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Global Classrooms:

HUMAN RIGHTS UNIT

Teachers's Guide

UNA-USA's Global Classrooms®
Learn. Live. Lead.

Global Classrooms: Human Rights Unit

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Global Classrooms is an innovative educational program that engages middle school and high school students in an exploration of current world issues through interactive simulations and curricular materials. Global Classrooms cultivates literacy, life skills and the attitudes necessary for active citizenship.

The United Nations Association of the United States of America (UNA-USA) is a nonprofit membership organization dedicated to building understanding for the ideals and work of the UN among the American people. Its education, policy and advocacy programs emphasize the importance of cooperation among nations and the need for American leadership at the UN. UNA-USA is affiliated with the World Federation of United Nations Associations, which began in 1946 as a peoples' movement for the UN.

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SECTION I

Using the Curriculum

The *Global Classrooms* Human Rights Unit can be adapted for middle school and high school students, grades 6-12, in any level Model UN program, from beginner through experienced. The unit, revised in 2010, consists of the Teacher's Guide you are now reading, which can be printed on demand at Amazon.com, as well as multimedia teaching and learning tools available via compact disk. Please visit www.unausa.org/humanrightsunit to access materials related to the Human Rights Unit.

The curriculum can be use in its entirety, or particular units can be selected either for their topic emphasis or their skill emphasis. Each of the five units is divided into three or four lessons. It is at the discretion of the teacher to decide how long to spend on each lesson given the needs and strengths of the class. Some lessons can be completed in a single class period, while others may require multiple class periods.

It is also at the discretion of the teacher to make adaptations necessary for accommodating the learners in their classroom. For example, some human right topics may be considered inappropriate for younger middle school students. In addition, students learn at different paces and have access to different resources. We encourage teachers to make adaptations to ensure that all students can access the web-based resources they need to complete their assignments. This may require additional computer lab time or other alterations to the lesson plans.

New to Model UN?

If you are new to Model UN – welcome! Some good ways to get started are to observe a Model UN simulation, either in-person, or on the Internet. You can find many Model UN videos on YouTube. Type in "Model UN for Everyone" to view the UNA-USA video on Model UN (this video can be helpful to students as well.) Next, check out "Model UN 101" on the UNA-USA website, at www.unausa.org/modelun101. Finally, if your students are new to Model UN, you will want to draw heavily from Section II: Model UN Skills. The *Global Classrooms* Model UN Preparation Guide is available online at www.unausa.org/munpreparation.

Experienced with Model UN?

If you and your students are experienced with Model UN, you may find that the units, which each emphasize a particular skill, are sufficient for reviewing and honing skills associated with Model UN. For additional resources about Model UN skills, you can utilize Section II: Model UN Skills, as well as the materials on the *Global Classrooms* website at www.unausa.org/modelun101, and www.unausa.org/mun preparation.

Teacher's Guide

The Teacher's Guide is divided into five sections: Introduction, Model UN Skills, Lessons, Handouts, and Glossary as outlined below.

I. Introduction

This section provides teachers and facilitators with background information on the revised Human Rights Unit and its alignment with standards established by the US Department of Education as well as the National Council for the Social Studies.

II. Model UN Skills

This section is designed for teachers and/or classes that are new to Model UN. These lessons from *The Guide to Delegate Preparation* provide an introduction to the medium of Model UN simulation, as well as a foundation in the necessary skills. For experienced Model UNers, the skills-based lessons embedded within each unit of the Human Rights Curriculum will serve to strengthen students' approach to research, position paper writing, public speaking, negotiation, and resolution writing.

III. Lessons

The lessons are organized into five units. Each unit contains 3-5 flexible lessons written in the following format:

Objective: Identifies what students should be able to do by the completion of the lesson.

Essential Questions: Questions that probe for deeper understanding and set the stage for further examination; these questions foster the development of critical thinking skills and higher order thinking, such as problem-solving and understanding complex systems.

Multimedia Resources: A description of the digital teaching and learning tools available via online download and compact disk that can assist in meeting lesson objectives. Download the PowerPoint presentations visit www.unausa.org/humanrightsunit .

Handouts: A listing of the handouts associated with each unit, which can be found in the Handouts section.

Learning Activities: Activities that teachers may choose from to meet the objectives outlined in each lesson.

IV. Handouts

There are five handouts per unit: one background reading, one primary document reading, one case study, one skills-based handout, and one simulation guide. A table of contents for all of the curriculum's handouts can be found on page 45.

V. Glossary

The Glossary section contains the definitions of key words and concepts. It can be used by the instructor or provided to students as a handout.

Multimedia Resources

The curriculum is accompanied by five PowerPoint presentations available via online download and compact disc. The CD includes the Teacher's guide and the five PowerPoint presentations with multimedia teaching and learning tools. To download the PowerPoint presentations visit www.unausa.org/humanrightsunit.

On the Revised Human Rights Unit

The *Global Classrooms* Human Rights Unit was first published in 2003. This 2010 revision and expansion of the Human Rights Unit was made possible through the generous support and encouragement of Newman's Own, in recognition of the life and work of Mr. Leo Nevas, attorney and staunch supporter of human rights causes. This revision maintains the focus on Model United Nations as the medium of instruction, but expands upon the depth and breadth of material to provide comprehensive and meaningful instruction on some of the most pressing human rights concerns of our time.

Model UN is the long-standing educational tradition of authentic simulation of UN bodies, such as the General Assembly, Security Council, and other multilateral organs. Through Model UN, students step into the shoes of ambassadors from UN member states and participate in a unique, interactive educational process that engages more than 500,000 participants around the world each year.

The United Nations Association of the United States of America (UNA-USA) offers the Model UN experience to teachers and students through *Global Classrooms* curriculum units. Designed for students in grades 6-12, *Global Classrooms* fits easily into American history, global studies, civics, and economics curricula, as well as law, English language arts (ELA) and the humanities.

Since its inception in 1999, the *Global Classrooms* program has given middle school and high school students in the United States and around the world the opportunity to thrive intellectually and socially through in-class and conference-based simulation of the United Nations. *Global Classrooms* shapes students' characters and personalities, academic performance and life skills. Students who participate in the program:

1. Become expert researchers as they investigate multilateral issues from a national perspective;
2. Acquire negotiation skills by role-playing as representatives of a particular country or non-governmental entity;
3. Develop public speaking and debating skills as they articulate their assigned country's stance on different issues;
4. Engage in consensus-building while taking into account the views and opinions of others; and
5. Learn to respect and become sensitive to others as they interact with people who may be different from their own family, friends, and community members.

Global Classrooms, similar to any successful Model UN experience, requires a three-step instructional sequence:

1. *Preparation*: Students will study and research the United Nations and its work, the government policies and interests of a UN Member state, regional bloc, or interest group, and issues dealing with human rights as outlined by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

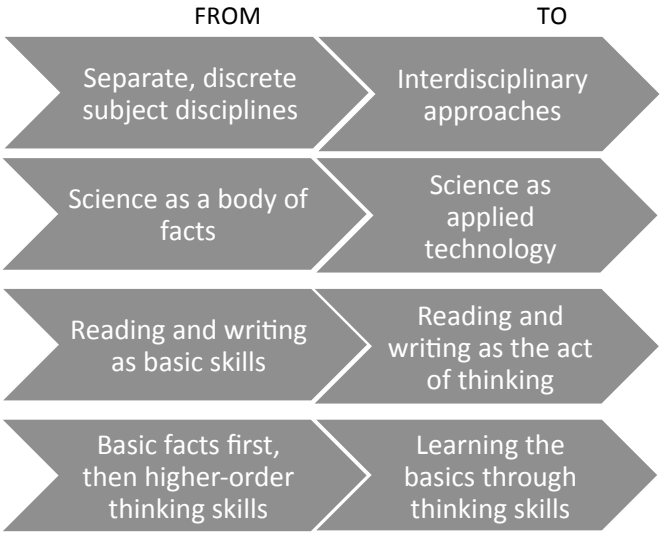
2. *Participation:* All the learning and understanding gained from preparation quickly comes to life as students become representatives of different UN Member States or representatives from civil society. It is at this stage that students encounter the social and life skills associated with the Model UN experience: public speaking, negotiating, listening, conflict resolution, organization, consensus-building, and management of time and resources. Simulations are initially in-class

activities, but motivated students can move on to school-wide, city-wide, or even international conferences. For more information on local and national Model UN Conferences, please visit the Model UN Conference calendar at www.unausa.org.

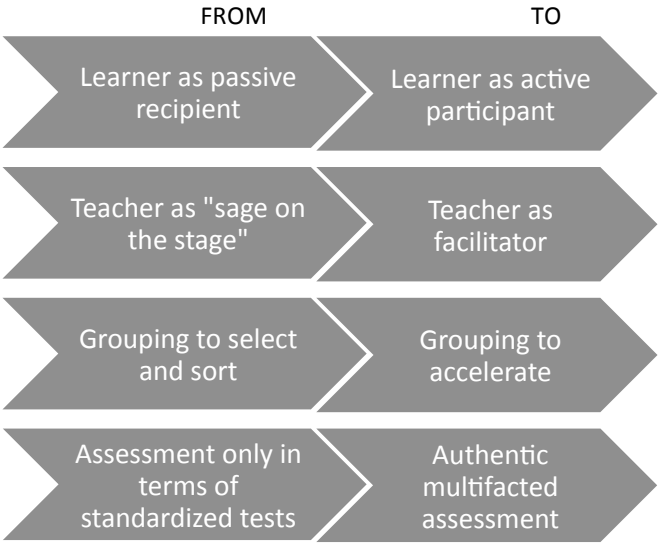
3. Evaluation: Evaluating the results of student preparation and participation is an important way to provide feedback and promote reflection by students.

Successful implementation of the *Global Classrooms* curriculum can be part of a paradigm shift going on in curriculum and instruction, as illustrated by the figures below.

Paradigm Shift in curriculum:



Paradigm Shift in instruction:



Global Classrooms and the Standards

National Council for the Social Studies Standards

I. **Culture:** Social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study of *culture and cultural diversity*, so that the learner can:
   a. explore and describe similarities and differences in the ways groups, societies, and cultures address similar human needs and concern.
   d. compare ways in which people from different cultures think about and deal with their physical environment and social conditions.

II. **Time, Continuity, & Change**: Social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study *of the ways human beings view themselves in and over time*, so that the learner can:
   e. demonstrate an understanding that people in different times and places view the world differently.
   f. use knowledge of facts and concepts drawn from history, along with elements of historical inquiry, to inform decision-making about and action-taking on public issue.

III. **People, Places, & Environments:** Social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study *of people, places, and environments*, so that the learner can:
   g. describe how people create places that reflect ideas, personality, culture, and wants and needs as they design homes, playgrounds, classrooms, and the like.

IV. **Individual Development & Identity:** Social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study of *individual development and identit*y, so that the learner can:
   g. analyze a particular event to identify reasons individuals might respond to it in different ways.

V. **Individuals, Groups, & Institutions:** Social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study of *interactions among individuals, groups, and institutions,* so that the learner can:
   d. identify and describe examples of tensions between and among individuals, groups, or institutions, and how belonging to more than one group can cause internal conflicts.
   e. identify and describe examples of tensions between and individual's beliefs and government policies and laws.

VI. **Power, Authority, & Governance:** Social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study of *how people create and change structures of power, authority, and governance,* so that the learner can:
   c. give examples of how government does or does not provide for the needs and wants of people, establish order and security, and manage conflict.
   h. recognize and give examples of the tensions between the wants and needs of individuals and groups, and concepts such as fairness, equity, and justice.

VII. **<u>Production, Distribution, & Consumption:</u>** Social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study of *how people organize for the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services,* so that the learner can:

a. identify examples of private and public goods and services.

National Councils of Teachers of English and International Reading Association Standards

III. Students apply a wide range of strategies to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and appreciate texts. They draw on their prior experience, their interactions with other readers and writers, their knowledge of word meaning and of other texts, their word identification strategies, and their understanding of textual features (e.g., sound-letter correspondence, sentence structure, context, graphics).

IV. Students adjust their use of spoken, written, and visual language (e.g., conventions, style, vocabulary) to communicate effectively with a variety of audiences and for different purposes.

VII. Students conduct research on issues and interests by generating ideas and questions, and by posing problems. They gather, evaluate, and synthesize data from a variety of sources (e.g., print and non-print texts, artifacts, people) to communicate their discoveries in ways that suit their purpose and audience.

Standards for Civics and Government

I. What are Civic Life, Politics, and Government?

A. What is civic life? What is politics? What is government? Why are government and politics necessary? What purposes should government serve?

B. What are the essential characteristics of limited and unlimited government?

C. What are the nature and purposes of constitutions?

D. What are alternative ways of organizing constitutional governments?

IV. What is the Relationship of the United States to Other Nations and to World Affairs?

A. How is the world organized politically?

B. How do the domestic politics and constitutional principles of the United States affect its relations with the world?

C. How has the United States influenced other nations, and how have other nations influenced American politics and society?

V. What are the Roles of the Citizen in American Democracy?

A. What is citizenship?

B. What are the rights of citizens?

C. What are the responsibilities of citizens?

D. What civic dispositions or traits of private and public character are important to the preservation and improvement of American constitutional democracy?

E. How can citizens take part in civic life?

SECTION II

Model UN Skills

PREPARING FOR THE SIMULATION

RESEARCH
POSITION PAPERS
COUNTRY INFORMATION CHART
COMMITTEE OVERVIEW CHART

THE MODEL UN SIMULATION

RULES OF PROCEDURE
FLOW OF DEBATE

Preparing for the Simulation

By studying the UN and its member states, Model UN students gain invaluable insight into international affairs that is later focused through debate and writing. Although Model UN requires specific types of research and interpretation, these skills can be used in a variety of other fields and academic subjects.

No matter how much experience a Model UN student has, there are always new research sources and methods he or she can use. This section, excerpted from A Guide to Delegate Preparation, outlines the foundations of Model UN research and describes some effective methods of collecting, organizing and interpreting information.

The Stages of Model UN Research

In general, Model UN research begins with a background guide and culminates in the creation of a country position. But there are several steps to this process.

1. Background Guides

Model UN background guides (also called issue summaries or issue overviews) are the primary researching resources for delegates. Usually, each committee at a conference publishes its own guide, which is typically anywhere from 2-8 pages long and written by the committee's director or chairperson. Model UN research should always begin by reading a background guide thoroughly (assuming one is provided). But even the most comprehensive background guides will not provide all the answers. Delegates should use guides to get an overview of the topic and then continue researching to develop their individual country positions.

Though different conferences structure their materials in different ways, background guides generally begin with an explanation of the **committee's history**, mandate and operation.

Next, they provide a brief introduction and move into a more detailed **background or history on the issue**. While reading this section, identify the main events underlying or contributing to the problem. Later, correlate these events to points in your country's history. If it has not been mentioned in the guide, find out if your nation played a role in any significant developments regarding the topic. Finally, highlight or underline key terms, documents, dates or definitions that will be necessary for both research and discussion. Keep in mind that other delegates will also be reading the guide thoroughly and will be referring to terms and events explained in it during the conference.

Next, guides outline **past international actions** taken by nations, the UN or other international bodies in response to the issue. Again, use this material to determine what role, if any, your country played in responding to the problem. It is often helpful to research if your nation has faced a similar problem or taken steps to avoid it. Finally, make note of all relevant UN resolutions, conventions, treaties or agreements on the topic so that you can study them in greater detail later. Reviewing past international actions carefully will help you to understand how the UN has addressed a problem in the past so that you can avoid proposing similar solutions during the conference.

In order to jumpstart student research, some Model UN conferences publish **bloc positions** in their background guides. These can allow students to compare their nation's views with those of their neighbors and will help spark consensus-building once the conference is underway. In addition, by reading the bloc positions from other regions of the world, delegates can predict points of contention and work to overcome them right when the conference begins.

Finally, most guides offer **recommendations for drafting a resolution** in committee and **questions for delegates to consider**. The recommendations provide insight into what conference organizers expect the committee to accomplish. Given that Model UN simulations usually have a restricted time limit, committee staff will often focus debate on a few key issues. If a background guide includes these recommendations, take them as signposts for your research and try to develop ways in which the ideas could be addressed by the committee. Questions at the end of the guide also provide helpful guidelines for research. Try to answer each question, based upon your country's perspective, prior to the conference. If the conference requires position papers, you should include succinct answers to these questions in those as well.

Some conferences also include a section outlining **resources for additional research**. But even the **bibliography or works cited list** can provide worthwhile information. As you conduct your research, locate the resources quoted in or used to write the background guide. If the guide cites websites, explore them thoroughly, checking for other relevant links. If the guide cites a journal or newspaper, look through more recent editions to see if the topic has been addressed since.

Many conferences allow students to contact their committee chairpersons prior to the simulation in order to ask questions about information in the background guides. If your conference supports this, encourage members to utilize the expertise of those running the committees.

Using your Background Guide

- Underline words you don't know, and then try to find out what these words mean and how they relate to the topic.
- Try to identify statements in the background guide that are fact and those that are debatable. How would your country explain the facts? Would they agree with the opinions?
- Are the examples given specific to your country or region? If not, can you find another example from your country's region?
- If other students in your class are representing a different country, what are the similarities and differences in how your country and their country feel about the topic?
- Try to answer the "Questions to Consider" listed at the end of the background guide. You may not be able to answer all of them right away, but they should point you in the right direction for further research.
- What points in the background guide will you address and include in your position paper?
- Use the sources for further research as a way to get started as you look for more information.

2. UN Research

Once you have received your committee assignments and read the background guide, begin researching your assigned committee in order to fully understand its structure and place in the UN system. A good place to start is the website of the committee itself. Students can access a UN system chart at www.un.org/aboutun/chart_en.pdf and click on any UN body to be taken to its homepage.

It is important to research the types of issues your committee addresses and how it takes action. While some UN bodies draft resolutions recommending action, others issue statements or decisions citing member states' opinions on topics. Still others can focus funding toward national or regional programs aimed at solving a serious problem. In order to know what type of action you can advocate during the conference, research what types of action your committee has taken in the past. In many cases, UN bodies also publish annual reports highlighting their work. These can be helpful resources for determining the body's past actions regarding a specific topic.

While researching your assigned committee, it is also important to understand the basics of the UN itself. Familiarize yourself with the UN Charter, the UN system chart, and the history of the United Nations.

3. Country Research

Once you have your country assignment, begin researching your nation's government, people and culture. Try to get a basic historical picture of your country by focusing on when it achieved independence, when it became a UN member state and what type of governments it has had (e.g. democratic, totalitarian, socialist, etc.). In addition, you should have a detailed map showing your nation and its neighbors.

When researching your country, it is best to begin by reading information published by the government and overviews of your nation's political, economic and social characteristics. Visit www.un.int for a list of all UN permanent mission homepages. Although some nations do not maintain permanent mission websites, while others maintain sites in a language other than English, this listing can be a helpful starting point. In addition, www.embassy.org provides a list of all foreign embassies in Washington.

Finally, country profiles can be found at www.countrywatch.com, through the US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) World Factbook at www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-worldfactbook/index.html and through the US State Department at www.state.gov/countries. It is also helpful to read news sources from your assigned country to get an idea of important current events and issues. Students can visit www.newspapers.com to search for newspapers in specific countries. While some papers are only published in a foreign language, others will be in English or have English sections.

4. Issue Background

In order to debate an issue at a Model UN conference, you must understand why it is a problem today and what has been done to address it in the past. Similarly, even if you are in a double delegation, with two students representing one nation in a committee, both students must be knowledgeable about all topics that may be discussed.

Information on specific issues can be found in a variety of sources. Usually, UN bodies addressing the issue will provide fact sheets or overviews of the topic. Look through the body's webpage carefully to see if it provides this information. In addition, use newspapers, periodicals, journals and other resources to compile research. The "Resources for Research" section outlines some of the main reference materials you can use when conducting issue-specific research.

5. Country & Bloc Position

Ultimately, your research should culminate with the creation of a national position on the topic at hand. In some cases, you will be able to find speeches or press releases from your government outlining its position on the issue. These can usually be found on the government's webpage or, if your nation's representative has spoken about the topic at the UN, through the UN Bibliographic Information Service (see "UN Depository Libraries and Online Resources"). When developing your country's position, think of ways to convince other nations to agree with this viewpoint.

If you are having trouble finding your nation's position on a topic, it is often helpful to determine the position of your nation's bloc. Blocs are informal or formal alliances of nations with similar social, economic or political interests. For many countries, particularly smaller ones, blocs are useful for gaining influence in committee—nations from the same bloc often combine resources and votes to advance their position in light of other, perhaps more influential nations.

Determine if your nation belongs to any regional alliances, such as the European Union or Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). Also look to see if other blocs around the world have general stances on the issue. This will help you predict the arguments of other nations without having to research each one individually. Many times, countries will belong to several overlapping blocs (e.g. the Arab League and the Islamic bloc).

Be aware that it is not always possible to find information on the position of a specific country on a specific topic. Rather, by having a firm understanding of a country's government, demographics and policies, and an in-depth knowledge of the topic for debate, students should be able to make inferences and draw conclusions about their nations' policies. Students may also search for existing policies of other nations that they believe their own country would be willing to support or implement.

Position Papers

Research will ultimately be used to develop a position paper—a written statement of your nation's views on a topic. Most conferences require position papers prior to the start of debate. But even if your conference does not, it is helpful to write one in order to focus your thoughts and identify the main points you will want to address in committee. Many delegates also use their position papers for their first speech in committee, either by reading sections out loud or pulling important phrases or ideas from them.

A position paper is typically between 500 to 1,000 words. Usually, each paper focuses on a single topic that will be addressed in a committee session. However, some conferences require just one position paper per nation, regardless of the number of topics that may be discussed.

The basic structure of a position paper consists of three parts:

1. Introduction, including:
    a. Background on your country and its history concerning the topic and committee; and
    b. How the issue affects your country.
2. Background, including:
    a. National and foreign policy;
    b. Specific actions taken by the government;
    c. Conventions, resolutions, and other UN actions supported or opposed; and
    d. Quotes from government officials and statistical data to back up your position.
3. Conclusion, including:
    a. Your country's recommendations to the committee on how best to resolve the issue;
    b. How the position of other countries affects your country's position; and
    c. What your country would like to accomplish in the committee's resolution.

Keep in mind that position papers should demonstrate your knowledge of both the topic and your nation's views on it. To do this, frame your nation's perspective in terms of solutions proposed in the past or the views of regional blocs and countries that share your position. It is also important to examine prior UN resolutions, decisions, declarations or reports. Statistics and quotes from international documents often give compelling factual support for your arguments. Do not forget to provide reasonable suggestions for action. This is the most important part of a position paper, as it will serve as the basis for debate at the conference. Many students leave this out, or call for vague cooperation on the issue, rather than working out specific proposals.

Resources for Research

Today, most Model UN research can be done via the Internet. By using UN databases, committee homepages and online reports from nongovernmental organizations, delegates can obtain a comprehensive overview of almost any global issue. Other resources, including periodicals, books and UN missions, can also offer invaluable information for students.

Regardless of which types of reference resources you use (and you should be using a variety), it is important to make sure that the information is current. Check the publication dates of all materials to ensure that they provide recent or relevant information on your topic or nation.

School/Public Libraries

A school or public library is an obvious place to begin research for any project. In many cases, librarians or reference assistants will be able to offer helpful advice and point you toward useful source materials. Similarly, libraries may house updated reference resources that cannot be accessed via the Internet. Library card catalogs and indexes are now also often linked with others in their region, so even if one does not have materials you need, another within its system may.

Libraries are particularly useful for researching the background of an issue. History textbooks, encyclopedias or other specialized volumes can provide insight that may not be given in recent newspaper articles. In addition, libraries may have subscriptions to useful scholarly journals that are often expensive and unavailable online.

Before going to a school or local library, make an appointment with a research librarian and explain the project and what type of research you will be doing. Often, entire Model UN groups can go to a library and receive research training tailored to their needs. If the library staff know of your group's project ahead of time, they may be able to compile general resources or prepare helpful guidelines for your research. Sometimes, an advisor or Model UN student leader can also prepare a school-specific research guide with resources (and their call numbers) available on campus.

UN Depository Libraries and Online Resources

Since 1946, the Dag Hammarskjöld Library has distributed UN documents and publications around the world through its depository library system. Depository libraries make UN resources, which sometimes can be hard to come by, accessible to the public. Today, there are more than 400 depository libraries in over 140 countries. To find a depository library near you, visit www.integranet.un.org/depts/dhl/deplib.

All UN documents are catalogued according to a numerical and alphabetical system. So it is helpful to work with a depository librarian when researching UN resolutions, statements and other documents.

When researching specific UN issues, it is best to begin with the UN's press release search system. Press releases are not official documents, but often point readers toward helpful information such as which UN bodies are debating certain topics and what actions have been taken. To search UN press releases over the past 30 days, visit www.un.org/apps/pressreleases. To access older press releases, click on the "Search" section at the bottom of the page.

The UN also provides a wealth of information through its online documentation center. UNBISnet (http://unbisnet.un.org), or the UN Bibliographic Information System, is the primary online index to UN documentation. Through UNBISnet, users can search for resolutions, speeches and voting records by using keywords or document symbols. Many of these documents are available online, though for some, UNBISnet will provide only the document's reference symbols. You can then use the reference symbols to find the document at a depository library.

In addition, the UN also has an **Online Documentation Service (ODS)**. This service allows any user to search and access official UN documents (primarily from 1993 on, though with select earlier entries) as

well as complete resolutions from any major UN organ dating back to 1946. To access the public system, visit www.ods.un.org.

The Internet

Without even taking into account the UN's online resources, the Internet has become an integral component to Model UN research. But while Internet sources can provide up-to-date, accurate information from all parts of the world, students should be wary of the sites they visit and use as source materials. Websites today can be posted with relative ease by anyone, regardless of their authority or opinion, and many sites are updated only sporadically, leaving outdated information online for years. But, by following several guidelines, you can use the Internet to your advantage and gain access to a vast collection of valuable research material.

Tips on internet researching:

Start with the main sources. Effective Internet researching means using a top-down approach. Begin your Internet research with sites maintained by major groups or organizations related to your research topic. For UN-related issues, it is best to go to the UN website (www.un.org) first. Also visit your assigned committee's homepage (see "Committee Research" above).

Monitor your sources. The Internet's greatest advantage also poses one of its major researching pitfalls: almost anyone can post information for worldwide viewing. It is important, then, to always determine the publisher and publication date of any webpage you view.

Many students will refer to government web pages and assume the material is objective and relevant. But websites maintained by national governments are often colored by national policy. This is of course helpful if you are researching that nation's views on a subject. If not though, you may be researching opinion rather than fact and this will provide a narrow take on the topic.

NGOs may not offer impartial information, either. As the UN looks to give civil society a greater role in international negotiations, NGOs have begun to publish more reports and studies on global issues. But many NGOs exist solely to advocate a particular viewpoint or promote a certain cause, and the material listed on their webpage will reflect this. Even the most prominent NGOs publish advocacy pieces that offer both fact and opinion. Before using any information taken from an NGO's webpage, it is important to read about the organization and cross-check any material you find with other sources for accuracy.

Another standard rule of Internet researching is to avoid websites hosted on free web servers (such as Geocities or Yahoo!) since the material posted on these pages is rarely reliable.

Use search engines wisely. Most of your Internet research should be focused on finding material from main source pages, such as the UN website or permanent mission homepages. But in many cases, you can find other useful sites by using an Internet search engine. However, there are several points to keep in mind when searching online:

- In order to avoid sorting through thousands of results, narrow your search terms. Try to be as specific as possible and try alternate ways of referring to a search topic. With a more refined search, the pages you come across will be more relevant to your needs.

- It is often useful to group terms within quotation marks. For example, if you are researching multinational terrorist groups, typing the entire phrase within quotation marks will yield only those pages where the words appear together. This way, you avoid seeing pages that simply have the words "multinational," "terrorist" and "groups" anywhere in them.
- Different search engines use different rules to carry out searches. Learn these rules and you can make your search more effective. All search engines offer a link that explains the most effective ways to carry out a search at the site.
- Relate the search to your country whenever possible. Using the example above, typing in *"multinational terrorist groups" Libya* will look for documents that contain the first phrase and the separate word "Libya".
- Never forget where you came from. In many cases, a main site offers several possible branches with access to additional sites. Once you have reached the end of one branch of web links, return to the main site to access a different branch. Use your browser's "back" button often to return to previously visited sites and check for alternate links.

E-mail

Although web browsers are quick and effective researching tools, Model UN students should not overlook the resources that can be accessed via e-mail.

