Distinguished Delegates,

Welcome to the 2012 Baylor University Model United Nations Conference! This annual conference helps high school Model United Nations students develop and strengthen their skills in researching, writing, speaking, and most importantly, interacting. The goals of Model UN are not limited to activities like drafting position papers and researching countries around the globe. Rather, these skills are meant to encourage life-long habits of learning about other cultures, finding common ground, and reaching compromise.

Our theme this year is “Politics and Change in the Middle East and North African Region”, and for the first time the League of Arab States is among our simulated committees. We chose this theme both because of the impact the events of Arab Spring have had on international relations over the past year and because of the emerging issues in the region that affect the entire global community. As we move into the future, the Middle East and Northern Africa (MENA) region plays an increasingly important role in international politics and economics.

As a result of focusing on the MENA region, the corresponding topics we have picked are not easy and could be the most difficult issues we have ever addressed at our conference. Confronting and resolving issues like Nuclear Development in Iran (Security Council) and Evaluating Risks of Terrorists obtaining Biological Weapons (WHO) in a one-day conference may not be an achievable task. However, it is the optimism with which we face the world's problems and the attitude we sustain after the conference that best indicate our chances of succeeding in solving these issues in the near future.

We hope you enjoy the conference and appreciate our efforts to make this the best learning experience we can bring you. We wish you the best of luck for this conference and your future endeavors to change the world.

Sincerely,

Adi Raj,
Secretary General,
2012 Baylor University High School Model United Nations Conference
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*Arab League, CSD and Security Council are committees that do not have representation from every member nation. Be sure to check the country matrix on the Baylor MUN website to be sure your member nation is seated on these committees before preparing for conference.
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](http://researchguides.baylor.edu/mun)


UN Cyber School Bus: [http://www.un.org/Pubs/CyberSchoolBus/](http://www.un.org/Pubs/CyberSchoolBus/)

UNA-USA’s Global Classrooms: [http://www.unausa.org](http://www.unausa.org)
General Assembly 1st
History of the General Assembly First Committee

Disarmament and international security (DISEC) are central to the UN Mission, and the General Assembly First Committee is responsible for these issues, including assessing threats to global security, dealing with weapons of mass destruction, and eliminating conventional arms.¹ The very first GA resolution in 1946 dealt with nuclear disarmament, and the UN and the First Committee still grapple with these important and complex issues today.

The First Committee maintains an egalitarian structure with all member nations participating, and works towards deliberation, consensus building, and policy. The diverse interests of all the member states in one committee encourages the body to search for areas of common ground and is typically successful. In fact, more than 75% of the GA resolutions since 1991 have passed by acclamation.

Unlike the Security Council, the General Assembly resolutions are non-binding and thus only as strong as the international support they garner. The First Committee seeks to build peace and security not by force, but through agreements among states for cooperative security, deescalating conflict through disarmament, and other peaceful means. Their goals are therefore often ambitious and long-term and have been 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.

The First Committee also faces a set of challenges: due to their resolutions’ non-binding nature, states do not always carry out their resolutions; delegates can choose to merely restate national policies without engaging in substantive debate; states have significant disagreements whereby consensus cannot easily be reached; the body can rush to a premature and impractical consensus; 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 pose obstacles to the First Committee’s objective to create a more peaceful world.

GA 1st Topic 1: Demobilization and Reintegration of Child Soldiers in Africa

Background:
The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child asserts that States shall take all feasible measures to ensure that persons who have not attained the age of fifteen years do not take a direct part in hostilities.² In addition, States are forbidden from recruiting any person who has not attained the age of eighteen years old. Moreover, States are required to “take all feasible measures to ensure protection and care of children who are affected by an armed conflict.”³

² See A/RES/54/263
³ See GA/45/25 “Conventions on Rights of a Child”
Today children as young as nine have been involved in armed conflicts where groups are fighting to defend territory and resources. Several thousand children have been subject to forcible abductions; however, numerous children have voluntarily enlisted. Currently, although it is impossible to know the exact number of child soldiers at any one time, the World Service Organization estimates there are over three hundred thousand child soldiers. Often these children grow up in war-torn areas where social and economic structures have collapsed and family members tortured or killed by government forces or armed groups. Additionally, poverty and lack of work, and educational opportunities continue to push children towards joining rebel groups. Thus, children are recruited both formally and informally, and often return to recruited different groups in their later years. Child soldiers are required to perform a range of tasks including participation in “combat, laying mines and explosives; scouting, spying, acting as decoys, couriers or guards; training, drill or other preparations; logistics and support functions, pottering, cooking and domestic labor”. Girls usually fulfill multiple roles, while they are frequently recruited and used for sexual purposes; they are virtually always also involved in other military chores.

Furthermore, many children are killed or die of injuries sustained or illnesses caused by the hardships of military life. Since 1998 there have been armed conflicts involving child soldiers in at least 36 countries, and over the last ten years, two million children have been killed in conflict. The most notorious offender of child soldier laws Joseph Kony, a rebel leader who operates in the Sudan and Uganda areas. Kony is the leader of the Lord’s Resistance Army, which over the last 15 years has abducted over 10,000 children. Various NGOs and IOs have been involved in efforts to find solutions and create plans to stop groups that are involved in using child soldiers. Disarmament and reintegration (DDR) programs are “specifically aimed at child soldiers have been established in many countries, both during and after armed conflict and have assisted former child soldiers to acquire new skills and return to their communities.”

**Past UN Action:**
Numerous United Nation resolutions have been enacted to address the use of child soldiers. In 2003, the Security Council SC/76/49, which called for “States to respect fully the relevant provisions of applicable international humanitarian law relating to the rights and protection of children in armed conflict,” and the resolution maintained that “all concerned parties to ensure that the protection, rights and well-being of children”. Two years later another Security Council Resolution, SC/8458, created a monitoring and reporting mechanism with the specific purpose of “ensuring the protection of children affected by armed conflict”. As recent as the year 2011 the UN Security Council officially adopted a resolution “against recruitment of child soldiers, pressing nations to halt the abuse of children including rape and attacks on schools”. The signatories called upon states to take a “decisive and immediate action against persistent

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4 “Some facts” (2012)
5 Ibid
6 Ibid
8 Ibid
9 See GA/45/25 “Conventions on Rights of a Child”
10 See SC/8458 On monitoring
perpetrators of violations and abuses committed against children in situations of armed conflict, and further call upon them to bring to justice those responsible for such violations.\textsuperscript{11}

In 2002, the General Assembly signed and adopted A/RES/54/263 (the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict), which serves today as the UN’s most effective plan to combat the use of child soldiers. The resolution created further restrictions and safeguards against the recruitment of children, and opened the door for more cooperation among hostile state governments.

Following the resolution the UN assigned the International Labor Organization, which was mandated to officially tackle the child soldier problem in Burma, the task of taking own cases of where reports of child soldiers were most apparent. The organization worked alongside NGOs to combat over 80 cases in 2009, but reported over 70,000 more children still served as child soldiers.

The bright spot in the fight against child soldiers took place in early March of this year when the International Criminal Court’s (ICC) found the rebel leader Thomas Lubanga Dyilo, of the DRC, guilty for recruiting and using child soldiers in hostilities. The decision served as a warning to other military leaders who recruit and kidnap children; Dyilo is currently still awaiting sentencing.

Today, thousands of activist groups and NGOs continue to work to bring public awareness to the child soldier situations. However, there are still three main problems that allow the number of child soldiers to increase every year. The most glaring problem is government infrastructure. The bottom line is child soldiers exist because local governments are either to weak, untrained, or unwilling to police hostile areas. As a result, children are not protected from or educated about the threats of rebel groups. Next, while there is an ambiguous definition for the term “child soldier”, there is no one prominent UN organization that has the sole purpose of combating the problem. Instead, multiple agencies gather information and report back. The final principle problem is that there is very little protection offered for organizations that venture out to document the situation. As a consequence, hundreds of activists continue to risk their lives in an attempt to keep the public informed.

**Problems and Possible Solutions to Consider:**

**Access to Children**

Many armed groups frequently operate in “dangerous, inaccessible zones to which observers do not have access and many children perform”.\textsuperscript{12} As a result, rebels operate freely without the threat of being caught or penalized. Thus, the developing countries where child soldiers are being recruited need some type of incentive for them to inspire them to allow UN soldiers to enter or for their own soldiers to be trained.

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\textsuperscript{11} See “Some facts” (2008)

\textsuperscript{12} See SC/9646 List of Shame
Capital
International programs lack funds and adequate resources necessary in order to sustained long-term investments needed to be effective. Therefore, a plan for funding must be provided for by organizations and states outside of developing hostile zones.

Aftermath
Millions of children that survive conflicts are left with serious psychological trauma, yet they are left to survive on their own without programs to treat them. Moreover, these survivors need both physical and physiological treatment, which could be done through shelters or adoption homes.

Infrastructure and Sovereignty
Government infrastructures corruption often opens doors for rebel groups to operate, while outside organizations are not allowed to police others areas as a matter of state sovereignty. The UN and other regulatory organizations could offer sanctions or incentives for them to give up some local autonomy.

Questions to Consider as you Prepare:
How should The United Nations go about allocating funds and investments given to combat the recruiting of child soldiers? Should this funding be spent on the payment of troops and military efforts to combat the recruiting of child soldiers? Or should current police forces receive funds and materials to become more effective in tracking rebel armies?

Should child soldiers be punished or face detention for having committed human rights abuses? What if they have grown pass the age of 18? Should they become susceptible to punishment? Are they still victims if they are recruiting other children or if they voluntarily join?

What role should domestic law play in if countries are ineffective in combating the kidnapping of children? What kind of access should be granted to non-governmental groups? What should be done to state governments that knowingly protect rebel organizations?

**GA 1st Topic 2: Peaceful Transitions from non-peaceful Regimes**

**Post-Arab Spring**

Background:
Policy analysts and the mainstream media agree that the Arab Spring has created an unprecedented ripple effect throughout the Middle East, leaving a series of unanswered questions of what the long-term future holds for the region as well as what the process of transition will look like in these countries affected by the uprisings. Before one can even begin to address the underlying problems or questions of regime, it is first important to define what the Arab Spring is based on the point of view of one’s perspective country. It is no secret that revolutions and uprisings have certainly permeated throughout the region, but to what extent the leadership of each state is recognizing these revolutions as valid is a question that can be answered differently among delegates.

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13 The information in this guide is updated as of June 1, 2012. Delegates should look to news sources for up-to-date information on this currently evolving issue.
Over the course of the last year, the Middle East has been rocked by a series of uprisings calling for a revolution of government, economic systems, and civil institutions. Uprisings that began in Egypt and Tunisia created a ripple effect that has transcended country borders and prompted similar revolts across the region in Bahrain, Yemen, Libya, and Syria. Throughout the region, rebel groups are calling for a more transparent and representative government that has the ability and legitimacy to provide for its people and make the self-interest of its citizens a top priority.

The term “Arab Spring” is used by both the mainstream media and by political analysts to give a name to the collective series of revolutions in the region. The idea that media sources are approaching the Arab Spring from a collectivist standpoint rather than an individual case basis is something that will be important for the delegates to consider. According to policy analysts, the 2011 Arab revolts are not focused on how the globalization and civic engagement have defined the protesters’ motivations. It is a matter of how and why these goals and tactics made an impact in their local contexts.\(^\text{14}\)

In addressing the question of developing a resolution to promote peaceful regime transitions, delegates are asked to consider the differences in motivation for revolution across the region and to come up with solutions accordingly. For instance, rural civilians who felt neglected by the Capital and found a common cause under a repressed labor movement prompted the demonstrations in Tunisia.\(^\text{15}\) However in Egypt, urbane young people in major cities organized the uprising. For the revolution in Egypt, social media outlets like Facebook and Twitter took on an unprecedented role of communication and organization. Delegates should address what role modern media and social networking tools can have in the process of government transition.

Meanwhile, the Libyan revolution was marked by bands of armed rebels in the eastern provinces that “ignited the protests, revealing the tribal cleavages that have beset the country for decades.”\(^\text{16}\) Organized and armed groups of protesters grew from small bands of rural dissident rebels. Over time, the protesting escalated to a full movement of force, calling for the resignation of Muammar Gaddafi.

In perhaps the most violent uprising of the region, the Syrian revolution calls for the resignation of President Bashar Assad. Under the Assad regime, Syrian civilians have fallen victim to atrocious crimes against human rights, and the civil unrest has largely been swept under the rug by Assad’s claims of stability in the country. The movement began as a series of peaceful protesting and civil disobedience calling for equal representation and an end to regime violence. However, mounting tension between the public and the regime has manifested into armed violence on both sides of the conflict, resulting in responses from the League of Arab States, the United Nations, and other countries around the globe who fear political and civil fall-out if Assad does not step down.

**Past Action and International Response:**
These major revolutions have left the region in a state of uncertainty and international hesitation for action. While the United Nations has issued several resolutions and presidential statements in


\(^\text{15}\)Ibid.

\(^\text{16}\)Ibid
regards to promoting peace in the Middle East, the international community has been hesitant to act out of unwillingness to encroach on state sovereignty. However, out of respect for the safety and security of individual people in the region, the international community is charged with the responsibility to ensure that legitimate governments that have the capacity to meet the political, social, and economic needs of their people emerge out of the revolution.

During the Libyan Revolution, the Security Council issued S/RES/1973, which established the no-fly zone over the region. It also called for an immediate response of a ceasefire in order to help protect civilians. Another key point was the authorization of an arms embargo and a ban on all Libyan-designated flights. While the UN did not send in observers or peacekeepers, there was a vote to establish a no-fly zone over Libya. The establishment of the no-fly zone over Libya made other member states, especially those states experiencing similar revolts, raise question to a possible violation of state sovereignty.

