American Model United Nations International Conference
Issues at AMUN
Representative Handbook

Introduction

The *Issues at AMUN* Handbook has been published to assist Representatives in their preparations for the American Model United Nations (AMUN) Conference. When utilized to complement the research students conduct on the nation they represent and the topics of discussion, this handbook provides Representatives with all the substantive information they will require to function effectively at the simulation. Its sister handbook, *AMUN Rules and Procedures*, provides an overview of the Committee/Council rules and conference logistics with which Representatives need to familiarize themselves for the simulation.

The following pages contain brief overviews of the topics to be discussed in the Committees and Councils at the 2007 Conference. These are intended as a guideline and basis for Representatives' further research of the issues involved. In keeping with this, each overview includes a bibliography to guide Representatives on appropriate sources of additional information.

The overviews give a brief background into each topic and state some areas of current United Nations (UN) and international activity on the topic. In many cases, the overviews will frame the topic in terms of a few, limited parts of a highly complex issue. For example, the general issue of "the Environment" may have dozens of sub-issues —— in such a case, the overview may provide direction for Representatives to concentrate their research on "Ozone Depletion" and "Limiting the Destruction of the Rain Forests," only two of the many smaller issues. This format allows Representatives to go into greater detail in their preparations, without the need to research all aspects of the multifaceted main issue.

Chapter I - The United Nations is provided as essential background to give all Representatives a common ground about the history of the UN. This section begins with the origins of the UN and covers some important points about the organization. Finally, focus is given to problems confronting the UN today.

AMUN's philosophy in providing these topic overviews is to give Representatives *direction* in their research, but to leave the work up to them. **These overviews are not intended to be the sole source of Representatives' research on the topics prior to the conference.**

Use of the Internet

Note that many of the works cited in this *Issues at AMUN* Handbook are resources located on the World Wide Web. Full text of many of AMUN's periodical sources are available to AMUN participants on-line. Feel free to visit AMUN's homepage at **www.amun.org** for a full list of recommended research links.

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

The Purview of Each Simulation

Each of the following simulation background sections begins with a brief discussion of the "purview" of that simulation. This is a general overview of what types of discussions that simulation might have on the topics in question. This is extremely important in the UN system, where a variety of different Committees and Councils may discuss different aspects of the solution to an international problem. Representatives should exercise great care in researching a topic, and when deliberating should focus on the piece of a problem that is considered by their simulation. These should be considered a guideline for the discussions of each body.

An excellent example of this shifting focus is the Palestinian question. The First Committee might discuss aspects of the situation dealing with weapons shipments. At the same time, the Second Committee may discuss a variety of financing initiatives to help the Palestinian Authority. Similarly, the Third Committee, or in some case ECOSOC, might discuss the social and humanitarian considerations that arise from Israeli occupation of various territories. And the Fourth Committee may discuss the various political implications of the question of Palestine, possibly including independence issues if this is specifically encompassed in one of that committee's topics. Only the GA Plenary Session would discuss the problem in its entirety, including the possible creation of a legal Palestinian State or member status for that State. The Security Council would deal with any peace and security issues that it deemed appropriate on the situation. Thus, it can be seen from this one situation that different aspects of a problem are regularly discussed in different bodies. More importantly, at the UN delegations are typically careful to *only* discuss those aspects relevant to their own Committee/Council, leaving other aspects for others in their delegation.

CHAPTER ONE
THE UNITED NATIONS

Representatives participating in American Model United Nations should be familiar with the history of the United Nations, as well as the rapidly changing role that the organization plays in international affairs. This section is intended to provide a brief background on the UN system and on some of the issues it faces today.

Origins of the United Nations

The United Nations came into existence on 24 October 1945. On that day, the United Nations Charter became operative, having been signed by the fifty-one original members. The concept of all nations uniting together in one organization designed to settle disputes peacefully was born of the desire of civilized nations to avoid the horrors produced by the First and Second World Wars. The United Nations developed as a successor to the League of Nations, which represented the first attempt by nations to achieve this unity. The League failed in large part because the United States never joined as a member.

In 1942, President Roosevelt first coined the term "United Nations," when the Declaration of the United Nations was signed by forty-seven nations in support of the Atlantic Charter. In 1944, the United States, United Kingdom, USSR and China met in Washington, DC at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, where the first blueprint of the United Nations was prepared. In 1945, the final details for the United Nations were worked out at the Yalta Conference. Fifty-one nations gathered from 24 April through 26 June in San Francisco to draft the Charter of the United Nations, which was signed on 26 June 1945.

Purpose of the United Nations

The primary purposes for which the United Nations was founded are detailed in Chapter I, Article 1 of the Charter. These are:

1. To maintain international peace and security;
2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;
3. To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinctions as to race, sex, language and religion;
4. To be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

How the United Nations Seeks to Achieve Its Purpose

Since 1945, the United Nations has established itself as a forum for the discussion of international disputes. Also, Member States recognize that the United Nations has an established machinery which can be utilized as the means of solving international problems. The United Nations seeks, both through its principal organs and various subsidiary bodies, to settle disputes through peaceful means, without resorting to the threat or use of force. It should be recognized that the United Nations is not a world government, nor does it "legislate." Rather, the actions of the United Nations, as evidenced by resolutions passed by its bodies, have a strong moral persuasive effect. The Member States frequently find it within their own best interests to follow UN recommendations.

Structure Of The United Nations

The United Nations has six primary bodies:

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

The Security Council (SC): The Security Council is charged with the primary responsibility for maintaining international peace and security. It has the power to employ United Nations forces and direct action against threats to the peace. Fifteen members sit on the Security Council, including the five Permanent Members (China, France, Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and the United States) along with ten "at-large" members who are elected by the General Assembly for two-year terms. A majority in the Security Council consists of nine members voting "yes." However, a "no" vote by any of the Permanent Members has the effect of vetoing or blocking motions.

Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC): ECOSOC is the primary body dealing with the economic, social, humanitarian and cultural work of the United Nations system. ECOSOC oversees five regional economic commissions and nine "subject-matter" commissions, along with a sizeable system of committees and expert bodies. ECOSOC is composed of fifty-four Member States, elected by the GA for three-year terms.

Trusteeship Council (TC): In 1945 there were eleven Trust Territories, which were regions without their own governments. These eleven regions were placed under the TC, which helped them prepare for and achieve independence. With the admittance of Palau as a UN Member State in 1994, the TC has now completed its original mandate. The TC today is inactive, but is formally composed of the permanent Security Council members.

The International Court of Justice (ICJ): The International Court of Justice, or World Court, is the primary judicial organ of the UN and decides international legal disputes. All UN members are automatically able to bring matters before the ICJ; however, States

must agree to accept the jurisdiction of the ICJ before it can decide a dispute involving that State. Fifteen judges serving nine-year terms sit on the Court.

Secretariat: The Secretariat is composed of the Secretary-General and the United Nations Staff. Approximately 16,000 people are employed as the staff of the UN, one-third of whom work at the UN headquarters in New York City. The other two-thirds work for various subsidiary bodies of the United Nations. The Secretary-General serves a five-year renewable term.

In addition to the six main bodies, the United Nations includes a large "family" of specialized agencies and programs which the UN administers. Examples include the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Health Organization (WHO), and the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF).

Bloc Politics

The system of "bloc politics" in the UN is one in which nations have organized themselves into groups based on areas of mutual interest. These blocs tend to be made up of nations with similar political, historical or cultural backgrounds. They are often formed on a geographic basis, but this is not exclusively the case. By organizing themselves with other nations that hold similar interests, bloc members hope to increase their influence above the level that they would have as a single nation in the General Assembly.

Bloc politics in the UN today is a misunderstood and rapidly changing phenomenon. The necessity of blocs in the UN was formally established in 1957, when four regional groups were endorsed by the General Assembly: the Latin American, the Asian and African, the Eastern European and the Western European and Others. Since that time, the bloc system has grown to encompass many of the political, economic and military organizations of the world. Examples of the major blocs include the Non-Aligned Movement, the Group of 77, the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), the African Union (AU), the Organization of American States (OAS), the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and the European Union (EU).

Major changes in the utilization of blocs at the UN have occurred since the end of the Cold War, as explained below. Please note, however, that these groups do not have "official" standing as caucus groups at the UN, but are rather groups that meet, depending on the circumstances, to attempt to reach a consensus on various issues.

Blocs are often thought of as "Voting Blocs," but this is a definite misnomer. They can be more realistically seen as "Caucusing Blocs:" groups which discuss issues together based on areas of mutual interest, but that often do not reach full agreement on all issues. A key consideration is that every country in a bloc will have different priorities **based on its own national interests**. Countries will often discount bloc considerations and vote in their own best interest in these priority areas.

Blocs usually attempt to form a consensus among their members which will allow them to act as a cohesive group. The effectiveness of any given bloc in exerting its positions in the General Assembly will often depend upon its ability to form a consensus among its own members. These acts of compromise form the basis of UN politics, and often must occur within the various caucusing groups before they can begin to apply to the UN as a whole.

Bloc politics have changed considerably over time. Their viability as a political tool is diminishing; blocs are falling out of use. The most historically cohesive bloc, the Warsaw Pact, has ceased to exist as a military and political unit. Several other blocs, including the Western, are undergoing structural changes that will have a profound effect on the future of UN politics. The more organized blocs at present are the African Union (formerly the Organization of African Unity), the Organization of American States, and the European Union.

One often misinterpreted area of bloc politics is that of the "Third World," or developing bloc. A "Third World Bloc" has never existed. In actuality, several blocs of developing countries have existed. The Group of 77 (now consisting of 125+ nations) is the largest and is still sometimes thought of as the Third World Bloc. There are, however, developing nations which are not members of this organization, and many members also belong to several other organizations, particularly the Non-Aligned Movement.

Representatives should be aware that the Member State they represent may no longer actively participate in bloc politics, or may vote outside of its traditional bloc based on circumstances. For example, at the June 1992 Environmental Summit in Rio de Janeiro, several Group of 77 countries including India, a previous leader of the bloc, ignored bloc positions on environmental issues and followed their own national interests when participating at the Summit. The most accurate thing which can be said about bloc politics today is that they are in a state of flux. Many states are increasingly neutral on issues on which they once held strong views and that were shared with other members of their respective bloc. Other States are becoming increasingly independent on issues, or are concerned only with regional issues. One example of a new bloc which has formed in recent years is the "Alliance Against Biopiracy," formally known as the "Group of Allied Mega-Biodiverse Nations," which was formed to work together on sustainable development and similar issues. This group is comprised of 12 of the most biodiverse countries on the planet (China, Brazil and India, among others), with a combined total of over 70% of the world's biodiversity within their collective borders.

For the purposes of the AMUN Conference, blocs will not be treated as "official" bodies. Representatives are encouraged to caucus in their bloc groups **only when appropriate**. Please remember there are many issues which cross bloc lines and many opportunities to invite an "involved nation" to another bloc caucus in an effort to achieve a consensus.

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

Also, the UN Foundation's on-line daily newsletter, the UN Wire, is an excellent resource for timely information. Whenever possible, AMUN recommends that Representatives familiarize themselves with the most recent report(s) published by the Secretary-General on each situation, along with other UN documents. These can be found on the UN homepage under the Security Council documents section (www.un.org/Docs/sc/). Please note that the bibliographies for these topics focus primarily on UN sources, with some news sources provided for background on important aspects of the various situations.

Initial background research is provided below for each region, with one or two topics receiving a brief analysis. Security Council representatives are neither limited to the main topics discussed nor to any of the topics listed. Should world events move in a different direction from the topics provided in this handbook, the Security Council is welcome to discuss any peace and security matter which it desires.

Please note that draft resolutions should be written on the sub-topics of each regional area: i.e., resolutions would not be written about "Issues in Africa," but rather about "The Situation in Sierra Leone" or similar sub-topics within the region.

Issues In Africa

The Situation in Ethiopia and Eritrea

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

In October 2006, over 2,000 Eritrean Defense Forces (EDF) troops entered the Temporary Security Zone with tanks, artillery, and anti-air guns. Ethiopia has also increased its military presence near the southern boundary of the Zone, deploying around 1,200 troops. In March 2007, Ethiopia contacted UNMEE, informing them of the presence of additional tanks and artillery in the region. Due to the restrictions placed on them, UNMEE could not confirm these reports.

Despite these developments, the number of cross-border incidents have been fewer over the last few months. UNMEE observers, however, report having to defuse a number of tense situations along the border, and the Secretary-General reports that the moves made by both governments are consistent with a resumed confrontation. Recent terrorist attacks in Ethiopia have also acerbated the situation, with Ethiopia alleging Eritrean involvement.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How are the restrictions on UNMEE's movement affecting its mission?
- Do the changing conditions in the region require a change in the objectives of UNMEE? What would a renewal of violence mean for the region and for UNMEE?

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S/2007/250 - Progress Report of The Secretary-General on Ethiopia and Eritrea

S/2007/33 - Report of the Secretary-General on Ethiopia and Eritrea
S/2006/992 - Special Report of the Secretary-General on Ethiopia and Eritrea
S/2006/749 - Report of the Secretary-General on Ethiopia and Eritrea

The Situation in Somalia

Since 1988 Somalia has been wracked by a civil war. In 1992, a year after the fall of President Mohamed Siad Barre's government, the United Nations sent a force of 35,000 troops in Operation Restore Hope. While this mission initially made progress by 1994 American and European troops within the force withdrew. The UN Mission to Somolia, UNOSOM II, ended with the withdrawal of forces in 1995. The situation worsened over the rest of the 1990s, with the capital of Mogadishu divided between two rival warlords.

At the turn of the century, the situation began to appear more promising. In 2000, Abdikassim Salat Hassan was elected transitional president by various clan leaders in Djibouti. In 2002, the transitional government signed a cease-fire with 21 clan-based factions at talks sponsored by the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD). In 2004, a 275-member parliament chosen by clan leaders was sworn in Nairobi. The parliament met for the first time in February 2006.

Currently, the situation remains rather fragile. After militias loyal to the Union of Islamic Courts (UCI) took control of Mogadishu and southern Somalia, the Security Council, in S/RES/1725 (2006), authorized IGAD and the African Union (AU) to send a peacekeeping force to help prop up the transitional government. Prior to their deployment, Ethiopian forces helped engage the UCI militias, driving them out of Mogadishu with the assistance of the AU force. The Red Cross said this fighting was the worst in 15 years, and the UN estimated more than 320,000 Somalis fled the country between February and April 2007. Reports of Eritrea cooperating with the UCI militias complicate the situation further. Ethiopia has requested that the AU take over so they can remove their troops.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Why has the Somali civil war persisted for so long despite significant international attention?
- What might differentiate a new UN mission from previous ones?
- How might Ethiopian and Eritrean involvement further complicate the situation?
- What might be done to help alleviate Somalia's humanitarian crisis?

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S/2007/259 - Report of the Secretary-General on Children and Armed Conflict in Somalia
S/2007/115 – Monthly Report of the Secretary-General on Somalia
S/2006/838 - Report of the Secretary-General on the Situation in Somalia

The Situation in Sudan

In 2003, a rebellion broke out in the Darfur region of Western Sudan. The rebels, called the Sudan Liberation Army (SLA), attacked government and military facilities throughout Darfur. After several successful raids, local militias, known as the Janjaweed, began to strike back at rebel held villages and territory. The conflict has resulted in the death of thousands of people and the displacement of hundreds of thousands more, leading the United Nations to declare it "the world's greatest humanitarian crisis." In response, the UN has attempted to provide aid to the refugees, but the high level of violence in the area impedes their efforts. Instances of armed men looting and attacking convoys and humanitarian workers continue to be reported.

Many NGOs and the United States believe the atrocities in Darfur constitute genocide. This declaration accompanied a more forceful approach to the violence. In 2004, following the signing of a cease-fire agreement, the African Union (AU) deployed a force of military observers to monitor the agreement, which was repeatedly violated. The AU observers were not authorized to intervene in the conflict but rather to document any attacks against civilians. By all accounts, the AU presence failed to reduce the violence in the region, with the observers becoming targets of attacks on several occasions. In March 2005, the Security Council referred allegations of war crimes in the region to the International Criminal Court, leading to charges against Sudan's Humanitarian Affairs Minister, Ahmed Haroun. The Security Council also imposed a limited arms embargo on belligerent parties in Darfur; however, this continued to permit arms transfers to the Sudanese government on the condition that they not be used in Darfur. That summer, the AU increased its presence with a 7,000 strong peacekeeping mission.

In May 2006, the Sudanese government signed a peace treaty with the SLA under intense pressure from the American and Nigerian governments. Various other rebel groups did not participate in the treaty and pledged to keep fighting. This has led to a continuance of violence in the region, exacerbated by a spillover of the conflict into Chad, which continued until a peace agreement signed in May of this year between Chad and Sudan. This has also significantly worsened the living conditions for the hundreds of thousands of refugees who had fled across the border into Chad. In late 2006, the Security Council called for a 17,300 strong peacekeeping force to be sent to the region. This plan has been indefinitely suspended due to Sudanese opposition. The continued presence of AU peacekeepers had no effect on the sustained level of violence. And in April 2007, several AU peacekeepers were killed.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What is the proper role of the UN in an internal conflict of a Member State with a significant humanitarian dimension?

