

CHAPTER FOUR THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY AND COMMITTEES

Introduction

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

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

their Committee's mandate and into another Committee's area of discussion.

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

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

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

THE CONCURRENT GENERAL ASSEMBLY PLENARY

Purview of the Simulation: The General Assembly Plenary typically considers issues that several Committees would have the power to discuss, but which would best be addressed in a comprehensive manner. Likewise, the General Assembly Plenary is also responsible for coordinating work between the many different bodies of the United Nations. For example, the 60th General Assembly recently established a Peacebuilding Commission that will oversee the United Nations' peacebuilding processes and

coordinate the work of the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Secretary-General, and Member States emerging from conflict situations. Note that if the Security Council, which is given the primary task of ensuring peace and security by the Charter, is discussing a particular issue, the General Assembly (Plenary) will cease its own deliberations and defer to the Security Council.

Website: www.un.org/ga/61/plenary/plenary.shtml

2001-2010: DECADE TO ROLLBACK MALARIA IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, PARTICULARLY IN AFRICA

In recent years, the global community has acknowledged the irrefutable links between disease, development and security. With the adoption of Millennium Development Goal 6, the United Nations declared that malaria, along with other diseases, stands in the way of full peace and development. Nearly 3,000 people are killed by malaria each day; 90% of these deaths occur in sub-Saharan Africa. Malaria is also present in the Americas, South-East Asia, Western Pacific and Eastern Mediterranean states. Combined, these areas are home to nearly 3 billion people. The two most effective responses to

the problem of malaria are the use of insecticide treated bed nets and anti-malarial drugs, succinctly illustrating the methods of prevention versus treatment. Even when funding is adequate to provide drugs or nets, those most at risk have often not had access to help. While malaria has been known to cause death in humans of all ages, the vast majority of deaths occur in pregnant women and children under the age of five, targeted demographics in several other Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Adding to the problem, the World Health Organization (WHO) has begun to acknowledge that climate change is allowing malaria to spread to parts of the world previously not impacted by the disease such as the Republic of Korea and Papua New Guinea. These alarming statistics have pushed malaria to the forefront of the UN agenda, especially with the passing of resolution

55/284, which officially established the Decade to Rollback Malaria, especially in Africa.

The United Nations and other international organizations operating with the cooperation of the UN have set varying goals to confront the problem of malaria. Millennium Development Goal 6 calls on the global community to "halt and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases." In 2000 African heads of state met in Abuja, Nigeria to discuss ways of combating the progression of malaria, HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis, through advocacy for fulfillment of prior commitments, development of policies to prevent and control the spread of the epidemics, expansion of resources to support those living with HIV/AIDS, and protection of at-risk populations. The Abuja Declaration on Malaria of 2000 declared the African Union's goal of ensuring that by 2005, 60% of people infected with malaria would be able to get medical assistance within 24 hours, 60% of atrisk pregnant women would receive prenatal treatment and 60% of children under 5 would have access to insecticide-treated nets. The results vary by country, but in general it is agreed that more work is still required to fully attain these goals. Finally, the Roll Back Malaria (RBM) initiative, backed by the WHO, has set a goal of halving malaria related mortality by 2010 and again by 2015. According to the 2007 UN report on the progress of the MDGs sub-Saharan Africa is the only region in the world with no progress or reverse progress since 2000. Other regions, such as Asia and Latin America, also lack the ability to achieve the goals if they remain on current projections.

Given the graveness of the malaria epidemic, the UN has taken a lead in creating a global push against malaria through several major initiatives. In 2002, the UN established the New Partnership for Africa's Development in an attempt to consolidate efforts and to provide increased assistance to the African Union on a variety of issues, including malaria control. The initiative has been relatively successful in streamlining UN actions in regards to Africa. Along with the creation of the new partnership, the WHO also created the Global Malaria Programme which has been successful on several fronts. A key recommendation and goal of the Programme has been to secure Artemisinin-based combination therapy (ACT) drugs. ACT has been successful against drug-resistant strains of malaria, has a low incidence of side-affects and produces more rapid results than most malarial drugs. However, these drugs are expensive and out of reach for many malaria victims. Even with UN backing, the program has had some difficulties in procuring these drugs due to their lack of profitability and therefore lack of production.

The RBM initiative was founded in 1998 and has been successful in increasing malaria awareness throughout the world. Within two years of its founding, the initiative has been credited with doubling the international financial investment in malaria control. When the World Malaria Report of 2005 was released, the initiative faced criticism for its failure to help achieve the Abuja 2000 goals in time for 2005, mostly due to a lack of influential leadership. In response to this criticism, RBM entered a period of change and has seen an increase in global effectiveness in recent years. While the RBM initiative has been established to implement integrated programs, the Global Fund for HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis, and Malaria was established in 2002 to fund programs around the world which were fighting these diseases. To date, the fund has approved over \$2.4 billion specifically for programs aimed at malaria, constituting 45% of all malaria programs in the world. The fund has declared that it will need to triple in size by 2010 to distribute over \$8 billion per year in funds.

The General Assembly has called for the international community to support the RBM initiative and other anti-malarial campaigns through funding for research, education and access to treatment. Although there are many UN organs and NGOs involved, all are lacking the financial capacity to adequately administer their respective initiatives; therefore, all countries and public-private donors were encouraged to continue supporting the various programs' endeavors. The General Assembly encouraged all African countries to adopt the recommendations of the Abuja Summit by waiving or minimizing taxes and tariffs on nets and other anti-malarial products. The General Assembly also appealed to the manufacturers of insecticide treated nets to facilitate the transfer of technology to African countries and manufacturers so as to increase access.

In the past the UN has focused on its role of bringing people together to fight this disease. While it is too early to know whether recent surges in malaria control have been successful, there is already discussion of possible new approaches to the problem, and many believe it is time for the UN to take action itself. One concern which has been raised in the past was the state of basic health services in many malaria impacted areas. This issue is seeing a resurgence as the global community turns its attention to getting medical assistance to infected people with 24 hours as the next step in the process of eliminating malaria. Strong links have recently made been between the prevalence of malaria and HIV/AIDS. Several organizations have begun to consider just how deeply integrated these two diseases may be and it may lead to new investment and technology to combat both diseases. And finally, the world has begun to see serious research into potential cures for the disease and with some promising initial results. The UN must continue to encourage research and development in order to make international efforts even more successful and efficient.

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

- How can the international community encourage the financial commitments needed to ensure the existence of these programs?
- Should the UN take a direct role in combating Malaria or continue to provide a forum for other organizations to solve the problem?
- What is the relationship between treatment and prevention? How should the international community balance its allocation of resources between the two approaches?

