

Southern Regional Model United Nations XX
Enhancing Global Commitments to Human Rights and Equality
November 19-21, 2009
Atlanta, GA
Email: gaplen@srmun.org



Dear Delegates,

I would like to welcome you to the Southern Regional United Nations Conference (SRMUN) XX and the General Assembly Plenary. It is an honor for me to serve as your Director for one of the most challenging committees at SRMUN. I have been involved with Model UN for nearly 20 conferences as a delegate, advisor and staff member. This will be my fourth year at SRMUN and third year as a Director. Joining me as Assistant Director will be Erica Little. Erica is a recent graduate of the University of North Carolina at Asheville where she received a Bachelor of Science degree in Atmospheric Science.

The General Assembly Plenary was formed in 1945 to allow for every member state, regardless of size, government structure, or economic stature to have a voice on those issues that are most pressing to the international community. We have chosen the following topics to discuss at this year's conference as they play an integral role in fulfilling this year's SRMUN theme of *Enhancing Global Commitments to Human Rights and Equality*.

- I. Democratization of the United Nations Structure (DOTUNS);
- II. Moving Forward: An Evaluation of Climate Change Initiatives;
- III. International Assessment of Human Cloning.

The background guide will provide you with a foundation for your research. However, it is by no means exhaustive of the information available to you for each topic. I should remind you that thorough preparation of each topic is expected from every delegate in order to ensure the success of our committee. This background guide will provide an initial step in your research, but you will need to do research beyond the material presented in this background guide.

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 by October 23, 11:59pm EST to the SRMUN website. Instructions for uploading your position paper can be found on the SRMUN website.**

Erica and I wish you the best as you prepare for the 2009 SRMUN Conference.

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Committee History for General Assembly Plenary

Established by the Charter of the United Nations on 26 June 1945, and made effective 24 October 1945, the General Assembly (GA) stands as one of the six main organs of the United Nations.¹ The GA works through the plenary committee as well as six main committees: The Disarmament and International Security Committee (First Committee) is concerned with disarmament and related international security questions; The Economic and Financial Committee (Second Committee) is concerned with economic questions; The Social, Humanitarian and Cultural Committee (Third Committee) deals with social and humanitarian issues; The Special Political and Decolonization Committee (Fourth Committee) deals with a variety of political subjects not dealt with by the First Committee, as well as with decolonization; The Administrative and Budgetary Committee (Fifth Committee) deals with the administration and budget of the United Nations; and The Legal Committee (Sixth Committee) deals with international legal matters.²

After the destruction and chaos of World War II, it became clear to the nations of the world that diplomacy and compromise must be utilized to create the United Nations. What the League of Nations lacked in cohesiveness, representation, power, and legitimacy, the United Nations strived to overcome through the creation of the GA. According to Chapter II Article four of the Charter of the United Nations, the admission of any State for membership in the UN is decided by vote of the GA.³

It possesses an essential position as the “chief deliberative, policymaking and representative organ of the United Nations.”⁴ This body sets the standards and procedures of the United Nations as a whole as well as serves to set a formal legal code in international law. Most importantly, the General Assembly Plenary provides a unique forum for multilateral discussion of the full spectrum of international issues covered by the Charter.⁵ The General Assembly meets regularly every September; it suspends its work in late December and reconvenes as necessary in the following year. The session concludes in September on the day before the next session begins. The work of the GA is performed in the plenary and the six main committees.

The Charter of the UN designates five main responsibilities and jurisdictions to the GA: to maintain and promote international peace and security; to promote diplomatic and “friendly” relations among the member states; to assist in and provide solutions for international problems; to further advance the respect for human rights; and to serve as a center for harmonizing the actions of member states.⁶ Because the GA considers a wide array of issues, some agenda topics are deliberated in the six main committees before being brought to the Plenary for a vote. The topics debated in the Plenary, therefore, are inclined to be the most immediate and imperative questions on the agenda.⁷

As the primary committee of the United Nations, the GA’s resolutions are seen as landmark steps taken by the Member States. A few of the more noteworthy among them are resolutions 47/181, which provides the progress and status of the GA and noted as an Agenda for Development within the UN in 1993. Resolution 377 is also known as the “Uniting for Peace” Resolution, which states that, in the event that the UN Security Council is unable to maintain international peace, the issue can be taken up by the GA. The resolution was introduced by the United States in 1950 as a means of circumventing possible Soviet vetoes regarding the Korean War⁸. Resolution 34/180, also known as the Resolution on Women and Political Participation, is a US sponsored document that gave cause for

¹ United Nations, *Charter of the United Nations*, 24 October 1945. <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/3ae6b3930.html>

² Ibid.

³ Ibid.

⁴ “Functions and Powers of the General Assembly.” United Nations General Assembly 61st Session. <http://www.un.org/ga/about/background.shtml>

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ “General Assembly: Frequently Asked Questions.” The United Nations. www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/gafaq.htm

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ *Resolution 377 – Uniting for Peace*. United Nations General Assembly. November 3, 1950. <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/landmark/pdf/ares377e.pdf>

and set the standards for the roles of women in the political arena⁹. Resolution 47/180 created and developed the United Nations conference on human settlements.¹⁰ Resolution 47/181 officially divided Palestine and began the long journey of what is today the Israel/Palestine conflict.¹¹ Resolution 290 outlined the “Essentials for Peace,” which asked each nation to refrain from using hostile means in lieu of negotiation and to recognize the UN as a critical component of international cooperation.¹² Finally, resolution 34/180 officially condemned all forms of discrimination against women,¹³ and resolution 47/180 established the convention on genocide.¹⁴

In recent years, a special effort has been made to accomplish consensus on issues, rather than deciding by a prescribed vote, thereby increasing support for the Assembly’s decisions. The President, after having conferred with and reached agreement with delegations, can recommend that a resolution be approved without a vote.¹⁵ The majority of the work of the United Nations originates from the decisions of the GA. The decisions of the Assembly are implemented 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.¹⁶ Their work is also put into action by the Secretariat of the United Nations, the Secretary General, and his staff of international civil servants.¹⁷

Every Member State in the Assembly has one vote. Votes taken on crucial issues, such as recommendations on peace and security and the appointment of Security Council members, require a two-thirds majority of Member States, but other matters are decided by simple majority.¹⁸ The certified languages of the GA are Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish¹⁹. For every annual session, the GA elects a President and 21 Vice-Presidents, as well as Chairs for each of the six committees. This group, known as the General Committee, is chosen at a minimum, three months prior to the opening of the session and makes suggestions to the membership on the agenda.²⁰

The assembly has prompted political, economic, humanitarian, social and legal actions which have affected the lives of millions of people throughout the world. Examples include the landmark Millennium Declaration,²¹ adopted in 2000, and the 2005 World Summit Outcome Document²² which reflected the commitment of Member States to reach specific goals to achieve security, peace, and disarmament along with development and the abolition of poverty. These two initiatives also functioned to preserve human rights, support the rule of law, defend our common environment; and reinforce the United Nations.²³

All member states are represented in the General Assembly Plenary.

⁹ “UN General Assembly Adopts US-Sponsored Resolution on Women and Political Participation.”
<http://www.state.gov/g/wi/rls/rep/28497.htm>

¹⁰ “UN Documents Cooperation Circles.” The United Nations. <http://www.un-documents.net/a47r180.htm>

¹¹ Resolution 47/181. *Resolution Adopted on the Report of the Ad Hoc Committee on the Palestinian Question*. United Nations General Assembly. November 29, 1947. <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/2/ares2.htm>

¹² Resolution 49/290. *Essentials of Peace*. United Nations General Assembly. December 1, 1949.

¹³ A/RES/34/180. *Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women*. United Nations General Assembly. December 18, 1979.

¹⁴ Resolution 47/180. *Draft Convention on Genocide*. United Nations General Assembly. November 21, 1947.

¹⁵ “Functions and Powers of the General Assembly.” United Nations General Assembly 61st Session.
<http://www.un.org/ga/61/background/background.shtml>

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ “The Search for Consensus.” United Nations General Assembly 61st Session.
<http://www.un.org/ga/about/background.shtml>

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ *United Nations Millennium Declaration*. United Nations General Assembly. September 18, 2000.

²² *2005 World Summit Outcome*. United Nations General Assembly. October 24, 2005.

²³ “Functions and Powers of the General Assembly.” United Nations General Assembly 61st Session.
<http://www.un.org/ga/61/background/background.shtml>

I: Democratization of the United Nations Structure (DOTUNS)

“Every day we are reminded of the need for a strengthened United Nations, as we face a growing array of new challenges, including humanitarian crises, human rights violations, armed conflicts and important health and environmental concerns. Seldom has the United Nations been called upon to do so much for so many. I am determined to breathe new life and inject renewed confidence into a strengthened United Nations firmly anchored in the twenty-first century, and which is effective, efficient, coherent and accountable..”

-Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon²⁴

Introduction

Since the creation of the United Nations in 1946, the work of the General Assembly Plenary has been met with critiques and criticism. Even the UN predecessor, the League of Nations, was daunted with intense scrutiny and judgment, a curse that some argue eventually led to its demise. No great organization has remained successful and necessary without its share of improvements and changes. In January 2008, United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon outlined his 2008 agenda at a town hall forum at the UN headquarters in New York. He cited “peacekeeping, pre-emptive diplomacy, climate change and improving the lot of poor countries” as various priorities.²⁵ He emphasized that in order to meet these challenges; reform in the internal working of the UN was needed. Specifically, the UN must focus its resources to ensure that there is “better governance, performance, accountability and transparency.”²⁶

History of United Nations Reform Efforts

Upon his acceptance speech after being elected to the post of Secretary-General, Kofi Annan outlined an ambitious agenda which included making the UN “more efficient, more effective, more responsive to the wishes and needs of its Members and more realistic in its goals and commitments.”²⁷ In late January 2007, after taking office, the UN was grouped into four thematic areas: peace and security, economic and social affairs, humanitarian affairs, and development.²⁸

In March 1997, the Secretary-General announced track one of his organizational reform program. Many of these reforms involved actions that the Secretariat was able to make on its own without direct approval of the General Assembly.²⁹ This “track one” plan focused on “administrative, budgetary, managerial, and personnel” changes that would improve efficiency of the Secretariat and the UN as a whole.³⁰ Specifically, three departments were merged into one Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA). Additionally, the Secretary-General set out a goal to decrease operating costs from 38 percent of the UN budget to 25 percent.³¹

²⁴GA/1063. *General Assembly Concludes High-Level Dialogue On Interreligious Understanding*. United Nations General Assembly Plenary. 8 October 2007.

²⁵ “Secretary-General Lays Out Challenging UN Agenda for 2008.” United Nations. January 4, 2008. <http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=25214&Cr=algiers&Cr1=staff&Kw1=Secretary-General+&Kw2=&Kw3=>

²⁶ Ibid.

²⁷ “Reform At The United Nations.” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/reform/chronology.shtml#1996>

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ “History of the Department of State During the Clinton Presidency (1993-2001).” U.S. Department of State. <http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/pubs/8522.htm>

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Ibid.

On 14 July 1997, the Secretary-General released his report “Renewing the United Nations: A Programme for Reform.”³² This two-part report focused on management structure changes and a detailed agenda of recommendations that the General Assembly could undertake. Two days later, the Secretary-General presented “track two” of reforms in an address to the General Assembly. This plan included establishing a senior management group that would serve as his cabinet, consolidating the work of the UN to curb crimes, drugs and terrorism into the Office of Drug Control and Crime Prevention³³, and proposing a “Millennium Assembly” in 2000 to discuss the role of the UN in the 21st century.³⁴

In September 1997, all of the UN human rights efforts and programs were unified under the auspices of the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNCHR).³⁵ On 12 November 1997, Resolution 52/12 unanimously passed in the General Assembly, endorsing both the Secretary-General’s “track one” and “track two” reforms.³⁶ During the General Assembly meeting on 19 December 2007, Resolution A/52/12B, was passed, which created a new position, Deputy Secretary-General, established a “development account,” which would be funded through budgeting reviews and operational cost cutting and gave the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) responsibility (Taylor & Groom, 2000) for action for instances of natural disaster.³⁷

1997: Reviewing the United Nations: A Programme for Reform

Upon taking office in January 1997, UN Secretary General Kofi Annan began an extensive assessment of the UN which served as the foundation for the Report of the Secretary General, A/51/950, *Renewing The United Nations: A Programme For Reform*.³⁸ The report included themes for the United Nations as a whole. The first related to those reforms that the Secretariat could undertake to improve the “organization and management” of the UN. The Secretary-General called for the establishment of both a Deputy Secretary-General and a Senior Management Group. The Deputy Secretary-General position now assists in managing the Secretariat and ensuring that different UN bodies and agencies are working in concert with one another to achieve broader economic and social goals.

