

CHAPTER TWO THE SECURITY COUNCIL

Members of the Security Council:

Lebanon
Nigeria
Portugal
Russian Federation
South Africa
United Kingdom
United States of America

Representatives to the Security Council should note that the agenda provided is only provisional. The Security Council may discuss any international peace and security issue brought before it. For this reason, Representatives must have a broad base of knowledge on current events in the international community. Also, the overviews provided below are only current through the publication of this handbook. Many of the topics listed below will change significantly before the Conference, and Representatives should be familiar with the up-to-date situations. Periodicals are one of the best recommended sources available for day-to-day updates. These include among others: *The New York Times, UN Chronicle, The London Times, Foreign Policy, The Economist* and *Keesing's Record of World Events*.

THE SITUATION IN IRAN

Since August 2002 Iran has been a pressing source of concern for the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) following the revelation of two secret nuclear facilities. The revelation of these facilities drew into question the nature of the Iranian nuclear program. While Iran was initially cooperative with the IAEA, that cooperation ended in early 2006 with its announcement of intent to resume all research and development activities. In April 2006, President Mahmoud 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 with the goal of deterring Iranian uranium enrichment. Iran rejected the proposals, calling them "insulting and humiliating." Following the rejection of the proposals, the Security Council issued the first (S/RES/1696) of what would become six resolutions between July 2006 and June 2010 banning arms exports, freezing assets, and restricting the travel of individuals, groups, and companies associated with the nuclear program.

During this time negotiations continued regarding efforts to persuade Iran to halt its uranium enrichment program. In 2009, Russia, France, and the United States offered to send a large portion of Iran's nuclear fuel abroad for further processing. Iran initially refused but later accepted after the proposal was withdrawn following the exposure of the Fordow Fuel Enrichment Plant (FFEP). Following the initial rejection, Iran and several member nations revealed to the IAEA that Iran was constructing a fuel enrichment plant in a tunnel complex on a Revolutionary Guard base in Fordow, near the city of Qom. Also, the UN Foundation's online 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.

While it has been years since the covert nuclear facilities were exposed the question of a military dimension to Iran's nuclear program remains unanswered. The IAEA has been allowed access to declared Iranian nuclear facilities; however Iran continues to remain evasive regarding questions raised by the IAEA and Security Council. Iran continually reminds the IAEA of its compliance and findings in Board of Governors' reports that Iran has not diverted any nuclear material from those sites the IAEA is allowed to access. Western diplomats continue to call into question the validity of Iran's proposal to domestically supply fuel for its nuclear program as well as the design of its research reactor under construction at Arak. They also question if the Arak reactor is to be a replacement for the Tehran Research Reactor and why the Iranian government proceeded to enrich uranium to 20% against IAEA recommendations and without IAEA safeguards as reported in GOV/2010/10.

There have been repeated statements by Iran regarding the construction of as many as ten new enrichment facilities. The IAEA has not been allowed access to any of these proposed sites, though reportedly five have been chosen. Iran claims it is not obligated to give access to the sites until six months prior to the introduction of nuclear material under the Safeguards Agreement. Iran has routinely neglected to inform the IAEA of nuclear sites until they have been publicly exposed via international media or western intelligence agencies.

Issues with possible military dimensions have been continually called into question by the IAEA. Such issues include alleged studies relating to spherical and hemispherical high-explosive lensing testing; long range missile testing; reentry vehicle modification of Shahab-3 payload replacing the conventional high explosives with a spherical payload; uranium metal milling; and highly synchronous explosive triggering. Additionally, issues relating to transparency and cooperation with the IAEA remain outstanding: continued uranium enrichment to 20%; lack of access to companies producing components for nuclear research and development; and refusal of access to heavy water, uranium processing and mining facilities. Iran claims these issues have arisen from forged documents and that these are "politically motivated" and "baseless" accusations. Iran also claims that "alleged studies" have never been considered outstanding issues. Iran continues to call all Security Council resolutions concerning the Iranian nuclear program "illegal," claiming it is not bound by modified Code 3.1 of the Subsidary Arrangements General Part (which requires states report new facilities to the IAEA 180 days before the facility receives nuclear material for the first time) and that its actions do not violate the Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT).