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A/RES/60/221

A/60/12

A/RES/57/2

A/RES/55/284

A/RES/55/2

WHA58.2 - World Malaria Report 2005

Abuja Declaration 2000 – Rolling Back Malaria in Africa Maputo Declaration on Malaria, HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Other Related Infectious Diseases

Additional Web Resources:

www.rollbackmalaria.org – Roll Back Malaria Partnership www.theglobalfund.org – The Global Fund to fight HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria

www.unicef.org/mdg/disease.html - UNICEF Malaria www.un.org/ga/62/plenary/africa/bkg.shtml - UN General Assembly Joint Debate on the New Partnership for Africa's Development and the Decade to Roll Back Malaria

www.who.int/malaria - World Health Organization 'Global Malaria Programme

THE SITUATION IN AFGHANISTAN

On 27 September 1996, the Taliban, a conservative Islamic movement, ousted the sitting Afghan government of Burhanuddin Rabbani and positioned itself as the legitimate ruling government of Afghanistan. Pakistan was the only state to officially recognize the new leaders of Afghanistan, with most countries and the United Nations, continuing to recognize the exiled Rabbani as the legitimate leader of that country. After the 11 September 2001 attacks on the United States, that country took a more serious stance against the Taliban-led Afghani government when it refused to cooperate with a US request to hand over the alleged architect of the attacks, Osama Bin Laden. In response to this refusal to cooperate, the US created an international coalition named Operation Enduring Freedom, with the goal of rooting out terrorist strongholds in Afghanistan, capturing Osama Bin Laden and removing the unrecognized government of the Taliban. By 17 November 2001 the Taliban had been officially removed from power.

Recognizing that Afghanistan would need temporary leadership before an official, democratically elected government could take control, Afghani leaders met in Bonn, Germany, in December 2001, to create the Afghan Interim Authority. This was to be followed within

six months by a Transitional Authority, which would last for a period of two years culminating in national elections for a democratically elected leadership. In addition to this temporary governing body, the Bonn Agreement created the process by which a Constitutional Commission would draft and adopt a constitution that had the consent of the people. The Bonn Agreement was followed by the Afghanistan Compact of 31 January 2006, which emphasized three goals: security; governance, rule of law, and human rights; and economic and social development. The Compact also formulated benchmarks and timelines to guide the joint efforts of the Afghani government and the international community.

Today the UN has a multi-faceted political and developmental presence in Afghanistan. The International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) was created to help bolster the Interim Government and UN operations within Afghanistan. The United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) works to coordinate all UN operations inside Afghanistan with the Afghani Government and the international community through the framework of the Afghanistan Compact. The stated goals of the UNAMA generally coincide with the Compact but also specifically include such things as supporting the electoral process through the Afghan Independent Electoral Commission.

There have been several positive steps toward a democratic Afghanistan with the help of these UN operations and institutions. In December 2003 a constitution was adopted creating a presidential-style government with a bicameral legislature. The next year, in October, national elections were held and Hamid Karzai, former chairman of the Bonn Agreement, was elected President of Afghanistan. The success of these goals of the Bonn Agreement has been accompanied by moderate social progress for the Afghan people, especially a limited improvement in women's rights. Such improvements, however, have been overshadowed by continued violence outside of Kabul, increased poppy production for the illegal narcotics trade, and the inability to enforce the rule of law in this mostly rural country.

In a letter dated 23 January 2008, NATO Secretary-General Japp de Hoop Scheffer outlined the status of the Bonn Agreement goals. According to Scheffer, corruption at all levels and branches of government presents a real threat to the legitimacy of the Afghani government. The struggle with corruption has led to an illegal narcotics trade of opium and heroin, which has become a \$3 billion a year industry and a situation where governance and rule of law is almost nonexistent outside of Kabul. Estimates suggest that between 70% and 90% of Afghans rely solely on Sharia law or some form of tribal law. The lack of security and stable governance presents the single greatest deterrent to achieving the economic, social and human rights goals of the Afghanistan Compact.

The continued mandate extensions of the ISAF suggests that the Afghan army is not prepared to oppose armed insurgent groups such as the Taliban and Al Qaeda on its own. Scheffer's report details the inability to produce tangible results in disbanding these armed groups, which according to the desired goals the Afghanistan Compact was to have been accomplished by the end of 2007 throughout all of Afghanistan's provinces. Similarly, the Afghan National Police is not sufficiently prepared to secure areas where the ISAF has already discovered and routed insurgent strongholds. This reality was driven home in early 2008 as Taliban insurgents became an increased

presence in the southern provinces, capable of such brazen attacks as the 13 June 2008 on the Kandahar prison, freeing some 400 Taliban members.

The Global Policy Forum concluded in October 2004 that Afghanistan is a failed state in regards to the United Nations and the international community's goals of rebuilding the political, economic, and democratic social structures of Afghanistan post-Operation Enduring Freedom. The recent history of Afghanistan has been turbulent and bloody; the successful transition to a free and democratic society in the near future will not be easy. To achieve the goals of security, governance, rule of law, human rights, and economic and social development, the United Nations and the international community must be willing to come together to enact policy in addition to providing the necessary financial, institutional, and military support.

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

- How can the international community assist in reaching the goals of the Afghanistan Compact and the mandate of the UNAMA?
- Does the United Nations need to reassess its goals given the current situation in Afghanistan? How should cultural considerations inform those goals?
- What is the connection between the illegal narcotics trade and the barriers to improving the situation in Afghanistan? What economic measures can help decrease Afghanistan's reliance on poppy exports?

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The Bonn Agreement

Additional Web Resources:

www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/sept_11/afghan_002.htm - Yale University Law School

www.unama-afg.org/ - UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan www.unama-afg.org/about/overview-print.htm - UN Assistance Mission in Afghanistan; Mandate Overview

www.globalpolicy.org/security/issues/afgindx.htm - Global Policy Forum

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THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY FIRST COMMITTEE: DISARMAMENT AND INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

Purview of the Simulation: The General Assembly First Committee addresses the disarmament of conventional weapons and weapons of mass destruction and related international security questions. The First Committee makes recommendations on the regulation of these weapons as they relate to international peace and security. The First Committee does not address legal issues

surrounding weapons possession or consider complex peace and security issues addressed by the Security Council. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 16.

