



NMUN • EUROPE

LILLE, FRANCE 2012

GENERAL ASSEMBLY PLENARY BACKGROUND GUIDE 2012

Secretary-General: Théo Thieffry; Director-General: Holger Bär
Director: Ronnie Heintze; Assistant Director: Clara Demon



NMUN • EUROPE
NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS
nmun.org

Official Welcome to NMUN-Europe 2012

Dear Delegates, Faculty Members, Head Delegates and Friends,

It is with great pleasure and enthusiasm that we welcome you to the 2012 NMUN-Europe conference in Lille, France. We are delighted to host the second international NMUN conference in Europe from 31 January to 6 February 2012.

The NMUN-Europe conference is directed towards giving delegates a chance for a deeply rewarding educational experience. It will challenge them with interesting and current topics, and give them the chance to interact with participating students from more than ten different countries. We have selected committees and topics to reflect recent developments and challenges facing the international community; ranging, for example, from the protection of armed civilians in conflict to international cooperation on drugs, to one of the main events in the UN calendar for 2012: the Conference on Sustainable Development. To ensure the quality of our educational mission, each committee is staffed with directors that have held or currently hold senior staff positions at NMUN-NY, working with talented new volunteer staffers from our host university, Sciences Po Lille.

The conference will take place in the center of Lille in the modern building of the Conseil de Région, the local administration where elected representatives from the region meet every month. The conference site, offers an insight into the Nord Pas de Calais region in northern France. Lille is famous for its architecture, its local dishes and beverages, and as the birthplace of General Charles de Gaulle. The city and its region are very well connected, situated at the crossroads of major European cities. Delegates are invited to participate in an excursion to Brussels, the centre of political decision-making in the European Union.

Please do not hesitate to contact us with any questions you're facing in the preparation for the conference.

Best regards, safe travels and see you in Lille in January 2012!



Holger Bär
Director-General
dirgen.europe@nmun.org



Théo Thieffry
Secretary-General
secgen.europe@nmun.org

Message from the Directors-General Regarding Position Papers for the 2012 NMUN-Europe Conference

At the 2012 NMUN-Europe 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 position papers of countries. 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

Positions paper for NMUN-Europe need to be submitted via e-mail, unless other arrangements are made with the Director-General. 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.europe@nmun.org. Delegates should carbon copy (cc:) themselves as confirmation of receipt.
2. Each of the above listed tasks need to be completed no later than midnight on **January 1, 2012** (Eastern Standard Time).
3. Please title each e-mail and document with the name of the committee, assignment, and delegation name (for example: SC_Namibia_University of Caprivi). If you prefer to send a complete set of positions per country please note this in the subject line (Delegation_Namibia_University of Caprivi).

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

Finally, please consider that a considerable number of position papers will be handled and read by the Secretariat for the Conference. Your patience and cooperation in strictly adhering to the above guidelines will make this process more efficient and is greatly appreciated. Should you have any questions please feel free to contact the Director-General, though as we do not operate out of a central office or location your consideration for time zone differences is appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Holger Bär
Director-General
dirgen.europe@nmun.org

Sample Position Paper

The following position paper is designed to be a sample of the standard format that an NMUN position paper should follow. While delegates are encouraged to use the front and back of a single page in order to fully address all topics before the committee, please remember that only a maximum of one double-sided page (or two pages total in an electronic file) will be accepted. Only the first double-sided page of any submissions (or two pages of an electronic file) will be considered for awards.

Position Paper for the General Assembly Plenary

The issues before the General Assembly Plenary are: The Use of Economic Sanctions for Political and Economic Compulsion; Democracy and Human Rights in Post-Conflict Regions; as well as The Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa. The Mexican Delegation first would like to convey its gratitude being elected and pride to serve as vice-president of the current General Assembly Plenary session.

I. The Use of Economic Sanctions for Political and Economic Compulsion

The principles of equal sovereignty of states and non-interference, as laid down in the Charter of the United Nations, have always been cornerstones of Mexican foreign policy. The legitimate right to interfere by the use of coercive measures, such as economic sanctions, is laid down in Article 41 of the UN-charter and reserves the right to the Security Council.

Concerning the violation of this principle by the application of unilateral measures outside the framework of the United Nations, H.E. Ambassador to the United Nations Enrique Berruga Filloy underlined in 2005 that the Mexico strongly rejects “the application of unilateral laws and measures of economic blockade against any State, as well as the implementation of coercive measures without the authorization enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations.” That is the reason, why the United Mexican States supported – for the 14th consecutive time – Resolution (A/RES/60/12) of 2006 regarding the *Necessity of ending the economic, commercial and financial embargo imposed by the United States of America against Cuba*.

In the 1990s, comprehensive economic sanctions found several applications with very mixed results, which made a critical reassessment indispensable. The United Mexican States fully supported and actively participated in the “Stockholm Process” that focused on increasing the effectiveness in the implementation of targeted sanctions. As sanctions and especially economic sanctions, pose a tool for action “between words and war” they must be regarded as a mean of last resort before war and fulfill highest requirements for their legitimate use. The United Mexican States and their partners of the “Group of Friends of the U.N. Reform” have already addressed and formulated recommendations for that take former criticism into account. Regarding the design of economic sanctions it is indispensable for the success to have the constant support by all member states and public opinion, which is to a large degree dependent the humanitarian effects of economic sanctions. Sanctions must be tailor-made, designed to effectively target the government, while sparing to the largest degree possible the civil population. Sanction regimes must be constantly monitored and evaluated to enable the world-community to adjust their actions to the needs of the unforeseeably changing situation. Additionally, the United Mexican States propose to increase communication between the existing sanction committees and thus their effectiveness by convening regular meetings of the chairs of the sanction committees on questions of common interest. An example is the case of negative spill-over effects of economic sanctions on neighboring countries, in which affected countries additionally need to be enabled to voice their problems more effectively, as addressed in the resolution *Implementation of the provisions of the Charter of the United Nations related to assistance to third States affected by the application of sanctions* (A/RES/54/107). Non-state actors have in the last years tremendously grown in their political importance, especially with regard to the international fight against terrorism. Their position and the possibilities of the application of economic sanction on non-state actors is another topic that urgently needs to be considered.

II. Democracy and Human Rights in Post-Conflict Regions

As a founding member of the United Nations, Mexico is highly engaged in the Promotion of Democracy and Human Rights all over the world, as laid down in the *Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR)* in 1948. Especially since the democratic transition of Mexico in 2000 it is one of the most urgent topics to stand for Democratization and Human Rights, and Mexico implements this vision on many different fronts.

In the Convoking Group of the intergovernmental Community of Democracies (GC), the United Mexican States uphold an approach that fosters international cooperation to promote democratic values and institution-building at the national and international level. To emphasize the strong interrelation between human rights and the building of democracy and to fortify democratic developments are further challenges Mexico deals with in this committee. A key-factor for the sustainable development of a post-conflict-region is to hold free and fair election and thus creating a democratic system. Being aware of the need of post-conflict countries for support in the preparation of democratic elections, the United Mexican States contribute since 2001 to the work of the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA), an intergovernmental organization operating at international, regional and national

level in partnership with a range of institutions. Mexico's foreign policy regarding human rights is substantially based on cooperation with international organizations. The Inter American Commission of Human Rights is one of the bodies, Mexico is participating, working on the promotion of Human Rights in the Americas. Furthermore, the Inter-American Court of Human Rights is the regional judicial institution for the application and interpretation of the *American Convention of Human Rights*.

The objectives Mexico pursues are to improve human rights in the country through structural changes and to fortify the legal and institutional frame for the protection of human rights on the international level. Underlining the connection between democracy, development and Human Rights, stresses the importance of cooperation with and the role of the High Commissioner on Human Rights and the reform of the Human Rights Commission to a Human rights Council.

Having in mind the diversity of challenges in enforcing democracy and Human Rights, Mexico considers regional and national approaches vital for their endorsement, as Mexico exemplifies with its *National Program for Human Rights* or the *Plan Puebla Panama*. On the global level, Mexico is encouraged in working on a greater coordination and interoperability among the United Nations and regional organizations, as well as the development of common strategies and operational policies and the sharing of best practices in civilian crisis management should be encouraged, including clear frameworks for joint operations, when applicable.

III. The Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa

The United Mexican States welcome the leadership role the African Union has taken regarding the security problems of the continent. Our delegation is furthermore convinced that The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) can become the foundation for Africa's economic, social and democratic development as the basis for sustainable peace. Therefore it deserves the full support of the international community.

The development of the United Mexican States in the last two decades is characterized by the transition to a full democracy, the national and regional promotion of human rights and sustainable, economic growth. Mexico's development is characterized by free trade and its regional integration in the North American Free Trade Agreement. Having in mind that sustainable development is based not only on economic, but as well on social and environmental development, President Vicente Fox has made sustainable development a guiding principle in the Mexican Development Plan that includes sustainability targets for all major policy areas.

The United Nations Security Council has established not less than seven peacekeeping missions on the African continent, underlining the need for full support by the international community. In post-conflict situations, we regard national reconciliation as a precondition for a peaceful development, which is the reason why Mexico supported such committees, i.e. in the case of Sierra Leone. The United Mexican States are convinced that an other to enhance durable peace in Africa is the institutional reform of the United Nations. We therefore want to reaffirm our full support to both the establishment of the peace-building commission and the Human Rights Council. Both topics are highly interrelated and, having in mind that the breach of peace is most often linked with severest human rights' abuses, thus need to be seen as two sides of one problem and be approached in this understanding.

As most conflicts have their roots in conflicts about economic resources and development chances, human development and the eradication of poverty must be at the heart of a successful, preventive approach. Lifting people out of poverty must be seen as a precondition not only for peace, but for social development and environmental sustainability.

The United Mexican States want to express their esteem for the decision taken by the G-8 countries for a complete debt-relief for many African Highly-Indebted-Poor-Countries. Nevertheless, many commitments made by the international community that are crucial for Africa's sustainable development are unfulfilled. The developed countries agreed in the *Monterrey Consensus of the International Conference on Financing for Development* (A/CONF.198/11) to increase their Official Development Aid (ODA) "towards the target of 0,7 per cent of gross national product (GNP) as ODA to developing countries and 0,15 to 0,20 per cent of GNP of developed countries to least developed countries". Furthermore, the United Mexican States are disappointed by the result of the Hong Kong Ministerial conference of the World Trade Organization, which once more failed to meet the needs of those, to whom the round was devoted: developing countries and especially African countries, who today, more than ever, are cut off from global trade and prosperity by protectionism.

With regard to the African Peer Review Mechanism, the United Mexican States want to underline that good governance is an integral part of sustainable development. Therefore, we support all efforts by African countries to make the mechanism obligatory to increase transparency and accountability in all African countries.

Committee History for the General Assembly

“The whole basis of the United Nations is the right of all nations – great or small – to have weight, to have a vote, to be attended to, to be a part of the twentieth century.”