Efforts have been made by unknown nations or groups to slow Iran's nuclear progress using cyber-warfare. Following the cyberattack by the Stuxnet virus in 2010 on computers regulating Iranian centrifuges and the Bushehr nuclear reactor, Iranian production of Low Enriched Uranium (LEU) fell. The virus also resulted in a delay in bringing the Bushehr reactor online. The virus appears to have been designed specifically for systems controlling Iranian centrifuge cascades causing them to spin out of control while indicating false readouts within normal operating parameters. Despite this setback, by early 2011 production of LEU had reached pre-Stuxnet, levels and the Bushehr reactor was loaded and had reached the critical level for sustained nuclear fission by 10 May 2011. Iran has placed blame for the Stuxnet virus on Israel and the United States and has blamed the German company Siemens for introducing the virus to Iranian systems. In addition to overcoming the setbacks caused by the Stuxnet virus, analysis by experts suggests that Iran has reached nuclear breakout capacity and with available known quantities of LEU, Iran could produce enough Highly Enriched Uranium (HEU) to build a nuclear weapon within 62 days, or 12 days provided 153.2kg of LEU enriched at 19.7%.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective include the following

- 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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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 made initial progress until 1994 when American and European troops began to withdraw from the force. The United Nations Mission to Somalia (UNISOM II) ended in 1995 with the withdrawal of the rest of the troops. Between 1995 and 2000, the situation deteriorated with the capital of Mogadishu divided between rival warlords. By 2000, the situation began to look promising as 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, by 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 the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM), Ethiopian forces helped engage the UIC militias, driving them out of Mogadishu. The UIC and affiliated anti-government groups continued to fight with the government and Ethiopian forces throughout early 2008. The Ethiopian offensive resulted in high civilian casualties, often due to the use of mortar and field gun attacks in highly populated areas. In light of these developments, the African Union Peace and the Security Council requested the transition of peacekeeping from AMISOM to United Nations forces as noted in S/RES/1801.

After 2008, hard-line factions arose within Somalia filling the power void left by the fall of the UIC and the lack of true governance by the TFG. One such faction that arose was al-Shabaab, which aimed to enforce Sharia Law throughout Somalia. It was labeled a terrorist organization by several western governments and was accused of ties with al-Qaeda. Eritrea was found to be supporting elements of al-Shabaab through the transfer of small arms. In late December 2009, the UN Security Council imposed sanctions on Eritrea for supporting insurgents trying to topple the nascent Somalia government. The Council expressed concern over Eritrea's rejection of the Djibouti Agreement, designed to ease tensions in Somalia. Violence escalated across Somalia with the killing of AMISOM peacekeepers by al-Shabaab, which continued to expand its power throughout 2009 and much of 2010. Following the bombings Kampala, Uganda during the 2010 World Cup, the AMISOM mandate was expanded by the African Union to allow AMISOM forces to directly engage al-Shabaab.

AMISOM peacekeeping forces provided by Uganda and Burundi, and funded by UN donor support, took the offensive in late February 2011 and began an assault on Mogadishu. AMISOM troops made significant territorial gains in Mogadishu which allowed a siege on the heart of al-Shabaab's economic support, the Bakara Market. This siege of the Bakara Market was designed to limit civilian casualties while effectively denying al-Shabaab its military base of operations and revenue gained by the illegal taxation of businesses. By this writing, al-Shabaab had lost significant territory to AMISOM, TFG forces, and allied tribes but still remained in control of the port city of Kismaayo.

