

Southern Regional Model United Nations XXII
Addressing the global financial crisis:
Restoring economic stability through international solidarity
November 17-19, 2011. Atlanta, GA
Email: gaplen@srmun.org



Honorable Delegates,

Welcome to the Southern Regional Model United Nations (SRMUN) XXII, and the General Assembly Plenary. I am honored to have been chosen to serve as your director for this committee. This will be my fourth year on staff at SRMUN, and will be the second year on staff for both Jessica and Alan. We are all very excited to be exploring these topics with you. For me, the greatest joy in the model programs comes from engaging deeply and honestly in the conversations these subjects bring up. I expect all of us to approach this as a learning experience, and please note that I say "all of us." Learning is always a two way street. One of the most exciting parts of SRMUN is that your research and experience will give you a unique understanding of the issues we will be discussing so you will be bringing fresh perspectives into the debate.

GA Plenary is a very special committee as it is the first organ of the United Nations (UN), the central representative body of the organization, and the first UN body with universal membership. The GA Plenary, because of its centrality to the organization, holds broader powers than most other committees, and because of its universality, is able to address issues across the entire range of topics covered by the charter. In recent history, the GA has made significant strides in operating largely on a consensus basis so as to add strength to its decisions. This year we have three topics which demonstrate well the breadth and complexity of the types of issues faced by the GA Plenary. They are:

- I. Examining the Economic and Environmental Effects of Agricultural Practices on Member States
- II. Analyzing Member States' Security Policies to Promote Economic Growth
- III. Engaging the Youth of Member States Economically, Politically, and Socially

Preparations for conference should focus first on a thorough reading of the background information that Jessica, Alan, and I have put together for you, a full review of the work which the United Nations and the various sub-organs have already undertaken to address these issues, followed by consideration of the concerns and actions specific to the Member State you are representing.

Delegates should submit one position paper that covers each of the three topics. This position paper should be no longer than two single-spaced pages, and should present an argument meant to convince or persuade the committee to a course of action in keeping with the point of view of your respective country. Position papers should provide critical insight into the policy and position of each country and outline the steps that your delegation would take to address the issues at hand. A strong and well-developed position paper provides an excellent demonstration of conference preparation, and it is important that your position paper present a clear and concise statement that takes into consideration the multi-faceted nature of these issues. There is much more information on writing position papers that can be found at the SRMUN website (www.srmun.org). **All position papers MUST be submitted by October 30, 2011 by 11:59pm EST using the submission system on the SRMUN website.**

I look forward to working with all of you at the conference this year and wish you the best of luck in your preparations. Please feel free to contact myself, Jessica, Alan, or Reggie if you have any questions.

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Committee History of the United Nations General Assembly Plenary

Following the failure of the League of Nations to prevent the violence and destruction of World War II, the Allied Powers, decided to build a stronger international organization dedicated to the ideals of peace, prosperity, and development.¹ Representatives from China, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the United Soviet Socialist Republic met in Dumbarton Oaks, Virginia during the summer of 1944 to lay the groundwork for this international organization, and the representatives of 50 countries came together in San Francisco the following spring to finalize the text of what became the Charter of the United Nations.²

Established by Chapter 3, Article VII, of the United Nations Charter on October 24, 1945, the General Assembly (GA) serves as the central representative organ for deliberation and policymaking for all 192 Member States of the United Nations (UN).³ The GA has been described as a “global institution with the legitimacy that derives from universal membership,” which allows the Assembly to address the multitude of issues outlined within the Charter.⁴ Since its inception, the GA has utilized this mandate to develop and codify the diverse aspects of international law and regulation.⁵

According to the Charter, the GA also has several functions and powers that define its mandate, including the powers to:

- Consider and make recommendations based on the principles of cooperation for the maintenance of international peace and security;
- Discuss issues relating to peace and security not concurrently being addressed by the Security Council;
- Issue recommendations within the scope of the United Nations Charter;
- Initiate studies that promote international political cooperation, the development and codification of international law, the realization of human rights and freedoms, and collaboration in the economic, social, humanitarian, cultural, educational, and health fields;
- Receive and consider reports from the Security Council and other organs;
- Approve the budget and decide allocation of funding;
- Appoint the Secretary-General and elect non-permanent members of the Security Council.⁶

In order to address this all-encompassing mandate, the Assembly is divided into six Main Committees focused on specific topic areas. The GA First: Disarmament and International Security Committee is concerned with disarmament and international security issues. The GA Second: Economic and Financial Committee concentrates on economic questions. The GA Third: Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural Committee focuses on critical social and humanitarian

¹ “The United Nations: An Introduction for Students.” United Nations Cyber Schoolbus. <http://www.un.org/Pubs/CyberSchoolBus/unintro/unintro4.htm>

² Ibid.

³ Charter of the United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter3.shtml>

⁴ Taylor and Curtis, The United Nations. Oxford University Press. 2005.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ United Nations General Assembly. Functions and Powers of the General Assembly. <http://www.un.org/ga/about/background.shtml>

issues. GA Fourth: Special Political and Decolonization Committee is concerned with various political issues and decolonization. The GA Fifth: Administrative and Budgetary Commission deals with the financial and administrative aspects of the UN. Finally, the GA Sixth: Legal Committee concentrates on the development, implementation, and enforcement of international law.⁷

An organ of the GA known as the General Committee elects a President and 21 Vice-Presidents, as well as Chairs for each of the six main committees.⁸ The General Committee makes recommendations to the membership on the agenda at least three months prior to the beginning of the annual regular sessions in September.⁹ These Main Committees discuss many of the topics in the agenda, drafting resolutions that are brought to the Plenary session for a vote.¹⁰

Although recommendations issued by the GA are non-binding, many of the documents that come out of the GA have established the foundation for the United Nation's role in the international community.¹¹ The most notable may be the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), adopted December 10, 1948 as a direct response to the horrific abuses of human rights which occurred during the Second World War.¹² The UDHR is an excellent example of both a practical and an aspirational document. It is practical in the sense that it outlines a clear set of rights that should be universally recognized, and it is aspirational in that it also sets forth the ideal state of human rights to which all Member States should strive.

In recent years the GA has strived to achieve its goals as much as possible by reaching consensus on the issues it faces.¹³ An excellent example of this kind of consensus can be seen in the establishment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). On September 18, 2000, the 55th session of the GA voted on and passed A/Res/55/2, otherwise known as The Millennium Declaration establishing the MDGs.¹⁴ The MDGs are eight target goals that address the issues that have the greatest ramifications on the future of the international community. The Goals include: the eradication of poverty, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability, and establish a global partnership for development.¹⁵ The MDGs have created a framework for the future of GA legislation, as it bridges the gap between the Charter and recent developments within the international community.

⁷ United Nations General Assembly. Main Committees <http://www.un.org/ga/maincommittees.shtml>

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

⁹ "General Assembly: Frequently Asked Questions." United Nations Documentation: Research Guide. www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/gafaq.htm

¹⁰ "Functions and powers of the General Assembly." United Nations General Assembly 61st Session. <http://www.un.org/ga/61/background/background.shtml>

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² "Universal Declaration of Human Rights 50th Anniversary – History", Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt Institute,

¹³ "Functions and Powers of the General Assembly." The General Assembly of the United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/background.shtml>

¹⁴ A/Res/55/2. General Assembly. 18 September 2000. United Nations Millennium Declaration. http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/55/2&Lang=E

¹⁵ United Nations General Assembly. Functions and Powers of the General Assembly. <http://www.un.org/ga/about/background.shtml>

The GA meets regularly from September to December of each year,¹⁶ but may resume sessions or hold special or emergency sessions when necessary.¹⁷

All Member States are represented in the General Assembly Plenary.

I: Examining the Economic and Environmental Effects of Agricultural Practices on Member States

“Agriculture is our wisest pursuit, because it will in the end contribute most to real wealth, good morals, and happiness.” -Thomas Jefferson (In a 1787 letter to George Washington)

Introduction

On 20 December 2010, Special Rapporteur on the right to food, Olivier De Schutter, reported to the United Nations General Assembly and the Human Rights Council and stated that:

*increasing food production to meet future needs, while necessary, is not sufficient. It will not allow significant progress in combating hunger and malnutrition if it is not combined with higher incomes and improved livelihoods for the poorest—particularly small-scale farmers in developing countries. And short-term gains will be offset by long-term losses if it leads to further degradation of ecosystems, threatening future ability to maintain current levels of production.*¹⁸

Moving from a hunter-gatherer society into stable and localized agriculture allowed human beings to build cities, increase populations, and thrive. This newfound food security further allowed humans to develop individual professions rather than focus on food gathering and a farming class also emerged in this specialization. Today, the production of food has evolved due to increased demand and technologies and the issues surrounding it spill into other areas, mainly economic and environmental concerns. The problems of modern agricultural practices emerge from production and consumption patterns and Member States’ utilization of crops and livestock will continue to dictate the agricultural process. In other words, the manner in which we as humans consume foods will dictate the manner in which the agricultural sector produces them.

Seeing people suffer from preventable diseases is both frustrating and illogical. Failing to correct unsustainable agricultural practices is equally disturbing and needs to be thoroughly explored at an international level. It is shocking to realize that greenhouse gases (GHGs) from the livestock industry are overtaking carbon dioxide emissions from fossil-fuel burning to become the largest contributor to climate change.¹⁹ With UN predictions that meat consumption will double within the century and that meat production accounts for about 20 percent of global

¹⁶ “General Assembly of the United Nations.” General Assembly of the United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/ga/>

¹⁷ “How the UN Works.” The UN In Brief. <http://www.un.org/Overview/uninbrief/ga.shtml>

¹⁸ A/HRC/16/49. Report submitted by the Special Rapporteur on the right to food, Olivier De Schutter. 20 December 2010. http://civileats.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/03/20110308_UN_agroecology_report.pdf

¹⁹ Jowit, Juliette. “UN says eat less meat to curb global warming.” The Observer. 7 September 2008. <http://www.guardian.co.uk/environment/2008/sep/07/food.foodanddrink>

carbon emissions, there is an immediate need for international analysis of all agricultural practices.²⁰

History

The most popular cultural reference to subpar or unsustainable agricultural practices is the 1906 novel *The Jungle* by Upton Sinclair. In this book, Sinclair describes the stockyards of Chicago, Illinois as full of Eastern European immigrant workers who were injured due to chemical exposure and brutal slaughter practices in the work environment.²¹ Further, his depiction of the horrific and unsanitary conditions of processing meats, including diseased farm animals and rat infestation, directly contributed to the public's demand for change and the eventual establishment of the Food and Drug Administration.²² As more issues concerning food arose in the international community, unsustainable agriculture and its repercussions became a global plight.

Financially, state governments intervened in agricultural markets with subsidy programs. Food subsidies as we know them today began in 1815 in the form of English Corn Laws in Great Britain and Ireland.²³ These laws regulated the import and export of grain to and from these countries and were repealed in 1846 in a movement toward free trade.²⁴ In the United States of America, the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1933 allowed the government to set minimum price standards for agricultural commodities.²⁵ Subsidies are often criticized for three main reasons: restricting open international trade and negatively affect the global economy, a lack of clear social benefits, and the transfer of income to wealthier groups from the consumers.²⁶ Supporters of subsidies contend that these measures are necessary to aid development of rural areas, ensure food security, and stabilize jobs and markets.²⁷

In 1996, the World Food Summit defined food security as “when all people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life.”²⁸ Later, biofuels emerged on the international scene and people questioned whether or not producing fuel from crops that could be utilized for food would ultimately affect food security. The controversy of using edible sources for biofuel production reached its height in 2008 when the European Union created a target to make ten percent of its transportation sector run from biofuels.²⁹ Oxfam claimed that the emerging alternative energy policies of developed Member States were contributing to record-high food prices and could potentially cause 30 million people in developing countries to fall below the poverty line.³⁰ At the same time, the United States' use of corn ethanol and Brazil's production of sugar-derived biofuel also sparked international debate.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ “Sinclair's ‘The Jungle’ Turns 100”. Public Broadcasting Service.
http://www.pbs.org/newshour/extra/features/jan-june06/jungle_5-10.html

²² Ibid.

²³ Sumner, Daniel A. “Agricultural Subsidy Programs.” The Concise Encyclopedia of Economics.
<http://www.econlib.org/library/Enc/AgriculturalSubsidyPrograms.html>

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Ibid.