Permanent Missions

In many cases, you can find e-mail addresses for permanent missions from their websites and mission staff members are usually enthusiastic about responding to student questions. When contacting missions, be sure to write your request in a professional manner, being as courteous as possible. Also, be specific with your questions. Mission staff members are more likely to respond to your inquiries if they know exactly what you are looking for. Finally, do not expect mission staffers to do your work for you. You will gain the most from this experience if you conduct research first and develop specific issue-oriented questions.

Discussion Boards

Through UNA-USA's Model UN message boards, you can post questions that will be read by Model UN students and teachers worldwide. To register for free to UNA-USA's Model UN message boards, visit www.unausa.org/modelun/discussionboards.

Country Information Chart

Government

Official Country Name:_____

Governmental System:_____

Head of State:_____

Official language(s):_____

Region: Allies/blocs:_____

People

Population and growth rate:_____

Major religions/cultures:_____

Standard of living:_____

Economy

Economic system:_____

GDP and growth rate:_____

Major cities:_____

Infrastructure status (good, poor, etc.):_____

Trade blocs/associations:_____

Balance of payments/trade:_____

Major exports/imports:_____

Major trade partners:_____

IMF, World Bank positions (debtor nation? Donor nation?):_____

Natural resources:_____

Energy sources (both the type of energy and its origin):_____

Development

Development status:_____

Climate:_____

Environmental (problems, innovations, etc.):_____

Has this nation met the Millennium Development Goal targets?_____

Military

Military organization:_____

Military expenditures (% GDP spent on defense):_____

Major weapons, arsenal, nuclear capability, etc.:_____

Conflicts/Issues

What are four problems/threats that affect this nation?_____

Ethnic/cultural issues:_____

Refugees problems:_____

Major conflicts both past and present:_____

United Nations

Date admitted to United Nations:_____

UN dues payment status:_____

Has the UN ever intervened in a conflict involving this nation? If so, where and how?

How does the country contribute to UN peacekeeping?

Has the UN cited this nation for human rights violations? If so, why?

Based on your research, what do you feel is at the heart of this nation's identity?

Try to find at least one recent article that is about or makes reference to this nation (preferably from the past two weeks).

Committee Overview Chart

It is important to understand the purpose of a committee and how it works in order to debate effectively on a topic within that committee structure. Try to answer the questions below, using the background guide and outside sources to help.

Question	Answer	Resource Used
Why was the body established? Where does it do most of its work?		
What UN document helped to establish the committee?		
What kind of topics does it usually discuss?		
How many member states will be represented in the body? Is anyone else represented?		
How does voting work? Can everyone vote? Do all votes count the same way?		
How often does the body meet?		
What happens to resolutions that the body develops? Does the body have any special powers, or things it specifically can't do?		
Does this body manage programs or policies?		

The Model UN Simulation

Rules of Procedure

Like real UN bodies, Model UN committees have lengthy agendas and many delegates who want to convey their country's positions. To help maintain order, Model UN conferences adopt rules of procedure to establish when a delegate may speak and what he or she may address. Some conferences adopt a few simple rules, while others use lengthy and complex rules of procedure. Because each conference is independent – there is no governing body for Model UN – rules of procedure vary. A few conferences adapt their rules of procedure directly from the United Nations rules while most use variations of the Roberts Rules of Order. It is essential to familiarize yourself with the rules of each specific conference you plan to attend.

At a Model UN conference, there is formal debate as well as informal debate, called caucusing.

Formal Debate: During formal debate, the staff maintains a speakers list and delegates speak in the order they are listed. At this time, delegates have an opportunity to share their views with the entire committee. Delegates make speeches, answer questions, and introduce and debate resolutions and amendments. Formal debate is important to the committee's work. By not knowing the rules of procedure, delegates slow down the debate and hold back their committee's progress.

Moderated Caucus: During a caucus, which is a temporary recess, the rules of procedure are suspended. To go to a moderated caucus, a delegate makes a motion to suspend debate and the committee votes. Caucusing helps to facilitate discussion, especially when there is a long speakers list. A moderated caucus is a mixture of both formal and informal debate. Anyone may speak if they raise their placard and are called on by the Chair.

Unmoderated Caucus: In an unmoderated caucus, delegates meet informally with one another and the committee staff to discuss and negotiate draft resolutions, amendments and other issues.

Basic Model UN Rules of Procedure	Required to Pass
A motion to set the speakers time sets or changes the amount of time each delegate has to speak.	Simple majority vote
A motion to open the speakers list allows delegates to sign up to speak. At some conferences a motion to close the speakers list closes the list for the remainder of the session or topic. However, at most Model UN conferences the speakers list can be opened and closed multiple times. This motion requires an immediate vote.	Simple majority vote
Delegates propose a motion to suspend debate for the purpose of holding a caucus. If you move to suspend the meeting, be sure to specify the purpose and the amount of time.	Simple majority vote
A motion to adjourn meeting ends the committee session until the next session, which might be the next year's conference, or after lunch or dinner.	Simple majority vote
A motion to adjourn debate (also known as motion to table debate) is not the same as a motion to adjourn the meeting. Rather, it is used to table, or put on hold, all of the work that the committee has completed on a particular topic. At some Model UN conferences you can return to this topic later, while at others the topic cannot be discussed again.	Two-thirds majority vote
A delegate makes a motion to close debate in order to move the committee to a vote, usually when the delegate has made his or her country's position clear and there are enough draft resolutions on the floor.	Two-thirds majority vote
A point of order is used when a delegate believes the chair has made an error in the running of the committee. The Delegate should only specify the errors they believe were made in the formal committee procedure, and may not address the topic being discussed.	Decision of Chairperson
A point of inquiry (also known as a point of parliamentary procedure) can be made when the floor is open (i.e. when no other delegate is speaking) in order to ask the chairperson a question regarding the rules of procedure.	No vote
A delegate may raise a point of personal privilege in order to inform the chairperson of a physical discomfort he or she is experiencing, such as not being able to hear another delegate's speech.	No vote
A delegate raises a point of information in order to pose a question to a speaker during formal debate. The speaker chooses whether or not to yield his or her time to points of information.	Decision of speaker
A delegate makes an appeal to the chair's decision when he or she feels the chairperson has incorrectly decided a point or motion. At some conferences, this formal challenge must be made in writing. The appealing delegate speaks and the chairperson defends himself or herself before the vote.	Two-thirds majority vote

Flow of Debate

It is sometimes helpful to think of a Model UN conference as if it were a play in which delegates are the actors and Secretariat members are the directors. The storyline of a stage show is similar to what Model UNers call the "flow of debate" – the order in which events proceed during a Model UN conference. Just like scenes in a theatrical performance, debate unfolds in several different parts. The chart below shows the various stages of debate that take place during a Model UN simulation. Being familiar with how the action will proceed, from the first "scene" to the last, is an important way to prepare yourself for a Model UN conference.

Roll Call

The Chairperson will announce each country's name. After delegates hear their country, they should answer "present."

Setting the Agenda

When Model UN committees have more than one topic available, the body must set the agenda to begin working on one of these issues. At this time a delegate typically makes a motion, stating "The country of [name] moves to place [topic A] first on the agenda, followed by [topic B] and then [topic C]." Once the motion has been made, three delegations must speak in favor of the motion, and three other delegations will speak against it. These speeches should alternate between those in favor and those opposed. Once these six speeches have been given, a vote is taken. Setting the agenda requires a simple majority vote.

Debate

Formal Debate*:* Formal debate revolves around a speakers list. The Chair begins by asking all delegates interested in addressing the other members to raise their placards. The Chair then chooses delegates to be placed on the speakers list. A country may only be on the speakers list once, but delegates may add their country to the end of the list after their speech.	Informal Debate*:* Informal debate involves discussion outside of the speakers list. During moderated caucuses, the Chair calls on delegates one-by-one so that each can address the committee in short speeches. During unmoderated caucuses, the committee breaks for a temporary recess so that delegates may meet with each other and discuss ideas.
1a. When the session begins, speeches focus on stating country positions and offering recommendations for action.	1b. After several countries state their positions, the committee breaks for caucuses (often in blocs) to develop regional positions.
2a. After blocs have met, speeches focus on describing bloc positions to the entire body.	2b. Writing begins as countries work together to compose draft resolutions.
3a. Delegates now make statements describing their draft resolutions to the committee.	3b. Countries and groups meet to gather support for specific draft resolutions.
4a. Delegates try to garner more support through formal speeches and invite others to offer their ideas.	4b. Delegates finalize draft resolutions.
5a. Delegates make statements supporting or disagreeing with specific draft resolutions.	5b. Draft-resolution sponsors build greater support for their resolution and look to incorporate others' ideas through friendly amendments.
6a. Delegates present any amendments they have created.	

Close of Debate

Once the speakers list is exhausted, the committee automatically moves to voting. Also, once a delegate feels that his or her country's position is clear to others and that there are enough draft resolutions on the floor, he or she may make a motion to proceed into voting procedure by moving for the closure of debate.

Voting Procedures

Once a motion to close debate has been approved, the committee moves into voting procedure. Amendments are voted on first, then resolutions. Once all of the resolutions are voted on, the committee moves to the next topic on the agenda

Lessons

UNIT ONE
UNIT FOCUS.....UNDERSTANDING HUMAN RIGHTS: CONCEPTS & DEBATES
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS
CASE STUDY.....CULTURE & HUMAN RIGHTS: FRENCH HEADSCARVES BAN
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....PUBLIC SPEAKING
SIMULATION GUIDE.....RELIGION AND HUMAN RIGHTS

UNIT TWO
UNIT FOCUS.....PROTECTING SPECIAL GROUPS: THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....UN DECLARATION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD
CASE STUDY.....ACHIEVING UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....PERSUASIVE WRITING
SIMULATION GUIDE.....PROMOTION AND PROTECTION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

UNIT THREE
UNIT FOCUS.....RESPONSIBILITY TO PROTECT
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....ICISS REPORT: THE RESPONSIBILITY TO PROTECT
CASE STUDY.....THE CRISIS IN DARFUR
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....NEGOTIATION
SIMULATION GUIDE.....THE HUMAN RIGHTS OF REFUGEES

UNIT FOUR
UNIT FOCUS.....NGOs AND HUMAN RIGHTS
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN (CEDAW)
CASE STUDY.....HUMAN TRAFFICKING
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....RESOLUTION WRITING
SIMULATION GUIDE.....TRAFFICKING IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

UNIT FIVE
UNIT FOCUS.....THE WORK OF THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....GENERAL ASSESMBLY RESOLUTION 60/251
CASE STUDY.....THE FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION CONTROVERSY
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....RESEARCH
SIMULATION GUIDE.....UNIVERSAL PERIODIC REVIEW

Unit 1:
Introduction to Human Rights

UNIT FOCUS……UNDERSTANDING HUMAN RIGHTS: CONCEPTS & DEBATES
PRIMARY DOCUMENT……UN DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS
CASE STUDY……CULTURE & HUMAN RIGHTS: FRENCH HEADSCARVES BAN
SKILLS EMPHASIS……PUBLIC SPEAKING
SIMULATION GUIDE……RELGION AND HUMAN RIGHTS

Objectives

By the end of Unit 1, comprised of three lessons, students will be able to:

1. Define human rights in their own words.
2. Identify the key components of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
3. Discuss the difference between "positive" and "negative" rights and the relevance of these concepts to debates about human rights.
4. Discuss why human rights are considered "indivisible."
5. Define "sovereignty" and explain how its relevance to current human rights debates.
6. Identify the most important aspects of effective public speaking.
7. Discuss the tension between culture and human rights through the case study of the French ban on headscarves in school.
8. Explore the significance of human rights in their own lives.

Essential Questions

1. What role does advocacy play in protecting human rights?
2. Should culture be a consideration in the enforcement of human rights?
3. What responsibilities do governments have to uphold economic and cultural rights?
4. What can you do to ensure that your human rights are upheld?

Multimedia CD Resources

- Unit 1 PowerPoint presentation
- Human Rights Action Center video: "The Universal Declaration of Human Rights"
- Short documentary film on French headscarf ban
- The below-listed Handouts in PDF

Handouts

- *Unit Focus* - Understanding Human Rights: Concepts & Debates
- *Primary Document* - Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- *Case Study* - Culture & Human Rights: French Headscarves Ban
- *Skills Emphasis* - Ten Tips for Effective Public Speaking
- *Simulation Guide* - Culture and Human Rights at the UN

Lesson One Learning Activities

In Lesson One, students are introduced to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the concept of human rights, positive and negative rights, and the controversy about which rights governments should uphold.

1. What are human rights? Write the students' responses on the board, creating a concept web.
2. Watch a short film on the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights** in the Unit One PowerPoint presentation.
3. Enhance your concept web with the students' additional responses after viewing the clip.
4. Provide students with a copy of the US Bill of Rights and the Declaration on the Rights of Women. Have students review these documents as they to help frame the discussion of human rights.
5. Read the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a class, using Unit 1 Handout 2, **The Universal Declaration of Human Rights**. Have each student in the class take turns reading at least one of the 30 articles.
6. Explain to students the difference between positive rights and negative rights. You can use the Unit 1 PowerPoint presentation, or assign students Unit 1 Handout 1, **Understanding Human Rights: Concepts & Debates**.
7. Engage the class in discussion, touching on the following questions:
    - Do students in your school have "rights"?
    - What are some examples of your rights?
    - Which of these would you say were "positive" rights and which "negative" rights?
    - Should the Universal Declaration of Human Rights contain both positive and negative rights?
    - Is it the responsibility of countries to uphold both positive and negative rights?
    - A law was recently passed in the United States that will provide more people with health insurance. Still, not everyone will have access to health insurance. Should people have a right to health insurance? Would this be a positive or negative right? What is your opinion on this issue?

Timesaver: To reduce the length of this lesson, have the students read the Universal Declaration of Human Rights for homework the night before. In class, highlight the most important points and any areas of confusion, and then make those points the subject of the class discussion. Another alternative is to break the class into five or six groups, with each group assigned to examine a set of Articles. Groups could be assigned to report on each Article in simpler language for the rest of the class.

Lesson One Homework Assignment

Draw a picture or take a photograph in your community to expose a violation of human rights or to show a way in which human rights are being upheld. You may also use a picture from a newspaper or magazine. Write a caption that describes the image and how it relates to human rights. Remember to ask permission before taking anyone's photograph. Write a brief answer to the following question: How can art and media, such as photography, work as a tool to protect human rights?

Lesson Two Learning Activities

1. Ask a few of the students to share their homework assignment. Lead the class in a discussion of the homework question: How can art and media, such as photography, work as a tool to protect human rights?
2. Remind students that on Day One, the class discussed the controversy of whether it is the responsibility of governments to ensure positive rights, such as economic and cultural rights. Explain that there are other controversies within the field of human rights.
3. Show the video clip from the Unit One PowerPoint presentation, on the headscarves debate in France. You can also assign Unit 1 Handout 3, **Culture & Human Rights: French Headscarves Ban**.
4. Explain to the class that they are going to debate the issue of headscarves in French schools. But first, remind them of ten tips for effective public speaking and provide them with Unit 1 Handout 4, **Ten Tips for Effective Public Speaking**.
5. Ask students to identify the two sides of the debate. What is the view of the French government? What is the view of the girls and their families? What are some of the arguments that each side makes? Guide the students in creating a T-chart on the blackboard (example below).

French government	Muslim Families

6. Divide the class into two groups and hold a debate in the class on the following resolution: "Human Rights are not universal, but rather, vary from culture to culture." In other words, should nations be required to adhere to the "universal" rights listed in the United Nations Declaration on Human Rights if this conflicts with their traditions or religion? Ask them to bring in evidence and examples from the French headscarves ban case study to support or refute the resolution.

Timesaver: The required time can be reduced by delegating three components of the lesson to each of three teams: one team to be in charge of summarizing and presenting the "Ten Tips" handout, a second to identify the French government point of view, and the third to identify the Muslim Families' perspective.

Lesson Two Homework Assignment

Ask students to choose an historic human rights advocate, either living or deceased. Each student should research and prepare to perform a 60-second excerpt from a speech given by that advocate, and write a few sentences on his or her life and work. Remind students to utilize the tips for effective speaking when they deliver their speeches. Some examples might include Sojourner Truth's "Ain't I a Woman?" speech, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.'s "I Have a Dream" speech, or Aung San Suu Kyi's "Freedom from Fear" speech. Speech transcripts can be found via Internet search engines such as Google.com. To avoid repetition, the teacher can assign each student to a human rights advocate or to a particular speech.

Lesson Three Learning Activities

1. Allow students to deliver their speeches. (A few students can speak each day over several days if the class is large.) After students speak, ask the students to provide feedback to their classmates by identifying the best attribute of the speech, and one possible area for improvement. Students may refer to the **Ten Tips for Effective Public Speaking** handout. For more examples of public speaking, the class can view speeches by UN dignitaries on Human Rights Day by visiting **www.un.org/events/humanrights/2008**.
2. Help students to prepare for an in-class Model UN simulation using Unit 1 Handout 5 **Religion and Human Rights**. For tools to assist you in facilitating an in-class Model UN simulation, please see Section II: Model UN Skills, or visit the *Global Classrooms* website at **www.globalclassrooms.org**.

Extension activity: The day before the students give their speeches, the class can work together to develop a "score sheet" or a graphic organizer to help them evaluate the speeches given by their classmates. This open-ended activity helps to develop consensus-building skills while encouraging students to think about the components of effective public speaking.

Lesson Three Homework Assignment

Ask students to prepare a brief opening speech to be delivered during the in-class Model UN simulation. The speech should reflect their assigned country's perspective on religion and human rights. They should demonstrate the components of effective public speaking, focusing particularly on the constructive critique they have received from their classmates and instructor.

Lesson Four Learning Activities

Hold an in-class Model UN simulation on Religion and Human Rights, emphasizing the skill of public speaking by including all delegates on the speaker's list. (Students will deliver the speech they wrote for homework after Lesson Three.)

Lesson Four Homework Assignment

Ask students to write a brief reflective piece on the in-class Model UN simulation, reflecting on one or more of the following questions:

- Did you feel your speech was effective?
- What might you do differently next time?
- What are some aspects of public speaking that you need to work on?
- Do you have any additional questions or thoughts about human rights and religion, or about speaking at a Model UN conference?

Unit 1: Final Project

As a final project for Unit 1, ask students to compare and contrast The Universal Declaration of Human Rights with another historic human rights document, such as the United States Bill of Rights, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, or the Magna Carta. These documents can be found via Internet search engines such as Google.com. Students should be encouraged to answer the following questions:

- Describe the historical time in which this document was created.
- What rights does the document contain?
- How do the rights granted by the document compare to those outlined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?
- What rights are “missing” from the document?
- For each “missing” right, explain why you think that it is not included.
- How did this document change the world?

Unit 2:
United Nations and Human Rights

UNIT FOCUS……PROTECTING SPECIAL GROUPS: THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD
PRIMARY DOCUMENT……UN CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD
CASE STUDY……ACHIEVING UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION
SKILLS EMPHASIS……PERSUASIVE WRITING
SIMULATION GUIDE……PROMOTION AND PROTECTION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

Objectives

By the end of Unit 2, comprised of four lessons, students will be able to:

1. Describe the role of the United Nations in upholding human rights around the world.
2. Identify the key components of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of the Child.
3. Discuss the ways in which universal primary education relates to human rights.
4. Make an effective argument in writing and build towards writing a position paper.

Essential Questions

1. How does the leadership of the United States affect international policy?
2. Why is education an important human right?

Multimedia Resources

- Unit 2 PowerPoint presentation
- UNICEF Photo Essays
- All of the below-listed Handouts in PDF

Handouts

- UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
- Factsheet: UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
- Case Study: Education – A Child's Right
- Ten Tips for Persuasive Writing
- Simulation Guide: Universal Primary Education

Lesson One Learning Activities

In Lesson One, students will learn about the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

1. Introduce students to the key components of the Convention using the UNICEF Photo Essays linked from the Unit 2 PowerPoint presentation. Ask students to take turns reading the captions, which highlight different articles of the convention.

2. Next, use the Unit 2 PowerPoint presentation to provide students with some background and history on the Convention on the Rights of the Child. An abridged version of the Convention is available as Unit 2 Handout 1. For additional information on the Convention, distribute Unit 2 Handout 2, **Factsheet: UN Convention on the Rights of the Child**. Engage the class in discussion, covering the following topics:
    - In your own words, what is the position of the US government on the Convention on the Rights of the Child?
    - How do you feel about the United States not having ratified the Convention? Were you surprised?
    - What are some reasons the US has not yet ratified the Convention?
    - Do you feel that the Convention is weakened because the US has not ratified it?
    - Agree or disagree: The US can play a leadership role in human rights regardless of whether or not it has signed the Convention.

Lesson One Homework Assignment:
Ask each student to choose one article from the Convention on the Rights of the Child (a summary of all 54 articles is available as Unit 2 Handout 1). Students should then find a media report in which the rights associated with that article are being violated or upheld, either in their own country or in another country. Students can use newspapers, television, or internet sources. They should draft a short paragraph explaining; 1) which article they chose; 2) which rights are being violated or upheld in the news story; and 3) their personal reactions to the story.

Lesson Two Learning Activities

On Day Two, students will form an understanding of the ways that different parts of the UN system work to uphold human rights around the world. Using the Unit 2 PowerPoint presentation, describe to students the different approaches taken by different UN organs.

1. Hold a discussion to gauge students' understanding of the presentation and to allow them to voice their thoughts. You may elect to use poster paper or a graphic organizer to record student responses.
    - What are some of the main differences between the old Human Rights Commission and the new Human Rights Council?
    - What are some of the criticisms of the old Human Rights Commission?
    - What are some of the criticisms of the new Human Rights Council?
    - Do you think the new Human Rights Council will be successful in expanding and enhancing human rights?
    - What is the role of the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights?
    - What is the role of the Secretary General in upholding human rights?
    - Do you think the UN has been successful in promoting and protecting human rights? Why or why not?

2. Next, provide students with the Unit 2 Handout 4 on **Ten Tips for Persuasive Writing.** Read the handout together, talk about the elements of persuasive writing, and help students brainstorm examples of effective persuasive language.

Lesson Two Homework Assignment
Ask students to write a first draft of their position paper on the issue of Achieving Universal Primary Education (Unit 2 Handout 5). Ask them to try to include components listed in Ten Tips for Persuasive Writing (Unit 2 Handout 4). (Students may require multiple nights for completion of this assignment, and some students may require computer lab time.)

Lesson Three Learning Activities

1. Screen the short film entitled Millennium Development Goal 2 : Achieve Primary Education to introduce students to the issue. (See Unit 2 PowerPoint presentation.)
2. In small groups, ask students to read the four stories in the Unit 2 Handout 3 entitled Education – A Child's Right. Use the following questions to encourage discussion of the case studies.
    - What factors kept children out of school in each of the stories?
    - How did attending school change the lives of the children in the stories?
    - How might the futures of these children be different than if they had not attended school?
    - What role did different adults play in preventing or encouraging the children to attend school?
    - What are some of the ongoing challenges faced by the children in the stories?
    - What are some challenges faced by children in the United States in getting an education?

Day Three Homework Assignment
Ask students to finalize their position papers, and to bring a copy to class for the in-class Model UN Simulation.

Lesson Four: Simulation

Carry out a simulation using the Unit 2 Handout 5 simulation guide Achieving Universal Primary Education. The teacher can moderate the simulation or select a student with Model UN experience to serve as the chair. The simulation can be extended to multiple days at the discretion of the teacher. Encourage students to have a copy of their position paper on hand for use in formulating talking points and drafting resolutions. For tools to assist you in facilitating a Model UN simulation, see Section II: Model UN Skills, or visit the *Global Classrooms* website at www.globalclassrooms.org.

Lesson Four Homework Assignment
Ask students to write a brief reflective piece on the in-class Model UN simulation, reflecting on one or more of the following questions:

- Did you feel your position paper was persuasive?
- How was your position paper helpful to you during the simulation?
- What aspects of your position paper might you change?
- What similarities to your own speech did you notice in others' speeches?
- In what opinions did your speech differ from others?

- What potential compromises emerged from the various speeches you heard?
- Do you have any additional questions or thoughts about education as a human right, or about writing position papers?

Unit 2 Final Project

Ask students to revisit the Day 1 homework assignment for Unit 2. Students should reflect on their reactions to the media story they chose, and then formulate a persuasive argument about what should be done about the issue. They can write about individual, local, state, federal, or international actions to address the issue. Encourage students to use strategies from the persuasive writing handout.

Next, with the knowledge students gain about human rights and persuasive writing, ask them to participate in an online discussion about human rights by posting a response on the **UNICEF Voices of Youth Discussion Board** at www.unicef.org/voy or the **United Nations Association of the USA Model UN discussion board**, at www.unausa.org. They may participate in an existing discussion thread or start their own using their persuasive writing piece. Ask them to bring a copy of their responses to class to share. Teachers may elect to provide students time in the computer lab to complete this assignment.

Unit 3:
Member States and Human Rights

UNIT FOCUS……RESPONSIBILITY TO PROTECT
PRIMARY DOCUMENT……EXCERPT FROM ICISS REPORT: CORE PRINICIPLES OF R2P
CASE STUDY……THE CRISIS IN DARFUR
SKILLS EMPHASIS……CAUCUSING AND NEGOTIATION
SIMULATION GUIDE……THE HUMAN RIGHTS OF REFUGEES

Objectives

By the end of Unit 3, comprised of three lessons, students will be able to:

1. Describe the concept of responsibility to protect, its principles and implications.
2. Apply these principles to the situation in Darfur.
3. Identify some of the key components of effective negotiation and practice caucusing in a Model UN simulation.

Essential Questions

1. What is the proper balance between respect for state sovereignty and respect for human rights?
2. What responsibility does the international community have to the people of Darfur?

Multimedia Resources

- Unit 3 Power-Point Presentation
- ***On Our Watch: A documentary about genocide in Darfur*** by Refugees International
- All of the below-listed handouts in PDF

Appendix Resources

- Responsibility To Protect
- Excerpt from the ICISS Report: R2P
- The Crisis in Darfur
- Ten Tips For Effective Negotiation
- Simulation Guide: Human Rights of Refugees

Lesson One Learning Activities

1. For students new to Model UN, help them in defining the term "member state" as a country that has membership in the UN and votes in the General Assembly.
2. On day one, introduce the concept of "responsibility to protect" using the Unit Three PowerPoint presentation. You can assign students the piece on **Responsibility to Protect** (Unit 3 Handout 1) as background.
3. From the Unit 3 PowerPoint presentation, watch the UNA-USA compilation film of **UN General Assembly debate on implementing the responsibility to protect**. (Running Time: 4:07)
4. Next, give each student a copy of the Unit 3 Handout 2, an excerpt from the report by the International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS). Guide the students in a close reading of the excerpt.
    - In your own words, what is state sovereignty?
    - Under what circumstances does a country have the right and responsibility to violate another country's sovereignty?
    - What is a "failed state"?
    - Why is the responsibility to protect important?
    - What are some criticisms of the responsibility to protect?

    Note: For students who are having difficulty grasping the concept of sovereignty, it can be helpful to start with examples from their own lives. For example, have them discuss what objects they have "sovereignty" over, perhaps their bedroom, or bike, or car. Likewise, the teacher is sovereign over the classroom, the principal over the school, and the mayor over the town or city.

Lesson One Homework: Ask students to read the case study on the **Crisis in Darfur** (Unit 3 Handout 3), make a list of the people involved in the situation, and explain their interests and concerns.

Lesson Two: Learning Activities

1. First, explain to students that in Model UN, as well as in the field of human rights, effective caucusing and negotiation skills are extremely important. Provide students with a copy of Unit 3 Handout 4 on **Ten Tips for Effective Negotiation**. Read the tips together and discuss what makes for a successful negotiation.
2. Next, watch the short documentary ***On Our Watch: A documentary about genocide in Darfur*** (Running time: 10:52) created by the organization Refugees International. Engage the class in a discussion of their thoughts and reactions.
    - Who are the different actors involved in the crisis in Darfur?
    - How are Sudanese men and women affected differently by the crisis in Darfur? How about Sudanese children?
    - Are the affected population refugees or IDPs?
    - Why do you think it has been difficult to mobilize countries to fight against the atrocities in Darfur?
    - Why do you think permanent members of the Security Council, such as China, would block United Nations action against the Sudanese government?
    - Do you feel a connection to the people in Darfur? Why or why not? (Encourage students to answer this question from whichever frame of reference they chose: spiritual, ethical/moral, political, or economic.)

Lesson Two Homework: Provide each student with a simulation guide on **Human Rights of Refugees** (Unit 3 Handout 5). Students should read the guide and prepare for an in-class Model UN simulation.

