

AMERICAN MODEL UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL



ISSUES AT
AMUN

2015 AMUN International Executive Committee

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INTRODUCTION

The *Issues at AMUN Handbook* is published to assist Representatives in their preparations for the American Model United Nations (AMUN) Conference. When combined with students' own research on the Member States 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, *Rules and Procedures*, provides an overview of the Committee rules and Conference logistics with which Representatives need to familiarize themselves for the simulation.

“Chapter One: The United Nations” provides essential background information to give all Representatives a common orientation to the history of the United Nations. This section begins with the origins of the United Nations and covers some important points about the organization. Finally, the chapter focuses on problems confronting the United Nations today.

“Chapter Two: Conference Preparation & Position Papers” outlines a recommended process for preparing for the AMUN Conference. Following these steps will place Representatives well on their way to acquiring all the content knowledge necessary to be successful at AMUN. Representatives will also find general information about topic purviews and position papers here.

Chapters Three through Nine contain brief overviews of the topics to be discussed in the Committees, Councils, Commissions and International Court of Justice at the 2015 Conference. These are intended as a guideline and basis for Representatives' further research of the issues involved. In keeping with this goal, each overview includes a bibliography to guide Representatives to appropriate sources of additional information.

The overviews provide background on each topic and state some areas of current United Nations and international activity on the topic. In many cases, the overviews will frame the topic in terms of a few limited aspects of a complex issue. For example, the general issue of “the environment” has dozens of sub-issues—in such a case, the overview may direct Representatives to concentrate their research on “Ozone Depletion” and “Limiting the Destruction of the Rain Forests,” only two of the many subsidiary issues. This format allows Representatives to go into greater detail in their preparations without needing to research all aspects of a multifaceted main issue.

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.*



CHAPTER ONE

THE UNITED NATIONS

Representatives participating in the American Model United Nations (AMUN) Conference should be familiar with the history of the United Nations, and with the changing role the organization plays in international affairs. This section provides a brief background on the United Nations system and 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 ratified by the fifty-one original Members. The concept of all States uniting together in one organization designed to settle disputes peacefully was born of the desire of civilized countries to avoid the horrors of the First and Second World Wars. The United Nations developed as a successor to the League of Nations, which represented the first modern attempt by the countries of the world to achieve this unity.

In 1942, American President Franklin D. Roosevelt first coined the term “United Nations,” when forty-seven countries signed the Declaration of the United Nations in support of the Atlantic Charter. In 1944, the United States, the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics 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 States 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:

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 an 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 or religion;” and
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 discussing international disputes. 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. Member States recognize that the United Nations has an established machinery which can be used to solve international problems. It should be recognized that the United Nations is not a world government, nor does it legislate. Rather, the actions of the United Nations, in the form

of resolutions passed by its bodies, have a strong moral persuasive effect. Member States frequently find it in their own best interests to follow United Nations recommendations.

STRUCTURE OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The United Nations has six primary bodies:

The General Assembly (GA): The GA is the central deliberative organ of the United Nations. The GA has been described as the nearest thing to a “parliament of mankind.” All Member States are Members of the GA, and each Member has one vote. The GA makes recommendations on international issues, oversees all other United Nations bodies that report to the GA annually, approves the United Nations budget and apportions United Nations 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, but a majority of the body’s work is adopted by consensus.

The Security Council (SC): The Security Council’s primary responsibility is 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 five Permanent Members (China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and the United States) and ten at-large Member States, which the General Assembly elects 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 actions.

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC): ECOSOC is the primary body dealing with the economic, social, humanitarian and cultural work of the United Nations system. It also has a mandate to coordinate the activities of United Nations technical and specialized agencies and programs. ECOSOC oversees five regional economic Commissions and nine functional, or “subject-matter,” Commissions. ECOSOC is composed of fifty-four Member States elected by the GA for three-year renewable terms.

The 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 admission of Palau as a United Nations Member State in 1994, the TC has now completed its original mandate. Today, the TC 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 United Nations and decides international legal disputes. All United Nations Member States 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 41,000 people are employed as the staff of the United Nations, only 6,000 of whom work at the United Nations 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 system includes a number of autonomous technical and specialized agencies and programs. Examples include the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). While most of these agencies and programs have independent governance structures, ECOSOC coordinates their activities.

BLOC POLITICS

Historically, Member States with mutual interests have used a system of bloc politics to organize their efforts within the United Nations. These blocs tend to be made up of Member States with similar political, historical or cultural backgrounds. They were often, but not exclusively, formed on a geographical basis. By organizing themselves with other Member States that hold similar interests, bloc members hope to increase their influence above the level that they would have as a single Member State in the General Assembly.

Regional groups were formally established at the United Nations in 1957 with an endorsement by the General Assembly. As the number of Member States increased, the groups were realigned to form today's five groups: Latin America and the Caribbean group (known as GRULAC), the Asia-Pacific group, the Africa group, the Eastern European group and the Western Europe and Others group (WEOG). These regional groups are still used today to manage elections. Security Council seats are allocated by regional group, and the Vice Presidents of the General Assembly are chosen by regional groups, with the actual election mostly a formality. Other, smaller regional blocs, such as the Nordic countries or the JUSCANZ group (Japan, United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand), also exist, though they lack the formal recognition granted to the five regional groups.

Regional groups are not the only blocs active at the United Nations. The Non-Aligned Movement (NAM), founded in 1967 as a group seeking a middle course between the Western and Eastern blocs of the Cold War, rapidly became an active body for the coordination of action at the United Nations for developing countries. While its importance has diminished since the end of the Cold War, it is still active on numerous issues at the United Nations. The Group of 77 (G-77) was founded in 1964 as a coordinating body to protect the economic interests of small and developing countries. With 134 members, it is the largest United Nations bloc, though coordination among members is fairly loose.

Blocs usually attempt to form a consensus among members, allowing them to act as a cohesive group. The effectiveness of any given bloc in exerting its positions in the General Assembly depends upon its ability to form a consensus among its own members and then get its members to vote accordingly. These acts of compromise form the basis of United Nations politics and often occur within the various caucusing groups. They also form the starting points for debate in the larger United Nations body.

Bloc politics have changed considerably over time. Some regional blocs are still coherent, like the Nordic countries, while others, like the Western European and Others Group, lack continuing cohesion. In general, their viability as a political tool is diminishing, and blocs are falling out of use as a predictable measure of votes. Often, blocs get together to draft resolutions which will begin the discussion in the larger body, but ultimately, each Member State will usually vote in its own interest, regardless of its bloc memberships. Further complicating the issue of bloc politics is that States may be part of multiple blocs with diverging or competing interests.

However, blocs are not completely irrelevant; often they are used to get an initial proposal to the floor when consensus cannot be found quickly in the larger body. Today, the most common blocs are small, temporary negotiating groups that gather around one issue to try to overcome stalemate in the larger membership bodies. Additionally, developing countries often bind together to maximize their power, especially in the face of a relative lack of economic power. Some blocs have their own secretariat staff whose job it is to draft proposals and find solutions that the larger body is unable to find. Some of the more well-funded and organized blocs have a formally recognized role as permanent observers with permanent observer missions at the United Nations headquarters. Examples include the African Union, the Caribbean Community, the European Union, the Arab League, and the Organization of Islamic Cooperation. These blocs are a powerful example of Member States coming together to advance goals that may be independent of the regions they represent.

At AMUN, blocs will not be treated as official bodies. Representatives are encouraged to caucus in their bloc groups only when appropriate. Representatives should be aware that the State they represent may no longer actively participate in bloc politics, or may vote outside of its traditional bloc based on the circumstances. Above all, remember that you represent your State and your State's interests, regardless of your participation in a bloc while caucusing and drafting.



CHAPTER TWO

CONFERENCE PREPARATION & POSITION PAPERS

RESEARCH AND PREPARATION

Research and preparation can be broken into six areas:

The United Nations system as a whole: It is vitally important for each Representative to understand the basics of the organization which they are simulating—the United Nations. Well-prepared students not only should know the basic structure of the United Nations, but also should have a good understanding of how the Committee they will be working on fits into the organization. Understanding this information will allow Representatives to better understand what their Committee can or cannot do within the United Nations system, what they can make recommendations on, what they can reasonably demand and what issues are beyond the purview of the body they are simulating and should be handled by another United Nations body. This handbook includes a brief description of each Committee's purview. This information is provided to assist Representatives in understanding the place of their work in the United Nations system, and it should be supplemented with additional research.

Current statistical information and general background of the represented State's history and policies: This is the first key to understanding what actions a State may prefer on specific issues. Research should include, but is certainly not limited to, areas such as population, government type, natural resources and trade data. Traditional allies and adversaries should also be noted. A country's history can be crucial to understanding its contemporary actions, including the question of whether that country was previously colonized or was a colonial power, when the country gained Statehood and what means were used in gaining independence (i.e., civil war, violent struggle, peaceful movement, etc.).

Specific background of the State's viewpoints on the issues to be discussed at the Conference: This is the central point of most Model United Nations preparation: focused research on the issues being discussed in each Committee and on the Member State's position on those issues. Research can come from a variety of sources, beginning with United Nations documents and moving to articles, periodical sources, books and Internet resources beyond the United Nations website. United Nations resolutions and reports on the issues under discussion are especially helpful because they provide a quick reference to what has already been accomplished by the United Nations and what still needs to be done. These documents also frequently provide voting information, which allows Representatives to quickly determine their country's past positions on issues. A number of relevant sources are provided in the bibliography section of each topic brief in this handbook. Contacting the represented country's permanent mission to the United Nations can also be helpful, but the level of assistance provided varies with each country's policies and the resources they have available.

For some countries, it will be very easy to find specific information to determine a position on most or all topics, and for others this information will be difficult to come by or simply not available. When clear-cut information is not available, it is incumbent on the students preparing to make the best possible inferences of what the country's policy would be, given the facts available. This might include knowing the country's background, its traditional allies, the stance of a regional group with which they tend to agree or a variety of other factors. Regardless of the

facts available, knowing *exactly* what a country would do in a given situation is typically not possible. Representatives should strive in their research to know as much as they can about their country and its stance on each topic and to educate themselves enough to make reasonable policy assumptions on issues that are not totally clear.

The current world situation as it applies to the State: This is a subset of the previous two areas of research, but it is important enough to be mentioned in its own right. There is a significant difference between the policies and perspectives of the only remaining superpower and a State with very little military might. Even more significant at the United Nations are the differences on many issues between the policies of relatively rich, industrialized countries and relatively poor, developing (and especially least-developed) countries. Additionally, a country which is currently involved in a civil war or a country which is under United Nations sanctions may have unique responses on some issues which are very different from the rest of the international community. Knowing where the State a student represents fits in the current world geopolitical context, as a complement to his or her country-specific research, can answer many questions which may arise during the simulation.

The perspectives of States with differing viewpoints on the issues: This is one of the more difficult areas of preparation. While it is reasonable to expect that a Representative will know who their general allies and adversaries are on a given issue, it is very difficult to have detailed information about the policies of each country in the simulation. Limitations in preparation time by definition require that Representatives focus primarily on the policies of their own country, often learning about others through references in their own research. This is an area where complete knowledge will serve participants well, but it is much more likely that each Representative will be learning the formal policies of the other countries in the Committee when they give speeches from the floor and confer behind the scenes in caucus sessions. In roleplaying, then, flexibility is key: Representatives must aggregate and assimilate new information they gain at the Conference with their pre-Conference research in order to reach consensus and compromise on complex issues.

AMUN Rules of Procedure: While substantive discussions of the issues form the basis of any good simulation of the United Nations, the rules of procedure are used to facilitate the substantive debate which occurs. In general, these rules are intended to provide an even playing field, allowing each State to accomplish its individual goals in advocating its policies while also maximizing opportunities for the group to reach agreement, or even consensus, on the issues. Several levels of preparation are possible on the rules. For new Model United Nations participants, it is recommended that each person have a working knowledge of the principal motions which can be made during the simulation, encapsulated on the Rules Short Forms on **pages 35–36** of the *AMUN Rules & Procedures Handbook*. The dais staff of each Committee will assist Representatives in using these rules and assist in bringing everyone onto an even playing field. For experienced Representatives, especially those who have not attended AMUN in the past, we suggest reading AMUN's rules in-depth, both as a refresher on these rules of procedure and to note differences from other conferences a school might attend. Most Model United Nations conferences use different rules of procedure, and in some cases the contrasts are significant. In order to



best facilitate everyone's experience, it is incumbent upon every participant to learn and use the rules established for this Conference.

PREPARING AS A GROUP

Research on the areas described above is the essential element in preparing for AMUN. It is strongly recommended that Representatives use a combined effort whenever possible in doing research. Representatives can fully take advantage of all the people in the delegation by assigning various topics to each individual to research and report on to the group. Some areas will naturally lend themselves to group research and discussion, while others will be more individually-based.

In particular, researching the United Nations system and the specific background on a country can be more easily accomplished by a group effort. Each student can be assigned a specific area, such as historical background of the country, current statistics, etc. Individuals can then report back to the group on their findings, possibly including a written or oral report, and allow for greater knowledge-sharing among the delegation members.

By contrast, research on the topics discussed in each Committee will, by its nature, be more individualistic. This does not mean, however, that the other members of the delegation will not benefit from a briefing on each topic. Topic briefings can both give the entire delegation a broader picture of country policy as well as give individual Representatives valuable practice in consolidating the information they discover and in making a public presentation to the group. These briefings may also assist the entire delegation in gaining a comprehensive perspective on its country's policies.

GENERAL SOURCES OF INFORMATION

AMUN recommends the following general sources of information to use when researching a country and the issues for the Conference. Many of these sources are available on the Internet, either publicly or through subscriptions held by school libraries.

- United Nations Today (United Nations Department of Public Information)
- The World Almanac or The Universal Almanac
- Permanent Missions to the United Nations (e-mail for information on your nation and the specific issues under consideration)
- United Nations Department of Public Information (e-mail for a publications list)
- The Europa World Yearbook (Available in most library reference sections; contains detailed background on all countries and international organizations in the world)
- United Nations Handbook (Published annually by the New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade)
- Various periodicals, including the *United Nations Chronicle*, *New York Times*, *Christian Science Monitor*, *The Economist* (Weekly), and *Keesing's Record of World Events* (Monthly).

USING THE INTERNET

AMUN website: When using the Internet, a great starting point is AMUN's website, which includes links to these and many other United Nations-related sites. This website is updated with United Nations links as they become available and includes a great deal of background information to assist in your preparations for Conference. AMUN's website can be reached at www.amun.org.

News sources: Most major newspapers and news organizations are available online and are an excellent source for country and topic information, allowing you to access a daily synopsis of worldwide news.

United Nations documents: Most United Nations resolutions, documents, speeches and other resources can be accessed through the Internet. Most United Nations agencies are represented, along with databases containing information on various regions around the world.

In particular, the main United Nations Website at www.un.org/en/ provides up-to-date information on United Nations Documents passed in the General Assembly, Security Council and ECOSOC, as well as historical information from these bodies, reports of the Secretary-General on various issues and other useful documents.

Most United Nations Members now have websites for their permanent missions in New York and Geneva. When a website is available, it often includes details on the State's policy and may include the text of speeches given by Representatives at the United Nations. These addresses can be found at www.un.org/en/members/.

The United Nations also provides public access to its Official Documents System (ODS), which includes nearly all of the documents published by the United Nations, including many that are not available on the main website of the United Nations. The ODS system is available at documents.un.org. Please note that the search engine available on ODS is not always easy to use, but it is very easy to find files if you know the United Nations document number. The bibliography section of each topic brief in this handbook contains references to several United Nations documents and can act as a starting place for your preparations. You may want to utilize the UNBISNET search engine to find your document name/number and then move to ODS to find the actual document. UNBISNET also provides access to voting records and country speeches, and is found online at unbisnet.un.org.

WHY DRAFT A POSITION PAPER?

Well-crafted position papers can serve as an excellent preparatory tool for Model United Nations conference participants. A position paper can be used both as a device for internal preparation among the members of a delegation and as a public statement of your delegation's positions on the issues being discussed at the Conference. AMUN requests that all delegations submit public position papers to the Conference but also strongly suggests that each delegation prepare internal position papers which more clearly and completely define their country's perspective.

AMUN believes the most important information a delegation can furnish to other delegations prior to the Conference is its basic public policy on each issue to be discussed.

INTERNAL POSITION PAPERS

This type of position paper is intended as a preparatory tool for the individuals on your delegation and for the delegation as a whole. While these are not required, AMUN strongly recommends that groups preparing for the Conference use position papers as one step in their preparations. Internal position papers, which are often called white papers in the international community, are a broad-based statement of your country's policies on a specific issue. These might include what



you publicly tell other Member States, your knowledge of any behind-the-scenes diplomacy (e.g., what deals have been made on the sidelines), information on allies and adversaries on each topic, your negotiating position on the topic and what your country hopes to accomplish on the topic. This might also include your bottom line negotiating position, the things you will press for in discussions and what (if anything) your government must see (or not see) in a draft resolution before it can provide support.

Internal position papers are very valuable tools for individual preparation, as they force Representatives to think about the full complexity of the issues they are confronting from their delegation's perspective. Also, by asking Representatives to put their ideas in writing, an internal position paper can force each Representative to condense a large amount of research and ideas into a concise, more comprehensible argument from their State's perspective.

These types of position papers do not need to be more than one or two pages in length and may be written either in paragraph form or with bullet points for each unique idea or issue in the topic area. Also, the entire delegation can benefit from each individual's work if these papers are shared with each group member, thus providing a more well-rounded view of the represented country's positions on all issues.

PUBLIC POSITION PAPERS

Public position papers are intended as a public statement of a country's positions on the topics being discussed at the AMUN Conference. Each paper should include brief statements about where the country stands on the issue in question and on what the United Nations has done to confront this issue. It should also include the country's public position on the options for the United Nations in the future, noting proposals that a delegation has (or intends to have) sponsored, supported or not supported and why. Public papers do not need to go into detail about the country's negotiating positions or other behind-the-scenes issues but should rather be seen as something that a diplomat might say in a public speech on the topic.

ITEMS TO INCLUDE IN PUBLIC POSITION PAPERS

While the position papers sent to the Conference can include any material that the delegation deems appropriate for public consumption, a number of items should be included in a well-written position paper. First, each section of the paper should specifically state the one or two key points that the country believes are the most important on each topic. While other important issues can be included, no more than two should be highlighted. The paper can then go into specific details about why these points are important and what the country believes should be done by the United Nations or its Member States to improve the situation in question. Many papers will then sum up by recapping the most important points.

There are a number of other items that you might include in a public position paper depending on the specific topic, the available information and the country's particular situation. Representatives should consider incorporating some or all of these elements in their position papers:

- References to past United Nations resolutions and international treaties, providing the specific number or name of that document and the year it passed;

- References to the United Nations Charter, as appropriate for the topic;
- Past statements by the Secretary-General, a senior United Nations Secretariat member or by a Representative of a United Nations agency on the topic;
- Reference to the work the United Nations has already done on the topic, whether by specialized agencies, regional bodies or working with non-governmental organizations;
- Past statements on the topic by Representatives of your government, especially if these mention the significance of the specific issue to your country;
- Specific suggestions of actions that your State will support in solving the issue in question.

Finally, it is important to note that a well-written public position paper is not about a specific country, but rather about what the country would like to accomplish on the topics of discussion in each simulation. Thus public position papers should not talk about the problems facing a specific country, but rather the problems facing the international community. If a country is a clear example of a successful United Nations program in action, or if the country is a member of an affected group, Representatives may want to include a brief reference to that in their paper; otherwise, there is usually no need to even mention specifics about the country in a position paper.

SUBMISSION OF POSITION PAPERS

AMUN requests each delegation submit a position paper to the Conference, covering each Committee on which it is seated, **no later than 25 October**. These papers should be no more than one-half page on each topic that is covered in the Committee. All delegations should submit a paper covering the Concurrent General Assembly Plenary and each of the four General Assembly Committees, including both topics for each Committee. Delegations represented on ECOSOC should also include the two main topics of discussion for that Council. Delegations represented on the Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND) should also include the two topics of discussion for the Commission. Delegations represented on the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA) should also include the two topics of discussion for the Commission. Delegations represented on the Security Council or Historical Security Councils should choose up to three topics they think are the most important for their respective Council to discuss and include these in their position paper. If a delegation chooses to place a Representative on the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), a section for that Committee should also be included.

Format of Papers: One comprehensive position paper should be submitted online for each *delegation*, combining all of the Committees on which that delegation is seated. A sample position paper, along with full submission instructions, is available at AMUN's website: www.amun.org/sample-position-papers/.

The AMUN Secretariat will not judge the position papers other than to check for completeness and general germaneness. Position papers will be collected and organized by the AMUN Secretariat, posted on the AMUN website prior to Conference and then made available in the Home Government office for public perusal during the Conference. As public documents, position papers must conform to the standards laid out in AMUN's policy on plagiarism (see below).



Submission Specifications: All position papers must be submitted via AMUN's online web form, available at www.amun.org. Additional submission information will be sent in the fall to all registered schools. AMUN reserves the right to reject any position paper that fails to address one of the topics as stated in the *Issues at AMUN* handbook, does not comport to basic standards of diplomatic courtesy or is determined to violate the policy on plagiarism.

Extension of Due Dates: AMUN realizes that some schools are on quarter or trimester systems and thus have a later start date. Any school with a late fall start date may request a one week extension to the official due dates listed above by e-mailing the AMUN Executive Office at mail@amun.org before 25 October.

POSITION PAPER AWARD CERTIFICATES

AMUN will provide a Position Paper Award Certificate for each delegation that submits an approved, completed position paper, including sections for each topic in all assigned simulations, by 11:59 p.m. Central Time on 25 October. Note that this must include sections for the Concurrent General Assembly Plenary, all GA Committees, and any other simulation on which the delegation has a Representative seated. If a school is representing multiple countries, each delegation will be considered separately for Position Paper Award.

For answers to any questions about writing or submitting position papers or about Position Paper Awards, please contact the AMUN Executive Office at mail@amun.org.

PLAGIARISM

AMUN strives to create a simulation of the United Nations which is as realistic as possible while still allowing for the fulfillment of our participants' and the organization's educational goals. As such, the AMUN policy regarding plagiarism focuses on an educative rather than a punitive goal. At AMUN, plagiarism involves the substantial, verbatim or near-verbatim copying of language, without attribution, in published or unpublished texts, speeches or documents. Representatives should adhere to their country's policies at all times, but this does not give license to plagiarize existing materials. Thus, parts of speeches or position papers may be derived or paraphrased from previous speeches or papers, but should not be copied verbatim.

Similarly, it is expected that all Representatives are familiar with past resolutions at the United Nations, but the work of the United Nations should be expanded on in Representatives' work, not copied verbatim. There are some exceptions: for example, Representatives are not necessarily expected to expand upon a phrase that is often or always used when a country gives a formal speech or a clause that is repeated verbatim through several years of resolutions on a topic. Generally, it is not necessary to explicitly credit such sources, although if substantial language is quoted, it should be acknowledged and cited. Final determinations on plagiarism and its consequences are at the discretion of the AMUN Secretariat.