Gains by AMISOM and the TFG remain fragile with the government situation in flux due to political infighting surrounding extending the TFG beyond the current UN mandate. Uganda has threatened to withdraw its peacekeepers from AMISOM if the TFG is not extended. Some have argued that elections are needed, however the cost to security may be extreme if elections proceed. Additionally, funding shortfalls in supporting AMISOM and TFG troops threaten to eliminate recent gains.

In addition to the insecurity on land, piracy off Somalia has continued to rise, with several port cities being used as safe havens to carry out attacks on ships in the Gulf of Aden and Indian Ocean. These acts of piracy have made the security situation in Somalia worse, especially since the government has limited ability to enforce laws and no navy to help combat the piracy. This problem has led to several countries sending warships to the area to help protect merchant traffic and UN humanitarian aid by pursuing pirate vessels. Security Council members have called for tougher laws on piracy and a better judicial system within Somalia and its autonomous regions to support the prosecution of pirates. As of 15 April 2011, 550 people and 26 vessels were being held hostage in Somalia.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective include the following

- Why has the chaotic situation in Somalia persisted for so long despite significant international attention?
- What can the UN do to preserve the gains of AMISOM and allow for the eventual transfer to elected government?
- Are there ways the international community can assist in combating piracy and its prosecution?

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THE SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

The Palestinian Question remains one of the most discussed topics in the Security Council since Israel declared its independence in 1948. The Six-Day and October War and the Israeli invasions of Lebanon have only further complicated the process of resolving the Palestinian question both in terms of displaced persons and defining Palestinian territory. In 1987 Jordan ceded its rights to the West Bank to the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO). Israel and the PLO signed the Oslo Accords in 1993. As part of the Oslo Accords, the Palestinian Authority replaced the PLO in 1994 and became the governing body of the West Bank and Gaza Strip. While progress towards resolution of the Palestinian question was at first promising, the peace process broke down due to attacks by Palestinian groups and the ever expanding Israeli settlements in the West Bank.

After the breakdown 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 occurred in 2003 with the Quartet, composed of the United States, Russia, the European Union and the United Nations, backing what is known as the Road Map. The Road Map suggested 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. Direct talks between Israel and the Palestinians held by US President Barak Obama in September 2010 met their demise only weeks after beginning due to Israel failing to renew a settlement freeze in the West Bank.

The situation in Gaza has been tense since the establishment of a blockade in 2007 when Hamas gained control of the Gaza Strip following parliamentary elections. The ensuing humanitarian and economic crisis precipitated a conflict in Gaza from 27 December 2008 to 18 January 2009. This conflict was originally sparked by rocket attacks from within Gaza and led to the deaths of 1,010 Palestinians and the destruction of 1,008 buildings in Gaza. A United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC) investigation resulted in a 575 page report which found both Israeli forces and Palestinian militants guilty of committing war crimes. The report found the Israeli Defense Forces (IDF) directly targeted and arbitrarily killed Palestinian civilians and directly targeted industrial and water installations while using Palestinians civilians as human shields. It also found Palestinian militants affiliated with Hamas to be guilty of deliberately targeting civilian populations. Several UN facilities were damaged during the conflict.

Following the conflict, Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon called for the blockade on Gaza to be lifted in light of the humanitarian situation. The UN has estimated that nearly 80% of all imports to Gaza come through smuggling tunnels due to the blockade. An attempt to break the blockade on 31 May 2010 by a flotilla originating in Turkey ended with Israeli Defense Forces raiding and boarding multiple ships and nine attempted blockade breakers dead.

