

Southern Regional Model United Nations XIX
Promoting Partnerships for a Sustainable Future

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Dear Delegates,

I would like to welcome you to Southern Regional National Model United Nations Conference (SRMUN) XIX and to the General Assembly Plenary committee. My name is Earl Fields, Jr. and I am excited to serve as your Director. This is my third year as a SRMUN staff member. In January 2007, I received my master's degree in Biochemistry from Georgia State University in Atlanta and currently am working towards a doctoral degree in Chemistry. Joining me this year is Kristiana Moore, a recent graduate from the University of California Riverside and a SRMUN veteran. We have both been working hard to put together an amazing and challenging committee for you.

The General Assembly Plenary is one of six principal components of the United Nations and the only body in which all UN members are represented. The Plenary meets annually or in special sessions and acts primarily as a deliberative body discussing and making recommendations about any issue within the scope of the UN charter. In its current session (62nd session) the Plenary is discussing issues such as climate change, sustainable energy, disarmament and global health and UN peacekeeping operations. Keeping in line with the Plenary's current agenda, as well as the SRMUN XIX theme, the topics to be addressed by our committee are:

- I. Combating the International Energy Crisis Through Renewable Energy Technologies
- II. The Eradication and Control of Communicable Diseases
- III. Examining the Impacts of Conflict on Sustainable Development

I encourage all delegates to begin preparation for these topics by thoroughly reviewing the background guide and the technical appendices. This guide will provide you with a foundation for your research. While this guide will survey the range of issues in each topic, you will need to do additional research beyond the material presented to understand the magnitude of the topic areas.

Also, each delegation is required to submit a position paper for consideration. It should be no longer than two pages in length (single spaced) and demonstrate your country's position, policies and recommendations on each of the three topics. For more information regarding the position papers please visit the SRMUN website at <http://www.srmun.org>. Position papers must be submitted on-line via the SRMUN website and will be due by Midnight on October 24, 2008.

I wish you the best as you prepare for the 2008 SRMUN Conference.

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History of the General Assembly Plenary

The General Assembly Plenary

The General Assembly (GA) occupies a central position as the chief deliberative, policy-making and representative organ of the United Nations. Established by the Charter of the United Nations (the Charter) on October 24, 1945, the General Assembly (GA) stands as one of the six main organs of the United Nations.¹ The mandate established in the charter calls for a “global institution with the legitimacy that derives from universal membership”, which provides its members to engage in multilateral discussions in a full spectrum of international issues, encompassed by the Charter.² The General Assembly also serves a crucial role in the development and codification of international law.³

Every member of the United Nations receives a seat in the General Assembly and every member receives one vote.⁴ The Assembly meets in regular session each year from September to December.⁵ According to the Charter the Assembly is commissioned with several functions and powers including: considering and making recommendations on issues concerning international peace and security; initiating studies and making recommendations to promote international political cooperation, the development and codification of international law, the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms and international collaboration in the economic, social, humanitarian, cultural, educational and health fields; receiving and considering reports from the Security Council and other United Nations organs; approving the UN budget and establishing the financial assessments to UN members states; and electing the non-permanent members of the Security Council and members of other organs.⁶

In order to be able to discuss all the issues that are on the Assembly’s agenda , the Assembly allocates issues to six Main Committees, which are:

- First Committee—Disarmament and International Security
- Second Committee—Economic and Financial
- Third Committee—Social, Humanitarian and Cultural
- Fourth Committee—Special Political and Decolonization
- Fifth Committee—Administrative and Budgetary
- Sixth Committee—Legal⁷

For each annual session, the GA elects a President and 21 Vice-Presidents, as well as Chairs for each of the six committees.⁸ This group, known as the General Committee, is chosen at least three months prior to the opening of the session and makes recommendations to the membership on the agenda.⁹ Because the General Assembly considers such a large number of issues, some agenda topics are discussed in the six Main committees prior to being

¹ Article 4. *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

² Taylor and Curtis, *The United Nations*. Oxford University Press. 2005.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Article 2. *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

⁵ “General Assembly: Frequently Asked Questions.” United Nations Documentation: Research Guide. www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/gafaq.htm

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ “Functions and powers of the General Assembly.” United Nations General Assembly 61st Session. <http://www.un.org/ga/61/background/background.shtml>

⁹ Ibid.

brought before the Plenary for a vote.¹⁰ The topics debated in the Plenary, therefore, tend to be the most immediate and pressing questions on the agenda. Current issues on the agenda of the General Assembly include:

- International Peace and Security
- Economic Growth and Sustainable Development
- Development of Africa
- Human Health
- Humanitarian and Disaster Relief Assistance
- Sustainable Energy
- Disarmament
- Drugs, Crime, International Terrorism
- Organizational and Administrative Matters¹¹

The General Assembly may also take action if the Security Council fails to act due to a negative vote of a permanent member in a case where there appears to be a threat to the peace, breach of peace or act of aggression.¹² Even though the Assembly is only empowered to make non-binding recommendations to member states its actions have affected the lives of millions of people throughout the world.¹³

Most votes taken in the Assembly require a simple majority.¹⁴ Any vote taken by the Assembly on designated important issues, such as recommendations on peace and security and the election of Security Council members, requires a two-thirds majority.¹⁵ Consensus is urged in all General Assembly votes.¹⁶ The President can propose that a resolution be adopted without a vote after consulting with and reaching an agreement with delegations.¹⁷

Most of the work of the United Nations is derived from the decisions of the General Assembly.¹⁸ The decisions of the Assembly are carried out by committees and other bodies to study and report on specific issues such as disarmament, outer space, peacekeeping, economic development, the environment and human rights.¹⁹ Their work is also carried out by the Secretariat of the United Nations, the Secretary General and his staff of international civil servants.²⁰

All Member States are represented in General Assembly Plenary.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² Article 12. *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

¹³ "General Assembly: Frequently Asked Questions." United Nations Documentation: Research Guide. www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/gafaq.htm

¹⁴ Article 9. *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ "Functions and powers of the General Assembly." United Nations General Assembly 61st Session. <http://www.un.org/ga/61/background/background.shtml>

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

Topic I: Combating the International Energy Crisis through Renewable Energy Technologies

Introduction

For centuries, the global energy market has depended heavily on the use of nonrenewable energy resources such as coal, natural gas and petroleum for individual and commercial uses.²¹ According to the International Energy Agency (IEA), nonrenewable energy resources make up more than 80 percent of the total energy demand and usage.²² With oil prices well above \$100 (U.S.) a barrel, economists and policy experts strongly believe that the world is headed toward its third energy shock in a generation.²³ Unlike the energy crises of the 1970s and 1980s, which were caused by interruptions in exports from Middle East countries, the current energy situation is the result of a sharp increase in demand for oil and its associated rising cost.²⁴ According to the World Energy Council (WEC), primary energy demand has increased by more than 50 percent since 1980 and is expected to continue at an annual average rate of 1.6 percent between 2004 and 2030.²⁵ Further, the WEC forecast that over 70 percent of this growth will come from developing countries such as China and India, where populations and economies are growing considerably fast and people are demanding access to electricity, cars, and consumer goods.²⁶ While it is good that more people are being provided with access to energy, the reliance on these traditional fossil fuels has negative impacts on the environment.²⁷ Further, some economists predict that rising prices due to increased demand of oil and natural gases may hurt economic growth in the long-run.²⁸

In order to reduce dependence on scarce nonrenewable resources, in particular oil and natural gas, all nation states will need to undertake a responsible energy plan as they further develop and expand their societies.²⁹ However, this

²¹ Stephanie Siediel. "Alternative Forms of Energy." University of Calgary. 1998.
http://www.idsnet.org/Papers/Essays-1998/Seidel/alt_ener.htm

²² "World Energy Outlook 2006." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

²³ Jad Mouawad. "Rising Demand for Oil Provokes new Energy Crisis." New York Times. November 9, 2007.
<http://www.nytimes.com/2007/11/09/business/worldbusiness/09oil.html>

²⁴ James L. Williams. "The Coming Energy Crisis." WTRG Economics.
<http://www.wtrg.com/EnergyCrisis/index.html>

²⁵ "World Energy Outlook 2006." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

²⁶ Ibid., p. 27.

²⁷ "Energy Policy, Options and Recommendations." United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization.
<ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/i0139e/i0139e07.pdf>

²⁸ Jad Mouawad. "Rising Demand for Oil Provokes new Energy Crisis." New York Times. November 9, 2007.
<http://www.nytimes.com/2007/11/09/business/worldbusiness/09oil.html>

²⁹ "World Energy Outlook 2006." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

undertaking will require a significant investment of money and other resources such as new technologies and improved efficiency standards.³⁰ In its 2006 *World Energy Outlook*, the IEA estimated that over the next 25 years a cumulative investment in supply infrastructure of over \$200 billion dollars would be required to effect this change.³¹

Despite our heavy reliance on nonrenewable sources of energy, some progress is being made in developing and implementing renewable energy technologies (RETs). For example, industrialized countries are investing heavily in bioenergy which includes fuel from wood, charcoal, agricultural waste, and livestock manure.³² According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), bioenergy projects can contribute directly to poverty alleviation by helping to meet basic needs and creating opportunities for improved productivity on which the poor depend.³³ For instance, bioenergy provides locally produced energy sources to pump water for drinking and irrigation, light homes, provide energy for local enterprises, and ease pressure on fossil fuels.³⁴ Such technologies will become very important for combating the current energy shock and for maintaining sustainable energy plans in both developed and in developing regions.³⁵

Uses of Nonrenewable Resources

Historically, the uses of nonrenewable resources to meet the energy demands of societies has been driven largely by the low cost and high availability of these fuel sources, such as coal, natural gas, and petroleum.³⁶ These resources make up over 80 percent of available resources used to create energy.³⁷ It is expected that over the next 8 years the global use of energy consumption will increase by 25 percent due to the growing needs of developing countries.³⁸ According to the IEA's 2006 *World Energy Report*, fossil fuels will continue to be the dominant source of fuel to supply the world's energy needs through 2040, unless significant changes are implemented in international energy policies.³⁹ Further, this report suggests that 83 percent of the global new energy needs through 2030 will be met by employing nonrenewable sources—in particular oil and coal.⁴⁰

Studies reveal that as societies develop, more than 70 percent of energy generated is used in the industrial and transportation sectors.⁴¹ The industrial sector is the largest user of energy—consuming more than 50 percent of the delivered energy worldwide.⁴² Energy in this sector is consumed by a diverse group of industries—including manufacturing, agriculture, mining, and construction—and for a wide range of activities, such as lighting and

³⁰ Adil Najam and Cutler J. Cleveland. "Energy and Sustainable Development at Global Environmental Summits: An Evolving Agenda." *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 5:117-138. 2003.

