spread of disease, providing technical assistance to affected states, and developing long-term epidemic preparedness and capacity building. The GOARN has over 120 partners worldwide and is able to identify and respond to outbreaks in the developing world. During the SARS epidemic in 2003, the GOARN was tested for the first time against a virus spreading rapidly across international borders.

In addition to the work done by the WHO, the General Assembly has addressed capacity building for global public heath. The Millennium Declaration and the Millennium Development Goals, adopted in 2000, contain health related goals of combating HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases, and improving maternal and child health . The report of the High Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change from the follow-up to the Outcome of the Millennium Summit makes specific recommendations regarding public health capacity. The High level Panel called for a renewed commitment to rebuilding local and national public health systems in the developing world and called for WHO member states to provide greater resources to strengthen the GORAN.

In addition to receiving the report from the High Level Panel, the General Assembly passed resolution 60/35, which specifically addresses capacity building for public health. The resolution stressed the need for states to integrate public health into social and economic development plans and for developed countries to invest in programs to improve developing states' public health systems. Public systems are recognized as being critical to development and efforts to strengthen capacity building in public health will in turn drive social and economic development . The resolution also focuses on the role of the international community in global public health through the open exchange of information, training and research into disease surveillance, prevention, control and treatment, and vaccine development. Finally, Resolution 60/35 acknowledges the importance of public health capacity in disaster response and recovery and encourages member-states to develop such response plans.

In May 2005, an updated version of the IHR was adopted by the World Health Assembly, which goes into effect on 15 June 2007. Included in the new revision are definitions of core capacities that states must develop, strengthen and maintain in order to respond to real and potential public health risks. It also expands the scope of the IHR by including reporting requirements for existing, new, and re-emerging diseases and will include provisions for public health events not caused by an infectious agent.

With the looming threat of pandemic influenza and the increasing acknowledgement of the role public health plays in peace and development, the global community has never been more committed to capacity building in global public health. If this commitment can be sustained the world has an unprecedented opportunity to achieve health for all.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What can the United Nations do to promote the development of global public health?
- What is the role of the state in developing public health capacity? What is the role of the international community in developing public health capacity?
- How can public health capacity be used to drive development?
- What critical public health infrastructure is your country is lacking?
- How can your country assist others in achieving their health goals?

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WHO/CDS/CSR/2000.3

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www.earthinstitute.columbia.edu - The Earth Institute
www.who.int - The World Health Organization
www.pandemicflu.gov - U.S Department of Health and Human Services Pandemic Influenza Website
www.usaid.gov/our_work/global_health/home/News/news_items/avian_influenza.html - USAID Avian Influenza Response
www.cdc.gov/ogh - CDC Coordinating Office for Global Health

THE FIRST COMMITTEE: DISARMAMENT AND INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

PURVIEW OF THIS SIMULATION: The General Assembly First Committee addresses issues related to the disarmament of conventional weapons and weapons of mass destruction. The First Committee can also make recommendations on the regulations of these weapons as they relate to international peace and security. The First Committee does not address legal issues surrounding weapons control or complex peace and security issues addressed by the Security Council.

More information is available on-line at: www.un.org/ga/60/first/

CONVENTIONAL ARMS CONTROL AT THE REGIONAL AND SUBREGIONAL LEVELS

The General Assembly's primary goal set forth in 1945 was to avert another global conflict such as World War II by providing a basis for international discourse rather than armed conflict. Since the collapse of the Soviet Union, the topic of conventional arms control at regional and subregional levels has gained considerable momentum. In the past fifteen years the threat of global conflict has diminished greatly. Now however, the most probable scenario for an armed conflict is that of warfare confined to a regional theater. Thus conventional arms control is ideally addressed in the same scope.

In past UN endeavors, the First Committee has encouraged the usage of regional organizations in a number of different arms control issues. The UN has also instituted a number of different Regional Centres on Peace and Disarmament in regions such as Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean, and in Africa. These centers have been used to promote transparency—as weapons collection points, arms registers, and educational facilities. While the resolutions on this topic in the past have pushed for increased involvement in regional and subregional efforts, they have lacked a more cohesive and detailed framework needed to improve the situation overall.

In recent years a great deal of emphasis has been put on weapons of mass destruction and regional agreements on nuclear non-proliferation and the like. This emphasis has effectively created what some believe to be a blind spot in regard to conventional weapons. Although strides have been made in certain areas within the conventional arms category, including those in landmines and small and light weapons, the developing world is accumulating conventional arms at a disturbing rate. Some 60% of the conventional arms bought can be attributed to the developing world.

There are several possible routes the United Nations could take to improve the regional and subregional arms control efforts. In many cases the criteria for control mechanisms on import and export, as well as that of checks and balances, vary widely from region to region. An established set of suggested criteria or a model is needed to truly gain a clear view of the global situation. The Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe establishes many detailed guidelines for vehicle deployments and equipment quantities in any given subregion or state which could serve as a model.

Elective, voluntary observations of conventional weaponry and movements could also be an option for the United Nations to explore in their appeal for regional conventional arms control. Not only would this serve as a means of insuring mutual compliance, but could also contribute as a confidence-building measure. Without mutual trust in the intentions of states' respective regional counterparts, a regional effort at arms control would ultimately prove fruitless.

An effort has been made to track the import and export of arms at a global level, using the UN Arms Registrar. However, this effort has been hampered by the scope of the weapons reported and the global politics involved in arms control issues. Regions such as Africa could benefit from the inclusion of smaller arms imports and exports being tracked. Given the interests of larger arms producers in the global politics of these matters, it is ideal for regions to develop their own sets of regulations and methods for tracking and cooperation in these matters.

In terms of the options to the First Committee in considering conventional arms control at the regional and subregional levels, there are a number of areas to take into account. High amongst them are the finances involved in such regional efforts and how to incite nations to move forward with regional cooperation. As the developing world currently accounts for a large portion of spending on conventional weapons, it would seem that ideally they should also be encouraged to develop or utilize existing regional organizational structures to address the growing arms problems. However, the greater challenge is in convincing these nations to commit any capital toward this endeavor.

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

- What is the status of conventional arms control in your region?
- What modifications to current control efforts could be made to cater to your regions specific needs?
- How can nations be encouraged to take part in regional efforts to control conventional arms?
- What role can developed nations play in conventional arms control, especially with regard to that of the developing world?

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A/RES/47/52
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Additional Web Resources:

disarmament.un.org/cab/register.html - UN Disarmament Organization's Register of Conventional Arms
www.iansa.org - International Action Network on Small Arms
disarm.igc.org/conv-home.php - NGO Committee on Disarmament, Peace, and Security

MEASURES TO PREVENT TERRORISTS FROM ACQUIRING WEAPONS OF MASS DESTRUCTION

During the Cold War, powers on both sides of the arms race stockpiled weapons of mass destruction (WMD), including nuclear, biological, and chemical agents, in an effort to deter the other side from launching an attack. Although provisions were made following the conclusion of the Cold War to destroy some of these stockpiles, the breakup of the Soviet Union caused large quantities of these weapons of mass destruction to enter into the possession of several newly-independent states. Poor economic conditions in these states resulted in many of these stockpiles not receiving adequate maintenance or protection, which in turn prompted international concerns of the possibility of terrorists purchasing these materials on the black market.

For much of its history, the United Nations has not focused specifically on preventing terrorists from acquiring weapons of mass destruction. This is not to say that the issue of terrorism has been neglected by the UN; rather, the focus has been on preventing terrorism in a broad sense. In 1996, General Assembly resolution 51/210 established an Ad Hoc Committee to consider legal aspects of the suppression of terrorist bombings. More recently, this committee has evolved to also confront the threat of nuclear terrorism through the creation of the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism; the convention remains open for signature through December 2006. The acquisition of nuclear materials by terrorists has also been addressed by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) in resolution GC(47)/RES/8 of their General Conference in 2003. This resolution called for the creation of an agency within the IAEA to advise the agency in areas of nuclear security.

Since its 57th session, the General Assembly has considered the issue of terrorists acquiring weapons of mass destruction. The UN actively encourages international cooperation in preventing the use of weapons of mass destruction by terrorists. The Secretary-General has also been charged with compiling a report on the relationship between the fight against terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

More recently, the UN affirmed and encouraged a number of regional and sub-regional efforts to prevent the acquisition of weapons of mass destruction by terrorists . Specifically, it affirmed the actions taken by organizations such as the Thirteenth Conference of Heads of State or Government of Non-Aligned Countries, the Group of Eight, the European Union, and the Regional Forum of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations in their deliberations on how to effectively curtail the threat of weapons of mass destruction in the context of terrorism.

While a great deal of international focus has been placed on the threat of nuclear terrorism, some groups also express concern over the possibility of chemical or biological agents being used in a future terrorist attack. While experts argue that terrorists lack the logistic abilities to effectively execute such an attack, others argue that the 1995 release of sarin gas in a Tokyo subway proves the feasibility of such an attack elsewhere.

Debate continues as to the best methods of preventing terrorists from acquiring weapons of mass destruction. Secretary-General Kofi Annan recently remarked that any policy on the issue of terrorism must be based on five pillars, including: an aim to dissuade people from resorting to terrorism or supporting it; denying terrorists access to funds and materials; deterring states from sponsoring terrorism; developing state capacity to defeat terrorism; and the defense of human rights. However, a consensus on the matter does not currently exist as to the regulations of WMDs or how best to keep them out of terrorist hands.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Does your country currently possess nuclear, biological, or chemical weapons? If so, what safeguards are currently in place?
- What guidelines can the First Committee set down for the security of the existing WMD facilities and their transport?
- Is it in your nation's interest to focus on the specific issue of preventing terrorists from acquiring weapons of mass destruction, or would your state's interests be better served considering terrorism in a broader context?
- Are there differences between the approach to preventing terrorists from acquiring chemical or biological weapons and the approach to preventing the acquisition of nuclear weapons?

