

AMERICAN MODEL UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL

A woman wearing a vibrant blue headscarf and a matching blue dress with a shimmering, sequined pattern. She is covering her face with her right hand, looking slightly to the side. The background is a textured, brown wall made of mud or plaster. The lighting is natural, casting a soft shadow on the wall behind her.

ISSUES AT AMUN

2016 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.

The remaining chapters contain brief overviews of the topics to be discussed in the committees, councils, commissions and International Court of Justice at the 2016 Conference. These are intended as a guide and basis for representatives' further research. In keeping with this goal, each overview includes a bibliography to guide representatives to appropriate sources of additional information. Additionally, at the beginning of each committee's topic briefs, the purview of the simulation—that is what the body can and cannot do—is explained. The simulation purview provides context and limits for the goals and actions contained in a body's reports and resolutions.

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 51 original Members. The concept of all States uniting together in one organization to settle disputes peacefully was born of the desire of civilized countries to avoid repeating 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 coined the term “United Nations,” when 47 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 1945 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 centre 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 General Assembly is the central deliberative organ of the United Nations. The General Assembly has been described as the nearest thing to a “parliament of mankind.” All Member States are Members of the General Assembly, and each Member has one vote. The General Assembly makes recommendations on international issues, oversees all other United Nations bodies that report to the General Assembly, approves the United Nations budget and apportions United Nations expenses. On the recommendation of the Security Council, the General Assembly elects the Secretary-General and holds the authority to admit and expel Member States. Voting in the General Assembly is ordinarily by simple majority, but most 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 10 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): The Economic and Social Council 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. The Economic and Social Council oversees five regional economic commissions and nine functional, or subject-matter, commissions. The Economic and Social Council is composed of 54 Member States elected by the General Assembly for three-year, renewable terms.

The Trusteeship Council (TC): In 1945 there were 11 Trust Territories, which were regions without their own governments. These 11 regions were placed under the Trusteeship Council, which helped them prepare for and achieve independence. With the admission of Palau as a United Nations Member State in 1994, the Trusteeship Council has now completed its original mandate. Today, the Trusteeship Council 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 International Court of Justice; however, States must agree to accept the jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice 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 44,000 people are employed as the staff of the United Nations, only 5,000 of whom work at the United Nations headquarters in New York City. The vast majority work for various subsidiaries 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, Economic and Social Council 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 are 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 (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 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 powerful examples 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 representatives 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 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 (e.g., civil war, violent struggle, peaceful protests, 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 UN 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 delegation's permanent mission to the United Nations can also be helpful, but the level of assistance provided varies with each country's policies and available resources.

For some States, it will be very easy to find specific information to determine a position on most or all topics, while 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 about 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 that is currently involved in a civil war or a country under United Nations sanctions may have unique responses on some issues that 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 that 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 his or her 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 policy goals 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, we recommend 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 *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 on 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. We recommend that representatives use a combined effort whenever possible in doing research. Representatives can take full 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 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 be more individualized. 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 public presentations 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 the Economic and Social Council, 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 Document System (ODS), which includes nearly all documents published by the United Nations, including many that are not available on the main website of the United Nations. The ODS 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. Each UN document has a unique symbol at the top right of the document. Symbols include both letters and numbers. Some elements of the symbol have meaning, while others do not. More information about UN Document Symbols can be found at research.un.org/en/docs/symbols. 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 use 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 and 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, often called white papers, 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.

Internal 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 State's position on the topics being discussed at the AMUN Conference. Each paper should include brief statements about where the State stands on the topics and on what the United Nations has done to confront this issue. It should also include the State'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 delegation's negotiating positions or other behind-the-scenes issues, but should 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 the 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 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 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 the Human Rights Council (HRC) should also include the two topics of discussion for the council. Delegations represented on the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) should also include the two topics of discussion for the commission. Delegations represented on the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) 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 International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), 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 and posted on the AMUN website prior to 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 AWARDS

AMUN will provide a Position Paper Award 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 General Assembly Concurrent 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 State's national policies and capabilities into the simulation. While AMUN Simulations 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 Simulations Staff would be equated with the actual home office or government of the involved Member States(s).

Representatives are also encouraged to seek out Simulations Staff to act in the home office capacity when they need to supplement their research on a situation. Simulations 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 States will be involved in the deliberations of the Council. Delegations representing these States, if present at AMUN, will be asked by the body to participate in deliberations by the Council. 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 a topic relevant to that State's interests, 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 States 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 States will not be involved in all issues, the representative(s) responsible for the HSC must 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 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 Simulations 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 before the start date of the simulation 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 States, or they may be relatively in the dark on their State's moment-to-moment actions in the world.

In this area, the AMUN Simulations Staff will frequently consult with HSC members. Representatives are welcome and encouraged, as their State'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 to supplement their research on a situation. Simulations 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 1973, the start date is 01 May 1973. For the Historical Security Council of 1990, the start date is 10 March 1990.

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 2016. 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
CHINA
EGYPT
FRANCE
JAPAN

MALAYSIA
NEW ZEALAND
RUSSIAN FEDERATION
SENEGAL
SPAIN

UKRAINE
UNITED KINGDOM
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
URUGUAY
VENEZUELA

The Contemporary Security Council topics below are not all-inclusive of what the Council might talk about at Conference. With the ever-changing nature of international peace and security, these three topics are a guide to help direct your research for your State's position. The information below should be considered a briefing as to the general background of the topics presented. It is not meant to be comprehensive, and representatives are encouraged to do further research into each situation. A more complete and updated version of likely topics for the Contemporary Security Council will be posted online in September at www.amun.org.

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 SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

SYRIA

Civilian protests began in March 2011, when residents took to the city streets of Deraa to protest the torture of teenagers who had put up anti-government graffiti. The protesters called for the following reforms: resignation of President Bashar al-Assad; allowing political parties in the country; granting equal rights to the Kurdish population; and other political freedoms, such as freedom of the press. The protests turned violent when Syrian security forces fired on the protesters, killing several people.

After the incident, President Assad announced several conciliatory measures, including releasing dozens of political prisoners, dismissing the government and canceling the state of emergency that Syria had lived under since 1963. Unappeased by Assad's measures, protests spread to other communities and fighting between protesters and government forces escalated. By May 2011, Syrian forces had moved into the suburbs surrounding Deraa, Banyas, Homs and Damascus to suppress protestors. The consistent attacks from government forces led the United Nations Security Council to condemn the atrocities in August 2011, with the Arab League suspending Syria and imposing sanctions in November.

In February 2012, Kofi Annan was appointed as the United Nations and Arab League Special Envoy to Syria, and a six-point peace plan was announced in March, which Syria accepted. However, the disjointed opposition groups did not agree to the proposal and the peace plan was never implemented. In April 2012, the Security Council passed Resolution 2043 to form the United Nations Supervision Mission in Syria (UNSMIS) to monitor cessation of violence. Syria did not cooperate with the mission and the mandate expired on 19 August 2012.

Violence continued unabated for the next several of years with the refugee and internally-displaced people counts rising. Neighboring countries such as Turkey had to temporarily halt the flow of refugees into the country, so more refugee camps could be built to house the continually-growing population, which already numbered over 200,000. Additionally, the international community grew concerned with the use of chemical weapons on civilian populations, leading to United Nations Security Council Resolution 2118. The resolution set out milestones for the Syrian government to meet in the destruction of its chemical weapons stockpiles and forgo Chapter VII action. The Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) reported on 23 June 2014, that 100 percent of Syria's chemical weapons had been removed. Additionally, all chemical weapon production equipment had been destroyed in cooperation with Resolution 2118.

Threats from neighboring Iraq added to an already declining security situation throughout 2014. The Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) began systematically attacking Syrian forces and taking away major profit centers, including oil refineries near the Iraqi border. The United States began airstrikes against the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) in the fall of 2014, hoping to curb the violence against the Syrian population and working to stem the advance of ISIL from neighboring Iraq. While the airstrikes from the United States and its allies worked to a degree, the lack of coordination among the opposition groups on the ground allowed Syrian forces to continue to make gains against the protestors. By June 2015, government and opposition forces were fighting unchecked around the city of Aleppo with human rights violations on both sides, including the use of barrel bombs on civilians.

THE ISLAMIC STATE IN IRAQ AND THE LEVANT (ISIL)

While ISIL has had many incarnations since the early 1990s, it can trace its present roots to the release of Abu Musab al-Zarqawi from a Jordanian prison in 1999. Al-Zarqawi had been instrumental in key fights in Afghanistan with the Taliban in the 1980s and returned to Afghanistan and Pakistan after release. However, feeling that a United States invasion of Iraq was imminent, al-Zarqawi made his way to Iraq and began militant uprisings against American and Sunni forces. By



2004, al-Zarqawi's success garnered the attention of Al-Qaeda, and he pledged his support to their cause, a limited partnership that would last until 2014.

Even though al-Zarqawi was killed by a United States airstrike in 2006, his followers made impressive gains in the early years after the United States invasion of Iraq, before the surge of American troops between 2007 and 2010 forced them underground. It was not until 2011, when American troops began to withdraw, that they were able to make substantive gains again. With tensions high between the Iraqi government and the Kurdish population, ISIL moved to Mosul and began working to consolidate power and land. On 10 June 2014, ISIL seized Mosul and declared itself a caliphate on 29 June, claiming exclusive political and theological authority over the world's Muslim population. The seizures of the Iraqi cities of Mosul and Tikrit allowed ISIL access to oil fields in both Syria and Iraq. Additionally, ISIL destroyed the Sykes-Picot border, the demarcation between Iraq and Syria that was created after the first World War to divide the Middle East into British and French spheres of influence.

In 2014, ISIL began acquiring territory and exerting influence in Syria as well, working with a presumed agreement with President Assad to attack government opposition forces. However, ISIL forces attacked all forces, including civilian populations, causing a split with Al-Qaeda and encouraging Assad to note that only the Syrian government was strong enough to stand against terrorist forces. ISIL also worked to destroy museums and artifacts predating Islam and forced non-Muslim women into sex slavery. The United States and its allies began airstrikes against ISIL territory in the fall of 2014 with minimal success on the ground. By early 2015, ISIL was in control of several key areas in Syria and Iraq, including oil fields. Additionally, ISIL has worked to establish state institutions, such as a Council of Ministers, as well as recruit additional forces internationally through social media and the exploitation of the international media. On 12 February 2015, the Security Council passed Resolution 2199 condemning both trade with terrorist groups as well as the paying of hostage ransom fees.

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THE SITUATION IN UKRAINE

In February 2013, representatives from Ukraine and the European Union met to discuss the political and economic measures necessary for the adoption of a European Union Association Agreement with Ukraine and the entry of the Ukraine into a free trade zone with European Union members. In 2012 the European Union's members expressed concern that the weakening of democracy and human rights in the Ukraine posed a barrier to ratification of the agreement. Tensions escalated when Russia increased customs inspections on Ukrainian imports as a reaction to Ukraine's increasingly warm relationship with western Europe. Additionally, the Ukrainian Parliament declined to release former Prime Minister Yulia V. Tymoshenko from prison for medical treatment, a change required by the European Union before the political and trade agreements could be signed. Largely due to political pressure, President Viktor Yanukovich announced on 21 November 2013 that Ukraine would suspend its plans to sign the European Union agreement and would instead pursue closer ties with Russia. This announcement sparked outrage in many European capitals and spawned protests in Kyiv. International concern and pressure on the Yanukovich government to respond to protesters' demands grew. On 15 December, the European Union suspended negotiations with Ukraine after President Yanukovich failed to address protester and international concerns regarding Russia's involvement in Ukraine. In February 2014, Russian Special Forces extracted President Yanukovich from Ukraine. Upon learning that President Yanukovich had fled to Russia, the Ukrainian Parliament removed him from power and set up a provisional government until elections could be held.

Following President Yanukovich's removal, protesters in the Ukrainian province of Crimea, an autonomous republic within Ukraine where the majority of the population identifies as ethnically Russian, made calls to rejoin Russia. The idea soon garnered broad support within greater Crimea, including within the Crimean Parliament. On 28 February, Ukrainian officials accused Russia of invading Crimea with roughly 16,000 troops and trying to incite further violence in Ukraine. Russia denied these charges and noted that the troop movements were in line with any agreement made with the Ukrainian government for troops stationed in the area. On 6 March 2014, the pro-Russian Crimean Parliament set a date of 16 March for a referendum on whether to secede from Ukraine and become part of Russia. Over 90 percent of referendum voters voted to join Russia. Ethnic Russians make up the



majority of the population of Crimea, but there are a significant percentage Ukrainian and Crimean Tatar minorities.

The United States, the European Union and the United Nations (in A/RES/68/262) have called these elections invalid and have declared Russia's occupation of Crimea illegal. The conflict has since become a flashpoint, exacerbating tensions between Russia, the European Union and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). The tensions have resulted in a series of economic sanctions against Russia by Western countries. Following the annexation referendum, a United Nations human rights monitoring team was deployed to Crimea with a pending invitation to visit the capital, Simferopol; they were denied entry. In March 2014, Russia vetoed an otherwise unanimous Security Council resolution declaring the Crimean referendum invalid.

Elections were held in Ukraine in May 2014, and Petro Poroshenko was elected President. President Poroshenko announced that he would push for early parliamentary elections and would work to mend ties with Russia, with reconciliation contingent on Russia's recognition of Ukraine's territorial claim to Crimea. Even with these gains, violence continued in eastern Ukraine between Ukrainian forces and pro-Russia rebels. The violence intensified on 17 July when Malaysian Airlines flight MH17 was shot down over Ukraine, killing everyone aboard. Western States believed rebels in eastern Ukraine were responsible for the attack and responded with new sanctions on Russia, while the United Nations called for an independent investigation into the incident. Violence continued throughout the summer, with intensified fighting in the south and east near Russia's border, leaving thousands of people dead or displaced.

In September 2014, a ceasefire between Ukrainian forces and pro-Russia rebels was reached, however rebel communities in Crimea continue to refuse to acknowledge actions by the Ukrainian government. In February 2015, the Minsk Agreement was adopted by Ukraine, Russia and other interested parties to help stem the violence in the eastern portions of Ukraine. This Agreement contains provisions for a ceasefire, withdrawal of heavy weaponry by both sides to create a demilitarized zone and constitutional reform in Ukraine, among other things. The Security Council adopted Resolution 2202 on 17 February 2015, calling on all parties to implement the Minsk Agreement.

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THE SITUATION IN THE SUDAN AND SOUTH SUDAN

Violence and political unrest in Sudan and South Sudan has spanned several decades. Two rounds of north-south civil war since 1962 have cost the lives of over two million people. A continuing conflict in the western region of Darfur over political control, sovereignty, religion, and land and water rights has driven millions from their homes and killed hundreds of thousands. South Sudan, which seceded in 2011, has also experienced infighting between different ethnic groups. The government of South Sudan continues to struggle to put an end to violence within its borders. Fighting between government troops and rebel factions erupted into a conflict that had killed thousands and prompted millions to flee their homes by the time a tentative internationally-mediated peace agreement was signed in August 2015. Between Sudan and South Sudan lies the oil-rich Abyei region, which both States claimed as their territory following South Sudan's independence, leading to continued conflict and outbreaks of violence.

SUDAN, THE NORTH-SOUTH WAR AND DARFUR

Between 1983 and 2011, more than two million Sudanese died, four million were internally displaced and at least 600,000 fled the country as a result of the north-south civil war. The majority of the fighting was between the southern rebel force, known as the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A), and the Sudanese government. In 2004 the United Nations Security Council approved a special Political Mission, the United Nations Advance Mission in the Sudan (UNAMIS), to facilitate contacts between involved parties and to prepare for the introduction of a United Nations peace support operation. In response to escalating violence in Darfur, the Security Council assigned additional tasks to UNAMIS, including: reinforcing efforts by the international monitoring team led by the African Union, activating inter-agency humanitarian mechanisms and facilitating the work of international monitors in the area. The Southern-aligned SPLM/A continued to clash with the northern Sudanese forces over southern autonomy and independence until 2005. In January 2005, a comprehensive peace agreement was reached between the government of Sudan and the SPLM/A, though South Sudan did not become independent for six more years. Also in 2005, the United Nations Security Council passed Resolution 1590, creating the United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) focusing on political support for the peace process, security, governance, and humanitarian and development assistance, among other goals. In 2006, the UNMIS mandate was expanded in the Darfur region to include a peacekeeping force of up to 18,600 troops to protect civilians, despite strong opposition from the Sudanese government.

Ethnic cleansing, systematic rape and the deaths of thousands have plagued the Darfur region. Despite United Nations efforts in the region, 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 most recent civil war in 2003. Following consultations in Ethiopia in November 2006, the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) augmented the existing African Union Mission in Sudan (AMIS) and deployed



an unprecedented joint peacekeeping operation in Darfur: the African Union/United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID). UNAMID was originally authorized by Security Council Resolution 1869 in July 2007 with 19,555 military personnel, 6,432 police and a significant civilian component. The mission was reauthorized in June 2015 for one year. The United Nations reports that this year more than 200,000 individuals have been displaced due to attacks, mainly in the Jebel Marra area of North Darfur.

The International Criminal Court has alleged that Sudanese President Omar al-Bashir has been ordering the repression and ethnic cleansing of the Darfur region's non-Arab population (e.g., ethnic groups such as the Fur, the Masalit and the Zaghawa), resulting in genocide. The International Criminal Court issued an arrest warrant for President al-Bashir in 2009, but he refutes the charges and refuses to turn himself in. Following South Sudan's independence in 2011, the Sudanese government terminated the presence of UNMIS in Sudan, including the Darfur region. However, there is still a large UNAMID peacekeeping force present in Darfur, despite the Sudanese government's efforts to restrict its operations. In June 2015, the United Nations voted to remain in the Darfur region until June 2016. President al-Bashir won another five-year term in April 2015 in an election marked by low turnout.

SOUTH SUDAN

South Sudan gained independence from Sudan in July 2011. The 2005 peace deal that ended the Sudanese civil war stipulated that Sudan hold a referendum on independence. In the January referendum, 98.83 percent of election participants voted for independence. Following this vote, the United Nations Security Council established a new mission, the United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS), to assist with the transition.

Ethnically-charged attacks broke out in South Sudan's Central Equatoria, Jonglei, Lakes, Unity and Upper Nile states, among others, in December 2013. The fighting has been primarily between the Dinka, President Salva Kiir's ethnic group, and the Nuer, the ethnic group of his rival, Riek Machar; it has been about ethnic and political differences, as well as an overall lack of resources (e.g., food, cattle, etc.). Within weeks almost 500,000 peoples were displaced within South Sudan and around 74,300 people fled to neighboring countries. These numbers continued to grow, with total displacement by the end of February 2014 reaching 900,000 people, 167,000 of whom crossed into neighboring countries. The number of civilians classified in the "acute" or "emergency" categories of food insecurity increased from 1.1 million to 3.2 million.

Despite the peace agreement, infighting between ethnic groups continues to cause unrest in the country. In 2014, in response to the severe humanitarian crisis, UNMISS reprioritized its mission toward the protection of civilians, human rights monitoring and support for the delivery of humanitarian assistance. United Nations peacekeepers are sheltering nearly 200,000 people at six protection sites in South Sudan, and more than 2.3 million people have been displaced since the fighting began in 2013.

Security Council Resolution 2206, passed in March 2015, outlines sanctions against South Sudan, including, but not limited to, a travel ban on South Sudanese entering other Member States and freezing South Sudanese assets in Member State territories. Since July 2015, thousands of South Sudanese refugees have been moved to the Abyei region between Sudan and South Sudan in response to the humanitarian and food crises in the South Sudanese state.

ABYEI

The oil-rich Abyei Region is a disputed territory that sits between Sudan and South Sudan that has seen intense clashes between the governments of Sudan and South Sudan, as well as local ethnic groups, since 2008. As part of the 2005 Comprehensive Peace Agreement, Abyei was scheduled to have a referendum in January 2011 to decide its fate, but it never took place, as Sudan and South Sudan disagreed on who should be able to participate. The Ngok-Dinka, a non-Arab ethnic group native to the southern part of the region, and the Misseriya, a nomadic Arab ethnic group from the northern part of the region, have long fought for control of the area. The Misseriya migrate south into Abyei from Sudan for half the year, seeking water and pasture for their cattle. Cattle raids, killings and revenge attacks are frequent and brutal in Abyei. The Misseriya have been known to abduct Ngok-Dinka children. The Ngok-Dinka held a unilateral referendum in 2013, voting to join South Sudan. Such an action would allocate the region's considerable resources entirely to South Sudan. This vote has never been recognized by the Misseriya tribe or by the Sudanese government. South Sudanese officials have been carrying out a diplomatic campaign to convince the international community to recognize the result of the 2013 referendum, with little success. In 2011 the United Nations Interim Security Force for Abyei (UNISFA) was sent to monitor the implementation of a demilitarized zone in the region, as per Security Council Resolution 1990. In December 2015, the United Nations Security Council voted to extend UNISFA until May 2016.

