American Model United Nations International Conference
Issues at AMUN
Representative Handbook

Introduction

The *Issues at AMUN* Handbook is published to assist Representatives in their preparations for the American Model United Nations (AMUN) Conference. When used in conjunction with 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 2008 Conference. These are intended as a guideline and basis for Representatives' further research of the issues involved. In keeping with this, each overview includes a bibliography to guide Representatives to appropriate sources of additional information.

The overviews give a brief background 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.

In addition, *Chapter I - The United Nations* provides 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, the chapter focuses on 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 these periodical sources are available to AMUN participants on-line. Feel free to visit AMUN's homepage at **www.amun.org** for a full list of recommended research links.

Three on-line sources of particular note are the United Nations homepage, **www.un.org**, the *New York Times* on-line, **www.nytimes.com**, and the *UNWire*, **www.smartbrief.com/un_wire/**. *UNWire* is a daily briefing on UN issues provided by the United Nations Foundation; note that *UNWire* articles published prior to August, 2004 can be found at **www.unwire.org**. These sources are heavily referenced throughout the issues briefings in this handbook. Additionally, links to all documents cited in the *Issues* bibliographies that are available on-line can be found on the AMUN homepage. For a more thorough discussion of on-line research sources, see "Utilizing the Internet" on page 11 of the *AMUN Rules and Procedures* Handbook.

The Purview of Each Simulation

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

An excellent example of this shifting focus is the Palestinian question. The First Committee might discuss aspects of the situation dealing with weapons shipments. At the same time, the Second Committee may discuss a variety of financing initiatives to help the Palestinian Authority. Similarly, the Third Committee, or in some cases ECOSOC, might discuss the social and humanitarian considerations that arise from Israeli occupation of various territories. And the Fourth Committee may discuss the various political implications of the question of Palestine, possibly including independence issues if this is specifically encompassed in one of that Committee's topics. Only the GA Plenary Session would discuss the problem in its entirety, including the possible creation of a legal Palestinian State or member status for that State. The Security Council would deal with any 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 One
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 provides a brief background on the UN system and on some of the issues it faces today.

Origins of the United Nations

The United Nations came into existence on 24 October 1945. On that day, the United Nations Charter became operative, having been signed by the fifty-one original members. The concept of all nations uniting together in one organization designed to settle disputes peacefully was born of the desire of civilized nations to avoid the horrors 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 resorting to the threat or use of force. It should be recognized that the United Nations is not a world government, nor does it "legislate." Rather, the actions of the United Nations, as evidenced by resolutions passed by its bodies, have a strong moral persuasive effect. The Member States frequently find it within their own best interests to follow UN recommendations.

Structure of the United Nations

The United Nations has six primary bodies:

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

The Security Council (SC): The Security Council is charged with the primary responsibility for maintaining international peace and security. It has the power to employ United Nations forces and direct action against threats to the peace. Fifteen members sit on the Security Council, including the five Permanent Members (China, France, Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and the United States) and 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 functional, or "subject-matter," commissions, along with a sizeable system of committees and expert bodies. ECOSOC is composed of fifty-four Member States, elected by the GA for three-year terms.

Trusteeship Council (TC): In 1945 there were eleven Trust Territories, which were regions without their own governments. These eleven regions were placed under the TC, which helped them prepare for and achieve independence. With the admittance of Palau as a UN Member State in 1994, the TC has now completed its original mandate. 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 the General Assembly endorsed four regional groups: the Latin American group, the Asian and African group, the Western European and Others group, and the Eastern European group. 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 since the end of the Cold War, 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, in an 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 allowing them to act as a cohesive group. The effectiveness of any given bloc in exerting its positions in the General Assembly often depends 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 over time. 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 more recently formed bloc 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 "interested party" to another bloc caucus in an effort to achieve a consensus.

CHAPTER TWO
THE SECURITY COUNCIL

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.

ISSUES IN AFRICA

THE SITUATION IN ETHIOPIA AND ERITREA

The future of the United Nations Mission in Eritrea and Ethiopia (UNMEE) remains uncertain as the border conflict between the two nations continues to simmer. UNMEE was deployed in 2000 as part of a peace agreement that ended the two-year conflict between the countries over a border dispute. As part of the agreement, an international boundary commission ruled on disputed segments of the border, including the contested town of Badme. The commission awarded the town to Eritrea in 2002, but Ethiopia disputed the ruling. In October 2005, the Eritrean government restricted UNMEE helicopter flights, prohibited night patrols, and ended demining operations, leading to an inability for UNMEE to monitor troop movements. In December 2005, the government ordered all American, Canadian, and European peace keepers to leave the country. The Security Council called for Ethiopia to respect the boundary commission's ruling and for Eritrea to remove its restrictions on the peace keepers, but neither side has been willing to cooperate.

In October 2006, over 2,000 Eritrean Defense Forces (EDF) troops entered the Temporary Security Zone (TSZ) with tanks, artillery, and anti-air guns. Ethiopia also increased its military presence near the southern boundary of the Zone, deploying around 1,200 troops. In March 2007, Ethiopia contacted UNMEE, informing them of the presence of additional tanks and artillery in the region. The situation continued for the most part unchanged with Eritrean troops and equipment continuing to move into the TSZ and Ethiopian troops continuing to fortify positions. This continued until November 2007 when forces on both sides reached their peak and remain unchanged.

This has resulted in several shooting incidents particularly in the southern boundary where troops literally face one another. Eritrea has continued to restrict UNMEE fuel shipments, which has forced the temporary withdrawal of UNMEE forces from Eritrean territory. Recent terrorist attacks in Ethiopia have also exacerbated the situation, with Ethiopia alleging Eritrean involvement. Additionally, events in Somalia continue to act as a proxy battle between the Ethiopian forces and the Eritrean backed Union of Islamic Courts.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How are the restrictions on UNMEE affecting its mission?
- Do the changing conditions in the region require a change in the objectives of UNMEE?
- What would a renewal of violence mean for the region and for UNMEE?
- Can the mission succeed without the support of the parties?

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The Situation in Somalia

Following the 1991 collapse of Mohamed Siad Barre's government, the United Nations sent a force of 35,000 troops in Operation Restore Hope. The mission initially made progress but in 1994 American and European troops within the force began to withdrawl. The UN Mission to Somolia, UNOSOM II, ended with the withdrawal of forces in 1995. Between 1995 and 2000 the situation deteriorated with the capital of Mogadishu divided between two rival warlords.

In 2000, the situation began to look more promising, Abdikassim Salat Hassan was elected transitional president by various clan leaders in Djibouti. In 2002, the transitional government signed a cease-fire with 21 clan-based factions at talks sponsored by the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD). In 2004, the Transitional Federal Government (TFG) emerged from a two year peace process led by IGAD and the government of Kenya. However, in 2006 the apparent political progress began to erode. Militias loyal to the Union of Islamic Courts (UIC) took control of Mogadishu and southern Somalia, the Security Council, in S/RES/1725 (2006), authorized IGAD and the African Union (AU) to send a peacekeeping force to help prop up the transitional government. Prior to the deployment of African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM), Ethiopian forces helped engage the UIC militias, driving them out of Mogadishu with the assistance of the AMISOM. The UIC and affiliated anti-government groups have continued to fight with TFG and Ethiopian troops, with late 2007 and early 2008 being marked by repeated and coordinated anti-government attacks from within Mogadishu, and Ethiopian forces responding by using mortar and field gun attacks on heavily populated areas from which those attacks are being launched. In light of these developments the African Union Peace and Security Council has requested the transition of peacekeeping from AMISOM to United Nations forces, acknowledged in S/RES/1801. The security situation in Somalia still remains volatile, with little ability of the TFG to enforce law, and no navy, acts of international piracy have risen greatly. A boarder dispute between the self-governing areas of Somaliland and Puntland remains of concern, as well as the Hiraan and Juba districts becoming a possible safe haven for international terrorists.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Why has the Somali civil war persisted for so long despite significant international attention?
- What might differentiate a new UN peacekeeping mission from AMISOM?
- How might neighbor state involvement further complicate the situation?

- What might be done to help alleviate Somalia's humanitarian crisis?

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The Situation in Sudan

In 2003, a rebellion broke out in the Darfur region of Sudan, separate from the civil war that was already engulfing the country. While the north-south civil war ended in 2005 with the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), conflict remained in Darfur. Rebels called the Sudan Liberation Army (SLA), attacked government and military facilities throughout Darfur. This lead to retaliation by local militias known as, Janjaweed, against tribes supporting the SLA. The Janjaweed are backed by the Sudanese government and have often worked in coordination with the Sudanese Armed Forces (SAF). The conflict in Darfur has resulted in the deaths of an estimated 300,000 and displacement of 2.5 million people. While several Member States and NGO's declared the events that occurred in Darfur genocide, the United Nations has not declared the fighting in Darfur genocide.

Resolution 1769 (2007) established the United Nations-African Union Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID). The UNAMID was created to assist the African Union force already in place (AMIS), and to respect the sovereign wishes of the government of Sudan by placing a peacekeeping force primarily composed of African peace keepers in the region. The UN assumed full authority in January 2008. UNAMID's mission in Darfur is to monitor the humanitarian, and security situation and the implementation of the Darfur Peace Agreement. Despite progress made in most areas in Darfur, violence still continues, especially in western Darfur. SAF, and allied groups have continued to launch attacks inside Darfur. Rebel groups from Chad have also hindered the security situation in western Darfur. Attacks by the SAF, and allied militias have targeted

former opposition strongholds, and have included what appears to be deliberate targeting of civilians. Inter-tribal fighting and rebel group attacks on government forces have also continued in the area. Targeting of humanitarian workers in the area is also a concern; World Food Programme trucks have been hijacked are many drivers missing or have been killed. Humanitarian aid has been unable to reach some areas which is effecting nearly 160,000 displaced people.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
   • What changes should be made in the mission of UNAMID? How should the Security Council respond to the government of Sudan with respect to its national sovereignty for its actions in Darfur?
   • What has caused the violence in Sudan to continue to escalate despite repeated bouts of diplomacy? How might these factors be overcome?
   • Does your government consider the situation in Darfur genocide? If so, how does this affect how the Security Council should react?

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The Situation in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

In 1997 the invasion of Rwandan forces to flush out Hutu militias sparked five years of conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (formerly Zaire). The Alliance of Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Congo-Zaire (AFDL) aided by Rwandan and Ugandan forces toppled the government of Mobutu Sese Seko and installed the leader of AFDL, Laurant Kabila, as president. Shortly thereafter the newly appointed president fell out of favor with the Rwandan and Ugandan forces when he turned against his former allies demanding the withdrawal of their troops from DRC. The Rally for Congolese Democracy (RDC) and the Movement for the Liberation of Congo, rebel groups backed by Rwandan and Ugandan forces, launched an insurgency within the DRC to overthrow the government of Laurant Kabila. However the governments of Namibia, Zimbabwe, and Angola decided to send troops to aid the government of Laurant Kabila escalating the conflict further. In July of 1999 the Lusaka Ceasefire Agreement was signed calling for the immediate halt of military operations by all six nations and the MLC. The Security Council dispatched 90 liaisons to monitor the ceasefire in August. The ceasefire was repeatedly breached thus prompting the creation of United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) to monitor the ceasefire authorizing the deployment of 5,537 UN peace keepers in February 2000. Laurant Kabila died from wounds sustained during an assassination attempt in 2001 and his son Joseph Kabilia took the presidency of DRC. Fighting continued on a large scale until 2002 when Rwanda withdrew 20,000 troops and the Pretoria Agreement was signed creating a government of national unity among remaining waring rebel factions in the DRC.