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A/Res/57/83
A/Res/51/210

IAEA Documents:
GC(45)/RES/14
GC(47)/RES/8

Additional Web Resources:

www.un.org/terrorism - UN Action Against Terrorism
www.un.org/sc/ctc - Security Council Counter-Terrorism Committee
www.iaea.org/index.html - International Atomic Energy Agency
www.nti.org - The Nuclear Threat Initiative

The Second Committee: Economic and Financial

Purview of this Simulation: The General Assembly Second Committee makes recommendations on means to improve the economic development of Member States and maintains the stability of the international financial and trade network. The economic issues considered by the Second Committee are distinguished from those considered by the Fifth Committee in that they deal solely with financing the economic assistance to member states. The Second Committee does not address social issues which impact development; these are considered by the Third Committee.

More information is available on-line at: www.un.org/ga/60/second/

Natural Disasters and Vulnerability

The incidence of natural disasters such as earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, tsuanmis and volcanic eruptions has been steadily increasing. And while there has been an overall decline in annual deaths due to disasters, 200 million people are affected by disasters every year and the economic costs associated with disasters are higher than ever. Disasters can strike any country – developing and developed – but developing countries are particularly susceptible; the risks of disasters are strongly linked to environmental problems and issues necessary for sustainable development. However, it is not that the natural hazards such as earthquakes and floods themselves always lead to disasters. Disasters occur when hazards strike vulnerable populations.

Vulnerability to disasters arises from such issues as social and economic conditions, unplanned urbanization, development in high-risk zones, and environmental degradation and scarcity. Poverty contributes to vulnerability by forcing people to live in geographically unsafe locations and inadequate shelters. Natural disasters that threaten vulnerable communities are in many ways also a development challenge because they can incapacitate already limited social and economic infrastructures. Given that social, economic and environmental factors all contribute to vulnerability, sustainable development, poverty reduction, and disaster risk reduction policies can and should be mutually supportive activities.

Recognizing the impact of and concern surrounding natural disasters, the General Assembly declared 1990 – 1999 to be the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction (IDNDR). As part of this effort, the World Conference on Natural Disaster Reduction convened in Yokohama, Japan in 1994. The outcome of this meeting, The Yokohama Strategy and Plan of Action for a Safer World, provided landmark guidance on decreasing both the risk from, and the impact of, natural hazards at both the national and international level. The foundation of the Yokohama Strategy is the belief that, in most cases, natural phenomena are beyond human control, but vulnerability is largely a result of human activity. The Yokohama Strategy was endorsed at the Programme Forum on the International Decade held 5 – 9 July, 1999 in Geneva where the Geneva Mandate on Disaster Reduction was adopted.

In 2000, at the end of the IDNDR, the General Assembly created the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) in order to continue the momentum in disaster reduction programmes generated by the IDNDR. One of the major strategic goals of the ISDR has been to incorporate the physical and socio–economic dimensions of vulnerability into the broader understanding of disaster risk management. To this end, the ISDR has advocated for the integration of policies addressing disaster risk reduction, sustainable development, and environmental protection programs.

In addition to the creation of the ISDR, the General Assembly established two mechanisms to implement the ISDR: the Inter-Agency Secretariat and the Inter-Agency Task Force on Disaster Reduction. The Inter-Agency is a forum for developing and disseminating protocols and policies for reducing risk and vulnerability. The Inter-Agency Secretariat coordinates programs for disaster reduction and ensures concurrence between disaster reduction programmes and humanitarian and development efforts. The General Assembly has called upon member states to develop national platforms for disaster risk reduction which would be supported by the ISDR and can be instruments for implementing the ISDR at the national and community level.

The General Assembly convened a second World Conference on Disaster Reduction in 2005. The purpose of the Conference was to evaluate progress made in disaster risk reduction since the

1994 Conference and to develop a framework for action for the next ten years. The Conference, held in Kobe, Japan, adopted the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005 – 2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters. The key priorities of the Hyogo Framework are: (1) ensure disaster risk reduction is a national priority with an institutional basis for implementation, (2) identify, assess and monitor disaster risks and enhance early warning, (3) use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels, (4) reduce the underlying risk factors, (5) strengthen disaster preparedness for effective response at all levels of government. Because these goals look at all levels of government—from a countries educational and cultural system to it's basic services and disaster preparedness, there is a great deal of work ahead. Infrastructure and monitoring capabilities vary wildly across the world, and it is always difficulty for countries to place a priority on preparing for the possibility of future disasters while they may face issues of political strife, poverty, or a multitude of other problems today.

A multifaceted approach that addresses both hazards of natural and environmental origin and the relationship between the two will have an impact on socioeconomic and environmental systems. Moreover, this approach will complement sustainable development programs already in existence. Disaster risk reduction must be simultaneously addressed as both a humanitarian and development issue. Continuing support from communities, all levels of government, international and regional organizations, and the scientific and technical communities will be vital to achieve and maintain success.

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

- What is the relationship between disaster risk reduction programs, sustainable development programs and humanitarian assistance?
- What are the economic benefits to disaster risk reduction programs?
- What are the links between poverty and disasters?
- How can developing countries be encouraged to invest in disaster risk reduction programs?

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Additional Web Resources:

www.unisdr.org - International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
www.ifrc.org - International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
ochaonline.un.org - United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Since its inception, one of the United Nations primary concerns has been the facilitation of development throughout the world. Promoting gender equality and ensuring the prominent role of women in development continues to be one of the most difficult topics to address in the area of development worldwide. Without ensuring the equal rights of women, and thus their equal status in society, there is little hope of women's participation in the development of their countries. In addition, there is no hope for true development within a country while half of its citizens remain without equal rights, education, health care, or largely remain in poverty.

Despite a multitude of unanimously adopted resolutions, treaties, and accords, many critics still claim that little to no progress has been made on international women's rights, and specifically the role of women in development. This topic covers not only the possibility for women to assist in development efforts, but also their rights and protections within developing countries. Issues such as the trafficking of women and girls and violence towards women and girls in developing countries are difficult to address, though the UN has attempted to do so. The General Assembly has recognized that the lack of development contributes to these problems. For example, poor families are unable to educate their daughters because they are needed to help with household chores and feeding the family.

Education is another important issue that directly affects the role of women in development. Education contributes to a state's chances for economic growth and development, but is often provided disparately to men and women. With the continuing onslaught of HIV/AIDS, education in the realm of reproductive health has joined the need for education on women's basic human rights, along with the continuing need for improved standard elementary education programs for women. All of these are increasingly important in promoting the development of countries. Without the education of women in these areas, least developed countries face not only the continued growth of

the HIV/AIDS crisis, but without basic education, women have little hope in being active and productive members in their state's development as parents, educators, professionals, business owners, or politicians.

In addition, more and more women are recognized as the main providers for their families throughout the world. This shift is sometimes due to a change in the cultural recognition of a woman's economic worth, but in the developing world is increasing a result when faced with the economic reality of the loss of a partner due to death or war. In either case, education becomes key to ensure that women can not only provide for their households, but also be productive, contributing members of their societies.

The UN has taken several important actions to promote the role of women in development. As part of the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the Fourth World Conference on Women outlined goals for achieving gender equality and declared that steps be taken to ensure the safe and beneficial development for both men and women. In the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the General Assembly laid out the key areas and goals to be met in the area of development. While only one of the eight MDGs specifically deal with women in development, the remaining seven are key to the development process and provide an excellent framework for how women can be involved in the development process. The UN also encourages member states to create political environments where women enjoy full and equal access to participate in decision-making, policy-formation, and implementation. It is important to include a gender perspective in existing policies and programs to ensure that women remain a top priority for the international community. In its 60th Session, the General Assembly again addressed the issue by calling on countries to promote gender equality in the spheres of education, business, and political life, and ensure a gender perspective be maintained in a states development plan. By committing to the education of women and girls, member states can help meet the MDGs and make the first steps toward gender equality. And by opening up their political systems to women—both with suffrage and by allowing them to stand for office, it can allow that gender perspective is maintained throughout the society.

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

- What is the international community's role in fostering the role of women in development?
- How does implementation of the Beijing Declaration, the MDG, and other international treatises affect your country?
- What is the status of women and girls in your country, and what programs are being developed to ensure their equality?
- How can developing countries be encouraged to mainstream women in their socieites, as well as in the programs they implement for development?

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Additional Web Resources:

www.awid.org - Association for Women's Rights in Development
www.focusintl.com - Focus International, includes statistics on Women in Development
www.refwid.org - Refugee Women in Development
www.cwds.org - Center for Women's Development Studies

THE THIRD COMMITTEE: SOCIAL, HUMANITARIAN AND CULTURAL

PURVIEW OF THIS SIMULATION: The General Assembly Third Committee addresses all social, humanitarian and cultural issues in the General Assembly. Often overlapping in areas of concern with other organs within the United Nations, the Third Committee discusses with, recognizes reports of, and submits recommendations to the GA in coordination with organs such as the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

More information is available on-line at: www.un.org/ga/60/third/

THE RIGHT TO DEVELOPMENT

Although individual rights have traditionally been viewed as socio-political issues, the effects of globalization have created an understanding that development issues are also inextricably tied with the dignity and self-determination of all peoples. Particularly in Least Developed Countries (LDC's), the results of development efforts, or the lack thereof, profoundly impact the cultural, social, political, and economic well-being of a country's citizens. The right to development also holds significance for developed nations due to increasing interdependence and a mutual interest in promoting stability around the world.

The General Assembly adopted the Declaration on the Right to Development on December 4th, 1986. The related Resolution, 41/128, identified national and international goals that had to be met to fulfill this Right. Goals for states include the strengthening of democracy and civic institutions, the protection of the rights of the individual, and just access to resources by all citizens. International efforts include debt relief and the restructuring of international trade to adhere to the requirements of the rights to development. Since 1996 the UN has organized seven Working Groups on the Right to Development ("Working Group") meetings, which have discussed the methods of instituting reforms, and the need to streamline various Human Rights efforts within the United Nations. Unfortunately, due mainly to resistance from some Western nations progress was slow, as some questioned whether the right to development should be considered a human right on par with others espoused in the Declaration of Human Rights. Western nations as a whole appeared worried that creating international laws based upon theories of a right to development would force reforms upon wealthier states, rather than allowing them to enact changes voluntarily.