- What has caused the violence in Sudan to continue to escalate despite repeated bouts of diplomacy? What has limited the ability of the Security Council to take action? How might these factors be overcome?
- How might a UN peacekeeping mission be more successful than the AU mission? How would any differences serve your government's interests?
- Does your government consider the situation in Sudan genocide? If so, how does this affect how the Security Council should react?

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S/2007/42 - Report of the Secretary-General on Sudan
S/2006/1041 - Monthly Report of the Secretary-General on Darfur

Issues In Asia

The Situation in the DPRK

In October of 2002, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) stunned the world by acknowledging that it had hidden a nuclear weapons program for years. In response, six interested parties (China, DPRK, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Russia, and the United States) set up a series of ongoing talks aimed at finding a resolution to the standoff. The talks initially made little progress. The United States then withdrew from the Korean Peninsula Energy Development Organization (KEDO) agreement, by which it provided energy aid with the ultimate promise of a pair of light-water nuclear reactors in return for a freeze on the DPRK's nuclear program. Shortly afterwards, the DPRK announced it was withdrawing from the Non-Proliferation Treaty, becoming the first nation in the world to do so. Many outside observers believe that the DPRK has since reprocessed a stockpile of plutonium from its nuclear facility at Yongbyon, which could give it enough nuclear material to make a small number of nuclear weapons.

The six party talks reached a series of apparent breakthroughs since 2003, but all have broken down. The five parties continue to emphasize that their main goal is the complete dismantling of the DPRK's nuclear program.

On 13 February 2007, the six parties agreed on a set of Initial Actions to achieve the denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula and fully realize the September 2005 Joint Statement. The DPRK invited the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) inspectors in for discussions aimed at dismantlement and the US released Banco Delta Asia funds. The Banco Delta Asia funds in Macao had been frozen in 2006 when the US launched a crackdown on a DPRK attempt to launder counterfeit US currency through the world financial system, which triggered many other banks to cut ties to accounts linked to the DPRK. Funds were further frozen by Security Council Resolution 1718, to be kept so unless the DPRK suspended all activities related to its ballistic missile and nuclear weapons programs.

By the Spring, the DPRK had yet to invite the IAEA to begin shutting down the Yongbyon nuclear facility. The DPRK insisted that it first receive $25 million from the once-frozen accounts, which have remained stalled because of a reluctance of reputable institutions to handle formerly blacklisted funds. The United States has agreed to find a bank to handle the transfer of funds to ensure that this step is met. The other parties will not follow with their next step, providing emergency energy assistance, until this happens

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What implications does the United States' decision to unilaterally unfreeze the DPRK's accounts, mandated by a Security Council resolution, have on the negotiations process and the mandate of Security Council resolutions?
- How does the history of the DPRK's nuclear program affect the compromises made in the Non-Proliferation Treaty?
- How does the progression of the DPRK's nuclear program affect the negotiations over the Iranian nuclear program?

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Additional Web Resources:

www.globalsecurity.org/wmd/world/dprk/6-party.htm - Global Security page on the Six Party Talks

www.iaea.org/NewsCenter/Focus/IaeaDprk/index.shtml - IAEA in Focus: IAEA and the DPRK

Issues In The Middle East

The Situation in Iran

Although there have long been allegations of a secret Iranian program to develop nuclear weapons, these rumors took on a new life when an Iranian opposition group revealed two previously unknown nuclear sites in 2002. Iran has claimed that its nuclear program exists solely to provide electrical power, but the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) increased inspections aimed at determining whether or not Iran had a military nuclear program operating alongside its civilian program.

Over the past few years, the IAEA has found numerous instances where Iran failed to report nuclear activities and nuclear facilities to the IAEA. While the IAEA has confirmed Iran's ability to enrich uranium to low levels, the organization has admitted significant gaps in its understanding of the Iranian enrichment program.

France, Germany, and the United Kingdom (often known collectively as the EU3) held early negotiations with Iran. The Europeans sought to broker a deal that would allow Iran to develop nuclear reactors that would produce electric energy without allowing Iran technology that could later serve as the building blocks for a military program, such as the enrichment of uranium. The Iranians agreed to suspend controversial activities, such as enrichment, while the negotiations continued. In August of 2005, the negations reached a climax, with the EU3 making their final offer to Iran: a series of economic and political incentives to Iran in return for Iran's suspension of nuclear activities. Iran rejected the offer and resumed enriching uranium shortly thereafter.

In April 2006, President Ahmedenijad announced that Iran had "joined the nuclear countries of the world," and that Iran had no intention of giving up its right to enrich uranium as part of negotiations over its nuclear program.

While the SC has often been divided on the issues, the so-called "six powers" (the US, UK, France, Germany, Russia, and China) agreed in early June 2006 on a set of proposals for Iran, containing both incentives and disincentives for Iran to cease enriching uranium. At the same time, the United States offered to join the negotiations with the Europeans if Iran agreed to a freeze on uranium enrichment, while simultaneously rejecting an Iranian proposal for direct talks.

In a May 2007 report, Dr. ElBaradei, head of the IAEA, stated that Iran is ignoring Security Council resolutions, not allowing IAEA monitors to do their job properly, and continuing to enrich uranium. Since Iran had begun enriching uranium on a much larger scale, ElBaradei suggested a negotiated solution that would allow Iran to retain a limited enrichment program: "Instead [of enrichment suspension], the important thing now is to concentrate on Iran now taking it to industrial scale."

Following the report, the Security Council adopted a new resolution that includes banning arms exports, freezing assets, and restricting the travel of additional individuals associated with the nuclear program. The Council also requested a report from the IAEA within 60 days on whether Iran had established full suspension of its enrichment program. The resolution urges Iran to consider diplomatic options, but also warns that the Security Council could consider harsher measures. Iranian Foreign Minister Manouchehr Mottaki said Iran is ready to show flexibility in talks with Western powers, but says, "the only price we cannot pay is relinquishing the Iranian nation's right to acquire peaceful nuclear technology."

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

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S/RES/1696
S/PRST/2006/15
SC/8980

Additional Web Resources:

www.iaea.org/NewsCenter/Focus/IaeaIran/index.shtml - IAEA in Focus: IAEA and Iran

www.globalsecurity.org/wmd/world/iran/index.html - Global Security's page on Iran

The Situation in Iraq

Iraq is a frequent topic of discussion in the Security Council, but the Council's active role since the removal of Saddam Hussein's government in 2003 has been limited. While the UN was forced to withdraw much of its personnel in Iraq following the August and September 2003 bombings of its offices, its presence has increased again recently.

The Council's primary action since that time was to establish the UN Assistance Mission for Iraq (UNAMI) on 14 August 2003, with the Council's annual review of the mission's work. Instrumental in the December 2005 elections, UNAMI has also been active in assisting the Iraqi government with political and economic development as well as in coordinating reconstruction and humanitarian assistance efforts. Ongoing violence, unfortunately, has served as a constant impediment to the successful work of UNAMI.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What is the proper role of the international community in Iraq?

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Chapter Three
The Historical Security Council of 1956

Members of the Historical Security Council of 1956:		
Australia	Iran, Islamic	United States of
Belgium	Republic of	America
China	Peru	United Kingdom
Cuba	Union of Soviet	Yugoslavia
France	Socialist Republics	

About the Historical Security Council

The 2007 American Model United Nations Historical Security Council (HSC) will simulate the events of the world beginning on 1 July 1956. The key international security concerns of this time revolve around the situations in the Middle East, with the Palestine question and continuing Arab-Israeli hostilities; South Africa, including the race conflict and issues with people of Indian origin residing in that country; colonial issues in Algeria, Cyprus and many other areas seeking independence; and continued disputes and recognition issues between the two Chinas. The Cold War struggles between the United States and the Soviet Union continue as a constant undercurrent in the world of international politics.

In 1956, Dag Hammarskjold was the Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dwight Eisenhower the US President and Nikita Khrushchev the Soviet Premier. The Shah's government was in power in Iran, Batista's Cuba was in the American sphere of influence, and the Republic of China (on Formosa/Taiwan), rather than the mainland People's Republic of China, was officially represented in the United Nations. Cold War tensions were progressively growing at this time, and decolonization, its creation of many new States and subsequent expansion of the United Nations, was moving into full swing. Issues of "Palestine" revolved around continued violations of the armistice which followed the 1948 war, and the only issues involving "Palestinians" were their status as refugees. There were "internal" conflicts in many countries in this time period (South Africa, Algeria, Morocco, etc.), but most never reached the Security Council, or were discussed with no action taken, due to the powerful patronage of one or more of the Permanent Members.

AMUN's HSC is unique not only in its topics, but also in its treatment of those topics. History and time are the HSC's media and those media are flexible. In the simulation, the HSC will preempt history from the time the Council's simulation begins. History will be as it was written until the moment the Council convenes, 1 July, 1956. From that moment forward, however, *Council members exercise free will based on the range of all the choices within their national character and upon the capabilities of their governments*.

Effective role playing for an HSC Member State will not be just a rote replay of national decisions as they evolved in 1956. Indeed, the problems of the era may not transpire as they once did, and this itself will force active evaluations - and reevaluations - of national policies. Beyond this, it cannot be said that the policy course a government made in 1956 was necessarily the most wise. While rote replays must by definition be in character, it is not a guarantee that, given a second opportunity to look at events, any given national government would do things exactly the same way twice. History is replete with the musings of foreign ministers and heads of state pining for "second chances."

It will be the job of Council Representatives to actively involve their countries' national policies and national capabilities in solutions to the 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 UN itself has often been but a bystander to regional or international conflict. This inability or unwillingness to actively work toward solutions of crises was rarely more evident than during the late years of colonialism and early years of the Cold War. Representatives will need to decide what changes, if any, could have been made to the Security Council's posture on the various issues.

While national governments often scoffed at 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 solution. Accomplishment of this task, however, must come without violating the bounds of the Member States' national characters. This year's simulation will have the dichotomy of many regional crises being treated as "internal" by the superpowers, and other crises which are so global in nature that the UN must become involved.

Representatives should approach these issues based on the events that led up to mid-1956, and should do their research accordingly. In studying their role playing assignments, *it is strongly recommended that research be done on these topics using timely materials*. The world has changed dramatically in the past 50 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 pursue periodicals from early- to mid-1956 to most accurately reflect the world view at that time. These periodicals, 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.

The HSC simulation will follow a flexible timeline based on events as they occurred, and modified by the Representatives' policy decisions in the Council. The Secretariat will be responsible for tracking the simulation and keeping it as realistic as possible.

In maintaining realism, Representatives must remember that they are role playing the individuals assigned as their nations' Representatives to the UN. Each person may have access to the up-to-the-minute policy decisions of the country, or may be relatively "in the dark" on the country's moment-to-moment actions in the world.

In this area, the AMUN Simulation Staff will frequently consult with HSC members. Representatives are welcome and encouraged, as their nation's spokesperson, to make whatever declarative statements they like. Declarative statements would include any comments or actions (including real or implied threats or deals) that an individual at the UN could normally make.

Representatives **must**, however, **always** consult with the Simulation Staff before making **ANY operational statements**. Operational statements would include announcements of the movements or actions of military forces, as well as any other actions which would have an effect **outside** of the UN. In these cases, the staff will act on behalf of the actual "home office" of your government.

Other Involved Countries

From time to time, other countries will be involved in the deliberations of the HSC. Delegations representing these countries will be notified in advance by the Secretariat, and should have one or more Representatives prepared to come before the HSC at any time. Because these countries will not be involved in all issues, it is **highly recommended** that the Representative(s) responsible for the HSC also be assigned to another committee/council, preferably with a second Representative who can cover that committee/council while they are away. A floating Permanent Representative would also be ideal for this assignment. These delegations will be asked to identify their Representative(s) to the HSC at registration, and to indicate where they can be reached if/when needed.

Some of the delegations which may be called before the HSC during the 1956 time frame include: Israel, Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, South Africa, Algeria, Greece, Morocco, Hungary and India.

Background Research

The following are brief synopses of the main international situations facing the Security Council on 1 July 1956. The prominent events of late 1955 and early 1956 are discussed, as well as some questions which will face the Security Council in the latter half of the year. This research is intended merely as a focal point for Representatives' continued exploration of the topics.

Issues in the Middle East

The Palestine question dominated discussions of the Security Council in 1955 and early 1956. Among the issues were numerous violations of the 1948-49 General Armistice Agreements (GAA) by all sides, continued armed hostilities, and increasing numbers of Palestinian refugees. Secretary-General Hammarskjold's trip to the Middle East in April and May of 1956 set the stage for continued Security Council negotiations in this area, including calls for renewed efforts at cease fires and compliance with the Armistice Agreements.

The Palestine Question: Incidents on Lake Tiberias

Incidents on the disputed Lake Tiberias, located along the Armistice line, were the basis of conflicts between Syria and Israel in 1955 and early 1956. In December, 1955, Israeli armed forces attacked Syrian civilians and military personnel on the shores of Lake Tiberias from both the land and sea.

These attacks were documented by United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) personnel stationed in the region. The UNTSO reports noted that Israel deliberately violated provisions of the GAA by engaging in government-authorized military operations in the lake region. The report also noted, however, that Syrian authorities had, over the past year, interfered with legitimate Israeli commercial and civilian activities on the lake in violation of the GAA provisions. Israel claimed this violation as the basis for its military actions in December, but was rebuked by both the UNTSO report and the Security Council.

On 19 January 1956, the Security Council passed Resolution 111 (S/3538) condemning Israel for its attacks on Syria and calling for a cessation of hostilities and return to the terms of the GAA. The resolution passed unanimously, and all members of Council also verbally condemned the Israeli attacks. While hostilities remain high in the region, no further attacks have been noted through 1 July.

The Palestine Question: Status of Compliance with Armistice Agreements

The most difficult question facing the Council in 1955/56 involved the overall status of compliance with the GAA, in particular issues arising along the Egyptian and Israeli borders. Throughout 1955, the Council discussed several aspects of this portion of the Palestinian Question, focusing around Israeli and Egyptian military incursions into the Gaza Area, which was formally laid out in the GAA as a demilitarized zone (DMZ).

On 29 March 1956, the Council passed Resolution 106 (S/3378) which condemned recent attacks by the Israeli regular military against Egyptian regular military forces in the Gaza area. With tensions heightening, on 30 March the Council also passed Resolution 107 (S/3379), requesting the assistance of the UNTSO Chief of Staff in consulting with the governments of both parties on ways to lessen the strain in the area and maintain the Armistice provisions. Following the apparently successful efforts of the Chief of Staff in negotiations with Israel and Egypt, the Council on 8 September also passed Resolution 108 (S/3435), calling for a cease fire - which had already been accepted by the parties - and the free movement of UN observers in the Gaza area. While steps taken by the Council in 1955 led to verbal declarations of lessened hostility, actual levels of tension along the lines of demarcation remained high moving into 1956.

In 1956, the Council held discussions throughout March and April on the compliance with Armistice Agreements. Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon and Syria were all invited participants in these discussions. The general consensus at this time was that steps to reduce tensions taken in 1955 had not been carried out, and that further actions were needed. On 4 April 1956, the Council adopted

Resolution 113 (S/3575) on these issues. This document requested the Secretary-General's (SG) assistance in completing an "enforcement survey" of the GAA provisions, and in seeking discussions by all parties to adopt already accepted GAA measures. It also requested the withdrawal of all forces to demarcation lines, the continued freedom of movement of observers, and the creation of local arrangements, in each area, for the prevention of future incidents. The Council realistically noted the improbability of full compliance with the GAA, but stressed the importance of all parties' attempts to comply whenever possible.

From 10 April through 3 May 1956, SG Hammarskjold traveled to all of the countries involved in the Armistice Agreements, seeking the cooperation requested by the Council. In his reports of 2 May and 9 May, the SG noted that he regarded his mandate to include negotiations between the parties to reestablish full compliance with the Armistice Agreements, and he also reported generally positive results. While the Council had not specifically sought to include the SG in "negotiations," they did respond positively to the results of the trip.

The SG's reports noted that, while all parties accepted the GAA provisions as in their overall best interests, political and practical circumstances had led to the current state of affairs in the region. Namely, mutual mistrust, combined with an inability to guarantee compliance by any given party, was contributing greatly to tensions which all parties stated they would rather avoid. The SG received personal assurances from each party that they would unconditionally observe the cease fire clauses in the GAA and subsequent Council resolutions, reserving only the right to self defense. This specifically included the idea that the parties would not respond with military force to anything less than an attack by the regular military of another party.

As a show of good will on this issue, the SG also reported that Egypt and Israel, on 18 April, both sent orders which served to relieve tensions along the Gaza demarcation line. Additionally, Egypt and Israel provided specific assurances that they would seek to actively prevent crossing of the demarcation lines, including both the Gaza DMZ and the contested El Auja region, in which both sides had a military presence in violation of the GAA provisions.

The SG noted two key issues left unanswered by his trip. The first was the issue of Egyptian interference in Israeli shipping through the Suez Canal and the Straits of Tiran. This issue was first raised in September 1951, and was still on the table through early 1956. Both the harassment of Israeli vessels and the possible cut off of this vital shipping lane by Egypt were noted as potential sources of tension in the future. The second unanswered issue involved a recent Israeli plan for diversion of the Jordan River, which would be disastrous for Jordan and another likely precursor to renewed conflict in the region.