THE PURVIEW OF EACH SIMULATION

Each simulation's background guide contains a brief overview of that simulation's purview, which provides a general outline of the types of discussions each simulation might have on the topics in question. This is

extremely important in the United Nations system, where a variety of different Committees, Councils and Commissions may discuss different aspects of an international problem. Representatives should exercise great care in researching a topic, so their deliberations can focus on the piece of the problem considered within their simulation's purview. These purview briefs are guidelines for the discussions of each body.

An excellent example of this shifting focus among Committees, Councils and Commissions is the issue of development. The First Committee might discuss the relationship between disarmament and development. At the same time, the Second Committee may discuss a variety of financing initiatives to assist Least Developed Countries. Similarly, the Third Committee might discuss the social and humanitarian considerations that stem from a lack of development, including gender issues, economic concerns or the impact on underrepresented populations such as the elderly or disabled. And the Fourth Committee may discuss the development issues of Non-Self-Governing Territories. The GA Plenary might discuss the problem in its entirety or address issues that cut across the mandates of the Committees. By contrast, the Economic and Social Council would focus on how the United Nations specialized and technical agencies work with Member States to support economic and social development. The Security Council would address the interlinkages between peace, security and development.

Clearly, different aspects of a single problem are regularly discussed in different bodies. More importantly, at the United Nations, delegations are typically careful to only discuss those aspects relevant to their own Committees, Councils and Commissions, leaving other aspects to others in their delegation to address in the appropriate forum.



CHAPTER THREE

THE SECURITY COUNCILS

INTRODUCTION TO THE SECURITY COUNCIL

Representatives of the Security Council should note that the agenda provided is only provisional and represents a fraction of the issues the Security Council discusses. Any issue regarding international peace and security may be brought before the Council. Many topics listed in this guide will change significantly before the Conference. Additional topics may be added as necessary or as the Council sees fit.

For this reason it is highly advised that Representatives have a broad knowledge base regarding current events in the international community. Periodicals and online sources are some of the best sources available for day-to-day updates. Recommended sources include: *The New York Times*, *United Nations Chronicle*, *The Times of London*, *Al Jazeera*, *Mail & Guardian*, *Foreign Policy* and *The Economist*. The United Nations Foundation's online daily newsletter, *United Nations Wire*, is also an excellent resource for timely information. Whenever possible it is also recommended that Representatives stay abreast of the most recent reports published by the Security Council and other relevant United Nations bodies. These can be found via the United Nations homepage under the [Security Council section](#).

Unlike many other simulations, Security Council Members are able to make declarative statements and operational decisions that will affect the course of the simulation. It will be the job of Council Representatives to actively bring their country's national policies and capabilities into the simulation. While AMUN Simulation Staff will frequently consult with Council Members, Representatives are welcome and encouraged to make declarative statements—including real or implied threats and deals—that do not carry operational implications outside of the United Nations. Representatives must always consult with the Simulations Staff before making ANY operational decisions. Operational decisions 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 United Nations. In these cases the Simulation Staff would be equated with the actual home office or government of the involved Member States(s).

Representatives are also encouraged to seek out Simulation Staff to act in the home office capacity when they need extra information on a situation. Simulation Directors wear many hats, including acting as an in-house resource for Representatives about their countries as well as the topics at hand.

OTHER INVOLVED COUNTRIES

From time-to-time other countries will be involved in the deliberations of the Council. Delegations representing these countries, if present at AMUN, will be asked by the body to participate in deliberations by the body. If they are not present, or choose not to participate in deliberations, a member of the AMUN Secretariat will represent them as necessary. It is customary for the Council to request the presence of relevant Member States during discussion of topics, however it is not required. Any State mentioned in the background research for a specific Security Council is a potential candidate for an outside participant in the Council as well as any State related to a topic relevant

to international peace and security. For delegations that may be asked to appear before one of the Historical Security Councils (HSC) 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, preferably with a second Representative who can cover that Committee while they are away. A floating Permanent Representative would also be ideal for this assignment. All delegations will be asked to identify their Representative(s) to the HSC at registration, and to indicate where they can be reached if and when needed.

A NOTE ABOUT HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCILS

AMUN's HSCs are unique not only in their topics, but also in their treatment of those topics. History and time are the HSC's media and they are flexible. Both HSC Simulations will preempt history from their start date, which are provided later in this chapter. History will be as it was written until the moment the Council convenes. From that moment forward, however, what transpires will be dependent upon both Council Members' actions and Simulation Staff decisions. Council Members are encouraged to exercise free will based on the range of all the choices within their national character and upon the capabilities of their governments.

Effective roleplaying for an HSC Member State will not just be a routine replay of national decisions as they evolved in that year. Indeed, the problems of the era may not transpire as they once did, and this will force active evaluations—and reevaluations—of national policies. Thus, it cannot be said that the policy course a government took in that year was necessarily the wisest. While rote replays 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. 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 bring their country's policies and capabilities into the simulation when discussing problems and issues which may not have had adequate contemporary resolutions. There is almost always more than one alternative choice in any situation. In particular, the international community has often chosen not to actively involve itself in many regional disputes or political crises where it might have shown greater involvement. The United Nations itself has often been a bystander to regional or international conflict. Representatives will need to decide what changes, if any, could have been made to the Security Council's posture on the various issues. One major factor Representatives should consider when deciding whether or not to be actively involved, is the cost of involvement by the United Nations. An increase in costs often causes the Security Council to reprioritize its efforts.

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.

Representatives should approach these issues based on events through the final days of the previous year and should do their research accordingly. In studying their roleplaying assignments, it is strongly recommended that research be done on these topics using timely materials. The world has changed dramatically over the 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 peruse periodicals from 3-5 years prior to the year in question to most accurately reflect the world view at that time. Magazines featuring an overview of that year may give a particularly good feel for the international mood in which the simulation is set. Periodicals contemporary to the period, which can be easily referenced in a Readers Guide to Periodical Literature or the *New York Times* Index, should provide a much better historical perspective and feel for the times than later historical texts, which can be useful for general information.

Both HSC simulations will follow a flexible timeline based on events as they occurred and as 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 roleplaying the individual assigned as their State's Representative to the United Nations. 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 country'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 United Nations could normally make. Representatives must, however, always consult with the Simulations Staff before making ANY operational decisions. Operational decisions would include announcements of the movements or actions of military forces as well as any other actions which would have an effect outside of the United Nations. In these cases, the Simulations Staff would be equated with the home office or government of the involved State.

Representatives are also encouraged to seek out Simulations Staff to act in the home office capacity when they need extra information on a situation. Simulation Directors wear many hats, including acting as an in-house resource for Representatives about their countries as well as the topics at hand.

OPEN ISSUES

A unique feature of each Security Council in simulations at AMUN is the Council's ability to set its own agenda. In addition to the situations outlined in the council specific topic guides on the following pages, each Security Council can discuss any topic that the body wishes. For the contemporary Security Council this includes any real-world event up until the day the simulation convenes. For the Historical Security Councils, Representatives should have a working knowledge of the events prior to and including the start date for their respective simulation. For the Historical Security Council of 1967, the start date is 15

March 1967. For the Historical Security Council of 2003, the start date is 20 January 2003.

For the time periods in question, open issues could include any active United Nations peacekeeping operations, the work of any United Nations body active at the time, and any social or economic issue of the day. It is *strongly recommended* that all Representatives be well versed on current and historical global events relevant to their simulation.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Councils. For the contemporary Security Council these briefs are current as of spring 2015. Information for the Historical Security Councils covers information available up until the respective start dates of each simulation. It is recommended that Representatives have a solid foundational knowledge of the background of major international issues. The topics laid out in this handbook are provided as a starting point for further research.



THE CONTEMPORARY SECURITY COUNCIL

MEMBERS OF THE CONTEMPORARY SECURITY COUNCIL

ANGOLA
CHAD
CHILE
CHINA
FRANCE

JORDAN
LITHUANIA
MALAYSIA
NEW ZEALAND
NIGERIA

RUSSIAN FEDERATION
SPAIN
UNITED KINGDOM
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
VENEZUELA

For each topic area, Representatives should consider the following questions. These questions should assist Representatives in gaining a better understanding of the issues at hand, particularly from your country's perspective:

- How did this conflict begin? Is this a new conflict or a re-ignition of a previous conflict?
- How have similar situations and conflicts been peacefully resolved?
- What State and regional actors are involved in this conflict?
- If there are non-State actors involved in a conflict, are there any States supporting them? If so, which ones?

The Contemporary Security Council topics below are current as of Spring 2015 and are not all-inclusive of what the Council might talk about at Conference. With the ever-changing nature of international peace and security, these topics are a guide to help direct your research for your State's position. A more complete and updated version of likely topics for the Contemporary Security Council will be posted online in September at www.amun.org.

THE SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

In 2011, civilians in the Syrian Arab Republic began protesting the government of long-reigning President Bashar al-Assad; these protests quickly escalated to armed rebellion, and fighting continues to date. The violence included chemical weapon attacks on the civilian population, which the United Nations condemned and worked to stop through inspections and sanctions. This uproar also spread into neighboring Iraq when Sunni militant extremists began coordinated attacks against the Shia civilian population in July, 2014. The self-proclaimed Islamic State (IS), known also as both the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) and the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), has used the instability created by regional conflicts to conquer territory in western Iraq and eastern Syria, declaring itself a caliphate and claiming exclusive political and ideological authority over the world's Muslim population.

IS has been characterized by continual violence, including the beheadings of Western hostages and the mass execution of civilians in the country, which UN investigators are calling genocide. These provocative acts and mass violence against local civilians prompted the United States and other States to look for ways to stem the advance of IS through the Middle East. On 21 September 2014, the United States, with the help of regional partners, began air strikes to help stop the flow of IS aggression. By April 2015, Iraqi forces had gained ground against IS by liberating Tikrit, and Iraqi military commanders were focused on pushing "[IS] militants out of the country and into Syria by the end of the year."

While IS has been losing ground in Iraq and northeastern Syria, IS militants have been seizing new territory in Syria, including along the Syrian-Jordanian border and in the Yarmouk District on the southern edge of the Syrian capital, Damascus. This border-crossing incident has

led to new tensions between Jordan and Syria after Syrian airstrikes hit near the border. IS also succeeded in seizing a Palestinian refugee camp in Damascus in early April 2015, with reports of killings and beheadings spurring United Nations officials to call for quick action to prevent an impending catastrophe and for industrialized States to take in hundreds of thousands of Syrian refugees. Additionally, new reports of chemical weapons being used in Syria has angered many countries, calling for renewed United Nations efforts to force compliance on inspections and the removal of all sarin gas and chlorine barrel bombs.

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THE SITUATION IN UKRAINE

The recent unrest in Ukraine began in 2013 when Ukrainian President Viktor Yanukovich, under pressure from the Russian government, rejected a trade deal with the European Union. The ensuing anti-government



protests turned violent in November when government forces attacked protesters, injuring dozens. The conflict continued for several months, with President Yanukovich fleeing to Russia in February 2014, leading to his dismissal by the Ukrainian Parliament. May 2014 elections brought Petro Poroshenko to power, a result greeted warmly by Western States. President Poroshenko quickly moved to reassert government control over restive regions in eastern Ukraine, which were in favor of realignment with Russia. In September 2014, the Ukrainian Parliament granted greater autonomy to separatist regions in eastern Ukraine. On 16 September 2014, the Ukrainian Parliament unanimously supported the decision to join the European Union, a decision which had sparked the original crisis. A tenuous cease-fire held until the Ukrainian Parliament revoked the status of the autonomous regions after they held their own elections in direct violation of the Ukrainian Constitution.

The crisis took on an international focus when armed and uniformed gunmen began seizing government buildings in Crimea. Rallies erupted calling for Crimea to secede from Ukraine and rejoin the Russian Federation; this was overwhelmingly supported in a March 2014 referendum. The Security Council discussed a draft Resolution to declare the election invalid, but Russia vetoed the Resolution. After the inability of the United Nations to act, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) became involved in the Ukraine. Initially brought in to monitor human rights violations, the OSCE has become entrusted to monitor cease-fire violations, oversee the pull-back of weapons from the front lines and to eventually disarm fighters. OSCE Secretary General Lamberto Zannier has stated that an increase in the number of drones and radar systems would help enforce the cease-fire in the eastern part of the country. However, OSCE monitors have been denied access to certain areas of the country to monitor troop withdrawals. While the cease-fire is currently in effect, it has been seen as tenuous. Nonetheless, OSCE monitors have said it means a “good chance for peace” while it holds back the violence.

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THE SITUATION IN THE SUDAN AND SOUTH SUDAN

Despite the end of the Sudanese Civil War in 2005, hostility and fighting continues with conflicts taking place in South Sudan, Darfur and

the oil-rich Abyei region. The Darfur region has been fraught with violence for more than a decade, with dozens of parties clashing over political control, sovereignty, and land and water rights. Weapons have flooded Darfur; ethnic cleansing, systematic rape and the deaths of thousands have plagued the region. Today, Darfur remains in a state of humanitarian and security crisis, with little to no progress toward ending the conflict. The United Nations estimates that around 450,000 people were displaced due to the violence in 2014 alone, placing the total number of displaced peoples at close to 2.5 million since the start of the Civil War.

Relations between the north and south regions of Sudan were still tenuous following the end of the Civil War, with continued clashes over ethnic differences and land disputes. Although South Sudan seceded in 2011, the violence did not cease once they were recognized as an independent State and granted United Nations Member status. The South Sudanese government continues to struggle to put an end to violence within its borders, despite ongoing civil war between the majority ethnic group, the Dinka, and the minority ethnic group, the Nuer. The Nuer and a number of minority political parties were left out of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement between Sudan and South Sudan in 2005. The United Nations has laid out plans to impose sanctions against South Sudan in a Security Council Resolution in an attempt to spur a peaceful resolution to the ongoing Civil War. South Sudan President Salva Kiir has dismissed these ultimatums and reiterated his willingness to continue battling the minority protesters.

In addition to the ethnic conflicts in South Sudan, territorial claims over the oil-rich Abyei region remain, with both Sudan and South Sudan retaining armed forces in the district to protect their interests. Abyei has seen four attacks since January 2015, with hostility rising between the region's majority and minority ethnic groups. The Security Council extended the United Nations Interim Security Force for Abyei (UNISFA) through 15 July, urging Sudan and South Sudan to resolve the border dispute immediately and implement a joint security solution for the region.

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THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1967

MEMBERS OF THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1967

ARGENTINA

BRAZIL

BULGARIA

CANADA

CHINA

DENMARK

ETHIOPIA

FRANCE

INDIA

JAPAN

MALI

NIGERIA

USSR

UNITED KINGDOM

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1967

Key international security concerns at the beginning of 1967 revolve around the situations in Africa, including Southern Rhodesia, the Congo and South Africa. Peacekeeping questions are a major concern; the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) operation between Egypt and Israel and the Soviet Union's unwillingness to pay for certain peacekeeping operations, have both been subjects of Council discussion. The war in Viet-Nam is also a significant underlying factor in world politics, although it has received limited formal attention in the Security Council. Continued disputes over recognition issues between the two Chinas is also an issue. Additionally, the Cold War struggles between the United States and the Soviet Union are a constant undercurrent in the world of international politics, with many developing States stressing their non-aligned status and forming a power bloc within the United Nations to combat the increasingly polarized world around them.

For each topic area, Representatives should consider the following questions. These questions are designed to assist in developing a deeper understanding of the issues at hand, particularly from your State's perspective:

- Should the United Nations be involved in the situation? If yes, what role can the United Nations play in the situation?
- How can regional organizations be brought into the discussion and aid in solutions to the problems?
- Does your government feel that this situation is a threat to international peace and security?
- What are your government's interests in the region?

THE SITUATION IN SOUTHERN RHODESIA

On 11 November 1965, the territorial government of Southern Rhodesia, led by Ian Smith, unilaterally declared independence from the United Kingdom, sparking intense political conflict. The declaration directly violated the 1961 decolonization agreement signed by the United Kingdom and Southern Rhodesia, which required that the territory achieve majority rule prior to independence. Southern Rhodesia had been a self-governing territory of the United Kingdom for over 40 years, but the government was dominated by European elites who would have had to relinquish power under a legally independent Rhodesia. On 12 November 1965, the Security Council passed Resolution 216, condemning Southern Rhodesia's unilateral declaration of independence, calling on all Member States to refrain from recognizing the regime in Southern Rhodesia and from providing it with any assistance.

On 20 November 1965, the Council requested that Member States make a voluntary break in diplomatic and economic relations with the newly-independent Rhodesia. One month later, in Resolution 232, the Council imposed mandatory economic sanctions against Rhodesia. In April of 1966, following months of failed diplomatic efforts, the United Kingdom requested a Council meeting to approve their blockade of the *Joanna V*, a Portuguese oil tanker attempting to make a delivery to the Rhodesian government via the port of Beira in Mozambique. In response, the Council passed Resolution 221 on 9 April, allowing the United Kingdom to use force if necessary to prevent the delivery of the oil. The resolution also granted the United Kingdom the right to detain the *Joanna V*, should delivery succeed. Prior to the oil tanker incident, the United Kingdom had been given broad latitude by its Council allies to attempt a diplomatic solution to the problems caused by its former colony; bringing this issue before the Council marked a new escalation in the conflict.

Several African governments requested that the Council take much stronger steps to remove the Smith government from power, up to and including the authorization of the use of force under the terms of Chapter VII of the United Nations Charter. Extending the use of force for more than just embargo enforcement was not supported by the United States, France or the United Kingdom, which instead stood behind the continued use of sanctions, political pressure and negotiations. On 10 May 1966, 32 African States requested a Council meeting to renew discussion on Rhodesia, noting that Council actions had been ineffective in removing the minority government and again asking that the Council consider authorizing a use of force intervention. The request stated that economic sanctions were clearly failing; not all States were enforcing the sanctions, and some States were still investing in Rhodesia. In discussions on the issue, the Soviet Union specifically accused the United Kingdom 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 United Kingdom for another Council meeting in December. The United Kingdom was prepared to call for additional measures against Southern Rhodesia, including stronger economic sanctions.

During the debate, other States criticized the United Kingdom's enforcement efforts. Further, a number of speakers criticized the United Kingdom's refusal to use force, as it had been partially authorized to do at its own request. Significantly, the Western powers were also beginning to realize that the situation was becoming more intractable as time went on. The African States on the Council sponsored an amendment to the



draft resolution being debated at the Council's December session which noted that the situation constituted a threat to international peace and security. This direct Chapter VII of the UN Charter language was included in the text of the final resolution. Referencing Chapter VII had been staunchly opposed by the United Kingdom and its allies in past discussions but gained more traction here, with those formerly opposed agreeing to abstain. On 16 December 1966 the Council passed Resolution 232 which increased sanctions on the Smith Government. Although language was included in Resolution 232 defining the situation as a threat to international peace and security, no official authorization of force has been granted, leaving the situation in an uneasy status-quo.

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THE QUESTION OF PALESTINE

Throughout 1966, the Security Council discussed actions taken by Israel, Syria and Jordan since the 1949 General Armistice Agreements. Repeated border incursions and military incidents led to heightened tensions in the region throughout the year. Syria and Jordan frequently accused Israel of violating the Armistice Agreements by attacking their respective territories. 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 and supporting pro-Palestinian terrorists, who frequently conducted terrorist activities across the borders into Israel.

On 25 February 1966, a military coup in Syria returned Nureddin al-Atassi to power. From February to October, Israel alleged that Syria had attacked Israeli settlements from fortified positions in the Golan Heights. In response, Israel conducted 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 of southern Hebron by Israeli forces. Israeli forces attacked a number of villages in this region in what Israeli officials called reprisals for Jordanian cross-border interventions and sponsorship of pro-Palestinian Fatah forces, and what Jordan called an unprovoked attack. Resolution 228, passed on 28 November, criticized the large scale and carefully planned military action into Jordanian territory by Israeli armed forces and censured Israel for its actions. It was the only formal Council action on the region during 1966, though

the Council called Israel, Syria, Jordan, Iraq, Egypt and Saudi Arabia to speak several times as hostilities occurred throughout 1966.

Several other issues contributed to the heightening of tensions surrounding the Palestine issue. On 19 May, a sale of military jet fighters and bombers by the United States to Israel was, for the first time ever, publicly disclosed. Additionally, on 4 November, Syria and Egypt concluded a mutual defense treaty, which also provided for joint control of armed forces in case of war or aggression against either party. Furthermore, the Soviet Union, aligned with Syria since the 1956 Suez Crisis, had maintained an active political presence in the region. Most of their political pressure has been focused on aligning the other Arab states to act against Israel, including Jordan, since they have a significant Palestinian-Arab population. However, Arab unity was 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.

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THE SITUATION IN VIET-NAM

THE SITUATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

Following its independence from Belgium in 1960, the Republic of the Congo (renamed the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 1965) went through four years of civil war with significant United Nations and international intervention. The United Nations Operation in the Congo (ONUC) peacekeeping effort concluded in June of 1964. In the fall of 1965, the Security Council's attention turned back to simmering tensions between the Congo and the bordering Portuguese colony of Angola.

On 21 September 1966, the Congolese government accused Portugal of supporting former (now exiled) Congolese Prime Minister Tshombe and allowing the use of Angola and Cabinda as a base for insurgent activities into the Congo. The Portuguese embassy in Kinshasa was attacked by locals on 24 September, with Congolese radio broadcasts allegedly responsible for inciting much of the violence.

At Congo's request, the Security Council discussed the issue in September and October. Congo argued that Portugal was supporting these rebels because the Congolese government had granted *de jure* recognition to the Angolan government in exile. Portugal denied any support for the Congolese insurgents. On 14 October 1966, the Council passed Resolution 226, urging Portugal to deny foreign mercenaries the use of Angola as a base of operations for incursions into neighboring countries. This eased political tensions in the region.

The November 1966 military coup that abolished all competing political parties and firmly placed Joseph Mobutu in control of the country created new political complications and threats to peace in the country, though its long-term effects on peace and political reality remain unclear.

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The 1960s brought a renewed focus on the political makeup of the Viet-Name peninsula. The 1954 Geneva Accords, which sought to end tensions between Western powers and communists forces, was never fully accepted. As the 1960s progressed, forces of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam (North Viet-Nam), backed by both the People's Republic of China and the Soviet Union, sought to expand their influence by increasing their push into the Republic of Viet-Nam (South Viet-Nam) and entering into the war in neighboring Laos. In 1965, the United States, which had been providing military advisors and support to the Republic of Viet-Nam for the last decade, began amassing significant ground combat troops in the Republic of Viet-Nam to directly combat the threat of communist insurgents. This increased presence of Western-backed troops drew renewed focus from the Soviet Union which led to significantly increased tensions in the region.

In January 1966, the United States reported taking new steps toward achieving peace in Viet-Nam. While the United States continued to stress the importance of South Viet-Name 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 situation in Viet-Nam 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 United States called for a meeting of the Council on 31 January. At this meeting, the United States argued that a new dimension of peace was possible and suggested that the Council assist in brokering an attempt to arrange a new conference to implement the Geneva Accords in Viet-Nam.