Former United States Ambassador to the United Nations, Adlai E. Stevenson

The creation of the United Nations

In 1945, the world was in ruins. The League of Nations, created in 1919 after World War I, proved ineffective as a system to prevent the countries from turning to violence again.¹ Nevertheless, this first attempt to create a “parliament of man” clearly highlighted the tendency of every nation to conflict, and pride itself with selfish sovereignty.² The League of Nations’ goal as stated in the Treaty of Versailles, was to promote international cooperation and to achieve peace and security. However, the attempt to create a “parliament of man” in 1919 was incomplete, since half the globe suffered from a lack of representation due to their belonging to a colonial empire. Moreover, there was no real balance of power and major nations did not belong to the League of Nations.³ These weaknesses led to the end of this first attempt to create an international organization, despite the establishment of important characteristics such as headquarters in a neutral state like Switzerland, or the attempt to solve problems through peaceful means.⁴ In order to prevent any new devastation, the United Nations (UN) emerged from the conferences of Dumbarton Oaks in August to October 1944 and San Francisco, on June 26th 1945, where representatives of 50 countries signed the Charter of the United Nations.⁵ The new international organization was built on the previous experience of the League of Nations, whose legacy was substantial in both the goals and structure of the UN.⁶ However, new challenges arose due to new problems and perspectives of the post-war world, forcing the UN to adapt to the world it intended to serve.⁷ Environmental degradation, urbanization, population growth, epidemics of diseases such as AIDS and HIV in the 1980s, and the evolution of new technologies used in armed conflict have become important topics on the UN agenda over the years. Today, the UN plays a major part in the fight against the many scourges affecting humanity.

Functions of the General Assembly

The UN set up six principal organs in 1945 to achieve its purposes. Article 7 of the *UN Charter* placed the General Assembly as one of these, with “a Security Council, an Economic and Social Council, a Trusteeship Council, an International Court of Justice and a Secretariat.”⁸ Two functions are assigned to the General Assembly, explained in article 10 of the *UN Charter*. On the one hand, “the General Assembly may discuss any question or any matters within the scope of the present Charter”, and on the other hand, it “may make recommendations to the Members of the UN or to the Security Council”.⁹ Its specificity relies in the one state, one vote rule.¹⁰ As a consequence, the weight granted to each country in the deliberative process does not depend on its economic resources, its military strength or the size of its population, and the spirit of democracy tends to be reaffirmed. To achieve its goals, six subsidiary specialized committees report to the Plenary meeting of the General Assembly. The First Committee deals with disarmament and International Security; the Second Committee with Financial issues; the Third Committee is specialized in cultural, social and humanitarian needs; the Fourth Committee was set up to deal with the aftermath of decolonization; the Fifth Committee is the Administrative and Budgetary Committee and the Sixth Committee focuses on legal issues.¹¹ In addition to the main committees and the regular Plenary sessions, article 20, chapter IV of the *UN Charter* specifies that the General Assembly should meet in Special Sessions whenever the situation requires it.¹² The establishment of such Special Sessions enables the General Assembly to consider an issue almost

¹ United Nations, *History of the UN*, (n.d.).

² Kennedy, *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*, 2006, p. 3.

³ Kennedy, *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*, 2006, p. 13-14.

⁴ Kennedy, *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*, 2006, p. 9.

⁵ United Nations, *History of the UN*, (n.d.).

⁶ Ryan, *The United Nations and International Politics*, 2000, p. 7.

⁷ Weiss & Sam, *The Oxford Handbook on the United Nations*, 2007, p. 3-4.

⁸ United Nations, *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945.

⁹ United Nations, *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945.

¹⁰ Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p. 2.

¹¹ United Nations General Assembly, *Main Committees*, (n.d.).

¹² United Nations, *Special Sessions*, (n.d.).

immediately.¹³ The main examples of such sessions are the “Tenth Emergency Special Session on “Illegal Israeli Actions in Occupied Territories” or the 1989 Special Sessions on “Apartheid and Its Destructive Consequences in South Africa”.¹⁴ Regarding their topics, the Special Sessions address specific conflicts, though some of them have become the forum for discussion on broader issues, such as disarmament in 1988 or development in 1999.¹⁵

The General Assembly is often viewed as a “proto-world parliament”, since it includes every Member State.¹⁶ However, the General Assembly cannot be considered a real parliament since it is composed of representatives, standing on behalf of their government and state. But, it has become a “place for developing and reaffirming the sense of commonality and interdependence”, contributing to the development of “global governance”.¹⁷ Consequently, during voting procedures, a simple majority is usually required except for issues declared “important topics” which require a two-thirds majority and the support of the Security Council members.¹⁸ As the number of items on the assembly’s agenda increases, a trend for more intense interstate negotiations has arisen as it becomes harder to create consensus within the formal structure of the Assembly.¹⁹ Informal debate is therefore an increasingly important factor for progress during negotiations.²⁰

Towards reform?

However, state sovereignty remains at the heart of international relations.²¹ There is no real transfer of sovereignty from the Member States to their representatives in the General Assembly. GA resolutions are recommendations made to Member States, and are not legally binding. Nevertheless, the actions undertaken within the framework of the General Assembly are often incorporated into national legislation, and are used to interpret international law.²² The sovereignty of states and therefore the UN’s effectiveness is challenged continually by globalization on the one hand, and by the international responsibility to protect basic human rights regardless of national boundaries or cultural differences on the other.²³ Terrorism has become a question in many sessions, as it requires international action and cannot be dealt with by one country on its own.²⁴ On such a topic, the UN needs to enhance its capacity, efficacy and accountability. A number of organizational reforms have transformed the UN system in the past decade, such as SG Annan’s report, “In Larger Freedom.”²⁵ The goal of this reform was to give back significance to the General Assembly.²⁶ Many proposals have been made to strengthen the GA’s cooperation with Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and the Security Council, in order to restore it to its central role within the UN system.²⁷ One suggestion in that debate is to grant the President of the General Assembly a seat in the Security Council’s sessions.²⁸

Conclusion

In 1946, only fifty-one Member States were seated in the General Assembly, and in 2011 193 representatives now have a seat in this forum for debate and consensus-building on worldwide issues. The 66th Session of the General Assembly should be mindful of the progress made over the years, and the assessment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) ten years after the 2000 Millennium Declaration. Moreover, the body should focus on

¹³ United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*, (n.d.).

¹³ United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*, (n.d.).

¹³ Weiss & Daws, *The Oxford Handbook on the United Nations*, 2007, p. 4.

¹⁴ Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p. 66.

¹⁵ Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p. 66.

¹⁶ Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p. 3.

¹⁷ Weiss & Daws, *The Oxford Handbook on the United Nations*, 2007, p. 10.

Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p. 4.

¹⁸ United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*, (n.d.).

¹⁹ United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*, (n.d.).

²⁰ United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*, (n.d.).

²¹ Weiss & Daws, *The Oxford handbook on the United Nations*, 2007, p. 4.

²² United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*, (n.d.).

²³ Mingst & Karns, *United Nations in the twenty-first century*, 2007.

²³ Kennedy, *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*, 2006, p. 246.

²⁵ Annan, “In Larger Freedom:” *Decision time at the UN*, 2005.

²⁶ Kennedy, *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*, 2006, p. 275.

²⁷ Kennedy, *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*, 2006, p. 276.

²⁸ Kennedy, *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*, 2006, p. 276.

the implementation of recommendations made by the General Assembly, and how to improve them according to the issues presented.

Annotated Bibliography

Committee History for the General Assembly

Annan, K. (2005). *In Larger Freedom: Decision Time at the UN*. Foreign Affairs. Retrieved October 4, 2009 from http://www.unis.unvienna.org/pdf/freedom_annan.pdf

SG Annan's report "In Larger Freedom" is a major UN reform document published in the last decade. It provides a detailed account of the challenges that were and still are facing the organization and, among others, provided the blueprint for the transformation of the Human Rights Commission into the Human Rights Council as well as for the creation of the Peacebuilding Commission. It is particularly relevant for delegates today, as it reflects upon the entire UN system.

Kennedy P. (2006), *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*. New York: Random House.

The author retraces the first step toward the creation of an international organization, since the "Enlightenment" century and Kant's ideas. The book highlights the weaknesses of the League of Nations, which failure led to the creation of the UN. Still, the author does not forget to mention the future challenge of what tends to be referred to as "the Parliament of Man". Part 3 provides delegates with the reasons why the UN should undergo reforms, and why it still remains the best organization to regulate the international community.

Peterson, M. J. (2006). *The UN General Assembly*. New York: Routledge.

This book, written by a Professor of Political Science at the University of Massachusetts provides a balanced analysis of the General Assembly. The author states the assessment of the General Assembly, highlighting its success in trying to establish global governance structures. She raises the criticism made to the organization, regarding the non-binding rules, and contributes to the debate on the UN efficacy. She reminds the reader with the lack of implementation of the recommendations within Member States.

United Nations (1945). *United Nations Charter* from <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/index.shtml>

Article VII of the UN Charter focuses on the General Assembly, its functions and rules of procedures. Studying them in detail helps delegates to understand the values that motivate every state to vote and defend their ideas in the General Assembly.

I. Fostering Prevention in Health Care

Figuring amongst four out of six Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), health is a central aspect of human development. The significance of health is highlighted in Millennium Development Goals 1 on ending hunger; in the 4th goal, which calls for the reduction of child mortality; the 5th goal that reaffirms the necessity to "improve maternal health" and the 6th goal, entitled "Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases."²⁹ The 65th session of the General Assembly has already recognized, in its resolution A/RES/65/1 that progress has been made to achieve the MDGs that were set up in the Millennium Development Goals Charter.³⁰ Moreover, the World Health Organization (WHO) sets guidelines for prevention policies, and provide the technical knowledge in order to implement existing policies. An example would be the 2008-2013 Action Plan for the Global Strategy for the Prevention and Control of Non-communicable Diseases (NCDs), set up by the 61st World Health Assembly to recognize the importance of

²⁹ United Nations General Assembly, *A/RES/65/1 Keeping the promise: united to achieve the Millennium Development Goals, 2010.*

³⁰ United Nations General Assembly, *A/RES/65/1 Keeping the promise: united to achieve the Millennium Development Goals, 2010.*

addressing NCDs.³¹ Chronic diseases, representing the major part of NCDs (including heart diseases, cancer, diabetes and respiratory chronic illnesses) are already responsible for 63% of all deaths, which represents 35 million deaths per year.³² In addition to the human cost of the development of NCDs, they significantly increase the financial health care costs.³³ In response to the need of establishing long-term perspectives, the 2008-2013 Action Plan now focuses on four NCDs: diabetes, cancer, cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), and chronic respiratory illnesses; and four risk factors: tobacco, physical inactivity, unhealthy diets and alcohol.³⁴ A risk factor, according to the definition of the WHO, is “any attribute, characteristic or exposure of an individual that increases the likelihood of developing a disease or injury.”³⁵ Other risk factors are underweight, unsafe sex, high blood pressure, unsafe water, lack of sanitation and hygiene.³⁶

Two major events related to health and prevention have taken place in late 2011. Firstly, the GA decided in resolution *A/RES/64/265* to hold the United Nations High-Level Meeting on NCDs Prevention and Control meeting on the 19th to 20th September 2011.³⁷ It was an opportunity for the international community to take action against the epidemics and chronic diseases that kill three in five people. The outcome of the meeting resulted in a political declaration adopted by the General Assembly.³⁸ In this declaration heads of states highlight the role of governments in the prevention of NCDs, and require the engagement of the whole civil society. The document reminded all of the efforts made by WHO policies, and called for the reduction of risks factors and the setting-up of a healthy environment.³⁹ It argued that cooperation and partnerships must be developed at any level to strengthen health systems, and research and development in the field of prevention are encouraged. Secondly, with the theme “Today’s Science – Tomorrow’s Agenda”, the World Health Summit will be held in Berlin from 23rd to 26th October 2011. It will deal mainly with the promotion of a sustainable and healthy environment in order to preserve health. It will discuss the use of technology in order to improve life quality, particularly when disturbed by unhealthy lifestyles, the expansion of NCDs and the spread of infectious illnesses. The summit will also underscore the importance of health education, through the media and communication technologies.⁴⁰ Delegates are strongly encouraged to research the debates and outcomes of that meeting.

