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2010 SECURITY COUNCIL



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Director General: Michael Aguilar; Under-Secretary-General: Amanda D'Amico
Director: Sameer Kanal; Assistant Director: Jenna Gleaton

Message from the Director-General Regarding Position Papers for the 2010 NMUN-DC Conference

At the 2010 NMUN-DC Conference, each delegation submits one position paper for each committee it is assigned to. Delegates should be aware that their role in each committee impacts the way a position paper should be written. While most delegates will serve as representatives of Member States, some may also serve as observers, NGOs or judicial experts. To understand these fine differences, please refer to the Delegate Preparation Guide.

Position papers should provide a concise review of each delegation's policy regarding the topic areas under discussion and establish precise policies and recommendations in regard to the topics before the committee. International and regional conventions, treaties, declarations, resolutions, and programs of action of relevance to the policy of your State should be identified and addressed. Making recommendations for action by your committee should also be considered. Position papers also serve as a blueprint for individual delegates to remember their country's position throughout the course of the Conference. NGO position papers should be constructed in the same fashion as traditional position papers. Each topic should be addressed briefly in a succinct policy statement representing the relevant views of your assigned NGO. You should also include recommendations for action to be taken by your committee. It will be judged using the same criteria as all country position papers, and is held to the same standard of timeliness.

Please be forewarned, delegates must turn in material that is entirely original. The NMUN Conference will not tolerate the occurrence of plagiarism. In this regard, the NMUN Secretariat would like to take this opportunity to remind delegates that although United Nations documentation is considered within the public domain, the Conference does not allow the verbatim re-creation of these documents. This plagiarism policy also extends to the written work of the Secretariat contained within the Committee Background Guides. Violation of this policy will be immediately reported to faculty advisors and may result in dismissal from Conference participation. Delegates should report any incident of plagiarism to the Secretariat as soon as possible.

Delegation's position papers can be awarded as recognition of outstanding pre-Conference preparation. In order to be considered for a Position Paper Award, however, delegations must have met the formal requirements listed below. Please refer to the sample paper on the following page for a visual example of what your work should look like at its completion. The following format specifications are required for all papers:

- All papers must be typed and formatted according to the example in the Background Guides
- Length must not exceed two single spaced pages (one double sided paper, if printed)
- Font must be Times New Roman sized between 10 pt. and 12 pt.
- Margins must be set at 1 inch for whole paper
- Country/NGO name, School name and committee name clearly labeled on the first page; the use of national symbols is highly discouraged
- Agenda topics clearly labeled in separate sections

To be considered timely for awards, please read and follow these directions:

1. A file of the position paper (.doc or .pdf) for each assigned committee should be sent to dirgen.dc@nmun.org.

Each of the above listed tasks needs to be completed no later than October 15, 2010.

PLEASE TITLE EACH E-MAIL/DOCUMENT WITH THE NAME OF THE COMMITTEE, ASSIGNMENT AND DELEGATION NAME (Example: SC_Central_University)

Once the formal requirements outlined above are met, Conference staff use the following criteria to evaluate Position Papers:

- Overall quality of writing, proper style, grammar, etc.
- Citation of relevant resolutions/documents
- General consistency with bloc/geopolitical constraints
- Consistency with the constraints of the United Nations
- Analysis of issues, rather than reiteration of the Committee Background Guide
- Outline of (official) policy aims within the committee's mandate

Sincerely yours,

Michael Aguilar
Director-General
dirgen.dc@nmun.org

Official Welcome

Dear delegates,

The 2010 National Model United Nations – DC conference Secretariat would like to welcome you to the Security Council! All staffers of NMUN-DC, and especially your committee staff, Sameer Kanal and Jenna Gleaton, have worked over the course of the year to prepare the committee and its background materials for you; we hope that you will find them useful as you prepare for the conference this October. We also hope that you will come away from the conference with greater knowledge of international affairs, new friends, and renewed passion for each of the issues discussed.

Model United Nations is an excellent place to gain skills in research, writing, speaking, negotiating, and leadership. It is also an excellent place to learn about specific international issues. For each of the issues we will discuss this October, we have prepared background materials to help guide your initial research. We hope that they will inform you and give a broad understanding of the topic. While we note that the background materials will be helpful, we also note that they are a starting point and are not a substitute for independent research.

The Security Council, in addition to being the only decision-making body in the United Nations whose decisions are binding on United Nations members, is also a small, dynamic body which can respond rapidly to urgent situations. Included in those urgent situations are (1) The Situation in North Korea, (2) Food Insecurity and Conflict, and (3) The Rights of Children in Armed Conflict. All are worthy of the Security Council's attention, and members of the Security Council have the ability to make a large impact helping to solve these problems.

We look forward to meeting and working with each of you. Good luck with your research and preparations, and see you in October!