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THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1973

MEMBERS OF THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1973

AUSTRALIA
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KENYA
PANAMA
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SUDAN
UNITED KINGDOM
UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
YUGOSLAVIA

HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1973

In 1972, several regional crises dramatically heightened world tensions, while new cooperation between the United States of America, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the People's Republic of China began to ease the Cold War conflict that had been raging since the end of World War Two.

Overall, 1972 was a difficult year for the United Nations. The permanent members of the Security Council chose to handle many of their conflicts and disagreements outside of the United Nations, leaving the other Member States feeling that internationalism was going backward and fearing for the future of the organization. In particular, relations between the United States and the United Nations significantly deteriorated in 1972, with the United States going so far as to state that it would use its veto more liberally and no longer take a soft stance on "bad" resolutions, namely those which did not actively deal with world problems from the perspective of the United States. With Communist China receiving full recognition and assuming the Chinese seat at the United Nations in 1972, world focus was turned toward the East. United States and Soviet relations improved dramatically in 1972, with the President of the United States, Richard Nixon, and the General-Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, Leonid Brezhnev, signing a Strategic Arms Limitation pact in May and finalizing a United States/Soviet trade pact in October. Soviet and Chinese relations, however, deteriorated over the same time period. This was evidenced by territorial disputes, Soviet accusations that the Chinese were attempting to break apart the Communist world and Chinese support for anti-Soviet governments wherever possible. This is the atmosphere on May 1, 1973, in which representatives will begin their deliberations in the Security Council.

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 SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

After the Six-Day War of 1967, Arab and Israeli hostilities continued as before, with increased hostilities and continual small conflicts vexing the region. At the October 1967 Khartoum Conference, Arab leaders met and agreed that there would be "no peace with Israel, no recognition of Israel, no negotiations with it." Between 1967 and 1970, Egypt and Israel engaged in a three-year series of border engagements commonly referred to as the War of Attrition. A ceasefire between Egypt, Jordan and Israel was finally reached in 1970, but clashes along the Suez Canal continued. In addition to the border conflict with Egypt, Israel also faces disruption along its borders with Syria, as well as clashes with Palestinian guerrillas operating from Lebanon.

Military incidents between Israel and its neighbors continued throughout 1970, mainly revolving around Arab guerilla bases in Lebanon and Syria. Numerous Israeli attacks into Lebanon occurred, always in response to alleged terrorist attacks by Arabs into Israel. In September 1970, Jordan went on the offensive against the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO), which was operating from within Jordan, ousting the PLO in order to reduce retaliatory attacks from Israel. The most significant attack happened at the Olympic Games held in Munich in September 1972. In this attack, 11 members of the Israeli Olympic team were murdered by Arab gunmen. There was a global outcry against the attacks, leading to large-scale retaliation by Israel against Arab bases in Lebanon and Syria. Israel's retaliatory attacks prompted admonition from Council Members, but the United States blocked strong Security Council action against Israel, supporting only resolutions that led to a non-specific cessation of hostilities and that did not include any one-sided condemnation of Israel.

The question of a Palestinian State continued as an issue for Israel through 1972. In March Jordan submitted a proposal for a semi-autonomous Palestinian state in the occupied West Bank. This proposal was quickly rejected by Israel. Arab states rejected the proposal as well, in retaliation for the aforementioned Jordanian expulsion of the Palestinian Liberation Organization from its borders.

In July 1972, in an attempt to secure better relations with Western governments, Egyptian President Anwar Sadat expelled all Soviet military advisors from Egypt and began nationalizing all former Soviet military bases in the country. Soviet advisors peacefully departed Egypt by early August 1972. This move to counter Soviet influence was a significant step toward lessening the superpower conflict in the Middle East, yet Sadat's attempts to build a better relationship with the West were largely unsuccessful. Diplomatic talks between the United States and Egypt stalled over Egypt's insistence that talks with Israel would only take



place under the pre-conditions that Israel would have to move its borders back to the ceasefire lines of 1967. Israel's Prime Minister, Golda Meir, rejected any proposal that would have restored the 1967 borders, and refused to enter into talks that carried any pre-conditions. With both sides holding fast to these conditions, a peaceful solution seems unlikely, and recent rhetoric from Egypt suggests that President Sadat is more interested in going to war than seeking peace.

Further affecting the tenuous situation was the early April Israeli raid on PLO members in Lebanon. The operation was part of Israeli Operation Wrath of God, which targeted those suspected of being involved in the attacks at the Munich Olympics. Two weeks ago, the Security Council condemned all acts of violence, taking human life and formally condemned Israeli commando raids into Lebanon as a violation of their territorial sovereignty. Not wanting to block the resolution's positive message of unity in opposition to the cycle of violence and terrorism in the region, the United States chose to abstain rather than vote no, as had been its common action on resolutions condemning Israel.

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THE SITUATION IN UGANDA

In 1966, Ugandan President Milton Obote suspended the country's constitution and ended the power sharing agreement with King Mutesa II. The new head of the Ugandan Military and Police, Colonel Idi

Amin, sent tanks to shell the King's palace; King Mutesa escaped and fled to the United Kingdom. President Obote consolidated his power by removing people in power from the Bagandas tribe and replacing them with people from his own Acholi and Langi tribes.

General Idi Amin seized political control of Uganda in 1971 through a military coup d'état, overthrowing President Obote while Obote was at a meeting in Singapore. The leadership change was at first welcomed by Ugandans, but the country soon descended into a harsh authoritarian regime. Over the next two years, President Amin's government came under increased international scrutiny, largely because of its potential destabilizing influence on the East African region.

After the coup, President Obote sought refuge in neighboring Tanzania. Once there he began building a force of Tanzanian-backed rebels made up of Ugandan loyalists. Throughout September 1972, Obote waged a campaign of guerrilla raids, insurgent attacks and the incursion of over 1,000 troops from Tanzania into Uganda in an attempt to overthrow the Amin regime. The bulk of these troops advanced to as close as 100 miles of the Ugandan capital, Kampala, but were beaten back. Obote's plan relied heavily on mass defections by the Ugandan military to supplement their force; these defections failed to materialize, and his attempt to take back power failed.

President Amin accused the Tanzanian government of actively sponsoring and launching the attacks. Tanzanian officials have denied any involvement. President Amin's forces launched retaliatory attacks of their own into Tanzania. One air attack on the town of Bukoba killed nine and injured two hundred people. Tanzania responded by moving a battalion of roughly 1,000 troops toward the Ugandan border to prevent any incursions of the Ugandan military into the country. Hostilities ended in mid-October when Somali President Mohammed Siad Barre organized a peace conference, resulting in a formal agreement to end hostilities between Tanzania and Uganda.

During this time, President Amin formally ordered the expulsion of all Asians (mostly Gujaratis of Indian origin) from Uganda, calling them traitors and spies for the imperialist British government. This racist policy was decried by the global community, and provisions were rapidly made to deal with the large exodus of Ugandan refugees. Many went to the United Kingdom, as well as the United States and several European countries. The expulsion began a significant political conflict between Uganda and the United Kingdom, mainly focused on the treatment of the refugees and on their ability to take material goods out of the country, which was severely limited by the Amin regime.

Finally, the 18 December 1972 seizure by Amin's government of all foreign owned tea plantations and eight of the biggest commercial companies in Uganda (seven British and one American) raised anew the question of Uganda's destabilizing influence in the area. Uganda also ended ties with Israel and began a new political relationship with Libya, which only highlighted the perceived dangerous and unpredictable nature of President Amin and brought Uganda further into the international spotlight in 1973.

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THE SITUATION IN SOUTHERN RHODESIA

The early 1960's brought independence to a number of French African colonies and gave momentum to the struggle for black nationalism in British Africa. The apartheid regime, based on white minority rule, in South Africa came under increasing scrutiny amid the changing attitudes toward such policies in Great Britain and the rest of the world.

In 1963, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was dissolved. In 1964, Nyasaland achieved independence, within the British Commonwealth of Nations, as Malawi; Northern Rhodesia became independent as Zambia that same year. The aftereffects of the dissolution were still being felt when, on 11 November 1965, the minority white government of Southern Rhodesia (known informally as Rhodesia) declared itself independent from Great Britain.

After the Universal Declaration of Independence, Rhodesia received significant international attention at the United Nations, especially for its apartheid regime and policies. The Security Council adopted resolutions endorsing economic sanctions on Rhodesia, barring all trade and support; however, South Africa and Portugal continued to violate the oil and petroleum stipulations of the trade embargo, undermining the will of the Council. Talks between the British and Rhodesian governments continued on and off for several years but did not make the headway hoped for by the affected African States.

The United States' tacit support for the Rhodesian government significantly complicated the issue. Starting in 1971, the United States resumed chrome trade with Rhodesia in full violation of the 1968 UN trade embargo. In July, 1972, the United States abstained in a 14-0 Security Council vote to condemn "all acts violating" the economic sanctions against Rhodesia, considering United States actions to be outside of these sanctions. In September, the United Kingdom vetoed an African-sponsored resolution on Rhodesia, which called for stronger economic sanctions and a direct settlement of the Rhodesian issue.

By 1972 the lack of change in the government's policies regarding formal discrimination against black Africans was the focus of attention for the United Nations. Many African states and black athletes threatened to boycott the 1972 Munich Olympic Games if Rhodesia was allowed to participate. Ultimately, the International Olympic Committee conceded and barred Rhodesian athletes from participating in the games.

The economy of Zambia, which relied upon trade with Rhodesia, suffered significant disruption from the attempts to divert trade in accordance with international sanctions brought against Rhodesia. Succeeding years saw wide fluctuations in the price of copper, Zambia's major export, and a sustained drought that required heavy agricultural imports. There was also additional political stress between the two states over rebel activity. The outlawed Zimbabwe African National Union,

ZANU, were operating out of border regions in Zambia, waging a guerilla campaign against Rhodesian troop and officials. In response, on 9 January 1973, Rhodesia closed its border to traffic with Zambia, stating it would stay closed until assurances could be made that Zambia would no longer permit terrorist to operate from within its borders. The border closing threatened the economic livelihood of Zambia, which relied on railroads through Rhodesia for much of its trade. The United Kingdom lobbied Rhodesia to reopen the border, and, on 4 February, it reopened its side. Zambia, however, decided that its side would remain closed, stating that Rhodesias closure was "rebellious" and "irrecoverable and final." President Kaunda of Zambia later stated that the border closure has been "a blessing in disguise" that allowed Zambia's economy a fresh start that did not rely on its British colonial past.

The end of 1972 also saw the escalation of guerrilla warfare from Mozambique, where ZANU also had a strong presence. Both the guerilla activity from Zambia and Mozambique were collectively called the Rhodesian Bush War. In these early months of 1973, guerilla activity has been increasing from both fronts, further destabilizing the region.

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THE SITUATION IN NAMIBIA

Since World War I, South West Africa has existed as a Mandate territory under the guidance of South Africa. As manager of the Mandate, South Africa had certain obligations toward South West Africa, mainly to see that it developed its own governance and to transition it to independence. Since the early 1960s, the United Nations has expressed growing concern as to South Africa's willingness to meet these obligations. Of particular concern were the government of South Africa's policies of apartheid and racial discrimination, which the United Nations argued were contrary to the terms of South Africa's Mandate, the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

On 27 October 1966, the General Assembly, through Resolution 2145, declared that South Africa had failed "to fulfil its obligations in respect of the administration of the Mandated Territory and to ensure the moral and material well-being and security of the indigenous inhabitants of South West Africa." In the same resolution, the General Assembly terminated South Africa's mandate and brought South West Africa under the direct responsibility of the United Nations. South Africa refused to cease its administration over South West Africa and continued to act as South West Africa's governmental presence. After several more years of tensions and disputes, in a move to undermine South African influence, on 12 June, 1968, the UN General Assembly attempted to force a change, proclaiming that, "in accordance with the desires of its people, South West Africa shall henceforth be known as Namibia." The situation remained unchanged into the beginning of the 1970s. Responding to a request by the UN Secretary-General on behalf of the Security Council, on 21 June 1971, the International Court of Justice confirmed that the United Nations had authority over Namibia. In direct violation of General Assembly Resolution 2145, South Africa continued its administration of Namibia, citing the League of Nations mandate which made South Africa the original administrator as justification.

Throughout 1972, Secretary-General Kurt Waldheim, at the request of the Security Council, was in direct contact with the South African government, seeking clarification from South Africa on its policy regarding self-determination and independence for Namibia. The dispute continued to revolve around South Africa's insistence on pressing for a "homelands" policy for Namibian natives, that is, assigning black Africans to separate development areas based on their ethnic identity, thus limiting independence and continuing South African governance. South Africa also created and favored the use of an "advisory council" of regional leaders to assist South Africa in the governance of Namibia. Both of these proposals were unacceptable to the United Nations, as the Security Council expressed concerns that these proposals would lead to the fragmentation of Namibia.

In his report, dated 30 April 1972, Secretary-General Waldheim concluded that "the position of the Government of South Africa is still far from coinciding with that established in the resolutions of the United Nations concerning Namibia." Further, "[t]he question arises whether, in the light of the results achieved so far, the contacts and efforts initiated pursuant to resolutions 309 (1972), 319 (1972) and 323 (1972) should be continued. Should the Security Council decide to continue these efforts, it should bear in mind my earlier statement to the effect that time and protracted discussion would be required if any progress is to be achieved."

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THE SITUATION IN VIET NAM

In the mid-1960s, the Republic of Viet Nam (South Viet Nam) and the United States began a more aggressive campaign to push the North Vietnamese out of South Viet Nam and to destroy North Vietnamese operations near Saigon and along the Ho Chi Minh Trail. The North Vietnamese and the Viet Cong, an armed organization operating out of South Viet Nam and Cambodia, fought back violently. On 31 January 1968, the North Vietnamese and the Viet Cong launched a series of surprise assaults on cities, towns and military installations in South Vietnam, known as the Tet Offensive.

In 1968, peace talks began in Paris between the United States and North Viet Nam; North Viet Nam refused to recognize the government of South Viet Nam, but the talks did result in an agreement to partially halt bombing. The Paris talks continued into 1969. By early 1969, the United States began secret bombing attacks on Cambodia to target North Vietnamese supply caches. After a coup deposed Cambodian head of state Prince Sihanouk in 1970, the United States launched heavy air strikes into Cambodia and Laos against North Vietnamese supply camps in January 1971.

On 10 March 1971, the Republic of China pledged its complete support to the North Vietnamese in its conflict with the United States. The Situation in Viet Nam was a well visited topic in the General Assembly in 1972. The Council, however, chose not to formally discuss the issue at the instance of the United States, which claimed that the Viet Nam War was strictly in the United States' sphere of influence.

In March 1972, North Viet Nam attacked South Viet Nam across the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ), a line established by the 1954 Geneva Accords; this resulted in retaliatory bombing of the DMZ and North Viet Nam by the United States in April. Between March and September 1972, over 200,000 North Vietnamese soldiers waged an all-out campaign to conquer South Viet Nam known as the Easter Offensive. This offensive left several cities in North Vietnamese hands, yet was ultimately defeated by United States and South Viet Nameese efforts.

The conflict peaked in December with heavy carpet bombing by the United States. Along with significant reports of bombing of civilian structures, including some foreign embassies and hospitals, considerable portions of heavily-populated civilian areas in Hanoi were devastated by the bombings. In December 1972, a ceasefire was upheld for two days over Christmas, but this was followed by the resumption of heavy bombing by the United States.

The Paris Peace talks continued throughout 1972, with US National Security Advisor Henry Kissinger engaging North Vietnamese leaders. These private talks continued with limited political success, although it was rumored that some significant technical and military issues were closer to resolution as a result. On 27 January 1973, the Paris Agreement was signed by the four parties: North Viet Nam, the Viet Cong, South Viet Nam and the United States. The peace settlement enabled the United States to withdraw from the fighting inside Viet Nam.

In early February, the United States continued its bombing of North Vietnamese military bases and supply routes in Cambodia. Meanwhile, Henry Kissinger met privately with Prime Minister Pham Van Dong of North Viet Nam to discuss the establishment of diplomatic relations. In March, the International Commission of Control of

Supervision—called for in the Paris Peace Accords and established to supervise the ceasefire and report on implementation, or violation, of the Peace Agreements and Protocols—reported that the ceasefire has not been effective, with numerous violations by South Viet Nam, North Viet Nam and the Viet Cong. By the end of the month, the last American combat troops left Viet Nam. In early April, South Vietnamese President Thieu concluded a visit to the United States during which he was promised continued aid and assistance dependent upon United States approval.

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THE HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1990

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FINLAND

FRANCE

MALAYSIA

ROMANIA

UNITED KINGDOM

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

YEMEN

ZAIRE

HISTORICAL SECURITY COUNCIL OF 1990

The Cold War began after World War II and was a state of political and military tension between the Western and Eastern blocs, particularly the United States of America and Union of Soviet Social Republics. Direct Cold War tensions began decreasing during the 1960s and 1970s when several important cooperative developments occurred, including the Helsinki Accords, the Biological Weapons Convention and the Anti-Ballistic Treaty. However, as direct tensions subsided, indirect tension through third-party conflicts increased, resulting in interference with issues in Africa and Southeast Asia. Despite the progress, human rights issues, particularly human rights violations, have remained a point of contention with the Soviet Union and the United States. Nevertheless, notable strides between the two blocs were made in the development of the International Space Station and with an increase in trade. As the Soviet bloc began to unravel in 1989, and with tension in the US-USSR relations having cooled, many States around the world feared losing aid from their Cold War allies.

The cooling of the Cold War was not limited to relations between the United States and the Soviet Union. In May 1989, Hungary removed its border fence with Austria, opening the Iron Curtain. As of September 1989, over 13,000 East Germans have used this path to flee to western-leaning Austria. The Socialist Unity Party of Germany (SED) attempted to stem the exodus by prohibiting travel to Hungary. Those remaining inside the Federal Republic of Germany have been engaging in peaceful protests and public demonstrations that challenge the SED and encourage reunification with the German Democratic Republic (GDR). As of October 1989, the East German exodus has continued through Czechoslovakia to the Federal Republic of Germany. On 9 November 1989, SED announced that, beginning immediately, it would allow travel through the Berlin Wall. At that same time, individuals have begun to physically and politically chip away at the Wall.

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?

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THE SITUATION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

THE ARAB-ISRAELI CONFLICT

The longstanding conflict between Palestinians and Israelis turned violent again on 9 December 1989 after an Israeli Defense Force (IDF) truck crashed into a civilian vehicle near the Jabalia refugee camp, killing four Palestinians. In the following days, Palestinians engaged in an extensive civil disobedience campaign that included protests, economic boycotts of Israeli-owned businesses, boycotts of the Israeli Civil Administration organization, and demonstrations that included throwing stones and Molotov cocktails at Israeli infrastructure and IDF troops in the West Bank and Gaza Strip. Israeli leadership responded with 80,000 IDF troops who were instructed to fire upon threats, causing significant civilian casualties. The Israeli response prompted more Palestinian resistance, including attacks on Israeli citizens.

Despite international pressure to engage in talks with Palestinian leadership, particularly the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO), Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Shamir has maintained that the PLO is the main obstacle to peace, and continues the Iron Fist policy against Palestinian nationalism and disobedience. The United Nations has continued with its effort to find a peaceful solution to the Palestinian question and the ongoing humanitarian situation; in Resolution 641 the Security Council denounced both Israel's defiance of previous Security Council resolutions and recent deportations of Palestinian civilians.

Beyond the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) was created by the Security Council in 1974 to maintain the ceasefire between Syria and Israel after the end of the 1973 Arab-Israeli war. The Security Council has continuously renewed the UNDOF mandate since its inception, which has ensured the mission's continued success. Despite the current relative calm between Syria and Israel, high tensions across the Middle East jeopardize regional stability and will likely continue to do so until a more comprehensive solution to the Middle East conflicts can be reached.