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ “Food Security.” World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/trade/glossary/story028/en/>

²⁹ “Biofuel use ‘increasing poverty’.” BBC News. June 25, 2008. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/7472532.stm>

³⁰ Ibid.

The ultimate fear of analysts was, and still is, that some edible crops will become more valuable as fuel than as food if further produced for energy purposes and that this dilemma compromises world food security.

More recently, information about the Earth's capacity to sustain us and malpractices in the agricultural industry have become more widespread, and the urgency of the matter and the demand for a global solution needs to be emphasized. The dissemination of vital information is exemplified in the 2009 documentary *How Many People Can Live on Planet Earth?* which can be viewed online for free.³¹ In the film, naturalist Sir David Attenborough explores the environmental impact of the Western lifestyle on the entire planet and the crisis that will emerge if all developing countries follow in the path of already developed countries.³² Robert Kenner introduced *Food, Inc.* in 2008, a film that exposes American consumers to the reality of the nation's food production and its effects on farmers, diseases, and food patents.³³ Similarly, Morgan Spurlock's 2004 film *Super Size Me* exposes the negative effects of the global fast food industry and the epidemic of obesity.³⁴ The juxtaposition of the West's overconsumption and the developing realm's evident need exposes food distribution as yet another aspect of agriculture that needs the international community's attention.

Current Environmental Situation

Humanity's largest use of land is for the livestock industry with grazing taking up 26 percent of non-frozen earth and 33 percent of all arable land being designated for feedcrops for farm animals.³⁵ The increase in farm animal production is most severely affecting Latin America, which already suffers from the world's greatest rate of deforestation, and where grazing pastures have taken over 70 percent of forests.³⁶ Eight percent of global water use goes toward the livestock sector alone.³⁷ In 2008, 56 billion animals were raised for human consumption globally. This number is expected to double by 2050 and GHG emissions are expected to rise in direct correlation with the number of animals raised.³⁸ Carbon dioxide (CO₂), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and methane (CH₄) are the three main greenhouse gases. The international community has largely focused on vehicular CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel consumption when discussing global warming, but it is proven that methane and nitrous oxide are even larger contributors to the problem. These gases have higher global warming potentials or GWPs. If CO₂ is assigned a GWP value of one, then in comparison methane has a GWP value of 23 and nitrous oxide a GWP value of 296.³⁹

³¹ *How Many People Can Live on Planet Earth?* 2009. Top Documentary Films.

<http://topdocumentaryfilms.com/how-many-people-can-live-on-planet-earth/>

³² Ibid.

³³ "Hungry for Change." *Food, Inc.* 2008. <http://www.foodincmovie.com/>

³⁴ *Super Size Me.* 2004. Hulu. <http://www.hulu.com/watch/63283/super-size-me>

³⁵ *Livestock's Long Shadow Environmental Issues and Options.* Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2006, p. xxi. http://www.globalwarminghype.com/livestocks_long_shadow.pdf

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ibid., p. xxii.

³⁸ Koneswaran, Gowri and Danielle Nierenberg. "Global Farm Animal Production and Global Warming: Impacting and Mitigating Climate Change." *Environmental Health Perspectives*, Vol. 116, No. 5, May 2008, p. 578.

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/25067924>

³⁹ Ibid.

It is estimated that cutting meat consumption in half would slash more GHG emissions than if car use was cut in half.⁴⁰ The meat industry threatens sustainable agriculture not just through the mass production of animals and emissions, but also what is being fed to them. The practice of feeding animals an unnatural diet, as opposed to natural grass grazing, results in further food insecurity for humans. More than 50 percent of the world's corn crops and 80 percent of soybean crops go toward feedstock for farm animals while both are feeds that the animals would not eat in nature.⁴¹ Furthermore, crops like corn require large amounts of synthetic nitrogen fertilizers and this process is environmentally damaging due to its interruption of Earth's natural nitrogen cycle and its reliance on fossil fuels.⁴²

Pesticides are also widely used in feedcrop and all crop production, but the main issue with pesticides is that the majority of them affect animals, humans, and plants because the chemicals do not narrowly target pests alone.⁴³ The proof of the severity of these chemicals is the fact that, in polar regions where pesticides have never been used, significant levels have been found in the bodies of birds, bears, and fishes.⁴⁴ Soil quality is one of the most important factors affecting agricultural productivity and harmful pesticides can enter soil in multiple ways: release from chemical-treated seeds that are planted, water runoff from treated plants, drifting spray during the pesticide application process, and the use of soil fumigants (pesticides directly put into the soil).⁴⁵ Research finds that adding organic matter to soil can reduce the chance of water pollution by pesticides because the pesticides bind to the organic matter, making them less mobile.⁴⁶ However, it is devastating that pesticides that have been banned are chemically active in the environment for many years beyond their application. For example, DDT lasts in soil for 22-30 years, Chlordecone for 30 years, and Toxaphene for 14 years.⁴⁷ The obvious alternative to pesticide use is to increase organic farming sectors worldwide.

The Codex Alimentarius Commission defines organic agriculture as “a holistic management system that avoids use of synthetic fertilizers, pesticides and genetically modified organisms, minimizes pollution of air, soil, and water, and optimizes the health and productivity of interdependent communities of plants, animals, and people.”⁴⁸ Farmers can meet this standard by employing several sustainable farming methods to optimize energy and nutrient use: appropriate combination of livestock and plants, crop diversity and rotation, legume-nitrogen symbiosis, natural pest controls, and organic manure utilization.⁴⁹ Simply put, farming has to be strategically matched to the precise environment's limits and capabilities. Environmentally, it is estimated that a global implementation of organic farming could cut the agricultural sector's

⁴⁰ Jowit, Juliette. “UN says eat less meat to curb global warming.” *The Observer*. 7 September 2008.

<http://www.guardian.co.uk/environment/2008/sep/07/food.foodanddrink>

⁴¹ Koneswaran, Gowri and Danielle Nierenberg. “Global Farm Animal Production and Global Warming: Impacting and Mitigating Climate Change.” *Environmental Health Perspectives*, Vol. 116, No. 5, May 2008, p. 579.

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/25067924>

⁴² *Ibid.*

⁴³ “Environmental Effect of Pesticides: An impression of recent scientific literature.” Pesticide Action Network of Europe. August 2010.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

⁴⁸ El-Hage Scialabba, Nadia and Maria Müller-Lindenlauf. “Organic Agriculture and Climate Change.” *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems*, Volume 25, March 2010, p. 159.

⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 159.

GHG emissions by approximately 20 percent.⁵⁰ Fiscally speaking, growing certified organic products can provide higher gross incomes for farmers.⁵¹

A movement toward developing greater organic farming capacities would mean a reexamination of land uses in every Member State. According to the UN, land use change is defined as “change over time of the distribution of land uses within a country...characterized by the arrangements, activities, and inputs that people undertake in a specific land cover type to produce, change or maintain it.”⁵² Issues of land use are significant both in regard to the economy and environment because changes in the usage of land will effect crop production and can cause employment in the agricultural sector to fluctuate. Currently, there are no international agreements on consumption and production patterns of land use change.⁵³ However, there is extensive soil research being done at the international level.

The first international analysis of soil deterioration is the Global Assessment of Human Induced Soil Degradation (GLASOD).⁵⁴ This study is conducted by World Soil Information (WSI), also known as the International Soil Reference and Information Center (ISRIC).⁵⁵ GLASOD identifies and maps 12 types of soil degradation, such as erosion, topsoil loss, and wind effects.⁵⁶ WSI has also produces regional soil studies in conjunction with the FAO, including The Mapping of Soil and Terrain Vulnerability in Central and Eastern Europe (SOVEUR) and The Assessment of the Status of Human-Induced Soil Degradation in South and South East Asia (ASSOD).⁵⁷ It is important to note that WSI defines soil as “the living skin of the Earth, overlying bedrock,” and specifies that its primary function is to serve as “our life support system.”⁵⁸ About 17 percent of Earth’s surface suffers from soil degradation and this problem is spreading.⁵⁹ WSI is also active in providing custom education on the applications and science of soil.⁶⁰ One example of this education is SOTER (World SOil and TERrain Digital Database) training.⁶¹ The training uses a computer database to provide knowledge on natural resources, including statistics on climate, land use, and vegetation, and has been applied in several countries: Argentina, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Brazil, China, Ethiopia, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Jordan, Kenya, Lebanon, Morocco, Namibia, South Africa, Syria, Uruguay, Yemen, and Zambia.⁶²

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ Ibid., p. 158.

⁵² “Consumption and Production Patterns.” Division for Sustainable Development. UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. <http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/sdissues/consumption/cpp1224m12.htm>

⁵³ Ibid., 2c.

⁵⁴ “Land Degradation and Land Use/Cover Data Sources.” Statistics Devision of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 31 December 2004, p.1-31. <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/environment/envpdf/landdatafinal.pdf>

⁵⁵ Ibid., p. 4.

⁵⁶ Ibid., p. 5.

⁵⁷ Ibid., p. 6-7.

⁵⁸ “About Soils.” World Soil Information. <http://www.isric.nl/UK/About+Soils/Introduction+to+Soils/>

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ “Training and Education,” World Soil Information. <http://www.isric.nl/NR/exeres/9854C779-8A95-41FE-ABA8-AA252F06D943.htm>

⁶¹ “SOTER training.” World Soil Information. <http://www.isric.nl/UK/About+ISRIC/Services/Training+and+Education/default.htm>

⁶² Ibid.

Current Economic Situation

In 2010 alone, worldwide food costs increased by 25 percent, which the UN attributed to record high meat and sugar costs.⁶³ An estimated one trillion dollars was spent on food imports with the cost for developing Member States increasing by 20 percent from 2009.⁶⁴ Food demand and prices will continue to rise and change for three major reasons: increased purchasing power will accompany economic growth, daily diets are changing due to continued urbanization, and land and water resources are being threatened by the ramifications of climate change.⁶⁵

The current global economic crisis is greatly affecting the agriculture industry and Oxfam has called upon the G-20 to increase food stockpiles by investing in more sustainable agriculture in developing countries.⁶⁶ Luca Chinotti, policy advisor for Oxfam, stated that, “urgent action is needed to avoid a global food crisis like that of 2008.”⁶⁷ Rising food prices could potentially be eased with greater contributions from financial investors. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) agreed with Oxfam’s call for aid as it was accompanied by the recent devastating earthquake in Japan and Arab unrest coupled with record high food prices in March 2011.⁶⁸ The FAO also predicts that the 2011/2012 cereal crops will not be sufficient to replenish the current world demand.⁶⁹ International trade policy improvements will be vital to surviving the upcoming food shortages and projected increasing costs.

The World Trade Organization (WTO) has an Agriculture Agreement and claims that the main objectives of the agreement are to market-orient agricultural policies and reform the trade in this sector.⁷⁰ These objectives pertain to three major areas of agricultural economics: Domestic Support—confirming or raising incomes of farmers and/or prices, subsidies, other state-level programs, Export Subsidies—artificially making products reasonable, and Market Access—setting import trade limits⁷¹

The WTO Agriculture Agreement also mandates that WTO Member States lower subsidized exports, but makes exceptions for countries that need “temporary assistance.” The agreement further refers countries needing food or agricultural aid to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) or World Bank (WB) to finance these ventures.⁷² However, the WTO has been criticized for favoring developed countries, particularly in the agricultural sector. While the WTO claims

⁶³ Bjerga, Alan. “Risk of Riots Rising as Governments Cut Food Subsidies, UN’s Sheeran Says.” Bloomberg. 24 January 2011. <http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2011-01-25/risk-of-riots-rising-as-governments-cut-food-subsidies-un-s-sheeran-says.html>

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Organic Agriculture and Food Security in Africa. United Nations Conference on Trade and Development and the United Nations Environment Programme. UNEP-UNCTAD Capacity Building Task Force on Trade, Environment and Development. 2008. p. vii. http://www.unctad.org/en/docs/ditcted200715_en.pdf

⁶⁶ “UN: World Food Prices Will Continue to Soar as Demand Rises, Supplies Shrink.” 07 April 2011. <http://www.moneynews.com/Economy/UN-World-Food-Prices/2011/04/07/id/392092>

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ “Agriculture.” World Trade Organization. http://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/tif_e/agrm3_e.htm

⁷¹ Ibid.