Since the end of the Second Congo War the Democratic Republic of Congo remains a country in conflict. The war killed an estimated five million people, making it the deadliest conflict since WWII. Despite the presence of MONUC many rebel groups still remain in the DRC that have not been incorporated into the Armed Forces of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (FARDC). Specific problematic groups include the Congrès national pour la défense du peuple (CNDP), Mayi-Mayi, and the Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda (FDLR) continue to engage FARDC especially in North Kivu, South Kivu, and Ituri. Violence in these areas has stemmed from the ethnic conflict between the Hutus and Tutsi spilling over from Rwanda in 1994 and still continues. By February 2007 MONUC forces numbered 17,000 and were focused on the goals of enforcing and monitoring the ceasefire agreement, disarmament, demobilization, repatriation, resettlement, and reintegration of waring factions, and transition towards credible elections. The first round of elections for president and the National Assembly took place in July of 2006. However, despite this progress many problems still face the DRC including, ethnic violence, the use of child soldiers, the looting of natural resources, illicit arms trade, the sexual violence against women, and nearly 3.4 million refugees.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
   • What can be done to limit the looting of resources that continues to perpetuate conflict?
   • How might neighbor state involvement further complicate the situation?
   • What might be done to help alleviate the humanitarian crisis especially in regards to women and children?

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ISSUES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

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. Iran has claimed that its nuclear program existed solely
to provide electrical power, but the International Atomic Energy
Agency (IAEA) has increased inspections aimed at determining
whether or not Iran had a military nuclear program operating
alongside its civilian program. The IAEA identified five different
areas in which Iran was in violation of its Safeguards Agreement and
potentially in violation of the Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) itself.

Over the past few years, the IAEA has found numerous instances
where Iran failed to report nuclear activities and nuclear facilities.
While the IAEA has confirmed Iran's ability to enrich uranium to
low levels, the organization has admitted significant gaps in its
understanding of the Iranian enrichment program. France, Germany,
and the United Kingdom (often known collectively as the EU3) held
early 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 negations reached a climax, with the EU3 making their final
offer to Iran: a series of economic and political incentives to Iran in
return for Iran's suspension of nuclear activities. Iran rejected the
offer and resumed enriching uranium shortly thereafter. In April 2006,
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 negotiations over its nuclear
program.

The Security Council agreed in early June 2006 on a set of proposals
for Iran, containing both incentives and disincentives for Iran to
cease enriching uranium. Iran rejected the proposals calling them,
"insulting and humiliating." Following the rejection of the proposals,
the Security Council has issued four resolutions between July 2006,
and March 2008 banning arms exports, freezing assets, and restricting
the travel of individuals, groups, and companies associated with the
nuclear program. The latest resolution S/RES/1803 issued shortly
after the IAEA Board of Governors report (GOV/2008/6) confirming
that Iran had not halted enrichment activities or work on heavy water
related projects and had begun development of new centrifuges for
enrichment. The report also raised serious concerns regarding Iran's
studies on high-explosives testing, and missile re-entry vehicles.
Iran has rejected these allegations saying that the Security Council's
resolutions are a violation of its rights under the Non-Proliferation
Treaty and that the EU3 and the United States have been giving false
information to the IAEA.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this
issue include:
        • How does the presence of the Iranian nuclear program affect the
        implementation of the Non-Proliferation Treaty?
        • What are appropriate actions for the international community to
        take with regard to Iran's nuclear program?

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    Focus: IAEA and Iran
www.globalpolicy.org/security/sanction/indxiran.htm - Global Policy
    Forum Iran webpage

The Situation in Iraq

Iraq is a frequent subject of debate within the Security Council but rarely acted upon since the removal of Saddam Hussein's government in 2003. While the UN was forced to withdraw many of its personnel in Iraq following the August and September 2003 bombings of its offices, its presence has increased again recently.

Since the re-entry of UN personnel in Iraq, the Security Council's primary action was the establishment of the UN Assistance Mission for Iraq (UNAMI) in August 2003. The mission of UNAMI was to promote the efforts of the Iraqi government in strengthening representative government, political dialog, national reconciliation, diplomatic engagement of neighboring countries, and to assist vulnerable groups, including refugees and displaced persons, promote human rights, and enable judicial and legal reform. Instrumental in the December 2005 elections, UNAMI has also been active in assisting the Iraqi government with political and economic development as well as in coordinating reconstruction and humanitarian assistance efforts.

Ongoing violence, unfortunately, has served as an impediment to the successful work of UNAMI. In the past year the security situation in Iraq has improved, prompting the Security Council to expand the role of UNAMI as outlined in resolution S/RES/1770. UNAMI has also played an important role in promoting regional cooperation in Iraq from neighboring states such as Turkey. The government of Iraq still faces many obstacles particularly those related to establishing national consensus regarding reconciliation of its government and the sharing of power and resources. UNAMI, the Iraqi government and the people of Iraq are largely dependent on the military personnel of Member States in the multinational force for security.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the role of UNAMI be expanded to further promote a representative government of all political groups? How might such expansion effect regional cooperation?
- What additional steps can be taken to facilitate the return of refugees? Should UN peacekeepers assist in providing security for UNAMI humanitarian efforts?
- How does the security situation contribute to limited UN efforts? What can be done to improve the situation?

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The Situation in the Middle East including the Palestinian Question

The Palestinian Question remains one of the most discussed topics in the Security Council. The question of Palestine in the Security Council dates back to March 1948 in response to the violence that was occurring between Arab and Jewish communities. On 14 May 1948 Israel declared its independence. This intensified conflict in the region and five neighboring states invaded Israel in the days following its declaration of independence. While the Israelis prevailed, the General Assembly in Resolution 194, laid out terms for Palestinian refugees, driven from their homes and wishing to return. In the 1949 Armistice, what remained of the state of Palestine was occupied by Egypt (The Gaza Strip), and Transjordan (The West Bank). In 1967, Egypt blockaded the Straits of Tiran, and Israel launched a preemptive strike against Egypt and its allies. Within 6 days Israel had seized the Sinai Peninsula, the Gaza Strip, the West Bank, and the Golan Heights. This prompted the Security Council to pass Resolution 242, calling for Israeli withdraw from the territories it occupied, and "just settlement of the (Palestinian) refugee problem." Israel maintained control of all occupied territories, and Syria and Egypt attacked jointly in 1973 in what became known as the Yom Kippur War, prompting Resolution 338, affirming resolution 242 and calling for peace talks. Israel withdrew from the Sinai after a 1979 peace treaty with Egypt. However in 1982 Israel invaded Lebanon in order to destroy Palestinian Liberation Organization forces (PLO) there. While this drove the PLO from Lebanon, it also caused the formation of Hezbollah. In 1987 Jordan ceded its rights to the West Bank to the PLO, which recognized Israel, and began negotiations for peace. The Palestinian Authority replaced the PLO in 1994 in governing the West Bank and Gaza Strip after the signing of the Oslo Accords.

In 1993, Israel and Palestinian political representatives signed the Declaration of Principles on Interim Self-Government Arrangements also know as the Oslo Accords. The Oslo Accords were the first face-to-face agreement between Isreal and Palestine and the first time factions within Palestine acknowledged Israel's right to exist. The overarching goals of the Oslo Accords were the complete withdrawal of Israeli troops from the Gaze Strip and West Bank and the creation of a Palestinian Authority. The momentum gained through the signing of the Oslo Accords was not maintained and by 2000 the peace process had disintegrated.

After the break down of the peace process and the beginning of the Second Intifada in 2000, work towards peace in the Middle East has been a difficult process. The most recent progress came in 2003 with the Quartet, composed of the US, Russia, the European Union and the United Nations, backing what is known as the Road Map. The Road Map suggests a permanent two state solution to the Israeli-Palestinian

conflict and the Palestinian refugee problem. Israel rejected some portions of the Road Map, while the Palestinian Authority pledged its support. Conflict continues, exacerbated by attacks from extremist groups, Israeli military retaliation, competition for water, illegal Israeli settlements, a security wall being erected, and restriction of travel between Israel and Palestine, causing economic concerns. As it has since the General Assembly originally proposed a two-state solution in Resolution 181 in 1947, the question of how to establish and maintain a lasting peace in Israel and Palestine remains.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
• What steps can be taken to persuade Israel, Palestine, and surrounding nations to adhere to the Road Map?
• Dose your government believe a two-state solution is the proper way to resolve conflict and bring about the changes envisioned in resolution 242?
• How can the Palestinian refugee problem be solved? What should be done about illegal Israeli settlements in occupied territories?

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S/2003/529 – A performance-based road map to a permanent two-State solution to the Israeli-Palestinian Conflict

Chapter Three
The Historical Security Council of 1967

Members of the Historical Security Council of 1967:		
Argentina	Ethiopia	Union of Soviet
Brazil	France	Socialist Republics
Bulgaria	India	United Kingdom
Canada	Japan	United States of
China	Mali	America
Denmark	Nigeria	

About the Historical Security Council

The 2008 American Model United Nations Historical Security Council (HSC) will simulate the events of the world beginning on 15 March 1967. Historically, the key international security concerns at this time revolve around the situations in Africa, including Southern Rhodesia, the Congo and South Africa. Peacekeeping questions are of significant concern at this time, especially surrounding the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) operation between Egypt and Israel, and the USSR's unwillingness to pay for certain peacekeeping operations. The war in Vietnam is also a key underlying factor in world politics, although it received limited formal attention in the Security Council. Continued disputes over recognition issues between the two Chinas is also a significant issue. Additionally, the Cold War struggles between the United States and the Soviet Union are a constant undercurrent in the world of international politics.

In 1967, U Thant was the Secretary-General of the United Nations, Lyndon Johnson was the US President and Leonid Brezhnev was the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. The Shah's government was in power in Iran and the Republic of China (on Formosa/Taiwan), rather than the mainland People's Republic of China, was officially represented in the United Nations. Cold War tensions were progressively growing at this time, and many of the developing countries were stressing their non-aligned status and forming a power bloc within the United Nations.

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 routine replay of national decisions as they evolved in 1967. Indeed, the problems of the era may not transpire as they once did, and this will force active evaluations - and reevaluations - of national policies. Beyond this, it cannot be said that the policy course a government made in 1967 was necessarily the wisest. While role-players must be, by definition, in character, it is not a sure thing that given a second opportunity to look at events - any given national government would do things exactly the same way twice. 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 that may not have had adequate contemporary resolutions. There is almost always more than one alternative choice in any situation.

In particular, the international community has often chosen not to actively involve itself in many regional disputes or political crises where it might have shown greater involvement. The UN itself has often been a bystander to regional or international conflict. This inability or unwillingness to actively work toward solutions to 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 solutions. 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 that are so global in nature that the UN must become involved.

Representatives should approach these issues based on events through the final days of 1966 and early days of 1967, and should do their research accordingly. In studying their role playing assignments, it is strongly recommended that research be done on these topics using timely materials. The world has changed dramatically in the past 40+ years, but none of these changes will be evident within the chambers of the HSC. While histories of the subject will be fine for a general overview, Representatives should persue periodicals from late 1966 to early 1967 most accurately reflect the worldview 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. They may have access to the up-to-the-minute policy

decisions of their countries, or they may be relatively in the dark on their countries moment-to-moment actions in the world.

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

OTHER INVOLVED COUNTRIES

From time-to-time, other countries will be involved in the deliberations of the 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 1967 time frame include: Israel, Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, South Africa, Democratic Republic of the Congo and Angola, among others.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Council on 15 March 1967. The prominent events of late 1966 are discussed, as well as some questions that may face the Security Council in early 1967. This research is intended merely as a focal point for Representatives' continued exploration of the topics.