There were also other resolutions issued during the Arab Spring uprisings in Yemen. S/RES/2014 called for the international community to increase humanitarian support for the situation in Yemen. It called for a full ceasefire and for the Secretary General to report back to the Assembly on the progress in the country every 30 days.

For even more specific action, delegates can look to a case study on intervention in Syria. The most public and most severe responses to the Syrian uprising have come from regional and international organizations. In November, the League of Arab States suspended membership to Syria in response to continued human rights violations by the Assad regime. “At an emergency session of its 22 member states in Cairo to discuss the crisis, the league decided to exclude Syria until it implements the terms of an earlier agreed peace deal to stop the violence.” Beyond suspending membership and voting rights, the league also agreed to impose economic and political sanctions on Syria and called for opposition parties to meet to discuss a vision for a transitional period. Qatari Prime Minster Sheikh Al Thani, who led the meeting of the league, made it clear that the vote did not signal the approval of military intervention or a no-fly zone in Syria. What he did call for was the end of military violence against civilians. Syria’s representative to the league said that the suspension breached the charter and “showed it was serving a western and American agenda.” Member states noted that the violence would become more severe in the days after the suspension as retaliation against the decision. However, “this move isolates the regime to a great extent – economically, diplomatically, and politically.”

**Problems to Address and Questions to Answer:**
In formulating a response to peaceful regime transitions, there are several critical points to address:

1. **Voting**- How do we ensure that voting procedures are free and fair in states after the Arab Spring? This is not a matter of delegates making a case for democracy, rather developing

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18 S/RES/2014 (2011)
20 Ibid.
21 Ibid.
methods for the legitimacy of elections, even if that entails an election for a different structure of government.

2. Civil conflict - How do we address the need for all voices to be heard in order to avoid another uprising? The motivating factors vary throughout the region and therefore responses will inherently vary. If a comprehensive proposal of transition is to be developed, then it will need to include protections for each group at stake.

3. Infrastructure - Resolutions should address the need for securing or rebuilding the infrastructure in these states. Basic needs such as safety, security, and shelter will be more important to civilians than an election, and as to avoid the rise of a dictator who makes promises of rebuilding, these issues will need to be addressed without hesitation.

4. State Sovereignty - Finally, there is always the underlying issue of state sovereignty. At what point do civilian casualties outweigh the tenets of state sovereignty and allow for international intervention? Does the international community have the responsibility of trying the leaders of these regimes for crimes against humanity?

These questions are critical in developing solutions to these problems. While the main goal is to transition peacefully in the wake of the Arab Spring, transition cannot occur at the expense of civilian life or by ignoring the legitimacy of state sovereignty. As delegates begin to research this topic and develop ideas for resolutions and position papers, they are asked to keep in mind all parties at stake. The UN Charter charges member states with the obligation to maintain state sovereignty and the legitimacy of governments, however, member states are also reminded of the importance of human rights, and protection of civilians.

**GA 1st Bibliography**

**Background:**


**Topic 1 – Child Soldiers:**

**Primary Sources**
http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc-conflict.htm

http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/44/a44r025.htm

SC/9646 (2005). “Parties killing, maiming or raping children.” Full-text available at:


Key Secondary Sources
Background information including what makes an adolescent a child soldier, discussion on (DDR) programs specifically aimed at child soldiers have been established in many countries, and the treatment of female children.

Database on each individual country’s progress which included. State responsibility, Cultural changes needed, along with investigations and security. In addition, information on ensuring children’s best interests after rescue was discussed.


"Uganda: Child Soldiers at Centre of Mounting Humanitarian Crisis." UN News Center. UN. Web. 16 Apr. 2012. <http://www.un.org/events/tenstories/06/story.asp?storyid=100>. LRA background Information-Where is the LRA operating, the violations committed against children by the LRA, military action against the LRA. Discussion on how the LRA recruit children and what is their role is. The violations committed against children by the LRA and what the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) are aspirations.


Profile of Kony


**Topic 2 – Regime Transition:**

**Primary Sources**

S/RES/1973

*This Resolution formed the legal reasoning for establishing the no-fly zone over Libya. It also called for an immediate ceasefire in order to help protect civilians. One of the key points was the authorization of an arms embargo and a ban on all Libyan-designated flights.*

S/RES/2014

*The Security Council called upon the international community to increase humanitarian support for the situation in Yemen. It called for a full ceasefire and for the secretary general to report back the progress in the country every 30 days.*

S/RES/1994

*This is a renewal of the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force in the Middle East, one of the oldest operating peacekeeping missions created by the United Nations. In light of the Arab Spring, the Security Council requested that their stay in the Middle East be maintained in order to ensure safety and security of civilians.*

S/2012/77

*The resolution condemns the human rights violations committed by the Assad Regime in the Syrian uprising. It also demands that the Syrian government put a stop to the violence and comply with its obligations under international law. The resolution, however, was vetoed by China and Russia.*

S/PRST/2012/6

*The President of the Security Council addresses the violence and rising death toll in Syria. The President reaffirms a strong commitment to sovereignty, independence, unity, and territorial integrity of Syria and continued support of the UN Charter.*

**Secondary Sources**


*This journal compares the Arab Spring in Tunisia, Libya, and Egypt. It provides a brief*
history of the political system in each country and discusses the factors that led to the uprising in the three countries as well. It continues to discuss key differences between motives and economic systems that will inevitably lead to a different outcome in each revolution.


An interesting perspective from an internationally recognized media source on the suspension of Syria from the Arab League, including Syria’s reaction and the implications it could have on the rest of the international community.


This website serves as an excellent foundation for position papers and resolution writing. It begins by defining the term "Arab Spring" and goes into detail in terms of the political changes that each country in the Middle East is experiencing. The website is divided by country and offers 2-5 links for each that highlights the timeline of the Arab Spring and current political and economic implications brought on by regime change.


This online newspaper article is interactive in the sense that the reader is presented with a map of the Middle East and can click through each country. Key leaders, important dates, and current political status are presented after clicking on each country.


The author addresses the possible implications of IMF loans being given to Egypt and Tunisia in the midst of the Arab Spring. He argues that these loans could lock both countries into long term economic commitments even before the post-revolution elections. He worries that the IMF’s failure to meet with members of the civil society during these negotiations will create long term consequences for the people of these countries.


The author discusses NATO’s role in the revolutions of the Middle East. He discusses allies, security, and the need for a comprehensive plan to address regime change while still maintaining the standards of state sovereignty.
General Assembly,
Third Committee
History of the General Assembly Third Committee

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 humanitarian crises 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 the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). Unlike ECOSOC, however, every member nation has representation in the Third Committee. Due to the large range of affairs it governs, the Committee considers many topics, including:

- Advancement of women and protection of children
- Rights of indigenous peoples and status and treatment of refugees
- Elimination of racism and racial discrimination
- Crime prevention and drug control
- Rights of the elderly and disabled

As these issues are encompassing and complex, the GA3 works with other UN organs and NGOs, including 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 (HRC), the Third Committee has taken a special interest in expanding human rights and fundamental freedoms. It is an important liaison between the HRC (based in Geneva) and the General Assembly (based in New York). Though the Committee considers many draft resolutions, many have criticized that its time is allocated inefficiently: a large amount of time and effort is put toward amending past resolutions but result in minor textual changes. Additionally, informal negotiating between Member States absorbs much of the energy in the GA3. However, it does have unique aspects like country-specific resolutions and has the ability to table and recycle topics for later sessions.

In its last session, the Committee considered 56 draft resolutions, over half of which fell under the human rights agenda. In order to ensure efficient and knowledgeable resolutions, it heard from 36 special rapporteurs, independent experts, and chairpersons of different working groups within the Human Rights Council. Some of the resolutions it forwarded to the General Assembly Plenary included topics like “Revitalization of the work of the General Assembly,” “Torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment,” and “Social development.”

Currently under the chairmanship of Mr. Hussein Haniff from Malaysia, the Third Committee seeks to continue its progress heading into its sixty-sixth session.

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23 ISHR (International Service for Human Rights) Fact Sheet: Main Committees of the GA
GA 3rd Topic 1: Discrimination on the Basis of Sexual Orientation

“All Americans who believe in freedom, tolerance and human rights have a responsibility to oppose bigotry and prejudice based on sexual orientation.” Coretta Scott King

Background:
People have long suffered because of their sexual orientation, but the increasing frequency and severity of this problem only recently gained the attention of the United Nations. Human rights violations based on sexual orientation and gender identity encompasses violence, cruelty, discrimination, and other acts of hatred based on real or perceived sexual orientation or gender identity. Sexual orientation is defined as “each person’s capacity for profound emotional, affectional and sexual attraction to, and intimate and sexual relations with, individuals of a different gender or of the same gender or of more than one gender.”25 Gender identity refers to “deeply felt internal and individual experience of gender, which may or may not correspond to the sex assigned at birth, including the personal sense of the body (which may involve, if freely chosen, modification of bodily appearance or function by medical, surgical or other means) and other expressions of gender, including dress, speech and mannerisms.”26

Violations of sexual minorities are manifested in two ways: 1) physical harm resulting from murder, kidnapping, sexual assault or other forms of violence and 2) unfair treatment, deprivation of liberty, and discrimination exercised on personal and institutional levels.27 The aspect of physical harm is more frequently noted by the media, but many cases go unreported and without the attention that is needed to curb their prevalence. Special rapporteurs from the UN found previously unnoted examples that show the gravity of these issues. A period of violence specifically targeting members of lesbian, gay, bi-sexual, and transgender (LGBT) groups in Honduras resulted in the brutal killings of 21 people in 2010.28 One of these victims was “found dead in a ditch, her body beaten and burned, showing evidence of rape and blows to her face from stoning so severe as to render the remains virtually unrecognizable.”29 In other parts of the world, transsexual women have been beaten in the breasts and cheekbones to intentionally burst implants and release painful toxins in their bodies.30 Four people were seriously attacked in Uganda and many were forced to hide when a local paper published the photos of 100 people it said were homosexuals and encouraged people to “hang them.”31

26 ibid.
27 Article 2 of the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women notes that violence against women encompasses violence within the family, within the community, and physical, sexual or psychological violence perpetrated and condoned, by the State, wherever it occurs.
30 See A/56/156, para. 18.
There’s a cultural contribution to the prevalence of this violence, too. More than 5,000 honor killings take place each year to punish people who do not remain true to cultural expectations. An increasing number of these victims are killed because of their sexual orientation or gender identity. This is seen in the 2009 Iraq killing campaign that tortured and murdered hundreds of LGBT members on the basis of protecting society from the “third sex.” Killings also take place by victims’ relatives to preserve their family’s honor. Cultural myths such as homosexuality being a disease or that lesbian women’s sexual orientation will change if they are raped by a man are also dangerous elements of this problem.

Though physical violence based on sexual orientation and gender equality is a pressing issue, attention must also be given to the second aspect of this topic. Discrimination and unfair treatment based on sexual orientation date back to the religious laws of the Bible and other holy books. Napoleon temporarily established laws decriminalizing homosexuality as part of his penal code in 1791, but long-term protection did not take place until Denmark repealed its similar laws in 1933. Almost all other countries have followed Denmark’s example since then except for those in the Middle East (save for Israel), North Africa, and the former British colonies in Africa, the Caribbean, and South Asia. These latter countries are the most common (but not exclusive) context in which LGBT members are deprived of their liberty in areas of “judicial prosecution and trial, administrative detention, deprivation of liberty on medical grounds and arrest for the purposes of harassment, among others.” Even countries that have repealed these laws can foster unfair treatment stemming from sexual orientation because of their inability to better protect victims.

Cases of discrimination based on sexual orientation are vastly underreported, but several examples exist that illustrate its solemn presence in the life of people of all ages. According to a 2007 study, up to 40 percent of homeless youth were turned away from their homes and charitable shelters because of their sexual orientation or gender identity. LGBT students are

39 "Sexual Orientation, Gender Identity and International Human Rights Law," op.cit., p.75
40 Romo, loc.cit.
often the targets of violence, harassment, and other forms of bullying while in high school and college. In addition to the physical harm that results, many victims struggle with emotional consequences such as depression and low self-esteem. A 2010 report on prison conditions in Greece revealed that “detainees in a lesbian, gay and transgender section of a prison were reportedly denied access to an outside yard for two years, confined to their cells and a corridor at all times.”

Striving to address these forms of discrimination and unfair treatment, the Human Rights Committee (HRC) affirmed that its regard to “equal and effective protection against discrimination on any ground such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status” in Article 26 of the ICCPR extends to discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation. Even so, the lack of response from Honduras, Greece, and other countries in which similar atrocities occur demonstrates that nations have not fully adopted the HRC’s concern on the issue. Without the creation and observation of standard operating procedures that guide law enforcement to handling these issues seriously and responding properly to violations that occur, these countries are unable to progress toward a greater solution.

There have been several emergences of human rights violations based on sexual orientation and gender identity in recent world events. In March 2012, a gay man died after being attacked by a group of neo-Nazis at a park in Chile. The perpetrators tortured the man for an hour by carving swastikas in his body and otherwise mutilating him. His death brought renewed efforts by the UN and human rights organizations to call attention to the mistreatment of sexual minorities and the need for harsher penalties for hate crimes. Another example was seen that same month in a different arena when Muslim delegates protested legitimizing homosexuality by walking out of the first UN Human Rights Council debate on gay rights. Without these nations’ support, the problems will persist and further metastasize.

