The McMurry University Model United Nations Secretariat would like to welcome you to our 20th annual conference. I, Clifton Klaverweiden, Secretary-General of the Model UN Academic Program at McMurry University, would like to say welcome also. My staff and I are looking forward to seeing all of you November 3-4, 2005, at McMurry University.

I am very pleased with our Delegate Guide this year and I feel that the committees and topics that are offered this year will create a sense of excitement, creativity, and a deeper understanding of the issues to be discussed. It is my sincerest hope that the topics cause a response: emotionally, politically, and academically. I look forward to hearing your ideas and resolutions.

My staff and I are pleased to offer you some preliminary information on your topics, and encourage each of you to use this Delegate Guide as an introduction to the topics to be discussed in committee in November. Whether this is your first conference, or your fourth, I hope you will enjoy the learning process, and will walk away from the conference in November with a deeper insight and understanding of the inner workings of the UN and of the larger world. Finally, this conference will help prepare you not only for other competitions, but also deepen your understanding of different world views.

For those delegates in the International Criminal Court (ICC), please read the instructions in your topics as to your responsibilities during the conference. We are experimenting with report writing, which is a very important part of the actual UN system. We hope that delegates enjoy report writing, and so we welcome your feedback especially in the ICC this year.

If you have any additional questions or requests, please do not hesitate to contact us via e-mail at: wtmun@mcm.edu, or via phone at: (325) 793-4952.

I look forward to seeing you in a few weeks!
THE STRUCTURE OF MODEL UN

The General Assembly

The General Assembly is the main deliberative body of the United Nations, and is comprised of all member states, with each member having one vote. The General Assembly addresses issues concerning the maintenance of international peace and security (except when those issues are before the Security Council), admission of new members, budgetary matters, human rights, international law, and other issues that fall within the scope of the Charter.

For this year’s conference, Model UN will convene a session of the 1st Committee of the General Assembly (GA1): Disarmament and International Security.1

The Security Council

The Security Council is the primary organ responsible for the maintenance of international peace and security of the United Nations. The Security Council is comprised of fifteen members: five permanent, and ten non-permanent members. Each of the non-permanent members serves a two-year term. Passage of any substantive resolution requires an affirmative vote (or abstention) of the permanent members and the affirmative vote of four other members. If a permanent member votes against a resolution, it is considered vetoed. Security Council resolutions are binding on all member states.2

Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

The Economic and Social Council coordinates the work of the 14 UN specialized agencies, 10 functional commissions and five regional commissions; receives reports from 11 UN funds and programs; and issues policy recommendations to the UN system and to Member States. Under the UN charter, the Economic and Social Council is responsible for:

• Promoting higher standards of living, full employment, and economic and social progress
• Identifying solutions to international economic, social and health problems; facilitating international cultural and educational cooperation, and
• Encouraging universal respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms.3

Interpol

Interpol is the world’s pre-eminent police organization in support of all organizations, authorities and services whose mission is to prevent, detect, and suppress crime. Interpol’s primary mission includes:

• Providing both a global perspective and a regional focus
• Exchanging information that is timely, accurate, relevant and complete
• Facilitating international co-operation
• Co-ordinating joint operational activities of its member countries, and
• Making available know-how, expertise and good practice.4

1 The official website for the GA1 is: http://www.un.org/ga/60/first/index.html.
2 The official website for the SC is: http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/.
3 The official website for the ECOSOC is: http://www.un.org/docs/ecosoc/.
4 The official website for Interpol is: http://www.interpol.int/.
**International Criminal Court (ICC)**

The International Criminal Court (ICC) is a permanent, treaty-based, international criminal court established to promote the rule of law and investigate and prosecute international crimes. The ICC was established on 17 July 1998 when the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court was ratified by the requisite number of states. The ICC examines cases involving individuals who commit genocide, war crimes, crimes against humanity, and crimes of aggression.

Delegates seated in the ICC committee for the conference will not try the actual cases. Rather, in accordance with the *Agreement between the International Criminal Court and the United Nations*, delegates will draft a single report on the proper role of governments’ responsibilities when individual within those governments and/or individuals who are citizens of those governments and thus bound by national laws, are charged with and/or found guilty of crimes against humanity, genocide, and/or war crimes.

This report should be based on the resolutions adopted on the first day of the conference, as well as issues and sub-issues raised by the delegates during debate and caucus. Delegates on the second day will draft a report highlighting the responsibilities of all parties (including governments and the UN) once the ICC’s Pre-Trial Chamber determines that sufficient evidence exists for proceeding with prosecution, as well as once a guilty verdict has been rendered.5

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5 The official website for the ICC is: [http://www.icc-cpi.int/home.html](http://www.icc-cpi.int/home.html).
ROLE PLAYING

Model UN is designed to be an educational experience for all participants. Model UN’s primary purpose is to facilitate understanding of the structure and functions of the United Nations, as well as the different perspectives brought to the UN that impact the global community. By working within this model, delegates are given the opportunity to gain a more comprehensive understanding of how diplomacy, bloc politics, and caucuses operate. Model UN also provides delegates with a series of simulations from which they can practice creative diplomacy. It is from within this framework that delegates truly experience the complexities of international politics.

There is a popular misconception that any deviation from the espoused policy of a country is wrong. While adhering strictly to the published policies is certainly easier, it is not true to all realities, even for delegates within the actual UN. Countries often create new policy, or modify existing policy, based on changing circumstances. This is the norm, not the exception. The challenge for the delegates at a Model UN conference therefore, is to anticipate these changing circumstances, and to respond creatively. We encourage delegates to use the policies and philosophies of their country as GUIDELINES only when developing solutions to the issues addressed at the conference.

Another prevailing misconception is that this conference is a Mock UN, and that Model UN should duplicate the real United Nations exactly, in both procedure and substance. While this would give the delegates an understanding of what the UN has done in the past, it defeats the purpose of allowing the delegates to learn how and why the UN operates as it does. When considering topics, delegates will be asked to debate the agenda item as an extension of their country’s policy.

With creative diplomacy in mind, delegates should use debate and proposals to convey their views on international issues, comment on other views, and to offer innovative solutions. While the majority of the policy debates are held at the beginning of the session, exceptions often are made. Most of the debates within UN organs focus on a limited number of, oftentimes, inter-related agenda items, and thus, resultant resolutions should reflect this.

Debate within the UN differs drastically from formal debate at the WTMUN conference. The most notable difference is multi-polarity. The distinction between pro and con is usually very blurred, given that countries may support resolutions for a variety of reasons and with different levels of intensity. Propaganda and bloc voting therefore are common, and not solely reliant on facts and/or an appeal to reason and logic.
TOPICS

Security Council

1. Mercenaries and Armed Conflict

“Truthful investigation and subsequent punishment must always be viewed as effective means of ensuring that mercenary activities do not go unpunished, and also of preventing such unlawful acts from being repeated.”

Mr. Enrique Bernales Ballestero

The continued development of newer, more sophisticated technologies, deadlier weapons, such as intercontinental ballistics, bio-weaponry, nuclear devices, and other weapons of mass destruction, has forever altered the course of war. These new technologies and weapons have brought entire countries to their knees, endangering indiscriminately soldier and civilian alike. Additionally, more casualties increasingly are among women and children, which also makes war today different qualitatively from war in the past. While women and children casualties used to result from accidents or general mayhem, women and children today are casualties of war because they are either targeted specifically, or they themselves are the fighters.

According to a statement made by Mr. Kamalesh Sharma to the United Nations on the 25th anniversary of the General Assembly Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict, "The statistics are numbing: over two million killed; over a million orphaned; more than six million seriously injured or permanently disabled..." Many of these statistics are related to the recruitment of children for warfare.

The UN has defined the term “mercenary” as anyone who is recruited to take part in conflict, is being paid to do so, is not a party to the conflict, and has not been sent by another state (which is not a party to the conflict) on official duty as a member of its armed forces. The first protocol to the Geneva Conventions, further stipulates that “a mercenary shall not have the right to be a combatant or a prisoner of war.”

The UN has stated that, “The activities of mercenaries are contrary to fundamental principles of international law, such as non-interference in the international affairs of states, territorial integrity and independence, and seriously impede the process of self-determination of peoples struggling against colonialism racism, apartheid and all other forms of foreign domination.”

Mercenaries often are used not to fight a war against invading forces or for other state means, but by non-state actors to occupy an area.

According to Laurie Nathan, one of the main concerns about the use of mercenaries is that

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6 Mr. Kamalesh Sharma is the permanent representative of India to the United Nations.
7 Proclaimed by General Assembly resolution 3318 (XXIX) of 14 December 1974.
8 For a full definition, see Article 1, numbers 1 and two, of the International Convention against the Recruitment, Use, Financing, and Training of Mercenaries, 4 December 1989. Another definition can be found in Article 47 of the Protocol additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts (Protocol 1).
9 See the later portion of the above footnote regarding the Geneva Conventions.
there is no real system to control them. Mercenaries are not subject to executive, parliamentary, public, legal, international, or internal controls as regular soldiers are. Many countries have placed these controls on their militaries for a reason: to prevent the military from doing whatever they want.

The UN has taken several steps in the fight to end the use of mercenaries. In 1987, the Commission on Human Rights appointed a Special Rapporteur on use of mercenaries as a means of violating human rights and impeding the exercise of the right of peoples to self-determination. The Special Rapporteur focuses primarily on fact-finding. To date, his office has created a conceptual framework for use in analyzing existing and potential new forms of mercenary activity, and maintaining regular contacts with states and other sources, including institutions and individuals engaged in research on the subject, to obtain information on actual or potential mercenary activities and relevant national legislation.12

In February 2005, a reporting and monitoring mechanism was established under the auspices of Children and Armed Conflict to insure that proper measures are being taken to keep children out of armed conflict.13 In 1989, the first actual treaty regarding mercenaries was signed. The International Convention against the Recruitment, Use, Financing, and Training of Mercenaries proffers the strongest definition of the term mercenary to date, and calls on all states to ban using them in armed conflicts.14 In the most recent Special Rapporteur’s report, the focus has turned to the role of mercenaries in the right of self-determination. This new focus includes issues surrounding the extent to which armed groups can facilitate or even create conditions for altering extant political borders based on military activities. The UN at large also has begun to focus on this aspect of mercenaries in armed conflict.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. Does your state use mercenaries?
2. What are the reasons states and non-state entities choose to use mercenaries?
3. How can states insure that mercenaries are not being used within and outside their borders?

2. Internal Conflict

“On 21 October 1998, one NLD detainee, 52-year-old U Aung Min, died in detention during what the Government described as ‘exchanges of views.’”

Chapter V of the UN Charter establishes the powers and responsibilities of the Security Council (SC). Chapter V, Article 24 states that the SC’s primary responsibility is to maintain international peace and security. Additionally, Chapter VI, Article 34 states that the SC may investigate any dispute, or any situation which might lead to international conflict, in order to determine whether the continuance of the dispute or situation is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security. Chapter I, Article 2, Principle 7, however, states, “Nothing

adoption of the International Convention against the Recruitment, Use, Financing and Training of Mercenaries.
14 See http://www.ohchr.org/english/law/mercenaries.htm for the Convention text. Additionally, the Organization of African Unity now the African Union) signed its own regional convention on mercenaries in 1977. It is the only regional conventions addressing directly the issue of mercenaries. For information on that conventions, see http://www.africa-union.org/Official_documents/Treaties_%20Conventions_%20Protocols/Convention_on_Mercenaries.pdf.
contained in the present Charter shall authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state or shall require the Members to submit such matters to settlement under the present Charter; but this principle shall not prejudice the application of enforcement measures under Chapter VII.”