THE SITUATION IN SOUTHERN RHODESIA

On 11 November 1965, the minority government of Southern Rhodesia, led by Ian Smith, made a unilateral declaration of independence from the United Kingdom, sparking an intense political conflict. Southern Rhodesia had been a self-administered (by white colonists) territory of the United Kingdom for over 40 years. This declaration was in direct violation of the 1961 decolonization agreement signed between the UK and Southern Rhodesia, in that it ignored the majority black population of Zimbabwe. The Council requested on 20 November 1965 that all UN members make a voluntary break in diplomatic and economic relations with Southern Rhodesia. On 16 December of that year, a follow-up resolution imposed selected mandatory economic sanctions. In April of 1966, following months of failed diplomatic efforts driven mainly by the UK, that government requested a Council meeting to consider the incident of a Portuguese oil tanker which was attempting to make a delivery of much needed oil to the Southern Rhodesian government. The UK had been given broad latitude by its Council allies to attempt a diplomatic solution to the problems caused by its former colony, and bringing this issue before the Council marked a new stage in the conflict. At the UK's request, the resolution eventually that was passed allowed for use of force by the UK to prevent shipments covered under the previous embargo from reaching Southern Rhodesia.

Several African nations spoke before the Council on this issue, requesting much stronger measures up to and including the authorization of Chapter VII enforcement against Rhodesia. The United States and France joined the UK, however, in opposing Chapter VII action and allowing the UK to lead any enforcement measures. On 10 May, 32 African nations requested a Council meeting to discuss again the Southern Rhodesian issue. These nations noted that, to date, Council measures had been ineffective in removing the minority government, and made a further push for UN intervention, including Chapter VII authorization. The request noted that economic

sanctions were clearly failing as not all states were enforcing these sanctions, and some states were still investing in Southern Rhodesia. In discussions on the issue, the USSR specifically accused the UK of trying to reach an agreement with the Smith regime at the expense of the Zimbabwean people. A resolution, sponsored by the African bloc and reflecting its concerns, failed by a vote of six in favor, one opposed and eight abstentions. Similar discussions continued throughout the year on these issues, leading up to an eventual request by the UK for another Council meeting in December. At this time, the UK was prepared to call for additional measures against Southern Rhodesia, including stronger economic sanctions.

During the debate on the subject, other states criticized UK enforcement efforts. Further, the refusal of the UK to use force, as it had been partially authorized to do at its own request, was criticized by a number of speakers. It was at this point increasingly obvious that the UK's goal was not to attack Rhodesia or remove the Smith regime, but instead to come to some kind of agreement with Smith. Significantly, the Western powers had, by this point, realized that the situation was becoming more intractable as time went on. An amendment sponsored by the African states noted that the situation constituted a threat to international peace and security and was included in the text of the final resolution. The Chapter VII language had been staunchly opposed by the UK and its allies in past discussions. The final resolution on the subject passed by a vote of 11 in favor, none opposed and four abstentions. This is the point at which the situation stands in early 1967.

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

> • Does your country support greater enforcement measures to remove control from the minority-led government in Southern Rhodesia? How far should these measures go, how would such measures be carried out, and by whom? How would these measures be financed?

• Does your country still trade with or invest in Southern Rhodesia? If so, does your government plan to comply with Security Council-passed sanctions and cease any illegal trading?
• How can a smooth transition to a majority led, post-colonial government best be accomplished in Southern Rhodesia?

The Question of Palestine

The Security Council considered actions taken from the Israeli, Syrian and Jordanian sides of the Armistice in the Palestine region throughout 1966. Repeated border incursions and military incidents continued to lead to heightened tensions in the region throughout the year. Syria and Jordan frequently accused Israel of violating the Armistice by attacking their respective territories, and Israel accused Syria of continued attacks from the Golan Heights, and both Syria and Jordan of military activities across various border regions. Israel also accused both countries of harboring pro- Palestinian El-Fatah and El-Asefa terrorists, who frequently conducted terrorist activities across the Israeli border, and accused Syria of arming and training these groups, suggesting that their status was more in line with irregular troops directed by the Syrian government, rather than independent organizations. On 25 February a military coup in Syria returned Nureddin Atassi to power, and from February to October numerous incursions occurred across the Syrian-Israeli border. Israel accused Syria of numerous actions taken against Israeli settlements, frequently from fortified positions on the Golan Heights, and apparently in an effort to disrupt the daily lives of farmers and fisherman. In recent activities, a report was made in August that Syrian forces fired on an Israeli patrol boat, with Israeli retaliation for this action resulting in the downing of two Syrian jet fighters. In September, there was a report of Syrian forces firing on an Israeli fishing boat, and reports in October that four Israeli border policemen had been killed by a Syrian mine, and that a tractor driver had been fired on by Syrian artillery. In each case, Israel used the situation to justify military reprisals, while Syria argued that the original attacks were fabrications, and that subsequent Israeli attacks were clear violations of the 1949 Armistice Agreements.

On the Israeli-Jordanian border, a number of smaller border incursions culminated in a 13 November invasion by Israeli forces, reportedly at brigade strength, into the southern Hebron region of Jordan. Israeli forces attacked a number of villages in this region, in what Israeli officials called reprisals for Jordanian cross-border interventions and sponsorship of El-Fatah forces, and what Jordan called an unprovoked attack. This was the only event in the region throughout 1966 resulting in formal Security Council action, as Resolution 228 (28 November) criticized the large scale and carefully planned military action on the territory of Jordan by Israeli armed forces, and further censured Israel for its actions. While some states had expressed condemnation of Israel verbally, this was not formally stated in the final resolution.

In other Council actions, the various belligerents in the region were called to speak before the Council several times as hostilities occurred throughout 1966, including Israel, Syria, Jordan, Iraq, the United Arab Republic of Egypt (UAR), and Saudi Arabia.

Several other recent issues contributed to the heightening of tensions surrounding the Palestine issue. On 19 May, a sale of military jet fighters and bombers by the US to Israel was, for the first time ever, publicly disclosed. Additionally, on 4 November, Syria and the UAR concluded a mutual defense treaty, which also provided for joint control of armed forces in case of war or aggression against either party. Adding to the tension of the region were the efforts of the Soviet Union to unite the Arab states to act against Israel. The Soviet Union had been aligned with Syria since the Suez Canal Dispute and had maintained an active political presence in the region. Most of their political pressure was focused on aligning the other Arab states to act against Israel, including the country of Jordan since they had a significant Palestinian- Arab population not always friendly to the government. Arab unity was further shaken by a 7 December call by Syria - to Jordanians and Palestinian Arabs within Jordan - for the ouster of King Hussein of Jordan. This call was accompanied by an offer to provide arms to any parties involved in the uprising.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
• Is your country closely allied with one or more countries involved in the Palestine question? How is this involvement reflected in both your country's public statements and private actions with regard to the region?
• What actions can be taken to better ensure compliance with the 1949 Armistice Agreements by all sides?
• What actions can be taken to reduce the rising tensions on all sides within the region?
• What can the Council realistically do when Armistice violations occur? Is UN military action an option in this conflict?

The Situation in the Republic of the Congo

Following its independence from Belgium in 1960, the Republic of the Congo (hereafter referred to as Congo in this paper) went through four years of civil war with significant United Nations and international intervention. This included the ONUC (Operation des Nations Unies au Congo) peacekeeping effort, which lasted from July 1960 to June 1964. While the UN forces departed peacefully after the internal Congo situation had settled in 1964, interactions between the Congo and the bordering Portuguese colony of Angola brought that country to the Council's attention again in the fall of 1965.

On 21 September, the Congolese government accused Portugal of supporting former (now exiled) Congo Prime Minister Tshombe by allowing the use of its territories in Angola and Cabinda as a base for insurgent activities into the Congo. In an apparent response to these insurgencies, the Portuguese embassy in Kinshasa was attacked on 24 September, with Congolese radio responsible for inciting much of the violence.

The Security Council, at Congo's request, considered this matter from 30 September through 14 October. The Congo argued that Portugal was supporting these rebels because the Congolese government had recognized du jure the Angolan government in exile, while Portugal denied any support for the insurgents. On 14 October, the Council passed Resolution 226, urging Portugal not to allow foreign mercenaries to use Angola as a base of operations into neighboring countries. While the political negotiations involved in this resolution appear to have quieted the area, it is possible that renewed conflict could emerge in the future.

An additional issue in the Congo complicating the situation at this time is the coup in November that established military rule and firmly placed Joseph Mobutu in control of the country.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What incentives can be given to prevent further cross-border interventions in this area?
- If incentives and Council resolutions are not successful, what actions can and should the Council take to bring a peaceful resolution to the simmering potential for renewed conflict in and around the Congo?

The Situation in Vietnam

The early 1960s saw North Vietnam's involvement in the two-year civil war in neighboring Laos, as well as increased North Vietnamese incursions into South Vietnam. The United States first sent advisors to the country in 1955, and started to build up significant ground troops in 1965, leading to significantly increased tensions in the region.

In January of 1966 the US reported taking new steps toward achieving peace in Vietnam. While the US continued to stress the importance of South Vietnamese self-determination, they also suggested that it would be ideal for all parties to agree on and to implement the 1954 and 1962 Geneva Accords. The Vietnam issue had never previously been discussed by the Security Council, but in an effort to bring the international political arena to bear in this direction, the US called for a meeting of the Security Council to discuss this issue on 31 January. At this meeting, the US argued that a new dimension in peace was possible, and suggested that the Council assist in brokering an attempt to arrange a new Conference to apply the Geneva Accords.

The US attempt to work through the Council was opposed on many sides. Secretary-General U Thant specifically opposed open debate of the issue before the Council, noting the problematic nature of US influence in Council involvement. Thant suggested that, since the original Geneva Accords were negotiated outside of a United Nations context, that any new negotiations based on these accords were not properly within the purview of the UN. The USSR also opposed open discussion in the Council, apparently not wanting the US to use the Council for its own purposes in the war effort. Additionally, France (which was involved in Vietnam before the US presence there) also opposed these discussions, citing the problematic effect of the US being the only party to the conflict that was a UN member, and the fact that this would deny a voice to the two parts of Vietnam and to mainland China.

Following a contentious vote on 2 February (nine in favor, two opposed, four abstentions) to add the item to the Council's agenda, actual talks proved less than meaningful. A letter from the Council President, explaining the discussions, noted the failure of all parties to the dispute to meet with the Council as the key factor in the Council not reaching any formal decision. In general, the President noted that the members expressed a general concern over continued hostilities in the region. This minimal statement was criticized by several Council members, who argued that the discussions had been strictly procedural, and that the President should not have drawn any conclusions from the statements made. While a number of reports were made by the Secretary-General and various members throughout

the year on the situation in Vietnam, after February it was not again considered in formal discussions.

Other Issues

Peacekeeping Issues

United Nations peacekeeping was rocked in 1966 by the continuing refusal of the Soviet Union to pay for costs incurred for the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) and in ONUC. The Soviets considered these operations to be politically motivated in unacceptable directions, and refused payment. Under Article 19 of the UN Charter, Soviet voting rights in the General Assembly could be removed if it was more than two years behind in its mandatory payments to the organization. The key question this raised was of the voluntary nature of peacekeeping payments, versus the collective financial responsibility usually assumed for peacekeeping activities. The politicization of peacekeeping could reflect significantly on the planning processes for continuing and future operations.

A further issue impacting peacekeeping was the question of whether the United Nations should intervene in the situations in South Africa and in Southern Rhodesia. These complex issues, leading to widely varying views among the Permanent Members, have left both situations somewhat in limbo with regards to the possibility of UN actions beyond economic embargoes.

The Question of the Representation of China

The representation of China continued to be an underlying issue effecting many UN discussions, with the Republic of China on Formosa/Taiwan retaining the General Assembly and Security Council seat allocated to China. Discussions about this issue occurred between August and November of 1966, mainly in the General Assembly. These revolved around questions such as the war in Vietnam, in which the People's Republic of China's involvement and lack of UN membership was becoming an increasingly important issue, as well as various other political and trade issues in dealing with the increasingly powerful mainland government. A key question raised by allies of the Formosa government was what would happen to Taiwan if the seat were to be awarded to the mainland government, both in terms of UN representation and its future relations with other countries.