However, there has been a lot of progress over the past 6 years. Advocates of the right to development have focused on working within the framework of the United Nations Millennium Declaration. Specifically, Goal 8 of the Millennium Goals places a primacy on the creation of global partnerships for the development of poorer nations. Goal 8 has now become a crucial component in discussion of right to development issues.

In 2004, the Commission on Human Rights passed resolution 2004/7, establishing a long sought after High-Level Task Force on the Implementation of the Right to Development ("Task Force") to assist the Working Group. In addition to further defining the issues involved with the right to development, the task force has recommended the creation of a legally binding framework of policies and development plans that address both the right to development and Goal 8 of the Millennium Goals. It has also created a set of criteria for assessing global partnerships that are working towards the right to development.

Within the Working Groups, discussion has shifted from defining the nature of the right to development towards practical application of the suggested reforms. In its seventh session, held in 2006, the Working Group called for the reform of international trade organizations to adhere to the guidelines of the Human Rights Declaration and the Declaration of the Right to Development when conducting their business. Goal 8 was the starting point of much of the debate during the 7th session. Other issues of development brought up in earlier sessions were reconsidered, such as trade restructuring, technology transfer, debt, responsibility of the private sector, global governance, migration, and regional initiatives – specifically the problems of sub-Sahara Africa.

International organizations have begun to play a larger role in the process of assisting development within a human rights framework. In June 2005, the IMF passed the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI), which provides for 100 percent debt relief from three multilateral institutions to a group of low-income countries. This initiative was passed in accordance with Millennium Goal 8. The World Health Organization and the WTO have also addressed issues brought up by the UN's Working Group. The right to development as a human right enjoys wide, though not universal, support amongst both developed and developing nations.

The Working Group and the Task Force both noted that many issues related to the right to development have yet to be properly discussed. These issues include landlocked and small island states, foreign direct investment in developing countries, migration and the right of freedom of movement, the need for corporate responsibility amongst transnational corporations, poverty and instability in Sub-Saharan Africa, and the creation of regional cooperative groups to aid in development.

The Task Force has also recognized that there are trade offs to development that may limit the scope of reforms. Careless development can lead to environmental degradation. The opening of developing states' economies to globalization can lead to economic shocks that are beyond any national capacity to control. Development may also be limited by political violence, poor governance, poor policies, and a lack of support for the reforms in the international community. These are all issues that the Working Group and Task Force seek to deal with in future meetings.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the goals of the Right to Development be effectively implemented?
- How does globalization affect a county's development?
- How does your state's development affect your role in the international community?
- Is your state willing to accept a "right" to development? If not, how can this be reconciled with the direction being taken by much of the international community on this issue?

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www.ohchr.org/english/issues/development/index.htm
www.ohchr.org/english/issues/development/documents.htm - UNHCHR Documents on Development:
www.ohchr.org/english/issues/development/taskforce.htm - UN High Level Task Force on Development
www.ohchr.org/english/law/millennium.htm - Millennium Declaration
www.unctad.org/Templates/StartPage.asp?intItemID=2068 - United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

MISSING PERSONS

The United Nations, while respecting the rights of its Member States, has always placed a tremendous level of import on the protection of individuals' human rights. Throughout recent decades, the issue of Missing Persons, particularly in relations to their disappearance amidst armed conflict, has become a serious topic in the arena of human rights. Historically, a significant number of people have gone missing due to government actions, and the phenomenon persists today. Referred to as an "enforced disappearance," the person who disappears is more often than not a political dissident or a person considered to be on the wrong side of an armed conflict. This person is typically forcibly removed from their home and family, and often either detained for an extreme amount of time or even killed. Because evidence of the disappearances is so well hidden, and because the disappearances are often beneficial to those in a position of power, the perpetrators of enforced disappearances operate with impunity, fearing no repercussions from their actions. When regimes change, the agents of disappearance often claim protection under statutes of limitations as well, making enforced disappearances very difficult to prosecute.

The United Nations has stepped into the role of investigator for missing persons across the globe. In 1980, the United Nations Commission on Human Rights established the Working Group on Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances. The Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, which entered into force on 1 July 2002, formally established enforced disappearance as a crime against humanity – an important distinction because crimes against humanity bear no statute of limitations.

The General Assembly has addressed the issue in several resolutions as well. The 1992 Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance condemns any enforced disappearance as "an offence to human dignity." The Declaration also establishes standards for the definition, legal treatment, and courses of remedy for cases of enforced disappearance. It serves as a foundation for all further UN work on this subject.

Currently, the Working Group on Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances is the main UN organization concerned with missing persons. The Working Group accepts reports on enforced disappearances from those close to the disappeared, and attempts to work with the Member States in which the disappearances took place to ascertain the fate of the disappeared. The Group also prepares an annual report and attempts to schedule visits to Member States with a large number of unresolved disappearances.

Issues of immediate concern are a continued rise in the incidence of enforced disappearances reported to the Working Group and the adaptation of the technique of enforced disappearance to the modern world. In today's interconnected world, cases of enforced disappearance can involve more than one Member State, which often has the effect of making the operation even more organized and secretive. Disappearances of this sort are especially difficult to trace and prosecute.

Currently, the UN and its Member States are in the approval and ratification process for the draft International Convention for the Protection of all Persons against Enforced or Involuntary Disappearance. The Convention was written by an Intersessional Open-Ended Working Group over the past several years, and the draft was released in the Report of that group on 2 February 2006. The Draft Convention not only focuses on enforced disappearances as a result of imprisonment or military action, but also speaks to the enforced disappearance of children. It calls for an absolute prohibition on enforced disappearances, and gives particular attention to the rights of the victims, including families and the communities of the disappeared.

Action will be taken on the draft by the Commission on Human Rights and the General Assembly, after which the process of formal ratification by Member States will begin. The ratification of a legally binding instrument addressing enforced disappearances will be an important step in the struggle against disappearances. However, there are still many issues to be resolved. For example, enforcement of the convention would be

difficult because, unless it happens on a mass scale, the enforced disappearances would not be considered a crime against humanity under the draft convention, and thus not automatically under the jurisdiction of the ICC. Also, there are often domestic legal issues contributing to enforced disappearances that can be difficult for the international community to influence.

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

- What is your country's position on the draft International Convention for the Protection of all Persons against Enforced or Involuntary Disappearance?
- Does your country participate in agreements with other Member States that may support enforced disappearances?
- How can states be encouraged to create and enforce protections against enforced disappearance?
- What mechanisms can states be encouraged to enact for accurate reporting of the incidence and outcomes of enforced disappearances in their countries?

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E/CN.4/2004/40
E/CN.4/1980/20

Additional Web Resources:

www.ohchr.org/english/issues/disappear/index.htm - Working Group on Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances
www.ic-mp.org/home.php - International Commission on Missing Persons

THE SIXTH COMMITTEE: LEGAL

PURVIEW OF THIS SIMULATION: The General Assembly Sixth Committee addresses issues relating to international law. The Committee not only drafts new international law, but also offers interpretations of existing international law as well as recommendations for members to implement international regulations through national law.

More information is available on-line at: www.un.org/law/cod/sixth/60/sixth60.htm

RESPONSIBILITY OF STATES FOR INTERNATIONALLY WRONGFUL ACTS

In international law, responsibility is defined as the "international obligation resulting from harmful effects of internationally wrongful acts." Within the international community, there are some actions universally considered either dangerous or otherwise irresponsible. However, there remain many individual aspects within this field of international law that are ambiguous. This is by far one of the more precarious global issues, as it addresses who is responsible for various actions, what types of actions a state can be held accountable for, and how to hold those states accountable.

Since 1949, the International Law Commission (ILC) has been drafting articles that struggle to answer these very questions. The articles governing state responsibility are meant to be more general than the other laws set forth by the international community. They are meant to act as a catchall to hold states responsible for wrong doings that are not specifically governed by a previously established and accepted set of international laws or treaties. The first draft articles were finally presented to the Sixth Committee in 2001. One of the great accomplishments of these articles is in defining how state responsibility can be assigned; this covers both official organs of the states, or individuals who have been given authority by the state. The draft articles also cover the obligations states have concerning agreements and treaties, and they discuss reparations a state would be responsible for in cases of injury to citizens of another state.

While international law is being created in this area, bodies such as the International Criminal Court (ICC) have been working with what the UN, the ILC, and other international organizations have provided them. However, the list of internationally wrongful acts that fall under the jurisdiction of the ICC make it difficult for them to hold states accountable and enforce their decisions. The ICC has been effective, but this is currently not enough.

The specific incidents that qualify as internationally wrongful acts can also be difficult to agree upon. These include issues from serious violations of human rights to resources that cross international borders such as water rights. Another large issue facing the international community in this arena is that of terrorism. As an internationally wrongful act, it is difficult to reach consensus in all cases regarding who terrorists are and what constitutes a terrorist attack—even based on working definitions within the UN. The topic becomes even more complicated when the issue of state sponsored terrorism is involved. As an example of an internationally wrongful act, the international community faces the problem of how to prove state collusion, and how to hold the state responsible. This is why the responsibility of states for internationally wrongful acts is so crucial; only States or organs

of a State can be held accountable (i.e., not individual terrorist or militant groups).

The UN and international community continue to debate the draft articles of the ILC and the basic definitions within the articles. The UN is also working on codifying the tenets held within the articles by possibly amending or adding to the Geneva Conventions or passing new resolutions to supplement the current draft. Several resolutions have been passed recently, but unfortunately many of them have simply been expressions of the international community's discontent with current situations. That is also making it harder to bring things before bodies such as the ICC, as definitions are often times vague, or valuable documents do not contain the correct terminology to hold states accountable for internationally wrongful acts.

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

- What does your government believe should be included in the draft articles that define state responsibility?
- What incidents of internationally wrongful acts have affected your state?
- How can terrorists, civilians and governments be held accountable? How should they be? When is this an individual responsibility, possibly to be taken up by the ICC, versus a state responsibility? Can it ever be both?
- How can international law balance responsibility and national sovereignty?
- If a State is deemed liable for the act, should it be responsible for damages?