Past UN Action:
The UN has made efforts to ensure that the issues of sexual orientation and gender identity are given equal attention to all other areas of human rights violations. In 2007, the International Commission of Jurists’ discussion on the inclusion of sexual minorities in human rights protection resulted in the “Yogyakarta Principles on the Application of International Human

Rights Law in Relation to Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity." 49 This document served as the foundation for later work by the OAS (AG/RES. 2435) and the UN’s first resolution (A/HRC/17/L.9/Rev.1) concerning LGBT rights. 50,51 The UN’s resolution affirms that violations based on sexual orientation or gender identity are matters of human rights, and it calls for a report on related cases of violence and discrimination. The report (A/HRC/19/41) was published in November 2011 and accounts for unprecedented levels of violence and injustice shown toward sexual minorities. 52 Most recently, the UN reiterated its deep concern of violence based on sexual orientation and urged member nations to prioritize its reduction and elimination. 53

Problems and Possible Solutions:
Researchers fear that the majority of violations go unreported due to the shame of the victim or the apathy of the law and legal systems in some countries. Real action most often takes place when international attention is drawn by a death caused by hate crimes based on sexual orientation or gender identity. There may be no better solution for this problem than to increase international pressure on countries to curb the rate of crimes committed against LGBT members. If a sense of national pride for reducing the crime rate could be established – and a strong sense of shame if the rate remained the same or deteriorates – then a solution to this issue would be more effective and more sustainable.

Questions to Consider as you Prepare:
Which should efforts for change focus on: law or education? Who should enact these changes and where would funding originate?

Is there one general solution to this problem or is it region-specific? If solutions are region-specific, how could resolutions be tailored to meet the problems of multiple regions? Who would determine what each regional problem requires to be eliminated?

How can the reporting of crimes based on sexual orientation be improved? How can international actors help without posing a risk to nations’ sovereignty?

With many crimes occurring within prisons, how can LGBT members be better protected? Is there a way to do this without incurring significant expenses?

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GA 3rd Topic 2: Women’s Political Empowerment in Transitioning Regimes

Background:
Successful uprisings in Egypt and Tunisia against previous regimes in the last year have prompted human rights campaigns and political movements against dictatorships across North Africa and the Middle East. Economic stability, democratization, and a new regime that would not infringe upon equality, free speech, and overall human rights were demanded of these governments. Women played an important role in this movement, as they were active participants in the revolution, standing up to march, protest, and protect their fellow citizens against any opposing government forces. In an unprecedented movement for political equality, men and women worked together to demand change. However, after the regimes fell, the traditional barriers to political and social equality for women in society reemerged during the transition period. For example, initially only nine women were elected to the Egyptian parliament, and no women were elected to the Kuwaiti parliament. These are only a few instances of the shortcomings of women’s rights campaigns, even after a successful uprising against oppressive regimes.

Movements for Women’s Equality Pre-Arab Spring:
The United Nations’ Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), written in 1979 and ratified by 187 nation-states, was a significant victory for women’s rights. However, the United States has not ratified CEDAW, and many argue that this has diminished the Convention’s effectiveness. Moreover, many governments that have ratified the convention have not aligned their national laws with the international obligation they have under the CEDAW. In particular, women in the Middle East have strived for independence and proper rights for themselves and security for human rights for decades, but many have yet to see a significant change. In December 1997, a group of Muslim intellectuals primarily from Iran and South Asia wrote, “A Declaration of the Rights of Women in Islamic Societies”. This Declaration provoked controversy throughout the Middle East, as some based the oppression of women on orthodox and fundamental religious ideals. The Declaration states:

• The subordinate place of women in Islamic societies should give way to equality. A woman should have freedom of action, should be able to travel alone, should be permitted to uncover her face, and should be allowed the same inheritance rights as a man.

• She should not be subject to gruesome ritual mutilations of her person.

• On reaching the legal age, she should be free to marry a man of her own choice without permission from a putative guardian or parents. She should be free to marry a non-Muslim. She should be free to divorce and be entitled to maintenance in the case of divorce.

• She should have equal access to education, equal opportunities for higher education, and be free to choose her subject of study. She should be free to choose her own job and be

allowed to fully participate in public life — from politics and sports to the arts and sciences.

- In Islamic societies, she should enjoy the same human rights as those guaranteed under International Human Rights legislation.\(^{55}\)

This 1997 report sparked discussion and debate regarding women’s rights among the international community. Subsequent action included the 2005 Arab Human Development Report (AHDR): “Towards the Rise of Women in the Arab World,” which identified the gap in gender equality as one of the significant obstacles standing in the way of human development in the Arab region. Although there are legal guarantees for women’s rights and political and economic participation in many nations, deep-seeded cultural gender roles have limited women’s employment and decision-making opportunities.\(^{56}\)

**Case Studies - Movements for Women’s Equality Post-Arab Spring:**

**Egypt:**\(^{57}\)
Women’s roles in the transition of Egypt have been present through labor union strikes and asserting free speech, and as of late, protesting against the Mubarak regime has created an even louder voice for women in the region. Unfortunately, even after the vital role they played in the revolution, women are being excluded from in the action re-construction of their nation. “The ten-person constitutional amendment committee responsible for revising the constitution prior to the upcoming elections was all men”\(^{58}\)—no women were appointed to any high ranking roles, such as governor and only one woman out of a possible 34 was elected to a position in the new cabinet. “The exclusion of women in Egypt turned into a systematic policy”, states the Egyptian Center for Women’s Rights (ECWR)

On May 2, 2011, a progressive step towards women’s rights was taken as the government issued a decree allowing Egyptian women married to Palestinian men to pass their nationality to their children. Enas El Shaffie, Executive Director of the Forum for Women in Development, a women’s rights organization based in Egypt’s capital, credits this achievement to the CEDAW.

**Tunisia:**
January 2011 marked a significant moment in Tunisia’s history as the dictatorship of Ben Ali was overthrown, inspiring the first act of uprising in the Arab Spring. Initially Tunisia seemed on the right path to including women’s roles in the new regime. On April 11, 2011, the Tunisian transitional government passed a revolutionary law that established “full parity and compulsory alternation of male and female candidates on all lists for the October 23 election of the Constituent Assembly that will draft the new constitution.” Tunisia ranked highest in all four categories of a 2010 Freedom House report on women’s rights in the region.


\(^{57}\) This information is up-to-date as of June 1. Delegates should research changes in Egypt’s government, in particular, in light of elections to be held later in summer 2012.

On August 16, 2011, Tunisia surpassed another milestone as the government withdrew any specific reservations of the CEDAW after Minister of Women Lilia Laabidi submitted a draft decree. However, women’s rights groups such as Association Tunisienne des Femmes Democratiques (AFTD) oppose the government’s declaration of the CEDAW and deem it contrary to Article One of the Constitution, which secures Islam as the state religion. Tunisian women are now seeking the removal of this declaration and discriminatory provisions from Tunisian law as reflected to the caveat undermining the legal significance of the removal of reservations in regard to issues on family law, such as inheritance.

Questions to Consider as you Prepare:
How can women continue to stress the CEDAW and force government reactions?

How will international NGOs play into the role of helping women in the Middle East, and how have they already supported civil society activities in the region?

How has the role of women developed through the protesting that followed, and how has their role in society been elevated or diminished once the revolution has come to an end?

Can the United States participation and ratification of the CEDAW promote a strong incentive for countries in the region to ratify the CEDAW themselves?

How can women play a more active role in the government, and what should they do to hold higher elected positions?

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.

General Assembly Reports to the Plenary
Different resolutions passed recently in the GA Third.

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

Topic 1 – Sexual Orientation:
Primary Sources
This contains excellent background information on issues of this topic and a wealth of sources that can contribute toward future research.

“Yogyakarta Principles on the Application of International Human Rights Law in Relation to Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity” March 2007
http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/48244e602.html
This is a good source for definitions and broad concepts.


There are press statements available for all of the countries the Special Rapporteur visited, but the information might prove overly detailed.


This report contains more information than any other document. It should serve as a foundation on which you build your knowledge of the topic through additional research.


Key Secondary Sources
This article includes information on the repercussions of laws that allow – and sometimes promote – violence toward people of different sexual orientations. It summarizes the situation well and provides quotes on the matter from several UN officials.

This is an excellent article that recapitulates the UN resolution on the matter. It also lists the countries that voted for/against the resolution and their grounds for why they voted that way.
This book explores the emotional/psychological impact of all forms of human rights violations in regards to sexual orientation, but especially those of physical violence.

The author gives general information on this topic and explores its multi-faceted nature.

Topic 2 – Transitioning Regimes:
Primary Sources
The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) works across the Arab region to help build and share their own solutions to problems effecting the area; specific to poverty reduction and achievement of millennium development goals, democratic governance, crisis prevention and recovery, and environment and sustainable development. Focusing on Women’s Empowerment, UNDP supports women’s empowerment and gender equality in the Arab states through various programmes.

Focuses on women’s rights and the Arab Spring in relation to the CEDAW and how they are key to leveraging government action in national law

Key Secondary Sources
This source details women’s efforts in Cairo, Egypt, specifically during the uprising that called for the removal of Hosni Mubarak and his regime. Women activist groups stood with men and organized protests, marched, and fought for a revolutionary change.

“Constitutional Reform: ADFM Memorandum,”
http://www.adfm.ma/spip.php?article1403&lang=en; “Des Marocaines militent pour l'égalité homme/femme dans la Constitution,” De Caroline TAIX (AFP), (May 12, 2011), http://www.google.com/hostednews/afp/article/ALeqM5gOv0CCqNYdIr76c0mpDzVk1MEwQw?docId=CNG.0944f388fe663cc8b4c80eadf9aa9f7c2.11
This is a framework of the constitutional reform process launched in Morocco under the Democratic Association of Moroccan Women (ADFM), among other Moroccan NGOs invited to submit propositions of reform.

Kendra Heideman and Mona Youssef, First. "Reflections on Women and the Arab Spring." Middle East Program.
The Reflections on Women and the Arab Springs represents various perspectives and the voiced opinions of women throughout the Arab region who are fighting for women’s liberation and rights.

Open Democracy gives a detailed account of the Tunisian progressive strides towards women’s rights; the Arab Springs redefined the roles of both women and Islam.


Wittes, Tamara. "Women and the Arab Spring." U.S. Department of State. http://www.state.gov/p/nea/rls/rls/176603.htm (accessed May 5, 2012). Testimony given by Tamara C. Wittes, Deputy Assistant Secretary, Bureau of Near Eastern Affairs and Deputy Special Coordinator for Middle East Transitions about women’s roles in Arab Springs and how the United States should aide this transition and promote their rights.

“Women activists call for ensuring equality in constitutional amendments,” Jordan Times, (August 17, 2011) http://www.jordantimes.com/index.php?news=40500 Focuses on the steps taken to amend the current constitution in favor of including equal women’s rights as men’s rights during the transitioning phases of Tunisia and Egypt.
History of the League of Arab States

The League of Arab States, informally known as the Arab League, is a regional organization consisting of Arabic-speaking states from North Africa and the Middle East. The idea for the league was first suggested by the UK, who aimed to gain the support of the Arabic countries for the Allies against the Axis powers during WWII. However, it did not come to fruition until 1945, towards the end of the war. Originally founded with only six members, it has grown to include twenty-two states: Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen.

Headquartered in Cairo, the Arab League meets biannually in March and September, but may hold a special session if requested by two members. It is composed of a council, special committees, a permanent secretariat, as well as an Arab Parliament. An elected Secretary-General leads the League, which is currently Egyptian Nabil Elaraby. While the league was created to foster good relations between Arab states, free Arab states from colonialism, and prevent the formation of a Jewish state out of Palestine, its agenda has greatly differentiated throughout its history.

Its constitution focuses on coordinating education, finance, law, trade, and foreign policy, but the Parliament only addresses social, cultural, and economic issues. The League has made great strides specifically in the economic sector, creating a successful postal union, common market, telecommunications union, and development bank. Historically, the League has opposed the creation of a Jewish state, but despite this opposition, Israel was able to remain stable. The League’s greatest challenge remains pursuing common social, cultural, and economic goals despite political conflict. For instance, Egypt was suspended from the Arab League between 1979 and 1989 for forming a treaty with Israel. Prior divisiveness stemmed from pro-Western versus pro-Soviet sentiment, whereas current conflict divides Islamic fundamentalists from Arab moderates. Despite these issues, the League has been successful at implementing lower-level policy like school curricula, but has shown great promise in presenting a unified front concerning the recent Arab Spring uprisings.

59 http://avalon.law.yale.edu/20th_century/arableag.asp
60 http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/middle_east/country_profiles/1550797.stm
61 Ibid
63 http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/middle_east/country_profiles/1550797.stm
Arab League Topic 1: Conflict in Syria

“It’s a tough neighborhood.” - Asma al-Assad, First Lady of Syria

Background:
1 country. 2 groups. 14 months of fighting. 400 children tortured. 9,000 people, including 500 children—dead.

The Syrian Arab Republic, an Arab country on the Mediterranean Sea in the Middle East, is experiencing turbulent conflict within its borders. Before discussing the details of Syria’s current conflict, however, it is important to briefly explore the country’s characteristics and its role in the world today.

Syria is centrally located within the Middle East, bordering the volatile countries of Iraq, Lebanon, Israel, Jordan, and Turkey. Originally part of the Ottoman Empire for many centuries, Syria eventually gained its independence from France in 1946. Following its independence, the country went through a period of transition until Hafiz al-Assad, a member of the Socialist Ba’th Party, gained power in 1970 through a coup. Today, the son of Hafiz al-Assad, Bashar al-Assad, is the President of Syria and controls all aspects of the Syrian government, along with fellow family members and other high ranking Ba’th Party members.

Generally speaking, Syria has been a safe and non-violent place for much of Bashar al-Assad’s presidency. Compared to its neighbors in Lebanon and Iraq, for example, Syria has not had any major armed conflict until now. In fact, Syria did not even directly intervene in the Israel-Hizballah conflict of 2006, despite its historical support of Hizballah. However, beginning in March 2011, protesters within Syria began speaking out against al-Assad and his regime’s policies. Soon after these protests, both the opposition groups and the Syrian government began using violent tactics. The regime of al-Assad is using violence to eliminate what the President considers a terrorist uprising, while the opposition is using violence to bring about regime change. Many of the Syrian people are still frustrated with the strict laws and practices of the Assad regime. Some of these practices include corruption at all levels of government, arresting Syrians without any formal charge, and outlawing opposition political parties.