To provide an overview of past action on fostering prevention in health care and focus on implementation strategies, it is necessary to identify obstacles to prevention strategies such as lack of consciousness, unhealthy lifestyle and environment and the measures that could be undertaken to overcome them. The details given on policies set up regarding different diseases or health issues are here to provide examples on how prevention can be implemented on an international scale, and how it has to be both general and specific about the disease it fights. Strategies to foster prevention should combine actions undertaken at a regional level, specific to some areas or country’s circumstances, but also at a global level, regarding issues every country is or will be faced with in the future. The following sections are structured according to three main goals, which constitute the obstacles identified in the endeavor to foster prevention strategies: the reduction of inequalities and unconsciousness, the promotion of healthy lifestyle and public awareness, and the creation of healthy environment.

Reducing inequalities and unconsciousness

Diminishing the cost of prevention and access to health services

The absence of economic resources can be at the origin of a lack of prevention. The policies improving prevention concern first and foremost families with low incomes and children. The policies set up in Brazil in the late 1980 in the state of Cesara aims at proposing to willing families visits from health workers, vaccinations drives, prenatal care

³¹ WHO, *20 ways that the World Health Organization helps countries reach the Millennium Development Goals*, 2010. World Health Assembly, *WHA61.14 Prevention and control of NCDs: Implementation of the Global Strategy*, 2008.

³² WHO, *Fact Sheet N°339 Tobacco*, 2011.

WHO, *Fact Sheet N°339 Tobacco*, 2011.

WHO, *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*, 2002.

³⁴ WHO, *The 2008-2013 Action plan for the global strategy for the prevention and control of NCDs*, 2008.

³⁵ WHO, *Risk factors*, n.d..

³⁶ WHO, *Risk factors*, n.d..

³⁷ United Nations General Assembly, *Prevention and control of non-communicable diseases (A/RES/64/265)*, 2009.

³⁸ United Nations General Assembly, *Political declaration of the High-level Meeting of the General Assembly on the Prevention and Control of Non-communicable Diseases*, 2011.

³⁹ United Nations General Assembly, *Political declaration of the High-level Meeting of the General Assembly on the Prevention and Control of Non-communicable Diseases*, 2011.

⁴⁰ World Health Summit, *Program 2011*, 2011.

and cancer screening. The cost of the implementation of this policy was very low, since no physicians were involved in the process and only few medications were required.⁴¹ Regarding the education of children, the Indian government adopted an NCD prevention and management program. This program is setting up health education campaigns within schools and communities about the importance of nutrition, screening and the reduction of risks factors, and protocols to be followed by physicians and any people witnessing a stroke, the spread of affordable medication to combat diabetes and hypertension.⁴² These policies are examples that could be applied in other countries and health care systems to improve health care access in low-income communities.

A better use of consultation and access to medical knowledge

The lack of prevention can result from a lack of consciousness of the risks incurred in a long-term perspective. Consultation can play a major part in the educational process, involved by the will to increase prevention. Education must be a collaborative process, a share of expertise from the physicians and the politicians to benefit a third party: the patient.⁴³ It relies on the WHO's idea of a triad: a partnership between patients, physicians and politicians.⁴⁴ As a result, the consultation between them could be an opportunity to inform. Not only should a health care system address urgent needs but also lifelong demands.⁴⁵ The second goal of consultation would be to increase the patient's skills to self-manage in the future and avoid the cost of a new consultation and the risk of late intervention.⁴⁶ In order to favor the involvement of the patient in the process, trust and openness are core values that need to be built upon during the consultation time.⁴⁷ If the physicians prove to be persons the patients can rely on, they would tend to listen more carefully to their advice regarding their lifestyle and measures they should take to improve prevention.

Promoting healthy lifestyle and public awareness

Not only is prevention an economic issue, it is also a social one. With prevention comes the promotion of a healthy lifestyle through public awareness campaigns that would prevent people from adopting behaviors that would endanger themselves such as smoking, practicing no physical activity, adopting an inadequate diet and having unprotected sex.

The tobacco epidemic

Norms within a community and pressure from peers can explain the unhealthy ways of life people choose.⁴⁸ For example, smoking can be perceived as a social activity.⁴⁹ In 2011, the WHO summed up the danger of the globalization of the tobacco epidemic, stating that it kills more than 6 million people and cost hundreds of billions of dollars each year.⁵⁰ Tobacco is a major risk factor and can provoke cardiovascular diseases, lung cancer and ischemic heart attacks.⁵¹ Furthermore, not only is tobacco harmful for the smoker themselves but also for those who inhale the smoke.⁵² The promotion of views of healthy lifestyle is among the goal of smoking policies. In 2005, the WHO set up a Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO FCTC), stating in its article 12 the importance of education and public awareness, thanks to the involvement of the civil society.⁵³ It aims at implementing six measures, known by their acronym "MPOWER":

- Monitor tobacco use and prevention policies
- Protect people from tobacco use
- Offer help to quit tobacco use
- Warn about the dangers of tobacco
- Enforce bans on tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship
- Raise taxes on tobacco.⁵⁴

⁴¹ WHO, *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*, 2002.

⁴² WHO, *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*, 2002.

⁴³ Zins & Erchul, *The Use of Consultation as a Foundation for Promoting Health and Prevention Problems*, 2003, p. 80.

⁴⁴ WHO, *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*, 2002.

⁴⁵ WHO, *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*, 2002.

⁴⁶ Zins & Erchul, *The Use of Consultation as a Foundation for Promoting Health and Prevention Problems*, 2003, p. 81.

⁴⁷ Zins & Erchul, *The Use of Consultation as a Foundation for Promoting Health and Prevention Problems*, 2003, p. 81.

⁴⁸ Verweij, *Tobacco Discouragement: A Non-Paternalistic Argument*, 2007, p. 192.

⁴⁹ Verweij, *Tobacco Discouragement: A Non-Paternalistic Argument*, 2007, p. 192.

⁵⁰ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic: Warning about the Dangers of Tobacco*, 2011.

⁵¹ Verweij, *Tobacco Discouragement: A Non-Paternalistic Argument*, 2007, p. 181.

⁵² Verweij, *Tobacco Discouragement: A Non-Paternalistic Argument*, 2007, p. 180.

⁵³ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2009: Implementing smoke-free environments*, 2009, p. 18.

⁵⁴ WHO, *Fact Sheet N°339 Tobacco*, 2011.

The success of this treaty lies in its ability to cover 87% of the global population in 173 countries.⁵⁵ Since the application of this treaty, more than 400 million people are newly covered by those measures, protecting their health.⁵⁶ Within the promotion of healthy lifestyles, the implication of governments and policies is crucial, in order to achieve a complete coverage of the population by the MPOWER measures.⁵⁷ However, regarding tobacco discouragement policies, only 9% of the countries bound by the WHO FCTC are implementing non-smoking policies in public places such as restaurants.⁵⁸ Still, the effectiveness of such policies is proven with a decrease of exposure for second-hand tobacco smoke by 80% to 90%.⁵⁹ Taxes are another instrument that governments can set up to discourage tobacco use.⁶⁰ No matter that taxes have been recognized among the MPOWER measures and in the 6th article of the WHO FCTC, only 27 countries have implemented taxes of more than 75% the retail price.⁶¹

Obesity

Obesity and the health problems it causes are nowadays considered as a public health threat.⁶² 1.5 billion adults are considered be overweight, and a third of them are obese.⁶³ According to the WHO, a person with a Body Mass Index (BMI), which is a ratio between weight and height, above 25 is overweight, while a BMI above 30 qualifies as obese.⁶⁴ The number of persons passing from one category to another has more doubled since 1980.⁶⁵ An unhealthy nutrition and physical inactivity are the fundamental causes of obesity.⁶⁶ But socio-cultural factors play a major part too in the increase in obesity since the changes in dietary and activity patterns result of societal changes.⁶⁷ To address the obesity, in May 2002 the WHO set up a Global Strategy on Diet, Physical Activity and Health.⁶⁸ Among measures aiming at improving population lifestyle figure the promotion of fruit and vegetable consumption, the reduction of salt intake in processed foods, and the encouragement of sports practice. For example, the WHO advises the reduction of the use of motorized transport to encourage people to walk or go by bike for small distances, and to physically exercise every day.⁶⁹ This is a means to combining both health promotion and a reduction of urban air pollution, which is often at the origin of some chronic diseases such as cancer. As another example, the United Kingdom started in 2003 a salt-reduction program, which targeted three objectives: working hand in hand with industry, increasing public awareness, and improving food labeling. In five years, the results were convincing since the salt-intake had decreased of nearly 1g/day, preventing 6,000 premature deaths and \$ 2.3 billion of health care costs.⁷⁰

Combating HIV/AIDS and preventable infectious diseases

Within the framework of the resolution A/RES/65/180, the General Assembly Member States agreed to keep progressing toward a better prevention of HIV/AIDS through public awareness campaigns, the use of contraception and condoms to avoid the spread of the virus and other sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), and early detection in order to contain the progression of the virus.⁷¹ Regarding the spread of infectious and contagious diseases, the promotion of vaccination drives, in partnership with the governments and Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs), must be achieved. For example, UNICEF works on a global campaign established with the WHO favoring a strategy of immunizing every child from measles, tetanus and whooping cough. This program aims at reducing by two-third

⁵⁵ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic: Warning about the Dangers of Tobacco*, 2011

⁵⁶ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2009: Implementing smoke-free environments*, 2009, p. 13.

⁵⁷ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2009: Implementing smoke-free environments*, 2009, p. 16.

⁵⁸ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2009: Implementing smoke-free environments*, 2009, p. 13.

⁵⁹ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2009: Implementing smoke-free environments*, 2009 p. 31.

⁶⁰ WHO, *Fact Sheet N°339 Tobacco*, 2011.

⁶¹ WHO, *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2009: Implementing smoke-free environments*, 2009, p. 18.

WHO, *Fact Sheet N°339 Tobacco*, 2011.

⁶² Crawford & Jeffery, *Obesity prevention and public health*, Volume 13, 2005, p. 4.

⁶³ WHO, *Fact Sheet N°311 Obesity and Overweight*, 2011.

⁶⁴ WHO, *Fact Sheet N°311 Obesity and Overweight*, 2011.

⁶⁵ WHO, *Fact Sheet N°311 Obesity and Overweight*, 2011.

⁶⁶ Crawford & Jeffery, *Obesity prevention and public health*, Volume 13, 2005, p. 21.