The Situation in Cyprus

The United Nations first became involved in Cyprus in 1964 with the establishment of the United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) on 4 March. Peacekeeping troops were sent in response to the escalating violence between the Greek and Turkish factions on Cyprus that had been spreading across the island since 21 December of the previous year. Greek and Turkish extremists had been fighting over Cyprus since it gained independence from the British in 1959. Compromises that occurred during the formation of the constitution angered both Greek Cypriots, who were in favor of reuniting with Greece, and Turkish Cypriots, who were in favor of dividing the island between the two groups. To aid in peacekeeping efforts, the

Security Council recommended that the Secretary General appoint a mediator to oversee formal peacekeeping efforts. The chaotic situation on Cyprus, however, prevented any substantive talks from happening and Cyprus entered 1967 in much the same way it had entered the previous year with little hope for peace. In December of 1966, the Security Council passed Resolution 231 extending the UN peacekeeping force until June of 1967.

OTHER OPEN ISSUES

Any issue on the world scene in 1967 will be open for discussion in the Historical Security Council. Representatives should have broad historical knowledge of the world situation as it stood through 15 March 1967.

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Please note: The books and documents listed below provide both contemporary and historical information on the year 1966. Any information provided for dates after 15 March 1967 will not be considered factual or appropriate in debates before the Council.

It is strongly recommended that representatives to the Historical Security Council consult contemporary materials, especially periodical sources from late 1966. These might include the *UN Chronicle, the New York Times, Time Magazine*, and similar sources to get a better feel for the time in which the simulation occurs.

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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 at-risk 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 aproaches?

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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

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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 General Assembly First Committee: Disarmament and International Security

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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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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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/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 long-term 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 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.

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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/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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A/HRC/4/102
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A/RES/58/183
A/RES/56/161
A/RES/217A
E/2004/23
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

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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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. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have also had a significant role; more than half of all mine assistance programs are carried out by non-governmental 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/60/97
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

Chapter Five
The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

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<tr><td colspan="3">Members of the Economic and Social Council:</td></tr>
<tr><td>Algeria</td><td>Guyana</td><td>Philippines</td></tr>
<tr><td>Angola</td><td>Haiti</td><td>Poland</td></tr>
<tr><td>Austria</td><td>Iceland</td><td>Portugal</td></tr>
<tr><td>Barbados</td><td>Indonesia</td><td>Republic of Korea</td></tr>
<tr><td>Belarus</td><td>Iraq</td><td>Republic of</td></tr>
<tr><td>Benin</td><td>Japan</td><td> Moldova</td></tr>
<tr><td>Bolivia</td><td>Kazakhstan</td><td>Romania</td></tr>
<tr><td>Brazil</td><td>Liechtenstein</td><td>Russian</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cameroon</td><td>Luxembourg</td><td> Federation</td></tr>
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<tr><td>Cape Verde</td><td>Malawi</td><td>Saudi Arabia</td></tr>
<tr><td>China</td><td>Malaysia</td><td>Somalia</td></tr>
<tr><td>Congo</td><td>Mauritania</td><td>Sri Lanka</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cuba</td><td>Mozambique</td><td>Sudan</td></tr>
<tr><td>Czech Republic</td><td>Netherlands</td><td>Sweden</td></tr>
<tr><td>El Salvador</td><td>New Zealand</td><td>United Kingdom</td></tr>
<tr><td>France</td><td>Niger</td><td>United States of</td></tr>
<tr><td>Greece</td><td>Pakistan</td><td> America</td></tr>
<tr><td>Guinea-Bissau</td><td>Paraguay</td><td>Uruguay</td></tr>
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The Purview of the Simulation: The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) is the principal UN organ responsible for coordinating economic, social and related works of 14 specialized agencies, 9 functional commissions and five regional commissions. ECOSOC accepts reports and recommendations from other UN bodies, including the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (CCPCJ) and the Economic and Social Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). Along with its coordinating role, ECOSOC gathers information and advises Member States on economic, social, humanitarian and human rights programs. ECOSOC also coordinates and collaborates with autonomous specialized agencies that work closely with the United Nations. These include multilateral financial and trade institutions, such as the World Bank and the World Trade Organization.

Website: www.un.org/docs/ecosoc/

Support to Non-Self-Governing Territories by the Specialized Agencies and International Institutions Associated with the United Nations

At its inception, the United Nations took on responsibility for the lingering colonial possessions of many states. More than 80 former colonies have since reached independent status. The UN Charter compels all administering powers to take into account the economic, social and political needs of the former colonies, now termed Non-Self-Governing Territories (Territories), and assist in the creation of proper forms of self-governance. The administering powers are also obliged to report conditions and progress in the Territories to the Untied Nations. The sixteen remaining Non-Self-Governing Territories are: Western Sahara, Anguilla, Bermuda, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Falkland Islands (Malvinas), Montserrat, St. Helena, Turks and Caicos Islands, United States Virgin Islands, Gibraltar, American Samoa, Guam, New Caledonia, Pitcairn, and Tokelau.

The General Assembly passed the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and People in 1960. In the Declaration the UN declared that Non-Self-Governing Territories are entitled to self-determination and independence. To support this Declaration, the General Assembly created the Special Committee on the Situation with Regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples (also know as the Committee of 24) which reviews the status of each of the Territories and reports to the General Assembly on a regular basis.

In 2005, the General Assembly requested that the agencies and organizations of the United Nations, as well as international and regional organizations, examine and review conditions in each Non Self-Governing Territory and take the appropriate action to promote social and economic progress in the Territories. The same resolution also commends the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) for its debate on the subject, and requests it to consider the best means of coordination of the specialized agencies and organizations of United Nations system in implementing the relevant resolutions of the General Assembly. The 2006 report from responding organizations indicates the areas in which the United Nations programs and other organizations are making progress in the Territories.

The United Nations specialized agencies, along with other UN organizations and regional organizations were asked to review the state of affairs in each of the remaining Territories in order to develop action plans that would acceleration economic and social development in the Territories. The specialized agencies were also asked to increase measures already in place that support the Territories. The specialized agencies were also asked to provide information to the United Nations on environmental problems facing the Territories; measures to reduce the impact of natural disasters; measures to fight drug trafficking, money laundering and other criminal activities; and the illegal exploitation of marine resources in efforts to provide support to the Territories. Because of the limited natural resources and fragile economies, the Territories have limited internal resources to address these issues without assistance from the UN.

Specialized agencies that have had active roles in fostering development in the Territories include the International Labour Organization, the Food and Agriculture Organization, the Economic Commission for Latin American and the Caribbean, the United

Nations Conference on Trade and Development, and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). UNDP has provided technical assistance and policy advice on macroeconomics, financial and fiscal management, and production and management of economic statistics to the Territories.

With continued support from the United Nations and its specialized agencies, the goal of self-determination and independence for the Non-Self Governing Territories is attainable. ECOSOC remains committed to fostering and promoting engagement by the specialized agencies of the United Nations in order to promote economic and social development of the Territories.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
• What is the role the administrative powers in facilitating assistance for the Territories from the specialized UN agencies?
• What level of involvement should the UN specialized agencies have in the decolonization process? How can the specialized UN agencies best work to assist in the decolonization process?
• What are the unique needs of the Non-Self-Governing Territories with regards to social and economic development?

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ECOSOC 2006/37
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Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples

Additional Web Resources:

www.un.org/depts/dpi/decolonization/main.htm - The United Nations and Decolonization
www.un.org/depts/dpi/decolonization/special_committee_main.htm -- Special Committee of 24 on Decolonization

UNITED NATIONS PUBLIC-PRIVATE ALLIANCE FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Rural development is an essential component of the United Nations sustainable development agenda; nearly three-quarters of the world's population live in rural areas and are dependent on agriculture activities for their livelihood. Current economic estimates suggest that by 2025 the majority of the global population will live in urban settings, but that 60% of persons living in poverty will still be in rural areas. In order to meet targets set by the Millennium Development Goals for poverty reduction and sustainable development the UN must promote and support efforts to enhance rural development.

The promotion of rural development and sustainable agriculture is addressed in Chapter 14 of Agenda 21, which was the outcome of United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (also know as the Earth Summit), held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. Later in 1995, the Commission on Sustainable Development addressed rural development, noting that while some success had been made, progress in promoting development in rural areas in many countries was slow. Rural development was again addressed at the five-year review of Agenda 21 in 1997. In 2000, the United Nations set specific targets for decreasing poverty and prompting development in the Millennium Development Goals. At its 2008/2009 session the Commission on Sustainable Development will also address rural development.

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) decided to take up "Promoting an integrated approach to rural development in developing countries for poverty eradication and sustainable development" as its 2003 High Level Segment. At the end of the session, ECOSOC adopted a Ministerial Declaration on promoting an integrated approach to rural development in developing countries for poverty eradication and sustainable development.

In the Declaration, ECOSOC stated that rural development should be an integral part of national and international development policies and that "Rural development should be pursued through an integrated approach, encompassing the economic, social and environmental dimensions, taking into account the gender perspective and consisting of mutually reinforcing policies and programmes." A key element stressed in the Declaration was the role of partnerships and alliances from across a broad range of sectors in order to promote an integrated approach to rural development. ECOSOC pledged to "facilitate and nurture alliances of governments, donors, non-governmental organizations, civil society organizations and the private sector for promoting integrated rural development." The Secretary-General also emphasized the recognition of the essential role partnerships play in promoting rural development.

To that end, the United Nations Public-Private Alliance for Rural Development (UNPPA) was created by ECOSOC with the goal of identifying and promoting successful business policies and practices that encourage economic and social progress in rural areas. The major

goals of the Alliance are to (a) work as a catalyst and facilitator for the creation of partnerships; (b) provide a platform for collaboration; and (c) bring the results of these efforts to the attention of the international community through the Council.

ECOSOC selected Madagascar and the Dominican Republic to serve as the first two pilot countries for the project. Two national mechanisms, Alliance Madagascar and the Presidential Commission, were created to support the Alliance's work in the respective countries. The first assessment of the two pilot programs has been completed and the results were presented to ECOSOC at the 2007 session. The major findings of the assessment are that there is still a need to enhance the skill base for partnership development and that both national mechanisms should cultivate closer ties with development partners to increase support for the project and this limited skill base is the greatest barrier to successful public-private partnerships.

The assessment also concluded that both human and institutional capacity for partnership development needs to be strengthened and the UN system has an opportunity to assist by supporting capacity building that is linked to objectives in both countries. To that end, ECOSOC has invited Madagascar and the Dominican Republic to conduct assessments of their own capacity and mechanisms for developing and promoting public-private partnerships. The assessment also recommended. Additionally, support for global information dissemination can be further strengthened. Partnership offices across the United Nations systems should assist in partnership development in their respective programmatic areas as it relates to rural development. Also Angola and Ethiopia have agreed to serve as the third and fourth pilot countries.

Meeting UN Millennium Development Goals for sustainable development will require a focused effort toward rural development. The collaborative approach with multi-sector alliances taken by UNPPA enhances the opportunities and resources available for sustainable rural development programs. The Alliance's strength lies in its ability to pull together existing networks and programmes that can promote development. Moreover, the Alliance allows ECOSOC the opportunity to respond directly to the challenge of meeting the Millennium Development Goals. Looking forward, ECOSOC will need to consider how best to support and promote the work of the Alliance so that opportunities for rural development are fully realized.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
    • What steps can the international community take to assist counties in promoting rural development?
    • What other opportunities for partnerships with the private sector exist for promoting rural development?
    • What can be learned from the successes and failures of the pilot nations? How can these lessons be used to improve future partnerships?
    • What are the successful models that can be used in other countries?