Some consider the conflict to be civil war, others view it as a violent government crackdown on the masses, and the remaining observers see it as an unnecessary uprising by angry Sunni Muslims against an Alawite regime. In short, the conflict in Syria will be defined through the eye of each observer. Regardless of how each United Nations member defines the Syrian conflict, it is clear that much needs to be done to help the victims of the violence and assist the thousands of refugees that have been displaced by the war.

Current Situation:
A specific area of humanitarian concern within the Syrian conflict is the creation of thousands of Syrian refugees. The United Nations Refugee Agency was established by the 1951 Refugee Convention, which defined a refugee as someone who “owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality, and is unable to, or owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.” In short, a refugee is a
person who feels forced to leave their country in order to escape war, persecution, or natural disaster. Unfortunately, the current Syrian conflict has forced many people to leave the country and find a safer place to live while the fighting continues. Places like Turkey, Lebanon, Jordan, and Iraq are now home to the majority of Syrian refugees because of their proximity to Syria.

According to the United Nations Refugee Agency, these four countries are now home to 46,624 new Syrian refugees. The distribution of refugees (as of May 3, 2012) is as follows:

- Turkey: 23,955 individuals
- Lebanon: 10,704 individuals
- Jordan: 10,189 individuals
- Iraq: 1,776 individuals

In addition, there are minor settlements of Syrian refugees in other countries not listed. More convincing and tragic than the numbers, however, are the accounts of hardship that these refugees face on a daily basis. Many Syrian men and women wounded from the violence fear dying from further violence and try to escape to a nearby country for proper medical treatment. Besides the need for proper medical treatment, many refugees struggle to find enough food to feed their families and enough money to pay rent in their new home country. Furthermore, refugees struggle to find an identity in their new country and need help establishing a network of friends for further assistance. Turkey has already built extensive refugee camps near the Syrian border to help properly attend to these needs and Jordan plans on building more camps in the months to come. Lebanon and Iraq, however, have not matched the efforts of these other Middle Eastern countries. Some speculate, including Josh Wood of the New York Times, that the reason for Lebanon’s lack of refugee camps is because of the influence of Hizballah in the country. Since Hizballah is strongly supported by the Syrian government, some reason that Hizballah has restrained the Lebanese authorities from fully supporting the refugees. (Wood 2012) Regardless of the reason, 46,624 Syrian refugees need the help of the larger Arab community, the Middle East region, and the world, to preserve their dignity as humans and provide for the injured and starving children who will make up the next generation of Syrians.

Past UN and Arab League Action:
Although much further action needs to be taken to assist the refugees and end the fighting, the United Nations and the Arab League have addressed some of these issues in the past. It is important to use the previous work of these bodies and build on what has already been accomplished when working on new solutions for the Syrian crisis.

The following list briefly describes some previous statements and actions by the UN and the Arab League that either address the general issue of refugees worldwide or specifically, the Syrian conflict:

- **A/RES/66/176**
  This General Assembly resolution denounces the Syrian government’s handling of the conflict in Syria and its human rights abuses. (23 February 2012)

- **A/RES/66/133**
  This General Assembly resolution reaffirms the United Nations’ support for refugees worldwide and reminds the body that it is states’ primary responsibility to support and protect refugees. The resolution also emphasizes that it is the
obligation of states to accept their nationals back after civil conflict. (19 December 2011)

- UN-Arab League envoy Kofi Annan visits refugees in Turkey (10 April 2012)
- The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has listed its objectives for assisting the Syrian refugees during 2012. These objectives include: providing a favorable protection environment, security from violence and exploitation, fair protection processes and documentation, basic needs and essential services, community participation and self-management, and durable solutions.

Problems and questions to consider as you prepare:
The Syrian refugee crisis and the Syrian crisis as a whole is a cause for concern. The Arab League has historically been a unified group and should be able to unify now to ably support the Syrian refugees, especially the ones living in other Arab countries. The Arab League has an opportunity to set an example for the world— an example of how to properly assist refugees and mend the framework of a torn community. The hope of all Arab countries is that the Syrian refugees may one day return to their home country of Syria and live in peace.

Keeping this mind, here are some questions to consider when formulating ideas for possible Arab League solutions:

What should come first: extensively helping the refugees or ending the violence?

Is it possible to solve both the refugee crisis and the violent conflict in one resolution?

How will the Arab League specifically help the refugees?

What is most important for the refugees? Medical treatment? Food? Shelter? Money?

Who will fund the program to help the refugees? Will one country give more than others?

What countries are best able to help provide for the refugees?

What non-governmental organizations might be able to help?

Are the Arab host countries such as Lebanon, Jordan, and Iraq willing to give citizenship to the refugees? If not, how long are they planning on hosting the refugees?

Arab League Topic 2: Al-Qaida in the Islamic Maghreb

Background:
Al-Qaida in the Islamic Maghreb originated as Groupe Islamique Armeé (GIA). The GIA was founded in order to counter the secular Algerian government and install an Islamic theocratic state. It began during the 1992 elections when the Algerian military regime cancelled the second round of elections when it seemed that the Islamic Salvation Front, a group of Islamic militants who wanted to restore an Islamic theocracy, was going to win the elections. However, in 1996 a group split off from the GIA because they believed GIA’s tactics were too harsh, including
targeting the civilian population, and did not comply with the Islamist cause. *Groupe Salafiste pour la Prediction et le Combat* (GSPC) was established in 1998 and eventually surpassed GIA in support and numbers. However, GSPC was not known on the international scene until 2003. In 2003 GSPC kidnapped 32 European tourists in southern Algeria.64 The hostages were returned after the German government reportedly paid the ransom; however, it marked GSPC on the international scene. GSPC’s goal was to combat the Near Enemy, which refers to “waging jihad against local national governments, be they secular-nationalist, such as Algeria, or putatively Islamist but collaborating with the West, such as Saudi Arabia.”65 Al-Qaeda and Osama bin Laden voiced their support of the GSPC and therefore the GSPC adopted the rhetoric of “global jihad” from Al-Qaeda in 2000. Despite its proclamation in support for global jihad, Hassan Hattab, GSCP’s leader, was more dedicated to conducting national jihad. However, more members supported a more international outlook and Hattab was overthrown and Sahraoui took his place and then with Sahraoui’s death in 2004 Abdelmalek Droukdel took over.

Throughout the years there were continuing rumors about GSPC’s reported link to Al-Qaeda. The international community became very concerned with the reported link and also that “GSPC/AQIM [was] the only organized jihadist group that has operated in all four Sahelian countries, [Mali, Mauritania, Niger and Chad].”66 This concern was heightened by the invasion of Iraq by the United States of America. The invasion served as a major recruiting tool and brought GSPC and Al-Qaeda closer together. At the same time GSPC further expanded in to the Sahara-Sahel region which allowed them “access to contraband and human trafficking routes, [and helped] facilitate the funneling of militants to Iraq.”67 In 2005 GSPC launched a large offensive that killed 40 military personnel in Algeria and Mauritania.68 At this time the group also adopted Al-Qaeda’s tactics and targeted foreign entities by carrying out over 199 attacks.69 GSPC announced its merger with Al-Qaeda on September 11, 2006 via a videotape of Ayman al-Zawahiri, Al-Qaeda’s second in command.70 GSPC cemented its alliance with Al-Qaeda by changing its name to Al-Qa’ida in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM) in 2007. Once AQIM became an official entity of Al-Qa’ida, it added suicide bombings and propaganda videos to their tactics.71

**Recent Attacks:**
- April 11, 2007- Two buildings bombed, estimated 23 dead and over 160 injured in Algiers
- September 6, 2007- attempted assassination of Algerian president by suicide bomber, 20 dead, 107 injured
- December 2007- Two car bombs in Algiers killed 37 people, including 17 UN staff
- August 19 2008- suicide car bombing at a police college in Issers killed 48 people

65 Ibid. 17.
66 Ibid. 17.
67 Ibid. 16.
68 Ibid. 16.
69 Harmon, 16.
71 Harmon, 16.
• December 2008- UN Special Envoy Robert Fowler and his assistant were abducted in Niger and released in April 2009
• September 16, 2010- Five French, one Togolan and on Malagasy were kidnapped in Niger
• November 2011- kidnapped three Europeans and killed one German in Timbuktu, Mali
• December 9, 2011- publishes photos of five kidnapped persons
• April 5, 2012- During the rebellion in Mali the Algerian consul in Gao was kidnapped and released a few days later
• April 2012- Currently holding 18 hostages, 12 of them Europeans

AQIM is most known for the kidnappings it has carried out throughout the years. Kidnapping is a major source of their funding, but they also participate in smuggling and human trafficking. A report in 2007 also showed that GSPC/AQIM had been receiving funding from Osama bin Laden since the 1990s. Currently AQIM is holding 18 hostages.

Past Action:
Though all Member States have been unable to reach consensus on the definition of terrorism, the generally accepted definition is “any action, in addition to actions already specified by the existing conventions on aspects of terrorism, the Geneva Conventions and Security Council resolution 1566 (2004), that is intended to cause death or serious bodily harm to civilians or non-combatants, when the purpose of such an act, by its nature or context, is to intimidate a population, or to compel a Government or an international organization to do or to abstain from doing any act.”

Under the Al-Qaida Sanctions List AQIM is recognized as an official entity, QE.T.14.01, of Al Qaida and therefore all sanctions made against Al-Qaida in Security Council Resolution 1989 are also applicable to AQIM. Security Council Res/1989 proclaims that all Member States shall follow the measures set forth in resolution 1333 (2000), which include:
• Freezing all funds or another financial assets
• Preventing entry in to or transit through their territories
• Denying them a safe haven
• Preventing recruitment
• Preventing the supply or sale of weapons or vehicles to these individuals and preventing the use or landing of any aircraft or other vessel that is owned, leased or operated by them.

Resolution 1989 also notes the use of kidnapping and hostage-taking with the aim of raising funds for gain political concessions and therefore calls on all Member States to not pay ransoms or release prisoners in cooperation for the release of those kidnapped or taken hostage. Security Council Res/1267 and 1373 created the universal legal regime against terrorism, which, along with other relevant resolutions, were adopted under Chapter VII of the United Nations Charter making them legally binding on all Member States. The provisions previously stated

72 Hansen and Vriens, 5.
73 Ibid. 2.
74 Al Qaida Sanctions List. The List established and maintained by the 1267 Committee with respect to individuals, groups, undertakings and other entities associated with Al-Qaida.
under SC/1989 are all legally binding. SC/1373 also established the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC), which works to increase the capacity of Member States to prevent and combat terrorism. The Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (CTED) was established by the Security Council to help facilitate the work of the CTC. CTED “conducts expert assessments of each Member State and facilitates counter-terrorism technical assistance to countries.”

On September 8, 2006, Member States adopted General Assembly Resolution 60/288 creating The United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy. The Strategy is comprised of a Plan of Action with four main pillars:

I. Measures to address the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism
II. Measures to prevent and combat terrorism
III. Measures to build States’ capacity to prevent and combat terrorism and to strengthen the role of the United Nations system in this regard
IV. Measures to ensure respect for human rights for all and the rule of law as the fundamental basis of the fight against terrorism.

The African Union (AU) also created the AU Plan of Action on the Prevention and Combatting of Terrorism in Africa. The AU Plan of Action focuses on law enforcement measures, the reduction of poverty and the reduction of marginalization of certain groups of people since these situations are conducive to the emergence of terrorist groups.

The United States of America has played a very active role in addressing terrorism in the Sahara-Sahel region. The Pan Sahel Initiative (PSI) is a security program for the Sahel founded by the US. A joint action between PSI and Sahelian states culminated to the capture of Saifi, a GSPC leader who conducted the kidnapping of 32 Europeans in 2003. The US Congress then expanded the PSI to include nine North and West African countries called the Trans-Saharan Counter-Terrorism Partnership (TSCTP). The TSCTP aims to enhance the capacity of partnering states to prevent and combat terrorism by promoting democratic governance, institutionalizing the cooperation between regional security forces and encouraging bilateral military ties with the US.

**Questions to consider as you prepare:**
Thus far The League of Arab States has not played a big role in dealing with AQIM. Should they step in and address the threat AQIM posses to North and West Africa, and potentially the world?

If so, what role should they play?

Could democratization be a process towards preventing and countering terrorism?

How should sovereignty be addressed in the face of terrorism?

What role should AFRICOM take in fighting AQIM?

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76 United Nations, Security Council, Counter-Terrorism Committee.
What role should regional organizations, such as AU, ECOWAS, CEN-SAD, play in combating AQIM?

The fall of Gaddafi and the crisis in Libya have left the Sahara-Sahel region relatively unstable. How has the return of ex-combatants affected AQIM and Sahelian countries?

Is there an advantage to countering AQIM in North Africa and the Sahel rather than Al-Qaida in the Middle East?

**Arab League Bibliography**

**Background:**
BBC Profile: Arab League
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/middle_east/country_profiles/1550797.stm
This BBC profile provides the equivalent of a CIA country profile for the Arab League

Credo Reference, Arab League entry
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/middle_east/country_profiles/1550797.stm
Scholarly encyclopedia entry on the Arab League


**Topic 1 – Conflict in Syria:**

**Primary Sources**
A/RES/66/176
*This General Assembly resolution denounces the Syrian government’s handling of the conflict in Syria and its human rights abuses. (23 February 2012)*

A/RES/66/133
*This General Assembly resolution reaffirms the United Nations’ support for refugees worldwide and reminds the body that it is states’ primary responsibility to support and protect refugees. The resolution also emphasizes that it is the obligation of states to accept their nationals back after civil conflict.*

**Key Secondary Sources**
Kofi Annan visits Syrian refugees in Turkey camp (The Telegraph 2012)
*As the violence continues despite the ceasefire deadline, UN-Arab League envoy Kofi Annan meets Syrian refugees in a Turkey camp.*

This article discusses the hardships that Syrian refugees are facing in Lebanon.