⁷² Ibid.

that subsidies distort trade, some developing countries have liberalized their agricultural sectors while developed countries continue to subsidize as a general practice.

Fair trade offers an alternative to conventional trade and is quickly gaining attention in the international community. The World Fair Trade Organization (WFTO) defines fair trade as “a trading partnership, based on dialogue, transparency and respect, that seeks greater equity in international trade. It contributes to sustainable development by offering better trading conditions to, and securing the rights of, marginalized producers and workers – especially in the South[ern hemisphere].”⁷³ The WFTO currently works in 76 countries through elected boards to carefully follow a business’s conduct from production to sale.⁷⁴ In 2004 alone, fair trade labeled goods resulted in an additional 100 million US dollars in global revenue for producers that would have been lost without fair trade standards.⁷⁵ Specifically, fair trade coffee is rising in global popularity due to increasing packaging labels and documentaries like *Black Gold*. Set mainly in Ethiopia, the film emphasizes that coffee is the most valuable trade commodity in the world (only second to crude oil), being an industry worth more than 80 billion dollars worldwide.⁷⁶

Finally, two of the major factors in determining the agricultural needs of a Member State are both economic and population growth. The UN projects that the current world population of 6.5 billion will grow to a little over 9 billion by 2050.⁷⁷ Most importantly, developing Member States account for 95 percent of that population growth and the fastest population growth rate is occurring in the 50 least developed countries in the world.⁷⁸ The agricultural sector provides the primary source of income for an average 60 percent of the population of sub-Saharan Africa and about 50 percent of the income in Asia and the Pacific.⁷⁹ In South Asia, Southeast Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa, the agricultural sector is the primary source of employment for both men and women in rural areas. While more men work in agriculture in Latin America, women occupy more agricultural jobs in the Middle East and North Africa.⁸⁰ The FAO states that women represent 42 percent of agricultural labor in developing countries, but a lack of access to resources keeps their production levels lower than that of their male counterparts.⁸¹ Hypothetically, if men and women had equally distributed opportunities and materials, women could increase their farm yields by 20-30 percent, in turn increasing the agricultural production of developing countries by 2.5-4 percent. An increase of this magnitude could potentially decrease the global number of people suffering from hunger by 17 percent.⁸²

⁷³ “What is Fair Trade?” World Fair Trade Organization. 20 July 2011.

http://www.wfto.com/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=1507&Itemid=293

⁷⁴ Ibid.

⁷⁵ Global Market Review of Fairtrade and Ethical Food: Forecasts to 2012. Just-Food. 31 May 2006.

<http://www.marketresearch.com/Global-Review-Fairtrade-Ethical-1300031/>

⁷⁶ “The Story.” *Black Gold: The Film*. <http://www.blackgoldmovie.com/story.php>

⁷⁷ “Introduction.” *Livestock’s Long Shadow Environmental Issues and Options*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United

Nations. 2006, p. 7. http://www.globalwarminghype.com/livestocks_long_shadow.pdf

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ El-Hage Scialabba, Nadia and Maria Müller-Lindenlauf. “Organic Agriculture and Climate Change.” *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems*, Volume 25, March 2010, p. 158-169.

⁸⁰ “Gender: Insight.” Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 02 July 2010.

http://www.fao.org/gender/gender-home/gender-insight/gender-insightdet/en/?dyna_fef%5Buid%5D=50747

⁸¹ “The State of Food and Agriculture 2010-11.” Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

<http://www.fao.org/publications/sofa/en/>

⁸² Ibid.

UN Actions

The General Assembly Plenary dedicated June 2, 2011 to a debate on concepts related to a green economy and the 2012 Rio+20 Conference will also focus on this theme.⁸³ The aim of the debate was to explore economic development, environmental protections, and poverty alleviation. GA Plenary President Joseph Deiss offered “where sustainable development is the destination, green economy offers a pathway.”⁸⁴ He went on to say:

*We urgently need a new development model. Our current consumption and production patterns impact too heavily on natural resources. Biodiversity is being lost rapidly. Climate change is a significant concern in particular for developing countries which are disproportionately affected. We are reaching the limits of our planet’s carrying capacity.*⁸⁵

In order to determine the current global economic status, the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) and the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) have paired up to produce the World Economic Situation and Prospects (WESP) report.⁸⁶ This report provides key economic issues of the international community along with short- and long-term goals for a stronger world economy. Its most important purpose is to serve as a negotiating reference for UN bodies for discussions economic and social issues.⁸⁷

The FAO, headquartered in Rome, was established in 1945.⁸⁸ Since then, its primary goal has become eradicating global hunger, especially in rural areas and developing Member States, but the methods used to combat this problem are multifaceted. The FAO released a study in 2006 that emphasized the future effects of current and developing farm animal practices on the environment entitled *Livestock’s Long Shadow Environmental Issues and Options*.⁸⁹ In June 2008, the FAO also hosted the High-Level Conference on World Food Security: the Challenges of Climate Change and Bioenergy. This conference served to directly address the issues of the geographic areas that suffer most from hunger and will also be most affected by climate change.⁹⁰ Most recently, the organization released *Growing Food for Nine Billion: FAO at work 2009-2010*.⁹¹ This ground-breaking study outlines the challenge of providing food for nine billion people by 2050 without fully compromising Earth’s environment. The Livestock, Environment and Development (LEAD) initiative is another FAO consortium that strives to reduce poverty

⁸³ GA/11083. ENV/DEV/1219. “UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY TO DEBATE GREEN ECONOMY, KEY THEME FOR RIO+20.” General Assembly Plenary. Department of Public Information, News and Media Division. 1 June 2011. <http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2011/ga11083.doc.htm>

⁸⁴ Ibid.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ World Economic Situation and Prospect. United Nations Development Policy and Analysis Division. <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/policy/wesp/index.shtml>

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ “About FAO”. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <http://www.fao.org/about/en/>

⁸⁹ Livestock’s Long Shadow Environmental Issues and Options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Rome. 2006. http://www.globalwarminghype.com/livestocks_long_shadow.pdf

⁹⁰ “Climate change, energy and food.” Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <http://www.fao.org/foodclimate/hlc-home/en/>

⁹¹ Growing Food for Nine Billion: FAO at work 2009-2010. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/am023e/am023e00.pdf>

while also protecting and improving the planet's resources that are negatively affected by the livestock industry.⁹²

The FAO Organic Agriculture Programme works to increase access to organic farming in Member States, ensure both food security and sustainable rural development, and aid in international organic certification and marketing.⁹³ In addition to this initiative, UNCTAD has joined forces with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) to form the UNEP-UNCTAD Capacity Building Task Force on Trade, Environment and Development (CBTF).⁹⁴ The CBTF introduces its projects in phases because it primarily functions through outside donors.⁹⁵ This group is one of the most pertinent to this topic because it combines every aspect of economics and agriculture to focus on four major themes:

- I: Biotrade Capacity Building—Expanding new investments, trade markets, and businesses by providing incentives and creating jobs for bio-diverse products and industries⁹⁶
- II: Environmental Goods and Services (EGS)—Liberalizing and increasing trade in EGSs like eco-friendly infrastructure and technology and better management of resources⁹⁷
- III: Organic Agriculture(OA)—specific country projects and research on the positive local effects of OA⁹⁸
- IV: Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs)-WTO Relationship—mediating with and encouraging cooperation between environment and trade policymakers through workshops⁹⁹

Also overseen by the UNEP, the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants of 2001 is an international pact headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland that strives to protect environmental and human health from the harmful effects of pollutants through the elimination or reduction of harmful compounds.¹⁰⁰ Focusing on the elimination of Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) is extremely important because these chemicals stay intact in the environment for an extended amount of time and are stored in the fat tissues of both humans and animals when exposed and/or consumed.¹⁰¹ Because POPs travel over geographic boundaries, governments must coordinate their efforts to avoid the devastating effects of these pollutants: birth defects, cancers, damage to immunity and reproduction, increased disease susceptibility,

⁹² “LEAD Home.” Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <http://www.fao.org/agriculture/lead/en/>

⁹³ “Organic Agriculture Home.” Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <http://www.fao.org/organicag/oa-home/en/>

⁹⁴ “CBTF: Capacity Building Task Force on Trade Environment and Development.” <http://www.unep-unctad.org/cbtf/>

⁹⁵ Ibid.

⁹⁶ “Capacity Building for Biotrade (CBBT).” Capacity Building Task Force on Trade Environment and Development. <http://www.unep-unctad.org/cbtf/>

⁹⁷ “Environmental Goods and Services.” Capacity Building Task Force on Trade Environment and Development. <http://www.unep-unctad.org/cbtf/>

⁹⁸ “Organic Agriculture.” Capacity Building Task Force on Trade Environment and Development. <http://www.unep-unctad.org/cbtf/>

⁹⁹ “MEAs-WTO Relationship.” Capacity Building Task Force on Trade Environment and Development. <http://www.unep-unctad.org/cbtf/>

¹⁰⁰ “About the Convention.” Stockholm Convention: Protecting human health and the environment from persistent organic pollutants. United Nations Environment Programme. <http://chm.pops.int/Convention/tabid/54/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

and intelligence diminishment.¹⁰² Aside from the environmental devastation, POPs have a huge economic impact because these diseases are highly preventable through the implementation of organic farming practices. Member States, and even regional organizations, can become party to the Convention by submitting an instrument of ratification to the Convention.¹⁰³

There are no international agreements on animal rights, but the World Society for the Protection of Animals (WSPA) is calling for the United Nations to achieve a Universal Declaration on Animal Welfare (UDAW).¹⁰⁴ A UDAW would include three main points: animals are sentient beings that feel suffering, animal welfare should be respected, and animal cruelty must come to an end. Other groups calling for an UDAW are Compassion in World Farming (CIWF), the Humane Society International (HSI), the International Fund for Animal Welfare (IFAW), and the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (RSPCA).¹⁰⁵ Most importantly, a UDAW could help shape international agricultural policy by emphasizing that farm animal welfare needs global attention, drawing attention to the role of animals in environmental policy formation, and leading Member States to form and enforce better state-level animal policies.

Non-UN Actions

Founded in 1982, the Pesticide Action Network works in more than 60 countries utilizing 600+ NGOs and groups to replace contaminating pesticides with environmentally stable alternatives.¹⁰⁶ The vision of this organization is “a world in which high agricultural productivity is achieved by truly sustainable production systems in which agrochemical inputs and environmental damage are minimized and where local people control local production using local varieties of funding.”¹⁰⁷ The most efficient way of channeling money beneficially is to support businesses that avoid harmful practices and educate consumers on business operations. Better World Shopper is a website and application that encourages consumers to “vote” daily with their dollars, by providing buyers with environmental and social data on a multitude of companies.¹⁰⁸ The power of money is evident in the agricultural sector and tools like this can be used to increase everyday contributions to companies that should be rewarded and to penalize companies that are not using sustainable methods. Companies are categorized by their main products and graded (ranging from A+ to F) based on 5 main criteria:

- Animal Protection—animal testing and treatment, mass farming techniques
- Community Involvement—participation with local businesses, alliances with nonprofits, volunteerism
- Environmentalism—contributions to climate change and deforestation, recycling, polluting, use of renewable energy, eco-friendly farming, illegal waste dumping

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ “Status on Ratification.” Stockholm Convention: Protecting human health and the environment from persistent organic pollutants. United Nations Environmental Programme.