³¹ "World Energy Outlook 2006." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

³² "Renewable Energy Technologies." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. http://www.unescap.org/esd/energy/cap_building/renewable/documents/sppd/Presentation_percent20docs/pdf1/day3/SESSION_percent2010/RE_percent20Technologies_Notes.pdf

³³ "Modernized Biomass Energy for Sustainable Development. United Nations Development Programme <http://www.undp.org/energy/publications/2000/2000b.htm>

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ "Pathways to 2050: Energy and Climate Change." World Business Council for Sustainable Development. <http://www.wbcsd.org/plugins/DocSearch/details.asp?type=DocDet&ObjectId=MTczNzA>

³⁷ "World Energy Outlook 2006." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ "World Energy Outlook 2005." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2005.asp>

⁴² "World Energy Outlook 2006." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

process and assembly uses.⁴³ According to the IEA, energy consumption in the industrial sector is growing by approximately 1.2 percent each year, and is projected to increase by 36 percent by 2030.⁴⁴ Further, natural gas is the dominant energy source used in the industrial sector.⁴⁵ In an effort to reduce the amount of energy used in the industrial sector, several countries, mostly in Asia, have adopted industrial efficiency legislation.⁴⁶ For example, in 1992, Thailand enacted the Energy Conservation Promotion Act (ECPA) which granted its National Energy Policy Council the authority to set efficiency standards among other things for the machinery and equipment used in its industrial sector.⁴⁷ As a result, Thailand was able to reduce its use of energy in the industrial sector by 2 percent by 1995, according to the IEA.⁴⁸ Although this regulatory measure achieved some success in the reduction of energy use, scientists, policy analysts and economists agree that the more effective measures can be taken through the development and use of RETs.⁴⁹

Like the industrial sector, the transportation sector is another large user of energy. Energy use in this sector includes the energy consumed in moving people and goods by road, rail, air, water and pipeline.⁵⁰ According to the WEC growth in economic activity and population growth are the key factors that determine transportation sector energy demand.⁵¹

“Economic growth spurs growth in industrial output, which requires the movement of raw materials to manufacturing sites as well as the movement of manufactured goods to end users. In developing economies, increased economic activity expands per capita income; and as standards of living rise demand for personal transportation increases.”⁵²

As of 2002, there were nearly 970 million vehicles on the roads globally, with the majority found in North America and Europe.⁵³ Approximately 80 percent of all vehicles operate on fossil fuels and account for 60 percent of the global usage of fuels in the area of transportation.⁵⁴ The next highest use of energy within the transportation sector was aviation which accounted for nearly one-quarter of the fuel requirements.⁵⁵ Together energy required for

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ “World Energy Outlook 2004.” International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2004.asp>

⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁶ Steven Nadel. “Improving Energy Efficiency in the Industrial Sector: A Presentation for the United Nations Learning Center.” American Council for an Energy-Efficient Economy. www.un.org/esa/sustdev/csd/csd14/lc/presentation/nadel_industry.pdf

⁴⁷ Ibid.

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ Stephen Karekezi. “Renewable energy technologies as an option for a low-carbon energy future for developing countries.” African Energy Policy Research Network. <http://www.uneprisoe.org/CopenhagenConf/karekezi.htm>

⁵⁰ “World Energy Outlook 2006.” International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

⁵¹ Ibid.

⁵² Ibid.

⁵³ Winston Harrington. “The Design of Effective Regulations of Transport.” Joint Transport Research Centre. www.internationaltransportforum.org/jtrc/DiscussionPapers/DP200802.pdf

⁵⁴ “Pathways to 2050: Energy and Climate Change.” World Business Council for Sustainable Development. <http://www.wbcsd.org/plugins/DocSearch/details.asp?type=DocDet&ObjectId=MTczNzA>

⁵⁵ “World Energy Outlook 2006.” International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

transportation represents 25 percent of the total energy used globally as of 2006.⁵⁶ Through the implementation of alternative fuel sources and RETs, it is projected that this number can be reduced to 18 percent by the year 2050.⁵⁷

The Role of Renewable Energy Technologies (RETs) in Development

The use of RETs in the developing world has the potential to allow for substantial economic growth and the opportunity for a chance at employment for scores of the world's poor, while reducing the reliance of developing countries on costly fuel imports. An example of the tremendous potential benefits of RETs is the fact that 15 percent of the energy consumption in developing countries could theoretically be provided by biomass energy from forestry, crop, and dung residues.⁵⁸ This would be possible only if countries develop the necessary infrastructure and capital to effectively utilize biomass facilities. Thus the use of these types of renewable energies would protect developing economies from shifting oil prices and reduce the burden of external debt by decreasing oil imports.⁵⁹ It is also important to keep in mind that the current fossil fuels used in energy production are finite resources that are being rapidly depleted whereas energy produced through the use of renewable technologies is infinite.⁶⁰

Recognizing the benefits of RETs, many developing countries have already implemented successful renewable energy programs, including Mauritius where over 10 percent of the country's energy is produced by bagasse, a by-product of the sugar industry.⁶¹ The use of RETs also provides a vital means of reducing the devastating environmental effects of deforestation, since by adopting renewable energy sources, many developing countries, including 26 countries where fuel wood comprises 75-100 percent of their energy sources, can develop an acceptable alternative for energy production.⁶²

It clearly can be seen that RETs provide an enormous opportunity for developing nations to have a stable, local means of adequate energy production, which in turn provides a chance for poverty reduction and sustainable development. Recognizing the massive benefits of renewable technologies, 78 countries formalized their position in Article 3 of the Beijing Declaration on Renewable Energy for Sustainable Development which states:

We emphasize the multiple benefits of increased energy efficiency and the use of renewable sources of energy for improving access to energy services, thereby contributing to the eradication of poverty as called for in the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), increasing job opportunities, improving air quality and public health, reducing greenhouse gas emissions and combating climate change, enhancing energy security, and offering a new paradigm for international cooperation.⁶³

Despite the known benefits of RETs, various problems still hamper their adoption in developing countries, including "barriers in the form of lack of knowledge about technological and investment options, lack of awareness about

⁵⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁷ "World Energy Outlook 2004." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2004.asp>

⁵⁸ "Renewable Energy Technologies." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. http://www.unescap.org/esd/energy/cap_building/renewable/documents/sppd/Presentation_percent20docs/pdf1/day3/SESSION_percent2010/RE_percent20Technologies_Notes.pdf

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ Stephen Karekezi. Renewable energy technologies as an option for a low-carbon energy future for developing countries. African Energy Policy Research Network. <http://www.unepriaoe.org/CopenhagenConf/karekezi.htm>

⁶² "Renewable Energy Technologies." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. http://www.unescap.org/esd/energy/cap_building/renewable/documents/sppd/Presentation_percent20docs/pdf1/day3/SESSION_percent2010/RE_percent20Technologies_Notes.pdf

⁶³ Ibid.

long-term benefits, and lack of incentives for technology transfer and utilization of renewable energy solutions”.⁶⁴ There are also problems of institutional deficiencies, price distortions, and legal favoritism provided to current energy producers that further hinder efforts to implement renewable energy technologies in developing countries.⁶⁵ As a result, any attempt at developing a strategy for developing renewable technologies should be specialized to take into account the needs and conditions of the particular country. Even acknowledging these barriers, it is still important to continue the pursuit and development of RETs in the developing world in order to have a meaningful chance at poverty reduction and sustainable development.⁶⁶

Efforts by the International Community to Promote Sustainable Energy and the use of RETs

The United Nations, primarily through its specialized agencies, has played a critical role in the development, implementation, and training of new measures designed to improve energy efficiency. A leader in this area has been the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which provides expert advice, training, and grant support to developing countries, with increasing emphasis on assistance to the least developed countries.⁶⁷ With the largest energy portfolio of any UN agency, the UNDP is one of the most significant actors in energy use and development. In the 166 countries where the UNDP is working, 96 percent of them have at least one UNDP energy project.⁶⁸ From 1996-2003, the UNDP’s portfolio consisted of \$2 billion (US) and included more than 400 projects in 160 countries.⁶⁹ The UNDP has identified the following five energy priorities:

1. Strengthen national policy frameworks for poverty reduction and sustainable development,
2. Promote rural energy services to support growth and equity,
3. Promote clean energy technology for sustainable development,
4. Increase access to financing for sustainable energy,
5. Cross-cutting initiative in which UNDP conducts advocacy and analysis of energy trends and linkages with development.⁷⁰

In addition to the UNDP, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) also works to promote the use of RETs. For example, in 2003 UNEP launched an innovative loan program in India, designed to supply poor rural areas with the means to finance the purchase of individual solar units.⁷¹ At the onset of the program 70 percent of India’s rural poor were without electricity.⁷² Within three years of the introduction of this program the number of rural households supplied with solar power grew from 1000 to over 18,000.⁷³

In addition to UN agencies, the IEA has developed and implemented many programs to promote sustainable energy. For example, in 1999 the IEA launched the 1-Watt Initiative—a program aimed to reduce stand-by consumption of

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Stephen Karekezi. Renewable energy technologies as an option for a low-carbon energy future for developing countries. African Energy Policy Research Network. <http://www.unepriaoe.org/CopenhagenConf/karekezi.htm>

⁶⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁷ Retrieved from: UNDP website, <http://www.undp.org/faq/#undp>. Retrieved 14 06 2008.