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A/RES/55/150
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GA/57/10
S/RES/1487
S/RES/1624
S/RES/1625

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www.un.org/law/ilc - ILC homepage
untreaty.un.org/ilc/guide/9_6.htm - UN Treaty Guide, ILC link
lcil.law.cam.ac.uk/ILCSR/Statresp.htm Lauterpacht Research
    Centre for International Law State Responsibility Project

NATIONALITY OF NATURAL PERSONS IN RELATION TO SUCCESSION OF STATES

The successions of states, often resulting from violent transitions, create countless problems. Issues arise not only for the governments attempting to create order and autonomy but also for the persons affected by the succession. Frequently caught between the predecessor state and the subsequent state or states, persons in this situation are often ignored, or worse, their rights violated as they become de facto refugees in their own homes. It is in this context that the United Nations and the international community attempt to describe and outline the rights and privileges of people between the fall of one government and the rise of another.

In international law, nationality is defined as the governmental recognition of a person's rights and freedoms based on their state of residence. Statelessness occurs when a government collapses. Until that government is replaced, the citizens of the predecessor state remain in a condition of legal ambiguity. It has been the goal of the UN to ensure that the predecessor state's natural persons have their basic human rights preserved until a successor state emerges. Additionally, once it is clear that a successor state has emerged, it is important to make sure that persons living within the new state have full rights of citizenship afforded to them by the new government.

Throughout the 1990s, the General Assembly has invited Member States to participate in the discussion on the nationality of natural persons in relation to succession of states through the submission of written comments. In 1997 the Assembly further urged governments to submit their comments and observations on this topic, and it later asked for comments specifically on the need for a convention on this topic. With the collaboration and support of as much of the international community as possible, the hope is that any outcomes on the protection of persons caught in this situation will be as strong, well protected, and enforceable as possible.

While the General Assembly has been working directly with Member States for their input on the issue, it has also been working closely with other UN bodies to draft specific work on the topic. In resolution A/RES/55/153, the General Assembly recognized the work of the International Law Commission's (ILC's) 51st Session. It is through this resolution, and through the work of the International Law Commission's report of its session, that an outline of basic rules of international law concerning the nationality of persons affected by the succession of states emerged. First among the tenants is that all due diligence be taken by the successor governments to ensure the protection of peoples' rights and with that the recognition of their nationality.

However, the report is also very clear that this designation has as much to do with "habitual residency" as any other claim to nationality. The articles say that a successor state may not grant nationality to those living outside it borders. The articles of this session have been instrumental to the discussion of the topic and

also provide legal definitions and expectations that have been used since resolution's passage.

In its 59th session, the General Assembly again called upon Member States to comment on the work that has been done to strengthen the definitions of and law surrounding nationality of natural persons in relation to succession of states. It also encouraged elaborations at the regional and sub-regional levels to propose legal instruments for regulating questions of nationality of natural persons in relation to the succession of states.

These resolutions and other UN documentation have outlined a solid framework from which future work can be built. As with most topics of international law, this issue can be difficult because it crosses several areas of national sovereignty. The UN and other international bodies still recognize this as a problem that must be addressed. The UN, the GA 6th Committee, and the International Law Commission continue to work to define international law as well as implement measures to guarantee the rights of peoples during the transition from predecessor state to successor state, the rights of people within a new successor state, the prevention of genocide or armed conflict as a result of governmental transition, the protection of stateless nationals who are abroad during governmental transitions, and aide for stateless nationals. These sub-topics only represent a few of the considerations that the United Nations seeks to address in future sessions There is a deadline of 2008 for member states to submit comments on the ILC's and the 6th Committee's current frame work of suggested laws and legal norms on the subject, and many of the comments received thus far agree with the current focus on the encouragement of internal laws on the area. But many worry that focusing on this side of this issue, for example, ignores the difficulty of maintaining the rule of law during the often violent succession of states.

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

- How does your government define "nationality" as well as "natural persons"?
- Does your state's definition of nationality differ from the UN's?
- What kind of importance does your state place upon nationality?
- How can international law be strengthened to help protect persons affected?
- How can successor states be encouraged to ensure the rights of citizens of the previous states?

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www.refugeelawreader.org/c/58/_d_Stateless - The Refugee Law Reader page on Statelessness
www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home - United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
www.un.org/law/ilc/index.htm - International Law Commission

CHAPTER V.
THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

AMUN's Economic and Social Council will consider five topics on its agenda, including reports on the final day from the Commission on Social Development and UNESCO. 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.

PURVIEW OF THIS SIMULATION: The Economic and Social Council is the principal UN organ responsible for coordinating the economic, social, and related work of the 14 UN specialized agencies, 10 functional commissions and five regional commissions. Along with its coordinating role, ECOSOC is able to gather information, and advise member nations through resolutions on the economic, social, humanitarian and human rights programmes. ECOSOC also coordinates and collaborates with autonomous specialized agencies that work closely with the United Nations. These include multilateral financial and trade institutions, such as the World Bank and the World Trade Organization.

More information is available on-line at: www.un.org/docs/ecosoc/

STATE MEMBERS

Albania	Costa Rica	Italy	Republic of Korea
Angola	Cuba	Japan	Russian Federation
Armenia	Czech Republic	Lithuania	Saudi Arabia
Australia	Dem. Republic of the Congo	Madagascar	South Africa
Austria	Denmark	Mauritania	Spain
Bangladesh	France	Mauritius	Sri Lanka
Belgium	Germany	Mexico	Thailand
Belize	Guinea	Namibia	Tunisia
Benin	Guinea-Bissau	Nigeria	Turkey
Brazil	Guyana	Pakistan	United Arab Emirates
Canada	Haiti	Panama	United Kingdom
Chad	Iceland	Paraguay	United Republic of Tanzania
China	India	Poland	United States of America
Colombia	Indonesia		

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

HIGH-LEVEL SEGMENT: COORDINATION SEGMENT: SUSTAINED ECONOMIC GROWTH FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT, INCLUDING THE ERADICATION OF POVERTY AND HUNGER

ECOSOC chose its 2006 coordination segment due to the growing recognition that there is a close relationship between economic growth and social development. Economic growth can be an important avenue to realizing social goals in the areas of health, education, and poverty eradication. In the other direction, the development of human capital through many of the same social programs is vital to achieving a sustainable economy. This understanding is the basis for many recent global conferences and programs such as the World Summit for Social Development and the Millennium Summit.

Early efforts to pursue economic growth revealed that higher average income alone did not improve the lives of poor people. In the 1990s, therefore, an effort was made to highlight the social aspects of development, including health and educational attainment. The 1995 World Summit for Social Development, for example, called for an integrated framework of socio-economic strategies to achieve poverty eradication, generation of productive employment, and social integration. Although social development and economic growth may be complementary in the long run, they do have some trade offs in the short run. Social development requires increased expenditures in various social sectors, while an aggressive pursuit of macroeconomic stability would discourage much of this spending.

The Secretary-General recently reported, based on a study of country trends, that countries that were successful in decreasing poverty and achieving high economic growth and development were those that pursued equitable growth and investment in human development. As a result of this study, the Secretary-General recommended that countries adopt comprehensive, coherent and participatory policy approaches to the achievement of sustained economic growth and social development; that policy approaches should be tailored to the needs of each country; and that the international community create an enabling environment through greater policy integration and coherence.

Many actions at the national, international, and United Nations system levels have been suggested to promote poverty and hunger eradication. At the country level, the UN has encouraged countries to develop comprehensive strategies for the integration of economic growth and social development. The international community can encourage national solutions and accountability. Donors may also need to assess their priorities to see whether they are in line with the United Nations development agenda. This might entail the reduction of conditionalities and encouraging the strengthening of country capacity to make and analyze policies. Further research is also needed to better understand the impact of various policy reforms.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Who are the most important players in promoting sustained economic growth?

- What role can and should the UN play?
- Do major donors have policies that are consistent with the UN development agenda? If not, what could be done to encourage them to modify their policies?
- What other initiatives are in place to address poverty eradication and hunger? How can those initiatives be integrated?

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Additional Web Resources:

www.un.org/docs/ecosoc/meetings/2006/cs2006/ Coordination Segment Website
www.un.org/esa/ - United Nations Economic and Social Development

COORDINATION, PROGRAMME AND OTHER QUESTIONS: MAINSTREAMING A GENDER PERSPECTIVE INTO ALL POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES IN THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM

The United Nations Charter asserted the principal of gender equality and has been working to strengthen the rights of women in its policies and programs since its establishment. An early approach to integrate gender into the creation of policies and programmes was known as "women in development." In the late 1970s, the approach was widely criticized by advocacy organizations for identifying women as a special interest group rather than as an integral part of developing communities. Moreover, this approach failed to address gender inequalities in all areas of the United Nations system. "Gender mainstreaming," the approach formally endorsed at the Third World Conference

on Women in Nairobi in 1985, is a technique for responding to the inequalities between men and women by making gender questions central to institutional activities.

The Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, held in 1995, brought together Governments, international organizations, and civil society to create a global agenda for women's human rights, gender equality and the empowerment of women. The resulting Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action repeatedly cited gender mainstreaming as a strategy to remedy inequality in the twelve cited areas of concern, which include economics, health, and education. The Platform for Action also proposed a detailed role for the United Nations in meeting the goals set forth by the conference, and stated that "the integration of a gender perspective into all policies and programmes of the United Nations system must rest at the highest levels."

The United Nations' working definition for gender mainstreaming was codified as "the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality."

The Commission on the Status of Women conducted a review and appraisal of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action at its forty-ninth session in in 2005. There, the Secretary-General reported on the progress made toward mainstreaming a gender perspective in entities of the United Nations system. The Secretary-General praised the established framework for gender mainstreaming and the progress that had been made since, but noted the that "the gap between policy and practice remains a major constraint." He went on to stress the importance of inter-agency collaboration, evaluation, and institutional support. The CSW session specifically addressed mainstreaming a gender perspective in post-disaster relief, strongly urging all relevant bodies to take necessary measures, including the development and implementation of gender-sensitive codes of conduct, to protect women and girls from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse and all other forms of violence in the context of natural disasters.