On 4 June 1956, the Council passed Resolution 114 (S/3605), commending the SG on this report, endorsing the view that full compliance with the GAA provisions as the key to peace in the region, and asking the SG to continue his Good Office efforts to ensure the cease fires and bring the parties closer to full Armistice compliance in the future.

Issues in Africa

The Situation in Algeria

The situation currently existing in Algeria involves possible threats to peace and flagrant violations of human rights undertaken by France in the colonial area of Algeria. This extremely contentious question is the most violent of many colonial situations occurring in 1956. At issue is the right of France to govern its territory of Algeria as it sees fit, including the violent repression of uprisings when needed.

In April of 1956, seventeen Asian and African Member States brought before the Security Council a request to discuss the situation, which was ultimately not brought to the floor. The question within the Council revolved around the body's competence to discuss an issue described by France as a domestic jurisdiction issue completely within France's sovereignty, versus its description by opponents as a threat to peace, flagrant violation of human rights, and question of legitimate self-determination for the peoples of Algeria.

In debate prior to bringing the topic to the floor, discussion revolved around France's policy of repression and extermination of the Algerian people, including a possible question of a violation of the Genocide Convention. The significant increase of French troops in Algeria in 1955 and early 1956, from approximately 150,000 to reports in excess of 400,000, was noted as the significant "threat to peace" in the area.

On the opposite side, France argued that the consideration of the situation in Algeria would violate the UN Charter, seeing the situation as an internal French matter. Incorporated as a department of France since its conquest in 1830, France thus considered Algeria an integral part of France rather than a mere colony. The French government asserted their occupation of Algeria began at a time when no other government was recognized as having sovereignty over the territory, and that no other State had challenged the legitimacy of the occupation for over 120 years. Thus, they asserted, it was their right to govern the territory in accordance with French law.

By a vote of seven to two (Iran, USSR) with two abstentions (China and Yugoslavia), the Algerian question was not included on the agenda in June 1956, although the situation continues as described.

The Situation in South Africa

The treatment of peoples of Indian origin in South Africa is one of two issues in this area being confronted by the UN. With most discussions on the issue taking place in the General Assembly, the possibility of increased violence makes this an issue of interest for the Security Council. The key question revolves around the oppression, both official and incidental, of Indians remaining in South Africa following the colonial period. India made several attempts in the GA to resolve the issue, but South Africa felt strongly that this is a two party issue to be resolved between India and South Africa, with no outside intervention necessary.

A related question facing the UN in South Africa involved the policy of Apartheid officially practiced by the South African government, and its possible international repercussions in the region. Once again, the GA has been the main body to discuss Apartheid, but the Security Council keeps apprised of events as they occur. The deteriorating racial situation in South Africa, combined with the government's public refusal to redress the issues, creates a difficult

situation for the UN. South Africa went even further in formalizing Apartheid through various laws, including the Bantu Education Act of 1953, limiting and separating educational opportunities, and the Separate Registration of Voters Act of 1951.

There are three main schools of thought among UN Member States on the best way for the international community to deal with the Apartheid issue. The first holds that the General Assembly (and potentially the Security Council) should exert influence to encourage the removal of Apartheid policies. A second group doubts the GA's competence to discuss the issue, and seeks an International Court of Justice decision placing the Apartheid under the competence of the GA or the Council. A third group feels that a more conciliatory approach is needed, stressing negotiations without the need for formal condemnations or pressure, which they feel would be counterproductive. To date, outside of debating the issue, the UN has not gone further than attempting to create an atmosphere which would facilitate resolution of the matter through diplomatic discussions.

Issues in Asia

The Question of the Representation of China

Since the inception of the United Nations, the Republic of China has held the official Chinese seat at the UN, including in the Security Council. The rise of the People's Republic of China on the mainland, however, has raised an issue of legitimacy concerning this representation. This issue has been most strongly stressed by the Soviet Union in discussions before the Council. The discussion was first raised in January of 1955, when the Council invited a representative of the central government of the Peoples Republic of China to participate without a vote in its discussion of the issue. Complicating this issue are continued acts of violence between the forces of the two Chinas, particularly in the seas surrounding the island of Formosa/Taiwan. To date, the Council has decided to take no action on seating mainland China, and a representative of the Republic of China remains in the UN seat.

The Situation in West Irian (West New Guinea)

West Irian (West New Guinea) is one of many colonial disputes in the world accompanied by minor international hostilities. In this case, West Irian, a colonial possession of the Netherlands, nevertheless its political status is currently an object of contention between the Netherlands and Indonesia. Indonesia feels that West Irian should either be ceded to Indonesia, or given the right of self-determination, and some hostilities have arisen over the issue.

Other Issues

The Situation in Cyprus

Cyprus is another colonial territory embroiled in a dispute over the right to self-determination. This colony of the United Kingdom, with a significant Greek population, is currently seeking independence from the UK. This has so far been denied due to the island's

significance as a military base in close proximity to the Middle East. Incidents which most concern the Security Council in this situation include a rise in terrorism on the island, apparently incited by Greece against the UK government on Cyprus, and continued calls by Greece and peoples inside Cyprus for the right to self-determination.

Admission of New Member States

With many former colonial territories gaining their independence, and more expected in 1956, the Security Council has been dealing with the issue of admitting new member States to the United Nations. In 1955 alone, Resolution 109 (S/3509) of 19 December recommended the admission of sixteen new members to the UN: Albania, Jordan, Ireland, Portugal, Hungary, Italy, Austria, Romania, Bulgaria, Finland, Ceylon, Nepal, Libya, Cambodia, Laos and Spain. The question was addressed once in 1956, with Resolution 112 (S/3546) of 6 February recommending the admission of Sudan. The recent independence of Morocco and Tunisia may also lead to their request for admission in the near future. It should be noted that, following the submission of a request for admission to the Secretary-General, potential Member States must be recommended by the Security Council before they can be accepted into the UN by a vote of the General Assembly.

Other Open Issues

Any issue on the world scene in 1956 will be fair game for discussion in the Historical Security Council. Representatives should have broad historical knowledge of the world situation as it stood through 1 July 1956.

Bibliography:

Please note: The books and documents listed below provide both contemporary and historical information on the years 1955 and 1956. Any information provided for dates after 1 July 1956 will not be considered factual or appropriate in debates before the Council. It is strongly recommended that representatives to the Historical Security Council consult contemporary materials, especially periodical sources from late 1955 and the first half of 1956. These might include the *UN Chronicle, the New York Times, Time* magazine, and similar sources to get a better "feel" for the time in which the simulation occurs.

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SC Res 111 (S/3538): The Palestine Question
S/3609: Letter of 13 June from thirteen member States concerning Algeria
S/3596: Report of 9 May by the Secretary-General on Compliance with Armistice Agreements
S/3594: 2 May progress report of the Secretary-General
S/3589: Letter of 12 April from seventeen member States concerning Algeria
A/3120: Letter from Greece to the GA concerning Cyprus

Chapter Four
The General Assembly and Committees

Introduction

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

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

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

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

The Concurrent General Assembly Plenary

Purview of the Simulation: The General Assembly Plenary typically considers issues that several Committees would have the power to discuss, but which would best be addressed in a comprehensive manner. Likewise, the General Assembly Plenary is also responsible for coordinating work between the many different bodies of the United Nations. For example, the 60th General Assembly recently established a Peacebuilding Commission that will oversee the United Nations' peacebuilding processes and coordinate the work of the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Secretary-General, and Member States emerging from conflict situations. Note that if the Security Council, which is given the primary task of ensuring peace and security by the Charter, is discussing a particular issue, the General Assembly (Plenary) will ceases its own deliberations and defer to the Security Council.

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

Cooperation Between the United Nations and Regional and Other Organizations

The General Assembly's primary responsibility is the maintenance of international peace and security. Increasingly, the UN has collaborated with regional and other organizations to meet its goals, regional organizations such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the European Union (EU) and the African Union (AU). While the relationship between regional and organizations and the UN is recognized in the Charter through Chapter VIII, the exact nature of the relationship has never been ultimately defined. The UN has turned to these organizations for partnerships in areas such as peacekeeping and peacemaking, responding to humanitarian emergencies, and promoting human rights. As newer organizations emerge, the UN must adapt to different structures and protocols while determining the most effective means of dealing with regional and non-regional organizations. Former

Secretary-General Kofi Annan recognized the growing importance of international bodies and stated "[we are increasingly drawing on the resources and legitimacy of a network of multilateral mechanisms – regional and global – to provide collective responses to the peace and security challenges of today."

Historically the United Nations, particularly the Security Council, has worked in close cooperation with organizations such as NATO. However, in the years since the inception of the United Nations, the number of international organizations has grown dramatically. There are currently more than eighteen organizations working with the UN Department of Peacekeeping to maintain peacekeeping operations abroad. In 2005, the Security Council invited regional organizations to participate in United Nations standby peacekeeping arrangements, urging States and international organizations to help them build their capabilities for that purpose, and for the varied peace building functions they have begun to assume.

Currently the UN works closely with several regional and non-regional organizations. Among the most high profile are the

collaborations between the United Nations and the African Union regarding the situation in Darfur. However, many other collaborations exist, including those in Haiti and work on the Indian Ocean Tsunami Warning and Mitigation System, developed following the Tsunami disaster in 2005. The Secretary-General convenes yearly high-level meetings with the heads of regional and other intergovernmental organizations focusing on measures the UN and these organizations can take towards practical cooperation. At the World Summit in 1995, world leaders again supported a stronger relationship between regional organizations and the UN, and they resolved to expand cooperation, including through formalized agreements between the UN and the respective secretariats of the organizations.

The General Assembly continues to encourage cooperation with regional and other organizations. At the 2005 World Summit, and the subsequent 2006 World Summit, the General Assembly focused on reinforcing the cooperation between these organizations and the UN. While these Summits had broad agendas, there was a particular focus on Africa. With a long standing relationship between the UN and the Continent's regional organizations, first the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and later the AU, there has been an appeal to increase the transparency and decrease the bureaucracy in the cooperation between the organizations. While drawing on positive work accomplished through this collaboration, there was a call to increase the humanitarian aid and other assistance between the UN, the AU and the rest of the international community. Because of the relationships built, and the obvious needs, the established associations between organizations in Africa, where they are successful and how they can be strengthened, sever as a template for areas where these types of cooperation can be improved. Because of the relationships built, and the obvious needs, the cooperation between organizations in Africa, where they are successful and how they can be strengthened, serve as a template for areas where cooperation can be improved.

The increased working relationship between the United Nations and the other organizations has obvious benefits: the regional organizations have expert knowledge of the area, resources and structures already in place, and, frequently, positive relationships with the parties involved. However, there are many obstacles to effective cooperation. The various organizations often represent diverse regions, with different cultural values and procedural norms. Consequently, reconciling different bodies to working within the UN structure or with UN personnel can prove challenging if the mission seems contrary to cultural or traditional behaviors of the organization. Additionally, not all regional organizations are particularly cohesive. While some organizations have behaviors expected of their Member States, and the Member States can be counted on to comply with the organization's position, other organizations are less structured. In these instances, Member States may not comply with some or all of the organizational decisions. It is consequently difficult for the UN to create a single protocol with which to deal with all organizations.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the UN General Assembly encourage implementation of the expanded cooperation and formalized agreements promised at the 2005 World Summit?
- How can participation in regional or non-regional organization be encouraged?
- How can the delivery of aid be made more efficient through the UN System and regional and other organizations?
- How contributions to regional or non-regional groups be encouraged?

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The United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy

For decades terrorism has been an issue of serious concern on the United Nations agenda, resulting in thirteen international conventions within the framework of the United Nations system relating to specific terrorist activities. As terrorist acts have become more widespread, it becomes increasingly apparent that no one State can combat terrorism alone. The General Assembly has worked to increase coordination of Member States' counter-terrorism efforts.

In 2004, the High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change recommended that the Secretary-General promote a comprehensive global strategy against terrorism to strengthen the ability of responsible States to counter terrorism and promote the

rule of law, all while protecting human rights. In accordance with this recommendation, the Secretary-General devised a strategy based on five pillars: dissuading people from resorting to or supporting terrorism; denying terrorists the means to carry out attacks; deterring States from supporting terrorism; developing State capacity to defeat terrorism; and defending human rights. In his report entitled "In Larger Freedom: Towards Development, Security, and Human Rights for All" (A/59/2005), the Secretary-General urged the adoption of such a strategy, which was viewed favorably by Member States in the 2005 World Summit Outcome (A/RES/60/1).

The report on the 2005 World Summit Outcome issued a strong condemnation of terrorism in all its forms and manifestations, committed by whomever, wherever, and for whatever purposes. The new strategy was formally proposed in the report, "Uniting against Terrorism: Recommendations for a Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy." Annex I to the Secretary-General's report also provides an "[i]nventory of United Nations counter-terrorism activities," while Annex II details the "[s]tatus of universal instruments related to the prevention and suppression of international terrorism."

The United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy and Plan of Action was officially adopted on 8 September 2006. The strategy, formally launched on 19 December 2006, marked the first time in the history of the United Nations that all Member States agreed to a common strategic and operational approach to fight terrorism in all its forms and manifestations. In addition, the General Assembly, during its sixty-first session, adopted three additional resolutions, A/RES/61/40, A/RES/61/86 and A/RES/61/171, all aimed at eliminating international terrorism, preventing terrorist access to weapons of mass destruction, and protecting human rights while fighting terrorism. In conjunction with the United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy and annexed Plan of Action, these instruments adopted by the GA represent a comprehensive and concerted effort on the part of Member States to quell the growing threat of terrorism.

While mindful of the need to aggressively pursue a global counter terrorism strategy, the General Assembly has been equally aware of the need to ensure fundamental human rights are not violated during State efforts to quell terrorism within their borders and that counter terrorism activities are conducted within the rule of law. To that end, the General Assembly has called upon States to take necessary measures to ensure that the appropriate legal frameworks are in place to support counter terrorism activities but do not violate internationally agreed upon civil liberties. Underpinning these activities, the General Assembly has called for open dialogue to improve interfaith and intercultural understanding as one of the most important elements in successfully combating terrorism.

Agreement on a common strategy to counter terrorism is only a beginning. In the future, Member States will need to cooperate to ensure that the strategy is being fully implemented, in addition to being regularly updated, in order to effectively respond to evolving challenges and threats. A primary focus of the UN's Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy will be prevention. Crucial to this strategy is the need to help build States' capacity to prevent and combat terrorism, while also strengthening the role of the UN system in this regard. One of the greatest challenges in implementing the Strategy remains the protection of human rights and the use of rule of law as the basis of any measures aimed at countering terrorism.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What are your country's foreign and domestic policies with regard to countering terrorism?
- What level of involvement has your country had in recent global efforts to prevent and combat terrorism? In what areas and by what means?
- What recent issues or events does your country seek to highlight (or downplay) in the course of the discussion on this topic area?

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A/59/565
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S/RES/1566
S/RES/1535
S/RES/1373

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www.un.org/terrorism/cthandbook/index.html - UN Counter-Terrorism Online Handbook

www.un.org/terrorism - UN Action to Counter Terrorism

www.un.org/unitingagainstterrorism - Uniting against Terrorism

Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction

The Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction (BWC) was drafted in 1972 in an effort to exclude biological agents from modern warfare. Since that time, the Convention has gained all but 23 signatories. The Convention calls for the prohibition of any microbial or biological agent that has no justifiable use for the purposes of peace, protection, or preventive measures.

The United Nations has been the parliamentary organ engaged in the development of the Convention and its ongoing evolution since its adoption in 1972. Since the Convention's inception, the UN has launched six reviews of the Convention, most recently in December 2006, which serve to keep the Convention viable and applicable to any circumstances. Previous reviews strived to strengthen voluntary confidence building measures between States party to the Convention. Measures within the Convention, such as States voluntarily submitting data, are aimed at increasing transparency while at the same time building confidence in the Convention itself.

In the most recent review of the Convention, several areas for improvement were debated. Among these is the continued promotion of confidence-building measures as a cornerstone to the Convention. Likewise, Member States discussed the increasing need for education to prevent the misuse of bio-technology and bio-sciences while great advancements in those fields are being made. Other suggestions included the revision of the title and content of Article I of the Convention to include the prohibition of the use bacteriological and toxin weapons. The UN also recently reaffirmed its commitment to review the Convention every five years.

Despite the broad commitment to the Convention, it remains without a process of verification of compliance. While State parties to the Convention are to report their implementation of the Convention to the United Nations Department of Disarmament Affairs, this measure is voluntary with no method of verification. The lack of verification of compliance language in the Convention has been a subject of great debate; however no binding language has been added to the Convention to this end. Currently the only means of verification lies in the investigation of compliance in accordance with A/44/561, Annex I, and even this method is often after the fact and difficult to enforce.

Another issue that remains a problem within the Convention is the underutilization of Article X. Article X calls for the fullest possible exchange of information and equipment in the use of biological agents and toxins for peaceful uses. The spirit of this Article is to provide another level of transparency in bio-weapons related activities. However, with the risk of abuse most often cited as the reason for the lack of exchanging the information, this Article has seen little use. Technology in this field has the distinction of being almost entirely dual-use, and with no concrete method of compliance verification, Article X is not likely to see its full potential.