⁶⁸ “Energy.” United Nations Development Programme- Energy & Environment Bureau for Environment Policy. UNDP. 2007. www.undp.org

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

⁷¹ “Public Finance Mechanisms to Catalyze Sustainable Energy Sector Growth.” United Nations Environment Programme. New York and Geneva. United Nations 2005. sefi.unep.org/fileadmin/media/sefi/docs/publications/SEFI_Public_Finance_Report.pdf

⁷² Ibid., p. 42

⁷³ Ibid.

appliances to below one watt, from current averages of 3-10 watts.⁷⁴ Studies suggest that at current usage levels the average appliance which operates with a standby mode in the 3-10 watts range will consume more energy during its standby mode over its full lifetime than it will during the operational lifetime.⁷⁵ The purpose of the 1-Watt initiative is to ensure through international cooperation that by 2010 all new appliances sold globally only use one watt or less in standby mode.⁷⁶ If successful, this initiative is expected to reduce carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions by 50 million tons in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries by 2010.⁷⁷

Although the United Nations has provided much of the guidance and foundational support in the area of sustainable energy, several member states and regional bodies have also undertaken various measures to reduce their reliance on nonrenewable energy sources. For example, in 2005, the Chinese government enacted a landmark renewable energy law supporting the continued expansion of RETs as a national priority.⁷⁸ China currently obtains 17 percent of its electricity from renewable energy sources including wind and hydropower.⁷⁹ This number is expected to increase to 21 percent by 2020.⁸⁰ If China remains on course for this goal, it is expected that by 2020 China will meet and even exceed its renewable energy development targets for that year.⁸¹ China will possess a total renewable power capacity which could reach 400 gigawatts by 2020, using a combination of hydroelectric, wind, biomass, and solar photovoltaic power providing the greatest contributions.⁸² More than one-third of China's households could be employing solar hot water by 2020 as well, and use of other renewables, including biogas and perhaps solar thermal power, is expected to increase as well.⁸³

Conclusion

Energy will be a critical factor for both social and economic development in many countries. At the same time, expanding economies as well as population growth will place an increased demand on already strained nonrenewable resources such as oil and natural gas. The WEC predicts that the demand for energy to meet the needs of these expanding economies and populations will double by 2030.⁸⁴ In an effort to reduce the amount of energy used, many countries are imposing higher efficiency standards on items such as air conditioners, refrigeration units and vehicles. Although, this will bring some success, experts strongly contend that more success can be garnered through the development and use of RETs. However, a significant challenge that many countries face is the financing of such technologies.

Committee Directive

⁷⁴ "1-Watt Plan Fact Sheet." International Energy Agency. <http://www.iea.org/Textbase/subjectqueries/standby.asp>

⁷⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ "1-Watt Plan Fact Sheet." International Energy Agency. <http://www.iea.org/Textbase/subjectqueries/standby.asp>

⁷⁸ *Increasing Global Renewable Energy Market Share: Recent Trends and Perspectives*. The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Beijing: United Nations. 2005. www.un.org/esa/sustdev/sdissues/energy/op/beijing_re_egm/beijing_re_report.pdf

⁷⁹ Ibid., p. 16.

⁸⁰ Ibid.

⁸¹ Ibid., p. 47.

⁸² Ibid., p. 48.

⁸³ Ibid., p. 62.

⁸⁴ "World Energy Outlook 2006." International Energy Agency. <http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/2006.asp>

Energy is crucial for sustainable development as it can greatly improve health, access to water, and increase agricultural productivity among other things. As you research this topic, you will need to become familiar with your country's energy policy and levels of energy use among the different sectors such as agriculture and transportation. Delegates should also consider the various renewable energy sources and technologies that are available to decrease dependence on coal, oil and natural gas. However, do not review these technologies solely from a cost-benefit perspective, as many of the benefits that these technologies provide are not easily quantifiable. Additionally, delegates should consider access to and financing for such technologies.

Topic II: Eradication and Prevention of Communicable Diseases

“We have the resources and the know-how but we have less than 1,000 days before the end of 2010.”⁸⁵

-Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon

Introduction

According to the World Bank, communicable diseases are “the biggest killers of children and causes of preventable death in the developing world.”⁸⁶ It is estimated that collectively, they claim more than 15 million lives a year with over 80 percent of these deaths in developing countries.⁸⁷ The epidemic of communicable diseases is more prevalent in developing countries and has hindered development in many of these countries.⁸⁸ This has forced the governments of these nations to solve the immediate problem of treating those who have communicable diseases first and has postponed more long term solutions, like preventing these epidemics from spreading further and implementing policies that could provide the necessary developmental structural infrastructure.⁸⁹

Throughout its history, the United Nations (UN) has worked to foster discussions on the correlation between disease and development. Member States whose populations suffer from preventable communicable diseases have found it extremely difficult to develop their nations in order to improve the quality of life for their people.⁹⁰ A population that is burdened by disease does not have the opportunity to participate fully in the economy of the nation and is not able to be as productive as a healthy population.⁹¹ Many of the communicable diseases are considered to be “diseases of the poor,” in that the governments of these nations do not have the necessary state capacity to combat them and, therefore, are reliant on the international community to provide the necessary resources to provide treatment to their population.⁹² Many nations within the developing world only have the capability to provide the very basic healthcare and treatment; prevention and eradication of communicable diseases is out of the scope of social services they can offer.⁹³ The UN has taken the link between communicable diseases and development very seriously and

⁸⁵ “UN Effort to End Malaria Deaths” *BBC News*. April 25, 2008. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/health/7366301.stm>

⁸⁶ “The World Bank News and Broadcast: Communicable Diseases” World Bank
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/NEWS/0,,contentMDK:20040888~menuPK:34480~pagePK:34370~theSitePK:4607,00.html>

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ “Communicable Diseases.” International Development Research Centre.”
http://www.idrc.ca/en/ev-87661-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html

⁸⁹ Ibid.

⁹⁰ “Health and Development.” World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/hdp/en/>

⁹¹ Ibid.

⁹² Ibid.

⁹³ Ibid.

has established several UN agencies that provide support in managing diseases that affect quality of life and development. An example of this is the Global Fund for to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GAFTM).⁹⁴ Proposed in 2001 by United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan and officially established in 2002; the fund is the largest independent public-private partnership, utilizing resources and financial contributions from governments, businesses and individuals around the world.⁹⁵ More recently the UN has acknowledged that it cannot act alone to reach the Millennium Development Goals by 2015, which includes goal number six, “to combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases,”⁹⁶ and number eight, “develop a global partnership for development.”⁹⁷ In order to accomplish these goals it is imperative that the UN continues to emphasize effective partnerships with the private sector, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), inter-governmental organizations (IGOs), community-based organizations (CBOs), civil society and Member States.

The General Assembly highlights the importance of health issues, and in particular the prevention and the eradication of communicable diseases, by placing them on the committee’s agenda.⁹⁸ The GA accomplishes this by allotting time to discuss in depth how these diseases can be prevented and eradicated as well as other underlying problems that may have proliferated these epidemics such as poverty, conflict, lack of political will and bad governance.⁹⁹ In its 62nd session, the Assembly produced resolution A/Res/62/180 in which the Roll Back Malaria was discussed. Also, resolution A/Res/62/178 discussed the progress for realizing the Declaration of Commitment for HIV/AIDS and the Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS.¹⁰⁰ These General Assembly resolutions are in essence frameworks through which individual Member States can implement in order to be more successful in achieving the goals of preventing and eradicating communicable diseases.

Past Communicable Disease Epidemics

Communicable diseases are defined as diseases that, “are caused by pathogenic microorganisms, such as bacteria, viruses, parasites or fungi.”¹⁰¹ Zoonotic diseases are infectious diseases of animals that can cause disease when transmitted humans.¹⁰² These diseases include: Cholera, Dengue Fever, Ebola Fever, Tuberculosis, Yellow Fever, Cholera and Smallpox.¹⁰³ Past communicable diseases that WHO has helped to eradicate are polio and small pox.¹⁰⁴ Yet, despite the Organization’s best efforts, a new generation of communicable diseases has emerged that have been proven to be more devastating and disastrous - HIV/AIDS and Tuberculosis. The current statistics show that the number of people living with HIV only continues to increase – 33.2 million in 2007 the majority of whom live in

⁹⁴ “About the Global Fund.” The Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria / World Health Organization. <http://www.theglobalfund.org/en/about/how/>

⁹⁵ “The Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria” Avert. <http://www.avert.org/global-fund.htm>

⁹⁶ “What Are the UN Millennium Development Goals?” UN Millennium Development Goals <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/#>

⁹⁸ “United Nations General Assembly: Economic Growth and Sustainable Development 62nd Session” United Nations <http://www.un.org/ga/62/agenda/sustdev.shtml>

⁹⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰⁰ “United Nations General Assembly 62nd Session Resolutions” United Nations <http://www.un.org/ga/62/resolutions.shtml>

¹⁰¹ “Communicable Diseases.” International Development Research Centre.” http://www.idrc.ca/en/ev-87661-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html

¹⁰² World Health Organization, Infectious Disease http://www.who.int/topics/infectious_diseases/en/

¹⁰³ “World Health Organization, Fact Sheets: Infectious Diseases” The World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/topics/infectious_diseases/factsheets/en/index.html

¹⁰⁴ Ibid.