Lesson Three: Simulation

1. Today students will put their new negotiation skills to the test, as well as their knowledge about the concept of responsibility to protect, the situation in Darfur, and the human rights of refugees. The simulation can continue for multiple days, at the discretion of the instructor.
2. As the chair of the simulation, ask a delegate to make a motion for an unmoderated caucus, and request that the committee pass the motion. Ask that students break into groups or regional blocs to negotiate resolutions. Remind students to employ the tips they have learned for effective caucusing and negotiation. When negotiations are coming to a close, ask a delegate to motion for a moderated caucus, and invite a representative from each group or bloc to share the progress made during caucusing. After the simulation, ask students to share their experiences about what strategies were effective.

Lesson Three Homework Assignment

Ask students to write a brief reflective piece on the in-class Model UN simulation, reflecting on one or more of the following questions:

- Did you feel your caucusing was effective?
- What kinds of strategies did other delegates use during the negotiation?
- What might you do differently next time?
- Do you have any additional questions or thoughts about R2P or about caucusing and negotiation?

Unit 3 Final Project

One of the most significant challenges in carrying out the principle of R2P is deciding when the principle applies. Students should write an essay from their own perspective that addresses the following points:

- Are the criteria for intervention clear enough that they can be applied fairly to all nations?
- How can the United Nations prevent global politics from leading to intervention under the R2P principle?
- Finally, take a position on whether R2P applies to the crisis in Darfur, Sudan, using the outcomes of the ICISS report (see Unit 1 Handout 2) to make your case.

Unit 4:
Civil Society and Human Rights

UNIT FOCUS……NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AND HUMAN RIGHTS
PRIMARY DOCUMENT……CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN (CEDAW)
CASE STUDY……HUMAN TRAFFICKING
SKILLS EMPHASIS……RESOLUTION WRITING
SIMULATION GUIDE……TRAFFICKING IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN (ECOSOC)

Objectives

By the end of Unit 4, comprised of three lessons, students will be able to:

1. Describe the role and impact of NGOs in upholding human rights.
2. Outline key aspects of the Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).
3. Identify some of the key components of proper resolution writing in a Model UN simulation.

Essential Questions

1. What roles and responsibilities do NGOs have in comparison to governments?
2. How can we protect the human rights of special groups such as women, ethnic minorities, and disabled persons?
3. What actions can individuals take against trafficking? Should consumers boycott products that come from nations that are the most serious violators of anti-trafficking resolutions?

Web/CD Resources

- Unit 4 Power-Point Presentation
- "The Girl Effect," a series of short films created by the Nike Foundation
- All of the below-listed Appendix resources in PDF

Appendix Resources

- The full text of CEDAW
- Background Guide: Trafficking in Women and Children
- Tips for effective resolution writing
- Simulation Guide: The Advancement of Women

Lesson One Learning Activities

1. Introduce students to the role of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in upholding human rights using the Unit 4 PowerPoint presentation. One of the most significant roles of NGOs is to raise awareness. To illustrate this role, show students the short film entitled "The Girl Effect."
2. Ask students for their reactions to the film. Use the students' responses to segue into a discussion of women's human rights.
3. Give each student a copy of the full text of CEDAW. Split the class into six groups and assign each group one of the six parts of the convention. Students should read their assigned part as a group and summarize each article in simple language. Then have each group share the contents of their section of the convention. The summaries can also be written on chart paper and hung up in the classroom for the duration of the unit. Alternatively, groups can use a PowerPoint presentation.

Lesson One Homework: Ask students to practice their Internet research skills by finding and learning about an NGO that works in the area of women's human rights. They should write a brief paragraph that includes the name of the organization and their mission, and what kinds of programs or activities the NGO undertakes. (This assignment may require computer lab time.)

Lesson Two Learning Activities

1. As a class, read the background guide on human trafficking. Hold a discussion that addresses some of the following questions:
    - Why is human trafficking a women's rights issue?
    - Why is human trafficking a human rights issue?
    - What are some of the root causes of human trafficking?
    - What can governments do about trafficking?
    - What can NGOs do about trafficking?
    - What can individuals do about trafficking?
2. Provide each student with a handout on tips for effective resolution writing. For students new to Model UN, introduce the basic format, structure and purpose of resolutions. Ask each student to draft at least two lines of a preamble and two lines of the body of the resolution. Students should then work in pairs to do a peer review of their partner's resolution. Students should provide constructive criticism on formatting, grammar, and content.

Lesson Two Homework: Students should prepare for a Model UN simulation of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) by researching their country's position on trafficking of women and children, and reading the simulation guide.

Lesson Three: Simulation

Conduct a full ECOSOC simulation of the issue of trafficking in women and children. Encourage students to use their resolution drafts as starting points for negotiation.

Mini-project: Ask students to work in groups to create an awareness campaign for an NGO of their choice, on a human rights issue of their choice. The campaign can take the form of a poster, a radio announcement or film/drama. Students can present or perform their campaign for the class or for other classes as a service learning project.

Unit 5:
Case studies on Human Rights

UNIT FOCUS……THE WORK OF THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL
PRIMARY DOCUMENT……GENERAL ASSESMBLY RESOLUTION 60/251
CASE STUDY……THE FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION CONTROVERSY
SKILLS EMPHASIS……RESEARCH
SIMULATION GUIDE……UNIVERSAL PERIODIC REVIEW

Objectives

By the end of Unit 5, comprised of three lessons, students will be able to:

1. Describe the work of the Human Rights Council and the nature of the universal periodic review.
2. Discuss the freedom of expression controversy and defend their own points of view.
3. Identify some of the key strategies for researching for a Model UN simulation.

Essential Questions

1. In what ways, and to what extent, is the Human Rights Council an innovation over previous efforts at upholding human rights?
2. How can we protect the human rights of special groups such as women, ethnic minorities, and disabled persons?

Web/CD Resources

- Unit 5 Power-Point Presentation
- The below-listed Appendix resources in PDF

Appendix Resources

- The full text of GA Resolution 60/251
- Background Guide: The Universal Periodic Review
- Tips for effective research
- Simulation Guide: Universal Periodic Review

Lesson One Learning Activities

1. Introduce students to the Work of the Human Rights Council using the Unit 5 PowerPoint presentation. Provide students with Unit 5 Handout 1, the Work of the Human Rights Council. Ask students to read the article in small groups, concentrating on the difference between the old Human Rights Commission and the new Human Rights Council, as well as the controversies associated with the bodies.

2. As a class, read Unit 5 Handout 2, the General Assembly resolution that created the Human Rights Council. Have students write and share a five-line "Executive Summary" to explain the purpose and significance of the resolution.
3. Guide the students in using a Venn diagram to organize the similarities and differences between the two bodies.
4. The Human Rights Council has faced several controversies since its creation. Split the class into four groups and have each group make a case for one of the statements below. Each group should appoint a spokesperson to communicate its argument to the class.
    - "The Human Rights Council is a significant improvement over the Human Rights commission, and will be a valuable supporter of human rights around the world."
    - "The Human Rights Council is not sufficiently different from the Human Rights commission, and it will be affected by many of the same problems."
    - "The United States should seek a seat on the Human Rights Council."
    - "The United States should not seek a seat on Human Rights Council."

Lesson Two Learning Activities

1. Provide students with Unit 5 Handout 3, The Freedom of Expression Controversy case study. Ask the class to identify the main issues and then discuss their own opinions of the controversy.
2. Distribute Unit 5 Handout 4, on research for Model UN. Provide students with time in the computer lab. For each resource recommended in the handout, ask students to record the URL (web address), and write a brief note about what information the source provides.
3. In pairs, ask students to write three "scavenger hunt" questions that can be answered using the listed resources. For example, "How did the United States vote on General Assembly resolution 60/251?" or "What are the main exports of Ecuador?" Students should then trade questions with another pair, and answer the questions using the listed sources. You may wish to provide a prize to the first team to accurately complete their research scavenger hunt.

Lesson Three: Simulation

1. Provide students with Unit 5 Handout 5, the background guide on the Universal Periodic Review. Select six students to serve as permanent representatives from the countries to be reviewed. From the remaining students, create six groups, and assign each group one country from the background guide on which to conduct a review.
2. Provide computer lab time for students to conduct research on the human rights record of the country they are representing or reviewing. Remind students to use the recommended resources and tips from Unit 5 Handout 4, and stress organization of the research findings.
3. Conduct the simulation using formal rules of order. The Chair should invite each group to present their review (students may use a visual aid such as a poster, chart paper, or a PowerPoint presentation.) Following each review, the representative from the country should be invited to provide a rebuttal.

Final Project

Students have learned about several human rights issues and about the UN bodies that work on these issues. Now ask students to reflect on a human rights issue that is important to them personally. (To help students select a topic, you can lead the class in a brainstorming session on important human rights issues.) Ask students to write a plan of action that addresses the following:

- What changes would be most helpful in addressing the issue?
- Which UN bodies work on this issue? What should each of them do?
- What should member states do?
- What should regional organizations do?
- What should companies do?
- Which NGOs should work on this issue? What would you recommend they do?
- What should individuals do?

Handouts

UNIT ONE
UNIT FOCUS.....UNDERSTANDING HUMAN RIGHTS: CONCEPTS & DEBATES
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS
CASE STUDY.....CULTURE & HUMAN RIGHTS: FRENCH HEADSCARVES BAN
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....TEN TIPS FOR EFFECTIVE PUBLIC SPEAKING
SIMULATION GUIDE.....RELIGION AND HUMAN RIGHTS

UNIT TWO
UNIT FOCUS.....PROTECTING SPECIAL GROUPS: THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....UN DECLARATION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD
CASE STUDY.....ACHIEVING UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....TEN TIPS FOR PERSUASIVE WRITING
SIMULATION GUIDE.....PROMOTION AND PROTECTION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

UNIT THREE
UNIT FOCUS.....RESPONSIBILITY TO PROTECT
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....ICISS REPORT: THE RESPONSIBILITY TO PROTECT
CASE STUDY.....THE CRISIS IN DARFUR
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....TEN TIPS FOR CAUCUSING AND NEGOTIATION
SIMULATION GUIDE.....THE HUMAN RIGHTS OF REFUGEES

UNIT FOUR
UNIT FOCUS.....NGOs AND HUMAN RIGHTS
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN (CEDAW)
CASE STUDY.....HUMAN TRAFFICKING
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....CHEAT SHEET FOR RESOLUTION WRITING
SIMULATION GUIDE.....TRAFFICKING IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

UNIT FIVE
UNIT FOCUS.....THE WORK OF THE HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL
PRIMARY DOCUMENT.....GENERAL ASSESMBLY RESOLUTION 60/251
CASE STUDY.....THE FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION CONTROVERSY
SKILLS EMPHASIS.....101 SOURCES FOR MODEL UN RESEARCH
SIMULATION GUIDE.....UNIVERSAL PERIODIC REVIEW

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HANDOUT 2……UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS……55
HANDOUT 3……CULTURE & HUMAN RIGHTS: FRENCH HEADSCARVES BAN……60
HANDOUT 4……TEN TIPS FOR EFFECTIVE PUBLIC SPEAKING……62
HANDOUT 5……SIMULATION GUIDE: RELIGION AND HUMAN RIGHTS……64

Understanding Human Rights *Concepts & Debates*

What are human rights?

Human rights are the basic freedoms each person is entitled to simply because they are a human being. There are two basic categories of human rights: **civil and political rights** and **social, cultural and economic rights.** Civil and political rights include the obligations that governments have to their citizens, such as free and fair elections, the right to life and liberty, and equal protection under the law. Social, cultural and economic rights include the right to have an education and a job, the right to participate in your culture, and the right to have food and health care.

Some argue that while social, cultural and economic rights are nice goals, they are should not be considered human rights because they require resources that cannot be guaranteed to everyone. Others point out that civil and political rights can only be exercised if people have their basic needs met, so social, cultural and economic rights are indeed important human rights. Likewise, people must have political power in order to improve their standard of living. Therefore, civil and political rights are also important to gaining social, cultural and economic rights. Because of these relationships, many people feel that human rights are **indivisible**. In other words, they are all equally important, and cannot be easily divided into categories.

Negative Rights and Positive Rights

There are two other categories that are sometimes used to define human rights: **positive rights** and **negative rights**. Social, cultural and economic rights are examples of positive rights because they require action on the part of the government and citizens. Negative rights, on the other hand, require governments and individuals to *refrain* from acting. For example, freedom of speech is a negative right because it requires that the governments refrain from censorship. On the other hand, the right to health care is a positive right because it requires that governments take action to ensure that people have access to health care. Sometimes there is not a clear line between these two categories. Oftentimes a negative right, such as freedom from violence, requires a positive right, such as the right to police protection.

Positive rights require action:	**Negative rights** require inaction:
Right to education	**Freedom of speech**
Right to health care	**Freedom from slavery**
Right to food and shelter	**Freedom of religion**
Right to police protection	**Freedom from violence**

Human Rights in National and International Law

Because human rights are considered universal, all people possess human rights regardless of whether their government recognizes human rights or not. Nevertheless, many governments have laws that set standards for human rights, such as the United States Bill of Rights. There are also many international laws and treaties that set standards for human rights.

One of the most important is the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**, which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1948. The Declaration has two parts: A **Covenant on Civil and Political Rights**, and a **Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.** Both of these pieces were adopted as treaties by the UN member states in 1966, which made the Universal Declaration of Human Rights a binding part of international law.

There are several other treaties on human rights that help to further define international human rights law. The **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)** was created to protect the human rights of women. The **Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)** defines and protects the special human rights that apply to children. Other treaties exist to protect the human rights of workers, prisoners, and disabled persons.

There is also a special set of laws that govern the way that countries must protect human rights in times of war, called **humanitarian law**. There are four treaties and three protocols that together make up the **Geneva Conventions**. The Conventions establish rights and protections for soldiers, prisoners of war, and civilian victims of armed conflict.

Who upholds human rights?

The **Human Rights Council** is the UN body responsible for working to uphold human rights. There are 47 member states that make up the Council. The Council works in several ways. First, its conducts a **Universal Periodic Review**, which looks at the human rights situation in each of the 192 member states and makes recommendations for improvement. Second, the Council has a **Complaints Procedure**, which allows the body to hear from individuals and organizations about specific human rights violations. Third, the Council has an **Advisory Body** that provides research and advice to the Council to help them to identify important human rights issues.

There are several other UN offices and bodies that make important contributions in the field of human rights. The **Security Council** can intervene in instances of very severe human rights violations. It can also act to uphold humanitarian law and investigate any rights violations that endanger international peace and security. As the head of the UN, the **Secretary General** has a leadership role in identifying important human rights issues and brining them to the world's attention. He or she can also put pressure on individual countries to improve their adherence to human rights treaties. Human rights issues are addressed in many other UN bodies, such as the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) to name a few.

Outside the UN system, regional organizations and **nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)** play an important role in upholding human rights by raising awareness of human rights violations. Organizations such as Human Rights Watch, Amnesty International, Human Rights First, and many others work to safeguard human rights around the world.

Current Debates in Human Rights

There are many important debates going on today in the field of human rights. Many human rights issues are highly controversial, such as the protection of the rights of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) individuals, the right to health care, and reproductive rights, such as the right to seek an abortion. Underlying these debates is the question, *are human rights universal?* Because culture varies around the world, some people argue that human rights are different in different places. Others argue that while culture may vary, some rights are universal and should not be violated.

Another challenge is how to uphold human rights while maintaining national security. Many countries around the world are working to fight terrorism. In some situations, the rights of innocent people have been violated in the process. It is also a challenge to uphold human rights while also upholding the principle of **sovereignty**, which is the idea that countries have the right to control what happens within their own borders. Human rights violations in places like China, Sudan, Myanmar, and the Palestinian Territories are often cited as examples of this challenge.

Unit 1, Handout 2

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

PREAMBLE

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations,

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in co-operation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms,
Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now, Therefore THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY proclaims THIS UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1.
All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2.
Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3.
Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4.
No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5.
No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6.
Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7.
All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8.
Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9.
No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10.
Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11.
(1) Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defense.
(2) No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12.
No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13.
(1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.
(2) Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14.
(1) Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.
(2) This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15.
(1) Everyone has the right to a nationality.
(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16.
(1) Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.
(2) Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.
(3) The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17.
(1) Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.
(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18.
Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19.
Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20.
(1) Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.
(2) No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21.
(1) Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.
(2) Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.
(3) The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22.
Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and

resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23.
(1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
(2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
(3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.
(4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24.
Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25.
(1) Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.
(2) Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26.
(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27.
(1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.
(2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28.
Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29.
(1) Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

(2) In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.
(3) These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30.
Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

Unit 1, Handout 3

Case Study: French Headscarves Ban

In 2004, the French parliament passed a national law that bars students from wearing any religious symbol in a public school. This highly controversial law specifically prohibits "signs and dress that conspicuously show the religious affiliation of students"[i] including Islamic headscarves. Sometimes called *hijab,* headscarves are worn by many Muslim women and girls as a symbol of religious devotion, modesty, or morality. The ban does not just affect headscarves – it also applies to large Christian crosses, Jewish yarmulkes, and Sikh turbans. Even so, many Muslims feel the ban is targeted at them.

> "The law is an unwarranted infringement on the right to religious practice. For many Muslims, wearing a headscarf is not only about religious expression, it is about religious obligation."
>
> - Kenneth Roth, Executive Director of Human Rights Watch
>
> *Source*: Human Rights Watch, www.hrw.org

Today there are many Muslims living in France, and there is sometimes tension between French society and Muslims who have immigrated to France. However, many young Muslims were born in France to immigrant parents, consider themselves to be French, and want the right to practice their religion freely. As a sovereign country, France has the ability to make laws that govern its territory. However, many people feel this ban of religious symbols is a violation of human rights because it violates people's freedom of expression and freedom of religion.

> "It's important that school stays non political, non religious – personally I am living in France because it is a secular space."
>
> - Iranian-born French writer Venus Kavoussian
>
> *Source*: BBC News, www.bbc.co.uk

On the other hand, many French citizens value **secularism** – the idea that religion should be completely separate from government and public life. They feel religion should instead be a private matter and should not be allowed to affect government policy. Some French people also feel that being required to wear a headscarf is a violation of the human rights of women and girls. These people see headscarves not only as a religious symbol, but as a symbol of gender inequality. They feel that the law prohibiting headscarves in school actually protects the human rights of Muslim girls.

> "We have to work with our teachers, we have to work with the students, the families, we have to explain to them that this is a law for their own protection."
>
> - Ghislaine Hudson, head teacher in a French school
>
> *Source*: BBC News, www.bbc.co.uk

However, many Muslim girls disagree and have protested the law. Others have decided to leave school – some study at home or attend private schools while others drop out of school completely. For this reason, many critics of the law feel it is counterproductive because it can keep girls from getting a high quality education. Critics also point out that the law has encouraged more segregation, or separation of Muslims from French society—the opposite of the law's intention.

Discussion Questions

1. Do you think the headscarves ban in France is a violation of human rights?
2. Do you think being required to wear a headscarf violates the human rights of women and girls?
3. Can freedom of religion and secularism coexist? How might they support one another? How might they undermine one another?
4. In your opinion, is the law justified?

Ten Tips for Effective Public Speaking

Public speaking is an important skill not only for Model UN, but also throughout your years in school and your career. Below are ten tips for making your speeches clear, effective, and memorable.

1. **Learn about speaking procedure.** Usually, the length of time a delegate is allowed to speak is set by the conference organizers. Practice making your speech within the established time limit. Delegates can make a **motion** to increase or decrease the time allotted to each speaker. If another delegate seconds the motion, then the committee will vote on changing the speaker's time. You will have numerous opportunities to speak in your committee during a Model UN simulation. The Chair will maintain a **speakers list** of delegates who would like to make formal speeches. During **caucusing** you will have an opportunity to speak informally to delegates in your committee, but it is still important to keep the principles of effective public speaking in mind.

2. **Prepare your opening speech.** Decide how you feel most comfortable delivering your speech. You may choose to use your position paper text as your opening speech or you may write out some key points. In time, you may feel comfortable speaking without any written notes at all. If you plan to use a word or phrase that is unfamiliar to you, make sure you learn its meaning and how to pronounce it properly.
    - First, you should thank the presiding official by saying "Thank you Mr./ Madame/ Honorable Chair/ President…"
    - Then begin by providing a brief history on the issue as it relates to your country.
    - Speak about how the issue is currently affecting your country.
    - Provide your country's position on the issue. Include an explanation for your country's stance, such as economic or security concerns or political or religious ideology.
    - You may choose to give an explanation of how your country's position relates to the positions of other member states such as the major powers or countries in your regional bloc.
    - You should discuss some of the past actions taken by the UN, member states and NGOs to address the issue.
    - Present ideas for a resolution, stressing your country's objectives for the resolution.
    - Talk about the role that NGOs or regional organizations have to play in addressing the issue.
    - Indicate to the committee members whether or not your country is willing to negotiate.

3. **Prepare to speak during debate.**
    - Again, you should thank the presiding official by saying "Thank you Mr./ Madame/ Honorable Chair/ President…"
    - Encourage collaboration among member states by proposing ways that your country would be willing to work with other member states.
    - By referencing what other delegates have said, you can show support for your allies or indicate which proposals your country does not favor.
    - Present ideas for draft resolutions.
    - Explain why your country does or does not support other draft resolutions.

4. **Calm your nerves.** Although speaking is an important part of any Model UN simulation, many delegates fear speaking in front of a large group. The best way to cope with these fears is to be well-prepared. You should research as much as possible about your country and the issue the committee will be debating. You should be comfortable explaining your country's position and have ideas on what you would like to include in the committee's resolution. If you come to the conference prepared, you will be eager to speak in committee and project confidence. Before you speak, take a few slow, deep breaths. Try to breathe from your diaphragm – the organ below your lungs that controls your respiration. You are breathing properly if you can see your abdomen rising and falling with each breath. Try to inhale and exhale completely.

5. **Practice, practice, practice.** Rehearsing your speech is the best way to perfect your public speaking skills. Try practicing in front of a teacher, parent, or fellow Model UNer from your class or club. When you listen to a speech, provide constructive feedback rather than criticism. When someone critiques your speech, accept the feedback graciously and use it as a tool to strengthen your public speaking.

6. **Pace Yourself.** Try not to talk too fast or too slow. Remember that most speakers have a tendency to talk too quickly. Try to incorporate meaningful pauses. Leaving a moment of silence between sentences can be a powerful public speaking tool. Pausing after an important point or before answering a question will help to hold the audience's attention. A pause can also give you time to formulate your next statement, and can help you to avoid filler words and phrases such as "umm," "well," "sort of," and "like". These words take away from the message you are trying to convey.

7. **Choose a powerful tone and posture.** Be aware of your posture when you speak. Slouching, tilting your head and crossing your arms or legs will take away from your message. Stand up straight, relax your shoulders, plant your feet firmly and keep your knees unlocked to help you communicate confidence. Speaking in a low to medium volume can help to project authority, but make sure that you are speaking loud enough to be easily heard. Focus on speaking with enthusiasm and energy.

8. **Connect with your audience.** Try to glance at your notes rather than reading them so that you can make eye contact with the other delegates. It is often helpful to speak directly to individual members of the audience. It is worthwhile to use your face, hands, arms and body to help you communicate, but be sure that your gestures and motions do not distract the audience from your speech.

9. **Get to the point.** Speak concisely so that your audience does not lose your main arguments among less-important details. Try not to speak in circles. Instead, go straight to your most important point. Some repetition can be helpful: many speakers even find it useful to introduce their main point, explain their main point, and then conclude by reiterating their main point.

10. **Be positive.** Rather than criticizing another point of view, critique it in a constructive way. Always provide alternatives and be sure to back up your arguments.

Adopted from the Model UN Preparation Guide: www.unausa.org/munpreparation/publicspeaking

Religion and Human Rights

United Nations Human Rights Council: Description of the Committee

The *United Nations Human Rights Council* (UNHRC) is a UN body designed to protect and promote human rights around the world. It was established in 2006 by a UN General Assembly resolution with only four votes against (Palau, the United States, the Marshall Islands and Israel). The UNHRC is made up of 47 seven member-states selected annually by a secret-ballot vote in the UN General Assembly. Countries are voted on according to what region of the world they reside in. The following list shows how many states are selected from each region:

- African States: 14
- Asian States: 13
- Eastern European States: 7
- Latin America and Caribbean States: 10
- Western Europe and Other States: 7

> **CRITICAL THINKING:**
> The UNHRC must have a certain number of countries from every region to make sure no one region can dominate the council. Is this practice a good idea? Could this present any problems for the Council?

Introduction

Religion—a set of beliefs about human compassion, dignity and social justice—can play an important role in international cooperation and peace; religious leaders and groups have long been important proponents of global unity. While many nations separate religion from government, others use spiritual beliefs as a basis for peaceful authority. However, religion may also subvert, or undermine, the ideals of peace and justice. It can be used as an excuse for intolerance and discrimination. Religion can also make people a target for discrimination. Around the world, people are frequently persecuted because of their beliefs or religious background.

Background

Religious intolerance is a global problem with a long and sad history. In many areas of the world, violent clashes are a result of religious conflicts that are centuries-old. These conflicts can be explained by the role religion plays in personal and cultural development. Because religion defines moral codes and value systems, people often assume that different religions teach values that are incompatible with their own. As a result, groups may conflict over religious views or attitudes regarding life, justice and society.

According to the UN's Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief, passed in 1981, intolerance is defined as "any distinction, exclusion, restriction, or preference based on religion or belief and having as its purpose…impairment of…human rights and fundamental freedoms on an equal basis."[ii] It is important to note that non-state actors (people or groups that do not have political authority) as well as governments are capable of demonstrating religious intolerance.

In many nations, religion plays a strong role in politics. Discrimination can become **institutionalized** in the government—governments may pass discriminatory laws that the people cannot overturn or ignore. When this happens, there is no authority to monitor or stop intolerant acts.

Religious intolerance affects people of all faiths and beliefs. Sometimes, different sects of the same religion may persecute each other. In Iran, the government is controlled by Shi'a Muslims who discriminate against minority religious groups, including Sunni Muslims—a different sect of the same overall belief system.

> According to Freedom House, an organization that promotes democracy and human rights, approximately 25 percent of the world currently has religious freedom while 39 percent is only "partly free." This leaves a staggering percent of the globe living "in conditions in which religious freedoms are fundamentally violated." Most recently in 2007 a report was publish that points out a "profoundly disturbing deterioration" in the global picture, with reversals seen in 38 countries-nearly four times as many as are showing any sign of improvement.
>
> *Source*: www.freedomhouse.org.

The months immediately following September 11, 2001 saw a sharp surge in religious intolerance aimed against Muslims all over the world. This type of discrimination is a serious concern for the international community. When groups such as Al Qaeda, the militant Islamic organization behind the September 11 attacks, commit violent acts in the name of a religion, there is often backlash against that entire religion or religious culture. Even the US, which is one of the most religiously tolerant nations according to Freedom House,[iii] experienced a dramatic increase in violence against Muslims. Abdelfattah Amor, the Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on Freedom of Religion or Belief, warned that unwarranted hatred toward Muslims would make reducing religious intolerance extremely difficult.[iv]

The following are case studies that describe religious intolerance around the world:

Georgia

The southeastern European country of Georgia (formerly part of the Soviet Union) has recently been criticized for its widespread religious discrimination. Groups of Orthodox Christians have staged attacks on non-Orthodox faiths such as Jehovah's Witnesses, Baptists and others. In addition to vandalism and theft, these groups have committed dozens of violent acts. However, government and police response remains low.

Human Rights Watch reported that over 100 physical assaults took place between 2000 and 2002, but only one criminal trial was held. Even during the trial, the defendants continued to persecute non-Orthodox Christians.[v] The Georgian example demonstrates how government inaction can lead to human rights abuses the same way that **state-sponsored** discrimination does.

Indonesia

Indonesia, the world's largest Muslim country, has experienced its own brand of violent religious intolerance. In the eastern regions of the nation, ongoing fighting between Christians and Muslims has

claimed the lives of over 10,000 people. Approximately half a million refugees have been forced to leave.[vi] The "Laskar Jihad," a group guided by a radical interpretation of Islamic **sharia law**,[1] began a series of church bombings and public assaults on Christians in order to eliminate them from the nation.

The violence garnered international attention when a series of bombings in Bali, a resort island in Indonesia, targeted Australian, American and British vacationers. In 2002, blasts killed 202 people. Another bombing in 2005 killed 20 and injured over 100. Some nations point to Al Qaeda, which reportedly had connections with the bombers. Others blame Islamic extremist groups who are dissatisfied with the government's tolerance of religious minorities and western influences.