<http://chm.pops.int/Countries/StatusofRatification/tabid/252/language/en-US/Default.aspx>

¹⁰⁴ “Universal Declaration on Animal Welfare.” Compassion in World Farming.

http://www.ciwf.org.uk/animal_sentience/universal_declaration_on_animal_welfare/default.aspx

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

¹⁰⁶ “Profile.” Pesticide Action Network Europe. <http://www.pan-europe.info/About/index.html>

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ “The Idea.” Better World Shopper. <http://www.betterworldshopper.com/idea.html>

- Human Rights—use of child laborers and sweatshops, exploitation of developing countries, health implications
- Social Justice—discrimination, history of health and safety, fair wages, deaths, blocking of unions¹⁰⁹

For example, Ben & Jerry's Ice Cream is listed in Better World Shoppers list entitled "The 20 Best Companies."¹¹⁰ The world-famous confectionary company is well-known for its use of hormone-free products and has partnered with Vermont's State Agency of Agriculture, the Center for Sustainable Agriculture (University of Vermont), and St. Albans Cooperative Creamery to establish the Dairy Stewardship Alliance (DSA).¹¹¹ The DSA utilizes family farms and provides self-assessment mechanisms so that farmers themselves can realize the economic, environmental, and social impact of their operations. The DSA also teaches sustainable farming methods and serves as a cornerstone for the launching of other sustainable programs like it.¹¹² At the other end of the spectrum, the three companies topping "The 20 Worst Companies" list are Exxon Mobile, Kraft, and Walmart (in that order).¹¹³

Ultimately, personal dietary choice is the most powerful weapon in the fight for sustainable agriculture. The most obvious change in diet would be a movement toward veganism or vegetarianism. Veganism is defined as "a way of living that seeks to exclude, as far as possible and practicable, all forms of exploitation of, and cruelty to, animals for food, clothing and any other purpose."¹¹⁴ Vegetarianism, even on a limited basis, could contribute to more sustainable agriculture around the globe. Dr. Rajendra Pachauri, Nobel Peace Prize winner and chair of the UN Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), endorses individuals to have at least one meat-free day a week in order to personally combat climate change.¹¹⁵

Conclusion

According to the Division for Sustainable Development of the UNDESA, the obstacles to successful national and international agricultural policies are insufficient monitoring and analysis mechanisms, a failure to consider sustainability when developing policies, and ignorance of the environmental effects of current economic policies.¹¹⁶ Ultimately, international law is the appropriate venue for composing agricultural land-use policy because "there is a need to integrate sustainable development considerations with agricultural policy analysis and planning in all countries, particularly in developing countries."¹¹⁷

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

¹¹⁰ "Top Twenty." Better World Shopper. <http://www.betterworldshopper.com/topten.html>

¹¹¹ "Social & Environmental Assessment 2006." Ben & Jerry's. http://www.benjerry.com/company/sear/2006/sear06_6.1.cfm

¹¹² Ibid.

¹¹³ "Top Twenty." Better World Shopper. <http://www.betterworldshopper.com/worst.html>

¹¹⁴ "Who We Are." The Vegan Society. <http://www.vegansociety.com/about/who-we-are.aspx>

¹¹⁵ Jowit, Juliette. "UN says eat less meat to curb global warming." The Observer. 7 September 2008.

http://www.guardian.co.uk/environment/2008/sep/07/food_foodanddrink

¹¹⁶ "Agenda 21. Section II: Conservation & Management of Resources for Development. Chapter 14: Promoting Sustainable Agriculture & Rural Development. 14.7" Division for Sustainable Development. UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. http://www.un.org/esa/dsd/agenda21/res_agenda21_14.shtml

¹¹⁷ Ibid., 14.5.

Price correction is also desperately needed in order to reflect the monetary value of natural resources. Water and land resources are readily polluted and exploited because they are obtained for free or at an underrated price.¹¹⁸ Agricultural policy reforms are needed at local, state, and international levels in order for environmental sustainability and food security to be achieved. It is imperative that humanity change its food consumption habits in order to change production. A major shift towards purchasing primarily organic agricultural products and a reduction in the consumption of eggs, meat, and milk is needed in order to improve the international community's economic and environmental futures. The real burden of an agricultural revolution of this magnitude should be placed upon developed countries because of their overconsumption of resources and dictation of production structures. A real change in these more affluent regions will help shape sustainable agricultural development of developing Member States.

Committee Directive

Delegates are expected to explore the links provided in this guide as most of the documents within outline major agricultural issues of specific regions. The first step in research is to find information on Member State's Ministry or Department of Agriculture and pinpoint both major products and ways to improve the agricultural sector. The purpose of this committee topic isn't to justify practices that harm the environment for the sake of the economy, but to find a way to enhance both. Delegates mostly need to be aware of economic and population growth within their Member State and region seeing as these two statistics are the largest determinants of agricultural need.

Topic II: Analyzing Member States' Security Policies to Promote Economic Growth

Introduction

As stipulated by Article 55 of the United Nations Charter, the United Nations (UN) was established "with a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations."¹¹⁹ In the post-9/11 era, a period where international relations have become strained and hostile, state security has become an increasingly important component for developing the aforementioned economic, social, and political conditions within the international community. The issue continues to influence the domestic actions of Member States, as well as the structure of the political and economic interactions in today's globalized world.

The world is slowly recovering from the past decade's financial crises, and seems to be suffering from greater political polarization and outright conflict, but policy makers have only just started to analyze the impact that state security has on economic growth. The breadth of this issue extends to several of the key topics on the United Nation's agenda, namely regional cooperation and coordination, economic stability, and international security. These issues are intertwined, as substantial regional cooperation, stable economic markets, and secure political and social

¹¹⁸ Ibid., p. xxiii.

¹¹⁹ *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. June 26, 1945.

situations are all important for the development of consistent economic growth. From this, an association can be drawn between the policies enacted by Member States in relation to domestic, regional, and international security and future economic growth prospects. Threats to national security limit the development of and often destroy essential industrial, transportation, military, and technological infrastructures that are critical for any developing economy.

Member States and transnational corporations alike are attracted to secure and stabilize economies in order to mitigate the economic risk associated with foreign investment and development. Politically unstable Member States that lack sufficient state security mechanisms often fail to achieve the significant, sustainable rates of economic growth experienced by more developed nations. The UN is well aware of the importance of state security in fortifying the growth of the global economy, and as such, the UN has hoped to develop individual Member State's security policies as a means to attain widespread economic growth and stability. It has become the goal of the General Assembly to expand the scope of this security issue in order to address economic stability in these uncertain financial times.

History

Forged in the aftermath of World War II, one of the UN's initial undertakings was to cohesively unite the political and economic policies of its Member States as a means of addressing the changing international climate. The focus of the UN was not solely about developing security and peace for international order; it was also to create an environment that would allow the global economy to recover from the devastation that occurred during the war. Throughout the course of the war, the loss of key resources, specifically human and economic capital, was tremendous. It is estimated that 60 million people, including 20 million military members and 40 million civilians, lost their lives.¹²⁰ In order to compensate for the economic losses that were incurred during the war, it was decided during the Potsdam conference of 1945 that the total reparations necessary amounted to \$20 billion.¹²¹ With this devastation now explicitly defined, it is clear that at this point in time, the task of peace-building through economic and political interconnection would be directly correlated to the network of individual state security policies.

The Member States involved in the Second World War have since recovered and experienced a significant growth in industrialization. According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the economies of wartime participants experienced substantial economic growth during the recovery process.¹²² According to this report which covers average annual economic growth between 1950 and 1973, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States experienced growth rates of 3.8 percent, 2.5 percent, 4.1 percent, 4.6 percent, 2.5 percent, and 1.5 percent respectively.¹²³ This can be largely attributed to the rapid international trade integration that followed the conclusion of the war.¹²⁴ These industrialized Member States quickly opened their economies by reducing international

¹²⁰ Keegan, John. *The Times Atlas of the Second World War*. Grand Rapids: Harpercollins. 1989, p. 204.

¹²¹ "Potsdam Conference Excerpt." The Public Broadcasting Service. 2009.

¹²² Van Ark, Bart. "Issues in Measurement and International Comparison Issues of Productivity-An Overview." The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. January, 1991. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/5/51/1825490.pdf>

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ Ibid.

tariffs by 40 percent.¹²⁵ Following the introduction of this policy, foreign direct investment between Member States increased dramatically, further assisting the reconstruction of political and economic relationships. What can be taken from these events that followed World War II is that an international template based on a strong association between security policies and economic integration was developed.

Over the past two decades, the strengths and weaknesses of this security-economic relationship have been made evident. Member States that have coordinated security policies have developed substantial economic relations, while Member States that are afflicted by an unstable domestic climate have suffered the economic consequences. The series of conflicts that have occurred throughout the Middle East and Africa best exhibit this point. Following the first Gulf War, Iraq's unstable political environment had direct consequences on its economic growth. Per capita income dropped from \$3,450 in 1989 to \$450 in 1996.¹²⁶ The destruction of key economic infrastructure and loss of military and civilian lives led to a lengthy rebuilding process that continued to limit Iraq's economic growth prospects up until the second Gulf War began.¹²⁷ The sanctions issued by the Security Council Resolution 661 also crippled Iraq's economic relations at both the regional and international level.¹²⁸ Member States and transnational corporations specifically avoided Iraq because of the unstable political and economic condition, further compounding the diminishment of economic growth.¹²⁹

This diminished growth can also be related to the relative instability of the Middle East region as a whole, even though regional economic integration has become a focal point of UN security policy. In June of 1992, the Secretary General issued a speech entitled "An Agenda for Peace."¹³⁰ In his speech, Boutros-Boutros Gali outlined his vision for the future of international relations, specifically by emphasizing the need for economic growth as a necessary platform of peacekeeping.¹³¹ According to the Secretary General, "only sustained, cooperative work to deal with underlying economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems can place an achieved peace on a durable foundation."¹³² More specifically, he focused on regional cooperation to establish this foundation. Since this monumental speech, regional cooperation has become a dominant force in political, economic, and peace-building relationships, further expanding the importance of domestic Member State security policies.

Another important aspect of the Secretary General's speech was the discussion of the changing role of UN Peacekeeping (UNP), as the organization transformed into the UN's primary organ for developing peace-keeping and peace-building policies for Member States.¹³³ Once an organization that primarily focused on monitoring state conflict, the mandate of the UNP was expanded to focus on the fact that "it is essential that reform of a country's security sector takes

¹²⁵ Grieco, Joseph. "The International Political Economy Since World War II." Columbia International Affairs Online. October 2000. <https://www.ciaonet.org/casestudy/grj01/grj01.pdf>

¹²⁶ Sen, B. "2003 IRQ: Iraq Watching Briefs-Overview Report." United Nation's Children Fund. July, 2003. http://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/index_29697.html

¹²⁷ Ibid.

¹²⁸ S/RES/661. *On the Situation Between Iraq and Kuwait*. United Nations Security Council. August 6, 1990.

¹²⁹ Ibid.

¹³⁰ Gali, B. "An Agenda for Peace." United Nation's Security Council. June, 1992.

¹³¹ Ibid.

¹³² Ibid.

¹³³ Ibid.

place once a conflict has come to an end; it is vital for sustainable peace and development that people feel safe and secure, and have confidence in their State.”¹³⁴ This updated mandate provided the UNP with the foundation for international peace-keeping and peace-building that remains in effect today.

Current Situation

As previously discussed, global conflicts have spread to regions within the international community where insufficient state security and lagging economic growth have become commonplace. These conflicts have further defined the relationship between economic growth and state security, as it has become apparent that one is not the cause of the other. In fact, modern conflicts have demonstrated the dependent relationship that these two key issues have on one another. Without sufficient state security, economic growth is imperiled. However, poor economic growth is a threat to state security in and of itself. Over the past decade, the course of international conflicts has changed, and so has the impact these conflicts have on developing economies. In order to best promote state security and economic growth, the UN has increased its reliance on regional organizations to promote integrated security policies and develop peace-keeping and peace-building mechanisms.

The UN has continued its efforts of building and maintaining relationships with regional organizations throughout the international community. By developing this avenue of cooperation and coordination, the UN has integrated these organizations within the framework for developing Member State security policies. This regional approach was strengthened by Security Council Resolution 1631, which emphasizes “that the growing contributions made by regional organizations in cooperation with the United Nations can usefully complement the work of the organization in maintaining international peace and security.”¹³⁵ To accomplish this goal, the Resolution promotes the use of regional organizations in UN peace-keeping and peace-building operations.¹³⁶ These organizations can reduce the strain that ensuring international peace and security has placed on UN resources.

One such organization is the Organization for Security and Co-Operation in Europe (OSCE). This organization focuses on enhancing regional security throughout Europe by advancing channels for cooperation and coordination.¹³⁷ The OSCE describes itself as an organization whose “comprehensive view of security covers three ‘dimensions’: the politico-military; the economic and environmental; and the human.”¹³⁸ This focus encompasses several key international security issues, including arms control, border management, terrorism, as well as the economic activities of its Member States.¹³⁹ A key publication issued by the OSCE outlines a plan for developing a “Euro-Atlantic security community.”¹⁴⁰ Current Euro-Atlantic relations have fallen short of developing sufficient security mechanism, as “The behaviour of states in the

¹³⁴ “State Security Reform.” United Nations Peacekeeping. <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/issues/security.shtml>

¹³⁵ S/Res/1631. Resolution 1631 (2005). The Security Council. October 17, 2005.

