Distinguished Delegates,

Welcome to the 2011 Baylor University Model United Nations Conference! This conference provides delegates with the opportunity to improve their speaking, writing, negotiating, and networking skills in an academically rigorous environment. These activities develop students’ ability to understand and communicate with others who have unique perspectives on the world and prepare them for careers in professions such as business, journalism, humanitarianism, public affairs, and politics.

The importance of the issues we will discuss in this year’s conference cannot be overstated; they affect nations the world over. In order to properly address these issues, a prepared delegate should take the introductory material supplied in this guide and research its specific application. Delegates should research their country’s position on the issue in addition to exploring what is at stake for other nations involved in the discussion. It is also important that delegates know and understand the rules of the game. Knowing the rules and using them to promote a delegate’s individual interest is crucial to negotiating well.

If you are to have an impact on other people, you need to be able to express all these things in the spoken word. The most important thing here is to practice. No one is born a good speaker. The first rule of public speaking is to consider your audience. Unlike most speech events, in Model UN your fellow delegates are also your audience. Just like the real UN, no one can succeed without the help of others. Naturally, you have to be loyal to your country’s interests. Nevertheless, attempting to advance your country’s position, while ignoring the perspectives of others is not a winning strategy. In the process of working with other delegates, you will be forced to confront the perspectives of other countries. Sometimes you will have to disagree. But if you can respect and appreciate their point of view, it is possible that you can compromise and find common ground.

In conclusion, commit yourself, cooperate with your fellow delegates, and change the world. We hope that the 2011 Baylor University Model United Nations High School Conference is a positive experience for you.

Sincerely,

Katy Johnson,
Secretary General,
2011 Baylor University High School Model United Nations Conference

Sharita Khaira,
2011-2012 Head Delegate,
Baylor University Model United Nations
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Research Tips for Delegates

Each of the committee background guides includes:

- a brief introduction to the committee, including its membership and purpose
- the history and past actions taken by the United Nations for the two topics your committee will address
- questions and/or possible solutions to guide your research on these topics
- a bibliography, with some key sources annotated, to get you started on your research

In addition to the bibliography provided for each of the committees, the following print and internet resources will also be helpful as you research your topics.


Baylor MUN Research Guide: http://researchguides.baylor.edu/mun

The UN: http://www.un.org/

UN Cyber School Bus: http://www.un.org/Pubs/CyberSchoolBus/

UNA- USA’s Global Classrooms: http://www.unausa.org
The History of the General Assembly (Plenary)

“The United Nations is designed to make possible lasting freedom and independence for all its members” - Harry S Truman

The General Assembly (GA) is one of the six principal organs of the United Nations, established under Article 3 and governed by Article 4 of the UN Charter. It is the premiere forum for issues that transcend traditional national politics. 192 states are represented in the Assembly, and each state has one vote\(^1\). Therefore, resolutions from this body represent the will of the majority of the world’s states. Although these resolutions are not binding (except those involving budgetary matters), they carry significant moral authority.

Under Article 22 of the UN Charter, the GA “may establish such subsidiary organs as it deems necessary for the performance of its functions.” Given the broad scope of work, the GA often utilizes these various “subsidiary organs.” These organs resemble the various sub-committees in the U.S. Congress, such as the Senate Finance Committee, the House Transportation and Infrastructure Committee, etc. In fact, these bodies perform most of the work done in the GA. Each committee then submits proposals and recommendations for final approval by the main, plenary session of the GA. There are currently six main committees accompanied by many other more specialized committees. At this conference, we will simulate two of these six committees (GA 1 and GA 3) as well as the General Assembly as a whole (hereinafter referred to as General Assembly Plenary or GAP).

The GA is unique in that it is the only UN body where all member nations are equally represented, able to discuss various pressing issues, and present solutions and possible remedies to international issues. The GA differs from the other UN organs in that it is a fully democratic process, with every nation having an equal vote. The primary roles of the GA are to discuss issues and make recommendations. While these are the two main purposes of the Assembly, it also serves other essential functions to the UN as a whole. These other roles include: the power to make recommendations to promote international peace and political cooperation, oversee the progress of the Security Council and other United Nations organs, analyze the official United Nations budget and assess the finances of Member States, and the election of any non-permanent members to each of the United Nations councils and organs.

The importance of the GAP cannot be overstated, as it serves a vital role in the overall function of the United Nations. As a result, the topics covered in the General Assembly highlight important issues requiring international attention through resolutions, reports and memorandums proposed by the delegates of every nation. The General Assembly generally considers issues that many other committees have the power to discuss, but would be best addressed in a comprehensive manner. The GAP also is responsible for coordinating the work between various other bodies of the United Nations. The first of these comprehensive topics that will be covered during this assembly is the issue of self-determination, especially in regards to the recent events in Egypt, Tunisia, the Ivory Coast, and Sudan. The second topic is the effect of Multinational

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Corporations on development the international community. Each of these issues has an extremely large scope, and as a result has been designated to the GAP so that they may be handled in the most coordinated way possible.

GA Plenary Topic 1: Self-Determination

Introduction and Background:
In its most succinctly put definition, self-determination is the “right of peoples to self-government”. ² One of the important differences between the United Nations and its predecessor the League of Nations is the UN’s affirmative emphasis on self-determination. Chapter IX, Article 55 of the Charter of the United Nations suggests that self-determination, along with equal rights, is a factor contributing to stability and well-being. Moreover, to promote self-determination, the Trusteeship Council, one of the six major organs of the UN, was created to oversee the quest for self-government for “trust” territories. According to Chapter XII, Article 77 of the Charter, trust territories are those:

- “territories held under Mandates established by the League of Nations after the First World War;
- territories detached from "enemy States" as a result of the Second World War;
- Territories voluntarily placed under the System by States responsible for their administration.”³

Among these now independent trust territories are the nations of Rwanda, Burundi, and Somalia⁴; in 1994 the island of Palau was the last of the original trust territories to gain independence. However, there are still a number of “non self-governing territories” not on the trust list that have yet to achieve independence,⁵ and with the struggles involved in the breakup of the former USSR and Yugoslavia, the on-going dispute between Israel and Palestine, and the current discord in Egypt, Libya and Tunisia, some argue that the UN needs to consider anew how to address self-determination in this “post-colonial” world.

Key UN Actions:
In General Assembly Resolution 1514(XV) 1960, self-determination is declared a right: “All peoples have the right to self-determination; by virtue of that right they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development”.⁶ In General Assembly Resolution 1541(XV) 1960, the GA expands on its theory of self-determination and defines the conditions that must be met in order for a territory to be considered fully self-governing. In practice, though, achieving these goals has proven to be difficult given that the UN’s call for self-determination can at times conflict with another of its great principles -- the

right to sovereignty and territorial integrity. Indeed, in the very resolution where self-determination is declared a right, the General Assembly also states, “‘[any] attempt aimed at the partial or total disruption of the national unity and the territorial integrity of a country,’ is incompatible with the UN Charter”.

Another difficulty has proven to be the process by which states apply for membership in the UN and recognition as sovereign nations. Chapter II, Article 4 of the Charter declares, “Membership in the United Nations is open to all other peace-loving states which accept the obligations contained in the present Charter, and, in the judgment of the Organization, are able and willing to carry out these obligations”. This statement is inclusive of all the requirements a state must meet for membership, according to the International Court of Justice’s 1948 Advisory Opinion, but the “judgment of the Organization” clause has meant that a state must be “approved” by both the Security Council and the General Assembly. Because the Security Council’s “P-5” veto rule can be exercised in this process, any of those five nations can effectively block admission of a new country. A recent example of this has been Chechnya’s failed attempts to be declared independent from Russia.

The Current Situation:
The recent uprisings in Libya, Egypt, Syria, Tunisia, etc. underscore yet another difficulty with contemporary efforts at self-determination: when a domestic conflict produces a controversy over who is the legitimate ruler of a state, whom should the UN recognize and at what point? For example, in Libya, before the rebels formed the Transitional National Council (TNC), there was much concern about whom, exactly, these rebels were that the international community was supporting. While there was widespread agreement that Gadhafi’s rule needed to end, it was questionable who would fill his place and whether they would provide improved leadership. The Security Council’s Resolution S/RES/1973 (2011) institutes a no-fly zone and issues embargoes in an attempt to coerce Gadhafi’s regime to cease its attacks on civilians, but it does not address the right of these rebels to self-determination.

Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:
With the independence of Palau in 1994, the Trusteeship Council’s work was essentially complete, and the organ is currently inactive. Some recommend that the Trusteeship Council be “reborn” with a new agenda to address self-determination in the post-colonial era. Others argue that the current system is sufficient and that the focus should, instead, be on conflict prevention and management. These are only two options you may consider as you prepare for the conference. To help guide your research, consider these questions:

Can past examples from the era of the Trusteeship Council and the discussions over the divisions in the former USSR and Yugoslavia serve as a guide for today’s conflicts, or is the situation completely different from these past examples?

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In what circumstances should self-determination be encouraged, specifically in developing or transitioning countries? On the other hand, under what conditions must self-determination be discouraged or closely monitored, especially in the case of these current events.

How should the UN respond when the government determines that it would like to retain its sovereignty and requests assistance maintaining its territorial integrity? If the government is committing egregious acts, yet claims protection under self-determination, where should the line be drawn?

To whom does the right of self-determination belong in the context of a period of crisis? Although the government officials may no longer be recognized as the leaders by citizens in these nations, the UN still acknowledges their power.

**GA Plenary Topic 2: Development & Multinational Corporations**

**Background and Past UN Actions:**
Scholar Jeremy Taylor notes that “merchants were the first diplomats,” mixing trade and politics for millennia. Yet, for most of the United Nations’ history, the organization has distanced itself from the private sector. Part of this non-involvement can be attributed to the perceived failure of businesses to regulate the international economy after World War I, but the distancing is also related to the philosophical roots of the UN and its related institutions. In particular, the economic theories of John Maynard Keynes, one of the leading individuals at the 1944 Bretton Woods Conference, placed greater emphasis on economic planning by governments. The Bretton Woods System which grew out of this conference put nations rather than businesses at the center of the UN’s programs for economic development. More specifically, these Bretton Woods organizations, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD – today known as the World Bank) put developed nations in control of key resources such as loans and debt relief for the developing nations. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, which came about as a result of the 1947 UN Conference on Trade and Employment, further emphasized the UN’s focus on nations rather than the private sector in its discussions of globalization. Meanwhile, multinational corporations (MNC) were the driving force behind globalization and internationalization of production.

The UN’s focus shifted in 1964 with the UN Conference on Trade and Development and the resulting discussions regarding increasing income disparities between rich and poor countries (often referred to as the North and South), which many in the developing world attributed to the policies of international corporations and GATT. More organizations were created to address these issues, in particular New International Economic Order (NIEO) and the UN Development Programme (UNDP). In addition to the North-South divide, attention was given to the effects of

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global development on the environment, and in 1971 the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIE) led the way with research on how to make economic progress without harming the environment.\textsuperscript{16}

Initially, MNCs’ responses to these movements were combative, but with the proliferation of sustainable development movements in the 1980s, businesses began to take the concerns of groups such as IIE seriously.\textsuperscript{17} The 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development led to the formation of the World Business Council on Sustainable Development (WBCSD), marking the start of a new era of interaction between the UN and MNCs.\textsuperscript{18} However, this interaction has not been without its critics. Some NGOs have questioned the motives of MNCs that pledge to be more cognizant of the impact of their businesses in developing countries and classify their involvement with groups such as WBCSD as a mere public relations ploy.\textsuperscript{19} Some governments have also opposed the new working relationships between the UN and MNCs, fearing the impact that these MNCs have on sovereignty.\textsuperscript{20}

Ten years after the formation of WBCSD the UN General Assembly convened a global conference in Monterrey, Mexico to address development issues ranging from human rights to the environment. What made this conference, special, though was that in addition to heads of state, the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) was in attendance, making the Monterrey conference “the first-ever UN-sponsored conference based on the participation of not only governments and civil society but also the business community and the Bretton Woods institutions”.\textsuperscript{21} This conference produced a document, The Monterrey Consensus, but this document included no concrete plan of action, and its language was very mild, “encouraging” and “inviting” participation in the recommended actions.\textsuperscript{22} Nevertheless, the conference did accomplish opening the lines of communication.