developing countries.¹⁰⁵ UNAIDS estimates that every day, more than 6,800 people become newly infected with HIV and 5,700 die of AIDS, lacking access to the life-saving treatment.¹⁰⁶ Tuberculosis, for its part, still remains a major global health crisis, with nearly 9.2 million new cases and 1.7 million deaths each year.¹⁰⁷ This situation is compounded by the growing emergence of Multi-drug Resistant TB (MDR-TB) and Extensively Drug Resistant TB (XDR-TB).¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁵ “Briefing Papers: HIV/AIDS.” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/cyberschoolbus/briefing/hiv/index.htm>

¹⁰⁶ “The World Bank News and Broadcast: HIV/AIDS” The World Bank.
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/NEWS/0,,contentMDK:20040236-menuPK:34480-pagePK:34370-theSitePK:4607,00.html>

¹⁰⁷ “World Health Organization, Fact Sheets: Infectious Diseases” The World Health Organization.
http://www.who.int/topics/infectious_diseases/factsheets/en/index.html

¹⁰⁸ “The World Bank News and Broadcast: Tuberculosis” The World Bank.
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/NEWS/0,,contentMDK:20040888-menuPK:34480-pagePK:34370-theSitePK:4607,00.html>

Polio

One of the earliest devastating communicable disease, Polio, has been virtually eradicated through immunization campaigns.¹⁰⁹ Polio (Poliomyelitis) is a very highly communicable disease that is spread by a virus. It invades the nervous system, and can cause total paralysis in a matter of hours of being infected. The virus enters the body through the mouth and then multiplies in the intestine.¹¹⁰ There are several initial symptoms but most who are infected with the disease do not display any signs of illness and therefore they are unaware that they have been infected with the virus.¹¹¹ After the initial infection, the polio virus exits the body through excrement for several weeks and during this time period, can spread rapidly throughout a community and especially where one water source is used for a variety of purposes without being properly sanitized.¹¹²

Large polio epidemics were very much a reality, especially during the summers, in the 1940s and 50s in developed nations.¹¹³ Until the 1950s, polio paralyzed thousands of children every year in the US and Western Europe, this included 21,000 cases of paralysis in the United States alone.¹¹⁴ After the introduction of effective vaccines in the late 1950s (IPV) and early 1960s (OPV), polio was brought under control and was practically eliminated as communicable disease within developed nations.¹¹⁵ In developing nations it took longer for it to be recognized as a major communicable disease because it was not widely known as to what was causing paralysis.¹¹⁶

During the 1970s with programs, such as the Expanded Programme on Immunization (EPI)¹¹⁷ routine immunization was introduced on an international level and helped to control the disease within the developing world. As a result, today, the disease has been eliminated from most of the world and only seven countries remain polio-endemic. Areas of virus transmission are more concentrated than they were only 60 years ago, with 98 percent of all global cases found in India, Pakistan and Nigeria.¹¹⁸ Currently the total number of global polio cases in endemic countries is 363 compared to 20 in non-endemic countries.¹¹⁹ The countries in which cases are isolated in are: India (216), Central African Republic (1), Pakistan (5), Nigeria (137), Niger (6), Angola (5), Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (2), Afghanistan (5), Sudan (1), Nepal (3), and Chad (2).¹²⁰ In these countries there is a continued effort of using immunization campaigns in order to ultimately eradicate the virus.

Small Pox

¹⁰⁹ "What is Polio? The disease and virus" Global Polio Eradication Initiative.
<http://www.polioeradication.org/disease.asp>

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ Ibid.

¹¹² "What is Polio? The disease and virus" Global Polio Eradication Initiative.
<http://www.polioeradication.org/disease.asp>

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ "Polio" University of Cincinnati, College of Medicine.
<http://www.med.uc.edu/about/history/htmlversion/polio.cfm>

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

¹¹⁷ Ibid.

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

¹¹⁹ "Global Polio Eradication Initiative: Wild Poliovirus Weekly Update" Global Polio Eradication Initiative.
<http://www.polioeradication.org/casecount.asp>

¹²⁰ Ibid.

Small pox, like Polio has plagued humanity for centuries until a successful vaccination was created. Small pox is a highly contagious disease that is caused by the variola virus. Historically smallpox has been one of the most devastating diseases that has been known to humanity.¹²¹ Throughout history, repeated epidemics of small pox have caused devastation across continents, resulting in such death and destruction that has altered the course of history. The disease, for which there has never been an effective treatment developed, killed as many as 30 percent of those infected.¹²² The 60-85 percent of those who survived the disease were left with permanent deep-pitted scars (pockmarks), primarily on the face.¹²³ In the early 1950s-150 years after the introduction of the vaccination – an estimated 50 million cases of smallpox were recorded in the world each year. By 1967 that figure fell to 10-15 million because of the vaccination and vaccination campaigns.¹²⁴ In 1967 when WHO started a campaign to eradicate smallpox, the virus threatened 60 percent of the world’s population, killed every fourth person infected with the virus, scarred or blinded most of the survivors and was resistant to any form of treatment.¹²⁵

With a successful global eradication campaign comprised of elements of both political will and scientific advancement in technology to create a more affective vaccine, smallpox was finally contained to the Horn of Africa and ultimately isolated to one single last case, which was in Somalia in 1977.¹²⁶ After a fatal lab-acquired case occurred in the United Kingdom in 1978, the global eradication of small pox was certified. This was based on intense verification monitoring and reporting in countries, then by a commission of scientists in December 1979 and was finally endorsed by the World Health Assembly in 1980.

Current Communicable Disease Epidemics

HIV/AIDS

The HIV/AIDS pandemic has plagued humanity since its discovery in the 1980s. The number of people infected with the virus has steadily increased with every year that passes.¹²⁷ The number of people infected with HIV in 1990 was 8 million and by 2007 the number of people infected with the disease had risen to 33 million; with 69 percent of the people infected with HIV living in sub-Saharan Africa.¹²⁸ HIV/AIDS can have a devastating economic impact on countries with severe infection rates. It is estimated by the World Bank that when the infection reaches 8 percent of the population – about where 13 African countries currently stand – the cost in economic growth is about 1 percent per year¹²⁹; meaning that a country’s GDP level decreases 1 percent every year.

The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) is a retrovirus that infects cells of the human immune system, either impairing or destroying their function.¹³⁰ When a person is first infected with the virus they might not experience any symptoms and yet their immune system is becoming weaker and weaker. As the infection has time to impair immune system cells it makes it easier for the infected person to catch otherwise non-threatening viruses such as the common cold or flu and die from it because their immune system is ineffective.¹³¹ The most advanced stage of the HIV virus is the acquired immunodeficiency virus (AIDS). It can take 10-15 years for an HIV-infected person to

¹²¹ Smallpox” The World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/smallpox/en/>

¹²² Ibid.

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ Ibid.

¹²⁵ Ibid.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ “HIV/AIDS” The World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/topics/hiv_aids/en/

¹²⁸ “Worldwide HIV and AIDS Statistics” Avert. <http://www.avert.org/worldstats.htm>

¹²⁹ “AIDS: Data” The World Bank. <http://www.worldbank.org>

¹³⁰ “HIV/AIDS” The World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/topics/hiv_aids/en/

¹³¹ Ibid.

develop AIDS and the use of antiretroviral (ARV) drugs can slow the process even further.¹³² The HIV virus is transmitted through the exchange of bodily fluids; making it a disease that is extremely difficult to prevent and eradicate without the adequate resources.¹³³

HIV/AIDS has been identified within the Millennium Development Goals and at the Millennium Summit as the most devastating communicable disease pandemic that plagues the international community. Over the recent years there has been an increased awareness and knowledge of just how devastating the disease is to the quality of life for people living with the virus, especially in sub-Saharan African countries. While there is not a vaccine that can prevent the spread of the disease, there are ARV drugs that can enhance the quality of life for infected persons as well as prolong their life quite substantially. The main challenge that prevents the majority of people from receiving ARV treatment is the cost of the drugs due to patents placed on them by pharmaceutical companies that created the drugs. The Trade-Related aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) agreement within the World Trade Organization (WTO) mandate its Member States to respect the intellectual property rights of manufacturers within international trade.¹³⁴ This results in an enormous cost to the countries that have to resort to importing these drugs because they do not have the resources to manufacture them domestically.¹³⁵ Since patented ARV drugs are so expensive some countries, such as Brazil, India and Thailand, have resorted to producing their own generic ARV drugs in order to ensure that their citizens have access to them.¹³⁶ HIV/AIDS has created such a pandemic because its spread revolves around the sensitive subject of reproduction. In the regions where the infection rate is so high there is a cultural and social barrier that prevents providing the education necessary to successfully prevent the infection from spreading.¹³⁷

Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis has also re-emerged as another communicable disease pandemic that now plagues the international community and has hindered the ability for some countries to develop due to its devastating toll on those infected with it. It is estimated that in 2005 1.6 million people died from tuberculosis, along with an estimated 8.8 million newly infected with tuberculosis and of those 7.4 million of those where in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa.¹³⁸ Tuberculosis, referred to as TB, is spread by a bacterial microorganism that primarily attacks the lungs. TB can be either active or inactive and those who have active TB can spread the disease easily to anyone they come in contact with by simply coughing, sneezing or spitting, in which the other person may breathe in the TB bacteria and become infected.¹³⁹

TB is one of the most common causes of death among those who are infected with HIV/AIDS; because their immune system is so weak it is easier for TB to attack their lungs. Since TB is a bacterial infection it can be treated with antibacterial drugs and while there is a vaccine against TB, several different strains of the disease have emerged that are resistant to the antibiotics as well the vaccine.¹⁴⁰ The United Nations for its part has acknowledged the correlation between HIV/AIDS and Tuberculosis and has established the Global Fund. This fund uses financial resources from IGOs, NGOs, Member States, Civil Society, the private sector as well as individuals to donate money for the research of a vaccine as well as the distribution of the necessary preventive treatments.¹⁴¹

¹³² Ibid.

¹³³ Ibid.