There are several challenges in the pursuit of gender mainstreaming. One of the largest problems has been the lack of reliable information. The collection and dissemination of gender-disaggregated statistics have become major functions of the United Nations in recent years. The Department of Economic and Social Affairs' 2005 report, *Progress in Statistics*, found that there has been limited progress in the reporting of official national statistics important to the study of gender. It went on to suggest that the lag could in part be attributed to a lack of gender mainstreaming in those countries, and that by applying gender mainstreaming to the production of statistics, the gender perspective of these statistics could be improved. Other challenges facing the United Nations system in mainstreaming a gender perspective include limited accountability measures within the United Nations and a lack of sufficient funding. Several organizations have asked for extended sources of financial resources to allow long-term planning of gender mainstreaming activities.

The commitment to gender mainstreaming impacts all aspects of United Nations operations. The process of gender mainstreaming requires long-term vigilance and evaluation. As the United Nations

moves forward to institutionalize gender mainstreaming, ECOSOC must expand its application, continue to evaluate programs, and reaffirm the importance of gender mainstreaming to Member States.

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

- What recommendations should ECOSOC make to enforce gender mainstreaming in those areas of United Nations operations that have not yet integrated a gender perspective as noted in the Secretary-General's 2004 review?
- What benefits could come from integrating a gender perspective in new areas, including poverty eradication, macroeconomic development, energy, sanitation, infrastructure, rural development, and peace and security?
- What provisions should the UN make to strengthen the collection of gender significant statistics at the national level?
- How should the United Nations assist Member States to meet mainstreaming goals at the national-level? What commitments should be sought from Member States to further integrate gender mainstreaming at the UN and intergovernmental level?

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www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi - Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL REPERCUSSIONS OF THE ISRAELI OCCUPATION ON THE LIVING CONDITIONS OF THE PALESTINIAN PEOPLE IN THE OCCUPIED PALESTINIAN TERRITORY, INCLUDING JERUSALEM, AND THE ARAB POPULATION IN THE OCCUPIED SYRIAN ARAB GOLAN

Territorial conflict has been a constant in the lives of Israelis and Palestinians since the state of Israel was created after the Second World War. In 2005, the Israeli army pulled out of the Gaza Strip. However, Israel continues to occupy the West Bank and the Syrian Arab Golan Heights. The Israeli settlements, and the building of a barrier to encompass these settlements in the West Bank, have been a hardship for many of the people who reside on the affected lands. According to multiple human rights organizations, the Israeli occupation has resulted in the forced removal of people, the destruction of property and crops, the disruption of commutes, and fatalities. Roadblocks and arbitrary restrictions on movement have hampered the Palestinians' daily routines and crippled their economy. In 2003, 37% of the Palestinian people in the West Bank were living in poverty.

The United Nations has generally been unable to effect change in the past. In 1967, the Security Council passed Resolution 242, which required the withdrawal of Israeli forces from the territories it gained from Syria and Egypt. That was followed in 1973 by Resolution 338, which called for a cease fire in the Yom Kippur War. Yet since the passage of Resolutions 242 and 338, the Security Council has rarely taken an active role in the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, and the situation remains tense. However, the General Assembly has been more vocal in its concern for the people in the occupied territories. In 1988, the General Assembly held a special session in Geneva after the United States refused to grant Yasser Arafat a visa to enter the United States to visit the UN headquarters in New York City. The General Assembly also submitted the question on the legality of the barrier being constructed in the West Bank to the International Court of Justice, which ruled in 2004 that Israel's actions violated international law.

Currently, the Quartet, composed of the United Nations, the European Union, Russia and the United States, is actively involved in negotiations between the Israelis and Palestinians to end the territorial conflict and the resulting hardship of the Palestinian people. The United States, with the support of the other members of the Quartet, put forward The Roadmap for Peace in 2003, which aims to develop a two-state solution. The Security Council officially adopted the Roadmap in 2003.

ECOSOC has also stayed actively involved in the economic and social repercussions of the territorial conflict. In 2005, gravely concerned about the deterioration of the economic and living conditions of the Palestinian people in the Occupied Palestinian Territory, ECOSOC demanded an immediate cessation of all acts of violence, called upon Israel to end the occupation, and reaffirmed the right of the Palestinians to their natural and economic resources. It further stressed that the wall being built by Israel was debilitating to the development of the Palestinian people, and urged Member States to encourage direct investment in the occupied territories.

Additionally, the United Nations General Assembly has recently passed several resolutions to deal with the social and economic situation of the Palestinian people while the Roadmap

is being implemented. This year, the General Assembly commended the work of the Special Committee investigating human rights abuses in the occupied territories, and criticized Israel for continuing to violate human rights. Further, the General Assembly asked Israel to stop the construction of the barrier and halt the growth of Israeli settlements and to abide by the Geneva Convention relating to civilians by lifting its movement restrictions within the occupied territories.

Perhaps more visibly, the Secretary-General has been heavily involved in the pursuit of peace in the Middle East. The Secretary-General has spoken to the Security Council on several occasions regarding the violence in the occupied territories and has distributed reports and notes on the Israeli-Palestinian conflict as instructed by the various General Assembly committees and ECOSOC. A 2006 report emphasized that the occupation continues to deepen the economic and social hardship of the Palestinians. It was particularly critical of the Israeli closure system and the Israeli confiscation of Palestinian land and water resources for resettlement.

Although all branches of the United Nations are involved, there is still no perfect solution to the current impasse between the Israelis and Palestinians. Without the support of the United States, the Security Council has been mostly unable or unwilling to act in the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. However, both the Security Council and the General Assembly have remained actively seized of the situation and, more importantly, the United Nations continues to play an important role by way of its membership in the Quartet.

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

- Can the United Nations, alone or as a member of the Quartet, play an effective role in bringing about peace in the Middle East?
- Will the end of armed conflict between Israel and Palestine result in marked socio-economic improvement for the people in the occupied territories? Are there any connections between peace and socio-economic development, and what are they?
- Is The Roadmap for Peace the best method of ending conflict in the Middle East? Is this still viable given existing political conditions in the area?
- What intermediate steps can the United Nations urge Israel and the Palestinian Authority to take in order to lessen the violence?
- What does your country think of The Roadmap? What does it think of the prospects for peace in the Middle East?

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REPORTS OF THE COMMISSION ON SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT & THE UN EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC & CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

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

Similarly, as a specialized agency of the UN system, UNESCO makes annual reports to ECOSOC. This serves both to provide formal details of UNESCO's work, but also to assist in coordination between UNESCO and ECOSOC on shared issue areas. As with the CSD, these reports are usually accepted pro forma, with the option of ECOSOC taking additional action.

To facilitate this process, the final day will culminate in a joint session at which the reports and recommendations will be made to ECOSOC. Following each presentation, it will be up to the joint session to take further action. Please be aware that, as a functional commission of ECOSOC, the CSD has been given significant responsibilities to study, review, debate and decide on recommended actions within specific topical areas that ECOSOC felt should be dealt with in greater detail than could be addressed by the main body. Similarly, UNESCO is a stand-alone organizaiton that coordinates with ECOSOC, but which is not operated under the ECOSOC umbrella. It is recommended that all Representatives assigned to ECOSOC also review the background section on the CSD (Chapter VI) and UNESCO (Chapter VII), and possibly choose to do some additional research into these topics.

CHAPTER VI.
THE COMMISSION ON SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

STATE MEMBERS

Angola	Ethiopia	Malta	Senegal
Argentina	Finland	Monaco	South Africa
Bangladesh	France	Myanmar	Spain
Bolivia	Germany	Netherlands	Suriname
Central African Republic	Haiti	Pakistan	Tunisia
Chile	India	Paraguay	Turkey
China	Indonesia	Peru	Ukraine
Cote d'Ivoire	Iran, Islamic Republic of	Republic of Korea	United Republic of Tanzania
Czech Republic	Italy	Republic of Moldova	United States of America
Dem. Peoples Rep. of Korea	Japan	Romania	Venezuela
Dem. Republic of the Congo	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	Russian Federation	Zambia
Dominican Republic	Mali		

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

ABOUT THE COMMISSION ON SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

CSD advises and assists ECOSOC by strengthening international cooperation for social development. The Commission was established in 1995 as the principle body responsible for the implementation and follow-up of the Copenhagen Declaration and Programme of Action. The Commission has 46 members elected by ECOSOC for four year terms with broad regional representation. It meets annually to take up key themes of social development and report to the Council.

At its 39th session in February 2001, the Commission agreed on a multi-year program of work for 2002-2006, built around the follow-up to the Summit and the 24th special session of the General Assembly, incorporating the review of relevant United Nations plans and programs of action pertaining to the situation of social groups. The program of work includes poverty eradication, the integration of social and economic policies, full employment, and social integration.

THE SIMULATION

During the 2006 AMUN Conference, to allow for more detailed substantive debate the CSD simulation will be limited to two topics: Further Promotion of Equalization of Opportunities by, for and with Persons with Disabilities and Protection of their Human Rights, and Implementation of the Social Objectives of the New Partnership for Africa's Development. The Commission will be required to report to ECOSOC on the subjects, but the report may take many different forms. The Commission is encouraged to write detailed reports on each topic, but may also present resolutions to ECOSOC for approval when appropriate to recommend actions.

PREPARATION

As a foundation for subsequent research, Representatives are strongly encouraged to familiarize themselves with the Copenhagen Declaration and Programme of Action (A/CONF.166/9, available at: www.un.org/esa/socdev/wssd/agreements/index.html.) 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.

FURTHER PROMOTION OF EQUALIZATION OF OPPORTUNITIES BY, FOR AND WITH PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES AND PROTECTION OF THEIR HUMAN RIGHTS

Nearly one of every ten people in the world has a disability, and in some areas the concentration is as high as one in five. The term "disability" covers a broad range of impairments, including deafness, schizophrenia, and dyslexia. According to the World Health Organization, 80 percent of people with disabilities live in developing countries, but no more than 5 percent of those have access to rehabilitation services. Because disability is often considered a medical issue, the social needs of people with disabilities have historically been neglected. People with disabilities face discrimination in education, access to buildings, employment, and transportation.