The Senior Management Group (SMG) of the UN serves as the Secretary-General’s cabinet and the “central policy planning body of the UN.”³⁹ The SMG is comprised of the heads of a wide range UN’s agencies, bodies and departments. Specifically, the SMG has improved efficiency of the UN by enabling these senior officials of the UN to “plan together, share information, pool efforts, coordinate activities, avoid duplication, and work for common objectives.”⁴⁰ Additionally, the Secretary-General called for the creation of a strategic planning unit. This unit would support the Secretary-General in the management of the United Nations through identifying those international issues that need greater focus, implementing a system to address these, and proposing policy recommendations to the Secretary-General and the Senior Management Group.⁴¹

The second area involved work that could only be changed through Member States, but more specifically, the General Assembly. The report emphasizes that the General Assembly is the UN body that represents the full spirit and breadth of the organization. The “overall policy framework” emanates from its debate and work. The efforts of the Secretary-General and that of the General Assembly should complement one another to further the mission,

³² “Reform At The United Nations.” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/reform/chronology.shtml#1997>

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ “United Nations Millennium Assembly Website.” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/millennium/>

³⁵ “Reform At The United Nations.” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/reform/chronology.shtml#1997>

³⁶ “History of the Department of State During the Clinton Presidency (1993-2001).” U.S. Department of State. <http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/pubs/8522.htm>

³⁷ Taylor, P., & Groom, A. R. (2000). *The United Nations at the Millennium: The Principal Organs*. London and New York: Continuum.

³⁸ A/51/950. *Renewing The United Nations: A Programme For Reform*. United Nations General Assembly. July 14, 1997.

³⁹ “Senior Management Group.” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/News/ossg/sg/pages/seniorstaff.asp>

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ A/51/950. *Renewing The United Nations: A Programme For Reform*. United Nations General Assembly. July 14, 1997.

goals, and results of the UN. The report underlines steps that would create an environment for this to be achieved. First, focusing legislative debates on specific areas of importance would improve efficiency. Furthermore, advanced planning of a major issue to be the focus of a high-level debate would also be helpful. An example would be to plan two years in advance that “international financing for development” would be the focus of a one-week segment.⁴²

An additional step would include streamlining the agenda of the General Assembly and other UN bodies.⁴³ The report recommended that an in-depth review of the General Assembly agenda would allow the Secretariat to pool all its resources to those goals that are of the highest priority. At the time, items were placed on the agenda that were either no longer a high-priority matter or the circumstances of the situation had changed.⁴⁴ An additional recommendation included setting sunset provisions. These provisions that would require a specific time limit for any newly created organizations or budget commitments. This would allow for the General Assembly to review the effectiveness of their actions and in turn decide whether to renew these decisions or organizations.⁴⁵

2000 Millennium Summit

In December 1998, the General Assembly adopted Resolution 53/202 which called for the creation of a Millennium Summit that would discuss strengthening the United Nations, its structure, and its work program. On 15 March 2000, the General Assembly adopted the theme, “The Role of the United Nations in the twenty-first century” for the Millennium Summit and agreed for it to be held in September 2000. It was further decided that the Millennium Summit would be composed of plenary sessions and four roundtable discussions.

The Millennium Summit was held at UN headquarters in New York from 6-8 September 2000. The roundtable discussions were designed to “allow for more informal and open discussion” during the Millennium Summit.⁴⁶ These types of roundtable discussions, which included heads of State and government officials, had not been part of the agenda of prior conferences. To allow for a more frank conversation between these officials, these sessions were closed to the media and to the public.⁴⁷ A few of the roundtable sessions focused on a wide array of issues, including globalization and how the UN could be an asset to developing nations to ensure that they each had a plan for capacity-building that would allow them to compete in a global marketplace.⁴⁸ The first of these roundtable sessions centered on the need to “transform the United Nations.”⁴⁹ President Hugo Chavez Frias of Venezuela, as chair of the 3rd roundtable noted, “One could not navigate in the twenty-first century with a map from the Second World War. The transformation would have social, economic and political implications.”⁵⁰ Although Security Council reform was not discussed directly during the session, it was the general sentiment of many of the Member States that attended the 3rd roundtable that the Security Council should be reformed to be more democratic.⁵¹

The Millennium Summit agenda focused on a wide array of issues that were included in the adoption of the United Nations Millennium Declaration at the conclusion of the summit. Specifically, Member States made commitments on improving global poverty rates, reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and other diseases, counter global warming and promoting human rights.⁵² Additionally however, a major section of the Millennium Declaration was focused on strengthening the United Nations. Specific areas of reform that the General Assembly resolved to explore included

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ Ibid.

⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁶ “Millennium Summit First Roundtable Press Conference Chaired By Prime Minister Of Singapore.” United Nations. September 6, 2000. <http://www.un.org/News/briefings/docs/2000/20000906.choktong.brf.doc.html>

⁴⁷ Ibid.

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ “Third Millennium Summit Roundtable Press Conference Chaired By President of Venezuela.” United Nations. 8 September 2000. <http://www.un.org/News/briefings/docs/2000/20000908.chavezpc.doc.html>

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ Ibid.

⁵² *United Nations Millennium Declaration*. United Nations General Assembly. September 8, 2000.

intensifying efforts to “achieve a comprehensive reform of the Security Council” and to strengthen the International Court of Justice.⁵³ Additionally, it was agreed that the Economic and Social Council, given its success, should be supported to fulfill its mission. A further area of reform included greater policy coherence between economic organizations such as the World Trade Organization, Bretton Woods Institutions and the United Nations to best address peace and development.⁵⁴

2003: Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges, and Change

In September 2003, Secretary-General Kofi Annan formed the High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change. This panel would be charged with “examining the major threats and challenges the world faces in the broad field of peace and security, including economic and social issues insofar as they relate to peace and security, and making recommendations for the elements of a collective response.”⁵⁵

General Assembly Reform

The panel put forward three specific recommendations for the General Assembly. The first emphasized the unique opportunity that the 2005 Millennium Review Summit would have in reforms. Specifically, the panel noted that they should use the Summit to “forge a new consensus on broader and more effective collective security.”⁵⁶ Secondly, reforms should be instituted that would allow the General Assembly to refocus on its history of being the primary “deliberative organ of the United Nations.”⁵⁷ The panel recommended that the agenda be shortened and more focused, including instituting smaller committees that would “sharpen resolutions” before being brought to the General Assembly.⁵⁸ The third recommendation was made in concert with the work of the Panel on Eminent Persons on United Nations-Civil Society Relations. Both panels highlighted the important relationship that civil society and the United Nations have in advancing peace and development. Both panels recommended that a system be put in place that would ensure more consistent and efficient engagement with civil society organizations.⁵⁹

Security Council Reform

The High-Level Panel prior to making recommendations for Security Council reform emphasized that there were a series of principles that should be met in any final reforms that were decided on. Article 23 of the Charter of the United Nations was highlighted as one guiding principle whereas it states:

*The General Assembly shall elect ten other Members of the United Nations to be non-permanent members of the Security Council, due regard being specially paid, in the first instance to the contribution of the Members of the United Nations to the maintenance of international peace and security and to the other purposes of the Organization, and also to equitable geographical distribution.*⁶⁰

Additionally within the criterion of contributions among developed nations, the 0.7 percent gross national product for official development assistance (ODA) was noted to be essential. Other principles for reform include allowing

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Ibid.

⁵⁵ SG/A/857. *Secretary-General Names High-Level Panel To Study Global Security Threats, And Recommend Necessary Changes*. The United Nations. April 11, 2003.

⁵⁶ Annex I. *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. Secretary-General's High-Level Panel On Threats, Challenges, and Change. 2004.

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Ibid.

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ Article 23. *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

for greater representation of the developing world, enacted reforms not hindering the effectiveness of the Security Council and ultimately, increasing the “democratic and accountable nature of the body.”⁶¹

The High-Level Panel proposed two alternative models for Security Council representation known as “Model A” and “Model B,” with the hopes of enacting some substantive change in the make-up of this body. Both of these models distribute seats based upon four geographical areas: “Africa, Asia and Pacific, Europe, and Americas.”⁶²

Model A proposes that there be six new permanent seats, whereas Africa would receive two new seats, Asia and Pacific would receive two new seats and Europe and the Americas would each receive one additional seat.⁶³ Additionally, three new two-year non-permanent seats would also be allocated so that ultimately, each of the four geographical areas would have six seats for a total of 24 seats in the Security Council.

Model B proposes that there be no additional permanent seats in the Security Council. However, Model B proposes that there be a new category instituted that would include eight seats that would each have a four-year term. Additionally, there would be one new two-year non-permanent and non-renewable seat.⁶⁴

Regardless of model, the panel did not recommend any change or increase to the veto power.⁶⁵ The panel noted that the veto power served a role in ensuring that the interests of the most powerful members were protected. However, they did express their concern that the veto power may be unsuitable in a democratic body such as the Security Council. Further, the panel urged those Members with veto power to withhold using such power when issues of “genocide and large-scale human rights abuses” were at stake.⁶⁶ Finally in regards to the composition of the Security Council, the panel held the firm stance that a review of the Security Council and the contribution of both permanent and non-permanent Members should be conducted in 2020.⁶⁷

Aside from composition reform of the Security Council, internal procedures were also considered. The panel recommended that that a system of “indicative voting” be implemented. Through this system, any member of the Security Council could ask for a public indication of where each Member stood on a particular resolution or aspect of debate. This vote would have no legal force or veto abilities. It would solely be used to improve accountability of the veto power by learning where Members stand at any given moment.⁶⁸ Additionally, the panel noted that there were delegations within the Security Council that did not have the professional military capacity to have a thorough understanding of the effects of their vote. As a result, the panel recommended that the “Secretary-General’s Military Adviser and the members of his staff be available on demand by the Security Council to offer technical and professional advice on military options.”⁶⁹

Economic and Social Council Reforms

The panel held a realistic assessment of the current status of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) within the world and the UN: “Decision-making on international economic matters, particularly in the areas of finance and trade, has long left the United Nations and no amount of institutional reform will bring it back.”⁷⁰ Further, the UN charter allows for the establishment of specialized bodies that work independently of ECOSOC. As a result, ECOSOC does not yield an all-encompassing authority on all matters related to economical and social development. It would not be realistic for the panel to push the vision of ECOSOC to become “the centre of the world’s decision-

⁶¹ Part 4: XIV – The Security Council. *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. Secretary-General's High-Level Panel On Threats, Challenges, and Change. 2004.

⁶² Ibid.

⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

making on matters of trade and finance.”⁷¹ Despite these obstacles, the panel did emphasize the value the United Nations does bring to this area. The UN is the only body that can bring all nations together and build consensus on matters of peace, security, and development.⁷²

The panel noted that there were three specific strategies that ECOSOC could utilize to improve their significance within the UN and on various international affairs.⁷³ First, ECOSOC should consider creating a Committee on the Social and Economic Aspects of Security Threats.⁷⁴ This new committee would research the “economic and social aspects to peace, and about the economic and social aspects of other threats, such as terrorism and organized crime.”⁷⁵ Secondly ECOSOC could provide a forum for Member States to openly and transparently discuss how they are meeting development goals that the UN has put forward, including the Millennium Development Goals. Lastly, ECO-SOC should change the environment of discussion from its current coordinating role to a “development cooperation forum” where its agenda focuses on the commitments made in the Millennium Declaration and using its relationship with Bretton Woods Institutions to foster a great commitment to development goals.⁷⁶

United Nations Charter Reform

There has not been an undertaking by the United Nations to make a series of changes in its charter that would reflect a new age of international affairs.⁷⁷ Specifically, Articles 53 and 107 of the UN Charter make referrals to enemy states⁷⁸ and to those opposed to the UN after the Second World War.⁷⁹ Chapter 13 of the UN Charter is based on the Trusteeship System which assisted those Member States that were no longer considered colonized but recognized as independent states. Given that we are now in an era where decolonization is no longer an issue, the panel recommends the abolishment of the Trusteeship Council.⁸⁰ Additionally, Article 47 of the United Nations Charter includes reference to the Military Staff Committee which is composed of the Chiefs of Staff of the permanent representatives of the Security Council.⁸¹ The panel believes that this committee was useful in the formation of the UN in 1945, however, no longer serves any tangible purpose in the modern era of the UN.⁸²

In May 2004, the United Nations General Assembly passed Resolution 58/291 which established a high-level plenary meeting of the General Assembly Plenary that would conduct a five-year review of the progress of the UN Millennium Declaration.⁸³ In January 2005, the UN General Assembly agreed that the 2005 World Summit would have six plenary meetings, including “two meetings a day and four interactive roundtable sessions...”⁸⁴

The 2005 World Summit was held from 14-16 September 2005 at the UN headquarters in New York. There was a wide breadth of discussion and decisions taken on many issues including human rights, the environment, international health, humanitarian assistance, development and terrorism.⁸⁵ There were a series of decisions made on

⁷¹ Part 4: XVII – The Economic and Social Council. *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. Secretary-General's High-Level Panel On Threats, Challenges, and Change. 2004.

⁷² Ibid.

⁷³ Ibid.

⁷⁴ Ibid.

⁷⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Part 4: XX – The Charter of the United Nations. *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. Secretary-General's High-Level Panel On Threats, Challenges, and Change. 2004.

⁷⁸ Article 53 and Article 107. *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ Part 4: XX – The Charter of the United Nations. *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. Secretary-General's High-Level Panel On Threats, Challenges, and Change. 2004.

⁸¹ Article 47. *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

⁸² Part 4: XX – The Charter of the United Nations. *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. Secretary-General's High-Level Panel On Threats, Challenges, and Change. 2004.

⁸³ A/RES/58/291. *Follow-up to the outcome of the Millennium Summit*. United Nations General Assembly. 17 May 2004.

⁸⁴ A/RES/59/165. *Modalities, format and organization of the High-Level Plenary Meeting of the sixtieth session of the General Assembly*. The United Nations General Assembly. January 13, 2005.

⁸⁵ “2005 World Summit Outcome Fact Sheet.” The United Nations. http://www.un.org/summit2005/presskit/fact_sheet.pdf

both management and UN charter reform.⁸⁶ Specifically, it was agreed that the Office of Internal Oversight Services would be strengthened and that an independent oversight advisory committee would be created. Additionally, a new ethics office would also be developed.⁸⁷ The General Assembly also decided to update the UN Charter, based on the recommendations of the Secretary-General's High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges, and Change. Specifically, the General Assembly agreed to "wind(ing) up the Trusteeship Council, marking completion of (the) UN's historic decolonisation role" and "deleting anachronistic references to 'enemy states' in the Charter."⁸⁸

2006: Delivering as One: High-Level Panel on UN System-Wide Coherence

In February 2006, Secretary-General Kofi Annan formed a High-level panel that was charged with creating a report on how the UN could "work more coherently and effectively across the world in the areas of development, humanitarian assistance, and the environment."⁸⁹ After visiting more than a dozen cities and meeting directly with UN leaders, heads of state, international financial institutions, regional leaders, and civil society, the High-Level Panel issued its outcome document in November 2006.⁹⁰

The outcome document focused on a series of strategic directions. First, there should be "coherence and consolidation of UN activities."⁹¹ Secondly, there should be a connection between performance/results and funding. Third, a new set of business practices must be implemented that focuses on results "measured against the Millennium Development Goals."⁹² Additionally, consolidation of UN bodies, agencies, committees, and personnel should be considered to deliver the proposed "One UN" program. Lastly, implementation of the proposed changes should be taken as soon as possible but should be properly planned out.⁹³

The panel recommended a new program called, "One UN" to be implemented on a Member State level. This plan would have "one leader, one program, one budget and, where appropriate, one office."⁹⁴ The report notes that a third of all UN programs have more than ten agencies involved. The One UN program would consolidate all of the UN's work at the Member-State level and contain "a single budgetary framework."⁹⁵

Conclusion

The United Nations is the only body that brings nations together in the same room to address the innate global challenges of peace, security, and development. Despite its lofty, visionary mission, the UN has been plagued with obstacles from whether it is being managed or structured correctly to whether it has produced tangible results and accomplishments. There are criticisms that the "UN's work on development and environment is often fragmented and weak."⁹⁶ Additionally, the Secretary-General's High-Level Panel criticized that:

Inefficient and ineffective governance and unpredictable funding have contributed to policy incoherence, duplication and operational ineffectiveness across the system. Cooperation between organizations has been hindered by

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ "Summary of High-Level Panel Consultations." The United Nations. <http://www.un.org/events/panel/html/page3.html>

⁹⁰ Ibid.

⁹¹ Executive Summary. *Delivering As One. Secretary-General's High-Level Panel*. The United Nations. November 9, 2006.

⁹² Ibid.

⁹³ Ibid.

⁹⁴ Ibid.

⁹⁵ Ibid.

⁹⁶

*competition for funding, mission creep and by outdated business practices.*⁹⁷

Despite the fact that many of the reforms that have been proposed over the past 15 years have either been delayed, or not discussed, there have been a series of successes. Most recently, the One UN program that was recommended by the High-Level Panel on UN System-Wide coherence has begun as a pilot project. Additionally, reform proposals of the Secretary-General's High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges, and Change has produced a track for changes to the UN Charter.

Committee Directive

Since 1996, the United Nations led by its Secretariat has put forward a series of studies and plans on how to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the UN and its bodies. However, the topic of UN reform is considered to be challenging, complex, political, and difficult to comprehend and as a result, many efforts have been stymied. In order for your discussions and debates to be fruitful, delegates expected to be fully-prepared. Delegates should use the background guide primarily as a reference and not an all-encompassing review of UN reform. Delegates should be well-versed on each of the major reports the Secretariat has put together as well as your Member States' position on specific proposals.

It is essential to note that in the same way UN panels and reports have emphasized an organized approach to reform, it is as important that delegates establish a structure way to debate this issue. Delegates should be prepared to discuss UN reform as three tracks: The first track would involve structural changes such as the composition of the Security Council or the length of the General Assembly agenda. The second track would propose more substantive changes. For example, some Member States may want to implement some of the donor funding schemes or programs suggested by the High-Level Panel on UN System-Wide Coherence. The third tracks would focus on those reform efforts that have already been implemented and whether they should remain permanent. An example could include the "One UN" program that is currently in a pilot phase. If your nation is involved in the pilot, you should be prepared to discuss how this reform has effected your nation. Are there structural or substantive changes that can be made to this program to make it better?

Before the conference, delegates should be prepared to answer the following questions: What has been your Member States' history on the issue of reform? Do they support structural changes to the Security Council or to other UN bodies? Do the proposed structural changes have a positive or adverse impact on your role within the UN? Given the highly political nature of the topic, what will your member state do to build consensus on divisive proposals? What are the top issues effecting your nation? How has the UN addressed these concerns for your Member State? Has the UN been efficient and effective on implementing plans that would assist your nation? If not, what substantive reforms should be made that would be helpful?

Topic II: Moving Forward: an Evaluation of Climate Change Initiatives

"We will not solve this problem if we do not each take our share of the responsibility for tackling it. Nobody can protect themselves from climate change unless we protect each other by building a global basis for climate security. To put it starkly, if we all try to free ride, we will all end up in free fall, with accelerating climate change the result of our collective failure to respond in time to this shared threat."

*-Margaret Becket Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*⁹⁸

⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ "Quotes on Climate Change." United Nations Environment Programme
http://www.unep.org/wed/2007/english/Information_Material/PDF/Quotes_Climate_Change.pdf

Introduction:

Within the last five years, diplomatic discussions on climate change have intensified as a result of its increased adverse impacts on social and economic development. As noted by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), climate change is closely linked to development as climate is a resource in itself, and affects the productivity of other critical resources, such as crops and livestock, forests, fisheries and water resources.⁹⁹ In 2008, a World Bank study showed that rainwater fed-farms in Africa, on average, lost 25 percent of their monthly income due to increased temperatures.¹⁰⁰ Also in 2008, over 200 million people worldwide were displaced due to severe droughts and floods caused by weather related events.¹⁰¹ Further, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that the number of deaths from malnutrition (much of which is caused by periodic droughts) to double by 2010.¹⁰² Given such impacts, there has been increased pressure on policy-makers at both the domestic and international level to develop and implement viable solutions to mitigate the adverse impacts of climate change on social and economic development.

Overview of the Kyoto Protocol

The first major international strategy to address climate change was taken in 1997 with the adoption of the Kyoto Protocol—an agreement made under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).¹⁰³ Essentially the Protocol is an international environmental treaty with the goal of achieving “stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system.”¹⁰⁴ The Kyoto Protocol establishes legally binding commitments for the reduction of greenhouse gases.¹⁰⁵ While individual country commitments vary, the protocol calls for reductions of aggregate developed country emissions by 5 percent below 1990 levels.¹⁰⁶ The protocol divides the world into two groups--- industrialized, or “Annex I” countries which committed to greenhouse gas emission limits, and developing or “non-Annex I” countries with no binding limits.¹⁰⁷ The Annex I group consists of 39 industrialized nations and economies in transition, including the United States, the European Union, Canada, Japan, the Czech Republic, and Russia.¹⁰⁸

Under the Protocol, emission reductions must be accomplished within the commitment period of 2008-2012, which provides increased timing flexibility.¹⁰⁹ For example, Japan’s average yearly greenhouse gas emissions for 2008-2012 must be 6 percent below what they were in 1990.¹¹⁰ Emissions may be above the 6 percent reduction in any given year during the commitment period, but the average must be compensated in later years.¹¹¹

⁹⁹ “Climate Change and Economic Development.” United Nations Environment Programme

http://www.unep.org/pdf/ourplanet/op_english_17v2.pdf

¹⁰⁰ “Africa Re-engages in Agricultural Water Development.” The World Bank.

<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/WBI/WBIPROGRAMS/RPDLPROGRAM/0,,contentMDK:21294278~pagePK:64156158~piPK:64152884~theSitePK:459597.00.html>

¹⁰¹ “Climate Change and Economic Development.” United Nations Environment Programme

http://www.unep.org/pdf/ourplanet/op_english_17v2.pdf

¹⁰² “Impacts of Climate Change on Human Health: Statement by WHO Director-General” The World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/news/statements/2008/s05/en/index.html>

¹⁰³ “Essential Background: Kyoto Protocol.” The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.” http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/items/2830.php

¹⁰⁴ Ibid.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

¹¹⁰ “Efforts Toward Achieving Kyoto Protocol Commitments.” World Forum Institute for International Studies.

http://www.iist.or.jp/wf/magazine/0337/0337_E.html

¹¹¹ “Essential Background: Kyoto Protocol.” The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.

http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/items/2830.php

In addition to defining the emission reductions / limitations for Annex I countries, the Protocol provides three mechanisms by which these countries can use to meet their targets: emissions trading; clean development mechanisms (CDMs); and Joint Implementation.¹¹²

Emissions trading

One of the most unique elements by which developed countries could achieve their targets is through emissions trading. Article 17 of the Protocol provides for a “cap and trade” system which imposes national caps on the emissions of developed countries and allows countries to sell excess emission units to countries that are over their targets.¹¹³ Basically, highly polluting countries can buy unused credits from those countries which are allowed to emit more than they actually do.