¹³⁴ “TRIPS, AIDS and Generic Drugs” Avert. <http://www.avert.org/generic.htm>

¹³⁵ Ibid.

¹³⁶ Ibid.

¹³⁷ “AIDS: Data” The World Bank. <http://www.worldbank.org>

¹³⁸ “Tuberculosis” Avert. <http://www.avert.org/tuberculosis.htm>

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid.

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

Role of the World Health Organization in Preventing and Eradicating Communicable Diseases

While WHO is used within the UN system as the primary authority on the state of global health and the organization recommends policy prescriptions that Member States can implement in their national policy, it also serves as link for Member States to utilize the necessary resources that are found within other areas of expertise.¹⁴² The Civil Society Initiative (CSI) creates partnerships between WHO, NGOs and civil society.¹⁴³ The objectives of CSI are to promote the policies, strategies and activities of the WHO and to create partnerships with NGOs to implement policies and enact activities that carry out these policies.¹⁴⁴

The WHO views its collaborative partnerships with NGOs as way a of bringing to light the direct link between communicable diseases and poverty, and equity in the value of human life and development.¹⁴⁵ Analogous to the acknowledgement and recognition by the GA of the important of partnerships with actors outside the UN system and Member States, the WHO also through this program has enlisted the involvement of civil society in order to promote its ideals, policies and activities with the goal of reaching more of the world's population that suffers from communicable diseases in order to give otherwise hopeless victims a chance at a healthy and productive life.¹⁴⁶ Within the scope of communicable diseases and global health in general, "the involvement of civil society has profoundly affected not only the concepts underpinning public health formulation and implementation of public health programs and policies as well. NGOs and other civil society actors have engaged with the WHO to implement health programs at the country level, made outreach to remote areas and populations possible, advocated public health issues to a broad audience, addressed sensitive issues and worked in alliance with WHO to raise funds more effectively."¹⁴⁷

While the prevention and eradication of communicable diseases has a scientific component it also has a social dimension. The eradication and prevention of communicable diseases is dependent on a multitude of factors, the most important being creating an environment in which the political will is evident, providing knowledge of the disease to the masses and fostering the necessary partnerships in which resources are readily available to combat the problem.¹⁴⁸ The WHO program, The Commission on Social Determinants of Health (CSDH), does this by supporting Member States and other global health partners to recognize and address the social factors that contribute to both the spread and the prevention and eradication of communicable diseases. The commission has found that social determinants include unemployment, unsafe workplaces, urban slums, globalization and the lack of access to healthcare systems.¹⁴⁹ Its main objective is to, "draw the attention of society to the social determinants of health that are known to be among the worst causes of poor health [and communicable diseases] and inequalities between and within countries."¹⁵⁰ This social stigma reinforces not only the North/South divide of "diseases of the poor" and the attitude towards them but also the divide within nations of "diseases of the poor vs. diseases of the rich."¹⁵¹

¹⁴² "About WHO." World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/about/en/>

¹⁴³ "Civil Society Initiative (CSI)" The World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/civilsociety/en/>

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

¹⁴⁵ "Health and Development." World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/hdp/en/>

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

¹⁴⁷ "NGOs and Health" The World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/civilsociety/health/en/>

¹⁴⁸ Commission on Social Determinants of Health" The World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/social_determinants/en/

¹⁴⁹ Ibid.

¹⁵⁰ Ibid.

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

The CSDH was initiated in March of 2005 and will complete its initial work in May of 2008.¹⁵² The main responsibility of the commission is to bring together leading scientists, academic experts and practitioners in order to provide evidence on the policies that improves healthcare systems in nations by addressing the social conditions in which people live and work.¹⁵³ The main goals of the CSDH are:

- “to support policy change in countries by promoting models and practices that effectively address the social determinants of health
- to support countries in placing health as a shared goal to which many government departments and sectors of society contribute
- To help build a sustainable global movement for action on health equity and social determinants, linking governments, international organizations, research institutions, civil society and communities.”¹⁵⁴

The commission’s four main areas of work focus on country action, civil society, knowledge networks and global initiatives.¹⁵⁵ In the area of country action, the CSDH works with Member States to facilitate and strengthen government action in order to address health inequalities.¹⁵⁶ Currently the CSDH is working in 8 Member States.¹⁵⁷ The participation of civil society, the second focus area of the CSDH, is essential to bridge the gap between the inequalities of healthcare and hopefully eliminate the stigma of “diseases of the poor” in order to achieve the total eradication of these diseases. Local civil organizations work closely with the CSDH in order help shape the knowledge and actions of the general public necessary to prevent and eradicate communicable diseases and promote policies based upon healthcare equality.¹⁵⁸

The dissemination of knowledge about the ways to prevent and eventually eradicate communicable diseases is vital if this goal is going to become a reality. The knowledge networks partnerships with the commission are used to gather information on the social factors that result in the inequalities of healthcare. The commission uses these knowledge networks in these nine areas to gather information on the status of inequalities of healthcare within Member States, but also uses these networks to disseminate information that is essential for the prevention of communicable disease infection in otherwise unreachable populations.¹⁵⁹ The CSDH and WHO are vital sources for other UN agencies, which they can advise on how best to implement policies that target the social determinants of communicable diseases. At the global level, “the Commission [along with WHO] aims to lever measurable increases in the investments going to health equity through action on the social determinants of health. Global institutions working on social determinants of health will be consulted and involved in the work of the Commission.”¹⁶⁰

Challenges to the Prevention and Eradication of Communicable Diseases

The challenge that many Member States face in the successful prevention and eradication of communicable diseases is the lack of resources they have. Many of the Member States in which communicable disease are pandemic lack the necessary state capacity, infrastructure and technical support to affectively handle the spread of these diseases. Many communicable diseases like HIV/AIDS are difficult to contain because of the cultural and social structures of

¹⁵² Ibid.

¹⁵³ Ibid.

¹⁵⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵⁵ Ibid.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid.

¹⁵⁷ “Commission on Social Determinants of Health: Country Action” The World Health Organization.
http://www.who.int/social_determinants/country_action/en/index.html

¹⁵⁸ “Commission on Social Determinants of Health: Civil Society” The World Health Organization.
http://www.who.int/social_determinants/areas/civil_society/en/index.html

¹⁵⁹ Ibid.

¹⁶⁰ “Commission on Social Determinants of Health: Global Initiative” The World Health Organization.
http://www.who.int/social_determinants/areas/global_initiative/en/index.html

the societies in which they are present. Ignorance and an unwillingness to accept the reality of the problem have facilitated the spread of the virus. For example, in sub-Saharan Africa, where three females girls are infected with HIV for every male, half of the teenage females interviewed for a survey did not realize that a seemingly healthy person could be HIV positive.¹⁶¹ This is to say that because of the lack of education on how these diseases are spread, it is easier for these diseases to become pandemics simply because of lack of information and education.

It is also extremely difficult for Member States to successfully combat the spread of communicable diseases when the state itself cannot even provide basic social services to its citizens and when poverty is so extreme that short-term needs such as food, clean water and basic healthcare must be emphasized, rather than preventive healthcare and education. At the international level the challenges can be seen in similar manner in which developing nations advocate for greater resources available to them in order to take action against communicable diseases. These differing perspectives have created the divide between what is considered diseases of the poor and diseases of the wealthy.

Conclusion

On the surface it may seem that the successful prevention and eradication of communicable diseases is solely dependent on whether or not access to the necessary medication and vaccine is available to those in need. However, this is not always the case, instead there are several underlying factors that contribute to the continued and increased spread of communicable diseases within the international community. Plagued by constant conflict and extreme poverty, Member States in which communicable diseases are widely prevalent are forced to rank their priorities in a manner which first addresses the short term needs of being free from violence and having enough to eat. Along with the need to provide these services, these countries also need a social structure that allows for an open discussion of what the disease is, how it is caused and how it can be prevented. At the international level there is a definite divide between what is considered to be a priority and what is not. Communicable diseases such as HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis are always associated with poverty and looked down upon as diseases of the poor.

Committee Directive

The General Assembly is an advisory body that can suggest to Member States the steps that need to be taken in order to prevent and eradicate communicable diseases. How can Member States implement these suggestions and recommendations to prevent and eradicate these diseases in circumstances where their nation is plagued by conflict and extreme poverty? In cases where extreme poverty is prevalent and there is a lack of resources that can be used to take the necessary steps to prevent disease, what can the General Assembly do to provide the Member States with those resources? In cases where there are underlying social and cultural structures that shape predetermined attitudes towards disease, how can the General Assembly be used in order to change these views in which prevention and eradication of communicable diseases can be achieved?

Topic III: Examining the Impacts of Conflict on Sustainable Development

“We must set up a cooperative relationship with the earth, not one of dominance, for it is ultimately the gift of life that we pass on to our children and the generations to follow.”¹⁶²

- Rosalie Bertell, Planet Earth – The Latest Weapon of War

Introduction

The effects of conflict are not limited to civilian and military casualties, as tragic as those losses are. Long-term results of conflict can inflict damage on communities and ecosystems for multiple generations. While it is often difficult to anticipate environmental damage from a conflict and even more challenging to prevent damage during a conflict, failure to plan for environmental harm complicates recovery efforts once the conflict is over. Delegates should carefully evaluate these problems because they inform post-conflict plans for sustainable development. This topic will focus on post-conflict recovery efforts and how sustainable development efforts can be undertaken. The three main problems this topic discusses include habitat destruction and loss of wildlife, over-exploitation of natural resources, and pollution. Involvement of United Nations (UN) agencies, non-governmental actors (NGOs), and military actors will be included as relevant.