⁶⁷ Crawford & Jeffery, *Obesity prevention and public health*, Volume 13, 2005, p. 38.

WHO, *Fact Sheet N°311 Obesity and Overweight*, 2011.

⁶⁸ WHO, *Fact Sheet N°311 Obesity and Overweight*, 2011.

⁶⁹ WHO, *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*, 2002.

⁷⁰ WHO, *Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2010*, 2011, Chapter 4.

⁷¹ United Nations General Assembly, *A/RES/65/180 Organization of the 2011 comprehensive review of the progress achieved in realizing the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS and the Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS*, 2010.

child mortality by 2015 in the framework of the MDGs.⁷² However, it appears that, for example, conflicts within a country or difficulty in accessing areas where vaccinations or health campaigns are needed may constitute the biggest obstacles to the international aid. Cooperation with local authorities to access landlocked areas, or with others partners of the United Nations, helps NGOs to finally reach the population targeted by their campaigns.

The creation of a healthy environment

The reduction of environmental risks

Our exposure to the environment we are living in, including any chemical and biological risk factors, can alter our health.⁷³ Nearly 90 diseases emerge from environmental risk factors and 25% of all deaths can be attributed to them.⁷⁴ Many diseases such as malaria, dengue and diarrheal diseases are climate-sensitive and triggered by environmental risks. Thus, the 61st World Health Assembly requested a work plan of climate change and health.⁷⁵ Before suggesting the combination of the fight against climate change and the promotion of health, it focuses on four main points aimed at improving the environment that surrounds us, through public awareness campaigns, coordination of the action between the local, national and international level, the use of new technology to develop research on this topic, and the assistance of any country trying to achieve a well-functioning health care system.⁷⁶ According to the definition of the WHO, such a system requires a robust financing mechanism, a well-trained workforce, well-maintained facilities and a reliable collection of data to establish policies.⁷⁷

Drinking water and sanitation

The creation of a healthy environment means also having access to resources such as clean water and sanitary conditions. The decade 2005-2015 has been declared “decade of water” by the WHO, which aims to supply all people with water and sanitation.⁷⁸ To emphasize the importance of drinking water and sanitation, diarrhea (often contracted from unclean water or unsanitary conditions) is ranked as the sixth cause of mortality in developing countries.⁷⁹ Accessing water enables people to have proper hygiene habits, and also to grow fruits, vegetables and crops that will meet the essential needs of the population and help to achieve a basic standard of health.⁸⁰ To target water and sanitation, the G8 summit adopted a Water Action Plan in 2003.⁸¹ This plan has three key objectives:

- Increasing access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation,
- Improving water resources management,
- Enhancing water productivity.⁸²

Programs such as the Philippine Water Revolving Fund (PWRF) or the EU Water Initiative (EUWI) show efforts made by the G8 to improve access to water and sanitation at a global level, through financial support and advice on water management. For example, the G8 countries helped the Asian Development Bank with \$2 billion to provide 200 million people with new services and better water resources, as well as prevent floods in the areas at risks. Recognizing the progress made since 2003, the G8 voices concern that water resources are still threatened by climate change and pollution.⁸³ Political will and improvement within the governance and management of water resources are key steps towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.⁸⁴

⁷² UNICEF, *Vaccinations in the world: views and strategies*, 2010.

⁷³ Prüss-Üstün & Corvalán, *Preventing disease through healthy environments: Towards an estimate of the environmental burden of disease*, 2006.

⁷⁴ Prüss-Üstün & Corvalán, *Preventing disease through healthy environments: Towards an estimate of the environmental burden of disease*, 2006.

⁷⁵ Prüss-Üstün & Corvalán, *Preventing disease through healthy environments: Towards an estimate of the environmental burden of disease*, 2006.

⁷⁶ WHO, *Fact sheet N°266 Climate Change and health*, 2010.

⁷⁷ WHO, *Fact sheet N°266 Climate Change and health*, 2010.

⁷⁸ Montgomery, *Water and Sanitation in Developing Countries*, 2007, p. 18.

⁷⁹ Montgomery, *Water and Sanitation in Developing Countries*, 2007, p. 19.

⁸⁰ Montgomery, *Water and Sanitation in Developing Countries*, 2007, p. 19.

⁸¹ G8 Summit, *Progress Report on the implementation of the G8 Water Action Plan*, 2009, p. 1.

⁸² G8 Summit, *Progress Report on the implementation of the G8 Water Action Plan*, 2009, p. 6-7.

⁸³ G8 Summit, *Progress Report on the implementation of the G8 Water Action Plan*, 2009, p. 2.

⁸⁴ G8 Summit, *Progress Report on the implementation of the G8 Water Action Plan*, 2009, p. 9.

Conclusion

The double burden of disease: a new challenge

Nowadays, the discussion of health problems is no longer confined to developed countries. While developing countries are still facing other health-related problems such as infectious diseases and malnutrition, the rapid urbanization of some areas in those countries means they, too, face the development of risk factors such as pollution, and obesity.⁸⁵ It is now proven that more than three quarters of NCD-related deaths occur in low and middle-income countries.⁸⁶ Struggling against both NCDs and infectious illnesses represents a new challenge for those countries that must be taken into account when addressing the problem of prevention in their health care system.

Thus, fostering prevention in healthcare requires equipping patients with motivation and capabilities to manage themselves.⁸⁷ To do so, partnerships between international organization, such as the WHO, governments and civil society actors should be encouraged. New technologies, mass-media communication and the progress in research should be included in the process. This topic opens up a wide range of discussions on the nefarious links between economic development, urbanization, climate change and health and the contribution prevention strategies can make to improve public health.

Annotated Bibliography

I. Fostering Prevention in Health Care

Crawford, D., R. W. Jeffery. (2005). *Obesity prevention and public health, Volume 13*, New York: Oxford University Press.

This document recalls all the theories about obesity, from Body Mass Index, to the role of nutrition and physical activity. Analyzing the actual situation and the spread of this NCD, the authors aims to highlight the importance of socio-cultural factors that need to be taken into account in the spread of such diseases, as well as socio-economic status.

Montgomery M. A. (2007). Water and Sanitation in Developing Countries: Including Health in the Equation, *Environmental Science & Technology* (pp17-24), N.A.

This article states the importance of clean water supply in order to save lives and improve living conditions. It gives details about the link between water and the development of many diseases. It reminds us that the obstacles that need to be faced and the path toward sustainability that can be followed.

Prüss-Üstün A., & Corvalán C. (2006). *Preventing disease through healthy environments: Towards an estimate of the environmental burden of disease*, WHO: Geneva.

This document depicts the current situation, recognizing the environmental factors and their role in the development of NCDs and the spread of infectious illnesses. It gives tracks on the management of our environment, recalling the WHO work plans, tracing a link between climate change and health. In this publication, delegates can find many examples and data to quantify the importance of the environment in our health.

United Nations General Assembly. (2009), *A/RES/64/265 Prevention and control of non-communicable diseases*. New York. Retrieved July 29, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/r64.shtml>

This resolution is at the origin of the decision to hold a General Assembly meeting in September 2011, on the prevention of NCDs. It reminds the growing importance those diseases are taken, and the challenge they represent, both for developed industrialized countries and developing countries.

United Nations General Assembly. (2010). *A/RES/65/1 Keeping the promise: united to achieve the Millennium Development Goals*. New York. Retrieved July 29, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/r65.shtml>

⁸⁵ WHO, *Fact Sheet N°311 Obesity and Overweight*, 2011.

⁸⁶ WHO, *Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2010*, 2011, Chapter 7.

⁸⁷ WHO, *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*, 2002

This resolution discusses the importance of health, within the framework of the Millennium Development Goals Charter. It calls for the implementation of vaccination programs, early management, detection and prevention so as to reduce child mortality, combat HIV/AIDS and fulfill the others Millennium Goals. Reading such a resolution is the key introduction for delegates to understand the debate on health in the UN framework in the recent years.

United Nations General Assembly. (2010). *A/RES/65/180 Organization of the 2011 comprehensive review of the progress achieved in realizing the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS and the Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS*. New York. Retrieved July 29, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/r65.shtml>

This resolution addresses an assessment of the progress in the fight against HIV/AIDS, recalling the importance of prevention, through education campaign. It reminds that only prevention can enable early detection, and better treatment of such diseases.

Verweij M. (2007). Tobacco Discouragement: A Non-Paternalistic Argument. In: Dawson A., & Verweij, M.. *Ethics, Prevention and Public Health* (pp 179-198). New York: Oxford University Press.

This article provides an excellent analysis of the risk factors implicated by the prolonged use of tobacco, both for smokers and second-hand smokers. It questions the involvement of governmental policies in the promotion of a healthy lifestyle. Delegates should read it to understand the main obstacles to the establishment of healthy lifestyles in the population.

World Health Assembly. (2008). *WHA61.14 Prevention and control of NCDs: Implementation of the Global Strategy*. WHO: Geneva.

This resolution addresses the need to reduce premature deaths and improve the quality of life for each Member States. It calls for the continuing action of the World Health Organization in order to fight against NCDs, through a increase of the budget allocated to the WHO strategic plans and other framework such as the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control and the Global Strategy on Diet, Physical Activity and Health.

World Health Organization. (2011). *Global Status Report on noncommunicable diseases 2010*. WHO: Geneva. Retrieved October 11, 2011 from http://www.who.int/nmh/publications/ncd_report2010/en/

This recent report is an excellent synthesis on all the strategies implemented in the fight against NCDs. Delegates should focus on chapter 4 on the strategies to prevent diseases, chapter 6 which reminds of the capacity of each country to participate in the setting up of new programs, and chapter 7, which focuses on new actions to undertake, given the lessons that have been learnt.

World Health Organization. (2011). *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic: Warning about the Dangers of Tobacco*. WHO: Geneva.

This report states what is at stake in the fight against tobacco. It calls for actions undertaken in order to fight the globalization of the tobacco epidemic, and reminds the previous actions, their assessments and the progress in political will.

World Health Organization. (2002). Fact sheet N°172 *Integrating prevention into health care*. Retrieved July 29, 2011 from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs172/en/index.html>

This documents, recently updated, sums up the role prevention should play in health care policies. It reminds the previous actions undertaken by the WHO and by countries such as Brazil or India. It encourages early detection, and delay in complications, and all the small steps that will lead to success in the future.

Zins J. E., & Erchul W. P. (2003). The Use of Consultation as a Foundation for Promoting Health and Prevention Problems. In: Gullotta T. P., M. Bloom *Encyclopedia of Primary Prevention and Health Promotion* (pp. 80-85). New York: Kluwer Academic Plenum Publisher.

This document serves as the basis for further reflection on how consultation can play a major part in the educational process involved by the will to increase prevention. It gives ideas about trust, openness, and the reforms on the way to see a consultation, not only on the short-term basis to cure an episodic health problem, but also to educate and improve patients' self-management on a long-term perspective.

II. Africa's economic development, exploitation of natural resources and national sovereignty

An introductory quotation is optional. It is only to be used between main title and beginning of main text. In contrast to the block quote, there is no minimum length requirement and it is not indented.