The United States' 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 the United States' influence in Council involvement. Thant suggested that, since the original Geneva Accords were negotiated outside of a United Nations context, any new negotiations based on these Accords were not properly within the purview of the United Nations. The Soviet Union also opposed open discussion in the Council, accusing the United States of trying to use the Council for its own purposes in the war effort. Additionally, France (which was involved in Viet-Nam before the United States presence there) also opposed these discussions, citing concern with the United States being the only party to the conflict that was a United Nations Member, and the fact that this would deny a voice to the two parts of Viet-Nam and to mainland China.

Following a contentious vote on 2 February, with nine in favor, two opposed, and four abstentions, the topic of Viet-Nam was added to the Council's agenda. Despite being added to the agenda, actual discussions proved less than meaningful. A letter from the Council President explaining the discussions noted that the failure of all parties to the dispute to meet with the Council was likely the key factor in the inability to reach 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 on the situation in Viet-Nam, after February 1967 it has not yet been considered in formal discussions.



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THE SITUATION IN CYPRUS

The United Nations Security Council first became involved in Cyprus in 1964 with the establishment of the United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) on 4 March. The United Nations sent Peacekeeping troops to Cyprus in response to the escalating violence between the Greek and Turkish factions beginning on 21 December 1963. These factions have been fighting over Cyprus since it gained independence from the British in 1959. Compromises in the development 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. In addition to establishing UNFICYP peacekeeping efforts, Security Council Resolution 186 recommended that the Secretary-General appoint a mediator to aid and oversee formal peacekeeping efforts; however, the chaotic situation in Cyprus has prevented any substantive talks from happening between the factions. In December of 1966, the Security Council passed Resolution 231 extending the UN peacekeeping force until June of 1967.

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OTHER ISSUES: PEACEKEEPING ISSUES

United Nations peacekeeping operations continue to face challenges as a result of the continuing refusal of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), among others, to pay for costs incurred for the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) and the United Nations Operation in the Congo (ONUC). The USSR has said that it considers these operations to be politically motivated and refuses to make payments. Under Article 19 of the United Nations Charter, "a Member State in arrears in the payment of its dues in an amount that equals or exceeds the contributions due for two preceding years can lose its vote in the General Assembly."

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OTHER ISSUES: THE QUESTION OF THE REPRESENTATION OF CHINA IN THE UNITED NATIONS

The representation of China continues to affect many issues before the United Nations. Since the Chinese Revolution in 1949, the Republic of China, currently based on Formosa/Taiwan, has held the official Chinese seat, including in the Security Council; however, the prominence of the People's Republic of China on the mainland has raised questions about the legitimacy of this arrangement. Discussions about this issue occurred between August and November of 1966, mainly in the General Assembly. These discussions revolved around questions such as the war in Viet-Nam, in which the People's Republic of China's involvement and lack of United Nations membership is becoming an increasingly important issue. There are also various other political and trade issues to consider when dealing with the increasingly powerful mainland government. A key question raised by allies of the Formosa government is: What would happen to Taiwan if the seat were to be awarded to the mainland government, both in terms of United Nations representation and its future relations with other States?

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THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 2003

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HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 2003

In 2003 the world and the Council continue to face a new era of threats to peace and security, learning to deal with a new age of terrorism and the idea of rogue States. Foremost on Council Members' minds is Iraq's continuing refusal to fully comply with weapons inspections and the increasing question of whether the imposed sanctions are bringing Iraq into compliance with Security Council mandates. The breakdown in peace and security in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Liberia and other areas in Africa and the continuing question of Palestine and the Middle East peace process also hold the Council's attention. In addition, the Council has its eye on peace processes around the world, the highest profile of which being Afghanistan's recovery and political reorganization.

For each topic area, Representatives should consider the following questions. These questions are designed to assist in developing a deeper understanding of the issues at hand, particularly from your country's perspective:

- Should the United Nations be involved in the situation? If yes, what role can the United Nations play in the situation?
- How can regional organizations be brought into the discussion and aid in solutions to the problems?
- Does your government feel that this situation is a threat to international peace and security?
- What are your government's interests in the region?

THE SITUATION IN AFGHANISTAN

After decades of conflict during the 1970s and 1980s, Afghanistan fell into civil war after the withdrawal of foreign troops in the 1990s. As a result, millions of civilians fled the country. The civil conflict also destroyed the Afghan economy. In December 1993, the United Nations Secretary-General created the United Nations Special Mission to Afghanistan (UNSM) to reduce instability and address the refugee and human development crises facing the country. Despite this effort, fighting continued in Afghanistan through the mid-1990s and became more ethnically divided. From the mid-1990s to 2001, Afghanistan was controlled by the Taliban, a fundamentalist group that gained control in Afghanistan due, in large part, to foreign support during the Cold War. During this same time, al-Qaida, a radical Sunni Muslim organization, formed a close relationship with Mullah Omar, the head of state of Afghanistan and spiritual leader of the Taliban. Following the 1998 terrorist bombings on US embassies in Kenya and Tanzania by al-Qaida, the Security Council passed Resolution 1193, which reiterated concerns of the continued and growing presence of terrorists in Afghanistan territory and condemned terrorist attacks on United Nations personnel in Taliban-held areas of Afghanistan. Concerned

that the Taliban was continuing to provide support and protection to al-Qaida, the Security Council demanded that the Taliban cease providing sanctuary and training for international terrorist organizations in Resolution 1214. The Resolution also requested that all Afghan factions cooperate in bringing indicted terrorists to justice. Concerns that the Taliban was providing support and protection to al-Qaida grew. During the late 1990s and into 2000, the Security Council expressed grave concern at the seriously deteriorating humanitarian situation and deplored the worsening human rights situation - including forced displacements of civilian populations, summary executions, abuse and arbitrary detention of civilians, violence against women and girls, and bombings on civilians.

Reaffirming its commitment to the sovereignty and independence of the Afghan State and also recognizing the humanitarian needs of the Afghan people, the Security Council passed Resolution 1333 in December of 2000, which called for multilateral peace negotiations and a broad-based, multi-ethnic, representative Afghan government. The resolution further called upon United Nations Member States to enforce sanctions on the Taliban, as had previously been requested in Resolution 1267 from October 1999. Resolution 1333 requested the formation of a special committee by the Secretary-General to monitor the sanctions. However, Council actions did little to remedy the situation. In a report released 7 December 2001, the Secretary-General concluded that the combination of drought, conflict and human rights abuses, as well as the deteriorating operating environment for aid agencies, had deepened the Afghanistan humanitarian crisis.

After a US-led military offensive in Afghanistan, the Taliban lost its political power and control in 2001, but al-Qaida's presence and objectives continued in Afghanistan. In 2001, the United Nations facilitated the Bonn Agreement, which established a six-month Afghan Interim Authority (AIA). In Resolution 1386, the Security Council authorized the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) to assist Hamid Karzai in the administration of the AIA. The ISAF primary objective was to enable the Afghan government to provide effective security across the country and develop new Afghan security forces to ensure Afghanistan would never again become a safe haven for terrorists. After the AIA mandate expired, an emergency Loya Jirga (Grand Council) met and formed the Transitional Administration (TA), also led by Hamid Karzai as Interim President.

Despite these developments, conflict has continued, worsening the humanitarian situation. In 2002, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) estimated that there were approximately 3.5 million Afghan refugees, but the Commission discourages them from returning to Afghanistan due to security issues. Maintaining security



inside of Afghanistan remains a significant challenge, with some estimating the need for an international force of 80,000. A force of this size would cost approximately \$300 million per year. Although initial financial support for the security and humanitarian efforts in Afghanistan was strong, international financial support has declined. Without adequate long-term funding, the success of the political and humanitarian efforts is compromised.

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THE SITUATION IN IRAQ

The Security Council passed numerous resolutions in response to the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in 1990. Resolution 661 imposed strict sanctions on Iraq by restricting foreign financial assistance to humanitarian and medical aid. Once Iraqi troops withdrew from Kuwait in 1991, Resolution 687 required Iraq to agree unconditionally to the destruction or disarmament of its chemical, biological and ballistic weapons. Resolution 687 also called for Iraq to grant a commission of weapons inspectors unfettered access within Iraq to ensure compliance. The Security Council also established the United Nations Iraq-Kuwait Observer Mission in April 1991, which periodically submits reports to the Security Council. The United States, United Kingdom and France

also established no-fly zones to protect Kurdish and Shiite Muslim populations in Iraq.

In the mid-1990s, United Nations weapons inspections uncovered weapons and technology in Iraq that had been banned by earlier Security Council resolutions. In response, the Security Council imposed sanctions designed to prevent Iraq from redeveloping or strengthening its military and weapons capabilities. The imposed sanctions came hand in hand with aid designed to help Iraqi citizens with their basic needs. Resolution 986 established the Oil-for-Food Programme in April 1995. The Programme was designed to prevent a severe humanitarian crisis and serve as a temporary measure of providing for Iraqi citizens' humanitarian needs until Iraq complied with all previous resolutions' requirements.

Amid concerns of Iraq developing prohibited weapons and violating no-fly zones, the United States bombed several Iraqi military installations in 1998. Afterwards, Iraq refused to allow weapons inspectors to enter, and sanctions became less effective as neighboring countries sought to re-establish economic relationships with Iraq, ignoring the mandates from earlier Security Council resolutions.

Since this past autumn, international pressure on Iraq to allow the return of inspectors has intensified. In a statement to the General Assembly on 12 September, United States President George W. Bush demanded the disarmament of Iraq, accusing Iraq of harboring and supporting al-Qaida terrorists and weapons of mass destruction (WMDs). In light of the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States and continued Iraqi noncompliance with Security Council demands to allow weapons inspectors access, President Bush stated that disarming Iraq was an extremely urgent necessity. On 16 September, the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Iraq, Naji Sabri, wrote to the Security Council accepting the return of inspectors without conditions. Despite these assurances, many, including the United States, remain unconvinced that inspections will, in fact occur, particularly in light of United States reports of Iraq firing on Allied jets.

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THREATS TO INTERNATIONAL PEACE AND SECURITY BY INTERNATIONAL TERRORISM

Prior to 1999, the Security Council addressed international terrorism issues in the context of broader security issues or in condemnation of specific terror attacks. Beginning with Resolution 1269 in 1999, addressing international terrorism has become an increasingly important thematic issue for the Council in its own right. Concerned by the increasing number of terrorist attacks, the Council passed Resolution 1269, urging all States to work together to detect and prevent terrorist attacks. Focus further intensified in response to the 11 September 2001 attacks and the growing threat posed by international terrorism with the passage of Resolution 1373 which created the Security Council Counter-Terrorism Committee. Resolution 1373 further obligates Member States to take measures to prevent terrorist activities while assisting and promoting cooperation among States to adhere to international counter-terrorism instruments. Subsequent resolutions, including Resolution 1452 of 2002, have affirmed the purpose of the Counter-Terrorism Committee. These resolutions also encourage Member States to root out international terrorism and set forth guidelines regarding the funding of terrorism, identifying and locating known or suspected terrorists and preventing future terrorist attacks.

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THE SITUATION IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) has suffered from decades of political instability. Regions of DRC are particularly mineral-rich, which has led to continued conflict. Since conflict over political control of the newly independent Congo first began in the 1960s, various political groups have used these minerals as a means to finance their

purposes, as well as control and inflict terror on civilians living and working in these resource-rich regions. Wars in neighboring regions have also contributed to destabilization within DRC. Large numbers of Rwandese Hutus fled the 1994 Rwandan genocide into the Democratic Republic of the Congo (then known as Zaire). Rebellion and fighting broke out in DRC in 1996, primarily between forces led by prominent Tutsi General Laurent Kabila and Congolese President Mobutu Sese Seko. With assistance from Rwanda and Uganda, Kabila forces were able to gain control over the government in Kinshasa in 1997, renaming the country the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Widespread fighting erupted in 1998 when the Rally for Congolese Democracy (RCD) launched a rebellion against the Kabila government. The Kabila government found support from Angola, Chad, Namibia and Zimbabwe, but the RCD was able to hold Kivu and other eastern areas with Rwandan and Ugandan support. Internal conflict however soon led the RCD to split into different factions between 1998-1999, including the RCD-Goma and the RCD-Kisangani.

The Lusaka Ceasefire Agreement, signed in 1999 by the DRC, Angola, Namibia, Rwanda, Uganda and Zimbabwe, attempted to bring stability to the region. Despite this, rifts emerged between the Congolese Liberation Movement (MLC) and Rally for Congolese Democracy (RCD), resulting in continued fighting and the deaths of tens of thousands of civilians from violence, disease and starvation. Thereafter, the Security Council authorized the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC), a United Nations force of 5,500 troops and 500 observers, to monitor the Lusaka Ceasefire as well as humanitarian conditions, human rights, child protection and medical support issues; however, fighting continued between the rebels.

Humanitarian groups estimate that, since 1999, the fighting and conflict have displaced over half a million people and resulted in the deaths of approximately 50,000. Additionally, there are significant concerns about human rights violations, particularly in Eastern DRC, where there are reports of systematic rape of women and girls, destruction of property and mass killings. Despite previous Security Council resolutions condemning such violence, ethnically and nationality based violence, attacks and killings against civilians continue.

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THE SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

The First Intifada, which ended in 1993, brought the conflict between Israel and the Palestinians back to the attention of the international community, illustrating the daily struggles for both Palestinian and Israeli citizens and highlighting many of the humanitarian issues faced by Palestinian people. On 28 September 2000, Israeli Prime Minister Ariel Sharon visited the Haram al Sharif, also known as the Temple Mount, where in his speech he said, "The Temple is in our hands," a phrase from the 1967 Six-Day War. This offended many Palestinians and resulted in protests. The protests and subsequent Israeli response quickly spiraled into the Second Intifada. Violence presently continues to escalate due partly to the mounting humanitarian crises and failed peace talks. The conflict has been characterized by Palestinian suicide bombers and Israeli military operations. In the days following Sharon's visit to the Mount and the resulting demonstrations, at least 47 Palestinians were killed and over 1,800 were wounded. Responding to the violence, the Security Council passed Resolution 1322 in October 2000, which not only condemned acts of violence, particularly those against Palestinians, but also called for negotiations to resume.

In 2002, Israel launched Operation Defensive Shield in response to a 27 March suicide bombing of a Passover Seder that killed 30 and injured over 140, for which Hamas claimed responsibility. The 36 day offensive was the largest in the West Bank since the Six-Day War. A total of 497 Palestinians and 30 Israeli soldiers were killed in the conflict; many Palestinian-controlled cities were occupied and Palestinian infrastructure was heavily damaged. In June, Israel began construction of a 440-mile West Bank security barrier.

The conflict has renewed calls from the international community and the Security Council for increased safety for civilians and for the Israeli and Palestinian sides to work toward a political settlement, as described by Resolution 1397 (March 2002). Additionally, Members of the United Nations, the United States, the Russian Federation and the European Union met in Madrid and formed the Quartet on the Middle East in an effort to broker a ceasefire and lasting peace. The Quartet also advocates for a two-State solution, though details of its Road Map to Peace are being withheld until a Palestinian Prime Minister is in place. There is growing concern for the escalating violence and the declining humanitarian situation, particularly with regard to Palestinian civilians and in Palestinian cities.

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OTHER ISSUES IN AFRICA

The Security Council recognizes that security and humanitarian issues affect many regions in Africa. After the death of its president in 1993, Cote d'Ivoire fell into a conflict for control that ended with a coup in 1999. Cote d'Ivoire has since held presidential elections but has also suffered further attempted coups. On 19 September 2002, simultaneous attacks were conducted by rebel forces in most major cities of Cote d'Ivoire. Fighting continues to intensify.

Sierra Leone, meanwhile, was embroiled in civil war beginning in 1991 between government forces and the Revolutionary United Front (RUF). The RUF, along with other rebel groups, fought for control of Sierra Leone, diamond mines and the capital city of Freetown. The RUF was temporarily driven to Liberia in 1999 after United Nations intervention, and militarily defeated in 2002, ending the civil war. RUF leader Foday Sankoh is currently awaiting trial for war crimes.

Adding to regional tensions is Liberia's involvement in Sierra Leone. President Charles Taylor has been accused of aiding the RUF in Sierra Leone in an attempt to destabilize the government and acquire diamonds. In return for aid in Sierra Leone, the RUF helped Liberia increase its diamond output from 100,000 to over 6 million carats per year in the late 1990s by reportedly transferring diamonds from the mines of Sierra Leone to Liberia.

In 1999, Liberians United for Reconciliation and Democracy (LURD), loosely aligned across Liberia, Sierra Leone and Guinea, began a campaign specifically against Taylor's government. Guinea began directly supporting LURD after RUF forces, then pushed out of Sierra Leone into Liberia, invaded Guinea in September 2000. The Security Council has increasingly isolated Liberia, in particular for its role in the Sierra Leone civil war and subsequent continued unrest. Liberian



noncompliance has resulted in arms and diamond embargoes and a travel ban for senior Liberian officials, while direct aid from other States has dwindled or been cut off altogether.

Since decolonization in 1975, civil war and internal fighting began in Angola with several periods of heavy fighting. The Angolan conflict intensified in 1998 and continues, largely funded through the diamond trade. Additionally, Sudan and Somalia are still without strong central governments, while the territorial dispute between Eritrea and Ethiopia has yet to be resolved. Fighting, violence against civilians and a severe economic collapse have caused a significant destabilization in Zimbabwe. Political instability, the use of child soldiers in armed conflicts, and humanitarian issues continue to be a significant concern in Africa for the Security Council.

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CHAPTER FOUR

THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

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 United Nations bodies report to the General Assembly, but not all of these bodies are subsidiary to the GA. 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 the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), also have direct reporting relationships with the General Assembly.

The United Nations Charter assigns each of the main Committees of the General Assembly specific tasks and topics to discuss during each session. Because every Member State has a seat in every Committee, it is important to note that the points of discussion do not overlap; 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, such as 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. This is known as the Committee's purview.

A note concerning funding: The Fifth Committee makes financing decisions concerning only the United Nations 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 United Nations 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.

The 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.

PURVIEW OF THE CONCURRENT GENERAL ASSEMBLY PLENARY

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 oversees the United Nations peacebuilding processes and coordinates 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/

OCEANS AND LAW OF THE SEA

Until the twentieth century, the concept of freedom of the seas was widely accepted. States' sovereign rights to waterways were limited to the narrow space near their coastlines. These rights were largely established by common law or managed on an ad hoc basis by a State and its neighbors. As opportunity for economic exploitation of oceans increased in the 19th and early 20th centuries, States began to assert greater claims of sovereignty, resulting in territorial disputes. Additionally, heavy fishing, whaling and other activities began to cause major ecological and economic concerns that transcended established maritime borders. All of these causes created an increasing demand for regional and global agreements to allocate resources and resolve disputes between States. Today the majority of international agreements distributing sea area are regional in nature. These multilateral agreements cover a vast array of issues within the sea, including regulating peaceful use of the sea, monitoring marine ecology and standardizing sea trade between States.

The United Nations General Assembly has discussed the law of the sea since the 1950s. In 1950, the General Assembly created the International Maritime Organization (IMO). Today, the IMO serves as a forum for States to establish regulations on activities such as ship antipollution measures. In 1958 the Geneva Conference on the Law of the Sea finalized four draft conventions and an optional protocol: the Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contiguous Zone (CTS); the Convention on the High Seas (CHS); the Convention on Fishing and Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Seas (CFCLR); the Convention on the Continental Shelf (CCS); and the Optional Protocol of Signature concerning the Compulsory Settlement of Disputes (OPSD). These Conventions and the Optional Protocol have codified the way international law is enforced at sea and determined where jurisdiction lies; additionally, entered as five separate-but-related treaties, they are more appealing to a broader population



of States. As the law of the sea has complex political, economic and environmental ramifications, a broad-based package of treaties allows more compliance and understanding between States: for example, most States can agree on safe passage in waterways, whereas territorial boundaries are more difficult to resolve or outline.

These five were later codified into the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) in 1982. This broad-based Convention pieced together many agreeable portions of the previous Conventions and the Protocol to create a usable, fundamental document for maritime use and law. While there were many foci within UNCLOS, including definition of high sea and protections of both human and environmental life within the seas, the largest change it brought was the definition of exclusive economic zones, or EEZs. Under UNCLOS, a country's EEZ stretches from their shore out to 200 nautical miles from its coast; this does not include the territorial sea (surface waters) or continental shelf beyond these 200 nautical miles. EEZs include a State's special rights to exploration and use of marine resources, including energy production.

The General Assembly drafts an annual resolution to discuss continuing maritime law issues, most recently in A/RES/69/245. The topics discussed ranged from implementation of UNCLOS to the protection of the marine ecosystem. A major focus was on the safety of mariners, with the main concerns revolving around piracy and robbery at sea. Piracy off the coast of Somalia has and continues to be a major problem for shipping companies operating near Africa's eastern coast. Although the number of reported cases of piracy is at the lowest levels since 2006, the incidents of armed robbery at sea are still a concern for all sea-faring countries.

Along with the discussion of piracy, the General Assembly is concerned about the impact humankind has had on the marine environment and natural resources in the seas. The most recent developments in UNCLOS have primarily examined the need for increased focus on sustainability within international fishing markets. This need is reflected in not only a growing concern for environmental and ecologic stability, but also for the economic welfare of fishing-dependent States. The three primary issues the United Nations is currently taking action on are: the achievement of sustainable fisheries; the enforcement of current legislation while managing fishing at the State level; and the need for capacity growth without reaching over-capacity, as in increasing the capacity to fish without overfishing.

With an increased demand for fish and a rise in the regulated growth and production of fish, the United Nations has also turned its focus to fisheries—specifically, creating sustainable fisheries. Emphasis was placed on the increased use of science and technology in order to gather more accurate data, assisting the creation of more effective plans for sustainability. Significant notice was also given to the need for enforcement of regional and national sustainability plans. In February 2014, the fourth Global Fisheries Enforcement Training Workshop was held in San José, Costa Rica, to increase the effective implementation of responsible management in fisheries worldwide. A fifth Training Workshop has been planned for March 2016.

Moving forward, there are major policy issues surrounding UNCLOS. Free access and navigation of international waters for trade and defense becomes tricky as regional conflicts and non-State actors hinder past treaty agreements and traditional arrangements: for example, internal

conflict at the tip of the Arabian Peninsula has disrupted decades-long safe passage in the surrounding waters. It is also important to recognize the impact these conflicts have on security and military issues: an upset in power within a country bordering or having control over specific waterways impacts which States are able to carry out military or security measures within those waters. Additionally, things like military exercises off the Korean peninsula impact surrounding countries and States who are invested in such activities. Furthermore, regional concerns like the heavily-contested EEZs within the South China Sea create international headache, as these territorial disputes occur in one of the busiest shipping zones in the world.