¹³⁶ Ibid.

¹³⁷ “What We Do.” The Organization for Security and Co-Operation in Europe. <http://www.osce.org/what>

¹³⁸ Ibid.

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ “A Euro-Atlantic security community for the 21st century.” The Organization for Security and Co-Operation in Europe. June 2011. <http://www.osce.org/secretariat/80452>

Euro-Atlantic security community often fails to live up to their rhetoric about shared interests in peace and security.”¹⁴¹ The OSCE calls for a strengthening of this community in hopes that coordinated actions can combat the security challenges brought about by technological change and globalization.¹⁴² The OSCE represents only one example of an organization that concentrates on establishing multilateral relations to address international security.

It has become clear that these organizations allow Member States to address this issue outside of the confines of the UN, while also enacting policies in a region-oriented manner. Former Secretary General Kofi Annan acknowledged this point in December of 2002, stating that “multi-lateral institutions have never been more important than today.”¹⁴³ Annan further developed this theme when commending the work of the OSCE, which he described as “a natural complement to the United Nations’ goals, particularly as they relate to conflict prevention in cooperation with regional partners.”¹⁴⁴ The attention paid to the importance of regional organizations began with the former Secretary General following September 11th, but has only increased in the following years. The UN has advanced its relations with these organizations so as to establish a solid foundation for future efforts to ensure international security.

Actions taken by the United Nations

Until recently, Member State security and sustainable economic growth have been two separate components of the UN agenda. As such, there has been little direct debate on how to resolve international conflicts by simultaneously addressing both issues. Instead, past UN actions have focused primarily on establishing security prior to implementing any form of economic development policy. This mindset has dominated every realm of UN involvement, ranging from Security Council intervention, GA resolutions, to peacekeeping operations. This model has proven itself insufficient in establishing long-term security and sustainable economic development policies.

Five years after Secretary General Boutros-Boutros Gali outlined his “Agenda for Peace,” the GA issued supplementary Resolution A/RES/51/242.¹⁴⁵ Building upon the initial Agenda, this resolution further solidified cooperation at the regional and international levels as the next step towards enhancing international security.¹⁴⁶ This resolution provides an in-depth outline of how coordination within the UN system should be facilitated to best promote the UN’s founding principles.¹⁴⁷ The Resolution notes the complexity of the peace-keeping and peace-building aspects of state security, stating that “the responsibilities involved in peacemaking, as well as in peace-building activities and peacekeeping operations which can be multifunctional, transcend the competence and expertise of any one department, program, fund, office or agency of the United Nations.”¹⁴⁸ This concept was reiterated and expanded upon during the 65th session of the GA. In Resolution A/RES/65/122, the GA stressed the importance of the Collective Security

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

¹⁴² Ibid.

¹⁴³ SG/SM/8543. The Office of the Secretary General. December 12, 2002.

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

¹⁴⁵ A/RES/51/242. *Supplement to An Agenda for Peace*. General Assembly. September 26, 1997.

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid.

¹⁴⁸ Ibid.

Treaty Organization (CSTO) in relation to developing regional cooperation in areas such as “strengthening regional security and stability, peacekeeping... contributes to the attainment of the purposes and principles of the United Nations.”¹⁴⁹ This Resolution is a notable example of the previous discussion surrounding efforts made by the UN to establish a complex coordination network between the various organs of the UN and a number of the key intergovernmental organizations (IGO) that are involved with establishing international security.

Another resolution passed during the 65th session, A/RES/65/41, works to develop a standard level of communications technology throughout the international community in order to promote comprehensive multilateral relations.¹⁵⁰ This Resolution is of great importance within the context of international security, as a growing technology gap has hindered communication efforts between Member States to coordinate and enact security policies.¹⁵¹ A lack informational infrastructure throughout the developing world is one of the issues that has led to both unstable security situations and limited economic growth. This source of infrastructure is necessary in both of these fields and this Resolution identifies the development of such infrastructure as one of the first steps of the UN’s present-day security and economic platform.¹⁵²

As previously discussed, the UN has refined this regional framework as a means to address the key issues leading up to, during, and in the long-term peace-building phase of a conflict over the past decade. In GA Resolution A/Res/65/83, the role of regional organizations in the peace process was further defined.¹⁵³ This Resolution notes that a number of issues, namely disarmament and border control, can be addressed at the regional level far more effectively than on an international scale.¹⁵⁴ The Resolution also emphasizes regional cooperation to address the need of strengthening “the capacity of conflict prevention and peacekeeping.”¹⁵⁵ By incorporating these regional organs under the UN umbrella, the UN greatly increases the domestic resources available to develop adequate state security capabilities, thus promoting sustainable growth and development.

Case Study: The Democratic Republic of the Congo

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) is just one example of an economically underdeveloped Member State that lacks sufficient state security policies and resources. Over the last 50 years, the DRC has been riddled with almost constant conflict, be it domestic or regional. During the most recent conflict, which began in 1983, it is estimated that three million lives were lost due to a combination of fighting, malnutrition, and disease.¹⁵⁶ This overwhelming loss of human life, coupled with severely underdeveloped energy, transportation,

¹⁴⁹ A/RES/65/122. *Cooperation between the United Nations and the Collective Security Treaty Organization*. General Assembly. February 10, 2011.

¹⁵⁰ A/RES/65/41. *Developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security*. General Assembly. January 11, 2011.

¹⁵¹ *Ibid.*

¹⁵² *Ibid.*

¹⁵³ A/Res/65/83. *Regional confidence-building measures: activities of the United Nations Standing Advisory Committee on Security Questions in Central Africa*. General Assembly. January 11, 2011.

¹⁵⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁵⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁵⁶ “Democratic Republic of Congo Country Profile.” British Broadcasting Corporation. May 17, 2011. http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/country_profiles/1076399.stm

industrial, and agricultural infrastructure, has greatly limited the economic growth and development within the country. Even though a peace accord was signed in 2003, ending a nearly 20 year struggle, pockets of conflict continue to hinder efforts to maintain peace as well as develop this crucial infrastructure system.¹⁵⁷

The United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, known as MONUSCO was established by Security Council Resolution 1729 in November of 1999.¹⁵⁸ The mission was initially authorized with 22,000 uniformed personnel whose goal was to establish peace within this war-torn Member State.¹⁵⁹ At the present, nearly 20,000 uniformed personnel are deployed in the DRC as the UN military presence has been reduced over the past decade.¹⁶⁰ This mission's last approved budget for military, police, civilian, and operational requirements amounted to \$369 billion, making the operation the third-most expensive operation currently on the UN budget.¹⁶¹

Human and monetary cost aside, this mission has struggled to fulfill its initial mandate of bringing peace and stability to the DRC, let alone begin the lengthy rebuilding process of the country. Security Council Resolution 1925 was adopted on May 28, 2010 to "reflect the new phase reached in the country."¹⁶² In this Resolution, MONUSCO's mandate was updated to address recent developments in the mission's progress as well as the evolving needs of the DRC's government. Peace consolidation and sustainable growth have become the primary focus of this UN operation.¹⁶³ This change of approach is demonstrated by Article 9 of this Resolution, which "calls upon the United Nations system, along with international partners, to focus its efforts on helping the Government of the Democratic Republic of the Congo to consolidate the conditions to ensure effective protection of civilians and sustainable development."¹⁶⁴ Since the Resolution also notes the significant progress made towards establishing peace throughout the country, the UN is now focusing on developing the DRC's domestic security capabilities to ensure sustainable growth upon MONUSCO's conclusion.¹⁶⁵

In a report issued in May of 2011, Secretary General Ban Ki-moon further promoted this framework for the DRC's future. Ban acknowledges the operation's success in handing integral state security responsibilities back to the national government.¹⁶⁶ Eight of the 69 police and administrative facilities built as a part of the peacekeeping operation were recently handed over to national authorities, marking one of the initial steps in developing an autonomous state security system within the DRC.¹⁶⁷ The Secretary General also reported on the importance of

¹⁵⁷ Ibid.

¹⁵⁸ "MONUC." United Nations Peacekeeping. <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/missions/monuc/index.shtml>

¹⁵⁹ "MONUSCO Facts and Figures." United Nations Peacekeeping.

<http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/missions/monusco/facts.shtml>

¹⁶⁰ Ibid.

¹⁶¹ A/C.5/65/15. *Approved resources for peacekeeping operations for the period from 1 July 2010 to 30 June 2011*. General Assembly. February 7, 2011.

¹⁶² "Helping bring peace and stability in the DRC" United Nations Peacekeeping.

<http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/missions/monuc/index.shtml>

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ S/Res/1925. *Resolution 1925 (2010)*. Security Council. May 28, 2010.

¹⁶⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶⁶ S/2011/298. *Report of the Secretary-General on the United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo*. Security Council. May 12, 2011.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

regional relations in developing the DRC's state security capacity.¹⁶⁸ Regional integration efforts have been marred by a lengthy conflict history between the DRC and bordering nations.¹⁶⁹ To compensate for this lack of regional cooperation, partnerships with Member States such as China, India, Korea, and Brazil have expanded the DRC's mining, construction, technological, and agricultural capabilities through loans and joint-works projects.¹⁷⁰ However, the contributions from these Members have not developed a balanced economy throughout the country. The results from these partnerships have led to uneven growth throughout the country, as security remains an issue with all developmental projects. Even though the DRC has grown by an average of 6.4 percent over the past two years, it is clear that the foundation for sustainable economic growth has yet to be established.¹⁷¹

Critique of the Security/Development Relationship

The concluding remarks of the above case study bring about one of the more important issues with the relationship between state security and economic development. A large number of underdeveloped Member States are rich with the natural resources necessary for sustained economic growth, but have had their development derailed as their resources have been extracted by the developed world at extremely low costs. This theme helps to explain why the DRC, among other Member States, has failed to develop the sufficient security resources necessary for long-term growth. These often unstable and conflict-ridden Member States have experienced increased foreign investment, which has been primarily focused on natural resources. Because of this resource manipulation, many underdeveloped Member States have been unable to develop a foundation for security and development.

The Question of China

In an econometric analysis published by Ivar Kolstad and Arne Wiig, it was concluded that "Chinese Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is conducted to exploit countries with poor institutions and large natural resources."¹⁷² In their analysis, the authors craft a striking critique of this investment strategy, noting that "This may be particularly harmful, since Chinese investment would then play straight into key dysfunctions of resource rich developing countries, possibly exacerbating resource-related problems."¹⁷³ The Chinese strategy propagates the poor institutions that riddle the developing world, specifically in Africa and Latin America. A similar conclusion was drawn from analysis of a Chinese white paper published regarding investment in Latin America and the Caribbean. The Council on Hemispheric Affairs (COHA) analyzed this white paper, concluding that much of Chinese investment is spurred by securing their natural resource interests.¹⁷⁴ The analysis continues, reporting that "the Chinese government seems to show interest in infrastructure projects not directly related to its economy, albeit essential in the

¹⁶⁸ Ibid.

¹⁶⁹ Ibid.

¹⁷⁰ "Overview of the DRC." African Economic Outlook. <http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/en/countries/central-africa/congo-democratic-republic/>

¹⁷¹ Ibid.

¹⁷² Ivar Kolstad and Arne Wiig. "What determines Chinese outward FDI?" Chr. Michelsen Institute. <http://www.cmi.no/file/?778>

¹⁷³ Ibid.

¹⁷⁴ COHA. "China's Policy Paper on Latin America and the Caribbean." Council on Hemispheric Affairs. July 29, 2009. <http://www.coha.org/china/%e2%80%99s-policy-paper-on-latin-america-and-the-caribbean/>

transportation of natural resources, and proposes to fund these projects in order to be perceived as a partner in development.”¹⁷⁵

These two separate analyses raise questions about the security/development relationship. Member States such as China may have manipulated lesser developed economies for their resources, and targeted Member States with little to no institutional control.¹⁷⁶ This investment strategy, widely utilized by the developed world, has created a paradox in this relationship. The developed Member States center their foreign investment policy on the perpetuation this advantageous investment in foreign resources. However, doing so greatly limits the economic growth and development of Member States such as the DRC, as they are unable to acquire the necessary resources to develop substantial security mechanisms. In turn, the lack security mechanisms propagate the pattern of diminished economic growth.