History of the Security Council

The Security Council was created as one of the six primary organs of the United Nations (UN) when it was founded in 1945. Its first meeting was on January 17, 1946. The *Charter of the United Nations* outlines the multiple responsibilities of the Security Council, which all revolve around its central task of maintaining international peace and security, as delineated under Chapter V, Article 24 of the Charter. The Security Council is also responsible for recommending the Secretary-General to the General Assembly and nominating the Secretary-General for possible re-appointment. Peacekeeping operations fall under the responsibility of the Security Council; since 1948, the UN has conducted 63 peacekeeping operations.

The Security Council is made up of 15 Member States, with five being permanent members - China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States - and 10 being non-permanent members. The 10 non-permanent Member States are elected by the General Assembly and serve two-year terms; the terms are staggered so that five Member States rotate in and out every year. The President of the Security Council serves for one month, and the presidency rotates alphabetically among the members according to the English alphabet order of the countries' names.

As stated in the Provisional Rules of Procedure of the Security Council (S/96/Rev.7), under Chapter II, rule 7, the interim agenda for the meetings is created by the Secretary-General and presented to the President of the Security Council for approval. The Member States of the Council each have one vote, and the five permanent members have the power to veto, or unilaterally block the passage of substantive decisions. According to Article 27 of the Charter, procedural matters must be approved by nine members; other issues must be confirmed by nine members, and the permanent members must either approve or abstain. If a State is a Member of the United Nations but not of the Council, then it can take part in discussions by the Council that affect the State, but it cannot vote. The Security Council is the only body whose decisions are binding upon UN Member States, meaning that according to the Charter, Member States are required to enforce Security Council decisions. The Security Council is a resolution-writing committee, attempting to address the issues on the agenda and find viable solutions to current challenges.

I. The Situation in North Korea

- What actions can be taken by the United Nations to provide a pathway to inclusion in the international arena for the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) while simultaneously assuring that the DPRK is not posing a threat to international peace and security?
- How can the international community assist the central players in moving forward with diplomatic talks even after the *Cheonan* incident and the ensuing isolation of the DPRK?

Division, the Korean War and Kim-II Sung

During the Cairo Conference of 1943, the leaders of Allied states in World War II met and discussed the fate of Japanese colonies after the war concluded. Winston Churchill and Franklin Roosevelt's meeting with Josef Stalin a few days later led to the agreement that provisional control prior to eventual Korean independence would be shared by the Soviet Union and United States, with separation occurring at the 38th Parallel. After five years of conflict between the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) – commonly known as North Korea – and the Republic of Korea, armistice negotiations began in 1953 and set up the current border near the 38th, and the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ), a heavily-mined strip of land dividing the two countries and their border forces.

Having created the North Korean armed forces and maintained a strong relationship with them through the war, Kim Il-Sung had consolidated his own power within the DPRK that lasted after the conclusion of the Korean War. Blaming military failures on political opponents who were then executed, Kim removed possible threats and then instituted a command economy in North Korea, focused on heavy industry and the military. The large number of massed troops along the DMZ forced the economy into a decline with much of its productivity focused on sustaining the North; meanwhile, de-Stalinization in the USSR and the Sino-Soviet Split led to Kim siding with the Chinese and losing much of the support of the USSR, as well as needing to continue purges against other North Korean Communists who favored the revisionist government of Nikita Khrushchev. After going back to the Soviet Side once the more pro-Stalin Leonid Brezhnev took over, the DPRK was left in the middle, without fully-fledged support from either Beijing or Moscow. This led indirectly to the constant decline of the North Korean economy, isolation of the country from the world under Kim's ideology of *Juche*, or self-reliance, and repression, as well as to Kim's creation of a cult of personality, which transferred to his son, Kim Jong-Il, when Kim Il-Sung died in 1994.

The Kim Jong-Il Era

Kim Jong-Il, the eldest son of the elder Kim (Il-Sung), had been gradually taking control of the Communist Party and North Korean military apparatuses since 1980, which prepared him for the eventual handover of power following the elder Kim's death; this officially took place in 1997. Kim holds absolute power within the DPRK.

Economically, the DPRK declined dramatically in the 1990s and began requiring foreign humanitarian aid. Trade arrangements with the Soviet Union were no longer available following the latter's collapse, and the People's Republic of China normalized relations with the South Korean government in 1992. An immense famine followed a period of floods and a subsequent period of droughts in the late 1990s, and crippled the economy. The ideological break with his father's policies of self-reliance formed by the acceptance of aid caused Kim Jong-Il to adopt the *Son'gun* ideology, which translates to "Military First." There has been consistent economic growth since the prioritization of the military in economic decisions began in 1997. Another factor contributing to economic growth has been the attempts to replicate, though in vastly smaller and more limited manner, the "Special Economic Zones" of China to test out a market system, as well as increased trade with South Korea and other countries. However, the standard of living is widely considered by international observers to be poor in North Korea.

Within the DPRK's borders, there exist strict restrictions on media, prohibiting all media coverage that does not favor the government. Reporters Without Borders labeled the DPRK the second-worst country in the world in 2008 for media freedom. Though described officially as a multi-party democracy, the DPRK is considered to be a totalitarian dictatorship, and all candidates for office are nominated by the *Democratic Front for the Reunification of the Fatherland*, dominated by the Kims' *Workers Party of Korea*. The Economist Intelligence Unit ranks the DPRK as the most authoritarian regime in the world. Freedom of expression and human rights are suppressed widely. Similar to the standard of living of North Koreans, the exact political status of North Koreans cannot be fully known because of the restrictions on media and information.