Emission caps were agreed by each participating country, with the intention of reducing their overall emissions by 5.2% of their 1990 levels by the end of 2012.¹¹⁴ Although these caps are national level commitments, countries devolve their emissions targets to individual industrial entities, such as a power plant or paper factory.¹¹⁵ These entities are issued emission permits and are required to hold an equivalent number of allowances or credits which represent the right to emit a specific amount. The total amount of allowances and credits cannot exceed the cap, thus limiting total emissions to that level. Under the treaty, for the 5-year compliance period from 2008 until 2012, countries that emit less than their quota will be able to sell emission credits to countries that exceed their quota.¹¹⁶

From the perspective of developed countries, emissions trading is the most feasible and equitable option.¹¹⁷ In effect, the buyer is paying a charge for polluting, while the seller is being rewarded for having reduced emissions by more than was needed.¹¹⁸ Thus, those countries that can easily reduce emissions most cheaply will do so, achieving the pollution reduction at the lowest possible cost.

Currently, the European Union Emissions Trading Scheme (EUETS) is largest emissions trading program developed under the Protocol.¹¹⁹ In December 2002, the European Union (EU) instituted its emissions trading system in an effort to meet commitments set forth in the Protocol.¹²⁰ The EU set quotas in six key sectors: energy, steel, cement, glass, brick making, and paper manufacturing with the goal of reducing emissions in each sector by 4 percent to meet its overall target of 6 percent.¹²¹ Essentially, the program caps the amount of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas pollutants that can be emitted from these sectors.¹²² The first phase of the program was a pilot and only allowed participants to trade amongst themselves.¹²³ According to some critics, this did little to reduce carbon emissions in the EU although the critics recognized that the first phase helped to establish a strong carbon market within the EU which was essential to being able to trade with other countries.¹²⁴ Phase II of the EUETS began in late 2008 and links the trading system to other countries participating in the Kyoto program.¹²⁵

¹¹² Ibid.

¹¹³ “Emissions Trading.” The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.
http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/mechanisms/emissions_trading/items/2731.php

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

¹¹⁷ “Kyoto Protocol Overview.” World Resource Institute. <http://www.wri.org/publication/content/8622>

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

¹¹⁹ “Essential Background: Kyoto Protocol.” The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.
http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/items/2830.php

¹²⁰ “Introduction: European Union Emissions Trading Scheme.” European Union Ministry of the Environment.
http://ec.europa.eu/environment/climat/emission/index_en.htm

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² Ibid.

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ “Beginners Guide to the EU Emissions Trading Scheme.” Climate Action Network EUROPA.

Clean Development Mechanisms

The second means by which developed countries can reduce its emissions under the Protocol is through clean development mechanisms (CDMs). CDMs allow developed countries with a greenhouse gas reduction commitment to invest in projects that reduce emissions in developing countries as an alternative to more expensive emission reductions within their own countries.¹²⁶ A crucial feature of an approved CDM project is that it has established that the planned reductions would not occur without the additional incentive provided by emission reductions credits, a concept known as "additionality".¹²⁷ The CDM allows net global greenhouse gas emissions to be reduced at a much lower global cost by financing emissions reduction projects in developing countries where costs are lower than in industrialized countries.¹²⁸

A developed country that wishes to get credits from a CDM project must obtain the consent of the developing country hosting the project that the project will contribute to sustainable development.¹²⁹ Then, using methodologies approved by the CDM Executive Board (EB), the applicant (the developed country) must make the case that the project would not have happened anyway.¹³⁰ Also, the project must establish a baseline estimating the future emissions in absence of the registered project. Once these conditions are met, the case is then validated by a third party agency, called a Designated Operational Entity (DOE), to ensure the project results in real, measurable, and long-term emission reductions. The EB then decides whether or not to approve the project.¹³¹ If a project is registered and implemented, the EB issues credits, called certified emissions reductions (CERs), commonly known as carbon credits, where each unit is equivalent to the reduction of one metric ton of carbon to project participants on the monitored difference between the baseline and the actual emissions, verified by DOE.¹³²

As of July 2009, 1736 projects have been registered by the CDM Executive Board as CDM projects.¹³³ Combined, these projects are expected to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by an estimated 200 million tons.¹³⁴ In addition, the CDM Executive Board reports that there are 4,000 other projects that are in process of being certified and that these projects would reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 2.5 billion tons by 2012.¹³⁵

Joint Implementation

The third flexible means by which developed countries can reduce its emissions under the Protocol is through joint implementation (JI). Under Article 6, any developed country can invest in emission reduction projects (referred to as "joint implementation projects") in any other Annex I country as an alternative to reducing emissions domestically.¹³⁶ In this way, countries can lower the costs of complying with their Kyoto commitments targets by

<http://www.climnet.org/EUenergy/ET.html>

¹²⁵ "Introduction: European Union Emissions Trading Scheme." European Union Ministry of the Environment.

http://ec.europa.eu/environment/climat/emission/index_en.htm

¹²⁶ "Clean Development Mechanisms." The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change."

http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/mechanisms/clean_development_mechanism/items/2718.php

¹²⁷ Ibid.

¹²⁸ Ibid.

¹²⁹ Ibid.

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ Ibid.

¹³² Ibid.

¹³³ "CDM Project Activities." The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change."

<http://cdm.unfccc.int/Projects/registered.html>

¹³⁴ Ibid.

¹³⁵ Ibid.

¹³⁶ "Joint Implementation." United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/mechanisms/joint_implementation/items/1674.php

investing in greenhouse gas reductions in an Annex I country where reductions are cheaper, and then applying the credit for those reductions toward their commitment goal.¹³⁷

A joint implementation project might involve, for example, replacing a coal-fired power plant with a more efficient combined heat and power plant.¹³⁸ Most joint implementation projects are expected to take place in transition economies noted in Annex B of the Protocol.¹³⁹ Currently, Russia and the Ukraine are slated to host the greatest number of joint implementation projects.¹⁴⁰

Nairobi Work Programme

In addition to the Kyoto Protocol, The Nairobi Work Programme (NWP) is authorized by the Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA).¹⁴¹ The SBSTA's mission is to assist the UNFCCC Conference of Parties (COP) with guidance on procedural, scientific and systematic matters. Two primary areas of effort are endorsing the transfer and expansion of ecologically aware technologies, and performing methodological assessment to develop the course of action for organizing national statements and emissions data. The SBSTA also performs practical work in explicit areas, for instance, the Land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) sector, Hydrofluorocarbons (HFC) and Perfluorocarbons (PFC), and susceptibility and adaptation.¹⁴² LULUCF is a greenhouse gas inventory sector that covers emissions and removals of greenhouse gases resulting from direct human-induced land use, land-use change and forestry activities.¹⁴³ Additionally, the SBSTA plays a significant function as the connection involving systematic data afforded by skilled sources of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), and the policy-oriented needs of the COP.¹⁴⁴

The five-year programme (2005-2010) aspires to assist all countries, develop their understanding and evaluations of the results of climate change, and to construct well-informed rulings on realistic adaptation actions to react to climate change on a solid systematic, socio-economic and procedural basis. It is a global structure employed by Parties, intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations (NGO), the private sector, communities and other stakeholders.¹⁴⁵

The NWP covers two thematic regions: 'Impacts and vulnerability' and 'Adaptation planning, measures and actions'.¹⁴⁶ Each of these contains a number of action-orientated sub-themes as follows: *Impacts and Vulnerability*, the NWP promotes an intensive review and assessment of all programs and best-practices. Specifically, this theme focuses on sharing reputable ways to conduct impact and vulnerability assessments (including how to conduct quicker reviews and bottom-up evaluations). It further centers on improving the "collection, management, exchange, access and use" of information that tracks climate trends. Additionally, this theme involves how climate change affects a region both socially and economically and how this information can improve these assessments. Finally, this theme reviews how this data can be understood better and explores the relationship between climate change and sustainable development.

¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ Ibid.

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid.

¹⁴¹ "Nairobi work programme" United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
<http://unfccc.int/adaptation/items/4159.php>

¹⁴² Ibid.

¹⁴³ "Glossary of Climate Change Initiatives" United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/essential_background/glossary/items/3666.php#L

¹⁴⁴ "Convention Bodies" United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/essential_background/convention/convention_bodies/items/2629.php

¹⁴⁵ "Adaptation" United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
<http://unfccc.int/adaptation/items/4159.php>

¹⁴⁶ "The Scope of the Nairobi work programme" United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/adaptation/sbsta_agenda_item_adaptation/items/3921.php

Adaptation planning, measures and actions, sponsoring the expansion and diffusion of techniques and means for evaluation and enhancement of adaptation preparation, procedures and dealings, and assimilation with sustainable progression. Accumulating short and long-term adaptation tactics, and assisting contact and collaboration amongst Parties and appropriate associations, trade, civilization and decision makers.¹⁴⁷

Nine Work Areas

The Programme's Nine Work Areas are essential to mounting the capability of countries to adjust.¹⁴⁸ They are as follows:

Methods and Tools

Methods and tools utilized for impact, susceptibility, and adjustment evaluation incorporated a series of in-depth applications ranging in the form of climate models and scenario building methods to methods for coastal zone vulnerability assessment.¹⁴⁹ Work in the area of methods and tools can add to efforts by parties and associations to apply and expand methodologies and instruments for impact, merge with sustainable development, and circulate present and budding methods and tools.¹⁵⁰

Data and Observations

Data and observations are useful not only for observing the climate scheme, but also for distinguishing climate change, appraising the impacts of climate changeability and for bearing research toward enhanced understanding and representation of the climate system. Information can be conducted on all features of the climate system with no limit to the compound, objective, and organic properties and marine, cryospheric atmospheric, global, and hydrologic courses.¹⁵¹ Work in the area of data and observations by parties and organizations have helped to center on issues connecting to impacts and susceptibility and improved the ability to provide and utilize the information, mainly at the local and nationwide stages; as well as running and utilizing observational statistics, and recognizing realistic ways of bolstering scientific ability.¹⁵²

Climate modeling, Scenarios and Downscaling

Climate models are founded on substantial ideologies and have been proven to replicate observed characteristics of the current climate and past climate adjustments. Atmosphere-Ocean General Circulation Models (AOGCMs) offer significant mathematical approximations of future climate change, predominantly at continental and larger scales.¹⁵³ Conversely, the utilization of AOGCMs is restricted in foretelling climate change at the local and sub-local level, since considerable disparities in climate happen at a level less than the resolution of the AOGCMs. But yet, given

¹⁴⁷ Ibid.

¹⁴⁸ "Nairobi work programme on impacts, vulnerability and adaptation to climate change", United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

http://unfccc.int/adaptation/sbsta_agenda_item_adaptation/items/3633.phpv

¹⁴⁹ "Methods and Tools", United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

http://unfccc.int/adaptation/nairobi_workprogramme/compendium_on_methods_tools/items/3922.php

¹⁵⁰ Ibid.

¹⁵¹ "Data and Observations", United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

http://unfccc.int/adaptation/sbsta_agenda_item_adaptation/items/3923.php

¹⁵² Ibid.

¹⁵³ Climate modeling, scenarios and downscaling, United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

http://unfccc.int/adaptation/sbsta_agenda_item_adaptation/items/3989.php

the boundaries and reservations connected with replication, global circulation models and local climate models can be effectively utilized to construct planned policy-making for adaptation.¹⁵⁴

Climate Related Risks and Severe Events

Climate related risks are produced by an array of exposures. It is widely recognized that climate change poses a threat to the sustainability of many regions. Prior experiences and examples of climate change show scientists and policy-makers how best to prepare and address future climate events. Efforts in the area of climate-related risks and severe occurrences can contribute to hard work by Parties and Associations to improve understanding of, and capability to comprehend existing and potential climate changeability, developments in long-standing climate change, and the amount and range of severe events and their impacts.¹⁵⁵

Socio-economic Information

Shifts in the socio-economic structure of societies continue to pose threats and disputes to many people. For instance, augmented population expansion may place more groups and assets at risk from concentration of excessive climate events. Conversely, monetary expansion and development may enhance the well being and the capability of an area to endure potential alterations.¹⁵⁶

Adaptation Planning and Practices

An area must prepare and settle on the best way to lessen its susceptibility to the impacts of climate change, and on how best adjustment practices can be employed. The numbers of plans that can be utilized to adjust to climate change are varied. The success of a plan tends to depend on locality and socio-economic situations, but it does not occlude practices from being communal, simulated or enhanced.¹⁵⁷

Implementing Adaptation

Implementing adaptation is extremely important to allow countries to counter the unpleasant effects of climate change.¹⁵⁸ Parties are deliberating ideas for employing adaptation, under the Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI). The SBI provides recommendations to the COP on all issues relating to the execution of the Convention. A significant duty is to observe the data in the nationwide relations and emission records provided by parties in order to evaluate the Convention's overall success. The SBI evaluates monetary support and supplies recommendations to the COP on guidance of the financial system. The SBI also counsels the COP on budget and organizational matters.¹⁵⁹ All parties are obligated to enforce the means needed concerning financial backing, to meet the precise needs and concerns of industrialized countries emerging from the complex effects of climate change and extraordinary circumstances of underdeveloped countries with consideration to financial support and transport of technology.¹⁶⁰

¹⁵⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵⁵ Ibid.

¹⁵⁶ "Socio-economic information", United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/adaptation/sbsta_agenda_item_adaptation/items/3990.php

¹⁵⁷ "Adaptation planning and practices", United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/adaptation/sbsta_agenda_item_adaptation/items/3991.php

¹⁵⁸ "Implementing adaptation", United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/adaptation/implementing_adaptation/items/2535.php

¹⁵⁹ "Convention Bodies", United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/essential_background/convention/convention_bodies/items/2629.php

¹⁶⁰ Ibid.

Nature Based Strategies

Nature-based adaptation strategies toughen the capability of people and communities to deal with climate change impacts and they add to the continuing feasibility of sustainable advancement endeavors.¹⁶¹ Shielding and refurbishing forests can lessen flood costs and mudslides from recurrent and severe storms while preserving accessibility to uncontaminated water, and food.¹⁶² Adjustment attempts currently have centered on infrastructural alterations, such as building up seawalls, repositioning communities or roads, and constructing river dams or conduits to manage flooding. Infrastructural changes to deal with climate change are usually very costly and can fall short under the intense results of climate change. Also, recovery attempts from natural catastrophes frequently result in enhanced infrastructure expansion that continues to debase natural structures.¹⁶³

Nature based adaptation strategies can supply many advantages to communities and the environment, including defenses from severe events, limited fatalities and diminished monetary losses from climate change. Global policy creators and international institutions should take into consideration these strategies to minimize the impacts of climate change through nature-based adaptation strategies.¹⁶⁴

Climate Change Technology Program

The most recent climate change initiative developed by an Annex I country is the Climate Change Technology Program (CCTP). CCTP is a U.S. based effort that supports the government in executing the United States President's National Climate Change Technology Initiative. The program is ran by the Department of Energy and structured around five technology areas in which working groups have been created.¹⁶⁵ The CCTP's goal is to attain a technical means that can supply copious, uncontaminated, protected, and inexpensive energy and related services required to promote and maintain economic development, while concurrently achieving significant decreases in emissions of greenhouse gases and mitigating the dangers of possible climate change.¹⁶⁶

Strategic Plan

The CCTP Strategic Plan offers planned direction and arranges about \$3 billion in federal spending for climate change-related technology explorations, expansion, exhibitions, and deployment required to lessen greenhouse gas emissions and expand economic development. The plan is structured around six corresponding strategic goals.¹⁶⁷ They are centered on developing technologies that will:

- i. *decrease emissions from energy end-use and infrastructure;*
- ii. *diminish emissions from energy supply*
- iii. *confine, accumulate and appropriate CO₂;*
- iv. *condense emissions of non-CO₂ GHGs;*
- v. *increase the measurement and observing of GHG emissions; and*
- vi. *toughen the assistance of fundamental science to climate change technology expansion.*¹⁶⁸

¹⁶¹ "Preparing for Climate Change Through Nature-Based Adaptation", The Nature Conservancy
<http://www.nature.org/initiatives/climatechange/features/art23292.html>

¹⁶² Ibid.

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ Ibid.

¹⁶⁵ "Climate Change Technology Program", U.S Environmental Protection Agency
<http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/policy/cctp.html>

¹⁶⁶ Ibid.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

¹⁶⁸ Ibid.

Integrated Policy and Programme Planning

Alleviation of global warming involves implementing ways to decrease greenhouse gas emissions and to increase sinks intended to reducing the degree of global warming.¹⁶⁹ The Stern Review classifies numerous ways of mitigating climate change. Included but not limited to decreasing demand for emissions-intensive produce and services, growing efficiency gains, and sinking non-fossil fuel emissions. The priority is the lessening of greenhouse gas emissions by reducing energy use and changing to cleaner energy sources.¹⁷⁰ The Stern Review also suggests steadying the concentration of greenhouse-gas emissions in the atmosphere at a cap of 550ppm CO₂e by 2050. The Review approximates that this would mean reducing total greenhouse-gas emissions to three quarters of 2007 levels. The Review suggests that the expenditures of these cuts would vary from -1.0 to +3.5% of GDP, with a typical approximation of about 1%. A method of approximating the cost of decreasing emissions is by allowing for the probable costs of scientific and output changes.¹⁷¹

Conclusion

Greenhouse gases are essential to life as they regulate the temperature of the earth's surface but as the concentrations of these gases continue increasing in the atmosphere, the Earth's temperature is expanding beyond precedent levels. According to NOAA and NASA data, the Earth's average surface temperature has amplified by 1.2 to 1.4°F in the most recent 100 years. The eight warmest years on record have been noted since 1998, with the warmest year in record being 2005. Most of the warming in recently is being contributed to human activities. Other characteristics of the climate such as rainfall patterns, snow and ice cover, and sea level are also changing.¹⁷² If our greenhouse gases continue to increase, climate models estimate that the middling temperature at the earth's surface could increase from 3.2 to 7.2°F above 1990 levels by the end of this century. Although scientists are absolute that anthropogenic activities are changing the elements of the atmosphere they are not sure by how much it will adjust, at what speed it will adjust, or what the precise effects will be.¹⁷³

The United States Federal government is conducting controlled and incentive-based programs to decrease emissions and has created a number of programs to support climate technology and science. State and local governments supply a considerable role in decreasing greenhouse emissions and greenhouse gas concentration. Scientists have detected that some changes are already occurring. Observed effects include sea level rise, depleting glaciers, variations in the range and allocation of plants and animals, trees developing earlier, and increase of growing seasons. Another vital issue being examined is how the planet will adapt to or manage climate change.¹⁷⁴ The United States Government is using a wide-range of energy technologies with the belief that this will lead to a decline in greenhouse gas emissions. With the founding of the CCTP the U.S. continues to be a leader in climate technology research and expansion.¹⁷⁵

Committee Directive

As the topic of climate change can be approached from many angles, it is very important that delegates come prepared with a particular matter to discuss to ensure not becoming caught up and confused by incorporating too many ideas into one presentation in which they confuse other delegates and themselves. The goal is to find a

¹⁶⁹ "IPCC Glossary Working Group III", Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
<http://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/glossary/ar4-wg3.pdf>

¹⁷⁰ Jonathon Porritt. "Living within our means: avoiding the ultimate recession".
March 2009. http://www.forumforthefuture.org/files/Living_within_our_means_sml.pdf

¹⁷¹ "Stern Review of the Economics of Climate Change", HP Treasury
http://hm-treasury.gov.uk/sternreview_index.htm

¹⁷² Ibid.

¹⁷³ Ibid.

¹⁷⁴ Ibid

¹⁷⁵ Ibid

particular matter to speak on and expand on the topic rather than explaining various snippets and opinions about the issue from many different aspects to form a substantial argument. Remember quality, not quantity. Delegates should become knowledgeable about the basic concepts of climate change, methods for adaptability, and how they relate best to various countries. A variety of thoughts and proposals have been provided in order to find a considerable way of dealing with this topic, think about how to expand more in-depth with this issue besides the obvious.

III: International Assessment of Human Cloning

"There does not seem to be a clear-cut understanding among delegations of the wider implications of human cloning."

*Ambassador Lauro Liboon Baja, Jr. of the Philippines Chairman, Sixth Committee*¹⁷⁶.

Introduction

Cloning is recognized as a term used throughout the scientific community to "describe different processes for duplicating biological material." The history of cloning, or genetic manipulation, traces all the way back to 5,000 B.C. It was discovered that if seeds from the heartiest plants were planted, the next crop would be just as strong (if not stronger).¹⁷⁷ This was the first step of the human race in "manipulating life to suit human needs."¹⁷⁸

On 5 July 1997, it was announced that scientists at the Roslin Institute, a Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council institute at the University of Edinburgh, created a cloned sheep by the name of "Dolly." Dolly is universally recognized as the first mammal to be successfully cloned from the DNA of an adult cell. This story, which broke international headline news, brought much interest into the issues of cloning, including its "scientific and ethical implications."¹⁷⁹ This new scientific breakthrough also called attention to what exactly cloning, a term, actually meant.¹⁸⁰

The first glimpse of the benefits of cloning occurred in 1976, when Rudolf Jaenisch injected human DNA into mice eggs. As a result, mice were produced that were part human.¹⁸¹ In the 1970s, as a postdoctoral fellow at Princeton University, he researched the SV-40 tumor virus.¹⁸² After reading his professor's research on manipulating mice embryos, he began experimenting in creating transgenic mice. His vision was to use mice as realistic test specimens in studying human diseases.¹⁸³ Due to this breakthrough, he was able to show that it was feasible to "introduce foreign DNA into the cells of the early mouse embryo and show that this DNA would be found in all the tissues of the resulting adult mouse."¹⁸⁴ Because of this work he is considered to be a pioneer in the field of transgenic science.¹⁸⁵ Dr. Jaenisch explained the importance of this field: "Transgenic science is an important research tool because it allows us to make mutations in a gene and study how it affects the whole animal. If we know which mutated gene causes a human disease, we can develop mouse models with the same mutation."¹⁸⁶

¹⁷⁶"Sixth Committee: Legal; Consensus, Not Confrontation Sought Over Controversial Issues In International Law." Goliath. March 1, 2004. http://goliath.ecnext.com/coms2/gi_0199-31847/Sixth-Committee-Legal-Consensus-not.html

¹⁷⁷ "The History of Cloning." MSNBC. <http://www.msnbc.com/news/wld/health/brill/cloningtimeline.htm>

¹⁷⁸ Ibid.

¹⁷⁹ "Cloning Fact Sheet." Human Genome Project Information. October 15, 2008.

http://www.ornl.gov/sci/techresources/Human_Genome/elsi/cloning.shtml#intro

¹⁸⁰ Ibid.

¹⁸¹ Ibid.

¹⁸² Susan Daher. "Celebrating 10 years of hESC Lines: An Interview with Rudolf Jaenisch." *Stem Cells*. December 12, 2008. pp. 3005-3007.

¹⁸³ "Rudolf Jaenisch." The Peter Gruber Foundation. <http://www.petergruberfoundation.org/Site/jaenisch.htm>

¹⁸⁴ Ibid.

¹⁸⁵ Ibid.

¹⁸⁶ Ibid.