This language seems clear, but recent conflicts (both internal and across-borders) have increasingly impacted other states adversely. When this occurs, the UN is responsible for addressing these adverse aspects of conflict. The question, however, has been posed regarding the extent to which the UN and the SC in particular can engage in an internal conflict because it potentially or in actuality has spilled over into other countries. “What interest does the SC have in a state’s internal affairs?”

There are two types of internal conflict. The first type of internal conflict occurs between factions that wish to control the government of a country. One such conflict is occurring now in Nepal. Nepal, which has been some form of monarchy for most of its existence, became a constitutional monarchy in 1990. In 1994, the Communist Party of Nepal (Unified Marxist-Leninists - UML) victory in parliament made Nepal the world's first communist-led monarchy. One communist party faction advocating Maoist principles over those of Marxism-Leninism was excluded from participation, and subsequently started a campaign of retribution against the ruling government. Since that time, the Maoists have been waging guerilla war against the government, despite the weakening of UML in parliament since 1994.

The second type of internal conflict involves the control of areas. One of the most common types of area control conflicts are breakaway provinces. One such state in which this is occurring is Georgia. Regional ethnic distribution is a major source of the problems facing Georgia along its borders and within its territory. Under Soviet rule, a large part of Georgian territory was divided into autonomous regions that included concentrations of non-Georgian peoples. With the collapse of the Soviet Union and the weak confederation of the CIS, emergence of ethnic-based insurgencies demanding more autonomy or outright independence ignited violence across Georgia. Ethnic Ossetian and Abkhazi insurgents have been responsible for most of the violence in Georgia. In nearby Russia, the Chechens are engaging in similar bids for independence. Other examples of ethnic insurgencies over territory include the Tamils in Sri Lanka, and the Aceh movement in Indonesia.

In 2001, the UN Secretary-General delivered a report to the SC on The Prevention of Armed Conflict. In this report, the Secretary-General stated, “conflict prevention lies at the heart of the mandate of the United Nations in the maintenance of international peace and security, and that a general consensus is emerging among Member States that comprehensive and coherent conflict prevention strategies offer the greatest potential for promoting lasting peace and creating an enabling environment for sustainable development.” The issue before the SC is to determine the extent to which the SC and the UN in general has a responsibility to promote and/or balance the right of self-determination, a responsibility to maintain international peace and security, and to protect those placed in harm’s way of these insurgencies (from both insurgent and government forces).

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15 See http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/world/war.
16 Ibid, see link for Nepal.
Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. How stable is the current government in your state?
2. Can you identify any major groups that pose an international threat, or a threat to your state particularly?
3. What can be done to insure the stability of tumultuous states without compromising their sovereignty insured in the UN Charter?

3. Legal Aspects of War and Occupation

“Aggression is the use of armed force by a State against the sovereignty, territorial integrity, or political independence of another State, or in any other manner inconsistent with the charter of the United Nations.”

The question of what justifies one country waging war upon another has gained renewed attention and importance in the wake of the events that occurred after the attacks on US soil on September 11, 2001, as well as in the aftermath of the invasion of Iraq by the Coalition of the Willing in 2003. The UN Charter clearly specifies the conditions under which one country can wage war on another, but it is less clear on the responsibilities of an occupying force once it has successfully waged war upon another state.

The legal justification for war can be found in the Charter itself. Article 2, Principle 4 cautions member states from employing either the threat or the use of force against any state in a manner inconsistent with the principles of the UN. However, there are two exceptions: self-defense and/or Security Council authorization to protect international peace and security. The UN has been involved in several wars that have been clearly waged out of self-defense: Korea in 1950, and the Gulf War in 1991. Other wars since have been far less clear-cut, and the UN has not involved itself. The United States and the United Kingdom stated that their reasons for invading Iraq in 2003 were based on self-defense. However, Articles 41 and 42 of the UN Charter place war as a last resort after many other measures have been exhausted, such as “interruption of economic relations and of…communication, and the severance of diplomatic relations.”

Another important issue that must be taken into account when discussing the legal aspects of war and occupation is that of humanitarian rights. When one country is hindering (either intentionally or unintentionally) the humanitarian rights of the citizens of the defeated country, what is the responsibility of the UN? A commitment identifying and responding to war crimes exists, under SC resolution authority as well as the four Geneva Conventions. However, the obligation is only imposed upon state parties with respect to persons alleged to have committed grave breaches. There is some evidence to suggest that “a rule of customary international criminal law exists that imposes a general duty on all states to persecute international crimes.” An example of this was used when NATO intervened in the Kosovo conflict and used the principle of humanitarian intervention to justify stopping Yugoslav President Milosevic’s forces on the ground. The UN has also recognized the need to stop international criminals in Resolution 3074. Nevertheless, the

20 Charter of the United Nations: Chapter VII, Article 51.
22 Ibid.
question of UN responsibility in the absence of war crimes, but in the presence of qualitative
deterioration of basic living conditions, has emerged in the wake of the occupation of Iraq by
Coalition forces. To what extent does UN responsibility to protect and promote basic human rights
outweigh security and other military concerns in an occupied territory?

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. What justifies using military force against another state?
2. What are the responsibilities of occupying powers?
3. What are the responsibilities of the UN if and when an occupying power fails to protect those
   under its authority?

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4. Bioterrorism

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, attacks on various populations by states and non-state actors, such as state-sponsored terrorist groups (e.g., those sponsored by rogue nations such as Iraq), independent terrorist organizations (e.g., al Qaeda or other extremist groups), cult groups (e.g., the Japanese religious cult Aum Shinrikyo), and lone offenders (e.g., Timothy McVeigh) indicate that a new type of threat is emerging for states and non-state actors alike and that the international community has an obligation to respond to such threats.

The demise of the Soviet Union was a particularly important event with regard to the spread of bioterrorism, as many Soviet scientists and medical experts working on that country’s biological weapons program left the country to seek employment elsewhere, thereby proliferating their knowledge to the highest bidders. Iraq, Iran, Syria, Libya, and North Korea have recruited actively such experts since that time.

Bioterrorism had been largely a topic of speculation, but quickly became a reality for the United States in October 2001, when anthrax cases following exposure to contaminated mail occurred in New York, New Jersey, and Washington, DC. The Center for Disease Control (CDC) has classified biological agents into three categories: A, B, and C. Category A agents can be easily disseminated or transmitted person-to-person and can cause high mortality with potential for major public health impact. It also may cause public panic and social disruption, and require special action for public health preparedness.26 Category B agents are moderately easy to disseminate, cause moderate morbidity and low mortality, and require specific enhancements of diagnostic capacity and disease surveillance.27 Category C agents include emerging pathogens that could be engineered for mass dissemination in the future because of availability, ease of production and dissemination, and potential for high morbidity and mortality and major health impact.28

As early as the 1970s, many states recognized the dangers posed by biological agents as weapons, and in 1972, the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction (BTWC) was signed. In 1975, the BTWC entered into force. The Convention bans the development, production, stockpiling, acquisition and retention of microbial or other biological agents or toxins, in types and in quantities that have no justification for prophylactic, protective or other peaceful

26 Category A agents include: Bacillus anthracis (anthrax), Clostridium botulinum toxin (botulism), Yersinia pestis (plague), Francisella tularensis (tularemia), Variola major virus (smallpox), andEbola, Marburg, Lassa, and South American hemorrhagic fever viruses (viral hemorrhagic fever).
27 Category B agents include: Coxiella burnetti (Q fever), Brucella species (brucellosis), Burkholderia mallei (glanders), Alphaviruses (Venezuelan encephalomyelitis and eastern and western equine encephalomyelitis), Ricin toxin from Ricinus communis (castor beans), Epsilon toxin of Clostridium perfringens, and Staphylococcus enterotoxin B. Foodborne or waterborne agents also are included under Category B. These pathogens include but are not limited to: Salmonella species, Shigella species, Escherichia coli O157:H7, Vibrio cholerae, andCryptosporidium parvum.
28 Category C agents include: Nipah virus, Hantaviruses, Tickborne hemorrhagic fever viruses, Tickborne encephalitis viruses, Yellow fever virus, and multidrug-resistant Mycobacterium tuberculosis.
purposes. It also bans weapons, equipment or means of delivery designed to use such agents or toxins for hostile purposes or in armed conflict.29

Nevertheless, the BTWC applies to states only, and thus does not address the issue of non-state entities acquiring and using biological agents as weapons. At a recent meeting of the States Parties to the BTWC, a report indicated that bioterrorism appears to be more and more accessible to terrorist groups, and that terrorist attacks may happen in any country. The group also predicted large-scale attacks as highly probable, and that control of biological terrorism will become increasingly difficult in coming decades. The report also noted that humans may not necessarily be the only, or even sole, target, as terrorists understand the value of attacking animals and plants, as well as targeting specific facilities that are vital to a state’s or a non-state actor’s security.30

This same report recommended that states should consider the creation of bio-weapons free zones, as well as taking a public health approach to the bioterrorism, and especially to include the World Health Organization in these proceedings on: (1) containing known risks, (plague, malaria, anthrax, influenza, smallpox, etc.) and developing guidelines and norms; (2) improving prevention through such methods as transferring samples for analysis in order to avoid late detection of outbreaks; and (3) increasing access to WHO’s specialized information.31

Despite these recent efforts, coordinated international action on bioterrorism as practiced by terrorists is still in its infancy. In addition, many states themselves are reluctant to forego domestic response in lieu of international response. It therefore will be the work of GA1 to address this tension between domestic and international response, as well as responding to states versus terrorists.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. What has your government done with regard to bioterrorism?
2. What are the responsibilities of the UN in general and the GA1 in particular with regard to stemming bioterrorism?
3. What possible inducements/threats could be offered to states and non-state actors who currently have programs to produce, stockpile, or use agents that can result in bioterrorism?

5. Securing Nuclear Resources

“The future of humanity remains very much in jeopardy by the global nuclear menace. The tens of thousands of such weapons that reportedly remain, many of them on hair trigger alert, are silent testimony to humanity’s uncanny aptitude to perfect the arts of destruction; relative to its still primitive accomplishments in mastering the arts of sciences of peace.”32

On the 26th of April 1986, the world was shocked by the worst disaster in the history of nuclear science, when several of the reactors at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant leaked radioactive materials into the surrounding environment. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) released a report in September 2005, indicating that fewer actual deaths in the area could be directly attributable to the accident, but that severe environmental and health problems, social,

29 For the complete text, see: http://www.opbw.org/convention/documents/btwctext.pdf.
30 See BWC/MSP.2003/MX/WP.17.
32 Statement made by Under Secretary-General for Disarmament Affairs at the 2002 seminar on Nuclear Disarmament.
psychological, and economic emergencies “show no signs of diminishing and may even be spreading.”

The international community, in conjunction with the UN and the IAEA have worked to devise a safety plan to include the safety of actual facilities, radiation protection and the safety of radiation sources, safe management of radioactive waste, safe transport of radioactive material, and general management (including emergency management for future Chernobyls). Since 1986, five conventions have been created to address these safety issues. The Convention on Nuclear Safety is an attempt to legally commit participating states operating land-based nuclear power plants to maintain a high level of safety by setting international benchmarks to which states would subscribe. The Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material obliges contracting states to ensure during international nuclear transport the protection of nuclear material within their territory or on board their ships or aircraft. The Joint Convention on the Safety of Spent Fuel Management and on the Safety of Radioactive Waste Management is the first legally binding international treaty on safety in these areas. It represents a commitment by participating states to achieve and maintain a consistently high level of safety in the management of spent fuel and of radioactive waste to ensure proper protection of people and the environment. The Convention on Early Notification of a Nuclear Accident establishes a notification system for nuclear accidents that have the potential for international transboundary release that could be of radiological safety significance for another state. Finally, the Convention on Assistance in the Case of a Nuclear Accident or Radiological Emergency sets out an international framework for co-operation among states and with the IAEA to facilitate assistance and support in the event of nuclear accidents or radiological emergencies.