North Korean Nuclear Program and Six-Party Talks

In 1989, the decline of the Soviet Union left the DPRK without a larger state to rely upon for security assurances. As the economy also declined, increased resources were unable to be directed towards a large conventional military force as they once were. The DPRK's first nuclear facility was detected by US intelligence in 1985 near the city of Yongbyon, which had been previously used to house a nuclear reactor donated by the Soviets in the 1960s. In 1985, international pressure caused the DPRK to sign and ratify the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT); however, it did not create the safeguards agreement with the IAEA required as a state party. Simultaneously, the DPRK pursued normalized relations with the United States, now the only remaining superpower; however, the US did not want a bilateral agreement with North Korea and instead pursued "Six-Party Talks" between the US, the DPRK, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, Japan, and China. North Korea wanted to speak solely to the US, which led to a long-term postponement of these negotiations. However, relations with the South appeared to improve, as in 1991 both the North and South signed the Declaration on the Denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula, known as the "Joint Declaration." In the same year, the United States withdrew all remaining nuclear warheads from the South Korea.

In January 1992, the DPRK created the required safeguards agreement with the IAEA after seven years of being a state party to the NPT; this allowed IAEA inspectors into their facilities for the first time, but by 1993 the IAEA complained of lack of access and suspicions of plutonium production beyond what was revealed. North Korea announced it was withdrawing from the NPT in March 1993; however, withdrawal from the NPT requires 90 days' notice, and international diplomatic action caused the DPRK to "suspend its withdrawal" after 89 days. In 1994, talks halted for months with the death of Kim Il-Sung, then resumed in August and resulted in the "Agreed Framework," in which North Korea would dismantle its reactors in exchange for alternative fuel sources and improved diplomatic relations; the IAEA complained that the framework allowed North Korea too long to comply with IAEA inspections, but otherwise the agreement was internationally accepted. This agreement held for four years, but in 1998 the DPRK launched a missile into the waters between the South Korea and Japan, causing Japan to withdraw \$1 billion in foreign aid it had pledged for alternative energy production to the DPRK.

In 2002, US President George W. Bush named North Korea as one of three members of the "Axis of Evil" in his State of the Union speech. By October, the DPRK had acknowledged a previously-secret uranium enrichment program. By the end of 2002, the DPRK had expelled the IAEA from the country. Arms buildups and posturing by the DPRK and the US, each in conjunction with their allies, continued unabated for nearly four years, until the October 9, 2006 declaration by the DPRK of a successful nuclear weapons test. The Security Council placed sanctions upon the DPRK, primarily focused on luxury goods, five days later with Resolution 1718. Increased diplomatic pressure led to the resumption of the Six-Party Talks in 2006. By February 2007, an agreement to shut down the Yongbyon reactor and allow in IAEA inspectors in return of improved diplomatic relations and fuel aid commenced, and the reactor was verified by the IAEA as having been shut down in July. By October 11, 2008, North Korea had been removed from the US State Department's list of state sponsors of terrorism. But in April 2009, a failed satellite launch was condemned by the Security Council under the assumption that the launch was designed to test nuclear-delivery missile technology. North Korea responded angrily, expelled IAEA inspectors, and announced publicly it would withdraw from the Six-Party Talks and would resume a nuclear weapons program; the DPRK conducted a second nuclear test on May 25, 2009. The most recent verified news on the North Korean nuclear program is the report from May 2010 that the DPRK has successfully carried out a nuclear fusion reaction.

The Cheonan Incident and Current Situation

On March 26, 2010, the *ROKS Cheonan*, a South Korean navy warship, sank off the Southwest coast of Baengnyeong Island during a large-scale naval exercise performed by the South Korean and American navies. While Baengnyeong and its neighboring islands are recognized as being South Korean in spite of being North (as well as West) of the land border between North and South Korea, the waters around the islands are claimed by the North as well as South Korea, and DPRK, South Korean, and Chinese ships have had firefights in the waters west of the islands for decades. Forty-six of the 104 crewmembers were reported dead.

While initially it was reported that an accident, or perhaps a leftover mine from the Korean War, had sunk the ship, by the end of the following week South Korean officials had begun stating that a North Korean torpedo was the most likely cause of the sinking. However, motivations for the attack remain unclear if indeed it was the DPRK,

with the most-commonly discussed motive being a response to a November 2009 incident in which a North Korean ship was sunk in disputed waters, with two deaths. Additionally, South Korean media reported in March and early April that the clean break in the hull ruled out an explosive of any variety. The official report from the South Korean inquiry, with assistance from the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, and Sweden, concluded that a homing torpedo struck and sank the *Cheonan*, and that the recovered material from the wreckage shows that the torpedo was made in North Korea. North Korea denied responsibility immediately, calling the sinking a “regretful accident,” and China and Russia called for “restraint,” but international opinions immediately lined up to blame the DPRK in response to the report. The Security Council condemned the attack in a Presidential Statement, but did not place blame on any party.