Two years later, in 1978, the first child conceived through in-vitro fertilization was born. Drs. Robert Edwards and Patrick Steptoe had individually for years conducted research on human ovaries and laparoscopy.¹⁸⁷ After World War II, Dr. Steptoe began practicing in obstetrics and gynecology. Soon after, he created the laparoscope which allowed for surgeons to conduct abdominal surgery without having to rely on invasive procedures.¹⁸⁸ Dr. Edwards was a physiologist who was researching egg fertilization at Cambridge.¹⁸⁹ Dr. Edwards worked primarily with eggs that were removed from ovaries solely for medical reasons. After collaborating in 1966 to assist women with blocked Fallopian tubes (which contributed to infertility), Dr. Steptoe theorized that using his laparoscope, they could take eggs from infertile women and could be fertilized in vitro.¹⁹⁰ These eggs could then be implanted into a woman's uterus to avoid the issues involving blocked Fallopian tubes.¹⁹¹ They began experimenting throughout the 1970s on this procedure (mainly through revenue from legal abortion services), however, they were unable to reach success. They decided that instead of waiting the standard of four days or more to implant these eggs, they would only wait two and a half days. This new strategy led to the eggs being implanted into a woman's uterus during its "optimal period."¹⁹² In July 1978, Louise Brown became the first human created through in-vitro fertilization.¹⁹³

As noted, there are different types of cloning, including for purposes other than creating a genetic twin of another organism.¹⁹⁴ These include recombinant DNA cloning, reproductive cloning, and the most controversial, therapeutic cloning. Recombinant DNA cloning is "the transfer of DNA fragment from one organism to a self-replicating plasmid."¹⁹⁵ This process is primarily used for scientists to study a particular gene by creating multiple copies of it.¹⁹⁶

Reproductive cloning is the process used to create an animal that has the same genetic makeup as another animal.¹⁹⁷ This was the same process that was used by the Roslin Institute scientists to create "Dolly." Through "somatic cell nuclear transfer" (SCNT), genetic material from the nucleus of an adult cell is moved to an egg that has no nucleus. This new egg is treated over time where it is then moved to a uterus until birth.¹⁹⁸ It is important to note that an animal created as a result of SCNT is not an exact clone of its donor. Only the nuclear DNA remains the same as some genetic material comes from the egg itself.

Therapeutic cloning (embryo cloning) is the "production of human embryos for use in research."¹⁹⁹ This process allows for the gathering of stem cells that scientist use to study humans and to treat various diseases. Scientists find stem cells to be valuable as they can be generated into a specialized cell in the human body.²⁰⁰ The process of therapeutic cloning begins with stem cells being taken out of an egg after five days of division. This process of harvesting the stem cells destroys the embryo which, if allowed to grow, would develop into a fetus.²⁰¹ Research has shown that in the future stem cells can be used to treat a variety of ailments including heart disease, Alzheimer's, and cancer.²⁰² There is also belief that this form of cloning can also provide tissues and organs for transplants.²⁰³

¹⁸⁷ "A Brief History of In-Vitro Fertilization." Wisconsin Fertility Institute.
<http://www.wisconsinfertility.com/education/ivf/history-of-ivf.html>

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.

¹⁸⁹ Ibid.

¹⁹⁰ Ibid.

¹⁹¹ Ibid.

¹⁹² Ibid.

¹⁹³ Ibid.

¹⁹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰⁰ Ibid.

²⁰¹ Ibid.

²⁰² Ibid.

²⁰³ Ibid.

History of United Nations Discussion on Human Cloning

The United Nations General Assembly adopted Resolution 59/280 on 8 March 2005. This non-binding resolution entitled the “United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning” called upon Member States to “prohibit all forms of human cloning inasmuch as they are incompatible with human dignity and the protection of human life.”²⁰⁴ Although this resolution did pass it is important to note that it was approved with 84 Member States in favor, 34 opposed and 37 abstaining.²⁰⁵ Given that the General Assembly Plenary aims to pass resolutions near unanimously, this varied vote exemplified the mixed views of the international community on human cloning.

The General Assembly, in resolution 56/93 of 12 December 2001, decided to establish an Ad Hoc Committee, open to all States Members of the United Nations or members of specialized agencies or of the International Atomic Energy Agency, for the purpose of considering the elaboration of an international convention against the reproductive cloning of human beings..²⁰⁶

The first session of the Ad Hoc Committee was held from 25 February 2001 to 1 March 2002. The expert level discussions were held on 25 February 2002.²⁰⁷ There were a series of presentations given by experts in the field. These presentations included a basic introduction to the cloning of animals and a biotechnological framework, human reproductive cloning, an ethics session on the rights and wrongs of human cloning, and a presentation on a human rights framework involving human cloning.²⁰⁸ Towards the end of 2002, a draft decision was made by the 6th committee that a working group would meet from 29 September 2003 to 3 October 2003 to continue the progress made.²⁰⁹

During the Working Group, proposals began to take shape. Costa Rica proposed a “draft international convention on the prohibition of all forms of human cloning.”²¹⁰ A second working group of 45 Member States put forward a draft resolution²¹¹ and a third working group consisting of 13 member states put forward a draft resolution.²¹² On 6 November 2003, the Sixth Committee adjourned debate until the 60th session of the UN General Assembly (September 2005). This vote was approved with 80 in favor, 79 against, and 15 abstaining.²¹³ The continuously close votes showed that much of the international community was mixed in whether to move forward on human cloning. As a result of adjourning the debate, no action was taken on any of the proposals from the working groups.

In December 2004, the UN General Assembly agreed to establish a Working Group that would set the foundation for a UN declaration on human cloning.²¹⁴ The Working Group met in February 2005 and adopted its report which was then later approved by the Sixth Committee with a vote of 75 in favor, 35 against and 43 abstaining. Contained in the annex of the report was the draft United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning.²¹⁵

²⁰⁴ A/RES/59/280. *United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning*. March 23, 2005.

²⁰⁵ “Activities in 2004.” Ad Hoc Committee on an International Convention Against the Reproductive Cloning of Human Beings. May 18, 2005. <http://www.un.org/law/cloning/index.html#2004>

²⁰⁶ Ibid.

²⁰⁷ Ibid.

²⁰⁸ “Speaking Schedule for 25 February 2002.” Ad Hoc Committee on an International Convention Against the Reproductive Cloning of Human Beings. February 25, 2002. http://www.un.org/law/cloning/documents/1st_session/english/Presentation%20schedule.pdf

²⁰⁹ “Activities in 2003.” Ad Hoc Committee on an International Convention Against the Reproductive Cloning of Human Beings. May 18, 2005. <http://www.un.org/law/cloning/index.html#2003>

²¹⁰ Ibid.

²¹¹ Ibid.

²¹² “Activities taken in 2004/2005.” Ad Hoc Committee on an International Convention Against the Reproductive Cloning of Human Beings. May 18, 2005. <http://www.un.org/law/cloning/index.html#2004>

²¹³ Ibid.

²¹⁴ Ibid.

²¹⁵ A/C.6/59/L.26. *Italy Draft Resolution – United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning*. United Nations General Assembly. January 14, 2005.

After the vote was taken, Member States made a series of statements noting their reasoning for not voting in favor of the report. Reasons given by these states included not enough emphasis on consensus building and confusion within the report on whether therapeutic cloning was appropriate.²¹⁶ This main point of contention between reproductive and non-reproductive cloning led to many of these states either voting against or abstaining from the draft resolution. This vote by the Sixth Committee led to the adoption of Resolution 59/280 on 8 March 2005.

International Viewpoints on Human Cloning

Cloning and Islamic Perspectives

In the Eastern Mediterranean region, cloning discussions focus on “religious beliefs, ethical norms and values of the society.”²¹⁷ In 1997, the Islamic Fiqh Academy collectively agreed that the Islamic faith and the science of cloning are not at odds with one another. In their view, the science and technology of cloning was “pre-ordained by God Almighty’s will.”²¹⁸ It is believed that Islamic Law does not ban the cloning of plants and animals in order to improve human life.²¹⁹ However, it is important to note that Islamic member states and Muslim scholars are unanimously against human cloning.²²⁰ The foundation for this argument lies within the belief that “only God is the creator – not humans.”²²¹ Furthermore, a major tenant of Islam is lineage. With the introduction of human cloning, this value would be put at risk.²²² Mr. Alakhder, Ambassador of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, noted in the vote of support for the *United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning*, “My country believes that the Declaration is a starting point towards taking major steps to protect human dignity and prevent its violation under any kind of interpretation. We firmly believe that we should not destroy human life for the sake of some other human beings.”²²³

Iranian Perspective

Iran has had a diverse history in its investment and acceptance of stem cell research. After the Iraq-Iran War in 1988, the Iranian government dramatically began investing into sciences. In 2005, it was reported that government spent nearly \$1.2 billion dollars in sciences, whereas 15 years earlier it only spent \$232 million dollars.²²⁴ In 2008, it was reported that Iran would spend \$2.5 billion dollars over five years on stem cell research.²²⁵ Iran’s stem cell research center is located at the Royal Institute in Tehran. It included six different departments, including “stem cells, embryology, gynecology, genetics, andrology and epidemiology.”²²⁶ Although Iran is considered to be a conservative member state, it has been shown that government support for this scientific field is strong. Ayatollah Khamenei of Iran has publicly affirmed that there is a belief derived from the Koran we should do what is necessary “to prevent human illness and suffering.”²²⁷

South Korean Perspective

²¹⁶ A/59/PV.82. *Official Records – 82nd Plenary Meeting*. United Nations General Assembly. March 8, 2005.

²¹⁷ EM/RC51/INF.DOC.11. *Development of a Regional Position on Human Cloning*. Regional Committee for the Eastern Mediterranean – World Health Organization. September 2004.

²¹⁸ Ibid.

²¹⁹ Ibid.

²²⁰ Ibid.

²²¹ Ibid.

²²² Ibid.

²²³ A/59/PV.82. *Official Records – 82nd Plenary Meeting*. United Nations General Assembly. March 8, 2005.

²²⁴ Ibid.

²²⁵ Ibid.

²²⁶ Ibid.

²²⁷ Suad Jafarzadeh. “Iran at Forefront of Stem Cell Research.” *The Washington Times*. April 15, 2009.
<http://www.washingtontimes.com/news/2009/apr/15/iran-at-forefront-of-stem-cell-research/>

On 1 January 2005, South Korean scientists were given the right to explore stem cell research more thoroughly given the government's more liberal stance on the handling of human embryos.²²⁸ As a result, South Korean scientists have been able to craft their niche in this field much quicker than nearly all other Member States.²²⁹ For a period of time, many scientists were only permitted to utilize human embryos that were donated by fertility clinic patients who no longer needed them. Alternatively, scientists began studying mouse stem cells which were much more difficult to use for human purposes.²³⁰

The South Korean Government's relaxed legal boundaries on stem cell research have not been the only factor in the country's vast development in the field. There have been significant cultural and environmental factors that have also played a role.²³¹ Much of the western world has grappled with the moral issues of cloning, as opposed to South Korea, where the ethical implications have not been as heavily emphasized. This has led to a central focus on the science of cloning and not the politics of it. As noted by Professor Jose Cibelli of Michigan State University, "It really helps that every time [Korean scientists] give a talk, they don't have to have an argument about whether an embryo is a person."²³²

Similar to many Islamic states, South Koreans place a heavy emphasis on blood lineage and for couples to "have their own genetic children."²³³ As a result of this pressure, there is widespread use of reproduction assistance. According to Shin Young Moon, Director of the Stem Cell Research Center, South Korea has more than 95 in-vitro fertilization (IVF) centers and more than 4,000 in-vitro fertilization births take place every year.²³⁴ With such a large number of IVF patients, South Korea has been able to produce a large number of scientists with both the technical skill and capacity to conduct research and execute IVF treatments every year.²³⁵

United States Perspective

In February 1997, United States President Bill Clinton signed executive order that ordered no federal funds allocated to science and research organizations could be used for human cloning.²³⁶ The following year, the United States Senate put forward two bills that addressed the legality of cloning.²³⁷ The first bill by Democratic Senators called for a ban of human reproductive cloning. The second bill by Republican Senators called for a ban on both reproductive cloning and creating human embryos. Both of these bills led to a stalemate as the Republican bill was filibustered and could not be moved forward for a vote.²³⁸ Many believe that this vote was ideological and not based on science, as many anti-abortion advocates played a strong role in lobbying members to support the Republican bill.²³⁹

In 2000, the Republican-led United States House of Representatives passed a bill that would ban human cloning and would punish anyone who attempted to do so through prison sentences and fines up to \$1 million dollars USD.²⁴⁰

²²⁸ Steven Ertelt. "South Korea Now Allows Human Cloning, Embryonic Stem Cell Research." Lifeneews.com. December 31, 2004. <http://www.lifeneews.com/bio628.html>.

²²⁹ Gina Kolata. South Koreans Streamline Cloning of Human Embryos. New York Times. May 19, 2005. <http://www.nytimes.com/2005/05/19/science/19cnd-clone.html>.