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THE CONFLICT BETWEEN SYRIA AND LEBANON

The Lebanese civil war began in the late 1970s and pitted factions with different political and religious beliefs against one another. The Cold War had a powerful disuniting effect on Lebanon that was further exacerbated by the tension between Israel and Palestinians, polarizing the multi-sectarian parties, including Sunni Muslims, Shia Muslims and Christians, between pro-Soviet allies, pro-Western allies and pan-Arab groups. Factions in Lebanon received significant support from outside allies, including Israel, Iraq, the United States and Syria. While external military forces are officially unwelcome in Lebanon, Syrian troops have been present in Lebanon since 1976, when they entered to restore and maintain peace, and Israeli troops are present in the security zone in southern Lebanon. Since 1985 the sectarian conflicts have worsened as national reconciliation efforts have failed. Similarly, anti-Israel sentiments in Lebanon grew during the First Intifada as Israel imprisoned hundreds of thousands of Palestinians and Lebanese.

In September 1988, Lebanese President Amin Gemayel's term ended without a successor; Gemayel appointed Army General Michel Aoun as the interim prime minister, creating a military government based in the Baabda presidential palace in East Beirut. Syrian-backed Shi'a, Sunni and Druze forces support Selim el Hoss, former Prime Minister of Lebanon, who set up a competing civilian government based in West Beirut. Prime Minister General Michel Aoun declared war against Syrian army forces on 13 March 1989, and his Lebanese Forces began a war of liberation. Syria declared the military government illegitimate and, on 14 March 1989, launched an attack on the Baabda presidential palace, continuing to support militias opposing General Aoun. Months of fighting came to a tenuous end with a ceasefire, the Taif Agreement, negotiated by the Arab League in September 1989.

The success of the Taif Agreement is now threatened after President-elect Rene Muawad, who was committed to bringing peace and unity to Lebanon, was assassinated on 22 November 1989, only weeks after his election; no one has claimed responsibility for the attack. Despite Parliament electing Elias Harwas, a Maronite Christian, as president to replace Muawad, the conflict among religious groups, political parties and General Aoun casts doubt on a long-term peaceful resolution to Lebanon's conflict.

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IRAN-IRAQ

After nearly eight years of war between Iran and Iraq that killed more than a million soldiers and civilians on each side, the war ended in August 1988 when Iran accepted Security Council Resolution 598 and began implementing the terms of the ceasefire. At the end of the war, Iraq emerged as an intact state with Saddam Hussein holding his presidency. The United Nations Iran-Iraq Military Observer Group (UNIIMOG) was established to and tasked with verifying, confirming and supervising the cessation of hostilities and the withdrawal of all troops to the internationally-recognized boundaries. On 29 September 1989, the Security Council passed Resolution 642, extending UNIIMOG's mandate until 31 March 1990.

Despite surviving the war, Iraq was encumbered with massive national debt, having financed its war effort largely through loans. President Hussein asked the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait to cancel Iraq's war debts claiming that their loans allowed Iraq to protect the Arabian Peninsula. Iraq's economic situation worsened as Kuwait and UAE increased their oil production, driving down the global price of oil. With his requests for debt relief ignored by Kuwait and UAE, depleted financial reserves and a serious economic decline, President Hussein reasserted Iraq's claim of ownership of the oil-rich Warbah and Bubiyan regions in Kuwait.

Despite the implementation of the ceasefire and troop withdrawals, tension and instability continued to increase when Ayatollah Khomeini, the Supreme Leader of Iran, died on 3 June 1989 and was succeeded by Hashemi Rafsanjani as Iran's President. Both Iran and Iraq accused the other of numerous serious ceasefire violations, including Iraq's announcement in December 1989 of the successful tests of new missile technology.

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angry exchanges and sharp accusations, highlighting that significant differences and tensions remain. The United States' refusal to suspend its military aid to Angolan rebels, as well as the Angolan government's failure to peacefully resolve its disagreement with rebels, are two key areas of continued disagreement. Finally, the governments of Angola and Namibia reserved their right to modify their obligations if blatant breaches of the agreements occur.

THE SITUATION IN AFRICA

NAMIBIA

Since World War I, South West Africa has existed as a Mandate territory under the guidance of South Africa. As manager of the Mandate, South Africa had certain obligations toward South West Africa, mainly to see that it developed its own governance and to transition it to independence. South Africa did little to meet these obligations by 1966, and, in response the UN General Assembly passed Resolution 2145, ending South Africa's mandate over South West Africa, and placing South West Africa under its direct control. In 1968, the United Nations Council for South West Africa was renamed the United Nations Council for Namibia and, at that same time, announced that the territory would be known as Namibia. South Africa refused to acknowledge the transfer of Namibia's control to the United Nations Council for Namibia, and continued to administer Namibia. In 1971 the International Criminal Court issued an Advisory Opinion confirming that South Africa's presence in Namibia was illegal. In the years since South Africa has maintained its control over South West Africa, despite intense international political pressure to withdraw.

The United Nations Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG) was established in 1974 to assist the Special Representative of the Secretary-General to the South African withdrawal, facilitate free and fair elections and establish early independence for Namibia. Additionally, UNTAG is tasked with ensuring that all hostile acts are ended, each player's troops remain on military bases, discriminatory laws are repealed, Namibian refugees are allowed to return and all South African troops eventually withdraw from Namibia. The Security Council reiterated its call for Namibian independence, South Africa's compliance with previous United Nations resolutions, and the disbanding of ethnic and paramilitary groups in Resolution 643 (1989).

ANGOLA

During the last part of the Angolan civil war, the Angolan government began transitioning from communist to democratic policies. Having been involved in Angola militarily since 1975, Cuba has maintained troops inside Angola to support The People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA), and intervened in 1988 when tension increased between MPLA, the National Liberation Front of Angola (FNLA), the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA), and the People's Armed Forces for the Liberation of Angola (FAPLA). On 22 December 1988, South Africa, the MPLA government of Angola and Cuba signed the Angola Namibia Accords, known as the Tripartite Accords, which provide for Namibia's independence and Cuba's withdrawal of 50,000 troops from Angola. The Angola Namibia Accords were the result of long and arduous negotiations involving the United States and the Soviet Union to help bring an end to decades of conflict in southwest Africa. The Accords also mark the efforts of the United Nations to persuade South Africa to grant independence to South West Africa. Under the terms of the Accords, Cuba will withdraw its troops by 1 July 1991. Despite the promises to bring stability and independence to Namibia, the Angola Namibia Accords were marked by

APARTHEID AND FRONT-LINE POLICY

After the National Party gained power and control of South Africa in 1948, the all-white government passed racially discriminatory and segregation laws known as apartheid. By the late 1980s, international pressure to end the apartheid policies, including years of international sanctions, saw the internal political climate in South Africa begin to change. This included the resignation of the chairman of the National Party. With these changes come risks: the potential destabilization of the National Party could lead to an internal political breakdown, with political parties outside the current power structure moving into place. The resulting political instability could negatively affect the region as a whole. As it stands, South Africa's involvement in neighboring countries, its apartheid practices and Front-Line Policy each play a contributing role to the overall stability of southern Africa.

ETHIOPIA AND ERITREA

The Ethiopian-Eritrean civil war is the longest-running civil war on the African continent. Eritrean rebel groups are fighting government troops in their bid for independence from Ethiopia and the establishment of a new country. The conflict's roots lie in Italy's colonization of Eritrea in the late 1800s and its failed attempt to colonize Ethiopia. Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie I annexed Eritrea in 1962, imposing restrictions against Eritrean language and heritage. The Dergue, a Marxist military organization led by Mengistu Haile Mariam, placed Emperor Haile Selassie I under house arrest until his suspicious death on 27 August 1975, and took control of Ethiopia's government, after which civil war fully erupted. Until recently, the Ethiopian government has described the twenty-seven year civil war as an isolated case of rogue bandits; now the government is focusing its efforts on the conflict. Beyond the ongoing political fighting, a severe drought continues to plague Ethiopia's northern region, causing extreme food shortages.

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THE SITUATION IN CENTRAL AND LATIN AMERICA

During the 1980s, Latin and Central American countries experienced political and economic crises. El Salvador had been embroiled in civil war for more than a decade. Honduras, Nicaragua, Guatemala and other Latin American states suffered from internal economic, social and political unrest that had a significant impact on the region's overall stability. The Esquipulas I and II Agreements (sometimes called the Guatemala City agreements) aimed to bring lasting peace to Central America. The agreements were signed in 1986 and 1987 by the governments of Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua, formalizing their consent to facilitate peace through dialogue and national reconciliation and called for an end to hostilities; they also requested United Nations' assistance to facilitate the agreements' terms. As a result, the United Nations Observer Mission in Central America (UNOCA) was established in November 1989 with a mandate to conduct verification of each State's compliance, include: ending aid to irregular forces and insurrection movements, the prevention of the use of one State's territory for attacks on another State, and the prevention of radio or television broadcasts by insurrectionists. The UNOCA mission began December 1989 and is currently under its initial mandate period of six months.

Nicaragua also agreed to move up its democratic elections by ten months, a move that received United Nations and international support. To facilitate the elections, Nicaragua requested United Nations observers for the election. In addition to UNOCA, the United Nations Observation Mission for the Verification of Elections in Nicaragua sent a team of 70 to observe elections scheduled for 25 February.

El Salvador has also benefited from peace talks and the Guatemala City agreements. The Agreements have brought progress toward political reunification between the Salvadoran government and Farabundo Marti National Liberation Front (FMLN), a coalition of five guerrilla groups, after decades of fighting and civil war. The Guatemala City agreements aim to promote greater stability in Central America by building upon relationships, promoting democracy, and ending economic and political interference. The UNOCA mandate also includes El Salvador in its purpose to end aid to insurrectionist movements. Despite this, the

FMLN attacked a hotel in San Salvador on 11 November 1989, taking more than 100 hostages. In response, the Salvadoran government began an intense military response, including ground troops and aerial bombing.

Despite ongoing conflicts, 1989 held much promise for stability in Central America. The United States and Soviet Union each called upon the other to end economic and military aid to outside militaries and paramilitary forces in the region.

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THE SITUATION IN KAMPUCHEA

The ongoing war in Vietnam during the 1940s-1970s challenged Cambodia's stability as the war spilled into neighboring countries. In 1975, the Khmer Rouge established Democratic Kampuchea in place of Cambodia after defeating Lon Nol's Cambodian government in 1975, with the help of an alliance with Prince Norodom Sihanouk, the Cambodian prime minister who had been deposed in 1970. From 1975 to 1979, the country suffered greatly under Pol Pot's Khmer Rouge regime, which subjected its citizens to political re-education and forced labor that resulted in more than one million deaths. Border clashes between Cambodia, Viet Nam and Khmer Rouge supporters culminated with a Vietnamese invasion of Cambodia in 1978, installing the People's Republic of Kampuchea (PRK) in January 1979. In April 1989, Viet Nam announced that it would unconditionally withdraw all remaining



troops from Cambodia. Viet Nam maintained approximately 182,000 troops in Kampuchea until September 1989.

Currently the main political parties vying for control and power are the People's Republic of Kampuchea (PRK), controlled by the Khmer Rouge and the current representatives in the Kampuchean United Nations seat; the National Front for an Independent, Neutral, Peaceful and Cooperative Cambodia (FUNCINPEC) led by Prince Sihanouk; and the Khmer People's National Liberation Front (KPNLF) led by former Prime Minister Son Sann. The FUNCINPEC, KPNLF and PRK formed the Coalition Government of Democratic Kampuchea (CGDK) in the 1980s. The PRK is supported by the Soviet Union and Viet Nam while the CGDK receives support from the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), China and the United States, which has further complicated the situation in Kampuchea.

At France's invitation, representatives from 18 countries, the four Cambodian parties and the United Nations Secretary-General met from July to August 1989 to negotiate a comprehensive settlement and discuss the formation of a United Nations Transitional Authority on Cambodia (UNTAC), whose purpose would be to aid the people of Cambodia into a transition to a democratic government.

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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 General Assembly. 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 General Assembly 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/

GLOBAL HEALTH AND FOREIGN POLICY

For centuries interstate health crises have been a major concern of States. Beginning in the nineteenth century, measures like quarantines sought to prevent the spread of disease across borders. By the start of the twenty-first century, globalization began to highlight the variety of ways that State health policies interact with foreign relations and economics. Epidemics like HIV/AIDS and new influenza strains have driven unprecedented levels of international cooperation on research and provision of aid. More and more United Nations bodies and regional organizations are coordinating on health-related issues, and private philanthropies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are playing increasingly major roles as donors and activists in developing countries.

There remain a wide diversity of health concerns, including major disease outbreaks, non-communicable diseases (NCDs) and poor health systems in many countries. Additionally, problems with poverty, famine and health worker safety stem directly from war, forced migration, climate change and natural disasters. However, while the improvement of global health is a goal shared by the vast majority of Member States, each actor brings its own set of health issues, its own medical systems and its own perspective on health practices as attempts are made to implement an international approach to health. The global community is constantly challenged to address root problems without simply reacting to successive crises, and bringing together often conflicting foreign policy objectives is a key goal for the coming decades.

The United Nations has been concerned with coordinating international health policy since the founding of the World Health Organization (WHO) in 1948. Its main focus was on disease eradication for the first several decades of its existence. The late 1970s saw smallpox become the first disease to be completely eliminated by human effort alone. In



1978, WHO began a pivot toward “Health for All” at the Alma-Ata International Conference on Primary Healthcare, pushing for all governments to focus on high quality universal primary care. It continued putting forth new initiatives to battle polio, HIV/AIDS, NCDs like cancer and heart disease, and even campaigns promoting healthy living and tobacco-free societies.

In the early 2000’s, the United Nations put greater emphasis on the need for coordinated health policy. Three of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adopted by the General Assembly in 2000 were health-related. In 2005, WHO passed the International Health Regulations (IHR), creating binding international law that requires all States to report on health emergencies and establish specific health procedures.

The 2007 Oslo Ministerial Declaration launched a new initiative on Global Health and Foreign Policy. This collaboration between seven foreign ministers was the first explicit effort to elevate global health to a new strategic place on the international agenda. The document advocated a number of recommendations to improve foreign policy support for global health, leading to the first General Assembly resolution on the issue in 2008. The United Nations has subsequently kept the topic on its agenda every year, focusing on a new area with each resolution. Resolution 70/183 includes provisions on transitioning toward universal healthcare coverage, healthcare worker protection, research on deadly tropical diseases like Ebola and increased surveillance of disease outbreaks, with information to be shared among States in times of crisis.

One of the biggest challenges facing the international community is how to prioritize the varied global health issues. Foreign policy incentives are the main drivers of priority, not health impact, thus creating major disparities in funding for health issues. Nearly 36 billion dollars were donated to health causes in 2014, and AIDS alone benefited from over 30 percent of the total. But the leading causes of worldwide death, NCDs like heart disease, only received about 1.7 percent of the aid. They are not mutually dangerous in the way that pandemics are, so State cooperation and funding has remained low. The new Sustainable Development Goals notably include NCDs as a part of the post-2015 development agenda.

Additionally, crises drive the global health agenda, and this creates uneven support for health issues. The recent Ebola outbreak is a prime example. Millions of dollars and large amounts of manpower went to Ebola relief and research on vaccines. This kind of reactive response illustrates how attention and funding for health lessen when there are no major crises. A myriad of underlying problems need attention in order to improve crisis management in the future. Strengthening health infrastructure in developing States and improving disease reporting would go a long way toward preventing future pandemics and allow improved control of diseases that do break out.

Health problems also often stem from other major world issues like war, natural disasters and climate change. In May 2016, the Security Council adopted a resolution for improving protection of health workers in war zones, responding in part to the bombing of 250 hospitals by government and rebel forces in Syria.

Limited capabilities and coordination remain challenges. Although multilateral approaches between States are growing, there remains little coordination with major NGOs. In June 2016, the General Assembly

hosted a high-level meeting to discuss progress made on the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS. Acknowledging the important contributions of non-state actors, the process began with an informal civil society hearing in early April for the purpose of facilitating cooperation between Member States, NGOs and the private sector. Although such meetings are useful, there are still few formal avenues for bringing States and NGOs together.

As the General Assembly reconvenes, many challenges must be addressed. Developing States continue to have major gaps in health care system capacity. The Ebola outbreak highlighted the lack of trained health professionals in West African States. Plus, weaknesses in worker protection led to deaths among workers who were not fully trained and equipped. Recent work toward an African Center for Disease Control is an important step for multilateral collaboration, but the initiative is still largely supported by donors. While some States and United Nations organs do help fund collaboration and information sharing, more work can be done in this area by both parties.

There are also new disease flare-ups, providing further opportunities for State cooperation. In February, the WHO Director-General declared the Zika virus outbreak in Latin America an international public health emergency. States have adopted widespread mosquito control and travel warnings, but it is difficult to diagnose and there is still no vaccine. Concern over safety at the Olympics in Rio de Janeiro is increasing. Despite the ever widening array of issues, global health concerns are seeing more attention than ever before. The United Nations has just entered the 2030 development agenda, adopting major new goals to build on the MDGs. As it does so, Member States must seize the opportunity to further synchronize global health policy and cooperate in all areas of mutual interest.

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

- Given that global health issues involve the coordination of many Member States and non-governmental actors, what kinds of problems should be prioritized? Are the current forums for organizing policy objectives sufficient?
- What role should NGOs play in the implementation of global health objectives? How can the United Nations and Member States better coordinate their own policies with non-state actors?
- How can the international community better work to support States experiencing global health emergencies?

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THE SITUATION IN AFGHANISTAN

Since the late 1970s, Afghanistan has existed in an almost-perpetual state of conflict. A series of devastating civil wars have made the country one of the poorest in the world. In 1978, the People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan staged a coup against Afghan President Muhammed Daoud Kahn, leading to Soviet intervention to prop up the new socialist government. In 1980, the United Nations General Assembly held an emergency special session on Afghanistan, condemning the violence and calling for increased humanitarian aid from Member States. By 1989, the last Soviet troops had left Afghanistan; intermittent fighting continued, culminating in rise of the Taliban and their capture of Kabul in 1996. In addition to declaring hardline Islamic rule, the Afghan government was hosting militant bases loyal to Osama bin Laden, who was accused of terror attacks on United States embassies. This led the Security Council to impose economic sanctions.

In 2001, the United States of America invaded Afghanistan in response to the 11 September terrorist attacks in New York City. The invasion toppled the Taliban-led government of Afghanistan. Following the invasion, the United Nations organized a meeting with Afghan political leaders in Bonn, Germany, to plan the establishment of an effective Afghan government. The resulting agreement, known as the Bonn Agreement, established the Afghan Interim Authority and paved the way for the Security Council to pass Resolution 1386, which authorized the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF). ISAF helped the fledgling Afghan government begin a prolonged war against the Taliban. The Security Council also established the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) in 2002 to support the work of the Bonn Conference.

While ISAF terminated operations in 2014, UNAMA continues to work to create Afghan democracy and bring Afghanistan fully into the world community. It has overseen Afghanistan's democratic elections and worked to promote and protect human rights, especially women's rights. UNAMA continues to work toward integrating Afghanistan with its neighbors, particularly through the 2011 Heart of Asia – Istanbul Process. The regional initiative is ongoing, pushing for increased cooperation on mutual goals and building interstate ties amongst 14 States in the Middle East and Central Asia.

In 2014, Afghanistan exited Inteqal, the three-year process of transitioning combat roles from ISAF to Afghan troops. The Security Council quickly welcomed NATO's post-2014 non-combat Resolute Support Mission, focusing on training. However, the Taliban are making a strong return, taking back areas held by ISAF and Afghan forces for over a decade. In the fall of 2015, the Taliban overran the city of Kunduz in northern Afghanistan, capturing it from Afghan security forces. Although those security forces reclaimed the city days later, this event shows that the Taliban are still a major threat, and the ISAF-trained Afghan National Army appears far from ready to fight alone. Civilian casualties continue to climb, with over 11,000 killed or wounded.

Looking ahead, a new combat role in Afghanistan is one solution for bolstering the government. Aside from reviving ISAF, an international recommitment to fighting could take the form of a broader anti-ISIS movement, as the Taliban have considered joining the group. At the same time, rapprochement between the warring parties could be preferable. During 2015, representatives of the Taliban and Afghan government officials began conducting informal peace talks in Qatar, even while Taliban forces continued operations against NATO and Afghan troops. The Security Council renewed the mandate of the UNAMA again in March 2016, and pledged to continue engagement with the Taliban.

Constant conflict has enabled a variety of human rights violations. The Taliban continue to target civilians, especially government workers and aid workers. UNAMA also reported last year that one-third of detainees have been tortured by government security forces. Despite the efforts of rights groups and the government's own statements on human rights, abuses continue. International fatigue with Afghanistan among major donors has led to decreased aid. The most recent aid conference last September saw little enthusiasm from donors to tie Afghanistan's aid to human rights benchmarks. With the economy and security issues taking priority, further work on rights will require providing new incentives for the government to follow through with reforms.