The United Nations first approached the issue in the 1950s, addressing the rehabilitation and assimilation of those with physical disabilities such as blindness and deafness. The Declaration on Social Progress in 1969 addressed the issue of mental disabilities, followed by the landmark Declaration on the Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons of 1971, declaring that those with mental disabilities have the same rights and privileges as every other person, including proper medical care, education, and legal protection from exploitation and discrimination. The Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons, passed by the General Assembly in 1975, further enhanced the protection of people with disabilities, proclaiming that they should be granted full equal civil and political rights along with any service necessary to ensure equal rights.

Following the International Year of Disabled Persons in 1981, the United Nations adopted the World Programme of Action concerning Disabled Persons in 1982. The World Programme outlines not only the underlying social, economic, and physical causes of disabilities, but also the means for prevention, rehabilitation, and enhancement of services and opportunities for persons with disabilities to become a central and integral part of today's societies. The United Nations continued its work by adopting the Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities in 1993, at the conclusion of the Decade of Disabled Persons. The Standard Rules describe minimum standards and proper procedures for nations to adhere to in order to make the World Programme for Action a reality. A Special Rapporteur to the Commission on Social Development was also appointed in 1994 to assist the UN and its Member States in implementing the Standard Rules.

In the last ten years, disability issues have been integrated into many topics brought before the United Nations, including the Fourth Conference on Women in 1995 and the Special Session on Children in 2002. The Commission on Social Development has steadily debated and addressed the issues of disabled persons, working towards a "Comprehensive and Integral International Convention to Promote and Protect the Rights and Dignity of Persons with Disabilities," which the Ad-Hoc Committee of the Economic and Social Council hopes to complete by 2007.

Despite the increased attention to issues faced by persons with disabilities, there are still many remaining challenges. Although the Standard Rules have been agreed on in principle, they have yet to be fully implemented by all Member States, in part because states aren't incented to take action at the national level. In addition, there is some lack of support at the international level. The Special Rapporteur's efforts are hindered by the lack of financial support for the Voluntary Fund on Disability, and disability perspectives are not included in the Millennium Development Goals, despite their relevance to poverty eradication, employment, education, and health care. Further, some states argue that there is too much overlap between the disability rights frameworks, such as the World Programme for Action and the Standard Rules, or that the proposed convention will simply reiterate former conventions dealing with individual rights more generally.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How well have the Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities been implemented since they were introduced in 1994?
- What legal framework can be established within the international community to combat disability discrimination?
- What incentives or benefits can the international community provide so that Member States comply with the commitments they have agreed to?
- What is the role of NGOs in dealing with the issue, and how should that role be strengthened or diminished while respecting states' right to set policy?
- What measures of prevention or rehabilitation should be used to evaluate current policies?
- How are special groups of people, like women and children, especially affected by disability?

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www.un.org/esa/socdev/enable/ - United Nations Enable
www.ohchr.org/english/law/ - Office of the United Nations High
    Commissioner for Human Rights
www.ohchr.org/english/issues/disability/intro.htm – The Human
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IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SOCIAL OBJECTIVES OF THE NEW PARTNERSHIP FOR AFRICA'S DEVELOPMENT

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) was adopted at the 37th summit of the Organization of African Unity (OAU). It is a vision and strategic framework designed to address escalating poverty levels and underdevelopment throughout the African continent. The NEPAD primary objectives are poverty eradication, sustainable development, integration into the global economy, and the empowerment of women. In order to attain these objectives, NEPAD places a priority on many aspects of social development, including health, education, science, and technology. NEPAD aims to find African solutions to African development. In exchange for focusing on these objectives, the international community agreed to increase its support of African development.

The Commission on Social Development has recognized the close relationship between social development and economic growth that is reflected in NEPAD. The 1995 World Summit for Social Development called for an integrated framework of socio-economic strategies to achieve poverty eradication, generation of productive employment, and social integration. Health and education in particular are vital to achieving a sustainable economy.

In 2004, on the recommendation of the Commission on Social Development, ECOSOC reaffirmed the need to strengthen international, regional, and sub-regional cooperation to promote social development and implementation of the World Summit for Social Development. It also urged the UN and international financial institutions to support African countries in accordance with the objectives and priorities of NEPAD. The Council recognized a need for greater integration between the UN and the specialized agencies, programmes and funds of the UN system.

There are challenges that make social development more difficult in Africa, including illiteracy, poverty, HIV/AIDS, and other communicable diseases. Addressing these problems requires financial resources, and an increased commitment to addressing the goals laid out not only in NEPAD, but in the Millennium Development Goals. The African Union has developed several institutions that could assist in fostering social development, including the African Court of Human and People's Rights and the Economic, Social and Cultural Council (ECOSOC). It remains to be seen exactly what role these organizations will play. There is also a clear realization that the international community has a responsibility to assist African development at all levels, including social development. Problematically, funding and practical support to assist already acknowledged areas of need has not been forthcoming to any significant degree.

The Secretary-General published a report in 2005 that both highlighted the challenges facing the implementation of NEPAD and suggested some improvements to the UN system that would promote sustainable development in Africa. In particular, the report indicated that NEPAD requires increased international support and strengthened private initiative. It called for an increase in aid to the levels committed in Monterrey, Mexico, with half of this increase to go toward African development. It also called for a reduction in the requirements for debt relief, and noted the importance of trade policies in supporting development. There was a focus on the role of the private sector, as well as the coordination provided by the United Nations.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How does social development relate to the objectives of NEPAD? What is the role of the Commission for Social Development in implementing these objectives?
- What kinds of private initiatives could help sustain development in Africa?
- What measures can the United Nations take to encourage Member States to increase development aid and debt relief?
- How can the United Nations provide support to NEPAD and coordination between UN bodies, Member States, and the private sector?

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UN Documents:

A/60/178
A/60/85
A/Res/58/233
A/Res/57/300
A/Res/57/7
E/Res/2004/16

Additional Web Resources:

www.nepad.org
www.un.org/africa/osaa - UN Office of the Special Advisor on Africa
www.africa-union.org – African Union
www.uneca.org – Economic Commission for Africa

CHAPTER VII.
THE UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION (UNESCO)

INTRODUCTION TO THE UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC, AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

In keeping with the tradition of presenting a unique simulation of a United Nations body or affiliated organization, AMUN 2006 will simulate the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), with an emphasis on educational themes. Participation will be voluntary and open to one Representative from each delegation attending AMUN. UNESCO 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, UNESCO 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 UNESCO, the relevant policies of the Member State they represent, and an awareness of educational issues worldwide.

ABOUT UNESCO

UNESCO was established on 16 November 1945. It is a specialized UN agency responsible for promoting global collaboration through programs that promote education, science and culture. The five major programme areas addressed by UNESCO are education, natural sciences, social and humanitarian science, culture, and communication and information. UNESCO acts as a clearing house for information and assists Member States in developing human and institutional capacity. UNESCO reports to ECOSOC; it also coordinates with several other UN specialized agencies as well as many intergovernmental organizations outside the UN system. The General Conference meets every two years to determine the policies and the main lines of work of the organization.

THE SIMULATION

During the 2006 AMUN Conference, UNESCO will focus on two issues: Education in Situations of Emergency, Crisis, & Reconstruction; and Literacy. The Organization may create either reports or resolutions to cover these issues. UNESCO 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 UNESCO 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 UNESCO Constitution, as well as the summaries and supporting documents for each topic on the UNESCO 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

EDUCATION IN SITUATIONS OF EMERGENCY, CRISIS, & RECONSTRUCTION

Since 1945, over 150 world conflicts have produced 20 million refugees and 30 million displaced persons; of these, at least 60% are children. Other emergencies such as natural and man-made disasters have also contributed significantly to the displacement of populations and the destruction of infrastructures. During crises, children are deprived of basic needs such as shelter, education, and family. Educational institutions are often partially or completely disrupted. Failing to provide children with proper education deprives them of necessary social and psychological development opportunities.

At the 1990 World Conference of Education For All (EFA) in Jomtien, Thailand, the international community committed to achieving education for "every citizen in every society." The conference encouraged each country to assess progress towards the goals of the EFA Declaration. These assessments were presented ten years later at six regional conferences in 1999 and 2000. Following the assessments, the World Education Forum adopted the Dakar Framework for Action. The Framework placed responsibility for EFA with each country and affirms that no country committed to achieving EFA will be prevented from executing its goals for lack of resources. The Framework further requested that states strengthen or develop plans so that they could achieve EFA goals and targets by 2015. Crises and emergencies were identified as specific impediments to achieving these aggressive goals, and therefore critical factors to consider in developing plans.

The Dakar Framework for Action identified UNESCO, the lead education agency, as the coordinator for all partners at international, national, and regional levels, including funding agencies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the private sector, and civil society organizations. Sister agencies working with UNESCO include the Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), and the Children's Education Fund (UNICEF). UNESCO recognized the need for education in situations of emergency, crisis, and reconstruction and established an education theme in response. In addition, the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) was formed, steered by UNESCO,

UNICEF, and UNHCR as well as three NGOs: the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), CARE, and Save the Children.

As part of the original EFA assessment, UNESCO published a thematic study on Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis. The study recognized that the field is new, and that while it has not yet receiving the attention it needs, the assessment should help raise awareness of the issue. The study recommended that measures be taken as soon as possible to reintroduce education during emergency situations. It also noted that education is crucial to sustainable development and preventing continual cycles of conflict. UNESCO later published a document offering guidelines for strategic planning in crisis situations. Additionally, in 2003, UNESCO established a draft strategy for implementing UNESCO actions when intervening before and after situation of crisis and conflict.