From an environmental standpoint, the uses of fisheries and underwater resource exploitation have a large impact at both the regional and global levels. While the United States and Canada have extremely large global fishing reaches, smaller islands like Palau or Trinidad and Tobago have economies and communities centered almost entirely on their fishing industry. These island nations and smaller coastal States lacking in primary resources other than fishing are the most dependent on UNCLOS, and slight changes in international trade law or fishing policy can have dramatic repercussions for their economies and citizens. Disputes over underwater resources grow in frequency with the thawing of the Arctic; as this area thaws, mineral wealth, oil and gas in those areas becomes easier to exploit. As States begin to expand commercial enterprises into the Arctic, the law of the sea will remain important in settling disputes and outlining positive approaches to new or growing problems.

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

- How does UNCLOS impact the dispute of territories between States?
- How do changes in trade and shipping access shape States' interactions under UNCLOS, and do these changes need to be further clarified or reflected in UNCLOS?
- As States build islands atop atolls, extending the reach of their EEZ, how can the international community make sure UNCLOS is implemented effectively?

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OUTCOME DOCUMENT OF THE SPECIAL EVENT TO FOLLOW-UP EFFORTS MADE TOWARDS ACHIEVING THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), a product of the Millennium Development Summit from 6 September to 8 September 2000, were a key part of how the United Nations redefined its role for the 21st century. Addressing topics like poverty, education and health, the MDGs are global goals to be achieved by Member States that intended to uphold the United Nations Charter and ensure human rights to all individuals across the globe. The Millennium Development Goals were given a target deadline: to be reached by 2015. As 2015 approached, the United Nations and its Member States began to consider how to improve on its successes and bolster its weaknesses after the deadline.

For decades, Member States have struggled to comprehensively address poverty and inequality in both developed and developing countries. Through the late 1980s and early 1990s, a new form of addressing these issues emerged. In 1990, the World Conference on Education for All adopted a Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs. It proposed six priority areas and encouraged Member States to set specific, targeted goals in each area to be achieved by the year 2000. At the 2000 World Education Forum, Member States agreed to common, global targets for each of the six priority areas for 2000-2015, a structure paralleled in the MDGs. The key factor in both remains the States themselves; while the United Nations is the convening body and the forum wherein MDGs are discussed and set, the United Nations' direct steps or programs are secondary to the States' actions. States agree on the targets set forth in the MDGs, and it is the States' responsibility to help see these goals through on a national or regional level.

After the unanimous adoption of the United Nations Millennium Declaration on 18 September 2000, Member States produced three resolutions that would help define the eight official Millennium Development Goals. Each of these resolutions was titled "Follow-up to the outcome of the Millennium Summit." In these documents, Member States agreed on priorities, approaches and standards to how States could achieve the MDGs. They would also provide guidance for oversight. The first of the three resolutions called for an "integrated, coordinated, comprehensive and balanced approach" in the implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration at the national, regional and international levels. The resolution established the reporting process on the MDGs through a request that the Secretary-General prepare a comprehensive report every five years, supplemented by annual reports. The second resolution recognized the report of the Secretary-General entitled, "Road map towards the implementation of

the United Nations Millennium Declaration." The resolution specified that the reporting process on the MDGs should focus on the major areas set forth in the road map, inviting Member States to give widespread publicity to the Millennium Declaration in order to increase the dissemination of information. The third resolution produced more extensive language on the progress and implementation of the Millennium Development Goals.

Aside from the reporting process, the United Nations further refined its approach to the MDGs. In May 2007, the Secretary-General established the MDG Gap Task Force to improve monitoring of the global commitments contained in Goal 8, the Global Partnership for Development. Additionally, another Millennium Summit was held in 2010, resulting in the "Integrated and coordinated implementation of and follow-up to the outcomes of the major United Nations conferences and summits in the economic and social fields." This document outlined both a recommitment to the MDGs and identified goals where improvements still needed to be made. The document identified areas such as sustainable development, the continued spread of HIV/AIDS cases and continued inaccessibility of treatment, and maternal health as major goals needing to be met, particularly identifying African countries, developing states and countries with ongoing military conflicts as target areas. Accessibility, particularly for these categories of countries, would be an ongoing focus for United Nations efforts.

In September of 2013, United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon hosted a special event to follow up on the efforts made toward achieving the 2015 MDGs. He presented a report to Member States entitled "A Life of Dignity for All." Member States adopted his recommendations in an outcome document, which renewed Member States' commitment to meet the targets laid out by the MDGs. Member States also agreed to meet at a high-level summit in September of 2015 where they will adopt new goals to build on the MDGs. The outcome document focused on the unevenness in meeting development goals, placing special emphasis on African countries and countries experiencing conflict and humanitarian crises.

In the Secretary-General's report, he identifies areas where Member States are facing difficulty meeting the MDGs. The most important goals are related to poverty and hunger, primary education, reproductive health, environmental sustainability, and sanitation. Specific challenges include ending open defecation, providing antenatal care to women, reducing child deaths from preventable diseases and encouraging young women to stay in school. However, the United Nations has already met some of its goals on reducing poverty, increasing access to cleaner water, improving life in slums and achieving gender parity in primary schools. It is also on track to surpass its goals on malaria, tuberculosis and HIV prevention.

The United Nations is working on taking targeted action to meet the MDGs by their deadline. In many cases, this has been through calling for the complete implementation of previous resolutions and commitments, such as the recommendations of the Millennium Development Goals Gap Task Force; the previously established Almaty Programme of Action, Mauritius Strategy for the Further Implementation of the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States, and Brussels Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010; and the continuation of better statistics and data tracking practices. The 2013 Outcome document of the special event to follow up efforts made toward achieving



the Millennium Development Goals has pointed to many of these past commitments and reaffirmed the need for States to meet their funding pledges in order to complete the MDGs on time to the best of the ability of the United Nations.

In addition to new initiatives created to meet the MDGs, Member States are in the midst of a heated debate over what to include in the Post-2015 Development Goals. The Outcome document of the special event to follow up efforts made toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals hits on a number of issues to focus on in the Post-2015 goals, including continuing efforts on poverty and hunger eradication, sustainable development, and increased efforts on democratic governance, rule of law, and gender equality. The document places additional emphasis on the need for economic assistance, particularly after the lessons learned from the economic crisis of the past decade. However, particulars and expanded goals are under debate as well. Additionally, the Post-2015 agenda hopes to couple the MDGs with the Sustainable Development Goals, an outcome of the Rio+20 Conference in 2012 that builds on the Millennium Development Goals and hopes to ensure a more eco-friendly future.

In keeping with the call to “set the stage,” the current sessions will likely focus on ways to bolster past successes and to preempt any problems that may occur in the next phase of the MDGs. Certain goals may no longer benefit from or need enough focus to include as a Post-2015 Development Goal. Additionally, States have begun to realize that tension emerges from the debate on whether to set targets that apply universally: raising people above the \$2 per day poverty line means something far different in Sub-Saharan Africa than in Western Europe, for example. Member States should establish strong policy commitments for successful programs to maintain successes and focus on ways to reinforce progress made. This may be in the form of continued monetary, technological or personnel support. Future actions should also consider what type of commitments would provide a good foundation for the future of the Goals. This will prove especially difficult if the body cannot decide what they will ideally focus on in the next phase of the Development Goals.

Questions to consider from your government’s perspective on this issue include the following:

- What areas need continued focus? What could future goals include that may have been missed with the original MDGs?
- How can the United Nations increase the number of Member States actively participating in improvements both within and beyond their borders?
- How can expanded efforts be inclusive of both developing and developed Member States?

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THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY FIRST COMMITTEE

DISARMAMENT & INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

PURVIEW OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY FIRST COMMITTEE

The General Assembly First Committee addresses the disarmament of conventional weapons, weapons of mass destruction and related international security questions. The First Committee makes recommendations on the regulations of these weapons as they relate to international peace and security. The First Committee does not address legal issues surrounding weapons possession or control complex peace and security issues addressed by the Security Council. For more information concerning the purview of the United Nations General Assembly as a whole, see page 22.

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

DEVELOPMENTS IN THE FIELD OF INFORMATION AND TELECOMMUNICATIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF INTERNATIONAL SECURITY

Around the world, governments, businesses and private citizens increasingly rely on information and communication technologies (ICT) in almost every facet of life and work. As the world has globalized, so have ICT systems that connect people around the world at a low cost. Governments, including the defense sector, have often led the way in developing and making use of new ICT developments. This has created great opportunities to develop new, better capabilities and ease collaboration amongst allies, but it has also created a bevy of new risks. Government computer networks are increasingly the target of cyberattacks, defense contractors and researchers in industries as diverse as medicine, robotics and energy are being targeted for industrial espionage via the internet. Independent researchers have also expressed concerns about attacks on national power grids and other infrastructure that relies on the internet and computer networks. The increasing pace of global access to the internet is only accelerating the evolution of these trends. As non-State actors work to breach States' firewalls to gain access to high-level information and state secrets, the importance of collaboration crystalizes. As a result, United Nations Member States are increasingly interested in international frameworks that can address or mitigate information security concerns.

At the United Nations, the issue of information and telecommunications has historically focused on the role of unified communications and the integration of telephone lines, wireless signals and computers; ICT enables users to access, store, transmit or manipulate information from remote locations. Additionally, the single unified system of cabling, signal distribution and management offers a large economic incentive by largely eliminating hardwired networks, such as telephone lines. While the United Nations and other regional or international groups began to focus on developments in ICT in the early- to mid-nineties, the General Assembly first addressed information security in 1998. General Assembly resolution 53/70 stated the importance of ICT, technological advancement and the sharing of information multilaterally. Calling for States to submit reports to the Secretary-General on their positions regarding ICT and the advisability of the international community setting standards against cyberterrorism and criminal activity; it was adopted by consensus.

Since 1998, the Secretary-General has issued annual reports to the General Assembly outlining the views of Member States on the issue; at times, States' contributions are so substantial that they are published as stand-alone documents outside the annual report. All parties acknowledge that the ever-expanding growth of information and telecommunications technology has created susceptibilities and new possibilities for cyber-security disruption. This has led to a United Nations-backed push to initiate multilateral discussions to update the international community on these new and growing issues; some of these discussions have produced agreements that continue to resonate in future discussions on ICT and its role in States' economic, civil and military systems.

Recently, attempts to fight the ongoing threat of cybercrime have been mainly conducted through international cooperation and at regional levels—such as the Shanghai Cooperation Organisation, the Organization of American States, the Asia-Pacific Economic Forum and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Regional Forum—and bilateral efforts between States. There have been various Groups of Governmental Experts on Developments in the Field of Information and Telecommunications in the Context of International Security, or GGEs, which have issued three successful reports; the latest report links issues of cyber-security to international law, including the United Nations Charter. This unprecedented action will help shape the conversation on cyber-security and ICT in the future, particularly around peace and security issues, but implications as well as cohesive action is undefined. Another meeting of the members of the GGE is scheduled for 2015; while the body remains active on the matter, it is unclear how they will further implement changes regarding ICT or international security.

There have been other attempts from other entities within the United Nations to address issues of information security and telecommunications. In 2011, the Shanghai Cooperation Organisation States suggested an International Code of Conduct. This Code, viewed by many States as controversial, was not brought to the floor of the General Assembly. The General Assembly Third Committee has addressed the questions of cybercrime and privacy-related rights; two resolutions, passed in 2000 and 2001, focus on fighting the criminal misuse of information technologies. In 2013, the General Assembly adopted Resolution 68/167, stating there is a personal right to privacy in the digital age; this resolution emphasizes the responsibility of States to protect the individual's right to privacy online.

As States and regional groups continue to further their technological gains, and as information and telecommunications systems become integral on the international stage, it will be important for the United Nations to take this issue more seriously. The positive advancements connected to the proliferation of ICT cannot be understated. There are also security risks. The increasing accessibility of ICT has expanded the global stage, making it easier to recruit terrorists and fund terrorism. The group known as the Islamic State (IS) has a massive Internet presence, with social media often used as a recruiting technique. The growth of social media technologies has increased the non-State actor's ability to reach a huge audience: sophisticated multimedia campaigns sway Westerners to the cause for funding or



fighting. The humanization of the jihadist experience has coerced thousands of Westerners to flock to IS, either on-the-ground in the Middle East or through terror activities at home.

Cyber-attacks on both governmental and non-governmental networks are also an increasing problem. In 2010, researchers identified the Stuxnet virus, which was later revealed to be designed to damage Iranian nuclear centrifuges by interfering with Siemens industrial logic controllers. While no actor has claimed credit for the attack, media reports widely attribute its development to the United States of America and Israel. In the summer of 2015, the United States alleged that the People's Republic of China was responsible for a major hack that stole millions of United States government personnel records. Such records would be incredibly valuable for any intelligence agency. Non-State actors have also been active in major attacks against government websites and networks around the world.

The increases in cybercrime and State-sponsored cyber-warfare highlight the importance of this issue. Attacks on government computers and systems, sometimes hidden behind the smokescreen of hacker groups, have elevated the role of States--either in their alleged complicity or their relatively inactive response. States must work multilaterally to combat these detriments to information and telecommunications so technology can continue to positively impact global development and reshape the world as we know it.

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

- What actions should Member States and the international community take to prevent attacks via information and telecommunication systems?
- What activities conducted online should be considered intelligence-gathering and which should be considered acts of war or sabotage? What conduct is acceptable in this domain?
- How can Member States protect against cyber-attacks by non-State actors?

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IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION ON THE PROHIBITION OF THE DEVELOPMENT, PRODUCTION, STOCKPILING AND USE OF CHEMICAL WEAPONS AND ON THEIR DESTRUCTION

Chemical weapons were first used in World War I, when the German Empire opened canisters of chlorine gas and allowed the wind to move the gas over French lines. As the war progressed, both sides developed and used artillery shells to deliver chemical weapons, including chlorine, phosgene and mustard gases, which resulted in approximately 1.3 million casualties. In 1925, the Geneva Protocol was signed into international law, banning the use of chemical weapons in warfare, but not their production or stockpiling. Despite widespread international prohibitions on their use, chemical weapons saw use again in World War II.

Outside of the two World Wars, State actors were responsible for chemical weapons use in a variety of instances: Italy used mustard gas during its 1935 invasion of Ethiopia and Japan employed chemical warfare against China starting in 1938. The issue returned to the forefront of public discussion in 1980, during the Iran-Iraq War, when Iraq used mustard gas against Iranian troops and Kurdish civilians.

These events demonstrated a clear need for a new international agreement on the development, production, stockpiling and use of Chemical Weapons. In 1992, the United Nations began drafting a new Convention. The Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on Their Destruction (CWC) came into force in 1997 and was designed to address some of the shortcomings of the Geneva Protocol. The CWC prohibits the use, production and stockpiling of chemical weapons, a step further than the Geneva Convention. The CWC calls for the destruction of all chemical weapons, including those abandoned outside State parties' territory, and the destruction or conversion of chemical weapons production facilities. The CWC is also supported by the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons, the independent and autonomous international organization working to ensure CWC implementation through demilitarization, non-proliferation, and national and international implementation.

Three reviews of the Convention have been held since its enactment: 2003, 2008 and 2013. As of the third review, only eight Member States had not assented to the Convention and almost 80 percent of all declared chemical weapons held by signatories have been destroyed. Only three nations, Libya, the Russian Federation and the United States,



still hold chemical weapon stockpiles. Additionally, an undetermined number of production facilities remain undestroyed or unconverted.

In 2013, numerous media reports alleged that the government of the Syrian Arab Republic had used chemical weapons in the Syrian civil war. A United Nations investigation confirmed the use of sarin in an August 2015 attack in Ghouta. Both the Syrian government and opposition forces blame the other for its use. In December 2013, the Syrian Arab Republic, under intense international pressure, ratified the Convention. As of December 2014, 98 percent of all Syrian stockpiles had been destroyed.

Much work still remains to be done in achieving full implementation of the Convention. Of the States Parties, three still have chemical weapons to be destroyed. The Russian Federation has committed to an extended timeline for the complete destruction of remaining chemical weapons by 31 December 2015, while 90 percent of the United States' stockpiles have been destroyed. In the interest of public health and environmental concerns, the remaining stockpiles in the United States are to be chemically neutralized; as such, no definite timeline has been established for complete destruction.

The Convention also calls on ratifying parties to adopt legislation echoing the tenets of the Convention to prohibit the development and production of chemical weapons. Of those States that have ratified, 97 have yet to draft and enact such legislation. National legislation is intended as an enforcement mechanism that can curtail the acquisition and use of chemical weapons by non-State actors. Additionally, many chemical weapons production facilities are as-of-yet still standing or have not been converted for non-chemical-weapons purposes.

These remaining concerns will prompt further action, including the monitoring of former chemical weapons production facilities to ensure their disuse or conversion. With only three States representing 20.1 percent of the pre-Convention stockpiles, the progress of those States that have not yet met their obligation to destroy remaining chemical weapons must continue to be observed. Unwillingness or inability to finance disarmament, coupled with the inability to destroy or convert chemical weapons or facilities on an accelerated timeline, continues to plague those States who have yet to sign the Convention. Regional conflict could also preclude the destruction of chemical weapons stockpiles within the Member State or by non-State actors. This may also validate a need for exceptions to the provisions of the Convention on a case-by-case basis.

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

- What are the barriers to achieving full ratification of the Convention?
- How can the international community ensure that existing chemical weapons stockpiles are eliminated?
- How can the United Nations and the international community prevent the acquisition and use of chemical weapons by non-state actors?

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THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY SECOND COMMITTEE

ECONOMIC & FINANCIAL

PURVIEW OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY SECOND COMMITTEE

The Second Committee makes recommendations on means to improve the economic development of Member States and maintain the stability of international financial and trade networks. 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, whereas the Fifth Committee addresses the budgetary issues within the United Nations System. The Second Committee does not address social issues that affect development; such issues are considered by the Third Committee. For more information concerning the purview of the United Nations General Assembly as a whole, see page 22.

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

AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT, FOOD SECURITY AND NUTRITION

The World Food Summit of 1996 defined food security as “when all people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life.” Food security is a complex sustainable development issue and is intimately tied to agricultural development, nutrition and health. Additionally, it affects both economic development and trade. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) estimates that one billion people go to bed hungry each night, including 200 million children. Both physical access to food and affordability are issues with global ramifications. As the deadline for the Millennium Development Goals approaches this year, and with the global population estimated to reach nine billion by 2050, the issues of agricultural development, food security and nutrition become even more important.

The issue of sustainable agriculture and food security was first raised at the third session of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) in 1995. It was noted in the Commission’s report that progress had been met in certain regions, but that sustainable agriculture had not progressed far enough on a global scale. This concern was reiterated at the World Food Summit of 1996, where representatives called for at least halving the number of malnourished people by 2015. This was specifically tied to the Millennium Development Declaration of 2000 through Millennium Development Goal (MDG) one: eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. Thus far, the MDGs have framed the United Nations topic for this discussion, although the 2008 global economic recession spurred a food crisis, leading to the G-8’s 2012 creation of the New Alliance for Food and Security.

Agriculture is the largest employment sector in most developing countries and is crucial to a country’s food security. The ability to produce nutritious, healthy food options within one’s own borders supports a healthier, better-fed populace while stimulating the economy by reducing food imports (or increasing exports). Some argue that increasing global trade in food reduces employment opportunities within domestic agricultural sectors; it, therefore,

may be important for States to closely examine trade agreements and tariffs to protect national food security as well as employment.

One relatively new factor relevant to food security and nutrition is the creation and cultivation of genetically-modified organisms (GMOs). While the World Health Organization (WHO) has stated that GMO foods currently on the international market pose no scientifically verified threat to human health, some States, especially in Western Europe, have at least partially banned these foods from production and import. Additionally, the GMO seed and associated fertilizers, herbicides and pesticides can be difficult for small and subsistence farmers to afford. Supporters counter that this technology allows important crops to grow in otherwise-difficult climates and increases the yields of staple crops in order to meet the nutritional needs of a growing population. Both private and governmental organizations are still determining where these new technologies fit in the broader landscape of sustainable agricultural development.

Agricultural developments address the first of the three food security pillars as outlined by the World Health Organization (WHO): availability, or sufficient quantities of food available on a consistent basis. With developments in agriculture, like mobile applications such as MbeguChoice, which allows Kenyan farmers to select which seeds suit their climactic conditions, the possibility of universal food security grows. This is particularly important for rural communities: while recent decades have shown an increasing trend toward urbanization in both developed and developing countries, approximately 75 percent of those experiencing food insecurity live in rural areas.

However, it remains important that food be able to provide adequate nutrition. WHO defines the second pillar as access: having sufficient resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet. Lack of infrastructure is a major stumbling block to access to food security. If a State does not have the infrastructure or political stability to move produce and food from where it is produced or imported to where people live, it has failed to provide food security. If scarcity or monetary inflation make access to food impossible for citizens, the State has again failed to secure access to food for its citizens. Having identified access to a consistent source of nutritional food as a right, many developing countries in particular may require assistance, either through development or private sector contributions, to be able to provide adequately for their citizens.

The final pillar on the WHO scale is use: the appropriate use of food based on basic nutrition and care. Many States do not or cannot provide education concerning nutrition for their citizens, or they offer programs that are coupled with food that is considered highly unhealthy. In recent years, the United States has struggled with the use of government food subsidies for low-income families to purchase “junk food;” or food that is not fresh, healthy or nutritious. Critics argue that fresh, healthy and nutritious foods are consistently more expensive or difficult to procure, putting low-income families at an impasse: do they let their children go hungry, or do they purchase the more readily available, unhealthy alternatives at a lower cost that allows for adequate caloric consumption without the corresponding nutrition? Knowledge about choosing and



preparing nutritious food remains key to food security in both developed and developing countries.

With the MDG deadline passing, the global community is developing its post-2015 agenda, including the Sustainable Development Goals. Food security for all is a vital part of the new Goals, and States must take action to support it. Shifts in trade policies and conflict zones continue to erode access to affordable, nutritious food; the rise of non-State actors and their territorial gains also stifle access. Developments in agriculture must be encouraged and shared, and differences explored and compromises reached, if the international arena plans to support nine billion people by 2050. The advancement of technology, coupled with investment in infrastructure and development, will shape the conversation on food security, while water crises and global climate change threaten new populations with food insecurity and shortages. It is more important than ever that access to sustaining, nutritious food remains a basic human right.

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

- How can Member States ensure that all people have access to affordable, nutritious food?
- What agricultural policies or approaches might increase food security and affordability?
- What implications do national trade policies have on food security, and how can the international community work to mitigate any negative effects?

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PROMOTION OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM, INCLUDING ECOTOURISM, FOR POVERTY ERADICATION AND ENVIRONMENT PROTECTION

Over the last 150 years, a series of new transportation technologies have vastly expanded travel opportunities. As both the economic costs

and the time involved decreased, global travel for pleasure and business drastically increased. The modern tourism industry was born. For many States, encouraging tourism is a national priority. The advantages are clear: increased trade, new opportunities for local businesses and new tax revenue for the State. In 2014, tourism generated more than \$1 trillion in economic activity. Many States have used the revenues from tourism to fund large-scale anti-poverty programs. Tourism can also generate a positive public perception of countries, a “soft power” trait that many States aim to cultivate. Despite the huge benefits of booming tourism, there are major drawbacks, most notably the environmental impact of the tourism industry. Every part of tourism has the potential to have a negative environmental impact, from the construction of roads, airports and infrastructure, to the pollution caused by moving more than 1 billion tourists across international borders each year. Additionally, construction of hotels, golf courses and other amenities can damage local ecosystems.