Welcoming the work done at the Sixth Review Conference, the General Assembly continues to reiterate its call for State parties to the Convention to actively participate in information and data exchange. Furthermore, the General Assembly has continued its calls for the promotion and development of a common understanding of such topics as the adoption of necessary measures to implement the prohibitions outlined in the Convention and enhancing international capabilities for the mitigation, investigation and response to potential or real attacks using biological and toxic weapons. The Secretary-General, at the General Assembly's requests, continues his efforts to offer technical assistance to States in their efforts to come into compliance with the BWC.

The Seventh Review Conference will be held in Geneva once again before the year 2011. Discussion will focus on operations of the Convention itself, as well as taking into account new scientific technology, progress made by Member States, and review the progress of decisions made by the Sixth Review Convention in 2006.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What is the status of implementation of the Convention in your nation?
- How would a verification process impact the Convention? What affects could a verification protocol have on your country?
- Would the full use of Article X, the transfer of information on biological agents and toxins, show significant scientific benefits to your country?
- How would you balance the full implementation of Article X with dual-use risks of these agents?

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BWC/AD_HOC_GROUP/55-1
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www.opbw.org - The Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention Website

Towards a Nuclear-Weapon-Free World: Accelerating the Implementation of Nuclear Disarmament Commitments

It has been over sixty years since the nuclear attacks on Nagasaki and Hiroshima, yet the use of nuclear weapons still poses a great threat to international peace and security. There are an estimated 27,000 nuclear weapons around the globe, many of which are on hair-trigger alerts. Beyond the threat of use by the nuclear weapon-possessing States, trafficking of nuclear technology and information may result in a future threat by other States or non-state actors. To reduce the threat of nuclear weapons, a commonly accepted goal is to convince nuclear States to limit their nuclear arsenals and disarm wherever possible, while at the same time convincing non-nuclear States not to develop nuclear weapons technologies.

The primary agreement for controlling the spread of nuclear weapons is the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, or the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NNPT or NPT). Signed or ratified by 188 States, the treaty was opened for signatures in 1968. Despite its name, the NPT does address disarmament in addition to non-proliferation. It asks all States to "pursue negotiations in good faith," to end the arms race and consider treaties for general disarmament. The treaty has met with some success; for example, South Africa signed the NPT in 1991, revealing their limited nuclear weapon capabilities in 1993, followed by the ultimate dismantling of that program.

In addition to the NPT, the Comprehensive Nuclear Test Ban Treaty of 1996 discourages nations from carrying out any nuclear test explosions and encourages the prevention of explosions under its jurisdiction. This has been signed or ratified by 177 States. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) has been given the responsibility of monitoring nuclear weapons capabilities, especially dual-use capabilities, and reporting to the United Nations on the risk of inappropriate or military use.

Recent resolutions adopted by the First Committee and the General Assembly have continued to urge Member States which have not yet signed the NPT to do so immediately. These resolutions also remind nuclear-weapon States of the importance and commitment to complete and total disarmament. Other resolutions have established nuclear-weapon-free zones around the globe.

Despite the several resolutions adopted by the Committee and the General Assembly, discussions on disarmament are, to some extent, at a standstill. A review of the vote on resolutions related to disarmament will show a lack of consensus by the nuclear-weapon States. These States emphasize non-proliferation over disarmament, despite the majority agreement of the non-nuclear weapon States. And though the consensus against the proliferation and use of nuclear weapons remains strong, their proliferation has continued since the NPT's inception. States with nuclear technologies are rumored to be developing weapons, while still others withdraw completely from the NPT and publicly claim to be developing nuclear weapons technologies. The Democratic People's Republic of Korea announced its withdrawal from the NPT and tested its own nuclear weapons, and the IAEA found undeclared uranium enrichment activity in Iran.

Other UN bodies dealing with disarmament are likewise experiencing a lack of consensus. The Conference on Disarmament has been unable to establish a program of work for eight years. The UN Disarmament Commission has not been able to reach a real agreement since 2000. The review conference of the NPT in 2005 was also unable to come to any substantive agreement.

As a result, this Committee has several challenges ahead of it. With a consensus on complete disarmament improbable, the challenge remains how to keep the NPT and other non-proliferation agreements valid in today's world. A complete solution must include the needs of nuclear States as well as those non-nuclear States who may feel both threatened by the proliferation of nuclear weapons, and at the same time some day seek the use of peaceful nuclear technologies. Suggestions include strengthening the IAEA to assist in their monitoring and providing incentives for nations to avoid proliferation. PProposed discussions have included trafficking and use by non-State actors, but those discussions have not been fully developed. Member States will need to take a strong position for disarmament in order to achieve the goals set forth by the NPT almost 40 years ago.

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

- What are your nation's reasons for or against signing or ratifying the NPT?
- Is the development of dual-use technologies feasible under the current NPT regime, and if not, what does this mean for the future of the NPT?
- What incentives can be instituted to encourage States to disarm?
- What should be done to strengthen the IAEA or deter nations from further proliferating?
- What can be done to prevent the use of nuclear weapons by terrorists?

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The General Assembly Second Committee: Economic and Financial

Implementation Of The Outcome of the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) and Strengthening of the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) (ONU-Habitat)

UN-Habitat is the United Nations agency charged with promoting socially and environmentally sound urban areas, including cities and towns, in order to ensure ample shelter for all. Human settlements and urban areas are a critical component of any development strategy as the world becomes more urban. Estimates show that by 2050, nearly 6 billion people will live in urban areas. Urban centers are at the focal point of a State's production and consumption and are a major component in driving a State's economic base. However, they also bring with them significant social problems such as crime, poverty and pollution. UN-Habitat provides States with support and resources to drive the economic capability of cities while enacting policies that ensure proper infrastructure is in place to support the economic and social well being of their inhabitants.

The Commission on Human Settlements and the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements was established in 1977 with a mandate to lead the international community in the development of sustainable human settlements. One year later in 1978, the first international meeting on human settlements and urbanization, Habitat I, was held in Vancouver. Habitat I guided UN work on human settlements for the next nineteen years. During this time, the world experienced rapid urban growth; by 2000, nearly half of the world's population lived in cities. In 2002, the General Assembly, in A/Res/56/206, created a new body, UN-Habitat, to govern human settlement development and to better address the new global urban landscape. UN-Habitat combines both the Commission on Human Settlements and the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements and acts as the main organ through which the Habitat Agenda is coordinated and implemented.

The United Nations held its second Human Settlements Conference, Habitat II, in Istanbul from 3-14 June 1996. The findings of Habitat II, including the Habitat Agenda signed at the Conference, remain among the most influential protocols in combating unsustainable human settlements. At the culmination of the Conference, 171 States signed the Habitat Agenda, a comprehensive plan of action for the development of human settlements. Habitat II and the Habitat Agenda strongly advocate for adequate shelter for all and sustainable human settlements. The General Assembly reaffirmed those goals and objectives in the Declaration on Cities and Other Human Settlements in the New Millennium of 2001; the Declaration was to enhance the Millennium Development Goals and to continue international momentum toward creating a better world.

The main coordinating body of UN-Habitat is the Governing Council. The Council, consisting of 58 UN Member States, meets every two years to evaluate the progress and efficiency of UN-Habitat's work. During the years when the Council does not meet the international community gathers for the World Urban Forum, created by the General Assembly as a forum for non-legislative technical exchange. The past three meetings were held in Nairobi, Kenya; Barcelona, Spain; and Vancouver, Canada; For 2008, the 4th Forum will be held in Nanjing, China.

In order to support the work being done by UN-Habitat, the General Assembly has called upon the international donor community and multilateral and regional development banks to increase the support offered to developing countries for efforts to promote sound human settlements. The General Assembly has also called for increased voluntary contributions with multi-year funding to promote program planning and implementation. It also recommended increased assistance to developing countries and economies in transition through capacity building and technology transfer.

Habitat II and UN-Habitat aim to promote adequate shelter for all and sustainable human settlements, while the Global Campaign for Urban Governance and the Global Campaign for Secure Tenure are the main conduits for addressing major concerns. One of the major roles of UN-Habitat is to provide technical assistance to States to help them develop management capabilities to address urbanization at the local and national level.

Cities and urban centers present a tremendous opportunity for economic growth and development. The challenge for States is in balancing the need to drive development while at the same time managing the negative consequences resulting from rapid urbanization. The General Assembly remains committed to supporting States, through UN-Habitat, in their efforts to promote sustainable human settlements.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What does the expanding urban population mean for the future of your State's economy? For the global economy?
- What is the proper role of the international community in addressing urban poverty?
- What are the greatest challenges for the work of UN-Habitat in helping States to meet the Millennium Development Goals?

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Unilateral Economic Measures as a Means of Political and Economic Coercion against Developing Countries

The international community has a long history of opposing unilateral economic measures as an instrument of political and economic coercion against developing countries. However, the international community has been more supportive of such measures when economic sanctions are multilateral or directly supported by organs of the United Nations. Economic sanctions vary widely in scale and scope and, for many countries, occupy a central role in developing their foreign policy. Moreover, sanctions are often viewed as an alternative to military intervention. Although the stated goals of sanctions are highly political, the ability of States to enforce them is directly subject to the rules of international economic exchange. As such, unilateral economic sanctions, those enforced on target countries by only one State, frequently fail to produce the desired economic and political outcomes of the sender State, as the target country will find alternative markets or suppliers for sanctioned goods and services. Because of their frequent failure, as well as the negative consequences unilateral coercive measures exert upon the general population of sanctioned countries, the General Assembly has long called into question the efficacy, support of, and future use of unilateral economic measures against developing countries as a form of economic and political coercion.

The exercise of coercive economic sanctions hinders the ability of targeted countries to completely fulfill their duties in accordance with the Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States, passed by the General Assembly in 1974. Article 32 of this Charter declares that "no State may use or encourage the use of economic, political, or any other type of measures to coerce another State in order to obtain from it the subordination of the exercise of its sovereign rights." In 1983, the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) specifically condemned the use of economic coercion, particularly when used against developing countries, in that economic sanctions fail to create the climate of peace required for economic development. UNCTAD consistently prevails upon developed nations to refrain from applying trade restrictions, blockades, embargoes, and other economic sanctions against developing countries as a form of political coercion, thus hindering developing countries economic, social, and political development.

In 2003, developing countries were given the opportunity to address the General Assembly directly on the issue. The Secretary-General invited all Member States to comment on the negative impacts of unilateral economic measures as a means of political and economic coercion against developing countries. Of the ten respondents to the report, A/58/310, all were from the developing world. Their responses ranged from a call to stricter adherence to the Charter, which forbids the use of economic coercion, to specific examples of the hardships faced by some, and down right economic degradation faced by others, caused by unilateral blockades, embargoes, tariffs, and other forms of unilateral economic measures.

The General Assembly again expressed grave concern that unilateral coercive measures, not in accordance with international law and the UN Charter, adversely affect the situation of children, impede the full realization of social and economic development, and hinder the well-being of the population in targeted countries, with particular consequences for women and children, with the passage of A/RES/61/170 in 2006. Specific to the work of this Committee, the Resolution addresses the negative impact these unilateral economic measures have on the economic development of developing and least developed countries, specifically in the areas of international relations, trade, and cooperation.

The future direction of the UN's mission in eradicating the use and promulgation of unilateral coercive measures lies in its long-standing promotion of the general principles of the international trade system. The UN has urged all States to refrain from adopting any unilateral coercive measures that would create obstacles to universal

human rights, including the right of everyone to a standard of living necessary for their health and well-being as well as their right to food, medical care, and social services. As pressure continues to mount in the international community to reject unilateral coercive economic measures as a legitimate approach to strategic foreign policy, as well as the burgeoning recognition of the link between unilateral coercive actions and the failure of developing countries to realize full human rights, the global community must face the sustained challenge of eliminating the use of unilateral coercive measures as an instrument of political and economic pressure against developing countries. The committee faces the challenge of convincing the developing world to discontinue the use of such means, while attempting to find measures to counter the negative economic impacts of unilateral economic coercion upon the developing world.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What are the direct economic effects of sanctions, embargoes, blockades, tariffs, etc, and how might the Second Committee address those?
- How has your government supported the United Nations' commitment to reducing and eliminating the use of unilateral economic measures as a means of political and economic coercion?
- What is the role of the United Nations in curbing the detrimental effects of unilateral coercive actions against developing countries?
- How might the UN convince the developed world to discontinue it's use of such measures?

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www.petersoninstitute.org/ - Institute on International Economics
www.un.org/esa/policy/ - UN Development Policy and Analysis
www.un.org/sc/committees/ - UN Security Council Sanctions Committee

The General Assembly Third Committee: Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural

Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment or Punishment

Despite numerous international documents condemning the use of torture, evidence suggests it use remains widespread. One of the United Nations founding documents, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, expressly states that, "no one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhumane, or degrading treatment or punishment." Furthermore, the UN Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or punishment explicitly prohibits any State from allowing acts of torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment to happen within its own borders. Even with these protections in place, Amnesty International estimates that almost 102 countries had some form of torture occur within their borders in 2006. This could range from the mistreatment of prisoners to the physical and mental abuse of alleged terrorist detainees.

The United Nations has a long history of condemning the use of torture; one of the first documents to prohibit torture, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, was passed by the UN General Assembly on 10 December 1948. The General Assembly passed its first resolution on the issue, A/RES/3052 in 1973. This resolution outlined the continuing global problems with regards to torture and the need for all nations to join in existing international accords and to uphold them.

Other General Assembly resolutions of note include A/RES/3452 in which the General Assembly adopted the Declaration on the Protection of all Persons from Being Subjected to Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. The General Assembly requested the Commission on Human Rights draft a convention against torture in resolutions A/RES/32/62 and A/RES/38/119. Resolution A/RES/39/46, passed in 1984, in which the General Assembly adopted the Convention Against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.

The Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment and the Body of Principles for the Protection of All Persons under Any Form of Detention or Imprisonment are both intended to protect persons and detainees from torture - both in wartime and peacetime. The Committee against Torture, housed within the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, monitors the implementation of the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment by its State parties.

In 2002, the General Assembly passed the Optional Protocol to the Convention that creates an inspection system for detention centers. The Istanbul Protocol, a manual created by the High Commissioner for Human Rights in 2004, outlines guidelines for effective investigation and documentation of torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Additionally, the United Nations Commission on Human Rights appointed a Special Rapporteur to examine questions relevant to torture. The mandate of the Special Rapporteur covers all countries, irrespective of whether a State has ratified the Convention. The current Special Rapporteur submits an annual report to the General Assembly outlining what steps States should take to eradicate the practice of torture in their borders. The Special Rapporteur also conducts site visits to Member States to examine their compliance with the Convention.

The UN made a special commitment to the rights of children in this arena. The capture and sale of children into forced labor or prostitution, forced female genital mutilation, and violence against women and children are all indicative of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

The use of torture or other cruel, inhuman, or degrading punishment continues to be of major concern in the world's prisons. With the continued threat of terrorism worldwide, many countries have taken to extra-judicial means to detain, and in many cases interrogate, suspected terrorists. These extra-judicial means sometimes include detaining suspects for years without trial or even charges and, in extreme cases, their whereabouts or even the fact that they are being detained are kept secret. Concerns about the treatment of these prisoners and the methods used in their interrogations continue, as many in the international community believe they run counter to the international protocols regarding prisoners and their treatment. However, this is a delicate international situation as many of the countries involved in these extra-judicial detentions of prisoners purport that they are well within their rights and within international protocols. They claim any extreme measures used in interrogation do not cross the line of torture, and are carried out in the name of imminent national defense.

At the 61st General Assembly, the UN again condemned the use of torture and other cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment. Resolution A/RES/61/153 pointed specifically to the humanitarian issues caused when States engaged in these activities. The resolution also calls upon States to take legal action to see that anyone engaged in the use of torture be punished within their own legal systems and at the same time safeguard the victims.

The use of torture runs counter to the ideals of the United Nations. All States, developed and developing, have a responsibility to take all reasonable steps necessary to ensure that torture or cruel, inhumane or degrading treatment or punishment does not occur in their borders. Ethnic and regional conflict, civil war and terrorist activity all elevate the risk of torture. Now, more than ever, it is imperative for UN Member States to be on guard against the use of torture.

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

- Should the committee support the recommendations of the Special Rapporteur on torture?
- What is your country's position on extreme method of interrogations, particularly in times of national crisis?
- Is the definition of torture within the Convention Against Torture sufficient?
- How can States that have not ratified the Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel or Degrading Treatment or Punishment be convinced to do so?

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A/RES/3453
A/RES/3452
A/RES/3059
Universal Declaration of Human Rights
Convention against Torture and Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
Istanbul Protocol: Manual on the Effective Investigation and Documentation of Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.

Additional Web Resources:

www.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cat/index.htm - Committee Against Torture
www.irct.org/ - International Rehabilitation Council for Torture Victims
www.amnesty.org/ - Amnesty International

International Cooperation against the World Drug Problem

The illicit use of drugs is a problem both personal and universal in scope. Though in many ways the adverse affects of drug use and addiction primarily target the individual, these negative affects increasingly affect the global community. According to 2003 UN estimates, the international illicit drug trade generated an estimated $321 billion, which is larger than the GDP of 88% of the countries in the world. This money often goes into financing terrorism and organized crime. Other issues such as the spread of HIV/AIDS, the relationship between drug consumers and producers, and the elimination of organic drug crops are all global problems that require global answers. On a humanitarian level, the drug problem not only constitutes a threat to public health and safety, particularly to children and young people, undermines socio-economic stability and sustainable development. Additionally, links between illicit drug trafficking and other criminal activities, like trafficking in human beings are continually shown. As a result, the UN has become increasingly involved with the fight against the world drug problem in the past thirty years.