¹⁶¹ “AIDS: Data” The World Bank. <http://www.worldbank.org>

¹⁶² International Peace Bureau, Geneva. “The Military’s Impact on the Environment: A Neglected Aspect of the Sustainable Development Debate.” August 2002. <http://www.ipb.org/environment.html>

Prior UN Work

The Brundtland Report: "Our Common Future", published in 1987, marked the first international recognition of the sustainable development model. In a chapter titled "Peace, Security, Development and the Environment," *The Brundtland Report* examined the relationship between conflict, specifically the role of the military, and the environment. Its conclusions addressed conflicts caused by environmental stress and environmental damages from conflict. For example, one conclusion stated, "Environmental stress is a cause and effect of political tension and military conflict. Nations have often fought to assert or resist control over raw materials, energy supplies, land etc. The danger of such conflicts will increase as these resources become scarcer."¹⁶³

In 1992, the UN General Assembly adopted the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development at the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), known as the "Earth Summit".¹⁶⁴ It affirmed the 1972 Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment from Stockholm and expressed the international community's hope that better progress could be made towards sustainable development.¹⁶⁵ Principle 3 emphasized the right to development and Principle 4 stated, "In order to achieve sustainable development, environmental protection shall constitute an integral part of the development process and cannot be considered in isolation from it."¹⁶⁶ Principles 24 and 25 specifically addressed the impact of conflict on the environment. The former said, "Warfare is inherently destructive of sustainable development. States shall therefore respect international law providing for the environment in times of armed conflict and cooperate in its further development, as necessary."¹⁶⁷ The latter emphasized the relationship between conflict and the environment by noting, "Peace, development and environmental protection are interdependent and indivisible."¹⁶⁸

Five years later, the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) was established by UNCED as a Commission of the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). In 1997, the General Assembly also convened "Earth Summit +5" to evaluate progress since the original Earth Summit. Both the Commission and Summit addressed many issues related to sustainable development, but failed to accomplish anything meaningful related to environmental damages caused by military conflict.¹⁶⁹ The most recent UN action examining the relationship between conflict and environment was the 2002 Johannesburg Summit, officially known as the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSED), which continued trying to reach an international consensus.¹⁷⁰

Inter-Governmental (IGO) and Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) Initiatives

In addition to the UN, a number of IGOs and NGOs have actively worked to promote sustainable development following a military conflict. One of the earliest IGO initiatives was the Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile use of Environmental Modification Techniques (ENMOD).¹⁷¹ Entered into force on 5 October 1978 with ratification by Laos, ENMOD forbids the use of the environment as a weapon during conflict.¹⁷² This

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ Ibid.

¹⁶⁵ A/CONF.151/26 (Vol. I). *Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development*. United Nations General Assembly.

¹⁶⁶ Ibid.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

¹⁶⁸ Ibid.

¹⁶⁹ International Peace Bureau, Geneva. "The Military's Impact on the Environment: A Neglected Aspect of the Sustainable Development Debate." August 2002. <http://www.ipb.org/environment.html>

¹⁷⁰ "Johannesburg Summit 2002." United Nations. August 24, 2006. http://www.un.org/jsummit/html/basic_info/basicinfo.html

¹⁷¹ Development Debate." August 2002. <http://www.ipb.org/environment.html>

¹⁷² "The Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile use of Environmental Modification Techniques." Federation of American Scientists. 1994. <http://www.fas.org/nuke/control/enmod/text/environ2.htm>

convention was drafted in response to concerns over the use of toxins such as Agent Orange and fears over the next wave of environmental technologies.

Additional IGO efforts with varying levels of success include the following: the “Green Beret Corps”, The Ottawa Mine Ban Treaty, The New Agenda Coalition, and the Human Security Network.¹⁷³ International Peace Bureau President Maj-Britt Theorin called for the “Green Beret Corps” in a UN-sponsored study titled “Charting Potential Uses of Resources Allocated to Military Activities for Civilian Endeavors to Protect the Environment” in 1991, but due to opposition from some Member States, the recommendations remained on paper. Had they been implemented, the recommendations would have assigned UN military forces to rapid response units in times of ecological crises including war.¹⁷⁴ The latter three IGO efforts were more successful. 156 countries are now part to The Ottawa Mine Ban Treaty and in cooperation with the International Coalition to Ban Landmines, progress for both humans and the environment has been made.¹⁷⁵ Brazil, Egypt, Ireland, Mexico, New Zealand, Sweden, and South Africa formed the New Agenda Coalition and coordinate discussions of sustainable development and environmental harm with those of military issues.¹⁷⁶ Similarly, the Human Security Network formed by Austria, Canada, Chile, Greece, Ireland, Jordan, Mali, Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia, South Africa (Observer), Switzerland, and Thailand, focuses on human security broadly defined to include military and environmental problems. The Network stresses coordination with civil society actors as critical partners in promoting human security and protection of human rights under international law.¹⁷⁷

Countless NGOs have worked on promoting sustainable development before and after a conflict, and delegates are encouraged to research these efforts in accordance with their governmental policy priorities. A few initiatives will be briefly mentioned. Building from the 1972 Stockholm Declaration, NGOs drafted the “Earth Charter” at UNCED.¹⁷⁸ Section 16 of the Charter established the basis for NGOs looking to address military problems as part of their environmental work:

- a. Encourage and support mutual understanding, solidarity, and cooperation among all peoples and within nations.
- b. Implement comprehensive strategies to prevent violent conflict and use collaborative problem solving to manage and resolve environmental conflicts and other disputes.
- c. Demilitarise national security systems to the level of a non-provocative defense posture, and convert military resources to peaceful purposes, including ecological restoration.
- d. Eliminate nuclear, biological, and toxin weapons and other weapons of mass destruction.¹⁷⁹

Additional NGO actions include the Peace Caucus at the Rio Conference and Johannesburg Summit, the NGO treaty on Militarism, Environment and Development drafted at the 1992 Rio Conference, the Middle Powers Initiative, and the World Women’s Conference started in 1992 and continued through the Beijing conference in 1995.¹⁸⁰

¹⁷³ International Peace Bureau, Geneva. “The Military’s Impact on the Environment: A Neglected Aspect of the Sustainable Development Debate.” August 2002. <http://www.ipb.org/environment.html>

¹⁷⁴ Ibid.

¹⁷⁵ “States Parties.” International Coalition to Ban Landmines. January 26, 2004. <http://www.icbl.org/treaty/members>

¹⁷⁶ “New Agenda Coalition- Background Information.” Acronym Institute. <http://www.acronym.org.uk/nac.htm>

¹⁷⁷ “The Vision of the Human Security Network.” Human Security Network. October 30, 2006. <http://www.humansecuritynetwork.org/menu-e.php>

¹⁷⁸ “The Earth Charter Initiative.” Earth Charter. <http://www.earthcharter.org/>

¹⁷⁹ “Earth Charter in Action.” Earth Charter. October 4, 2000. http://www.earthcharterinaction.org/2000/10/the_earth_charter.html

¹⁸⁰ International Peace Bureau, Geneva. “The Military’s Impact on the Environment: A Neglected Aspect of the Sustainable Development Debate.” August 2002. <http://www.ipb.org/environment.html>

Habitat Destruction and Loss of Wildlife

During a military conflict, environmental damages are routinely inflicted upon critical habitats and wildlife. Dating back to Napoleon's exodus from Moscow and continuing through the Vietnam conflict to today's conflict in the Sudan, scorched-earth tactics have been used by troops to improve their mobility and visibility, and also to destroy enemy areas as they retreat.¹⁸¹ The burning destroys communities and crops, forcing refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) into densely concentrated camps, which can cause damage if the settlements remain in place for long periods of time.¹⁸²

Another example of habitat destruction and wildlife loss is occurring in Nepal due to 9 years of Maoist activity, specifically damage to the Asian one-horned rhino and illegal harvesting of timber by poachers. With over 12,000 people dead, more than 200,000 IDPs, and thousands of children abducted and removed to indoctrination camps, Maoist rebels have inflicted significant damage throughout Nepal.¹⁸³ The conflict has directly impacted the environment with poaching of the rhino and indirectly changed the ecosystem as government control weakens in areas with a strong rebel presence, enabling more illegal timber harvesting and poaching.¹⁸⁴ NGOs are working to establish protected areas (PAs) and create Forest User Groups (FUGs) to manage local forest sustainably while providing much-needed revenues, but taxation by the government and incursions by the rebels threaten these initiatives.¹⁸⁵ Approximately 19 percent of Nepal presently remains under protected area status, but these areas are constantly endangered by the prolonged conflict.¹⁸⁶ Not only has the one-horned rhino population been heavily poached, the population of the world's most endangered crocodile native to rivers in Nepal and India has been reduced and wildlife smuggling has become increasingly prevalent in the region.¹⁸⁷ The Nepalese case illustrates immediate problems caused by conflict, but also long-term problems posed for sustainable development as government control and aid work are reduced in ecologically sensitive areas.

Over-Exploitation of Natural Resources

When conflict strikes a given area or a prolonged conflict occurs, an additional strain is placed on the natural resources. Just as the long-term settlements destroy the habitats and wildlife in the area, existing natural resources are often unable to sustain the strain placed on them. One example of this is in the Democratic Republic of the Congo where prolonged fighting has forced IDPs into the Virunga National Park to harvest fuel wood and materials for building.¹⁸⁸ NGOs such as World Wildlife Fund (WWF) have tried to supply firewood in hopes that the endangered mountain gorilla's habitat and bamboo food source would not be damaged, but with the escalation of the conflict, this is becoming nearly impossible. The Virunga Environmental Program (PEVi), financed by WWF, is working with the UN to establish sustainable private plantations that can supply the wood while also promoting local income and economic development. With more than 350,000 persons settling near the Virunga National Park, these plantations have the potential to supply shelter and wood to be used in cooking. Each plantation of 1,235 acres

¹⁸¹ International Institute for Sustainable Development. "Overview C- Conservation in Times of War." *Conserving the Peace: Resources, Livelihoods and Security*. IISD. 2002. <http://www.iisd.org/publications/pub.aspx?pno=477>

¹⁸² Ibid.