Website: www.un.org/ga/61/first/first.shtml

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DISARMAMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

The relationship between disarmament and development, more commonly referred to as the "guns and butter debate," hinges upon an economic production possibility curve. This curve is a visual representation of the trade-offs governments must make when deciding what interests to economically pursue. In layman's terms, this economic theory states that when limited resources are available, a government is forced to make a choice between interests. Often the interests between which governments must choose are interests of disarmament and development.

The United Nations has long been interested in the relationship between development and disarmament since the first proposals linking the two were introduced in the 1950's. These proposals mostly focused on encouraging the reduction of military spending so as to dedicate the monetary funds which were freed to development measures. In 1968, under the auspices of the UN, a panel released a statement which declared Disarmament, Development, and Security to be a "Triad of Peace."

During the first Special Session on Disarmament in 1978, numerous links were made between development and disarmament, and further proposals were initiated. The majority of these proposals centered around reductions in military spending that would create excess funds which could be placed into a global development fund. The UN was hesitant, however, to draw too strong of a link between the concepts of development and disarmament. This hesitancy ended in 1982, however, when the United Nations released the Thorsson study on disarmament and development. The report concluded that there was a negative relationship between the two concepts, and that Member States could pursue either an arms race, or a developed world, but not both. This declaration of a relationship has framed the United Nation's attitude towards disarmament and development in subsequent years, including the subsequent declaration in 1994 that the relationship between disarmament and development was not only symbiotic, but also growing in importance.

The 1987 Conference on Disarmament and Development had 40 members and a permanent agenda of 10 items. The Conference established several subsidiary bodies to continue to address disarmament questions within the framework of the permanent agenda, including committees on the prevention of an arms race in outer space, a radiological weapons ban, a comprehensive programme of disarmament and security assurances for non-nuclear-weapon States, and the Ad Hoc Committee on Chemical Weapons. In 1999

the Secretary-General created a Steering-Group to continue the mandate of the 1987 Conference. The Steering-Group focused on including NGOs and civil society in its efforts, and particularly noted the growing awareness by international financial institutions, such as the World Bank, of the relationship between development and disarmament.

In Millennium Development Goal (MDG) Eight, the UN pledged to develop a global partnership for development. The international community has become increasingly aware that without sustainable peace and security, sustainable development is nearly impossible. Likewise, a lack of focus on development and the corresponding poverty invites armed conflict and violence. At the 2005 Conference on Disarmament in Geneva the Secretary-General addressed the interplay between these realities, and further emphasized that the MDGs could not be achieved without a corresponding focus on peace and security.

In June 2006 42 states adopted the Geneva Declaration on Armed Violence and Development, which focuses on the connection between disarmament and development in a few specific countries. The Declaration centered around three principles: advocacy of the Declaration itself to increase awareness, measuring and researching the impact of armed violence on development, and developing effective programs to prevent armed violence. National Armed Violence Prevention Programmes have seen some success in Brazil and El Salvador; in 2007 the Programme focused on developing analogous strategies for Africa, Asia and Europe. Disarmament initiatives have also been supported at the regional level, such as the United Nations Regional Centre for Peace and Disarmament in Africa's (UNREC) involvement in projects such as the Small Arms and Light Weapons Register for Africa.

The current relationship between development and disarmament may not be as straightforward in reality as the theories and documents imply. Many economists have pointed out possible flaws in the economic production possibility curve, especially in its applicability to free market economies. Furthermore, questions have been raised regarding the potential undermining of sovereignty, and thus development, that vast reductions in military spending could cause. These issues have become more prevalent in recent years, as developing states often find themselves competing with more developed neighbors both in terms of military and economic strength.

The current state of international relations is markedly different than when the topic of a relationship between development and disarmament was first approached. The end of the cold war changed the scope of international military spending, and many countries have seen a reduction in military spending coinciding with this development. Simultaneously, modern terrorism has brought about new and different threats to human security, and the militaries of member states have been forced to change many of the ways in which they operate in response. It must be the goal of the United Nations to find a balance between disarmament and development that is able to foster not only development throughout the world, but also protections of human security.

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

- To what extent can a reduction in security spending lead to increased funding for development initiatives?
- What measures can the United Nations take to promote disarmament while also supporting state sovereignty and human security?
- Does the relationship between disarmament and development differ from state to state depending on the system of government or economy? How can solutions be tailored to account for these differences?
- What role might other NGO's play as it pertains to the issues of disarmament and development? What advantages or disadvantages might exist from such involvement?

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Additional Web Resources:

disarmament.un.org/cab/d&d.html - UN documents relating to Disarmament and Development

disarmament.un.org/education-new/resources.html - Disarmament resources

www.oecd.org/home/0,2987,en_2649_201185_1_1_1_1_1,00.html – Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

REGIONAL DISARMAMENT

Regional disarmament involves a wide variety of issues ranging from nuclear weapons, anti-personnel landmines, and illicit trade of small arms. Given global political diversity, disarmament at a regional level is ideal for several reasons. First and foremost, the needs of particular regions or sub-regions are generally similar. This works to the advantage of the concerned parties as there is less need to appease foreign non-indigenous powers in the local arena. Secondly, regional organizations better understand and can more effectively address the true arms control problems affecting the region without focusing on tangential issues. Finally, as conflicts are historically more inclined to occur on a regional level than for example an intercontinental level, the transparency and confidence building emphasized in regional arms control and disarmament has the potential to prevent conflicts.

Disarmament at the regional level has been an explicit goal of the United Nations since 1985. With the growing shortage of peacekeeping manpower, coupled with the increasingly complex operations and logistics associated with maintaining peace, the roles of regional organizations has become tantamount to the success of the perpetuation of peace. In the Agenda for Peace set forth by Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali in 1992, the importance of regional organizations in maintaining international peace and security was stressed. This role is not merely confined to negotiating peace once an impasse has been reached, but avoiding the conflict altogether. The United Nations has created Regional Centres for Peace and Disarmament in Latin America and the Caribbean, Africa, and Asia and the Pacific. These centers are designed specifically to assist in the implementation of the existing international disarmament accords at the regional and sub-regional levels. The Regional Disarmament Branch of the Office of Disarmament Affairs serves to facilitate effective and comprehensive arms control through such practices as the education of law makers on arms control laws and enforcement, thus preventing ineffective governance through legal loopholes.