After September 11, 2001, the focus shifted to securing nuclear materials from terrorists. In March 2002, the IAEA Board of Governors approved a Plan of Activities to Protect against Nuclear Terrorism, which is designed to enhance and integrate the Agency’s existing nuclear security-related activities. These activities focus on prevention, detection, and response. The primary focus is on measures to protect nuclear and other radioactive materials against theft or other form of loss of control, illegal possession, smuggling, and unauthorized use, as well as measures to protect nuclear installations and transport against sabotage or other acts that can result in radiation exposure to the general public or the environment. An additional supporting international agreement includes the 2003 Code of Conduct of the Safety and Security of Radioactive Sources. The Office of Nuclear Security also provides technical assistance to states in their efforts to establish the necessary infrastructure to protect nuclear and other radioactive materials from theft and diversion, protect nuclear installations and transport against sabotage, and to combat illicit trafficking in nuclear and other radioactive materials.

In support of the IAEA’s work, on April 13, 2005, the UN adopted the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism, in which states pledged to strengthen existing international legal framework to combat terrorism. The Convention provides for a legal

33 For the full report see: http://www.iaea.org/NewsCenter/Focus/Chernobyl/index.shtml.
34 For complete information on this convention, see: http://www-ns.iaea.org/conventions/nuclear-safety.htm.
35 For complete information on this convention, see: http://www.iaea.org/Publications/Documents/Conventions/cppnm.html.
36 For complete information on this convention, see: http://www-ns.iaea.org/conventions/waste-jointconvention.htm.
37 For complete information on this convention, see: http://www-ns.iaea.org/conventions/emergency.htm.
38 Ibid.
basis for international cooperation in the investigation, prosecution, and extradition of those who
commit terrorist acts involving radioactive material or a nuclear device.

Despite the number of conventions designed to secure nuclear resources, the threat of
nuclear materials being stolen and used for illicit purposes remains grave. States may proffer
credible threats of retaliation (either by using threats of force or incentives to cooperation), but
retaliatory threats are less credible against non-state entities, especially threats of force. Can one
state invade a portion of another state to remove a threat and not be guilty of violating the invaded
state’s territorial integrity? How does one “punish” a non-state entity through international
mechanisms that are designed to sanction state behavior? A final issue is compliance and
verification. Currently, the UN has in place mechanisms for monitoring and verification of
government-controlled facilities, and signatories to existing treaties and conventions are legally-
recognized governments. To what extent are non-state entities operating within a state’s borders
bound to those strictures?

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. If your state has nuclear weapons or nuclear power plants, what safeguards has it undertaken to
ensure their security?
2. Are those safeguards applicable to both material and weapons?
3. What can the UN system do with regard to prevention, detection and response to non-states’
acquisition/use of nuclear materials?

6. Strengthening Existing Chemical and Biological Weapons Treaties

"Determined for the sake of all mankind, to exclude completely the possibility of the use of chemical weapons...”
OPCW Mission Statement

Chemical and biological weapons have long been considered “weapons of mass destruction”
by the international community. While these weapons are not as destructive as a nuclear blast, they
are extremely destructive in that a very small amount of many of the substances found in chemical
and biological weapons can kill thousands. For instance, inhalation of or contact with only one
microgram of nerve gas instantly shuts down all essential bodily functions.41 Because of modern
advances in science and technology, chemical and biological weapons are now even more effective
and deadly than those first used during the First World War. In addition, it is very simple for small
states to develop their own arsenals of chemical and biological weapons because the scientific
processes used to create these weapons are very similar to those used to make common pesticides;
however this requires high quality facilities to store them. These weapons must also be handled and
treated very carefully to maintain their full effectiveness.

Chemical and biological weapons currently have very little uniform government regulation
behind them, and the care with which they must be treated makes them difficult to use as tactical
weapons exchanged by two armies on a battlefield. Nevertheless, recent usage of chemical
weapons has been documented: chemical weapons were used by Egyptian forces in Yemen, and in
the 1980’s Iraqi forces used chemical weapons on the Kurds.42

The history of chemical and biological weapons treaties goes back to the First World War.
During the First World War, it was commonplace for most armies involved to use chemical and

41 See http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/APCITY/UNPAN014346.pdf for more information
42 Ibid.
biological weapons on opposing armies. Over the course of the war, over 100,000 tons of chemical weapons were used, causing an estimated 90,000 deaths and a million more casualties. On June 7, 1925, The Protocol for the Prohibition of Use in War of Asphyxiating, Poisonous or other Gasses and of Bacteriological Methods of Warfare was signed. This Geneva Protocol specifically outlawed chemical and biological weapons, but did not establish specific compliance mechanisms. While it did ban the use of chemical weapons, the Geneva Convention never explicitly banned the possession or development of such weapons. In addition, many states that signed the protocol felt they would use chemical weapons if such weapons were used to attack them, or that they could use them against states that had not signed the protocol.

The Geneva Protocol was not revisited until 1972, when the Biological Weapons Convention was signed as a supplement to the original protocol. This was the first multilateral attempt to place a worldwide ban on a specific class of weapons. However, it did not put enforcement agencies into place. In 1994, a special conference was held to establish an enforcement agency. A special Ad Hoc Committee came out of this conference with the specific purposes of: defining necessary terms; to build confidence and transparency necessary for the agency; establish compliance measures; and to facilitate peaceful biological materials programs in states that refused to forego all research and production on biological materials. This Ad Hoc Committee submitted its final report in 2001, and the conference has made a commitment to meet once a year to insure peaceful commitment to eradicating biological weapons.

In 1993, the Chemical Weapons Convention also was established as a supplement to the Geneva Protocol and the Conference on Disarmament. The Chemical Weapons Convention came into full force in 1997, and bans all development, production, acquisition, stock piling, transfer, and use of chemical weapons. It also requires the destruction of any chemical weapons that a state possesses and any facilities that are used for making chemical weapons. In great contrast to the Biological Weapons Convention, the Chemical Weapons Convention requires regular reports by states to assure that they are complying with the requirements of the Convention. It also allows for on site inspections of declared chemical sites. There can also be short notice “challenge” inspections of chemical sites.

The Chemical Weapons Convention also established the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW), as its verification mechanism, and to date, the OPCW has trained over 200 inspectors. These inspectors inspect military and industrial sites to insure that states are complying with the requirements of the CWC. In 2000, the OPCW was accepted by the United Nations as the premier, expert agency on chemical weapons, and the two entities entered into a partnership of free exchange of information and resources. The OPCW’s current goal is to have all states commit to destroying all chemical weapons by the year 2007.

While significant progress has been made in a relatively short amount of time regarding controlling and eliminating chemical and biological weapons, there are still many problems present with the implementation of bans. As was seen recently in Iraq, many states refuse to allow inspectors into their facilities to insure their compliance. However, as mentioned before, perhaps the single greatest threat posed by chemical and biological weapons is proliferation. It therefore is the responsibility of GA1 to address issues of non-proliferation as well as disarmament of...

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43 Chemical weapons are mostly gasses such as mustard and sarin gas. Biological (Bacterial-logical) weapons are bacteria and spores in powder form, such as anthrax.
47 See http://www.opcw.org/.
biological and chemical weapons.

**Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:**
1. Does your state have stockpiles of chemical or biological weapons?
2. Does your state comply with OPCW regulations?
3. What non-proliferation measures and what disarmament measures do you think would be more successful than others? Should sanctions and other punitive responses be considered for non-compliance?

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7. Achieving Millennium Development Goal 1

“Society comprises two classes: those who have more food than appetite, and those who have more appetite than food.” Sebastien-Roch Nicholas de Chamfort

The issue of poverty eradication has been on the UN agenda since its inception, and much headway has been made in this pursuit, with the number of states whose annual domestic earnings, or GDP, rising consistently. However, the rise in GDP for many states also has resulted in vast discrepancies between the haves and the have-nots. Estimates of poverty rates released by the World Bank in 2004 for the years 1981 to 2001 indicate that global trends in poverty reduction have been dominated by the rapid economic growth of China and Eastern Asia. In those countries, GDP per capita has more than tripled and the proportion of people in extreme poverty has fallen from 56% to 17% over two decades. Southern Asia also experienced a long-term drop in poverty rates in the last 20 years, with the number of people in extreme poverty dropping by almost 50 million. In sub-Saharan Africa, however, the poverty rate has risen from 41% in 1981 to 46% in 2001, and the number of people living in extreme poverty increased by more than 140 million. Even more disturbing has been a downward slide of the former Soviet states, whose extreme poverty levels have risen from 0.2% in 1990 to 5.3% in 2001.

Hunger is nearly as pervasive as extreme poverty, and there is a positive correlation between the two. In 2002, an estimated 815 million people in developing countries had too little to eat to meet their daily energy needs. The proportion of people going hungry was lower in 2000-02 than in 1990-92 in all regions except Western Asia. However, the actual number of people suffering from hunger increased between 1997 and 2002. The demographics indicate that small farmers are the hardest hit: 50% of those considered undernourished fall into this category; 20% are rural landless, 20% are urban poor, and the remaining 10% are pastoralists and fisher- and forest-dependent.

In its 2000 Millennium Declaration, the GA laid out eight pressing issues for the United Nations to confront in the coming years. These issues, which are known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), range in topics from education to gender equality. One of the most important issues is that of Development Goal 1: eradicating extreme poverty and hunger. In this pursuit, the UN has set aside two major goals: to reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day by 2015, and; to reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

In order to achieve the goals of MDG 1, the UN Secretary-General has called upon developed countries to commit 0.7% of their annual output (Gross National Product – GNP) to

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48 According to the Secretary-General’s Report Implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration in 2004, both Sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia had more than 30% of their population living below $1 a day in 2001, and in these areas the mean shortfall from the poverty line was well below satisfactory. To view the other information, see the Statistical Annex on page 26 of A/59/282.
50 The Millennium Development Goals, as established in the Millennium Declaration, are to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability, and develop a global partnership for development.
overseas development assistance (ODA). This call is not new. In 1970, a UN GA resolution called for this commitment to assistance, and since then, this call has been reaffirmed in the 2002 International Conference on Financing for Development in Monterrey, Mexico, and at the 2004 Johannesburg World Summit on Sustainable Development.

This issue of poverty and hunger eradication is of particular importance to the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), which focuses its work on economic and social development. ECOSOC has worked to provide a blueprint for member states to meet this MDG since 2001, with the adoption of Resolution 42 and the launching of a global campaign for poverty eradication. In 2002’s resolution 258, ECOSOC expanded its linkages between extreme poverty and hunger by linking extreme poverty with poor human rights.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. What is your states’ status regarding the first MDG? Is your state a donor or recipient of aid for MDG achievement?
2. Does your state support the Secretary-General’s call for 0.7% ODA? Why or why not?
3. What is your state’s position on the extreme poverty-human rights linkage?

8. The Green Revolution

"With good soils and good genotypes, we cannot fail."51

With the creation of the UN system in 1945, for the first time in modern history, international institutions were created for the specific purpose of achieving economic development objectives (e.g., the World Bank, regional banks, and various agencies of the UN). Initial development expectations were based on a development philosophy that focused on industrialization as the key to modernization. In most early views of development, the agricultural sector was a repository for unskilled people locked into traditional ways of living. Agriculture was seen as a sector with little growth potential and very little scope for technological improvement. This view fit with the evidence of the great industrial powers of the mid-twentieth century, in which agriculture was reduced to minimal economic importance. By the 1960s, however, it was becoming increasingly clear that maintaining food production per capita was a challenging task. Improvements in health in the 1950s and 1960s were impressive in almost all developing countries. Infant mortality rates were declining, and life expectancy was increasing. In short, more people were living, and living longer, but not necessarily living better.