Conclusion

The security policies enacted by Member States have a direct influence on economic growth. It is clear that Member States with successful security policies have experienced significant economic progress, while those torn by conflict lack the capabilities for developing long-term economic growth. It is time that the GA effectively addresses both issues together, as a failure to address one will ultimately lead to a failure in the policies aimed at the other. With this in mind, the UN must further strengthen its relations with regional organizations to better allow Member States to develop domestic security resources. Expanding the network of security relations at the regional level will promote coordinated actions between Member States and intergovernmental organizations. The enhancement of this cooperation and coordination will be essential in revitalizing international security policies and promoting sustainable economic growth. It is at this front that the future efforts to institute an international community grounded in peace-making and peace-building rests.

Committee Directive

The committee should focus on how to best address the next step of the current UN security platform. The foundation for enhanced regional cooperation and coordination has already been established and is outlined above. Below are a series of questions that should guide Member States in the process of developing proposed policies. What is the current state of domestic security in your country? Which security policies have been successful? Which policies have failed? How can these successes and failures be applied to the topic? How have your country’s domestic security policies affected economic growth? Is your country an active participant in a regional organization that has addressed the affect regional integration has had on state security and economic growth? How else can security policies be utilized to promote economic growth? How can economic growth policies be utilized to strengthen Member State security?

¹⁷⁵ Ibid.

¹⁷⁶ Ibid.

Topic III: Engaging the Youth of Member States Economically, Politically, and Socially

It is essential that we utilise and work with and get the views of and partner with young people. It's not an option for us. Even if you were to reject us today, we have to keep trying because there's no alternative. It also is the most effective way that we can work, to work with young people, to understand young people, and to advance programmes and to design them with you.

– James Wolfenson, former President of the World Bank

Introduction

There is nothing new about the difficulty of the transition from childhood to adulthood in civil society. The middle-ground of adolescence and youth is fraught with struggles over issues core to a person's identity such as gender, sexuality, values, and self-worth. The UN has defined the span of youth as the time between a person's 15th and 25th birthday, and today approximately one-sixth of the world's population are members of that age group¹⁷⁷ and in many of the least developed countries (LDCs) youth make up 40 to 60 percent of the population.¹⁷⁸

There is a great deal of contention over the impact of the young people working their way through this transition today. Sociologists and political scientists have theorized that such "youth bulges" make a society more prone to civil conflict,¹⁷⁹ a view which has been adopted not only by the United States,¹⁸⁰ but was also echoed by the Secretary General's High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change in 2004.¹⁸¹ This view does have its detractors as well, those who say, for instance, "the remarkable thing is not why some of Africa's youth have embraced violence, but why so few of them have."¹⁸²

This, however, is just one of the contentions regarding the place of youth in the world today. Issues of education, employment, political engagement, opportunities for leadership, social isolation, and health are just the beginnings of the problems that youth face today, and these issues will never be adequately addressed without the engagement, assistance, and leadership of the youth that face them. What is clear, though, is that the issues youth face, particularly in the developing world, are manifold and interconnected. A lack of quality jobs in the formal sector, along with an education and training mismatch for the jobs that are available, exacerbate high

¹⁷⁷"World Population by Age and Sex." United States Census Bureau. February 23, 2011.

<http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idb/worldpop.php>

¹⁷⁸ Lionel Beehner. "The Effects of 'Youth Bulge' on Civil Conflict." Council on Foreign Relations. April 27, 2007.

<http://www.cfr.org/society-and-culture/effects-youth-bulge-civil-conflicts/p13093>

¹⁷⁹ Ibid

¹⁸⁰ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 18. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

¹⁸¹ *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. Secretary General's High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change. 2004. <http://www.un.org/secureworld/report2.pdf>

¹⁸² Nicolas Argenti. "Youth in Africa: A Major Resource for Change." *Young Africa: Realizing the Rights of Children and Youth*. Eds. De Waal, Argenti. Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press. 2002. As cited in *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 18.

rates of unemployment.¹⁸³ Youth who are unable to find jobs are stigmatized and are unable to make that transition from childhood to adulthood leading to frustration, isolation, and possibly desperation and violence.¹⁸⁴

History

Starting in the 1980s, the problems of youth began to receive particular attention, and with formation of the UN Youth Unit¹⁸⁵ and the decision by the United Nations to set 1985 as the International Youth Year (IYY) these issues were brought to the fore. During that year the UN encouraged the inclusion of youth delegates to the 40th General Assembly, focused on youth-oriented topics at other meetings and conferences, held a special World Congress on Youth, and made a commitment to continue the work of addressing the concerns of youth.¹⁸⁶ It is worthwhile to note that, even at that time, there was a clear call to consider youth not as a monolithic and self-identifying category of people, but as an important broad category made up of many subgroups.¹⁸⁷ This is particularly important because, in most cases, the label of “youth” is not the primary self-designator for young people. In many cases and contexts, religion, class, ethnicity, nationality, and race are stronger influences on the identity of the individual.¹⁸⁸

A decade later, the UN celebrated the 10th anniversary of the IYY by passing A/RES/50/81 which established the World Programme of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and Beyond, later renamed simply the World Programme of Action for Youth (WPAY) which defined ten areas of focus for national policy attention (later expanded to 15 areas) and promoted a framework for measuring and evaluating progress in those areas.¹⁸⁹ The WPAY also, it should be noted, closely connects the well-being and livelihood of the world’s youth with other important key development themes, such as the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development, the World Conference on Human Rights, the 1994 Conference on Population and Development, and the Fourth World Conference on Women held in 1995.¹⁹⁰

The fifteen focus areas of the WPAY are not intended to be a statement of the totality of the problems youths face in the world today, but are intended to demonstrate the importance of a comprehensive and holistic approach to addressing the needs, problems, and concerns of youth. The fifteen areas are: education; employment; hunger and poverty; health; environment; substance abuse; juvenile justice; leisure-time activities; girls and young women; full and effective participation in society and decision making; globalization; information and

¹⁸³ *World Youth Report 2003*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2004. pp. 54 – 67.
<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/worldyouthreport.pdf>

¹⁸⁴ Ibid.

¹⁸⁵ “History of UNPY.” Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Economic and Social Council.
<http://social.un.org/index/Youth/WhoWeAre/HistoryofUNPY.aspx>

¹⁸⁶ A/RES/40/14. *International Youth Year: Participation, Development, Peace*. United Nations General Assembly. November 18, 1985. <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/40/a40r014.htm>

¹⁸⁷ “World Programme of Action for Youth to the year 2000 and Beyond.” United Nations. March 1997.
<http://www.un.org/events/youth98/backinfo/ywpa2000.htm>

¹⁸⁸ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 12. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

¹⁸⁹ “World Programme of Action for Youth to the year 2000 and Beyond.” United Nations. March 1997.
<http://www.un.org/events/youth98/backinfo/ywpa2000.htm>

¹⁹⁰ Ibid.

communication technologies; HIV/AIDS; armed conflict; and intergenerational issues.¹⁹¹ It should be noted that within each of these focus areas, the WPAY provides not only the principal issues, but also presents proposals for actions to be taken to address these issues.¹⁹²

The Ways Youth are (Mis)Understood

At roughly the same time as the WPAY was being established, several important theoretical frameworks were being promoted which have dramatically impacted the ways in which the expanding youth population were perceived in the wider world. In 1994 an article by Robert Kaplan was published in Atlantic Magazine which, though not specifically addressing the problems of youth in the developing world, did raise the author's concerns about his perception of a violent youth culture in West Africa where, as he described it, "In cities in six West African countries I saw similar young men everywhere—hordes of them. They were like loose molecules in a very unstable social fluid, a fluid that was clearly on the verge of igniting."¹⁹³

While Kaplan is clear that this "unstable social fluid" is a society in which the traditional fabrics of family, governance, religion, and even food-security have been dramatically damaged, the image he provided brought to the minds of many who read it images of Somali youths who, engaged in a brutal civil war in the streets of the capital of a failed nation state, had just a few months earlier brought down two US helicopter and dragged the mutilated remains of US and UN troops through the streets.¹⁹⁴

In 1995, Gary Fuller, published a brief examination of demographic data as it related to violence and concluded that there was a high correlation between ethnic violence when 20 percent or more of the population were youth.¹⁹⁵ In the expansion of his "Clash of Civilizations" theory, Samuel Huntington adopted this number, saying that "youth bulges of 20 percent or more account for many of the intercivilizational conflicts of the late twentieth century,"¹⁹⁶ implying that the 20 percent line is the critical level after which a country becomes prone to violence.¹⁹⁷

It is this view of youth, as a burgeoning threat, which seems to be the overriding tone of most international discussion about the youth of the world and their "participation in perpetuating violence and preventing the consolidation of peace and development."¹⁹⁸ This is one of the formations of the "crisis of youth" concept which has been a primary driver of youth intervention

¹⁹¹ "What is the World Programme of Action for Youth?" Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Economic and Social Council. <http://social.un.org/index/Youth/WorldProgrammeofActionforYouth.aspx>

¹⁹² *World Program of Action For Youth*. Economic and Social Affairs Council. New York: United Nations. 2010. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/wpay2010.pdf>

¹⁹³ Robert D. Kaplan. "The Coming Anarchy." *The Atlantic Monthly*. February 1994. <http://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/1994/02/the-coming-anarchy/4670/>

¹⁹⁴ Mark Bowden. "Blackhawk Down: An American War Story." *The Philadelphia Inquirer*. November 16, 1997. <http://inquirer.philly.com/packages/somalia/nov16/rang16.asp>

¹⁹⁵ Gary Fuller. "The Demographic Backdrop to Ethnic Conflict: A Geographic Overview." *The challenge of ethnic conflict to national and international order in the 1990s, geographic perspectives : a conference report*. Ed. Central Intelligence Agency. Washington. 1995. pp. 151-154

¹⁹⁶ Samuel Huntington. *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of the World Order*. New York: Simon & Schuster. 1998. p. 261

¹⁹⁷ Henrik Urdal. "A Clash of Generations? Youth Bulges and Political Violence." *International Studies Quarterly*. Vol. 50, Iss. 3. September 2006. p. 615

¹⁹⁸ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 18. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

and programming across all sectors.¹⁹⁹ This is unfortunate because it oversimplifies the relationship between a bulging youth population, the societies those bulges occur within, and the roles that youths have, or could have within them. While it certainly is true that some youths actively engage in violent or criminal behavior, it is just as true that some youths actively engage in the reconstruction efforts during and post-conflict, and that some youths are the victims of or are marginalized by this violence.²⁰⁰ It is also true that some youths are members of more than one of these groups. By focusing on the poorly-defined notion of the “crisis of youth,” the tremendous potential and energy of young people, as well as the positive contributions they already make to their societies, are often overlooked, as is their value as partners in the development process.²⁰¹

The Current Situation

Today, the situation of many youth around the world is dire. Shocking numbers of youth in developing and less-developed countries are underweight and / or have limited or no access to clean water.²⁰² The leading causes of death for young people are motor-vehicle or land-transport accidents, self harm, and assault or homicide.²⁰³ Youth make up an estimated 18 percent of the world’s population.²⁰⁴ An overwhelming majority of them, 87 percent, live in developing countries. It is estimated that 64 percent of the youth in Africa and 84 percent of the youth in Asia live in countries where at least one-third of the population subsists (or fails to subsist) on less than US\$2 per day.²⁰⁵

Education

Although youth literacy has risen from 84 to 89 percent in the last 25 years, there are pockets of sub-Saharan Africa and Asia where literacy rates are still below 80 percent, and secondary education enrollment levels are below 25 percent.²⁰⁶ Educational differences are also prominent between males and females. The literacy rates between them can sometimes swing as much as 20 percent or more.²⁰⁷ While it has been long assumed that illiteracy rates will eventually die out with the spread of primary education programs, there is evidence that such optimism is misplaced.²⁰⁸ As indicated previously, illiteracy rates remain high even though the demand for functionally literate workers continues to rise.²⁰⁹

¹⁹⁹ Ibid., p. 12

²⁰⁰ Steve Seigel. *Engaging Youth to Build Safer Communities: A Report of the CSIS Post-Conflict Reconstruction Project*. The Center for Strategic and International Studies. Washington: CSIS Press. August 2006. p. 1

²⁰¹ Ibid., p.2

²⁰² *World Youth Report: Youth & Climate Change*. Economic and Social Council. New York: United Nations. 2010. pp. 172 - 181. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/wyr10/YouthReport-FINAL-web-single.pdf>

²⁰³ Ibid., p. 112

²⁰⁴ Ibid., pp. 188 – 190

²⁰⁵ *World Youth Report 2003*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2004. p. 30. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/worldyouthreport.pdf>

²⁰⁶ Ibid.