Despite the military and humanitarian work completed during the last fifteen years, results have been mixed. The issues remain complicated and challenging, ranging from local politics to relations with neighboring countries. The Afghan economy has been unable to recover from the decades of war and regime changes. This is compounded by allegations of corruption and inefficiencies in the central government, which has little to show for the large amount of foreign aid it has received. A recently resurgent Taliban also creates problems on multiple fronts, by taking back government territory, promoting the opium trade and further hampering economic growth through murder and destruction of property. ISAF troop withdrawal, combined with poor Afghan army training and funding, contributes to the situation. Amidst the violence, human rights continue to worsen. Taliban election attacks, government-sponsored torture and women's rights violations represent just a few of the problems facing the country. As the Afghan government continues to take on more and more responsibilities in the coming decade, the United Nations will continue to provide a vital support structure.

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

- How can Member States support security and economic development in Afghanistan? How can economic aid be allocated more effectively?
- Are there ways for Member States to enable greater cooperation or trade integration in the region? What effect could that have on the situation in Afghanistan?
- How might Member States balance support for security with the protection of human rights in the region?

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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 25.

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

NATIONAL LEGISLATION ON TRANSFER OF ARMS, MILITARY EQUIPMENT AND DUAL-USE GOODS AND TECHNOLOGY

The Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI) recently estimated that the world currently spends more on arms than it did during the Cold War. According to SIPRI, the international transfer of arms increased by 14 percent from 2004-2008 to 2009-2013. Although it is difficult to determine an exact cause for these trends, past events have demonstrated that financial resources, perceived threats to national security, need for military upgrades, demonstrations of national status, the development of domestic arms industries and a desire to strengthen ties with suppliers all influence the acquisition of arms. Determining the scope of the international arms trade can also be difficult, in part because there are no globally agreed-upon definitions of arms or what activities constitute the arms trade. Furthermore, arms transfers lack transparency and the blurry lines between nuclear and non-nuclear transfers complicate the matter, especially when compared to small arms and light weapons, which move across borders more easily and fluidly.

The transfer of arms, military equipment, and dual-use goods and technology can threaten the security of the international community when left unchecked. While the United Nations has always recognized the global arms trade as legitimate and in line with a State's sovereign right to self-defense, the spread of lethal arms to unstable environments and into the hands of violent non-state actors has increased calls for greater regulation of the global arms trade. However, lenient controls and an absence of regulations concerning the arms trade have led to increased violence. Conflicts in many developing countries have been linked to uncontrolled arms transfers. The widespread availability of arms also has implications for the United Nations, with armed attacks disrupting humanitarian and development operations. While States have long been loath to relinquish control of regulating the transfer of arms, the United Nations recognizes how important regulation of their transfer is.

The United Nations first acknowledged the need for disarmament in 1952 and has subsequently addressed the issue in both the General Assembly and through actions by the Secretariat. In 1982, the Second Special Session on Disarmament established the United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, primarily focused on nuclear weapons. In 1992, it was renamed the Centre for Disarmament Affairs; in 1997 the Department for Disarmament; and in 2007 the UN Office

of Disarmament Affairs (UNODA). Over that period the focus of the group has also changed. UNODA is tasked with promoting non-proliferation and strengthening disarmament efforts for chemical and biological weapons, as well as conventional weapons and small arms.

To address the dangers of the illicit arms trade and potential lapses in national governments' oversight of the industry, the United Nations Conference on the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All its Aspects, held in July 2001, brought together many States involved in the arms trade industry, including importers and consumers, producers and exporters. This conference produced a Programme of Action (PoA) that acknowledged the dangers of the illicit trade in small arms and light weapons, the links that illicit trade has to violence and dangerous non-state actors, and the responsibility States have in curtailing this dangerous black market. The PoA held Member States responsible to issue end-user certificates for weapons exports, to mark guns so they may be identified by the point of manufacture, and to increase enforcement of weapons embargoes and sanctions, among other provisions to curb the illicit arms trade.

In 2013, the General Assembly endorsed the Arms Trade Treaty (ATT), marking a major step toward addressing the spread of arms and lethal technology to conflict zones and non-state actors. The ATT is the result of years of work and opened for signature on 3 June 2013. It entered into force on 24 December 2014, and currently has 130 signatories and 82 States Parties. The ATT obliges signatories to commit to greater cooperation to restrict the illicit arms trade. In addition, it requires States to establish protocols for arms transfers in small arms and light weapons, missiles, missile launchers, tanks, armored combat vehicles, combat aircraft, attack helicopters, and artillery. The ATT also requires States to consider the risk weapons will be used to further organized crime, support acts of terrorism or commit human rights violations and to block deals with substantial risks.

Furthermore, the ATT requires all States Parties to accept basic controls and approval processes for the transfer of weapons across international borders and to provide annual information on exports and imports of conventional arms to the ATT secretariat. The ATT is comprehensive and specific on the international regulation of arms transfer, but there remain many issues regarding arms transfers. Unlike previous resolutions and reports, the ATT attempts to provide common definitions and guidelines intended to aid States in the control of the global arms trade. For example, the ATT outlines different categories of conventional weapons. It also differentiates between the roles of importing and exporting States when it comes to arms transfers.

There are also limitations to the ATT. For example, the ATT does not place restrictions on the types or quantities of arms that may be bought, sold or owned by States. It also does not affect domestic gun control laws. Furthermore, issues of interpretation, implementation and enforcement could affect the Treaty's effectiveness. Although the main sanction for violation is embarrassment, and previous weapons treaties show that this is indeed a powerful deterrent, this is not always an effective or legally-binding response. Additionally, the three largest arms exporters in the world have not yet ratified the treaty; indeed, France is



the first ratifier in the rank order but is only the fourth largest arms exporter.

In the future, the United Nations hopes to continue strengthening international standards of regulating the transfer of arms, military equipment, and dual-use goods and technology. By emphasizing the negative impacts of uncontrolled arms trade, such as civilian populations trapped in situations of armed violence and the disruption of humanitarian efforts and operations, the United Nations also hopes to instill increasing concern over this topic area.

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

- How can Member States work together to improve regulation on transfer of arms, military equipment, and dual-use goods and technology? How might they improve implementation and enforcement of current measures?
- How is the Arms Trade Treaty being enforced? Are there ways the ATT has been or should be built on, or a direction the international community should go in?
- What incentives can be used to encourage States to sign and/or ratify the ATT? Would this help the ATT be more effective?

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PREVENTION OF AN ARMS RACE IN OUTER SPACE

The use of space is critical to global society. Modern militaries rely heavily on man-made satellites in orbit around the earth, which are used for communication, targeting and global positioning systems. Satellites are also critical to civilian operations such as telecommunications and scientific research. All countries rely upon space-based technology in some way, even if they are not space-faring themselves. Due to the global vantage point provided simply by being in space and the unique and global dangers space weapons pose, a debate has emerged over the past few decades on whether militaries should be permitted to station weapons in orbit. The fledgling commercial space industry, eager to develop near-earth orbit and mine the asteroid belt for resources, also has a vested interest in keeping space peaceful and developing clear international law governing military use of space.

The weaponization of space has long been a concern of the United Nations. In 1963, the General Assembly adopted a resolution calling on all Member States to refrain from placing nuclear weapons or other weapons of mass destruction in orbit or from installing such weapons on celestial bodies. The General Assembly also noted that the principles of the United Nations Charter, particularly those prohibiting the use or threat of use of force, apply in space as well.

In 1967, the Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies (commonly known as the "Outer Space Treaty") entered into force. This treaty is the main instrument of international law governing the use of outer space and tracks the language of the 1963 resolution by banning the stationing of nuclear weapons and other weapons of mass destruction in orbit or on any celestial body. It does not ban the stationing of conventional weapons in space or prohibit the use of conventional weapons launched from the surface of the Earth to destroy objects in space. The Outer Space Treaty currently has 104 States Parties, including all Member States with significant space-faring capability. Another 24 Member States have signed but not ratified the treaty.

Subsequent efforts to develop and enforce multilateral treaties regarding this topic have not met with success. In 1979, Member States proposed the adoption of the Agreement Governing the Activities of States on the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies (commonly known as the "Moon Treaty"). The treaty never gained significant traction, in part because it would have required Member States to share space-derived resources and the means for extracting such resources. It has been ratified by only 14 Member States, none of which have space-launch capability.

In 1985, the Conference on Disarmament, where this topic has also been debated at length, established the Ad Hoc Committee on the Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space. The Ad Hoc Committee disbanded in 1994 after failing to generate any formal agreements. Discussion on this topic in the First Committee has continued through the end of the Cold War to the present day. In recent resolutions related to this topic, the First Committee encouraged the adoption of verifiable measures to prevent an arms race in space, including the creation and implementation of better transparency and confidence-building measures among space-faring States.

The first way that an arms race in space could erupt is by deploying existing nuclear weapons such as inter-continental ballistic missiles



(ICBMs) in orbit. The nuclear deterrence that has prevented the use of nuclear weapons in combat since the detonations at Hiroshima and Nagasaki is based on each side's ability to destroy the other should any nuclear attack take place. Because space-based nuclear weapons would have a much faster response time than even ICBMs, one side's implementation of such weapons would threaten the balance of power and could potentially lead to an arms race of ever-faster and more responsive nuclear satellites.

However, space weapons could also be something as simple as a satellite that drops rods of concrete rebar. When dropped from 60+ miles up, virtually any object that can survive the heat stress of atmospheric reentry can become a deadly missile. The extent to which conventional weapons in space should be banned is therefore a key part of the global debate on this issue. The destruction of one satellite, whether it is from a space-based weapon or a surface-to-space missile, could create a chain reaction of explosions, filling low-earth orbit with debris and rendering it unusable for any satellites or human and robotic exploration missions. This situation, known as Kessler Syndrome, would have a catastrophic effect on global society. While some global positioning and other highly specialized satellites orbit high enough to be out of reach of such a disaster, the vast majority of currently operating satellites are in low-earth orbit, including most scientific and weather satellites, constellations of communications satellites such as the Iridium satellite telephone system, and the International Space Station. Losing all of these capabilities in short succession would have far-reaching effects such as cutting communications from remote regions of the Earth and a decreased ability to predict natural disasters. Low-earth orbit is also by far the cheapest orbit to launch a satellite in and has a number of advantages, such as a short orbital period to cover more of the Earth with one satellite. The economic cost to shift satellite development and launch to higher orbits would be enormous.

Recently, this debate has become more urgent due to signs that some States are gearing up to wage space-based warfare or to develop the capacity to destroy another State's assets in space. The United States military has earmarked \$2 billion for developing space weapons in 2016, citing concerns that its military has become so dependent on satellites that they are an "Achilles' heel" that must be better protected. In 2007, the People's Republic of China destroyed one of their own satellites with a surface-to-space missile, 530 miles above the Earth's surface. The United States has also destroyed one of its own satellites in similar fashion, and Russia has successfully tested its own anti-satellite missile.

Debate has taken place as to whether to extend the provisions of the Outer Space Treaty or develop other bilateral or multilateral treaties that go further toward banning weapons in space. The Space Preservation Treaty, which would ban all weapons in space, including conventional weapons, was proposed to the General Assembly in the mid-2000s; to date it has not been signed by any Member State. In 2008 and again in 2014, at the Conference for Disarmament, Member States proposed the adoption of a "draft treaty on the prevention of the placement of weapons in outer space and of the threat or use of force against outer space objects." This treaty has yet to come before the General Assembly.

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

- What constitutes a "weapon" in space? How can an instrument limiting the use of weapons in space carve out room for civilian, scientific and other benign operations to continue to operate?

- How can existing United Nations arms treaties be modified to better address the prevention of an arms race in outer space?
- Are new multilateral agreements necessary or advisable to incorporate into the framework of agreements banning or otherwise limiting space weaponization? How can the United Nations improve the implementation and integration of existing agreements that deal with space weapons?
- What lessons can be learned from the failure of the Moon Treaty to gain any significant traction?

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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 25.

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

INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

In the past fifty years, industrial development cooperation has expanded greatly because of globalization and the shift away from rural societies into urban living. In the same vein, a move toward industrial development has shifted countries closer to achieving “developed” status and spurred the creation of jobs and economic growth. This growth, strengthening the economy and the State’s viable credit amongst other States, is important for development. As many States classified as developing may not individually possess what they need to shift toward industrial development, cooperation becomes important. Aid in the form of information sharing, development and assistance is key to this, creating equity among States to continue the developmental process. As the latest wave of industrialization slows down, there is a need to find new and innovative means to bring the developing States into the ranks of developed States.

Development has come to be understood in three main facets: long-term sustained industrialization, social inclusiveness and the equal distribution of opportunities, and environmental sustainability. Sustained industrialization stems from the development of infrastructure within a State, such as roads and public transportation, water systems, as well as energy and information technologies. Many developing countries still lack basic infrastructure. According to the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) report, over 2.5 billion people still lack access to reliable, around-the-clock electricity and basic sanitation. Adopted on 26 September 2015, some of the SDGs do pertain directly to industrial cooperation and development: SDG 9 aims to “build resilient infrastructure, promote sustainable industrialization and foster innovation.” Additionally, by advancing the developing States, developed States can achieve a more environmentally sustainable use of technology to generate new markets for goods and services.

In 1966, the United Nations General Assembly passed Resolution 2152, creating the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) as an autonomous body. In 1975, it was converted into a specialized agency, operating as a forum for cooperation to share technology, information and other resources between States. Currently, UNIDO has 171 members. UNIDO

negotiations are often contributed to by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) to create shared prosperity.

The Lima Declaration: Towards inclusive and sustainable industrial development, was adopted at the fifteenth session of the General Conference of UNIDO, was held in Lima from 2 to 6 December 2013. The Lima Declaration encourages the integration of all three areas of sustainable development (economic, social and environmental) into UNIDO’s work. Additionally, the Declaration recognizes the basis for this industrial development as being foreign direct investment, transfer of knowledge and technology, appropriate financial mechanisms, and on mutually agreed terms. Emphasis is placed on UNIDO’s position as a unique global facilitator of advice regarding sustainable industrial development and these development services should be provided according to differentiated needs of Member States, especially to least developed countries but also considering countries at other stages of industrial development.

The concept of inclusive and sustainable industrial development was introduced in the General Assembly’s 2 August 2012 report on industrial development cooperation (67/223) as the primary mandate of UNIDO for the post-2015 development agenda. It determined that “challenges should be addressed through international industrial cooperation, including growth and jobs; resource efficiency, energy poverty and climate change; shifting demographics; knowledge creation and transfer; and growing inequalities.” In 2014, the General Assembly’s resolution on industrial development cooperation recognized the importance of recent and future moves towards inclusive and sustainable industrial development strategies. Both of these, among other reports and resolutions, have shaped debate on this topic by focusing on the inclusivity between States and the future of sustainable actions.

Because of the lingering effects of the global financial and economic crisis and the continued effects of frequent natural disasters, there has been a renewed focus on the importance of the relationship between economic growth, environmental safeguards and inclusive development. This has helped the international community grow toward recognition of industrialization as the core of sustainable development for eradicating poverty post-2015. There are benefits for individual developing countries to take responsibility and finance their own industrial development to achieve a positive long-term future impact within their country and region, and this responsibility should be encouraged.

Within industrial development, international and regional effort should be made towards inclusiveness, particularly between genders and cultural or ethnic groups. Working toward these goals, the international community, as well as the private sector, must collaborate to enable sustainable industrial development. There should be more importance placed on corporate sustainability, especially for publicly listed or large companies, to integrate sustainability information into their reports, and industry regulators and governments should facilitate and integrate this sustainability reporting. Member States should play their part by considering adoption of goals toward inclusive and sustainable industrialization, considering the post-2015 development agenda.



The unique role of UNIDO must be used to promote dialogue between stakeholders at the local, regional and international level to encourage progress towards these goals, especially in least developed countries, as well as other developing countries through environmentally-sound and sustainable agro-industry and agribusiness. UNIDO should continue working toward effectiveness in improving the quality of services provided to developing countries by using its four capacities: technological cooperation, research and analysis, normative assistance, and global forum activities. As UNIDO adopts more policies, moving forward these should be reviewed to ensure alignment with UN frameworks, as well as responsiveness to new developmental challenges. Additionally, as many States continue to view UNIDO as politicized and ineffective, its Members must work together to overcome these perceptions and change the culture of the organization to encourage larger and more effective participation.

Finally, industrial development cooperation is not without a larger controversy, particularly around who owns the means of production. Foreign direct investment is often a positive means of spurring industrial development, but frequently it removes ownership from the citizens of a Member State. With the onus of development taken off those individuals, and with industrialized countries generally wanting to be able to invest wherever they like, a lingering form of dependence can occur, creating a State that has some industrial development but it has taken the shape of what its funder has in mind. While some developing States do not mind this, just as many do; carefully navigating this line will be of utmost importance moving forward on this issue.

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

- How will industrial development cooperation change as it is shaped by the Sustainable Development Goals? Are there other Sustainable Development Goals that could be incorporated?
- Which other agencies or organs of the United Nations touch on this issue in a similar way? How can that work be used toward creating industrial development cooperation?
- What is the responsibility of developed countries to help those still developing implement this particular topic or Sustainable Development Goal?

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IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION ON BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Natural resources and ecosystems play an enormous role in humankind's development: from crop production to natural disasters, the delicate balance of the Earth's resources has come to the forefront in the last few decades. In November 1988, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) convened the Ad Hoc Working Group on biological diversity; UNEP established the Ad Hoc Working Group of Technical and Legal Experts in May 1989 to begin outlining an international legal means of protecting the Earth and its resources. Eventually known as the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee in February 1991, this group completed its work with the 22 May 1992 Nairobi Conference on the Adoption of the Agreed Text of the Convention on Biological Diversity.

Opened for signature in June 1992 at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (the Rio "Earth Summit"), the Earth Summit helped to bring together scientists from around the world to discuss climate change in unprecedented clarity. For one of the first times, people representing all different countries, backgrounds and specialties from around the world could discuss the impact of climate change on the environment and, in turn, the changing environment's impact on humanity. The Convention on Biological Diversity was signed by 168 United Nations Member States and entered into force in December 1993. It stresses the importance of protecting all natural resources, as they are not infinite. The Convention identifies and outlines three main objectives: conservation of biological diversity; sustainable use of the components of biological diversity; and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources. Additionally, the Convention provides a global legal framework for biodiversity and its protection. The Convention also creates a handful of bodies to continue work on this issue. The Conference of Parties (COP) meets every two years, or as needed, to review progress on the Convention's implementation and to provide guidance on biodiversity policy. The COP is complemented by the Subsidiary Body on Scientific, Technical and Technological Advice (SBSTTA), made up of experts in relevant fields, as well as government and non-government representatives providing recommendations on implementation.

The Convention requires that all States Parties submit National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans to the COP. These identify key areas for implementing the Convention at the State level and how to integrate these into existing programs and activities that have a positive or negative affect on the environment. The COP has also established offshoot programs to address biomes individually and specifically; this is unique, as previous work has been specifically on the preservation or conservation of a specific animal or habitat.



Since its adoption in 1992, the Convention has added supplementary agreements: the 2000 Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety to the Convention on Biological Diversity and the 2011 Nagoya Protocol on Access to Genetic Resources and the Fair and Equitable Sharing of Benefits Arising from their Utilization to the Convention on Biological Diversity. These seek to more clearly implement the Convention's goals. The Cartagena Protocol, outlining the safe handling, transport and use of living modified organisms, seeks to protect natural biological diversity; the Nagoya Protocol speaks to the sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources, contributing to biodiversity through sustainable use and conservation.

Integrating not only United Nations agencies and organizations, the Nagoya Protocol also calls upon non-governmental organizations, and even regional economic partnerships, to help monitor and maintain the environmental protection agreements. While mostly centered in Europe and the Arctic, these agreements help to protect for future generations vital wildlife and floral native ranges.

Additionally, the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 and the Aichi Targets have extended specific Convention goals until 2020. Principal themes include maintenance of existing forests and ecosystems, prevention of human intrusion, intrusion by human factors into non-human and protected areas, and cooperating with existing regional and local stakeholders into protecting conservation lands. It is the overall goal of the Aichi Plan to work on the local level with those most at-risk and with those best poised to help implement and protect this plan of action.

While recognition for the protection of the environment continues to grow, there have been significant hurdles in reaching the goals set out in the original Convention on Biological Diversity. As States face other pressing issues such as war or instability, concern and funding for environmental protections fall to the wayside. Additionally, non-state actors frequently have little regard for the environment or sustainable practices: they are also not held to the legal ramifications outlined in the Convention, as they are not signatories. A sharp increase in consumer culture in many developed States creates a problem of what to do with and how to dispose of waste; as landfills reach capacity and man-made plastics take centuries to decompose, the question of next steps remains unanswered.