> "China's government, through a series of Party policies and government regulations, including the March 1, 2005 'Regulations on Religious Affairs,' sharply curtails both freedom of religious belief and the freedom to express one's belief. Religious activities that are banned include publishing and distributing texts, selecting leaders, raising funds and managing finances, organizing training, inviting guests, independently scheduling meetings and choosing venues, and communicating freely with other organizations. In China today, all such activities are subject to regulatory state interference and even imprisonment and severe mistreatment of offending believers and practitioners."
>
> *Source:* Human Rights News, http://hrw.org/english/docs/2005/07/25/china11426.htm.

Afghanistan

Religious intolerance in Afghanistan was widely documented under the rule of the repressive Taliban. The persecution of Shiite Muslims, Hindus, Christians and Jews was extremely violent. In 2001, Taliban leaders required all Hindus to wear badges that would distinguish them as members of the religious minority.[vii] This tactic, once used by Nazis to persecute Jews, demonstrated how routine intolerance had become.

The Taliban also began to destroy all religious statues, icons and monuments. Historic works of art were demolished, including the two largest Buddha statues in the world, which were over 1,500 years old.[viii] After September 11, 2001, the Taliban regime was overthrown and a new, temporary government was installed. However, this government continues to struggle against warlords and Taliban forces, none of whom are committed to lasting religious tolerance.

Even the government has demonstrated religious intolerance. Afghanistan Chief Justice Fazul Hadi Shinwari said in 2002: "The Islamic government, according to sharia, is bound to punish those who get involved in anti-Islamic activities. We can punish them for propagating other religions—such as threaten them, expel them, and as a last resort, execute them."[ix]
Motivations Behind Religious Intolerance

Motivations Behind Religious Intolerance

Religious intolerance often coincides with political or social unrest. Often, the violence and discrimination associated with religious intolerance occur when social groups or political groups clash.

[1] *Sharia Law*: For a comprehensive, general description and explanation of Sharia law, delegates may begin their research with an excerpt from H.A.R. Gibbs's "The Shari'a," which can be found at http://answering-islam.org.uk/Books/Gibb/sharia.htm.

For example, Sunni Muslims are the minority religion of Iraq, but they controlled much of the government for many years. During this time, Shi'a Muslims, which composed nearly 65 percent of the population,[x] faced active persecution by the Sunnis. This situation created national tension between the two Muslim communities. When Saddam Hussein, the leader of Iraq, was deposed in 2003, this tension erupted in a violent civil war. Currently, Sunni and Shi'a factions are fighting to gain control of the new Iraqi government.

Similarly, the power imbalance between Protestant Christians and Catholics in Northern Ireland led to dissent among the Catholic minority. Like most religious clashes, the conflict in Northern Ireland did not just involve religious differences. The conflict had much more to do with economic and political inequality between the two groups.

Because societies are often bound by religion and religious culture, disputes between communities may seem like religious disputes, even if they are really political or economic in nature. And often, when these communities come into conflict, they use religious differences as a way to distance themselves from their enemies.

But many religious communities exist side-by-side peacefully, and many religious societies integrate without conflict. It is important to think carefully about the causes behind religious intolerance, and to consider what other factors may contribute to the discrimination or violence.

> **CRITICAL THINKING**
> Many religions teach love, peace and forgiveness. Why might such religions give rise to intolerance? How might other factors influence discrimination and intolerance?

Separation of Church and State

Throughout history, many countries had **theocratic governments**, or governments lead by religious leaders. Today, many governments are based on the principles of one religion, and actively promote that religion among its people. These countries are said to have a state-sponsored religion. Often, these countries are criticized for mistreating people whose religions are different from the state-sponsored faith. Saudi Arabia and Iran, for example, are said to prevent public display of non-Islamic religious symbols and to prohibit public assembly or worship of non-Islamic religious groups.

Even if a country with a state-sponsored religion does not actively persecute other faiths, critics argue that these countries practice **implicit** intolerance. By promoting only one religion, the government is implying that other religious beliefs are inferior. Allowing for religious freedom is not enough. The government must also protect people of other faiths from discrimination.

> **CRITICAL THINKING**
> Secularism is meant to prevent government from interfering with religion, and to prevent religion from affecting government. But could a secular community give rise to religious intolerance? How?

Many countries are **secular**, which means that the government does not promote any religion at all. Members of secular societies believe in the importance of **separation of church and state**, the division

of religious and government institutions. When no religion is promoted, then all religions are allowed to flourish without entitlement or persecution.

Protection of Religion vs. Protection from Religion

Nearly every country in the world recognizes the importance of religious freedom. But what happens when a group claims that persecuting others is an expression of its religious freedom? For example, homosexuality is punished by execution in Saudi Arabia. The Saudi Arabian government argues that homosexuality is a moral crime in Islam, and that punishing homosexuality is a religious act.

It can be difficult for the international community, and for individual governments, to balance freedom of religion and freedom from religious persecution.

> **CRITICAL THINKING**
> How should the international community react when an act of intolerance or violence is defended as "an expression of religion"?

Past International Action

The basic principles of religious tolerance and respect for human rights are outlined in two essential documents: the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* and the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*. Both establish that freedom of thought, conscience and religion are human rights that must be upheld for all people. In addition, these declarations state that no one should be coerced or pressured to change their religious beliefs.[2]

In 1981, the General Assembly (GA) passed resolution 36/55, the *Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief*. This document explains the basic religious rights of all people and called upon states to "take effective measures to prevent and eliminate discrimination on the grounds of religion or belief."[xi] This resolution urges each member state to create legal guidelines for protecting religious freedom.

Finally, the General Assembly passed resolution A/C.3/53/L.32 in 1998 on Human Rights Questions, including Alternative Approaches for Improving the Effective Enjoyment of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. Here, the GA encouraged states to apply international human rights standards to their own legal systems, and states were encouraged to teach their police and government leaders tolerance issues. The destruction of religious artifacts was also condemned.[xii]

A number of international conferences on religious intolerance have also taken place. In September of 2001, the international community met in Durbin, South Africa for the *World Conference against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance*. The declaration written at that meeting dealt with racism in many forms, but included sections on religious intolerance. The document identified several causes for discrimination such as the lasting effects of colonialism, poverty and underdevelopment.[xiii] In 2004 the Intergovernmental Working Group was established by the Commission on Human Rights resolution 2002/68 and began work alongside the Economic and Social Council.

[2] Delegates may read the complete *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* at www.un.org/Overview/rights.html and the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* at www1.umn.edu/humanrts/instree/b3ccpr.htm.

In 1993, the GA also passed resolution 48/128 entitled ***Elimination of All Forms of Religious Intolerance***.[xiv] This document created a new position in the UN called the Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on Freedom of Religion or Belief. The Rapporteur's duties are to:

- Monitor religious intolerance internationally;
- Examine cases where government actions violate the 1981 declaration; and
- Help to educate the world about human rights violations in the name of religion.

Recommendations for Formulating a Resolution

Delegates should recommend ways to prevent future conflicts based on religious intolerance. Delegates can:

- Discuss ways to end state-sponsored religious discrimination;
- Suggest methods to protect religious minorities, particularly from extremist groups and oppressive governments;
- Determine how to protect religious expression and practice, while also ensuring that religion is not used as an excuse for human rights abuses; and
- Create new monitoring systems to identify violent and intolerant groups, or plan to intervene in conflicts between opposing religious groups (through conferences or summits).

Questions to Consider

1. What are the predominant religions in your country? How are minority religions treated?
2. What do human rights monitoring groups (for example, Human Rights Watch, Freedom House and Amnesty International) say about your country's religious tolerance?
3. Does your country separate religion from government?
4. According to your country, what are the worst cases of religious intolerance occurring in the world today?
5. What treaties has your government signed or ratified regarding religious intolerance?
6. What programs can your country suggest to help build respect for religion around the world? How can the UN help stop state-sponsored religious intolerance? Should some countries be pressured to change their government if their policies are too restrictive?

Sources for Research

Center for Religious Freedom, Freedom House www.freedomhouse.org/religion

Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on Freedom of Religion or Belief www.ohchr.org/english/issues/religion

Human Rights Watch: Religious Freedom http://hrw.org/doc/?t=religion

"Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief," A/RES/36/55 www.un.org/documents/ga/res/36/a36r055.htm

"Elimination of all forms of religious intolerance," A/RES/48/128, December 1993, www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r128.htm

Unit Two Handouts

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UN Convention on the Rights of the Child

Built on varied legal systems and cultural traditions, the Convention is a universally agreed set of non-negotiable standards and obligations. These basic standards—also called human rights—set minimum entitlements and freedoms that should be respected by governments. They are founded on respect for the dignity and worth of each individual, regardless of race, color, gender, language, religion, opinions, origins, wealth, birth status or ability and therefore apply to every human being everywhere. With these rights comes the obligation on both governments and individuals not to infringe on the parallel rights of others. These standards are both interdependent and indivisible; we cannot ensure some rights without—or at the expense of—other rights.

A legally binding instrument

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the first legally binding international instrument to incorporate the full range of human rights—civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights. In 1989, world leaders decided that children needed a special convention just for them because people under 18 years old often need special care and protection that adults do not. The leaders also wanted to make sure that the world recognized that children have human rights too.

The Convention sets out these rights in 54 articles and two Optional Protocols. It spells out the basic human rights that children everywhere have: the right to survival; to develop to the fullest; to protection from harmful influences, abuse and exploitation; and to participate fully in family, cultural and social life. The four core principles of the Convention are non-discrimination; devotion to the best interests of the child; the right to life, survival and development; and respect for the views of the child. Every right spelled out in the Convention is inherent to the human dignity and harmonious development of every child. The Convention protects children's rights by setting standards in health care; education; and legal, civil and social services.

By agreeing to undertake the obligations of the Convention (by ratifying or acceding to it), national governments have committed themselves to protecting and ensuring children's rights and they have agreed to hold themselves accountable for this commitment before the international community. States parties to the Convention are obliged to develop and undertake all actions and policies in the light of the best interests of the child.

Source: UNICEF, Convention on the Rights of the Child, http://www.unicef.org/crc

Unit 2, Handout 2

Fact Sheet: UNCRC

A summary of the rights under the Convention on the Rights of the Child

Article 1 (Definition of the child): The Convention defines a 'child' as a person below the age of 18, unless the laws of a particular country set the legal age for adulthood younger. The Committee on the Rights of the Child, the monitoring body for the Convention, has encouraged States to review the age of majority if it is set below 18 and to increase the level of protection for all children under 18.

Article 2 (Non-discrimination): The Convention applies to all children, whatever their race, religion or abilities; whatever they think or say, whatever type of family they come from. It doesn't matter where children live, what language they speak, what their parents do, whether they are boys or girls, what their culture is, whether they have a disability or whether they are rich or poor. No child should be treated unfairly on any basis.

Article 3 (Best interests of the child): The best interests of children must be the primary concern in making decisions that may affect them. All adults should do what is best for children. When adults make decisions, they should think about how their decisions will affect children. This particularly applies to budget, policy and law makers.

Article 4 (Protection of rights): Governments have a responsibility to take all available measures to make sure children's rights are respected, protected and fulfilled. When countries ratify the Convention, they agree to review their laws relating to children. This involves assessing their social services, legal, health and educational systems, as well as levels of funding for these services. Governments are then obliged to take all necessary steps to ensure that the minimum standards set by the Convention in these areas are being met. They must help families protect children's rights and create an environment where they can grow and reach their potential. In some instances, this may involve changing existing laws or creating new ones. Such legislative changes are not imposed, but come about through the same process by which any law is created or reformed within a country. Article 41 of the Convention points out the when a country already has higher legal standards than those seen in the Convention, the higher standards always prevail.

Article 5 (Parental guidance): Governments should respect the rights and responsibilities of families to direct and guide their children so that, as they grow, they learn to use their rights properly. Helping children to understand their rights does not mean pushing them to make choices with consequences that they are too young to handle. Article 5 encourages parents to deal with rights issues "in a manner consistent with the evolving capacities of the child". The Convention does not take responsibility for

children away from their parents and give more authority to governments. It does place on governments the responsibility to protect and assist families in fulfilling their essential role as nurturers of children.

Article 6 (Survival and development): Children have the right to live. Governments should ensure that children survive and develop healthily.

Article 7 (Registration, name, nationality, care): All children have the right to a legally registered name, officially recognised by the government. Children have the right to a nationality (to belong to a country). Children also have the right to know and, as far as possible, to be cared for by their parents.

Article 8 (Preservation of identity): Children have the right to an identity – an official record of who they are. Governments should respect children's right to a name, a nationality and family ties.

Article 9 (Separation from parents): Children have the right to live with their parent(s), unless it is bad for them. Children whose parents do not live together have the right to stay in contact with both parents, unless this might hurt the child.

Article 10 (Family reunification): Families whose members live in different countries should be allowed to move between those countries so that parents and children can stay in contact, or get back together as a family.

Article 11 (Kidnapping): Governments should take steps to stop children being taken out of their own country illegally. This article is particularly concerned with parental abductions. The Convention's Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography has a provision that concerns abduction for financial gain.

Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child): When adults are making decisions that affect children, children have the right to say what they think should happen and have their opinions taken into account. This does not mean that children can now tell their parents what to do. This Convention encourages adults to listen to the opinions of children and involve them in decision-making -- not give children authority over adults. Article 12 does not interfere with parents' right and responsibility to express their views on matters affecting their children. Moreover, the Convention recognizes that the level of a child's participation in decisions must be appropriate to the child's level of maturity. Children's ability to form and express their opinions develops with age and most adults will naturally give the views of teenagers greater weight than those of a preschooler, whether in family, legal or administrative decisions.

Article 13 (Freedom of expression): Children have the right to get and share information, as long as the information is not damaging to them or others. In exercising the right to freedom of expression, children have the responsibility to also respect the rights, freedoms and reputations of others. The freedom of expression includes the right to share information in any way they choose, including by talking, drawing or writing.

Article 14 (Freedom of thought, conscience and religion): Children have the right to think and believe what they want and to practice their religion, as long as they are not stopping other people from enjoying their rights. Parents should help guide their children in these matters. The Convention respects the rights and duties of parents in providing religious and moral guidance to their children. Religious groups around the world have expressed support for the Convention, which indicates that it in no way prevents parents from bringing their children up within a religious tradition. At the same time, the Convention recognizes that as children mature and are able to form their own views, some may question certain religious practices or cultural traditions. The Convention supports children's right to examine their beliefs, but it also states that their right to express their beliefs implies respect for the rights and freedoms of others.

Article 15 (Freedom of association): Children have the right to meet together and to join groups and organizations, as long as it does not stop other people from enjoying their rights. In exercising their rights, children have the responsibility to respect the rights, freedoms and reputations of others.

Article 16 (Right to privacy): Children have a right to privacy. The law should protect them from attacks against their way of life, their good name, their families and their homes.

Article 17 (Access to information; mass media): Children have the right to get information that is important to their health and well-being. Governments should encourage mass media – radio, television, newspapers and Internet content sources – to provide information that children can understand and to not promote materials that could harm children. Mass media should particularly be encouraged to supply information in languages that minority and indigenous children can understand. Children should also have access to children's books.

Article 18 (Parental responsibilities; state assistance): Both parents share responsibility for bringing up their children, and should always consider what is best for each child. Governments must respect the responsibility of parents for providing appropriate guidance to their children – the Convention does not take responsibility for children away from their parents and give more authority to governments. It places a responsibility on governments to provide support services to parents, especially if both parents work outside the home.

Article 19 (Protection from all forms of violence): Children have the right to be protected from being hurt and mistreated, physically or mentally. Governments should ensure that children are properly cared for and protect them from violence, abuse and neglect by their parents, or anyone else who looks after them. In terms of discipline, the Convention does not specify what forms of punishment parents should use. However any form of discipline involving violence is unacceptable. There are ways to discipline children that are effective in helping children learn about family and social expectations for their behavior – ones that are non-violent, are appropriate to the child's level of development and take the best interests of the child into consideration. In most countries, laws already define what sorts of

punishments are considered excessive or abusive. It is up to each government to review these laws in light of the Convention.

Article 20 (Children deprived of family environment): Children who cannot be looked after by their own family have a right to special care and must be looked after properly, by people who respect their ethnic group, religion, culture and language.

Article 21 (Adoption): Children have the right to care and protection if they are adopted or in foster care. The first concern must be what is best for them. The same rules should apply whether they are adopted in the country where they were born, or if they are taken to live in another country.

Article 22 (Refugee children): Children have the right to special protection and help if they are refugees (if they have been forced to leave their home and live in another country), as well as all the rights in this Convention.

Article 23 (Children with disabilities): Children who have any kind of disability have the right to special care and support, as well as all the rights in the Convention, so that they can live full and independent lives.

Article 24 (Health and health services): Children have the right to good quality health care – the best health care possible – to safe drinking water, nutritious food, a clean and safe environment, and information to help them stay healthy. Rich countries should help poorer countries achieve this.

Article 25 (Review of treatment in care): Children who are looked after by their local authorities, rather than their parents, have the right to have these living arrangements looked at regularly to see if they are the most appropriate. Their care and treatment should always be based on "the best interests of the child". (see Guiding Principles, Article 3)

Article 26 (Social security): Children – either through their guardians or directly – have the right to help from the government if they are poor or in need.

Article 27 (Adequate standard of living): Children have the right to a standard of living that is good enough to meet their physical and mental needs. Governments should help families and guardians who cannot afford to provide this, particularly with regard to food, clothing and housing.

Article 28: (Right to education): All children have the right to a primary education, which should be free. Wealthy countries should help poorer countries achieve this right. Discipline in schools should respect children's dignity. For children to benefit from education, schools must be run in an orderly way – without the use of violence. Any form of school discipline should take into account the child's human dignity. Therefore, governments must ensure that school administrators review their discipline policies and eliminate any discipline practices involving physical or mental violence, abuse or neglect. The

Convention places a high value on education. Young people should be encouraged to reach the highest level of education of which they are capable.

Article 29 (Goals of education): Children's education should develop each child's personality, talents and abilities to the fullest. It should encourage children to respect others, human rights and their own and other cultures. It should also help them learn to live peacefully, protect the environment and respect other people. Children have a particular responsibility to respect the rights their parents, and education should aim to develop respect for the values and culture of their parents. The Convention does not address such issues as school uniforms, dress codes, the singing of the national anthem or prayer in schools. It is up to governments and school officials in each country to determine whether, in the context of their society and existing laws, such matters infringe upon other rights protected by the Convention.

Article 30 (Children of minorities/indigenous groups): Minority or indigenous children have the right to learn about and practice their own culture, language and religion. The right to practice one's own culture, language and religion applies to everyone; the Convention here highlights this right in instances where the practices are not shared by the majority of people in the country.

Article 31 (Leisure, play and culture): Children have the right to relax and play, and to join in a wide range of cultural, artistic and other recreational activities.

Article 32 (Child labor): The government should protect children from work that is dangerous or might harm their health or their education. While the Convention protects children from harmful and exploitative work, there is nothing in it that prohibits parents from expecting their children to help out at home in ways that are safe and appropriate to their age. If children help out in a family farm or business, the tasks they do be safe and suited to their level of development and comply with national labor laws. Children's work should not jeopardize any of their other rights, including the right to education, or the right to relaxation and play.

Article 33 (Drug abuse): Governments should use all means possible to protect children from the use of harmful drugs and from being used in the drug trade.

Article 34 (Sexual exploitation): Governments should protect children from all forms of sexual exploitation and abuse. This provision in the Convention is augmented by the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography.

Article 35 (Abduction, sale and trafficking): The government should take all measures possible to make sure that children are not abducted, sold or trafficked. This provision in the Convention is augmented by the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography.

Article 36 (Other forms of exploitation): Children should be protected from any activity that takes advantage of them or could harm their welfare and development.

Article 37 (Detention and punishment): No one is allowed to punish children in a cruel or harmful way. Children who break the law should not be treated cruelly. They should not be put in prison with adults, should be able to keep in contact with their families, and should not be sentenced to death or life imprisonment without possibility of release.

Article 38 (War and armed conflicts): Governments must do everything they can to protect and care for children affected by war. Children under 15 should not be forced or recruited to take part in a war or join the armed forces. The Convention's Optional Protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict further develops this right, raising the age for direct participation in armed conflict to 18 and establishing a ban on compulsory recruitment for children under 18.

Article 39 (Rehabilitation of child victims): Children who have been neglected, abused or exploited should receive special help to physically and psychologically recover and reintegrate into society. Particular attention should be paid to restoring the health, self-respect and dignity of the child.

Article 40 (Juvenile justice): Children who are accused of breaking the law have the right to legal help and fair treatment in a justice system that respects their rights. Governments are required to set a minimum age below which children cannot be held criminally responsible and to provide minimum guarantees for the fairness and quick resolution of judicial or alternative proceedings.

Article 41 (Respect for superior national standards): If the laws of a country provide better protection of children's rights than the articles in this Convention, those laws should apply.

Article 42 (Knowledge of rights): Governments should make the Convention known to adults and children. Adults should help children learn about their rights, too. (See also article 4.)

Articles 43-54 (Implementation measures): These articles discuss how governments and international organizations like UNICEF should work to ensure children are protected in their rights.

Source: UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) http://www.unicef.org/crc/files/Rights_overview.pdf

Unit 2, Handout 3: CASE STUDY

Education: A Child's Right

The five stories below come from real children who faced challenges in accessing education. All stories were taken from UNICEF's Voices of Youth website, which can be found at www.unicef.org/voy.

Xiuhua's story

When she was only 10 years old, Xiuhua had to leave school to help her parents in the fields. "Parents often think if they take their girls out of school, they can save some money," says Mu Huiqin, deputy principal of Xiuhua's school in Guyuan, in west China's Ningxia Hui autonomous region.

Mu and others try to persuade parents to let their girls return to school, but with little success. Xiuhua's father, like many others, believe girls are better off getting married. "I was crying behind the door when I heard my father say these words to my teacher," Xiuhua says.

But five years ago, Xiuhua's prospects changed. A non-formal education project for teenage girls came to the area, teaching such skills as tailoring, embroidery, and special techniques for growing corn, wheat and watermelon in Guyan, where it is very cold and little rain falls. "We invited local experts to train the drop-out girls, giving them a ticket to get out of poverty," says Mu.

Over the past two years, the training programs in the autonomous region have helped 1,800 girls. Xiuhua has learned tailoring. Every day, after helping her mother with household chores, she practices her skills. She already supplements the family income by making clothes for villagers.

Xiuhua says that when she helps put food on the table, she feels a sense of hope. "And when you see hope, your sense of humor returns. You can even tease your parents."

Xiuhua's dream is to set up a tailoring shop like her friend Yang Yan. Yang Yan is 22, and she has a young son. She had only two years of basic education. But in 1998, thanks to the livelihoods development program for girls, she set up the first tailoring shop in the village and has been able to contribute greatly to her family's income.

Ibrahim's story

When Ibrahim was three years old, polio paralyzed his right leg. At first his parents, like many other parents of disabled children in Niger, did not want to send him to school. They were worried he would be teased by his classmates, and were not convinced that an education would help him.

Polio is a viral disease that causes paralysis (loss of the ability to move) in the

arms and legs. It affects between 10 and 20 million people around the world today. Though there is no cure, there is a vaccine which can stop you from being infected in the first place.

Despite his disability, and his parents' doubts, Ibrahim was determined to go to school. "When I was eight," Ibrahim says, "other kids my age were going to school while I stayed at home. I did not like that. So, I pestered my parents until they finally let me go to school."

Ibrahim's parents enrolled him in a private school nearby. But although the journey to and from school was a short one, it still wasn't easy for Ibrahim. He had to use his hands to help him move along, protecting them with plastic slippers. But at least he was getting an education.

However, after only a year in school, Ibrahim's education was interrupted when his parents separated. His mother did not have the means to pay for his tuition.

In 2001, Ibrahim received a grant to be fitted with a leg brace, corrective shoes and his first pair of crutches. His first priority was to find a way to go back to school.

“I wanted to start school again last October," Ibrahim says. "When my mother told me she could not afford it I went to visit the homes of some of my relatives and collected 5,000 francs CFA (US $8) - enough to pay my tuition for half a year. The school has given me a deadline to pay the other half. I will find the rest of the money somehow.”

Ibrahim attends a school in which he is the only disabled student. According to his teacher, he is among the top five students in a class of 55.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child states that it is every child's right to get an education, and that children with disabilities should have equal access to schools and facilities, no matter how seriously disabled they are. Article 28 of the Convention also states that primary education should be free for all, and so no child should be prevented from getting an education because she or he cannot afford the cost of going to school.

Amna's story

Until recently, ten-year-old Amna Elsafi had no concept of a life different from her family's nomadic existence. She helped her mother with domestic chores and tended camels. She did not go to school or have any formal education. Her parents could see no point in allowing her to travel three kilometers on a camel to the nearest village school, as her younger brother did.

There are about two million nomads in Sudan, and Amna's situation was typical. School enrollment rates among the nomadic population are as low as 5 per cent for boys and close to zero for girls.

But two years ago officers from the nomadic education project persuaded Amna's parents and other villagers to let their daughters attend a special nomadic school. At these special nomadic schools, the teachers travel with the nomadic communities and hold lessons in a tent, under trees or in a temporary structure. The timetable is flexible so as to fit in with community activities.

Amna is now in grade four. She can read, write and do some arithmetic. And she is passing this information on to others.

Amna's father has certainly never regretted his decision to enroll her and his other children in school. Together with other parents, he shows his commitment to the project by contributing towards the teacher's payment, which takes the form of livestock and household items. And he now strongly opposes the idea of his daughter marrying before she completes her basic education. "We want our daughters to become doctors, lawyers and educated mothers," says Ahmed Nasr, one of the community members.

Awa's story

Fighting back

"We, the children in Côte d'Ivoire, want the war to stop now so that all the children can go back to school," said Awa loudly and clearly into the radio and television microphones. "It's our right!"

Just 12 years of age, Awa was speaking at an event to promote the Back to School campaign in Côte d'Ivoire, West Africa. An estimated one million children of primary-school age had their schooling brutally interrupted by the crisis that began in September 2002. Another 250,000 children of secondary-school age were affected.

For months Awa's life was one of upheaval and uncertainty, but with the help of resources from the Back to School campaign, she is she once again learning and playing in safety with her friends.

When a school is 'child-friendly', children who attend the school are better protected against violence, discrimination and abuse. They are also less likely to become involved in conflicts themselves.

Awa and all too many other children affected by crises around the world need education and play to bring stability, development and fun back into their lives. And, as Awa stressed, these things are not just a benefit. They are a right.

Awatif's story

Awatif Morsy will never forget the day she heard that a new school would be opened in her village. “Someone came to the house asking for the names of the children who were not attending class,” she recalls. “My mother gave them my name. I was so thrilled.”

Like most eight-year-olds in Beni Shara’an village in Egypt, Awatif’s life until that day was divided between back-breaking work in the nearby wheat fields and confinement at home. To girls like her, the new school – a single classroom on the ground floor of a converted house – was a dream come true.

"We would go and watch the facilitators decorating the room. Everything was bright and colorful. There were games and pictures, things I had never seen before." Not everyone in the village was so enthusiastic, at least initially. Some farmers complained that the school would deprive them of the cheap labor the children provided. Even Awatif's own stepfather was unconvinced. "What does a girl need to study for?" he would ask.

Happily, that was not the view of Farouk Abdel Naim, the elderly merchant who was persuaded to donate the premises for the school to use. "I have come to believe that a girl's education is more important even than a boy's," says Mr. Abdel Naim. "A man can always make something out of his circumstances but a girl cannot. She needs to be educated in order to get on in life."

Eight years on, it's hard to find anyone in Beni Shara'an who does not share that opinion. The school – now expanded into three classrooms – is today seen as a wise investment from which the community is reaping tangible rewards.

Take the example of shopkeeper Ahmed Abdel Jaber. Himself illiterate (cannot read or write), he sent his daughter, Rawia, to the school as soon as it opened. "Until Rawia went to school, my store accounts were in a complete mess," he recalls. "But before long, she was taking care of all the books for me, as well as helping her elder sister to read and write."

In a village where illiteracy is an inescapable fact of life, there's no shortage of stories about how a daughter's education is making important differences to the quality of people's lives and businesses. How the instructions on a doctor's prescription or the writing on a sack of fertilizer suddenly seemed clear. And – more important still – how the example set by the children encouraged many older people to begin taking literacy classes themselves.

Awatif is now a student at the local secondary school, and is looking ahead to university, and beyond. "Many of the people here in Beni Shara'an want me to become a doctor," she says. "I myself want to be a teacher, so that I can pass on some of what I've learned to other children." That's already happening. Awatif has become a role model for other girls in the village. Eleven-year-old Faten is one: "I read all Awatif's stories," she says. "One day, I want to be just like her."