¹⁸³ Murphy, Mark L., et al. "Conservation in Conflict: The Impact of Maoist-Government Conflict on Conservation and Biodiversity in Nepal." International Institute for Sustainable Development. October 2005. www.iisd.org/pdf/2005/security_conservation_nepal.pdf

¹⁸⁴ Ibid.

¹⁸⁵ Ibid.

¹⁸⁶ "Nepal-Overview." Convention on Biological Diversity. <http://www.cbd.int/countries/?country=np>

¹⁸⁷ Murphy, Mark L., et al. "Conservation in Conflict: The Impact of Maoist-Government Conflict on Conservation and Biodiversity in Nepal." International Institute for Sustainable Development. October 2005. www.iisd.org/pdf/2005/security_conservation_nepal.pdf

¹⁸⁸ "Virunga Conflict Driving Refugees Into Gorilla Habitat." World Wildlife Fund. December 21, 2007. <http://www.worldwildlife.org/who/media/press/2007/WWFPresitem6436.html>

is estimated to provide long-term benefits of \$1.5 million in revenue over 10 years using timber and coal production.¹⁸⁹

An additional example where conflict has strained natural resources is Myanmar, considered one of the most threatened hotspots in the world. At the current rate of exploitation, Myanmar is among the top eight countries expected to lose plants and animals as a result of forest destruction. Hunting takes place in 70 percent of the country's Protected Areas and as the area's instability continues, wildlife poaching remains a profitable lifestyle and for some, a critical source of income.¹⁹⁰ Myanmar's conflict is not a traditional civil war or international conflict and instead dates back to the military suppression of a pro-democracy movement in 1988. Since that time, many rural villagers have remained in extreme poverty and have overused available resources to the point where the ecosystem cannot sustain the use levels.¹⁹¹ Myanmar illustrates long-term impacts of military engagements on sustainable development and affected communities.

Pollution

During the first Persian Gulf War (1990-91), 4-8 million barrels of oil were spilled into the ocean waters, damaging 460 miles of coastline, and 45-54 million gallons of sewage was buried in sand pits. These spills destroyed much of the existing wildlife and long-term coral deaths are expected, along with extensive health consequences for humans living in the area. Additionally, depleted uranium ammunition used during the conflict poses significant radiation damage.¹⁹² As tragic as this environmental disaster is, it is not the only instance where a military conflict harms both the immediate ecosystem and leaves waste with multiple generational harms.

A less obvious instance of pollution can occur with heavy concentrations of relocated persons such as a refugee or IDP camp. Without adequate sanitation facilities or ways to remove waste, water sources quickly become contaminated.¹⁹³ To try and solve this problem, the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR) has put forth a water manual for refugees and established guidelines regarding where to locate refugee camps and how to minimize environmental damage during conflict situations.¹⁹⁴ Agencies such as the UNCHR attempt to locate the camps away from World Heritage Sites or other ecologically-sensitive zones during a crisis and then following the crisis, attempt to rehabilitate the former camp site along with either integrating the refugees into the host country or re-integrating them back into their countries of origin.¹⁹⁵

With 2008 declared the International Year of Sanitation, greater attention has been drawn to sanitation problems caused by intense and prolonged conflicts. As conflicts intensify and populations of refugee camps grow, so does the spread of communicable diseases and environmental damage.¹⁹⁶ For example, recent exchanges between rebel groups and the Central African Republic government have forced thousands of individuals out of their villages and into stagnant waters in the bush. The Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) estimates that over a million Central Africans lack access to clean water and are thus at a greater risk for many diseases. The

¹⁸⁹ Ibid.

¹⁹⁰ "Myanmar: Investment Opportunities in Biodiversity Conservation." BirdLife International in Indochina. birdlifeindochina.org/report_pdfs/page_63_124.pdf

¹⁹¹ "Myanmar: Aid to the Border Areas." International Crisis Group. September 9, 2004. <http://www.crisisgroup.org/home/index.cfm?id=2961&l=1>

¹⁹² International Peace Bureau, Geneva. "The Military's Impact on the Environment: A Neglected Aspect of the Sustainable Development Debate." August 2002. <http://www.ipb.org/environment.html>

¹⁹³ International Institute for Sustainable Development. "Overview C- Conservation in Times of War." *Conserving the Peace: Resources, Livelihoods and Security*. IISD. 2002. <http://www.iisd.org/publications/pub.aspx?pno=477>

¹⁹⁴ "Environment." United Nations Refugee Agency. 2008. <http://www.unhcr.org/protect/PROTECTION/3b03b6f44.html>

¹⁹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁹⁶ "Fresh Skirmishes Force Thousands of Displaced Congolese to Flee North Kivu – UN." UN News Centre. November 13, 2007. <http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=24637&Cr=democratic&Cr1=congo>

United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) is working with a coalition of 14 aid organizations to try and provide working well pumps, but the existing strain on the people and environment only worsens as the conflict continues.¹⁹⁷

Conclusion

Sustainable development is a challenge for many countries in times of peace; existence of a conflict amplifies the difficulties and strains both human and environmental capacities. Habitat destruction and wildlife loss, over-exploitation of resources, and pollution are only three of the many problems exacerbated by conflict. In order to address these issues, cooperation between local actors, governments, militaries, NGOs, civil society actors, UN bodies, and others is essential. Delegates should consider a wide range of approaches when researching post conflict sustainable development plans for their country and region, and learn from the successes and failures of prior programs.

Committee Directive

Conflict poses a number of challenges for environmental conservation and sustainable development. When formulating a policy, delegates will want to carefully consider a variety of factors at each stage of the conflict. Are there environmentally responsible contingency plans in place prior to the emergence of a conflict to minimize environmental damage? Do these plans establish a cooperative relationship between relevant actors such as government agencies, militaries, aid organizations, and UN bodies? Once a conflict has begun, are actions being taken to minimize environmental damage, such as provision of water and sanitation supplies or firewood? Following a conflict, are sustainable practices being implemented to promote recovery of the damaged environment? Post-conflict environmental plans must not only include plans to rehabilitate the environment, but also include initiatives to enable communities to create sustainable practices and not rely on over-exploitation of natural resources. This is a complicated task, but a necessary one. Delegates are encouraged to consult a variety of UN agencies, NGOs, and IGOs as part of their research.

¹⁹⁷ “Unclean Water Threatens Health of One Million Central Africans, UN Warns.” UN News Centre. March 20, 2008. <http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=26054&Cr=central&Cr1=african>

Technical Appendix

Topic I: Combating the International Energy Crisis Through Renewable Energy Technologies

“Energy Consumption by End-Use Sector.” Department of Energy, Office of International Affairs.
www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/ieo/pdf/enduse.pdf

This document provides a good basic overview of energy consumption by sector (transportation, residential, and industrial). For example, this article breaks down the different industries or users in each sector, the amount of energy consumed by these sectors, as well as the nonrenewable resource used most by the sectors. In addition, the document analyzes and compares energy consumption rates in OECD and non-OECD countries.

Keith Bradsher. “The Energy Challenge: Paying in Pollution for Energy Hunger.” New York Times. <http://www.nytimes.com/2007/01/09/business/worldbusiness/09village.html>

This article examines the ways in which developing and developed countries are not moving toward a more energy efficient, environmentally friendly future. The article explains that while some developing countries like China and India have explored energy alternatives, low-cost traditional fossil fuels have become the favorite way to provide electricity for powering lights and irrigation pumps among other things. Also, the article briefly discusses the challenges that rural communities face in obtaining access to energy.

“Renewable Energy Technologies.” Energy Access Inc. <http://www.renewableenergyworld.com/rea/tech/home>

This site provides a detailed overview of the various sources of alternative energy such as hydropower and solar power. In addition, the site regularly posts descriptive information on new renewable energy technologies (RETs) and discusses the different technologies used in different parts of the world. Registration is free. Once you are registered you will receive news articles on RETs on a weekly basis. On July 18, the site ran a good article on new developments in China’s wind power industry (<http://www.renewableenergyworld.com/rea/news/story?id=53076>). In particular the article highlights financing of this industry and China’s reduction of energy consumption from nonrenewable sources.

“Sustainable Development Topics.” UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs-Division for Sustainable Development. UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2006. http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/documents/WSSD_POI_PD/English/POIToc.htm

This link provides you direct access to the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (JPOI) which was adopted at the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) held in Johannesburg, South Africa, ten years after the first WSSD. The JPOI is an important document that discusses social factors with energy use, addressing both the energy gap between developed and developing countries and how best to facilitate environmentally sustainable practices. In addition to recognizing energy as an important aspect of sustainable development, the JPOI calls for several types of actions by Member States with regard to developing RETs. Paragraph 20(c) calls for states to “develop and disseminate alternative energy technologies with the aim of giving a greater share of the energy mix to renewable energy and with a sense of urgency, substantially increase the global share of renewable energy sources.” Renewable energy sources such as geothermal, solar, and wind energy are becoming more widespread, but are still used a fraction of the time compared to other energy sources such as fossil fuels.

“UNDP Energy Priority Areas.” United Nations Environment Programme.

<http://www.undp.org/energy/priorities.htm>

This site will provide you with additional details and information on the UNDP's energy priorities and programmes. As stated in the body of the background, the UNDP has the largest energy portfolio of all UN agencies—as it has more than 400 sustainable energy projects in 166 countries. Specifically, you will want to focus on energy priority 3 (Promoting clean energy technology) and priority 4 (Increasing access to finance for clean energy). Further, this site will provide you with direct access to information on each of the UNDP sustainable energy programmes.

Topic II: The Eradication and Control of Communicable Diseases

“Communicable Diseases Department: About CDS – Issues and Challenges” World Health Organization Regional Office for South-East Asia http://www.searo.who.int/en/Section10_10466.htm

This article explains in greater detail how communicable diseases hinder economic development in developing countries. This particular article explains the challenges that southeast Asia faces in eradicating communicable diseases especially avian influenza.