In the Convention and its addenda alone, challenges arise with regard to bureaucracy; some argue that the Nagoya Protocol in particular adds so many layers of legislation and red tape that its overall effect will be to hamper global response to infectious disease, conservation and biodiversity at large. Moving forward, the international community will need to place greater importance on biological diversity and sustainability. As ecosystems shrink and global temperatures increase, spurring natural disasters and famine, facing the challenge of conservation and sustainability is more pressing than ever.

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

- How should States balance the need to protect vital habitats with humanity's need for growth into new environments and its ever-growing need for resources?
- How can the international community assist States Parties in meeting their national biodiversity targets, through cooperation, information sharing or other means?

- How might the international community address the environmental impacts of non-State actors who are not bound by the Convention and Protocols?

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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 overlap with other United Nations organs, the Third Committee focuses its discussions on social, humanitarian and cultural concerns that arise in the General Assembly. The Third Committee discusses 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 25.

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

THE SAFETY OF JOURNALISTS AND THE ISSUE OF IMPUNITY

Article 19 of the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* declared freedom of opinion and expression as fundamental human rights. A free press is key to achieving this goal. To secure these rights, the United Nations has worked to reduce persecution of and retribution against journalists. Over the past decade, 700 journalists have been killed as a result of their reporting—one journalist every five days. Since 1992, the Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) counts 1,187 reporters killed as a direct result of their work; in approximately 90 percent of those cases, no conviction was obtained. In addition to those killed in the line of work, 221 more journalists were imprisoned in 2014 and 2015. Even more frequently, journalists are subject to bodily injury, mistreatment and intimidation. Especially with the advent and widespread use of the internet and expanded definitions of journalism that stem from its use, more and more journalists are at risk of intimidation, harm and death for publishing their works. The United Nations struggles to bring Member States into agreement on standards for domestic law and protections for journalists and especially struggles to ensure adoption of these standards on a domestic level.

Domestic laws have long provided cover for many States to detain journalists without recourse. Many laws used to detain or otherwise harm or impede journalists have been passed in the past ten years. Journalists have been prosecuted or detained under provisions of domestic anti-terrorism laws, libel laws and military protocols in a number of countries, including both developing and developed States. Vaguely worded and overbroad laws pose some of the greatest threats to journalism and journalists' safety.

In 1997, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) General Conference adopted 29C/Resolution 29, which condemned violence against journalists. The resolution tied safety of journalists to the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* and to goals that would later be incorporated into the Millennium Development Goals. In the early 2000s, the United Nations laid out standards for the protection of journalists in conflict areas and war zones in the United Nations Charter for the Safety of Journalists Working in War Zones or Dangerous Areas and in Security Council Resolution 1738. While these protections are in place for conflict areas, the vast majority of journalists are detained, imprisoned or otherwise harmed domestically. Despite the framework and recommendations made by

the United Nations Plan of Action on the Safety of Journalists and the Issue of Impunity established in 2010, many States have failed to implement safety standards for journalists.

In 2013, the General Assembly designated 2 November as the International Day to End Impunity for Crimes against Journalists (IDEI), a continuation of a long history of similar days meant to raise awareness. These actions, and the ones that follow, still rely heavily on commitments from States and, by and large, their commitment to regional agreements and organizations like the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the League of Arab States, the Council of Europe (CoE) and the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE). Notable action plans have been created by numerous organizations, including the International Declaration on the Protection of Journalists (IDPJ), by the International Press Institute (IPI) and the Global Safety Principles and Practices, which was created by a news and journalism coalition.

In Operationalizing the United Nations Plan of Action on Safety of Journalists and the Issues of Impunity at the Country Level, the Special Rapporteur's 2012 update and the 2013 implementation review of the Plan of Action, the same key problems were identified: a lack of political will in regions known for crimes against journalists; difficulty in reporting incidents on behalf of victims and their organizations; lack of preventive as opposed to reactionary measures; and an increased severity in punishment when the victims are women, minorities or other vulnerable persons. At present, only 50 percent of United Nations requests for statistics on violence and crime against journalists are answered. The most recent Resolution A/RES/70/162 unequivocally condemns all forms of violence against journalists; continues to expand the definition of journalism for a modern age; and calls upon governments, relevant agencies, organizations, funds and programs to unite to protect the safety of journalists and end impunity.

Protecting journalists from intimidation, threat and harm as a result of their work is key to providing stability, transparency and accountability in government. With the expanding definition of journalism and consistent underreporting of retaliatory or work-related incidents, the Third Committee faces a significant challenge on this topic. Incentivising reporting, encouraging adoption of policies that support United Nations recommendations and providing guidance on policy implementation are key to progress on this topic. Solutions need to focus on implementation of existing standards and the expansion of those standards and definitions to include forms of journalism that have arisen in the modern age.

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

- What can the international community do to encourage domestic policies in compliance with United Nations standards for journalist safety?
- How has the use of the internet expanded the definition of journalism?
- What can the United Nations do to increase reporting and get more accurate statistics on journalists and impunity?



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PROTECTION OF AND ASSISTANCE TO INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS

An internally displaced person (IDP) is a person forced or obligated to flee or leave their homes in order to avoid the effects of natural disasters, armed conflict, violence or other violations of human rights. IDPs differ from refugees in that IDPs have not crossed an internationally recognized border, whereas refugees are outside their home State or place of habitual residence. IDPs remain within their own countries and retain their citizenship status in addition to their protection as a citizen of their country under human rights and international humanitarian law.

In 2011, there were an estimated 26.4 million IDPs around the world. An additional 14.9 million people were displaced by natural disasters globally in 2011. In five years time, numbers have escalated to nearly 38 million internally displaced people globally. The majority of this increase in displacement was the result of crises in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, Nigeria, South Sudan and Syria.

The status of IDPs and providing for their care are difficult problems for the United Nations. Because IDPs remain within their home States, the United Nations has little formal power over their care. Instead, the United Nations has worked to create viable standards and foster international cooperation on the issue. Issues surrounding the protection of IDPs include the lack of a centralized body responsible for IDPs and the need for additional environmental, structural and political supports for countries with elevated IDP populations. Because of the varying causes of internal displacement, there is no one-size-fits-all solution, and the displacements often go hand-in-hand with existing problems within the country. Political tensions or infrastructural and monetary constraints limit States' ability to respond to IDPs. In many cases, the State has failed, leaving IDPs in even more precarious positions with little to no assistance. As a result, the Third Committee has focused not only on coordination of United Nations and non-United Nations organizations, but also on garnering widespread adoption of generalized standards for both prevention and protection of IDPs, including preventative measures like sustainable development.

The 1949 Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War, commonly known as the Fourth Geneva Convention, sets the international norms for the protection of civilians in armed conflicts. States developed the 1951 Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, which provides internationally agreed upon standards for the treatment of both refugees and IDPs. In 1992, the General Assembly requested that any existing best practices and standards regarding internally displaced people be collected and compiled into comprehensive guidelines for States. As a result the Secretary-General's office provided the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement to the United Nations General Assembly in 1998. These principles are non-binding and cannot be mandated, only promoted; they expand upon preexisting standards and regional agreements. In the Principles, Member States are given direction on how to address internal displacement, as well as how to prevent it.

Currently, the United Nations is working both to ensure that IDPs are granted access to their human rights without discrimination and on resolving the unique issues facing IDPs displaced due to conflict or instability, particularly the special concerns facing women and girls. While the responsibility for the protection of these persons remains with the State, the United Nations has urged for increased cooperation between United Nations bodies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and States in burden-sharing, provision of resources and creating policy frameworks to respond to the issue. The United Nations began enhancing the predictability of its operations regarding IDPs through the March 2014 release of a provisional guidance on the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees' Engagement in Situations of Internal Displacement. The subsequent launch in April 2014 of the Solutions Alliance, an organization focusing on coordinating and expediting services for IDPs, has provided a platform for humanitarian and development actors to come together to provide durable and lasting solutions to the problem of displacement.



In recent resolutions, the General Assembly has recognized the need for regionally-specific and applied IDP standards such as the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa, otherwise known as the Kampala Convention, as well as for the international support for IDPs. The General Assembly requested that the Office of the High Commissioner look into the sustainability of voluntary return, reintegration and resettlement of IDPs and further requested the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons to continue to seek contributions from States and relevant institutions to assist in creating a more stable base for this work, as well as to compile a report on the implementation of the resolutions. The Special Rapporteur subsequently released reports on IDPs generally and on specific instances and topics related to IDPs. Additionally, the Office of the High Commissioner has been working to open new camps, such as the two opened in Baghdad in September, 2015.

In the face of continuing displacement globally, the General Assembly Third Committee has been seeking durable solutions, stronger links between humanitarian relief and longer-term development programs, burden-sharing and preventative measures that can keep the number of internally displaced peoples down. In light of the ongoing displacement within Syria and Iraq as well as the ongoing threat of manmade and natural disasters, the Third Committee continues to look for collaborative solutions. The scale of this humanitarian issue, however, has continued to test the capacity of the international community. Standards for care are not universally used; women, children and the disabled are still highly vulnerable and often without adequate protections and oversight; and preventative measures like the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development need much improvement. The Third Committee struggles to get enough funding and the commitment of Member States to address these problems. Solutions should include the reintegration of IDPs safely into their places of origin, integration into their current communities or safe integration into another part of the country, while ensuring that IDPs retain the ability to make informed choices that best meet their perceived needs. The United Nations will be working toward including IDPs in all State development planning programs, as well as to place the protection of IDPs and refugees at the center of humanitarian actions, through accessible expert and technical resources, clear guidance and appropriate tools.

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

- How could regional cooperation provide for and better protect internally displaced persons?
- How can coordination of services be streamlined and what services need to be prioritized?
- In what ways can the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement be strengthened? Are there principles that are outdated, inefficient or ineffective?
- As vulnerable groups, what can be done to assist women, children and persons with disability who are internally displaced?

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THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY FOURTH COMMITTEE

SPECIAL POLITICAL & DECOLONIZATION

PURVIEW OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY FOURTH COMMITTEE

The Fourth Committee is charged with addressing a variety of political and peacekeeping issues. Its political work covers aspects of decolonization, mine action and Palestinian refugee issues. Its recommendations should address political aspects of an issue and not focus on the economic, social or development aspects of the topic. For example, while the Fourth Committee may discuss the political problems of the Syrian Golan, it cannot discuss the details of how to promote development in the area, a task better suited for the Second Committee. The Fourth Committee is also charged with the coordination and operational aspects of UN peacekeeping missions and the oversight of the Department of Peacekeeping Operations. This is an important distinction from the Security Council, which develops peacekeeping missions and objectives. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 25.

Website: www.un.org/en/ga/fourth/

ASSISTANCE IN MINE ACTION

Over the last 65 years, roughly 110 million landmines have been deployed across 70 countries. Unlike other weapons, deployed landmines remain dangerous long after a conflict is over and pose long term social, political, economic and public health problems for those countries affected. Unmarked or active minefields are often concentrated in countries that saw significant fighting in the late twentieth century. In 2014 the International Campaign to Ban Landmines (ICBL) estimated 79 percent of those killed or injured by landmines were civilians. Following immense international action in the 1990s, the number of individuals injured each year by landmines has fallen dramatically from a high of 20,000 in 1996 to 3,308 in 2013, the lowest level of casualties recorded by ICBL. However, the need for continued mine action remains; up to 7.9 million people live near areas affected by landmines, and major stockpiles are still held by China, Russia, the United States, India and many more Member States. New mines have been laid in conflicts in Syria, Libya, South Korea and many other places. While many States talk about the dangers of landmines, the United Nations struggles to obtain commitments from Member States to both sign and ratify major landmine agreements and, once ratified, to implement the protocols of the agreements.

In 1996, after failing to ban landmines in Protocol II of the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons and to effectively outline methods for eradicating landmine use, a group of 50 delegations, led by Canada, opened independent talks to establish a treaty to end landmine use. Late in the year, Protocol II was amended to restrict the transfer of mines and other similar devices alongside prohibitions on directing landmines against civilian populations. In the following year, the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines and on Their Destruction came into force. This agreement, commonly known as the Ottawa Convention or the Anti-Personnel Mine-Ban Treaty, saw over 90 States and 1,400 nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) call for the destruction of anti-personnel landmines (APMs) and the elimination of remaining stockpiles. In the

2015 report of the Secretary-General on Assistance in Mine Action, the Secretary-General reported that 162 countries have ratified the Ottawa Convention, with 157 States no longer holding stockpiles of APMs. The United Nations is continuing to work with the 31 States yet to complete their obligation to clear mines; 35 States have still not ratified the treaty.

In 1997 the United Nations established the United Nations Mine Action Service (UNMAS), an office in the Department of Peacekeeping Operations responsible for coordinating mine action and demining activities across the United Nations system. In 1999, the role of UNMAS was expanded to include coordinating between non-governmental organizations. UNMAS focuses on five areas of work: mine clearance, education, victim assistance, advocacy and stockpile destruction. The United Nations work on mine action is guided by the Strategy of the United Nations on Mine Action 2013-2018. For this period, the United Nations prioritized four strategic objectives: reducing the risk and impact of mines, providing comprehensive support to victims of mines, transfer of mine action function to national actors, and promotion and integration of mine action plans.

In addition to action against APMs, the United Nations has taken action against cluster munitions and explosive remnants of war (ERWs). In 2006, Protocol V of the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons came into effect, which bound States Parties to take responsibility for the effect of unexploded munitions in their territory after a conflict. In 2010, the Convention on Cluster Munitions entered into force and called upon signatories to eliminate their stockpiles of cluster munitions. In his 2015 midterm review, the Secretary-General noted that 51 percent of suspected hazard areas have been declared free of landmines and commended Mozambique, which declared 97 percent of its districts free from landmines in January 2015. Similarly, Latin American States like Colombia have committed to reducing the number of deployed landmines in their territories. However, many States continue to maintain their stockpiles of landmines and APMs.

In light of international conflicts, some States have failed to maintain the Ottawa Treaty and have come under pressure to withdraw entirely. Libya and Syria have used landmines in recent conflicts. In 2014, Finland came under political pressure from its National Coalition Party to withdraw from the Ottawa Treaty entirely. Ukraine has faced similar pressures and new landmines have been placed on the border between Ukrainian and Russian troops. Compounding the problem, the United Nations struggles to keep landmines out of the hands of nonstate actors. Landmines are cheap, easy to make and effective. As a result, organizations like ISIL and Al-Shabab have begun to use APMs. The United Nations needs to work on both enforcing the Ottawa Treaty and expanding its measures to impact non-state actors.

Although extensive frameworks exist for eliminating APMs and limiting the use of cluster munitions, the United Nations still faces multiple issues with mine clearance activities. One of the goals of the current Inter-Agency Mine Action Strategy is to transfer mine action programs to national actors, but recent transitions have been difficult. Additionally, given the intent to transfer mine action programs to State



actors, the proliferation of NGOs and offices involved in mine action may hinder coordination. Continued action on denying the transfer of APMs to non-state actors remains important, as recent conflicts have seen an increase in the use of APMs and improvised explosive devices. Furthermore, in recent years the Secretary-General has noted an increasing number of mine action personnel being attacked, kidnapped or killed. As with all United Nations actions, funding remains a pressing issue. The existence of these issues should not distract from the significant progress made toward the elimination of APMs and assistance to the victims.

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

- How can the United Nations obtain universal adoption of the Ottawa Treaty and what steps can be taken to make it more effective?
- What steps can the United Nations take to protect mine action personnel working in complex conflict environments?
- What pre-emptive steps can the United Nations take to address APMs in current conflict areas and how can the United Nations prevent further use of landmines?
- How can the United Nations incentivise the reduction of existing APM landmines?

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PERSONS DISPLACED AS A RESULT OF THE JUNE 1967 AND SUBSEQUENT HOSTILITIES

Following the hostilities between Israel and its neighbors in June 1967, commonly known as the Six-Day War, an estimated 700,000 individuals were displaced from the West Bank, the Gaza Strip and the Golan Heights. Most of those displaced ended up in one of 58 refugee camps recognized by the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) and received what was intended to be temporary humanitarian assistance until repatriation was possible. Due to continued political difficulties between the involved parties, a full agreement on repatriation has not been found, and what was intended by the United Nations as a temporary measure has, instead, become a long term project to provide humanitarian assistance. Today, those displaced by the Six-Day War and subsequent hostilities remain in a precarious position—as do their descendants. UNRWA currently supports more than an estimated 1.5 million individuals living in UNRWA-recognized refugee camps across the Middle East and an additional estimated 3.5 million living outside these camps, receiving some form of assistance from UNRWA.

After the Six-Day War, the Security Council passed a resolution calling for the rapid return of those displaced to their homes. Until that could be accomplished, the General Assembly called upon the international community to increase funding for UNRWA and to authorize the provision of temporary humanitarian relief measures to those displaced. The General Assembly based much of this work on the 1951 Refugee Convention, which provided the framework by which the General Assembly and other UN bodies have addressed persons displaced as a result of the 1967 hostilities. This authorization was later extended to those displaced as a result of subsequent hostilities in the region. Despite the call for immediate repatriation, the 1971 Report of the Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the Human Rights of the Population of the Occupied Territories found that the Israeli government had made little progress toward allowing repatriation. The Report found that repatriation activities were limited to a summer visitors program which admitted, on a temporary basis, only a few thousand displaced persons each year. In accordance with the 1993 Declaration of Principles on Interim Self-Government Arrangements, Article XII, the United Nations, Israel and refugee host countries attempted to resolve the repatriation issue affecting those displaced, but no permanent solution has emerged. Today UNRWA provides education, health and other social services in addition to support for microfinance and camp improvement projects.

Poverty, overcrowding, inadequate infrastructure, limited economic opportunities, and unorganized and unclear administrative responsibilities are common in the refugee camps. UNRWA does not own the refugee camps, nor is it responsible for day-to-day operations; rather, the ownership, administration and responsibility for maintaining order in the camps and among displaced populations is considered the responsibility of the host states, while UNRWA provides humanitarian assistance to



those living in the recognized camps. This arrangement has led to unclear responsibility for providing services and maintaining order while contributing to an overall sense of lawlessness in the camps and to chronic underdevelopment.

Children are the hardest hit by their refugee status and poorly organized camps. Over 80 percent of the Palestinian refugee population lives below the poverty line; infant mortality rates are high; and school facilities are substandard and overpopulated. Children born in the camps must be registered as refugees at birth to qualify for services and must be born to registered parents. Tens of thousands of children go unregistered, leaving them stateless and vulnerable to the worst conditions of refugee life and unable to seek recourse.

To alleviate poor conditions in the refugee camps, UNRWA launched the Infrastructure and Camp Improvement Program (ICIP) in 2007. ICIP worked with local groups in the camps to identify needs and to support building projects that address overcrowding, poverty and inadequate infrastructure. The program was built on the premise that the largely urban refugee camps have different needs than temporary refugee camps, such as long-term urban planning. Urban planning was a key component of the rebuilding of the Nahr el-Bared refugee camp in Lebanon in 2008. In addition to providing humanitarian assistance, UNRWA worked to ensure that the rebuilding plan takes into account long term habitation in the camp and provision of utilities, economic opportunities and integration with the larger community, incorporating the 2015 Agenda on Sustainable Development and its applicable urban planning guidelines.

Repatriation, compensation and assimilation efforts remain one of the largest problems facing Palestinian refugees. Although recent resolutions passed by the United Nations General Assembly still call for repatriation of those displaced as a result of the hostilities, repatriation of both those inside and outside of the camps is not likely in the foreseeable future. Integration, asylum and dual citizenship have been past solutions for refugees. However, Syria, Lebanon and Jordan have resisted integration attempts, citing economic and infrastructural strain, political upheaval, and security concerns. Refugees in foreign camps have been denied rights to work and own property by State domestic laws; host States show no interest in amending or striking these laws. Host States have, in the past, attempted to force migration of Palestinian refugees to varying success. Refugees in Gaza and the West Bank are routinely further displaced within the camp by fighting. Israel has claimed many impediments to repatriation, including that Palestinian refugees are in the historic Palestine; security concerns related to the presence of Hezbollah and Hamas members and supporters among the refugees; and some refugees' resistance to repatriation into the existing Israeli state. In lieu of repatriation or assimilation, refugee advocates have tried to obtain financial compensation for property losses, an option first proposed by the General Assembly in 1948, but have had little success. The General Assembly discussed the concept again in 2014 and called on the United Nations Conciliation Commission for Palestine to track and identify property and assets originally held by those displaced by the June 1967 and subsequent hostilities. So far, movement toward financial compensation has been inadequate.