Questions for Discussion

1. What factors kept children out of school in each of the stories?
2. How did attending school change the lives of the children in the stories?
3. How might the futures of these children be different than if they had not attended school?
4. What role did different adults play in preventing or encouraging the children to attend school?
5. What are some of the ongoing challenges faced by the children in the stories?

Ten Tips for Persuasive Writing

Many Model UN simulations call for delegates to write a position paper—an essay detailing your country's policies on the topics being discussed in your committee. Good position papers utilize persuasive writing, an important skill in school and life. Here are ten tips that are useful in drafting a position paper or other forms of persuasive writing.

1. **Make a plan.** Start early to give yourself enough time for multiple drafts. It is a good idea to conduct research first, and then start your paper with an outline. Position papers are usually one to one-and-a-half pages in length. Your position paper should include:
    - A brief introduction to your country and its history concerning the topic and committee;
    - How the issue affects your country;
    - Your country's policies with respect to the issue and your country's justification for these policies;
    - Quotes from your country's leaders about the issue;
    - Statistics to back up your country's position on the issue;
    - Actions taken by your government with regard to the issue;
    - Conventions and resolutions that your country has signed or ratified;
    - UN actions that your country supported or opposed;
    - What your country believes should be done to address the issue;
    - What your country would like to accomplish in the committee's resolution; and
    - How the positions of other countries affect your country's position.

2. **Get organized**. Starting from your outline, give each separate idea or proposal its own paragraph. Make sure each paragraph starts with a topic sentence.

3. **Keep it simple.** To communicate strongly and effectively, avoid flowery wording and stick to uncomplicated language and sentence structure.

4. **Use repetition strategically.** Repeat your main points in different ways to ensure that readers have understood.

5. **Use strong language, but sparingly.** When making your main points, use strong, descriptive words to grab the reader's attention and show that you are confident in your position.

6. **Make it official.** Try to use the seal of your country or create an "official" letterhead for your position paper. The more realistic it looks, the more others will want to read it. If official bodies, organizations or individuals in authority support your position, use their name or words to strengthen your case.

7. **Give concrete evidence.** For every assertion you make, back it up with facts and evidence – the more specific the better. Be sure to anticipate and address each of the reader's possible objections or counter-arguments. Acknowledge the other arguments and then explain why your position is superior.

8. **Cite your sources**. Use footnotes or endnotes to show where you found your facts and statistics. Citing respected or authoritative sources lends legitimacy to your arguments. If you are unfamiliar with bibliographic form, look up the Modern Language Association (MLA) guidelines at your school's library.

9. **Read and reread**. Leave time to edit your position paper. Ask yourself if the organization of the paper makes sense and double-check your spelling and grammar.

10. **Speech! Speech!** Do you plan to make an opening statement at your conference? A good position paper makes a great introductory speech. During debate, a good position paper will also help you to stick to your country's policies. For quick reference, create a bulleted list of your proposals along with your most important facts and statistics so that you will not lose time looking for them during debate.

Adopted from the Model UN Preparation Guide: www.unausa.org/munpreparation/positionpapers

Achieving Universal Primary Education

General Assembly: About the Committee

The General Assembly (GA) was established in 1945 under the Charter of the United Nations. It occupies a central position among the five principal organs of the United Nations and is the only UN body where all member states are equally represented. The General Assembly includes all 192 UN member states. Every country has one vote and each country can have a say in the many diverse issues the committee discusses. The Assembly meets regularly from September to December each year, and additionally if necessary.

The UN Charter allows the General Assembly to discuss and make recommendations on issues pertaining to international peace and security and other matters outlined in the Charter. Although recommendations made by the GA are not legally binding, they are often very influential – the Assembly has passed many resolutions throughout the years that have affected the lives of millions of people around the world.

Introduction

Education is widely considered to be a basic **human right** that is vital to personal and societal development and well-being. Children who receive an education have better opportunities, which can make a profound difference in their own lives and in the world as a whole. This opportunity begins with a strong **primary education**.

Attending primary school offers children many lessons that extend beyond the classroom. Children can learn basic life skills and how to treat and prevent diseases. In some cases, school may be the child's best opportunity to receive life-saving vaccines, fresh water, and healthy food.

Unfortunately, not every child has access to primary education. Even though most countries have made it mandatory for children to receive some form of education, ninety-three million children of primary school age are not in school. Almost eighty percent of these children live in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.

Education is one focus of the **United Nations Millennium Development Goals** (MDGs). The MDGs are eight international developments goals that United Nations member states agreed upon achieving by 2015. The second MDG calls for the achievement of universal primary education (UPE) for all children. Primary education is linked to the fulfillment of other goals such as child health, ending poverty and hunger, gender equality, and women's empowerment.

The UN and the international community have been working hard to improve access to primary education. In 2002, 115 million children did not have access to education. In 2005-2006, numbers had declined to 93 million. This is a notable start but more efforts need to be taken, especially in regions where economic and social factors prevent children from gaining an education.

Background

Family **poverty** is the greatest barrier to primary education as sending a child to school can hurt a family financially when that child can no longer work or help at home. According to Action Aid, ninety-two countries require children to pay to attend primary school, which many poor families cannot afford.

Schools may also charge fees or require uniforms and supplies that are expensive. This causes many parents to see education as a burden rather than as an investment, especially when it is so costly that the family may not be able to survive.

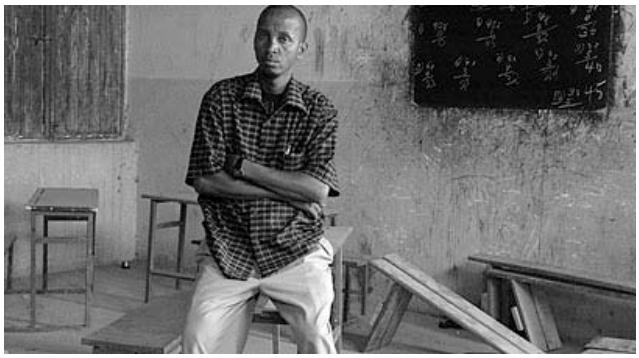
Parents who never had access to education themselves are less likely to send their children to primary school than those who did receive an education when they were young. Access to primary education greatly decreases when parents feel that the cost of sending their children to school is not worth the value of the children's labor at home or outside of the home. The right to education is also related to child labor in other ways. Some children work at dangerous jobs after school and can suffer injuries that cause loss of time at school. Others work at home, often well into the night, and they are not alert enough in school to benefit from their education.

The existence of laws that regulate the access to primary education is another important factor. Many countries do not have laws that make attending school mandatory. Laws about education can also be weak. Even if there are laws requiring all children to attend school or education to be free, they are not always enforced.

Corruption, on both the local and national level, can also have tremendous impacts on primary education when money set aside for more schools or more teachers is not used for these purposes. Access to primary education is limited when children do not have a school to attend or schools do not have enough teachers or supplies to take on more children.

Safety

For some children, a lack of safety while traveling to and from school is a problem. Insecurity can cause parents to fear sending their children to school. If children have to travel long distances to school, parents are less likely to allow their children to make the journey because of risks to their personal safety. This is especially true in war-torn areas or regions that are unstable.



A teacher in Ethiopia waits in an empty classroom, a common scene in countries that suffer or have suffered from war.

In isolated areas, children may have to travel for miles before they can reach school, which puts their safety at risk. In some extreme cases, children have been attacked simply for going to school, which may cause parents to worry about their children and keep them at home. At the same time, primary education is especially important in countries suffering from war and unrest. Education can lead to better

understanding of our differences, leading to a more peaceful and tolerant future.

Finally, children are more likely to drop out of school if they do not see any benefit to their attendance. If the **curriculum** only focuses on literacy, math, and science and does not address other issues relevant to the child's life such as work skills, health, nutrition, and conflict resolution, children will not be able to relate what they learn in school to their everyday lives. Some nations have chosen to address this by setting up training schools that teach children work skills in addition to basic education, or by incorporating health and nutrition information into the lessons.

Gender Inequality

The single most important factor preventing girls from attending and excelling in school is gender discrimination. Girls and boys both have problems to overcome when trying to get an education. For girls, however, these problems tend to happen more often and be more difficult to deal with. UNICEF reports that a majority of the children not in school, around 48.5 million, are girls. Early marriage and pregnancy are common in many countries and most have laws preventing pregnant girls from attending school or returning after becoming mothers. In many societies, young mothers are denied access to education, which can have a negative impact on both the mother and child.

Girls in Madagascar walk back home from a UNICEF-funded school.
Source: www.unicef.org

Issues of safety and security can be an especially difficult challenge for female students. The threat of **gender-based violence**, including physical violence and sexual assault, keeps many girls from leaving their communities to attend school.

Current Situation

The number of children of primary school age who are currently out of school has declined dramatically from 2002 to 2006, from 115 million to 93 million. Although considerable progress has been made, many countries and regions still face barriers in providing universal primary education to their citizens. For instance, in South Asia, 31.5 million children of primary school age do not attend school. In sub-Saharan Africa, the numbers are even higher at 41 million children.

It should also be noted that one out of every six—or 17 percent—of children attending primary school are of secondary school age. Many students are unable to start school at the recommended age or may have to repeat grades because they cannot attend school every day. In regions such as Eastern and Southern Africa, up to 39 percent of secondary school-age children are attending primary school.

Despite progress toward achieving universal primary education by 2015, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) reports that 86 countries are still at risk of not achieving the gender equality MDG by 2015. Out of the 149 countries with data, 94 of those countries missed their gender equality goal target for 2005. While access to education for girls has improved over recent years, more progress needs to be made in order to realize universal primary education (UPE) for both boys *and* girls.

International Action

In the past, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has been a leader in efforts to improve access to primary education. UNICEF operates in 157 countries, calling on all citizens to step up efforts to make education for all children a reality. UNICEF works in a variety of ways, coming up with new strategies for each new situation that usually include:

- Support and assistance to governments and communities to increase access for children who need education the most;
- Working to keep safe, stable, gender-sensitive schools open even in conflict areas;
- Promoting quality in education to encourage greater participation;
- Programs to eliminate cultural, social and economic barriers to the education of girls; and
- Outreach to locate excluded and at-risk children, especially girls, and enroll them in school.

UNICEF has also worked diligently to promote life-skills-based education, which allows children to take what they learn in the classroom and apply it to their daily lives, better preparing them for their futures.

In 2004, ECOSOC passed Resolution 254, "The Right to Education," which elaborates on the issue of access to education. The UN Development Program (UNDP) continues to work towards accomplishing the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), one of which is universal primary education.

The international community has passed two important documents that are related to access to primary education: the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the Dakar Framework agreement. All UN member states, except Somalia and the United States, have ratified the CRC. Every nation that has ratified the Convention adopts the agreement into its national laws and is responsible for fulfilling the rights outlined in the Convention. Article 28 recognizes the right to compulsory and free primary education, though education is discussed several times throughout the CRC.

> "Change will not come overnight. It has to be fundamental, and that may take generations. The governments must give greater priority to education and social programs."
>
> Craig Kielburger, Founder of Free the Children
>
> *Source:* Free the Children: A Young Man's Personal Crusade against Child Labor

The Dakar Framework calls for "expansion of…early childhood care and education" and suggests the best ways to get more children, especially girls, into good education programs. The agreement calls for individual nations to do most of the work, but agrees there must also be international cooperation. Both of these documents call on governments and citizens to play a role in achieving education for all children, especially girls. All nations that have signed and ratified these documents have a responsibility to do their best to uphold the ideas in these treaties.

Several individual nations have also launched programs in an effort to bring more "at-risk" children into the education system. These programs often help families with the cost of education, such as with uniforms, school supplies, or even paying children to go to school instead of working in factories or on the streets.

Questions to Consider

1. How many children are not able to access primary education in your country?
2. What is the ratio of boy-to-girl enrollment in primary education in your country?
3. What do you see as your country's biggest barrier in dealing with access to primary education?
4. Are there any programs in your country that have helped children access primary education?
5. How can these national programs be adapted to the international community?

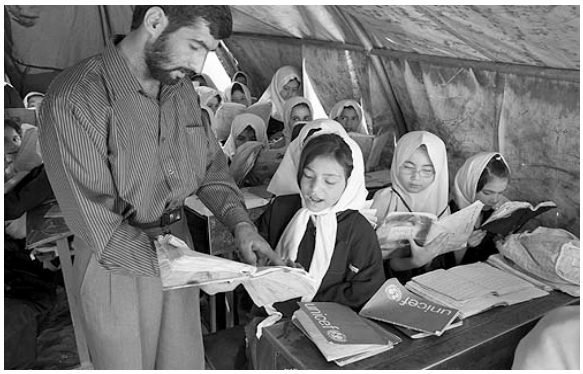
Recommendations for Formulating a Resolution

When drafting resolutions, delegates should focus on providing access to education for the 100 million children not currently in school as well as addressing other issues related to education that other groups have been unable to solve. As the General Assembly for the UN, every voice can be heard, and everyone has something to contribute. The following ideas should be addressed in any resolution that is brought to the floor:

Environments: At the very least, they should be healthy, protective and gender-safe.
Safety: How to protect children while at, going to, or coming from school.
Outreach: How to get children that are not currently in school to attend school.
Content: Making school not only interesting but useful to the children.
Processes: Teacher-student ratio, increased teacher recruitment, and community support.

Delegates should not only address barriers to education, but also introduce new ideas to resolve these problems. Keep in mind that poverty, gender inequality, and legal problems all play a role in this issue. The General Assembly has acted on these issues before, and now it falls to the GA to take the lead on this issue with innovative and unique ideas, while keeping your country's policies in mind. States should look past simply treating the problem, and instead address the root causes.

When considering ideas, delegates should take into account the situation of the nations that need to make the most progress in education. Also, the General Assembly has limits in terms of what it can and cannot do. As delegates, you have flexibility in suggesting solutions to the committee for increasing access to primary education and you are encouraged to look at problems and issues not discussed in this background guide.



This is a school in Afghanistan that brings education to students who cannot afford it. It receives funding and books from UNICEF.

Suggestions for Research

United Nations Millennium Development Goals: http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/

UNESCO Education: Primary Education: http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL_ID=30859&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

CIA World Factbook: https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/

BBC Country Profiles: http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/country_profiles/default.stm

Unit Three Handouts

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What is the Responsibility to Protect?

Responsibility to protect, often called R2P for short, is the idea that all countries have an obligation to ensure the basic human rights of their citizens. If certain countries are unwilling or incapable of providing such rights, the international community, after receiving formal authorization from the UN Security Council, is justified in intervening in that state to protect its citizens even without the permission of its government. Action could include economic sanctions or military action against another state for the purpose of protecting its population against human rights abuses. While many states within the international community have publicly supported the idea of R2P, it is still not technically an enforceable part of international law.

The R2P principle comes into play only under extreme circumstances which "shock the conscience of humanity."[xv] The international community has the responsibility to protect people if they are threatened by **ethnic cleansing**, war crimes, genocide, and crimes against humanity. If the R2P principle had been acted on in the past, atrocities like the 1994 genocide in Rwanda might have been prevented.

Although the idea of R2P might help to prevent future human rights abuses, there are still several criticisms of the concept. First, R2P challenges the centuries-old idea of state **sovereignty** – a country's right to control what happens in its own territory.[xvi] Some critics are concerned that R2P could give the UN too much power to intervene in individual states' affairs, which may even violate the UN Charter. They also fear that R2P could be used by certain powerful states to impose their will on weaker states by claiming to be protecting human rights. Second, the R2P principle is often criticized for being too vague, making it too difficult to determine when and how the UN should act. Third, some states and international relations experts believe the R2P principle does not go far enough to prevent human rights abuses, and would actually allow some rights violations by states to continue unchecked. According to these critics, the R2P standards for intervention are too high, and the UN Security Council will rarely, if ever, agree to actually take action.

History

The R2P principle has its roots in a challenge made by former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan to the UN General Assembly in 1999 in the wake of humanitarian crises which occurred in Rwanda, Bosnia, and Kosovo. Specifically, the Secretary General asked the international community to come to a consensus regarding how and when international humanitarian intervention is justified under the UN Charter.[xvii]

Humanitarian Intervention and Sovereignty

"If humanitarian intervention is, indeed, an unacceptable assault on sovereignty, how should we respond to a Rwanda, to a Srebrenica – to gross and systematic violations of human rights that offend every precept of our common humanity?"

Source: Millennium Challenge Report, Secretary General of the UN Kofi Annan, December 1999.

In response, the government of Canada co-organized and funded the **International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS)** to help answer the Secretary General's timely albeit complex question. The commission was co-chaired by Gareth Evans, former Foreign Minister of Australia, and Mohamed Sahnoun, Special Advisor to the UN Secretary General, and included ten other international affairs experts, ethicists, and respected international law practitioners from around the globe.[xviii]

In December 2001, the ICISS formally submitted its completed report "The Responsibility to Protect" to Secretary General Kofi Annan, and the R2P principle as understood today was born. Overall, the ICISS concluded that "State sovereignty implies responsibility, and the primary responsibility for the protection of its people lies with the state itself."[xix] It also found that if states fail to prevent "serious harm" to their populations, "the principle of non-intervention yields to the international responsibility to protect" specifically through action by the UN Security Council.[xx] The ICISS also warned that any humanitarian intervention should be cautioned by the following four principles:

Right Intent: The goal of intervention must be to avert humanitarian catastrophes.
Last Resort: Military intervention is only legitimate if all other options short of military intervention have failed.
Proportionality: The minimum amount of force necessary to stop human rights violations should be used.
Reasonable Chance of Success: Intervention must have a strong chance of actually solving the problem and not making things worse.[xxi]

Soon thereafter, the events of 9/11 in 2001 took focus away from the R2P principle as most UN member states as well as the leadership of the UN crafted policies to combat terrorism.[xxii] Following the US sponsored invasion of Iraq in 2003 as well as the explosion of a humanitarian crisis in Sudan, Secretary General Kofi Annan again pressed states to take a closer look at the idea of humanitarian intervention and R2P. In 2004, a high-level panel organized by the Secretary General released a reported entitled: "A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility," endorsed the R2P principle and encouraged states to do more to implement it in the face of extreme humanitarian crises.

At the 2005 UN World Summit, the UN General Assembly unanimously supported the R2P principle in the official **UN World Summit Outcome Document** following heavy pressure by international civil society groups, NGOs, and several UN member states. While the unanimous UN General Assembly resolution did not actually make the R2P principle equivalent to international law, it was a powerful endorsement of the principle and another step in making R2P a respected international norm.

> "There is no thought of invoking even the most innocuous prescriptions of R2P to respond to massive starvation in the poor countries. The UN recently estimated that the number of those facing hunger has passed a billion, while the World Food Program of the UN has just announced major cutbacks of aid because the rich countries are reducing their meager contributions, giving priority to bailing out banks."
>
> –Noam Chomsky
>
> *Source*: "General Assembly debate on the Responsibility to Protect and Informal Interactive Dialogue." International Coalition for the Responsibility to Protect, July 23, 2009.

In 2006, the UN Security Council would make its first ever reference to the R2P principle in Resolution 1674, which addressed the protection of civilians in armed conflict. Specifically, one clause "reaffirmed" the 2005 World Summit Outcome Document's conclusions regarding R2P.[xxiii] Current UN Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon would also create a new position within the UN secretariat called the "Special Adviser to the Secretary General with a Focus on the Responsibility to Protect." After controversy arose from this new position, though, it was renamed "Special Adviser to the Secretary General with a focus on the responsibility to protect populations from genocide, ethnic cleansing, war crimes and crimes against humanity."[xxiv] In January 2009, Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon released another high-level report on R2P specifically related to its practical implementation. In July 2009, the UN General Assembly would again open debate about implementing R2P. Addressing the General Assembly, the Secretary General declared, "We can save lives. We can uphold the principles on which this house is built. We can demonstrate that sovereignty and responsibility are mutually reinforcing principles. And we can assert the moral authority of this institution."[xxv]

> "States need to be highly alerted against any self-styled interpretation of this rather vague notion to destabilize the [UN] Charter sanctioned principles of international law, particularly with respect for sovereignty, territorial integrity, and political independence of States."[1]
>
> -Delegation from Islamic Republic of Iran
>
> *Source*: "General Assembly debate on the Responsibility to Protect and Informal Interactive Dialogue." International Coalition for the Responsibility to Protect, July 23, 2009.

Listed below are some states which are commonly discussed in reference to the R2P principle. This list is only a sample, and there are many other states and situations commonly discussed in terms of the R2P principle not listed below. It should also be emphasized that none of the cases listed have been officially acknowledged by the UN Security Council as a case for implementing the R2P.

Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK or North Korea)

North Korea has faced substantial criticism from the international community concerning its human rights record. Since 1948 it has been ruled by the Korean Worker's Party. Other competitive political parties do not exist in North Korea. Human rights groups including Amnesty International and Human Rights watch have accused the North Korean government of operating forced labor camps and engaging in severe political repression on numerous occasions.[xxvi] Hunger is also a major problem in North Korea, with the government relying on international aid and donations to meet basic needs. In 2008, the World Food Program estimated 8.3 million North Koreans were still desperately in need of food.[xxvii] North Korea's current leader Kim Jong-il has also been accused of diverting the country's resources to North Korea's nuclear program.

Myanmar (Burma)

Myanmar has been ruled by a military government, or junta, since 1962. In 1990 Myanmar had a national election to determine the fate of the country's political system. The National League for Democracy (NLD) won an overwhelming 80% of seats in the country's new National Assembly, but the ruling junta invalidated the vote and continues to rule to this day. Over the years, numerous Western states as well as NGOs have accused the junta of conducting gross human rights violations against

Burma's population. Specifically, Myanmar's government has been blamed for allegedly conducting ethnic cleansing against Burma's minority populations, using child soldiers, employing forced labor, facilitating the international drug trade (particularly opium), and wrongfully placing NLD leader and Nobel Laureate Aung San Suu Kyi under hour arrest among others. In 2007 Russia and China both vetoed a resolution concerning the human rights situation in Burma, arguing that problems in Burma were not a threat to international peace and security and thus did not warrant UN Security Council intervention. Instead, the Burma question was referred to the UN Human Rights Council. Explaining his country's vote, China's Ambassador stated "given that the primary responsibility entrusted by the United Nations Charter to the Security Council is to maintain world peace and security, China holds that there is no need for the Security Council to get involved. Nor should it take action on the issue of Myanmar. If it does so, it will not only exceed the mandates of the Council, but also hinder discussion by other relevant United Nations agencies, and bring no benefit to the Secretary General's good offices."[xxviii] In 2008, many states in the international community harshly criticized Myanmar's government for preventing NGOS from entering the country to provide relief from the ravages of Cyclone Nargis. France's Foreign Minister even suggested activating R2P to force aid into the country, but this proposal was ignored by the UN Security Council.[xxix]

Sudan

Sudan has been the site of severe civil war since 2003 centered in its Darfur region. Many groups in the international community have called the government's efforts to quell rebel uprisings in this area of the country a part of a policy of genocide. In July 2007, the UN Security Council authorized a new UN-African Union peacekeeping force to assist in quelling the violence in Sudan via UN Security Council Resolution 1769. Organizations supporting the R2P principle were dismayed, however, as the resolution authorizing the force made no mention of R2P.[xxx] However, on July 14, 2008 the International Criminal Court (ICC) made the unprecedented move of issuing an arrest warrant for Sudan's current President Omar al-Bashir on charges of war crimes and crimes against humanity, but it is difficult to say to if this constitutes an endorsement or criticism of the R2P principle. Following the indictment, for example, President Bashir ordered several NGOS to leave Sudan, straining the ability for other NGOs to provide for the tens of thousands of internally displaced persons in the country. President Bashir has also largely disregarded the warrant and has traveled to attend various meetings outside Sudan.

Zimbabwe

Much criticism of Zimbabwe's human rights records concerns the record of its ruling president, Robert Mugabe, who has been in power since 1980. Once considered the bread basket of Africa, Zimbabwe is now one of the continent's poorest nations and is currently experiencing hyperinflation and widespread hunger. Mugabe and his political party, ZANU-PF, have repeatedly been accused of engaging in extreme political repression and intimidating potential political competition. This political pressure came to a boiling point in 2008 when Morgan Tsvangirai of the Movement for Democratic Change-Tsvangira withdrew from a second round of elections, citing voter intimidation, threats of violence and suppression of his supporters. In the tense months that followed, Tsvangirai was eventually sworn in as the Prime Minister of Zimbabwe in a power-sharing deal with the Mugabe Administration. The Mugabe Administration was also widely condemned for executing Operation "Murambatsvina" (Restore Order) which allegedly attempted to forcibly shutdown thousands of temporary housing settlements within the country. Some estimates claim around 700,000 Zimbabweans lost their homes as a result of the initiative.[xxxi] Mugabe and his supporters, however, have maintained that severe droughts and the vestiges of colonialism are to blame for the problems in Zimbabwe.

Unit 3, Handout 2

ICISS Report: Responsibility to Protect

A synopsis of core principles excerpted from the report of the International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS)

CORE PRINCIPLES

(1) Basic Principles

- ***A.*** State sovereignty implies responsibility, and the primary responsibility for the protection of its people lies with the state itself.
- ***B.*** Where a population is suffering serious harm, as a result of internal war, insurgency, repression or state failure, and the state in question is unwilling or unable to halt or avert it, the principle of non-intervention yields to the international responsibility to protect.

(2) Foundations

The foundations of the responsibility to protect, as a guiding principle for the international community of states, lie in:

- ***A.*** obligations inherent in the concept of sovereignty;
- ***B.*** the responsibility of the Security Council, under Article 24 of the UN Charter, for the maintenance of international peace and security;
- ***C.*** specific legal obligations under human rights and human protection declarations, covenants and treaties, international humanitarian law and national law;
- ***D.*** the developing practice of states, regional organizations and the Security Council itself.

(3) Elements

The responsibility to protect embraces three specific responsibilities:

- ***A.*** The responsibility to prevent: to address both the root causes and direct causes of internal conflict and other man-made crises putting populations at risk.
- ***B.*** The responsibility to react: to respond to situations of compelling human need with appropriate measures, which may include coercive measures like sanctions and international prosecution, and in extreme cases military intervention.
- ***C.*** The responsibility to rebuild: to provide, particularly after a military intervention, full assistance with recovery, reconstruction and reconciliation, addressing the causes of the harm the intervention was designed to halt or avert.

(4) Priorities

- *A.* Prevention is the single most important dimension of the responsibility to protect: prevention options should always be exhausted before intervention is contemplated, and more commitment and resources must be devoted to it.
- *B.* The exercise of the responsibility to both prevent and react should always involve less intrusive and coercive measures being considered before more coercive and intrusive ones are applied.
- *C.* The Responsibility to Protect XII

PRINCIPLES FOR MILITARY INTERVENTION

(1) The Just Cause Threshold

Military intervention for human protection purposes is an exceptional and extraordinary measure. To be warranted, there must be serious and irreparable harm occurring to human beings, or imminently likely to occur, of the following kind:

A. large scale loss of life, actual or apprehended, with genocidal intent or not, which is the product either of deliberate state action, or state neglect or inability to act, or a failed state situation; or

B. large scale 'ethnic cleansing', actual or apprehended, whether carried out by killing, forced expulsion, acts of terror or rape.

(2) The Precautionary Principles

A. Right intention: The primary purpose of the intervention, whatever other motives intervening states may have, must be to halt or avert human suffering. Right intention is better assured with multilateral operations, clearly supported by regional opinion and the victims concerned.

B. Last resort: Military intervention can only be justified when every non-military option for the prevention or peaceful resolution of the crisis has been explored, with reasonable grounds for believing lesser measures would not have succeeded.

C. Proportional means: The scale, duration and intensity of the planned military intervention should be the minimum necessary to secure the defined human protection objective.

D. Reasonable prospects: There must be a reasonable chance of success in halting or averting the suffering which has justified the intervention, with the consequences of action not likely to be worse than the consequences of inaction.

(3) Right Authority

A. There is no better or more appropriate body than the United Nations Security Council to authorize military intervention for human protection purposes. The task is not to find alternatives to the Security Council as a source of authority, but to make the Security Council work better than it has.

B. Security Council authorization should in all cases be sought prior to any military intervention action being carried out. Those calling for an intervention should formally request such authorization, or have the Council raise the matter on its own initiative, or have the Secretary General raise it under Article 99 of the UN Charter.

C. The Security Council should deal promptly with any request for authority to intervene where there are allegations of large scale loss of human life or ethnic cleansing. It should in this context seek adequate verification of facts or conditions on the ground that might support a military intervention.