Efforts at restarting the peace process and moving toward a two-state solution, originally envisioned in General Assembly Resolution 181 of 1947, have reached a stumbling block due to Hamas control of Gaza and the expansion of Israeli settlements in the West Bank. Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon has stated that expansion of Israeli settlements is illegal and acts against international law. Frustrated by a lack of progress in recent years the Palestinians are set to seek recognition from the UN General Assembly in September 2011. It is not yet clear if the Palestinians will seek membership as a sovereign state or a non-binding resolution recognizing Palestine as a state. Palestinian Observer Rivad Mansor argued in front of the Security Council 26 July 2011 that recognition of Palestine as a state would not hurt the peace process but instead would strengthen efforts toward establishing a twostate solution. Israel views the Palestinian appeal for state recognition as an effort to by-pass direct peace talks. Palestine is unlikely to gain UN membership as a state at this time due to the threat of a US veto. The question of how to establish and maintain a lasting peace in Israel, Palestine, and neighboring states remains.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective include the following

- What steps can be taken to persuade Israel, Palestine, and surrounding nations to adhere to the Road Map? Is the Road Map still a viable solution?
- Is a two-state solution a viable way to resolve conflict and bring about the changes envisioned in Resolution 242 and subsequent documents?

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THE SITUATION IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

Since the end of the Second Congo War, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) remains a country in conflict. Rich in natural resources, the Democratic Republic of the Congo remains divided among several militant groups that are vying for control of the country's vast mineral wealth. Ethnic violence also continues in the wake of the Rwandan genocide when militant groups, both Hutu and Tutsi, crossed into the eastern portions of the DRC. Militant groups arose within DRC in response to these incursions. These groups, along with the Forces Armees de la Republique Democratique du Congo (FARDC), came into conflict in 2008. Following a conflict on 28 August 2010, large-scale hostilities broke out in the eastern part of the DRC between Congrès National pour la Défense du Peuple (CNDP) and FARDC. FARDC, Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda (FDLR), Coalition of Congolese Patriotic Resistance (PARECO) and various Mai-Mai groups fighting the CNDP led to the displacement of 250,000 people between August and November 2008. Fighting continued until a ceasefire was negotiated by UN special envoy, former Nigerian President, Olusegun Obasanjo, in November 2008. Following the arrest of CDNP leader Laurent Nkunda in January 2009, the remaining CNDP, under the command of Bosco Ntaganda, reached an agreement with FARDC integrating them into the DRC's armed forces, although integration met with limited success.

Although the fighting has diminished following cooperation between the United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUSCO) and FARDC, eastern and northern portions of the DRC still remain in conflict. Foreign-armed groups as well as Congolese armed groups, continue to carry out violence against civilians in the provinces of Orientale, North Kivu and South Kivu. Joint operations between FARDC and the Rwandan armed forces, to hunt down the FDLR, caused an increase in violence from reprisal killings against suspected collaborators. Nearly 160,000 people were displaced by the joint Rwandan-Congolese offensive and FDLR counter offensive between January and March 2009. This precipitated the FDLR forging an alliance with the Congolese Mai Mai in the mineral rich region of Opienge. FARDC once again went on the offensive against FDLR troops claiming 600 killed or captured between January and March 2010 with UN peacekeepers backing the mission. While joint operations with MONUSCO backing FARDC have decreased between 2010 and 2011, they met with some success. More officers in the FDLR are cooperating with disarmament and repatriation.

In addition to the elements of the FDLR remaining in DRC, FARDC faces the continued problem of Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) attacks and kidnappings in Orientale Province. Joint operations have been carried out between FARDC, Ugandan and South Sudanese armed forces against LRA bases in the Garamba National park, after Joesph Kony, leader of the LRA, failed to appear to sign a peace deal with the Ugandan government to end its rebellion. While the most brutal attacks by the LRA took place in December 2009 with LRA forces killing at least 321 and abducting 250, including 80 children, 437,000 continue living displaced within DRC from Orientale Province alone due to the notoriously violent LRA. However the LRA is not just a concern for DRC; South Sudan, Uganda, and the Central African Republic have all suffered attacks by LRA forces in recent years.