\textbf{The UN and the Current Situation:}
Kofi Annan’s tenure as UN Secretary-General brought a renewed focus on MNCs and their impact on development in light of the Asian financial crisis of the late 1990s.\textsuperscript{23} The UN Global Compact was formed in 2000 bringing international business leaders, UN agencies, and civil society together to pledge commitment to improvements in four areas: human rights, labor standards, the environment, and corruption.\textsuperscript{24} At the heart of the Compact are ten principles in these four areas; for example, businesses pledge not to be complicit in human rights abuses, to abolish child labor, to promote environmental responsibility, and to fight against corruption. Furthermore, these ten principles are interconnected with many of the Millennium Development

\textsuperscript{16} Taylor: 143-144.
\textsuperscript{17} Taylor: 144.
\textsuperscript{18} Taylor: 144.
\textsuperscript{19} Taylor, 139-146.
\textsuperscript{22} Fomerand: 263-265.
\textsuperscript{24} Hassan: p. 152-153; Murphy: p. 270-271.
Goals.

However, some critics wonder whether the Global Compact has any more teeth than the Monterrey Consensus. The Global Compact is a “voluntary corporate citizenship initiative,” but it is “not a regulatory instrument – it does not “police,” enforce, or measure the behavior of companies”. Rather, the Global Compact relies on “public accountability, transparency, and the enlightened self-interest of companies, labor and civil society”. These goals are achieved through a network including multiple UN agencies and in particular the UNDP. Currently there are more than 8,700 corporations from 130 countries involved in the Compact.

Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:
How have your nation and the MNCs located there responded to the Global Compact? Are there any notable successes (or failures) in the achievement of the ten principles of the GC?

Some nations have expressed concern that the UN has partnered with the MNCs in the Global Compact, pointing to the UN Charter and its emphasis on sovereignty. Others fear these new relationships increase the potential for corruption. Is your nation one of these critics? If not, how would you respond to the concerns of these critics?

The Global Compact is not a binding agreement and has no enforcement mechanism. What more can be done to encourage ethical business practices?

GA Plenary Bibliography

History and Background:

*This source is a detailed history about the United Nations. Any background or historical information in this report will be found here.*


*This source lists all of the functions of the General Assembly. It will answer any questions one might have about what exactly the General Assembly does.*

United Nations General Assembly.” Inventory of International Nonproliferation Organizations and Regimes, 01/19/2011. Web. 5 May 2011: [http://www.nti.org/e_research/official_docs/inventory/pdfs/unga.pdf](http://www.nti.org/e_research/official_docs/inventory/pdfs/unga.pdf)

**Topic 1 – Self-Determination:**
*UN Resolutions/Documents*
A/1514(XV)/1960
A/1541(XV)/1960

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26 Hassan: 153.
27 [http://www.unglobalcompact.org/AboutTheGC/index.html](http://www.unglobalcompact.org/AboutTheGC/index.html)
These resolutions provide more detail regarding the process of self-determination for trust countries and non-self governing territories previously described in the UN Charter.

*The Security Council’s sanctions against Libya.*

*Link to the page outlining the process by which nations apply for UN membership.*

**Secondary Sources**

*Chapter 12 (pages 409-44) is devoted to the topic of self-determination and Chapter 5 (pages 163-200) deals with membership more broadly. This book includes primary documents and commentary and is an excellent resource to use for preparation for this and other conference topics.*


**Further Research**

S/377/1975  
S/379/1975  
S/380/1975  
*A small selection of the documents in the on-going dispute over the territory of Western Sahara.*

A/47/1/1992  
A/47/485/1992  
*Documents regarding the dissolution of the nation of Yugoslavia.*

A/47/877-2/25158/1993  
S/25541/1993  
A/47/225/1993  
*This UN documents concern the controversy surrounding Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia’s application for admission to the UN.*

**Topic 2 – Multinational Corporations:**

UN Documents/Resources  

UN Global Compact: [http://www.unglobalcompact.org/](http://www.unglobalcompact.org/)
Key Secondary Sources


Further Research


This set of three sources is a bit dated, but they provide details about the early developments for rules regarding international businesses and multinational corporations.
General Assembly,
First Committee
History of the General Assembly First Committee

The First Committee, one of the main committees of the General Assembly, assesses threats to global security, weapons of mass destruction, and the elimination of conventional arms. The focus on matters of disarmament and international security (DISEC) forms a central tenet of the overall UN mission. In fact, the very first GA resolution (in 1946) dealt with nuclear disarmament. The UN and the First Committee still grapple with these important and complex issues today.

It is important to realize that the First Committee is not the Security Council. They are very different in their construction, goals and means of efficacy. The Security Council has 15 members, including some of the most powerful states, and may take binding, decisive action related to peacekeeping, international sanctions, and military action. The First Committee maintains a much more egalitarian structure, with all member nations participating, and it concerns itself with broader matters of deliberation, consensus building, and policy. The Security Council plays host to frequent bouts of national power politics since so few states attend, especially since some states carry veto power. Although the GA naturally has its fair share of political gamesmanship with so many diverse views represented, this diversity actually forces the body to search for areas of common ground. More than 75% of the GA resolutions since 1991 passed by consensus, or without any states voting “no”.

One might think that First Committee would have difficulty reaching consensus on such contentious and divisive topics as disarmament and international security, but it actually makes sense given the nature of the First Committee. Unlike the Security Council, whose resolutions are binding and sometimes backed by military power, the General Assembly resolutions are only as strong as the international support behind them. The First Committee seeks to build peace and security not by force, but primarily by agreements among states for cooperative security, deescalating conflict through disarmament, etc. The goals are therefore often ambitious and long-term (and easily criticized by some as ineffective or indecisive). Resolutions sometimes develop or utilize new “language” which can help set international law and guide policy making in member states. It can also put pressure on other states whose aggression and lack of cooperation becomes more transparent in light of the “moral consensus” of the international community.

Obviously, challenges arise in First Committee as well. Sometimes states simply do not carry out what they resolve to do. Sometimes delegates hold no real freedom to negotiate, and instead merely restate national policies without engaging in any substantive debate. Sometimes differences between states emerge along large fault lines over areas of significant disagreement where consensus cannot be easily reached. Sometimes the body can rush to a premature consensus, which ignores hard facts on the ground. And sometimes the problems of disarmament and international security are so complex that countries cannot find solutions to appease all parties involved. All of these challenges threaten the work of the First Committee to create a more peaceful world.

The First Committee meets every October and concludes its work by early November. In the 65th Session of the GA in 2010, the First Committee passed draft resolutions on topics ranging from Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones, the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, an arms trade treaty, nuclear disarmament, regional security and disarmament issues, “dual-use” technology, transparency and confidence-building measures, land mines, military spending, the role of information and telecommunications, science and technology in international security, outer space peace, cluster munitions, acquisition of WMDs by terrorists, disarmament and development, and other issues. All previous work of the First Committee, especially the 65th and 66th Sessions, will help guide the continuing work of future sessions in both the actual First Committee and Baylor University High School Model UN First Committee.

**GA 1st Topic 1: Piracy off the Coast of Africa**

"**Norrington:** You are without doubt the worst pirate I’ve ever heard of.

**Jack Sparrow:** But you have heard of me."

**Background:**

Pirates have plagued seafarers since the 13th century, marauding their way to economic opportunity, and cultural perceptions of pirates worldwide are often derived from the encounters of historic piracy groups with different nations. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, for instance, the Barbary pirates utilized the support of the Barbary States of northern Africa to become a pervasive threat to merchant ships in the Mediterranean. These sea-bound terrorists committed many human rights violations and primarily held merchant ships’ crews for ransom. The resulting Barbary Wars, launched by the United States, committed this perception of piracy to national memory. After the Cold War, however, a drop in naval patrols and boom in international trade set the stage for a resurgence of attacks by modern opportunists. Modern piracy shifts the opportunists’ prey to large transport vessels, and today’s pirates have significantly modified their tools and tactics. Equipped with speedboats, satellite phones, global positioning systems, and fearsome weaponry, pirates remain a significant threat to international commerce and security. In the past decade, piracy has reached its highest level in modern history as the number of pirate attacks on ships has tripled. In 2009 alone, 406 incidents of piracy and armed robbery were reported in the ICC International Maritime Bureau’s Piracy Reporting Centre annual piracy report. More than half of these incidents are attributed to pirates off the coast of Somalia. The waters of Nigeria and Somalia are a haven for pirates, where vast coastlines and the instability of transitional governments provided the opportunity for Somali pirates to hijack 47 vessels and take 867 crewmembers hostage in 2009. Despite a 2010 Security Council resolution that allows naval allies survey those waters, ships are warned to

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stay 250 nautical miles from land.  

**Current Failure of Somalian State and its Effects on Piracy:**
As of 1991, Somalia became recognized as a failed state with power split between competing warlords. The country has since descended into chaos. Instability within the borders of Somalia has led to unmonitored use of the waters surrounding the Horn of Africa. Somalia’s illegitimate government remains incapable of maintaining peace or expressing sovereignty over land or water. Pirates along the coast of East Africa terrorize the waters by taking over ships, capturing hostages, and then demanding ransoms. Dr. J. Peter Pham, Senior Fellow and Director of the Africa Project at the National Committee on American Foreign Policy, notes, “The piracy problem off the Somali coast arises out of the fundamental problem of statelessness on shore...without effective governing on shore you're going to have opportunities for criminals to engage in their enterprises with impunity.” However, Dr. Pham says that's just one part of the problem. Shipping companies continue to pay the ransoms to the pirates to save the cargo on their ships. Although paying the pirates makes sense economically, the shipping companies’ actions continue to fund the pirates’ operations while also proving to the pirates the successes of their crime. Shipping companies may have to neglect their own self interest as a company to help aid the international community’s response to these pirates.

**UN Response:**
As evident by the recently passed UN Security Council Resolution 1976 and the resolutions it reaffirms, the UN takes a clear stance against pirates by strongly condemning the growing practice of hostage-taking, particularly evidenced by the current situation of piracy off the coast of Somalia. Initiated by Russia and France, Resolution 1976 particularly criticizes the inhuman conditions hostages face in captivity. Also, it recognizes the adverse impact of the act of hostage-taking on the families of the hostages. The resolution states that, “The International Maritime Bureau reported that in 2010 alone, 1,016 sailors of all nationalities were taken hostage by Somali pirates, of whom 638 continue to remain in captivity.” What has not been defined, however, is what to do with captured pirates, or which laws they should be tried under. Historically, piracy has been dealt with under the principle of “universal jurisdiction,” which means that when pirates are caught, any state may try and convict them on behalf of the

33 Altman, Alex. *A Brief History of Pirates.* Time Magazine. 2 October 2008.  


38 "India co-sponsors UN resolution against piracy - Times Of India." Featured Articles From The Times Of India.  

international community.\textsuperscript{40} Sometimes states “outsource” piracy prosecutions to other nations, typically those close to the pirates which have a functional government. For example the European Union, the United Kingdom and the United States have all sent cases to Kenya’s court system for prosecution.\textsuperscript{41} When pirates commit crimes that involve citizens of multiple nations, however, international law is unclear regarding whose claims take precedence, and answers to these questions have yet to be agreed upon by member states. To overcome the murkiness in international law regarding pirates, some have suggested that an international piracy court similar to the International Criminal Court be established; others recommend more modest amendments to clarify international law.\textsuperscript{42} Nevertheless, a unified and global effort looks to be the only way to reach a solution concerning the problems Somali pirates have made.

Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:
Delegates should consider developing innovative ways to increase cooperation between multinational corporations and sovereign states.

What international organizations currently monitor the situations of international maritime terrorism? What UN resolutions or international policies currently exist regarding piracy? Are new regimes such as a pirate-specific court necessary to solve the problems posed by pirates, or is this more a matter of formulating clearer international standards.

Delegates should also consider the role of Multinational Corporations in furthering the capacity of terrorists to plague international business, and the international community at large.

Do these MNCs (Multinational Corporations) further enable piracy by accepting their international terrorism as a condition of business?

What efforts can the international community make, within the purview of the GA First Committee, to respect the sovereignty of nations while ensuring a safer global community?