The *Cheonan* Incident has also halted any efforts to continue the Six-Party Talks. Political pressure from South Korean actors on the South Korean President, Lee Myung-Bak, has made it more difficult to expect a conciliatory or accommodating response from the South going forward, and the difficulty of supporting the DPRK has made it less likely that China will retain any bias towards the North; this, combined with Russia’s much more marginal involvement in the region, will likely isolate the North further over the second half of 2010 and beyond.

II. Food Insecurity and Conflict

- How can the international community ensure that countries do not suffer from food insecurity and conflicts over food resources? How can local communities better distribute food among households and ensure that the food promotes healthy living?
- What can the international community do to aid impoverished countries in developing programs that address food insecurity? How can the United Nations and its Member States assist in eliminating food insecurity within a country and ensure that its methods are upheld by that country?

As the world’s population expands, so does the need for more food in order to accommodate this rapid growth. The World Food Conference, held in Rome in 1974, was one of the United Nations’s first attempts to address the food crisis. In 1996, a second World Food Summit was held to further address attempts at eradicating hunger, and in 2002, the “World Food Summit: Five Years Later” took place in order to review the developments since the Summit of 1996. Rising food prices and increased levels of malnutrition and food insecurity continued to plague numerous countries, which led to the creation of the High Level Task Force on the Global Food Security Crisis in 2008; in that same year, the Task Force produced the *Comprehensive Framework for Action* (CFA).

According to the 1996 World Food Summit Plan of Action, “Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.” States must develop strategies and programs to ensure that they meet these criteria. The World Health Organization (WHO) provides an outline for reaching and maintaining food security; the three points that WHO suggests will aid in preventing food insecurity are food availability, food access, and food use. Not having enough food available worldwide is thought to be the leading cause of food insecurity, but receiving, sustaining, and producing adequate resources are challenges as well. Producing food resources that are healthy is another challenge to food insecurity, as malnutrition is another major factor preventing food security.

One way of aiding a country in distributing food is to find solutions for producing resources locally. The Plan of Action state that to increase the availability of food, countries must increase the production of food, food imports, and trade, which will increase a community’s capacity to produce local resources. The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) report, *Sustainable Agriculture and Food Security in Asia and the Pacific*, proposed both long-term and short-term steps to increasing access to food in that region, which included “‘food-for-work’ programs,” “investments in sustainable agriculture and small scale farmers,” and trade.

The *Comprehensive Framework for Action* suggests that although larger farms produce the most agricultural output, elevating smallholder output could make a difference by developing smallholder farmers. Programs that encourage smallholder investments can promote growth in poorer countries, give those countries a chance to utilize their own resources so that they do not have to rely as heavily on others, and can grow the local economy. This idea is further outlined in the *Declaration of the World Summit on Food Security*, which resulted from the 2009 World Summit on

Food Security in Rome. The Declaration sets forth objectives for achieving its plan of action and proposes five principles that will allow it to meet those objectives. One of the objectives expressed in the Declaration is to “reverse the decline in domestic and international funding for agriculture, food security and rural development in developing countries, and promote new investment to increase sustainable agricultural production and productivity, reduce poverty, and work towards achieving food security and access to food for all.” One method for increasing investments in developing regions is to create microfinance institutions, which provide small-scale financial services to low-income people, including accounts, savings, and credit. An example of this kind of institution is SafeSave in Dhaka, Bangladesh, which sends trainers to its villages to teach about banking and saving, and the institution allows the villagers to take out loans, make deposits, or take money out of their savings. The downside to a bank such as this is that it distributes more loans than it is able to fund; a better method for financing such institutions would be necessary for them to run more efficiently.

Conflict, whether it is military, political, religious, or economic, causes food insecurity and worsens its impact. Conflict can decrease food and agricultural production, which causes hunger and malnutrition. During times of conflict, regions lose land, resources, and the labor needed to maintain local production of food. This loss can further devastate the region by causing migration and internal displacement, which exacerbates the food dilemma in a country. Furthermore, military and political conflicts make it difficult for a region to protect or adequately distribute their resources due to the combatants’ tendencies of using food as a weapon in areas where it is most desired.

Additionally, countries attempting to recover after conflict require assistance in rebuilding their infrastructure, which includes food production and distribution. Afghanistan is one example of a country that has been subject to years of conflict and food insecurity. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) pushed for increased assistance in Afghanistan and helped to establish the Emergency and Rehabilitation Unit (ERU) in Kabul in 2001. The ERU worked on various projects that utilized the country’s resources and addressed issues specific to the country’s needs; the ERU was an attempt to rise above the conflict and aid those most affected. Some of the projects consist of “alternate agricultural livelihoods programmes, development of an Afghanistan variety and seed industry, support to vulnerable populations in drought affected areas through provision of quality-declared wheat seed and fertilizer, plant protection activities addressing the major threat posed to crops by melon fly and Colorado beetle, and development of integrated dairy schemes in Afghanistan.”