In response, States are increasingly looking at environmentally sustainable tourism models, including ecotourism. Ecotourism strives to generate “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education.” In addition, through promoting awareness about the fragility of unique environments and communities, ecotourism strives to maximize the benefits of safe and sustainable international travel, while generating reverence for and preservation of social, cultural and biological diversity.

Tourism has been discussed at the United Nations for decades, largely because of its importance to national economies and economic development. In 1954, the United Nations held a Conference on Customs Formalities for the Temporary Importation of Private Road Motor Vehicles and for Tourism, which was attended by a number of international tourism organizations, including the International Union of Official Travel Organizations (IUOTO). In 1970, IUOTO members voted to become the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). Most of UNWTO's work has focused on promoting tourism, developing policy recommendations on managing the tourism sector and developing international standards of ethics for both Member States and organizations in the tourism industry. In 2003, the UNWTO officially became a specialized agency of the United Nations.

The sustainability of the tourism industry first appeared on the international agenda when the General Assembly adopted A/RES/S-19/2 in 1997. The resolution tied tourism to the 1992 World Summit's Agenda 21, which focused on sustainable development as a tool to alleviate poverty. This was the first time tourism was discussed with respect to sustainability. In 2002, UNWTO unanimously adopted the 2003 programme Sustainable Tourism—Eliminating Poverty (ST-EP). ST-EP works to ensure poor segments of the population in developing or least developed countries share in the positive economic impact of tourism. Through focusing on sustainable tourism in social, economic and ecological ways, ST-EP activities play a role in alleviating poverty, encouraging development and creating jobs for the incredibly poor.

Other United Nations agencies have also taken note of the environmental impact of tourism. The United Nations Environment Programme has noted that tourism is increasingly contributing to a worldwide “loss of biological diversity,” both through habitat loss for endangered species and by exposing foreign fauna and flora to isolated environments.



In December 2012, the General Assembly adopted a resolution on sustainable tourism. The resolution was based on a report by the UNWTO and the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development and encourages States to invest and create business ventures to promote sustainable tourism, particularly in areas of financial need. Additionally, the resolution addresses the common loss of biodiversity and the need for transparent policy to foster growth. Finally, the resolution encourages local and indigenous communities to host tourists and promote the natural environment. Other recent discussions have focused on conservation and protection of the environment, specifically with finding sustainable uses of nature through tourism.

There are new models of cooperation emerging at the regional level around ecotourism. The Central American Integration System, an economic and political organization of Central American States, encourages partnerships between non-governmental and private organizations and is an exemplary model that has seen success in Latin America. The impact this group has had on tourism and ecotourism stems from this regional agreement on peace and economic development, encouraging States to open their borders and collaborate for prosperity. This regional model could positively impact how other regional States respond and unite to create a friendlier and open environment, creating positive outcomes for both tourism and ecotourism. UNWTO reports predict further successes in preserving environmental resources and also drastically reducing poverty rates. Despite this, countries that lack infrastructure for tourism pose a different challenge, as funding such projects is difficult, regardless of their potential profitability. Countries also sometimes lack knowledge of how to effectively manage businesses and advertise to tourists, while others are stigmatized as unsafe, whether for health concerns, civil unrest, or other negative perception.

Looking ahead, there are a number of factors that Member States must consider on the issue. Current ecotourism models are often more expensive than traditional tourism models, which can diminish the economic returns that a State sees from its tourism industry. States will need to determine how to balance the economic gains of tourism with the need to protect biodiversity and the environment. States must also consider how tourism contributes to climate change, which could itself have deleterious effects on tourism-driven economies. Finally, Member States should consider what new or creative models may blend sustainable tourism with poverty reduction.

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

- How can ecotourism be harnessed to enhance international development and economic growth in developing countries while protecting the integrity and sovereignty of tourism-dependent populations?
- How has climate change directed the growth of international tourism, and what does the future hold for tourism in resource-sensitive regions?
- What can or should the international community and Member States do to support or promote ecotourism?

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THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY THIRD COMMITTEE

SOCIAL, HUMANITARIAN & CULTURAL

PURVIEW OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY THIRD COMMITTEE

While the Committee's areas of concern and its work often overlaps 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 issues with, 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 United Nations General Assembly as a whole, see page 22.

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

PROTECTION OF MIGRANTS

People move their permanent place of residence for a variety of reasons. Sometimes this movement is voluntary, as in the case of migrant workers who seek better employment opportunities abroad, while others choose to leave because they believe their home has become too dangerous. In other situations, however, the movement is involuntary, for example with the forced expulsion of a population by military forces—a relatively common occurrence. Regardless of whether their movement is voluntary or involuntary, those who leave their home country to seek permanent residence elsewhere are referred to under the global term “migrant.” This term thus encompasses a wide range of people in a wide range of circumstances and conditions, which can occasionally complicate policy considerations.

Despite the adoption by many countries of stricter immigration and naturalization policies, the twenty-first century has seen a drastic increase in international migration. According to a report released by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Population Division, the number of international migrants reached 232 million in 2013. Half of the migrants relocated to just ten countries, with North American countries seeing the largest increase in their migrant populations. Migrants are especially vulnerable to homelessness and hunger, and have little personal security. They are often uniquely vulnerable to human rights abuses due to language barriers, uncertain legal status and having limited access to services such as healthcare, education, or public assistance. For example, undocumented migrants are unable to seek legal protection from the State in which they find themselves and are essentially at the mercy of their employers, who may take advantage of this situation to violate labor laws and even commit violence. They are also vulnerable to, and frequently targeted by, kidnappers, human traffickers and sexual predators.

While migration has been common for centuries, it was enshrined as a human right in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. Article 13 of the Declaration states that every person has a right to leave his or her own country, as well as to return to that country. However, the Declaration (along with other international human rights law) does not provide an obligation on the part of the receiving State to accept the migrant as a resident, except in narrow cases where asylum is validly sought and granted. Nevertheless, the receiving State does have obligations to protect even an undocumented migrant's human rights, such as

the right to be free from torture or forced labor. Migration affects nearly every country in the world, as a sending, transit, or receiving country, so there is global interest in migrant issues.

Drawing on the guidance from the Population Division, the United Nations developed the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families in 1990. This Convention clarified that international human rights law applies to migrants regardless of whether they are in a transit State or receiving State. The Convention also categorized migrant workers as documented or non-documented. A documented migrant worker is one whom the receiving State has officially authorized to live and to work there. The Convention recognizes the need to secure the protection for the rights of every migrant, regardless of their documentation status. However, the Convention grants certain rights—such as the right to form associations and trade unions, and the right to participate in public affairs—only to documented workers.

The United Nations is currently working toward the implementation of the Secretary-General's eight-point plan of action regarding migrants. This agenda, adopted by the General Assembly in 2013, called broadly for the protection of all human rights of migrants. In addition, the agenda aims to improve public perception of migrants, better integrate migration into the United Nations development agenda and adopt a more evidence-based approach to assisting migrants.

In September 2014, the General Assembly adopted the Report of the Open Working Group of the General Assembly on Sustainable Development Goals, which called for the protection of migrants' labor rights and workplace safety in Goal 8. Additionally, a February 2015 International Migration Meeting brought together high ranking officials within ECOSOC to discuss the position of international migration within the Secretary-General's eight-point migration plan. These officials indicated that integrating migration into the broader international sustainable development agenda is of critical importance, especially at a time when many countries are having difficulty implementing beneficial migration policies at the national level and coordinating their efforts with those of other countries.

The protection of migrants is a complex issue often involving many actors and conflicting interests at the same time. One major point of contention is determining where responsibility should lie for the protection of the human rights of migrants. Receiving and transit countries tend to argue that, especially for undocumented migrants, they should not have full responsibility for the protection of the migrants' human rights because those migrants are not legally recognized as citizens of that country. Sending countries argue that the receiving and transit countries should have at least some level of responsibility as they are in a better position to do so than the sending country, which should not be expected to guard its migrants regardless of where they may travel. Cooperation and coordination between countries is also difficult as every country involved views the migrants as someone else's problem.

Further complicating matters is the fact that many transit and receiving countries have a difficult enough time protecting the human rights of



their own citizens, let alone those of migrants. A present example is Libya, where migrants who sought jobs in Libya or who were passing through Libya on their way to Europe have recently been subjected to horrific human rights abuses and prejudices due to the political collapse of the country into warring factions. Employers have confiscated the passports of migrants who were validly working in Libya. Without valid documentation to cross the border normally, these migrants are forced to stay or to face the dangerous crossing of the Mediterranean. In Myanmar, thousands of minority Muslim Rohingya people have attempted to flee to Malaysia and other Southeast Asian countries only to be abandoned at sea by the traffickers, who have already received their payments. The migrants' own country has sometimes refused to take them back when they attempt to return because they are not recognized as citizens.

Many challenges remain if migrants are to be adequately protected as the world moves through the twenty-first century. The increase of migrants over the past few years has sparked a nationalist backlash, and openly anti-immigration political parties have sprung up around the world, particularly in Europe. The deadliest year on record for migrants was 2014, with at least 4,800 perishing on the journey from their home country. In the first three months of 2015 alone, over 185,000 migrants have sought residence in Europe. Many of these migrants have died in the Mediterranean Sea as their overcrowded boats capsized. Similar peril and human rights abuses have occurred in the waters of Southeast Asia as the Rohingya continue to leave, or try to leave, Myanmar. Protecting these migrant populations is a challenge shared by the United Nations and its Member States as well as non-governmental organizations. Some news outlets are stating that we are in the midst of a migration crisis. Accordingly, solutions must be capable of swift implementation if they are to be effective.

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

- To what extent should receiving countries be obligated to protect the human rights of undocumented migrants?
- In order to move toward the shared goal of protecting migrants, how can Member States better coordinate their efforts with each other and with the patchwork of international organizations that assist migrants?
- How can measures to protect migrants be better tailored to their unique vulnerabilities and susceptibility to human rights abuses?
- What steps should the United Nations take in order to better integrate protection of migrants into the overall issue of sustainable development?

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THE RIGHT TO PRIVACY IN THE DIGITAL AGE

The right to privacy has long been recognized in the major international human rights documents. Article 12 of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights protects against "arbitrary interference with [one's] privacy, family, home [and] correspondence." This right was also enshrined in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Subsequent articles also protect freedom of thought and expression, which were seen as complementary and essential parts of a whole. While these rights are protected under international human rights law, implementation under national law has always been a challenge. With each new technology, governments and citizens are forced to consider how the right of privacy applies to the new medium. The digital age has significantly complicated this discussion. Surveillance and widespread monitoring is far cheaper, easier and more reliable.

Increasing availability of digital information communication technologies has radically changed global norms of communication, increased access to information and expanded outlets for free expression around the world. Many of the effects have been good, including dramatic reductions in the cost of doing business around the globe, the development of new tools for human rights activists and increased access to educational opportunities. Yet the widespread adoption of these technologies poses new challenges, as well. Governments, individuals and private companies are able to conduct surveillance and to intercept data on a new scale. Governments, in particular, can carry out widespread digital surveillance more effectively, as the cost of communications technologies has plummeted. While some States argue that surveillance is necessary to prevent crime or terrorism, citizens, civil society groups and other governments have raised concerns about just how far a State should be able to reach into the digital transmissions of its citizens or other people and organizations around the world.

The United Nations has been considering how the right to privacy applies to the digital age since 1990, when the General Assembly adopted



the Guidelines for the Regulation of Computerized Personal Data Files. The Guidelines were intended as a general outline of how individual States should address the issue through national legislation, outlining the minimum guarantees that should be provided. The Guidelines state that Member States should refrain from using information about persons in “unfair or unlawful ways” or “for ends contrary to the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations.” Additionally, the Guidelines provided for broad exceptions in the event such departure is necessary to protect national security or public health, order, or morality.

In 2013, the High Commissioner for Human Rights released a statement expressing grave concerns for the impact of these extensive surveillance practices on human rights. The Commissioner pointed out the lack of proper integration, implementation and enforcement of the protections granted by the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. The statement went on to encourage Member States to adopt legislation prohibiting State surveillance of communications save for “the most exceptional circumstances” and argued that such surveillance should always be subject to the supervision of an independent judicial body.

Following the Commissioner’s report, the General Assembly adopted a resolution in 2014 affirming that the rights citizens hold offline must also apply online. The General Assembly called upon all Member States to review their practices, procedures and legislation regarding communications surveillance to ensure that such measures abide by international human rights law.

While the 2014 resolution was a major step in interpreting and codifying the right to privacy in the digital age, it did not fully resolve all of the issues identified in the Report of the High Commissioner for Human Rights on the right to privacy in the digital age. One central issue is how to effectively balance the need to monitor communications for law enforcement and national security while still protecting individual rights. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights protects against unlawful and arbitrary invasions of privacy but implies that there are legitimate reasons for surveillance. In most States, legal frameworks provide some check or safeguard to protect against arbitrary surveillance, like requiring a court order for tapping a telephone. As of yet, there are no clear guidelines about what legal standards and safeguards should be used for digital communications and data.

At the same time, States are attempting to ensure that they are able to adequately monitor communications of criminals and terrorists who might use new tools to plot attacks or cause harm to others. Some States have threatened to ban telecommunications services and companies if they do not provide back-door government access to traffic or disclose bulk information for surveillance purposes. In some cases, it has been reported that governments have used such networks to actively stifle political opposition.

The integration of technology into routine business and the day-to-day lives of people presents another problem. While previously only correspondence and some records were stored or able to be monitored, personal data has exploded in the digital age, ranging from health information to records about where and what we eat. What sort of protections are needed for these newer forms of data is a crucial question for the international community. Secondly, data storage and transfer is global. The decentralized nature of the internet means that data is often stored in multiple locations and transits multiple countries for

even routine communication. This makes data privacy a global issue: individual States cannot focus on these issues simply at the national level. Cooperation between States has become more important than ever. Finally, States must wrestle with how to adequately protect privacy when data is stored by an increasing number of private entities. The collection of data by popular websites like Facebook or by individuals puts people at risk across the globe, personally, professionally and financially, especially when targeted for monitoring and surveillance.

Events of the past few years have made the importance of this topic and the challenges involved all the more clear. Since 2014, a series of leaks by Edward Snowden and other former intelligence officials have revealed the extent of surveillance efforts by a number of governments, including the United States and the United Kingdom. Meanwhile, other States have asked Blackberry and other corporations to provide greater access to personal data for the purposes of protecting international security. Both events have fuelled a global conversation about the appropriate balance between the right to privacy and the needs of States for monitoring and surveillance.

Questions to consider from your government’s perspective on this issue include the following:

- How should States balance their obligation to protect the right to privacy with the use of surveillance tools to protect national security?
- What safeguards or legal principles should States implement to protect the right to privacy?
- How has the concept of privacy changed as digital communication technology has become increasingly ubiquitous?
- What sort of protections are appropriate or necessary for new types of personal data?

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THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY SIXTH COMMITTEE

LEGAL

PURVIEW OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY SIXTH COMMITTEE

The General Assembly Sixth Committee addresses issues relating to international law. The Committee not only drafts new international law, but also offers interpretations of existing international law, as well as recommendations for Members to implement international regulations through national law. The Committee also considers legal issues which affect the United Nations Secretariat and operations. The Sixth Committee does not resolve legal disputes; that is the responsibility of the International Court of Justice. For more information concerning the purview of the United Nations General Assembly as a whole, see page 22.

Please note: When considering the reports of sub-committees that may change the United Nations Charter or other legal documents, the Sixth Committee may act on provisions within that report and write resolutions appropriate to carry out any recommendations from such reports. When a topic results in a recommendation to change the United Nations Charter, the provisions laid out in Chapter XVIII and elsewhere in the Charter must be followed in the GA Plenary session, followed by submission of any approved portion to the Member States before ratification. Similarly, if this Committee recommends the formation of a new treaty or comparable legal agreement, a treaty conference would be called for during the GA Plenary session, to be held at a later date.

Website: www.un.org/ga/sixth/index.shtml

MEASURES TO ELIMINATE INTERNATIONAL TERRORISM

Eliminating terrorism has proven to be one of the most complex and difficult challenges for the international community to resolve. Terrorism is not a new problem on the world stage. Since the beginning of modern terrorism in Russia in the late 1800s, the number of terrorist attacks has increased to over ten thousand each year by 2013. Methods and strategies for attacks have changed drastically. Advancements in technology and the rise of the Internet have allowed terrorist groups to communicate with audiences that they would never have reached just decades ago. In recent years, many new threats have arisen. Most notable is the rise of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant, which rose to prominence in 2011 during the Syrian Civil War. While States may focus their attention on threats and attacks from foreign nationals, attacks from domestic citizens and residents are becoming increasingly prevalent. The April 2013 bombings at the Boston Marathon in the United States and the January 2015 shootings in Paris, France highlight the ever-increasing need for States to consider the threat of terrorism from within their own borders.

For over fifty years the United Nations has been working toward the most effective way to eliminate terrorism through both regional and international cooperation while adhering to international law. The United Nations has struggled to provide a legal framework to address international terrorism, while also respecting the wishes of Member States and local laws. The 1963 Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft was one of the first attempts to combat terrorism, yet it was viewed as largely ineffective because Member States did not always comply with their obligations under the treaty.

Efforts to combat international terrorism continued in 1994 when the General Assembly adopted, by resolution, the Declaration on Measures to Eliminate International Terrorism.

This Declaration outlined the different obligations that States have in the fight against international terrorism: to apprehend, prosecute, extradite and consider prior to granting asylum if the seeker committed acts of terrorism. Further changes were made to the Declaration in 1996, including the establishment of an Ad Hoc Committee to examine the legal frameworks for suppressing terrorist activities and develop a comprehensive counter-terrorism convention to replace the patchwork pre-existing conventions and protocols. This document became known as the Comprehensive Terrorism Convention and, while debate has occurred since 1998, no draft has yet been submitted to Member States for signature. The Ad Hoc Committee's mandate was annually renewed and revised by the General Assembly until 2014, when the General Assembly voted to suspend the Ad Hoc Committee and return the debate over the draft Comprehensive Terrorism Convention to the Sixth Committee at large.

Adherence to counter-terrorism instruments remains low, and the General Assembly is continuously modifying its mandate and mission of combating terrorism in all forms. It is difficult to pinpoint the motives that drive a person or group to commit acts of terror. In some cases, it is to inflict harm on another group of people; in others, nationalist ideals are identified as the primary reason. What began at the United Nations as a means of trying to eliminate the act of terror itself soon shifted to focusing on eliminating the broader factors that may lead a person or group to commit an act of terror.

The International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism, which was adopted in January 2000, aims to reduce the flow of funds to terrorist groups and also reminds the international community of their obligation to respect a State's territorial integrity and sovereign equality and the precepts of international law when detaining any person believed to be involved in terrorist activities. In response to the terrorist attacks in the United States on 11 September 2001, Member States renewed their interest in creating a strong international framework to combat terrorism. On 28 September 2001, the United Nations Security Council unanimously approved Resolution 1373, calling upon all States to take specific legal and financial steps to eliminate international terrorism and implement relevant counter-terrorism Conventions.

After the 2005 General Assembly World Summit, Member States updated and amended existing conventions on combating terrorism. Also at the Summit, world leaders pledged to adopt a new counter-terrorism strategy. In September 2006, the General Assembly adopted the United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, which focuses future action through four pillars: addressing conditions conducive to terrorism, preventing and combating terrorism, building capacity to prevent terrorism, and ensuring respect for human rights in the fight against terrorism. This is the first time that Member States have agreed upon a concrete, coordinated plan to combat the spread of international terrorism. The Strategy also includes the Secretary-General's Counter-Terrorism



Implementation Task Force, which is mandated to coordinate efforts across the United Nations system. It offers assistance to Member States in developing appropriate policies and implementing counter-terrorism measures in accordance with international law. Recently, the Sixth Committee has been attempting to develop the draft Comprehensive Convention on Terrorism into a document that would codify the measures taken in its previous resolutions on the topic. The Committee has struggled to make progress on that draft.

Moving forward, the Sixth Committee will need to consider how to update the international legal framework to better match the policy prescriptions of the United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy. In its deliberations on this question, the Sixth Committee will need to grapple with a number of significant shifts in terrorist tactics that are not well-addressed within current counter-terrorism laws, both local and international. These tactics include the rise of cyber-terrorism, the flow of foreign fighters across borders, and the increasing use of the Internet as a tool for terrorist recruitment and propaganda. At the same time, the Committee will need to evaluate the effectiveness of the current framework of international law as it relates to more traditional terrorist tactics and to older threats, especially the long-feared possibility of nuclear terrorism. The Sixth Committee will also need to pay careful attention to the question of how to best balance the competing needs associated with preventing terrorism and protecting human rights as required by international law.

As the Sixth Committee grapples with these problems, it will likely revisit the longstanding debate over whether international law should recognize the existence of State-sponsored terrorism, or if it should confine itself to terrorism by non-state actors. This question has long been controversial. Some Member States believe that there is a meaningful distinction between violence by a state actor and violence by a non-state actor, believing that violence by a state, even when in violation of international humanitarian law, should not be considered terrorism. Many Member States believe that the failure to acknowledge State-sponsored terrorism significantly limits the capacity of the United Nations to effectively combat any form of terrorism.

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

- How would the international community's official recognition of State-sponsored terrorism affect the treatment of terrorists under national and international law?
- What aspects of international human rights law must Member States take into consideration concerning persons already convicted or facing conviction of terrorism?
- What are the implications of conflicting humanitarian, human rights, and counter-terrorism laws and Conventions? How can these be resolved?
- What impediments remain to finishing a draft of the Comprehensive Convention on International Terrorism?

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THE LAW OF TRANSBOUNDARY AQUIFERS

According to the International Groundwater Resources Assessment Centre, an aquifer is “[a] permeable water-bearing geological formation underlain by a less permeable layer and the water contained in the saturated zone of the formation.” As the world’s population has increased, so have the demands on the world’s aquifers. Groundwater from aquifers is used for all human water needs such as drinking, cooking, agriculture and hygiene. Over 200 of the world’s aquifers span country borders, requiring moderation and regulation in order to assure that the aquifers are used fairly and responsibly by the involved States. In many areas worldwide these transboundary aquifers are the sole source of fresh water. Groundwater is important but is often forgotten in regulatory and legal processes, making the need to protect aquifers increasingly important. Conflicts arise when those on one side of a border are perceived to draw more than their fair share of an aquifer’s water or when pollutants enter the aquifer from one country, contaminating the aquifer for everyone. These issues are complicated by the fact that some of the world’s most important transboundary aquifers are located in high-conflict zones in the Middle East, where disagreements over the use of these groundwater resources have existed for thousands of years.

Aquifers include recharge and discharge zones—areas which contribute water to the aquifer and areas where water leaves the aquifer. Recharge water may be supplied by rainfall, runoff from the ground or infiltration through the soil. Discharge zones include any area where water leaves the aquifer, such as springs, wetlands and wells. The exact areas of the recharge and discharge zones can be controversial, as they often extend beyond the boundaries of the aquifer itself, increasing the potential for zones to cross international borders. Aquifers may be used to extract heat and minerals in addition to water, and may also be used for the storage or disposal of any substance.