GA 1\textsuperscript{st} Topic II: Acquisition of Nuclear Materials by Terrorists

Background:
Terrorism and nuclear power continue to stand as imposing threats to international security. Terrorists repeatedly refuse to abide by the laws of war in purposefully targeting civilians as well as militants in their attacks. Modern terrorist organizations do not operate from a physical base that can be targeted in the war on terror, which nullifies mutually assured destruction and undermines theories of deterrence. The collapse of the former Soviet Union, the proliferation of nuclear materials and technology, as evidenced by the A.Q. Khan network based out of Pakistan, and the growing threat and sophistication of radical Islamist terrorism, have dramatically

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\textsuperscript{42} Jost: 141-144.
increased the likelihood of a nuclear or radiological attack by a non-state actor. Terrorist groups, most notably al Qaeda, have raised this threat despite lacking the technical resources to execute. Preventing them from obtaining those resources, especially whole nuclear weapons or the fissile material required to build nuclear weapons, is the main goal of international policy on this issue. Although most fissile materials used to make radiological weapons are contained within weapons states, mainly in the United States and Russia, reports claim materials can be found stored in facilities in over 40 countries. According to the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute’s latest yearbook, “Eight states — the United States, Russia, the United Kingdom, France, China, India, Pakistan and Israel — currently possess more than 20,500 nuclear weapons, including operational weapons, spares, those in both active and inactive storage and intact weapons scheduled for dismantlement.” Possession of nuclear resources by states that cannot protect their own nuclear arsenals, such as Pakistan or other countries with fractured governments, increases the opportunity for terrorists to gain access to dangerous nuclear resources.

UN Action:
The pressing concern lies in the issue of securing radioactive materials and preventing terrorists from acquiring such resources. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) promotes safety precautions for using nuclear energy and provides resources for the safe use of nuclear materials. The IAEA also established a security plan of prevention of illicit or non-friendly use of nuclear or radiological materials, detection of illicit activity, and well-coordinated response, facilitated with the cooperation of international organizations to form a global front. The International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism acknowledged the growing threat of unaccounted nuclear materials after the fall of the Soviet Union. The United Nations has recently passed multiple resolutions regarding terrorists and nuclear materials.

While some strides have been taken to secure these materials, more work must be done. The fall of the Soviet Union caused vast amounts of nuclear materials to be unaccounted for, and many states that currently possess such materials lack the programs and resources to ensure their security and respond appropriately to the threat of nuclear terrorism. Nuclear materials in power plants also remain vulnerable to terrorist acquisition. A multilateral approach must be taken to combat the threat of terrorists acquiring nuclear materials and posing a greater threat to the global community.

Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:
Terrorism continues to evolve and adapt to the changing international world. With the changing

45 United Nations General Assembly, Preventing the acquisition by terrorists of radioactive materials and sources, (A/62/391), 2010
growth of terrorism, preventing these terrorists from acquiring nuclear materials is becoming increasingly difficult. New innovative approaches must be sought out to combat this two-fold threat of nuclear capabilities in the hands of terrorists.

Who currently is in possession of nuclear materials, and what measures are being taken to increase the capacity for securing these materials?

Recent environmental disasters have revealed the danger of an accident at nuclear power plants.

How vulnerable are the materials at these nuclear power plants? How protected are these nuclear power plants themselves to a terrorist attack?

GA 1st Bibliography

General GA 1st Information:


Topic 1 – Pirates:
UN Documents


Key Secondary Sources


documents the number and nature piracy related incidents in 2009 as they affected international business.


News article documents the continuing problem of piracy as well as international reactions to the growing situation.


Interview with Dr. J. Peter Pham, director of the Nelson Institute for International and Public Affairs at James Madison University, about the causes and consequences of Somali piracy.

Topic 2 – Terrorists and Nuclear Materials:

UN Documents

Most recent and conclusive UN resolution concerning international interests in protecting radioactive materials and sources.


Key Secondary Sources

Reputable and clear report on UN direction concerning nuclear terrorism and the International Atomic Energy Agency plan to ensure nuclear security.

Reputable news article details the current prevalence and location of nuclear weapons in the world, as well as what action is being taken to secure and reduce such nuclear holds.

Further Research:
IAEA: http://www.iaea.org/index.html
General Assembly, Third Committee
History of the General Assembly Third Committee

“Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.”- UN Declaration of Human Rights, Article II

The General Assembly Third Committee, formally referred to as the General Assembly Social Humanitarian and Cultural Affairs Committee (SOCHUM), was established in 1948 as a direct result of the catastrophic events that took place during the Second World War. The Third Committee’s scope is broad and can coincide with the issues addressed by the General Assembly Second Committee and ECOSOC. Unlike ECOSOC, however, every member nation has representation in SOCHUM. Among those issues SOCHUM considers are:

- Advancement of women
- Protection of children
- The rights of indigenous peoples
- The status and treatment of refugees
- Elimination of racism and racial discrimination
- Crime prevention
- Drug Control
- Rights of the elderly
- Rights of the disabled

Due to the complexity of the issues covered, SOCHUM works hand in hand with other UN organs and NGOs, including the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), to ensure that the resolutions passed are properly implemented. With the recent creation of the Human Rights Council, the Third Committee has taken special interest in expanding human rights and fundamental freedoms.

For this conference, delegates to GA 3rd will address two topics: Evaluating and Responding to Human Genocide and Violence Against Women.

GA 3rd Topic I: Evaluating and Responding to Genocide

Background – Defining Genocide:
The term “genocide” did not exist prior to 1944, but the practice is centuries old. The term “genocide” was coined by Raphael Lemkin, a Polish lawyer who was influential in the Ad Hoc Committee on Genocide created by the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in response to

the atrocities of the Holocaust. Four years after the creation of the Ad Hoc Committee, the General Assembly passed Resolution 260, “Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide”, often referred to as the Genocide Convention. The Genocide Convention marked progress because unlike the previous action taken by ECOSOC, this resolution uses stronger language, calling for punishment for those committing acts of genocide. In Article II of the Convention, genocide is defined as:

“any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group as such:
(a) Killing members of the group;
(b) Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group;
(c) Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or part;
(d) Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group;
(e) Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group.”

While this definition encompasses the many ways that genocide can be committed, problems have arisen with its application because the Convention didn’t specify the number of actions that need to be committed or attempted in order for the incident to be declared genocide. Moreover, while the convention called for punishment of genocidal acts, it did not establish an official group to monitor potential genocidal regions. However, the Convention does specify a process for trying persons accused of committing genocide. The guidelines assert that the state in which the acts were committed will try the accused, and if that is not possible, then an international tribunal will hold the trial.

**A Series of Failures:**
In theory, the Convention on Genocide marked progress, but in practice it proved to be ineffective at preventing global atrocities. Several tragic examples are illustrative of the early failures of the Genocide Convention. From 1975-1979 the Communist Party of Kampuchea, in Cambodia or the Khmer Rouge, killed at least a million people, and some sources estimate up to 2.5 million dissenters, intellectuals, and ethnic minorities were murdered. At the time, the international community gave little attention to the incidents; today, more than thirty years later, the UN is assisting the Cambodian Government with trials for the still-living members of the Khmer Rouge.

Following the dissolution of Yugoslavia in 1990, the newly independent territories began to engage in bloody battles, and widespread crimes against humanity were committed including the use of rape as a means of ethnic cleansing and mass imprisonment. In 1993, the United Nations formed the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) to investigate and prosecute those engaging in these acts. However, neither this tribunal nor UN forces present in

50 Mingst and Karns: 198.
51 Cambodia Tribunal Monitory: [http://www.cambodiatribunal.org/history/khmer-rouge-history](http://www.cambodiatribunal.org/history/khmer-rouge-history);
52 United Nations Assistance to the Khmer Rouge Trials: [http://www.unakrt-online.org/01_home.htm](http://www.unakrt-online.org/01_home.htm)
53 ICTY: [http://www.icty.org/sections/AbouttheICTY](http://www.icty.org/sections/AbouttheICTY)
the former Yugoslavia was able to prevent or contain the most horrific single event of the war. In July, 1995 in Srebenica, more than 8,000 Bosnian Muslim men and boys were murdered by Bosnian Serb soldiers led by General Ratko Mladic, who was finally captured in the summer of 2011.\footnote{Timeline of Srebenica, BBC News: http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/675945.stm} It is notable that the genocide occurred in an area that had been declared a UN safezone and that was occupied by UN peacekeepers.\footnote{“Ratko Mladic Arrest.” UK Telegraph: http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/serbia/8539067/Ratko-Mladic-arrest-Srebrenica-massacre-was-UNs-darkest-hour.html} More than fifteen years later, trials still continue for individuals accused of being involved in the Srebenica genocide and other crimes against humanity during the Yugoslav war.

Almost simultaneous with the Yugoslav war was the genocide in Rwanda. Similar to the genocide in Srbenica, UN peacekeepers were present in Rwanda when the violence began on April 6, 1994. These Peacekeepers were involved in the UNAMIR mission, but the Security Council reduced their forces after several Belgian Peacekeepers were killed trying to prevent conflict between Hutus and Tutsis, the two major ethnic groups in Rwanda.\footnote{Weiss: p. 70-71; 184-185.} This reduction in UN forces came after a request from a Canadian Peacekeeper commander for an increase in UN support to prevent planned genocide by Hutu extremists against Tutsi; years later, the international community learned that this request had never been communicated to the Security Council because then Secretary-General Kofi Annan admitted to “burying” it.\footnote{SG/SM/6552 (1998); cf. Weiss: p.71.} When news of the scale of the murders of Tutsis by Hutus reached the Security Council, there was disagreement over the action that should be taken; some even wondered whether this constituted genocide. Worse still, at the time, Rwanda was a non-permanent member of the Security Council, but its Ambassador was never asked to explain the horrific circumstances in the country to the Council. In total approximately 800,000 Tutsis were murdered, and the UN has acknowledged this to be one of its greatest failures.\footnote{Linda Fasulo. An Insider’s Guide to the UN, 2nd edition. Yale University Press, 2009: p. 140-144.}

**Recent Developments and the Current Situation:**


Following the events in Rwanda, it became clear that the UN and the international community needed to reform the methods for responding to genocide. The first major development involved enforcement of laws such as the Genocide Convention; the problem with this and other international laws is that they included no self-enforcing mechanism. In order to punish transgressions, special tribunals such as those the Security Council made for Yugoslavia and Rwanda were needed. In 1998 the International Criminal Court was formed by the Rome Statute (named for the location of the meeting) to fill this vacuum; this Court is independent of the UN and has the task of trying persons accused of committing atrocities against humanity.\footnote{Weiss: p. 70-71} The problem, though, is that so far, many nations have refused to sign the Rome Statute, including...
The UN has also made reforms including a reconsideration of its peacekeeping missions; the powers given these “blue helmets,” as they’re often called, proved to be both insufficient and dangerous to the peacekeepers in Somalia and Rwanda. This reform is on-going, and developments can be researched at the UN’s Peacekeeping Operations website (included in the bibliography).

The most significant changes, though, have come about through a new movement called “The Responsibility to Protect” (R2P). This effort was led by Kofi Annan starting in 1999 and requires that the international community intervene when atrocities are being committed and that sovereignty not be used as an excuse for failure to act. A UN summit for R2P was held in 2005 with overwhelming support from the international community, and a committee was formed to investigate implementation. Following this, in 2009 the General Assembly adopted A/RES/63/308 on R2P. Following this resolution, an international coalition of NGOs, and IOs was formed to oversee enforcement of the doctrine.

Have these reforms been a success? Many point to the situation in Darfur to illustrate the limitations of the reforms. In 2003 in Darfur, located in the western region of Sudan, a civil war erupted, and estimates are that between 300,000 and 400,000 people have been killed and millions more brutally beaten, raped, and displaced from their homes by government-backed militias. In 2004 many began referring to genocide in Darfur including in official statements by the United States Congress and the European Union. The African Union was the first international organization to respond to the crisis, but with the conflict escalating, in 2006 the UN attempted to step in but failed to do so when the Sudanese government did not give its consent to the peacekeeping operation formed by S/1706/2006. The following year, the Security Council passed another resolution, S/1755/2007, and this time, UN was able to send in peacekeepers although it was not the number they had hoped to send. The UN renewed the authorization for these peacekeepers in July 2010 for twelve additional months, and despite progress, the success of the mission has been impeded time and time again by the Sudanese Government as well as the unwillingness of many developed nations to contribute troops and support for the mission. The ICC is trying those accused of committing the atrocities.

Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:
Systemic change?
Economic and political instability seems to induce tension and chaos and create conditions favorable for genocide. If we pay attention to the areas in which genocide has occurred recently, we will notice that there is often no economic and political stability. Yale Genocide Studies provides an online interactive map of regions with genocidal activity in the years since the adoption of the Convention on Genocide. Human rights violations and violence in countries susceptible to genocide, ultimately compel citizens to flee and seek asylum elsewhere. This trend creates further economic, legal and political problems of concern to GA3 such as determining the

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62 Fasulo: p. 149-150.
63 http://www.responsibilitytoprotect.org/
65 “Causes of Genocide”, Shared Humanity, 2007
66 Human rights violations and violence in countries susceptible to genocide, ultimately compel citizens to flee and seek asylum elsewhere. This trend creates further economic, legal and political problems of concern to GA3 such as determining the

Yale genocide studies; http://www.yale.edu/gsp/genocide_world_map.html
legal status of refugees (their status internationally), international jurisdiction conflicts, and tension for nations accepting refugees.

**Questions to guide your research**

Is R2P enough? What additional steps can the UN take to eradicate genocide?

Can nations be compelled to provide support to peacekeeping missions? If not, how can they be convinced to provide necessary troops and funding?

How can international support for the ICC and ratification be increased?

What role should sovereignty play in these discussions?

Is there a permanent response to genocide, or should the UN look at it on a case by case basis?

What is the status of a refugee under international law, and does that status make the issue one for the UN to deal with or a matter of state sovereignty?

What should the role of UN peacekeepers be?

**GA 3**

**rd** **Topic 2: Violence Against Women**

“Up to 70 per cent of women experience violence in their lifetime. Women aged 15-44 are more at risk from rape and domestic violence than from cancer, car accidents, war and malaria, according to World Bank data.” UniTE to End Violence Against Women

**Background/History of UN Involvement:**

Soon after the formation of the United Nations, a commission was created to address women’s issues. This Commission on the Status of Women focused on issues such as women’s suffrage, representation in politics and legal rights and was a subsidiary group of the Commission on Human Rights. 67 1976-1985 was declared UN Decade for Women, and it was during this time that the UN first gave attention to issues related to violence against women with the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). However, this Convention was limited insofar as it neither established a mechanism for reviewing allegations of rights abuses, nor did it have a very robust consideration of violence against women, explicitly mentioning only trafficking and prostitution. 68 Moreover, this Convention has an unfortunate record: more nations have failed to ratify this treaty than any other. 69 Furthermore, among those nations who have ratified the treaty, some have filed official “reservations”; Bahrain, Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco and the United Arab Emirates pledged to comply with the Convention except when it conflicts with Islamic Sharia law. 70 The reservations of nations who have failed to ratify the treaty mainly stem from cultural and religious concerns,

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68 Mingst and Karns: p. 192.
69 Bunch: p. 500.
but the UN has consistently maintained that culture and religion cannot be used as an excuse to ignore rights violations.

One of the reasons why violence against women wasn’t given much attention in the CEDAW Resolution is that it was typically considered to be a domestic issue. It is difficult to estimate how prevalent violence was around the globe in the latter part of the 20th century because there are few reliable sources of information. The first significant development in the effort to combat violence against women came out of the 1993 Vienna World Conference on Human Rights where delegates organized the Global Tribunal on Violations of Women’s Human Rights.71 Among the issues the conference addressed was the use of rape as a tool in war following the wars in the Balkans; violence against women had officially become an international issue.72 Following the Vienna Conference, the General Assembly approved the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, A/RES/48/104 (1993). This Declaration provides the following definition of violence against women:

"violence against women means 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, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life."

The Declaration instructs states to adopt legislation to promote better conditions for women as well as to educate their citizens, survey the extent of violence and collect data. The Declaration also establishes the office of a special rapporteur on Violence Against Women. While this Declaration marked progress in the struggle to achieve respect for women’s rights, its success is measured; this Declaration is non-binding on signatories and has no real enforcement mechanism.74

In 2000 the Security Council passed S/RES/1325 regarding Women, Peace and Security.75 In addition to calling for increased women’s representation in domestic politics, the Security Council mandated that women have an increased presence in UN Peacekeeping missions. The Resolution calls on member states to take action to prevent the abuse of women, in particular to prevent sexual abuse and rape in conflict areas.

The Current Situation:
“Changing people's attitude and mentality towards women will take a long time -- at least a generation, many believe, and perhaps longer. Nevertheless, raising awareness of the issue of violence against women, and educating boys and men to view women as valuable partners in life, in the development of a society and in the attainment of peace are just as important as taking legal steps to protect women's human rights.” UN Human Rights Council, 199676

72 Bunch: p. 505.
74 Bunch: p. 501.
75 Bunch: p. 506; http://www.un.org/events/res_1325e.pdf
Awareness of violence against women has been raised, but much progress is to be made. Steps have been taken recently to further advance women’s rights and to combat violence against women. In 2008, the UN launched the “UNiTE to End Violence Against Women” Campaign. According to UNiTE’s website:

“By 2015, UNiTE aims to achieve the following five goals in all countries:
- Adopt and enforce national laws to address and punish all forms of violence against women and girls;
- Adopt and implement multi-sectoral national action plans;
- Strengthen data collection on the prevalence of violence against women and girls;
- Increase public awareness and social mobilization;
- Address sexual violence in conflict.”

Among the forms of violence that UNiTE indentifies are honor killings, female genital mutilation, dowry murder, trafficking, and rape.

How dire is the situation? The statistics are staggering. UNiTE reports that an estimated 130 million women and girls alive today have been subject to female genital mutilation and an addition 2 million girls are at risk of FGM each year. As many as 5,000 women a year are murdered as a result of honor killings. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, more than 1,000 rapes are reported monthly, and an estimated 200,000 women have been raped over the past several years. There are 163 million “missing” girls in Asia due to sex-selective abortions, infanticide and neglect.

**Questions to Consider as you Prepare:**

Only four countries currently mandate total equality for women by law: Costa Rica, Cuba, Sweden and Norway. How can nations be persuaded to achieve equality by law? On the other hand, what are some of the reasons why nations do not mandate total equality?

In some regions in the world culture, religion and society have created traditional roles for women that many in the western world consider to belittle their status and value. This perceived, and often times real, gender inequality complicates the struggle for women to be provided with the basic needs to live a healthy lifestyle. Is there any way to grant women and children rights in the Middle East, for example, without infringing upon culture or religion and while also protecting state sovereignty?

How is the violence against women being addressed by national governments? Related to this, how is violence not being addressed? How is your nation addressing violence?

How can reaching the Millennium Development Goals further the rights of women and children?

What more can the UN General Assembly do to further the agenda of UNiTE?

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78 Foerstel: p. 322.
GA 3rd Bibliography

Background:

General Assembly of the United Nations, Third Committee:
An overview of the responsibilities and actions of the Third Committee of the General Assembly. An excellent website to familiarize yourself with the jurisdiction and past efforts of the committee.

Provides a concise overview of the committee’s history and function. Delegates will find the glossary of important GA3 terms at the end of this document particularly useful.

Sections of the Charter outlining the actions and focus of the Third Committee.

Topic 1 – Genocide:
UN Documents/Resources
The seminal GA3rd resolution on genocide.


Includes an article explaining the Genocide Convention as well as links to resources for further research.


International Coalition for the Responsibility to Protect: http://www.responsibilitytoprotect.org/

International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda: http://www.unictr.org/

International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia: http://www.un.org/Depts/dhl/resguide/specil.htm#ity


“The United Nations and Darfur Fact Sheet”:

United Nations Assistance to the Khmer Rouge Trials: http://www.unakrt-online.org/01_home.htm

Secondary Sources
“Causes of Genocide”, Shared Humanity, 2007
http://www.sharedhumanity.org/LibraryArticle.php?heading=Genocide,%20Causes%20of


Chapter 6 includes information related to both GA3rd topics.

“Ratko Mladic Arrest.” UK Telegraph:
http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/serbia/8539067/Ratko-Mladic-arrest-Srebrenica-massacre-was-UNs-darkest-hour.html

“Q&A: Sudan’s Darfur Conflict,” BBC News, February 23, 2010, BBCNews.com,
http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cachekTfRH9viv7kJ:www.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/afri
capl3496731.stm+statistics+on+genocide+currently+in+the+world&cd=6&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=us
&source=www.google.com


Yale genocide studies; http://www.yale.edu/gsp/genocide_world_map.html

Further Research
International Criminal Court: http://www.icc-cpi.int/


Topic 2 – Violence Against Women:
UN Documents/Sources


Here you can find information regarding the Millennium Developmental Goals and an overview of the struggle to secure human rights for women. It details cultural and religious impediments and complications and provides an excellent basis for your research.


Women and Violence, [http://www.un.org/rights/dpi1772e.htm](http://www.un.org/rights/dpi1772e.htm)


**Secondary Sources**


This is an excellent article outlining both the relevant UN documents as well as important issues and statistics.


**Further Research**

Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)
History of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

Introduction:
The Economic and Social Council was established in 1945 under Section X, Articles 61-72 of the Charter of the United Nations with a membership of eighteen states. As one of the six primary organs of the United Nations, its main responsibility has been to organize and oversee the economic and social work of UN specialized agencies, functional commissions and regional commissions and to act as the central forum for the discussion of these topics. The first session of the ECOSOC was held at Church House in London on 23 January 1946.

The focus of ECOSOC is on:

- promoting higher standards of living, full employment, and economic and social progress;
- identifying solutions to international economic, social and health problems;
- facilitating international cultural and educational cooperation; and
- encouraging universal respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms.

The ECOSOC is responsible for over 70 percent of both human and financial resources of the United Nations. The 54 Member States that serve on the ECOSOC meet every July for four weeks to conduct its business and are elected for three-year overlapping terms by the General Assembly.79

The ECOSOC has taken action in several notable areas. The Council has compiled the 4th Annual Ministerial Review regarding Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment. It has been highly involved in the quest to achieve the Millennium Development Goals by 2015 and took a leadership role in the 2010 World Summit about the MDGs. In 2003, the ECOSOC launched an initiative in Madagascar and in 2004 began a rural initiative in Benin.80

ECOSOC Topic 1: Microloans and Economic Growth in Africa

“If we can come up with a system that allows everybody access to credit while ensuring excellent repayment, I can give you a guarantee that poverty will not last long.” - Muhammad Yunus81

Introduction:
Around the world, people are struggling with poverty and hunger. There are 1.4 billion people living under the international poverty line of $1.25 a day. According to the United Nations, the current economic crisis put another 64 million people into extreme poverty in 2010.82 The United Nations has implemented a program called the Millennium Development Goals to eradicate poverty, as well as to combat other issues that are plaguing member States. There are three targets that the United Nations has outlined: halving the proportion of people whose income is

less than $1 a day, achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people, and halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. While progress has been made in many areas, sub-Saharan Africa still lags behind. Sub-Saharan Africa is not expected to make the 2015 Millennium Development Goal deadline.

The United Nations has implemented programs throughout sub-Saharan Africa in attempt to boost State economies and revitalize people’s lives. Possibly one of the most successful programs has been the extension of microcredit to the poor. Microcredit is a small amount of money loaned to someone by a bank or similar institution. Microfinance refers to the loans, savings, and other financial services offered to low-income clients. These loans, often as small as $100, allow the poor to build microenterprises and work to pay off their debts. These programs show sold repayment records, though the interest rates are high. High interest rates ensure that borrowers are responsible for the success of every other borrower in the group, which in turn guarantees higher success rates of the businesses.

With only four years remaining to complete the Millennium Development Goals and nations in sub-Saharan Africa and other places failing to meet checkpoints along the way, the international community must unite to accomplish this goal. Eradicating poverty must be a top priority for both developing and developed nations. One of the best ways to ensure achievement of this goal is by encouraging the use of microcredit to assist a new class of businesspeople who are prepared to take control of their own situations. Another important task is informing the public about microcredit and how they can become involved. 2005 was designated the International Year of Microcredit in order to bring awareness to and focus efforts on increasing the use of microcredit in developing nations.