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www.ifad.org - International Fund for Agricultural Development
www.un.org/esa/coordination/desc.htm - Office for Economic and Social Council Support and Coordination
www.un.org/esa/coordination/Alliance/MADAGASCAR%20ACTION%20PLAN.htm – Madagascar Action Plan
web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTARD/0,,menuPK:336688~pagePK:149018~piPK:149093~theSitePK:336682,00.html – World Bank Agriculture and Rural Development webpage

Annual Ministerial Review: Implementing the Internationally Agreed Goals and Commitments in Regard to Sustainable Development

During the 2005 World Summit, governments and heads of state established the Annual Ministerial Review (AMR) as a mandated reassessment of UN Conferences and summits related to UN Development Goals. As a part of the mandate, substantive annual ministerial-level reviews occur to measure progress, gauge efficiency of programs intended to forward the strategy and objectives of the UN Development Goals, and identify promising practices, techniques and methods that have been successful in meeting these development goals. The major focus of the AMR is achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), as well as the United Nations Development Agenda (UNDA), which is comprised of targets and goals established over the last 15 years by UN Conferences and summits. The AMR is intended as a tool to strengthen ECOSOC prerogatives and ensure effective implementation of UNDA programs.

The three central elements of the AMR are a worldwide review of the UNDA, a thematic review, and national presentations that are done on a voluntary basis, relating to their own national development targets and goals. Eight countries volunteered to present to present at the 2008 ministerial review. They were Belgium, Chile, Finland, Kazakhstan, Luxembourg, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the United Kingdom, and the United Republic of Tanzania. The 2008 AMR will take place 2-3 July 2008, during the high-level segment of the ECOSOC Substantive Session, at the UN Headquarters in New York. The Economic and Social Council is expected to adopt a ministerial declaration at the end of the high-level segment. The major UN commitments on sustainable development include Agenda 21, the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation and Millennium Development Goal 7. The AMR will examine the status of the implementation of both the Johannesburg Programme of Implementation and Agenda 21 and examine ways in which to incorporate Millennium Development Goal 7 into the implementation of the other MDGs. The AMR will also discuss the challenges in generating support for sustainable development at the national level.

In preparation for the AMR, an e-discussion on achieving sustainable development was jointly organized by the UN Department for Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) and its global development network and the United Nations Development Plan (UNDP). It took place from 4 February to 14 March 2008. The e-discussion served as a means to engage experts, practitioners, and policy-makers from various regions and stakeholder groups in a global dialog on specific aspects of the implementation of the internationally agreed upon goals and commitments in regard to sustainable development.

Following the e-discussion, a preparatory meeting was held on 6 March 2008. The sessions at the meeting focused on the role of the AMR in implementation of, and the role ECOSOC has in, meeting sustainable development goals. One of the policy initiatives discussed at the meeting was the creation of employment to stimulate economic growth and civil stability as an essential step toward sustainable poverty reduction.

Discussion at the Review focused on the three main components of sustainable development – economic growth, social development and environmental protection. During the session developing countries agreed to commonly pursue the theme of poverty eradication through economically, socially, and environmentally sound strategies. The global community acknowledged the current major challenges to achieving sustainable development that include financial instability and uncertainty, slow economic growth, raising food and fuel prices and the detrimental impacts of environmental degradation and climate change. Discussion at the Review emphasized the need for states to develop integrated policy frameworks to address sustainable development in a coordinated manner.

While sustainable development is primarily addressed at the national level, the international community plays an important role in supporting these goals. In particular, the global community has a responsibility to expand development opportunities for developing countries and can support national efforts by strengthening indicators that integrate all three components of sustainable development. The Economic and Social Council was asked to continue its review of the progress towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals and other international commitments towards sustainable development.

In order to meet the collective sustainable development goals both individual and collective action will need to be coordinated across a range of stakeholders to ensure progress is maintained. The AMR is a tool for ECOSOC to better assess the successes and roadblocks developing nations face in achieving sustainability. The review gives the global community an opportunity to reaffirm their international commitments to sustainable development including the Millennium Development Goals. The ultimate goal is twofold; to give developing nations a greater voice in international affairs and to better implement the international development agenda. The AMR is a unique intergovernmental, multi-stakeholder platform for the assessment of sustainable development goals with the ultimate goal of providing a direct link between policy and action.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- In what ways can the international community facilitate access to resources for developing countries to achieve sustainable goals?
- What role does the United Nations have in developing solutions to the challenges of sustainability, such as financial instability and uncertainty, slow economic growth, raising food and fuel prices?
- What initiatives might be considered to improve the effectiveness of lagging progress in meeting AMR goals related to MDGs?
- How can international and national coordination and focus be better achieved and maintained in regard to AMRs?

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E/2008/NGO/2
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Agenda 21
Johannesburg Programme of Implementation

Additional Web Resources:

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www.un.org/esa/sustdev - UN Division for Sustainable Development
www.un.org/ecosoc/newfunct/amr2008.shtml - 2008 Annual Ministerial Review homepage

REPORTS OF THE COMMISSION ON CRIME PREVENTION AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND THE ECONOMICAL (CCPCJ) AND SOCIAL COMMISSION ON LATIN AMERICAN AND THE CARIBBEAN (ECLAC)

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 Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice and the Economical (CCPCJ) and Social Commission on Latin American and the Caribbean (ECLAC). As functional and regional commission established by ECOSOC, the CCPCJ and ECLAC are required to make annual reports on their 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. These bodies may also present their recommendations in resolution format, allowing ECOSOC the chance to review and formally pass the proposals.

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 commissions of ECOSOC, these bodies have been given significant responsibilities to study, review, debate and decide on recommended actions within specific topical areas that ECOSOC felt should be dealt with in greater detail than could be addressed by the main body. It is recommended that all Representatives assigned to ECOSOC also review the background section on the CCPCJ (Chapter VI) and ECLAC (Chapter VII), and possibly choose to do some additional research into these topics.

Members of the Commission on Population and Development:		
Argentina	India	Russian Federation
Armenia	Indonesia	Saudi Arabia
Austria	Iran, Islamic	Senegal
Bolivia	Republic of	Sierra Leone
Brazil	Italy	South Africa
Cameroon	Jamaica	Turkey
Canada	Japan	Uganda
Chile	Libyan Arab	Ukraine
China	Jamahiriya	United Arab
Colombia	Namibia	Emirates
Comoros	Niger	United Kingdom
Costa Rica	Nigeria	United Republic of
Democratic Repub.	Pakistan	Tanzania
of the Congo	Republic of Korea	United States of
Germany	Republic of	America
Guatemala	Moldova	

This year, AMUN's simulation will include The Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, one of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). Participation on the Commission is open to two members from any country currently represented on the CCPCJ (see list above). The CCPCJ will meet all four days of the Conference, and will report to a combined ECOSOC plenary session on Tuesday afternoon.

About CCPCJ

The Commission is a subsidiary body of the Economic and Social Council and arose from a ministerial meeting in 1991. CCPCJ was preceded by the Committee on Crime Prevention and Control that was formed in 1971. The Commission's mandated priority areas are: international action to combat national and transnational crime, economic crime and money laundering, promoting the role of criminal law in protecting the environment, crime prevention in urban areas, and improving the efficiency and fairness of criminal justice administration systems. CCPCJ is based in Vienna and meets on an annual basis.

Purview of the Simulation

The Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (CCPCJ) is an ancillary body of the Economic and Social Council, and primarily responsible for the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice programme, which encompasses administration of the Criminal Justice and Crime Prevention Fund. The Commission is charged with coordinating international efforts to combat national and transnational crime and utilizing criminal law to address such problems as threats to the environment, youth crime and urban violence. Additionally, the Commission is responsible for promoting the efficiency, integrity and impartiality of criminal justice systems. The Commission meets on an annual basis to discuss these areas of concern and reports its findings and recommendations.

Website: www.unodc.org/unodc/en/commissions/CCPCJ/index.html

GLOBAL INITIATIVE TO FIGHT HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Historically, human trafficking as a topic has been limited to women sold as sex slaves. While this is one portion of the topic, it does not encompass the entire problem of human trafficking. In addition to sexual exploitation, trafficking can be for forced labor, organ trade, domestic work, soldiers, and begging.

The UN estimates that almost 3 million people are currently victims of human trafficking and that victims from 127 countries undergo exploitation in 137 countries. Over the last decade, the global community has become increasingly aware of the reality of human trafficking. The global community began to systematically address the problem in 1999 with the International Labor Organization's Convention Concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor. In 2000, the United Nations adopted the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (Trafficking Protocol). The Protocol formally defined human trafficking as the "recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion," and called upon states to enact prevention programs and to provide assistance to trafficking victims.

In 2007, the United Nations Global Intiative, through the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) launched a new initiative on human trafficking, the United Nation Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT). UN.GIFT is managed in cooperation with the International Labour Organization (ILO), the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNHCHR), and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE).

The UN.GIFT is a synergy of anti-human trafficking efforts that can be summed up in three words: prevention, protection, prosecution. The UNODC report Trafficking in Persons: Global Patterns assists in initiating and informing discussions on trafficking in persons. Trafficking in Persons also includes recommendations for prevention, protection, and prosecution in combating human trafficking.

In February 2008, UN.GIFT hosted the Vienna Forum to Fight Human Trafficking to work toward the goal of building awareness. The Vienna Forum provided an opportunity for Member States, non-governmental and inter-governmental organizations (NGOs and IGOs), United Nations entities, the business community, and

academia, as well as the public and private sector, to come together to work towards the goals of UN.GIFT.

The Vienna Forum recognized people who are poor, isolated and weak as the most likely to be preyed upon by traffickers. The Vienna Forum also identified the human and social impact of human trafficking, which, in addition to the personal impact on the victim (physical abuse, mental abuse, HIV/AIDS), includes political (migration policies, border control) and economic (lost resources, organized crime profit) implications as well as global security issues.

The Forum set forth innovative approaches and actions to solve the problem of human trafficking, including legislation, institutions, good practices, prevention, and protection and assistance. While the Trafficking Protocol provides a strategic approach to combating human trafficking, implementation is unclear. This lack of clarity affects systematic and consistent implementation and sustainable actions.

As a major component of organized crime, human trafficking challenges the development of sustainable economies and has a negative impact on human, social, political, and economic areas as well as the individual victim. Traditional approaches such as prosecuting trafficking criminals, while having some impact, are not effective enough. Unfortunately, the absence of reliable data makes it difficult to effectively fight trafficking. Additional data is needed on the extent, geographical spread, and forms of human trafficking.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
> • What can the international community do to assist states in fulfilling the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children?
> • In what ways can the international community working to achieve the goals on UN.GIFT to (1) build awareness, (2) broaden the knowledge base of data, facts and statistics on global trafficking, and (3) step up technical assistance?
> • What is the role of the international community in fostering joint action against human trafficking?

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E/CN.15/2008/10
E/CN.15/2008/L.6/Rev.3
E/2007/30–E/CN.15/2007/17
Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime
Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power
ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, June 1998
ILO Convention Concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor
Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children

Additional Web Resources:

www.humantrafficking.org/ - humantrafficking.org
www.ilo.org/global/lang--en/index.htm - International Labour Organization
www.iom.int/jahia/jsp/index.jsp - International Organization for Migration
www.osce.org/ - The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
www.unicef.org/ - United Nations Children's Fund
www.ungift.org/ - United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking
www.unodc.org/ - United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN COMBATING TRANSNATIONAL ORGANIZED CRIME AND CORRUPTION

Organized criminal groups are often sensationalized and glamorized in popular culture. In reality, however, the purposive patterns of criminal actions devastate financial institutions, pose security threats, and catalyze a legitimacy crisis for governments through sophisticated, stable, well-supplied networks. According to the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, an organized criminal group is defined as, "a structured group of three or more persons, existing for a period of time and acting in concert

with the aim of committing one or more serious crimes or offences established in accordance with this Convention, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit." Organized crime prevents communities from growing and developing financially and culturally. The devastating effects of corruption can be shown in investment levels. Corrupt nations lags behind those with low levels of corruption by 5 per cent, and can be expected to lose about half a percentage point of GDP growth annually. With the assistance of technology, organized crime has increased its share in the world economy to 20 percent.