Access to water is essential for human life and is widely recognized as a necessary resource for economic growth and development. United Nations involvement in encouraging sovereignty over natural resources dates back to the early 1960s. In 1962, the General Assembly outlined how Member States may allocate their wealth and resources to encourage development. However, the General Assembly cautioned that all transactions must comply with international law.

In 2008 the General Assembly, in cooperation with the United Nations International Law Commission (ILC), passed the first resolution focusing solely on the legal aspects of international aquifers. This resolution presented, without adopting, the ILC’s draft Articles on the Law of Transboundary Aquifers. These Articles outlined the responsibilities of Member States toward the status and safety of transboundary aquifers. They confirmed that each State has sovereignty over those portions of an aquifer that lie within its territory. However, they also indicated that States must utilize their transboundary aquifers in accordance with the “principle of equitable and reasonable utilization.” The Articles went on to define this principle as acting to protect the “equitable and reasonable accrual of benefits” from the aquifer: to maximize the long-term benefits of the aquifer’s water; to establish a utilization plan; and to refrain from using a recharging aquifer faster than it can be replenished.

In the resolution taking note of the Articles, the General Assembly also encouraged regional cooperation, advising States to enter into bilateral or regional agreements concerning transboundary aquifers and aquifer

systems. The United Nations further encouraged regional and international cooperation and called for any relevant UN bodies to continue technological assistance and scientific research on the issue.

Despite the efforts of the United Nations, regional cooperation has been difficult to come by and the recent past has been marked by regional disputes on the use of transboundary aquifers. Many of those disputes stem from water-shares between countries. While international treaties do need to be considered in the use of aquifers, the laws of individual countries and the boundaries of the aquifers remain key aspects. Laws regarding transboundary aquifers span more than just political policy; laws protecting ecosystems, pollution levels, commerce and many other legal issues need to be taken into account when considering the issue of transboundary aquifers.

Starting with the International Year of Water Cooperation in 2013, the United Nations continues to encourage Member States to cooperate and maintain the territorial integrity of their shared water resources. Further, the United Nations has expressed its concern for the establishment of appropriate bilateral and regional arrangements for the management of shared aquifers. Under a recent Sixth Committee resolution, the United Nations encourages Member States to consider drafting legislative agreements pertaining to key concerns, such as the equitable usage of aquifers, conservation of ecosystems and its place in the local ecosystem, as well as the life cycle of aquifers as addressed in the Transboundary Diagnostic Analysis and the Shared Aquifer Diagnostic Analysis.

The United Nations also convenes States to discuss and agree upon common approaches to protecting international water sources through Strategic Action Programmes. States have agreed upon Strategic Action Programmes in a number of areas, such as the Prespa Park Area, a freshwater lakes system shared by Greece, Albania and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, as well as the Nubian Aquifer System shared by Chad, Egypt, Libya and Sudan.

These joint cooperation projects receive support for their ongoing efforts from the Global Environment Facility, the United Nations Development Programme, and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The United Nations provides additional resources through the International Hydrological Programme, a program of UNESCO, which participates in the multi-agency Internationally Shared Aquifer Resources Management Initiative with the International Association of Hydrogeologists. These initiatives work to improve the understanding of scientific, socio-economic, legal, institutional and environmental issues related to managing transboundary aquifers.

Implementation of standards for newly forming bilateral and multi-lateral agreements for the management of transboundary aquifers has the potential for becoming the focus of the United Nations discussions of international water policy. Some standards have already been introduced, such as the Model Provisions introduced by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, used to establish standards for the management of transboundary aquifers, including environmental preservation, pollution prevention and the sustainable use of aquifers.

There is a general consensus among Member States that transboundary aquifers must be used in a sustainable manner, so that rainfall and other natural sources can replenish the aquifer at a greater rate than it is being



consumed. So long as the amount of fresh water provided by aquifers is adequate to meet the needs of those reliant upon it, this principle will remain in general consensus. The Sixth Committee is concerned with how to establish principles of international law that support the shared and peaceful uses of transboundary aquifers, even when conflicts arise over those aquifers. With a growing global population, and an increasing demand for clean water for developing countries, conflicts over transboundary aquifers have the potential to become a more significant—and violent—problem in the future.

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

- How could the United Nations better encourage regional cooperation on the use of transboundary aquifers?
- What actions could Member States take to preserve the safety and integrity of transboundary aquifers without impeding on the national sovereignty of other affected States?
- What legal issues hinder the development of more effective agreements on the use of transboundary aquifers?
- What further actions could the United Nations take to ensure the lawful and proper use of groundwater resources for national growth and development?

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CHAPTER FIVE

UNITED NATIONS HUMAN SETTLEMENTS PROGRAMME

PURVIEW OF THE UNITED NATIONS HUMAN SETTLEMENTS PROGRAMME

The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) was established in 1978 following the first United Nations Conference on Human Settlements. The agency's mandate is to promote socially and environmentally sustainable towns and cities. The agency conducts research, manages programs, coordinates urban policies and programs across the United Nations system and serves as a forum for international discussion on sustainable urbanization. The UN-Habitat Governing Council is the intergovernmental body responsible for setting the policy priorities and budget for the agency. The Governing Council meets bi-annually in Nairobi, Kenya.

Website: <http://www.unhabitat.org/>

HOUSING AND SLUM UPGRADING

One overwhelming demographic trend of the past two centuries has been toward urbanization: before the Industrial Revolution, the majority of the world's population lived in rural areas and were mainly subsistence farmers. The lure of higher pay and better jobs in cities began mass migration to urban areas; this trend has only continued in the ensuing decades. With modern farming technology such as tractors, new cultivation methods and GPS guidance systems, one person can do the same farming work that once required a thousand. Although the world's population has also risen sharply, technological advances have shifted populations from agrarian to urban, and this is reflected in urban sprawl.

Even with this continual urbanization, until the 1970s nearly two-thirds of the world's population remained in rural communities, so issues surrounding urbanization were largely overlooked. Accelerated urbanization brought a host of negative consequences as a growing percentage of the world's population lived in urban centers and the populations of some mega-cities exceeded 30 million people. While modern plumbing and sanitation systems are able to handle the waste of most of a city's inhabitants in developed countries, many of the poorest live in underdeveloped areas with limited or no access to sanitation, electricity, clean water and other city services. Dwellings are often built of whatever material is immediately available and are not structurally sound; fires can spread quickly and emergency response services are virtually nonexistent.

The United Nations has a long history of programs to address the challenges associated with urbanization. In 1977, the United Nations General Assembly established the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), the first official United Nations body specifically dedicated to urbanization and human settlements. Habitat I, the first United Nations conference to address the challenge of urbanization, was held in Vancouver, Canada. Crippled by inadequate political and financial support, the plan created by Habitat I was incapable of stemming the growth and spread of urban development problems and, in 1996, UN-Habitat held Habitat II in Istanbul, Turkey. The result was the Habitat Agenda, adopted by 171 countries.

Since its establishment, UN-Habitat has experienced mixed levels of success. Specifically tasked to achieve a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum-dwellers by the year 2020, UN-Habitat met this goal seven years ahead of schedule in 2013. However, the goal of reducing by 50 percent the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation by the year 2015 has not yet been achieved. The current strategic plan of UN-Habitat, covering through 2019, focuses on seven areas: urban legislation, land and governance; urban planning and design; urban economy; urban basic services; housing and slum upgrading; risk reduction and rehabilitation; and research and capacity development.

In planning for the future, there are a number of inexpensive new technologies that may help alleviate some of the negative aspects of urbanization. Solar stoves, for example, reduce the need to burn biomass for cooking, and inexpensive solar panels help to power cheap and long-lasting LED lights and charge cell phones. It is now possible to 3D-print houses out of concrete and other materials; these house printers may one day be able to provide many rows of inexpensive structures for people to live in. Unused shipping containers have also been explored as a way to provide cheap, on-demand housing. Innovations such as water ATMs are being tested in the New Delhi slums of India and Mathare slums of Kenya, with the aim of improving accessibility, affordability and quality of drinking water in slum areas. Fostering entrepreneurship also helps, as people tend to care more about their communities when they have invested in them.

The challenges facing the global community include a growth in demand for adequate, sustainable housing that far exceeds supply. Without proper accommodations, poverty and unstable environments will continue to plague urban populations. The easy spread of disease and fire make slums-dwellers susceptible to dangers not normally faced in rural life, including extra stressors on immune and psychological systems. A lack of basic services, including medical and emergency providers, creates dangerous situations; these problems must be addressed at both local and national levels.

Additionally, as temperatures rise globally, lack of reliable electricity in slums and other urban areas presents a deadly challenge; climate change exacerbates these situations and can create new problems. As more housing goes up in cities and their outskirts, an eye toward sustainability is key to decreasing the negative environmental impact of mega-cities. These challenges create even more vulnerable populations, ensuring a cycle of poverty that is difficult to break. States must work together on regional and national levels to eradicate their slums and create better livelihoods for their citizens.

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

- What successes has your government had in dealing with urban development? Which best practices would your government encourage for other Member States?
- Which innovations should be considered priorities for improving access to water, sanitation and stable infrastructure in urban slums?



- What steps can Member States take to make urbanization more sustainable? What UN-Habitat programs or initiatives would support these efforts?
- How can Member States address the transnational effects of pollution from urban areas, particularly slums?

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CITIES AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Cities and urban areas produce approximately 70 percent of harmful greenhouse emissions and use almost 80 percent of energy worldwide. As global urbanization continues at a rapid pace, greenhouse gas mitigation and reduction are crucial in order to ensure a high quality of life for inhabitants within cities. Natural disasters and rising sea levels increasingly affect many major cities, and water and air contaminants continue to threaten the health of populations.

The United Nations has long been aware of and concerned with the environment and climate change. The 1972 United Nations Conference on the Human Environment made it clear that Member States valued the environment while still encouraging the development of existing and emerging economies. In 1992, the United Nations hosted the Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). This Convention urged Member States to adopt domestic legislation protecting vulnerable areas from climate change and pollution. Although non-binding in nature, the UNFCCC has been ratified by every Member State and has established the main framework for negotiating international treaties limiting greenhouse gas emissions.

However, the greatest contribution to monitoring global development has been the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), established in 1978 at a conference in Vancouver, Canada, concerning global development and its impact on the environment. Tasked with promoting environmentally sustainable towns and cities across the globe, UN-Habitat also strives to provide adequate shelter for all. Through a series of three major Conferences on Human Settlements (Habitat I, Habitat II and Habitat III), UN-Habitat continues in its mandate to link human settlements and urbanization to environmental sustainability.

In 2011, UN-Habitat worked on several draft resolutions relating specifically to cities and climate issues. One topic touched on concerned environmental disaster response in urban environments and requested funding for development of early warning information systems, regional cooperation and participation from the community. Another encouraged greater access to basic services within cities, such as transportation and health services, a major priority in the creation of sustainable urban areas. In March of 2013, the United Nations Open Working Group on Sustainable Development Goals convened for its first session. It established a number of achievement goals to be reached by 2030. These include decreasing urban sprawl, increasing the percentage of recycled waste in cities by 40 percent and improving the energy efficiency of public buildings by 50 percent.

Other United Nations agencies have also stepped forward to help States with their environmental agendas. The World Bank Group began funding the Green Bond program in 2008 to assist projects fighting climate change in developing nations; the total bond amount has reached over \$59 billion in the last seven years. The World Bank continues to support sustainable infrastructure programs and has provided multi-million dollar loans to countries suffering from disasters as a result of increased weather and climate activity.

In addition to the United Nations, local government action has increased as a response to a perceived lack of will by national bodies. Cities themselves will certainly play a major role in combating future climate change. At the 2014 United Nations Climate Summit in New York, over 2,000 cities from across the globe created a Compact of Mayors in an attempt to coordinate city-level efforts to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. The C40, created in 2005 to group together mega-cities in fighting climate risks and impacts, also joined the new compact: during the summit, the C40 committed to collectively reduce carbon dioxide emissions by one gigaton by 2020.

Preparations are currently underway for the December 2015 United Nations Climate Change Conference in Paris. Representatives from



businesses and local and national governments will meet to try to create a universal, legally-binding climate change agreement. Additionally, Habitat III is set to meet in Ecuador in October 2016 to build on Habitat II and continue making progress on sustainable urbanization.

There are many issues that face urban areas, including aging and inefficient infrastructure. This compounds problems that arise from climate change. In areas of high poverty, where infrastructure is not fully developed, there is extra strain on both the environment and the city; in addition, lack of steady water supply and the potential for contamination are often attributable to climate change. Rising seawater often strains coastal city freshwater supplies while inland cities are facing water shortage crises as a result of global climate change and severe drought conditions. Additionally, desertification due to urban sprawl has compounded many of the current climate change issues: stripping the landscape of vegetation to create low-end, unsustainable housing leads to a deterioration of topsoil and an increased risk of desert takeover.

Unfortunately, many governments have found the cost and availability of sustainable technology to be a barrier to utilization. Member States are concerned that quickly reducing fossil fuel use will hamper industrialization and economic growth. As countries continue pushing their economic goals and expanding major industries, energy needs in the near future will be both large and unpredictable. Most States still see traditional energy sources as the most dependable way to supply these needs.

Major challenges moving forward include funding for infrastructure projects in developing nations, pushing investment in low-emission transportation and promoting renewable energy policies in order to pivot away from reliance on fossil fuels. Direct action by cities, individually and together, has led to ambitious goals and the United Nations and UN-Habitat work to give direction and guidance to assist groups like the Compact of Mayors to reach those goals. UN-Habitat will need to focus on building uniform regional standards for greenhouse gas reduction, implementing more efficient city planning and creating guidelines for transitioning to sustainable energy sources. With such diverse groups working outside of major supranational bodies, UN-Habitat can have a major role in coordinating any efforts toward fighting climate change in urban areas.

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

- How can Member States reduce harmful greenhouse gas emissions in developing countries where adequate finances and technology are not available?
- What can the international community do to ensure that developing countries have the same ability to access and implement sustainable technologies?
- What policies can Member States implement to encourage fossil fuel reduction and renewable energy in cities?

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CHAPTER SIX

THE ECONOMIC & SOCIAL COUNCIL

MEMBERS OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

ALBANIA	FRANCE	PANAMA
ANTIGUA & BARBUDA	GEORGIA	PORTUGAL
ARGENTINA	GERMANY	REPUBLIC OF KOREA
AUSTRALIA	GHANA	RUSSIAN FEDERATION
AUSTRIA	GREECE	SAN MARINO
BANGLADESH	GUATEMALA	SERBIA
BENIN	HAITI	SOUTH AFRICA
BOLIVIA	HONDURAS	SUDAN
BOTSWANA	INDIA	SWEDEN
BRAZIL	ITALY	SWITZERLAND
BURKINA FASO	JAPAN	TOGO
CHINA	KAZAKHSTAN	TRINIDAD & TOBAGO
COLOMBIA	KUWAIT	TUNISIA
CONGO	KYRGYZSTAN	TURKMENISTAN
CROATIA	MAURITANIA	UGANDA
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO	MAURITIUS	UNITED KINGDOM
ESTONIA	NEPAL	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
FINLAND	PAKISTAN	ZIMBABWE

PURVIEW OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

The Economic and Social Council is the principal United Nations organ responsible for coordinating economic, social and related works of 14 specialized agencies, 10 functional commissions and five regional commissions. ECOSOC accepts reports and recommendations from other United Nations bodies, including the Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND) and the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA). 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 organizations include multilateral financial and trade institutions, such as the World Bank and the World Trade Organization.

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

UNITED NATIONS PUBLIC-PRIVATE ALLIANCE FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Around two-thirds of the world's people live in rural areas and are dependent on agricultural 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 percent of people in poverty will still be living in rural areas. In its efforts to meet targets set by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for poverty reduction and sustainable development, the United Nations has promoted and supported efforts to enhance rural development. As it prepares to continue this work in support of the new Sustainable Development Goals, it must refocus and revitalize its efforts.

Rural development has been on the United Nations agenda for years. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development addressed rural development and sustainable agriculture during its

meeting in 1992. Agenda 21, the outcome of that conference, produced an entire chapter on the importance of rural and sustainable agriculture and made numerous recommendations for Member States. In 1995, the Commission on Sustainable Development heavily focused on rural development in its annual Report, noting that while some success has 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, before the United Nations set specific targets for decreasing poverty and prompting development in the MDGs in 2000. While the MDGs did not specifically address rural development, they did implicitly address the topic through Goal 1: Food Security and Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development.

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) took 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 the High Level Segment topic. In the Declaration, ECOSOC stated that rural development should be an integral part of national and international development policies. A key element in the Declaration was the role of partnerships and alliances from across a broad range of sectors to promote an integrated approach to rural development. ECOSOC pledged to "facilitate and nurture" alliances between governments, private actors, donors and non-governmental organizations.

In 2013, ECOSOC created the United Nations Public-Private Alliance for Rural Development (UNPPA) with the mission 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 work as a catalyst and facilitator for the creation of partnerships, to provide a platform for collaboration, and to bring the results of these efforts to the attention of the international community.



ECOSOC piloted the program in Madagascar and the Dominican Republic. The first assessment of the two pilot programs was presented to ECOSOC at the 2007 session. Identifying a limited partnership-development skill base as the greatest barrier to successful public-private partnerships, the assessment highlighted the need to enhance government administrative and negotiation skills to improve the promotion and potential fast-tracking of public-private partnerships. The assessment also concluded that institutional capacity for developing partnerships needed to be strengthened. ECOSOC also invited Madagascar and the Dominican Republic to conduct assessments of their own capacity and mechanisms for developing and promoting public-private partnerships. Additionally, support for global information dissemination can be further strengthened.

As an outgrowth of ECOSOC's work in 2007, the non-profit Public-Private Alliance Foundation was established with the support of ambassadors from a number of States. It has since worked to foster collaboration and raise public awareness and investment funds for projects to support the United Nations efforts toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals. The Foundation has organized several projects since its formation, including efforts to build and deliver cleaner-burning stoves in Haiti and to promote microfinance in Madagascar.

The 2009 report of the Secretary-General highlighted the newly emerged challenges facing the rural poor. In 2008 and 2009, global food prices rose rapidly and the global economy slowed sharply. Localized setbacks, such as government instability and natural disasters, also helped to undermine progress against rural poverty. In reviewing the impact of efforts and planning in the pilot countries, the Secretary-General's report found many specific instances of progress against rural poverty. The United Nations International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) supported four projects between 2007 and 2009 targeted at improving small farmers' access to tools, funding, information and markets, aiming to strengthen rural inhabitants' food security, incomes and support organizations. This increased access may help small farmers to better cope with high input costs and to prepare for natural disasters. IFAD is replicating these kinds of projects in other pilot countries. Growing Sustainable Business, an initiative of the United Nations Development Programme, has promoted both eco-tourism and the use of solar power, as well as strengthening small- and medium sized enterprises in the hydro-carbon industries. The report also examined rural development plans and a limited number of early pilot projects focused on food security and improving market access for rural and small farmers. However, the Council has not acted on this report or revisited this topic since.

Much has changed in the intervening time. The Millennium Development Goals have proven mostly successful, but no goals were fully met, nor did the successes solve the challenges of poverty and equality. Efforts to promote public-private partnerships for development continue to confront a range of challenges, whether natural, like climate change and natural disaster, or man-made, such as government instability, bureaucracy or corruption. The collaborative approach with multi-sector alliances taken by UNPPA and promoted by groups like the Public-Private Alliance enhances the opportunities and resources available for sustainable rural development programs. Their strength lies in the ability to pull together existing networks and programs, educating and empowering private partners in support of sustainable development. The United Nations is currently pivoting from the Millennium Development Goals toward addressing global poverty with its Post-2015

Agenda and the new Sustainable Development Goals. As it does so, the United Nations must seize the opportunity to revitalize and refocus its work on the potential of public-private partnerships as a key component in efforts toward the Sustainable Development Goals.

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

- What other opportunities for partnerships with the private sector exist for promoting rural development, and how can ECOSOC encourage their implementation?
- What other efforts by the United Nations and its partners are underway to address rural development? Are there lessons that can be used to improve public-private partnerships?
- What can be done to improve the institutional capacity of the United Nations for public-private partnerships?
- How suitable for addressing the new Sustainable Development Goals are public-private partnerships? Are there specific goals to which they are well-suited, based on the pilot programs and the contributions of these partnerships towards the Millennium Development Goals?

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TAKING ACTION AGAINST GENDER-RELATED KILLING OF WOMEN AND GIRLS

Worldwide, one in three women has been beaten, coerced into sex or abused in some way. An estimated 600 million women live in countries where domestic violence is not against the law. In the worst cases, these women die from their injuries or are murdered outright. Gender-related killing occurs when the main motive of the killing is gender-based discrimination. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, these killings do not arise suddenly but are part of a “continuum of violence” against the victim.

In 2013, an estimated 38 percent of all female murder victims were killed by their intimate partners—in some countries, the most likely place for a woman to be murdered is in her own home. While it is difficult to determine how many of these murders were specifically motivated by gender-based discrimination, the high overall percentage supports an inference that most of these killings are so motivated. Some other examples of gender-based killing include rape-murder; “honor killings” where the woman is murdered by her own family for transgressions such as refusing to honor an arranged marriage; murder based on the belief that the female victim is practicing witchcraft or sorcery; dowry

killings that occur when a new bride is murdered or driven to suicide by the groom’s family in an attempt to extort additional dowry; and sex selection in the form of female infanticide or feticide. The gender-related killing of women and girls continues to be one of the most under-reported and least-prosecuted crimes in the world, especially in regions where patriarchal societies continue to enforce laws that limit the rights of women. Disturbingly, statistics show that the prevalence of gender-related killings has been increasing over the past few years.

Despite attempts by the United Nations to achieve gender equality throughout the world, millions of women do not have equal status as laid out in international human rights instruments, such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; and the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. While these binding international agreements hold all States Parties responsible for ensuring women equal rights and protection before the law, they have failed to provide a strategy to actively combat the continuing abuses faced by millions of women worldwide.

The long history of the United Nations advocating for women’s rights began in a more general fashion that was not focused on killings specifically. In 1946, the United Nations established the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW). Until the creation of UN Women in 2010, the CSW was the chief United Nations body responsible for promoting women’s rights, researching the state of women’s rights worldwide and establishing policy standards on gender equality. In 1979, the General Assembly adopted CSW’s draft of the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which included calls to abolish customs and laws that perpetuate discrimination against women. The Convention took effect on 3 September 1981. In 1995, the Fourth World Conference on Women was held in Beijing. Many of the issues addressed at this Conference focused on violence against women, including the effects of armed conflict on women, inadequate promotion and protection of the human rights of women, and the persistent discrimination against the rights of the girl child.