The initial Green Revolution was the response to above problems, and focused on adoption of high-yielding rice and wheat varieties in Asia and Latin America from late 1960s to the early 1980s. The main objectives of the Green revolution were: to enhance the genetic potential of the rice varieties to make the plant high yielding, resistant to diseases, mature earlier, water and fertilizer efficient, and temperature and soil tolerant; to disseminate rice related technologies; and to maintain sustainable development of production systems.52

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51 Statement made by 15 scientific experts at the 15-country ECA meeting on initiating a Green Revolution in Africa, November 18, 2004.
Before the Green Revolution in Asia (1956-1965), the average rice yield was 1.9 tones/ha. That could only be obtained during the wet season. The Green Revolution increased the yield to 5 tones/ha. By 1981, the global impact of the Green Revolution in rice, wheat and maize across the world yielded two to three times traditional production. The Green Revolution overall boasted two major successes: mass adoption of improved rice technologies by the majority of the farmers; and it changed the traditional methods of work and traditional farming systems into modern production systems.

Despite these successes, there are several notable failures of the first Green Revolution. The most significant failure was the concentration on one or two crops – usually rice, wheat or maize. The Green Revolution designers overlooked the need for a complimentary crop for a balanced diet. Second, the designers failed to account for the impact of high levels of fertilizer inputs for rice on the soil structure, and eventually on the ecosystem. Third, the designers of the Green Revolution failed to account for continued rapid population growth. The result was an even larger, less well-nourished, population facing severe environmental and health crises.

The African continent is the second largest after Asia with a surface area of 30.3 million square kilometers and a population of approximately 860 million people. In countries like Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria and Senegal, high population growth rates ranging between 2.7 to 3.8 % per year have resulted in populations doubling themselves every 20 years. This has put extreme pressure on the land, causing food insecurity and widespread poverty. By 1985, the arable land available (in UN-measured hectares per person) was reduced from 0.86 to 0.73 ha/person in Malawi, 1.22 to 0.71 ha/person in Nigeria. By 2000, the per capita arable land for Malawi and Nigeria were 0.45 ha/person and 0.48 ha/person, respectively.

Over the years, there have been dramatic changes in rainfall patterns, unpredictability, duration and amount of annual rainfall in Africa. Additionally, most parts of Africa have very shallow topsoils, which results in either poor crop production or over-use of land. As a result, these areas become either water logged or contain too little moisture and have very quickly become degraded across the continent.

Additionally, long-term internal conflicts within many African countries have further exacerbated food production problems. It is either too dangerous for farmers to plant, or they are no longer located on their farmland, and the land is left fallow for too long to become productive again immediately.

The UN, therefore, has called for a Green revolution for Africa; one that yields much more ecologically sound results than the Green Revolutions in Asia and Latin America. The task of this committee is to outline the plans for a Green Revolution in Africa, and to devise an implementation plan that addresses the unique problems noted for Africa in the previous paragraphs.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. What is your country’s position on a Green Revolution, and/or genetically modified seeds and plants to increase crop production?
2. What exactly are the responsibilities of the UN and the international community at large to providing countries with the basic means to be self-sufficient in food production, and what are the implications of this for global free trade?
3. What can the international community do to ensure that a Green Revolution in Africa does not fail in the same way that it did in other regions?
9. Combating the Problem of Neglected Diseases

“First of all I would define medicine as the complete removal of the distress of the sick, the alleviation of the more violent diseases and the refusal to undertake to cure cases in which the disease has already won the mastery, knowing that everything is not possible in medicine” - Hippocrates

With the establishment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), there has been a renewed focus on combating the HIV/AIDS epidemic sweeping the world, as well as halting other major, yet often neglected, diseases, such as malaria and tuberculosis. These “neglected diseases” are also referred to as tropical diseases because of their prevalence in island or tropical states. There are numerous kinds of diseases that fall under the umbrella of tropical diseases: Chagas’ Disease, Dengue Fever, Leishmaniasis, Leprosy, Lymphatic Filariasis, Onchocerciasis, Schistosomiasis and soil-transmitted Helminthiasis, Trachoma, Trypanosomiasis, intestinal parasites, and sleeping sickness. All of these illnesses are fairly obscure, in that they have not received the same degree of global attention that HIV/AIDS, malaria or tuberculosis have. Nevertheless, as a whole they constitute very serious health risks for the multiple states that are susceptible to them.

Individually, these neglected diseases have only a limited impact, but as a group they combine to affect between 350-500 million people worldwide. For the most part, these diseases are not life threatening in the sense that most people afflicted by them do survive them. However, they are life-threatening in that they debilitate their victims, making it impossible for them to lead a normal, healthy life.

Considerable knowledge exists about these diseases, their biology, and epidemiology; many of these diseases have extant treatment and cures available to industrialized states. However, access to these treatments and cures is extremely limited, as most tropical states lack the medical and storage facilities required to purchase and maintain stockpiles of the necessary pharmaceuticals.

The neglect of these diseases occurs at many levels, all leading to their relative obscurity in the eyes of international community. At the national level and local levels, these diseases are poorly documented, which makes it difficult for the international community to efficiently identify and deliver treatment to certain locations. At the international level, these issues are considered to be “tied” to specific geographical and environmental conditions, and thus they are not perceived as global pandemics or global problems to the same extent as HIV/AIDS or tuberculosis. Additionally, due to their low mortality rate, relative to AIDS, lower priority is granted to them, despite the hundreds of thousands of deaths attributable to these neglected diseases per year.

Since the adoption of the MGD, neglected diseases have begun to receive consistent attention. MDG goal 4 calls for a 2/3 reduction of child mortality from under the age of five from readily curable diseases. MDG goal 6 calls for halving and beginning to reverse by 2015 the incidence of malaria and other diseases. In addition, other non-governmental organizations have joined these initiatives. The Drugs for Neglected Diseases Initiative (DNDI), formed in July of 2003, is a non-profit organization comprised of prestigious health and research institutes, such as Medecins Sans Frontieres, the United States Development Programme, the World Bank, and WHO’s Special Programme for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases. The aim of this

55 See http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/G04/109/33/PDF/G0410933.pdf?OpenElement, especially Section III.
56 http://www.who.int/tdr/
initiative is to harness cutting edge science to research and develop drugs for patients suffering from neglected tropical diseases. They plan to take drug development out of the market place by encouraging the public sector to take more responsibility for health.\textsuperscript{58} This committee is therefore responsible for mapping out a detailed plan to achieve MDG goals four and six by their stated deadlines, and to develop a plan of action to coordinate and expand non-governmental actions also aimed at achieving these MDG goals.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. What types of readily curable, yet neglected diseases exist in your country?
2. How is your country addressing these diseases at the national level, at through the achievement of the MDG?
3. What can the UN do to obtain MDG goals 4 and 6, and create appropriate mechanisms to prevent readily curable diseases from adversely impacting populations in the future?

### Interpol

#### 10. International Human Rights and Human Trafficking

“Children are the most vulnerable individuals in our society; they are also the most precious commodity that the world has and have a right to be protected from all forms of abuse.”

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) claims that human trafficking has reached "epidemic proportions" and is fuelled by economic disparity, high unemployment and the disruption of traditional livelihoods. The majority of trafficking victims are women, but children and men are also affected. The United Nations Children's Fund estimates that cross-border smuggling in Western and Central Africa alone involves over 200,000 children. Unsuspecting parents often sell their children, believing they will be looked after, taught a trade and educated. These children, however, are forced to work as bonded laborers in sweatshops, mines and plantations. Trafficked men and children do the three “D-jobs”: dirty, difficult and dangerous.

Trafficking is almost always a form of organized crime and traffickers have expanded the geographical scope of their activities into new markets. Humans, like narcotic drugs or weapons, are another commodity of criminal commerce. However, criminals are drawn to trafficking because of the relatively low risks and substantial profits.

According to the 1948 International Declaration of Human Rights, Article IV, “No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.”

Furthermore, allowing the detainment of any individual is a violation of article IV of the Declaration which states, “No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.”

The UN has begun addressing this issue, first by recognizing that there is “a lack of systematic research, [which] means that reliable data on the trafficking of human beings that would allow comparative analyses and the design of countermeasures is scarce.”

Nevertheless, the UN has worked to establish a protocol against human trafficking, and in 2000, member states signed the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, which specifically defines human trafficking; offers tools for law enforcement and border control; strengthens the response of the judiciary; expands the scope of protection and support to victims and witnesses; and establishes prevention policies. Through its UNODC office, the UN also has created the Global Programme against Trafficking in Human Beings (GPAT), whose main objective is to investigate and bring to light the involvement of organized criminal groups in human trafficking and to promote the development of effective criminal justice-related responses to trafficking.

In addition to the work of the UN, Interpol has a significant role in human trafficking. Whereas GPAT’s primary components are data collection, assessment, and technical cooperation,
Interpol promotes multilateral and mutual assistance between all criminal police authorities. In particular, Interpol investigates human trafficking under its mandate, as outlined by the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime. Interpol compartmentalizes human trafficking into three distinct areas: children, women, and migrant smuggling. In addition to the UN definition of trafficking, Interpol has added migrant smuggling, which it defines as “the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident.”

Interpol's involvement in the investigation of offences against children began in 1989, with the adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. Interpol’s goal in this regard is to prevent child abuse by working with global partners to raise awareness, and focus on acting locally. Interpol’s Specialist Group on Crimes against Children specifically focuses on four different arenas; commercial exploitation and trafficking in children; sex offenders; serious violent crimes against children and child pornography, and providing a global forum for specialists dealing with these crimes. It therefore is the responsibility of this committee to construct a plan of action on how the UN can aid Interpol in its mandate.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. Does your country have a history of human trafficking, either as a target state or a destination state?
2. What are your current national laws addressing the issue of human trafficking? Is your country working with the UN and/or Interpol?
3. What preventative and punitive measures might be established to end human trafficking?

11. Drug Trafficking in a Post 9-11 Society

“Criminalize the willful provision or collection, by any means, directly or indirectly, of funds by their nationals with the intention that the funds should be used, or in the knowledge that they are to be used, in order to carry out terrorist acts.”

Of all the problems addressed by the international community in the twentieth century, one stands out as proving to be the most pernicious in terms of controlling or eliminating: drug trafficking. Of all the problems currently associated with the millennium, terrorism will most likely prove to be the equivalent of drug trafficking, in terms of difficulty in controlling or eliminating. In fact, these two issues are no longer separate, as evidence suggests current Al-Qaeda operatives in Afghanistan have been using money from the sale of opium in that country’s poppy fields to fund its activities. In addition, recent evidence suggests that drug money from Colombia has found its way into the bank accounts of terrorists.

According to the United Nations recent World Drug Report, “90% of the illicit cultivation of opium poppy still took place in three countries: Afghanistan, Myanmar and Laos.” In 2003,
Afghanistan produced, “the second highest opium production estimate in Afghanistan’s history,” all of which occurred during its occupation by multilateral forces. In 1984, the UN, in one of its resolutions, noted, “the concern that prevails in the international community about the problem of the illegal production of, illicit trafficking in and abuse of drugs.”

The narcotics trade has proven to be a particularly difficult problem for the international community because it, like terrorists, is usually conducted by non-state actors. The primary actors in the drug trade traditionally have been members of organized crime and thus not bound by UN resolutions or treaties. More recently, evidence indicates that terrorist organizations are becoming more important as actors in the international drug trade than organized crime, although the criminal element is still very active in this illicit trade.

The 1988 UN Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances called on Member States to criminalize the offence of money laundering and to establish a comprehensive legal framework to deal with all associated matters. The Global Programme against Money Laundering (GPML) was established in response to the mandate of the Convention and was further strengthened in 1998 by the General Assembly Special Session’s Political Declaration and Action Plan against Money Laundering, which broadened its remit beyond drug offences to all serious crime, and required states to put in place a number of specific measures, particularly with regard to proper regulation of the financial sector. The Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (TOC) will strengthen this expansion of money laundering predicate offences to include all serious crime.