A problem with combating the actions of organized criminal groups is that much of the international and national legislation drafted from 1955-1995 was created in a vacuum of information on the subject. Laws were drafted in response to high profile kidnappings and murders, rather than the more pervasive and commonplace problems of drug, firearm and human trafficking, the smuggling of migrants, and money laundering. A deficiency of appropriate legislation contributed to a shortage of resources, as law enforcement agents lacked the information needed to combat organized crime.

Recognizing the inadequacies associated with legislating against, combating, and preventing organized crime, particularly in the face of a globalized world and borderless economy, the UN began to take action against organized crime in the late 1990s. In 1998, the General Assembly created an Ad Hoc Committee to begin drafting an international convention that would address international organized crime. The product of the Ad Hoc Committee – the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime – was adopted by the General Assembly with resolution 55/25 on 15 November 2000. The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime is the main international instrument to counter organized crime and provides the legal infrastructure for different legal systems to collaborate in the struggle against organized crime. In addition to the Convention itself, three additional Protocols address the international trafficking in women and children, the illegal trafficking and transport of migrants and the illicit manufacturing and trafficking of firearms.

By signing the Convention, states agree to initiate measures to target organized crime by creating domestic criminal offences to counter the problem and adopting frameworks for mutual legal assistance, extradition, law enforcement cooperation, technical assistance, and training. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Convention and assists states in implementing the Convention through information exchange, promoting best practices and data collection on organized crime at both the regional and global level. The Convention itself also provides several means of assistance to state-parties including the creation of a Conference of Parties.

UNODC provides technical assistant to states to implement policies and programs in line with the Convention. Specifically, UNODC is focusing its efforts in three major arenas: kidnapping, witness protection, and identify related crime. Examples of support tthat UNODC has provided to states include the development of a manual that includes best practices for law enforcement authorities to combat kidnapping. UNODC has also developed a series of model laws for Latin American states for witness protection and has hosted workshops and facilitated the sharing of best practices to help state enact policies to protect witnesses. Finally, UNODC has developed a consultative platform on identity-related crime to encourage

collaboration with public sector representatives, business leaders, international and regional organizations and other stakeholders. The goal of the collaboration is to develop strategies and a research agenda on identity-related crime and to make recommendations for practical action against identity-related crime.

Given the social, economic, political and cultural threats posed by transnational organized crime, measures to combat it are a significant priority for the United Nations. The passage of the Convention is an important step in addressing transnational organized crime, but without increased international cooperation and pledges of capital and personnel, the goal of defeating organized crime remains uncertain. Looking forward, the United Nations, through the UNODC, must foster the legal and technical skills necessary to combat transnational organized crime within member states in order to effectively defeat organized criminal activity.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
• What steps can the international community take to address organized crime at the international and regional level?
• What further steps can the international community take to prevent kidnapping and identity related crimes and promote witness protection?
• What steps can the international community and the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice take to ensure that all aspects of the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its respective Protocols are being met and honored by Member States?
• In what way can the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice encourage the creation of technology that enables transnational law enforcement activity while harnessing the technology that allows for illicit activities?

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CTOC/COP/2006/CRP.1
E/CN.15/2008/L.6
E/CN.15/2008/L.2
E/CN.15/2007/L.20
E/CN.15/2003/7
ECOSOC 2007/20
ECOSOC 2004/24
Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing and Trafficking in Firearms,
     Their Parts and Components and Ammunition
Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Air and Sea
Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons,
     Especially Women and Children
United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

Additional Web Resources:

www.fbi.gov/hq/cid/orgcrime/ocshome.htm - Federal Bureau of
     Investigation information on Organized Crime
policy-traccc.gmu.edu - George Mason University Terrorism,
     Transnational Crime and Corruption Center
www.uncjin.org - United Nations Crime and Justice Information
     Network.
www.unodc.org - United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

Chapter Seven
Economic and Social Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)

This year's simulation will include one the Economic and Social Commission's regional commissions, the Economic and Social Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). Participation in ECLAC includes one or two representatives for the countries that are currently represented on the Commission, as well as one or two member-delegations to represent the Associate Members (see list above). ECLAC will meet all four days of the Conference, and will report to a combined ECOSOC plenary session on Tuesday afternoon.

About ECLAC

The Economic Commission for Latin American (ECLAC) is one of five regional ECOSOC commissions. ECLAC, which is headquartered in Santiago, Chile, works to promote both economic and social development in the regions. Much of ECLAC's work is focused on the review and analysis of its member's development processes and progress that includes the formulation, follow-up and evaluation of polices and technical support as needed.

Purview of the Committee

The Economic and Social Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) is one of five regional commissions of the Economic and Social Commission and represents countries in both Latin American and the Caribbean. ECLAC supports the economic development of its member states by reinforcing economic relationships among its members and other nations of the world. It does so by promoting developmental cooperative activities and projects of regional and subregional scope, bringing a regional perspective to global problems and translating global concerns at the regional and subregional levels. ECLAC also has as one of its primary objectives the promotion of the region's social development.

Website: www.eclac.cl/default.asp?idioma=IN

Subprogramme 3: Macroeconomic Policies And Growth

The Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) was established to encourage economic cooperation amongst its Member States. A portion of this mandate has been to assist Member States in creating, implementing, and regulating their macroeconomic policies to promote regional economic growth and stability. Historically, political oscillation and external influences have hampered this effort. Many of the agreements to support growth have focused on bilateral macroeconomic relationships of a disproportionate nature. Throughout the 1990s, an increased concentration on strengthening regional ties emerged. During the same period, the international community began discussions for what would become the Millennium Declaration and Development Goals. These eight goals have redefined the debate on how macroeconomic policy should be approached at the national, regional, and international levels.

National and regional institutions are at the heart of the debate on macroeconomic reforms in Latin America. Previous decades of regime-induced abuse of economic and social policies which siphoned off revenues for personal gain have left many Member States in a weakened condition that prevents forward momentum towards growth and sustainability. ECLAC has focused vast amounts of time and discussion on how the Commission might best support Member States in their rebuilding efforts. ECLAC has provided a necessary forum for States to share and analyze all policies, successful and not, as well as the statistical support to measure the possibilities of regional translation for States interested in replicating successful policies. Among these successes are the expansion of information systems for decision-making, both public and private; an increased spotlight on hemispheric integration; addressing economic disparities through evolving social policies; and the evolving links between economic and environmental sustainability.

Beginning with the Draft Programme for 2006-2007 there was a shift in evaluation for ECLAC's activities. Previous drafts had focused on broader themes and proposals as well as noting what the body's output would be for each subprogramme in terms of documents and reports. The more recent drafts and Conference reports have shifted attention to quantifiable and qualitative measures for the

achievements during each year's sessions. For Subprogramme 3, the proposes outcomes are: increased knowledge among Latin American and Caribbean policymakers on the important issues that should be taken into account in the design and implementation of short-term policies that will promote long-term economic growth, increased understanding among Latin American and Caribbean countries on the opportunities for reconciling growth with long-term development, and increased knowledge of economic trends and forecasts by public-, private- and academic-sector representatives.

There has been a theme of awareness to these objectives: awareness of policy makers as to what available resources can create short-term policies which will have long-term, positive effects, awareness of national governments to balance economic policies within their broader political agendas, awareness of the need to increase and strengthen regional cooperation, and raising awareness of the general public by educating on how policy translates to everyday life. This awareness is intended to be measured against the usefulness of ECLAC's range of publications toward attaining these goals.

The region faces several major challenges in its efforts to promote economic growth. Countries throughout the region need to deepen their financial systems develop institutional capacity in order to implement policies that will ensure macroeconomic stability. Countries will also need to explore ways to boost domestic savings in order to reduce dependence on external savings, reduce their vulnerability to fluctuating international goods and capital markets, and reduce debt burden. These issues must be addressed by countries before rapid economic growth can be achieved. The strategy of the Subprogramme is based on the notion that macroeconomic growth is best achieved through international economic integration. As such, ECLAC will work to promote economic coordination the analysis and dissemination of policy recommendations to strengthen economic capacity within in its member states.

Latin America and the Caribbean have grown 5.4% in 2007 and will grow 4.5% in 2008, according to ECLAC estimates. The region was subjected to the same volatility that global economies suffered and the region is balanced on a tentative period of nominal economic growth. It will be up to the Member States to mold the dialogue in order to tip this balance to a growing and constructive example for the rest of the global community.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
  • What is ECLAC's role in assisting member states develop economic institutional capacity? What role does analysis and dissemination have in promoting capacity building?
  • What is the role of ECLAC's economic development policy within the larger context of the UN development agenda?
  • The current measure for the expected outputs of ECLAC's publications is their "usefulness." Is this a quantifiable concept? If so, how would it be accomplished? If not, is there another measure that would capture the same concept and goals?

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Additional Web Resources:

www.eclac.cl/de - ECLAC Division for Economic Development
www.iadb.org - Inter-American Development Bank
www.iic.int/home.asp - Inter-American Investment Corporation
www.worldbank.org/laceconomicpolicy - World Bank LAC Economic Policy
www.weforum.org/en/index.htm - World Economic Forum

REGIONAL CONFERENCE ON WOMEN IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

The Regional Conference on Women is one of seven standing bodies established by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) to serve as a forum for regional debate on issues that affect women and gender equality. The first Conference was held in Havana, Cuba in 1977, though the focus on women and gender in the region dates back to 1973. In preparation for meetings to support the Year of the Woman (1975), ECLAC compiled its first baseline studies on the situation of women in the region. In addition to international recommendations like those from the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, these studies provided the framework for the first regional action plan for the integration of women into development plans. That regional action plan was ratified at the first Regional Conference. The work of the Regional Conference has echoed the international community's work on integrating women into economic and social policy over the past three decades. The Regional Conference has assisted Member States

in establishing more gender-focused policies. The Conference has also worked with the statistical division of ECLAC to improve and develop the information gathered to measure the region's progress on women's issues.

The majority of the Conference's focus during the 1980s and 1990s was to increase overall regional awareness of the impact of policies on women and to provide Member States with the tools to adjust policies for more constructive outcomes for women. The Conference also provided the opportunity for Member States to establish their regional positions in preparation for international Conferences on women. With the adoption of the Millennium Development Goals in 2000, ECLAC shifted focus toward meeting the benchmarks of the Millennium Development Goals and assisting Member States in creating national policies to meet their individual goals. The two most recent consensus documents from the Regional Conference reflect this transition of purpose.

The Mexico City Consensus, adopted in 2004, recapped the two most recent agreements (Santiago in 1997 and Lima in 2000) and noted that progress should continue on the 2001 Regional Action Programme. The Mexico City Consensus asked Member States to take gender and ethnicity into account when developing and considering policies and to encourage job creation for women, recognizing both paid and unpaid work. It also asked Member States to revisit policies for parental obligations and to strengthen enforcement mechanisms when obligations are not met and to provide equal and quality education for all people. The Consensus also extended to areas such as access to healthcare and reproductive rights, strengthening the role of women in sustainable development, revising land ownership legislation, and increasing women's access to communication technologies. Member States were encouraged to include gender and ethnic demographic information when disaggregating data to be considered for policy making and to increase women's participation in decision-making processes. Member States were asked to ratify the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and its Optional Protocol if they had not already done so.

For its tenth meeting in Quito, the Regional Conference chose to focus the group's work on two specific areas affecting women in the region: political participation and gender parity, and the contribution of women to the economy and social protection, especially in relation to unpaid work. A major challenge the region faces in fully integrating women into the economy is the continued inequality of income distribution. While women's participation in the workforce continues to rise, a significant wage gap between men and women continues to exist. Moreover, the continued division of labor by gender continues to be a structural factor that contributes inequality in the region.