**International Framework:**
The first modern microfinance program is considered to be the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, founded by Muhammad Yunus, an economics professor. The goal was to provide banking facilities and loans to the poor to create opportunities for self-employment and to eliminate the exploitation of the poor by lenders. In particular, Yunus focused the program on bringing women into the business world in order to help raise entire families out of poverty. Grameen even has a program for homeless beggars in Bangladesh that has helped over 100,000 people. Since its beginning in 1976, Grameen Bank has expanded to 8.36 million borrowers, 97% of whom are women. Studies by the World Bank, International Food Research Policy Institute, and other organizations have confirmed the success of Grameen Bank in helping borrowers expand their businesses and in turn, invest in the bank.

This success story in Bangladesh has been mirrored in other United Nations Member States. For example, in Nepal, the government has been working to alleviate poverty through the

82 The Microcredit Summit Campaign, [http://www.microcreditsummit.org/about/what_is_microcredit/](http://www.microcreditsummit.org/about/what_is_microcredit/).
87 Q&A with Muhammad Yunus, [http://www.pbs.org/now/enterprisingideas/Muhammad-Yunus.html](http://www.pbs.org/now/enterprisingideas/Muhammad-Yunus.html).
implementation of microcredit. Microcredit has helped to raise many people out of poverty by helping them to start small businesses in order to gain a self-sufficient livelihood. The relatively new program has already made great strides: a large percentage of new businesspeople were from traditionally excluded groups, average family incomes rose 56%, and very few of the borrowers have dropped out of the program. Microcredit programs in Africa have also met with success. In Ethiopia, microcredit schemes are thriving; for example, in Adma, a small group of women that formed in 1999 has evolved into a group of over 1,114 women who own an entire shopping mall. Also in Ethiopia, a small grant given to a group of women allowed them to match funds and buy their raw materials in bulk, saving them all money. In Nigeria, demand for microfinance is high, and in one villages, microcredit helped villagers match funds in order to bring a medical doctor four times a month to the village. In Cameroon, a village was able to match funds and send all village children to primary school and feed them a meal 5 days a week, thereby ensuring universal education and healthier children.

Microloans and Women:
Women are the primary focus of microloans for several reasons. Most of the world’s poor are women, and research has shown that the availability of financial services has helped women improve their status within the family and community. As a result of microcredit, women own assets, such as land and housing, and are thus able to hold a more prominent role in decision-making both in the home and in the community. Many microcredit programs take steps to ensure that ownership of the assets remains in the hands of the female borrowers because they believe in the importance of growing female independence in business. Concepts such as The Women Effect and the Girl Effect bring attention to the power that women can attain if they are given the opportunity for advancement. These ideas state that when a woman has economic security, so does her family, and in turn her community and nation. Indeed, investing in women and raising them above the poverty line is almost a sure guarantee that other Millennium Development Goals will be met. Gender equality will be attained as women gain more of a voice in the community. Maternal and infant health will improve and infant mortality decrease due to increased income and ability to pay for food and medicine. Women who are employed or educated have greater access to health care and are at a lower risk for diseases such as HIV. Finally, women who are employed and educated are more likely to send their children to school, thus leading to a greater percentage of children in schools.

Problems and Potential Solutions to Consider:
While microcredit has proven to be successful in areas in which it has been implemented, there

95 Ibid.
are still problems to be solved. First, microcredit has yet to reach a large number of people. Second, the value of microcredit is not always appreciated by national governments as a legitimate method to solve the poverty issue. Third, goals and time frames are often vague and undefined, which complicates and impedes efforts.\footnote{Africa Advocacy Forum II: Microcredit- A Solution for Africa?, \url{http://www.un.org/esa/africa/microfinance_model.pdf}.} Other problems include the lack of a regulatory framework by national governments, money going into the hands of elite women or educated youths instead of the poor, and the drift that microfinance institutions sometimes make toward standard business practices that may jeopardize their humanitarian efforts.\footnote{What is Microcredit?, \url{http://library.thinkquest.org/05aug/00282/econ_credit.htm}.} United Nations Member States must work together to solve the problems associated with microcredit in order to be able to utilize microfinance to its full potential. This committee calls for Member States to research available options and constructively discuss possible solutions at the next Council meeting.

**Questions for Consideration as you Prepare:**
Microloans are being utilized in developing countries around the world- are they being used to their full potential in my country?

Many developed nations are contributing to microfinance in developing nations- is my country involved in this? Why or why not?

How can my country become more involved in microcredit programs?

How can the United Nations as a body become more involved in microcredit programs around the world?

**ECOSOC Topic 2: Confronting the Humanitarian Crisis in Haiti**

**The Situation in Haiti:**
ECOSOC has been sought out by the thoroughly destabilized Haitian government for assistance with the aftermath from the overwhelming earthquake that took place there last year. The Haitian officials face leading a nation torn apart by crippling infrastructure and on top of that, outbreaks of lethal diseases such as cholera.\footnote{United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti, MINUSTAH’s post earthquake activities, 2011.} The 7.0 earthquake utterly destroyed entire sections of the City of Port-au-Prince, reducing most of the area’s buildings to rubble. The exhaustive efforts of foreign aid organizations and volunteer humanitarian efforts have attempted to clear the streets but so far have only been able to remove an estimated ten percent of the heaps of debris. Despite the generous and dedicated commitment of the relief agencies working in Haiti to relieve suffering, there are still well over a million Haitians without permanent homes or basic living necessities.\footnote{United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, Haiti cholera situation report #31, 2011.}

The carnage of the earthquake has also left untold thousands of children without parents to care for them. Many of these orphaned children have found some form of shelter in the approximately one thousand relief camps pitched by international aid organizations. Currently there is no long-
term solution in how to provide for, raise, or educate these orphans after the relief organizations leave.\textsuperscript{101} Though the camps prevent widespread starvation and minimize the mortality rate of most of these orphans, the overcrowded conditions of the camps present new threats to the children in different ways. The relief camps are scattered about Haiti, and completely at the mercy of external threats. If another earthquake occurred relatively soon, there would be no place to protect any of the people surviving in these camps.

Unfortunately, even if the weather is favorable, the squalid conditions within these sprawling camps have made law enforcement nearly impossible to maintain.\textsuperscript{102} Since very few Haitians currently have vital documents such as birth certificates, passports, or other forms of identification, police find it difficult to provide accurate data regarding the camps. It is not surprising then that these unsanitary, overcrowded, and inaccurately assessed camps have been poorly prepared to combat the recent cholera outbreaks that have spread to an estimated 50,000 Haitians. So far about 3,000 people have actually been killed by the disease itself, leaving more orphans in the temporary care of the already overwhelmed aid organizations.\textsuperscript{103} The unchecked spread of the disease in the camps has resulted in violent riots as Haitians protest their lack of medical treatment. Even with the fortunes of aid being donated to relief efforts, aid workers have succeeded in preventing Haiti from collapsing but remain without a solution in how to restructure the broken nation for future prosperity. The culture prevailing within the camps may continue to grow in hostility and may pose to be a future threat to aid workers there. There must be early intervention to ensure that children made orphans by the earthquake do now grow up impoverished, uneducated, and surrounded by violence. A generation of troubled youth stepping into national leadership could lead to a dangerous State.

Successes:

Amidst the many obstacles that obstruct the progress of Haiti, the successes gained so far must also be accounted for. In the aftermath of the earthquake it is no surprise that very few Haitians had job security of any nature. Fortunately, the Cash/Food-for-Work projects succeeded in removing the majority of the debris that had been filling up formally deserted school buildings 42. In following this achievement, the World Food Programme has made consistent arrangements to provide food for close to a million Haitians that would have mostly likely starved by now.\textsuperscript{104} Additionally, ten billion dollars has been committed by the overall fundraising of the international community (though not even $ 2billion has actually been spent on Haiti so far).\textsuperscript{105} Much of these funds have been raised by the outstanding 900 NGOs currently operating full time as relief workers on the island.\textsuperscript{106} 51 The UN has also become increasingly more aggressive in defining the agendas for its influences on the crisis.\textsuperscript{107} In fact the President of ECOSOC, Lazarous Kapambwe of Zambia, officially pronounced Haiti to be the chief priority of the council in his report addressing Secretary General Ban Ki-moon.\textsuperscript{108} It is clear that a realistic path to peace and stability in Haiti is a long time in coming but by no means unattainable thanks

\textsuperscript{101} BBC. Haiti Cholera outbreak response ‘inadequate’, says MSF, 2010.
\textsuperscript{102} United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, Haiti earthquake response, 2011.
\textsuperscript{103} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{104} Fieser, Haiti earthquake anniversary: the state of global disaster relief, 2011.
\textsuperscript{105} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{106} Ferris, Burning Issues for Haiti’s Recovery, 2010.
\textsuperscript{107} Speri, Haiti earthquake anniversary highlights faltering aid effort, 2011.
\textsuperscript{108} United Nations News Centre. New UN Economic and Social Council President outlines priorities. 2011.
to international relief organizations, the United Nations, and most importantly the Haitians
themselves who have dedicated themselves toward the cause of rebuilding their nation.  

**Questions to Consider as you Prepare:**
What can ECOSOC initiate in order to alleviate the sufferings of Haitians living in these relief camps, especially the orphans?

Since financial aid has been only partially successful and the Haitian government is too weak to make its own health operations, what alternative solutions are realistically available? What are the consequences of providing aid to an economically and socially unstable state? How can we avoid this risk?

What will the consequences be if the living conditions in Haiti do not improve? How do disasters compromise political, economic and social stability?

What lessons have been learned from the recent disasters in Haiti and Japan? How can the United Nations and international community incorporate these lessons into more effective aid and support in the future?

**ECOSOC Bibliography**

**Background**

*From this website, delegates can view information about the ECOSOC as well as background notes which provide a regional context and an analysis of the issues discussed at each ECOSOC meeting.*


**Topic 1 – Microloans:**
UN Documents/Resources


**Secondary Sources**


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110 Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, *Remarks at ceremony marking first anniversary of the earthquake in Haiti*, 2011.


The Microcredit Summit Campaign, http://www.microcreditsummit.org/about/what_is_microcredit/.


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**Topic 2 - Haiti**

UN Documents/Resources
Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, Remarks at ceremony marking first anniversary of the earthquake in Haiti, 2011.

United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, Haiti cholera situation report #31, 2011.


Secondary Sources


Fieser, Haiti earthquake anniversary: the state of global disaster relief, 2011.

Speri, Haiti earthquake anniversary highlights faltering aid effort, 2011.

**Further Research:**

This link directs you to bibliographic records, voting records and index to speeches made in the General Assembly. This Web site will provide delegates with an abundance of information concerning their country’s voting patterns on the various General Assembly themes.

United Nations Millennium Development Goals,
Delegates can find valuable information on preparatory sessions and meetings on this website.
World Health Organization (WHO)
**History and Background of the World Health Organization**

“Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.” -World Health Organization, 1948

The World Health Organization (WHO) is a specialized agency in the United Nations led by the World Health Assembly. It provides leadership in understanding, documenting, and addressing the health problems that face the world. From recommending new ways to treat AIDS/HIV patients in Africa to delivering life-saving vaccinations to people in the deepest parts of the Amazon, the WHO’s work is as diverse as it is far-reaching. There are 193 member states that currently follow the Organization’s constitution and support its humanitarian efforts. Each country has its own needs and challenges that the WHO and its 34-member Executive Board try to meet.

The Organization is responsible for fulfilling its core functions of leading in matters paramount to health, determining the needed areas of research and knowledge, specifying standards, producing substantive policy options, providing support to its programs and projects, and monitoring disconcerting health situations around the world. It is especially concerned with combating infectious diseases and promoting general health of people in developing countries. The WHO in order to improve health opportunities worldwide uses a six-point agenda. These include:

- promoting development
- fostering health security
- strengthening health systems
- enhancing partnerships
- improving performance
- harnessing research, information, and evidence

These core functions are the guiding framework for the WHO and are set out in greater detail in the 11th General Programme of Work. Effective from 2006 to 2015, this program helps countries meet their Millennium Developmental Goals by working to eliminate the gaps in social justice, responsibility, implementation, and knowledge. Meanwhile, it focuses on reducing poverty, building health security, promoting gender equality, harnessing the developmental powers of science and technology, and other issues that have great potential in making a difference in troubled countries.