D. The Permanent Five members of the Security Council should agree not to apply their veto power, in matters where their vital state interests are not involved, to obstruct the passage of resolutions authorizing military intervention for human protection purposes for which there is otherwise majority support.

E. If the Security Council rejects a proposal or fails to deal with it in a reasonable time, alternative options are:

I. consideration of the matter by the General Assembly in Emergency Special Session under the "Uniting for Peace" procedure; and

II. action within area of jurisdiction by regional or sub-regional organizations under Chapter VIII of the Charter, subject to their seeking subsequent authorization from the Security Council.

F. The Security Council should take into account in all its deliberations that, if it fails to discharge its responsibility to protect in conscience-shocking situations crying out for action, concerned states may not rule out other means to meet the gravity and urgency of that situation – and that the stature and credibility of the United Nations may suffer thereby.

(4) Operational Principles

A. Clear objectives; clear and unambiguous mandate at all times; and resources to match.
B. Common military approach among involved partners; unity of command; clear and unequivocal communications and chain of command.
C. Acceptance of limitations, incrementalism and gradualism in the application of force, the objective being protection of a population, not defeat of a state.
D. Rules of engagement which fit the operational concept; are precise; reflect the principle of proportionality; and involve total adherence to international humanitarian law.
E. Acceptance that force protection cannot become the principal objective.
F. Maximum possible coordination with humanitarian organizations.

Unit 3, Handout 3: CASE STUDY

The Crisis in Darfur

Darfur, a Sudanese province, has been the site of some of the worst violence and oppression in all of war-ravaged Sudan. The crisis in Darfur broke out in 2003, while Sudan's government was already engaged in bloody civil war, the North-South war. The North-South conflict was Africa's longest-running civil war, lasting from 1983 to 2005 and claiming over two million lives—but the fragile peace that has been achieved is still threatened by the violence that continues to rage in Darfur.

The North-South conflict involved the mostly Arab Muslim population in the North and the mostly black Christian population in the South. In 1983, Christian-dominated southern areas rebelled against attempts by the Muslim-dominated government in the North to force Islam onto the whole country and to control the South's oil resources. Meanwhile, discontent was brewing in Darfur.

Many Darfuris believed the government was neglecting the Darfur region, and oppressing the non-Arab Darfuris. (While the majority of Darfuris are Muslim, most are not ethnic Arabs.) Twenty years after the start of the North-South war, while Sudan's military was preoccupied with the North-South war, dissatisfied Darfuris saw an opportunity to rise up: Darfuri rebels attacked government-controlled areas including police stations and military outposts. The rebellion is not unified; it is composed of many small rebel groups and two large ones, the Sudan Liberation Army (SLA) and the Justice and Equality Movement (Jem).

The government, whose military was already overextended by the North-South conflict, began supporting militias that it hoped would suppress the rebellion in Darfur. These militias only increased the violence: reports of brutality against civilians soon gained international attention. One of the most brutal militias is the Janjaweed. Janjaweed fighters reportedly ride into villages on horseback, murder civilians, rape women, steal valuables and burn houses.

The Sudanese government insists that it does not support the Janjaweed or any human rights abusers. Human rights groups, government officials around the world and representatives of the United Nations disagree. They say that the government is not trying hard enough to stop the violence against the people of Darfur.

BACKGROUND

Today, the situation in Darfur is considered one of the world's worst humanitarian crises. The fighting has claimed tens of thousands of lives, and more than two million people have been forced to flee their homes. Many have had to flee across the border as refugees to Chad, causing tensions with that country.

Some countries consider the violence to be genocide, the deliberate attempt to wipe out people of a particular race, religion or nationality. In particular, the United States believes that the Janjaweed are guilty of committing genocide against the Sudanese living in Darfur.

Violence Prevents Vital Humanitarian Aid

According to the United Nations Mission in Sudan, government police forces have also been raiding refugee camps. In early November 2004, police entered the Al Geer camp and destroyed shacks, shot into the air and shouted at the refugees. UN agencies assisting the refugees withdrew personnel due to concerns for their safety.

In December 2004, rebel forces attacked a town in Darfur and government forces retaliated—bringing humanitarian aid to a halt. The UN World Food Program (WFP) was forced to stop a group of food-carrying trucks heading to the area. As a result, 260,000 people went without food.

Nearly two million Darfuris have been driven from their homes. Most of these people are now living in camps. The WFP has fed millions, but many people are still starving because it is too dangerous for humanitarian aid to reach them. If fighting continues, the WFP warns, it is likely that many of these people will starve.

A Ceasefire in the Civil War, But More Violence in Darfur

Three long years of peace talks regarding the North-South civil war finally led to the signing of a "permanent ceasefire" on December 31, 2004. But the ceasefire already faces grave challenges: Factions from the North and South will have to overcome twenty years of hostility to put together a power-sharing government. Militias and rebel groups must both be disarmed, and both groups will eventually have to combine to form a unified Sudanese military. Both sides must achieve these goals with very little international aid (countries that have promised developmental assistance have not met their pledges.)

Even at the conclusion of war, civilians may continue to suffer. As the country tries to establish peace around 1.2 million of the four million people displaced during the war will return to their towns in southern Sudan, estimates the United Nations. Providers of social services such as schools and hospitals will likely be overwhelmed by the large number of returning refugees.

And though the war between the North and the South officially ended on January 9, 2005, the war in Darfur carried on—and escalated. Jan Pronk, the Secretary General's special representative for Sudan said, "December [2004] saw a build-up of arms, attacks of positions, including air attacks, raids on small towns and villages, increased banditry and more looting." The violence was so severe that neither the UN nor NGOs were able to provide aid.

Conflict in Darfur Persists

Even if Sudan is able to meet all of the difficult challenges of its peace agreement, Darfur will be a serious threat to maintaining peace. Several ceasefires had been signed in Darfur between rebels and the government, but they were quickly violated by both sides. Ceasefires and peace agreements in Darfur "mean nothing at all," complained John Danforth, the former US ambassador to the United Nations and former special envoy to Sudan.

The continued violence in Darfur and the harsh polices of the Sudanese government have led many observers to question whether the government is really committed to peace at all. Some in the

Sudanese government see the ongoing conflict in Darfur as proof that rebels need to be stopped once and for all through even harsher treatment. Meanwhile, some rebels in the South believe that the conflict in Darfur will weaken the government. They may be tempted to go back to war, believing the government can be toppled. Without peace in Darfur, the agreement between the North and the South cannot be guaranteed.

But some international observers are optimistic, believing that the North-South agreement could be a model for a future agreement in Darfur. "It provides a possible model for resolving the Darfur problem in power-sharing and in resource-sharing," explained former ambassador Danforth. The hope is that Darfur will be able to follow the example of the rest of the country, so that Sudan can be at peace for the first time in decades.

However, the violence did not stop. "The government launched a massive attack in Darfur just as they were in Abuja for the last round of peace talks with the rebels reaffirming their commitment to a ceasefire," said Julie Flint, a human rights worker in Sudan. The situation remains very unstable.

Past International Action

The UN Security Council passed several resolutions in 2004 condemning the violence in Darfur and welcoming the gradual progress made in the North-South conflict. Resolution 1547 established a special political observer mission to Sudan for a period of three months. This mission helped improve contact between the government and rebel groups and was extended by 90 days through Resolution 1556. Since the signing of the agreement, the UN Security Council created a peacekeeping force to monitor the new North-South agreement.

In 2005, a UN mission was established to go to Darfur to see if genocide was in fact occurring, as the United States said. The mission concluded that although very serious abuses of human rights were occurring, it could not accurately be called genocide. It called for war crimes trials for those who were responsible for the abuses.

In April 2006, the World Food Program announced it would cut in half the food rations for Darfuri refugees. Donor countries did not meet their pledges, officials said, so the WFP would be unable to provide food aid in the amount needed. "Haven't the people of Darfur suffered enough?" asked WFP chief James Morris. Later, Secretary General Kofi Annan announced that Sudan's government was violating international humanitarian law by preventing food, fuel and relief aid to civilians in the Darfur province.

In May 2006, the largest rebel group, the Sudan Liberation Army, agreed to sign a peace deal with the government. But Jem and other rebel groups refused. Though the government and SLA both went ahead with the agreement, UN reports later indicated that the government did not maintain its pledge to halt attack on civilians.

African Union troops have been stationed in Darfur to help establish peace, but the AU does not have the money to sustain a peacekeeping force there. The government of Sudan has firmly opposed a UN peacekeeping mission. Though a November 2006 agreement allowed for the creation of a joint UN-AU peacekeeping force as large as 27,000 troops, the arrangements are only tentative. The government continues to resist peacekeeping forces. "They are refusing to let the international community come in

and assist," Secretary General Annan said of the Sudanese government. "They will be held individually and collectively responsible for what is happening and what happens."

Some countries have suggested that the Security Council should impose sanctions against Sudanese oil. Sanctions are a way of punishing a country if it does not comply with a Security Council resolution. In this case, member states would not be allowed to purchase oil from Sudan, which would hurt Sudan's economy, and would hopefully compel Sudan's government to stop supporting the human rights abuses in Darfur. Currently, some members of the Security Council are opposed to sanctions. Several countries rely on Sudanese oil, so sanctions would be also be damaging to their economies.

Other UN member states have tried to convince the new Human Rights Council to issue a resolution condemning the militias and Sudanese government for using rape and violence against civilians as a tactic of war—but the resolutions have been defeated. Instead, the Council has sent "fact-finding missions" to Darfur, and has called for an "immediate end to the ongoing violations of human rights and international humanitarian law, with a special focus on vulnerable groups, including women and children, while not hindering the return of all internally displaced persons to their homes." Human rights groups have criticized this response as "lukewarm."

Sources for Further Research

News articles assembled by the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
www.reliefweb.int

Sudan, Global Policy Forum
www.globalpolicy.org/security/issues/sudanindex.htm

CBC News Timeline of Darfur Crisis
www.cbc.ca/news/background/sudan/darfur.html

Unit 3, Handout 4

Ten Tips for Effective Negotiation

The ability to negotiate effectively is an important life skill. In a Model UN simulation, negotiation usually takes place during an unmoderated caucus, an informal debate during which delegates have an opportunity to formulate draft resolutions. Negotiating effectively can help to ensure that your country's position is well reflected in the final resolution.

1. **Enter with a plan in mind:** Formulate ideas on what your country would like to see included in a resolution. Decide which clauses you are willing to negotiate on and which you are not. The better prepared you are, the more confident you will feel during negotiations.

2. **Seek allies:** Find delegates in your regional bloc. This is the easiest way to seek out like-minded delegates. However, if you find that the group you are working with is not meeting your needs, do not be afraid to switch groups. Tell others what your country is hoping to achieve. If you do not agree with an idea, do not hesitate to say that it is against your country's policy.

3. **Compromise**: While it is often necessary to give up something that you want, make sure that you are not giving up anything too important.

4. **Listen**: Listen first before you try to communicate your own ideas. By listening to what others are saying you will be able to build on other people's ideas and add more to the discussion. Listening also shows respect for each delegate in your group.

5. **Have one-on-one conversations**: Speaking with an individual or in a small group is the best way to find out a delegates position on an issue. Larger groups are better suited to brainstorming.

6. **Stay calm**: In caucuses, delegates can sometimes "lose their cool." Staying calm will not only help your group be more effective, but will be noticed by the conference staff. Always keep your voice at a normal level. If you see that you are becoming upset or raising your voice, excuse yourself from the group for a few minutes.

7. **Use the time effectively**: Make sure you have enough time to hear everyone's ideas so that you can discuss them during formal debate. Try not to waste time arguing over small details that do not seriously affect the draft resolution.

8. **Show respect**: Never give orders or tell other delegates what they should or should not do. Be polite and treat all your fellow delegates with respect.

9. **Provide constructive critique**: Rather than negatively criticizing another delegate, focus on providing constructive critique. If you dislike an idea, try to offer an alternative. Critique ideas, not people.

10. **Establish connections:** Although it can be tempting to call a fellow delegate "Pakistan," "Brazil" or "Sweden," you can form a better connection with a delegate by learning his or her name and where he or she comes from. Ask the delegate about his or her ideas and impressions of the debate. Showing interest in your fellow delegates at the beginning of the conference will help you gain more support later on and can help you to form lasting friendships.

The Human Rights of Refugees

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees: Description of the Committee

The office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) was created in 1950 to assist some 1.2 million European refugees left homeless by World War II. Today, UNHCR has a staff of more than 6,000 and aids approximately 20 million people in 115 countries worldwide. UNCHR's primary responsibility is to ensure respect for refugees' human rights.

The Executive Committee (ExCom) of UNHCR is the group of countries that discuss refugee issues and approve the work done by UNHCR staff around the world. ExCom is made up of 70 countries.

Introduction

In the late twentieth century, the world saw a shift in the nature of war. Military conflict was once waged mainly between different nations and opposing governments. Recently however, combat has become increasingly "internal"—groups from within the same country fighting each other for local dominance. These civil wars are often the result of deeply rooted beliefs regarding class, religion, race or political affiliation. According to the *Millennium Report* of the Secretary General in 2000, these clashes have claimed the lives of over five million people in the past decade alone.[xxxii] An even greater number of individuals are forced to relocate their families and leave their homes in order to escape this violence.

The *1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees* defines a **refugee** as a person who "has fled his or her country and is unable or unwilling to return because of a 'well founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion.'" **Internally displaced persons** (IDP) also must flee from their homes, but they do not leave their own country. Across the world, there are approximately 20 million refugees and even more IDPs living under harsh conditions away from their homeland.

Source: www.unhcr.ch

The growing refugee problem is directly linked to the issue of human rights. Refugees leave their homeland in order to escape human rights abuses like physical violence and discrimination. As long as these problems continue in their homelands, it is unlikely that they will be able or willing to return. Individuals who seek **asylum**, or protection, from other countries may further suffer human rights abuses abroad. Refugees may be prevented from entering a safe location due to restrictive laws and they may be directed to another, sometimes equally hostile region. Because refugees lack legal rights in some countries, they are often subjected to racial persecution and are at times recruited to fight in military conflicts against their will.[xxxiii]

The ultimate goal of relief efforts for refugees is to enable them to **repatriate**, or return to their homeland, safely and quickly. But in many war-torn regions, the infrastructure and environment are severely damaged. Even if refugees could return to their homes, they would face grave hardship unless

the region undergoes significant reconstruction. To accomplish this, peace must be established and homelands must be made livable.

Background

In 1951, the UN established the High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR) to deal with the growing problem of displaced persons (both refugees and internally displaced persons). At the time, the majority of refugees were Europeans fleeing the areas torn apart by World War II. Today, nearly half of the world's refugees come from occupied Palestinian areas, Afghanistan and Iraq.[xxxiv] Other sources of refugee movement are countries in Africa and Eastern Europe, where regional fighting threatens the lives of local inhabitants.

The right for refugees to look for protection in other nations was established in the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, which states, "everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution."[xxxv] Even so, refugees are often denied these and other freedoms—they may be abused, persecuted or even arbitrarily placed in prison. Without jobs and necessary resources, refugees do not have the ability to combat hunger or seek safe shelter. Refugee camps have been established in many nations in order to help house and protect displaced persons. Overcrowding and nearby military conflict, however, make living conditions in these areas difficult and dangerous.

Refugees who have fled a dangerous region must undergo complicated legal procedures in order to enter another country. Often, they are unable to wait for official entry into those countries or they do not understand the entry guidelines because they cannot speak the local language. As a result, many refugees are considered illegal immigrants and are arrested when discovered. Even if a refugee enters a country legally, they are often subject to intense interrogation and periods of detention.

CRITICAL THINKING
How can governments distinguish between refugees and illegal aliens?

Displaced persons who are able to return home often encounter dangerous environments and bad conditions. In many cases, military conflicts or natural disasters have destroyed their homeland and its resources, including sewage systems, electricity, water systems and shelters. Landmines and other dangers from the conflict may still remain, endangering their lives. They may face serious threats to their human rights both during and after the events that forced them to flee.

Women and children are often more vulnerable to the dangers of refugee life and they comprise the vast majority of all displaced persons. An estimated 25 million children are either living as refugees or are displaced in their home country. In many situations, women are subject to sexual abuse in addition to the normal hardships of refugee life. Both women and children may be forced to work or fight in military conflict. Many are left without care in a strange and threatening environment.

Source: Maureen Lynch, *Refugees International*, http://www.fmreview.org/pdf/Lynch.pdf

CRITICAL THINKING

How should a government ensure that refugees are offered housing, food and protection—especially if the government has difficulty caring for its own population? Should the international community play a role? How?

Past International Action

The 1951 *Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees* was the first UN effort to help displaced persons, but it was limited to people who had been forced from their homes during World War II. In 1967, the UN created the *Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees*, which applied to people who had been displaced after World War II.

By 1992, one or both of these landmark documents had been signed by over 111 countries,[xxxvi] signifying the international community's commitment to solving the refugee problem. Since 1980, the UN has focused on additional ways to prevent mass exoduses, or large movements of refugees. In 1982, a Special Rapporteur (an individual appointed to study a specific issue) was assigned to examine the cause of refugee movements throughout the world. He found that mass exoduses were directly related to severe human rights violations in the refugees' home countries.[xxxvii] The majority of refugees leave their homelands to escape violence and persecution.

In response to this report, the Secretary General created the Office for Research and Collection of Information (ORCI), which existed from 1987 to 1991. ORCI monitored early warning signs of refugee movements in the hopes that mass exoduses might be avoided. It also formulated possible responses to refugee problems worldwide. However, due to budget cuts, the program was transferred to the United Nations Department of Political Affairs, which was then forced to eliminate many of the original functions that the Office performed.

In addition to the efforts described above, the UN has also established several regional responses to the refugee problem.

"I am 72 years old. I have 73 people from my [extended] family here with me, but only the women and children. All the men are in Kosovo. Twenty or 21 men are fighting—those that were not taken away by the Serbs…We were in our houses sleeping and suddenly the Serb military surrounded our village. Using guns and tanks, they surrounded us and forced the entire village to stand outside all night in the pouring rain…Everything was burned. I saw for myself: Nothing, nothing has remained there. No property, no car, no money…We didn't want to come [to the refugee camp], but what shall we do? I am the only man here taking care for all the children, but I am 72 years old. What can I do?"

- A refugee from Kosovo

Source: www.refugees.org

The Balkan States in the 1990s

In 1991, three republics of Yugoslavia (Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Croatia) declared their independence and sparked a brutal war, dividing the region geographically and ethnically. Groups of

Croatians living in the neighboring region of Serbia opposed the move toward independence and began a harsh battle to retain the three radical republics. Throughout this war, ethnic cleansing, or the violent targeting of specific ethnic groups, was common. Severe human rights abuses sparked the largest refugee exodus in Europe since World War II.

In 1995, a tentative peace agreement was formed between the republics and Yugoslavia, ending the 42-month war in which over 230 UN personnel died in addition to thousands of regional inhabitants.[xxxviii] However, in 1996, the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) emerged to declare independence from Yugoslavia for the region of Kosovo as well. While attempting to negotiate peace, the international community realized it had to simultaneously focus on protecting the rights of refugees. Again, regional war pushed thousands of displaced persons abroad as Yugoslavia deported some 850,000 ethnic Albanians (who had been living in Kosovo) from their homes.[xxxix]

Finally, the UN was successful in negotiating a peace plan in Yugoslavia. It then established the UN Interim Administrative Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) to help reconstruct the area politically and economically. This body was given unprecedented authority over the area, with the backing of the Security Council. As a result, some 841,000 of the original 850,000 refugees were returned.[xl] The mission also established basic governmental structures to help re-build the war-torn region.

> "I remember as a child throughout the hunger, the fear, the cold, the unknown, each day wondering where we would lay our head to rest the next evening. And later when you come to refugee camps—and some people spend decades and much of their lives in refugee camps—you are living outside of space and of time, you have no roots, you have no past, you don't know whether you have a future. You have no rights, you have no voice…sometimes you haven't even got your name and you have to pinch yourself to reassure yourself that yes I am alive, I am me, I am a human being, I am a person."
>
> - Ms. Vaira Vike-Freiberga, President of Latvia and refugee survivor
>
> *Source:* www.refugees.org.

Occupied Palestinian Areas

In response to the 1948 Arab-Israeli conflict, the United Nations established the UN Relief & Works Agency for Palestinian Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA). This organization, operating since 1950, provides education, health resources, economic relief and social services to Palestinian refugees. Initially, there were approximately 750,000 displaced persons in the region. But by 2009, UNRWA was dealing with some 4,618,418 million refugees in Jordan, Lebanon, the Syrian Arab republic, the West bank region, and the Gaza Strip.[xli] Throughout this period, the Relief & Works Agency provided essential services. In 2000 and 2001 alone, over 486,000 students were enrolled in UNRWA-established schools. In addition to education UNRWA provides health care to the refugees living in the camps.

Afghanistan

In Afghanistan, military action against the Taliban regime forced approximately 500,000 people from the southern regions alone to flee the country, while more than 920,000 Afghans were internally displaced.[xlii] Many refugees fled to neighboring countries such as Pakistan and Iran, creating strains on their already insufficient resources. International assistance has been present, with the United States and Europe as the largest aid donors;[xliii] most of this aid has been in the form of food. However, in order

for refugees to return safely to Afghanistan in the coming years, which is the ultimate goal, a stable and sustainable living environment must be created.

According to the World Bank, $10-15 billion will be needed over the next decade to reconstruct the damaged regions of Afghanistan.[xliv] Applications for entry into refugee camps dropped by 48 percent in 2002.[xlv] This meant that fewer Afghans were fleeing the nation. Nonetheless, Afghans still represented the fourth largest group of asylum seekers internationally. The future for Afghan refugees remains uncertain—the international community must decide how to balance the immediate human rights needs of displaced persons with the necessity of securing and rebuilding their homes.

Recommendations for Formulating a Resolution

As mentioned above, the issue of refugees and displaced persons has two equally challenging aspects. Delegates must:

- Recommend measures to ensure the health and well-being of refugees currently living around the world—this includes protection from violence, abuse and forced labor, in addition to the maintenance of fundamental rights like the freedom of movement and the freedom to seek asylum;
- Recommend ways to improve the security and effectiveness of these programs; and
- Recognize that, in order for refugees to repatriate, their home countries must be reconstructed.

Ultimately, delegates must recognize the fundamental human rights violations that refugees suffer, both in their homeland and when they travel abroad. Then, it may suggest programs and policies to help ensure that these rights are upheld across the world.

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Do refugees leave or enter your country?
2. Is your country contributing to international humanitarian missions and efforts?
3. Has your country ratified UN treaties addressing the human rights of refugees?
4. What can the UN do to help protect the human rights of refugees worldwide?
5. How can the UN help ensure that refugees have a safe homeland to return to?
6. What limits the UN's work in these areas (for example, money, personnel, etc.)?
7. What are member nations' obligations toward refugees or those seeking asylum? Should member nations be obligated to allow entry to those who are fleeing natural disasters such as famine, floods, earthquakes?

Sources for Research

Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees www.unhchr.ch/html/menu3/b/o_c_ref.htm

Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees www.unhchr.ch/html/menu3/b/o_p_ref.htm

Unit Four Handouts

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Unit 4, Handout 1

NGOs and Human Rights

One of the most important developments in international politics in the 20th century has been the expansion of the role of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in supporting and upholding human rights. NGOs are usually non-profit organizations that operate independently from governments and work towards a social mission. Many NGOs focus on different aspects of human rights. NGOs receive their funding from individuals, foundations, and sometimes government agencies.

There are several different ways that NGOs can work towards improving human rights:

1. NGOs can work with country governments to set agendas for action. By lobbying government officials and legislators, NGOs help countries to improve laws that protect human rights.
2. NGOs can act as advocates for individuals or groups whose rights are being violated. NGOs can expose human rights violations and use the media to communicate to the public about human rights abuses that are happening all around the world. In this way, NGOs put pressure on countries that violate the rights of their citizens.
3. NGOs can provide help to people whose rights are being violated, including physical protection and legal assistance, or even food and shelter when needed.
4. NGOs provide training and curricula (like this one!) to help people learn about human rights and increase support for human rights.

Below are three examples of important human rights NGOs that operate all over the world.

Human Rights Watch: www.hrw.org

HUMAN RIGHTS WATCH

"Human Rights Watch is one of the world's leading independent organizations dedicated to defending and protecting human rights. By focusing international attention where human rights are violated, we give voice to the oppressed and hold oppressors accountable for their crimes. Our rigorous, objective investigations and strategic, targeted advocacy build intense pressure for action and raise the cost of human rights abuse. For 30 years, Human Rights Watch has worked tenaciously to lay the legal and moral groundwork for deep-rooted change and has fought to bring greater justice and security to people around the world."

Amnesty International: www.amnesty.org

AMNESTY INTERNATIONAL

"Amnesty International is a worldwide movement of people who campaign for internationally recognized human rights for all. Our supporters are outraged by human rights abuses but inspired by hope for a better world - so we work to improve human rights through campaigning and international solidarity. We have more than 2.2 million members and subscribers in more than 150 countries and regions and we coordinate this support to act for justice on a wide range of issues."

Human Rights First: www.humanrightsfirst.org

"Human Rights First builds respect for human rights and the rule of law to help ensure the dignity to which everyone is entitled and to stem intolerance, tyranny, and violence. Human Rights First is a non-profit, nonpartisan international human rights organization based in New York and Washington D.C. To maintain our independence, we accept no government funding."

CEDAW

The full text of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women, New York, December 18, 1979

The States Parties to the present Convention,
Noting that the Charter of the United Nations reaffirms faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women,

Noting that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms the principle of the inadmissibility of discrimination and proclaims that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, including distinction based on sex,

Noting that the States Parties to the International Covenants on Human Rights have the obligation to ensure the equal rights of men and women to enjoy all economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights,

Considering the international conventions concluded under the auspices of the United Nations and the specialized agencies promoting equality of rights of men and women,

Noting also the resolutions, declarations and recommendations adopted by the United Nations and the specialized agencies promoting equality of rights of men and women,

Concerned, however, that despite these various instruments extensive discrimination against women continues to exist,

Recalling that discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity, is an obstacle to the participation of women, on equal terms with men, in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries, hampers the growth of the prosperity of society and the family and makes more difficult the full development of the potentialities of women in the service of their countries and of humanity,

Concerned that in situations of poverty women have the least access to food, health, education, training and opportunities for employment and other needs,

Convinced that the establishment of the new international economic order based on equity and justice will contribute significantly towards the promotion of equality between men and women,

Emphasizing that the eradication of apartheid, all forms of racism, racial discrimination, colonialism, neo-colonialism, aggression, foreign occupation and domination and interference in the internal affairs of States is essential to the full enjoyment of the rights of men and women,

Affirming that the strengthening of international peace and security, the relaxation of international tension, mutual co-operation among all States irrespective of their social and economic systems, general and complete disarmament, in particular nuclear disarmament under strict and effective international control, the affirmation of the principles of justice, equality and mutual benefit in relations among countries and the realization of the right of peoples under alien and colonial domination and foreign occupation to self-determination and independence, as well as respect for national sovereignty and territorial integrity, will promote social progress and development and as a consequence will contribute to the attainment of full equality between men and women,

Convinced that the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields,

Bearing in mind the great contribution of women to the welfare of the family and to the development of society, so far not fully recognized, the social significance of maternity and the role of both parents in the family and in the upbringing of children, and aware that the role of women in procreation should not be a basis for discrimination but that the upbringing of children requires a sharing of responsibility between men and women and society as a whole,

Aware that a change in the traditional role of men as well as the role of women in society and in the family is needed to achieve full equality between men and women,

Determined to implement the principles set forth in the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and, for that purpose, to adopt the measures required for the elimination of such discrimination in all its forms and manifestations,

Have agreed on the following:

PART I

Article I

For the purposes of the present Convention, the term "discrimination against women" shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

Article 2

States Parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake:

(a) To embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realization of this principle;

(b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women;

(c) To establish legal protection of the rights of women on an equal basis with men and to ensure through competent national tribunals and other public institutions the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination;

(d) To refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure that public authorities and institutions shall act in conformity with this obligation;
(e) To take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organization or enterprise;
(f) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;
(g) To repeal all national penal provisions which constitute discrimination against women.

Article 3
States Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to en sure the full development and advancement of women , for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men.

Article 4
1. Adoption by States Parties of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality between men and women shall not be considered discrimination as defined in the present Convention, but shall in no way entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate standards; these measures shall be discontinued when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.
2. Adoption by States Parties of special measures, including those measures contained in the present Convention, aimed at protecting maternity shall not be considered discriminatory.