²⁰⁷ *World Youth Report: Youth & Climate Change*. Economic and Social Council. New York: United Nations. 2010. pp. 126 - 133. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/wyr10/YouthReport-FINAL-web-single.pdf>

²⁰⁸ *World Youth Report 2003*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2004. p. 30. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/worldyouthreport.pdf>

²⁰⁹ Ibid.

For many countries, the primary answer to the question of how to aid youth in their transition to adulthood has been to provide programs of education designed to teach the basic skills necessary for entry, as productive adults, into society. From that point, however, there is a significant disconnect between the notions of youth as a distinct population, and the system of education which is expected to service them.²¹⁰ The goals of educational systems in the developing world are most focused on providing universal primary education and reducing adult illiteracy, neither of which are programs built for youth.²¹¹ Furthermore, statistics on secondary-education enrolment, advancement, and completion rarely consider the age of students, so there often is no clear association between youth and the provision of secondary-education.²¹²

Where secondary education systems are developing, there is an important question to be raised about the value of the education provided. Often, the programs of study do not reflect the needs of the labor market.²¹³ Degree programs for technical skills, or advanced sciences are expensive to provide, while programs in the social sciences require less equipment and technology.²¹⁴ But mismatches between educational programs and market needs aren't the only issues that should be considered. In areas where limited education resources coexist with ethnic competition, any perceived discrimination in the provisioning of education can be a source of conflict.²¹⁵ In other parts of the world, secondary education systems are seen as "a perpetual waste of human resources."²¹⁶ In the developed world there is even a sense in which secondary education systems are seen as "holding containers" to delay the entrance of youths into the job market.²¹⁷ In affluent countries especially, increased or extended participation in secondary and tertiary education often mask weak youth employment markets.²¹⁸ For most youth, however, the issue is not of receiving sub-standard secondary education, it is of obtaining anything beyond primary education, especially for girls and young women.²¹⁹

Employment

Closely associated with the poverty figures discussed previously, youth, who represent approximately 25 percent of the world's working-age population, also represent 40 percent of the world's jobless.²²⁰ It must be noted that these numbers mask the staggering number of youth who are underemployed and living in poverty.²²¹ It should also be noted that secondary and tertiary education is no guarantee against the inability to find work, either because of a mismatch of education to the needs of the job market,²²² or because of discrimination based on ethnicity,

²¹⁰ Ibid., pp. 32-34

²¹¹ Ibid.

²¹² Ibid., p. 29

²¹³ Ibid., p. 59

²¹⁴ Ibid.

²¹⁵ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 24. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

²¹⁶ Ibid.

²¹⁷ *World Youth Report 2003*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2004. p. 62. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/worldyouthreport.pdf>

²¹⁸ Ibid., p. 61

²¹⁹ Ibid., pp. 31-34

²²⁰ "Youth Employment." International Labor Office. Youth Employment Programme. 2010.

http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_140955.pdf

²²¹ *World Youth Report 2007: Young People's Transition to Adulthood: Progress and Challenges*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2007. p. 22. <http://social.un.org/index/WorldYouthReport/2007.aspx>

²²² Ibid., p. 23

social class, or political patronage.²²³ This is particularly troubling as, in many if not most societies, the true mark of the transition to adulthood is being able to support one's self, so the inability to find work, or to earn a living wage stalls the individual in a state of perpetual limbo.²²⁴ They are no longer a child, but cannot be an adult. Instead, most youth find themselves in low-wage, temporary positions with little job security, and in the developing world youth are often forced into the informal economy where they may be subject to exploitation and sub-standard work environments.²²⁵

These dangers are heightened for young women in the informal economy who not only have little job security, but “are subjected to sexual abuse, and are routinely discharged if they marry, become pregnant or grow ‘too old.’”²²⁶ Efforts to advance entrepreneurialism as a solution to these challenges are limited by the lack of investment capital or microfinance initiatives to support young people.²²⁷ Some countries, such as the small island states, suffer from a lack of infrastructure, resources, and capital, as well as the inability to compete based on price because of their remoteness and small size.²²⁸ Unemployment also plays a large role in the dramatic surge of urbanization throughout the developing world as youth, assuming that job prospects are better in the city, migrate out of rural regions.²²⁹ The extreme importance of youth unemployment can be seen in the fact that the only direct mention of youth in the Millennium Development Goals comes in Goal 8, target 16 which calls to “develop and implement strategies that give young people everywhere a real chance to find decent and productive work.”²³⁰

Youth and Politics

In very few Member States can those under the age of 18 vote, in fewer can those under the age of 21 hold political office, and in even fewer can those under the age of 25 hold political office above the local or regional level.²³¹ In the United States, less than five percent of all elected offices are held by persons under the age of 35.²³² Because young people are often unable to voice their concerns, much less have the political or social presence to act upon their concerns, the Committee on the Rights of the Child questioned the level of commitment of States Party to the Convention on the Rights of the Child.²³³ As the World Youth Report of 2003 observes:

“While most States Parties to the Convention attest to the priority and value attached to children and young people within their respective

²²³ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 26. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

²²⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 24, 37

²²⁵ *World Youth Report 2003*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2004. p. 55. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/worldyouthreport.pdf>

²²⁶ *World Youth Report 2007: Young People's Transition to Adulthood: Progress and Challenges*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2007. p. 25. <http://social.un.org/index/WorldYouthReport/2007.aspx>

²²⁷ *Ibid.*

²²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 148

²²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 25, 97

²³⁰ “About the Goals.” The World Bank. <http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/library/122031/bangkokCD/MDG/AbtG.htm>

²³¹ *World Youth Report 2003*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York. 2004. p. 272. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/worldyouthreport.pdf>

²³² “About the Young Electeds.” Young Elected Officials Network. 2011. <http://www.yeonetwork.org/content/about-young-electeds>

²³³ *World Youth Report 2003*. Economic and Social Council. New York: United Nations. 2003. p. 272. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/worldyouthreport.pdf>

*cultures, they generally do not “undertake all appropriate legislative, administrative, and other measures ... to the maximum extent of their available resources” to ensure that the rights of the younger members of society are realized. Evidence does not support the presumption that adults within both the public and private spheres will ensure adequate representation of young people’s best interests in law, policy and practice.”*²³⁴

Ironically, a common perception of the youth by those in power is that they are apathetic and disinterested in politics,²³⁵ or that they are incapable of engaging meaningfully in the political process because they are “too distracted by adolescent interests,” or “not good enough citizens.”²³⁶ This view misses the very- nuanced approach that many youth have to traditional politics, or what has been described as “politics with a capital P,” which youth see as the activities of old men in suits who are deaf to the concerns of youth.²³⁷ It is exactly this deafness which makes youth unlikely to engage with political parties, elections, and governmental activities.²³⁸ Further, youth perceive such politics as

*“...a game where the rich (or Whites) protect their interests. This game is a lot more like billiards than pool – it is an upper class game with obscure rules that make it hard to win, and with few teachers, supporters, or players in the home neighborhood. Young adults are truly alienated from this boring, confusing game and cannot imagine how (or even if) it could be fixed.”*²³⁹

The mistake is seeing that particular form of disengagement as being the fault of the young people who have stepped back from a process which they recognize as unwilling to accept them as full partners.²⁴⁰ On the contrary, there is ample evidence that young people are very engaged socially and civically in processes that, while they may not be politics with a capital P, are clearly political.²⁴¹

It is also ironic that adults, perhaps recognizing the politically disruptive nature of such alternative engagement, have been quick to subvert the political power of youth. Civic engagement is viewed as critical to stem the potential dangers of a large youth population, but it is often the case that when existing political institutions design programs to involve the youth, that engagement is intended not to provide real power to

²³⁴ Ibid.

²³⁵ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 25. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

²³⁶ Rosalyn Black, et al. “Young People on the Margins: What Works in Youth Participation.” *Youth Studies Australia*. Vol. 30. No. 1. 2011. pp. 42-48

²³⁷ Molly W. Andolina, et al. “Searching for the Meaning of Youth Civic Engagement: Notes From the Field.” *Applied Developmental Science*. Vol. 6 No. 4. 2002. p. 191

²³⁸ Ibid.

²³⁹ Ibid., p. 192

²⁴⁰ Rys Farthing. “The politics of youthful antipolitics: representing the ‘issue’ of youth participation in politics.” *Journal of Youth Studies*. Vol. 13. No. 2. April 2010. p. 185

²⁴¹ Ibid.

youth, but rather to pacify and coerce them by giving them the opportunity “to participate in their communities without necessarily shaping those communities, let alone challenging the status quo within them.”²⁴²

This kind of patronizing behavior is common throughout political and governmental structures and embodied in the assumption that youth are important but not really capable of effectively engaging with adults at an adult level. This is typified by the example of a youth delegation to a UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, which the delegates described as “the most youth-unfriendly place,” where the adults failed to listen to the feelings of the youth, and even tried to take over and facilitate a question-and-answer period following the delegation’s presentation.²⁴³ In order to develop the skills necessary for effective participation in social and political processes, youth need the opportunity to engage meaningfully in these processes, to research, debate, negotiate, compromise, and develop solutions to real-world problems.²⁴⁴

Alternative Methods of Attaining Status

If young people are unable to gain the necessary social or economic status to transit from childhood to adulthood, there can be little doubt of the temptation to achieve this status through other means. One such method is to seek it through active engagement in conflict,²⁴⁵ although it should never be assumed that the linkage between ‘youth in crisis’ and violence is automatic or clearly understood.²⁴⁶ The choice to engage in violence is a personal choice, and there are very distinct levels of violence in which an individual can engage, from domestic violence to criminal gang activity, to terrorism, and all the way up to armed rebellion.²⁴⁷ It is also important to realize that, in this context, status may mean many different things, and that young people may engage in violence not only for economic or political reasons, but also to impact social conditions, to address inadequate provisioning of public services, or to mitigate the breakdown of social norms.²⁴⁸

Existing Frameworks and Programs

The United Nations system has several programs that are actively working to address the needs of youth. As mentioned previously, the World Program of Action for Youth has identified fifteen focus areas and provides specific suggested national policy guidelines to increase the quality and quantity of opportunities for youth involvement.²⁴⁹ As part of the WPAY, the UN Programme on Youth publishes the World Youth Report every four years to shed light on the

²⁴² Rosalyn Black, et al. “Young People on the Margins: What Works in Youth Participation.” *Youth Studies Australia*. Vol. 30. No. 1. 2011. pp. 42-48

²⁴³ Jennifer O’Donoghue, et al. “Introduction: Moving youth participation forward.” *New Directions for Youth Development*. No. 96. Winter 2002. p. 15

²⁴⁴ “World Youth Alliance at the United Nations.” NGO Voice. April 4, 2005.

<http://itunes.apple.com/us/podcast/ngo-voice/id74070825>. This audio podcast is available through iTunes.

²⁴⁵ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006. p. 26. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

²⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 12

²⁴⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 67

²⁴⁹ *World Program of Action For Youth*. Economic and Social Affairs Council. New York: United Nations. 2010. <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/wpay2010.pdf>

progress that has been made and the challenges that still need to be addressed. The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) provides the core statement on the importance of youth participation, insisting that children and young people must be able to “take part in and influence processes, decisions, and activities in order to achieve justice, shape outcomes, expose abuses of power, and realize their rights.”²⁵⁰ The CRC is also at the heart of the activities undertaken by the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) “to empower adolescents to fulfill their potential and participate in their societies.”²⁵¹

Youth unemployment is the target of the Youth Employment Network, a consortium made up of the UN, the International Labour Organization, and the World Bank.²⁵² There are many examples of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) developing programs and experimenting with innovative ways to promote and demonstrate the effective engagement of youth to rebuild and stabilize post-conflict societies,²⁵³ but there is certainly much more research that can be undertaken to better understand the relationships between young people, violent conflict, and peace-making.²⁵⁴ The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has also engaged in several youth-focused programs to meaningfully engage youth in decision-making and peace-building processes.²⁵⁵

Conclusion

Engaging youth meaningfully is a complex and challenging goal, not only because the different arenas for engagement are closely linked, but also because there are significant obstacles to overcome in order to address the ways in which young people are kept from participating. There is, for instance, no easy solution to the problem of youth unemployment, and without a viable income, it is difficult for most youth to become fully engaged socially or politically. Similarly, many of the issues facing youth are unlikely to be addressed until youth are able to exert meaningful political power. It is, however, critical that the international community undertake to engage youth in these ways. Without the opportunity to learn appropriate political and social processes, to obtain a viable education, or to support themselves financially, one sixth of the world’s population faces a bleak future of poverty and social unrest without the tools or resources to make a difference in their world.