The WHO also serves as a primary resource for data and statistics involving water facts, disease, causes of death, life expectancy, mortality, diabetes, HIV/AIDS, immunizations, maternal and neonatal care, nutrition, and many more things. This information can be accessed on the Internet through the Global Health Observatory (GHO), the WHO Global InfoBase, and the Global Health Atlas. The Organization has all of its positions and opinions on the education, treatment, and prevention of health related issues accessible on the Internet along with its governing constitution and other important documents that are relevant to a delegate’s research and preparation for this committee.
WHO Topic 1: Child Health and Malnutrition

Background:
According to the WHO and United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF), malnutrition is the leading factor contributing to child mortality, although in the last decade progress has been made in reducing mortality rate for children under five years of age. Hunger not only causes disease and death, but medical studies have demonstrated that the effects of malnutrition in the first two years of life are irreversible. Malnourished children grow up with worse health and lower educational achievements. Though there are a variety of factors leading towards educational achievements, there is a clear correlation between the literacy rates of mothers and the nourishment of their children. It is a cycle that is perpetuating malnutrition. Furthermore, the babies of people who were malnourished as children will tend to be smaller and less healthy. In fact, half of all pregnant women in developing countries are anemic. The statistics are staggering:

- 13 million babies are born each year with low weight, meaning they did not grow to their full potential during gestation. These babies are more likely to die young.
- About one fifth of these low weight babies are born this way because their mothers were anemic.
- 171 million children under 5 years of age are stunted by malnutrition each year.
- The death of 3.9 million children is caused by deficient diets, usually from lack of vitamin A, iron, iodine, and zinc.
- Malnutrition is most dangerous in Africa and Southeast Asia, which account for more than 70 percent of the malnourished children in the world (To put this in perspective, children make up 27 percent of the world's population).

The WHO provides global leadership on nutrition standards and guidelines to all countries who seek assistance. The organization updated these guidelines in the last year and is currently working on new measures to combat malnutrition. Some of the solutions member nations are considering emphasize the importance of iron content in individuals' daily diets and the detrimental effects of anemia for mothers. In particular, WHO is working with international experts to recommend new actions and revise global guidance on under-nutrition, micronutrient deficiency and other forms of malnutrition.

The WHO also supports local agricultural programs to bolster developing countries’ capacity to feed their own citizens, and it encourages more active missions to send food and nutrients (such as vitamin pills and ready-to-use therapeutic foods, or RUTFs) to the hardest hit areas. Haiti recently received RUTFs and other easy to distribute food packages in the wake of the devastating earthquake.

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111 The Economist
112 World Health Organization Nutrition department
Past U.N. Action:
The WHO advises any countries which ask about the risks of malnutrition and how they can best aid children in their own nation. The UN General Assembly has passed some resolutions regarding the matter as well, including: A/RES/38/201 in 1983, which dictated that 70% of the UN Emergency Operation Trust Fund be channeled to finance urgently needed projects, primarily in agricultural sectors of countries suffering from severe levels of malnourishment; A/RES/49/103 in 1994, which affirms that food production will contribute to the alleviation of poverty and the elimination of malnutrition; A/RES/50/109 in 1996 at the World Food Summit, which asks UN members to be more active in combating malnutrition and securing local agricultural production.

Child health is also the fourth of eight millennium developmental goals. The UN aims to have reduced the under-five mortality rate by two-thirds of its 1990 rate by 2015. Child deaths are falling due to important advances, such as finding that vitamin A supplementation in malnourished children can reduce child mortality by as much as 23 percent, but not quickly enough. Efforts need to be revitalized or new initiatives need to be undertaken if the 2015 Millennium Development Goal is to be met.

Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:
Malnutrition is a challenging global issue due not only to the large number of people affected, but also because of the complex causes. In some cases malnutrition is caused by general lack of food, while in others, it can be a very specific nutrient deficiency in the local diet. If the UN hopes to achieve its fourth Millennium Development Goal of reducing Child Mortality, malnutrition is the place to start.

Issue 1: Insufficient food for the developing population
Possible WHO response: In the short term, programs could be implemented and reinforced where they already exist to provide aid to these areas. In the long term, local agricultural production could be emphasized so that these areas may become self-sufficient.

Further questions: What other practical methods of feeding the hungry could be employed?

Issue 2: Health complications that result from malnourishment
Possible WHO response: The WHO seeks to aid sick children, and the number of children who grow ill from malnutrition decreases drastically when the perpetual cycle of malnourished mothers birthing malnourished babies is broken.

Further questions: What aid should be given to countries lacking in natal and pediatric care?

Issue 3: Nations where food is available but unaffordable to a part of the population
Possible WHO response: Vouchers are often given to the malnourished. In this case giving money instead of food is a much quicker solution to the problem. Many see this as proof that the local agriculture in malnourished areas just needs more financial backing and support, as the local production of food can effectively end malnourishment in that area. Vouchers are currently used in many places, including the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

114 UNICEF progress report
Further questions: How much financial aid should be given to these causes? Keep in mind that roughly $300 million went to basic nutrition last year, less than $2 for each child below two in the 20 worst affected countries, while $2.2 billion went to HIV/AIDS initiatives, almost $67 per person with HIV worldwide. Does this signify that more attention needs to be given to the problem in general?

**WHO Topic 2: Improving Sanitation to Diminish Diseases**

**Introduction:**
With over 884 million people lacking access to proper sanitation and clean water, infectious, water-related diseases result in the loss of approximately 3.6 million people a year. To put it into perspective, this means there are more lives lost due to disease than any war. The World Health Organization (WHO) strives to not only increase supplies to obtain clean water, but also to educate the peoples in third world countries about proper sanitation and hygiene where the health burden is high.

The provision of sanitation is a key development intervention – without it, ill-health dominates a life without dignity. Simply having access to sanitation increases health, well-being and economic productivity. Inadequate sanitation impacts individuals, households, communities and countries. Despite its importance, achieving real gains in sanitation coverage has been slow. Scaling up and increasing the effectiveness of investments in sanitation need to be accelerated to meet the ambitious targets agreed at Johannesburg. It is clear that this an area where a real impact can be made through a concentrated effort by member states. All are accountable for the sharing of information related to sanitation conditions that exist not only within each countries boarders, but those that make up the global community.

Water is the basis of life. Without water, the equation for life is simple: death. Our water resources as a global community must not only be preserved, but also ensured for cleanliness. There are millions of diseases, bacteria, and fungi that are transmitted through water. For such an important and vital resource, water and issues related to the availability of clean water, must be at the forefront of our global efforts. The dangers are pressing; the need is imminent.

**Past UN Actions and Current Situation:**
In the 2000 Millennium Declaration, the United Nations set eight goals for development, called the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). These goals set an ambitious agenda for improving the human condition by 2015. Of these goals, the seventh goal states that by 2015, the UN hopes to reduce the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water by half. By 2020, the UN also hopes to significantly improve the lives of those living in alternative housing below the poverty line. The main indicators of progress include Proportion of population (urban and rural) with sustainable access to an improved water source, and proportion of urban population with access to improved sanitation. World Water Day, March 22nd, is another

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115 WHO Water Organization Facts  
116 United Nations Millennium Development Goal  
117 United Nations Millennium Development Goal
annual holiday designed by the UN to bring awareness to these issues as well.\textsuperscript{118}

On 28 July 2010 the United Nations General Assembly declared safe and clean drinking water and sanitation a human right essential to the full enjoyment of life and all other human rights.\textsuperscript{119} It voiced deep concern that nearly 900 million people in the world do not have access to safe drinking-water, a figure generated by the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Program. The UN GA urged United Nations Member States as well as international organizations to offer funding, resources and technology to assist poorer countries in providing accessible and affordable, safe and clean drinking-water, as well as sanitation for everyone. In addition to continued lack of access to improved drinking-water sources, 2.6 billion people lack access to basic sanitation. Approximately 1.5 million children under five die every year as a result of diseases linked to the lack of access to water and sanitation.\textsuperscript{120}

Subsequently, at its 15th session in September 2010, the United Nations Human Rights Council affirmed that the right to water and sanitation is derived from the right to an adequate standard of living. This led the UN Independent Expert on human rights obligations related to access to safe drinking-water and sanitation, Catarina de Albuquerque, to state that “this means that for the UN, the right to water and sanitation is contained in existing human rights treaties and is therefore legally binding.”\textsuperscript{121}

**Problems and Possible Solutions to Consider:**

In order for the International community to reach the agreed goals for sanitation, clean water, and disease control, the WHO agrees that a multilateral response must take place. From the top of the social pyramid, such as those involved with national governments, all the way down to a single citizen, all levels of society can effectively do their part to ensure proper steps are taken to reach clean sanitation goals.

**International organizations**

Must learn to recognize the state’s strengths and weaknesses; find ways of working together that maximize use of shared skills and interests; develop and disseminate information; and focus efforts on achieving a common vision and goal – and hold this goal at the forefront of efforts to make sanitation and hygiene a reality for people all over the world. The key to success, however, is empowering the local communities to embrace the projects as their own, such as in Stones to Schools. Often times, International Organizations march in and command the community about what’s best. In order for projects to succeed and be adopted by the people, one must implement their culture and accept their way of life first and empower them to step forward in development.\textsuperscript{122}

**National governments**

Can emphasize the importance of sanitation and hygiene programs to their national development through poverty reduction strategy papers and by otherwise reaching out to external aid agencies.

\textsuperscript{118} IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre
\textsuperscript{120} WHO Water Sanitation and Health
\textsuperscript{121} UN News Centre
\textsuperscript{122} Stones into Schools – Mortenson, Greg
to create partnerships; work to increase the interagency flow of information by creating information exchange forums among different national entities (for example, ministries of environment and ministries of health); and make sanitation and hygiene information available to all. This means partnering with schools and ensuring proper distribution of information and facts in order to reach families.

**District/local governments**
Can work with national agencies, NGOs and entrepreneurs to develop partnerships at the local level; make information on sanitation and hygiene (including local regulations) available to all; and help to select villages for pilot projects. Examples include the Zambia partnering with Community Approaches to Total Sanitation (CATS) programs to ensure development in their villages.123

**Communities and civil society**
Can participate with various partners to implement sanitation and hygiene projects; disseminate sanitation and hygiene information to communities and households; create libraries or information resource centers with sanitation and hygiene information (for example, a library with an Internet connection or computer with CD-Rom).

**Households**
Can participate in local sanitation and hygiene programs; and request information on sanitation and hygiene from various agencies and partnerships.

**Entrepreneurs**
Can work together as partners to develop appropriate sanitation and hygiene technologies and services; and make information available on available products and services.

**Questions to Consider as you Prepare:**
How do your current country’s policies affect the current sanitation and drinking water supply?

What research has been done in the area of water sanitation, and how can new technologies be implemented in providing cost effective means of water sanitation?

What policies could enable your country to help the WHO reach its goals?

How does this affect the country you represent, in terms of availability of clean water to your peoples? If there is not a problem, how can your solutions help those countries where it is, and how can countries where it is a problem implement such systems.

On what level should this problem be taken on by: the national government, local, or an organization like the WHO? Depending on what your answer is, how can information, technologies, and resources be channeled to these entities?