UNESCO established several specific programs and projects to address education during crisis. The Programme for Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction (PEER) was created to coordinate and plan exercises within Somalia and the Great Lakes Region with the purpose of establishing curricula, rebuilding schools, and training teachers. The Teacher Emergency Package was introduced to provide teachers with basic teaching materials needed to instruct 80 students.

UNESCO and its associated agencies have raised several issues of concern relating to education in emergency situations. A recent study suggested that there is disconnect between the research and the implementation in the field. Women and minorities have also been identified as an at-risk population, as circumstances and discrimination may be preventing them from receiving proper attention and education. In addition, there is a continued need to ensure that emergency education is consistent and all activities are assessed and evaluated.

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

- How can developed countries aid developing countries in reaching education for all? What actions are developed countries willing to take?
- What are the special needs of children in emergencies, crises, and reconstruction? How do these affect appropriate methods of education?
- What materials and resources would be helpful in implementing the methods of instruction that UNESCO recommends? How can research be put into action?
- How can UNESCO help ensure equal access to education for women and minorities?

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Wallace, Wendy, "A Future Without Fear," *Times Educational Supplement*, 26 May 2006.

World Bank, "Reshaping the Future: Education and Postconflict Reconstruction," 2005.

UN Documents:

The Dakar Framework for Action
The World Declaration on Education For All

Additional Web Resources:

www.unesco.org/education - Primary site for all educational related themes of UNESCO

www.ineesite.org - Interagency Network on Education in Emergencies

www.unhcr.org - United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

www.unicef.org/emerg - United Nation International Children's Education Fund

www.care.org - CARE

www.savethechildren.net - Save the Children

LITERACY

In the context of the United Nations, literacy means a great deal more than the ability to read and write in one's chosen or legal language. The United Nations considers global literacy to be essential. In past decades it has become clear that literacy is an important prerequisite to achieving many UN goals, including the eradication of poverty, achieving universal primary education, promoting gender equality, reducing child mortality, and combating the spread of HIV/AIDS. Many believe that without literacy there can be no true progress toward the future.

The United Nations first became involved with literacy efforts in the 1950s and 1960s. In 1950, UNESCO began gathering statistics on global literacy, which showed that worldwide, nearly three out of five people were illiterate. At the 1964 General Conference of UNESCO, a declaration for the eradication of illiteracy was announced, and in 1966, September 8th was declared International Literacy Day. The hope at the time was that global literacy would be achieved by the year 2000. By the late 1980s, however, it was clear that if something didn't change, the goal of complete literacy by 2000 would not be reached. To this end, and over the next several years, the GA made many efforts to address literacy. It declared 1990 as International Literacy Year, and an International Literacy Conference was held in Thailand on 5-9 March 1990.

The 1990 conference is considered by many to be the turning point in the fight for global literacy. Following the conference, significantly more attention was paid to the progress of global literacy efforts. By the turn of the century, global illiteracy rates had

been reduced to about one in every five people. Despite the tremendous progress, there are still nearly 800 million people who are illiterate; another 100 million children are not receiving primary education and thus will likely become illiterate adults. Over the past two decades, evidence has emerged indicating direct correlations between literacy and population control, development success, and other important goals, many of which are included in the Millennium Declaration. So while much progress has been made, global literacy remains an important goal of the United Nations.

The International Literacy Decade, established by the General Assembly in 2001, started in 2003 and will last until 2012. The decade's objective is to reduce illiteracy levels by 50% by 2015. UNESCO's Literacy Initiative for Empowerment 2005-2015 (LIFE) is a global strategic framework for reaching the goals set out in the UN Literacy Decade. This framework has four main principles: 1) engage in advocacy and communication to create national and international momentum; 2) reinforce national capacities to develop appropriate policies and programs; 3) support countries in the delivery of programs; and 4) facilitate the sharing of information to improve policies and practice. A key part of LIFE is the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP), which aims to facilitate sound policy-making decisions by giving countries a more accurate assessment of literacy in their country. Working closely with participating countries, LAMP strives to not only tailor survey questions to reflect local socio-cultural and linguistic circumstances, but to strengthen local capacities to conduct their own policy analyses.

The United Nations Literacy Decade Progress Report for 2004-2005 identified several challenges facing the international community as it strives to reach the UNLD goals. These challenges include a strong need for a clearer sense of direction and purpose with a sustained program of intervention; committed political will, long-term financial resources and effective institutional infrastructure; and a sustained commitment in terms of human and financial resources. Countries will also need to consider gender inequality. Of the 800 million people in the world that are illiterate, nearly two thirds are women. Other issues include funding problems, updating curricula and making it culturally relevant, and promoting partnerships between governments and NGO's.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What measures should be enacted to combat the disparity between the number of literate men and literate women?
- How can the world community reach and educate the large number of at risk children to prevent them from becoming illiterate adults?
- How can current efforts be made more accessible?
- What can the UN do to ensure literacy stays a major priority in the world?

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Declaration on the Eradication of Illiteracy in the United Nations Development Decade
Declaration of Persepolis, 1975
172 EX/10 - United Nations Literacy Decade: Progress Report 2004-2005
31 C/4 – UNESCO Medium-Term Strategy 2002-2007
UNESCO Institute for Statistics International Literacy Day 2005 Fact Sheet
Literacy Initiative For Empowerment (LIFE) 2005-2015: Vision and Stategy Paper (2nd edition)
A/C.3/52/L.II/Rev.1 / 29 October
A/RES/56/116
SG/SM/8353 OBV/286
DSG/SM/187-OBV/323
SG/SM/8606
SG/SM/8849-OBV/368
SG/SM/10065-OBV/504

Additional Web Resources:

www.unesco.org/education/litdecade – United Nations Literacy Decade
www.literacyonline.org/ili.html – International Literacy Institute
www.ungei.org – United Nations Girls' Education Initiative

CHAPTER VIII.
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.

PURVIEW OF THIS SIMULATION: The ICJ is the principal international judicial body of the United Nations system. The two major roles of the ICJ include developing advisory opinions on matters of international law referred to the Court by specialized agencies and presiding over legal disputes submitted to the Court by Member States. Only Member States may submit cases to the Court and the Court is only considered competent to preside over a case if the involved States have accepted the jurisdiction of the Court over the issue of dispute. The ICJ does not preside over legal disputes between individuals, the public, or private organizations.

More information is available on-line at: www.icj-cij.org

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA V. UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
QUESTIONS OF INTERPRETATION AND APPLICATION OF THE 1971 MONTREAL CONVENTION ARISING FROM THE AERIAL INCIDENT OVER LOCKERBIE (HISTORICAL CASE)

On December 21, 1988, a bomb exploded in the cargo hold of Pan American Flight 103 over Lockerbie, Scotland. The explosion killed 259 people. An investigation traced the terrorist act to two Libyan nationals, Abdelbasset Ali Ahmed Al-Megrahi and Ali Amin Khalifa Fhimah, who allegedly orchestrated the attack. The United States and United Kingdom charged these two individuals and requested that they be surrendered to the United States. The United States, United Kingdom, and France also requested the disclosure of documents, and demanded appropriate compensation from the Libyan government, as they believed Libya was involved in the terrorist act. Due to Libya's alleged participation in the bombing, the United States and the United Kingdom did not feel the suspects would receive a fair and full punishment if they were prosecuted in Libya.

Libya rejected the request and, in accordance with the Montreal Convention, initiated proceedings against the two suspects. Libya also requested legal assistance from the United States and the United Kingdom to continue with a prosecution under Libya's criminal jurisdiction. The United States and the United Kingdom denied assistance, preferring to prosecute the case themselves as well as receive the desired compensation.

In March of 1992, Libya instituted proceedings against the United States in the International Court of Justice to clarify the interpretation of the Montreal Convention regarding the dispute over the Lockerbie aerial incident. This case is considered by some to be one of the most important decisions since the end of the Cold War, as it considers the competence of UN bodies such as the Security Council and their ability to take certain actions through their resolutions. Another issue in this case is the Court's power of judicial review.

Libya is claiming their rights underneath The Montreal Convention of 1971 for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Civil Aviation. This treaty was created to prevent attacks against civil aircraft. It provided for means of cooperation between countries involved in an attack and the necessary measures to punish the offenders. Libya has claimed that the United States of America and the United Kingdom violated obligations under the Montreal Convention that allow Libya to prosecute Libyan nationals held responsible for the attack. Libya has asked the Court to declare that the United States has breached its legal obligations, primarily under Article 5 of the Montreal Convention.

One consideration for the Court is the Security Council's role in passing Resolutions 731 (1992), 748 (1992) and 883 (1993). The validity of Resolution 731 is disputed because interested parties participated in the voting procedure. The dispute fell within Chapter VI of the Charter, and Article 27(3) states that in voting on decisions under Chapter VI, parties to a dispute shall abstain from voting. Nonetheless, the United States, the United Kingdom and France all cast a vote. Resolution 748 imposes sanctions against Libya until the two Libyan officials accused of the bombing are handed over for trial, while Resolution 883 imposes further actions against Libya for failure to surrender the accused.

Other important issues facing the Court are whether Libya has any legal right to try the accused itself or an obligation to cooperate in enforcing American or British law. Libya claims the Montreal Convention allows them to try nationals in their court system while the United States argues that the Security Council's resolutions trump the obligations arising from the Montreal Convention. The Court will thus need to weigh the legal consequences of each party's claims, taking into careful consideration Articles 5(2), 7 and 11 of the Montreal Convention.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Do Security Council resolutions preempt international treaties? What implications does this have on precedence?
- How do Security Council resolutions interact with Chapter VI of the UN Charter?
- Should the Court suspend the sanctions ordered by Resolution 748 until the Court determines that Libya's claims are ill-founded? If the Court suspends these sanctions, how does this affect future resolutions and their ability to shape international law?