Article 5
States Parties shall take all appropriate measures:
(a) To modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women;
(b) To ensure that family education includes a proper understanding of maternity as a social function and the recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children, it being understood that the interest of the children is the primordial consideration in all cases.

Article 6
States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to suppress all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution of women.

PART II

Article 7

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure to women, on equal terms with men, the right:

(a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies;

(b) To participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government;

(c) To participate in non-governmental organizations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country.

Article 8

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure to women, on equal terms with men and without any discrimination, the opportunity to represent their Governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organizations.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. They shall ensure in particular that neither marriage to an alien nor change of nationality by the husband during marriage shall automatically change the nationality of the wife, render her stateless or force upon her the nationality of the husband.
2. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children.

PART III

Article 10

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training;

(b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality;

(c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programs and the adaptation of teaching methods;

(d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;

(e) The same opportunities for access to programs of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programs, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;

(f) The reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programs for girls and women who have left school prematurely;

(g) The same Opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education;

(h) Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well-being of families, including information and advice on family planning.

Article 11

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;

(b) The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;

(c) The right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training;

(d) The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work;

(e) The right to social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work, as well as the right to paid leave;

(f) The right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.

2. In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:

(a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or of maternity leave and discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;

(b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;

(c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;

(d) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.

3. Protective legislation relating to matters covered in this article shall be reviewed periodically in the light of scientific and technological knowledge and shall be revised, repealed or extended as necessary.

Article 12

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of health care in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, access to health care services, including those related to family planning.

2. Notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph I of this article, States Parties shall ensure to women appropriate services in connection with pregnancy, confinement and the post-natal period, granting free services where necessary, as well as adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation.

Article 13

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to family benefits;

(b) The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit;

(c) The right to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of the present Convention to women in rural areas.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right:

(a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;

(b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counseling and services in family planning;

(c) To benefit directly from social security programs;

(d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including that relating to functional literacy, as well as, inter alia, the benefit of all community and extension services, in order to increase their technical proficiency;

(e) To organize self-help groups and co-operatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self employment;

(f) To participate in all community activities;

(g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes;

(h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

PART IV

Article 15

1. States Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.

2. States Parties shall accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity. In particular, they shall give women equal rights to conclude contracts and to administer property and shall treat them equally in all stages of procedure in courts and tribunals.

3. States Parties agree that all contracts and all other private instruments of any kind with a legal effect which is directed at restricting the legal capacity of women shall be deemed null and void.

4. States Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

Article 16

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same right to enter into marriage;

(b) The same right freely to choose a spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent;

(c) The same rights and responsibilities during marriage and at its dissolution;

(d) The same rights and responsibilities as parents, irrespective of their marital status, in matters relating to their children; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;

(e) The same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights;

(f) The same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship, wardship, trusteeship and adoption of children, or similar institutions where these concepts exist in national legislation; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;

(g) The same personal rights as husband and wife, including the right to choose a family name, a profession and an occupation;

(h) The same rights for both spouses in respect of the ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property, whether free of charge or for a valuable consideration.

2. The betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect, and all necessary action, including legislation, shall be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make the registration of marriages in an official registry compulsory.

PART V

Article 17

1. For the purpose of considering the progress made in the implementation of the present Convention, there shall be established a Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (hereinafter referred to as the Committee) consisting, at the time of entry into force of the Convention, of eighteen and, after ratification of or accession to the Convention by the thirty-fifth State Party, of twenty-three experts of high moral standing and competence in the field covered by the Convention. The experts shall be elected by States Parties from among their nationals and shall serve in their personal capacity, consideration being given to equitable geographical distribution and to the representation of the different forms of civilization as well as the principal legal systems.

2. The members of the Committee shall be elected by secret ballot from a list of persons nominated by States Parties. Each State Party may nominate one person from among its own nationals.

3. The initial election shall be held six months after the date of the entry into force of the present Convention. At least three months before the date of each election the Secretary General of the United Nations shall address a letter to the States Parties inviting them to submit their nominations within two months. The Secretary General shall prepare a list in alphabetical order of all persons thus nominated, indicating the States Parties which have nominated them, and shall submit it to the States Parties.

4. Elections of the members of the Committee shall be held at a meeting of States Parties convened by the Secretary General at United Nations Headquarters. At that meeting, for which two thirds of the States Parties shall constitute a quorum, the persons elected to the Committee shall be those nominees

who obtain the largest number of votes and an absolute majority of the votes of the representatives of States Parties present and voting.
5. The members of the Committee shall be elected for a term of four years. However, the terms of nine of the members elected at the first election shall expire at the end of two years; immediately after the first election the names of these nine members shall be chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.
6. The election of the five additional members of the Committee shall be held in accordance with the provisions of paragraphs 2, 3 and 4 of this article, following the thirty-fifth ratification or accession. The terms of two of the additional members elected on this occasion shall expire at the end of two years, the names of these two members having been chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.
7. For the filling of casual vacancies, the State Party whose expert has ceased to function as a member of the Committee shall appoint another expert from among its nationals, subject to the approval of the Committee.
8. The members of the Committee shall, with the approval of the General Assembly, receive emoluments from United Nations resources on such terms and conditions as the Assembly may decide, having regard to the importance of the Committee's responsibilities.
9. The Secretary General of the United Nations shall provide the necessary staff and facilities for the effective performance of the functions of the Committee under the present Convention.

Article 18
1. States Parties undertake to submit to the Secretary General of the United Nations, for consideration by the Committee, a report on the legislative, judicial, administrative or other measures which they have adopted to give effect to the provisions of the present Convention and on the progress made in this respect:
(a) Within one year after the entry into force for the State concerned;
(b) Thereafter at least every four years and further whenever the Committee so requests.
2. Reports may indicate factors and difficulties affecting the degree of fulfillment of obligations under the present Convention.

Article 19
1. The Committee shall adopt its own rules of procedure.
2. The Committee shall elect its officers for a term of two years.

Article 20
1. The Committee shall normally meet for a period of not more than two weeks annually in order to consider the reports submitted in accordance with article 18 of the present Convention.
2. The meetings of the Committee shall normally be held at United Nations Headquarters or at any other convenient place as determined by the Committee. (amendment, status of ratification)

Article 21
1. The Committee shall, through the Economic and Social Council, report annually to the General Assembly of the United Nations on its activities and may make suggestions and general recommendations based on the examination of reports and information received from the States Parties. Such suggestions and general recommendations shall be included in the report of the Committee together with comments, if any, from States Parties.
2. The Secretary General of the United Nations shall transmit the reports of the Committee to the Commission on the Status of Women for its information.

Article 22

The specialized agencies shall be entitled to be represented at the consideration of the implementation of such provisions of the present Convention as fall within the scope of their activities. The Committee may invite the specialized agencies to submit reports on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their activities.

PART VI

Article 23

Nothing in the present Convention shall affect any provisions that are more conducive to the achievement of equality between men and women which may be contained:

(a) In the legislation of a State Party; or

(b) In any other international convention, treaty or agreement in force for that State.

Article 24

States Parties undertake to adopt all necessary measures at the national level aimed at achieving the full realization of the rights recognized in the present Convention.

Article 25

1. The present Convention shall be open for signature by all States.
2. The Secretary General of the United Nations is designated as the depositary of the present Convention.
3. The present Convention is subject to ratification. Instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretary General of the United Nations.
4. The present Convention shall be open to accession by all States. Accession shall be effected by the deposit of an instrument of accession with the Secretary General of the United Nations.

Article 26

1. A request for the revision of the present Convention may be made at any time by any State Party by means of a notification in writing addressed to the Secretary General of the United Nations.
2. The General Assembly of the United Nations shall decide upon the steps, if any, to be taken in respect of such a request.

Article 27

1. The present Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of deposit with the Secretary General of the United Nations of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession.
2. For each State ratifying the present Convention or acceding to it after the deposit of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession, the Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of the deposit of its own instrument of ratification or accession.

Article 28

1. The Secretary General of the United Nations shall receive and circulate to all States the text of reservations made by States at the time of ratification or accession.
2. A reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the present Convention shall not be permitted.
3. Reservations may be withdrawn at any time by notification to this effect addressed to the Secretary General of the United Nations, who shall then inform all States thereof. Such notification shall take effect on the date on which it is received.

Article 29

1. Any dispute between two or more States Parties concerning the interpretation or application of the present Convention which is not settled by negotiation shall, at the request of one of them, be submitted to arbitration. If within six months from the date of the request for arbitration the parties are unable to agree on the organization of the arbitration, any one of those parties may refer the dispute to the International Court of Justice by request in conformity with the Statute of the Court.
2. Each State Party may at the time of signature or ratification of the present Convention or accession thereto declare that it does not consider itself bound by paragraph I of this article. The other States Parties shall not be bound by that paragraph with respect to any State Party which has made such a reservation.
3. Any State Party which has made a reservation in accordance with paragraph 2 of this article may at any time withdraw that reservation by notification to the Secretary General of the United Nations.

Article 30

The present Convention, the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts of which are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary General of the United Nations.
IN WITNESS WHEREOF the undersigned, duly authorized, have signed the present Convention.

Human Trafficking

Human trafficking often happens to women and children. Human trafficking is when people are transported to another place, either within or outside their own country, for the purpose of exploitation, such as forced labor or prostitution. The following stories from UNICEF's Voices of Youth website (UNICEF.org/VOY) describe the experience of two young women who were trafficked.

Thonglin's Story

Thonglin was 13 years old when she was sold into prostitution. "My aunt asked if I would like to come with her to Thailand to find a job so that I could earn money for her family, and I agreed," she explains.

Thonglin was born in a poor village in the Savannakhet province of the Lao People's Democratic Republic, in South-East Asia, not far from the border with Thailand. Her mother had five children before Thonglin was born, but they all died before the age of five.

Shortly after Thonglin's own fifth birthday, her parents divorced. Her mother remarried and had three more children. Thonglin stayed with her grandparents until she was 12, then moved in with her mother and her new family. Thonglin's education had been minimal: she only completed first grade. She knew the letters of the alphabet, but she could not read or write properly.

Thonglin's aunt used a trafficking ring to smuggle herself and her niece into Thailand. The traffickers were raided by the Thai police, and her aunt was sent back home, but it was too late for Thonglin. She had already been sold to another trafficker in Bangkok for 10,000 baht (about US$220). She knows the exact price because the money was counted out in front of her.

This second trafficker took Thonglin into his home and made her do domestic work until he could sell her to a pimp. He told her that she would not be paid at all for the first six months, and he forced her to work long days. Thonglin fell sick, but the man accused her of faking the illness and beat her. When he realized that she really was very ill he panicked and sent her back to the leader of the ring that had originally brought her to Thailand. "He sent me back to the first man because he did not want me to die in his house," Thonglin says.

When her condition improved, the trafficker took her to a Bangkok shopping centre and asked her to wait while he went to a nearby hotel. "I was afraid," Thonglin says. “I knew he was trying to sell me for sex. I heard him talk about this when he bought me back. They were speaking in Thai, but I understood what they were saying.”

Left alone for a short time, Thonglin seized her chance and approached a young woman for help. The woman took Thonglin to the police station. The police asked Thonglin to return to the shopping centre and wait for the man to return. When he arrived, they arrested him.

Thonglin was taken to the Kredtrakarn Protection and Occupational Development Centre, which houses more than 200 women and girls who have escaped from the sex trade. The centre offers services such as employment training, medical treatment, and counseling. Thonglin was learning how to weave, but she was homesick and wanted above all to be reunited with her family. She has now returned home.

Elena's Story

The streets of Manila are very different from the unpaved roads of Elena's home in the north of the island of Mindanao, in the southern Philippines. There, life is quiet and the air smells of rice fields.

But rural areas have their own problems. "Our life was difficult there. It was hard to earn money," Elena says. Her parents are farmers, and their income is too small to support Elena and her brothers and sisters. Elena is the eldest and at the age of 15 her parents felt it was time for her to start helping her family make a living. Her parents thought that an offer of work in Manila was the answer.

"I didn't want to come to Manila, but my parents wanted me to," Elena says. "I told them I was too young, but they said it would not be noticed — I could pass for 18. The recruiter had already paid my parents 500 pesos (about US$10). I told them to return the money to the recruiter, but they had already spent it."

Elena ended up working in the province of Santa Ana, Pampanga, for the family of a police officer. The police officer raped her twice. She begged him to send her back to the recruiter, and he agreed on condition that she kept quiet about the rape. If she did not, he said, he would kill her.

Elena eventually told her recruiter what happened. "But his response was simply, 'So, you were raped. Become a prostitute.'"

Taking matters into her own hands, Elena escaped with four other children her age to her uncle's house in Manila. And this time she had a better experience with the police. Wandering around the port area, hoping to get a chance to board a ship back to her home town, she was stopped by a port policeman. She told him her story and he took her to the Visayan Forum Foundation (VF), a non-governmental organization (NGO) that helps vulnerable migrant working children.

Many children have experiences similar to Elena's. Every year four million people enter Manila through the North Harbour alone, with a growing number of young children trafficked into the worst forms of child labor — prostitution, domestic work, factory work and construction — which endanger their health and safety.

Elena has had counseling sessions to help her leave her painful memories behind. But she is homesick. "It is not nice here in Manila," she says. "I just want to go home."

Source: UNICEF Voices of Youth, www.unicef.org/voy

Unit 4, Handout 4

Cheat Sheet for Resolution Writing

Preambulatory clauses are historic justifications for action. Use them to cite past resolutions, precedents and statements about the purpose of action. The preamble of a draft resolution states the reasons for which the committee is addressing the topic and highlights past international action on the issue. Each clause begins with a present participle (called a preambulatory phrase) and ends with a comma. Preambulatory clauses can include:

- References to the UN Charter;
- Citations of past UN resolutions or treaties on the topic under discussion;
- Mentions of statements made by the Secretary General or a relevant UN body or agency;
- Recognition of the efforts of regional or nongovernmental organizations in dealing with the issue; and
- General statements on the topic, its significance and its impact.

Affirming	Expecting	Having studied
Alarmed by	Expressing its appreciation	Keeping in mind
Approving	Expressing its satisfaction	Noting with regret
Aware of	Fulfilling	Noting with deep concern
Bearing in mind	Fully alarmed	Noting with satisfaction
Believing	Fully aware	Noting further
Confident	Fully believing	Noting with approval
Contemplating	Further deploring	Observing
Convinced	Further recalling	Reaffirming
Declaring	Guided by	Realizing
Deeply concerned	Having adopted	Recalling
Deeply conscious	Having considered	Recognizing
Deeply convinced	Having considered further	Referring
Deeply disturbed	Having devoted attention	Seeking
Deeply regretting	Having examined	Taking into account
Desiring	Having heard	Taking into consideration
Emphasizing	Having received	Taking note
		Viewing with appreciation
		Welcoming

Operative clauses are policies that the resolution is designed to create. Use them to explain what the committee will do to address the issue. Operative clauses identify the actions or recommendations made in a resolution. Each operative clause begins with a verb (called an operative phrase) and ends with a semicolon. Operative clauses should be organized in a logical progression, with each containing a single idea or proposal, and are always numbered. If a clause requires further explanation, bulleted lists set off by letters or roman numerals can also be used. After the last operative clause, the resolution ends in a period. Operative phrases include:

Accepts	Encourages	Further recommends
Affirms	Endorses	Further requests

Approves	Expresses its appreciation	Further resolves
Authorizes	Expresses its hope	Has resolved
Calls	Further invites	Notes
Calls upon	Deplores	Proclaims
Condemns	Designates	Reaffirms
Confirms	Draws the attention	Recommends
Congratulates	Emphasizes	Regrets
Considers	Encourages	Reminds
Declares accordingly	Endorses	Requests
Deplores	Expresses its appreciation	Solemnly affirms
Designates	Expresses its hope	Strongly condemns
Draws the attention	Further invites	Supports
Emphasizes	Further proclaims	Takes note of
	Further reminds	Transmits
		Trusts

Sponsors of a draft resolution are the principal authors of the document and agree with its substance. Although it is possible to have only one sponsor, this rarely occurs at the UN, since countries must work together to create widely agreeable language in order for the draft resolution to pass. Sponsors control a draft resolution and only the sponsors can approve immediate changes. Try to find multiple sponsors. Your committee will be more likely to approve the resolutions if many delegates contribute ideas.

Signatories are countries that may or may not agree with the substance of the draft resolution but still wish to see it debated so that they can propose amendments. A certain percentage of the committee must be either sponsors or signatories to a draft resolution in order for it to be accepted.

Amendments: Approved draft resolutions are modified through amendments. An amendment is a written statement that adds, deletes or revises an operative clause in a draft resolution. The amendment process is used to strengthen consensus on a resolution by allowing delegates to change certain sections. There are two types of amendments: friendly and unfriendly.

Friendly amendment: a change to the draft resolution that all sponsors agree with. After the amendment is signed by all of the draft resolution's sponsors and approved by the committee director or president, it will be automatically incorporated into the resolution.

Unfriendly amendment: a change that some or all of the draft resolution's sponsors do not support and must be voted upon by the committee. The author(s) of the amendment will need to obtain a required number of signatories in order to introduce it (usually 20 percent of the committee). Prior to voting on the draft resolution, the committee votes on all unfriendly amendments.

Adapted from UNA-USA Model UN Preparation Guide: www.unausa.org/munpreparation/resolutions

Trafficking in Women and Children

Human Rights Council: Description of the Committee

In March 2006, the General Assembly voted to create the Human Rights Council, which would replace the much-criticized Commission on Human Rights. The Human Rights Council, like the Commission before it, addresses human rights violations around the world. The Human Rights Council is composed of 47 countries, which are elected by a majority of the General Assembly through a secret ballot. In an effort to remedy the controversy surrounding the Commission on Human Rights, member states of the Council are required to uphold human rights in their own countries and policies. Council members with "gross and systematic violations of human rights" may have their membership suspended. The Council meets at least three times a year.

Introduction

When most people think of slavery, they recall the transatlantic slave trade that took place from the 1400s to the 1800s, when European slave traders kidnapped Africans and sold them into slavery in North America and the Caribbean. The Transatlantic slave trade was halted in the nineteenth century, but another type of slavery continues today: human trafficking. **Human trafficking** is a highly profitable illegal business in which people are coerced or tricked into traveling far from their homes to work for little or no money. These modern day slaves are disproportionately women and children who are forced to work as hard laborers, soldiers, domestic servants and prostitutes.

The same aspects of globalization that have helped legitimate businesses prosper have also allowed human trafficking to become a multi-million dollar industry. For instance, the cost of intercontinental transportation has decreased dramatically. Communication between distant regions is also rapid and inexpensive. Trafficking can therefore be conducted quickly, efficiently and inexpensively, creating large profits for illegal traffickers.[xlvi]

The victims of human trafficking are not the only ones hurt by this illegal practice—proceeds from trafficking are used to fund terrorism and corruption around the world. To date, member states have taken few steps to address the issue of human trafficking. It will be up to this committee to look at ways that human trafficking can be stopped, but most of all to harness **political will**—the willingness of member states—to address the issue.

> "The fact that slavery—in the form of human trafficking—still exists in the 21st century shames us all."
>
> - Antonio Maria Costa, Executive Director, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
>
> *Source*: UNODC Report Trafficking in Persons: Global Patterns, April 2006.

Background

US government estimates that 600,000 to 800,000 individuals are trafficked across international borders each year.[xlvii] This number does not even include people who are forced into labor in their own countries. The International Labor Organization (ILO) estimates that 12 million people around the world may be engaged in some form of forced labor. Of these, at least 2.4 million were also victims of human trafficking.[xlviii] About 80 percent of the victims of trafficking are women and girls, and half are children under the age of 18.[xlix]

Some victims are kidnapped from their home countries. Other times traffickers use deception to trick people into agreeing to travel overseas. They promise the victims good jobs in their new locations. They often charge the victims a large sum of money to make the journey. Victims are usually young and poor, so they must borrow the cost of the journey from the traffickers. When they arrive in their new locations, the victims are forced to work indefinitely in bad conditions to pay off their debts.

Sometimes people from very poor areas sell their children to traffickers because they believe their lives will be better overseas. But this is rarely the case. Children who are trafficked overseas often face a life of prostitution or are used in illegal child pornography.

> **CRITICAL THINKING**
> *Most victims of human trafficking are first victims of extreme poverty. What might be done to address this root cause of human trafficking?*

Due to modern improvements in transportation and communication technologies, it costs relatively less to traffic a person today than it did two centuries ago during the transatlantic slave trade. Slave traffickers are therefore making much higher profits than their counterparts from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.[l] Compared to other illegal activities, the costs associated with starting up in the human trafficking business—sometimes called the "**barriers to entry**"—are very low. In addition, criminal sentences for those who are caught are much more lenient than for other forms of illegal trafficking, such as drug smuggling.[li] For these reasons, human trafficking is a very attractive activity for criminal and terrorist groups.

But terrorist cells and organized crime groups are not the only ones benefiting from this horrific practice. Corrupt officials in states where human trafficking takes place often take bribes from traffickers. Sometimes human traffickers give officials cash payments to look the other way when trafficking takes place. But other times, corrupt officials are actually closely involved with the human trafficking business, profiting directly from the sale of victims into forced labor. For these reasons, human trafficking encourages corruption and damages the **rule of law**.[lii]

Trafficking of people violates these basic human rights:

To physical and mental integrity;
To life, liberty and security of person;
To live without slavery or servitude;
To live without cruel and inhuman or degrading treatment;
To just and favorable remuneration (payment for work);
To work, to free choice of employment, to just and favorable conditions of work;
To a standard of living adequate for health and well-being; and
To social security.

Source: Amnesty International, USA, www.amnestyusa.org/women/trafficking.

Impact on Victims

The people who become victims of trafficking, mostly women and children, endure a great deal of physical and psychological pain and humiliation. They are often confined by their captors and have their identification documents taken away. They may be raped, sexually abused, or forced into prostitution or pornography. To silence them, traffickers often threaten to tell the victim's family that he or she is working as a prostitute. Traffickers also take advantage of victims' fear of being deported or arrested if they go to the authorities.

Combating the Trafficking of Human Beings

There are many different ideas on ways to reduce trafficking in humans. Most proposals involve trying to reduce either the *supply* of people who are vulnerable to being trafficked or the *demand* for trafficked individuals. One proposal is to **legalize** prostitution, which is currently against the law in some countries and not in others. Supporters of legalizing prostitution say that if the practice were allowed, there would be less demand for illegally trafficked individuals. The reason, they say, is that police would be more likely to detect signs of human trafficking if the prostitution industry were fully regulated by the government. Yet others do not believe this approach will be effective. Illegally trafficked prostitutes will simply work on the **black market** for less money than "official" prostitutes, they say. Moreover, many countries feel that prostitution is physically and emotionally harmful to young women—and something that governments should not condone.[liii]

NGOs have argued for greater penalties for traffickers and stricter enforcement. They also lobby for reducing or eliminating penalties for trafficking victims who are forcibly involved in criminal activities such as prostitution. One challenge is that it is often difficult to determine who is a victim of trafficking unless they come forward. Several NGOs have launched awareness campaigns so that victims understand that they will not be penalized, and come forward without fear of prosecution.

Other policy makers have suggested that the supply side of the modern slave trade should be targeted. They point out that by promoting economic growth in very poor regions, people will have alternatives to going overseas for jobs and will be less vulnerable to traffickers. But the process of development can take a very long time, and may not have an immediate impact. In the meantime, hundreds of thousands of people will continue to become victims of trafficking each year.

Another proposal for combating human trafficking is to publicize the names of countries that have bad records with human trafficking. Sometimes called "naming and shaming," this method relies on countries to report honestly about which governments are not cooperating in the fight against human trafficking. "Reputation matters in today's global economy, a reputation for harboring criminals is something no state wants," explains Ethan B. Kapstein, a writer for *Foreign Affairs* magazine.[liv]

CRITICAL THINKING
What might happen if prostitution were widely legalized? Do you think the number of women and children who become prostitutes would decrease? Why or why not?

International Action

The Work of the United Nations

The UN has a long history of opposing the trafficking of human beings. In 1949, the General Assembly passed the *Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Prostitution of Others*. Then, in 2000, the UN General Assembly updated the *Convention Against Transnational Crime* by adopting the *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children*.

In March 1999, the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) launched the Global Program against Trafficking in Human Beings (GPAT), a cooperative effort of the UN Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) and the UNODC. GPAT was designed to help individual member states do their part to stop trafficking in human beings. The program helps to inform states about the role of terrorist and criminal groups in human trafficking. GPAT primarily focuses on the use of judicial (court) systems in the fight against trafficking. As one of the only programs that centers on the criminal justice aspect of the problem, GPAT is helping states to address this issue by prosecuting offenders.

The UN has struggled with two main problems in the effort to end human trafficking. The first is that many states choose to focus on other issues that they believe to be more pressing, such as security issues. The delegates in this body must therefore create the political will to address the issue of human trafficking. Second, it has been difficult for member states to agree on an official legal definition for human trafficking. One reason is that it is often difficult to distinguish between those who are moved voluntarily across borders and those who were tricked or coerced into going. Article 3 of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons defines trafficking, but with complicated language that states have found difficult to incorporate into their national laws.

Definition of "human trafficking" according to Article 3 of the Protocol

"The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of the use of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purposes of exploitation."

Source: Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children

The Work of Nongovernmental Organizations

Several nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have dedicated their efforts to ending the trafficking of human beings. ECPAT, which stands for "end child prostitution, child pornography and trafficking of children for sexual purposes," is a network of NGOs that focuses specifically on ending trafficking and sexual exploitation of children. Amnesty International is an organization that has worked to educate the public about human trafficking as a human rights violation. The Global Alliance against Traffic in Women, Human Rights Watch, and the "Not for Sale" campaign are just a few of the other organizations that have contributed to the movement against human trafficking.

National Reactions

In 2000, the United States passed the *Trafficking Victims Protection Act* (TVPA) which imposes stronger penalties in the US for trafficking persons and provides funds to assist victims of human trafficking. However, the US is criticized for allowing their allies to violate laws against trafficking. The US also maintains a *Trafficking in Persons Report* that categorizes countries based on their efforts to fight trafficking. Sweden and the Netherlands have made efforts at prosecuting more traffickers.

But over all, the efforts of national governments against human trafficking have been very weak. A few countries are actively taking part in the trafficking by accepting bribes. Many other countries choose not to make human trafficking a top priority. But the modern slave trade cannot be halted without the cooperation of countries where the victims originate, as well as the countries to which they are trafficked.

Recommendations for Formulating a Resolution

Delegates may consider the following when drafting resolutions:

- Identifying and meeting the needs of victims of human trafficking;
- Forming strategies to decrease demand for trafficked persons, as well as strategies for decreasing supply of trafficked persons through better enforcement of laws;
- Ways to target corrupt officials in order to eliminate government involvement in human trafficking; and
- Encouraging countries to pass and enforce national legislation against human trafficking.

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. What laws does your country have against human trafficking? How well are they enforced? How many traffickers are prosecuted each year?
2. Are citizens of your country victims of human trafficking?
3. Are victims of human trafficking brought into your country?
4. Are officials in your country's government involved in human trafficking?
5. Are there any criminal or terrorist groups in your country that benefit from human trafficking?

Sources for Research

Amnesty International, USA www.amnestyusa.org/women/trafficking

UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), *Trafficking in Human Beings*, www.unodc.org/unodc/trafficking_human_beings.html

ESCAP, *Gender and Human Trafficking,* www.unescap.org/esid/gad/Issues/Trafficking

Human Trafficking.org www.humantrafficking.org

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Unit 5, Handout 1

The Work of the Human Rights Council

A Special Edition UNA-USA factsheet on the UN Human Rights Council

The United Nations plays a notable role in advancing human rights by elevating international human rights standards to the status of international law, promoting them through education and dissemination of information and carrying them out by responding to violations through mediation, mobilization of shame or enforcement when the Security Council identifies a link between violations and threats to international peace and security. To enforce those roles, the UN sets up appropriate UN bodies and mechanisms, creating new ones as needed. Among the most important means by which the UN fosters human rights are the Human Rights Council and the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights This fact sheet is meant to clarify frequently asked questions about the Human Rights Council.

What is the Human Rights Council?

The Human Rights Council (HRC) is a Geneva-based intergovernmental body composed of 47 of the UN member states. The council was created by the General Assembly on March 15, 2006, replacing the UN Commission on Human Rights, which had lost credibility partly because of the presence of member states with poor human rights records, who used their positions to block scrutiny of themselves and other violators. The purpose of the council is to promote respect for human rights, recommend new treaties and norms, periodically review human rights compliance by all member states and directly address serious human rights violations.

What are the criteria for membership on the council?