Militant groups in the Democratic Republic of the Congo have been accused of terrorizing civilian populations through brutal killings, forced labor, rape, and conscription of child soldiers. MONUSCO, with approximately 22,000 personnel throughout DRC, remains the largest UN peacekeeping mission. However despite its troop size, the force remains in need of equipment, specifically military helicopters to transport troops due to DRC's poor infrastructure. This force (formerly The United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC)), active since February 2000, is tasked with protecting civilians from militant groups and undisciplined elements of FARDC, usually former CNDP, in eastern portions of the DRC. MONUSCO also allows for humanitarian assistance to the displaced. Today, 1.7 million people within the DRC remain internally displaced primarily from Orientale and the North and South Kivu provinces. These internal displacements have exacerbated outbreaks of polio, measles and cholera in the past year.

In October 2010, the Mapping Report detailing the most serious human rights abuses between March 1993 and June 2003 was released following a delay due to protests by the Rwandan government for its portrayal of Rwandan involvement in mass killings. Both Rwanda and Uganda's governments have been dismissive of the report. Speculation over political fallout regarding Rwanda, Uganda, and Burundi's peacekeepers in ANISOM abounded prior to the report's release. While all nations continued their peacekeeping efforts in Somalia, the report detailed what is described as, "one of the most tragic chapters in DRC's recent history." Within it were 617 accounts of war crimes and potential crimes against humanity often committed in close proximity to UN peacekeepers without their knowledge. This, along with reports of mass rapes in North Kivu by FARDC forces between 31 December 2010 and 1 January 2011, have served as a stark reminder of the inadequacy of the UN force in protecting civilians in DRC.

The situation in the Democratic Republic of the Congo is further complicated by the exploitation of the DRC's mineral resources in the form of gold, tin, copper, cobalt, coltan, and wolframite smuggled through neighboring states to industrialized nations across the world. This mineral exploitation is fueled by ongoing support from neighboring countries, particularly Rwanda. While this has improved with greater public awareness of conflict minerals and laws passed within DRC, conflict minerals continue to drive violence in eastern DRC.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective include the following:

- Should the UN consider drawing down the number of peacekeepers or moving them to deal with the LRA more effectively? Should support continue for FARDC missions?
- How can the aspect of conflict minerals and their role in fueling this crisis best be addressed by the Security Council?

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THE SITUATION IN LIBYA

The history of Libya over the past forty years is essentially dominated by the history of its leader, Muammar Gaddafi. In his nearly forty-one year reign, Muammar Gaddafi has experienced a troubled past with the international community and the United Nations. During the Cold War, Gaddafi focused primarily on opposing the West and promoting leftist ideology and pan-Africanism. Gaddafi's affiliations included the support of terrorist groups around the world including the Irish Republican Army and many pro-Islamic and pro-communist groups within Asia. Gaddafi's radical associations and support of terrorism eventually led many Western nations to cut diplomatic ties with Libya. Libya's association with terrorism came to a head in 1988 with the bombing of Pan Am Flight 103 by state-sponsored Libyan terrorists. Fallout from the terrorist act eventually resulted in ten years of UN sanctions against Libya and fifteen years of sanctions from the US.

After the fall of the Soviet Union, Gaddafi began to modify long-held stances on international affairs and publicly denounced terrorism. Throughout the early 2000's Gaddafi began to re-brand Libya as a more moderate nation, a move which included publicly announcing in 2003 that Libya would dismantle its chemical, biological, and nuclear weapons programs and inviting the world to inspect and help with the disarmament process. Over this time period, Libya reinstated many of the diplomatic ties lost in past decades. These newly strengthened ties helped Gaddafi keep control of Libya despite the fact that he continued to lead a corrupt and, at times, despotic government. In early 2011, Gaddafi's hold on Libya began to falter as the movement deemed "Arab Spring" took root across the Middle East. Following citizen uprisings in both Tunisia and Egypt, much of the Arab world was on edge, especially nations with histories of oppressive government. The Arab spring reached a tipping point in Libya on 15 February 2011 after police used violence on a protest in Benghazi which was centered on the arrest of Fathi Terbil, a human rights activist. Protestors responded to the violence with numerous large protests the next day. Within days protests against Gaddafi sprang up across the country. Gaddafi and the police force responded to these protest with more violence, but these increasingly violent acts of state against civilians only intensified opposition. Over the following weeks many high level Libyan officials resigned their positions in protest of orders to fire upon citizens. In addition, there were numerous defections by Libyan military personnel. These defections included resignations and often joining rebels in the conflict after being given orders to attack civilians. The highest profile of these incidents involved the defection of two pilots and their aircraft to Malta after being ordered to use heavy weapons on protestors.