²³⁰ Ibid.

²³¹ David Plotz. "The Seoul of Clones." Slate.com. October 19, 2005. <http://www.slate.com/id/2128361>.

²³² Ibid.

²³³ Ibid.

²³⁴ Ibid.

²³⁵ Ibid.

²³⁶ "Failure to Pass Federal Cloning Legislation, 1997-2003." Center for Genetics and Society. <http://www.geneticsandsociety.org/article.php?id=305>

²³⁷ Ibid.

²³⁸ Ibid.

²³⁹ Ibid.

²⁴⁰ "Bush: Human Cloning 'morally wrong'". CNN. November 26, 2001. <http://archives.cnn.com/2001/HEALTH/11/26/human.cloning/>

However, the United States Senate did not take up the bill, and as a result, it never became law. In 2001, a private firm, Advanced Cell Technology, announced that they “had created the first human embryos through cloning.”²⁴¹ In response, U.S. President George W. Bush commented, “We should not as a society grow life to destroy it, and that's exactly what's taking place.”²⁴² In a compromise with legislators, President Bush deemed that tax dollars could go towards stem cell research, however, could only be used on “existing lines.”²⁴³ In 2008, President Bush during his State of the Union address again noted his displeasure with human cloning, noting that that the government has the responsibility to put “roadblocks in front of researchers bent on creating and destroying human life through cloning.”²⁴⁴

On 9 March 2009, U.S. President Barack Obama enacted an executive order that lifted the prior ban on federal dollars being used towards stem cell research.²⁴⁵ Additionally, he signed a memorandum directing that the head of Science and Technology Policy “develop a strategy for restoring scientific integrity to government decision-making.”²⁴⁶ This additional memorandum signaled the new President's firm disagreement with the stance the U.S. Government on strictly limiting stem cell research based on ideological and religious viewpoints rather than scientific facts.²⁴⁷

Ethical Viewpoints on Therapeutic Cloning

At the heart of the debate are two main processes of human cloning: reproductive cloning and therapeutic cloning. Therapeutic cloning aims to produce an embryo in the same way reproductive cloning does. The primary difference lies in the end result of attaining embryonic stem cells as opposed to producing a child.²⁴⁸ As noted earlier, the process of therapeutic cloning leads to the destruction of human embryos, which if left unharmed, would grow to be fetuses.²⁴⁹

During the debate of a potential United Nations convention regarding human cloning, the Vatican, given its believed role as a moral authority, firmly stated its belief that there was no difference between therapeutic and reproductive cloning. Mgr Celestino Migliore stated:

*From an ethical and anthropological standpoint, so-called therapeutic cloning, creating human embryos with the intention of destroying them, even if undertaken with the goal of possible helping sick patients in the future, seems very clearly incompatible with respect for the dignity of the human being, making one human life nothing more than the instrument of another.*²⁵⁰

²⁴¹ Ibid.

²⁴² Ibid.

²⁴³ Sheryl Gay Stolberg. “Obama Lifts Bush's Strict Limits On Stem Cell Research.” The New York Times. March 9, 2009. <http://www.nytimes.com/2009/03/10/us/politics/10stem.html>

²⁴⁴ Steve Ertelt. “President Bush Touts Ethical Stem Cell Research, Calls for Human Cloning Ban.” Lifenews.com. <http://www.lifenews.com/bio2318.html>

²⁴⁵ Sheryl Gay Stolberg. “Obama Lifts Bush's Strict Limits On Stem Cell Research.” The New York Times. March 9, 2009. <http://www.nytimes.com/2009/03/10/us/politics/10stem.html>

²⁴⁶ Ibid.

²⁴⁷ Ibid.

²⁴⁸ “Human Cloning.” United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. 2004. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001359/135928e.pdf>

²⁴⁹ “Cloning Fact Sheet.” Human Genome Project Information. October 15, 2008. http://www.ornl.gov/sci/techresources/Human_Genome/elsi/cloning.shtml#intro

²⁵⁰ “Kofi Annan in favour of human cloning against the Vatican.” AsiaNews.it. October 26, 2004. <http://www.asianews.it/view.php?l=en&art=1767>

The ethical problem arises from the status of the embryos used in therapeutic cloning.²⁵¹ It can be argued that human embryos should be protected from any scientific research as they hold the potential to develop into human beings.²⁵² As human beings should not be sacrificed for scientific research, an ethical dilemma is reached as pointed out by the Vatican.

However, there is also the viewpoint that the “moral status of embryos gradually increases with their development.”²⁵³ Upon these embryos developing and being born are they then entitled to the full legal protection of the law. Given that these embryos are used in the earlier stages prior to any substantial development, it can be argued that they are not entitled to these rights.²⁵⁴ When these early stage embryos with no legal rights are weighed against the potential human benefit to alleviate suffering through research, it can be argued that therapeutic cloning is nothing but ethical.

Recent Work of the United Nations

In 2007, the report *Human Reproductive Cloning Inevitable: Future Options for UN Governance*, was published by the United Nations University Institute of Advanced Studies (UNU).²⁵⁵ This report gave the most recent assessment of cloning technology, ethical issues and the international governance of cloning.²⁵⁶ The report was broken down into four sections including an introduction to cloning, ethics, international governance and future options for international governance. The report concluded that much more development on international governance was needed, however, a ban on reproductive cloning “is emerging as a customary international norm.”²⁵⁷

Koichiro Matsuura, Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), highlighted this report as an excellent review of the cloning issue at the onset of the 14th session of the International Bio-Ethics Committee (IBC), and as a result, the IBC included the themes of the UNU report in its 2008-2009 work program.²⁵⁸ The IBC agreed to explore whether “there is any scientific, social and political change that would justify a new initiative at an international level and submit its analysis to the Director-General.”²⁵⁹

The first meeting of the Working Group of IBC on Human Cloning and International Governance met from 30 June to 2 July 2008 in Paris. The first day of the meeting focused on a public hearing that allowed specialists in the field the opportunity to discuss whether any new framework was needed since the Declaration on Human Cloning was adopted in 2005 as well as which options in the report were feasible. The Working Group noted that there were a series of “new scientific, social and political changes, which would justify new initiatives in the international governance of human cloning.”²⁶⁰ Politically there were a number of changes in the national rule of law pertaining to the governance of human cloning. Furthermore, in the three years since the Declaration, public awareness regarding this issue had increased which would result in a more fruitful debate.²⁶¹ Scientifically the introduction of

²⁵¹ “Human Cloning.” United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. 2004.
<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001359/135928e.pdf>

²⁵² Ibid.

²⁵³ Ibid.

²⁵⁴ Ibid.

²⁵⁵ Chamundeeswari Kuppuswamy, et al. *Is Human Reproductive Cloning Inevitable: Future Options for UN Governance*. Yokohama: United Nations University. 2007.

²⁵⁶ SHS/EST/CIB -15/08/CONF.502/2. *Report of the Working Group of IBC on Human Cloning and International Governance*. International Bioethics Committee. September 19, 2008.

²⁵⁷ Chamundeeswari Kuppuswamy, et al. *Is Human Reproductive Cloning Inevitable: Future Options for UN Governance*. Yokohama: United Nations University. 2007.

²⁵⁸ Ibid.

²⁵⁹ “International Bioethics Committee – Work Programme for 2008-2009.” United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/ev.php-URL_ID=11791&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

²⁶⁰ SHS/EST/CIB -15/08/CONF.502/2. *Report of the Working Group of IBC on Human Cloning and International Governance*. International Bioethics Committee. September 19, 2008.

²⁶¹ Ibid.

the induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells has resulted in more “possibilities for reproductive manipulation of human embryos” and as a result, stages of human development and reproduction becomes further distorted.²⁶²

The Working Group suggested that there be changes in terminology since the term “reproductive cloning” misleads people to think that an “identical copy” is being created.²⁶³ It was further recommended that this type of human cloning be completely banned on an international level. Although the 1997 UNESCO Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights was already adopted, it is not legally binding. It is the belief of the Working Group that a legally binding convention is needed to ensure that real international governance is achieved in regulating cloning.²⁶⁴ It was finally recommended that an Observatory Group could be established which would track socio-economic, legal, and political changes and in turn, report to the Director-General of UNESCO about potential actions.²⁶⁵

In October 2008, both the IBC and the Intergovernmental Bioethics Committee met in Paris to exchange thoughts and ideas on how to move forward.²⁶⁶ Specifically there were mixed opinions as to whether there should be efforts made to highlight a consensus on reproductive cloning or, since countries’ positions remain relatively unchanged since the UN Declaration in 2005 whether it was even useful to reopen debate unless there was an assurance that an agreement could be met.²⁶⁷

There was a strong consensus amongst attendees that least developed countries have limited regulations regarding cloning. Due to the lack of strong national regulations amongst this group, it is believed that their citizens are more susceptible to profit driven research. There was agreement that a “legally-binding international instrument” may be useful to ensure the safety of these nations and their people.²⁶⁸

Role of the United Nations Moving Forward

The International Bioethics Committee (IBC) has, as a part of the 2008-2009 agenda, debated and reviewed thoroughly the issues surrounding human cloning. The IBC has noted that there have been increased scientific advancements in the field that have an impact on the development of international governance on cloning such as Pluripotent Stem Cells (iPS).²⁶⁹

Additionally, the IBC recommends that there be a shift in the terminology used in bio-ethical debates. Specifically, therapeutic cloning gives the inference that there is definite human benefit although there has not been concrete evidence to date showing its positive impact. A change in terminology to “research cloning” may be a more appropriate term to reflect more accurate terms in debate.²⁷⁰

International governance of human cloning to this point has been primarily restricted to the resolutions and declarations that have been passed by various United Nations bodies. Although there has been widespread national legislation from Member States barring reproductive cloning, there are still a number of variations from state to state.²⁷¹ Most abundantly, developing nations are victim to unspecific regulations on human cloning.²⁷² The IBC

²⁶² Ibid.

²⁶³ Ibid.

²⁶⁴ Ibid.

²⁶⁵ Ibid.

²⁶⁶ SHS/EST/CIB-16/09/CONF.503/2. *Draft Report on Human Cloning and International Governance*. International Bioethics Committee. March 30, 2009.

²⁶⁷ Ibid.

²⁶⁸ Ibid.

²⁶⁹ Ibid.

²⁷⁰ Ibid.

²⁷¹ Ibid.

²⁷² Ibid.

believes that a clear and binding legal framework on an international level would protect the interests of these developing Member States.²⁷³

As the United Nations addresses whether further steps are needed in undertaking additional reviews of human cloning policy, there is a strong belief that UNESCO should play a central role. Given the ethical mandate that UNESCO possesses in “promoting international reflection on the ethics of life sciences...”²⁷⁴ this body would allow for multiple viewpoints to be debated in a structured framework.²⁷⁵ Although UNESCO holds this unique place in the human cloning debate, the IBC believes that it should work in conjunction with other bodies of the UN including the World Health Organization (WHO), “national scientific organizations, bioethics entities, the civil society and all other groups that could be concerned.”²⁷⁶

Conclusion

For hundreds of years, breakthroughs in science have gone through both legal, moral, and religious scrutiny. In 1633, Galileo Galilei was persecuted by the Roman Catholic Church on his scientific belief that the sun, and not the earth was the center of our solar system.²⁷⁷ Today there is continued debate over the development of the Large Hardon Super-Collider which aims to re-create the “Big Bang Theory” that was the foundation of the universe.²⁷⁸ The debate on human cloning is unique given the degree of religious, ethical, and scientific quandaries it possesses and its real-life impact on the creation and destruction of human life.

Over the past 12 years, the United Nations and its various bodies have put forward various declarations and resolutions that speak to both the potential positive impact but dangers of human cloning. However, despite these multiple documents it must be emphasized that contrary to the spirit of the UN General Assembly, widespread consensus was never achieved. Given the recent work of UNESCO and the IBC, new developments in the science of human cloning, and the continued role that individual Member States are taking in their own national legislatures, the United Nations General Assembly should consider re-opening debate on this contentious issue. The benefits of a formal international governance structure on human cloning adopted through spirited debate, tolerant viewpoints of culture consensus is critical to ensure the international community will be prepared for the new advancements in this field.