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UN Documents:

United Nations Charter
The Montreal Convention of 1971 for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Civil Aviation, www.unodc.org/unodc/terrorism_convention_civil_aviation.html
S/Res/731
S/Res/748
S/Res/883

Additional Web Resources:

www.icj-cij.org/icjwww/idocket/ilus/ilusframe.htm - Application Instituting Proceedings Against the United States

ROMANIA V. UKRAINE
PROCEEDINGS INSTITUTED BY ROMANIA AGAINST UKRAINE

Following the end of the Cold War, former Soviet states needed to establish boundaries not only on land but also in the Black Sea. The Black Sea states have attempted to ensure that this vital resource is used equitably by creating the Black Sea Forum for Partnership and Development and the Black Sea Economic Cooperation Pact. In addition to these multilateral efforts, Ukraine and Romania participated in bilateral negotiations regarding treaties that would establish borders and good relations. The Treaty on Relations of Cooperation and Good-Neighborliness between Romania and Ukraine ("Treaty on Relations") entered into force 22 October 1997 and created an obligation for the two states to conclude a treaty on the border regime.

The Additional Agreement of the Treaty on Relations gave a time frame and ground rules for the determination of a single maritime boundary between the two States. Article 4(h) of the Additional Agreement provides that if the two states can not settle on an equitable solution to the Black Sea delimitation within two years, either state can bring the issue before the International Court of Justice (ICJ) provided that the Treaty between Romania and Ukraine on the Romanian-Ukrainian State Border's Regime has entered into force. That treaty was signed on 17 June 2003 and entered into force on 27 May 2004.

In September 2004, Romania submitted its application to the ICJ, requesting the ICJ to establish the continental shelf and exclusive economic zone (EEZ) in the Black Sea in accordance with the principles set forth in the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS). According to Romania, between 1998 and 2004, 24 negotiations occurred, with no resulting agreement regarding the delimitation of the Black Sea. Romania claimed that the solution proposed by Ukraine was not equitable. In addition, Ukraine opened the Bystraya Canal, which connects the Danube River to the Black Sea, in 2004. Romania considered this Canal to be a violation of the commitments in the Border Regime Treaty and a danger to the unique and fragile ecosystem of the river valley. The discovery of oil reserves in the Black Sea has also hindered the negotiations for an establishment of maritime borders. Both Romania and Ukraine would like to settle this dispute so that they can each exploit the natural resources of the Black Sea.

Throughout the delimitation discussion, Zmiyinyy Island, or Serpents' (Snake) Island, located 30 kilometers from the Danube River valley has been an important consideration. The classification of Serpents' Island as a rock (cliff) or as an island has important consequences in international law, and could influence the determination of maritime boundaries. Romania and Ukraine have different viewpoints on this land. Romania claims that it is a rock because no one can live on it without assistance and further, although Ukraine has been purposefully developing it to make it an island. Ukraine, on the other hand, claims that it is an island because it has inhabitants. Furthermore, Ukraine argues that Zmiyinyy Island has always been an island since the Greeks built a temple to Achilles there. While Romania would like the continental shelf and EEZ lines to be drawn without regard to Snake Island, because it is only a rock and not an "island," Ukraine would like for the Court to find that Snake Island is an "island" and declare the surrounding areas Ukrainian water accordingly. Under the 1997 Additional Agreement of the Treaty on Relations, Ukraine agreed to legally claim the island uninhabited during maritime border negotiations and remove offensive weapons from it. However, Romania complains that Ukraine has claimed the island as part of its territory during the negotiations.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Has Romania established that the ICJ has jurisdiction in this case? Has Ukraine accepted the ICJ's jurisdiction?
- Is Snake Island a rock or a bona fide island?
- Should the ICJ consider the "special" or "relevant" circumstances of the Black Sea and give Snake Island full, some, or no effect?
- What would be an ideal and equitable continental shelf and EEZ between the two states?

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ICJ Press Release 2004/31, 16 September 2004.
Kuzio, Taras, "Romania attempts to alleviate border problems with Ukraine," *Ukrainian Weekly*, 20 October 2002, v 42 n120.
Shafir, Michael, "Analysis: Serpents Island, Bystraya Canal, and Ukrainian-Romanian Relations," *Radio Free Europe/Radio Liberty*, 24 August 2004.

UN Documents:

Treaty on Relations of Cooperation and Good-Neighborliness between Romania and Ukraine
Additional Agreement of the Treaty on Relations
Treaty between Romania and Ukraine on the Romanian-Ukrainian State Border's Regime

United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea

Additional Web Resources:

www.icj-cij.org – International Court of Justice
www.un.org/Depts/los/index.htm - United Nations Division for
    Ocean Affairs and Law of the Sea
www.tomrad.ro/iserpi/ENGLISH.HTM

ADVISORY OPINION: LEGALITY OF THE THREAT OR USE OF NUCLEAR WEAPONS (HISTORICAL CASE)

This is a historical case. Justices and advocates should focus their research on events on or before the Court's decision, issued in July 1996, and do their research accordingly. While some of the relevant law may not have changed since 1996, arguments and opinions should be based on only what the Court had to consider when it decided the opinion in 1996.

In September 1993, the World Health Organization requested an advisory opinion from the International Court of Justice on whether the use of nuclear weapons in armed conflict would be a violation of international law. Due to significant questions regarding the ability of the WHO to request an advisory opinion, the ICJ delayed its response to the question. On 15 December 1994, concerned that the continuing existence and development of nuclear weapons posed serious risks to humanity, the General Assembly decided to ask the Court to rule on the following question: "Is the threat or use of nuclear weapons in any circumstance permitted under international law?"

The first issue for the Court to decide is whether it should issue a decision. Many states feel it would be improper for the Court to rule on such a issue. Under the ICJ statute, the Court has the discretion to respond or not respond to a request for an advisory opinion. Many states argue that an ICJ opinion would undermine the diplomatic process. Other states contend that the intent of the request is a question of morality rather than international law and should not be decided by the ICJ. There is debate regarding the potential impact of an ICJ opinion on the issue, and what consequences it would have on the global situation in the absence of a diplomatic process.

There are many areas of substantive law that shed light on the legality of the threat or use of nuclear weapons. Article 2(4) of the UN Charter prohibits the threat or use of force, while Article 51 recognizes the state's right to self-defense. There are also a number of conventions that apply to the use of weapons, such as the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons. Furthermore, international humanitarian law, specifically the Geneva Convention, contains some general principles that might be applicable to the threat or use of nuclear weapons. For example, there is law governing the targeting of civilians and the use of weapons that cause indiscriminate damage.

While the Court may find that the threat or use of nuclear weapons is always legal or always illegal, it may also find that it is legal in some circumstances and not legal in others. There may be a difference between threatening to use weapons and actually using them, and there might be an important distinction between a state that uses a nuclear weapon first and one that responds in like fashion. Thus, the Court not only has a lot of different areas of law to consider, it will also need to speculate as to factual scenarios in which the question might arise.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Is the Court competent to issue an opinion on the case? If so, should it use its discretion to decline?
- What are the circumstances, if any, in which the use of nuclear weapons can be deemed legal?
- Is the threat of use (nuclear deterrence) legal?
- Can current treaties and other sources of international law, which lack specific language on the legality of nuclear weapons be expanded in their scope to include nuclear weapons, for purposes of the Court?
- Is there a moral imperative for nuclear nations to complete all disarmament movements?

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Meyrowitz, Elliott L., *Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons: The Relevance of International Law,* 1990.
Watson, Geoffrey, "The ICJ and the Lawfulness of the Use of Nuclear Weapons," *ASIL Newsletter*, June 1995.

UN Documents:

Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction
Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction
Geneva Conventions
Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons
UN Charter
A/Res/49/75 K
A/Res/46/37 D
A/Res/45/59 B
A/Res/36/92
A/Res/35/152
A/Res/34/83
A/Res/33/71
A/Res/1653

Additional Web Resources:

ww.icj-cij.org - International Court of Justice
www.lcnp.org/wcourt/index.htm - The Lawyers' Committee on Nuclear Policy
disarmament.un.org/wmd - United Nations Department for Disarmament Affairs
www.icrc.org/Web/Eng/siteeng0.nsf/htmlall/section_ihl_nuclear_weapons - Nuclear Weapons and International Humanitarian Law

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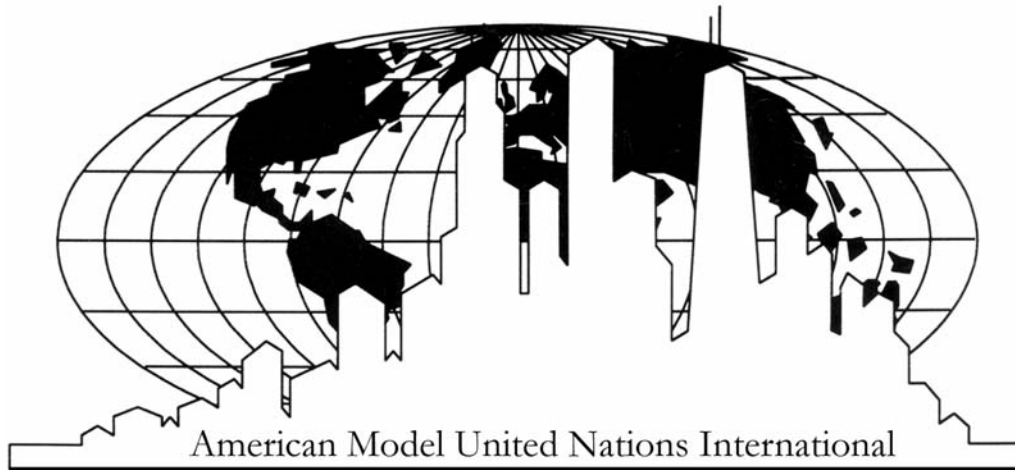
AMUN FAQ:
answers to your most common questions about AMUN

ON-LINE HANDBOOKS:
download as portable document files (PDF)

AMBASSADOR'S CLUB VIDEO SERIES:
see actual UN ambassadors discuss procedures and issues at the UN

MODEL UN "IN A BOX":
a simulation guide for Model UN faculty and student leaders

RESEARCH INFORMATION:
up-to-date web resources for UN-related information

RESOURCES FOR TEACHING UN TOPICS

LINKS TO OTHER MODEL UN CONFERENCES & ORGANIZATIONS

LINKS TO SOURCES OF INTERNATIONAL INFORMATION