There are three major UN drug control conventions concerning the control of illicit drug use and trafficking. The first international effort to curb drug use was undertaken in 1961 with the adoption of the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs. The 1961 Convention sought to unite Member States under one agreement and have them report to one authority, the International Narcotics Control Board. The Convention also created steps to standardize the taxonomy of drugs into four schedules still used today. The second convention, the Convention on Psychotropic Substances, drafted in 1971, added synthetic substances to the list of drugs whose use should be limited and brought them under much of the same rules as the 1961 Convention. The third convention, the Convention against the Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances, was drafted in 1988 in response to the minimal affect the first two Conventions were having in reducing the impact of illicit drug use and trade. This last convention sought, in particular, to aid in the confiscation of illicit trafficking proceeds and to restrict the movement of traffickers.

Even with these international agreements in place, the international drug problem continues to grow. As a result, the UN increased its efforts and retargeted its combative efforts in the early 1990s. The 1990 Political Declaration and Global Program of Action, which established 1990-2000 as the UN Decade Against Drug Abuse, helped refocus enforcement efforts around decreasing the demand for drugs, the elimination of illicit narcotic crops, the prevention of drug abuse, and the link between drug trafficking and terrorism. In 1991 the United Nations Drug Control Program, now called the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), was created and tasked with strengthening international action against drug production and trafficking.

Today the UN's efforts focus primarily on the maximization and accuracy of information exchange, the decrease in demand for narcotics, and eradicating the link between drugs and terrorism. To assist in information accuracy and exchange, the UNODC has instituted the Global Assessment Program, which gathers annual statistics on drug use and enforcement from each country. The information gathered from these surveys is essential to better understand and combat the global drug problem.

In addition, the UN is addressing the affects of the three Conventions, the spread of HIV/AIDS, and the ever changing drug

market. The first two Conventions were written before the advent of HIV/AIDS, and the third was written at a time when little was known about HIV/AIDS's communicability. Growing sentiment suggests that the rules of the Conventions inadvertently help to increase the spread of HIV/AIDS. Some members are calling for either a revision or repeal. There is also concern over the dynamic characteristic of the world drug market. No matter what steps are taken to control drug proliferation and usage, there will always be a new drug, or a new way of producing an old drug. It is imperative the United Nations remain vigilant in its efforts to fight the international drug control problem.

Ever present in the General Assembly's work on the issue is a call for States to measurably reduce drug use and its social impact within their countries. Focusing on early education intervention programs for children and youth, providing broad based treatment programs that over come barriers limiting access for young girls and women, and providing services for drug users, particularly those with HIV/AIDS and other blood born illnesses are all areas UN has called for improvement within States to combat the social and humanitarian affects of the global drug problem.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
• What steps can be taken to target the demand side of the drug trafficking equation?
• Should the Conventions be repealed or reformed and rewritten to include HIV/AIDS prevention?
• How can the UNODC best assist Member States in developing affective prevention and treatment programs in their fight against illicit drugs?

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A/RES/44/141
A/RES/S-20/2
E/RES/2006/32
E/RES/2006/33
Convention against the Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances
Convention on Psychotropic Substances
Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs
UNODC Annual Report 2007, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

Additional Web Resources:

www.unodc.org - UN Office of Drug Control Web site
www.unodc.org/unodc/en/cnd.html - Commission on Narcotic Drugs Web site
www.incb.org/incb/index.html - International Narcotics Control Board Web

Purview of the Simulation: The Fourth Committee deals with a variety of political issues on most topics including the political components of decolonization, economic and social issues (excluding disarmament). As the Committee's focus is strictly political, its recommendations should be broad in nature. The Fourth Committee is also charged with the coordination and operational aspects of UN peacekeeping missions. This is an important distinction from the Security Council, which develops peacekeeping missions and objectives. The Fourth Committee deals solely with the Department of Peacekeeping Operations' procedures and policies. Similarly, while the Committee may discuss the political problems in funding Palestine, it cannot discuss the details of how to properly fund Palestine. For more information concerning the purview of the UN's General Assembly as a whole, see page 15.

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

Comprehensive Review of Peacekeeping Operations in all Their Aspects

Today, peacekeeping operations form an integral component of enhancing the effectiveness of the United Nations in the maintenance of international peace and security. According to the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), peacekeeping is defined as the deployment of UN personnel in the field, with the consent of all parties concerned, normally involving UN military or police personnel and frequently civilians as well. Peacekeeping operations have become the subject of renewed focus over the past several years as the number of peacekeeping troops, police, and uniformed observers under the UN's control increased to over 80,000 – up from 25,000 just ten years ago. The UN has managed over 60 peacekeeping operations since its inception, with 15 of those operations still active today.

To ensure that peacekeeping remains an effective tool for peace and security, the General Assembly first considered the issue on 18 February 1965 by voting on Resolution 2006 (XIX); entitled "Comprehensive Review of the Whole Question of Peacekeeping Operations in all Their Aspects." This resolution authorized the President of the General Assembly to establish a special committee on peacekeeping operations with a mandate to review all issues relating to peacekeeping and its operations, including financial implications. Every year since 1965, this item has been considered by the General Assembly as part of the agenda and, since 1993, this item has been allocated to the Fourth Committee. Today, the Fourth Committee is responsible for allocating this item to the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations (SSCPO), reviewing the recommendation the committee provides, and developing a report for the General Assembly on its findings.

On 21 August 2000, the General Assembly adopted the Brahimi Report (A/55/305), which outlines several issues for reform ranging from personnel security and safety to logistic support and management. The report provides 20 recommendations to best reform the DPKO with the intent of making the UN peacekeeping operations a credible and effective force to ensure international peace and security. Since the publication of the Brahimi Report, the SCPO has provided numerous recommendations to the Secretary-General in areas such as, operations and logistics, personnel safety and security, strengthening consultation process, etc. During the 60th session, the SCPO had focused their concerns on addressing issues relating to women's role and participation in post-conflict peace building, addressing concerns relating to sexual misconduct among UN Peacekeepers and personnel, making deployments rapid and effective, and procurement processes.

At the beginning of the 2007 session, the SCPO began debate on the Secretary-General's proposal on realigning or restructuring the DPKO. The proposal would, "establish two specialized but tightly integrated departments to manage the consolidation of responsibility, authority, and resources for UN peacekeeping operations." In addition to his proposal, the Secretary-General has introduced a reform agenda known as "Peace Operations 2010," which is centered on five main areas: personnel, doctrine, partnerships, resources and organization. The purpose of his agenda is to "strengthen the Organization's capacity to mount and sustain peace operations in a professional, effective and accountable way."

As the SCPO continues to investigate ways to improve the peacekeeping operations the committee has recognized the sustained surge in UN Peacekeeping and the need to consider how to address that demand adequately. According to the Secretary-General's report (61/668), "today's challenges demand three priorities: 1) to structure and increase the capacity of headquarters to plan, manage and oversee UN peacekeeping effectively and accountably; 2) to make future gains in integration and coherence across the system and with non-UN partners, so as to increase efficiency and targeted support to post-conflict environments; 3) and how to plan UN peacekeeping missions so they can be organized to downsize and transition in a timely and sustainable way." As the 61st session continues, the SCPO will review the implementations of the Secretary-General's recommendations from the 60th session, and it continues to provide recommendations and feedback on issues relating to peacekeeping while at the same time reviewing proposals of restructuring the DPKO and the "Peace Operations 2010."

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- As peacekeeping operations continue to expand, what recommendations would you provide to ensure the integrity of peacekeeping? Why?
- Have the recommendations from the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations been influential on Peacekeeping Reform? Why or why not?
- Does your government support the Secretary-General's ideas about restructuring the Department of Peacekeeping Operations? Does this recommendation hinder or enhance the UN Peacekeeping Operations capabilities in the field?

• Does your government think the United Nations and the Department of Peacekeeping Operations benefit from the recommendation presented by the Special Committee? Why or why not?

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A/RES/57/129

A/55/305-S/2000/809 - Brahimi Report

2006 (XIX) - Comprehensive Review of the Whole Question of Peacekeeping Operations in all Their Aspects

Additional Web Resources:

www.globalpolicy.org/security/peacekpg/reform/index.htm - Peacekeeping Reform

www.peacewomen.org/un/pkwatch/pkindex.html - PeaceWomen, Peacekeeping Page

www.un.org/peace/reports/peace_operations/ - Report of the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations

www.un.org/Depts/dhl/resguide/specpk.htm - United Nations Documentation: Research Guide-Peacekeeping

www.un.org/Depts/dpko/dpko/ -Department of Peacekeeping Operations

www.usip.org/library/topics/peacekeeping.html - United States Institute of Peace

United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East

Following the Arab-Israeli hostilities of 1948, the United Nations established the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near Middle East (UNRWA) under A/Res/4/302. The UNRWA is a UN humanitarian agency responsible for the welfare of Palestine refugees. Unlike the UN Refugee Agency, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), which is responsible for serving a global base of refugees, the UNRWA focuses directly on aiding one-nation group. Currently, 4.3 million refugees qualify for assistance from the UNRWA, and the agency maintains an area of operations in Jordan, Lebanon, The Syrian Arab Republic, the West Bank and the Gaza Strip. UNRWA is mandated "to carry out direct relief and works programs in collaboration with local governments," and to "consult with the Near Eastern governments concerning measures to be taken preparatory to the time when international assistance for relief and works projects is no longer available" as well as plan for when assistance to refugees is no longer necessary.

The General Assembly is responsible for renewing the UNRWA's mandate every three years; 2008 is the next year the mandate will be up for renewal. The agency focuses on five main programs for the Palestine refugees: health, education, relief and social services, microfinance/microenterprise, and new projects. The UNRWA does work with other UN and international agencies to meet these ends, notably the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) on health and educational issues. According to the agency's mandate, UNRWA will continue its service projects within refugee camps until a just settlement of the Palestine refugee problem has been reached.

From its early years UNRWA addressed emergency assistance needs, but now the agency has evolved to provide a greater network of services to Palestine refugees. For example, the microfinance project (MMP), through its four revolving loan funds, has grown to become a source of financial strength in the volatile business sector of the Palestine territory.

Past UN resolutions (see A/RES/61/112) have centered on the continual demands for compensation and repatriation of the refugees, which some believe would alleviate the refugee problem and end the need for the temporary humanitarian services provided by the agency. Past resolutions have also encouraged the "budgetary transparency and efficiency of the Agency" in order to increase donor funding for the Agency, as well modernizing the management of the agency to better serve the camp refugees. Recent problems with the agency's

dwindling funds, inability keep pace with the growing refugee population and rising inflation are concerns that the General Assembly has continually addressed in recent years. The June 2004 international conference in Geneva resulted in a set of recommendations to improve the overall quality and efficiency of the Agency. UNRWA responded with its Medium Term Plan (MTP) for the period 2005-2009 that aims to address the concerns and recommendations advanced during the Geneva Conference.

Critics claim UNRWA was originally set up to be a temporary organization, but that the agency has now overextended its original purpose. As conflict continues in the area, the agency itself continues to face serious issues of access, safety of its personnel, and of its finances. However, the agency continues to be the primary source of educational, health, relief and social services to 4.3 million Palestine refugees. As the General Assembly considers the UNRWA, it must carefully balance the needs of the Palestine refugees it provides services to and the need to strive for transparency and efficiency in its operations.

The General Assembly and the Fourth Committee in particular, continues to address concerns surrounding the agency's work and sustainability. While continually calling upon Israel to follow agreements and conventions, the Assembly expresses its deep concern both for the dire situation of the Palestine refugees and for the financial means the UNRWA has to ameliorate those needs. And over the last 18 months, the Agency has not only had to cease its work in rebuilding shelters in Gaza due to violence there, but has lost two of it's own members in the violence. Faced with the humanitarian needs of the refugees, the political and financial realities of meeting those needs, and dealing with the violence in the area are all questions of concerns for the Committee.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the UNRWA better advance the guidelines set out in the Medium Term Plan (MTP)?
- At what point should the international community consider the agency's mission accomplished?
- Is the UNRWA creating a culture of dependency or contributing to the refugees' wellbeing in the long run?
- What should be done about the lack of funding the agency receives in order to continue its humanitarian services?
- What essential services must UNRWA maintain in light of declining funds?
- What impact, if any, does the work of the UNRWA have on the peace and stability in the region?

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A/RES/61/113
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A/RES/60/102
A/RES/59/100
UNRWA Medium Term Plan 2005 – 2009

Additional Web Resources:

www.un.org/unrwa/ - UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near Middle East

www.unhcr.org/country/pse.html - The UN Refugee Agency page on the Occupied Palestine Territories

www.arts.mcgill.ca/mepp/new_prrn/ - Palestine Refugee ResearchNet

Members of the Economic and Social Council:		
Albania	El Salvador	Mexico
Angola	France	Netherlands
Austria	Germany	New Zealand
Barbados	Greece	Pakistan
Belarus	Guinea	Palao
Benin	Guinea-Bissau	Paraguay
Bolivia	Guyana	Philippines
Brazil	Haiti	Portugal
Canada	Iceland	Romania
Cape Verde	India	Russian Federation
Chad	Indonesia	Saudi Arabia
China	Iraq	Somalia
Costa Rica	Japan	South Africa
Cuba	Kazakhstan	Sri Lanka
Czech Republic	Lithuania	Sudan
Democratic	Luxembourg	Thailand
Republic of the	Madagascar	United Kingdom
Congo	Malawi	United States of
Denmark	Mauritania	America

The Purview of the Simulation: The Economic and Social Council is the principal UN organ responsible for coordinating economic, social and related works of 14 specialized agencies, 10 functional commissions and five regional commissions. ECOSOC accepts reports and recommendations from other UN bodies, including the Commission on Population and Development (CPD) and the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP). Along with its coordinating role, ECOSOC gathers information and advises Member States on economic, social, humanitarian and human rights programs. ECOSOC also coordinates and collaborates with autonomous specialized agencies that work closely with the United Nations. These include multilateral financial and trade institutions, such as the World Bank and the World Trade Organization.

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

Economic and Environmental Questions: Science and Technology for Development

Since its inception at the dawn of the nuclear age, the United Nations has been concerned with the effect of scientific and technological advances on world peace and social development. The science and technology gap often highlights disparities between the developed, developing and least developed countries (LDCs). Gaining the technological means to protect their environments is often of low priority to LDCs focused on the subsistence of their citizens; the cost and speed at which new technologies emerge makes education of and access to these technologies by its citizens prohibitive. The challenge to the international community is two fold in this arena: sustainable development and the equitable spread of knowledge.

Focusing on the developing world, the first international agenda in this area was formulated in 1963 at the UN Conference on the Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of the Less Developed Countries. Sixteen years later, at the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development, the General Assembly (GA) reaffirmed the 1979 Vienna Programme of Action by establishing an Intergovernmental Committee on Science and Technology for Development. The Committee was charged with advancing guidelines and priorities, creating monitoring systems, and promoting general implementation of the Vienna Programme. On the tenth anniversary of the 1979 Conference, the GA noted its disappointment with the slow implementation of the Vienna Programme of Action and transformed the Intergovernmental Committee into a functional ECOSOC Commission.

The UN Commission on Science and Technology for Development (CSTD), as part of the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), researches and collects data, provides technical assistance to developing nations, and advises the GA and ECOSOC in order to formulate policy to aid in development. In addition, this aid focuses on sustainable growth in developing regions. While the technology gap has consistently grown for the past 40 years, CSTD has worked to provide more technologies to more Member States to improve their development capabilities.

In September 2000, world leaders set the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) with an intention to measure and improve economic and social problems throughout the globe. That same year, a meeting of a high-level panel of experts on information and communication technologies (ICTs) reported that these technologies can greatly enhance a developing nation's ability to achieve those goals; however the rising technology gap between developed and developing nations significantly reduces the feasibility of using ICTs to achieve that goal.

Since then, many UN Member States have been working through CSTD to help developing nations speed up their development process. Unfortunately, most Member States are unwilling to openly share ICTs that could greatly benefit developing nations because of these technologies' benefits as exports. The role of the CSTD is to provide a forum for these nations to discuss science and technology for development, while recognizing economic costs for both the developers and the LDCs, and ensuring the integrity of copyright laws.

Earlier this year, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) released their fourth report, stating that, globally, climate change is happening, it is very likely anthropogenic, and that measures need to be taken to reduce emissions, particularly carbon, methane, and nitrogen dioxide. With that in mind, technologies used to develop economies need to be more efficient and less harmful to the environment. If development is unsustainable it will only complicate reducing global emissions, worsening the harmful effects of climate change, while ultimately harming the natural resources

within the developing world. Coordinating the efforts of the CSTD with that of the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) may be the most effective approach to achieving more sustainable results.