Food insecurity and conflict is a global problem that requires international cooperation in order to achieve desired results. The development of and commitment to policies that increase access to food, enhance distribution, prevent malnutrition, and address various other aspects of food insecurity are essential for eliminating food insecurity and conflict over food resources.

III. The Rights of Children in Armed Conflict

- How can the international community prevent the recruitment of children as child soldiers, and protect the rights of children during periods of armed conflict? How can the international community protect children from the “Six Grave Violations Against Children During Armed Conflict”?
- What improvements can be made to the international framework on children in armed conflict, particularly in regards to strengthening the relationship between Special Rapporteurs on specific conflicts and the Security Council Working Group on Children and Armed Conflict?

The Rights of Children in Conflict, Prior to the United Nations

The modern era in children’s rights as well as human rights has been brought on by the actions of the United Nations since its inception in 1945; prior to this, the rights of children were rarely delineated separately from human rights in general. There were a few noteworthy exceptions, such as the Soviet “Declaration of Children’s Rights” and the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 in the United States, both of which gave non-conflict-related rights to children.

The first international recognition of rights for children can be found in the *Geneva Declaration on the Rights of the Child*, adopted by the League of Nations on September 26, 1924. There are five recognitions that signatories to the

Declaration made, including that “[t]he child must be the first to receive relief in times of distress.” It also calls upon adults to aid children who may need aid for various reasons, ostensibly including the ravages of conflict.

The Fourth Geneva Convention, formally known as the *Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War* and adopted in 1949, provides that “children under fifteen” and “mothers of children under seven” could be included in the list of classes of citizens of parties to a conflict to be protected in “hospital and safety zones and localities” during hostilities. The Convention also provides that States party to it should attempt to remove children from areas under siege. Additionally, the Convention requires occupying powers to continue the previous government’s preferential treatment to certain protected classes, included in which are “children under fifteen” and “mothers of children under seven”.

United Nations Involvement in the Rights of Children

In 1948, the United Nations General Assembly (GA) adopted the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (UDHR), which included the protection of children generally, most notably in terms of their right to education, but gave no specific rights in times of conflict. This issue was addressed when the United Nations (UN) approved a version of the 1924 *Declaration on the Rights of the Child* in 1959 through *GA Resolution 1386*. While most protected rights do not apply to conflict directly, Principle 9 of the UN version of the Declaration explicitly outlaws “occupation or employment which would prejudice his health,” which was the UN’s first statement opposing the use of children as soldiers, if only implicitly. While other documents such as the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* (ICCPR), the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (ICESCR) and the *Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict* recognized rights that only indirectly pertained to conflict, their impact was strengthened by contributing to the development of the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*.

Convention on the Rights of the Child

In 1989, various international leaders came to the consensus that a document outlining protected rights for children was needed to enshrine them not only in law, but in the collective mindset of humanity. The outcome was the UN’s *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (CRC), which came into effect on September 2, 1990. The CRC primarily focuses on bringing existing rights previously protected by the UDHR, the ICCPR, and the ICESCR under the category of “children’s rights” by declaring them explicitly.

The *Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict* (CRCOPAC) was ratified by acclamation via *Resolution A/RES/54/263* on May 25, 2000 and entered into effect on February 12, 2002. The CRCOPAC prohibits “compulsory recruitment” or conscription into the armed forces of any State of children, which, as in the CRC, are defined as individuals under the age of 18. Regarding children in the armed forces of a State, the CRCOPAC requires States to place them in non-combat roles. It also expands the prohibitions to include “armed groups that are distinct from the armed forces of a State” as entities prevented from utilizing children in combat roles. The CRCOPAC places regulations upon the recruitment of children into the armed forces, if a State should choose to maintain a minimum military age below 18, by requiring voluntary recruitment entered into by the child with full disclosure by the recruiting State of what such service would entail. Additionally, the CRCOPAC requires the establishment and increase of a minimum age for military service by States party.

Challenges to the Rights of Children in Armed Conflict, Case Study: Colombia

The conflict in Colombia between the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia – People’s Army (FARC-EP), the United Self-Defense Forces of Colombia (AUC), and the Government of Colombia is responsible for negatively impacting the lives of children throughout the country. A Colombian NGO network, the Coalition Against the Involvement of Boys, Girls, and Youth in Colombia, stated in 2003 that “children and youth are constant victims of war crimes and crimes against humanity”, due to the violent deaths of children which occur daily, as well as to the use of children as soldiers in armed groups such as the FARC-EP and AUC.

An estimated 11,000 children are involved as child soldiers in the armed conflict in Colombia, which amounts to nearly one in every four combatants in that conflict; this figure is among the highest totals in the world. As recent as

2007, the FARC-EP and the National Liberation Army (Ejército de Liberación Nacional, or ELN) were identified by the UN as organizations which continued to recruit and use children.