Since the easing of tensions in the Cold War, the United Nations has begun to view the goals in the disarmament arena as genuinely achievable. Moreover, with cohesive international actions on a number of different topics within the arms control issue, the regional organizations have been given a guideline for action. The United Nations has diligently supported the efforts of regional organizations

in curtailing the proliferation of all varieties of armaments. Given the particular effectiveness of the Regional Centre for Peace and Disarmament in Asia and the Pacific, the United Nations has made special emphasis of education and regional meetings in what is generally known as the "Kathmandu Process." This process is neither an institution nor an agenda, but instead is a means of promoting and facilitating communication between states. The importance of maintaining the Regional Centres for Peace and Disarmament as effective support structures has become a self-evident priority, resulting in continued funding.

As a result of globalization and dramatic developments in computerized weapons technology, the international community is confronted with new challenges to disarmament. New non-state actors, such as terrorist groups, are neither party to disarmament treaties nor interested in disarmament. New weapons are more destructive and varied than in the past. Additionally, clandestine weapons programs have undermined the disarmament agenda and threaten to destabilize regions where the programs are conducted.

The United Nations must now explore methods of continued effectiveness for regional peace, cooperation, confidence building, transparency and legal consensus. The Regional Centers have proved effective, albeit geographically confined, and therefore the UN should strive to impress upon existing regional organizations the importance of general disarmament and the models previously set forth. The use of existing organizations would serve to allay the budgetary demands of setting up new organizations, while at the same time, utilizing a previously established route for dialogue. In the absence of any existing structures, the UN must urge Member States to reasonably address this need by creating appropriate Regional Centres, which must be prepared to confront the modern challenges of weapons development and non-state actors.

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

- What existing organizations adequately address regional disarmament, confidence building, and transparency?
- Would arms control on a regional level more adequately address the concerns of my Member State?
- Are the existing regional models sufficient to be applicable to all states? If not, how can the models set forth by the United Nations be sustained and applied to other regions?

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A/58/462 A/RES/62/50 A/RES/62/38 A/RES/61/80 A/RES/60/85 A/RES/58/39 A/RES/58/38 A/RES/44/117 A/27/277-S/24111 DC/3019 S/25859

Additional Web Resources:

www.armscontrol.org - Arms Control Association disarmament.un.org - Office for Disarmament Affairs www.globalsecurity.org - Global Security www.humansecuritygateway.info - Human Security Gateway



THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY SECOND COMMITTEE: ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

Purview of the Simulation: The Second Committee makes recommendations on means to improve the economic development of Member States and maintain the stability of the international financial and trade network. The economic issues considered by the Second Committee are distinguished from those considered by the Fifth Committee in that this Committee deals solely with financing the economic assistance to Member States, where as the Fifth

Committee address the budgetary issues within the UN System. The Second Committee does not address social issues that impact development; such issues are considered by the Third Committee. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 16.

Website: www.un.org/ga/61/second/second.shtml

INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

Industrial development has been a key topic of discussion in the United Nations for decades. However, until recently, the results have been far from positive. With the population explosion in recent decades, the need to foster industrial development has become greater than ever; according to the United Nations, over 700 million world citizens will enter the labour market between 2005 and 2010. This explosion of workers combined with the forces of globalization, international trade and capitalist markets has pushed industrial development to the forefront of UN overall development goals. The issue of industrial development cooperation is one of global importance, and the problem is not specific to a particular geographic location.

Traditionally, the UN has actively encouraged programmes and Conferences that foster industrial development. The cornerstone of UN efforts to promote development has been the adoption of International Development Strategies (IDS); there have been four IDS documents, each created at the beginning of a decade, starting in 1960. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have served as the IDS since their implementation in 2000. Additionally the UN has sponsored several major international Conferences on industrial development such as the Conference on Population, the Paris Declaration and the Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries.

In 1966 the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) was founded in order to assist developing member states with key services. Presently, UNIDO is at the heart of the current framework for industrial development cooperation. UNIDO operates under three themes which tie industrial development to overall development. The largest theme of the organization is the eradication of extreme poverty through productive activities. The second theme encompasses trade capacity building by bolstering technical infrastructure at the same time as the support services needed in export sectors. The third theme is sustainable energy development. The UN is dedicated to ensuring that industrial development comes hand in hand with environmental protection; this goal requires extensive cooperation on the part of business, governments and citizens.

What makes UNIDO an industrial cooperative agency is its focus on trade capacity building. The organization aims to transfer knowledge to developing states through training programs and data bases technology. Within the past year UNIDO has supported hundreds

of training sessions, including food inspection, fish tracking, tractor maintenance, marketing, information technology and even training of future trainers. This unprecedented cooperation from states all over the globe, other UN agencies and private investment has been attributed to directly improving industrial conditions in several states. Recent efforts concerning industrial development have resulted in the first positive economic outlook in developing states in nearly 30 years. However, many argue that this progress has occurred only in a limited number of states, creating an inflated and misleading statistical result.

Aside from UNIDO, the UN has also taken several other recent steps to invite further industrial cooperation. New partnerships have emerged such as UNIDO and the World Trade Organization (WTO), UNIDO and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) and UNIDO and the United Nations Development Organization (UNDP). These partnerships have been able to take advantage of expertise in industrial development in unprecedented ways. Also of note is the increasing importance of Special Unit for South-South Cooperation (SU/SSC) established within the UNDP. While the SU/SSC was established in 1978, the idea of a cooperative movement between countries facing the same conditions had been around since the mid-1960s. The SU/SSC has attributed recent success to two factors: a program called WIDE (Web of Information for Development) which aims to provide as much technological information as possible, and its emphasis on Public-Private Partnerships (PPP).

More important than what is currently in place is the question of how the UN will proceed. The fight for industrial development has seen a major paradigm shake up over recent decades, going from complete focus on economic forces to a more moderate mix of economic and intellectual forces. It is essential for knowledge to be more readily available if developing states are to succeed. Another part of the puzzle could depend on the success of UN reforms over the next few years, and whether the organization will be able to effectively deliver the services and cooperation which is necessary to help develop industrial areas in the face of many on-the-ground problems such as lack of infrastructure and potential and actual corruption. The UN needs to move forward with building more partnerships in order to reach more people in more ways than ever before, but how will that be done. In order to meet the challenges of the next generation, the international community must find a way to further promote industrial development cooperation swiftly and efficiently.

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

- What institutions or mechanisms exist to share vital information on industrial development? Are the existing mechanisms successful? What alternatives could be implemented?
- What role can be played by the international community in industrial development? How can the UN and other international institutions promote industrial development?
- What role does industrial development play in overall development? To what extent should international development initiatives focus on industrial development?