In the area of political representation, Member States were encouraged to adopt affirmative action measures to increase representation in policy making and to broaden and strengthen women's domestic and international voices in participatory government and democracy. Promoting opportunities for education on the political process and developing electoral policies that encourage the participation and inclusion of women as well as punish and discourage the prevention of participation were suggested as methods for increasing women's capacity to participate in the political process. Member States were also encouraged to evaluate the media's representation of women in political processes and to eradicate discriminatory practices.

On the topic of women's economic contributions, legislative and institutional reforms were proposed to encourage women's economic participation including: creating universal social security systems with universal access; creating policies that allow respectable paid work to women without their own income so that they are ensured economic voices; abolishing discriminatory labor practices against women; creating policies which encourage equitable division of household responsibilities between men and women; eliminating income gaps with equitable pay policies; developing functional measures for unpaid work so that it can be given due respect in overall determinations of women's work loads, among other suggestions. Through the Quito Consensus, the Conference pledged to foster regional and international cooperation in order advance gender parity. The Quito Consensus also requests that ECLAC and the UN assist Member States in carrying out these agreements and that ECLAC will monitor progress in these areas until the 2010 Conference through yearly evaluations.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
• Where does your nation fall in the spectrum of the topics of political parity and economic contribution and how will your national policies reflect or be affected by these agreements?
• What actions can be taken at the regional level that would contribute to the full integration of women in the economy?
• Within the issue of economic contribution, how do statistics need to be reconsidered to more accurately track progress regarding women and development?
• Does your nation have any existing policies that might be effective on a regional level, and if so, how will these need to be adjusted or implemented for regional success in these areas?

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A/RES/60/210
A/RES/58/142
LC/L.2114(CRM.9/3)
LC/L.2783(CRM.10/3)
Beijing Platform for Action

Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and its Optional Protocol
Mexico City Consensus. Ninth Regional Conference on Women.
Quito Consensus, Tenth Regional Conference on Women
UN Declaration of Indigenous Rights
UN Millennium Declaration

Additional Web Resources:

www.eclac.cl/mujer - ECLAC Division for Women and Development
www.ipu.org - Inter-Parliamentary Union
www.quotaproject.org - The Quota Project: A Global Database of Quotas for Women
www.ilo.org - International Labour Organization
www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/followup/beijing+5.htm - Beijing +5 webpage

Chapter Eight
United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

Along with simulating the General Assembly Plenary and its First, Second, Third and Fourth Committee, AMUN will also be simulating the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). UNEP will meet all four days of the Conference, and will report on its findings to the Combined General Assembly Plenary on Tuesday afternoon. UNEP's membership is open to all member-states, and as such, participation is open to one members from each delegation represented at the Conference. Requests for a second seat on this simulation should be directed to the AMUN Executive Office.

About UNEP

The United Nations Environment Programme was created in 1972 to be the designated UN authority for environment and to provide leadership for global efforts to protect the environment. UNEP is responsible for coordinating the development of environmental policy at the national, regional and international level. Additionally, UNEP monitors the global environment and brings emerging issues to the attention of the international community.

Purview of this Simulation

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) oversees and coordinates UN environmental activities and policies and assists countries with the implementation of environmentally sound policies which promote sustainable development. UNEP monitors environmental trends and is responsible for alerting the global community of environmental issues that require collective global action. UNEP promotes sustainable development by assessing global, regional, and national environmental conditions, developing international agreements, working to integrate economic development and environmental policies and facilitating knowledge transfer. The United Nations Environmental Programme works with many international partners to promote sound environmental policies.

Website: www.unep.org

Dialogue on Long-Term Cooperative Action to Address Climate Change by Enhancing Implementation of the Convention

Climate change is one of the most pressing and challenging environmental issues facing our time. The consequences of climate change extend far beyond environmental security; it will affect agriculture, endanger food security, raise sea levels, accelerate coastal zone erosion, and increase the intensity of natural disasters, species extinction and the spread of vector born diseases. The causes and consequences of climate change extend far beyond the ability of any one country to change, thus necessitating the need for a coordinated United Nations response.

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) was passed in 1992, at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. The goal of the UNFCCC is "to achieve stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a low enough level to prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system." The UNFCCC is a significant step because it documents international recognition that climate change is a problem that needs to be addressed by the global community. Moreover, the Convention established a framework for reaching consensus on specific action items and encourages scientific research on climate change.

The Kyoto Protocol was passed in 1997 to augment the Convention. By signing the Protocol, countries agreed to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions to a level specified in the Protocol. Countries that sign onto the Protocol are divided into two categories. Annex 1 countries are developed countries and must accept greenhouse gas emissions

reductions standards and submit an annual greenhouse gas inventory. Developing countries that sign the Protocol are categorized as Non-Annex 1. They do not have the requirements to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

The UNFCCC Secretariat is the agency charged with monitoring and supporting the work being done on the Convention. The Conference of Parties (COP) is the decision-making authority for the UNFCCC Secretariat. During its eleventh session, the Conference of Parties called for a Dialogue on long-term cooperative action to "exchange experiences and analyze strategic approaches for long-term cooperative action to address climate change" and to support existing implementation commitments under the Convention. The major issues to be addressed during the dialogue include the advancement of sustainable development goals, adaptation adverse effects of climate change, and realizing the full potential of technology and market-based opportunities to address climate change.

The Dialogue took place across four workshops and was an opportunity for governments to share experiences in an informal and open exchange. The Dialogue was intended to be used as a mechanism for informal information exchange on long-term implementation and not to negotiate new commitments to the Convention. The Dialogue is an important step towards putting into place a mechanism for addressing the long-term policy issues that surround the Convention. Specifically, the Dialogue was tasked with analyzing strategic long term cooperative action that will advance development goals in a sustainable way, address action on adaptation and realize the full potential of technology and market-based opportunities to address climate change. Discussion at the Dialogue centered on these topics and ways in which states can develop policies that are in line with the Convention that would address all three issues. There was also significant discussion on coordinated international efforts that would support and enhance national efforts

specifically in regard to mitigation and adaptation. Global efforts will need to be based on priority activities at the national level in order for international support efforts to be fully effective.

The Dialogue recognized mitigation, adaptation and technology and market-based opportunities as central to an effective international response to climate change. Participants at the dialogue acknowledged that implementation will require significant financial resources as well as capacity-building and awareness raising efforts. The international community will need to be mindful of the resource investment that will necessarily and develop strategies to help states overcome barriers in implementing robust climate change policies. Finally, the international community will need to monitor for unintended consequences of response measures such as potential impacts on trade, agriculture and tourism.

UNEP is fully committed to supporting the outcomes of the Dialogue and continues to actively support countries which address climate changes through, mitigation, adaptation, investments in technology. It is becoming increasingly clear that climate change will negatively impact sustainable development. Engagement and commitment from across the UN system and opportunities such as the Dialogue on long-term cooperative action are vital to ensuring the affects of climate change are reversed.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
   • What is the international community's role in facilitating commitments to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change?
   • How can mitigation, adaptation and technology and market based strategies be implemented within a larger sustainable development agenda?
   • What support can the international community provide to developing countries in their efforts to address climate change?

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FCCC/CP/2005/5/Add.1
Bali Action Plan
United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
The Kyoto Protocol

Additional Web Resources:

unfccc.int/2860.php – United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
unfcc.int/meetings/dialogue/items/4048.php – Dialogue on Long Term Cooperative Action homepage
www.ipcc.ch/ - Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
www.unep.org/Themes/climatechange/ - UNEP Climate Change homepage

ENVIRONMENT AND SECURITY PARTNERSHIPS: CONFLICTS AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Historically, the shortage or abundance of natural resources has been a source of violent conflict across the globe. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that the environmental damage associated with civil and international wars can hinder reconstruction and recovery even in those areas where the original conflict was not related to natural resources. Damage to forestry, contamination from ammunitions or weapons and even the movement of populations displaced by conflict have ecological impacts that can undermine the stability of post-conflict societies. Remedying the environmental destruction of conflicts and providing for sustainable development of environmental resources are key tasks in ensuring the long-term viability of regions touched by war.

The United Nations has worked for decades to reduce the impact of violent conflict on the environment. The Convention on the Prohibition of Military or any other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques, the Mine Ban Treaty, and the Chemical Weapons Convention reflect concern for the impact warfare has on the environment. The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) works with the United Nations Peacebuilding Commission, established in 2006, to integrate environmental perspectives into global sustainable development and collective security efforts.

In 1999 the UNEP formed the Post-Conflict and Disaster Management Branch (PCDMB) to monitor and help resolve the environmental impacts of conflict and reconstruction. PCDMB has worked in over 20 countries, providing environmental assessments, advice for reducing the environmental impact of reconstruction efforts and training

for government officials in the area of environmental clean-up and sustainable development. These central operations focus on five areas: conducting environmental assessments, mitigating environmental risk, strengthening institutions for environmental governance, integrating environmental considerations in reconstruction, and strengthening international and regional environmental cooperation.

PCDMB is currently working in Afghanistan, Liberia and Sudan on a variety of assessment and institution-building projects. While efforts in Afghanistan have found strong support from the European Commission and non-governmental actors, the success of PCDMB's efforts in Sudan are constrained by a lack of environmental focus by most organizations. If UN and African Union attempts at peace-building continue to focus solely on the political and social context of the Sudanese conflict, UNEP's work to resolve environmental resource and degradation issues will suffer. Moreover, UNEP faces the challenge of seeking to build national institutions within governments facing large financial resource deficits due to prolonged conflict. UNEP is also tasked with encouraging post-conflict governments to allocate scarce resources to often overlooked environmental issues in order to ensure sustainable environmental efforts once the organization's physical presence in the country ends.

The UNEP is also attempting to address the role the environment can play in pre-conflict situations. The UNEP, in partnership with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), launched the Environment and Security Initiative (ENVSEC) in 2003. The major function of the ENVSEC Initiative is "to assess and address environmental problems, which threaten or are perceived to threaten security, societal stability and peace, human health and/or sustainable livelihoods, within and across national borders in conflict prone regions." In partnership with its stakeholders, ENVSEC conducts environmental and security assessments and promotes the integration of environmental matters into national policy making. The strength of the Initiative lies in the mutually supportive mandate of the three major stakeholders, the "operational powers of OSCE in the area of cooperation and security, of UNDP in promoting sustainable livelihoods and of UNEP in assessing and addressing environmental change."

The UNEP's recent cooperation with the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Control (IPCC) indicates a move towards increased emphasis on identifying countries at risk for environment-based conflicts and the use of preventative capacity building. The IPCC has identified numerous regions considered "hotspots," or likely locations for conflict, as climate change worsens various environmental conditions. Increased cooperation with stakeholders across the international community can serve to increase the effectiveness of programs that address the linkages between conflict and the environment. Preventing conflict, however, requires not just awareness and capacity building in those countries at risk for such issues. The UNEP must continue to work with peace-making and peace-keeping organizations to increase general awareness of the role the environment plays in breeding conflicts and the role it can play in any viable solution to such conflicts.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What emphasis should be placed on environmental concerns in peace-building efforts and how can the UNEP's expertise on this issue be utilized by other actors involved in political negotiations?
- What can non-governmental organizations and other actors do to minimize the environmental impact of reconstruction in post-conflict societies?
- What can countries engaged in warfare do to minimize the environmental impact of their conduct?
- What regions or countries need to emphasize environmental issues to help promote the long-term political and social stability?
- What can countries sharing natural resources do to prevent resource scarcity or possible violent conflict over those resources?
- How can the United Nations best address the risk of conflict in regions abundant in natural resources such as oil?

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Montevideo Programme III
Convention on the Prohibition of Military or any other Hostile Use of
    Environmental Modification Techniques
Chemical Weapons Convention

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    Academy of Natural Sciences: War and the Environment
www.enviroliteracy.org/article.php/596.html - Environmental Literacy
    Council: Weapons of War
www.envsec.org/index.php - ENVSEC Initiative

Chapter Nine
The International Court of Justice (ICJ)

The Purview of the Simulation: The International Court of Justice (ICJ) is the principal international judicial body of the United Nations. The two major roles of the ICJ include developing advisory opinions on matters of international law referred to it 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 both States have accepted the jurisdiction of the Curt over the dispute. The ICJ does not preside over legal disputes between individuals, the public, or private organizations.