An additional issue has severely curtailed UNRWA activities in Syria. As a result of the lack of a resolution for those displaced, UNRWA has provided services to the refugee camps beyond emergency humanitarian assistance. With regional instability creating ever-more-urgent situations

for existing displaced persons and increasing host countries' populations of internally displaced persons, the issue is both urgent and complicated. Balancing the long-term needs of those displaced as a result of the 1967 hostilities and those more recently displaced has spread United Nations efforts and resources thin. Documentation, resources and regional politics have prevented Palestinian refugees from traveling to Palestinian refugee camps farther away from the war in Syria.

The Fourth Committee will continue to address the situation of those displaced as a result of the June 1967 and subsequent hostilities, along with the role of UNRWA in providing assistance to those displaced. With the lack of progress in repatriation, the Fourth Committee has increasingly looked at ways to alleviate problems in the refugee camps and reach arrangements acceptable to the involved parties. Funding and resource allocation remains a problem. In recent years there has been criticism of ICIP, notably that the organization accepts the denial of repatriation as a given going forward and instead treats the temporary refugee camps as permanent settlements. There is also concern that UNRWA has moved beyond its mandate of providing humanitarian assistance and is instead adopting a governmental and administrative role in the camps by coordinating with local groups on development projects beyond humanitarian assistance. Going forward, the Fourth Committee will need to balance the situations inside the camps and the problems faced by those displaced with a long-term resolution to the ongoing situation, most notably funding, coordination of UN and non-governmental organization services, refugee asset protection, and the desire and feasibility of repatriation.

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

- Under what conditions would repatriation of persons displaced by the 1967 and subsequent hostilities be feasible?
- How do the concerns of refugee populations in general differ from the concerns of those displaced by the 1967 and subsequent hostilities?
- What services and funding structures are most effective and most applicable for the population?
- How can the Fourth Committee aid in coordinating UN and non-UN services to those displaced?

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CHAPTER FIVE

THE INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY

PURVIEW OF THE INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY

The IAEA was created in 1957 in response to the deep fears and expectations resulting from the discovery of nuclear energy. The IAEA Statute, which 81 States unanimously approved in October 1956, outlines the three pillars of the Agency's work: nuclear verification and security, safety, and technology transfer. The simulation of the International Atomic Energy Agency will be a special session. Each delegation may place one representative on this body. For more information please see page 9 in the AMUN Rules and Procedures handbook. For the purposes of this simulation, all UN Member States will be considered to have a seat in the special session. In order to facilitate a simulation in four days, the special session will focus on two issues: Measures to strengthen international cooperation in nuclear, radiation, transport and waste safety and Application of IAEA safeguards in the Middle East. The Agency will write resolutions to cover these issues.

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

MEASURES TO STRENGTHEN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN NUCLEAR, RADIATION, TRANSPORT AND WASTE SAFETY

Since the discovery of the potential of nuclear fission in 1934, the question of nuclear safety has been at the forefront of regional and international debate. The international community created the International Atomic Energy Agency in 1957, hoping to bridge the gap between use of nuclear power as either a tool or a weapon. As States began expanding their nuclear programs, spurred in part by the Cold War, safety became increasingly important. The risks inherent in nuclear power are high. Environmental and water contamination, high-level or prolonged human exposure to radiation and the theft of nuclear materials by non-state actors all consistently threaten the legitimate and peaceful use of nuclear materials and hasten the IAEA's measures to strengthen international cooperation in the areas of nuclear, radiation, transportation and waste safety.

While the international community has made strides in nuclear safety, work remains to be done regarding radiation, transportation and waste safety. With more States and non-state actors interested in procuring nuclear capabilities, either for peaceful or non-peaceful means, the safe transportation of nuclear materials is paramount. Though liability is now more clearly outlined, the potential of a nuclear transportation incident touches on both human and environmental concerns. Uranium, which plays a large role in nuclear reactors and the creation of nuclear power, is both chemically toxic as well as radioactive during the uranium enrichment process. Most waste produced by nuclear energy presents a low risk profile to humans and the environment, but storage, especially of high-level waste, is a monumental effort that risks environmental contamination and costs States money, land and other resources to maintain.

Prior to 1960, there was no convention on liability for nuclear waste incidents, leading to ambiguities in State responsibility. States with nuclear incidents had no clear standard for safety, incident response or

victim compensation. In 1960, the international community negotiated the Paris Convention on Third Party Liability in the Field of Nuclear Energy, addressing a major area of nuclear safety. The Convention, which entered into force in 1968, set standards for liability and compensation for damage caused by accidents that take place during the production of nuclear energy. Other strides made toward outlining nuclear safety and liability also include the 1963 Vienna Convention on Civil Liability for Nuclear Damage and the Convention on Supplementary Compensation for Nuclear Damage (CSC). Together, these aim to increase the amount of compensation available through public funds to be made available by the Contracting Parties. This was a promising first step for taking responsibility in the event of a nuclear safety incident, though only 40 States are party to the CSC and only 16 States are party to the Paris Convention on Third Party Liability in the Field of Nuclear Energy. Additional protocols to the Paris Convention were added in 1964 and 1982, with increasingly fewer signatories. The most recent additional protocol, added in 2004, only has two Party States.

Some of the solutions to the problems of nuclear, radiation, transport and waste safety stem from past problems. The 1986 Chernobyl disaster set the tone and focus for the following decades. The United Nations increased measures taken to strengthen international cooperation in nuclear safety and radiological protection in response to the Chernobyl event. They also requested that States share nuclear safety related information to prevent another Chernobyl-like disaster from happening. These efforts led to increased safety measures, decreasing the likelihood of disasters associated with poor construction standards and lax safety protocols.

By 1998, incidents with abandoned, lost or stolen radioactive materials had caused enough concern to warrant the Code of Conduct on the Safety and Security of Radioactive Sources, created as a reaction to the events of September 11, 2001 in the United States and a conference held in Buenos Aires in 2000. The increased threat of non-state actors was at the forefront of the conversation. The Board of Governors approved the Code of Conduct in 2003. The Code of Conduct provided additional guidance for State standards and domestic laws pertaining to radiation and peaceful nuclear uses.

The IAEA launched the Global Nuclear Safety and Security Network (GNSSN) in 2007 as a "virtual community" designed to assist the promulgation of nuclear safety standards and expertise at the national, regional and global levels. The number of disparate academic institutions, national laboratories, industry groups and regional bodies involved in nuclear technology requires an umbrella organization to assist in the coordination of information sharing, which is as valuable as it is logistically challenging, and the GNSSN is instrumental in achieving the core goal to "... foster the exchange of scientific and technical information on peaceful uses of atomic energy" as described in Article III of the Statute of the IAEA. While successful coordination of this scope speaks to the dedication of the Member States of the IAEA, it also illustrates the crucial role of digital-age technology in disseminating information at truly global scales.



Much of the current work of the IAEA is focused on lessons learned from the Fukushima Daiichi accident. A comprehensive June 2015 report on the Fukushima Daiichi accident underscored the importance of creating a global framework for mitigating the vulnerability of nuclear facilities to external events. An unresolved challenge identified during the Fukushima Daiichi accident is the need to effectively coordinate and disseminate accurate information to the public during a nuclear emergency. Additionally, the IAEA has prepared an Action Plan on Nuclear Safety. The Action Plan aims to improve international nuclear safety through cooperation and information sharing between national authorities and technical experts. Under the Action Plan, the IAEA has facilitated peer reviews and capacity building programs for Member States planning to embark on a nuclear power program. The IAEA has focused on improving emergency preparedness and response in addition to ongoing technical work on developing standards and training related to nuclear safety to prevent accidents. The implementation of the Action Plan has proven to be logistically challenging, particularly in light of some Member States' reluctance to implement past standards, such as the CSC and Vienna Convention.

One area needing more attention is the transportation of radioactive materials by land, air and sea. While there has not been a major accident during the transport of radioactive material outside the national boundaries of an IAEA Member State, the growing demand for radioactive materials, as well as increased development of nuclear power programs, is likely to increase the volume of radioactive materials shipped internationally. Ensuring that the country responsible for transporting radioactive materials, as well as countries near and through which such materials move during shipment, are informed and prepared to respond in the event of an accident poses challenges for IAEA coordination. This is a primary IAEA concern, especially when considering those Member States not party to all of the past conventions or those that fail to fully comply with the Code of Conduct

Few industries have the level of interwoven policy and scientific needs seen in the nuclear arena, requiring the IAEA to take a multifaceted approach in achieving its mandate. Thus, in addition to being a group of technical experts in nuclear technology and safety, the IAEA must tackle policy questions. One of these challenges is that nuclear accidents and damage require significant allocations of resources in order to resolve, and radiation contamination has no conception of borders, making an incident almost inevitably an international concern. Additionally, the rise of non-state actors interested in radioactive materials increases the need for more strict safety procedures, particularly where transportation is concerned. Finally, the IAEA faces large push-back from its Members regarding regulations and cooperation.

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

- In the event of a future nuclear emergency, should the IAEA provide public updates when the impact of the accident spreads across State boundaries? What role should the IAEA take in informing the public in the event of a nuclear accident in a non-Member State?
- How can the IAEA work with other UN bodies to strengthen international cooperation or address these specific issues?
- Are there other safety areas that need to be focused or expanded on? If so, what role does the IAEA play in identifying those?

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APPLICATION OF IAEA SAFEGUARDS IN THE MIDDLE EAST

The use of nuclear technology is a complex policy issue, particularly in the Middle East, where nuclear technology could easily become a flashpoint amid regional conflict and instability. The IAEA endeavors to balance the dangers presented by nuclear weapons development with the interest in peaceful development and proliferation of nuclear energy technology. The equipment needed for peaceful uses is also often the same equipment needed to weaponize nuclear material, typically referred to as dual-use equipment or technology. Member States' reluctance to comply with IAEA inspections and regulations, States' desires to have nuclear weapons capability and the lack of a nuclear-weapon-free



zone in the region, all further complicate nuclear safety in the Middle East.

The establishment of strong frameworks and regimes to prevent nuclear weapons, such as regional nuclear-weapon-free zones, has historically been a major policy objective. Nuclear-weapon-free zone initiatives aim to implement the goals laid out in frameworks, such as the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT), by establishing regional agreements for nuclear demilitarization, including banning the creation, testing, acquisition or development of any form of nuclear weaponry, while still permitting peaceful uses of nuclear materials, such as energy and medical applications. Nuclear-weapon-free zones exist in Latin America, Africa, East Asia, Central Asia, the Caribbean and the South Pacific. Many regions have seen observable successes in furthering nonproliferation and disarmament after implementing nuclear-weapon-free zones. Furthermore, such initiatives have enjoyed relative success in encouraging cooperation between already existing regional security infrastructures and more globally focused initiatives established by the governing bodies of the United Nations.

Establishing a nuclear-weapon-free zone in the Middle East has been a highly debated and contentious topic for many years. In 1974, the IAEA requested that the Director General engage in further discussions with Middle Eastern States to encourage the adoption of IAEA nuclear safeguards in the region, which would open the door to establishing a nuclear-weapon-free zone. There have been many attempts to establish a nuclear-weapon-free zone in the Middle East, yet no treaty has been adopted after almost forty years of discussion.

Through the 1980's and 1990's, negotiations struggled for many reasons, including attempts to incorporate weapons other than nuclear weapons in treaty terms; the refusal of States to join the NPT and its subsequent protocols; general noncompliance with IAEA safeguards and enforcement protocols; prolonged negotiations and rescheduling issues; and general distrust between Member States. Resolutions in the 1980s reiterated the need for full regional compliance with the NPT and the establishment of a nuclear-weapon-free zone. The 1995 Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference noted the same, remarking that Israel's reluctance to sign the NPT had led to a marked increase in State interest in obtaining nuclear capability. There are similar concerns over Iran's compliance with the NPT. In 2010, following up on a number of resolutions and recommendations, the General Assembly, in response to IAEA requests, called for a conference on nuclear weapons and a number of other security-related issues in the Middle East. The conference was scheduled for 2012, but was postponed and has yet to convene. The Secretary-General later released an independent report on the issue.

In 2013, the General Assembly directed the Secretary-General to report on how a regional treaty and nuclear-weapon-free zone could be implemented. The General Assembly also highlighted the fact that Israel is the only State in the region not party to the NPT. The most recent resolutions adopted by the UN General Assembly addressed establishment of a nuclear-weapon-free zone in the region of the Middle East and included the topic on the provisional agenda for the seventy-first Session of the General Assembly. Most recently, UN Member States have taken to organizing and participating in regularly scheduled review conferences of existing frameworks such as the NPT; the next review of the NPT is slated for 2020. The most recent NPT review conference, held in 2015, resulted in some progress. The progress, laid out in the final

report from the 2015 Review Conference, strongly encourages noncompliant States to fulfill their obligations under the NPT and asserts that the IAEA remains the legitimate authority in reporting issues with the existing frameworks. The report also notes that States on the IAEA, and in general, need to seek diplomatic resolution to issues of noncompliance with the established IAEA safeguards and to continue productive discussions in preparation for the conference scheduled for 2020. In the interest of improving and strengthening such safeguards, States should also look to expand the scope of the existing agreements.

Safeguards for the Middle East are increasingly urgent. Regional instability and the presence of terrorist organizations make securing nuclear weapons and general nuclear disarmament extremely important. The IAEA must think of ways that ensure openness and that safeguard against nuclear proliferation and weapon development, while maintaining respect for State sovereignty and States' rights to explore the peaceful applications of nuclear technology. If concerns about equity, trust and compliance are not addressed or clarified, accepting safeguards and adopting a nuclear-weapon-free zone will be a greater challenge for the Middle East.

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

- What steps can the international community take to reassure Middle East States that the efforts to create a nuclear-weapon-free zone will not create roadblocks to the development of peaceful uses of nuclear technology?
- What preconditions need to be identified and agreed upon prior to engaging all players in the region in successful nuclear-weapon-free zone treaty negotiations in the Middle East?
- How can the IAEA help resolve the concerns about compliance and nuclear-weapon-free zone enforceability?

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CHAPTER SIX

THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

MEMBERS OF THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

ALBANIA
ALGERIA
BANGLADESH
BELGIUM
BOLIVIA
BOTSWANA
BURUNDI
CHINA
CONGO
COTE D'IVOIRE
CUBA
ECUADOR
EL SALVADOR
ETHIOPIA
FRANCE
GEORGIA

GERMANY
GHANA
INDIA
INDONESIA
KENYA
KYRGYZSTAN
LATVIA
MALDIVES
MEXICO
MONGOLIA
MOROCCO
NAMIBIA
NETHERLANDS
NIGERIA
PANAMA
PARAGUAY

PHILIPPINES
PORTUGAL
QATAR
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
RUSSIAN FEDERATION
SAUDI ARABIA
SLOVENIA
SOUTH AFRICA
SWITZERLAND
THE FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF
MACEDONIA
TOGO
UNITED ARAB EMIRATES
UNITED KINGDOM
VENEZUELA
VIET NAM

ABOUT HRC

HRC is the United Nations body responsible for strengthening the protection of human rights around the globe. The Council replaced the former UN Commission on Human Rights in 2006. It is comprised of 47 Member States elected by the General Assembly. The Council reports to the General Assembly's Third Committee. While its resolutions are non-binding, the Council serves as a moral authority within the UN system.

PURVIEW OF THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

The Council serves two primary functions: it sets human rights standards and it attempts to bring non-compliant countries into compliance through persuasion, capacity building, and—if necessary—highlighting human rights abuses on the world stage. The Council also deploys Special Rapporteurs to monitor human rights and study topics of interest. While the Security Council, General Assembly and HRC often address similar issues, the HRC is limited to addressing the human rights aspect of a problem, not broader security and development issues.

Website: www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/HRC/Pages/HRCIndex.aspx

THE QUESTION OF THE DEATH PENALTY

Although use of the death penalty has been quite common throughout history, only 94 States still maintain the death penalty in their legal codes and only 37 States still carry it out today. The question of whether the death penalty is an appropriate punishment consistent with human rights norms has been a recurrent topic since the middle of the twentieth century. During the Second World War, capital punishment was often used to achieve political ends, including to eliminate political opposition, to eradicate minority groups, and to limit dissent in civilian and military populations. These events, and continued use of capital punishment for political ends in the 1940s and 1950s, led to growing pressure for States to abolish the death penalty or, at least, severely restrict its use. Citizens, governments and lawyers increasingly viewed the use of capital punishment as a violation of the right to life, liberty and security

of person, as described in Article Three of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Today, over 160 United Nations Member States do not practice the death penalty or have abolished it altogether. Attempts have been made toward safeguarding the rights of those facing the death penalty and the universal abolishment of the practice. In many States, however, cultural and political norms have sustained the use of the death penalty. Globally, capital punishment remains a contentious issue.

The 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) was the first global agreement that provided specific limitations on the use of capital punishment. The ICCPR requires the 168 States Parties to dramatically restrict the use of the death penalty or, alternatively, to abolish the death penalty entirely. In 1984 the Economic and Social Council passed resolution 1984/50, laying out guidelines for those States that still carried out the death penalty. These guidelines protected the rights of those facing death, including ensuring that the least painful method of execution was used to end the lives of condemned individuals. Moreover, this resolution established safeguards in an attempt to protect the rights of those facing the death penalty, particularly to reduce the risk of executing innocent people. In 1989, Member States adopted the Second Optional Protocol to the ICCPR, in which 77 States Parties agreed to end the use of the death penalty within their borders.

The Commission on Human Rights, the predecessor to the Human Rights Council, first discussed the question of the death penalty in 1997 as a follow up to the wider discussion of capital punishment and the safeguards put in place for those facing the death penalty. The resulting resolution primarily focused on Member States that had not yet abolished the death penalty, asking them to consider becoming party to the ICCPR and its Second Optional Protocol, observe the safeguards that protected the rights of those convicted as laid out in previous resolutions and make available public information regarding the imposition of the death penalty. The issue was, and remains, a contested one. The later resolutions from the Commission on Human Rights called upon Member States to reserve the death penalty only for those having committed the most serious crimes and further urged them to restrict the number of offences for which the death penalty could be



imposed. These resolutions also looked to protect children, urging Member States to not impose the death penalty on those under the age of eighteen when the crime was committed. In 2015, the Human Rights Council passed a resolution calling on all States to abolish the death penalty, with a contentious, recorded vote. States against the resolution cited the Council's interference with national laws primarily when a State's imposition of the death penalty is in accordance with international obligations.

Recent United Nations General Assembly resolutions mirror those of the Human Rights Council. In 2007, the General Assembly passed a resolution entitled Moratorium on the use of the death penalty, citing the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the Covenant on the Rights of the Child. Similar resolutions reaffirming the 2007 statements were adopted in the years following, and in 2010 the General Assembly acknowledged, "any miscarriage or failure of justice in the implementation of the death penalty is irreversible and irreparable." The General Assembly passed another resolution calling for a moratorium on the use of the death penalty in 2012, reaffirming a 2011 Human Rights Council decision, which called for the guaranteed protection of the rights of individuals facing capital punishment across the world. In 2013, the General Assembly again called for States to establish a moratorium on executions and maintain an open mind toward abolishing the death penalty once and for all. In 2014, 117 States voted in favor of the resolution on a death penalty moratorium—the largest number of Member States to vote in favor of this resolution since it was first brought to the General Assembly in 2007.

In 2015, the United Nations Assistant Secretary-General for Human Rights, Ivan Šimonović, said that "there is no right more sacred than the right to life." This statement defines the contemporary and future approach of the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) with regard to the death penalty. The OHCHR believes that capital punishment "undermines human dignity, and that its abolition, or at least a moratorium on its use, contributes to the enhancement and progressive development of human rights."

The Human Rights Council faces many challenges going forward, even as States begin to outlaw capital punishment in larger numbers. As of 2014, the number of people being sentenced to death had risen 28 percent in just one year. Reasons for this are various, but the main two are terrorism and drug trafficking. Many people are being sentenced to death for such crimes, a major concern for the OHCHR because of standing moratoriums on capital punishment that will inevitably expire. The Council needs to ensure that Member States comply with existing international frameworks and obligations, such as the ICCPR and the prohibition of torture and other cruel and inhuman punishments. Moreover, the Council might look to work with Member States not party to any existing international treaties to ratify compliant national legislation while respecting any present cultural and societal norms in the process.

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

- How can Member States ensure they comply with their obligations under international law regarding the death penalty?
- How might States want to further restrict or limit the death penalty, including through abolition and moratoria?

- What steps can be taken to protect the legal and human rights of those individuals facing capital punishment?