In April 2007, the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs released the report "Industrial Development for the 21st Century: Sustainable Development Perspectives." The report does note that there is a rising technology gap between the developed and the developing nations. However, it does come to the conclusion that industrial development has consistently been the best route to creating a higher standard of living for developing nations and this development can be accomplished in a more environmentally friendly manner than has been done in the past. Taken all together, this indicated that bridging the technology gap between the developing and developed world is key to encouraging sustainable development.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What measures can the United Nations take to encourage greater information technology sharing between Member States?
- How can the United Nations support faster development in developing nations, while promoting sustainable growth?
- Which technologies provide the best mechanisms for developing nations to integrate into the digital market?
- Currently, most nations are not on par to meet their MDGs by 2015. What steps can be taken to increase the likelihood of accomplishing these goals?

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www.un.org/esa/sustdev/csd/policy.htm - United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development

Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice: Responses to Violence Against Women and Girls

Violence against women has existed in many forms throughout history and affects millions of women each year. Domestic violence, femicide, female genital mutilation, rape, and forced pregnancy are examples of violence directed specifically at women across international, cultural and economic divides. Historically, women have rarely been granted equal status and protection as men; violence against women is a manifestation of the historic trend of subordination by and discrimination against women by men. In many States, violence against women has been ignored or marginalized, and in some instances, legitimized by custom, religion, or law.

The international focus on violence against women as a special subset of human rights violations came about only in recent years. The United Nations' 1993 Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women was the first such instrument to exclusively and explicitly address the issue. The Declaration defined violence against women as "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts…." The Declaration identified three areas in which violence commonly occurs: the family, the general community, and the State. It furthermore found violence against women to constitute an obstacle to the achievement of development and peace, as it has lasting social and economic repercussions. The Commission on Human Rights reiterated these sentiments in resolution CHR 1994/45 by appointing a Special Rapporteur on violence against women.

Addressing the issue of violence against women requires a multi-faceted approach in which the criminal justice system plays a crucial role. A/Res/52/86, Annex, delineates changes and improvements to be made in the arenas of criminal law and procedure, police work, sentencing and correction, and victim support and assistance, among others. It is only by reforming and evaluating practices in all aspects of violence against women that an attitudinal and societal change will occur, at which time prevention can be pursued.

One of the primary challenges in the efforts combating violence against women has been the lack of research and data at the national, regional and international levels. To that end, the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women collaborated with the

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime in producing the report "Good Practices in Combating and Eliminating Violence against Women." The May 2005 report found that the problem had become more visible and pervasive over the past two decades and remained largely unaddressed in policy and practice. Furthermore, work on prevention has almost always been limited to local short-term measures. Interventions that are shown to be successful in one setting or culture may not be effective in another community; however there exist basic aspects of legislation and responses that can be applied across contexts. Good practices which were commended included delegitimizing male control over female sexuality through laws specifically criminalizing marital rape; providing a specific legal status for immigrants who are victims of domestic violence; establishing a civil right to compensation from the perpetrator or State; and enabling reporting of complaints through women police stations and cells.

The "Good Practices" report recommended a mainstreaming of the gender approach; not to create a "gender-blind" criminal justice system, but to integrate and educate on the special needs and considerations in violence against women. Guaranteeing that victims are extended their full rights and dignity while ensuring that perpetrators are brought to justice is the responsibility of an informed and gender-sensitive judicial system. Historically, many of the processes involved in filing a domestic violence or rape complaint were not only degrading, but also a deterrent to the report and pursuit of such crimes. The United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women offers education for judicial officers on the use of international human rights law to promote a jurisprudence of gender equality and consideration for victims.

One of the many significant challenges still facing the international community is the lack of reliable documentation or data on violence against women. Without evidence as to the linkages between violence against women and other social, economic and cultural phenomena, it is difficult to draft or implement a successful Plan of Action at the national level. The effort to prevent and reduce the global incidence of violence against women will require transnational cooperation and a concerted effort to affirm the rights and equality of women, through legislation, perpetrator rehabilitation, victim empowerment, and education of the judicial actors as well as society at large.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What steps can be taken to incorporate a gender-sensitive approach to violence against women in a criminal justice system?
- Are women adequately represented in crisis services and prevention dialogue?
- What cultural or traditional considerations constitute obstacles to criminalizing violence against women in all its forms?
- To what extent have measures toward the elimination and prevention of violence against women been integrated into justice systems at the national level?
- To what extent should the international community be involved in such human rights violations?

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http://www.un.org/womenwatch/ - UN Women Watch Campaign

www.un.org/womenwatch/confer/beijing5/ - Beijing +5 Web page

Strengthening of the Coordination of Emergency Humanitarian Assistance of the United Nations

Humanitarian crises occur in a wide range of situations that often require an even wider range of solutions. These crises arise from any number of events that affect the health, safety or security of a community or State, with causes as varied as armed conflict, natural disaster, famine, or epidemic. More often than not, States must turn to the international community for humanitarian assistance because they are unable to cope with the emergency alone.

Since its inception in 1945, the United Nations and a number of its subsidiary bodies have addressed the issue of humanitarian aid in cases of emergency. Humanitarian aid has often been a life-saving force for those in emergency situations. In a 1991 resolution, the United Nations recognized the need for a body to ensure that emergency humanitarian assistance response was strengthened. This opened a new dialogue across the UN, allowing Member States to contribute and refine ideas on ways to increase aid and assistance in the wake of natural and man-made disasters.

Beyond the establishment of the Emergency Response Coordinator (ERC), UN bodies have learned over time that their good offices are needed to provide a standardized framework for international, national and local NGOs. This role was eventually elevated to an Under-Secretary-General role when the Department of Humanitarian Affairs was established. The organization saw a change of name to the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) as its scope amplified. Several other organs were created by the 1991 resolution: the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC), charged with providing a forum for UN and non-UN organizations to establish consistent policies and frameworks to address humanitarian responses; the Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP), allowing for a standing body to make appeals for funding from sources worldwide to subsidize monies available for emergencies; and, the Central Emergency Revolving (now Response) Fund (CERF), accountable for garnering donations and pledges from public and private sources to provide standing capital to decrease reaction time to events. Furthermore, the Hyogo Declaration was adopted as a Plan of Action with established goals and strategies for follow-up from 2005 to 2015 as another attempt to streamline the process of emergency humanitarian response.

These resolutions and declarations charge the office of the Secretary-General with providing reports at established intervals after a disaster. These all follow a similar structure: history of the disaster; immediate response of affected Member States; response, both short and long term, of UN and other international, national, and local agencies; observations on the effectiveness of actions taken; and recommendations for future disasters, focusing on both the specific type of disaster and coordination in general. A short review of recent reports reveals the most comprehensive of these reports emerge from natural disasters. The 2005 hurricane season in Central America, the October 2005 earthquake disaster in South Asia and 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami disaster reports all note similar recommendations which seem to be areas of concern, regardless of type of disaster. These areas of concern broaden the discussion of humanitarian assistance considerably, often complicating the opportunity for consistency in crafting reactions.

Disasters often hit nations and communities that are already in a state of economic disarray. Poverty levels are magnified and at-risk populations are rendered especially vulnerable. Women and children, who culturally may not have a voice in their situation, are often overlooked in the rebuilding process. Urban-oriented migration often leaves poorer areas with higher concentrations of women and children to bear the brunt of the disaster. There is an increased chance of gender violation and violence, along with child trafficking, in the wake of the event. A lack of development magnifies the economic impact, as entire industries face possible destruction. Confusion often arises about land ownership, magnified when ownership documentation is not available or destroyed. Access to medical and educational resources, as well as re-establishing the basic necessities of shelter, food and water are often the initial focuses of relief efforts.

The initial response activities to a crisis set the stage for recovery.

It is a quite common phenomenon for a large outpouring of support to come immediately following an emergency. Once immediate needs have been met, the need for resources continues and is often greater as recovery is typically a long, dynamic process. The CERF is attempting to prevent sudden drops in funding for humanitarian assistance as activities shift their focus to recovery. Prior planning for disaster response at all levels of government has tremendous impacts on the ability of response organizations to carry out coordinated activities in the immediate aftermath of a crisis. Many nations have standing policies to mobilize their military assets initially and then to phase in the use of civil society organizations to aid in recovery. This requires training for the militaries involved in humanitarian responsibilities and an established civil society. Groups of disaster responders from different organizational viewpoints working in coordination, on the ground, with UN and the government of the affected ensure that various perspectives are accounted for in the recovery process and the needs and well-being of disaster victims are protected.

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

- In what ways might existing levels of coordination be enhanced by suggestions of the reports of the Secretary-General?
- Are there any ways to increase international funding for the CERF?
- How can the level of disaster preparation for Member States be supported by the international community?
- How can ECOSOC promote cooperation, and not competition, between aid agencies?

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Hyogo Declaration

Additional Web Resources:

humanitarianinfo.org/sumatra/ - Sumatra Humanitarian Information Center
www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/content/default.asp - Interagency Standing Committee (IASC)
www.ochaonline.un.org - United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance (OCHA)
www.odihpn.org - Humanitarian Practice Network
www.reliefweb.int/ocha_ol/about/resol/resol_e.html - Relief Web

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Germany	Mexico	
Guyana	Morocco	

This year, AMUN's simulations include the Commission on Population and Development, one of the ten functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). Participation on the Commission is open to one or two members from any country currently represented on the CPD (see above list). The CPD will meet for all four days of the conference, and will report to a combined ECOSOC Plenary session on Tuesday afternoon.

About CPD

A functional commission of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the Commission on Population and Development (CPD) monitors and studies population trends and the interrelationship of those trends with development issues. Established in 1946 as the Population Commission and renamed in 1994, the CPD's primary mandate from ECOSOC is the monitoring, analysis, and follow-up of the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD). It monitors the implementation of the Programme at the national, regional and international levels and advises the Council as to its findings.

Purview of the Simulation

In its review of Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), the CPD directly reviews policies and implementation of the Programme at local, national and international levels. CPD is also tasked with arranging studies about and advising ECOSOC concerning: integrating populations with development policies, strategies and other programs; providing population assistance to developing countries and those economies in transitions upon their request; or addressing other population or development questions that arise from UN organs.

Website: www.un.org/esa/population/cpd/aboutcom.htm

The Changing Age Structures of Populations and Their Implications for Development

Between 2007 and 2050, the world population is projected to grow to over 9 billion, with most of the growth occurring in less developed countries. The World Population Prospects: 2006 Revision estimates growth in less developed regions moving from 5.4 billion in 2007 to 7.9 billion in 2050. The population of more developed regions is projected to remain essentially unchanged, hovering around 1.2 billion; the population change in more developed regions would be negative if not for mass migrations from less to more developed countries. Yet population change is not the only significant factor under consideration by the Commission on Population and Development. In addition to population growth and global distribution of people and resources, the age structures of the human population will be an increasingly important factor in global development.

In the past, age structures have been determined by a general and global trend of high fertility and high mortality; however, in recent decades, the trend reversed, displaying both declining fertility rates and increasing longevity in all parts of the globe. This phenomenon is known as "population aging," and it is expected to have an impact on every part of the world, though it may carry different consequences for developed and developing nations. Current population reports show the proportion of the working age population is expected to decline by 2050 in every major area except Africa, while the number of elderly people is set to triple. The CPD recognizes a three-phase demographic transition to the low mortality, low fertility paradigm. First, a population undergoes rapid reduction in mortality, especially among children and infants. Then, as the population grows, so too does the number of children, as more healthy adults are producing offspring. Third, the demographic transition moves to a period of low fertility, as adults recognize they can parent fewer children to ensure the survival of the desired number. Currently, there are UN Member States in all three stages of this demographic transition.

In developed regions, the 2006 revisions of the World Population Prospects estimate that the number of people over 60 will double to over 406 million by 2050. Fertility rates in the developed world are expected to reach 2.05 children/women by 2050, which is just under the recognized replacement rate of 2.1 children per women. The decline in fertility will be sharper in the developing world, where the number of children per women may drop from 4.63 to 2.50 by the year 2050. The decline in fertility in the developing world will likely result from successful family planning practices being implemented in developing nations. Additionally, the effect of HIV/AIDS and its treatment will have a drastic role in increasing the average age of the developing world's population. Increasing the number of patients with access to secure antiretroviral treatment, as well as increased success of efforts to control the spread of HIV, could result in as many as 32

million fewer deaths by 2050 in the world's 62 most affected nations as compared to the 2004 estimates. Finally, in all regions except Africa, the proportion of the population of working age (15-59) is expected to decline, thus adding pressure to healthcare, economic, and social resources.

At the international level, population planning and monitoring has been in place since the World Population Conference held in Bucharest in 1974. More recently, the international community accepted a Programme of Action at the International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo in 1994. To date, most of the initiatives surrounding population growth and changing age structures have taken place at the national level, and the focus of governmental policy has mostly been on ways of addressing the consequences of these changing demographic trends. The consequences of these trends can be economic and social in nature. For example, progressively aging populations have profound impacts on intergenerational social support systems within a country. Retirement, pensions and other social benefits need to be financially supported and extended over longer periods of time and the demand and cost of medical care increases as the incidence of chronic diseases is typically higher in elderly persons. Policy changes that address the aging population have taken place in the areas of immigration reform, pension reform, family planning policies (in the developing world), and fertility incentives. The CPD may consider how these policies might have a global impact or consider how the international community might implement them.

At its 40th session this year, the CPD focused not only on the needs of aging populations, but also on the need for sustainability programs for youth. Targeted programs, aimed at promoting more responsible behavior among young people, could encourage savings and investment. Increasing self-reliance of older persons, by promoting a continued participation in the workforce and discouraging early retirement, is an effective and realistic response to the income security problem. Important, appropriate action must be taken to address demographic and social challenges created by the changing age structure, such as higher costs for social services, possible labor shortages, and higher costs for pensions and health care.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How will the world's aging population affect the international community in the next 50 years and beyond?
- How can the international community prepare for the changing age structure of the international community?
- How can the UN, NGO's, and the international community as a whole be encouraged to address this issue from a global perspective?
- What are your country's major concerns regarding population change and the effects of an ageing population?
- How might Member States be encouraged to work with countries that have opposite population pressures or problems?

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www.un.org/esa/desa/ - UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs

Reproductive Rights and Reproductive Health

Reproductive health is a basic right for all persons. The International Conference for Population and Development (ICPD) defines reproductive health as "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and to its functions and processes." Female genital mutilation, HIV/AIDS,

abortion, and violence against women, including trafficking, are just some of the challenges faced in the area of reproductive health. While some of these issues are very State- and religion-sensitive, such as abortion, the international community continues to take action in the area of reproductive health.

The ICPD, held in Cairo, Egypt in 1994 as the first large scale conference of its kind, had aims of targeting issues related to reproductive health and population. Some of the concerns included the half million pregnancy related deaths each year, 99% of which were in developing countries, and increasing access to and education about family planning methods to people the world over. The Programme of Action on Population and Development, which came out of the ICPD, sets out goals and objectives for population and development, including reproductive rights and health over a twenty year timeframe. The Commission on Population and Development (CPD) is charged with monitoring the follow-up and implementation to the Programme of Action and advising ECOSOC on the status of the Programme. CPD annually reviews the progress and challenges encountered with the implementation of the Programme of Action at the local, national, regional and international level. There have also been several follow-up conferences, including the ICDP+5, the Fourth World Conference on Women, and Women 2000.

There are several issues involving reproductive health and reproductive rights that still affect men and women on an international scale. One large problem is exercising the right to health care, especially by certain groups of women. These groups include rural women, elderly women, ethnic minorities, and sex workers. The Committee to Eradicate Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) has recommended States parties take extra steps to ensure that health services are made available to these women. Other UN programs have targeted their work in Africa: UNICEF programs focus on education throughout parts of Africa to teach families about the dangers of female circumcision; UNAIDS works to combat the spread of HIV by educating about the virus.

Additionally, the United Nations is working carefully to meet the Millennium Development Goals by the year 2015. Specific to the Commission on Population and Development are MDGs 3, 5, and 6, which are to Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women; Improve Maternal Health; and to combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, respectively. Key to promoting gender equality, empowering women, and improving maternal health are increasing access to reproductive health care and family planning, particularly in the least developed Sates, where maternal mortality remains an epidemic.

At its 26th Special Session in June 2001, the Assembly on HIV/AIDS focused attention on the devastation caused by the pandemic and adopted a Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS to mount an expanded response to halt its advance. Substantial progress was also made to meet the goals of the ICPD, specifically by taking a broader approach to reproductive health with integration among different institutional structures, transformation of existing facilities, improvement of logistic systems and training to ensure appropriate and effective care. Thus, reproductive health is more often being addressed as a component of broad health programs in countries undertaking health system and financing reforms.

Despite all the gains made, the United Nations and others in the international community still face criticism and obstacles from groups reluctant to accept reproductive health as an aspect of total body health. Opponents often say that sexual health is a private

matter amongst a family, and governments should not participate in such personal affairs. There are Members States uncomfortable with interfering with issues of female genital mutilation, or others who tie their reproductive health funding up with caveats. Areas of conflict only serve to exacerbate these problems for women and the international community as violence to women increase and access to international aid becomes more difficult. And while scientific advances continue – including vaccines to prevent sexually transmitted infections such as Hepatitis B and human papillomavirus – the issue of reproductive health and reproductive rights continue to be a challenge.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What role do men and boys have in ensuring reproductive rights?
- What progress has been made toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals of achieving gender equality and eradicating HIV?
- How can the international community further reproductive rights and reproductive health in the current environment?
- What progress has been made in implementing the Programme of Action from the ICPD? What are the barriers to full implementation of the Programme of Action?