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A/RES/61/215

A/RES/51/170

A/RES/49/108

A/RES/46/151

A/RES/S-18/3

A/RES/45/199

World Industrial Report for 2005

UNIDO Annual Report 2007

Additional Web Resources:

www.unido.org – UN Industrial Development Organization www.undp.org – United Nations Development Programme www.tcpc1.undp.org – Special Unit for South-South Cooperation www.unctad.org – UN Conference on Trade and Development www.worldbank.org – World Bank www.wto.org – World Trade Organization

EXTERNAL DEBT CRISIS AND DEVELOPMENT

The external debt crisis traces its origins to the oil crisis of 1973-74, when international banks awash with "petrodollars" from oil-producing states made numerous substantial loans to developing countries. Many of these LDCs at the time had economies which were heavily dependent on a single export commodity; when global commodity prices dropped significantly as part of the 1981-82 global

recession, these countries found themselves unable to pay back their loans on schedule. This marked the beginning of the external debt crisis that confronts the majority of Member States. Since 1990, the total external debt stock of developing countries has risen from \$1.3 trillion \$2.85 trillion in 2006. In response, the General Assembly Second Committee has frequently addressed the topic of the external debt crisis and its impact on development during past sessions.

The current external debt crisis stems from a variety of causes. During the Cold War many loans were made to developing countries with the hopes of winning those non-aligned countries to one side of the ideological conflict. Because these loans were motivated by strategic concerns, often the recipients were corrupt or had no real prospect of repayment. Critics contend that the lending policies of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank continue to reward countries that are pro-Western by making loans without stipulations for democratization or human rights advances. The IMF and World Bank have additionally been criticized for tying aid to conditionalities which often require the aid recipient to devalue its currency and increase taxes in the face of a weak economy. This confluence of factors makes it often unlikely or impossible for impoverished countries to repay debt partially or in full.

Guided by the framework of Goal 8 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the issue of external debt relief has been addressed by a number of UN initiatives.

The Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative was proposed by the World Bank and the IMF in 1996 to reduce lesser developed countries' (LDC) external debt to manageable levels. Additionally, the 2002 Monterrey Consensus addressed the topic of external debt, recognizing that debt relief was an important measure for freeing country resources to be used for development purposes. In stressing mutual accountability between creditor and debtor countries, the Consensus recommended that efforts be continued under the London and Paris Club arrangements. The Monterrey Consensus also called for the creation of a framework to mobilize development financing while guarding against the accumulation of unsustainable debt. In response, the Paris Club introduced the Evian Approach in 2003 to address the debt burden of non-HIPC countries. The Debt Sustainability Framework (DSF) was subsequently introduced in April 2005 to address this challenge. At the September 2005 Millennium+5 Summit, deliberations over debt relief figured prominently, resulting in the affirmation of commitment to long-term sustainable debt financing.

In 2005, the G8 proposed the creation of the Multinational Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) to further the MDGs. 67 countries are estimated to require debt cancellation in order to attain the MDGs by 2015. The HIPC Initiative identifies 41 countries as currently eligible to receive debt relief; as of December 2007, 23 of the 41 HIPCs had reached completion point. The debt relief granted under HIPC and the related Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) has totaled \$110 billion. Consequently, debt service as a percentage of exports for the 23 HIPCs has decreased considerably, from 16.6% in 2000 to 5% in 2007, while poverty reduction expenditures as a share of GDP have simultaneously risen.

While the debt relief accorded under the HIPC and related initiatives has been substantial, some continue to criticize the policy conditionalities attached to debt relief, arguing that outright full

debt cancellation for LDCs is necessary instead. Since Monterrey, advocates for debt cancellation have also introduced the concept of "odious" or illegitimate debt, which argues that the citizens of LDCs should not be held responsible for the debts accrued by previous undemocratic political regimes. As the debate continues, econometric studies show that over the past six years, developing countries' total public debt-to-GDP ratio decreased by approximately 5 percentage points. However, this net improvement has been largely driven by a small number of large countries. Furthermore, UNCTAD reports that the total external debt of developing countries and reserves continued to increase at a record rate during 2007. It has been observed that half of HIPC countries reaching completion point have already slipped back into unsustainability. Since 2000, the composition of external debt and debtors has also shifted; as the amount of long-term external debt owed to official creditors has decreased, the share of total longterm external debt owed to private creditors has increased from 59 to 71% in 2006. A number of countries are now facing aggressive litigation stemming from debt collection by commercial creditors and "vulture funds;" these efforts have the potential to eviscerate the impact of debt cancellation on poverty reduction in affected countries.

The international community has recognized that solving the external debt crisis is essential to the achievement of sustainable development and the MDGs. Several countries have proposed the creation of an international debt commission to oversee a multilateral approach towards resolving external debt problems as well as the establishment of independent debt arbitration and debt resolution mechanisms. Preparations are currently underway for the Follow-up International Conference on Financing for Development to Review the Implementation of the Monterrey Consensus in Doha in late 2008, where issues pertaining to external debt crisis will again be on the agenda.

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

- Have the current mechanisms to address the external debt crisis been successful?
- What should the international community's response be to the growing role of private creditors in the external debt crisis? Bearing in mind the past efforts and actions taken, what solutions can the Second Committee offer to address the topic of long-term debt sustainability?
- How could future debt relief initiatives be integrated with other forms of development aid and financial assistance?
- What common interests exist between debtor and creditor states, and how can the Second Committee build off of such common aims to promote future debt relief initiatives?

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Sixty-second General Assembly Second Committee, "Developing countries need bolder, more innovative solutions to help them out of external debt trap, Second Committee told," 15 October 2007, www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2007/gaef3181.doc.htm.

Sixty-second General Assembly Plenary, "Increased, reliable aid flows, debt relief, trade protectionism among issues, as General Assembly continues high-level dialogue on development financing," 24 October 2007, www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2007/ga10646.doc.htm.

Summary of General Assembly Review Session 3, Chapter V of the Monterrey Consensus, "External debt," 10-11 March 2008, www. un.org/esa/ffd/doha/chapter5/ReviewSessionChapterV_Summary. pdf.

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, Note by the UNCTAD Secretariat. "Review session on chapter V of the Monterrey Consensus: External Debt," 10-11 March 2008, www. unctad.org/sections/gds debt/docs//gds ddfb 002 en.pdf.

UN Financing for Development Review Session on Chapter E of the Monterrey Consensus, Background Paper on "External Debt," 7 March 2008.