“Communicable Disease prevention, control and eradication” Who African Region: Ethiopia <http://www.healthinternetnetwork.com/countries/eth/areas/cds/en/index.html>

This is an overview of the challenges that Ethiopia is facing in eradicating and preventing the future spread of communicable diseases. This is an overview of the Ethiopian government's strategy to combat these problems in conjunction with WHO; including the acknowledge of the scale of the problem, established goals and strategies to accomplish those goals.

“Disease Eradication” Agency for Cooperation in International Health <http://www.acih.com/eradicate-e.html>

This is an overview of the successful eradication of smallpox. The eradication of smallpox allows the international community to adopt a strategic model that can be used to eradicate other communicable diseases. The Agency for Cooperation in International Health explores how this model can be successfully implemented for other diseases such as tuberculosis, the avian influenza and HIV/AIDS.

“News and Broadcast – Communicable Diseases” The World Bank <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/NEWS/0,,contentMDK:20040888~menuPK:34480~pagePK:34370~theSitePK:4607,00.html>

This article provides for an international overview of the communicable disease epidemic. It highlights the international statistics of communicable diseases as well the vulnerable demographics that are more likely to suffer from communicable diseases. It also provides an overview of how the World Bank is implementing programs and working with regional organizations and individual countries in order to develop strategies to successfully eliminate communicable diseases.

“Epidemic and Pandemic Alert and Response” World Health Organization <http://www.who.int/csr/en/>

This website offers information on the World Health Organization's Epidemic & Pandemic Alert and Response Network (EPR). The network is designed to respond to communicable outbreaks within Member States by providing the necessary support and resources that Member States need in order to affectively and rapidly respond to communicable diseases epidemics.

“Meeting of Interested Parties (MIP) 2001: Communicable Disease Prevention, Eradication and Control” World Health Organization http://www.who.int/mip2001/index.pl_percent3Fiid=1743.html

This website is an overview of the 2001 Meeting of Interested Parties hosted by the World Health Organization to discuss stepping up efforts to eradicate and prevent communicable diseases. This includes links to meeting documents as well as WHO outcome documents at the conclusion of the meeting.

“Communicable Diseases” Asia-Pacific Consortium for Public Health
http://www.apacph.org/site/categories/Communicable_Diseases/

This website provides an overview of how countries within the Asia-Pacific are implementing programs to eradicate and prevent the spread of communicable diseases. The Asia-Pacific Consortium for Public Health is a regional organization that is comprised of one representative from each Member State. The consortium works the United Nations and the World Health Organization as a partnership in order to affectively achieve the eradication of communicable diseases. This website also provides links to other international documents and reports pertaining to communicable diseases.

“International Task Force for Disease Eradication” The Carter Center
http://www.cartercenter.org/health/itfde/current_members.html

The Carter Center’s International Task Force was formed to evaluate disease control and prevention and potential for eradicating infectious diseases. It has collaborated with the Bill and Melinda Gates foundation to further work on international health. The main goals of the task force are to review and make progress in disease eradication, review the status of current communicable diseases and make recommendations to the international community on how to eradicate or better control current communicable diseases. This website provides information on how The Carter Center works within the International Community on communicable diseases as well as other non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

Topic III: Examining the Impacts of Conflict on Sustainable Development

A/42/427. *The Brundtland Report*. United Nations General Assembly. www.anped.org/media/brundtland-pdf.pdf

The 1987 Brundtland Report marked the first recognition of the sustainable development concept, making this report important for understanding where the international community started. “Our Common Future” was a report from the World Commission on Environment and Development and intended to continue the themes put forth by the 1972 Stockholm Convention. For the purposes of this topic, it contains a chapter that addresses the impact of conflict on the environment.

“Assessing the Impact of Armed Conflict on the Environment.” Assembly of WEU- The European Security and Defence Assembly. June 5, 2008. www.assembly-weu.org/en/documents/sessions_ordinaires/rpt/2008/2003.php

This resolution was submitted on June 5, 2008 by Gianpaolo Silvestri, Rapporteur of Italy, on behalf of the Committee for Parliamentary and Public Relations to the European Security and Defence Assembly. It is a good example of a European perspective on the effects of armed conflict on the environment, specifically post-conflict assessments, military waste, and health consequences for the civilian population and military personnel. Recommendations for military peacetime programs are included.

“BSP Programs.” World Wildlife Fund. <http://www.worldwildlife.org/bsp/programs/index.html>

BSP programs were Biodiversity Support Programs implemented around the world by a consortium which included the World Wildlife Fund, The Nature Conservancy, and World Resources Institute and financed by USAID. Working in 75 percent of the countries with a USAID presence, the WWF managed the following programs: Africa and Madagascar Program (Africa); Asia and the Pacific Program (Asia); Eastern Europe Program (E. Europe); Latin America and the Caribbean Program (LAC); Analysis and Adaptive Management Program (AAM); and Biodiversity Conservation Network (BCN). The program ran from 1989-2001, but remains a very successful example of sustainable development in conflict zones.

From Conflict to Sustainable Development—Assessment and Clean-up in Serbia and Montenegro. United Nations Environment Programme. 2004.

To carefully illustrate the environmental assessment process, this UNEP case study is included. The report details UNEP's 1999-2003 assessment of the Balkans, particularly environmental impacts from the conflict and recommendations on how to remediate the damage. UNEP's study of the Balkans marks the first time the UN recognized environmental issues as part of post-conflict humanitarian recovery efforts. It is helpful to be familiar with this environmental impact assessment process in order to develop well-informed recommendations and better address other conflict-ridden environments.

“IUCN and Conflict Resolution- An Issues Briefing for the CEESP Task Force on Environment and Security.” The International Conservation Union. www.iisd.org/pdf/2002/envsec_iucn_conflict_resolution.pdf

The IUCN is one of the most involved organizations working to bridge the gap between human security plans and environmental damage recovery plans. This article is an issues briefing highlighting the topics which IUCN feels are important during conflict resolution processes. It is useful to help understand the IUCN's role in mediating resource-based conflicts.

Kathleen Cravero and Chetan Kumar. “Sustainable Development Through Sustainable Peace: Conflict Management in Developing Societies.” UNDP. www.undp.org/cpr/documents/prevention/build_national/article_peacebuilding_Commonwealth.pdf

This article discusses a variety of UNDP conflict management efforts in countries including Ghana, Guyana, and Kenya. Each country's experience varies and Cravero and Kumar highlight unique challenges and relevant indicators. It is a helpful article for understanding how national capacity building and peace-building activities directly bear on sustainable development.

Kenneth Bush. “A Measure of Peace: Peace and Conflict Impact Assessment (PCIA) of Development Projects in Conflict Zones. 1998. http://www.idrc.ca/en/ev-28756-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html

This is a working paper published a decade ago emphasizing a new approach to evaluating development projects in conflict zones. Delegates are encouraged to carefully read the paper and use it to help guide their critical assessments of existing development projects and to inform their design of future projects. Bush highlights considerations that should be made prior to a project's implementation, local environmental and cultural contexts that must be taken into account, how to coordinate development work with other agencies and government bodies, and methods of evaluating a project post-conflict. His framework is not specific to any particular region or conflict project and therefore applies to a range of projects to be discussed by delegates during the simulation.

L. Glew and M.D. Hudson. “Gorillas in the Midst: The Impact of Armed Conflict on the Conservation of Protected Areas in Sub-Saharan Africa.” *Oryx*. April 2007.

This article offers a quantitative model of armed conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Rwanda and its effect on the area's gorilla population. It is a useful illustration of the wide range of environmental harms caused by a conflict on the ecosystem and endangered wildlife. Contrary to much of the other literature on this issue, Glew and Hudson argue that armed conflict poses a greater threat to Protected Areas during times of peace than war, making this a good counter-argument to claims of environmental damage during a conflict.

Lydia Polgreen. “Scorched-Earth Strategy Returns to Darfur.” *The New York Times*. March 2, 2008. http://www.nytimes.com/2008/03/02/world/africa/02darfur.html?_r=2&ref=africa&oref=slogin&oref=slogin

Polgreen's article sheds light on the recently increasing use of scorched-earth strategies by the Sudanese government against rebel groups. The burning is part of the government's strategy to strike at rebel forces

in addition to the government's use of ground forces and air attacks. It is an example of a chosen military strategy designed for military purposes, but one that has had devastating consequences for refugees by forcing them to flee the burned areas and destroying their villages.

Michael J. Jacobs and Catherine A. Schloeder. "Impacts of Conflict on Biodiversity and Protected Areas in Ethiopia." World Wildlife Fund. 2001. <http://www.worldwildlife.org/bsp/publications/africa/147/titlepage.htm>

Jacobs and Schloeder authored one of six case studies for WWF's Biodiversity Support Program-Armed Conflict and Environment Project examining Protected Areas throughout the world. This particular study looks at Ethiopia's history of conflict and conservation, efforts by the country to protect fragile ecosystems, multi-sector collaborative efforts, and provides recommendations for future sustainable efforts. It is a good example of habitat destruction due to prolonged conflict and the potential improvements that can occur when Protected Areas are created and maintained.

"Resource Conflict Monitor." Bonn International Center for Conversion. 2007. <http://www.bicc.de/rcm/>

The Resource Conflict monitor is a searchable database for data on each country's management and governance of its resources, combined with the length and intensity of conflict within state borders. Aggregated country data is included, enabling delegates to search for their own country's statistics or to search within country groups based on scores from the Resource Governance Index. This site is also helpful for illustrating the concepts of "resource governance" and the "resource curse".

Trends in Sustainable Development 2008-2009. United Nations Economic & Social Affairs. 2008-2009.

Published in March of 2008, this report documents ongoing sustainable development trends in the areas of agriculture, rural development, land, desertification, and drought. Recent statistics and developments are included for each area. In addition to the published resources, the report includes an exhaustive bibliography for each trend to help with future research.