Website: www.icj-cij.org

Uruguay v. Argentina, Pulp Mills on the River Uruguay

On 4 May 2006, Argentina brought action against Uruguay for its alleged breach of regulations contained in the Statute of the River Uruguay, arguing that the planned construction of two papers mills posed a serious threat to the River Uruguay's ecosystem. In mid-2006, construction continued on the two paper mills, which were located on the international waterway between Argentina and Uruguay. While it is agreed that the paper mills have the potential to stimulate the economies of both countries at issue, concern has arisen over the questionable methods used to ensure that both construction of and effects from these mills are not harming the surrounding environment and its residents.

Argentina and Uruguay signed the Statute of the River Uruguay in 1975. The purpose of the Statute was to govern use of the River Uruguay and allocate its natural resources between the two countries. By signing the Statute both parties agreed to consult and notify each other before undertaking projects on the River. As part of the Statute, the Administrative Commission of the River Uruguay (CARU) was established to oversee disputes between the two countries over the River Uruguay. Moreover, the Statute also states in Article 60 that any dispute that cannot be mediated by the CARU may be submitted to the International Court of Justice by the either country.

In 2003, Uruguay granted permission to the Spanish company ENCE to begin construction on a pulp mill near the town of Fray Bentos on the River Uruguay. Subsequently in 2005, Uruguay also gave permission to a Finnish company, Botnia, to build a second pulp mill, also situated near Fray Bentos on the River. While both plants are on the Uruguay side of the River they are also about 25 kilometers from the Argentine town of Gualeguaychú, which has approximately 80,000 residents and is a popular tourist attraction. The two mills represented nearly $1.7 million dollars (US) of foreign investment in Uruguay, the largest it had ever received. The mills were also expected to generate a large economic boost for the Uruguay economy.

Since the decision to allow construction of the mills, Argentina has repeatedly argued that the toxic runoff from the mills would damage the River's ecosystem. Residents in Gualeguaychú argued that their tourist and agriculture industries would be negatively impacted by the runoff from the mills. Protesters began blocking bridges from Argentina into Uruguay, which had a direct impact on the tourism industry in Uruguay. As tensions between the countries increased, the governments set up a High-Level Technical Group in March 2005 to help mediate the dispute. These negotiations were unsuccessful. After negotiations between the two countries failed, Argentina began proceedings against Uruguay in the International Court of Justice. In its application, Argentina argued that Uruguay "unilaterally authorized . . . the construction of a pulp mill near the town of Fray Bentos . . . without complying with the obligatory prior notification and consultation procedure" contained in the 1975 Statute. The issue before the Court is whether Uruguay violated its obligations under the Statute.

Argentina requested of the ICJ a provisional measure that would require Uruguay to suspend construction on the mills. The Court rejected the request because it felt that Argentina had not successfully argued that there was an immediate threat from the construction of the mills. This decision did not however, address whether or not Uruguay violated its treaty obligations by authorizing construction on the mills before properly consulting with Argentina. The Court's decision that the mills could be built has lead to further protests in Argentina.

Uruguay argued in its defense that building the mills should be allowed under its sovereign right to sustainable economic development. Moreover, Uruguay also argued that the mills would utilize the safest and most up-to-date technology. Uruguay has also contended that the Statute does not require that it obtain permission from Argentina to build the mills, but merely requires it to make proper notification of the intent to construct the mills, which Uruguay claims to have complied with.

In November 2006, Uruguay filed a request with the Court that would require Argentina to "take all reasonable and appropriate steps at its disposal to prevent or end the interruption of transit between Uruguay and Argentina, including the blockading of bridges and roads between the two States." The Court also rejected this request.

Questions to consider on this issue include:
- What international laws or treaties, if any, should influence the Court's decision as to whether Uruguay violated its obligations under the Statute?
- How will a decision impact the underlying construction of the mills?
- To what extent must a state be bound by a bilateral treaty if compliance is not in the best interests of the country's development?

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GERMANY V. UNITED STATES, LAGRAND CASE (HISTORICAL, 1999)

This case concerns two German nationals, Karl and Walter LaGrand. On 7 January 1982, the brothers attempted a bank robbery in Arizona during which the bank's manager was killed. Two years later, an Arizona court convicted the brothers of first-degree murder and sentenced them to death. Germany claims the sentence was invalid because Arizona officials did not comply with the Vienna Convention on Consular Relations (VCCR), a multilateral treaty to which Germany and the US are both parties. Jurisdiction is claimed under Article I of the Optional Protocol, which states that any disputes arising from the Vienna Convention are to be settled under the compulsory jurisdiction of the ICJ.

Article 36 Paragraph 1(b) of the VCCR provides that when a national of one country is arrested or otherwise detained by competent authorities in another country, those authorities are required to do two things: first, they must notify the prisoner of his or her right to contact and be represented by counsel from his or her own country and second, if the prisoner so requests, the authority must notify the consular post (point of communication for a state's official legal authorities) for the national's country of origin. In this case, the relevant "competent authorities" of the detaining state were Arizona law enforcement and judicial officials. Germany claims, and the US admits, that the Arizona officials failed to comply with the notification requirements of the VCCR. Germany only learned of the brothers' detention and pending death sentences in 1992, when the brothers themselves notified the German consular post in Los Angeles after learning of their rights from other sources. Germany contends that if the brothers had been represented by German counsel they would have fared better at trial, while the US contends that this is too speculative of a harm to justify interference with Arizona's criminal justice system.

Karl LaGrand was executed on 24 February 1999. On 2 March 1999, the day before Walter LaGrand's scheduled execution, Germany petitioned the International Court of Justice for "provisional measures of protection" against the United States that would create an injunction to stay the execution until the Court could reach a decision on the merits. The ICJ granted Germany's request, stating that until final decision in the case was made the US "should take all measures at its disposal" to stay the execution. Germany then sought to enforce the provisional measures in the US Supreme Court, which held that the US procedural default rule prevented the brothers from raising the Vienna Convention issue. Despite Germany's diplomatic efforts, the Governor of Arizona refused to stay the execution, and Walter LaGrand was put to death on 3 March 1999.

One of the major conflicts in this case is between the VCCR and the US domestic doctrine of procedural default, which prevents parties to a trial from raising defenses on appeal if they failed to raise them at the initial trial. This doctrine became important to the case when German counsel were not allowed to raise the VCCR violation issue in later federal court proceedings involving the LaGrands. Germany argues that the VCCR should take precedence, especially since the reason the brothers did not claim their rights at trial is because of Arizona's failure to notify of this right.

After Walter LaGrand's execution, Germany changed its claim for remedies since a new trial was no longer possible. Germany demanded a declaration from the ICJ that the US violated the VCCR, reparation from the US, and protocols put in place by the US to ensure that in the future such a situation would be prevented. In legal support of its argument, Germany claims the VCCR confers rights on individuals such as the LaGrand brothers, rights which are enforceable in both domestic and international courts. The United States claims the VCCR confers enforceable rights on states only, not individuals.

Germany also argues in support of the binding power of provisional ICJ rulings, claiming the US violated the Optional Protocol by not complying with the ICJ's provisional measures and staying the execution. The United States counters with the claim that its domestic doctrine of procedural default takes precedence over the VCCR and that the ICJ does not have the authority to rule on Arizona's sovereign right to manage its own criminal justice system. These questions go to the foundation of the Court's powers and purpose. In preparing your research, pay special attention to Article 41 of the Statute of the Court.

In the simulation, the ICJ will preempt history from the time that the Court's simulation begins. History will be as it was written until the moment the Court convenes on 28 March 2000. From that moment

on, however, ICJ participants exercise free will based on the range of all the choices within their national character and the confines of available law.

Questions to consider on this issue include:
- What judicially enforceable rights, if any, do treaties confer upon individuals?
- When the ICJ was created along with the UN Charter, to what extent did the founding Member States intend for provisional ICJ rulings to be binding?
- How can countries strike the appropriate balance between effective ICJ rulings and state sovereignty?
- To what extent should customary international law and other treaties affect interpretation of a treaty provision?
- To what extent should international legal obligations undertaken by a state affect the implementation of its domestic laws? What about the actions of its sub-state political entities such as US states under the federal system?

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Vienna Convention on Consular Relations

Vienna Convention Optional Protocol Concerning the Compulsory Settlement of Disputes

Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, Article 31 Paragraph 3(c)

United Nations Charter

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www.icj-cij.org/docket/index.php?p1=3&p2=3&code=gus&case=104&k=04

www.icj-cij.org/docket/index.php?p1=3&p2=3&code=paus&case=99&k=08

www.nyulawglobal.org/Globalex/Vienna

REPUBLIC OF GUINEA V. DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO, DIALLO CASE

This case involves proceedings between the Republic of Guinea on behalf of Mr. Ahmadou Sadio Diallo, a Guinean citizen, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (formerly known as Zaire). The case is over Guinea's assertion that Diallo, who lived in Zaire for 32 years, was "unlawfully imprisoned by the authorities of that State" and was, "divested of his important investments, companies, bank accounts, movable and immovable properties, then expelled" after Diallo attempted to collect debt owed to him by Zaire. While residing in Zaire, Diallo founded two major companies, Africom-Zaire (a trading company) and Africacontainers (a container transport company). Both companies had contracts with major oil and mineral companies within Zaire and with the government itself. The proceedings came about after Diallo attempted to recover substantial debt owed to him by Zaire Shell, an oil company of which Zaire was a shareholder.

In 1995, after direct negotiation with the company and the state failed, Diallo began to take action through the Zaire court system to collect the debts owed to him. Diallo was able to successfully argue his case in the Congolese court and Zaire Shell was ordered to pay Diallo's company, Africacontainers, $13 million (US). The court also issued a seizure order against Zaire Shell's bank accounts and property. The decision was upheld through several appellate decisions and was initially honored by the Prime Minister. The Minister of Justice was to oversee negotiations between Diallo and Africacontainers and Zaire Shell to develop a payment schedule.

However, the Prime Minister of Zaire issued an expulsion order against Diallo on 31 October 1995. The order claimed Diallo's "presence and conduct have breached public order in Zaire, especially in the economic, financial, and monetary areas, and continue to do so". On 5 November Diallo was secretly arrested and imprisoned and the Prime Minister revoked the seizure against Zaire Shell's accounts and property. Diallo's plight generated significant attention from the media and international organizations and despite petitions from groups such as Avocats Sans Frontieres, he was held for 74 days. After his release, the Prime Minister issued a new expulsion order and Diallo was forced to the leave the country by aircraft. The paperwork involved in the deportation was formalized as a refusal of entry notice, and an account of illegal residence.

On behalf of Diallo, the Republic of Guinea requested that the International Court of Justice order Zaire, now the Democratic Republic of the Congo, to make full reparations and public apology to Diallo. Guinea asserts that Diallo's arrest, detention and expulsion were a result of a DRC policy to prevent him from collecting the debts owed. The DRC rejects this allegation, and argues that his detention, expulsion and arrest were the result of his presence breaching public order in Zaire (now DRC). Guinea is arguing on behalf of Diallo by exercising its diplomatic protection, noting that Diallo's rights were violated in the following three categories: his individual rights, his direct rights as the acting partner in Africom-Zaire and Africacontainers-Zaire, and the rights of those companies by substitution.

Questions to consider on this issue include:
- What recourse does a nation or individual have in the ICJ when wronged as a result of internal politics in another state?
- What effect should the Court give to the decision of the Congolese court in favor of Diallo?
- How do international law and treaties influence the obligations that a state has to allow foreign businesses to collect debt upon a judgment?
- Does a state have the right to purse justice on of one of its nationals through the International Court of Justice?

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