As the violence against the protestors and civilians increased, the international community began to take a sharper notice. This became evident following a 21 February attack by units loyal to Gaddafi in the Libyan air force upon rebels and civilian populations. Several foreign governments including, the US, the UK, Italy, Australia, Switzerland, and Poland as well as groups such as the EU and the Arab League called for an end to the violence. Threats of sanctions and other intervening actions accompanied calls for a cease-fire if the Gaddafi regime failed to comply. Initially, there was a call for the UN to set up a no-fly zone over Libya, the appeal failed to gain traction when it was first proposed for logistical reasons. Instead the international community and the Security Council responded with Resolution 1970 on 26 February 2011 which demanded an immediate end to the violence, referred the situation to the Prosecutor of the International Criminal Court (ICC), declared an arms embargo on the nation, a travel ban for 16 members of the Libyan government, and froze Gaddafi's foreign assets as well as those of five of his relatives. As the fighting and large scale violence against civilians continued the international community heeded calls for a no fly zone and on 17 March 2011, the Security Council passed resolution 1973 under article VII of the UN Charter authorizing member nations to take all necessary measures to protect civilians under threat of attack. The resolution authorized a no fly zone, strengthened the arms embargo created by resolution 1970, and expanded the travel ban and asset freeze.

In a reaction to Resolution 1973, Gaddafi originally indicated that he would comply with the UN's resolution and call for an immediate cease fire. However, Gaddafi's forces renewed their assault on the areas surrounding the rebel strong hold of Benghazi. On 19 March, the international military response to Gaddafi's actions began. A wave of bombardment against targets necessary to enforce the no-fly zone commenced. A collation of French, Italian, US, and UK militaries enforced a no-fly zone, destroyed Libya's larger military capabilities, and engaged Libyan ground forces to prevent them from advancing on rebel held cities. As military actions began, some in the international community questioned the motives behind the tactical objectives. Securing the airspace above Libya so that Gaddafi could no longer use fighter jets against civilian populations was necessary. However, active engagement of ground units, air support for rebel positions, and the destruction of Libyan military capabilities were viewed by some Member States as being beyond the scope of resolution.

At the end of March NATO officially took command of Coalition air operations in Libya (which now included Arab League representation) and daily strikes against Gaddafi's forces continued. It is estimated that, as of late June, nearly one third of Libya's military capabilities have been destroyed. Within Libya, rebel forces managed to control most of the eastern half of the nation. Despite the support that the rebels received from Coalition actions, they have reached a stalemate with the pro-Gaddafi forces. Based out of Benghazi, and holding major cities including Ajdabiya and Misrata, the rebels have made several pushes toward the capital of Tripoli, but have been repelled. The rebel force is poorly funded, trained, and ill-equipped, and it is unlikely they could sustain a drawn out conflict with the Libyan military. Politically, the rebels are represented by a national Transitional Council, headquartered in Benghazi. The National Council does not see itself as a new government for the nation, but rather the political arm of the rebel movement. However, they have declared themselves to be the sole representation of Libya and Libyan interests, and have been recognized as such by several Member States.

On 28 June, the ICC issued an arrest warrant for Muammar Gaddafi; his son, Saif al-Islam; and head of military intelligence Abdullah Senussi citing crimes against humanity and political opponents. Gaddafi refuses to answer to the arrest warrant stating that the ICC had no jurisdiction in Libya.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective include the following

- What should the eventual solution for the Libyan situation be? How can your country help achieve this solution?
- Should the international community directly help the rebel forces? How might the ICC indictment affect the peace process?