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123 UNICEF Policy and Programme in Practice
WHO Bibliography

Background
WHO homepage (http://www.who.int/en/)

For a list of member states: http://www.who.int/countries/en/

The 11th General Programme of Work:

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(http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/childhealth.shtml)

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World Health Organization Nutrition department
http://www.who.int/nutrition/pressnote_action_on_malnutrition/en/

Secondary Sources:
Article on the relationship between literacy and health
(http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/hpu/summary/v001/1.4.weiss.html)

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(http://journals.cambridge.org/action/displayAbstract?fromPage=online&aid=586512)


Global Health Observatory: http://www.who.int/gho/en/

Global Health Atlas: http://apps.who.int/globalatlas/

WHO Global InfoBase: https://apps.who.int/infobase/

Topic 2:
UN Documents/Sources
World Health Organization: Water Sanitation and Health
(http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/en/)

WHO Millennium Development Goals and Indicators
(http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/monitoring/jmpfinal.pdf)

UN Millennium Goal 7 Breakdown (http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/environ.shtml)


World Health Organization Water department: http://www.who.int/topics/water/en/

World Health Organization Water Sanitation and Health department:
http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/dwq/en/


(http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/CATS_field_note.pdf)

Secondary Sources
IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre
(http://www.irc.nl/page/12932)


Water Aid News Release (2010):
http://www.wateraid.org/international/about_us/newsroom/8806.asp)
Security Council
History and Background of the Security Council

The United Nations Security Council is one of the six Principal Organs of the United Nations and is the only Principal Organ with authority to make binding resolutions for Member States. The Security Council has 15 members, five of which are permanent members:

United States  France  Russia  China  United Kingdom

These permanent members - the “P5” - each possess a veto on any measure considered by the Security Council. The ten non-permanent members of the Security Council are elected by the General Assembly for two year terms and do not possess veto power. The current non-permanent members are:

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States that are members of the United Nations but not of the Security Council may sit in on discussions and take part in mediation but are not allowed to vote on resolutions passed by this body.

According to Article 24 of the Charter of the United Nations, the Security Council’s primary responsibility is to maintain international peace and security. The function, powers, and procedural guidelines for the Security Council are outlined in Chapter Five of the Charter of the United Nations, and Chapters Six and Seven outline the procedures for mediating international conflicts.

When the Security Council is advised about a situation threatening international peace or security, the Council will first attempt to affect a peaceful solution. However, if violence has already broken out, then the Security Council will help mediate between the parties involved by issuing cease-fires, implementing sanctions or sending United Nations troops to enforce Security Council resolutions. However, the presence of conflict doesn’t guarantee that the Security Council will intervene. During the Cold War, the Security Council was often unable to act given the competing interests of veto-bearing P5 members. In the post-Cold War era, the Security Council has become more active, responding to conflicts in Iraq, Somalia, and Bosnia in the 1990’s, Afghanistan, and North Korea in the 2000’s, and most recently, Libya in 2010, to name a few.

At this conference, delegates will consider two contemporary issues: the tension between North and South Korea and cyberterrorism. The Security Council has taken action in the conflict between North and South Korea, but the Council’s past resolutions dealing with terrorism have not given specific attention to the emerging threat of cyberterrorism.
Security Council Topic 1: Conflict between North and South Korea

Background\(^{124}\):
At the end of WWII, Korea was divided into northern and southern portions at the 38th parallel by the Allies at the Potsdam Conference. The United States was to administer South Korea, officially called the Republic of Korea, which adopted a capitalist economic and political model, while the USSR administered the northern part, which adopted a communist model of government. By 1950, conflict on the border of North and South Korea led to the beginning of the Korean War. On June 25, 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea and almost immediately the United Nations member states began to send aid to South Korea. On July 27 1953, peace negotiations ended and the Demilitarized Zone was formed at the 38\(^{\text{th}}\) parallel. Shortly thereafter, an Armistice Agreement was signed by the Korean People's Army, the Chinese People's Volunteers and the United Nations Command, led by the United States. South Korea however, never signed the agreement and to this day an official peace treaty has never been signed between North and South Korea.

In the past few years, tensions between the two nations have escalated. On October 9, 2006 North Korea tested a nuclear device in violation of the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, and as a result sanctions were imposed on North Korea. In November, 2009 gunfire was exchanged near the border on the Yellow Sea, but there were no causalities. However, in March 2010, the North Korean military sunk a South Korean warship, killing 46 soldiers. North Korea denied responsibility, but evidence from the sunken ship revealed that a torpedo fired from a North Korean submarine caused the casualties. In November, 2010 North Korea attacked Yeonpyon Island, killing four people, two South Korean soldiers and two civilians. The South Korean military responded to this event by performing major land, air, and sea drills in conjunction with the US military. The 11-day exercise provoked further tension between the North and South and a threat of “all-out war” by the North. Earlier this summer South Korean troops fired shots at a civilian jet-liner, mistaking it for a North Korean fighter jet. After this incident the two countries agreed to resume talks, but in August 2011, tensions increased again when shots were exchanged at the border on the Yellow Sea.

Past UN Action:
The Security Council passed Resolution 1718 on 14 October 2006, to impose sanctions on North Korea for violating the terms of the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, which the government of North Korea had signed. This Resolution required that North Korea, “suspend all activity related to its ballistic missile program, abandon all nuclear weapons and programs, and abandon all weapons of mass destruction in a complete, verifiable, and irreversible manner”.\(^{125}\) The sanctions imposed included an embargo on arms and luxury goods and a travel ban and frozen assets for those involved in the nuclear testing or policies encouraging it. The Security Council continues to renew its order for monitoring and sanctions set forth in S/1718/2006, with the most recent


renewal occurring in June 2011.\textsuperscript{126}

North Korea engaged in a second nuclear test on May 25, 2009 in blatant violation of Security Council Resolution 1718. In response to this test, the Security Council passed Resolution 1874, demanding that North Korea cease its ballistic missile program and all nuclear programs. The resolution also provided for new economic and financial sanctions on North Korea. It calls on states not to provide grants, assistance, loans, or public financial support for trade if such assistance could contribute to North Korea’s proliferation efforts. It also calls on states to deny financial services, including freezing assets, where such assets could contribute to prohibited programs. UNSCR 1874 expanded the arms embargo on North Korea under UNSCR 1718 (2006) to include a ban on all arms sales from North Korea and all arms except small arms or light weapons to North Korea, and also provided for the creation of a Panel of Experts to oversee and carry out the sanctions listed above. UNSCR 1874 is not an embargo and explicit exclusions are made for humanitarian and denuclearization aid (Nikitin et al).

\textbf{The Current Conflict:}
Evidence suggests North Korea is involved in a Uranium Enrichment Program, which has the capability of generating both nuclear reactor fuel and weapons-grade material. Because of the threats issued by North Korea and the drills South Korea set in place, the UN Security Council is forced to address the matter with great attention and caution. North Korea is forbidden from enriching their uranium program under previous UN Security Council resolutions. Yet, North Korea believes that “No Ground” exists for bringing the uranium matter before the Security Council, according to the North Korean First Vice Foreign Minister Kim Kye Gwan. China has taken North Korea’s side, arguing that the Security Council should not address the North’s declared Nuclear Material Enrichment Program as it does not have any hard proof of the effort. The United States and South Korea are seeking a Security Council statement announcing that the North’s uranium program is illegal and military in nature in order to block assertions by North Korea that the program is for civilian purposes.

Six-party denuclearization talks were established, including the United States, China, North Korea, South Korea, Russia, and Japan. South Korea and the US want to seek a UN Security Council presidential statement condemning the uranium program before returning to the six-party talks on the North’s nuclear dismantlement, which were stalled for more than two years over sanctions imposed under UN resolutions 1718 and 1874, adopted after the North’s nuclear and missile tests, and other provocations (Doo-hyong). North Korea, in direct response to the establishment of this committee, threatened action and announces progress in its nuclear program in addition to last year’s sinking of the South Korean ship \textit{Cheonan}. Furthermore, North Korea has declared that it would return to the six-party talks on denuclearization if sanctions were lifted and a peace treaty negotiated. However, the sanctions are still in place, and in August 2011, North Korea expressed interest in resuming the talks. This could indicate that the sanctions are affecting North Korea’s behavior, or it could be a matter of entering another phase in a pattern that fluctuates between aggressive and aid-seeking diplomacy.

\textbf{Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:}
A problem arises for the Security Council in regards to what action should be taken to avoid

further aggressive action by North Korea while still maintaining the sanctions laid out in resolution 1718 and resolution 1874.

Should the Security Council amend these resolutions in order to appease North Korea and avoid further aggressive action toward civilians of both North and South Korea or maintain the sanctions, appeasing South Korea and the US, and take the chance of endangering both North and South Korean civilians?

Is it the responsibility of the Security Council to amend or form a new resolution to avoid further North and South Korean tensions that may lead to “all-out war”?

Beyond sanctions, what action can the Security Council take to alleviate the current tension?

How can the UN avoid creating a humanitarian crisis in North Korea, while at the same time ensuring that violations of the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty and Security Council Resolutions are dealt with?

**Security Council Topic 2: Cyberterrorism and the Use of the Internet for Terrorist Activities**

**Background:**
The first difficulty you will encounter when researching cyberterrorism and the use of the internet for terrorist activities is that there is no agreed upon definition of cyberterrorism. This is not surprising, though, if one considers that the international community has yet to reach a consensus on the definition of “terrorism,” generally.\(^\text{127}\) These debates about definitions are tied to deeper concerns. Some fear that nations or groups pursuing self-determination will be branded “terrorists” by opposing groups,\(^\text{128}\) while others are concerned that defining terrorism too narrowly will limit the international community’s ability to respond to increasingly diverse threats. Similarly, some support a very narrow definition of cyberterrorism, one that focuses on an attack to computer/internet systems themselves, such as using computers to crash banking and financial systems, manipulate ground or air traffic controls, or interfere with cooling mechanisms in nuclear power plants.\(^\text{129}\) Others point out that these scenarios are neither as likely nor as relevant as other uses of the internet by terrorists and argue for a broader definition that encompasses the myriad ways terrorists can use the internet. Since the U.N.’s considerations of cyberterrorism to date involve the broader understanding of the concept, we encourage you to adopt this approach in your preparation for the conference as well.

The second difficulty you will encounter when researching cyberterrorism and attempting to develop resolutions responding to these threats is that it is sometimes impossible to distinguish between cybercrimes and acts of cyberterrorism, unless a terrorist group takes credit for the attack. Recent events underscore this difficulty. In July 2009, a cyberattack crashed websites in

\(^{127}\) See CTITF Working Group Report: p. 2; Cohen provides a “widely” accepted international definition, synthesized from various UN documents: p. 2-3 and n. 5.

\(^{128}\) See, for example, Iran’s statement before the General Assembly Sixth Committee during its discussion of terrorism: http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2009/ga13362.doc.htm.

\(^{129}\) See Böttler: p. 9-12; CTITF Working Group Report: p. 3, 6; Gable 57-62; Sieber and Brunst: p. 16-32.
the United States and South Korea, including the U.S. Department of Treasury’s and Federal Trade Commission’s websites and the South Korean President’s and National Assembly’s websites. South Korea immediately assigned blame to the North Korean government; however, later research revealed that the attacks were carried out in the United Kingdom, presumably by cyberterrorists, although no links were made to a specific terrorist cell.\textsuperscript{130}

The most significant cyberattack to date was against the nation of Estonia in April and May 2007, when attacks crippled the nation’s ministries, news organizations, and banks.\textsuperscript{131} Estonia was affected so strongly by these attacks because the nation is very reliant on the internet, with an “e-government” enabling citizens to pay taxes and vote online and with 98% of the nation’s banking occurring on the internet.\textsuperscript{132} These attacks came on the heels of a conflict between Estonia and Russia concerning the removal of a war monument, prompting some Estonian officials to implicate the Russian government in the attacks.\textsuperscript{133} While Estonia never officially blamed Russian officials, nor did Russia take credit for the attacks (which would have amounted to an act of cyberwarfare), research showed that most of the IP addresses from which the attacks were believed to originate were located in Russia. A similar attack occurred in 2008 in Georgia at the same time that nation was fighting with Russia over the region of South Ossetia.

The cyberattacks in the U.S., South Korea, Estonia and Georgia demonstrate that unless authorities are able to identify with certainty the responsible party behind an attack, it is nearly impossible to label the attack a cybercrime or an act of cyberterrorism. Cyberterrorism is distinct from cybercrimes such as “hacking”, identity theft and phishing, insofar as these crimes are not attempting to bring about some kind of political change.\textsuperscript{134} However, given both categories of cyberthreat have similar practical effects, some argue that they require similar solutions. It is for this reason that some nations argue that it will be nearly impossible for the U.N. to develop an effective response to cybercrime and recommend, instead, that nations’ domestic policies continue to be the locus of the response. Proponents of increased U.N. attention to cybercrimes point to other ways that terrorists utilize the internet to emphasize the need for international cooperation.