Many mechanisms of money laundering are essentially the same, regardless of the source or destination of the illegal financial flows. Similar techniques are often used to disguise and facilitate the flows whether the crime is drug trafficking or other transnational crimes, or whether the purpose is the funding of terrorism. GPML is the focal point in the UN system for issues related to money laundering and proceeds of crime. Recognizing that many states lack resources, both financial and human, to develop an anti-money laundering infrastructure, GPML provides technical assistance to bring their counter-measures up to international standards. GPML is an active partner of international organizations working in this field, including the International Monetary Fund, World Bank, Commonwealth Secretariat, Interpol, the Asia Pacific Group on Money Laundering and the Caribbean Financial Action Task Force, as well as regional development banks.

In October 2002, the Global Programme (GP) against Terrorism was launched as the main focus for operational activities in counter-terrorism. The GP has drafted a legislative guide to the universal anti-terror instruments to assist countries in legislating and implementing these. A checklist will provide an easy overview for legislators in this field. A web page with alternative models, model laws and regional and national examples of relevant legislation is regularly updated regarding current developments in legislating terrorism.

Interpol’s primary work with regard to financing terrorist activities with money from organized crime includes investigating transboundary leads for anti-terrorism units in member states and offers assistance requested by member states regarding all inter-state implications of their investigations. Interpol’s Target Passage program in particular targets organized crime groups that provide support for terrorist groups. After terrorist attacks, Interpol assists states by proffering their expertise in money laundering to re-create the financial trail of the attacks to the source[s].

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70 A/RES/39/142.
therefore is the responsibility of this committee to construct a plan of action on how the UN can aid Interpol in its mandate.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:

1. Does your country have any organized crime/drug activities that may be traced to terrorist organizations?
2. What can the international community, and Interpol in particular, do with regard to cutting the connections between drug trafficking and terrorist financing?
3. What other methods of terrorist financing should be addressed by Interpol?

12. Environmental Crime

“While human pressure on the natural environment will only grow in the years to come, the history of CITES confirms that it is possible to reconcile the needs of human beings and wildlife.”

Environmental crime is defined as an act that is destructive to the environment and can be criminalized by statute. The trade of animals and plants across countries is seen as a crime. The animals and plants that are being traded range from endangered species to plants that are used for medicines. The UN sees the black market trading of these animals and plants as a danger to the natural and human environments and ultimately a threat to the international community. The UN has called upon the international community, and Interpol has stepped forward and taken the lead in addressing this issue. Interpol has created a working wildlife Strategic Plan to address environmental crime. The goal of this Plan is to identify enforcement gaps, and clarify the expectations and responsibilities of the member countries, with the eventual aim of protecting the deteriorating eco-system.

The trade of animals and plants illegally across the world is considered a major aspect of Interpol’s work on sustaining ecosystems. As flora (plants) and fauna (animals) are extracted for export from their natural eco-systems, imbalances in those eco-systems occur, which create environmental problems in situ as well as species sustainability problems if plants and animals are extracted in too great a number to impede regeneration. Nonetheless, species extraction is a very lucrative industry, generating tens of billions of dollars annually, and is second only in profit-making to the illegal drug trafficking industry.

One of the most widely exploited animals is the elephant, which is sought after for its ivory tusks. The epicenter of elephant hunting for ivory, according to UK-based organization Care for the Wild (CFTW), is the Sudan and neighboring Congo. Traditionally, natives would exploit elephants for direct trade in goods, given that the ivory was one of the few commodities in these countries of considerable value to the international community. Recently, however, other “entrepreneurs,” particularly from China and the Middle East, have become involved in setting up cottage industries of ivory extraction by hiring locals to hunt for the ivory, which then is shipped to third parties across the globe.

Interpol has focused much of its environmental crime efforts on the 1973 Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) which was drafted as a result of a resolution adopted in 1963 at a meeting of members of the World Conservation Union.

72 CITES Secretary-General Willem Wijnstekers speaking on the 30th anniversary of the CITES Convention.
74 Interpol strategic plan: www.interpol.int/EnvironmentalCrime/wildlife/Default.asp.
Under CITES, signatory countries have agreed to control or prohibit trade in over 40,000 species of animals and plants, depending on the degree to which their survival is threatened. CITES relies on permits to regulate trade in wildlife. Treaty members issue permits allowing trade only if they are satisfied that such trade will not pose a threat to the survival of the species. Commercial trade in the most endangered species is prohibited. These most endangered species include all apes and many monkeys, the great whales, elephants, tigers, many spotted cats, many birds of prey and parrots, all sea turtles and many other reptiles, orchids, cacti and other plants, and other species. Commerce is permitted in other species, but such trade is monitored. National authorities limit the number of permits issued for trade in potentially threatened species, and records are maintained and analyzed.

In 1994, the Interpol Sub-Group on Wildlife Crime was created by various Interpol members representing several CITES signatory countries. The objective of the group was to meet on a regular basis and exchange enforcement ideas and strategies on how Interpol could assist in maintaining and supporting an international network of enforcement contacts with expertise in wildlife crime. In 1998, the group was re-named the Interpol Wildlife Working Group (IWWG). The Wildlife Working Group's objectives are: to encourage international participation in a registry of global enforcement contacts of people possessing expertise in wildlife crime and enforcement; to encourage partnerships to promote international wildlife enforcement initiatives; to initiate and support joint training and capacity-building initiatives; to co-ordinate a common philosophy for a worldwide approach to international wildlife enforcement; to establish a global database on criminal activity; and to assist member countries in identifying wildlife enforcement priorities and objectives.

It therefore is the responsibility of this committee to construct a plan of action on how the UN can aid Interpol in its mandate.

Conference-related questions to consider as you research this topic:
1. Is environmental crime a problem in your state? What are some ways your state is affected indirectly?
2. What, if any, environmental treaties or agreements has your state signed onto? What treaties or agreements, if any, has your state refused to sign onto?
3. What more can Interpol be directed to do regarding environmental crime?

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75 See: http://www.unescap.org/drpad/ vc/orientation/legal/3_CITES.htm
76 See: http://www.interpol.int/Public/EnvironmentalCrime/Wildlife/Default.asp
**ICC**

**13. The Situation in Darfur**

Sudan has been torn by civil war since its independence from British-Egyptian rule in 1956, until January 2005, when a peace accord was reached. On March 24, 2005, the UN Security Council established the United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS), with the following mandate: to support implementation of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement signed by the parties; facilitate the return of refugees; landmine detection and removal; and to promote human rights in Sudan.\(^\text{77}\)

The Darfur conflict is part of the larger, Sudanese-wide civil war, in which the Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA) has been fighting for black African rights against the Arab-controlled governments of Nimeiri, Sadiq al-Mahdi and President Omar Bashir. The SPLA, representing southern Sudan, is largely Christian and claims it has been fighting for the establishment of a secular, democratic Sudan. Although many southern Sudanese have expressed interest in independence, the SPLA has formally claimed its intention is to create a confederal system.

The conflict continues in Darfur, primarily because one group -- the Janjaweed para-military troops -- is not a party to the accord. The peace accord restrains only the actions of the Sudanese government and the southern rebels (SPLA). The Janjaweed are not formally attached to either group in the conflict but there is some evidence that the Sudanese government is either allowing the para-military Janjaweed (also Arab) militia to continue attacks on both military and civilian targets in the region of Darfur, Sudan, or the government is incapable of preventing these attacks. These attacks committed by the Janjaweed include such crimes as “attacks against international aid workers, rape and the persecution of its victims, abuse of children, and torture by security forces.”\(^\text{78}\)

The crimes committed against the black African civilians in Darfur have been formally labeled “crimes against humanity” by the United Nations. Following World War II, the Nuremberg Trial Proceedings established a Charter of the International Military Tribunal, in which the following crimes were defined, as committed against civilian populations during times of war or peace. Article 6 of the Charter defines crimes against humanity as, “murder, extermination, enslavement, deportation, and other inhumane acts committed against any civilian population, before or during the war, or persecutions on political, racial or religious grounds in execution of or in connection with any crime within the jurisdiction of the Tribunal, whether or not in violation of the domestic law of the country where perpetrated.”\(^\text{79}\)

In October, 2004, UN Secretary General Kofi Annan established the International Commission of Inquiry on Darfur. In January, 2005, the Commission reported to the UN Security Council that there was sufficient evidence to suggest crimes against humanity had indeed been committed,\(^\text{80}\) and on March 31, 2005, the Security Council passed Resolution 1593, which formally referred the situation in Darfur to the Prosecutor of the ICC.\(^\text{81}\) At this point in time, the Chief Prosecutor is gathering information and evidence to “assess factors including crimes and admissibility.”\(^\text{82}\)

Based on your research of this topic, delegates in this committee will draft a single report on

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\(^{79}\) [http://www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/imt/judlawre.htm](http://www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/imt/judlawre.htm).

\(^{80}\) For the full reports, see: [http://www.icc-cpi.int/library/cases/Report_to_UN_on_Darfur.pdf](http://www.icc-cpi.int/library/cases/Report_to_UN_on_Darfur.pdf).


\(^{82}\) Statement made by ICC Chief Prosecutor Luis Moreno-Ocampo, The Hague, April 1, 2005.
the proper role of governments’ responsibilities when individuals within those governments and/or individuals who are citizens of those governments and thus bound by national laws, are charged with and/or found guilty of crimes against humanity, genocide, and/or war crimes. This report should be based on the resolutions adopted on the first day of the conference, as well as issues and sub-issues raised by the delegates during debate and caucus.

14. Cambodia

The situation in Cambodia is similar to Sudan, in that Cambodia also has been in a state of civil war for much of its modern existence. In 1954, Cambodia received its independence from France, and in 1968, civil war erupted. Various powers alternatively supported different factions in the conflict, primarily based on Cold War dynamics. The US supported the Khmer Republic, and then later the umbrella guerilla groups fighting against the Soviet-supported Vietnamese-backed government in Cambodia from 1979 to 1991. China, in turn, supported the Khmer Rouge regime led by Pol Pot from 1975-1979, and also later as this group joined with the other guerilla groups fighting against the Soviet-supported Vietnamese-backed government in Cambodia.

UN-sponsored peace negotiations from 1988-1991 resulted in the Paris Peace Accord in October, 1991, and elections in May, 1993. Once the long-standing conflict ended and democracy was established, the question of how to address the Khmer Rouge’s crimes committed against the Cambodian people resurfaced. The Pol Pot regime (1975-1979) was reportedly responsible for the deaths of an estimated 1 million Cambodians during those four years.

The Khmer Rouge’s goal during its reign was to create a pure, untainted society for the Cambodian people, and their methods to create this pure society included the use of terror, torture, hard labor and starvation. Many ethnicity scholars have argued that the Khmer Rouge goal of cleansing the Cambodian people and economy of any foreign presence was racially motivated and essentially anti-Vietnamese. Montville (1990) applies a psychodynamic analysis to the Khmer Rouge regime of terror and concludes that the source of the extreme violence could be traced to the Khmer experience of victimhood at the hands of outside aggressors, and especially the Vietnamese.

There have been no significant, official public processes of acknowledgement, apology or legal justice implemented in Cambodia, despite the numerous initiatives proposed by the international community and Cambodian government. The Cambodian government attempted to address the atrocities committed by the Khmer Rouge by launching some limited prosecutions in 1980-82 and again in 1995-97. In the mid-1980s, non-governmental organizations tried to make a case against the Khmer Rouge in the International Court of Justice (ICJ). However, as the ICJ only hears cases brought against states by other state, the non-governmental organizations’ case request was denied. In 1994, the United States and the Cambodian government adopted the US Cambodian Genocide Justice Act, and in 1996, the UN tried to facilitate the establishment of a truth commission.