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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. Even

though the north-south civil war ended in 2005 with the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), conflict remained in Darfur. Rebels, called the Sudanese Liberation Army (SLA), attacked government and military facilities throughout Darfur, which led to retaliation by local militias known as the Janjaweed. The Janjaweed are backed by the Sudanese government and have often worked in conjunction with the Sudanese Armed Forces (SAF). The conflict in Darfur has resulted in the deaths of over 300,000 people and the displacement of over three million more. While several Member States and NGOs have declared the events in Darfur to be genocide, the United Nations has not declared the fighting to be 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 peacekeepers in the region. The UN assumed full authority in January 2008. UNAMID's mission in Darfur is to monitor the humanitarian and security situations and the implementation of the Darfur Peace Agreement, signed in 2006. Violence continued between the SAF and the Sudan People's Liberation Army, preventing the return of refugees from Uganda, Kenya, and Ethiopia in late March 2009. At least 300,000 people are estimated to have died and 2.7 million more have been driven from their homes in the fighting. In December 2009, civil society and armed movements agreed to re-start consultations in January 2010 to be followed by direct talks between the Government and movements on 24 January 2010 in Qatar. In February of 2010, the Justice and Equity Movement (JEM), the largest rebel group in Darfur, and the Sudanese government signed an agreement aimed to pave the way for a permanent resolution. The UNAMID has confirmed continued air strikes since this agreement in South Dafur.

Following the referendum of 9-15 January 2011 that resulted in an overwhelming majority of South Sudanese opting to form a separate nation, questions remained as to the status of Abyei, a region and city that straddle the proposed border between the two sides, that was originally supposed to have a simultaneous referendum on which side to join in the event of a split. The parties could not come to an agreement as to who should be allowed to vote in the Abyei referendum; as a result, the vote did not take place. Clashes began between Arab Misseriya nomadic cattle-herders linked to the North and the Dinka ethnic group linked to the South during the referendum period and escalated until May 2011. In the jointly administered region, troops of the SAF, accompanied by UN peacekeepers, were attacked by Southern Sudanese forces on 19 May 2011. SAF troops launched a massive counter attack, over running the city and causing the flight of an estimated 30,000 civilians from bombing and shelling. Sudan unilaterally declared the joint administration of Abyei to be dissolved. The retaliation by the SAF has been viewed as disproportionate and an effort to solidify the north's territorial claim on Abyei and its oil wealth. The Temporary Arrangement for the Administration and Security of the Abyei Area was reached between SLA and Sudan on 20 June 2011. This was shortly followed by the establishment of the UN Interim Security Force for Abyei (UNISFA) on 27 June 2011. This force's six month mandate tasks it with demilitarizing, de-mining, assisting in humanitarian aid, and, where necessary, protecting Abyei's oil infrastructure during the negotiations for a peaceful solution to the fate of the Abyei region. The mandate of United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) expired, however it was replaced by the United Nations Mission in Southern Sudan which was tasked with monitoring

the border to prevent conflict with its recently separated neighbor as well as other tasks aimed at helping the newly formed Republic of Southern Sudan (UNMISS), which became a Member State of the UN 13 July 2011, set up necessary institutions while attempting to mitigate external forces such as the Lord's Resistance Army, through cooperation with other UN missions in the region. Khartoum had proposed UNMIS, operating in Abyei, be replaced by a "more effective" African force prior to its replacement with UNMISS in Southern Sudan and UNISFA in Abyei. While these new peacekeeping forces are in place tensions will likely remain along the border until the long term fate of Abyei is decided.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective include the following

- Are there ways to make UNAMID more successful in Darfur?
- Why has the violence in Darfur continued to escalate despite the Darfur Peace Agreement? How might these factors be overcome?
- How might neighbor state involvement further complicate the security situation in Darfur and South Sudan?
- How can the UN facilitate a peaceful transition in the decision regarding the fate of Abyei?

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