Introduction

The sovereignty of a state over the use of its natural resources is a long-standing topic, debated in the General Assembly since the beginnings of the organization. In 1952, the General Assembly adopted its resolution 626 entitled the “Right to exploit freely natural wealth and resources”, underscoring sovereignty of states over their development and therefore, the use of their natural resources.⁸⁸ The principle has become part of international law as the first article of both the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (ICESCR) and the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* emphasizes:

All peoples may, for their own ends, freely dispose of their natural wealth and resources without prejudice to any obligations arising out of international economic co-operation, based upon the principle of mutual benefit, and international law. In no case may a people be deprived of its own means of subsistence.⁸⁹

The origin of this principle is drawn from the Cold War, where the United States of America and the Soviet Union looked to many developing countries as a source of raw materials. The topic is meant to revisit the importance of the basic principle in the recent decades following the end of the Cold War. Is there sovereignty for developing countries in Africa and across the globe to use their natural resources to the benefits of its peoples? What new challenges are these countries facing in the recent past?

Many parts of Africa have seen an upswing in foreign direct investment in the last years. The topic aims to contrast actual experience to textbook theory on foreign direct investment (FDI) benefiting economic development in the host country. It tries to bring together several areas of economic development in Africa that might seem to have little in common on the first glance. In the cases discussed here, foreign direct investment and the stronger integration of African products and resources in the world markets have had both positive and negative impacts. While the economic upswing in many African countries in recent years is undoubtedly linked to their integration in world markets and foreign direct investments, other countries with high FDI have failed to make significant progress. Thus, the focus is put on the question of what kind of FDI is needed for a more equitable economic development with less negative side effects. It challenges delegates to evaluate if there is a need for more governance and revisits the question over what governance mechanisms can be used to pursue these aims.

The next two sections will discuss two sectors – agriculture and oil – to exemplify insights and problems related to them and similarly to other sectors. Delegates should take these as first examples, but are required to research if and in what way their countries are affected. Because of the significant role the People’s Republic of China is playing in foreign direct investments in Africa today, a section will outline why there is widespread criticism of its operations by local and international actors.

Agriculture

The 2011 drought on the horn of Africa was said to be the worst in 60 years, and has affected more than 12 million people in Somalia, Ethiopia and Kenya, rising to the level of famine.⁹⁰ The explanations for it are manifold, ranging from changes in precipitation patterns due to climate change and speculation in world food markets, to the so-called “land grab.” The term is used to criticize the acquisition of major areas of fertile land by multinational companies for the purpose of “offshore food production” as an investment opportunity, whose produce is destined either to ensure

⁸⁸ United Nations General Assembly, *Right to exploit freely natural wealth and resources (A/RES/626(VII), 1952.*

⁸⁹ United Nations General Assembly, *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*, 1967, Article 1;

United Nations General Assembly, *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*, 1967, Article 1.

⁹⁰ Guardian, *Update: Aid for the food crisis in the Horn of Africa – get the data*, 2011.

the investing country's food security or for the world market, rather than to ensure local food security.⁹¹ While there is often talk about purchases of land, most agreements in Africa are long-term land leases – often in connection with investments in infrastructure development.⁹² The investors related to these deals take various forms, ranging from government-controlled or related funds to private companies, from several Arab countries to China, India, Japan, South Korea, Libya and Egypt and others.⁹³

While the investments in land tend to put a greater focus on ensuring food security, there is a second motivation that explains the significant cash flow coming from U.S. and European investments in “pension funds, agribusiness behemoths and even educational institutions: “ investments in agriculture are also seen, particularly after the financial crisis, as a new strategy for growth and financial returns.⁹⁴ There are plenty of examples of these deals in recent years with different constellations between buyer and sellers, structure of the acquisition agreements and the level of consideration of local people's interests.⁹⁵ In fact, there seems to be disagreement whether the private sector or governments are more heavily involved in land acquisitions – or the amount of control governments are exerting over the investment decision of seemingly private businesses or investment funds.⁹⁶ Indian companies recently forged deals buying or renting millions of hectares of arable land in Ethiopia, Tanzania and Uganda to produce palm oil, maize, cotton, rice and vegetables destined for the Indian market.⁹⁷ Similar concerns for ensuring food security of the investor nation are motivating Saudi Arabia's “King Abdullah Initiative for Saudi Agricultural Investment Abroad“ initiative aimed at supporting Saudi Arabian investments in the production of “strategic crops includ[ing] rice, wheat, barley, corn, sugar and green fodders, in addition to animal and fish resources.”⁹⁸

There are plenty more stories for similar cases of land acquisition in the recent years. What they have in common is that critics compare these investments to the rising need for food aid – exemplified by the World Food Programme spending \$116 million between 2007 and 2011 on food aid to 4.6 million Ethiopians endangered by hunger and malnutrition – a sum that is roughly equal to the investments made by the King Abdullah Initiative.⁹⁹

The civil society group FIAN provided a detailed study on land grabs and the direct or indirect contribution of the European Union's agricultural policies by increasing the demand for land.¹⁰⁰ However, the investments by European companies and to satisfy their demand are often not done to satisfy food security, but to for energy purposes by planting crops for the production of biofuels, for which the EU provides significant economic incentives.¹⁰¹ An example for this is the Italian energy company ENI, in which the Italian government holds a 30% stake, that is conducting the largest biofuel development project in Africa in the Democratic Republic of the Congo widely criticized by local and international civil society groups.¹⁰²

⁹¹ FIAN, *CSO Monitoring 2009-2010 “Advancing African Agriculture” (AAA): The Impact of Europe's Policies and Practices on African Agriculture and Food Security*, 2010, p.50.

GRAIN, *Seized: The 2008 land grab for food and financial security*, 2008.

⁹² Cotula et al., *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*, 2009, p. 26.

⁹³ GRAIN, *Seized: The 2008 land grab for food and financial security*, 2008.

⁹⁴ Burton, *Land Grabs in Africa creating food crisis?*, 2011.

GRAIN, *Seized: The 2008 land grab for food and financial security*, 2008.

Cotula et al., *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*, 2009, p. 5.

⁹⁵ Cotula et al., *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*, 2009, p. 34.

⁹⁶ The Economist, *Outsourcing's third wave - Rich food importers are acquiring vast tracts of poor countries' farmland. Is this beneficial foreign investment or neocolonialism?*, 2009.

Cotula et al., *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*, 2009, p. 4.

⁹⁷ Oakland Institute, *Indian Agribusiness Sets Sight on Land in East Africa*, 2011.

⁹⁸ Cotula et al., *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*, 2009, p.38.

⁹⁹ The Economist, *Outsourcing's third wave - Rich food importers are acquiring vast tracts of poor countries' farmland. Is this beneficial foreign investment or neocolonialism?*, 2009.

¹⁰⁰ FIAN, *CSO Monitoring 2009-2010 “Advancing African Agriculture” (AAA): The Impact of Europe's Policies and Practices on African Agriculture and Food Security*, 2010, p.47.

¹⁰¹ Cotula et al., *Fuelling exclusion? The biofuels boom and poor peoples access to land*, 2008.

¹⁰² FIAN, *CSO Monitoring 2009-2010 “Advancing African Agriculture” (AAA): The Impact of Europe's Policies and Practices on African Agriculture and Food Security*, 2010, p.49.

Heinrich Böll Stiftung, *Energy Futures? Eni's investments in the tar sands and palm oil in the Congo Basin*, 2009.

Lastly, besides the role of emerging economies looking to ensure food security and developed countries looking for sources for biofuels, there is also criticism of the World Bank group's policies for "favouring the interests of financial markets over food security and environmental protection."¹⁰³

One of the primary explanations for the strong criticism of these deals is that there seems to be a significant gap between the legal structure of the agreements on paper – allowing for local participation and having "legal or procedural mechanisms to protect local rights and take account of local interests, livelihoods and welfare" – and the practice on the ground.¹⁰⁴ Adapting the overly simplistic contracts to reflect realities 'on the ground' and strengthening the monitoring and enforcement mechanisms to ensure compliance and fair distribution of proceeds and the fostering of local perspectives on the business models employed are seen as options to reduce the negative effects seen in the last years.¹⁰⁵

Oil

One of the important resources of Africa is oil, as the continent is estimated to represent around 10% of the world's oil reserves.¹⁰⁶ The topic of oil is discussed because of its significance for many African countries. Foreign direct investment is highly uneven and focused on resource-rich countries in Africa – receiving 80% of all investment, while the low level of investment in many least developed countries is "a matter of grave concern."¹⁰⁷ Overall, the largest sector receiving foreign investments is the primary sector – extracting oil, coal, gas and minerals.¹⁰⁸ The problem pattern outlined below for the case of oil can similarly be found – albeit to a lesser degree – in other commodity sectors, and aims to illustrate general problems facing many countries on the continent.

Benefiting from a wealth of natural resources often comes with much difficulty, and Africa is struggling with issues related to oil resources exploitation. The impacts of oil resources on Africa are economical, political and environmental. Oil has a particularly strong impact on economics in Africa, but that impact may not be as positive as one could expect it to be. Although oil represents an obvious wealth for some African countries, it also has a secondary impact on the development of these countries: it slows down their development process.¹⁰⁹ African countries are often found to be the victims of a phenomenon "resource curse": it is the idea that natural resources, such as oil or other precious primary products, represent an important source of revenue for those countries, and therefore their economic development tends to be slower as they almost exclusively focus on extracting those resources and fail to develop their industries by building higher value supply chains.¹¹⁰ As part of the resource curse, oil also proves to be a source of inequality in the continent, for the benefits of oil are often concentrated in the hands of a few.¹¹¹ In the case in Equatorial Guinea, the GDP per capita is higher than that of the UK, but the "the vast majority of this wealth is exploited by a narrow political elite, and little is used for developmental purposes."¹¹²

Despite these issues, Africa's oil reserves remain poorly exploited, and there are still potential benefits of oil for the continent. This was shown in 2007, when Ghana discovered a large amount of offshore oil that became a source of hope for its inhabitants.¹¹³ The African Development Bank, however, states that opportunities represented by oil "can be achieved and properly harnessed *only* if the good governance component is in place."¹¹⁴ Political governance is a common issue related to oil, as corruption and instability are often a consequence of oil resources discovery and exploitation. As underlined by the World Bank in a policy note about Ghana's oil discovery in 2007, problems "that confront countries with new oil discoveries" include the challenging of their "institutional mechanisms," as well as

¹⁰³ Bretton Woods Project, *World Bank policies "enabling" African land grab*, 2011.

¹⁰⁴ Cotula et al., *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*, 2009, p.7.

¹⁰⁵ Cotula et al., *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*, 2009, p.7-12.

The Economist, *Outsourcing's third wave - Rich food importers are acquiring vast tracts of poor countries' farmland. Is this beneficial foreign investment or neocolonialism?*, 2009.

¹⁰⁶ Royal African Society, *An RAS Guide: Oil and Africa*, n.d.

¹⁰⁷ UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2011*, 2011, p. xv.

¹⁰⁸ UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2011*, 2011, p. 40.

¹⁰⁹ Turton, *Can Africa break its resource curse?*, 2010.

¹¹⁰ Turton, *Can Africa break its resource curse?*, 2010.

Sachs & Warner, *The curse of natural resources*, 2001.