During 1988-1991 Paris peace negotiations, the Cambodian government raised the possibility of the international community bringing charges against the Khmer Rouge, but nothing came of this, as the Khmer Rouge were still a potent force in the hinterlands of Cambodia and thus their support for the peace process was essential for success. Since 1997, the UN has taken the

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83 Interestingly, shortly after the Khmer Rouge were removed from power by the Vietnamese, the Vietnamese-backed Cambodian government held a trial of the Khmer Rouge leaders, Pol Pot and Ieng Sary, but the sentence of death in absentia was not recognized by the international community because of the illegal nature of the Vietnamese invasion of Cambodia and establishment of a government there controlled by neighboring Vietnam.
initiative, when UN Secretary-General, Kofi Annan issued an unprecedented statement calling on either the Security Council or the General Assembly to establish an _ad hoc_ tribunal on behalf of the Cambodian government. In 1998, the Cambodian government informed the UN it would be easier if such a tribunal were to be set up in Cambodia under Cambodian law with international assistance. This suggestion has become a reality, with the sanctioning of a war crimes tribunal established in Cambodia against the remaining Khmer Rouge ranking officials. Although the trials have not yet begun, delegates in this committee are to use the same tools and procedures as the ICC to draft a single report on the proper role of governments’ responsibilities when individual within those governments and/or individuals who are citizens of those governments and thus bound by national laws, are charged with and/or found guilty of crimes against humanity, genocide, and/or war crimes. This report should be based on the resolutions adopted on the first day of the conference, as well as issues and sub-issues raised by the delegates during debate and caucus.

### 15. Uganda

As with the two preceding cases, Uganda has been in the grips of civil conflict for many years. The current conflict in northern Uganda has its immediate roots in Ugandan independence in 1962, when military groups of different ethnicities and ideologies sought to control the new government. Colonial preference to development of the southern regions and neglect of the north led to an economic imbalance, and higher rates of military service by northern Ugandans in the army were the result, in that soldiers from the north were attempting to garner more resources for their region of Uganda.

The first prime minister was ousted by his army commander, Colonel Idi Amin, in 1971. In Amin's army, his kinsmen from the northwest region began killing soldiers and civilians from other areas of Uganda. Amin was overthrown by rebel Ugandan soldiers and the invading army of Tanzania in 1979. As was the case under previous government, the new government continued to draw heavily from the impoverished northern Ugandan Acholi population. In part because of election fraud that plagued the new government, The National Resistance Army (NRA) was established in the southern areas of Uganda to take up arms to overthrow the government. The NRA took up positions and bases in the area known as the Luwero triangle to the north of the capital, Kampala. In an effort to crush local support of the NRA, the Ugandan army (including its Acholi soldiers) committed gross human rights violations, including the mass killing of thousands of civilians, the looting of property, and the destruction of government buildings and homes.

In 1985, the army reversed its previous allegiance to the government, and overthrew it. Shortly thereafter, the army’s former foe, the NRA, captured the capital in 1986 and led a coup against the army officers who controlled the government after their own coup the previous year. Remnants of the Ugandan army fled into their Acholi homeland in northern Uganda and formed the Ugandan People's Democratic Army (UPDA). In addition to the two main insurgent groups that now fought for control of Uganda (the NRA and the UPDA), another group emerged to further complicate the political and military situation the following year (1987), when Joseph Kony, a school dropout, claimed to have spiritual powers and started his own resistance movement. He was supported by the Acholi-majority UPDA. Kony re-named his new military force the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA), and the LRA has been assisted by the Sudanese government since 1994, in
retaliation for the support the Ugandan government has provided to the Sudanese rebels, the SPLA.\textsuperscript{84}

Over time, the LRA has espoused a cult-like ideology, which seeks to replace the Ugandan government with a regime based on the Biblical Ten Commandments. In the early 1990s, LRA forces began brutalizing the Acholi, the largest ethnic group in the north, whose declining support for the LRA was interpreted as treachery. Civilians were attacked as indirect assaults on the government. The LRA has since carried out large-scale looting and destruction of villages, mutilations, and massacres, resulting in the internal displacement of approximately 1.6 million people, or 90\% of the region’s population. The LRA also has abducted more than 20,000 children to serve as rebel fighters and sexual slaves. Approximately 90\% percent of the LRA currently is comprised of abducted children, who are forced to commit atrocities against their communities and other abductees who attempt to escape. During this LRA campaign against the Ugandan government, an estimated, but unconfirmed, tens of thousands have died.

In December 2003, the president of Uganda took an unprecedented step in refering the situation concerning the LRA to the Prosecutor of the International Criminal Court. On July 8, 2005, after having reviewed the request, the International Criminal Court issued warrants for the arrest for five senior leaders of the LRA and charged with crimes against humanity and war crimes committed in Uganda since July, 2002. The government of Uganda, as a state party to the Rome Statute, is obliged to take steps to bring to justice thousands of others accused of such crimes, including Ugandan government forces and their civilian superiors. Delegates in this committee are to use the same tools and procedures as the ICC to draft a single report on the proper role of governments’ responsibilities when individual within those governments and/or individuals who are citizens of those governments and thus bound by national laws, are charged with and/or found guilty of crimes against humanity, genocide, and/or war crimes. In particular, delegates should address the question of Sudanese responsibility in this case as a protector of the LRA forces. The resultant report should be based on the resolutions adopted on the first day of the conference, as well as issues and sub-issues raised by the delegates during debate and caucus.

\textsuperscript{84} See topic number 13 for a discussion of the SPLA.
GUIDE TO RESEARCHING FOR MODEL UN

Introduction

Information on your assigned country’s history, ideology, policies, alignments and diplomatic character is the single most important item a delegation can possess. Diplomatic success or failure hangs in the balance of the information that you, as a delegate, have gathered and have at your disposal. Therefore it is important to realize that amount and quality of research has a direct impact on your experience at Model UN.

In this section, Model UN offers some suggestions to help you and your delegation reap the most from your time spent researching. These are suggestions that Model UN has found to be the most effective.

Research Goals

1. Quality Representation. Your first and foremost goal should be to represent your assigned country as well as your country’s mission to the United Nations, New York.

2. Gain Confidence. A delegation that has not completely researched the policies of its country will demonstrate a tentativeness and weakness that will be exploited by other delegations. Conversely, a delegation that has researched the policies and attitudes of its assigned country will be confident in its policy positions, and will be able to defend its interests in the simulated international arena.

3. Effective Negotiation. A delegation that has thoroughly researched its country understands both policies and the logic underpinning those policies, and thus becomes adept at creative diplomacy.

4. Transformation. Role playing is the central theme upon which the entire Model UN experience is built. It is only through complete and thorough research that a delegate will be able to become a true representative of his/her assigned country. Thus, each delegate should develop a sense the culture, character, and viewpoint of his/her assigned country. This transformation will make the entire experience richer, and ultimately more satisfying.

Research Tactics

1. Read! By reading, delegates are able to more fully absorb information, and to understand both content and context. In addition, by constantly reading, delegates are more likely to discover new ways of thinking about agenda items, or new avenues to explore later.

2. Start Early. Begin as soon as feasible. Starting early will allow delegates to fully understand country policies. Spend several hours per week from here on out. By working in this way, you will be able to completely understand the topics and integrate more of your research into you arguments, thus making your job easier at the conference.

3. Use Your Librarian. Use the librarian at your institution. He/she often is able to give you helpful tips that could ultimately save you hours of time wasted on researching less reliable sources.

4. Divide the Load. Your delegation should try to divide the assignments as evenly as possible among the whole group. Remember you are one member of a team. Many delegations try to divide
the work along the lines of the committee assignments.

5. **Begin with the Most Recent Sources.** When you run a search on any computerized database, (or in a card-catalog for that matter) you will undoubtedly find a large number of responses, usually without respect to the timeliness of the information. A very useful rule is to begin with the most recent information and then work backwards chronologically. By adopting this approach, you will avoid spending time gathering outdated information. This is not to say that older publications are invalid, but delegates should be cognizant of changing events and circumstances.

6. **Take Notes, Make Copies, & List Sources.** Taking notes is useful. Make copies of relevant speeches, state documents and other important information according to US Copyright laws. Always note where you obtained your information, as this will help you defend your position in debates, as well as facilitate future research.

7. **Note Weaknesses.** As you research, be aware of weaknesses in your assigned country’s policies, especially with regard to inconsistencies in or deviations from official policy. Knowing these weaknesses (every country has them) will make your delegation stronger. As a corollary, each delegate should also make note of the weaknesses of other countries, as such information may be useful in debate.

8. **Share Information.** Always be willing to share information with other members of your delegation. You may run across information that may be useful in another committee, so be sure to pass that along. Not only will you save your colleagues time, but you will strengthen your team. Also, get into the habit of letting other committees know what your country’s policies are for your topics. By doing this, team members are equipped with a more complete understanding of their country’s policies, and thus will become more proficient in creative diplomacy simulations.

**Resources**

1. **Materials From the Mission.** The first place you should search for information about your country is the permanent mission to the United Nations. Most missions will be willing to assist you in finding information. If you do not know the address of the mission of your country you can easily find it on the UN web site. (http://www.un.int/index-en/webs.html).

2. **United States Documents.** Documents published by the UN can be a gold mine for the researching delegate. Among the most useful are: (a) Official Committee Records; (b) Resolutions and Decisions; (c) General Assembly Annexes; (d) Official Records of Plenary Meetings; and (e) Specialized Reports, such as *Report of the Secretary-General*.

3. **Other Materials.** (a) US Government Documents; (b) State Department Background Notes; (c) Department of Defense Area Handbooks; (d) Foreign Broadcast Information Sources (FBIS); (e) Periodicals, such as *African Report, Asian Recorder, Department of State Bulletin, Economist, Foreign Policy, Middle East Journal, and Vital Speeches of the Day*; (f) Newspapers; and (g) Online Sources, such as www.un.org, www.cnn.com, www.bbc.org, and Lexis-Nexis.
RESOLUTIONS

Purpose of Resolutions
Resolutions are the basic decisions or statements of the various organs of the United Nations. They, together with amendments, form the basis of discussion and substantive debate. Although prepared by individual states, or groups of states, they declare the official policy of the organ once passed. Resolutions are binding on all member states only if they are passed in the Security Council. Other UN resolutions are advisory, but they do still hold a lot of weight in the international community. Most states abide by these non-binding resolutions, as evidenced in the relatively few rogue states in the international system today. As a result, resolutions are still the most appropriate way to apply international political pressure on member countries, express the opinions of the body, or recommend a course of action to be taken by the United Nations or another agency.

When drafting a resolution, keep in mind that the wording will directly influence its support (or lack thereof). Resolutions should be kept clear, concise, and specific.