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A/RES/S-26-2 Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS

Additional Web Resources:

hrw.org/women/conflict.html – Human Rights Watch, Women's Rights

www.reproductiverights.org – Center for Reproductive Rights

www.unfpa.org/icpd/icpd_poa.htm - ICPD Programme of Action

www.un.org/esa/population/cpd/cpd_archives.htm - UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division

www.un.org/millenniumgoals/ - UN Millennium Development Goals

www.un.org/popin/ - UN Population Network

http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/followup/beijing+5.htm – Beijing +5 Web page

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Hong Kong, China (China)	

This year, AMUN is expanding its simulations to include one of the Economic and Social Council's (ECOSOC's) regional commissions, the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP). Participation in ESCAP includes one or two

Representatives from each of the Member States currently on the Commission, as well as one or two member-delegations to represent the Associate Members (see list above). ESCAP will meet for all four days of the conference, and will report to a combined ECOSOC Plenary session on Tuesday afternoon.

About ESCAP

Established in Shanghai, China in 1974, ESCAP is the largest of ECOSOC's regional organizations in both the number of people and span of territory under its scope. The 62 members of ESCAP include 58 in the region; this includes not only UN Member States but also the nine ESCAP Associate Members. The geographical range of the Commission stretches from Turkey in the west to the Pacific island nation of Kiribati in the east, and from the Russian Federation in the north to New Zealand in the south. ESCAP is the most comprehensive of the United Nations five regional commissions, and addresses regional development of the Asia-Pacific region for the United Nations.

Purview of the Committee

There are three main focuses of ESCAP's work in the region: poverty reduction; managing globalization; and tracking emerging social issues. Within these areas, the Commission focuses on development issues that are best addressed through regional cooperation such as those that would benefit from regional or multi-country involvement. This includes issues that face the entire region or several countries, cross border issues, and sensitive or emerging issues that require further negotiation or advocacy. ESCAP also provides technical assistance to its members and monitors progress of, and provides advice to, countries pursuing the UN Millennium Development Goals.

Poverty and Development: Housing for the Urban Poor

As the developing world continues to grow, most of the world's population is feeling the effects. Asia, specifically, is projected to gain over 1.3 billion urban residents in the next 30 years. Projections also show Asia's rural population decreasing by roughly 20 million over the same span of time. For Asia's urban centers, this means planning for a sharp increase to what are already largely overpopulated areas.

Rapid Growth in urban population generally stems from three basic factors in the developing world: migration from rural or other urban areas, natural population increases, and reclassification of previously rural areas as urban as these areas develop and change character. While this last factor may somewhat ease the burden caused by large growth, with the type of growth projected in Asia over the next decades it is doubtful that urban reclassification will happen on a scale that would do much to assuage the population crunch projected in many urban centers. Factors such as deteriorating quality and

quantity of agricultural lands, poor market infrastructures, and a lack of supporting institutions in rural areas may force the transition from rural to urban in a much shorter period of time than would otherwise happen. These factors require urgent UN and international attention at various levels.

Within the past year, several ongoing projects have been monitored at the UN level. In addition, several resolutions were passed in the General Assembly touching on the general topic of poverty in urban areas. Throughout the process and the discussions, access to housing remains a priority and something that must be continually acted upon. Various small projects were launched between August and October 2004 in Cambodia, East Timor, Nepal and Mongolia, several specifically tied to ESCAP and its efforts in the area of poverty reduction.

The main focus of these smaller efforts was assessing the potential viability of the Housing the Urban Poor project. Undertaken on both regional and national tracks, the Project, which ran from June 2004 through May of this year, expects to accomplish three main goals. First, it aims to establish an online regional resource focused

on urban low-income housing. Second, the Project hopes to increase the capacities of country-level institutions to undertake research and training in urban low-income housing, ideally by implementing distance-learning methods. Finally, the Project aims to create pilot projects, assisting at least three cities in focused urban low-income housing projects.

Implementation of the program remains its biggest difficulty, with the ambitious goals of attempting both country-wide and regional-wide tracks of capacity building. Inputs from the regional track of implementation inevitably affect the progression of the individual country track; it is hoped that the country track will then be able to output its pilot projects through those same regional tracks.

Funding is also a major hurdle, especially with the number of partners involved. Included in the program are ESCAP, managing partners such as the Regional Network of Local Authorities for the Management of Human Settlements (CITYNET), the Network of Local Government Training and Research Institutes in Asia and the Pacific (LOGOTRI) and the Asian Coalition for Housing Rights (ACHR). Input will also be provided by UN-HABITAT and UNDESA. Obviously, managing such an extensive project is complicated, but with the management focused through ESCAP, along with regular meetings at all levels, it is hoped that sufficient management will provide a more than suitable project for the participating countries.

No plans for major projects immediately following the conclusion of the Housing the Urban Poor initiative have been created. However, it is likely that many cities will still need significant assistance in managing and supporting their ever growing urban populations. Several factors may affect the growth and relative poverty level of these populations, including supporting longer-term structural interventions, alleviating labor constraints on groups like women, ensuring that social capital remains intact, and developing policies that integrate human and social capital.

The availability of financial resources remains at the heart of this matter, including who is willing to contribute to alleviating this problem. Larger, more financially secure states may balk at the idea that they should contribute funds to a problem in a completely different part of the world, Asian states themselves may not be able to contribute the necessary funding for successful implementation of housing and other poverty-related projects. It may be up to the UN, and ESCAP in particular, to ensure the adoption of appropriate programs, with the appropriate funding guaranteed, in order to garner support for projects similar to the Housing the Urban Poor initiative.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- Where are the most viable sources of funding likely to come from? If not from one particular organization, is there any way to ensure funding through certain state actors or NGOs?
- Are there ways outside of financial support in which the international community can better assist future efforts in the realm of housing the urban poor?
- Are there aspects unrelated directly to the immediate issue that may affect how this situation is dealt with under the UN or other auspices?

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WP/07/01: ESCAP Working Paper, "Workers' Remittances, Economic Growth and Poverty in Developing Asia and the Pacific Countries," Juthathip Jongwanich

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topics.developmentgateway.org/special/slumhousing – Development Gateway Communities, Slum Housing

www.achr.net – Asian Coalition for Housing Rights

www.adb.org/Projects/project.asp?id=37697 – Asian Development Bank, Urban Development Sector Project

www.idrc.ca/en/ev-8556-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html - International Development Resource Center, Asia

www.iied.org/HS/themes/urbnpov.html – International Institute for Environment and Development, Urban Poverty Page

www.worldbank.org/urban/upgrading/partnerships.html – The World Bank, Urban Services to the Poor Thematic Group

www.www.unescap.org/pdd/prs/ProjectActivities/Ongoing/HousingUrbanPoor04-05/housing-ur-poor.asp - ESCAP Housing and Urban Poor Project

Environment and Sustainable Development: Water Conservation

At least 1.1 billion people in the world are currently without access to a safe water supply and approximately 2.5 billion more are without adequate sanitation systems. The majority of these people live in developing countries. By 2025, it is estimated that 3.5 billion people will live in water-stressed countries – 6.5 times as many people as there were in the year 2000. These numbers come in the wake of an increased imbalance between water availability and water demand as the world's use and abuse of water accelerates due to population growth and economic expansion. The UN Millennium Development Goals set 2015 as the target date for reducing by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water.

Asia and the Pacific, home to 60% of the world's population and 70% of the world's poor, have seen a deterioration of water quality leading to water-borne diseases and the destruction of downstream natural resources. This has led to two crucial problems. First, more than half of the regions population now lacks access to adequate sanitation systems. Second, the deterioration of water quality has impacted food availability, human health, livelihoods, and economic development. In 2006, the UN Development Programme stated that the water and sanitation crisis causes nearly two million child deaths every year. The poor are the most vulnerable to the water crisis. It is vital for socio-economic development and poverty alleviation that this issue be addressed.

Noting the importance of water management in the promotion of sustainable development in Asia and the Pacific, recent international and regional conferences have addressed freshwater issues. In 2000, the ESCAP Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific (MCED) identified conservation and integrated management of freshwater resources as one of the eight priority areas for the region. The Ministerial Declaration which was issued at the International Conference on Freshwater, held at Bonn in December 2001, made a call to the Secretary-General to strengthen the coordination and coherence of activities within the UN system on water issues. In 2002 and 2003, subregional workshops for South, South-West, and South-East Asia were held to promote public awareness of water conservation. Each recognized that government efforts to increase public awareness of water scarcity is a top priority in combating the decline of water quality and will promote increased efficiency of water use.

Following the 2005 Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific (MCED) and ESCAP Commission Session, a new section in the Environment and Sustainable Development Division (ESDD) was established with a focus on Sustainable Development and Water Resources (SDWRS). This division will assist policy makers in achieving environmentally sustainable economic growth, "Green Growth," while also providing advice and capacity building assistance in promoting integrated water resources management. The UN Development Programme's 2006 Annual Report stated that the current water crisis seriously affects the prospects for economic and social development, political stability, as well as ecosystem integrity. The report calls for an integrated approach to water resource management through effective water governance. The 2006 UNESCAP Commission Session in Jakarta underlined the important work of strengthening regional and subregional cooperation to develop infrastructure for water resource management and conservation. The Commission stressed the importance of promoting efficiency in water use and water services as well as improvements in water productivity and conservation through public-private partnerships.

Despite the increased awareness and recent work towards achieving sustainable development and water resources management there are still many problems that must be addressed. Countries should be in the process of developing water resource management plans that account for other international agreements on issues such as climate change, trade, and finance. Water financing remains a key issue with a focus on increasing all sources of funding, including international and regional financial assistance. Education and training towards increasing water use efficiency and water quality are only in the earliest stages of development and implementation. Water institutions must be made more effective through reorienting their structure and enhancing their capacity. Finally, regional cooperation between countries must be facilitated with a means towards sharing knowledge, best practices, and innovative technologies. These issues must be addressed if the Millennium Development Goal of reducing by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water is to be met by 2015.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How can the needs of the increasing population of Asia and the Pacific be fully met without sacrificing the sustainability of the region's finite and vulnerable freshwater resources?
- What resources will be needed in order to move towards sustainable water conservation and what are the necessary steps to achieving equal access to these resources?
- What types of systems, institutions, or regulations should be created in order to ensure that the UN Millennium Development Goal's will be met by 2015?
- What specific issues or problems does sustainable water conservation pose to your country?

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www.unescap.org/esd/water/ - ESCAP Sustainable Development and Water

www.undp.org/water/index.html - UN Development Programme, Energy and Environment, Water Governance

www.watertreaty.org - Watertreaty.org Web site

Along with simulating the General Assembly Plenary and its First, Second, Third, and Fourth Committees, AMUN will also be simulating the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). UNCTAD will meet for the first three days of the conference, and on the final day of the conference, will present a report on its findings to the Combined General Assembly Plenary. UNCTAD's membership is open to all Member States, and as such, participation in the simulation is open to one or two members from all delegations attending the conference.

About UNCTAD

Established in 1964, UNCTAD strives to promote sustainable development strategies while helping developing and least developed countries (LDCs) become integrated into the world economy. Through the organization's evolution over four decades, the UNCTAD of today is an authoritative, knowledge based institution with the goal of shaping national and international debate on development - focusing on sustainable development. To meet these aims, UNCTAD works with governments, and UN organizations, regional commissions, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), including industry and trade associations.

Purview of this Simulation

In its role as a promoter of sustainable development, UNCTAD fulfills three key roles in the areas of trade and development policy: it functions as a forum for intergovernmental deliberations; it undertakes research, data collection and policy analysis; and, it provides technical assistance to developing countries, with special emphasis on least developed countries and transitional economies. In its operations, the organization works closely with its members, other UN bodies, non-governmental and intergovernmental organizations and the private sector. UNCTAD's main goal is to inform the international community and serve as a forum for international deliberations with the aim of consensus building in addition to providing data collection, analysis, and technical assistance in the arena of trade and development.

Website: www.unctad.org

Commodities

The second half of the 20th century witnessed the rise of liberalization and globalization in the world economy. The changes that accompanied these trends significantly impacted producers, exporters and importers, especially in the developing world. One of the many challenges facing developing countries is asymmetrical information in consumer markets. Currently, 95 out of 141 developing countries are more than 50% dependent on commodities. Furthermore, in many of the same countries there is little or no experience with futures exchanges, which leaves farmers at a disadvantage in the world market. Commodities, the lesser-processed items ranging from bananas, cocoa, coffee, and cotton to oil, wood, and fish, can be drastically affected by issues ranging from financing agricultural endeavors to meeting market demands, assessing market risks to complying with changing certification standards, and dealing with the technological and logistical problems of competition in the globalized market.

Commonly, developing countries rely upon agricultural commodities and depend upon the unstable prices their goods attain at market. While more developed countries have the infrastructure and manufacturing capabilities to process the commodities, commodity-dependent countries often export only primary products and are left with few options for survival beyond their agricultural capabilities.

The United Nations Commission on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) was established in 1964 to promote the integration of developing countries into the world economy. UNCTAD's particular focus is on ensuring that domestic policies and international action are mutually supportive in the achievement of sustainable development. At its 1976 session in Nairobi, UNCTAD adopted an Integrated Program for Commodities aimed at setting prices for the primary commodities of developing countries, taking into account world inflation, monetary changes, and the cost of manufactured imports;

all of this was in the hopes of making the market less volatile and thus providing a more stable livelihood to those dependent upon the markets. As part of the Program, the Nairobi session agreed steps would be taken to negotiate a common fund for the financing of buffer stocks that would be held or sold, as conditions required, with the aim of helping to end the wide fluctuation in commodity prices that plagues developing countries dependent on these products as exports.

In 1980, the Agreement Establishing the Common Fund for Commodities was adopted by the UN Negotiating Conference on a Common Fund. International agreements also have been concluded for nine commodities—cocoa, coffee, tin, olive oil, sugar, natural rubber, wheat, jute and jute products, and tropical timbers. The fund came into operation in September 1989. In 2005, the Common Fund was funding 224 projects aimed at combating poverty through commodity development projects. The total funding available for these projects in 2005 was USD 412.8 million, 85% of the funding was made available through grants and the remaining 15% from concessional loans. In 2005, the Common Fund was able to conduct its first country wide evaluation of the impact of its projects in Uganda. The evaluation confirmed that the Common Fund's targeted projects on commodities had a positive impact on poverty reduction.

The eighth session of UNCTAD in 1992 recognized the need to formulate an effective international commodity policy. Commodity markets in the 1990s remained extremely depressed, taking a particular toll on LDCs, and most of the commodity agreements achieved by UNCTAD in the 1980s had lapsed. In 1993, UNCTAD began to develop a micro-computer-based commodity analysis and information system (MICAS), which provides comprehensive, up-to-date information on all aspects of commodity use, production, trade, and consumption. The system assists developing countries in managing their economies and competing more effectively in world markets.

In 2004 the eleventh session of UNCTAD ended with the adoption of the São Paulo Consensus. The conference theme was "Enhancing coherence Between National Development Strategies and Global Economic Processes Towards Economic Growth and Development, Particularly of Developing Countries." Among other objectives UNCTAD affirmed at this session, the Commission found that commodity sector development is essential to poverty reduction and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

Several critical policy areas under examination by the Commission included focusing on opportunities and challenges faced by developing countries that rely heavily on commodities. Recent historic trends of high and volatile oil prices in particular were noted as an obstacle for both oil-exporting and oil-importing countries. The Commission resolved to examine means to respond to these challenges; some areas include: providing a forum for discussing price volatility; formulating policy options for the use of windfall gains; promoting the reduction of trade barriers and trade-distorting subsidies; and addressing issues of governance and transparency.

In 2006 the UNCTAD Expert Meeting in Geneva centered on Enabling Small Commodity Producers and Processors in Developing Countries to Reach Global Markets. In view of the constantly increasing demands on producers to comply with official and private sector standards and the requirements of more competitive markets, the Commission sought to achieve common understandings about the predicament of small commodity producers. Realizing that poverty and the inequalities of the current international commodities structure are indelibly linked, the experts furthermore began a process toward consolidation of multi-stakeholder partnerships to enable small producers to construct sustainable livelihoods.

Perhaps the area that has experienced the most success has been the commodities futures exchanges created in developing countries. In the 2006 Overview of the World's Commodity Exchanges, the Commission found that two of the world's fastest growing commodity exchange sectors were in developing countries, China and India. The Indian exchanges were created in 2003 after extensive efforts by UNCTAD to lay the groundwork for a successful and competitive exchange. In both countries, the explosive growth of the new exchanges has had a profound impact at a local level as well as on the global market. While China and India have been successful in establishing futures exchanges, it still remains concentrated in the developed world. This primary reason for this trend is that futures markets are predicated on improved communication technology and advanced information technology methods, with a shift towards trade being concentrated within a few large international firms and the creditworthiness of commodities traders of major concern in the exchange markets—all of which largely leaves out the developing world.