Syrian ceasefire plan still alive, says Kofi Annan after deadline passes (The Guardian 2012)
This article discusses the recent cease-fire agreement in Syria, which was brokered by the Arab League.
http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2012/apr/10/syrian-ceasefire-plan-alive-annan

Syria Conflict Spills Across Two Borders (The Associated Press 2012)
This article points out the violent effects of the Syrian conflict in neighboring countries.

Syria Regional Refugee Response (UNHCR 2012)
This is a very useful and informative data chart, provided by the United Nations. It shows the distribution of Syrian refugees in the different countries of the Middle East.
http://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/regional.php

Turkey accepts international aid for Syrian refugees (Reuters 2012)
This article reports that Turkey, a new home for almost 25,000 Syrian refugees, has accepted aid money from the UNHCR to assist in providing care for the refugees.

UN agency gears up for spike in Syrian refugees (The Jordan Times 2012)
This article discusses the increase in Syrian refugees in the neighboring country of Jordan and its implications for the country and the Middle East region as a whole.
http://jordantimes.com/un-agency-gears-up-for-spike-in-syrian-refugees

U.N., partners now assisting 20,000 Syrians in Lebanon (The Daily Star 2012)
There are over 20,000 Syrian refugees in Lebanon and this article discusses the UN’s assistance to these refugees. The UNHCR is asking for Lebanese host families and provided other forms of shelter and food.
http://www.dailystar.com.lb/News/Local-News/2012/Apr-14/170249-un-partners-now-assisting-20000-syrians-in-lebanon.ashx#axzz1rxmmWe00

This press release from 2011 condemn the escalating violence in Syria, including deliberate attacks on civilians by Syrian police forces.

Topic 2 - AQIM
UN Sources
Shows that AQIM is an entity of Al-Qaida and therefore all of the sanctions that apply to Al-Qaida also apply to AQIM.


The CTC is a committee overseen by the Security Council that works to support Member States’ capacities to prevent and fight against terrorism.


It addresses the UNODC’s counter-terrorism mandate, its framework to address terrorism and measures to prevent terrorism. It also addresses donor support and financial aid for fighting terrorism.


Calls for bilateral cooperation between the Sahel and Maghreb states with UN organizations, international organizations the African Union and other regional organizations to tackle terrorism in the region.


Includes all sanctions against Al-Qaida and all affiliate organizations.


Talks about regional and national activities and workshops that have been implemented in certain countries to teach them how to deal with terrorism. There a couple that have been implemented throughout North Africa and through the Sahel.


One of the only documents that reached a consensus on how to fight terrorism. Reveals the strategies that they wish each member state of the UN to implement and follow.


Addresses different strategies to combat terrorism in Africa. Calls for the unification of countries to help stop and persecute terrorists in North Africa.
UN official calls for mechanism to address problems facing Africa’s Sahel region. UN News Centre, January 26, 2012.

Calls for a mechanism to be implemented in the Maghreb/Sahel states to help combat the problems facing that region. It traces the problem to pre-Libya and talks about how the problem in Libya also furthered the problem.

Secondary Sources

Explains the goals of AQIM and its connection to Al-Qa’ida.


Depicts the revolutions from GIA to GSPC to AQIM and the affects of the Sahelianization of AQIM.


Describes the Partnership program and past history and actions of AQIM and how the Partnership has dealt with them.


A partnership with the U.S. military to fight terrorism in Africa. Includes initiatives taken from this cooperation to help strengthen local governments’ capacities to stop and prevent terrorism in their region.
Commission on Sustainable Development
History of the Commission on Sustainable Development

The Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) is a part of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), which belongs to the General Assembly. It was founded in 1992 as a direct result of the Rio Conference on Environment and Development and was endowed with promoting sustainable development measures internationally. The Rio Conference established Agenda 21, a plan for countries to encourage sustainable development in the 21st century. This agenda laid out four principle guidelines:

- Integrated Decision Making: decisions should be informed, giving weight to environmental, economic, and equity issues equally
- Sustainable Consumption and Production: methods and technologies should be sustainable
- Intergenerational Equity: decisions should not adversely affect future generations
- Precautionary Principle: people should take precautions to protect the environment and human health if it is a result of development

The CSD consists of 53 members who are elected by Member States for three-year terms. These members meet in New York for two weeks per year with the purpose of integrating environment and development issues with government plans in Member States. It largely makes recommendations for governments to follow, but falls into the inevitable challenge that their recommendations cannot be enforced. A second focus of the CSD is promoting and financing the use of sustainable methods and technologies in development.

The CSD has faced criticism that it is toothless and has not had any significant achievements, attributable to its organization under the large umbrella of the General Assembly. More recently, it has reformulated its structure to include seven themed two-year cycles, with each cycle including a Review Year and Policy Year. Review Years are meant to analyze progress and regression by identifying obstacles that still remain, and Policy Years effect new solutions to re-energize sustainable development plans. For the 2012-2012 cycle, the CSD will focus on forests, biodiversity, biotechnology, tourism, and mountains using possible solutions like changing patterns of consumption and production; protecting and managing the natural resource base of economic and social development, and sustaining development in a globalizing world.

CSD Topic 1: Investment/Aid to Ensure Sustainable Development

Background:
Sustainable development is the foundation of a prosperous world-wide economy. Lesser Developed Countries (LDCs) have been striving for years to find ways to improve their economies, but without outside help, this is a difficult undertaking. The common practice in the past has been to provide aid to the governments of these LDCs, but thus far this has not produced profound results. Corruption, mismanagement and allocation of funds, and a lack of financial

81 Commission on Sustainable Development. (2002). In International Encyclopedia of Environmental Politics.
understanding have all contributed to this lack of success. While aid given by developed nations to LDCs has helped countless individuals over the years, there is much room for improvement. Developing nations are currently having issues with aid due to the context in which it is given. Often, aid is provided from other nations with political undertones, making it nearly impossible for an LDC to receive and allocate funds correctly. When a developed nation gives aid to a developing nation, stipulations can be attached; this puts pressure on the government receiving the funds to fulfill the expectations of another state. When outside forces are influencing how a nation is run, it makes it difficult to help the areas that are actually in need. One way to alleviate this issue is to switch from “aid” to “investment.” Under this scenario, when a nation or NGO makes an investment, the only thing expected in return is profit from their investment. Thus, these returns will not only benefit the nation receiving the investment, but the investors as well. Securing a successful partnership within a developing economy is one way to ensure growth and profitable return on investment (ROI) over time. Furthermore, this approach could address many of the factors that are currently impeding the growth of formal economies in developing nations.

Case Study: Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Africa
In a quest to attract a larger portion of Foreign Investment flows, many African nations have opened their economies to investment by reducing barriers applicable to foreign investment. In general, countries have changed their policies to focus less on certain sectors or foreign investors and have attempted to promote broad private-sector participation in economic development. Ghana, for example, has promoted FDI by reducing the number of industries that were previously closed to foreign investment. These more lax regulations allowed international corporations and foreign investors to have greater access to the projects that they wanted to fund.

The Current Situation and Previous UN and International Actions:
The current state of promoting sustainable development in LDCs is something that has been addressed countless times by international organizations, including the United Nations, over the years. With increased attention being placed on this issue and how to improve the economies of LDCs, progress has been made in recent years. There are many conferences, summits, and resolutions that detail how to best address this issue, with some of the more prominent ones being the Rio+20 summit and the World Summit on Sustainable Development. This topic is something that is currently being worked on by various bodies, and some of the results of these workings are listed below.

Nearly every topic the United Nations discusses can be linked to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The topic of ensuring sustainable development is correlated with many of the MDGs, but specifically Goal 1. Goal 1, the eradication of poverty and hunger is something that can be achieved only through sustained growth and development in the economies of the world. When resolutions are written on sustainable development, it is common place to explain the impact it will have on the eradication of poverty and hunger and the other MDGs.

The Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) is another previous UN action that is extremely relevant to this topic. This document, also known as the Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development, discusses many different aspects
of sustainable development and how to achieve it. In this plan, the WSSD analyzed what it takes to foster growth and development, especially in African nations. They built upon earlier declarations by the UN including the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, and came up with a more inclusive plan of action. Included in this document are steps on how to implement the necessary institutional framework, how to develop international partnerships, and how to gain the participation of major groups.¹

Resolution C 58/26 from the Official Journal of the European Union also pertains to fostering sustainable development and the impact of FDI on Africa, the Caribbean, and the Pacific states. This resolution states that attracting FDI has “assumed a prominent place in economic renewal strategies.” The EU is stating here that they believe that since there are inadequate resources that promote long-term development in LDCs, they are forced to find alternative sources of funding. The most effective and proven of these alternative sources is FDI. Its success is due in part to the accountability that is given to both sides of the equation, which makes for smoother relations and more effective growth.⁹

Finally, a simple search of UN documents results in over 50 resolutions that have been passed on this subject since 1971. These documents and papers cover every angle of the topic including its impact on the environment, different regional approaches to promoting sustainable development, and how to develop international cooperation on the issue.⁴ While the primary subjects of the discussion on fostering sustainable development are LDCs, every nation will benefit from its growth. Developing nations will have improvements in their formal economies, which will help eradicate some of the hunger and poverty issues many citizens face. Developed nations, on the other hand, will benefit by having an increased number of viable trade partners to work with. The primary and most important byproduct of improved sustainable development in LDCs is a healthy global economy, which will benefit every citizen of the world.¹⁰

Questions to Consider:
Why has aid not fostered sustained development?
What improvements will investment have over aid in terms of sustainable development?

To whom should investments be given to ensure investors that their funds are being properly utilized?
Which projects or infrastructure should be built up in order to improve sustainable development?

How can the governments of the developing nations be held responsible for the aid and investments that are being given to them?

Where would it be best for these investments to come from?

Will following Ghana’s example of lowering regulations on foreign investors be enough to promote FDI in other nations?
**CSD Topic 2: Sustainable Development of Groundwater Resources**

**Background:**
Nearly all environmental issues are affected by water. Mountains, wetlands, estuaries, and mammals intermingle with water. Extracting water from the ground can be very beneficial, yet having water mined from its indigenous ecosystem affects every system differently. This decade’s aim is for a clear and precise understanding of the environment and its most pertinent commodity. Water is “prerequisite for human health and well-being as well as for the preservation of the environment.”

Every single year millions of people, most of them children, die from diseases directly linked to an inadequate water supply.

The need for clean water sustainability is clear because over 800 million people still lack a safe water source.

On 22 March 2012 Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon clarified the importance of sustainability on World Water Day: “Over the coming decades, feeding a growing global population and ensuring food and nutrition security for all will depend on increasing food production. This, in turn, means ensuring the sustainable use of our most critical finite source – water.”

The proposal for adequate fresh water is relevant for prosperity and sustainable development. Water that is plentiful and pure should be on everyone’s global wish list. The best way to aid the world community is to get on board with the United Nations water goals. Right now UN-Water is implementing change for the 'Water for Life' Decade. This agenda is paramount because according to IFAD, roughly “70 per cent of the world’s water resources are used for agriculture and by 2025 two-thirds of the population could struggle to get access to this resource.”

This pertinent call for preserving the most important environmental commodity of our time is being addressed in the UN General Assembly. Resolution A/RES/58/217, decreed 2005-2015 as the International Decade for Action “Water for Life.”

**Ground Water**
Every area of ensuring water sustainability needs to be utilized. One major undervalued area is the vast amounts of water flowing beneath almost every terrain. One-half of the United States uses potable ground water as their main water source.

“The sustainability of ground-water resources is a function of many factors, including decreases in ground-water storage, reductions in streamflow and lake levels, loss of wetland and riparian ecosystems, land subsidence, saltwater intrusion, and changes in ground-water quality.” Each system is unique and requires a multifaceted approach, yet all harvesting and sustaining options are on the table. No international organization has implemented water sustainability as successfully as the UN.

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84 Ibid
85 Ensuring access to water for agriculture vital for sustainable future UN
86 Ibid
88 Ensuring access to water for agriculture vital for sustainable future UN
91 Ibid
**Past UN Action:**
The UN Conference on the Human Environment in 1972 was the very first UN conference to address international environmental issues. The core of the conference was a recognition that “natural ecosystems, must be safeguarded for the benefit of present and future generations through careful planning”. Additionally, in 1987 the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), produced “the Brundtland Report” which established the most all-encompassing definition of sustainable development: “Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” This eloquently summarizes our struggle for utilizing natural clean water sources like underground water without depletion or contamination.

An ensuing major UN endeavor was the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development. This summit was the first international attempt to implement the sustainable ideas into development. The most pertinent achievement for water was Agenda 21 which was the most innovative agreement to date. According to Ulrika Palme Agenda 21 “can be seen as an internationally recognized implementation plan for sustainable development.” Millennium Development Goals ratified by the General Assembly in 2000 was another land mark consensus. Goal seven targets efforts needed to bring drinking water to all rural households. Also the UN Earth Summit on SD in Johannesburg 2002 provided three strategic developments: a political declaration reaffirming the commitment to the implementation of Agenda 21, the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation. While many thoughtful and helpful solutions exist, they all have been unsuccessfully implemented and require further obligatory legislation. The nonbinding commitments from the Johannesburg convention included those on sustainable consumption of water and sanitation management. It also reaffirms and empowers other UN documents such as Agenda 21 and various MDGs.