Up until 2007, the Government of Colombia was accused of using children for intelligence purposes. As a result of pressure from the international community and civil society, the Government issued an official directive “prohibiting all members of the armed forces from utilizing children for intelligence activities, especially children recovered from armed groups,” but in spite of this, children are still thought to be participating, although at lower levels, in government activities against the illegal armed groups.

Despite the significant amount of progress that has been made in a relatively short amount of time, there are still reports of killings of children by illegal armed groups and government security forces. Between 2006 and 2007, 37 children were reported killed by the government, according to the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNHCHR). Some of these children died as a result of extrajudicial executions following their identification as guerrilla members. The situation in Colombia has illuminated the need for increased monitoring and enforcement mechanisms, as well as increased awareness building and policy making within governments that will contribute to the disarmament of child soldiers.

Conclusion

As the world has come to recognize the rights of children as separate from those of adults and as deriving from the status of the person as a child, numerous documents have outlined the rights that should be protected for children, including protection against use as a child soldier, and protection against the ravages of war. The CRC in 1989, and the CRCOPAC in 2001 provided specific rights for children, the latter outlining those rights in the specific context of armed conflict. Despite these provisions, armed conflict around the world continues, and the rights of children are not protected by the actors in those conflicts; children of all ages are still recruited as child soldiers, girls are subjected to sexual assault and rape, and the social context in which children can thrive, including resources for survival, education and welfare, are not spared the damages of the conflicts.

Delegates who hope to seek an end to the use of children as soldiers must contemplate not only the best practices for reintegration of children into society, but how best to prevent children from being recruited. Children and their families need to be educated as well, and methods for the education about the rights children hold must be developed as well. Finally, delegates must determine the best course of action for coordination of governmental, inter-governmental and civil society efforts to meet the previous goals, in order to assure that the answer to a problem that occurs in numerous countries is an equally global solution.

Annotated Bibliography

History of the Security Council

United Nations. Security Council. (1945). *Charter of the United Nations*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/index.shtml>.
The Charter of the United Nations outlines the responsibilities and the functions of the UN bodies. Chapter V discusses the purpose, power, and structure of the Security Council. The Charter gives good basic knowledge on the Security Council and in what parameters it can work.

United Nations. Security Council. (2004-2010). *Home- UN Security Council*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from <http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/index.html>.
This is the home page for the UN Security Council, which can also be located by going to the UN homepage. This site contains various information about the Security Council's history, structure, function, resolutions, and statements. It is a good place for delegates to start to gain background knowledge on the Security Council and to research resolutions pertaining to the topics.

United Nations. Security Council. (1983). *Provisional Rules of Procedure of the Security Council (S/96/Rev.7)*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from <http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/scrules.htm>.

This was adopted by the Security Council at its first meeting, and it lays out the rule the Security Council is to follow pertaining to the meeting, agenda, representation and credentials, presidency, secretariat, conduct of business, voting, etc.

I. The Situation in North Korea

BBC News (2010, July 24). *North Korea country profile*. Retrieved August 4, 2010, from http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/country_profiles/1131421.stm.

This source is a country profile on North Korea maintained by BBC News. It contains information on the modern-day state of affairs, including on the current players in North Korea such as Kim Jong-Il and the Korea Worker's Party. Delegates will find this source useful for an overview of the current day status of North Korea, including on how closed media and society are.

BBC News (2000, June 9). *North Korea: A political history*. Retrieved August 2, 2010, from <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/783966.stm>.

This source, maintained by BBC News, is a history of the DPRK, as well as of the division of Korea. It chronicles the post-WWII era, Kim Il Sung's leadership, and through the transition of leadership to Kim Jong Il upon the elder Kim's death. This source also provides information on the successes and failure of the historical policies of the DPRK, and on their positioning in the broader Communist world.

Democratic People's Republic of Korea (2010). *Korea-DPR.com*. Retrieved August 6, 2010, from <http://www.korea-dpr.com>.

This source is the self-proclaimed official website of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea. It includes the DPRK's statements on issues as far-ranging as the life and death of Kim Il Sung, the history of the DPRK, the Korea Worker's Party, and the current state of the North Korean people. Delegates will find this source useful to find out "their side," in contrast to the mostly-Western-based press available on the DPRK elsewhere.

Economist Intelligence Unit (2008). *Index of Democracy*. Retrieved August 1, 2010, from <http://graphics.eiu.com/PDF/Democracy%20Index%202008.pdf>.

This source is the 2008 index of the relative levels of democracy in countries worldwide. Maintained by the Economist Intelligence Unit, it tracks various factors of democracy, openness, authoritarianism, and other political traits by country. Delegates will find this source useful because it breaks down the rankings, which list North Korea as most authoritarian in the world, by specific factors such as media freedom.

Federation of American Scientists (2006, November 16). *Nuclear Weapons Program – North Korea*. Retrieved August 23, 2010, from <http://www.fas.org/nuke/guide/dprk/nuke/index.html>.

This document is a chronology of the North Korean nuclear weapons program. It outlines specific events in detail that have shaped the history of the weapons program and DPRK relations with the IAEA and other states. Delegates will also find useful the copious sources used by FAS in the creation of this document, which are listed at the bottom of the guide.