Committee Directive

The issue of human cloning is one of the most divisive topics in the international community. There are few subjects that embody a true diversity in legal, cultural, religious, social, political and ethical backdrops of Member States. Delegates should first begin by researching their own Member States background in the above areas and statements by their political leaders on United Nations General Assembly Resolution 59/280.

Delegates are strongly urged to review General Assembly Resolution 59/280 UNESCO Declarations on bioethics, United Nations University Institute report *Is Human Reproductive Cloning Inevitable: Future Options for UN Governance* and the series of resolutions from UNESCO. Delegates should be kept informed of the latest updates involving the International Bioethics Committee Working Group.

²⁷³ Ibid.

²⁷⁴ “Ethics of Science and Technology.” United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/ev.php-URL_ID=1837&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

²⁷⁵ SHS/EST/CIB-16/09/CONF.503/2. *Draft Report on Human Cloning and International Governance*. International Bioethics Committee. March 30, 2009.

²⁷⁶ Ibid.

²⁷⁷ Maurice Finocchiaro. *The Galileo Affair: A Documentary History*. Berkeley: University of California Press: 1984

²⁷⁸ Alan Boyle. “Super Smasher Targets Massive Mystery.” MSNBC. September 8, 2008.
<http://www.msnbc.msn.com/id/24525554/>

Delegates should consider what next steps the international community should take on human cloning? Should there be continued discussion on banning reproductive cloning? Should there be new terms implemented that would better define the differences between therapeutic and reproductive cloning?

Topic I: Democratization of the United Nations Structure (DOTUNS)

“Debate on UN Security Council Reform Takes Small Step.” China View. July 21, 2009.

http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/2009-07/21/content_11741405.htm

This article describes the latest effort by the United Nations to conduct Security Council reform (at the time of the background guide completion). All 192 member states have agreed to the current negotiation effort. Additionally, it cites that the next round of negotiations would occur on August 27th, 2009. This article also cited additional proposals made by the Group of Four (G4) and the United for Consensus group. This article is especially important for delegates to read as it shows some progress on what many consider to be an issue in standstill.

Tanin, Zahir. “Don’t Forget to Reform the UN.” The Guardian. April 7, 2009.

<http://www.guardian.co.uk/commentisfree/2009/apr/07/unitednations-globalrecession>

Zahir Tanin, an Afghan UN diplomat and chair of the Security Council Reform committee wrote this insightful op-ed following the meeting of the G-20 this year. He notes that although the world is coming together to address the international fiscal and economic crisis, reform of international peace and security institutions, such as the Security Council, should not be forgotten or pushed to the side. In this article, he shows how other international institutes have changed since the inception of the UN, however, the Security Council has not followed suit. He also lightly points out that the United States, a member of the P-5 (one of five nations with a veto power on the Security Council) has a role to play given that former President John F. Kennedy had called for reform and that both financial and foreign affairs are major tenants of U.S. international relations.

Franda, Marcus F. The United Nations in the Twenty-First Century. Rowman & Littlefield: 2008.

This is one of the most complete and detailed histories of United Nations reform over the past 25 years. There is a detailed review nearly every major UN body and agency, especially the Secretariat. This book reviews each of the Secretaries-General and compares and contrasts both the success and failures of each in this area. Additionally this text notes more contemporary political issues within the UN including the oil-for-food scandal and other areas of mis-management. What differentiates this reference material from others is that it is detail-oriented on reforms since 1945 while other texts focus on the broader mission of the UN and over-arching reforms.

Fassbender, Bardo. UN Security Council Reform and the Right of the Veto. Springer:1998.

As noted throughout the background guide, one of the major challenges for Security Council reform is the veto-power of five member states. There have been a flurry of criticisms of this right from both Member States and civil society. This book discusses the right of the veto of the P-5 from a constitutional perspective. This reading material differs from other reference texts in that a philosophy of international community and international law are discussed. Delegates would benefit from applying their specific Member State views on the sections regarding the constitutional characteristics of the UN Charter.

“UN Reform: What’s at Stake for Women?” Women’s Environment & Development Organization.

<http://www.wedo.org/wp-content/uploads/unreform2.pdf>

This pamphlet gives a much needed viewpoint on how UN reform can shape social policies that affect women. Specific statistics are cited including the fact that two-thirds of the world’s poor are women and that illiteracy occurs twice as often in women as among men. The Women’s Environment & Development Organization (WEDO) notes that there is a strong lack of women involved within the discussions at the UN. Additionally, they criticize that the UN isn’t structured to address women’s rights effectively. WEDO discusses the different fragmented programs and agencies that were created to address women’s rights, however, that a lack of staff and funding do not

adequately address this issue. Delegates would benefit from reading this new and under-publicized viewpoint on United Nations reform.

Mandating & Delivering: Analysis and Recommendations to Facilitate the Review of Mandates
United Nations Secretary General. United Nations. 2005. http://www.un.org/mandatereview/report_toc.html

At the 2005 World Summit, the General Assembly directed a review all mandates older than five years originating from resolutions of the General Assembly and other organs. This report responds to this directive and provides a framework for the review of these mandates. This report found four major themes: Burdensome reporting requirements, overlap between and within organs, duplicative architecture for implementation, and a gap between mandates and resources. Delegates should review this report as a possible discussion point during the conference.

Topic II: Moving Forward: an Evaluation of Climate Change Initiatives

“Act Now to Address the HFC Explosion” Environmental Investigation Agency
<http://www.eia-international.org/files/reports176-1.pdf>

This reference serves to address the need for partnership between the UNFCCC and the Montreal Protocol to establish a headlong phase-out. By acting quickly we would be able to alleviate HFC emissions contributing to the ongoing climate change situation.

“Convention on Biological Diversity Rio de Janeiro, 1992” United Nations
<http://www.un.org/cyberschoolbus/treaties/bio.asp>

This reference serves to explain the expanding knowledge of biodiversity and how it relates to developed and underdeveloped countries as well as how it relates to climate change and how to incorporate it in to strategic planning to assess the constant enhancement of climate change.

Division for sustainable development (2002), Guidance in preparing a national sustainable development strategy
http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/publications/nsds_guidance.pdf

This article serves to define sustainable development and outlines national strategies that will be effective in managing critical processes while sustaining the strategy process and defining the role of the United Nations and the international donor community.

“Innovative options for financing the development and transfer of technologies” United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/publications/innovation_eng.pdf

This article serves to delve deeper into the various options for financing development by highlighting the ongoing activities and financing schemes delivered by the UNFCCC. It focuses on where funding is intended to be targeted and introduces the project development cycle (PDC) which outlines logical steps taken to introduce financing options and implement them.

“The Physical Basis of Climate Change” Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
<http://ipcc-wg1.ucar.edu/wg1/wg1-report.html>

The structure of this article serves to evaluate methods used to examine climate change, and includes observed rises in sea levels while examining future climate models and making logical assumptions in which direction climate change will lead us in the future.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (2006) “Technologies for adaptation to climate change”
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/publications/tech_for_adaptation_06.pdf

This paper serves as an overview of adaptation technologies carried out by the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and assesses their possibilities in five sectors: agriculture, infrastructure, water resources, public health and coastal zones. It demonstrates conclusions of the review and serves as an introduction to methods of adaptation and the practical steps that can be taken to put them into practice.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (2004) “The First 10 years”
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/publications/first_ten_years_en.pdf

This reference is to be used as an overview of measures implemented during the last 10 years to battle climate change and alleviate its adverse effects.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (2006) “UNFCCC Handbook”
<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/publications/handbook.pdf>

This article serves to help governments, researchers and others interested in the international climate change negotiations find their way through the complicated structures of methods carried out by the Conference of the Parties to the Convention (COP) to progress the execution of the Convention. It focuses on the procedure of the international climate change discussions, assesses the history of the climate change process, and provides how to make alterations to the Convention.

Topic III: International Assessment of Human Cloning

Haran, Joan. Human Cloning in the Media. Routledge: 2007.

There is an intrinsic link between the media and general views on all kinds of human cloning, including therapeutic cloning and reproductive cloning. This book focuses on this relationship and dwells deeper into the cultural representations of cloning. Additionally, this text provides case studies and examples of those who are involved in the cloning process, from the scientist who conducts the tests to the women who provide the eggs. Delegates would benefit from reading Chapter 5 of this text which focuses on the role of women in this process. Specifically, various interviews conducted with women regarding cloning highlight different viewpoints and give credence to the United Nations including language in their negotiations in protecting the health of women throughout this process.

Guinn, David E. Handbook of Bioethics and Religion. Oxford University Press: 2006

As noted throughout the background guide, religion and the religious makeup of member states do play a role in the international discussion of human cloning. This text is composed of 20 individual papers that explore this relationship. This text is recommended especially since it includes Christian, Jewish, Islamic, and Buddhist viewpoints. Additionally, a paper assesses what if any role religious choice should even have in healthcare arguments. This will assist delegates in understanding viewpoints of member states whose religious makeup plays a role in their national policy on this topic.

Kuppuswamy, Chamundeeswari. Is Human Reproductive Cloning Inevitable: Future options for UN Governance. United Nations University – Institute of Advanced Studies: 2007

Although cited in the background guide, this publication was considered to be so widely admired that it played a major role in the 2008-2009 work program of the International Bioethics Committee (IBC). This publication conducts an analysis of the opportunities, challenges and options for international governance of human cloning. Along with options for the future, this report conducts a review of the history of the topic within the United Nations

as well as member state laws on cloning. An assessment of current international law is also conducted. Delegates may find this text beneficial as a primer before doing in-depth research.

Pence, Gregory E. *Who's Afraid of Human Cloning?* Rowman & Littlefield: 1998

This book will serve as an asset for those delegates representing Member States who believe in an open arena to explore human cloning as well as those delegates who represent Member States that believe stringent regulation is needed. Most material delegates will review will either analyze UN options or take one side of this multi-faceted debate. The author does an excellent job of giving a wide-array of viewpoints on ethics, regulation, and international law. Additionally, the author reviews common misconceptions regarding human cloning and discusses the capacity of current and future human cloning technology.

Jaenisch, Rudolf & Marks, Stephen P. Massachusetts Institute of Technology Lecture. October 18, 2004
<http://mitworld.mit.edu/video/239>

This video of this lecture given by the leading figures in the genetic science movement addresses the science, philosophy and ethics of human cloning. Jaenisch has a unique perspective given his work in producing the world's first baby through in-vitro fertilization (IVF). Jaenisch discusses the problems that emerge when a cloned embryo is implanted in a uterus with the intent of creating a full-term clone. Stephen Marks discusses the human rights issues regarding human cloning. Specifically, he addresses the ability for mankind to maintain dignity for human life while pursuing the ability to improve people's lives through science and research.

"On Human Cloning." PBS. October 2007. http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/baby/clon_wolf.html

Dr. Wolf is a senior scientist at the Oregon Regional Primate Research Center and director of the Andrology/Embryology Laboratory at Oregon Health and Sciences University. He was interviewed by PBS on his views on human cloning. Dr. Wolf is not opposed in principle to human cloning, however, he is against cloning humans in the near future. What makes this interview beneficial for delegates to review is his explanation of potential regulation and oversight. He notes that he would like to see a system put in place in the United States that would solicit research grants, evaluate those grants, and decide whether they are appropriate. He notes that "if human cloning were to be done now, and you had adverse outcomes, we as the public may never know about them." This serves as a foundation for his belief in a transparent and open oversight processes where laboratory results were published and shared.

Palca, Joe. "Cloning Q&A: What Have We Learned Since Dolly?" NPR.
<http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=7555718>

A foundation for the debate which led to the United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning was the news that Scottish scientists had cloned a sheep known as "Dolly." This article discusses what if anything had been learned about both animal and human cloning in the ten years since this announcement. This text would be beneficial to delegates as they review their Member States' views on cloning, especially during the debate on this UN Declaration. Specific subjects such as whether the ethical issues have remained the same, impact cloning has had on the average person, and why no announcements have been made on a human clone are all explored.