The only thing constant in environmental change is the change. Plans of action must be nimble enough to adapt adequately without ridged or cemented guidelines. Consequently the change needs to be monitored. The World Water Assessment Programme (WWAP) is an UN-based water department hosted and led by UNESCO. It monitors freshwater issues in order to provide comprehensive recommendations for water sustainability. Programs like this are pertinent for adapting to change. UNESCO’s International Hydrological Programme is an “intergovernmental programme of the UN system devoted to water research, water resources management, education and capacity-building.” The UN mandated IWRM Task Force made up of UN-Water agencies and partner organizations is another body created to monitor change.

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92 Palme, Ulrika. "TOSCA sustainability framework | History and definitions of sustainable development."
93 Palme, Ulrika. "TOSCA sustainability framework | History and definitions of sustainable development."
94 Ibid
95 Ibid
96 Ibid
98 Palme, Ulrika. "TOSCA sustainability framework | History and definitions of sustainable development."
99 Ibid
100 United Nations Division for Sustainable Development-WSSD Plan of Implementation - Chapter 4
102 Ibid
103 Ibid
2008, the Task Force on IWRM completed its mandate when it presented the 'Status Report on Integrated Water Resources Management and Water Efficiency Plans' at the sixteenth session of the Commission on Sustainable Development. Also in 2008, the UN-Water combined the Task Force on IWRM and the Task Force on Monitoring to create an all-inclusive “Task Force on Indicators, Monitoring and Reporting.” This team will provide educated advice for maintainable development.

This year, the UN will further examine and extend calls for sustainable development and reverse degradation in Rio + 20. The Zero Draft is the rough draft for Rio 20 that will be discussed and tweaked according to environmental needs. It contains viable and practicable changes and according to Hohnen – formerly a diplomat, director of Greenpeace International and director of the Global Reporting Initiative – the language in the text echoes that which emerged from the 1992 Rio de Janeiro and 2002 Johannesburg summits, encouraging voluntary reporting.” Hohnen also comments, “sustainability reporting will not reach its full potential without government mandates, at least for the biggest companies.” His innovative idea would require the Rio+20 to adopt a “report or explain” formula. This hypothetically would mandate governments to require companies to print sustainability performance reports. This however cannot be fully implemented by the General Assembly.

Problems and Possible Solutions:
When broadly considered, water management strategies are composed of a small number of applicable approaches. Everyone wants clean uncontaminated water without a plundered ecosystem. Ideas that will lead to sustainability are always multifaceted, and pumping groundwater is one of those viable solutions. Yet experts believe you need to utilize other sources of water besides ground water because a lot of times groundwater sources are too delicate and fragile for mass pumping. Too much pumping has caused undesirable effects and can lead to shortages caused by depletion. Moreover, one isolated solution is rarely the all-inclusive answer and typically the sustainable way requires a grouping of approaches. Additionally water may need to be added to encourage inflow from surface-water bodies. The most sustainable solution might yield the least water. Ways to jump start the ecosystem into one day producing a constant viable water source might actually require tapping less groundwater.

Questions to Consider as You Prepare:
What constitutes water sustainability?
What is the best way to utilize potable ground water?

105 Ibid
107 “UN Documents Propose Mandatory Sustainability Reporting • Environmental Management & Energy News • Environmental Leader.”
108 Ibid
109 Ibid
110 Ally, M.W., T.E. Reilly, and O.L. Franke. "Circular 1186." “Ground-water pumpage can lead to three possible affects. “(1) an increase in pumpage that results in a new equilibrium of the ground-water system, (2) a decrease in pumpage that results in a new equilibrium of the ground-water system, or (3) a change in the spatial distribution of pumpage to minimize its existing or potential unwanted effects.”
111 Ibid
Possible solutions to water sustainability could be to tap into the ground or reallocate water from more supple regions. This requires resources. Who will fund needed developments?

Growing crops that need less water might be viable in an arid climate. Importing less demanding water crops is another viable option. Who will implement this transfer?

Could mandates for a failure to comply with UN resolutions be implemented with punitive damages?

Which water supplies are stable enough for harvest, and how much can you harvest without depletion?

Can nations be compelled or forced to help others nations achieve basic survival needs? If not, how can they be convinced to help ensure clean water to indigent countries?

**Conclusion:**
The future looks bright. The “UN Conference on Sustainable Development ((Rio+20)) taking place in Rio de Janeiro in June”\(^{112}\) will most likely reaffirm and strengthen the global response to sustaining such a pertinent resource. In your research, you should consider the results of this conference.

**CSD Bibliography**

**Background:**


**Topic 1 – Sustainable development:**
Primary Sources

\(^{112}\) Ensuring access to water for agriculture vital for sustainable future UN."
This contains the outcomes from the World Summit on Sustainable Development. This will be helpful to look at because it lists what occurred at the summit, which provides insight into what is currently going on to help with sustainable development.

http://www.uncsd2012.org/rio20/content/documents/FINAL%20VERSION.%20The%20Road%20Map%20to%20Rio.pdf

The source here is a document that outlines and provides background on the issues that have led to the Rio+20 conference. It highlights what is in the Rio+20 resolution and what it will solve.

http://www.un-documents.net/a57r254.htm

This is a resolution that highlights the importance of education in fostering sustainable development. It provides an interesting alternative solution that students could use.

http://www.un-documents.net/k-001303.htm

These are the search results of UN documents with the key words “Sustainable Development” there are over 50 articles in this list, many of which will be quality resolutions or sources to use.


While this article discusses energy rather than sustainable development, energy is a large part of a formal economy. With improved energy sources, a nation will have an easier time developing their formal economy.


This is the Johannesburg plan for implementation. A UN ECOSOC Division on Sustainable Development paper that focuses on how to foster and improve sustainable development with a focus on Africa. The article speaks of the importance of using international aid and partnerships.


This is a resolution that was adopted by the General Assembly that focuses on sustainable development in the SIDS region (Small Island Developing States). It will be a helpful source because a country could see what has worked in the SIDS region, and try to implement it in other areas.


These are the Millennium Development Goals. These goals include some on poverty eradication and sustainable development.

Key Secondary Sources


This is a resolution from the official journal of the EU which states the importance of FDI in order to foster sustainable development in Africa and other regions. This provides a good perspective because rather than being sponsored by LDCs this was written by the more developed nations of the EU.

This source is a large selection of case studies of FDI in Africa.

http://www.milkeninstitute.org/events/gcprogram.taf?function=detail&EvID=1701&eventid=gc09

This is a report from the Milken institute that details why switching from an aid based approach to an investment based approach will help foster better international growth (you need to create a profile to view the slides, but it's free to do so.)

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wAcfYyPOaWA

This is a video clip from the same conference as above. It provides some background and gives the students a good start to developing their opinions and ideas.

**Topic 2 – Groundwater**

**Primary Sources**


Developing integrated water resource management over water efficiency. We should be protecting and handling the natural resource base of economic and social development by implementing and encouraging other countries to change.


Water and food security are stressed in this article because 800 million still lack a safe supply of freshwater and the need for sustainable water is crucial.


The water for life decade has arrived. This article is All about the Water for Life' Decade and various past UN decisions.


Liquid language is about water’s importance in other realms of sustainable development. Water is involved in other aspects of life including just about everything. Why isn’t water on the top of everyone’s list? Its a quintessential component for life, water permeates everything worldwide, whether in relation to personal or societal survival, the status and health of the global environment relies chiefly on water.
Various visions on what exactly the Rio+20 summit will entail. Also this article iterates recommendation to pursue in the global fight for water sustainability.

Everything you could possibly want to know about the United Nations Millennium Development Goals is contained on this website.

Secondary Sources
Underground water is everywhere. We should be putting it away in times of abundance and retrieving it in times of need. Can we sustainably access water stored in surface reservoirs? This article assesses underground water in amazing detail.

This article recognizes that water is fundamental to sustainable development and a basic component of national and regional ecosystems. Diminishing water supplies now are a results of population growth both consumptive and non-consumptive uses. In many parts of the world, current patterns of development and use are not sustainable.

This article lists water development chronologically. It states various key works of the environmental movement, starting with Carson’s Silent Spring in 1962 and ending with Rio. A vivid description of the earth’s exploitation is iterated. This has led to unsustainable economic growth and population growth.
Security Council
History 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:

Terms ending in 2012
Colombia
Germany
India
Portugal
South Africa

Terms ending in 2013
Azerbaijan
Guatemala
Morocco
Pakistan
Togo

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.
Security Council Topic 1: Nuclear Development in Iran

Background:
Iran has a long history of nuclear endeavors and expansion. In 1957, Iran and the United States signed a civil nuclear cooperation agreement. As a part of a “misguided” Cold War program named Atoms for Peace, the U.S. supplied highly enriched uranium to Iran to support their emerging nuclear program. Iran’s first nuclear advancement began in the 1960s under the sponsorship of the U.S. within the parameters of the bilateral agreement. The first significant nuclear facility, built by the Shah, was the Tehran Nuclear Research Center (TRNC), founded in 1967, centered in Tehran University and run by the Atomic Energy Organization of Iran (AEOI). This facility safeguarded a 5-megawatt nuclear research reactor that was supplied by the U.S. in 1967. Additionally, Iran signed the Nuclear Proliferation Treaty in 1968 on the day it was opened for signature.

With the support of the U.S., Iran’s nuclear program continued to progress. Yet it was the dramatic increase in the price of oil following war between Arab countries and Israel that provided the Shah’s government with a substantial increase in resources for Iran’s development. With many promising developments in the Iranian economy, the U.S. and western countries continued to support Iranian nuclear advancement. As a result, in the 1970s Iran was awarded many contracts from western companies.

Cooperation continued until the 1979 Iranian Revolution. Following the revolution, the Shah was ousted, and the Iranian government temporarily suspended most components of the program. Afterward, the program was recovered with less U.S. aid than before the Iranian Revolution. Therefore, all U.S.-Iran Nuclear Energy Agreements were voided by the new Iranian government. In the aftermath of the eight-year war with Iraq, Iranian infrastructure was damaged immensely, extending to the most advanced nuclear reactor.

Because Iran had an unstable government and infrastructure, the need for nuclear advancements was not prevalent until the 1980s. During this time, the Iranian government sought to renew their nuclear program. However, without the support from the West, many companies were not interested in investing in Iran’s nuclear program.

After years of searching for a Western investor, the Iranian government turned to the Soviet Union, which later became the Russian Federation. In 1991, Iran secretly imported uranium from China with neither country reporting the transfer to the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). While China was not obligated to do so, Iran was under a safeguard agreement with the IAEA which required a report. Iran, with the increased support of China and Russia, continued to violate IAEA safeguards with the advancements of design drawings, centrifuges, and enriched uranium.

114 http://www.nti.org/e_research/profiles/Iran/Nuclear/index.html
115 http://iranprimer.usip.org/resource/iran-nuclear-program
116 Ibid
Current Issue at Hand and Past UN Action:
International notice of the Iranian nuclear program was raised during the summer of 2002 as two nuclear sites were revealed by an exiled resistance group. Within a short time, the governments around the globe realized that Iran had the ability to enrich uranium, which could fuel nuclear weapons as well as nuclear reactors. However, the Iranian government insisted that the enriched uranium would be used for peaceful purposes and consistent with civilian nuclear power plants.\(^{117}\) Iran also claimed that the clandestine nature of past nuclear advancements was due to the lack of Western support.

After the news was leaked worldwide, the IAEA launched an investigation in 2003. The IAEA found that Iran had violated the NPT safeguards agreement to report activities to the IAEA. However, they did not find any evidence that Iran was seeking to develop nuclear weapons. Despite the importance of the findings, the IAEA report was not filed until 2005. Also, the IAEA did not report a report of non-compliance to the United Nations Security Council in 2006. The Security Council subsequently took action by imposing sanctions after Iran refused to halt nuclear advancements.

In 2006, President Ahmadinejad announced the successful enrichment of uranium in Iran, prompting action from the UNSC. Following the report by the IAEA, the UN adopted Resolution 1696 (SC/8792), which was adopted by the United Nations Security Council on July 31, 2006. This resolution marks the first reaction by the UNSC on Iran’s nuclear program. This resolution demanded a suspension of all nuclear enrichment activities. It also invoked Chapter VII of the UN Charter, making it legally binding.\(^ {118}\) However, Iran failed to abide by this resolution.

Due to non-compliance, sanctions against Iran were increased by Resolution 1747 on March 24, 2007.\(^ {119}\) This resolution imposed a ban on arms sales and froze all assets. After Iran opposed this resolution and failed to suspend uranium enrichment, Resolution 1803 was adopted on March 8, 2008,\(^ {120}\) requiring Iran to cease and desist from all research and development associated with uranium enrichment. In response to a September 15 report by the IAEA\(^ {121}\) which stated that Iran failed to cease uranium enrichment, the UNSC adopted Resolution 1835 (SC/9459) which further reiterated earlier resolutions and sanctions.\(^ {122}\)

After the sanctions were imposed, Iran continued to enrich uranium. President Ahmadinejad responded to the sanctions with a press release in July of 2008 questioning, “Again, did nuclear arms help the Soviet Union from falling and disintegrating? For that matter, did a nuclear bomb help the U.S. to prevail inside Iraq or Afghanistan? Nuclear bombs belong to the 20th century. We are living in a new century ... Nuclear energy must not be equaled to a nuclear bomb.”\(^ {123}\) His statement signified to the international community a sign of Iranian non-compliance for years to come. Despite a complete arms embargo, a limit on exports, travel restrictions, and freezing assets, Iran has continued to be non-compliant with the United Nations. Furthermore, Iran has

\(^{117}\) http://www.un.int/iran/facts_about_peaceful_nuclear_program.pdf
\(^{118}\) http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2006/sc8792.doc.htm
\(^{120}\) http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2008/sc9459.doc.htm
\(^{123}\) http://www.msnbc.msn.com/id/25887437/ns/nightly_news/t/transcript-response-will-be-positive-one/
opened a new reactor called the Bushehr I on September 12, 2011, in addition to another nuclear power plant in Darkhovin. Iran has continued to openly defy UN and has no intention to stop their nuclear program.