Members of the council are expected to "uphold the highest standards" of human rights and "fully cooperate" with the council itself. The General Assembly is advised to take into account the contribution of candidate countries to the promotion and protection of human rights and their voluntary pledges and commitments when choosing council members. A country sitting on the council can be suspended for gross and systematic violations of human rights (with two-thirds majority vote by those present and voting).

How does the General Assembly choose council members?

The council allocates a defined number of seats to each of these regional groups: 13 for Africa, 13 for Asia, 6 for Eastern Europe, 8 for Latin America and the Caribbean and 7 for Western Europe and other countries. Members are elected for staggered terms of three years by a secret ballot, with an absolute majority of the General Assembly required to win election. If any of the candidates fails to receive the required 97 votes in favor, they must compete in further rounds until an absolute majority is obtained.
There have generally been competitive elections for council seats, although the African group and sometimes the Latin American and Asian groups have nominated slates equal to the number of seats open, thereby avoiding competitive elections. Yet these groups have been praised at times by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) for attempting to nominate countries with generally responsible human rights records.

How is the council an improvement over the discredited commission it replaced?

The council has a smaller and more selective membership than the former commission. It has six fewer members, and countries need 97 votes (as opposed to 28 required in the commission) to gain a seat in the council. The council meets at least three times a year and can more readily call special sessions, requiring approval by one-third of the council's members, instead of a majority as with the former commission, which met regularly only once a year. The council's new universal periodic review process provides an opportunity for advocates to hold all UN members up to international human rights standards. The council is an intergovernmental body like the commission, however, and suffers when politics prevent its members from fairly and forthrightly addressing human rights situations.

What is the universal periodic review (UPR)?

The review is a new mechanism that the council created in 2006 to assess all 192 member states' human rights records with each state looked at once over a four-year period. The state under review is required to submit a report on its fulfillment of human rights commitments. The Office of the UN High Commissioner compiles information submitted by nongovernmental organizations and official UN human rights reports on the country under review. A dialogue with the state under review then takes place in the UPR working group, made up of the 47 members of the Human Rights Council, and is headed by its president. An outcome document for each state is produced and includes assessments of positive developments and challenges faced by the state under review, identification of best practices, accepted and rejected recommendations for improvement in its promotion and protection of human rights, provision of technical assistance and voluntary commitments by the state. The state under review is expected to respond to all recommendations made by other states. The mechanism is designed to allow an objective review of human rights records of all UN member states, addressing charges of "selective reviews" undertaken by the former commission, although so far results have been mixed.

What are the arguments for and against US membership to the council?

Those who oppose the US running for a seat argue that the US should not lend the council any credibility, and since any member state can speak to issues before the council, a seat would not necessarily give the US a greater voice over human rights deliberations. Furthermore, because membership is geographically based, if the US won a seat, it would replace one of the seven countries already representing the Western Europe and Other States group, which tend to vote in a similar fashion to that of the United States. The fundamental belief among those arguing that the US should run for a seat on the council is that it can influence the body by example and its moral authority and can best do so by being an active participant, as opposed to acting as an outside critic. According to such advocates, by coming front and center on the council, a tool for cooperation, the US can inspire and impart its broader vision on human rights for the world. Expecting the European Union to substitute for an American voice on human rights is overly simplistic, they contend, because the US benefits in some parts of the world from its lack of a long colonial history; it also has a different story to tell on human rights and a distinct diplomatic style, while Europe acts through consensus and joint statements on human rights policy, where strong pro human rights voices are consistently opted out for a lowest common denominator approach.

Are there proposals to improve the effectiveness of the council?

Many human rights activists believe an effective US leadership in the council can improve the council's agenda. The council needs to directly and forcefully address many egregious human rights situations around the world that it has previously ignored and approach the Israel-Palestinian conflict in a fair-minded manner. Various proposals are under discussion for the 2011 review of the council in the General Assembly, including having council elections by open rather than secret ballots, or having a universal membership of all UN member states rather than a selective membership. NGOs would like to see a greater role for independent experts and for NGOs in the council's universal periodic review procedure. The council can make those changes in Geneva without waiting for the review conference.

This fact sheet was first published by UNA-USA in December 2008 and was updated in February 2009. It was prepared by Simon Minching, a former intern in the Global Policy Programs of UNA and now a publications researcher for UNA-USA. For more information please visit http://www.unausa.org/policy/nevas.

Unit 5, Handout 2

General Assembly Resolution 60/251

Sixtieth session
Agenda items 46 and 120
05-50266

Resolution adopted by the General Assembly

[*without reference to a Main Committee (A/60/L.48)*]

60/251. Human Rights Council

The General Assembly,

Reaffirming the purposes and principles contained in the Charter of the United Nations, including developing friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and achieving international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all,

Reaffirming also the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action,2 and recalling the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights,3 the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and other human rights instruments,

Reaffirming further that all human rights are universal, indivisible, interrelated, interdependent and mutually reinforcing, and that all human rights must be treated in a fair and equal manner, on the same footing and with the same emphasis,

Reaffirming that, while the significance of national and regional particularities and various historical, cultural and religious backgrounds must be borne in mind, all States, regardless of their political, economic and cultural systems, have the duty to promote and protect all human rights and fundamental freedoms,

Emphasizing the responsibilities of all States, in conformity with the Charter, to respect human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction of any kind as to race, colour, sex, language or religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status,

Acknowledging that peace and security, development and human rights are the pillars of the United Nations system and the foundations for collective security and well-being, and recognizing that development, peace and security and human rights are interlinked and mutually reinforcing,

Affirming the need for all States to continue international efforts to enhance dialogue and broaden understanding among civilizations, cultures and religions, and emphasizing that States, regional

organizations, non-governmental organizations, religious bodies and the media have an important role to play in promoting tolerance, respect for and freedom of religion and belief,

Recognizing the work undertaken by the Commission on Human Rights and the need to preserve and build on its achievements and to redress its shortcomings,

Recognizing also the importance of ensuring universality, objectivity and non-selectivity in the consideration of human rights issues, and the elimination of double standards and politicization,

Recognizing further that the promotion and protection of human rights should be based on the principles of cooperation and genuine dialogue and aimed at strengthening the capacity of Member States to comply with their human rights obligations for the benefit of all human beings,

Acknowledging that non-governmental organizations play an important role at the national, regional and international levels, in the promotion and protection of human rights,

Reaffirming the commitment to strengthen the United Nations human rights machinery, with the aim of ensuring effective enjoyment by all of all human rights, civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights, including the right to development, and to that end, the resolve to create a Human Rights Council,

1. *Decides* to establish the Human Rights Council, based in Geneva, in replacement of the Commission on Human Rights, as a subsidiary organ of the General Assembly; the Assembly shall review the status of the Council within five years;

2. *Decides* that the Council shall be responsible for promoting universal respect for the protection of all human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction of any kind and in a fair and equal manner;

3. *Decides also* that the Council should address situations of violations of human rights, including gross and systematic violations, and make recommendations thereon. It should also promote the effective coordination and the mainstreaming of human rights within the United Nations system;

4. *Decides* further that the work of the Council shall be guided by the principles of universality, impartiality, objectivity and non-selectivity, constructive international dialogue and cooperation, with a view to enhancing the promotion and protection of all human rights, civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights, including the right to development;

5. *Decides* that the Council shall, inter alia:

(a) Promote human rights education and learning as well as advisory services, technical assistance and capacity-building, to be provided in consultation with and with the consent of Member States concerned;

(b) Serve as a forum for dialogue on thematic issues on all human rights;

(c) Make recommendations to the General Assembly for the further development of international law in the field of human rights;

(d) Promote the full implementation of human rights obligations undertaken by States and follow-up to the goals and commitments related to the promotion and protection of human rights emanating from United Nations conferences and summits;

(e) Undertake a universal periodic review, based on objective and reliable information, of the fulfillment by each State of its human rights obligations and commitments in a manner which ensures universality of coverage and equal treatment with respect to all States; the review shall be a cooperative mechanism, based on an interactive dialogue, with the full involvement of the country concerned and with consideration given to its capacity-building needs; such a mechanism shall complement and not duplicate the work of treaty bodies; the Council shall develop the modalities and necessary time allocation for the universal periodic review mechanism within one year after the holding of its first session;

(f) Contribute, through dialogue and cooperation, towards the prevention of human rights violations and respond promptly to human rights emergencies;

(g) Assume the role and responsibilities of the Commission on Human Rights relating to the work of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, as decided by the General Assembly in its resolution 48/141 of 20 December 1993;

(h) Work in close cooperation in the field of human rights with Governments, regional organizations, national human rights institutions and civil society;

(i) Make recommendations with regard to the promotion and protection of human rights;

(j) Submit an annual report to the General Assembly;

6. *Decides also* that the Council shall assume, review and, where necessary, improve and rationalize all mandates, mechanisms, functions and responsibilities of the Commission on Human Rights in order to maintain a system of special procedures, expert advice and a complaint procedure; the Council shall complete this review within one year after the holding of its first session;

7. *Decides further* that the Council shall consist of forty-seven Member States, which shall be elected directly and individually by secret ballot by the majority of the members of the General Assembly; the membership shall be based on equitable geographical distribution, and seats shall be distributed as follows among regional groups: Group of African States, thirteen; Group of Asian States, thirteen; Group of Eastern European States, six; Group of Latin American and Caribbean States, eight; and Group of Western European and other States, seven; the members of the Council shall serve for a period of three years and shall not be eligible for immediate re-election after two consecutive terms;

8. *Decides* that the membership in the Council shall be open to all States Members of the United Nations; when electing members of the Council, Member States shall take into account the contribution of candidates to the promotion and protection of human rights and their voluntary pledges and commitments made thereto; the General Assembly, by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting, may suspend the rights of membership in the Council of a member of the Council that commits gross and systematic violations of human rights;

9. *Decides also* that members elected to the Council shall uphold the highest standards in the promotion and protection of human rights, shall fully cooperate with the Council and be reviewed under the universal periodic review mechanism during their term of membership;

10. *Decides further* that the Council shall meet regularly throughout the year and schedule no fewer than three sessions per year, including a main session, for a total duration of no less than ten weeks, and shall be able to hold special sessions, when needed, at the request of a member of the Council with the support of one third of the membership of the Council;

11. *Decides* that the Council shall apply the rules of procedure established for committees of the General Assembly, as applicable, unless subsequently otherwise decided by the Assembly or the Council, and also decides that the participation of and consultation with observers, including States that are not members of the Council, the specialized agencies, other intergovernmental organizations and national human rights institutions, as well as non-governmental organizations, shall be based on arrangements, including Economic and Social Council resolution 1996/31 of 25 July 1996 and practices observed by the Commission on Human Rights, while ensuring the most effective contribution of these entities;

12. *Decides also* that the methods of work of the Council shall be transparent, fair and impartial and shall enable genuine dialogue, be results oriented, allow for subsequent follow-up discussions to recommendations and their implementation and also allow for substantive interaction with special procedures and mechanisms;

13. *Recommends* that the Economic and Social Council request the Commission on Human Rights to conclude its work at its sixty-second session, and that it abolish the Commission on 16 June 2006;

14. *Decides* to elect the new members of the Council; the terms of membership shall be staggered, and such decision shall be taken for the first election by the drawing of lots, taking into consideration equitable geographical distribution;

15. *Decides also* that elections of the first members of the Council shall take place on 9 May 2006, and that the first meeting of the Council shall be convened on 19 June 2006;

16. *Decides further* that the Council shall review its work and functioning five years after its establishment and report to the General Assembly.

72nd plenary meeting
15 March 2006

The Freedom of Expression Controversy

In its very first session in 1946, the UN General Assembly adopted resolution 59(I), which states that "Freedom of information is a fundamental human right and ... the touchstone of all the freedoms to which the United Nations is consecrated." Two years later, the 1948 Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR) laid out the rights possessed by all people, and identified freedom of speech and belief as among the most important of human rights. Article 19 of the UDHR states: "Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; the right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media regardless of frontiers."

Freedom of expression is especially important because it can help people to ensure that other rights are upheld. When people have the freedom to express themselves, they can speak and write about violations of human rights, and work to hold governments and other authorities responsible for their actions. Sometimes freedom of expression is called an "empowerment" right because it gives people the power to demand other rights, like access to health care, adequate housing, and education.

Yet there are limits to free speech, even in free societies. Many democratic societies have laws against hate speech. Hate speech is often used to discriminate against people of a particular religion, gender, sexual orientation, or racial or ethnic group. Hate speech can be considered a violation of human rights because it may incite others to commit violent or discriminatory acts.

A more controversial exception to the freedom of expression is blasphemy. Blasphemy is a word used to describe words or actions that are offensive to a particular religion. In a democracy, even offensive or upsetting material is generally allowed, because people have the right to think and speak as they like. But some people feel blasphemy should not be protected under freedom of expression. Rather, blasphemy should not be allowed because violates freedom of religion, they say.

How do we know when free speech crosses the line? In addition, how do we distinguish between blasphemy and hate speech? These questions are not easy to answer.

The Jyllands-Posten Controversy

In September 2005, a series of cartoons and the protests that followed brought up these controversial questions. Cartoon images of the Muslim prophet Mohammed were printed in a Danish newspaper called *Jyllands-Posten*. These cartoons were highly offensive to many Muslims because the religion does not allow any visual depictions of Mohammed. Protests broke out all over Denmark. As the controversy itself became a news story, more and more newspapers in countries around the world printed the cartoons, causing even more protest among Muslims. Several Danish embassies were set on fire and many Muslim protesters were killed during riots against the cartoons.

Muslims protested the cartoons as blasphemy against their religion. Many also felt the cartoons were a form of hate speech, claiming they encouraged discrimination against Muslims in Denmark and elsewhere. Supporters of the newspaper felt that the cartoons should be protected as a form of free speech. They claimed that the images were not meant to cause discrimination, pointing out that images of figures from other religions are often printed without controversy. *Jyllands-Posten* says that the

printing the cartoons was a way of participating in the debate about censorship and free speech within the Muslim community.

Freedom of Expression and the Human Rights Council

The UN Human Rights Council has often found itself in the middle of the freedom of expression controversy. In March 2009, the Human Rights Council passed a resolution sponsored by Belarus and Venezuela, as well as Pakistan on behalf of the nations of the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC). The resolution dealt with "combating defamation of religions" and sought to limit freedom of speech that criticizes religions, such as such as the *Jyllands-Posten* cartoons, blasphemy and other inflammatory language. The resolution passed with 23 states in favor and 11 against, with 13 abstentions. Critics of the resolution feel that it undermines free speech and may be used to silence those who criticize human rights abuses committed by religious bodies. The resolution has been criticized by human rights groups around the world.

Countries that voted for Resolution A/HRC/7/L.15 included:

Azerbaijan	Egypt	Nigeria	Senegal
Bangladesh	Indonesia	Pakistan	South Africa
Cameroon	Jordan	Philippines	Sri Lanka
China	Malaysia	Qatar	
Cuba	Mali	Russian Federation	
Djibouti	Nicaragua	Saudi Arabia	

Countries that voted against Resolution A/HRC/7/L.15 included:

Canada	Romania
France	Slovenia
Germany	Switzerland
Italy	Ukraine
Netherlands	United Kingdom

Questions to Consider

7. How might a country decide what is hate speech and what should be protected under freedom of expression?
8. What similarities are there among member states that voted in favor of the resolution?
9. What similarities are there among member states that opposed the resolution?
10. If your country is not on either list, how do you think it would vote given what you know about your country?
11. What is your personal opinion on the A/HRC/7/L.15 resolution?

Sources for Model UN Research

Research is one of the most important skills in Model UN. Most of your research will be conducted on the Internet. Below you will find tips and online resources that will help you find information on your country's position on a range of issues.

- **Look up** your country's **permanent mission** to the UN. You can also call the mission directly to ask questions or request a position statement on an issue.
- **Find your country's voting records** and read speeches on the **United Nations Bibliographic Information System** website.
- **Look at the CIA World Factbook** for a general overview on your country, and for figures and statistics as well. The World Factbook is produced by the United States Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). Would your country's government agree with the way your country is characterized in the World Factbook?
- **Check out news and media** sources for recent developments in your country.
- **Read the US State Department report** on your country. Call the US State Department desk officer for your country to find out more about conditions there.

United Nations
www.un.org

UN CyberSchoolBus
www.un.org/cyberschoolbus

UN Works
www.un.org/works

UN Peace and Security Page
www.un.org/peace

UN Human Rights Page
www.un.org/rights

UN Economic and Social Development Page
www.un.org/esa

UN Humanitarian Affairs Page
www.un.org/ha

UN International Law Page
www.un.org/law

US Department of State
http://www.state.gov/

Center for Global Development
www.cgdev.org

Globalization101.org
www.globalization101.org

Global Policy Innovations
http://www.policyinnovations.org/

Global Envision
http://www.globalenvision.org

Bestdelegate.com
http://www.bestdelegate.com

The UN's National Government Information Page
www.un.org/esa/national.htm

UN CyberSchoolBus Country At A Glance
www.cyberschoolbus.un.org/infonation/index.asp

BBC News Country Profiles
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/country_profiles/default.stm

CIA World Factbook
www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook

Country Watch (paid service)
www.countrywatch.com

Country Reports
www.countryreports.org

The Economist Country Briefings
www.economist.com/countries

Embassies in Washington, DC
www.embassy.org/embassies

Governments on the World Wide Web
www.gksoft.com/govt/en

Infoplease Country Information
www.infoplease.com/countries.html

Library of Congress Country Studies
http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/cshome.html

One World - Nations Online
www.nationsonline.org/oneworld

Southern Center for International Studies, Timeslines and Infolinks
http://www.southerncenter.org/timeline

Political Resources
www.politicalresources.net/index2.htm

UN Missions
www.un.int

US Department of State Country Background Notes
www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn

Adapted from the UNA-USA Model UN Preparation Guide. For additional links and research tips, please visit http://www.unausa.org/munpreparation/research

Universal Periodic Review

The UNA-USA Fact Sheet on the Human Rights Council provides the following background on the Universal Periodic Review:

The review is a new mechanism that the council created in 2006 to assess all 192 member states' human rights records with each state looked at once over a four-year period. The state under review is required to submit a report on its fulfillment of human rights commitments. The Office of the UN High Commissioner compiles information submitted by nongovernmental organizations and official UN human rights reports on the country under review. A dialogue with the state under review then takes place in the UPR working group, made up of the 47 members of the Human Rights Council, and is headed by its president. An outcome document for each state is produced and includes assessments of positive developments and challenges faced by the state under review, identification of best practices, accepted and rejected recommendations for improvement in its promotion and protection of human rights, provision of technical assistance and voluntary commitments by the state. The state under review is expected to respond to all recommendations made by other states. The mechanism is designed to allow an objective review of human rights records of all UN member states, addressing charges of "selective reviews" undertaken by the former commission, although so far results have been mixed.

As the member states that make up the Human Rights Council Universal Periodic Review working group, it is up to you and your fellow delegates to carry out the UPR for the following countries:

- Myanmar
- United States of America
- The Peoples Republic of China
- Sweden
- Sudan
- Turkey

You may form sub-committees to investigate the human rights conditions in each of the countries under review. Each sub-committees investigation should include a consultation with the delegate from the country under investigation. The sub-committees should then report to the working group on their findings. The delegates from each country under review will then be given an opportunity to respond to the findings of the committee. The sub-committee members will then finalize their recommendations.

SECTION V

Glossary

Definition of key terms

Accede/Accession: 'Accession' is an act by which a State signifies its agreement to be legally bound by the terms of a particular treaty. It has the same legal effect as ratification, but is not preceded by an act of signature. The formal procedure for accession varies according to the national legislative requirements of the State. To accede to a human rights treaty, the appropriate national organ of a State – Parliament, Senate, the Crown, Head of State or Government, or a combination of these – follows its domestic approval procedures and makes a formal decision to be a party to the treaty. Then, the instrument of accession, a formal sealed letter referring to the decision and signed by the State's responsible authority, is prepared and deposited with the United Nations Secretary General in New York.

Adoption: 'Adoption' is the formal act by which the form and content of a proposed treaty text are established. Treaties negotiated within an international organization like the United Nations are usually adopted by a resolution of a representative organ of the organization whose membership more or less corresponds to the potential participation in the treaty in question (the United Nations General Assembly, for example).

Article: International legal instruments generally include a Preamble (stating the reasons for and underlying understandings of the drafters and adopters of the instrument) and a series of 'articles', which lay out the obligations of those States choosing to be bound by it and procedural matters involving the treaty. The term 'provision' is often used as an alternative when referring to the content of particular articles.

Asylum: Safety or protection sought by a refugee in another country.

Barriers to entry: The costs associated with starting a business in a particular region or industry.

Black market: An illegal market that takes place outside of government approval.

Charter: The term 'charter' is used for particularly formal and solemn instruments, such as the treaty founding an international organization like the United Nations ('The Charter of the United Nations').

Convention: A 'convention' is a formal agreement between States. The generic term 'convention' is thus synonymous with the generic term 'treaty'. Conventions are normally open for participation by the international community as a whole, or by a large number of States. Usually the instruments negotiated under the auspices of an international organization are entitled conventions (e.g. the Convention on the Rights of the Child, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1989).

Curriculum: The ideas, theories, concepts and skills children are taught in school.

Declaration: The term 'declaration' is used for various international instruments. International human rights declarations are not legally binding; the term is often deliberately chosen to indicate that the parties do not intend to create binding obligations but merely want to declare certain aspirations. However, while the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights for example was not originally intended to have binding force, its provisions have since gained binding character as customary law.

Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief: A declaration passed by the UN General Assembly in 1981, which declared that all people have the right to freedom of religion. It calls upon all states to protect religious freedom and to prevent discrimination based on religion.

Deposit: After a treaty has been concluded, the written instruments which provide formal evidence of a State's consent to be bound are placed in the custody of a depository. The texts of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and its Optional Protocols designated the Secretary General of the United Nations as their depository. The depository must accept all notifications and documents related to the treaty, examine whether all formal requirements are met, deposit them, register the treaty and notify all relevant acts to the parties concerned.

Early Warning Mechanism: A method for predicting the onset of a major human rights crisis. This could also refer to a plan of action to prevent a relatively minor humanitarian issue from escalating into a full blown crisis.

Elimination of All Forms of Religious Intolerance: A resolution passed by the UN General Assembly in 1993, establishing a Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights, to focus on protecting the freedom of religion and belief, and to monitor religious intolerance.

Entry into Force: A treaty does not enter into force when it is adopted. Typically, the provisions of the treaty determine the date on which the treaty enters into force, often at a specified time following its ratification or accession by a fixed number of states. For example, the Convention on the Rights of the Child entered into force on 2 September 1990—the 30th day following the deposit of the 20th State's instrument of ratification or accession. A treaty enters into force for those states, which gave the required consent.

Ethnic Cleansing: Intentional policy of removing a certain ethnic group from an area to make it ethnically homogenous. Tactics to accomplish this can include intimidation, rape, forced re-location, and other forms of violence.

Gender discrimination: Treating people unequally based on their membership to a gender group, usually referring to the unfair treatment of women.

Human rights: Rights to which all human beings are entitled from birth.

Human trafficking: The illegal transport of people across national borders for the purpose of exploiting them.

Implicit: Implied or understood, but not directly expressed.

Institutionalize: To become part of an institution. When discrimination is sanctioned and promoted by the government, it becomes a policy of the government institution; it is "institutionalized."

Internally displaced persons (IDP): People that flee from their homes, but do not leave their own country.

International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty: Established by government of Canada to answer Secretary General Kofi Annan's question concerning when and how humanitarian intervention should take place. Its final report was the first formal usage and clarification of the 'Responsibility to Protect' principle.

Legalize: To make something legal that was previously illegal.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): Eight international development goals that United Nations member states agreed upon achieving by 2015; universal access to primary education is one of them.

Optional Protocol: The term 'protocol' is used for an additional legal instrument that complements and add to a treaty. A protocol may be on any topic relevant to the original treaty and is used either to further address something in the original treaty, address a new or emerging concern or add a procedure for the operation and enforcement of the treaty—such as adding an individual complaints procedure. A protocol is 'optional' because it is not automatically binding on States that have already ratified the original treaty; States must independently ratify or accede to a protocol. The Optional Protocols to the Convention on the Rights of the Child concern the involvement of children in armed conflict and the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography.

Peacekeeping: A type of UN intervention where UN led military forces enter a country at the consent of regime ruling that country. UN forces are not there to create peace, but merely to maintain it by acting as a kind of barrier between two or more opposing groups.

Peacemaking: A type of UN intervention where a UN led military forces enter a country to restore peace or stop a conflict that is currently underway. Peacemaking does not need the consent of the regime currently ruling the country targeted for intervention.

Political will: The desire or willingness of a country or political entity to deal with a particular issue.

Poverty: Deprivation of common necessities that determine the quality of life (food, shelter, clothing, and safe drinking water.)

Primary education: Full-time education suited to the requirements of students up to the age of 12 years.

Ratify/Ratification: 'Ratification' is an act by which a State signifies an agreement to be legally bound by the terms of a particular treaty. To ratify a treaty, the State first signs it and then fulfils its own national legislative requirements. Once the appropriate national organ of the country – Parliament, Senate, the Crown, Head of State or Government, or a combination of these – follows domestic constitutional procedures and makes a formal decision to be a party to the treaty. The instrument of ratification, a formal sealed letter referring to the decision and signed by the State's responsible authority, is then prepared and deposited with the United Nations Secretary General in New York.

Refugee: A person who has fled his or her country and is unable or unwilling to return because they fear for their life.

Repatriate: When a refugee returns to their homeland.

Responsibility to Protect (R2P): The idea that national sovereignty should be considered a responsibility rather than just a privilege. In a case where a state commits war crimes, genocide, ethnic cleansing, or crimes against humanity against its own population, the international community has an obligation to intervene with coercive economic or military force to protect that state's population.

Rule of law: The idea that everyone in a society, including leaders, must follow the law and will face consequences in a fair court if they do not.

Secular: The idea that religion should not play a role in public affairs or government.

Separation of church and state: The idea that religion and government should not influence each other.

Sharia law: The religious guidelines of Islam. Sharia covers worship, dress and behavior. It is interpreted differently by different sects of Islam. Radically interpreted sharia law is sometimes very restrictive, and has been controversial in the international community. Sharia is enforced by some religious governments, such as Saudi Arabia.

Signature: 'Signature' of a treaty is an act by which a State provides a preliminary endorsement of the instrument. Signing does not create a binding legal obligation but does demonstrate the State's intent to examine the treaty domestically and consider ratifying it. While signing does not commit a State to ratification, it does oblige the State to refrain from acts that would defeat or undermine the treaty's objective and purpose.

Sovereignty (National): The idea that states should have exclusive control over what happens within their territory. This principle has its roots in the 1648 Treaty of Westphalia and is enshrined in the 1945 UN Charter.

State party: A 'State party' to a treaty is a country that has ratified or acceded to that particular treaty, and is therefore legally bound by the provisions in the instrument.

State-sponsored: The description of a policy, action or behavior that is promoted or facilitated by the government. State-sponsored discrimination can be discrimination that is encouraged by the government, or discrimination that occurs with the consent of the government. State-sponsored religion is a religion that is supported government.

Theocratic government: A government ruled by a religious authority.

Threshold for Action: Another way of deciding at what specific point states should conduct an international humanitarian intervention. Basically, this refers to what must occur to activate the R2P principal and conduct a humanitarian intervention in a country.

Treaty: A 'treaty' is a formally concluded and ratified agreement between States. The term is used generically to refer to instruments binding at international law, concluded between international

entities (States or organizations). Under the Vienna Conventions on the Law of Treaties, a treaty must be (1) a binding instrument, which means that the contracting parties intended to create legal rights and duties; (2) concluded by states or international organizations with treaty-making power; (3) governed by international law and (4) in writing.

UN Charter Chapter 1 Article 2(7): "Nothing 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."[1]

UN Charter Chapter 7 (Article 39): "The Security Council shall determine the existence of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression and shall make recommendations, or decide what measures shall be taken in accordance with Articles 41 and 42, to maintain or restore international peace and security."[1]

UN Security Council Resolution 1674: Contains the first acknowledgement of the R2P Principle by the UN Security Council. This, however, *does not* make R2P equivalent to international law.

Veto: Together Russia, China, France, the UK, and the US have a "veto" on the UN Security Council. This means that if any of these countries vote "no" on any potential resolution it automatically fails no matter how many states vote "yes."

2005 UN World Summit Outcome Document: Agreed to unanimously by the UN General Assembly, the document supports the principle of R2P in the specific cases of genocide, crimes against humanity, ethnic cleansing, and war crimes.

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