¹¹¹ Royal African Society, *An RAS Guide: Oil and Africa*, n.d.

¹¹² Royal African Society, *An RAS Guide: Oil and Africa*, n.d.

¹¹³ John & Kpodo, *Ghana bids to break Africa's oil curse*, 2010.

¹¹⁴ African Development Bank, *Oil and Gas in Africa*. 2009, p. 172.

rent-seeking behavior and corruption, political patronage, lower entrepreneurship and capacity for investment, and increased authoritarianism and civil conflict.”¹¹⁵ Among many others, Equatorial Guinea is a prime example that demonstrates the negative political consequences oil can have on African countries: its human rights records are disastrous, as underscored by a recent Human Rights Watch report.¹¹⁶ According to the World Bank, “oil related conflicts in Nigeria also point to the potential of social destabilization” by oil resource discoveries.¹¹⁷ Oil therefore creates much political instability, and can favor the development of a corrupted governance system. The issue is compounded because there is also a lack of international pressure on the matter, despite the substantial involvement of foreign investors in countries such as Equatorial Guinea, who rather play the card of underplaying the political instability of the country.¹¹⁸ Nigeria can be identified as a case where huge reserves of oil have made the entire country dependent on the oil exports – accounting for 80% of the country’s revenues and the decline of more traditional economic sectors in agriculture – while social development in the country remains lower than in many other oil exporting countries with ramping poverty, lack of access to clean water, schools and health services.¹¹⁹

Another type of oil-related issue that can be identified in the African continent is the environment. Impacts on the environment vary from country to country and often depend on the political climate, but also on what kind of company is extracting the oil.¹²⁰ Large international companies often face greater scrutiny of their operations and have better means and resources to protect the environment than smaller companies; thus, the concern is that in Gabon for example – where a great part of extracting is done in protected areas – most environmental problems will occur once major companies will leave the region after extracting the resources they need.¹²¹ Another prime example is Nigeria, where the Shell oil company is not only accused of providing wrong information to the public to “greenwash” their operations, but also are accused of funding raids by the Nigerian army against local peoples opposed to their operations.¹²²

The indirect impact on the environment can however be positive: oil extraction slows down deforestation, because it refocuses the local economy from agriculture to oil extraction.¹²³ Nevertheless, there is still a great concern regarding the environmental impact of oil extraction in African countries, for lack of awareness-raising by both local authorities and foreign investors.

The role of China

China has become a major investor in many African countries in the last twenty years and will continue to do so in the future – to a large degree due to its demand for resources to enable their own economic development.¹²⁴ It is further argued that China’s foreign policy in Africa is primarily oriented towards securing access to natural resources and thus has been modeled to meet its domestic development strategy, acting in unison with its major companies.¹²⁵ In 2006, the Chinese government hosted the Beijing Summit of the Forum on China-Africa Cooperation that amongst other measures, set up the China-Africa Development Fund to foster the investments of Chinese businesses in Africa in four key areas: agriculture & manufacturing, infrastructure and related industries, industrial parks by Chinese enterprises and finally, natural resources, such as oil, gas and minerals.¹²⁶ The purpose of this section is not to review Chinese investments in any way (which is impossible anyway because of its scope). However, Western critics argue that while Western countries and corporations integrated concerns for human rights in their investment decisions, China “has changed the equation”, undermining efforts to press for human rights by providing non-democratic regimes with financing, markets for goods and services to weapons “without strings attached.”¹²⁷ The

¹¹⁵ World Bank, *The challenges and opportunities of Ghana’s oil discovery*, 2011, p. 2.

¹¹⁶ Human Rights Watch, *World Report 2011: Equatorial Guinea*, 2011.

¹¹⁷ World Bank, *The challenges and opportunities of Ghana’s oil discovery*, 2011, p. 2.

¹¹⁸ New York Times, *Oil corruption in Equatorial Guinea*, July 9, 2009.

¹¹⁹ O’Neill, *Curse of the Black Gold – Hope and Betrayal in the Niger Delta*, 2007.

¹²⁰ World Wildlife Fund, *Oil exploitation in the green heart of Africa*, n.d.

¹²¹ World Wildlife Fund, *Oil exploitation in the green heart of Africa*, n.d.

¹²² The Case against Shell, *Shell’s environmental devastation in Nigeria*, 2009.

¹²³ World Wildlife Fund, *Oil exploitation in the green heart of Africa*, n.d.

¹²⁴ Hanson, *China, Africa and Oil*, 2008.

¹²⁵ Hanson, *China, Africa and Oil*, 2008.

¹²⁶ China Development Bank, *CAD-Fund*, n.d.

Reynolds, *China in Africa: Developing ties*, 2007.

¹²⁷ Keenan, *Curse or Cure? China’s Investments in Africa and their effect on human rights*, 2008, p. 3.

Reynolds, *China in Africa: Developing ties*, 2007.

example of the pressure exerted on China for its weapons sales to the Sudanese governments might have been an indicator that Beijing's long-held policy of strict non-interference in domestic affairs comes today with a higher price than in the past and might need some revision – however, for the time to come, it will remain official policy.¹²⁸

A remarkable example is the bilateral collaboration is the one between China and Angola, which today is (alongside Saudi-Arabia) China's largest supplier of oil.¹²⁹ In exchange for the supply of oil, the People's Republic is involved in large-scale infrastructure development projects – such as in Angola's capital Luanda.¹³⁰ As some commentators argue, the business deals created are often based on relationships forged during the Cold War and are probably not primarily the result of directed Chinese government policy, but driven by private entrepreneurs who followed the encouragement by the government in this last decade to venture abroad under the names of "China International Fund or China Sonangol."¹³¹ The oil business between China and Angola is conducted through the Sonangol Group and China Sonangol and accounts for \$20 billion worth of oil imports annually – equivalent to almost all the oil imported from Angola. In addition to that, Chinese state-owned/ state-controlled businesses are also involved in all African countries with significant oil reserves.¹³²

The criticism of this particular example and similar types of investments between the People's Republic of China and a number of African countries are both economic and political. The economic criticism is linked both to the lack of transparency in these deals, the payment of bribes, the favoring decision-making by a small elite – that seems to allow "remarkably profitable terms" for the investors – combined with the doubt that the extraction of these natural resources benefits the population at all.¹³³ The impact of this is demonstrated by Angola's score on the Human Development Index (HDI): its overall position in 2010 was 146th among 169 countries ranked with a score of 0.403.¹³⁴ However, given that Angola's natural resources have helped to create an extremely wealthy elite – the country is leading, alongside the previously named Guinea-Bissau, the global rankings in income inequality measured by the Gini coefficient (58.6 in Angola).¹³⁵ If the HDI score is adjusted to take account of the low score on the other dimensions of the HDI, its "inequality-adjusted HDI" drops to a score of 0.242.¹³⁶ The political criticism of Chinese investments is based on a number of deals with non-democratic regimes widely criticized for massive human rights violations that are sustained by this form of economic cooperation – for example in Angola, Gabon, Guinea, Sudan, Zambia or Zimbabwe.¹³⁷ Similar developments to the one outlined above can be found for bauxite and iron ore in Guinea, where a consortium owned primarily by Chinese companies, with a minority stake of the Guinean government, acquired exclusive development rights for minerals in exchange for infrastructure investments in the country.¹³⁸

Conclusion

This background guide attempted to illustrate how the principal right of a people to a sovereign use of their natural resources is challenged today. New forms of investments patterns cast doubt on the simple premise that FDI benefits the local population per se. Delegates will need to investigate how the topic relates to the country they are representing in order to explore the significance of the topic for them. Investor countries might need to review the principles of their investments and African countries to research what sectors in their country are affected by which problems. Finally, the cases of land grabbing on the "resource curse" related to the extraction of natural resources are not unique to African developing countries, but can be found in Asia and Latin America as well.

A central question for delegates to discuss will be if there is the need for stronger governance of investments and economic development – and if, on what level of government and by which instruments. There already is a wide

¹²⁸ Hanson, *China, Africa and Oil*, 2008.

¹²⁹ The Economist, *The Queensway Syndicate and the Africa Trade*, 2011.

¹³⁰ China Sonangol, *Website*, n.d.

¹³¹ The Economist, *The Queensway Syndicate and the Africa Trade*, 2011.

¹³² Hurst, *China's Oil Rush in Africa*, 2006.

¹³³ Shaxson, *Angola's homegrown answers to the "Resource Curse"*, p. 54.
Hanson, *China, Africa and Oil*, 2008.

Transparency International, *2008 Bribe Payers Index*, 2008, p. 8.

¹³⁴ UNDP, *Explanation note on 2010 HDR composite indices – Angola*, n.d.

¹³⁵ UNDP, *Angola Country profile of human development indicators*, n.d.

¹³⁶ UNDP, *Explanation note on 2010 HDR composite indices – Angola*, n.d.

¹³⁷ The Economist, *The Queensway Syndicate and the Africa Trade*, 2011.

Keenan, *Curse or Cure? China's Investments in Africa and their effect on human rights*, 2008.

¹³⁸ The Economist, *The Queensway Syndicate and the Africa Trade*, 2011.

range of governance mechanisms ranging from public-private governance structures to national, regional and international regulations.

The Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative is an attempt by governments, private businesses and civil society stakeholders to govern problems in the extraction of raw materials focused on creating greater transparency about payments from companies to governments and their revenues.¹³⁹ A large number of African countries still have candidate status as they have been unable to meet the required standards yet, while two countries – Equatorial Guinea and Sao Tome e Principe – have lost their candidate status in 2010.¹⁴⁰

On the regional level, the New Partnership for Africa's Development is working to strengthen good governance through its Peer Review Mechanism and foster cooperation in achieving food security through its Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme. Finally, there is a wide range in the effectiveness of national regulatory structures in governing the use of natural resources. It underscores that wealth of natural resources can be a blessing for countries if their development is governed with an eye towards the development needs of local peoples.

Annotated Bibliography

II. Africa's economic development, exploitation of natural resources and national sovereignty

Cotula, L., Vermeulen, S., Leonard, R., & Keeley, J. (2009). *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*. International Institute for Environment and Development, Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations & International Fund for Agricultural Development. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/011/ak241e/ak241e.pdf>

The books presents a detailed study of several land deals in Ethiopia, Madagascar, Mali, Mozambique and Sudan. It argues for a balanced perspective on land deals in Africa and emphasizes potential win-win constellations. Further, delegates will find certain recommendations on how the structure of land deals can be improved to improve their effectiveness, as well as how to ensure that the local population's right are not ignored, but that investments can become mutually beneficial.

Farmlandgrab.org (n.d.). *Food Crisis and the Global Land Grab*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://farmlandgrab.org/>

This website is enormous databank for news around the topic of "land grabbing." Delegates will especially benefit from its search functions as it gives through its tagging function access to articles related to both a wide number of individual countries, as well as companies. Articles are submitted to it from a wide range of journalistic sources and press releases of many civil society organizations that will help delegates develop a good initial picture of the topic.