In December 2013, the United Nations General Assembly adopted a resolution on the recommendation of ECOSOC that was specifically focused on the prevalence of gender-related killings of women and girls. The resolution expressed the concerns of Member States regarding the increasing number of gender-related killings and outlined a series of suggestions to address this issue. Member States are encouraged to not only exercise due diligence in handling cases of gender-related violence, but to also pursue strengthened programs and more robust justice systems in order to properly protect victims and prosecute their assailants. The resolution also acknowledged that, while many of the changes needed to improve upon this issue must come from Member States, relevant United Nations organizations including CSW and the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime can also assist Member States in taking action against gender-related violence and killings of women and girls.

Since the passage of this resolution, the United Nations and its Member States have been pushing toward improving the safety of women and girls. With campaigns such as UNiTE To End Violence Against Women, the United Nations has worked on providing safe places for women in order to minimize violence and harassment of women in public places. In an effort to improve the situation for women and girls, the United Nations encourages a community-level approach by engaging with local



governments as well as nongovernmental organizations and police staff.

Periodic review of the numerous initiatives already in place is also imperative. The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, CEDAW, Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, and other international instruments for the protection of women's rights are widely adopted but not often adhered to or used in combating gender-related killing of women and girls. For example, the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women calls on Member States to exercise due diligence when they learn of violence against women, including gender-related killings. Adherence to this provision is sporadic as many States are reluctant to investigate specific instances of violence or provide protection and redress to the victims.

The issue of gender-related killing is one that is, more often than not, addressed on an international or perhaps regional scale, when it must also be dealt with on a State-by-State and local basis. While murder is illegal everywhere, the United Nations has repeatedly called for any exceptions for "honor killings" and the like to be removed from national legislation. Similarly, legal reforms to criminalize domestic violence could provide victims with a way to safely report domestic violence to local authorities and grant a better chance at stopping the violence before it escalates to murder. Some States, particularly in Latin America, have established legal distinctions between gender-related killings and general homicide in an effort to provide greater deterrence for such crimes and greater protections for victims and those who report the crimes. CSW has approved of such efforts and encouraged other States to follow this example of adopting targeted legislation.

Inadequate national legislative measures are only part of the problem, however. Even in countries where adequate legal protections are in place, enforcement rates are low. Gender-related killings go unreported, local authorities fail to investigate these crimes when they are reported, prosecutors fail to charge the perpetrators with murder and courts impose only nominal sentences. General criminal justice reform can help to provide improved standards of prosecution and due process so gender-related killings may no longer be committed with impunity. Finally, cultural shifts must occur across entire societies that do not view these crimes as morally wrong or may even openly endorse them. Looking forward, ECOSOC should examine past and current United Nations human rights education, awareness and training programs, especially those propagated through the World Programme for Human Rights Education, to determine how to integrate the issue of gender-related killings into such programs or develop additional initiatives.

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

- What differentiates gender-related killings from other murders? How might existing laws against murder fail to adequately protect against gender-related killings?
- What can the international community do to propagate the criminalization of gender-related killings and of violence against women in general?
- What actions could Member States take to ensure that cases of gender-related killings are sufficiently investigated and prosecuted?

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CHAPTER SEVEN

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMISSION FOR WESTERN ASIA

MEMBERS OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMISSION FOR WESTERN ASIA

BAHRAIN
EGYPT
IRAQ
JORDAN
KUWAIT
LEBANON

LIBYA
MOROCCO
OMAN
PALESTINE (OBSERVER)
QATAR
SAUDI ARABIA

SUDAN
SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC
TUNISIA
UNITED ARAB EMIRATES
YEMEN

PURVIEW OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMISSION FOR WESTERN ASIA

The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (UN-ESCWA) is one of five regional commissions of the Economic and Social Council. UN-ESCWA is responsible for promoting economic and social development through regional and subregional cooperation and integration. The Commission provides a framework for harmonizing Member States' sectoral policies, while focusing on meeting Arab States' needs and emerging global challenges in development. UN-ESCWA reports to ECOSOC on Western Asia's economic challenges, progress and proposals for the future.

Website: www.escwa.un.org/

THE GOVERNANCE DEFICIT AND CONFLICT RELAPSE IN THE ESCWA REGION

The basic elements of a State include a monopoly on the legitimate use of force within a specific territory, the ability to protect that territory and the citizens therein, and an economy. A governance deficit, or lack of these basic elements, frequently leads to problems that can be difficult to surmount. These problems include an inability to maintain law and order, to support a functioning economy or to provide basic human needs for citizens, such as access to water and healthcare. States struggling with a governance deficit are unable to fulfill their capacity, which may lead to conflict relapses in States with recent, violent political struggles. An estimated 40 percent of Arab countries have had an episode of conflict within the last five years. As a result, governance deficit and conflict relapse are major concerns in the region today. Of the countries involved in the 2010 "Arab Spring," only Tunisia appears to have sustained a consistently functioning State.

Conflict relapse often follows a period of State failure, when a government goes beyond a mere deficit and essentially collapses. This can also occur when a newly installed government is attacked by a competing faction. In Libya, two competing governments each claim to be the legitimate government, but each only controls a small area of land outside the borders of its own principal cities. Four years after outside intervention ousted the government of dictator Muammar Gaddafi, there are two parliaments and two capital cities, no national police force or army to speak of, and massive civil unrest in most of the country. In Yemen, Houthi rebels overthrew the government in a violent coup in January 2015. Fighting between the Houthis and the government-in-exile, as well as with a patchwork of tribal militias, continues. Syria has been torn apart by civil war since 2012. The Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) has taken advantage of the unrest in all of the

above-described countries to recruit members and to carry out suicide bombings, raids and mass public executions.

In contrast to State failure, other countries in the region suffer from inconsistency in their ability to prevent violence, manage the economy and provide social services. For example, Lebanon has struggled over the past decade to reign in its deficit, and corruption is rampant within the government. Bribes are common, and Lebanese finance ministers have been accused of embezzling funds through public works projects. The government has also struggled to respond to increased traffic from the country's border with Syria, which is overwhelming infrastructure.

While governance deficit and conflict relapse are a priority concern to this particular region, the United Nations has discussed conflict relapse and good governance practices for decades. Founded on the premise of saving future generations from devastating world conflicts, the United Nations created specific committees to deal with conflict and conflict prevention (Security Council, First Committee and Special Political and Decolonization Committee) in addition to adopting numerous resolutions and reports based on this topic.

A shift in the role of United Nations peacekeeping operations occurred in the early 1990s. Earlier peacekeeping missions were mainly focused on enforcing ceasefire agreements and dealing with conflicts—largely interstate—that had already broken out. More recent operations have focused on capacity-building, civil wars and the prevention of armed conflict. Furthermore, ESCWA, in particular the Emerging and Conflict-Related Issues Division (ECRI), has addressed these issues through forums, conferences and reports. Since 1999 the Global Forum on Reinventing Government has hosted annual conferences with varying themes centered on improving governance and public administration. In June of 2007, the United Nations, in conjunction with the Austrian Government, hosted the 7th Global Forum on Re-Inventing Government with an emphasis on Building Trust in Government. At the core of the discussions and reports produced by this forum was the emphasis on good governance practices and their link to the peace-building process. It was noted that the two concepts are inherently linked, and any future solutions to the issue of conflict relapse and peace-building must include a strengthening of good governance practices post-conflict.

In 2011, ESCWA issued a report on governance deficit and conflict relapse that built upon the previous work of the body and the United Nations as a whole. The report concluded that there are many interacting variables which can cause a governance deficit and that a deficit is only one stage of a cycle many countries are stuck within; the other two stages are conflict relapse and de-development. When analyzing



the connections within the cycle the report cautioned States to keep in mind the following factors: cultures of discrimination and impunity, socio-economic marginalization, unemployment, and an understanding of local and regional realities. The report also emphasized the effects of governance deficit on socio-economic and political development and discussed the sphere of influence conflict reaches by separating countries into three main categories: conflict countries, spill-over countries and indirectly affected countries. The breakdown of one government can send destabilization waves out across their region and the world: the disruption of delivery systems often results in shortages in food and cuts off the supply of basic services; refugees flow across borders, disrupting local economies and challenging governments outside the conflict State; exports of vital resources can be disrupted causing shortages in far-reaching areas of the globe and depleting the State's access to the financial support trade provides.

More recently within the ESCWA region, the Arab Administrative Development Organization (ARADO) has hosted conferences focusing on the issues of conflict and governance within the region. At their fourteenth annual conference, held in Cairo, attendees focused on building resilience to global risks that affect Arab countries. This conference was attended by ESCWA, the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), in addition to representatives from other international organizations, government officials and researchers. Within the conference, ESCWA hosted a discussion identifying regional risk characteristics, governance, and public sector reforms in conflict, crisis and transitions. The presentation noted that ESCWA States were, on average, at a higher risk for government deficits than the global average; in some arenas the risk assessment is alarmingly high. In 2015, ARADO organized its first Arab Conference on Administrative Reform and Development. As with the 2011 report on this issue, discussions at the conference noted the importance of the impact of a conflict not only in the country in which it occurred but on one's neighbors and other countries within the sphere of influence. It was concluded that governance and institutional reform are vital components to promote stability and to prevent conflict and conflict relapses.

While much work has been done in the past by various bodies of the United Nations and ESCWA, governance deficit and conflict relapse continue to be a pressing issue within the region today. States must evaluate how conflict has changed in the region, including the role non-state actors have played in conflict relapse. ESCWA Members must now develop new and changing solutions to fit this evolving and complicated issue. Moreover, States must evaluate the effectiveness of past documents and discussions and decide how best to work together within the region to prevent governance deficits and, in turn, conflict relapses. Moving forward, ESCWA Members will need to focus on how to best establish good governance practices post-conflict to prevent further conflict within the region. Strong state institutions and institutionalization can help eliminate governance deficits and, as a result, limit conflict relapses. Capacity-building measures such as better-trained police officers and more effective delivery of social services can help increase support for governments. Additionally, cooperation between neighboring states, political allies and international organizations can help to strengthen governance processes and institutionalization to safeguard against conflict relapse.

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

- How can ESCWA's Member States cooperate to strengthen capacity for governance?
- What steps could ESCWA's Member States take to aid each other in recovering more effectively from lapses in governance?
- What good practices should ESCWA Member States adopt or consider for responding to conflicts?
- What role can the United Nations agencies play in supporting good governance in the region?

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IMPACT OF ICT ON ARAB YOUTH: EMPLOYMENT, EDUCATION AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Youth is a period of transition from dependence to independence. The 2007 World Development Report outlines five major life transitions that generally occur between 18 and 30: completing school, going to work, growing up healthy, forming families and exercising citizenship. Many countries in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) have greater than 50 percent of their total population under the age of 30. Consequently, the status and well-being of youth is a critical marker of and important contributor to development in the region. Despite a growing interest in this demographic, ESCWA Member States face a number of challenges in supporting youth development. Since the beginning of the Arab Spring in 2010, these issues have come into a



sharper focus. States across the region have made tackling youth unemployment and education priorities.

Considering a range of options, many States see information and communication technology (ICT) as a crucial element of national and regional strategy to support youth development. Over the past decades, ICT has created many new opportunities for youth, allowing them to foster new skills with online learning, to use social media to build social movements and to participate in civic life. ICT also plays an important role in one of the biggest issues Arab youth face today: unemployment. By creating opportunities for new types of work and by enabling youth in MENA to work for organizations around the world, youth underemployment and unemployment has seen a tangible decline.

The United Nations has long considered the role ICT plays in youth development, from empowering civic engagement and information sharing to sharing culture and broadening horizons. Youth populations with growing access to ICT have shown to be more empowered and engaged. Since July 2002, ESCWA and the International Labour Organization have hosted an annual joint forum that researches the socio-economic impact of ICT on development in MENA countries. ESCWA has worked on measuring and assessing the benefits of ICT to bring infrastructure to communities across the region, as well as to link Arab youth to the global economy. Because of advances in ICT that enable increasingly decentralized work, Arab youth are now competing for jobs with youth worldwide that have access to the same information and education.

Following the World Summit on Information Society recommendations in 2003 and 2005, many Arab States elaborated State ICT strategies, or e-strategies, aimed at leveraging the potential of ICT for social benefits and economic growth. While some States in the region have put significant effort toward creating an environment that encourages ICT development, there remains a gap in the support and financing needed to develop young entrepreneurs and small enterprises in this sector.

In 2013, the ICT division of ESCWA held the Capacity Building Workshop on Measuring the Use and Impact of ICT on Social and Economic Development in Tunisia. They analyzed three possible avenues for improving the measurement of use and impact of ICT in Arab countries. The first was to increase awareness of existing resources in order to improve data collection of indicators based on statistical surveys. The indicators included the use of ICT in education, government, and businesses, as well as ICT infrastructure and access; these levels then measure how far States must go to improve or build ICT and access. The second avenue explored the improved measurement of ICT use and its impact on a given domain, or sector: individual, educational, governmental, etc. National plans or consistent application of a plan with ICT creates the easiest measurement across domains. The last avenue suggested the importance of using opinion surveys to identify and analyze the effectiveness of ICT use and implementation. This creates a more measurable and nuanced set of data and helps outline and define ICT goals.

While the potential for growth exists, increased efforts are needed to scale up ICT initiatives, both in terms of number and impact, an effort which will require the private sector, governments and NGOs to contribute to the necessary structural and organizational transformation. These initiatives might include e-learning tools, the development

of economic policies in support of entrepreneurial ventures and financing smaller, job-creating enterprises. Incentivizing this sort of cross-sector or multi-sector work may be one area for discussion among ESCWA Members. E-tools in particular can be used to broaden the educational or employment possibilities for youth in the region, and ESCWA looks to its Member States to make this a reality. In order to prompt meaningful change, MENA States and the Commission must be able to measure the utility of ICT, the actual educational outcomes from these tools and the impact on individual State's capacities. More specific information gathering must involve greater collaboration and cooperation between States themselves, as well as States and their respective private sectors, NGOs and other entities. Increased statistics, including use, implementation and access to ICT, will also rely on further integration of communication techniques between MENA States; diplomatic cooperation remains a key to success.

The creation of coordinated development policies aimed at nurturing entrepreneurial opportunities offers Arab youth the tools and educational opportunities to gain employment and be a part of sustainable economic growth. According to the recommendations laid out in the Commission's 2013 study, "personal enablers," or those acting in advisory roles, would be able to direct young entrepreneurs in their professional development and economic plans. The strengthening of these enablers and their networks would help establish a framework to support Arab youth start-ups. ESCWA Members may also want to consider how to encourage financial or business enablers to invest in Arab youth development through micro-financing and loans or professional services, which would allow youth to use their skills to make meaningful economic and social contributions.

Another issue for the Commission to consider is how the ICT sector has the potential not only to expand both employment and educational opportunities, but also to engage and empower marginalized groups. These marginalized groups, including women and ethnic or religious minorities, have a growing ability to reach out to others and to broadcast their message both regionally and globally. A 2013 ESCWA report regarding the impact of ICT on Arab youth found that unemployment for young women in MENA countries was at nearly 40 percent—double that of young men and among the highest levels of unemployment in the world. With gender parity in education improving throughout the MENA region, and with a rise in recognition of the plight of minorities like the Kurds, Member States could leverage the potential for ICT-based tools to promote equality and reduce or eliminate socioeconomic disparities among the genders and ethnicities.

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

- What efforts should ESCWA undertake to promote greater access to ICT in the region?
- How can Member States adapt education systems to prepare youth for the knowledge-based, globalized economy? Can ICT be used to support learning opportunities?
- How can Member States encourage more ICT-based employment opportunities, particularly for youth?
- How might Member States use ICT to address socioeconomic disparities?



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CHAPTER EIGHT

COMMISSION ON NARCOTIC DRUGS

MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION ON NARCOTIC DRUGS

AFGHANISTAN	EGYPT	POLAND
ALGERIA	FRANCE	REPUBLIC OF KOREA
ANGOLA	GERMANY	RUSSIAN FEDERATION
AUSTRALIA	GUATEMALA	SAINT VINCENT & THE GRENADINES
AUSTRIA	HUNGARY	SPAIN
BELGIUM	INDIA	SURINAME
BENIN	INDONESIA	TAJIKISTAN
BOLIVIA	IRAN, ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF	THAILAND
BRAZIL	ISRAEL	TOGO
CAMEROON	ITALY	TURKEY
CANADA	JAPAN	TURKMENISTAN
CHINA	KAZAKHSTAN	UKRAINE
COLOMBIA	MEXICO	UNITED KINGDOM
CROATIA	NAMIBIA	UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA
CUBA	NETHERLANDS	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
CZECH REPUBLIC	NIGERIA	URUGUAY
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO	PAKISTAN	ZIMBABWE
DENMARK	PERU	

PURVIEW OF THE COMMISSION ON NARCOTIC DRUGS

The Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND) is the central policymaking body of the United Nations on drug-related matters. As a functional Commission of the Economic and Social Council, CND monitors the implementation of the three international drug control conventions and is empowered to consider all matters pertaining to the aim of the conventions, including the scheduling of substances to be brought under international control. It also advises on all matters pertaining to the control of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and their precursors. CND submits reports to the Economic and Social Council on its proposals to strengthen the international drug control system.

Website: www.unodc.org/

REPORT OF THE SECRETARIAT ON THE WORLD SITUATION REGARDING DRUG TRAFFICKING

From opium to cocaine, the production and trafficking of illicit drugs netted over \$320 billion in 2014. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) defines drug trafficking as a global illicit trade involving the cultivation, manufacture, distribution and sale of substances which are subject to drug prohibition laws. Increased drug trafficking, particularly along southern maritime routes, has presented the Economic and Social Council's Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND) with a new set of challenges. Both a 2014 report from the Brookings Institution and the World Drug Report noted an increase in seizures of heroin (originating from Afghanistan) along the southern coasts of the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan and down to the coastal regions of Africa, trafficking through the Balkans to Western Europe and the Russian Federation increased as well. Worldwide opium trafficking—from drugs originating in Southeast Asia—was also cause for concern.

While the 1982 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea gives States a mandate to act in response to threats to global trade, the

authority to deal with narcotics trafficking is less clear. The Convention does not outline specifics for dealing with narcotics trafficking, and it remains unclear who is responsible for prosecution: the States to whom that stretch of sea belongs or the perpetrator's country of origin. Furthermore, in international waters that lack clear oversight and patrol, there is even less clarity regarding who should capture and prosecute traffickers. Even so, CND and Combined Maritime Forces (CMF) officials note that there is a known relationship between narcotics trafficking, the funding of terrorist activity, political instability and disruptions to legal trade. These disruptions are global, not just regional in nature.

In 2009, the fifty-second session of CND adopted the Political Declaration and Plan of Action on International Cooperation Towards an Integrated and Balanced Strategy to Counter the World Drug Problem, reaffirming CND's responsibility to monitor the state of the world's production and trade of illicit drugs, including narcotics, and their attempts to combat this. The Plan of Action focuses on three facets of drug control efforts: demand, supply and money laundering. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), under the governance of the Commission, acts as an international repository of counter-drug information and also is tasked with supporting Member States in implementing the structures needed to contribute to counter-trafficking efforts. The International Narcotics Control Board ensures Member States conform to the drug-related treaties and agreements to which they are parties. While these oversight boards and committees often focus on States and their involvement in narcotic trafficking, non-State actors are often the perpetrators; they are much more difficult to identify, monitor and capture.

In conjunction with UNODC, the Combined Maritime Forces began a series of meetings in 2014 to establish stronger partnerships; these meetings also focused on increasing United Nations support for CMF's work in counter-trafficking through information sharing, security and global cooperation. At a special event on maritime crime in September 2014, UNODC officials noted that the inability to prosecute traffickers



remains problematic. The CMF confiscated over 4,200 kilograms of heroin between 2013 and 2014 but, because the seizures were in international waters, officials were required to let the traffickers go free. The Indian Ocean in particular has seen a sharp increase in trafficking activity; the production and transport of chemical precursors is occurring at higher rates than previous years. According to UNODC, narcotics bound for Africa, Europe and Asia have increased the trafficking activity from the Makran coast in Pakistan to East Africa, with interim transfers to smaller vessels that are harder to detect.

Despite these concerns, combating narcotics trafficking has seen some success: the Maritime Crime Programme continues to work closely with East African States to successfully prosecute identified pirates and traffickers. It has also been working with countries of concern to develop programs to stop the flow of drugs from entering maritime routes—in other words, stopping drug trafficking at the borders of originating countries. These programs include information sharing, joint investigations and legal responses at a State and regional level. In particular, the Seychelles, Ecuador and Cuba have seen a reduction in drug trafficking due to heavy maritime patrols, mobile radar technology and bilateral counter-trafficking efforts. Other States have attempted stronger yet more controversial measures, including the death penalty for convicted traffickers. These attempts, however, have been criticized internationally as States and leaders have questioned whether drug offenses meet the threshold of the “most serious or extraordinary crimes” for which the death penalty may be applicable. There is also little proof that such measures have been successful deterrents.

Even with this balanced approach, efforts to control the drug problem remain complicated. Movements are active in nearly all regions of the globe to legalize certain drugs, especially cannabis. However, political instability and underdevelopment both contribute to the illicit drug trade and inhibit efforts to detain and prosecute traffickers, particularly in international waters with no set jurisdiction. This lack of oversight and confusion regarding prosecution mean current and future efforts need to focus on enforcement capacity in international waters, with coordination among other drug and crime prevention organizations on State and regional levels. Special attention must also be paid to countries lacking political and social infrastructures, as they will require international support for enforcement and deterrence of activities; without this support, non-State actors and individuals will continue to profit off the illicit drug trade, creating further political instability in already fragile regions. The future of the world’s drug problems will require a balanced approach and coordinated effort of global governance.

Questions to consider from your government’s perspective on this issue include the following:

- To what degree are individual Member States responsible for illegal drug activity within their own borders, before it reaches international waters? And how can the United Nations respect the national boundaries and laws of Member States while effectively combating the international drug problem?
- How can the United Nations encourage cooperation between organizations dealing with drugs and crime, and those dealing with development, humanitarian assistance and sociopolitical stability?
- What, if any, changes should be made to the international agreements to establish a mechanism for drug trafficking prosecutions?

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- Convention on Psychotropic Substances, 1971.
- Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982.

ADDITIONAL WEB RESOURCES

- www.incb.org/incb/index.html
- www.unodc.org/unodc/index.html
- <http://www.interpol.int/en>
- <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/commissions/CND/index.html>
- <http://combinedmaritimeforces.com/>

SUPPORTING RECOVERY FROM SUBSTANCE USE DISORDERS

Substance use disorder, or a dependence on drugs and alcohol, is a serious health issue that affects people across the world. It is an issue that knows no borders and that impacts socio-economic development in all Member States, particularly middle and lower income countries. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) estimates there are over 250 million users of illicit drugs worldwide, yet only 4.9 million of these users have access to drug-dependence treatment and care. While users may recognize their drug or alcohol dependence, fear of discrimination and the generalized stigma associated with substance



use disorders often prevent users from seeking out the help they need for recovery. Although major advances have been made by the international community to fight the world drug problem itself, there continues to be a significant deficit in support for recovery for substance use disorders.