GlobalSecurity.org (2010, May 20). *Investigation Result on the Sinking of the ROKS "Cheonan."* Retrieved August 27, 2010, from http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/library/report/2010/100520_jcmig-roks-cheonan/100520_jcmig-roks-cheonan.htm

This document is the opening statement of the report on the sinking of the Cheonan resulting from the South Korean inquiry, assisted by the USA, UK, Sweden, and Australia. It outlines the specific reasoning behind accusations of the ship's sinking being caused by the DPRK. It also provides detailed descriptions of the events of that night and what caused the sinking of the ship.

GlobalSecurity.org (2005, April 28). *Nuclear Weapons Program – North Korea*. Retrieved August 24, 2010, from <http://www.globalsecurity.org/wmd/world/dprk/nuke.htm>

This document details the history of the creation of the DPRK's nuclear weapons program, beginning in the 1950s. It provides a detailed historical look at the program, and gives specifications as to reactor locations and sizes as well. Finally, it presents the history of the DPRK relations with other states and accessions to agreements such as the NPT alongside specific actions taken by North Korea.

Nuclear Threat Initiative (2010, May 17). Issue Brief – Impact of the Cheonan Incident on the Six-Party Talks. Retrieved August 14, 2010, from

http://www.nti.org/e_research/e3_impact_cheonan_incident_six_party_talks.html

This source is a detailed analysis of the way the Cheonan Incident has affected the overall diplomatic standing of the DPRK, and specifically its engagement in the Six-Party Talks. It identifies key players – specifically China, the ROK, and the DPRK itself – for whom the value of the Six-Party Talks has changed as a result of the Cheonan Incident. Delegates will find this source most useful for a recent snapshot of relations and diplomatic statuses in the region.

United States Department of State (2010, March 9). Background Note: North Korea. Retrieved August 3, 2010, from

<http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2792.htm>

This is the US Department of State's background information on North Korea. Delegates will be able to contrast this document with the North Korean website to get another perspective on North Korea from arguably the country most antagonistic to it worldwide. Containing a brief overview of history, politics, and economy, this source can be contrasted nearly point-by-point with North Korean sources.

II. Food Insecurity and Conflict

Food and Agriculture Organization. (2010). *FAO and Emergencies: from prevention to building back better*.

Retrieved August 24, 2010, from

http://www.fao.org/emergencies/country_information/list/asia/afghanistan/en/.

This site demonstrates how conflict affects a country's food security. It discusses the emergency issues damaging Afghanistan socially and economically. The site expounds on ways of addressing such issues, such as the establishment of the Emergency and Rehabilitation Unit (ERU). Delegates will find this a useful site to explore in order to learn about programs implemented in times of conflict that help to prevent food insecurity.

Food and Agriculture Organization. (2005). *Monitoring Progress Since the World Food Summit*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from http://www.fao.org/monitoringprogress/summit_en.html.

This site discusses the World Food Summit from 1996 and the World Food Summit: five years later. It provides documents and information on both summits. Furthermore, it looks at work done since the last Summit. Delegates should explore this site to obtain information on the summits and to research current efforts on addressing food insecurity.

Food and Agriculture Organization. World Food Summit. (1996, November 13-17). *Rome Declaration on World Food Security and World Food Summit Plan of Action*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from

<http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/w3613e/w3613e00.HTM>.

The Declaration illustrates the points drawn up at the Summit to address food security, and it establishes a definition for food security. It also details the points brought up at the Summit on how nations can aid, prepare, and better equip countries with the appropriate resources needed to sustain food production and distribution. The Plan of Action describes the objectives and commitments the members of the Summit discussed. Delegates will find this a useful guide to what causes food insecurity and preventative measures.

Food and Agriculture Organization. World Summit on Food Security. (2009, November 16-18). *Declaration of the World Summit on Food Security (WSFS 2009/2)*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from

http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/wsfs/Summit/Docs/Final_Declaration/WSFS09_Declaration.pdf.

This Declaration promises to take quick action on eradicating hunger from the world. It sets forth objectives for achieving its plan of action and proposes five principles that will allow it to meet those objectives. This document illustrates a strong approach to facing the issue and further demonstrates the necessity of well-structured steps to take. This will be a good path for delegates to follow when searching for information.

United Nations. Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *UNESCAP News Services*.

Retrieved July 16, 2010, from <http://www.unescap.org/unis/press/2009/apr/g31.asp>.

This article describes the Sustainable Agriculture and Food Security in Asia and the Pacific report and what it entails. It provided measures for addressing food security in Asia and the Pacific. This site serves as a good case study as to how the UN can take steps towards preventing food insecurity.

United Nations. The Secretary-General's High-Level Task Force on the Global Food Security Crisis. (2008). *The Secretary-General's Remarks, Background Information, and the Comprehensive Framework for Action (CFA)*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from <http://www.un.org/issues/food/taskforce/index.shtml>.
This site gives background information on the Task Force and its purpose. It also calls attention to the issues countries were facing, such as rising food prices, malnutrition, and lack of food resources, which were causes for starting the Task Force. Additionally, the site provides reports by the Secretary-General and documents that the delegates will find useful when conducting their research. The documents include summaries of the Task Force and the CFA that describe their objectives, actions, and outcomes.