FIAN (2010). *The Impact of Europe's Policies and Practices on African Agriculture and Food Security*. Retrieved September 16, 2011 from <http://www.fian.org/resources/documents/others/report-on-land-grabbing/pdf>

"Advancing African Agriculture" is a long-term cooperation framework on agricultural development between the European Union and African countries. The program is built on various pillars ranging from research cooperation to the governance mechanisms and development cooperation. The report is an input to the development of this cooperation by civil society groups from the EU and African countries aimed at evaluating current trends and providing examples for how European policies impact developments in Africa. It shows how European agricultural and energy policies are contributing to higher demand for land in Africa directly and indirectly and thus a crowding out of these lands to for local food production.

GRAIN (2008). *Seized: The 2008 land grab for food and financial security*. Retrieved October 8, 2011 from <http://www.grain.org/article/entries/93-seized-the-2008-landgrab-for-food-and-financial-security>

GRAIN is an international non-profit organization working on behalf of small farmers and social organizations by building forging networks between these actors and giving them a voice. The study presents a number of different strategies that countries employ in their agricultural investments and aims to provide a perspective on how to evaluate these investments. The briefing

¹³⁹ EITI, *Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative*, n.d.

¹⁴⁰ Global Witness, *Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative scrapes through credibility test*, 2010.

contains an annex with detailed listings of over 100 agricultural investments that delegates will find helpful in developing a better understanding of the topic.

Hanson, S. (2008). *China, Africa, and Oil*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from the Council on Foreign Relations Web site <http://www.cfr.org/china/china-africa-oil/p9557>

The article argues that China's foreign policy towards many African countries is focused on securing access to natural resources to pursue the country's domestic development goals. The author presents the special, historically grown, relationships between China and its two main African oil suppliers – Sudan and Angola. Especially with regard to the case of Sudan, it argues that due to China's greater role today, their supply of weapons to Sudan and the strict policy of non-interference come with a certain price tag in the form of international criticism. Finally, the article argues that China turning a blind eye towards corruption and its willingness to pay bribes to officials is undermining efforts to promote good governance in many of the countries China is investing in.

Heinrich Böll Stiftung (2009). *Energy Futures? Eni's investments in tar sands and palm oil in the Congo Basin*. Retrieved October 12, 2011 from <http://www.boell.de/ecology/climate/climate-energy-7775.html>

The study by a number of major international environmental NGOs investigates the effects of the European Union's biofuel policies in Africa using the example of the Italian energy giant ENI and its operations in the Republic of the Congo. It finds that, quite similar to other examples discussed, there is a widespread lack of transparency in the decision-making around the deal. Neither the agreement between ENI and the Congolese government has been disclosed, nor has there been a meaningful engagement of local and national civil society representatives on the projects various impacts – in violation of "Eni's own environmental and human rights policies." The study gives voice to the concerns of the local populations as well as to the concerns for the global climate in developing carbon-intensive tar sands.

Keenan, P. J. (2008). *Curse or Cure? China's Investments in Africa and their effect on human rights*. Retrieved October 11, 2011 from <http://www.law.georgetown.edu/nternationalhr colloquium/documents/KeenanDraft-Georgetown.pdf>

One central premise of the article is that the rise of China as an investor in Africa is becoming a major topic, a) because of its "staggering" growth rate, and b) because the People's Republic's foreign policy principle of non-interference in domestic matters seems anachronistic at a time, where both Western governments and corporations have, at least in general, embraced human rights concerns in their investment and funding decisions. The latter aimed to put pressure on non-democratic regimes by putting conditions on their funding and investments. This leverage is now, at least partly gone, with being an option for access to financing and investment without any of these conditions. Delegates will benefit from studying the case studies conducted outlining China's bilateral cooperation with countries, such as Angola, Sudan, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Sachs, J., & Warner, A.M. (2001). The curse of natural resources. *European Economic Review*, (45), 827-838.

The paper by Jeffrey Sachs and Andrew Warner presents the basic economic theory behind the "resource curse." Especially delegates not familiar with economic theory should take a thorough look at this to understand the underlying premise, as it is central to understanding the topic. While the article is not new, it provides thorough empirical evidence in the data for the existence of the resource curse that still holds today. As the authors underscore, while there is no universal understanding of it, most explanations are based on a logic that the revenues from natural resources stifle economic development in other sectors, such as manufacturing and agriculture – and lead in the end, to a dependence on resource exports.

The Economist (2011). *China International Fund- The Queensway Syndicate and the Africa Trade*. Retrieved September 16, 2011 from <http://www.economist.com/node/21525847>

The article illustrates the "personal dimension" of business deals between China and Angola by portraying persons who are central to a non-transparent web of business deals – most prominently, Mr. Manuel Vicente. The author shows how closely intertwined private businesses are with governments and how this pattern of business making is copied in other countries, such as Zimbabwe and Guinea. In all countries, there is significant criticism of governments for human rights violations and the reader is left with the impression that the enormous wealth of natural

resources comes only to benefit the few elites involved in these deals, but not the general population of the countries portrayed.

The Economist (2009). *Outsourcing's third wave: Rich food importers are acquiring vast tracts of poor countries' farmland. Is this beneficial foreign investment or neocolonialism?* Retrieved October 12, 2011 from <http://www.economist.com/node/13692889>

The article gives an overview on agricultural investments and aims to take a balanced perspective on their role between the criticisms raised regarding "land grabs" on the one hand and the long-needed investment in agricultural development on the other. It presents major investing countries and gives a better picture of the magnitude of land negotiated with foreign investors since 2006: an area equivalent to a fifth of the European Union's agricultural land. Further, while other studies argue contrary, the Economist argues that the "balance [in agricultural investments] between the state and private sectors is heavily skewed in favor of the state."

III. Fostering the Implementation of the World Programme of Action for Youth

"The international community must continue to work together to expand the horizons of opportunity for young women and men and answer their legitimate demands for dignity, development and decent work. Failing to invest in our youth is a false economy. Investments in young people will pay great dividends in a better future for all."¹⁴¹

The World Programme of Action for Youth

Recognizing the importance of youth when addressing the challenges of mankind has a long history within the United Nations (UN). The first, but still indirect, links can be found in the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights (A/RES/3/217 A)* in 1948.¹⁴² A next step was taken in 1960 as a part of the *Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples*.¹⁴³ It was followed in 1963 by the *United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (A/RES/18/1904)*.¹⁴⁴ In 1965, for the first time the importance of youth gained broader attention through the *Declaration on the Promotion Among Youth of the Ideas of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding Between Peoples*.¹⁴⁵

In 1979, the United Nations decided to designate 1985 as "International Youth Year: Participation, Development, Peace."¹⁴⁶ With this proclamation the UN took a major step to move the focus of the international community to more youth as a part of a bigger context, to youth as an integral part of human society that needs to participate on all levels, from local to regional, to national to international. Twenty-five years later, on December 18, 2009 the General Assembly adopted *Resolution 64/134: Proclamation of 2010 as the International Year of Youth: Dialogue and Mutual Understanding*. This declaration marks the 25th anniversary of the first International Youth Year. It started on August 12 in 2010.¹⁴⁷

Ten years later, on 14 December 1995 the United Nations General Assembly adopted the *World Programme of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and Beyond (WPA Y)*.¹⁴⁸ This program gives practical guidelines and acts as a policy framework for national action, as well as international support to improve the situation of young people. While respecting sovereignty, the program outlines specific measures to strengthen capacities on a national level in

¹⁴¹ Ban, *International Youth Day 12 August, Secretary-General's Message for 2011*, 2011.

¹⁴² United Nations General Assembly, *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, 1948.

¹⁴³ United Nations General Assembly, *Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples*, 1960.

¹⁴⁴ United Nations General Assembly, *United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination*, 1963.

¹⁴⁵ United Nations General Assembly, *Declaration on the Promotion Among Youth of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding Between Peoples*, 1965.

¹⁴⁶ United Nations General Assembly, *International Youth Year: participation, development, peace*. 1980.

¹⁴⁷ United Nations General Assembly, *Proclamation of 2010 as the International Year of Youth: Dialogue and Mutual Understanding*, 2010.

¹⁴⁸ United Nations General Assembly, *World Programme of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and Beyond*, 1995.

the field of youth, at the same time supporting measures to increase opportunities (quality and quantity) for young people for a more effective and constructive participation in society.

The program, which is annexed to the resolution, originally lists the following ten priority areas: a) Education; b) Employment; c) Hunger and Poverty; d) Health; e) Environment; f) Drug abuse; g) Juvenile delinquency; h) Leisure time activities; i) Girls and young women; and j) Full and effective participation of youth in the life of society and in decision making.¹⁴⁹ In addition to these priority areas the means of implementations shall be differentiated in a) national level, b) regional level; and c) international level.¹⁵⁰

In 2007, the United Nations General Assembly adjusted the program by adding five newly identified priority areas.¹⁵¹ These new areas are “k) Globalization; l) Information and Communication Technology; m) HIV and AIDS; n) Armed conflict; o) Intergenerational issues.”¹⁵² Adding these new priority areas partly reflects global changes of the twelve years in between, at the same time it further differentiates in some of the priority areas, such as HIV and AIDS that was also included as a proposal for action in the Health section of the original program in 1995.

Each of the priority areas offer a short introduction of why the field of action is of special importance for youth, and then lists a number of proposals for action. These proposals invite different actors to take action as they address different levels of policy-making. At the same time it needs to be mentioned that even today the program invites some fundamental criticism that derives from the thesis that the program does not accurately reflect the current needs of youth. One of the critics is the Catholic Family & Human Rights Institute.¹⁵³

Though the *World Programme of Action for Youth* remains a comprehensive framework for action towards youth empowerment and involvement, it is this broad approach that invites discussion about measures that should be taken to foster the implementation of the program. The WPAY works as a framework that does not intend to provide funding or coordination. It outlines different priority areas and specifies suggested actions / policies that shall be taken by all stakeholders like governments but also civil society. Three priority areas below serve as examples to what problems still exist in these fields of action, to identify potential means to further progress in these areas.

Example 1: Juvenile Delinquency

The program outlines different potential backgrounds of youth offenders and refers to an often inadequate primary socialization and a socio-economic environment that is shaped by destitution and poverty. There are three different proposals for action: 1.) Priority to preventive measures; 2.) Prevention of violence and 3.) Rehabilitation services and programs.¹⁵⁴

One of the main risk factors for juvenile delinquency is violence, either active or passive. Involvement in physical fights is quite common among school age children in many parts of the world.¹⁵⁵ Reasons for violent actions, besides intrapersonal factors, can be found in social relations. While the influence of the family during childhood is substantial, during adolescence the influence of peers is growing.¹⁵⁶ There are a high number of programs aiming to fight juvenile delinquency. Although deriving from other frameworks and backgrounds, many of them work in the priority areas outlined in the *World Programme of Action for Youth*. These programs differ in their methodology, risk factors, and protective factors they address.¹⁵⁷

Many of these programs work on the community level and are mostly well known in public, such as the Boys & Girls clubs of America that today runs clubs in many cities of the United States.¹⁵⁸ A further example on another

¹⁴⁹ United Nations, *World Programme of Action for Youth*, (n.d.).

¹⁵⁰ United Nations, *World Programme of Action for Youth*, (n.d.).

¹⁵¹ United Nations General Assembly, *Policies and programmes involving youth: youth in the global economy – promoting youth participation in social and economic development*, 2008.