The United Nations has been addressing the world drug problem since its inception and has produced three major conventions addressing the control of drugs: the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs of 1961, as amended by the 1972 Protocol; the Convention on Psychotropic Substances of 1971; and the Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988. These Conventions build upon each other to address intervention and control measures along with the issue of drug trafficking. The Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND) was created as a subsidiary body of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) to assist with the implementation of these Conventions.

In addition to these major drug Conventions, two additional political declarations addressing the world's drug problem have been passed by the United Nations. The Political Declaration and Plan of Action of 1998 and 2009 both focus on international cooperation to combat the world drug problem and outline specific goals to reduce the supply and demand for illicit drugs on the world market. In 2014, CND conducted a high-level review of the 2009 Political Declaration and Plan of Action at which they adopted a Joint Ministerial Statement continuing to focus on demand and supply reduction along with countering money-laundering and promoting judicial support to enhance international cooperation.

In the same year, at the 57th session of CND, the body passed a resolution titled Supporting Recovery from Substance Use Disorders. This marked the first time in the Commission's 50-year history that the specific issue of recovery had been addressed. The resolution focused primarily on addressing chronic relapse conditions and introducing recovery support initiatives, noting the importance of these issues to help prevent relapse. The resolution also expressed the importance of ending the stigma and discrimination toward those in recovery, in addition to the need for the international community to recognize substance use disorder as a public health issue. As the drug trade is an international issue, a specific focus was placed on international exchange and collaboration of the best practices for recovery support initiatives. The resolution called for several actions to be taken by Member States, including an improved understanding of substance use disorders, reforming applicable national policies and a continued effort by the international community to gather scientific evidence to support recovery. Moreover, there was a call for UNODC to spread information globally on evidence-based recovery support initiatives.

In 2015, UNODC launched Treatnet, an initiative which works "together for universal access to evidence-based, comprehensive and ethical drug dependence treatment and care." Treatnet currently has a presence in 27 countries in Africa, Central Asia, Latin America, the Middle East and Southeast Asia. By focusing on advocacy, capacity building and service improvement, Treatnet works within the UNODC to achieve the following goals: increase access to treatment services; reduce the consequences of drug use and dependence; and support staff in the countries in which they are based, to take ownership of the issue and implement best practices. At its core, Treatnet is committed to removing barriers to low-cost, effective drug treatment facilities.

CND is currently preparing for the United Nations General Assembly Special Session on the World Drug Problem, which will take place in 2016. This Special Session will focus on the goals outlined in the 2009 Political Declaration and Action Plan and the Joint Ministerial Statement that Member States are expected to achieve by 2019.

While strides have been made in the area of drug use and trafficking, it remains clear that substance use disorders and recovery need a far more prominent place in international discussions on drugs. Developing countries face greater challenges, as funding for programs and informational distribution can be extremely tight or non-existent. Additionally, the stigma attached to substance use disorders and addiction in general needs to be combatted on a national and international level; otherwise, individuals suffering from these afflictions will not participate in programs or assistance, even if available. Lack of resources coupled with this stigma creates an environment that makes recovery difficult. Geographic location and individual's inability to travel to available programs presents an additional barrier.

As this is an international issue, Member States must work together to share information, suggestions and resources. Creating informed citizens is the first step in addressing substance use disorders and recovery, followed by effective, well-funded programs to assist those who desire to provide a better life for themselves and their families. Although resources and ability to seek treatment hinder this progress, Member States and governments must remain actively engaged in this issue to create a brighter future for global citizens.

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

- What role does the United Nations and the international community play in supporting State actions on this issue? Are there actions or integration with civil society groups that also deserve consideration?
- What additional information or research is needed to further understand substance use disorders? How can Member States obtain and exchange this information?
- What approaches to addressing substance abuse are effective, and how can the United Nations ensure that these approaches are used more widely?
- How can States work with civil society and the private sector to address substance abuse disorders?

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CHAPTER NINE

THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

PURVIEW OF THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

The International Court of Justice (ICJ) is the principal international judicial body of the United Nations. The two major roles of the ICJ are 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 Court over the dispute. The ICJ does not preside over legal disputes between individuals, the public, or private organizations.

Website: www.icj-cij.org

ADVISORY OPINION: LEGAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF A WALL IN THE OCCUPIED PALESTINIAN TERRITORY

This is a historical case. In accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop on 8 July 2004. Any and all updates to this case after that date will not be relevant to the AMUN simulation nor considered in hearing the case.

In 2002, Israel approved a plan for the construction of a wall in Occupied Palestinian Territory. On 8 December 2003, the United Nations General Assembly adopted a resolution at its Tenth Emergency Special Session requesting an advisory opinion on the following question:

What are the legal consequences arising from the construction of the Wall being built by Israel, the occupying Power, in the Occupied Palestinian Territory, including in and around East Jerusalem, as described in the report of the Secretary-General, considering the rules and principles of international law, including the Fourth Geneva Convention of 1949, and relevant Security Council and GA resolutions?

Due to the overwhelming number of *amicus curiae* briefs filed in this matter, participation will be limited to Israel, Australia, Egypt and Palestine.

After World War I, the League of Nations issued a Mandate that recognized the existence of Palestine and created territorial boundaries for the land, then under British control. When the United Kingdom announced its intention to withdraw from Palestine, the General Assembly adopted the Plan of Partition, which called for two independent states, one Arab, the other Jewish, and for Jerusalem to be administered by a special international regime apart from the two States. The Arab population in Palestine rejected the resolution as unbalanced; in 1948 Israel proclaimed its independence and armed conflict ensued. In 1949, general armistice agreements were reached between Israel and its opponents in the war: Jordan, Egypt, Lebanon and Syria. These agreements established what became known as the “Green Line,” which marked the military demarcation lines that the various armies agreed to withdraw to as a result of the armistice. In the Six-Day War of 1967 Israel greatly expanded its territory beyond the Green Line, and continues to occupy territory outside of the Green Line. While the Green Line was never

intended to be a permanent border, it continues to have political and administrative significance.

In 1993, Israel and Palestine signed the first face-to-face agreement between the parties in the Oslo Accords, which provided, among other things, for the Palestinian mandates and borders. These borders were based on the facts as they existed in 1993, including then-existing Israeli settlements. Citing ongoing terrorist attacks and regional tensions, in 2002 Israel announced its plan to construct a wall. While roughly conforming to the Green Line, the Wall’s route deviates to encompass Israeli settlements outside of its boundaries and the borders established in the Oslo Accords.

Under customary international law, the territories outside the Green Line (i.e. those under Israeli control since the 1967 War) are occupied territories and Israel is the Occupying Power. Much of the proposed route for the Wall lies within this area. Opponents of the Wall claim that Israel is expanding its territory and disregarding the rights of the Palestinian people. Arab Member States and the Palestinian Authority have urged international action, claiming that the Wall is not needed for security, violates essential rights and is being used to annex territory. The Secretary-General’s Report of November 2003 described the Wall as separating communities from health services, schools, primary water sources and electricity networks. The Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food of the United Nations Human Rights Council noted that the Wall annexes aquifers which provided 51 percent of the West Bank’s water resources.

The Court must first determine whether it has jurisdiction. The language of the General Assembly’s request encompasses an inquiry into whether the construction breaches international law, and if so, what are the legal consequences. The scope of the question is limited to the portions of the Wall “in the Occupied Palestinian Territory, including in and around East Jerusalem.” The existence of “Palestinian people” and their legitimate rights are to be recognized and not at issue; they are accepted both by international law and all parties before the Court.

Under Article 96 of the United Nations Charter, the General Assembly may request an advisory opinion from the Court on “any legal question.” The jurisdiction of the General Assembly to make recommendations is limited by Article 12, which gives the Security Council exclusive authority over any issue before it. Moreover, the question before the Court must be of a “legal” nature appropriate for the Court’s consideration, as opposed to political or hypothetical questions. Finally, the Tenth Emergency Special Session, which drafted the resolution that asked for the Court’s opinion, can only convene and act if the Security Council, because of lack of unanimity, has failed to exercise its primary responsibility and the situation is one accompanied by a threat to peace. If these conditions were not met, the resolution would not be a legitimate request to the Court.

Although Article 65 of the Court’s Statute provides that the Court “may” give an advisory opinion, as the principal judicial organ of the United Nations the Court should not decline to issue an advisory opinion without a compelling reason. However, Israel has not consented to



this specific exercise of jurisdiction and describes the dispute as a bilateral matter. While a fundamental principle of the Court is that a State is not obliged to submit its disputes to judicial settlement without its consent, this is not a request for judicial settlement, but rather a request by the General Assembly for an advisory opinion under Article 65. The Court should consider these factors in its jurisdictional analysis.

Beyond the question of jurisdiction, a number of rules and principles of international law are implicated by this question, including the United Nations Charter, international humanitarian law and human rights law. One of the issues implicated is the need to reconcile the right to political independence and sovereignty versus the prohibition on territorial acquisition by means of force. The fact that the Palestinian people do not have an internationally recognized State also raises questions about the applicability of international conventions such as the Hague Convention and the Fourth Geneva Convention. Although Israel is not a party to the Hague Convention, an argument could be made that it has become part of customary international law.

Israel has ratified treaties on human rights, but argues that humanitarian law applies in conflict situations and that human rights treaties were intended to protect citizens from their own States in times of peace. By extension, it holds that those human rights treaties do not apply to this situation. It is a generally accepted tenet of customary international law that the protections of human rights obligations do not cease during times of conflict except where they are derogated by the treaty itself. Furthermore, the Court should consider to what extent Israel is bound by the Oslo Accords, which were ratified and adopted by both parties.

Should the Court find a breach of any of the above international laws, it must next determine the legal consequences that flow from the breach. While advisory opinions are not legally binding they do carry great legal weight and moral authority. Generally, the consequence for a State responsible for the breaching act is an obligation to put an end to that act. Any legislation causing or empowering the illegal action must therefore be repealed or voided. Reparation is guided by what the situation would have been had there been no illegal act. Consequences can extend beyond the breaching state. Certain international rights are erga omnes, or owed to all, and as such these rights are the concern of all States. Some humanitarian rights and the right to self-determination may fall under this category. Additionally, legal consequences may attach to other States, including obligations to recognize the illegality of action or to not aid and abet the breaching action. In addressing the issue before the Court, all Justices and Advocates should keep in mind that the function of an advisory opinion is to "identify the existing principles and rules, interpret them and apply them ... thus offering a reply to the question based on law."

Questions to consider on this issue include the following:

- Was the General Assembly acting within its authority when it requested this Advisory Opinion?
- Does the Court have jurisdiction? If so, is there a compelling reason why the Court should not exercise its jurisdiction to give an advisory opinion?
- Which rules and principles of international law apply? Of the applicable rules and principles, which, if any, are in violation?
- What are the legal consequences to the parties involved? Are any of the violations to rights of erga omnes character?

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APPLICATION OF THE CONVENTION ON THE PREVENTION AND PUNISHMENT OF THE CRIME OF GENOCIDE (CROATIA V. SERBIA) (1999)

This is a historical case. In accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop on 30 August 2012. Any and all updates to this case after that date will not be relevant to the AMUN simulation nor considered in hearing the case.

The fall of the communist system in the former Yugoslavia, accompanied by the elections of ultra-nationalist parties in the former Soviet republics, created a stage set for violence. The separation of Croatia and Slovenia in 1991 from Serb-controlled Yugoslavia initiated four years of bloodshed that killed thousands and displaced hundreds of thousands of Serbs, Croats and Muslims. Slobodan Milosevic, on trial before an international tribunal for crimes of genocide, led the forces of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia to create a "Greater Serbia." Croatia comes before the Court alleging that Serbia aided and abetted, as a Nation-State, the crime of genocide as defined under the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crimes of Genocide (Genocide Convention). Serbia filed a counter-complaint, making similar allegations against Croatia.

At the close of World War II, the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was formed as a federation of six equal states: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia, and Slovenia. This federation did nothing to quell the long-standing political discord between ethnic Croats and Serbs, and the two groups struggled for political dominance in the new State's government. From its creation, Yugoslavia was dominated and stabilized by communist rule under Josip Tito and its ties to the Soviet Union, but an undercurrent of unrest remained, fueled by the struggle for power between the Croats and Serbs. With Tito's death in 1980 and the eroding power of the central government through the 1980s, Slobodan Milosevic became the President of the Serbian state and instituted nationalist policies that destabilized the federal government. He also encouraged nationalistic sentiments among ethnic Serbs throughout Yugoslavia. By late 1990, ethnic Serbs living in Croatia declared a separate "Republic of Serbian Krajina" and, in 1991, began a violent rebellion.

In January 1992, both the United Nations and the European Union recognized the independent Republic of Croatia; at the same time, rebel Serbs maintain controlled of large areas of Croatia. The rebels had achieved this control in large part due to the actions of the Yugoslav People's Army (JNA) and Serbian paramilitaries. Croatia alleges that the actions taken by these forces to displace Croatian people from the territories that the ethnic group controlled under the Soviet Federal Republic of Yugoslavia constitute genocide. Specifically, in the period from May 1991 to November 1991, Croatia alleges that the JNA and ethnic Serbian paramilitaries perpetrated genocide in eastern Croatia by killing and maiming Croats and destroying their homes in a largely successful effort to forcibly displace the entire ethnic Croatian population from the region. Croatia further contends that these forces were ultimately controlled by the government of Serbia and Montenegro.

In late 1992, a cease-fire agreement was reached. The Serbian-controlled areas remained occupied until 1995, when the Republic of Croatia liberated some of the territory through Operation Flash. After attempts

to negotiate a peaceful settlement of the conflict failed, Croatia organized Operation Storm and retook most of the remaining rebel-controlled areas. In 1996 the Republic of Croatia and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia reached an Agreement for Normalization of Relations. Subsequently, Croatia regained control of the remainder of its territory. In 2003 Yugoslavia was reconstituted as Serbia and Montenegro, which in 2006 separated into individual countries. In its counterclaim, Serbia alleges that the Croatian forces engaged in ethnic cleansing and genocide during Operation Storm, in particular the indiscriminate killing of ethnic Serbs who were attempting to flee the advance of the Croatian forces.

The United Nations was not silent during this period of violence. Following the 1992 cease-fire agreement, the United Nations created a peacekeeping mission to help stabilize the region. The General Assembly also produced two resolutions condemning the violence. The first, adopted in 1992, recognized the genocide by the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The second, in 1995, condemned human rights violations committed by all sides to the conflict. In 2007 a judgment was rendered in the parallel ICJ case, *Application of the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide* (Bosnia and Herzegovina v. Serbia and Montenegro), where the Court found that Serbia and Montenegro (at the time a single entity—Montenegro's 2006 succession left Serbia as the successor state) had violated the Genocide Convention in 1995, when they failed to prevent the massacre in Srebrenica.

In 2008 Croatia brought this case before the International Court of Justice to contest the Serbian response to its duties to pay restitution for the destruction of Croatian property during the regional conflicts in the 1990s. The Republic of Croatia contends that Serbia is responsible for the actions of the Serb-Croats, because Serbia aided and supported rebels who were fighting for the Serbian State's ends. Croatia also claims that Serbian-controlled forces committed genocide during Croatia's war of independence. Finally, Croatia asserts that Serbia should be bound by the Agreement for Normalization of Relations to pay for the damage done by those rebels. In response, Serbia contends that, in the aftermath of Operation Storm and other conflicts, Croatian forces committed genocide by killing fleeing ethnic Serbians. Serbia denies its accountability for the acts of uncontrolled rebels and views the killing of ethnic Serbs during the conflict as an act of genocide against their country.

In considering this case, the Court must first consider whether it has jurisdiction. The jurisdictional question has two components. The first is whether Article IX of the Genocide Convention, which is Croatia's basis for jurisdiction, allows the Court to hear the case. The second is whether the Court is able to hear Croatia's claims concerning events that occurred prior to 27 April 1992, which is the date the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia established its constitution, formally separated itself from Croatia, and succeeded to the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia's obligations under the Genocide Convention. Until that date, Croatia was, at least nominally, part of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, along with Montenegro and Serbia.

Should the Court determine that jurisdiction exists, it must then apply the definition of genocide as set forth in the Genocide Convention. This definition has two components, known by the legal terms *actus reus* and *dolus specialis*. The *actus reus* of genocide concerns the actions that must be present in order for genocide to have occurred against a national, ethnic, religious or racial group. These are set forth in Article 2 of the Convention and include killing members of the group and



causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group. The *dolus specialis* or “special mental element” set forth in the Convention requires that, for genocide to occur, the actions must be committed with “intent to destroy” that particular group. A threshold question is whether the Serbian forces within the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia had de facto control of the ethnic Serbian rebelling against Croatia, and if such control was present, whether it created Serbian liability for the rebels’ actions.

Questions to consider on this issue include the following:

- By what mechanism and to what extent did Serbia succeed to the Soviet Republic of Yugoslavia’s treaty obligations?
- Were the ethnic Serbian rebels fighting for the political goals of Yugoslavia, or did they have their own agenda for a separate state?
- What effect does the recognition of the Republic of Croatia have on the legal aspects of the case?
- What is the legal definition of internal conflict?

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CERTAIN ACTIVITIES CARRIED OUT BY NICARAGUA IN THE BORDER AREA (COSTA RICA V. NICARAGUA) (2010)

This is a historical case. In accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop on 30 August 2011. Any and all updates to this case after that date will not be relevant to the AMUN simulation nor considered in hearing the case.

The San Juan River, which flows through Costa Rica and Nicaragua, has been in dispute for over a century. The San Juan River forms an outlet of Lake Nicaragua on the Nicaragua-Costa Rica border and issues from the southwest end of the Lake at San Carlos and passes El Castillo before reaching the Caribbean Sea at San Juan del Norte (Greytown). Approximately 35 km before reaching its delta, the river bifurcates into the San Juan to the north and the Rio Colorado to the south. The Rio Colorado flows almost entirely through Costa Rican territory. The branch that retains the San Juan name and flows to the north is politically and economically vital to Nicaragua as one of the only river outlets to the Caribbean Sea that flows through its territory.

Costa Rica and Nicaragua came to a bilateral agreement regarding the San Juan River in the Treaty of Limits in 1858. While the Treaty of Limits grants sovereignty over the portions of the San Juan that border Nicaragua to Costa Rica, Costa Rica claims that it also grants them certain “important rights,” among these the perpetual right of free navigation for commercial purposes. Further international agreements between the two States regarding this matter include the ruling of the Central American Court of Justice in 1916 and Article IV of the Agreement Supplementary to Article IV of the Pact of Amity, 1956.

In an earlier case, captioned *Dispute regarding Navigational and Related Rights (Costa Rica v. Nicaragua)*, the Court issued a ruling in 2009. The decision stated that sovereignty over the San Juan River, and the waters therein, lay with Nicaragua, but that Costa Rica retained the right to navigate the river.

The present case concerns two specific incursions by the Nicaraguan military in connection with the construction of a canal from the San Juan River to Laguna Los Portillos. Both States claim sovereignty over Calero Island, a piece of wetland in the San Juan River delta; the construction took place in the area around the island. The first alleged incursion occurred on or about 18 October 2010. On 21 October 2010, after learning of the presence of Nicaraguan troops on what Costa Rica claims to be its territory, the Government of Costa Rica, through its Foreign Ministry, submitted a formal protest to the Government of Nicaragua. Costa Rica requested that Nicaragua immediately cease any action or activity that would affect Costa Rican territory or sovereignty. In response, on 26 October 2010, Nicaragua rejected Costa Rica’s protest letter and accused Costa Rica of conducting an incursion onto Nicaraguan territory.



On 1 November 2010, Costa Rica's Foreign Minister responded to Nicaragua's allegations and reminded Nicaragua of its international obligations. After learning on the same day that Nicaragua's armed forces had invaded, for the second time, and established a base on what Costa Rica claims to be its territory, the Costa Rican Foreign Minister sent a second diplomatic note, protesting in the strongest terms those hostile acts by Nicaragua. Nicaragua having made no further response, Costa Rica filed an urgent request to the Organization of American States (OAS) and, on 3 November 2010, in accordance with Articles 21 and 62 of the Charter, a Special Session of the Permanent Council of the OAS was convened.

Between 5 and 8 November 2010, the Secretary General of the OAS, José Miguel Insulza, visited both Nicaragua and Costa Rica in order to seek a diplomatic resolution to the dispute. He also flew above the Costa Rican territory occupied by the Nicaraguan military. Secretary General Insulza recommended that Nicaragua withdraw its armed forces from the occupied territory to permit the issue to be discussed bilaterally. Nicaragua allegedly rejected all calls for withdrawal and all means of negotiation attempted through the OAS. The Permanent Council of the OAS recommended that both sides remove any armed forces from the area and begin a process of conflict mediation.

On 18 November 2010, the Republic of Costa Rica filed an application to institute proceedings at the International Court of Justice against the Republic of Nicaragua. The case concerns the incursion into, occupation of and use by Nicaragua's army of Costa Rican territory, as well as breaches of Nicaragua's obligations toward Costa Rica. In particular, Costa Rica objects to Nicaragua's activities dredging the San Juan River and constructing the canal. Costa Rica cited the Charter of the United Nations, Charter of the Organization of American States (OAS), the Treaty of Limits and additional arbitral awards as the proof of Nicaragua's obligations.

Costa Rica cites the 1948 American Treaty on Pacific Settlement, also known as the Pact of Bogotá, in support of the Court's jurisdiction in this matter. Article 31 of the Pact recognizes the jurisdiction of the Court in matters between American States involving, among other disputes, matters of interpreting treaties and questions of international law. Both Costa Rica and Nicaragua have signed and ratified the pact. Costa Rica also calls for the Court to rule on its request for provisional measures of protection on the basis that the Nicaraguan presence is causing irreparable damage to the surrounding rainforests and wetlands, including Calero Island.

In response, Nicaragua claims that its sovereignty over the San Juan River, confirmed in connection with the separate International Court of Justice case that was decided in 2009, also grants Nicaragua the right to improve the navigability of the river through its dredging work and through the construction of the canal. Additionally, Nicaragua claims that no invasion of Calero Island occurred because Nicaragua has sovereignty over the island and cannot invade its own territory. Finally, Nicaragua contends that its activities are not causing harm to Costa Rica and that Nicaragua has complied with its obligations under international environmental law, namely the completion of an environmental impact study prior to beginning its work on the canal and associated dredging.

In considering this matter, the Court must first decide if the Pact of Bogotá is an appropriate method of providing jurisdiction in this case.

The Court must then consider Costa Rica's request for provisional measures.

Questions to consider on this issue include the following:

- Does the Pact of Bogotá provide the Court jurisdiction over this matter?
- Was there a violation of Article 21 or 62 of the Charter of the Organization of American States (OAS)?
- Should Nicaragua be held to the recommendations adopted by the Permanent Council of the OAS?

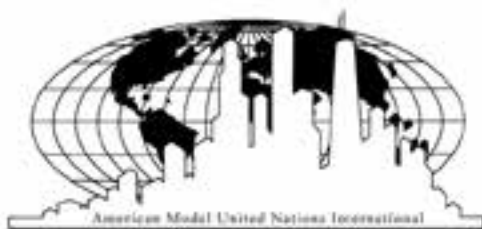
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