UN Documents:

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A/RES/60/1

A/RES/59/223

A/RES/58/203

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Monterrey Consensus

Additional Web Resources:

www.clubdeparis.org/

www.imf.org/external/np/exr/facts/hipc.htm -- Debt Relief Under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative Factsheet www.un.org/esa/ffd/index.htm -- Financing for Development,

developments leading up to Doha

www.globalpolicy.org/socecon/develop/debt/index.htm -- Global Policy Forum

www.jedh.org -- The Joint External Debt Hub

www.worldbank.org/hipc/ -- World Bank main site for the HIPC initiative



THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY THIRD COMMITTEE: SOCIAL, HUMANITARIAN, AND CULTURAL

Purview of the Simulation: While the Committee's areas of concern and its work often overlap with other United Nations organs, the Third Committee focuses its discussions on social, humanitarian and cultural concerns that arise in the General Assembly. The Third Committee discusses, recognizes reports of, and submits recommendations to the General Assembly in coordination with other United Nations organs, such as the

Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 16.

Website: www.un.org/ga/61/third/third.shtml

Elimination of all Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief

The international community has long been aware of the problems of discrimination based on race, gender and religion. The elimination of violence, discrimination and intolerance with respect to religion is of increasing concern to the international community and discrimination based on religion or belief is now considered a separate, unique issue. An acceptable worldwide standard of human rights cannot be achieved without an international consensus on the importance of religious freedom.

The subject of religious tolerance was first given official consideration in the United Nations on 10 December 1948, when the General Assembly adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Declaration explicitly entitled citizens of all Member States to all the rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration, including "freedom of thought, conscience and religion." This prompted the Sub-Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights, four years later, to add the area of religious discrimination to its series of studies on discrimination in various fields. The Declaration was affirmed and expanded in 1966 by Article 18 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), which further forbade discrimination on the basis of religion.

In 1981 the General Assembly adopted the Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief, calling on Member States to enact legislation that would prevent and eliminate discrimination on the grounds of religion. The Declaration was intended to bolster the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. To help reinforce the 1981 Declaration, in 1986 the Commission on Human Rights appointed a Special Rapporteur on Religious Intolerance, to report to the Commission annually on the mandate to implement the Declaration.

In recent years, UN resolutions adopted on the subject of the elimination of religious intolerance have focused on the following factors: 1) the importance of education in the promotion of religious tolerance, which requires the acceptance by the Member States of diversity with regard to religious expressions; 2) the elimination discriminatory registration procedures which limit the right to freedom of religion; 3) the scaling back of limitations placed on the circulation of religious publications and the construction of places of worship; 4) deliberate destruction of religious relics and monuments; and, most importantly, 5) religious extremism, which affects the rights

of individuals and groups based on religion or belief, specifically those groups that are more vulnerable to violence, such as women and religious minorities.

In 2001 the World Conference against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance was held in Durban, South Africa. The resulting declaration included recognition of the need to address discrimination based on religion and offered a framework through which to eliminate discrimination. Unfortunately, the Programme of Action outlined in the Durban Declaration has not been fulfilled or universally ratified by Member States.

Planning is currently underway for a Review Conference on the implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action, to take place in 2009. The Review Conference will assess the implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action among Member States and explore further avenues toward eliminating all forms of intolerance and discrimination, including those based on religion or belief. Moving forward, the United Nations must continue to actively promote religious freedom in order to ensure universal human rights are realized.

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

- What can the United Nations do to eliminate discrimination based on religion of belief?
- What is the role of the international community in encouraging education standards that promote understanding instead of intolerance?
- How is the freedom of religion or belief protected for religious minorities in your country?
- How can your country help others achieve the goals set forth in the Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief?
- What effective education measures can be taken to guarantee the promotion of tolerance and encourage respect for religious diversity?

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A/62/108

A/CONF.189/12

A/HRC/2/3

A/RES/62/157

A/RES/62/154

A/RES/61/161

A/RES/50/183

Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
Universal Declaration of Human Rights
World Conference against Racism, Racial Discrimination,
Xenophobia and Related Intolerance Declaration

Additional Web Resources:

www.tandemproject.com – The Tandem Project www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/religion/index.htm - Special Rapporteur on Freedom of Religion or Belief

HUMAN RIGHTS AND THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

Following World War II, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) comprised the first international legal effort that limited the action of states and championed basic rights and freedoms on a global scale. The document specifically declares individual rights in areas such as freedom of religion and belief, rights to life, liberty, and security of the person, the right not to be subject to cruel, inhuman, and degrading punishment, and the right to an effective remedy to violations of human rights in national tribunals. Human rights have been significantly expanded in the 20th and 21st centuries through groundbreaking United Nations resolutions as well as the creation of key institutions such as the Human Rights Council.

A number of UN bodies and organs deal with the issue of human rights, primarily the High Commissioner for Human Rights and the Human Rights Council. There are also certain treaty-based bodies whose purview encompasses human rights issues (including the

Human Rights Committee; the Committee on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights; Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination; the Committee Against Torture; and Subcommittee on the Prevention of Torture; the Committee on the Rights of the Child; the Committee on Migrant Workers; and the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities). Some regional bodies also deal with human rights issues, such as the European Court of Human Rights and the Inter-American Court of Human Rights.

Historically, the Third Committee's discussion has focused on such issues as the advancement of women, the protection of children, indigenous issues, the treatment of refugees, the promotion of fundamental freedoms through the elimination of racism and racial discrimination, and the promotion of the right to self-determination. Through the work of the Third Committee and other UN organs, significant gains have been made such as the suspension of executions, release of detainees and medical treatment for prisoners, as well as changes in the domestic legal system of States which are parties to human rights instruments such as the UDHR. Some states, however, have come to view the rapid expanse of human rights and their administration as impositions on the sovereign right to establish independent, national legal systems.

The administration of human rights in the context of justice presents many challenges. There is a serious need for greater technical assistance to strengthen infrastructure in countries that often look to UN programs for such support. Recently the Third Committee has focused on drawing particular attention to the issues of incarceration, arrest, investigation, and treatment before tribunals as it relates to the rights of women and children. Administration of justice in post-conflict situations and the human rights of migrants have also attracted significant attention due to some of the problems that remain in those fields. In the wake of conflict, often the institutions necessary for adequate protection of human rights are not present, increasing the likelihood that those rights might be violated in the administration of justice. Migrant workers similarly have fewer protections due to lack of political representation and sometimes questionable legal status.