Committee Directive

It is extremely important to undertake the work on this topic with a clear understanding of the work which has gone before, so reviewing the CRC and the recommendations of the WPAY is critical. The three World Youth Reports (2003, 2007, and 2010) give significant information in very different ways, and provide excellent ground work as well. Further, it must be recognized

²⁵⁰ *World Youth Report: Youth & Climate Change*. Economic and Social Council. New York: United Nations. 2010. p. 49.
<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/wyr10/YouthReport-FINAL-web-single.pdf>

²⁵¹ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006.
p. 60. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

²⁵² *Ibid.*, p. 37

²⁵³ Steve Seigel. *Engaging Youth to Build Safer Communities: A Report of the CSIS Post-Conflict Reconstruction Project*. The Center for Strategic and International Studies. Washington: CSIS Press. August 2006.

²⁵⁴ *Youth and Violent Conflict: Society and Development in Crisis?* United Nations Development Programme. New York. 2006.
p. 39. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/UNDP_Youth_PN.pdf

²⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 41-57

that programs that effectively and meaningfully engage young people do not always translate well from one Member State or region to another, so care must be taken when trying to devise programs based upon anecdotal successes in your own country. Understanding what generally does and does not succeed in youth programming is also important. There are several articles addressing the myths about youth participation (such as the O'Donoghue article cited in this paper) as well as investigating the effectiveness of various youth-centric programs (such as the Black and Siegel articles cited in this paper). While reviewing youth-centric programs in your country, you should consider them critically, looking to see if they engage in best practices by, for instance, giving youth the ability to address issues in ways that respond to their own priorities and needs as opposed to using myth-based practices, such as putting a token youth on an advisory council.

Technical Appendix Guide (TAG)

I: Examining the Economic and Environmental Effects of Agricultural Practices on Member States

“Agriculture.” World Trade Organization.
http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/agric_e/agric_e.htm

This resource is the agricultural section of the WTO’s main website. It contains links to and explanations of the WTO’s Agriculture Agreement along with current agriculture news. There are excellent external links for delegates to utilize at the bottom of the page. Most useful are the list of disputes over the Agricultural Agreement posted on the left of the page and videos about the most controversial issues of international agriculture (food prices, liberalization, the right to food, protectionism, etc.).

Breisinger, Clemens, Olivier Ecker, and Perrihan Al-Riffai. “Economics of the Arab Awakening: From Revolution to Transformation and Food Security.” International Food Policy Research Institute. IFPRI Policy Brief. May 2011.
<http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/bp018.pdf>

This is an excellent article to read because it is germane to multiple topics on the GA Plenary’s agenda. The article tackles agriculture and the economy by exploring the issues of food-price inflation. It also explains reasons while the youth of Arab countries have protested and how to reengage them. Furthermore, the article discusses why malnutrition and unemployment continue to increase while GDPs of Arab countries are growing. There are also many useful charts and graph that will be useful to aid in visualizing the issues at hand (such as Figure 2—Relationship between poverty, child malnutrition and economic growth).

Gapminder. <http://www.gapminder.org/>

Gapminder is a nonprofit entity that is referred to as an Internet “museum”. The site is dedicated to sustainable global development and strives to raise awareness and meet the UN Development Goals. There are videos on agriculture, and the best resource for delegates is the Gapminder Agriculture Lab link at the bottom center of the home page. Delegates can select and observe their country in 700 indicators from the FAO. One can easily compare and contrast countries because the information comes in graph form with every country measured in the indicator. Even regions are identified by a specific color, but one can simultaneously view an individual Member State while looking at regions. Just select different indicators on the x- and y-axis to compare the various agricultural statistics.

General Assembly of the United Nations. UN Web Services Section, Department of Public Information, United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/ga/>

Truly understanding the UN and GA Plenary structure will aid in making any delegate a successful policymaker. This website is the resource for the General Assembly of the UN. It contains links for documents, news, past sessions, and information on the current session that the Plenary body is in.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 2011. <http://www.ipcc.ch/>

This organization is the world's leader on climate change assessment. It was created in conjunction with the United Nations Environment Programme and the World Meteorological Organization and endorsed by the GA Plenary. This site provides findings on the ramification of climate change on the environment and socio-economic standards.

“Institutionalizing Inequality: The WTO Agreement on Agriculture, Food Security, and Developing Countries.”

http://works.bepress.com/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1018&context=carmen_gonzalez

This article presents a case that the WTO Agriculture Agreement favors developed countries over developing countries. Researching various opinions of this document is needed to develop better trade policy.

Koneswaran, Gowri and Danielle Nierenberg. “Global Farm Animal Production and Global Warming: Impacting and Mitigating Climate Change.” *Environmental Health Perspectives*, Vol. 116, No. 5, May 2008, p. 578-580. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25067924>

This article is brief and clearly outlines the direct effect of animal farm production on global warming, including comparing the environmental impacts of carbon dioxide versus methane. The findings in the article are also largely based on statistics from United Nations bodies, like the FAO, so it is even more so relevant to this conference.

Organic World: Global Organic Farming Statistics and News. Research Institute of Organic Agriculture (FiBL). Updated 31 July 2010. <http://www.organic-world.net/>

Organic farming is a key element in sustainable agriculture. This source will provide delegates with country-specific and regional initiatives and conferences in the field of organic farming. There is a search engine that reports the organic undertakings by country and statistics about the growing trend. Furthermore, there are results from surveys conducted by the FiBL and there are many partners. This source can guide policy making related to land use.

United Nations Global Teaching and Learning Project. Cyber School Bus. 2002. <http://cyberschoolbus.un.org/>

This tool is excellent for first-time Model United Nations delegates, but especially for General Assembly Plenary delegations. To be a truly successful participant in GA Plenary, students need a macro view of the world and awareness of various issues in the international community, which can interconnect and effect policy making. The Cyber School Bus includes the means to prepare GA Plenary delegations by featuring individual Member State statistics, an introduction to the United Nations and its history, and a link to the latest UN news. Also, extensive research topics are explored, coupled with learning tools like world hunger curricula, natural disaster simulations, and student conference announcements. Most importantly, a link to the Model UN

headquarters is located on the community board and this source has instruction on preparing for a Model UN conference.

Topic II: Analyzing Member State Security Policies to Promote Economic Growth

Alvaro Calderon, et al. "FDI in Latin America and the Caribbean." Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean. 2010.

This document will provide delegates with a different perspective on FDI. Much of this issue has been discussed in terms of its importance to Africa, but extending this research to Latin America will open delegates to different themes surrounding FDI.

"Assessing regional integration in Africa III." The United Nation Economic Commission for Africa. <http://www.uneca.org/aria3/right.htm>

This source is included to offer delegates a more rounded understanding of the regional integration movement. Africa will be one of the central focuses of this topic, so knowledge of this regions integration effort is essential in crafting substantial solutions to the problems other regional organizations have experienced.

"Division for Sustainable Development." The United Nation Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

http://www.un.org/esa/dsd/index.shtml?utm_source=OldRedirect&utm_medium=redirect&utm_content=dsd&utm_campaign=OldRedirect

Sustainable development is another issue that runs parallel to this topic. It is a key component of how to develop substantial long-term economic growth. Researching the policies and analysis published by the DSD will provide delegates with a solid grounding in this important UN goal.

Gali, B. "An Agenda for Peace." United Nation Security Council. June, 1992.

Although the Agenda was mentioned numerous times throughout the background guide, this is one of the most importance sources for outlining the UN's foundation for addressing the security/economic development relationship. In this Agenda, former Secretary General Gali develops the initial importance of regional organizations on developing security mechanisms and ensuring sustainable economic development.

"Monusco." The United Nations Peacekeeping.

<http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/missions/monusco/>

This resource has been included to complement the case study on the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). This will allow for delegates to expand their research into this case study and will also provide them the opportunity to delve into other UN peacekeeping operations.

“Plan of Implementation.” World Summit on Sustainable Development.

http://www.johannesburgsummit.org/html/documents/summit_docs/2309_planfinal.htm

This document is the final plan produced by the World Summit on Sustainable Development. Researching this plan is important in developing a better understanding how regional integration is an integral component of sustainable development.

“The Science and Technology for Development Network.” The United Nations Conference on

Trade and Development. <http://www.unctad.info/en/Science-and-Technology-for-Development--StDev/>

Additional Research into the actions taken by the Commission on Science and Technology for Development will assist delegates in better understanding the technological aspect of the security/development relationship. This will be essential for developing solutions to combat the technology gap that has hindered regional integration.

“What we do.” Organization for Security and Co-Operation in Europe.

<http://www.osce.org/what>

This source is an excellent springboard into regional organizations. The actions taken by the OSCE were highlighted within the background guide, but examining the OSCE’s specific work in different fields will be important for delegates in understanding the role and function of different regional organizations throughout the international community.

Topic III: Engaging the Youth of Member States Economically, Politically, and Socially

Social Development Direct – Case Study: Youth Exclusion, Violence, Conflict, and Fragile States

http://www.sddirect.org.uk/pfv-cs.php?cs_id=103

The Annexes for this case study are interesting and rich, but the Annexes and Bibliography are both also amazing lists of resources for researching this topic.

The Whitlam Institute <http://www.whitlam.org/publications>

Although they are focused on Australia, there are several papers discussing political engagement of youth (such as Young People Imagining a New Democracy and Putting the politics Back into Politics) which are excellent reads as well as having extensive and useful bibliographies.

Tejwant K. Chana. “Youth-Activism and Participation: A Literature Review on Best Practices in Engaging Youth.”

http://www.sacsc.ca/PDF%20files/Research%20and%20Evaluation/Youth%20Action_Literature_Review_2007.pdf

Just as it says, this is a literature review looking over several articles discussing best practices in engaging youth.

Richard Fanthorpe and Roy Maconachie. "Beyond The 'Crisis of Youth'? Mining, Farming, and Civil Society In Post-War Sierra Leone." *African Affairs*. Vol. 109. Iss. 435. 2010. pp. 251-272

The article provides an excellent presentation of the varied theoretical approaches to the consideration of the place of youth in a violent conflict. Particularly, the article does a very good job of presenting the complexity of the situation without getting lost inside of it.

Child Soldiers Global Report 2008. Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers.
<http://www.childsoldiersglobalreport.org/>

The issues of child soldiers and youth violence aren't completely aligned, because there are child soldiers that aren't in the youth age category, but this is still an excellent resource, particularly for getting estimates of the makeup of a country's army, enlistment age, and policies regarding child soldiers.

Anthony Talarico. "Politically Engaging Disenfranchised Brazilian Youth: The Role of Civil Society and Innovative State Institutions." <http://lasa.international.pitt.edu/members/congress-papers/lasa2010/files/1633.pdf>

A great discussion on the successes and failures of NGOs seeking to engage poor youth in the political process in Brazil.

Christopher Maclay and Alpaslan Özerdem. "'Use' Them or 'Lose' Them: Engaging Liberia's Disconnected Youth Through Socio-Political Integration." *International Peacekeeping*. Vol. 17. No. 3. June 2010. pp. 343-360.

This article not only provides insight into the ways in which Liberia's youth are being actively marginalized, it also points out the ways in which international efforts to empower and re-integrate the youth are failing.

Gregory Lavender. "African youth as a source of hope and ingenuity: The role of the United Nations in engaging young people to help overcome poverty in Africa." *East African Community*.
http://www.eac.int/gender/index.php?option=com_docman&task=doc_download&gid=114&Itemid=131.

A good discussion of the ways in which the international community can empower young people to enact change.