Composition of Resolutions
Each resolution is a single sentence, with the different sections separated by semi-colons, or commas. There is a single period at the end of the resolution. All resolutions should consist of:

1. Preambulatory Clauses. The purpose of the preamble is to provide historical background for the agenda item, as well as to justify the action. Preambulatory clauses usually begin with a participle, and cite appropriate sections of the UN Charter, past UN resolutions, and precedents of international law. The preamble should include specific incidents and examples. Examples of preambulatory clause participles are:

   Affirming  Emphasizing  Having received
   Alarmed by  Expecting  Having studied
   Aware of  Fulfilling  Keeping in mind
   Believing  Fully aware  Noting further
   Bearing in mind  Fully alarmed  Noting with regret
   Confident  Fully believing  Noting with satisfaction
   Contemplating  Further deploring  Noting with deep concern
   Convinced  Having adopted  Realizing
   Declaring  Having considered  Recalling
   Deeply concerned  Having considered further  Recognizing
   Deeply conscious  Having devoted attention  Referring
   Deeply convinced  Having examined  Seeking
   Deeply disturbed  Having heard  Taking note
   Desiring  Welcoming

2. Operative Clauses. Operative clauses are clauses that state the suggested solution to the agenda item. Operative clauses should state the solution in a clear, logical progression. Operative clauses may give a solution that is as vague as expressing concern about a certain situation, or it may be as specific as calling for a cease fire or economic sanctions. Keep in mind that resolutions coming from ECOSOC and the General Assembly are only suggestions, while the resolutions coming from the Security Council are binding on all members. Examples of operative clause words are:
Accepts | Emphasize[s] | Proclaims
Affirms | Encourages | Regrets
Approves | Endorses | Reaffirms
Authorizes | Expresses its hope | Recommends
Calls upon | Further invites | Regrets
Condemns | Further proclaims | Reminds
Confirms | Further recommends | Requests
Considers | Further reminds | Resolves
Declares accordingly | Further requests | Solemnly Affirms
Deplores | Further resolves | Supports
Designate[s] | Have resolved | Takes note of
Draws attention to | Notes | Urges

3. **Tone.** When writing a resolution, keep in mind its tone. A mild, conciliatory tone may simply call for parties involved to seek a settlement to a dispute, while a strongly worded resolution may openly condemn specific countries for actions, and outline a specific course of action for settlement of the dispute.

4. **Wording.** The wording of the resolution will have a tremendous impact on the support it receives from other delegations. Some resolutions are intentionally vague in order to garner consensus as a first step, while others include specific details that are meant to guide present and future action.

**Guidelines for Writing Resolutions**
1. Write all resolutions in English.
2. List the committee, topic, date and submitting country in the top right hand corner.
3. Begin the resolution with the name of the body, followed by a colon (e.g., The Security Council:).
4. Number each line, following the address. Number sequentially throughout the document. DO NOT restart numbering on following pages.
5. Underline the first word (Preambulatory/operative) of each clause.
6. Separate clauses with commas or semi-colon.
7. Place one period at the end of the resolution.

See example resolution below.

**Amendments**
The purpose of amendments is to allow the bodies of the United States to make small changes, or adjustments to the resolutions brought before them. Amendments are not intended to change the meaning of the original resolution. WTMUN recognizes two types of amendments: friendly and unfriendly.

1. **Friendly Amendments:** those amendments that are introduced by the sponsoring state[s], and are usually used to correct punctuation and typographical errors.

2. **Unfriendly Amendments:** those amendments that are introduced by states other than the sponsor[s], and typically seek to change some aspect of the resolution, whether it is adding a line, deleting a line, or making small changes in the wording.
THE SECURITY COUNCIL:

Recalling all previous relevant resolutions and reaffirming all previous resolutions,

Recalling Iraq’s acceptance of resolution 687 (1991) adopted pursuant to chapter VII of the Charter of the United Nations,

Concerned by Iraq’s pattern of violation of agreed upon resolutions,

Disturbed by Iraq’s desire to obtain additional weapons of mass destruction,

Deeply Disturbed by Iraq’s pattern of use of those said weapons of mass destruction in war, and operations other than war,

Determined to prevent Iraq from using intimidation and threats against its neighbors and the United Nations,

Understanding that the Security Council holds Iraq fully responsible for all consequences of failure to comply with any part of this and all previous resolutions;

Let it be resolved, The Security Council:

1. Demands that Iraq immediately come into full compliance with all previous relevant resolutions,

2. Demands that Iraq immediately readmit all weapons inspectors that are connected with UNSCOM, regardless of nationality or political views,

3. Demands that Iraq immediately allow UNSCOM to destroy, or render unless all parts of its weapons of mass destruction program, including but not limited to:
   a. all current stock piles of chemical and biological weapons
   b. all existing parts for the manufacture of nuclear weapons
   c. all documents relevant to the manufacture of the above mentioned weapons
   d. all material used exclusively in the production of nuclear, biological, or chemical weapons
   e. all plants, and machinery related to the production of the above weapons,

4. Resolves to hold all current sanctions in place until the Security Council is sufficiently satisfied that all elements of section 3 have been complete,

5. Decides to remain actively seized to this matter.
POSITION PAPERS

Position papers rather than resolutions are required in the Security Council. Position papers should have the following elements:
1. An introductory paragraph stating the topics under consideration and a general policy of the country writing the paper
2. A beginning sentence for each topic that summarizes the country’s position clearly
3. Several sentences explaining what the UN has done regarding this topic to date
4. Several sentences explaining what kind of work the country wishes to see done in the future. For example, if country A believes that little attention has been paid to the microcredits on the topic of financing for development, then microcredits should be the substance of these sentences
5. A conclusion indicating why country A’s call for more action on microcredits would benefit the entire international community rather than simply benefiting country A, or a small number of countries

Delegations are encouraged to use both the front and back of one single page in order to fully address all topics before the committee. A maximum of one double-sided page will be accepted.

The following is an example of a position paper:

Delegation From: The Republic of Palau Represented by: McMurry University

Position Paper for the ACP Group

The issues before the African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP) Group are: the Role of Good Governance in Promoting Democracy and Human Rights, Building Financial Solidarity Amongst ACP Member States, and there will be an Examination of the Agreements and Goals of the ACP Group. Because these topics are interrelated, the accomplishment of a single goal will increase the likelihood that another goal will be met. By dealing with governmental problems such as graft and corruption, the ACP will help to alleviate human rights violations and promote democracy, financial solidarity, and external trade agreements with other member states. This will help to promote a more peaceful and secure tomorrow for all states.

1. The Role of Good Governance in Promoting Democracy and Human Rights

The Republic of Palau is recognizes that the role of good governance is crucial to promoting democracy and human rights within the member states of the ACP. One of the greatest obstacles to promoting democracy and human rights is corruption and graft within the governing bodies, which, if not addressed, may seriously compromise international peace and security. Only through continued multilateral action between the ACP member states and continuing aid from other outside sources can ACP member states properly address the issues of graft and corruption afflicting fellow member states.

The Republic of Palau also recognizes that a strong economy is essential to promoting and maintaining a healthy democracy and therefore supports the efforts of the international community to promote a healthy relationship between world powers and developing nations. Thus, the Republic of Palau is a supporter of the fourth pillar of the Cotonou Agreement which concerns creating a new
framework for economic and trade cooperation.

The need for humanitarian intervention emanates from the need to perfect the country’s current institutions of governance. The Republic of Palau acknowledges that the Cotonou Agreement will be instrumental in pressuring the resolution of conflicts (through the enforcement of the Cotonou Agreement) which in turn will help to further stabilize the ACP member states and other states in crisis. However, without all of the ACP member states observing the rule of law, the ACP cannot hope to govern well as a collective entity, and thus cannot collectively promote both democracy and human rights. Thus, it is the Republic of Palau’s opinion that the EU should, at all costs, resist the urge to sanction Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) which might be at higher risk of violating the humanitarian aspects of Cotonou Agreement. The full enforcement of the Cotonou Agreement may lead to an escalation in violation and even worse, may produce anti-EU sentiments within the failing states, which would hinder any further aid and/or trade efforts, and thus severely undermine the intent of the agreement.

2. Building Financial Solidarity Amongst ACP Member States

The Republic of Palau recognizes that the European Union’s (EU) European free trade agreement has the potential to be effective in principle; however, Palau is certain that without the advantages of selling a tariff free product, disadvantaged countries will lose the ability to sell their products at competitive prices. When combined with the already decreasing revenue produced by ACP exports, some ACP member states may never fully meet the UN Millennium Development Goals.

In addition, given the devastation caused by the 24 December 2004 tsunami, trade among many ACP member states has been seriously disrupted, and in some instances halted, between many member states, thereby nullifying progress that might have been benefited ACP economies. In particular, degraded or unhealthy coastlines may render resumption of ecotourism in many ACP states difficult for many years, thereby placing additional, unexpected economic burdens on ACP member states that Cotonou cannot ameliorate in the short-term. Therefore, international trade in this region requires extra competitive edges in the world market that will maximize revenues while at the same time allowing for a free and fairer international market.

3. Examining Agreements and Goals of the ACP Group

The Republic of Palau acknowledges that the Cotonou agreement is a step in the right direction. Some of the steps of most interest to the Republic of Palau deal with the refocusing of policies on poverty reduction strategies, enhancing cooperation in all areas important to trade, and improving the policy framework for trade and investment development. However, the Republic of Palau is disturbed by the Cotonou Agreement’s ability to take away leverage from the ACP Group as a whole. Without the ability to remain steadfast as an entity, the ACP loses some of its bargaining power and prowess as an international entity. The Republic of Palau is confident that the regional dissection of ACP problems has led to and will lead to continued violations of the Cotonou Agreement and may eventually lead to the instability of several ACP member states. The Republic of Palau strongly supports the five year revision clause with the assumption that it will allow many ACP member states to continue to assess their financial interests and establish a stronger foundation for economic development under the Cotonou Agreement in the future.
RULES OF PROCEDURE

Application of the Rules
The following rules concerning the conduct of business shall apply to all organs of Model UN unless otherwise noted in special rules for the General Assembly, Security Council, ECOSOC, or the various Committees.

1. The term "CHAIR" shall be used in the following rules to denote the presiding officer of the committee, assembly, etc.

2. The term "BODY" shall be used to denote the appropriate organ of Model UN.

3. The Legal Counsel has the authority to interpret and apply all rules concerning conduct of business, as well as hand out judgments as situations merit such actions.

4. All matters not clearly defined in these rules of procedure shall be conducted upon the interpretation of the Legal Counsel.

Order of Business
Upon convening, the order of business for each body shall be: (1) Call to order by the Chair; (2) Roll call; (3) One minute of silent meditation or reflection; (4) Determination or announcement of pending business (Orders of the Day); (5) Debate of amendments of pending business; (6) Vote on final passage of pending business; (7) Rise and report (Committees); and (8) Adjourn.

Speakers List
The Chair may establish a speaker's list, recognize speakers from such list, and close the list, rather than calling on speakers in regular order.

Obtaining the Floor
No delegate shall engage in debate or make any motion requiring recognition without having first been recognized by the Chair. The Chair shall equitably recognize delegates in the order in which they seek the floor.

Limitations and Rights of Speakers
1. A delegate, having obtained the floor, may engage in debate and/or offer any motion or amendment then in order. Motions not required to be made in timely fashion (e.g. appeals, objection to consideration) may be made at the conclusion of the speaker’s remarks.

2. For the purpose of debate only, a speaker may yield all or a part of his allotted time to another delegate, but shall have the right to reclaim the floor upon demand.

3. No speaker may hold the floor for more than ten consecutive minutes.

4. No speaker may read from books or papers without first having obtained consent of the chair.

5. All debate shall be germane to the matter under consideration or its procedural status, and shall
6. The Chair, on his/her own initiative or point of order raised by any delegation, may call a speaker to order for undiplomatic remarks or other violation of the rules, and may either direct the speaker to proceed in order or terminate recognition of the speaker.

**Right of Reply**
The Chair, upon request, may grant a two minute right of reply to any delegate, when that delegate or his country has been the subject of personally insulting or undiplomatic remarks. Delegates should request such rights by rising to a point of order in a timely fashion.

**Points of Order**
A delegate may rise to a point of order any time, and may do so without securing recognition. If necessary, a speaker may be interrupted. Such a point must pertain to a violation of the rules, charter, or the Code of Diplomatic Ethics. The Chair shall rule on the point raised. Abuse of this right constitutes undiplomatic conduct.

**Points of Information**
Without interrupting a speaker, a delegate may rise to inquire of the Chair as to the current parliamentary situation, to request the pending business be stated, or to obtain other information useful to the body. A delegate so rising should display a placard and call out "Point of Information," and wait for further recognition from the Chair. The Chair shall respond to all proper requests for information.