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HUMAN RIGHTS, SEXUAL ORIENTATION AND GENDER IDENTITY

According to the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 76 countries have laws that criminalize behavior on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity, with penalties ranging from imprisonment to death. Article Two of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states “Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.” One of the biggest issues facing the lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) community is violence and discrimination. Political and cultural norms are the driving factors behind the discrimination in all aspects of life, from access to health services, to adequate housing and education. Throughout the past twenty years there has been a large shift in the attitudes toward the LGBT community. In 2005, Canada became the first country outside of Europe to legalize civil same-sex marriages. And in 2015 the United States Supreme Court ruled to legalize civil same-sex marriages in the country. While other States have also changed their position on human rights in the LGBT community, the issue remains divisive in many regions across the globe.

Human rights, sexual orientation and gender identity is a relatively recent topic for the United Nations. While the topic has global relevance, it remains controversial due to political, religious and cultural norms surrounding sexual orientation and gender identity. In 1994, the United Nations Human Rights Committee—a body of experts responsible for monitoring implementation of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights—considered human rights and sexual orientation in the 1994 case of *Toonen v. Australia*. In that case, the Committee declared that criminal laws against homosexuality violate human rights. In 2003, the United Nations Commission on Human Rights—the predecessor body to the Human Rights Council—discussed a draft resolution on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights. Ultimately, the resolution did not pass, but it would have called upon States to affirm human rights regardless of sexual orientation, and encouraged the Commission on Human Rights to continue to pay special attention to this issue. A group of Member States issued a statement in 2008 supporting LGBT rights and pushed the Council to adopt the statement as a resolution. Many States and other entities refused to support the statement, noting that the statement deals with matters of State sovereignty and may lead to legitimization of acts considered to be deplorable.

Through a 2010 statement the United Nations Secretary-General, Ban Ki-Moon, invoked the ongoing and current debate of the role of social and cultural norms and human rights for this group of people and called for States to end violence against the LGBT community and abolish laws that discriminate on the basis of sexuality. That same year, the United Nations Human Rights Council passed the first resolution at the United Nations on the topic and called for an end to discrimination based on sexuality. The resolution also called for the United Nations High Commissioner on Human Rights to provide the Council with a report on the challenges faced by LGBT persons. The High Commissioner released the report, entitled *Discriminatory laws and practices and acts of violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity*, in November 2011, detailing the legal and social discrimination faced by LGBT persons. On 26 September 2014, the United Nations Human Rights Council passed a resolution

on combating violence and discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and, more specifically, gender identity, upholding the reports of the High Commissioner and urging further action on the issue.

In 2015 and early 2016, the United Nations published two reports regarding LGBT discrimination. These reports detail States’ obligations in protecting the rights of the LGBT community and discouraging violence. The United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights published a report on LGBT discrimination concluding that the discrimination against the LGBT community is continuing, pervasive and often violent, even though some States have taken steps toward equality. The report also found that UN agencies are increasingly integrating issues of sexual orientation and gender identity into their programs, and several regional organizations have taken steps to address the human rights situation of the LGBT community. In January 2016, the UN Special Rapporteur on Torture published a report on gender-based violence which concluded that LGBT persons were far more likely to suffer abusive treatment while in custody. This report found that States have a heightened obligation to prevent violence against the LGBT and intersex communities and should prohibit discrimination against these communities. Moreover, the United Nations has been working to promote LGBT equality through its Free and Equal campaign since 2013 to support LGBT rights around the globe.

The United Nations could help Member States implement some of the recommendations from the High Commissioner’s 2015 report, such as public education campaigns. As the report notes, there is no comprehensive approach that any human rights organization has developed at the international level. As a truly international body, the United Nations could be at a unique advantage in developing such an approach. A comprehensive international approach to monitor and improve the human rights of the LGBT community could have a great impact on the lives and standing of LGBT persons worldwide. The challenge will remain for Member States to best balance national policies and the rights guaranteed in treaties such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The United Nations and the Human Rights Council will continue to look into ways Member States can develop and implement legislation at the national level that both protect the LGBT community and recognize international law. Moreover, the United Nations will look to address the role of culture as it seeks to eliminate discrimination against the LGBT community in all forms.

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

- What steps can the international community take to address violence against LGBT individuals? What barriers exist to addressing the issue?
- How can Member States balance their human rights obligations to LGBT persons and existing cultural norms?
- What steps at the national and international level could Member States take to further protections for LGBT persons?

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CHAPTER SEVEN

ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR EUROPE

MEMBERS OF THE ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR EUROPE

ALBANIA	GREECE	REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA
ANDORRA	HUNGARY	ROMANIA
ARMENIA	ICELAND	RUSSIAN FEDERATION
AUSTRIA	IRELAND	SAN MARINO
AZERBAIJAN	ISRAEL	SERBIA
BELARUS	ITALY	SLOVAKIA
BELGIUM	KAZAKHSTAN	SLOVENIA
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA	KYRGYZSTAN	SPAIN
BULGARIA	LATVIA	SWEDEN
CANADA	LIECHTENSTEIN	SWITZERLAND
CROATIA	LITHUANIA	TAJIKISTAN
CYPRUS	LUXEMBOURG	THE FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA
CZECH REPUBLIC	MALTA	TURKEY
DENMARK	MONACO	TURKMENISTAN
ESTONIA	MONTENEGRO	UKRAINE
FINLAND	NETHERLANDS	UNITED KINGDOM
FRANCE	NORWAY	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
GEORGIA	POLAND	UZBEKISTAN
GERMANY	PORTUGAL	

PURVIEW OF THE ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR EUROPE

The Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) is one of five regional commissions of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). ECE focuses on analyzing, advising and assisting the Member States in cooperation with the international business community. The Commission meets annually and makes recommendations and reports to ECOSOC. The 56 Member State commission was established in 1947 to support pan-European sustainable economic development. In addition to the Member States, there are over 70 global professional organizations that participate in ECE activities.

In 2016, AMUN will simulate Economic Commission for Europe as a report-writing body, rather than a resolution-writing body. For more information about report-writing bodies, please see 16-17 in the AMUN Rules and Procedures handbook.

Website: <http://unece.org/>

INNOVATION AND COMPETITIVENESS POLICIES

The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) was established to help Europe recover economically in the wake of World War II. Throughout its history, the Commission has adapted to serve economic growth throughout Europe. Over the last decade, European countries have faced significant challenges to remaining economically competitive. Developing economies have increased their capabilities in the manufacturing, technology and service sectors, putting significant pressure on European economies to innovate, become more competitive or cede market share. Europe is not alone in trying to become more competitive; the recent 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development's Goal 9 also prioritizes building resilient infrastructure, promoting inclusive and sustainable industrialization, and fostering innovation. European countries do, however, face different challenges; unlike

many emerging economies, they tend to have highly regulated economies, existing dominant firms and strong labor market protections. Consequently, the Commission is approaching this work in unique ways, including: providing assistance to States that are upgrading their technology infrastructure; providing specific policy advice to individual States; developing partnerships that encourage sustainable building and business policy; creating effective intellectual property rights regimes; and conducting performance reviews of its Member States.

The Commission first addressed innovation and competitiveness policies in 2006, when it established the Committee on Innovation, Competitiveness and Public-Private Partnerships (CICPPP). CICPPP discusses the policy implications and standards that Member States can use to foster economic stability and growth. Its initial 2006 agenda called for information exchange and for States to open dialogue with their private sectors to identify areas where they could improve and create innovation, setting the stage for its thematic work.

The group has also provided country-specific policy recommendations for transitional economies and former members of the Soviet Union. CICPPP conducted its first Innovation Performance Review in 2010, examining the national innovation policies and practices of Belarus; subsequent reviews have looked at other Member States. The Innovation Performance Reviews are one of the most prominent projects the ECE has undertaken to enhance economic competitiveness and innovation in Europe. States requesting a Review are able to select a set of criteria on which to be evaluated and are then given specific policy recommendations tailored to their current economic situation.

Between 2006 and 2013, ECE produced a number of guiding documents on innovation policies. This includes the Compendia of Policy Recommendations and Good Practices issued in 2008, which covers financing and intellectual property. The Innovation Policy for Green Technology was released in 2013. It establishes policy recommendations



for green technology, creates specific frameworks States can use to increase investment in environmentally sound economic development and identifies States most at risk and therefore most likely to benefit from green innovation and how that innovation can be achieved.

The Team of Specialists on Innovative and Competitive Policies (TOS-ICP), a group of experts responsible for evaluating the effectiveness of existing ECE projects and coordinating the needs of the public and private sectors, was created in 2014. In its most recent report, the TOS-ICP discussed how the ECE can create policy consistency among its members, support emerging markets and minimize social costs for States undergoing economic transition. The report also highlighted the need for ECE members to evaluate Innovation Performance Reviews, expand the Reviews to more States and examine how the Reviews can be used as a monitoring system for the Sustainable Development Goals.

The goals of the ECE are, by and large, two-fold. First, the ECE must fulfill its primary goal of fostering economic growth and stability while navigating the current economic barriers to negotiation, such as existing trade agreements, different market structures and restrictive economic conditions. Second, the ECE must do its utmost to fulfill its duties with an eye toward the Sustainable Development Goals, especially Goal 9. Other regional players, like the European Union and the International Chamber of Commerce, have also sought to make improvements on sustainable business innovation. These organizations have identified many different areas in which Europe can improve both sustainability and development, including more stringent trade agreements, discontinuing the use of environmentally harmful industrial byproducts and incentivizing culture change in the private sector. Few of these organizations, however, have the same far-reaching impact as the United Nations. Many businesses have already asserted their desire to contribute toward the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals. The ECE must now determine a way to encourage and facilitate these positive movements while still pushing for consistent economic growth and stability. The ECE faces many challenges in supporting sustainable development and innovation, including coordinating with many different organizations within Europe and the EU; highlighting effective incentives for States to upgrade their technology and innovation strategies in a sustainable way; and developing and strengthening partnerships with governments, nonprofit organizations and businesses. In the coming years, the ECE will have to evaluate its existing mechanisms, how it provides guidance and how that guidance may be best implemented. Its current standards and best practices need to be further examined to reflect existing economic needs.

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

- What types of recommendations are most effective when encouraging both economic growth and sustainability? How can existing recommendations be made more effective?
- What organizations can the ECE partner with to achieve its goals? How can they work together to better coordinate their efforts?
- What partnerships between States and private sector industries can best achieve ECE goals? How can these partnerships grow? What resources are necessary to build them?

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SUSTAINABLE ENERGY

Sustainable energy is defined as energy production and consumption that does not affect human health and quality of life but also does not affect ecosystems or contribute to climate change. Discussion of sustainable energy focuses on two areas: energy efficiency and renewable energy. In policy discussions, sustainable energy is considered to be distinct from alternative energy, as sustainable energy will continue to produce energy rather than producing energy only once and for one-time use. The rise of an international need for more sustainable forms of energy comes as countries across the globe continue to search for more economically viable means to reduce environmentally harmful emissions from a wide variety of energy sources. The United Nations has been interested in and advocating for sustainability for a number of years; this interest has been codified most recently in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which link sustainable energy with advancing human rights and ending poverty. The 56 Member States of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) require an overwhelming amount of energy to function and some individual Member States top the lists of largest carbon emitters in the world. Consequently, the Commission has recently shifted its focus to sustainable energy.



Facing rising oil prices, the Commission in 2005 and 2006 looked to address the classification of energy sources, recommending that designations should better align with the United Nations Framework Classification for Fossil Energy and Mineral Reserves and Resources in order to increase transparency regarding the future availability of these and other energy sources. The Commission also continued to look into methods of reducing greenhouse gas emissions, primarily in Eastern Europe. Although a vast energy market and policy barriers hindered initial investment, the Commission sought to help these transitional economies establish public-private partnerships dedicated to financing energy efficiency investments.

Technology research and development have been key topics in past discussions on the issue of sustainable energy. The European Union (EU) and the broader Commission both identified the need to promote policies for renewable energy for power generation and fuel production. More specifically, the Commission focused on the need to develop clean coal technologies, as coal was identified as one of the most secure sources of energy, so long as its production and use were environmentally acceptable. In 2009, the European Union formed the Renewable Energy Directive, with the goal of increasing renewable energy production to cover 20 percent of European Union energy consumption by 2020, with EU Member States setting individual goals ranging from 10 percent to 49 percent. The 2015 Paris Agreement also sets goals for all United Nations Member States to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, however, this agreement has not come into effect yet as it awaits ratification from the international community.

Each year, the Commission hosts Energy Week, bringing diplomats and experts together to participate in workshops focused on advancements made on sustainable energy; they also discuss current downfalls and future advancements. While sustainable energy goes hand-in-hand with development and industrialization, the Commission has attempted to broaden its viewpoint on the issue by including cross-sectorial advancement measures in its discussions. These measures cover topics such as education and sustainable development, ways to better use sustainable development in transportation and the health sector, and the construction of green buildings.

This year the Commission has planned several events to address the issue of sustainable energy. These sessions cover several aspects of the issue, from cleaner energy production to energy efficiency and renewable energy. The session on sustainable energy production will also take place in September 2016; Member States will hear further testimony of the importance of renewable energy and be encouraged to adopt additional recommendations by the Commission and their subsidiary bodies in order to further reduce greenhouse gas and carbon emissions. The continued focus will be accessibility and affordability. Information gathered this past year will determine which regions will benefit the most from certain energy production types (solar, wind, geothermal, hydropower, etc.) and which would be the most cost-effective. Location and investment amount will also be a focus, as previous reports indicate cities and local governments led the trend of improvement for national governments and could promise a similar upswing for rural regions following their model.

As the Commission represents many of the world's most developed countries and heaviest carbon emitters, it falls to the Commission to lead in developing sustainable energy. Recent recommendations from the Commission continue to focus on the development of energy

efficient technologies such as clean coal and natural gas, as well as national policies related to energy efficiency and access to cleaner energy. However, not every Member State in the European region has the same economic stability or greenhouse gas emissions. The Commission has noted that the Eastern European region has higher emissions outputs that require larger energy efficiency investments than what would be required elsewhere in the region. Thus, it is important to address this issue in a way that does not risk destabilizing the more fragile economies in the region. Several Member States have reduced their per-capita carbon dioxide emissions to below the global average, providing an example for the rest of the Commission Members to consider.

Additionally, the Commission will need to continue focusing on the "Affordable and Clean Energy" and "Climate Action" portions of the SDGs in order to move this issue forward. As has been noted, a lack of economic equity across Member States implies a larger regional role in providing Affordable and Clean Energy to all citizens; the "clean" portion of this goal is also somewhat of an issue. There are few agreed-upon sources of "clean" energy, and the maximum limits for pollution output from these sources vary and change across borders. There are sources of energy that are still too new to have historical and scientific evidence of long-term outcomes; hydraulic fracturing is one of these sources.

Finally, the Commission will need to begin incorporating "Climate Action" into its plans on sustainable energy; while climate change is a focus in shifting toward alternative energy sources, more work must be done both regionally and internationally to stymie carbon emissions and pollution creation. Again, a lack of consistently applied terms creates an issue, as does the maintenance of lifestyle while shifting to sustainable energy or protecting the environment. The Commission must come to terms internally with this as they provide for some lifestyles and improve others.

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

- How can more developed Members States assist lesser-developed States in this shift toward sustainable energy?
- What policy barriers, both national and cross-boundary, should be addressed when considering the issue?
- How can Member States leverage new and existing technologies to develop and obtain more sustainable forms of energy?

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CHAPTER EIGHT

COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

ALBANIA
BANGLADESH
BELARUS
BELGIUM
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA
BRAZIL
BURKINA FASO
CHINA
COLOMBIA
CONGO
CUBA
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
ECUADOR
EGYPT
EL SALVADOR

EQUATORIAL GUINEA
FINLAND
GERMANY
GHANA
GUYANA
INDIA
INDONESIA
IRAN, ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF
ISRAEL
JAPAN
KAZAKHSTAN
KENYA
LESOTHO
LIBERIA
LIECHTENSTEIN

MALAWI
MONGOLIA
NIGER
PAKISTAN
PARAGUAY
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
RUSSIAN FEDERATION
SPAIN
SUDAN
SWITZERLAND
TAJIKISTAN
UGANDA
UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
URUGUAY

PURVIEW OF THE COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

The Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) was established in June 1946 to promote implementation of the principle that men and women shall have equal rights. The Commission has 45 members elected by the Economic and Social Council to four-year terms with broad regional representation.

It meets annually for a period of ten working days to prepare recommendations and reports to ECOSOC on promoting women's rights in political, economic, civil, social and educational fields. CSW also makes recommendations to the Economic and Social Council on urgent problems requiring immediate attention in the field of women's rights.

In 2016, AMUN will simulate the Commission on the Status of Women as a report-writing body, rather than a resolution-writing body. For more information about report-writing bodies, please see 16-17 in the AMUN Rules and Procedures handbook.

Website: <http://www.unwomen.org/en/csw>

THE EMPOWERMENT OF RURAL WOMEN AND THEIR ROLE IN POVERTY AND HUNGER ERADICATION, DEVELOPMENT AND CURRENT CHALLENGES

Despite overall improvement in gender equality around the world, rural women remain some of the most disadvantaged. On almost every major issue, rural women lag behind urban women and rural men, including food security, education and healthcare. Rural regions are home to 70 percent of the world's poorest people and women there play a crucial role in agriculture, the predominant source of income, yet they remain marginalized. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization, women make up, on average, 43 percent of the agricultural labor force in developing countries, but only comprise between 3 and 20 percent of agricultural landholders, depending on the country. The problem is

only exacerbated by limited government services in rural regions where citizens may be far from large cities and potentially far from aid.

The United Nations has recognized and discussed the role of rural women in advancing society since the mid-1970s. Beginning with the First World Conference on Women in Mexico City in 1975, the United Nations put much of the responsibility on national governments to identify and implement programs aimed at reducing rural poverty. Additionally, Member States called upon international agencies to comprehensively review their criteria when evaluating rural development. Four years later the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women was opened for signatures; Article 14 outlines the role States Parties have in improving the lives of rural women across all sectors, including health, education and finance.

In 1995, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action once again focused on the need to provide household food security by increasing income for rural women producers. As part of the continuous follow up process, the twenty-third General Assembly special session in 2000 highlighted that, in order to increase food security in rural areas, women need increased access to land, capital, credit, relevant technology, and gainful employment, in addition to income. Later resolutions reinforced the need to address the issues that affect these women the most in order to improve these regions. In a bid to reduce poverty in rural areas, the General Assembly, in Resolution 64/140, encouraged Member States to expand employment opportunities for rural women outside of the agricultural sector, as well as increase their access to money-saving means, such as banking and credit services, in order to enhance their economic capabilities.

These issues were also incorporated in the Millennium Development Goals One and Three (eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, and the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women). The 2005 World Summit Outcome document reaffirmed the United Nations' commitment to eradicate poverty and once again called upon national governments to implement their own development policies within the existing framework of the Millennium Development Goals. In the 25-year period between 1990 and 2015, the United Nations saw



a significant improvement in the number of female workers in the non-agricultural sector, rising from 35 percent to 41 percent in this 25-year period.

While the Commission on the Status of Women had dealt with the issue of rural development in the past, the links to the empowerment of women and their role in poverty eradication were not fully discussed until 2002. The final report of the 2002 session outlines a comprehensive approach, calling on all parties to help alleviate poverty and empower women through updated economic policies access to health and social services, education and partnership between governmental and non-governmental agencies alike.

Empowerment of rural women and their role in poverty eradication was the priority theme for the 2012 Commission on the Status of Women. During the meeting, Member States agreed that there was further need to examine youth engagement and further financing for rural women. Despite the frameworks and attention given to the needs of rural women both at this meeting and the ten years previous, there is widespread agreement that major work must be done to fully address these issues. The Commission called for a stronger framework to be implemented to address the needs of rural women specifically.

Financing rural development has been a key consideration of the United Nations since these issues arose. In the past, the United Nations has looked to partnerships between government agencies as well as between the public and private sectors. The Economic and Social Council has partnered with the Associated Country Women of the World (ACWW); a non-governmental organization that funds small-scale development projects at the request of women it partners with in over 70 countries. In a statement submitted to the Commission in November 2015, the ACWW outlined a number of obstacles to empowerment and suggested a course of action for Member States to follow with a focus on empowering rural women via improved legal and policy frameworks as well as data collection. Although rural women make up one-quarter of the world's population, a severe lack of data limits potential analysis on their advancement.

The adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals in September 2015 once again brought the role of rural women in society to the forefront at the United Nations. The first five Goals are highly applicable to the situation of rural women. Equal access to economic resources is a top priority in Goals one and five, while Goal two specifically mentions the role of women as the United Nations looks to double the productivity of small-scale farms.