Research suggests terrorist organizations currently use the internet in several ways (apart from cyberattacks):

- research and communication
- training
- fundraising
- media operations/propaganda
- recruitment\textsuperscript{135}

\textsuperscript{130} Gable p. 60-61.
\textsuperscript{131} Sieber and Brunst 161-166; Gable: p. 61; Lentz 799-800.
\textsuperscript{132} Gable: p. 61. Gable also discusses other attacks occurring in the U.S. and elsewhere.
\textsuperscript{133} Lentz: p. 799-800.
\textsuperscript{134} For a more detailed explanation on the distinctions between cyberterrorism and cybercrime, see Cohen: pages 6-10; Gable: p. 62-67; Mantel: p. 81-84, 88.
\textsuperscript{135} CTITF Working Group Report: p. 3-4; Mantel: p. 75-76. See also Sieber and Brunst: p. 16-33.
The University of Arizona’s “Dark Web Terrorism Research Project” developed a unique computer program to scan the internet for terrorist and extremist content. In 2007, they reported finding more than 50,000 sites with terrorist content including blogs, forums, and videos. Indeed, all of the major terrorist and extremist organizations have a website, including Al Qaeda. Because the internet enables quick and easy communication across national borders and because the terrorists are often located in nations outside those targeted for attacks, many argue that an international response is the only possible solution.

**Past UN Action:**
To date, the UN has taken little concrete action in regard to the issue of cyberterrorism, although several resolutions acknowledge the threat that cyberterrorism poses to the international community. The first resolution to mention cyberterrorism was the General Assembly’s 1997 resolution A/RES 51/210, which alluded to the risk of terrorists using wire communications. Subsequent resolutions and reports in the General Assembly’s Second and Sixth Committees have also mentioned cybercrime, but the only resolution dealing specifically with cybersecurity is A/64/422 (2010), in which the two operative clauses “invite” nations to use a voluntary self-assessment tool to measure their own efforts and “encourage” nations to share best practices. Thirty-one nations answered this invitation, and the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF) compiled these responses into a report.

CTITF published this report dealing specifically with the terrorists’ use of the internet in February 2009. The report includes a brief section with recommendations for how nations might respond to cyberterrorism. This response includes sharing best practices with other nations, building a shared database of research on how terrorists use the internet, developing international legal measures combating the dissemination of terrorist material on the internet, and formulating and publicizing alternative narratives to “counter” extremist ideologies. One of the models nations are encouraged to look to is the Council of Europe’s Convention on Cybercrime, which is the first multilateral treaty to address cybercrime. This year, a series of meetings has brought together different regional blocs to encourage formulation of similar conventions.

The Security Council has taken the strongest stance on countering terrorism but hasn’t taken specific action on the issue of cyberterrorism. The Security Council’s response to the September 11, 2001 attacks on the United States in S/RES/1373 refers to the “use of communications technology by terrorist groups” as being a concern and instructs nations to communicate with one another about these threats and aid in prosecutions by cooperating with extradition and

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136 Dark Web Terrorism Research Project Website: http://ai.arizona.edu/research/terror/
137 Mantel: p. 73-98.
Subsequent Security Council Resolutions S/RES/1566 (2004) and S/RES/1624 (2005) call on nations to strengthen international cooperation against terrorism and to prohibit incitement of terrorist acts, respectively. While these resolutions give no specific attention to cyberterrorism in their text, they do create a binding duty for states to both cooperate with other nations and to take a proactive approach to prevent terrorist attacks.

**Problems and Possible Solutions to Consider:**

**The Complexity of International Law**

The lack of a universally accepted definitions of terrorism and cyberterrorism and difficulties with identifying when a cyberterrorist attack has occurred are issues that must be taken into account as you consider the actions that can be taken by the international community.

**Preventing Cyberattacks:**

Some argue that shutting down terrorists’ websites will go a long way in preventing terrorist cells from successfully organizing attacks and recruiting members. Others point out that without these sites, intelligence organizations will lose an important means of monitoring terrorist activity. For example, in 2009 the FBI successfully foiled a terrorist plotting to bomb a Dallas, Texas skyscraper; part of the intelligence gathered came from an online blog written by the suspect. Others argue that government-imposed shutdowns of internet sites pose an additional problem by threatening citizens’ rights to free speech, press, and association. They argue that sometimes it is difficult to distinguish a terrorist from a political dissident and refer to the adage: “one man’s terrorist is another’s freedom fighter”.

**Deterring Terrorist Attacks:**

Some argue that prevention is impossible given the fluidity of the internet and concerns about civil rights, and instead, deterrence should be the focus. Deterrence would be best accomplished, they argue, by formulating a strict and binding international convention regarding cybercrimes. Their philosophy is that if terrorists know that all nations are cooperating in the prevention of cybercrime, then this will make its use less appealing. Others point out that because it is difficult to distinguish between cybercrimes and cyberterrorism, international statutes regarding cyberterrorism will be, at best, redundant and ineffective or, at worst, burdensome on less developed nations who don’t have the resources to implement protections required in these international conventions. Instead, they argue new laws aren’t needed; rather, the focus should be on enforcement of existing statutes.

**Responding to Attacks:**

When attacks are launched on citizens in another country, this creates a debate over who is responsible for prosecuting the criminals, which, in turn, raises issues over sovereignty. Another approach to cyberterrorism is to form regional partnerships, such as the Convention on Cybercrime formed by the Council of Europe.

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141 Cf. Gable: p. 93; Lentz: p. 804-806, 816-817; Cohen 38-39. All three discuss the possibility for future actions by the Security Council, and Lentz and Cohen discuss why the Security Council will be the most apt body to deal with the issue.


143 Mantel: pages 77-79.

Questions to Consider as you Prepare:
What constitutes cyberterrorism and a cyberattack? Can cyberterrorism be defined without defining “terrorism”? Does an attack need to cause a loss of life in order to qualify as a terrorist attack (the traditional measure for “physical” attacks), or can interruption of essential internet services also be called terrorism?

Is new legislation needed, or is enforcement of existing legislation sufficient for responding to cyberterrorism?

How can cyberterrorism be prevented? Is monitoring necessary or sufficient, or should sites be shut down? How can the UN balance public security and individual civil rights in an effective manner?

Who should be responsible for preventing and responding to cyberterrorism: the UN, regional organizations such as NATO or the EU, individual states, civil society, businesses, or some combination of these? Why?

What can the Security Council require nations to do in response to an act of cyberterrorism, while still respecting nations’ individual sovereignty?

What infrastructure is needed to combat acts of cyberterrorism, and how do countries (especially less developed nations) acquire them?

Security Council Bibliography

General Security Council Information:

Here you will find a full-text archive of all Security Council resolutions passed from 1946 to the present as well as essential historical information and press releases about Security Council activities.

Full-text of The Charter of the United Nations:

Chapters V-VII outline the structure, rules, and procedures for the Security Council, but the entire Charter will be an important reference as you prepare to participate in this committee given that the Security Council works alongside the other Primary Organs. For example, you will find information about how the Security Council interacts with the General Assembly in Chapter IV.


This chapter provides a concise discussion of the challenges facing the contemporary Security Council, a brief history of key events, and footnotes with additional resources.
Topic 1 - Conflict and Tension between North and South Korea:
UN Resolutions/Documents:
http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/unsc_resolutions06.htm


Key Secondary Sources:
This article contains information about the Korean War armistice and the November attacks on the island of Yeonpyeong by North Korea.

http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-asia-pacific-12593727
This article includes information regarding the South Korean/US mandated drills that commenced after the North’s attack on Yeonpyeong.

Doo-hyong: http://english.yonhapnews.co.kr/jskript/EnPrint.html
This article provides an overview of the six-party denuclearization talks between some of the Security Council member states including, The United States, Russia, and China, and other UN Member Nations including Japan, North Korea, and South Korea.

A report by the U.S.-based Congressional Research Service on the implementation of Security Council Resolution 1874 and its relationship to the preceding resolution 1718 regarding sanctions placed on North Korea’s nuclear program.


U.S. State Department Background Note: North Korea (http://www.state.gov/p/eap/ci/kn/) and South Korea (http://www.state.gov/p/eap/ci/ks/).
These websites include a succinct overview of the conflict between the two nations and the response by the international community.

Resources for Further Research:
http://yonhapnews.co.kr
This is the main South Korean News website and has the most current and up-to-date news regarding the ongoing tensions between the North and South.

Security Council Committee formed in response to Resolution 1718:
http://www.un.org/sc/committees/1718
Security Council Committee formed in response to Resolution 1874:
http://www.un.org/sc/committees/1874

**Topic 2 - Cyber-Terrorism:**
UN Resolutions/Documents


We recommend you start your research with this document as it provides an overview of the issue and the UN’s role.

Key Secondary Sources:


Kamal’s book provides an in-depth analysis of myriad aspects of cyber-terrorism and is a seminal work in the field. Particularly useful to MUN delegates is a glossary defining relevant technical and legal terms in Chapter 1, research on existing domestic and international cyber-terrorism laws in Chapter 2, and analyses of various issues ranging from identity theft to malicious code and proposals for international solutions to these problems. Delegates will find this book to be a valuable reference but should note that some of the data/statistics referenced in the book will not be up-to-date.


Of the three law review articles cited, this one is the most accessible for a general audience. It includes an argument for why the Security Council is the appropriate organ to deal with cyberterrorism, and it includes synopses and references to all of the relevant UN documents.


Provides a concise overview of the history, current situation, and the complex political issues involved, including a discussion of the pros and cons of government-backed blocks of terrorist websites. Also includes a helpful annotated bibliography.


This book-length report is the product of the Council of Europe’s Committee of Experts on Terrorism (CODEXTER). The book includes an analytical report examining the potential nature of cyberterrorist threats and the insufficiency of existing domestic and international statutes. The book also includes reports on domestic policies for each of the nations that have signed the Council of Europe’s Convention on Cybercrime (2001, 2004).

Resources for Further Research:

A link to the organization’s most recent report on cyber-terrorism (2009). This organization is a non-profit, non-government group. Their home page includes links to cybercrime research in other nations: http://www.crime-research.org/.

University of Arizona Dark Web Terrorism Research Center: http://ai.arizona.edu/research/terror/.


This site contains up-to-date information on the United States’ efforts to combat cyber
crime.


Article from the Department of Homeland Security discussing the threat cyber-terrorism poses to the United States.
Baylor MUN 2011 Delegate Guide

Code of Conduct:
Delegates are expected to remain in character at all times during committee sessions by adhering to the policies and interests of their assigned country. This entails displaying respect for the opinions and ideals of fellow delegates, even if these opinions and ideals conflict with their own priorities or the interests of their own assigned country.

Decorum:
Delegates are expected to maintain decorum by displaying utmost courtesy and professionalism at all times. Delegates are expected to behave as professional adults both in respect for fellow delegates, respect and courtesy toward Baylor MUN staff, and respect for the facilities at Baylor MUN. In this regard, delegates are responsible for their own trash and may not bring food into the committee rooms. After each committee session, each delegate is to clean his/her own area before leaving the room.

Note Passing:
Note passing is allowed, except during voting procedure. Note passing allows delegates to send formal notes to fellow delegates in order to ask questions, inform another delegate about an opinion or to ask for support for your own resolution, and as such it is an extremely effective tool to network for your resolution. As note passing is intended to support the diplomatic discussion, informal, personal, or notes otherwise deemed inappropriate will be collected by the chair and the delegate may be dismissed from committee immediately, at the discretion of the chair.

Attire:
All clothing must portray professionalism and modesty. If a delegate’s attire is deemed inappropriate by Baylor MUN staff, the delegate will be asked to leave the session and return with appropriate attire. In preparation for the conference, if the appropriateness of a certain outfit is in question, the delegate should opt for more professional attire.

- Standard delegate attire for the conference is business jacket, slacks (or skirts for women), dress shirt (with tie for men) and dress shoes.
- Shorts, ball caps, jeans, sneakers, and sunglasses are considered too casual.
- It is not appropriate for delegates to display any national symbols such as flags, pins, crests, etc. on their person during sessions. UN symbols are acceptable.
- Western business dress is preferred. Traditional dress is only permitted for international delegates in whose native countries “professional business dress” includes traditional cultural dress. Baylor MUN will not tolerate any delegate’s attempt to portray a “character” using traditional cultural attire as costume.