**Points of Privilege**
A delegate may rise at any time to a point of privilege, without securing recognition and interrupting a speaker if necessary. These items involve extreme personal discomfort, the dignity of the body, or an inability to proceed under existing circumstances. The most common points occur when delegates cannot hear a speaker due to disruption or noise. The Chair shall rule on and deal with such points as they arise.

**Appeals**
Any delegate may, without securing recognition and interrupting a speaker if necessary, appeal the decision of the Chair, except in cases where the Chair is given discretion in a ruling or if the rules specifically address the issue. Before a vote on an appeal is taken, the Chair shall recognize one delegate in favor of the decision of the Chair, and one in opposition, and the Chair may speak in explanation of the ruling. The question shall be put "Those in favor of sustaining the decision of the Chair shall vote Yea, and those opposed, No," and a majority shall decide the question. If the vote is equally divided, the decision of the Chair shall prevail.

**Questions**
If at any time before giving up the floor a speaker agrees to yield to questions, the Chair may recognize other delegates for the purpose of posing questions to the speaker. Such questions may continue until the speaker's time expires or the speaker refuses to entertain further questions.

**Author’s Explanation**
The Chair shall, before recognizing others, afford the author of a resolution or amendment the first
opportunity to speak on the debate of such resolution or amendment.

Recess
Any delegate may move that the body recess for no more than twenty minutes for the purpose of general caucus. The Chair may reject such motion, or reduce the time proposed, taking into consideration the time constraints of the conference and the number of previous recesses.

Dilatory Procedure
The Chair may rule out of order any motion or amendment that repeats a previous action of the body. In the event that a body becomes unable to make progress due to procedural impasse, the Legal Counsel may place matters before the body, remove questions from consideration, limit debate, or declare specified motions or items of business out of order. No appeal shall be permitted under this rule.

Suspension of the Rules
Except for rules that permit discretionary action of the Chair or any member of the Secretariat, any body may, by a motion made by a delegate in regular order and approved by 2/3 majority, and no debate, suspend any procedural rule. Such a motion shall not create precedent, and shall be limited to a single purpose stated in such motion.

Closing, Limiting, or Extending Debate
Any delegate may move to close debate by moving the previous question. Such motions require an affirmative vote of 2/3 of those present and voting for adoption. If adopted, the body then votes forthwith on the pending business.

Example #1: If a resolution is being debated and no amendment is pending, a delegate desiring an immediate vote may, if he can obtain the floor, offer the following: "I move the previous question." If adopted, this has the effect of closing debate and causing an immediate vote on the resolution.

Example #2: If an amendment is on the floor, and a delegate moves the previous question, an immediate vote occurs on the pending amendment, following which, further amendments or debate on the resolution is in order.

Upon demand, the Chair shall have the intent of any amendments at the desk read before the vote on the previous question on the resolution.

Example: If the previous question is moved on a resolution, and amendments have been made in writing and properly seconded, but not yet offered, any delegate may demand that the intent of these amendments be read before voting to cut off further debate and amendments.

Any delegate may move to limit debate to a given time period, to a certain number of speakers, or to require a vote at a certain time. Such motions are not debatable, and must receive the affirmative vote of 2/3 of those present and voting to prevail.

After debate has been limited, any delegate may move to extend the period of debate. To prevail, such motions must receive the affirmative vote of 2/3 of those present and voting.
Lay on the Table
Any delegate may move to lay on the table any resolution, amendment, or motion on the floor. The motion to table is not debatable, and is decided by majority vote. Any item laid on the table may be taken from the table, by motion and majority vote when no other business is pending.

Reconsideration
Any delegate who voted on the prevailing side of any question, may move for reconsideration of that question. The Chair shall recognize one speaker in favor and one in opposition to the question. The affirmative vote of 2/3 of those present and voting shall be required to adopt the motion, and if adopted, the body shall return to the state of business as existed immediately before the vote on the question to be reconsidered.

Dividing the Question
Immediately before a vote on final passage, any delegate may move that separate activating clauses of a resolution be divided and voted on separately. The Chair shall accept one speaker in favor and one speaker in opposition before putting the question on division. If division is approved by the majority of the body, voting on each divided portion of the resolution shall be conducted by placard vote, and all clauses approved shall then be put to a roll call vote as a whole.

Amendments
Friendly amendments may be proposed by any delegate, including the author of a resolution, or the Chair, and shall be limited to corrections of grammar, spelling, syntax, or other changes that do not change the substance of a question. Such friendly amendments are not debatable, and should be adopted by consent.

No amendment to a preambulatory clause shall be in order, except an amendment to strike such a clause, which shall be debated by one speaker in favor and one against, and the question shall then be put to vote. No amendment adding a preambulatory clause shall be in order.

Amendments, other than friendly amendments, shall be submitted in writing to the Rapporteur on the prescribed form before being called up by a delegate. All amendment forms must include a brief statement of the intent of the amendment.

Objection to Consideration and Question of Competence
Without obtaining recognition, and interrupting a speaker if necessary, a delegate may object to the consideration of any resolution or amendment. At any time before final vote on a question, a delegate may question the competence of the body to act on the matter.

Should either of the above motions be entered, the Chair, without entertaining debate, shall explain the motion and put the question in this matter. "Shall the body consider the question?" The question shall continue to be in order, unless the body by 2/3 vote in the negative, elects not to consider the matter or rules the body incompetent.

Motions Not in Order. The following motions shall not be in order:
1. To refer to committee
2. To postpone to a definite time
3. To postpone to an indefinite time
4. To strike the enacting clause
5. To rescind a motion
**Voting Rights**
Each member delegation shall have one vote in each body of which it is a member. No body shall have authority to restrict such rights, unless so approved by the Secretary-General.

**Methods of Voting**
1. Voting may be by voice, show of hands, placard, or roll call. Except for voting on final passage of a resolution, which shall always be by roll call, the Chair shall first determine the method of vote. Any delegate who disputes or objects to the announcement of the result of any vote by voice or show of hands, may demand a division which shall be by placard vote. The numerical division of all placard votes shall be announced by the Chair.

2. Notwithstanding the foregoing rules, any delegate may propose that a question be adopted by unanimous consent. For that purpose, a delegate may call out "CONSENT" as the Chair puts the question. The Chair shall then ask if there is any objection to the question then under consideration. If no delegation objects, the question shall be passed unanimously. If objection is made, the Chair will put the question as if consent had not been suggested.

3. Roll call votes shall be taken on the question of final passage of any resolution, at the request of a majority of all delegations represented in the body, or by order of the Chair. The vote shall begin by a delegation randomly selected by the Chair, and shall proceed in English alphabetical order. When called, each delegation shall vote either YEA, NO, ABSTAIN, or PASS.

   When voting YEA or NO, a delegation may also reserve rights of explanation, but must reserve these rights at the time of their vote. After the roll shall have been called, those states previously voting PASS shall be called a second time, and shall either vote YEA, NO, or ABSTAIN. If a delegation fails to give a vote the second time, the vote shall be recorded as ABSTAIN.

   Before tallying the vote, the Chair shall inquire if any delegation wishes to change its vote. After noting such changes, the final tally shall be prepared. Before announcing the vote, the Chair shall recognize any delegation desiring rights of explanation, for a period of time determined solely by the Chair.

4. Delegations may ABSTAIN or PASS only on substantive matters. All procedural votes must be either in the affirmative or negative.

5. From the time the calling of the roll has begun until the vote is announced, absolute decorum shall be maintained. No written or verbal communication shall be permitted, nor shall any delegate or observer enter or leave the chamber. No delegate shall address the Chair, except for a point of order or privilege pertaining to the conduct of the vote.
Results of Votes
Except for votes requiring 2/3 of member countries present and voting, questions in committee or the General Assembly shall be passed by the affirmative vote of a majority of delegation present and voting. "Present and Voting" shall mean a delegation voting Yea or No. Abstentions shall not affect the results. (Example: A question receiving 10 votes Yes, 8 votes No, with 32 abstentions would pass). If the vote is equally divided, the question fails.

The following questions require the affirmative votes of 2/3 of those present and voting for adoption: (1) Suspension of the Rules; (2) To end debate (Previous Question); (3) and To close debate and move to immediate voting; and (4) To reconsider a vote.

The following questions, although put to the affirmative, require the negative votes of 2/3 of those present and voting for adoption: (1) To object to the consideration; and (2) Question the competence of the chair.

Adjournment
No motion for a committee to rise, or for the General Assembly to adjourn shall be in order until suggested by the Chair.
DIPLOMATIC CODE OF ETHICS

Participants in the Model UN experience are expected to be reasonable and responsible men and women who have organized for the purpose of learning and simulating the dynamics of the United Nations system in an orderly and professional environment. Toward that end, the Secretary-General of Model UN has formulated these statutes. A breach of these statutes is considered an offense against the sensibilities and respect of the other members of the organization, and may result in expulsion from the conference.

Statutes:
1. Every participant shall act and treat all other members with diplomatic courtesy, respect, and maintain diplomatic and professional decorum befitting his or her delegation or staff position.

2. Secretariat members shall carry out their duties within the limits established by the Secretary-General and the Secretariat of the organization.

3. Delegation members shall act within the limits established by their country’s actions and foreign policy.

4. Every participant shall allow delegates and Secretariat members to execute their duties. This shall not prejudice the jurisdiction of the Secretariat in matters involving rights and privileges of membership.

5. No participant shall, in any way, misrepresent himself or herself as a member of the staff, another delegate, or as an outside observer.

6. No participant shall possess or utilize any material not pertaining to the direct and professional performance of his or her duties as a delegate.

7. No participant shall disrupt or conspire to disrupt any meeting of any body of the Model UN or intentionally violate its rules.

8. No participant shall possess unauthorized delegate or Secretariat materials other than that of their own.

9. Members of the Secretariat shall not improperly disclose confidential Secretariat information.

10. The sending of notes not directly pertaining to the Model UN constitutes undiplomatic behavior.

11. Conspiracy to commit any of the above constitutes undiplomatic behavior.

12. Any attempt to commit any of the above is a violation thereof.
RULES OF PERSONAL BEHAVIOR

Prohibited Behavior. The following behavior is prohibited during the meeting of any body of the West Texas Model United Nations:
1. Caucusing on the floor
2. Misuse of pages
3. Possession of items not related to the conduct of the business of the WTMUN
4. Credentials improperly displayed
5. Display of unauthorized national symbols
6. Harassing a speaker
7. Failure to follow Secretariat Instructions
8. Disruption of any meeting of the WTMUN
9. Undiplomatic behavior

Any participant committing any of the above prohibited behaviors, or not following established codes, shall be noted by the committee Chair, along with the offense. The following sanctions shall apply for violations of these rules:
1. The first offense shall result in a verbal warning,
2. The second offense shall result in a written warning,
3. The third offense shall result in the loss of debating rights for one hour,
4. The fourth offense shall result in the loss of all rights, including voting rights, for two hours,
5. The fifth offense shall result in a copy of the violation and the record of the previous violations being sent to the Legal Council with a request for appropriate disciplinary steps to be taken.
6. The imposition of any sanction other than verbal warnings shall be communicated, in writing, to the sponsor of the delegation.

The following behavior also is prohibited during the meeting of any body of West Texas Model United Nations, as well as prohibited on the campus of McMurry University:
1. Any form of tobacco use within the meeting facilities,
2. The possession of any of the following articles: (a) Alcoholic beverages; (b) Firearms or explosives of any type; (c) Pets, except with the approval of the Secretary-General.
3. Behavior that threatens the safety and health of another person, such as over-display of affection, or violation of any federal, state, or municipal law.

Any such behavior demonstrated on campus shall result in immediate dismissal from the WTMUN conference.

West Texas Model United Nations and McMurry University cannot assume responsibility, at any time, for the private property of its students, or guests and is not liable for the loss or damage of any article of personal property placed anywhere on the premises of the campus.