Problems and Possible Solutions to Consider:

International Law
The definition of Nuclear Development is not universally accepted. At what point does a nation pose an imminent threat to national or world peace? For example, the UN imposed sanctions on the assumption that Iran was enriching uranium for the purpose of building nuclear weapons. However, Iran claims that nuclear development does not mean that they are enriching uranium with the intention of building weapons of mass destruction. Defining when a country surpassed the threshold of peaceful nuclear development must be considered and defined before action may be taken.

The diffusion of technology
History has taught us that technology invented and used anywhere is sooner or later diffused everywhere provided that is serves an economic, social, and/or political purpose. Nuclear technology provides a very efficient way of producing electricity. However, due to the unstable and harmful effects of the byproducts of nuclear technology, this practice is extremely volatile. It must be considered that this technology and all technology will continue to diffuse. Controlling this diffusion is a daunting task, especially if this technology has the ability to bring economic success. However, the diffusion of this technology to non-state actors must be the main focus. But at what point is a country unstable enough to need regulation? 124

Is the Iran Nuclear Program for Peaceful Purposes?
The ‘norm model’ proposed by Scott Sagan offers an assessment of a state’s nuclear intentions. From this model it is possible to conclude that Iran does not pose a threat to the United States. “Nuclear weapons, like other weapons, are more than a tool of national security; they are political objects of considerable importance in domestic debates and internal bureaucratic struggles and can also serve as international normative symbols of modernity and identity.”125

P5+1
In June of 2006, China, Russia, and the US joined three EU countries to offer a comprehensive proposal for negotiations with Iran. The following are the key points of the proposal:

- Iran’s suspension of enrichment-related facilities and reprocessing activities
- The establishment of a mechanism to review this moratorium
- Iran’s redemption of the Additional Protocol
- The provision of state-of-the-art light water reactors to Iran through joint projects, along with nuclear guarantees and a 5-year buffer stock of fuel
- Suspension of the discussion of Iran’s nuclear program in the UNSC

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• Cooperation on civil aviation, telecommunications, high technology, agriculture, and other areas between the US, EU, and Iran.\textsuperscript{126}

This proposal was rejected due to imposition on state sovereignty. This shows that while plans can outline specific solutions to problems, state sovereignty still remains an obstacle to formulating a solution.

**Diplomatic Solutions**

As Iran continues down the path of nuclear weapon technology, it becomes increasingly more important and difficult to prevent a nuclear-armed Iran while creating a political consensus in Tehran. However, diplomatic solutions should not be abandoned. The threat of military action makes the current situation more important to show that the international community can resolve issues of the highest concern. Iran must build confidence within the international community; in doing so, a sustainable engagement of diplomacy may be reached. Some proposed solutions include the “fuel swap.” This plan was developed by the IAEA as a confidence-building measure. It focuses on the regulation of Iran’s enriched uranium that requires Iran to export low-enriched uranium to Russia where it is further enriched. Afterward, France manufactures the fuel rods and delivers them to Iran. In addition, the US would work with the IAEA to improve safety and control over enriched uranium. This poses a viable plan to help Iran advance their nuclear ambitions without imposing economic sanctions. However, the deal was ultimately rejected by Iran. Later amendments to this plan called the “Tehran Declaration” were released by Iran, but the US, France, and Russia rejected it on the grounds that it didn’t address newly enriched uranium.\textsuperscript{127}

**Questions to consider as you prepare:**

How does Iran’s nuclear program affect your country’s economy, political image, and national security?

At what point does a country pose an imminent threat to World Peace?

At what point should diplomatic solutions evolve into military intervention?

How can the confidence of Iran be increased in the international community to ensure its stability?

What does a Nuclear Program reveal about a country? Does it show modernity and prestige or defiance?

Does the NPT hypocritically control nations from achieving respect in the international community? Can successful Nuclear Technology provide diplomatic leverage in the International Community?

\textsuperscript{126} http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Iran_Nuclear_Proposals
\textsuperscript{127} http://www.armscontrol.org/files/Iran_Brief_Charting-a-Diplomatic-Path-on-the-Iran-Nuclear_Challenge.pdf
Security Council Topic 2: Criminalizing Terrorist Financiers

Background on Criminalizing Terrorist Financiers:
Criminalizing Terrorist Financiers (CTF) is a relatively modern concern for the Security Council’s Counter Terrorism Committee (CTC). Though financiers have existed since the first onset of terrorism, it became a major global priority following the events of September 11th. Terrorism can be defined as “the calculated use of violence (or the threat of violence) against civilians, in order to attain goals that are political or religious or ideological in nature, which is done through intimidation or coercion or instilling fear.” However, there is no universally agreed-upon definition of terrorism, either by academics or legal entities. In fact, even the United Nations remains in deadlock and has not been able to pass a comprehensive resolution addressing the issue. Though the definition is still debated, understanding terrorism is the first step in taking action against financiers. Financing terrorism involves financially supporting terrorist organizations and acts. It bears a close relationship to money laundering, whereby "legitimate" funds are funneled into terrorist financial support. Financing terrorism is sometimes called "reverse money laundering" because it involves using funds for criminal activity as opposed to deriving funds as a result of criminal activity. Nation States must cooperate through international and domestic adherence and enforcement to counter financing terrorism.

Money laundering, which “require[es] an underlying, primary, profit-making crime, along with the intent to conceal the proceeds of the crime or to further criminal enterprise,” is a critical component to financing terrorism. Within this context, money laundering encompasses illegally hoarding money to redistribute to terrorist organizations to incite fear and violence. Authorities have become increasingly more perceptive to money laundering attempts. As a result, terrorist financiers have turned to internet banking, traditional criminal activities (drug trafficking, weapons smuggling, illegal trade, etc.), and charitable donations (like the Islamic pillar Zakat) to finance their operations. They have also utilized Hawalas, or Arabic money transfers outside of the recognized banking systems. In recent years, some countries have developed tactical operations to neutralize terrorist financing. For example, Lebanon has authorized a mandate for their Special Investigation Commission which enables them to conduct investigations, determine the gravity of the evidence attained, and decide whether to freeze the suspected bank accounts. Such actions have allowed Lebanon’s Special Investigation Commission and Financial Intelligence Unit (FIU) to act on suspected money laundering accounts within the Banque du

130 http://www.eyeontheun.org/facts.asp?1=1&p=61
Liban.

The UN and Member States need to focus their efforts on implementing legislation to prevent domestic crimes. The United States financing terrorist statute, 18 U.S.C. § 2339B, and the U.S. President’s International Emergency Economic Powers Act (IEEPA) assist counter-terrorism enforcement. These types of counter-terrorism efforts are productive and expanding. Member States such as the United States and Lebanon must first implement domestic law and later assist other Member States in creating similar internal task forces. Through cooperation, international bodies like the CTC can continue combating financiers of terrorism.

Money Laundering and Sources of Funding:
Money launderers utilize both illegal and legal means to acquire their funds. In recent years, terrorists have focused on trafficking illegal drugs. In 2005, over 400 tons of heroin were trafficked out of Afghanistan to foreign countries, primarily European nations and Russia, accounting for an estimated net worth of $2.7 billion. This income was dispersed throughout the international community rather than remaining localized in the Middle East. In 2004, Colombia exported an estimated $2 billion dollars of cocaine, while Morocco produced 3,000 tons of cannabis which was associated with the purchase of the explosives used in the bombing of Madrid, Spain on March 11 that same year. Many questions have been raised about the volume of net profit actually being funneled into terrorist actions. The drug trafficking known to fund terrorist actions and insurgency is evident in countries like the Balkans, Myanmar, the Philippines, Somalia, Sri Lanka, Turkey, the Middle East, Russia, Central Asia, and more. It is the UN’s Office on Drug Crimes (UNODC) that is tasked with ratifying and implementing counter-terrorism instruments.

Increasingly, it has formally been acknowledged that both legal and illegal actions are being utilized. These illegal activities include fraud, theft, stolen cars, drug trafficking, kidnapping, robbery, extortion, petty crime, identity theft, money laundering, and smuggling of money. In addition, money laundering now acquires a portion of its money through various charities: For example, the Muslim zakat offers a source of funds for money launderers and “Wahhabi-funded organizations have been exploited by extremists to further their violent jihad against non-Muslims.”

UN Action:
Understanding the United Nation’s CTC strategies and capabilities is vital to comprehending terrorist financing. The United Nations took immediate action following the September 11 terrorist attacks in the United States. They unanimously adopted the creation of the CTC through Security Council Resolution 1373 (2001). This established the committee’s 15 council members

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to implement measures to legally and institutionally “counter terrorist activities at home, in their region and around the world.”138

The resolution includes the following key steps:
- Criminalizing the financing of terrorism
- Freezing without delay any funds related to persons involved in acts of terrorism
- Denying all forms of financial support for terrorist groups
- Suppressing the provision of safe haven, sustenance or support for terrorists
- Sharing information with other governments concerning any groups practicing or planning terrorist acts
- Cooperating with other governments in the investigation, detection, arrest, extradition and prosecution of those involved in such acts
- Criminalizing active and passive assistance for terrorism in domestic law and bringing violators to justice139

In 2005, the CTC adopted Resolution 1624 (2005) which calls on UN member states to lawfully prohibit “safe haven” to anyone guilty of such terrorist acts. It also promotes international efforts and dialogue among states and civilians. The CTC under Resolution 1535 (2004) establishes the Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (CTCED) to assist the CTC in coordination and implementation of Resolution 1373 (2001).140

Many Member States have recently begun to counter illegal terrorist actions by starting with laws and regulations. In addition, states have been able to distinguish, identify, and address those involved in financing terrorism. Afghanistan Law on Combating the Financing of Terrorism provides definitions for funds and property, government buildings and facility, proceeds, and convention. By doing so, they are equipped with legal definitions to act on. Formalizing a distinct definition for the financing of terrorism provides a legal basis for criminalizing wrongdoers. Also, it distinguishes between individuals and corporate entities141 whereby corporations, businesses, banks, and charities are now held accountable for their illegal actions.

Security Council Resolution 1267 (1999) and other resolutions identified persons associated with the Taliban, Al-Qaida, Osama bin Laden on a public list of sanctioned individuals and entities. Resolution 1373 (2001) also calls for Member States to list names of their suspected terrorists.142 Cross-committee cooperation and enforcement has enabled the IMF to provide technical assistance FATF, based on recommendations and anti-money laundering considerations. As a result, in 2005, internationally, $147.4 billion dollars were frozen and $65 million seized in assets.143

143 http://www.tmmm.tsk.tr/publications/datr/07.Sener%20DALYAN.pdf, pg. 144
Questions and Possible Solutions to Consider:
Consider what aspects qualify “financiers.” Consider what each Member State is doing to satisfy the CTC’s Resolution 1373 (2001), Resolution 1535 (2004), and Resolution 1624 (2005) and acknowledge any measures from Member States through submitted country reports.

Another concept to consider is the source of funding: Who are prominent financiers, where are they located, and which methods are utilized to generate funds? Take into account which organizations (banks, charities, Hawalas, etc.) assist financiers and how both the UN and individual Member States can respond.

Consider the ability for interagency cooperation. The CTC task force encompasses the countering of trafficking of drugs and other illicit contraband. This process also involves the UN’s Office on Drugs and Crime. Think about the International Monetary Fund’s role or the Financial Action Task force on Money Laundering (FATF).144 How can these agencies better communicate internally and externally to combat the issue?

Though we have addressed Combating Financiers of Terrorism on a more international spectrum, also think about methods for domestic development and how more developed and capable states can assist other countries through technical training and prevention.145

Security Council Bibliography

Background:
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 – Nuclear Development:**

Primary Sources
S/RES/1835


This resolution marks the first reaction by the UNSC on Iran’s nuclear program by demanding a suspension on all nuclear enrichment activities. It also invoked Chapter VII of the UN Charter, making it legally binding.


This resolution imposed extreme sanctions that implemented a complete arms embargo on Iran.

This resolution, due to the lack of evidence found by the IAEA, was the first not to invoke Chapter VII.


This Resolution 1747 marked the first arms embargo in Iran.


This UN pdf indicates Iran’s nuclear program intentions

Key Secondary Sources
This article provides a great historical background to US involvement in the Iranian Nuclear Program.
This report charts a possible diplomatic path that would reduce the possibility of war.

This website has accounts of possible diplomatic solutions being discussed.

This is an important review of the Nuclear Program in Iran.

This provides more historical background to Iran’s nuclear program.

This provides an in-depth history of Iran’s Nuclear Program.

This document shows some opposition to possible sanctions the US would impose.


**Topic 2 – Terrorist Financiers:**

Primary Sources


Costa, Antonio M. "Drugs, Crime and Terrorist Financing: Breaking the Links."


**Key Secondary Sources**


World Health Organization (WHO)
History 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. Currently, 193 member states follow the Organization’s constitution and support its humanitarian efforts.

The Organization is responsible for responding to important health measures, determining which areas need further research, specifying standards, producing substantive policy options, providing support to its programs and projects, and monitoring poor health situations around the world. It especially focuses on combating infectious diseases and promoting the general health of people in developing countries. The WHO uses a six-point agenda to improve health opportunities worldwide, which includes the following:

- 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 laid 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 by focusing on reducing poverty, building health security, promoting gender equality, and harnessing the developmental powers of science and technology.