Past resolutions have urged States to provide training, including gender-sensitivity training, in the field of juvenile justice to all law and social work professionals. Several resolutions have addressed human rights abuses in particular regions, such as those suffered by migrant workers in Afghanistan, the occupied Palestinian territories, Myanmar, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. In March 2008 the committee addressed devoting "particular attention to the issue of women in prison, including the children of women in prison, with a view to identifying and addressing the gender-specific aspects and challenges related to this problem." Yet another resolution focused the Third Committee's discussion on reform in the juvenile justice system, strengthening structures for the maintaining justice in post-conflict situations, and development of further training, resources, and common indicators as it relates to the administration of justice. Additionally, the Committee has addressed the gender specific challenges inherent in the administration of justice, including providing gender-sensitivity training at all levels.

In a 2007 report, the Secretary-General provided information on practical measures taken and planned activities to assist countries in strengthening their systems of administration of justice in juvenile justice, including in post-conflict situations, and gave a range of

examples of how assistance is delivered under a variety of conditions. The need for technical assistance and training of officials, as well as the various needs to focus on the concerns of rights of women and children in prison, the establishment of justice in post-conflict situations, and child justice reform will be important and often competing goals in current and future resolutions.

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

- What resources can be drawn upon to advance reform in the juvenile justice system among States?
- What tools are needed to address human rights violations for women in prison and their children? How can these tools be provided to States?
- What current monitoring mechanisms have been successful? Are there other methods of monitoring human rights abuses in the justice context? What role should the Human Rights Council play in this process?
- What can be done to encourage Member States to dedicate the financial resources necessary to provide technical and training assistance to improve the establishment of justice in States?

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Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Additional Web Resources:

www.hrw.org – Human Rights Watch www.ohchr.org – Office of the High Commission for Human Rights www.un.org/rights/morerights.htm – United Nations Human Rights



THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY FOURTH COMMITTEE: SPECIAL POLITICAL AND DECOLONIZATION

Purview of the Simulation: The Fourth Committee deals with a variety of political issues on most topics including the political components of decolonization and economic and social issues (excluding disarmament). As the Committee's focus is strictly political, its recommendations should be broad in nature. The Fourth Committee is also charged with the coordination and operational aspects of UN peacekeeping missions. This is an important distinction from the Security Council, which develops peacekeeping missions and objectives. The Fourth Committee deals solely with

the Department of Peacekeeping Operations' procedures and policies. Similarly, while the Committee may discuss the political problems in funding Palestine, it cannot discuss the details of how to properly fund Palestine, as would the Second Committee. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 16.

Website: www.un.org/ga/61/fourth/fourth.shtml

REPORT OF THE SPECIAL COMMITTEE TO INVESTIGATE ISRAELI PRACTICES AFFECTING THE HUMAN RIGHTS OF THE PALESTINIAN PEOPLE AND OTHER ARABS OF THE OCCUPIED TERRITORIES

The situation of the Palestinian and Arab peoples residing in the Gaza Strip, the West Bank, East Jerusalem, and the Golan Heights has been of concern to the United Nations since the beginning of Israel's occupation of the respective territories. On 19 December 1968 the General Assembly created the Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the human rights of the Palestinian People and other Arabs of the Occupied Territories. The General Assembly requested that the Government of Israel cooperate with the Special Committee; the Committee, in turn, was directed to report its findings to the Secretary-General as soon as possible and whenever needed thereafter.

The Human Rights Council has condemned Israel's recurring military attacks and incursions on the occupied territories, most recently those occurring in the occupied Gaza Strip. These attacks have resulted in casualties of over 125 lives and hundreds of injuries among Palestinian civilians. Specific concerns about the human rights of the Palestinian people were enumerated in the 6 June 2008 report of the High Commissioner for Human Rights.

The recent closing of the Gaza Strip is of particular concern. With the exception of humanitarian imports, a small number of international visitors, patients requiring emergency care, and Palestinians who receive exit permits from Israel, Gaza has been closed off from the outside world. There have been significant fuel shortages, which have been exacerbated by the restriction of fuel shipments through the Nahal Oz crossing point, the only one through which Gaza is permitted to receive fuel. Shipments were diminished following an attack by Palestinian militants on the crossing point which killed two Israeli civilians. Israel has permitted Gaza's power plant to receive 2.2 million liters of industrial diesel per week, allowing the plant to produce electricity at two thirds of its normal capacity. However, The Israeli Defense Forces (IDF) and Palestinians Authority officials allege that Hamas is seizing half of the quantity of fuel transferred each week for its own military purposes.

As a result of these conditions, there has been a significant decrease in standard of living among the population of the Gaza strip. A wide range of human rights, specifically those pertaining to economic, social, and cultural freedoms but additionally to life, human dignity, and freedom of movement, have been curtailed. Water and sewage networks have been adversely affected by the absence of space parts and equipment. Up to 70,000 cubic meters of partially treated and untreated sewage are being dumped into the sea on a daily basis. Other waste has reached the aquifer, polluting the drinking water. The cost of basic food in Gaza has increased by 31 percent since June 2007. According to a joint agency report issued 6 March 2008, 80 percent of Gaza's population is relying on food aid assistance.

The closure has also impacted patient access to health care outside the Gaza Strip; in March four patients died after being denied permits to cross Erez, including a 12 month old baby girl with liver disease. Israeli human rights organizations have condemned the security services for the lengthy procedures relating to permits for cancer and heart patients crossing into Israel for treatment, or crossing through Israel to be treated in Jordan or Egypt. Fuel shortages have also paralyzed Gaza's transportation system, and absenteeism in schools ranges from 20 - 50 percent as a result. Aid agencies have reported that political pressure from the American-European community as well as Israel not to collaborate with Hamas officials in Gaza has hampered their effectiveness.

According to the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 221 Palestinians were killed between 25 February and 25 April 2008 as a result of the international armed Israeli-Palestinian conflict in the Occupied Palestinian Territory. During the same period, 10 Israeli civilians were killed and approximately 24 injured. The Israeli Air Force has conducted approximately 75 air strikes on different targets within the Gaza strip during the same period, and it is estimated that Palestinian militants have fired around 640 mortar shells and 450 rockets from Gaza into southern Israel, specifically into the cities of Sderot and Ashkelon, most of which were indiscriminate. There have been at least 30 IDF incursions into Gaza, and 348 into various locations within the West Bank.

The High Commissioner's report concludes that the human rights situation in the Occupied Palestinian Territory remains grave, particularly in Gaza, and that the establishment of accountability mechanisms has not been implemented.