Moving forward, the Commission on the Status of Women will need to examine how best to address the empowerment of rural women in the context of the new Sustainable Development Goals. With the still-recent adoption of the Goals, the Commission will need to determine how it can help Member States best manage their resources through this process. Ensuring that States have the capacity to implement programs in rural areas remains a key concern. Finally, the issues of empowerment of rural women and hunger and poverty eradication are again parts of the priority theme for the Commission's annual meeting. The focus will continue to remain on how Member States can best enforce and implement national-level policies as well as measures that may be taken to finance rural development.

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

- How can the international community support Member States working to improve the lives of rural women?
- What steps can Member States take to ensure the advancement of existing frameworks, such as the Beijing Declaration and Plan of Action, in the context of the Sustainable Development Goals?
- What are the barriers to achieving Sustainable Development Goals one, two and five for rural women? How might Member States address those barriers?

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THE RESPONSIBILITY OF MEN AND BOYS IN ACHIEVING GENDER EQUALITY

Gender equality is a wide-reaching issue of global concern, touching on almost every sector of society and with widespread implications for political, economic and cultural life around the world. While the issue has been on the international agenda since before the creation of the United Nations, global progress toward gender equality remains uneven. One in three women experiences a form of gender-based abuse, with violence present in every society. For millions of women and girls, inequality in the workforce has led to restricted or non-existent economic and educational opportunities. Additionally, access to reproductive health care continues to be limited, with maternal mortality rates at unacceptable levels.

While the discussion often focuses on supporting women, global discussions on gender equality have recently turned to the role of men and boys. Men and boys can make contributions to gender equality as individuals, members of families, political and social leaders, and in other capacities. Men often serve as leaders of political institutions and businesses, and their advocacy for gender equality can play a significant role in society. In some cases, men and boys also experience discrimination as well.

Gender equality has been discussed at the United Nations since its inception. The Commission on the Status of Women was created in 1946. The 1952 Convention on the Political Rights of Women established an international agreement of the rights of women. In 1979, the United Nations adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the most comprehensive international legal agreement on gender equality. The Convention largely covers three areas of concern: the status of women before the law, civil rights, and the influence of culture and tradition in restricting women's rights.

The four world conferences on women also played a significant role in advancing gender equality as a global issue, beginning with the Mexico City Conference in 1975 and continuing at the 1980 Copenhagen Conference. The goals of the first Conference were to secure equal access for women to resources such as education, employment opportunities, political participation, health services, housing, nutrition and family planning. The Conference also called on Member States to formulate national strategies to help promote equal participation of women in society. The 1985 Conference in Nairobi, Kenya declared all issues to be women's issues and stated that women's participation in decision making in all areas of society was a necessity. The Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, targeted the structural nature of gender inequality. Since the Beijing Conference, the United Nations has conducted five-year reviews of global progress on gender equality.

The Commission on the Status of Women first discussed the role of men and boys in achieving gender equality in 2004.

The Commission's agreed upon conclusions emphasized that men and women share joint responsibility for achieving gender equality and that society as a whole experiences the negative effects of inequality. The Commission outlined a number of areas where men can play a positive role. The Commission encouraged media leaders to represent women as equals, rather than sexualizing women or minimizing the contributions women make to society. The document urged male political leaders to be strong advocates for political and social equality. The Commission urged Member States to encourage men to share responsibility in areas typically associated with women, such as caring for children, the sick and the elderly. It also emphasized that men need to be included in education about sexual health and discussions of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Finally, Member States acknowledged that domestic violence was not a crime solely committed against women and that both men and women can play a role in addressing violence together.

At its most recent discussion of the topic in 2012, the Commission expanded the scope of involvement, noting the influence of young people, as well as the powerful role young men play in advancing gender equality. With the world's youth comprising forty-four percent of the global population, it is important to invite youth to participate in the creation of international development goals that work to achieve the overall progress of gender equality.

Progress toward gender equality remains unequal. While the international community has agreed-upon principles for gender equality, many Member States wrestle with the legal, political and cultural barriers to achieving gender equality at the national level. In order to pursue change, Member States will need to draft legislation and policies at the national level that target the elimination of social, cultural, political and economic structures that perpetuate inequality. These efforts require the help of men and boys as well as mobilizing support through the larger population. Addressing traditional gender roles and taboos is particularly important, as there are deeply ingrained social and structural constructs that are difficult to address with those unwilling to participate in a dialog about the advancement of women. Areas that merit future exploration include how to support greater sharing of responsibilities in home and work settings and how to support equal workforce participation of men and women. In many cases, fatherhood training has been successful at reaching younger men and has developed a higher perceived level of paternal competence and an increase in the time men spend with their children. Moving forward, Member States might also consider creating safe spaces where men can discuss their experiences and feelings on aspects of their life that relate to women in a positive manner.

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

- How can Member States balance cultural traditions and gender equality at a social and political level? What programs for men and boys are effective in addressing these issues?
- What international support might benefit Member States' efforts to ensure that men and boys are contributing to gender equality?
- How might Member States cooperate to share effective policies and practices in this area?



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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

ECUADOR V. COLOMBIA (AERIAL HERBICIDE SPRAYING)

This is a historical case. In accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop on 1 February 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.

On 31 March 2008, Ecuador initiated proceedings in the International Court of Justice to resolve an ongoing dispute between Ecuador and Colombia regarding Colombia's program of toxic herbicide aerial spraying. There are three main points of contention in this case. First, is the Court the best place for Ecuador to settle its differences with Colombia over the spraying program considering the other diplomatic steps taken in the dispute? Second, to what extent, if any, must a State take responsibility for the direct or indirect effects of its actions when the effects crosses international boundaries? Finally, what is the burden of proof that must be met before the acting State can be held responsible or liable for said effects?

Colombia's program of aerial dispersion of a toxic herbicide is part of a comprehensive plan to eradicate illegal crops as part of the effort to combat drug-related terrorism financing. Colombian aerial dispersion is part of Plan Colombia, an effort by the Colombian government that includes as one of its goals ending drug trafficking in Colombia. Colombia is targeting illegal coca growers who supply drug trafficking organizations that export the drug as far as the United States and Europe. This program is supported by the United States as a way to prevent drug trafficking into the United States. Colombia authorizes flights that spray high concentrations of glyphosate, commercially known as Roundup. The flights remain at least 10 kilometers from the Ecuadorian border. In response to concerns that aerial dispersion was harmful to Ecuador, Colombia temporarily suspended spraying in the area bordering Ecuador in January 2006. Furthermore, Colombia allowed the United Nations to conduct a study to determine the potential effects of the aerial dispersion campaign on health and the environment near the border of Ecuador. Colombia also agreed to consider the results and determine the appropriate measures to adopt.

In April, 2006 the preliminary study identified the need for additional studies. Colombia resumed its aerial dispersion campaign near the Ecuadorian border on 11 December 2006 and dismissed Ecuador's

continuing health and environmental concerns, citing an Organization of American States study that determined the chemicals used in its aerial dispersion campaign were harmless. Colombian officials stressed the move as sovereign in nature, compelled by "the inescapable need to eradicate illicit crops" that formed "an essential aspect of the fight against the global drug problem."

Ecuador argues that Colombia's aerial spraying of toxic herbicides at locations "near, at, and across its border with Ecuador" have caused "serious damage to people, to crops, to animals and to the natural environment on the Ecuadorian side of the frontier, and poses a grave risk of further damage over time." Ecuador further asserts that repeated efforts to resolve the conflict bilaterally have been rejected by Colombia. Ecuador cites the Statue of the International Court of Justice and Article XXXI of the American Treaty on Pacific Settlement, known as the Pact of Bogota, to support the Court's jurisdiction in these proceedings. In the Application to Institute Proceedings, Ecuador also claims that the Court has jurisdiction in accordance with the provisions of Article 32 of the 1988 United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances.

Ecuador submits three claims to the Court for adjudication. First, Ecuador claims Colombia has violated its obligations under international law by causing or allowing the deposit of toxic herbicides on Ecuadorian territory, causing damage to human health, property and the environment. Second, Ecuador claims that Colombia, as the responsible party, must take financial responsibility for any loss or damage to human life, property or the environment. Finally, Ecuador asks the Court to compel Colombia to respect the sovereign and territorial integrity of Ecuador by immediately ceasing the aerial herbicide spraying campaign so that Ecuador incurs no further damages. Ecuador asserts that the Colombian aerial dispersion program has caused anguish and concern among its population and settlements in the border area. Furthermore, Ecuador claims that the program has generated increased migration of undocumented Colombians to Ecuador and the displacement of Ecuadorians from that area into the country's interior.

For its part, Colombia asserts that the Court lacks jurisdiction to entertain this case because Ecuador has pursued this case in other forums, namely in a series of bilateral talks and three scientific commissions since 2000. One of the bilateral scientific commissions found in favor of Ecuador, while the other two adjourned without conclusion. Colombia further suggests that the involvement of the United States makes the issue one more appropriately addressed under the auspices of the Organization of American States.

Questions to consider include the following:

- Does the Court have jurisdiction in this matter?
- To what extent, if any, must a State take responsibility for the direct or indirect effect of its actions when the effect crosses international boundaries?
- Is the Court the proper forum to weigh the right to environmental integrity against the right to pursue security and drug control measures along State borders?



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GABČÍKOVO-NAGYMAROS PROJECT (HUNGARY V. SLOVAKIA)

This is a historical case. In accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop on 15 April 1997. Any and all updates to this case after that date will not be relevant to the AMUN simulation nor considered in hearing the case.

On 16 September 1977, Hungary and Czechoslovakia signed a bilateral treaty (the 1977 Treaty) in which they agreed to build a cross-border system of locks and dams on the Danube River. The approximately 200-kilometer section of river discussed in the treaty stretched from Bratislava in Slovakia to the Hungarian city of Budapest to the southeast. After the Danube flows through Bratislava, its gradient—the ratio of how much a river drops in elevation over a given distance—decreases significantly, creating an area of slow-moving, poorly-navigable waters with large amounts of gravel and other sediment. The goals of the joint project were to produce hydroelectricity, to improve navigation on the improved section of the Danube and to protect the areas along the banks from flooding.

Each contracting party was to participate equally in the funding, construction and operation of the system, with Czechoslovakia having primary responsibility for the construction near Gabčíkovo and Hungary having primary responsibility for the construction near Nagymaros and Dunakiliti. The 1977 Treaty also provided that the Contracting Parties would endeavor to preserve the water quality of the Danube and comply with certain obligations to protect the environment. Soon after adoption of the 1977 Treaty, the Contracting Parties also entered into a Joint Contractual Plan, which provided further details of the construction and operation of the system of locks and dams. Work on the project began in 1978.

In 1983, it became apparent that continued work on the project would need to slow down, in part due to economic problems in Hungary. The two countries agreed in the 1983 Protocol to slow down construction and delay putting the power plants into operation. In a Protocol signed on 6 February 1989, the two parties agreed to restart the project at an accelerated pace. With the restart came criticism from Hungarian nationals concerning the environmental impact of the project. A group called the “Danube Circle” began protesting against further construction of Hungary’s portions of the dam because of the potential impact on Hungary’s underground water reserves, which are vital to supporting the large population around Budapest. The Danube Circle also claimed that the Communist government was hiding information about the project to avoid public debate about the environmental impact. Under pressure, Hungary temporarily suspended the works at Nagymaros on 13 May 1989, and again on 21 July 1989. Finally, on 27 October 1989, Hungary decided to abandon construction at Nagymaros and Dunakiliti completely.

The two parties entered into negotiations surrounding the completion of the obligations under the 1977 Treaty but were never able to come to an agreement. Czechoslovakia began looking into alternatives to complete the construction of its part of the project without Hungary. This plan, known as “Variant C,” would divert the Danube on Czechoslovakian territory approximately 10 kilometers upstream of Dunakiliti. Czechoslovakia began construction on Variant C in November 1991. On 19 May 1992, Hungary notified Czechoslovakia that it was terminating the 1977 Treaty effective 25 May 1992. Czechoslovakia, succeeded by Slovakia in 1993, continued the construction of the Gabčíkovo dam in accordance with a provisional solution that allowed it to maximize use of the Danube, and moved forward with the diversion of the river planned out in Variant C.

Hungary and Slovakia brought the present dispute to the Court through a Special Agreement signed on 2 July 1993. The Court is asked to rule on three main issues: first, “whether the Republic of Hungary was entitled to suspend and to subsequently abandon in 1989 the works on the Nagymaros Project and on the part of the Gabčíkovo Project, for which the Treaty attributed responsibility to the Republic of Hungary;” second, whether Slovakia was entitled to proceed with its “Variant C” solution; and third, the legal effects of the 19 May 1992 notification from Hungary to Czechoslovakia that it was terminating the 1977 Treaty. A threshold issue is whether, and how, Slovakia succeeded to Czechoslovakia’s obligations under the 1977 Treaty and related instruments.

Hungary argues that it had lawfully ceased construction due to ecological necessity, impossibility of performance, a fundamental change in circumstances and a material breach by Slovakia. Specifically, Hungary introduces scientific evidence contending that completion of the lock and dam system would cause the extinction of local wildlife, deteriorate the water quality of the Danube, result in increased flooding and silting and decrease the water supply available to Budapest. Further, Hungary claimed that Slovakia had wrongfully continued with construction under Variant C, especially after Hungary transmitted notice that it was terminating the 1977 Treaty. Finally, Hungary argues that Slovakia did not succeed to Czechoslovakia’s rights and obligations under the 1977 Treaty, and therefore has no right to attempt to enforce it, or to hold Hungary responsible for any damages.



Slovakia argues that Hungary had breached the Treaty by failing to construct the dam and failing to mitigate damages. According to Slovakia, Hungary's scientific arguments regarding environmental impact do not rise to the level of "grave and imminent peril" that would allow Hungary to invoke the defense of "Ecological Necessity" under the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties. Slovakia also contends that it was justified in proceeding with the Variant C plan due to Hungary's prior breach of the 1977 Treaty and refusal to continue with the project, in other words, that Slovakia had a duty under international law to mitigate its damages. Finally, Slovakia argues that it did in fact succeed to Czechoslovakia's obligations under the 1977 Treaty, invoking the Vienna Convention on the Succession of States with respect to Treaties.

Questions to consider include the following:

- Did Slovakia succeed to Czechoslovakia's obligations under the 1977 treaty?
- How did circumstances change between 1977 and 1992?
- Was it lawful for Hungary to abandon the project?
- Was Slovakia justified in continuing construction on the dam in 1991? In 1992?
- Is either Party entitled to compensation?

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WHALING IN THE ANTARCTIC (AUSTRALIA V. JAPAN)

This is a historical case. In accordance with AMUN rules and procedures, please note that the historical timeline for this case will stop on 19 November 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.

On 01 June 2010, Australia instituted proceedings before the International Court of Justice against Japan over a dispute concerning Japan's (JARPA) II program on "scientific whaling." Australia contends that the Court has jurisdiction in this matter based upon the provisions of Article 36, paragraph 2 of the Court's statute, which refer to the declarations recognizing the Court's jurisdiction as compulsory.

Australia's allegation is based on a dispute over the interpretation of the International Convention on the Regulation of Whaling (ICRW). The stated purpose of the ICRW is to "provide for the proper conservation of whale stocks and thus make possible the orderly development of the whaling industry." Under the ICRW, States Parties to the Convention form the International Whaling Commission (IWC); the IWC meets once a year to discuss and adjust the Convention. Since 1986, under the ICRW, there has been a moratorium on whaling for commercial purposes. In addition to the moratorium, an Indian and Southern Ocean Sanctuary was created, which specifically bans commercial whaling in those oceans.

Article VIII(1) of the ICRW allows any Contracting Government to grant to its nationals a special permit for scientific whaling. Whaling conducted under the protection of a permit is exempt from the ICRW, but all such permits must be reported to the ICRW immediately upon issuance. After the 1986 moratorium, Japan issued itself a permit under which it caught a small number of whales each year for scientific study. This program, known as JARPA I, ran from 1987 to 2005. When JARPA I expired, Japan announced that it was instituting a second phase of JARPA under Article VIII, called JARPA II. This second phase increased the sample size of whales taken under the program by 10 percent. JARPA II also expanded the study to include humpback and fin whales.

In its application, Australia alleges that "Japan's continued pursuit of a large-scale program of whaling under the Second Phase of its Japanese Whale Research Program under the Special Permit in the Antarctic (JARPA II) [is] in breach of obligations assumed by Japan under the International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling (ICRW), as well as its other international obligations for the preservation of marine mammals and marine environment." Australia contends that Japan has breached the following obligations under the ICRW:

1. The obligation under paragraph 10(e) of the Schedule to the ICRW to observe in good faith the zero catch limit in relation to the killing of whales for commercial purposes; and
2. The obligation under paragraph 7(b) of the Schedule to the ICRW to act in good faith to refrain from undertaking commercial whaling of humpback and fin whales in the Southern Ocean Sanctuary.

In addition to its alleged breaches of the ICRW, Australia also contends that Japan has breached, and continues to breach, its obligations under the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) by removing from the sea specimens threatened with extinction absent exceptional circumstances. Similarly, Australia claims that Japan has breached its obligation under the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) to ensure that any actions taken within Japan's jurisdiction are not harmful to the environment of other States. Australia also asserts that ongoing negotiations in the IWC have been "unable to resolve the key legal issue that is the subject of the dispute, namely the large scale 'special permit' whaling under JARPA II."



Australia requests that the Court declare that Japan is in breach of its international obligations in implementing the JARPA II program in the Southern Ocean. It also requests that the Court order Japan to cease implementation of JARPA II; revoke any authorizations, permits or licenses allowing the activities which are subject of this application to be undertaken; and provide assurances and guarantees that it will not take any further action under JARPA II, or any other similar program, until such program has been brought into conformity with Japan's obligations under international law.

Japan contests the jurisdiction of the ICJ, arguing that the dispute was excluded by Australia's declaration under Article 36, paragraph 2, of the Statute of the International Court of Justice, which excludes from ICJ jurisdiction "any dispute concerning or relating to the delimitation of maritime zones, ... or arising out of, concerning, or relating to the exploitation of any disputed area of or adjacent to any such maritime zone pending its delimitation."

Japan entered several reservations to the CITES agreement for various whale species mentioned therein. Japan asserts that both CITES and CBD are not applicable to this matter. Further, even if CITES were applicable to this matter, the Convention allows for sustainable use of biodiversity. As such, the JARPA II program fits within the Convention's parameters.

Japan claims that JARPA II is permitted under Article VII(1) of the ICRW, which authorizes Contracting Governments to grant special permits to its nationals to kill, take or treat whales for scientific research. Further, Japan claims it is not in violation of any obligations of the Convention on Biological Diversity, including Articles 3, 5 and 10(b). Article 3 requires States to ensure that activities under their jurisdiction and control do not cause harm to other States or to areas beyond their national jurisdiction. Article 5 states, "as far as possible and as appropriate," States Parties are to cooperate (including through international organizations) in the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity beyond their national jurisdiction. Article 10(b) requires States, "as far as possible and as appropriate," to adopt measures that avoid or minimize adverse impacts on biological diversity.

Japan cites the lack of facts to support Australia's claim that Japan is in violation of the CBD and argues that JARPA II is in compliance with the ICRW. Japan followed the mandate of the ICRW and submitted the whaling permits to the Scientific Committee of the IWC in 2005 for review. By doing so Japan asserts that it has fulfilled its obligations under the CBD. Japan notes that JARPA II is a legitimate scientific programme; the program is administered by the Institute of Cetacean Research, under the scientific-research provision in the IWC moratorium. JARPA II culls a pre-set number of three species each year for 16 years. The full programme commenced in late 2007 following a 2-year feasibility study, in which a smaller number of whales were culled each year

Questions to consider include the following:

- Does the Court have jurisdiction in this case?
- What are the obligations of a Contracting Government that issues a special permit to itself under Article VIII(1) of the ICRW? What is the nature of Australia's interests, if any, in Japan's issuance of a permit?

- Has Japan violated its obligations under the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora and under the Convention on Biological Diversity?
- Is JARPA II a bona fide scientific program under the International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling?

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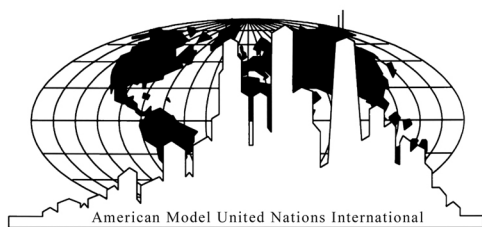
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NOTES...

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