The WHO also serves as a primary resource for data and statistics involving potable water, disease, causes of death, life expectancy, mortality, diabetes, HIV/AIDS, immunizations, maternal and neonatal care, nutrition, and others. This information can be accessed on the Internet through the Global Health Observatory (GHO), the WHO Global InfoBase, and the Global Health Atlas.

WHO Topic 1: Evaluating Risks of Terrorists obtaining Biological Weapons

Background:

Biological weapons are toxic materials produced from pathogenic organisms (usually microbes) or artificially manufactured toxic substances that are used to intentionally interfere with the biological processes of a host. They are an alternative to explosive and nuclear weapons used to cause similar mass murder. Bioterrorism is the result of terrorists obtaining Biological Weapons and can range from a simple hoax to the actual use of these biological weapons, also referred to as agents. Currently, many nations either possess or seek biological agents, and concerns exist that terrorist groups may acquire the technology to use these agents. Biological agents may be used for an isolated assassination, or expanded to cause incapacitation or death to thousands. The effects of biological weapons can be contagious and have lingering effects.

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Bioterrorism attacks involve the deliberate release of viruses, bacteria, or other germs (agents) used to cause illness or death in people, animals, or plants. Terrorists may prefer biological weapons because they are difficult to detect and can kill massive numbers of people. Bioterrorism agents can be separated into three categories, depending on how easily they can be spread and the severity of illness or death they cause. According to the Center for Disease Control, there are three categories for biological weapons: Categories A, B, and C, with A as the most deadly and C as up and coming threats. Category B represents moderately dangerous, but still requires special attention. Generally, Category B is somewhat easy to disseminate, and Category C, still easier.

The first large-scale attack of modern bioterrorism in the United States was in 1984 by Bhagwan Shree Rajneesh, the founder of an Oregon cult. Attempting to take over the local government, Rajneesh and his cult poisoned the water so locals could not vote on election day. Two county commissioners visiting Rajneesh were also given drinking water contaminated with Salmonella typhimurium. Both became ill, and one was hospitalized. In September, the cult began contaminating food at local restaurants by pouring slurries of the same bacterium into salad bars, salad dressing, and coffee creamers at local restaurants. Consequently, 75 cases of enteritis resulted in at least 45 hospitalizations.

In 1995 in Japan, the Aum Shinrikyo cult released sarin gas into the Tokyo subway system, which resulted in deaths and left thousands seeking emergency care. This cult had an elaborate laboratory to grow B anthracis and installed large industrial sprayers to disseminate the gas.

Post-9/11 multiple Anthrax scares were reported by state public health officials, celebrities, and public officials who received letters containing anthrax. These attacks led President George W. Bush to sign a presidential directive to combat such attacks.

Most recently, investigations after the US military intervention of 2001 uncovered two Al Qaeda laboratories used for biological weapons development, supplied with commercially acquired microbiology equipment and staffed by trained personnel. US forces operating in northern Iraq in 2003 seized a camp linked to Al Qaeda which reportedly contained instructions and equipment for ricin extraction. Around the same time, the authorities intercepted envelopes containing a Ricin-like substance en route to senators and congressmen. These incidents support the fear that biological weapons pose a major threat when in the hands of terrorists.

Past UN Action:

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148 Ibid
150 Ibid
151 Ibid
153 Ibid
As a result of prolonged efforts by the international community to establish a new instrument that would supplement the 1925 Geneva Protocol, the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction, better known as the Biological Weapons Convention (BWC), opened for signature on April 10, 1972.\textsuperscript{154} It was the first multilateral disarmament treaty banning an entire category of weapons. It prohibits the development, production, acquisition, transfer, retention, stockpiling and use of biological and toxin weapons and is a key element in the international community’s efforts to address the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.\textsuperscript{155} There have been six review conferences to re-evaluate the status of the original Biological Weapons Convention. All of the conferences have focused on implementation, primarily through disarmament programs.

Because of the significance of the Biological Weapons Convention and the need to combat bioterrorism, the United Nation has developed many groups that deal with counterterrorism like the 1267 Committee, established in 1999 by resolution 1267 and tasked with monitoring the sanctions against the Taliban (and subsequently Al-Qaida as of 2000).\textsuperscript{156} The Secretary-General also created a monitoring system to check terrorist activities, and following September 11, the Security Council established a Counter Terrorism Committee also comprising all members of the Security Council, under resolution 1373.\textsuperscript{157} This resolution also obliges Member States to take a number of measures to prevent and criminalize terrorist activities and promote adherence to international counter-terrorism instruments.\textsuperscript{158}

The most widely supported committee is the 1540 Committee by the Security Council. On April 28, 2004, the United Nations Security Council unanimously adopted Resolution 1540 (2004) under Chapter VII of the United Nations Charter, obliging states, inter alia, not to support non-State actors in developing, acquiring, manufacturing, possessing, transporting, transferring or using nuclear, chemical or biological weapons and their delivery systems.\textsuperscript{159} This mandate has been extended both by S/RES/1673 (2006) and S/RES/1810 (2008).

As you prepare for conference, you will want to read these resolutions as well as others that deal with terrorism like S/RES/1269 (1999)

**Problems and Possible Solutions to Consider:**

One of the major problems with the Biological Weapons Convention is the implementation phase. Groups like VERTIC, a non-profit implementation support group, are in place to help member states to comply with the convention, but there is still work to be done in this process:

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\textsuperscript{155} Ibid


\textsuperscript{157} Ibid

\textsuperscript{158} Ibid

How can we achieve implementation of totally eradicating Biological Weapons?

Many states stand to make significant financial gains by selling their unused biological weapons to non-state actors like terrorists. How can the United Nations create greater incentives to prevent this?

Would placing a penalty on states that fail to secure materials be an effective approach?

Should there be a harsher penalty for having biological weapons?

How can countries eliminate their stores of Biological Weapons so terrorists cannot obtain them?

Which terrorist groups are most likely to try to obtain these weapons?

Given the examples provided, how can the Security Council come up with a solution to fix the threat of a biological attack on any part of the world?

WHO Topic 2: Health reform in Refugee Camps

Background:
Refugee camps are usually built and run by state governments, international organizations, NGOs or the United Nations. They serve different purposes depending on individual situations. They are set to meet the basic human needs for a short term of time. In addition to the original crisis, refugee camps face hygiene problems, with living conditions often dirty and unsanitary. The areas are usually small and limited in space and therefore have higher levels of viral diseases and infections like bird flu and tuberculosis. Depending on the area of the camp, refugees can struggle with keeping warm, resulting in hypothermia. Along with being physically injured from conflicts, refugees usually suffer mentally from post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). \(^{160}\)

In the Middle East and Northern Africa (MENA) region, displaced people commonly suffer from a number of deadly diseases and conditions like malnutrition, cholera, \(^{161}\) and dengue fever, which claims 100 million deaths a year. \(^2\) Malaria poses a major threat particularly in this region. In 2009, the MENA area alone had 5,185, 402 cases of malaria, with 6,287 deaths. \(^{162}\) Malaria is understood to be both a disease of poverty as well as a cause of poverty. Most nations affected by malaria are not financially fit to provide health services for the infected. Another problem arising in these camps is availability of clean water. The lack of clean drinking water and sanitation infrastructure for refugees is a serious concern.

Refugees and displaced people experience high mortality rates during the time following their migration or conflict. In Africa, mortality rates have been as high as 80 times baseline rates. The


\(^{161}\) [BBC - Health: Refugee Health.](http://www.bbc.co.uk/health/physical_health/conditions/refugee_health.shtml)

most common causes of death have been diarrheal diseases, measles, acute respiratory infections, and malaria. High occurrence of acute malnutrition has contributed to high fatality rates.\textsuperscript{163}

Some notable refugee camps in the MENA area include the Sahrawi refugee camps in Algeria, the Niatak refugee camp in Iran, the Ras Ajdir refugee camp on the Libyan-Tunisian border, the Hatay Province camps for Syrian refugees in Turkey, and the Palestine refugee camps.

The World Health Organization (WHO) has been leading health reforms in refugee camps. In 2010, The WHO and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees assisted 18 countries with the Health Information System (HIS), which monitors health services to over 1 million refugees in camps around the world. Though the system has shown progress, it is still recognized as an innovative and relatively new program. Data from this program varies between countries with lower financial and human resources. The WHO and United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) work together to merge national and refugee health care systems as a common denominator of importance.

\textbf{Past UN Action:}
In 1950, the United Nations General Assembly established the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. Its main purpose is “to safeguard the rights and well-being of refugees.”\textsuperscript{164} In more than six decades, the agency has helped tens of millions of people rebuild their lives. Under the UNHCR, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East provided services for education, health care, relief and social services and micro-credit loan programs. In the Middle East, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) operates 700 schools to provide jobs and basic education to Palestine refugee children. The UNRWA provides food aid and financial assistance and shelter repair to widowed families through its relief and social services program. The Microfinance Department serves to improve poverty and support economic development in refugee communities. The UNHCR has been the main healthcare provider for the Palestine refugee population and now the health status of Palestine refugees stands as a model for many other populations in the MENA area. The UNRWA provides refugees with financial assistance by covering costs of hospitalization.

The United Nations Relief and Works Agency provides assistance, protection and support for registered Palestine refugees in Jordan, Lebanon, Syria and the Palestinian territory, during times of political instability. Through these services, UNRWA strives to help Palestine refugees achieve a decent standard of living and promote good health, knowledge and skills, and human rights. UNRWA provide education, health, relief and social services, infrastructure and camp improvement, and micro-credit assistance to over 4.7 million refugees.\textsuperscript{165}

\textbf{Problems and Possible Solutions to Consider:}
The UNHCR in the past has focused primarily on short term fixes to problems in refugee camps. Among some of these solutions was the idea of return or repatriation, local integration, and resettlement elsewhere.

\textsuperscript{165} UNRWA & the Millennium Development Goals http://www.unrwa.org/userfiles/2010101275635.pdf
The primary objective has been to reduce the risk of the spread of epidemics and diseases. Possible solutions vary depending on the location of the camp. It is important to collect non-food goods such as soap, clean latrines, proper trash containers, mosquito nets, etc. Education in hygiene and healthy practices is an essential part of this aid work.

**Questions to Consider as you Prepare:**
How important is the location of refugee camps? Relatively how far should they be related to the source of conflict?

What has your country done in relation to refugee health care if there has been a refugee situation in the country?

Which diseases, infections, and disorders are most prominent in your state? What has been done there to address the problem that can benefit the reform in refugee camps?

How should responsibility for the refugee’s wellbeing be distributed between WHO, UNHCR, other aid organizations, and host governments?

What type of infrastructure is needed to assist in Health Reform in Refugee Camps?

**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:

**Topic 1 – Biological Weapons**

**Primary Sources**

*This matrix shows each country and what they are currently doing to verify the Biological Weapons Convention. It also shows what sanctions, if any, have been placed on the country and what they are currently doing about the problem.*


*This is a link to the official United Nations homepage for the 1540 committee. Resolution 1540 was enacted in 2004 and called for the proliferation of all chemical, nuclear, and biological weapons. This website houses speeches, fact sheets, and other valuable information.*
This site provides overviews of resolutions and programs that deal with counterterrorism. There are also letters, presidential statements, and notes from meetings. This is a great starting point for United Nation’s action on counterterrorism.


Key Secondary Sources
"Arms Control Association | The authoritative source on arms control since 1971." Arms Control Association | The authoritative source on arms control since 1971. N.p., n.d. Web. 11 Apr. 2012. <http://www.armscontrol.org/>. This site is full of information including book reviews, fact sheets, reports, threat assessment briefs, and much more. This is a great site for delegates to view and research information about arms trade, specifically biological weapons.


Kortepeter, M. & Parker, G. (1999). Potential Biological Weapon Threats. Emerging Infectious Disease. 5(4): 523-527. The authors of this book review the certain types of Biological Weapons and the problems that arise when these weapons are in the wrong hands.
This is a NATO-Handbook which provides an in depth look at the different types of Biological Weapons while providing a list of each weapons and the potential problems that could arise with these.

This is a report made for the United States Congress that contains a brief about the possible threat of terrorist uses of Biological Weapons.

**Topic 2 – Health Reform in Refugee Camps**

**Primary Sources**

A/50/654 (1995) SG Rep on emergency assistance to Rwanda

A/RES/62/125 2008 Assistance to refugees, returnees and displaced persons in Africa

A/RES/65/193 2011 Assistance to refugees, returnees and displaced persons in Africa

UN Refugee Agency:
http://www.unrefugees.org/site/c.lfIQKSOwFqG/b.4778881/k.A2F8/UN_Refugee_Agency.htm?msource=ed1a12

The UNHCR is a great resource to discover what the United Nations considers a refugee and their specific guidelines on what needs to be done in specific regions for the refugees

This policy brief is a great example of how the international bodies can work together to create positive change for the health of refugees.

UNRWA & the Millennium Development Goals
http://www.unrwa.org/userfiles/2010101275635.pdf

This article is about the current health system in place in refugee camps. It discusses the pros and cons and highlights what still needs to be accomplished.
Key Secondary Sources

<http://www.bbc.co.uk/health/physical_health/conditions/refugee_health.shtml>.  
This article outlines some of the diseases and health risks that refugees face.

CBC News In Depth: Anatomy of a Refugee Camp  
http://www.cbc.ca/news/background/refugeecamp/  
Gives the Anatomy of a refugee camp.

<http://www.wpro.who.int/sites/rdt/whatis/malaria_rdt.htm>.  
This website explored issues relating to malaria and new resources the WHO has developed to help those infected.

MENA Friends of Global Fund  
Gives a full report of malaria in the MENA area.

The Refugee Crisis in Africa and Implications for Health and Disease: A Political Ecology Approach  
Delegate Guide
Baylor MUN 2012 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.