United Nations. World Health Organization. (2010). *Programmes and Projects: Food Security*. Retrieved July 16, 2010, from <http://www.who.int/trade/glossary/story028/en/>.
This site discusses the World Health Organization's stance on food security, including its efforts to address food related issues. It outlines the three steps of preventing food insecurity: availability, access, and use. It also goes into further detail on what each step entails. This site is a good place for delegates to obtain a basic background on what food security is and steps towards strengthening its efforts.

III. The Rights of Children in Armed Conflict

Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers. (2007). *Armed Conflict in Colombia Report – Frontiers: Childhood at the Borderline*. Retrieved August 6, 2010, from <http://www.child-soldiers.org/>.
This document was produced by the Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers and the Coalición contra la vinculación de niños, niñas y jóvenes al conflicto armado en Colombia (Coalico – Coalition against the involvement of children and young people in the armed conflict in Colombia), in an effort to describe the experiences of children in Colombia who are involved in armed conflict. The report analyzes the diverse methods of recruitment utilized in Colombia, particularly on the border. The document is divided into six parts: the first three address the national situation in Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela and the existing legislation; the fourth discusses internal displacement and the border situation; the fifth focuses on the specific policies within Colombia; and the sixth outlines the challenges and provides recommendations for future action.

Plan International. (2008). *Because I am a Girl: The State of the World's Girls 2008, Special Focus: In the Shadow of War*. Retrieved August 1, 2010, from Child Rights Information Network Web site: <http://www.crin.org/>.
This report is one in a series of reports aimed at bringing global attention to importance of women and girls in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. This particular report is focused on girls and armed conflict and attempts to reveal why and how girls' rights are being violated in countries at risk of, in the midst of, or emerging from armed conflict. The document outlines the impact conflict on girls and recommendations made by the organization on ways to build a better future for girls after conflict.

UNICEF. (n.d.). *Optional Protocols to the Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Retrieved July 28, 2010, from United Nations Children's Education Fund Web site: <http://www.unicef.org/>.
This source is a UNICEF background guide to the Optional Protocols to the Convention on the Rights of the Child. It outlines the process of the creation of the Optional Protocols to the CRC. Delegates will find this useful to further their general knowledge of the CRC and the human rights infrastructure it creates.

United Nations Department of Public Information. (1995, December). *Background Note: Children's Rights*. Retrieved August 1, 2010, from United Nations Web site: <http://www.un.org/rights/dpi1765e.htm>.
The United Nations Department of Public Information maintains this page as a resource on the children's rights infrastructure, with specific concentration on the United Nations portion. Delegates will find this useful as an introduction to children's rights in the United Nations system. It cites a great deal of different United Nations agencies and documents and implementation of the protection of specific rights worldwide.

United Nations General Assembly. (2000, May 25). *Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child Relating to Armed Conflict*. Retrieved August 4, 2010, from United Nations Web site:
<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc-conflict.htm>.

This document is the full text of the United Nations' Convention on the Rights of the Child's Optional Protocol Relating to Armed Conflict (CRCOPAC). This document is the primary document within the topic area that establishes what rights children have during armed conflict. Delegates will find this source useful for nearly every conceivable protection given to children during armed conflict is either established or reaffirmed in the CRCOPAC.

United Nations Office of the Special Representative on Children and Armed Conflict (n.d.). *Legal Foundation – Children and Armed Conflict*. Retrieved August 24, 2010, from
<http://www.un.org/children/conflict/english/legalfoundation.htm>.

This source is a UN Web site which describes the legal framework for protection of Children and Armed Conflict through the establishment of a list of Six Grave Violations – the most regular and heinous acts taking place against children in armed conflict today. Delegates will find this useful for the links to simple explanations of the legal concepts related to children and armed conflict.

Y Care International. (2008). *Colombia: Overcoming Lost Childhoods – Lessons learned from the rehabilitation and reintegration of former soldiers*. Retrieved July 26, 2010, from Y Care International's Web site.

This research report was published by Y Care International and based on field work carried out in Bogota, Colombia. It focuses on the experiences of former child soldiers as they try to rehabilitate in the midst of a conflict. Not only does it detail the experiences of children in Colombia but it also highlights lessons learned around the world.

United Nations General Assembly. (1996). *Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Children: Impact of armed conflict on children – Note by the Secretary-General*. Retrieved August 6, 2010, from UNICEF Web site.

The landmark 1996 UN report "Impact of armed conflict on children" (A/51) was lauded as groundbreaking due to the comprehensive actions taken as a result of it. Not only did the report establish the mandate of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed conflict, but it also has grown to be the foundation for programs and advocacy efforts in the field of children and armed conflict. This document is very useful for delegates doing research on this topic because it serves as the cornerstone of current action on this topic.