Non-tariff barriers, such as health and quality regulations, administrative procedures and increased technical requirements, have been steadily increasing in recent years. This is in part due to consumer demands for safe and environmentally friendly products. Such non-tariff barriers a significant obstacle to trade. For developing countries, non-tariff barriers have a negative impact on market access and entry. However, developing policy to address the challenges developing countries face with regards to non-tariff barriers is difficult as there are not commonly agreed upon definitions of what constitutes a non-tariff barrier. To that end the UNCTAD Secretary-General appointed in 2006 a Group of Eminent Persons on Non-Tariff Barriers to address key technical and developmental issues that result from non-tariff barriers.

Although developing countries are in many ways no less reliant on commodities than they were at the inception of the Common Fund, in recent years, donor countries have expressed increasing skepticism that commodity sector programs are worthwhile endeavors, and the monetary support for such programs has reflected the increase in doubts. Among the many issues to be considered regarding commodities and development, causalities and linkages between the activity of commodity production and the condition of poverty in developing countries need to be assessed. Services and support, which are crucial to effectively marketing produce, need to be identified and implemented, and the impact of new, integrated supply chain models on small commodity producers must be assessed. Finally, the possibility of public-private partnerships must be explored to determine the role of governments in support of producers.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- How is dependence on commodities linked to poverty? In what ways should those linkages influence the Commission's efforts?
- How do disparities in access to market information affect producers in LDC's?
- What regions could benefit from a futures commodity exchange?
- To what extent should the Commission and NGO's be involved in establishing such an exchange?
- How will corporations, NGO's, and governments help ease the burden on small farmers and help with the lack of informational and technical capacities or infrastructure so that they can process the commodities in their own country?
- How can the international community better fund the Common Fund and other initiatives that need monetary support?

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www.fao.org - UN Food and Agricultural Organization
www.twnside.org.sg/index.htm - Third World Network
www.itf-commrisk.org - International Taskforce on Commodity Risk
    Management
www.wto.org/index.htm - World Trade Organization

Least Developed Countries: Developing Productive Capacities

In today's rapidly globalizing economy, there is a growing concern that the least developed countries (LDCs) are being left behind. One of the major reasons LDCs find it difficult to keep pace is a lack of productive capacities – a country's entrepreneurial, resource, and productive capability and output. Developing such capacities is key to participation in the world market. Many interrelated obstacles to such development exist, among them inadequate infrastructure, lack of human resources in the areas of technological expertise and business management, outdated technology and inefficient government bureaucracy.

To help develop productive capacities, LDCs receive two major types of aid. Official Development Assistance (ODA) consists of direct donations to LDCs by foreign governments, while Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) involves foreign businesses or individuals investing directly into the private sector of LDCs. While ODA is considered an important component of foreign aid, a greater share of FDI is necessary for the attainment of sustainable development.

Helping LDCs improve their status has been a primary goal of UNCTAD since the term LDC was first used in 1968. Classification as an LDC is based upon three main criteria: low gross national income per capita; weakness in the area of human resources; and economic vulnerability. The UN currently lists 50 countries as LDCs, with the list undergoing triennial review. Improving the economic situation of LDCs is a critical component of the UN's Millennium Development Goals.

After UNCTAD realized the LDCs were falling farther behind and in some cases moving backwards, the Conference convened a number of special conferences to better analyze the problem. These conferences included the Intergovernmental Group on the LDCs in 1975 and 1978. This group established the Substantial New Programme of Action, which outlined domestic steps LDCs could take to help their economies. Although many of these recommendations were carried out with the help of international aid, economic conditions for LDCs as a whole worsened during the 1980s. During the Second UN Conference on the LDCs in 1990, a second programme of action was adopted for the 1990s, committed to "urgent and effective action." In December of 2001, the General Assembly established the Office of the High Representative for the LDCs,

Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States (UN-OHRLLS). This office coordinates and oversees LDC-specific programs and policies.

The most recent conference held to analyze the problems facing LDCs convened in Brussels, Belgium in 2001. At this conference, delegates completed the Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010, later adopted by the General Assembly. The fourth commitment of the Programme, entitled "Building Productive Capacities to Make Globalization Work for LDCs," outlines the problems LDCs face developing their economies. Solutions proposed include improving infrastructure, increasing computer literacy and increasing the density of telephone and internet connections. These initiatives are of the type that can be effectively funded by ODA. The commitment also emphasizes the role of FDI in improving technological capacity through technology transfer and ensuring such technology effectively diffuses throughout the country. Additionally, it encourages both transnational corporations and firms in developed countries to develop partnerships with firms in LDCs. All these initiatives also underline the importance of creating an economic environment conducive to entrepreneurship. Additional UNCTAD plans for LDC development include the São Paulo Consensus of 2004.

In 2004, the UN General Assembly expressed its discontent with actions taken by Member States to implement the Programme of Action for the LDCs for 2001-2010. It felt Member States were not doing enough to adhere to the goals of the document. Although foreign direct investment towards LDCs increased in recent years, it is still less than 1% of all FDI globally. Finding further ways to increase this share remains a challenge facing UNCTAD. Other problems with UNCTAD's LDC initiatives include uncooperative governments, inefficient legal systems, and embryonic, stagnant or virtually nonexistent private sectors.

Questions to consider from your government's perspective on this issue include:
- What actions can be taken at the national level to increase productive capacity? What areas can be addressed by countries using their own resources, what areas require aid from the international community?
- What is the relationship between productive capacities and poverty reduction?
- What roles do NGOs such as the World Trade Organization, the Institute for Trade and Development and the New Partnership for Africa's Development play in increasing productive capacities?
- How can Member States better adhere to the goals of the Brussels Declaration and the Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010?
- What are the major obstacles to Foreign Direct Investment in LDCs and how might they be broken down?
- What is the relationship between ODA and FDI, and which initiatives benefit best from each type of aid?

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UNCTAD/LDC/2006
UNCTAD/PRESS/PR/2007/005
UNCTAD/ITE/TEB/2005/1
The Least Developed Countries: Historical Background, UNCTAD

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www.integratedframework.org - The Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Technical Assistance
www.ldcwatch.org/wcm/index.php - LDC Watch
www.unido.org –United Nations Industrial Development Organization
www.un.org/special-rep/ohrlls/ohrlls/default.htm –UN Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries
http://www.un.org/special-rep/ohrlls/ldc/BD%20and%20POA%20of%20LDCs.htm - Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries Web page

The Purview of the Simulation: The International Court of Justice (ICJ) is the principal international judicial body of the United Nations. The two major roles of the ICJ include developing advisory opinions on matters of international law referred to it by specialized agencies and presiding over legal disputes submitted to the court by Member States. Only Member States may submit cases to the court, and the court is only considered competent to preside over a case if the 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

Spain v. Canada - Fisheries Jurisdiction Case (Historical)

On 9 March 1995, Canadian officials forcibly boarded and took control of the vessel Estai. The Estai, a trawler flying the Spanish flag, was fishing in international waters just beyond the border of Canada's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) in the North Atlantic. The vessel was towed to Canada, where it and the ship's master were charged with violations of Canadian law. Canadian officials claimed that they found illegal catch and gear aboard the Estai. Spain responded by sending a war ship to international waters just outside Canada's EEZ, triggering Canada's positioning of its war ships just inside their EEZ and publicly warning Spanish ships away from the international waters of the North Atlantic. A standoff ensued when Spain subsequently sent fishing boats to the area under the protection of a Spanish gunboat. On 28 March 1995, the Spanish government filed an application with the International Court of Justice regarding the incident.

The over-fishing of the North Atlantic has long been a concern for those nations whose economies are heavily reliant on fishing in that area. Each nation has dominion and control over their EEZ. A country's EEZ is roughly defined as the area extending 200 nautical miles out from the nation's coastline. The flora and fauna of the sea however, do not correspond conveniently to the boundaries carefully carved out by international treaties. Fishing populations may straddle a border, living partially in the EEZ of one country and partially in international waters. Without conservation in international waters, coastal communities found that the stocks of fish in their EEZ's were being affected by over-fishing taking place in international waters. During the 1970s and 80s, the stocks in the North Atlantic became dangerously depleted and the international community addressed the issue via the International Convention for the Northwest Atlantic Fisheries, which was then replaced by the 1978 Convention on Future Multilateral Co-Operation in the Northwest Atlantic fisheries, which created the North Atlantic Fisheries Organizations (NAFO).

The NAFO pledges international cooperation and consultation with respect to the fisheries resources of the Northwest Atlantic for the purpose of exploring and exploiting, conserving and managing these resources. Canada was an original signatory to the Convention, while Spain became a participant by virtue of its admission to the European Economic Community in 1986. Article XVIII of the Convention allows for reciprocal rights of boarding and inspection of vessels, and the NAFO Commission is charged with allocating fishing quotas for the regulated area. There is however, an objection procedure. A country may object to a fishing quota allocated it by the NAFO, thus drastically raising the amount of fish they extract from the region.

Canada believed that NAFO members were misusing the objection provision of the Convention to over-fish the area. In response, the Canadian Parliament enacted Bill C-29. The score of the bill was set out by the Canadian Minister of Fisheries and Oceans, who said "the legislation gives [the] Parliament of Canada the authority to designate any class of vessel for enforcement of conservation measures. The legislation does not categorize whom we would enforce against. The legislation makes clear that any vessel fishing in a manner inconsistent with good, widely acknowledged conservation rules could be subject to action by Canada." The Estai was boarded and towed under this provision.

This matter was brought before the court in 1995. Canada objected to the Court's jurisdiction based on their filing of an exception to the acceptance of the Court's jurisdiction. The Court found that it did not, in fact, have jurisdiction over Canada and therefore the case was dismissed. For the purposes of the AMUN simulation, the parties and justices are to assume both sides have accepted the jurisdiction of the Court and review the merits of the case.

Spain has asked the Court to declare that the Canadian legislation does not to apply to Spain. In May 1995, the European Community and Canada reached an agreement relating to the NAFO; a portion of this agreement was the removal of Spain and Portugal from the list of countries to which Bill C-29 was to be applied. Canada now argues that there remains no issue before the Court on which to rule, as the parties have resolved the matter through diplomatic channels. Spain presses for the Court to review the applicability of a Canadian law governing its conduct in international waters.

Questions to consider on this issue include:
- Was it a violation of international law to board the Estai?
- Can domestic law apply to foreign vessels in international waters?
- How does the Law of the Sea Treaty, agreements of the North Atlantic Fisheries Organization and other relevant treaties apply and interact with national law in this case?

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Additional Web Resources:

www.nafo.int/ - North Atlantic Fisheries Organization
www.oceanlaw.net – Internet Guide to International Fisheries Law
www.un.org/Depts/los/convention_agreements/convention_
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Republic of the Congo v. France - Certain Criminal Proceedings in France

On 9 December 2002, the Republic of Congo filed an application with the ICJ to begin proceedings against the Republic of France to annul the investigation and prosecution measures being taken by French authorities against Congo for crimes against humanity and torture. Implicated in Frances' allegations were Congo's president, Mr. Denis Sassou Nguesso, and the Minister of the Interior, Mr. Pierre Oba. Also implicated was General Norbert Dabira, who held the position of Inspector General of Congo's armed forces. Congo asserted in their application that the President was requested as a witness and a warrant issued, which Congo found to be unacceptable, alleging an abusive application of universal jurisdiction and a failure to respect government officials' immunity from criminal proceedings.

The grounds for French domestic jurisdiction were stated to be universal jurisdiction, customary international law in regard to the charges of crimes against humanity, and French domestic code. This provides that France claims extra territorial jurisdiction in cases where the offense is contained within an international convention to which France is a party - such as the United Nations Torture Convention. Congo asserted that France was violating the principle of sovereignty, citing international law, which states: "the principle that a State may not, in breach of the principle of sovereign equality among all members of the United Nations…exercise its authority on the territory of another State".

Congo further suggests that by France issuing a warrant to examine the President as a witness in the criminal proceedings, France was in direct violation of the principle of diplomatic immunity. The Congolese characterized diplomatic immunity of a Head of State as "an international customary rule recognized by the jurisprudence of the court."

Also in its application, Congo indicated that it sought to find the jurisdiction of the Court with the agreement of France. This request was pursuant to the Rules of the Court which need the agreement of both parties regarding jurisdiction so that the ruling is applicable. Under its statute, the Court has no jurisdiction unless both states have consented to it. When Congo filed its application, it acknowledged

that the requisite jurisdictional basis for a case against France was lacking, but the "consent of France will certainly be given." Thus the Court forwarded the application to France. France consented to the request made by the Congo.

France did point out in reply, that its consent to jurisdiction was only in relation to the application filed by the Congo, and not to be thought to apply outside of the specific case at hand. Congo requested that the criminal proceedings be immediately suspended following the proceeding motions. Following the agreement by both sides to proceed in the case, the ICJ put on the list the case *Republic Of Congo v. Republic of France* and set the date for opening arguments the 28 April 2003.

Charges brought by Congo against France seem to stem from the ruling in a previous case, *Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) v Belgium*. This case, much like the current one, challenged the legality of Belgian law concerning universal jurisdiction, and raised broader concerns about the jurisdiction of national courts over international crimes, especially if they are committed outside the territorial boundaries of the court in question. Though the Court decided that the Belgium warrant for the DRC Foreign Minister infringed upon the diplomat's immunity, the decision resolved little, and never settled the issue. Congo's filing of this application re-introduces the idea of international legal jurisdiction.

Questions to consider on this issue include:
  • How do we interpret both the clause concerning immunity and the ruling in DRC v. Belgium?
  • How do rulings in national criminal courts affect the sovereignty of other nations?
  • Should the Court rule in favor of The Congo in regard to the legal precedent set out in DRC v Belgium, namely that it upheld the Foreign Minister's immunity while in office?
  • How much weight do international rulings actually carry when it comes to specific instances of crimes against humanity and torture, as suggested by France in their case against certain individuals from the Congo?

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Costa Rica v. Nicaragua - Proceedings Instituted by Costa Rica against Nicaragua

Costa Rica and Nicaragua came to a bilateral agreement regarding the San Juan River in The Treaty of Limits, in 1858. While the Treaty of Limits grants sovereignty over the San Juan to Nicaragua, Costa Rica claims that it also grants them certain "important rights," among these: the perpetual right of free navigation for commercial purposes; the right of Costa Rican boats to touch river banks where there is common navigation (without paying any dues); the right to navigate the river pursuant to Article II of the Cleveland Award; the right to navigate in official boats for supply purposes; and the right of non-interference where Costa Rica is entitled navigation of the San Juan River. Further international agreements between the two countries regarding this matter include the ruling of the Central American Court of Justice in 1916 and Article IV of the Agreement Supplementary to Article IV of the Pact of Amity, 1956.

The San Juan River forms an outlet of Lake Nicaragua on the Nicaragua-Costa Rica border and issues from the southwest end of the lake at San Carlos, the river passes El Castillo reaching the Caribbean Sea at An Juan del Norte (Greytown). To the right, it receives the San Carlos and Sarapiqui rivers. Near its mouth, it forms three main arms: the Juanillo (in the north), the San Juan proper and the Rio Colorado (in the South).

On 29 September 2005, Costa Rica submitted an Application Instituting Proceedings to the International Court of Justice (ICJ). In it, they cite a number of alleged violations of their rights of Navigation in the San Juan River. They claim the government of Nicaragua "imposed a number of restrictions on the navigation of Costa Rican boats and their passengers on the San Juan River." Specifically: "[i]mposing charges on Costa Rican boats and passengers, requiring checkpoints at Nicaraguan military posts along the San Juan, prohibiting official Costa Rican supply boats to navigate the river, imposing timetables for river navigation, and limiting free moorage." Costa Rica's Application to the ICJ also notes a resolution passed in the Nicaraguan General Assembly imposing a 35% tax on Costa Rican goods if Costa Rica brought this matter to the ICJ.

Costa Rica seeks a ruling from the International Court of Justice that would order a stop to the Nicaraguan restrictions on the navigation of the San Juan River. Additionally, Costa Rica has asked the court to order reparations for economic hardship suffered as a result of the restrictions. Additional reparations have been requested for any unlawful punitive sanctions imposed by Nicaragua as a result of the dispute.

Costa Rica's claim of ICJ jurisdiction is derived from the declarations of acceptance of the court's jurisdiction made by Costa Rica in February of 1973 and by Nicaragua in September of 1929; and additionally the Tovar-Caldera Agreement signed between the Parties on 26 September 2002. Under the Tovar-Cakdera Agreement, both States agreed to a three year standstill period, during which Nicaragua maintained legal status while Costa Rica refrains from initiating action before the ICJ. Costa Rica claims that this period was ultimately unsuccessful in resolving the dispute over Costa Rica's navigational rights in the San Juan River.

The ICJ set the deadline for Memorials and counter memorials, in its order dated 29 November 2005, the Court fixed 29 August 2006 as the time-limit for the filing of a Memorial by Costa Rica and 29 May 2007 as the time-limit for the filing of a Counter-Memorial by Nicaragua.

Questions to consider on this issue include:
- Does the ICJ have jurisdiction in this matter?
- Do the alleged Nicaraguan restrictions on navigation of the San Juan River constitute violations of the Treaty of Limits and other agreements signed by both countries?
- Can the Court recognize unlimited navigational rights to Costa Rica and still uphold the sovereignty of the San Juan River held by Nicaragua?

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