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

- What are some means of addressing Israel's security concerns while allowing greater mobility for residents of the Occupied Territories?
- What accountability measures can the Committee suggest or implement that would monitor and deter human rights violations?
- How can the international community help support the NGOs currently monitoring the situation to continue to improve the human rights conditions in the Occupied Territories?
- To what extent can the international community improve the human rights condition of the Palestinian people while respecting Israel's sovereignty?

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A/RES/56/59

A/RES/54/77

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Additional Web Resources:

www.palestinefacts.org – Palestine Facts
www.pchrgaza.org – Palestinian Centre for Human Rights
www.unhchr.ch/html/menu2/7/a/moatsc.htm - Special Committee to
Investigate Israeli Practices affecting the Human Rights of the
Palestinian People and Other Arabs of the Occupied Territories

Assistance in Mine Action

A landmine is an explosive device designed to be placed on or in the ground to explode when triggered by an operator or the proximity of a vehicle, person, or animal. The two most commonly used landmines today are Anti-Personnel Landmines (APLs) and Anti-Tank Mines (ATMs). Assistance in mine action refers not only to removing anti-personnel mines, but also to danger prevention and the advocacy for a mine free world. Mine action is about people and societies. The program is not exclusive to anti-personnel mines; unexploded ordnance--military devices such as bombs, mortars, grenades, and missiles that fail to explode on contact--also known as munitions and explosives of concern (MECs), are also included. The five pillars of mine action are clearance and marking of hazardous areas, mine risk education, victim assistance, destruction of stockpiled landmines, and advocacy for international agreements related to landmines and explosive remnants of war.

The purpose of mines was originally to maim, rather than kill, enemies. This was based on the assumption that more resources are expended on a wounded man than a dead one. When parties in conflict realized that landmines could cripple the movement and development of a population, minefields were laid to achieve this end. During conflict, when mines are laid, identification of mines is neglected. The use of landmines is widely considered to be unethical when used in the area-denial role, because their victims are commonly civilians, who are often killed or maimed long after a war has ended. Although efforts to curtail landmines have been successful, much remains to be done as the majority of the over 15,000 annual casualties of landmines are civilians. In the wake of conflict, communities are confronted with the sobering reality that while landmines are inexpensive to put into an area, they are much more costly to remove. States emerging from conflict rarely have the resources to address the problem systematically, so often the poorest regions are the last to receive the time and resources necessary for mine removal.

The landmine crisis presents itself throughout the world, and in many cases, governments do not have the resources to provide information or issue warnings regarding mine threats, limiting the ability for civilian populations to recover from conflict. Identification is an expensive process and mine removal is very time consuming. This prevents LDCs (Lesser Developed Countries) from taking advantage of arable land, for fear it may be peppered with mines. This is just one of a host of developmental issues presented by the fear of mines and unexploded ordnance, such as the toll on communities taken by those injured by landmines and incapacitated or sent away for treatment, the diversion of health care resources to landmine victims from other much needed services, the deterrent to education due to fear of travel, and the general impact on transportation and the flow of commodities and services.

Gravely alarmed by the increasing presence of mines and MECs resulting from armed conflicts, the United Nations passed a resolution in 1993 calling on the Secretary-General to submit to the General Assembly "a comprehensive report on the problems caused by the increasing presence of mines and other unexploded devices resulting from armed conflicts and on the manner in which the United Nations contribution to the solution of problems relating to mine clearance could be strengthened." The growing proliferation and indiscriminate use of anti-personnel landmines around the world has been a particular focus of attention.

In 1995, a review of the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons (so-called Inhumane Weapons Convention or CCW) produced the Amended Protocol II, strengthening restrictions on certain uses, types, and transfers of anti-personnel landmines. This Protocol, however, was perceived by some to be an inadequate response to a serious humanitarian crisis. Therefore, a group of like-minded States negotiated an agreement for a total ban on all anti-personnel landmines, the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-personnel Mines on Their Destruction, also known as the Mine Ban Treaty or Ottawa Treaty. The Treaty opened for signature on 3 December 1997 in Ottawa, Canada. The entry into force of the Convention in 1999 has spurred the campaign to reduce needless human suffering by increasing resources for mine clearance, mine awareness and mine assistance. It has been proposed that the Conference on Disarmament negotiate a ban on mines transfers, a measure which a number of States that have not adhered to the Mine-Ban Convention would find acceptable.

A decade after the international community committed itself to elimination of anti-personnel mines, the United Nations can celebrate a number of collective achievements: declining casualties from mines and explosive remnants of war; effective implementation of many key aspects of a strengthened international legal framework; explicit recognition of the importance of gender equality and the rights of persons with disabilities across the mine action sector; and a well-coordinated approach among the many United Nations system partners engaged in mine action on the ground and in New York. UNICEF provides assistance to children affected by landmines; the World Food Program initiates the clearance of access routes for food distribution; the World Health Organization plays a significant role in the treatment and rehabilitation of mine victims, as well as a host of other UN programs included in the mine assistance portfolio. Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have also had a significant role; more than half of all mine assistance programs are carried out by nongovernmental programs. The coherent inter-agency approach taken by this sector serves as a model for other cross-cutting issues addressed by the United Nations system.

Although the Mine Ban Treaty has been the most significant step toward addressing the global landmine problem, the problem has not been entirely alleviated. This is made evident by the Landmine Monitor, which is updated every year on the progress of the Mine Ban Treaty and details implementation problems. There are several states that have not signed the Mine Ban Treaty, and some signatories have been unable or unwilling to pursue the programs necessary to comply with the Mine Ban Treaty. Other state signatories still use landmines for defense purposes, which is a direct violation of the treaty. Furthermore, efforts at clearance are complicated by the fact that many mines are not confined to a delimited mine zone, but are scattered, making detection and removal more costly and dangerous.

The major problem confronted by mine assistance programs is funding. The funding gap for next year's mine action is estimated at \$365 million. As Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon has pointed out, mine action is all about the individual; the international community can create treaties but individual states must be willing to devote the resources necessary to clear mine fields and eradicate the threat of mines and unexploded ordnance.

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

- What can the UN do to encourage compliance with the Mine Ban Treaty by its signatories?
- How can current Mine Assistance programs be bolstered to help subsidize the cost presented in the identification and removal of landmines and unexploded ordnance?
- What role should technology play in increasing the availability and decreasing the cost of demining equipment?
- What alternatives can the international community support in place of the use of landmines to limit the number of causalities each year?

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A/RES/60/80

A/RES/58/53

GA/SPD/301- Press Release

SC/7926-Press Release

Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines and on Their Destruction

Additional Web Resources:

www.icbl.org/lm - Landmine Monitor www.mineaction.org - Electronic Mine Information Network