¹⁵² United Nations General Assembly, *Policies and programmes involving youth: youth in the global economy – promoting youth participation in social and economic development*, 2008.

¹⁵³ Pawlowski, *Six Problems with the World Programme of Action for Youth: How WPAY Fails Young People*, 2011.

¹⁵⁴ United Nations, *World Programme of Action for Youth*, p. 23, 2007.

¹⁵⁵ Clemense, *Violence and incivility at school: the situation in Switzerland*, p.173, 2001.

¹⁵⁶ Dahlberg, *Youth violence in the United States: major trends, risk factors, and prevention approaches*, p. 268, 1998.

¹⁵⁷ Interagency Working Group on Youth Programs, *Program Directory*, (n.d.).

¹⁵⁸ Boys and Girls Clubs of America, *Why Boys & Girls Clubs?*, (n.d.).

continent are the youth programs of Action India that mainly use peer education to reach numerous goals supporting the development of youth.¹⁵⁹ While these activities and programs are initiated by the civil society, there are also preventive activities that are to be taken by the authorities. The so-called Operation Ceasefire, installed by the city of Boston in cooperation with the Boston Police Department, street workers, schools and other local public safety agencies and community leaders, targets those who are most likely to become offenders and victims of firearms violence.¹⁶⁰ As part of the strategy in a first step measures are implemented to quickly “cool” areas of the city with a high prevalence of gang associated firearm violence. In a second step there is a decision about priority prosecution of offenders that seem most dangerous and violent. At the same time measures are taken to disrupt the flow of arms to the gangs.¹⁶¹ Operation Ceasefire can be seen as one example, how authorities and prosecution can also act as a part of a preventive strategy, by creating strategies as part of the public safety system that do not only aim on prosecution, but also concentrate activities in a way that prevents further involvement of young people to gang activities.

In this priority field, where the *World Programme of Action for Youth* clearly prioritizes prevention, the open question remains of how the balance should be reached and incorporated between prevention and prosecution. The International Child & Youth Care Network tried to outline this conflict already 10 years go.¹⁶² Still, it needs to be recognized that most data that supports the importance of prevention and thus works as a foundation for the development of programs derives from studies in a western world context. If this implies that the approach of the global community towards juvenile delinquency needs to be reviewed remains an open question at this point.

Example 2: HIV/ AIDS

As the *World Programme of Action for Youth* outlines, especially in developing countries, HIV infections are heavily concentrated among youth.¹⁶³ It also specifies that there is a lack of information available to help youth in order to increase their ability to protect themselves from infection of sexually transmitted diseases like HIV. According to the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS 40% of all new HIV infections occur among young people 15-24 years old.¹⁶⁴ Due to HIV/AIDS life expectancy in many countries has been reduced to almost below 35 and this reversed steady gains over the last 100 years.¹⁶⁵ At the same time, especially in the countries worst affected by HIV/AIDS, the rate of new infections among girls is as much as 5 to 6 times higher than those of boys due to mainly socio-economic reasons.¹⁶⁶

The impact of HIV/AIDS, especially in the developing countries with relatively young populations, is expected to grow and so the question of how many resources are available and how these resources are used to fight the spread of HIV/AIDS will remain a challenge for the international community.¹⁶⁷

The *World Programme of Action for Youth* lists two proposals for action: 1.) Raising awareness about HIV/AIDS prevention, care and treatment for youth; and 2.) Supporting universal HIV/AIDS education, taking gender equalities into account. As it is the intention of the Program to provide guidance not only on the regional level, but also on the international level, to exemplify this perspective an introduction of the Global Youth Coalition on HIV/AIDS (GYCA) will help to understand what non-governmental organizations can do on the international level.

In 2002 and 2004, at the Barcelona and Bangkok International AIDS Conferences youth participants recognized the lack of a global network to allow them an exchange of information and resources, and create strategies for collaborative campaigns.¹⁶⁸ Following the conference they invited adult allies working in the field of HIV/AIDS and started an E-consultation for several weeks to structure their needs and goals, leading to the formulation of the GYCA. They started with support of the Executive Director of UNAIDS and a voluntary task force of approximately 200 young leaders worldwide.¹⁶⁹

¹⁵⁹ Action India, *Youth Programs*, 2011.

¹⁶⁰ The Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, *Operation Cease Fire*, 2011.

¹⁶¹ The Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, *Operation Cease Fire*, 2011.

¹⁶² Mendel, *What works in the prevention of youth crime?* 2000.

¹⁶³ United Nations, *World Programme of Action for Youth*, (n.d.).

¹⁶⁴ Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, *AIDS epidemic update*, 2009.

¹⁶⁵ Stanecki, *The AIDS pandemic in the 21st century: the demographic impact in developing countries*, 2000.

¹⁶⁶ Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, *Global crisis--global action*, 2001.

¹⁶⁷ Alagiri, *Tracking Public and Private Investments in AIDS Prevention, Care, and Research*, 2011.

¹⁶⁸ Global Youth Coalition on HIV/AIDS, *frequently asked questions*, (n.d.).

¹⁶⁹ Global Youth Coalition on HIV/AIDS, *frequently asked questions*, (n.d.).

Today GYCA is a tool for youth engaged in the fight against HIV/AIDS that offers the exchange of best practices, but also E-courses to develop skills such as project management, political advocacy or fundraising. It also offers access to resources such as information on training opportunities, campaigns or publications. In doing so, it aims not to duplicate existing structures but to facilitate the use of existing tools.¹⁷⁰

As the GYCA example shows, international efforts to intensify the fight against the spread of HIV/AIDS cannot work without the access to programs on the regional and local level. Their role can be coordinative and supportive, building capacity. Access to information technology limits the capacities, especially in the regions most affected by the disease. At the same time GYCA raises the question of what should be the role of those affected by HIV/AIDS in the prevention of it? How successful can strategies be without involvement of those who face the challenges of HIV in their everyday life? What is the role of youth as an actor in the current prevention strategies?

Example 3: Intergenerational Issues

The *Madrid International Plan for Action on Aging* recognizes that solidarity among generations is a fundamental aspect for an intergenerational society that values and demonstrates equity amongst generations.¹⁷¹ Also the WPAY recognizes that the increased lifespan we face in many countries implies that many adults may be able to share their knowledge with younger generations.¹⁷² This implies specific challenges for intergenerational communication.¹⁷³ At the same time WPAY recognizes, that “due to the weakening of intergenerational connections in the context of aging societies various needs of youth, children, and older people that have been supported through intricate and complex familial relationships, are increasingly not being met and are instead becoming the responsibility of the State or private sector.”¹⁷⁴

The WPAY lists three proposals for action, which are 1.) Strengthening families; 2.) Empowering young women; and 3.) Strengthening intergenerational solidarity. As a specification in that area WPAY encourages all sectors of society to develop reciprocity in learning, which shall provide older persons with opportunities to learn from younger generations.

The Intergenerational Center of Temple University in Philadelphia offers numerous programs and activities focused on intergenerational learning and communication. It runs classical programs, such as “Grandma’s Kids”, that provides educational and family support services to children in kinship placement.¹⁷⁵ In addition it also supports and runs the national office of the “Communities for all ages” initiative.¹⁷⁶ Already founded in 1979 this initiative “intentionally breaks out of age specific ‘silos’ that creates artificial barriers between generations” in a community building process.¹⁷⁷ It offers support in the process of assessment of both assets and challenges that communities aiming to become a community for all ages might face.¹⁷⁸ Based on the specific profile of the community, while integrating different stakeholders and key actors, the campaign staff act as a “collaborative” agent to help to develop a model and action plan for the community. In the third step it also supports the implementation of the developed initiatives. Typical examples can be building multi-generational learning centers, organizing farmer markets and arts festivals to promote cross-cultural and cross-age understanding, or the utilization of schools as centers for lifelong learning.¹⁷⁹

A central benefit of the coordination of these communities on the national level is not only the chance to learn from each other and copy best practice models, but also the chance for academic monitoring to develop even more effective models in intergenerational cooperation.

¹⁷⁰ Global Youth Coalition on HIV/AIDS, *frequently asked questions*, (n.d.).

¹⁷¹ United Nations, *The Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing*, 2008.

¹⁷² United Nations, *World Programme of Action for Youth*, (n.d.).

¹⁷³ Ryan, *Aging, Identity, Attitudes, and Intergenerational Communication*, 2007.

¹⁷⁴ United Nations, *World Programme of Action for Youth*, (n.d.).

¹⁷⁵ The Intergenerational Center, *Grandma’s Kids*, (n.d.).

¹⁷⁶ The Intergenerational Center, *Connecting Generations to Strengthen Communities*, (n.d.).

¹⁷⁷ Communities for all Ages, *Approach*, (n.d.).

¹⁷⁸ Communities for all Ages, *Process*, (n.d.).

¹⁷⁹ Communities for all Ages, *Process*, (n.d.).

Still, it needs to be mentioned that many of the efforts dealing with intergenerational issues remain projects without wider ranges. The question needs to be raised in which way intergenerational cooperation can reach a greater impact. At the same time the question needs to be raised if the strategies to address intergenerational issues in the context of the WPAY can be the same for societies with an aging population and for those with a reducing age span due to a lack of development.

Conclusion: the future need for further enhancement

The number of proposals of action in the WPAY covers a wide area of topics and often interlinks. It might be impossible to address topics like HIV/AIDS, poverty, health, or environment solely with a perspective on youth, as youth needs to be implemented in larger strategies. The question to answer in the research progress for delegates shall be the role of youth in their respective society. How is youth involved and what are youth-specific experiences in the respective country with regards to the priority areas of the WPAY? What must be done to make existing programs more effective, where did programs fail? Specifically, the question of the appropriate level of intervention should be answered with reference to existing strategies of the respective country.

Annotated Bibliography

III. Fostering the Implementation of the World Programme of Action for Youth

Global Youth Coalition on HIV/AIDS. (n.d.). *Frequently asked questions*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://gyca.tigweb.org/about/faq.html>

The WPAY also intends to offer a framework for specific action on the international level. GYCA offers an example of how to fill this abstract intention with life. Starting as a grassroots initiative of young people step-by-step with support of UNAIDS young people created a mainly online based network to allow exchange of information and ideas amongst activists.

The Intergenerational Center. (n.d.). *Connecting Generations to Strengthen Communities*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://templeigc.org/>

Since its founding at Temple University in 1979, the Center has mobilized thousands of older adults and youth to serve as resources to each other and their communities. Older adults, for example, have served as literacy tutors, child advocates, youth and family mentors, parent outreach workers, and oral historians. Young people have provided respite services to frail elderly and their families, helped older immigrants and refugees learn English and prepare to become U.S. citizens, and provided services such as telephone reassurance to the homebound.

United Nations. (2007). *World Programme of Action for Youth*. Retrieved September 9, 2011 from http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/documents/wpay_text_final.pdf

This is the key document to the topic under discussion. It outlines the different fields of action and in parts offers very specific options of what could be done and what actions could be taken. As it not only includes the resolutions, but gives an introduction to the problem and its scope, this document creates the base for all discussions in committee. In many field it explains the meaning of different fields of action of the Program and offers ideas of what could and should be done specifically.

United Nations. (2008). *The Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing* Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from http://www.un.org/ageing/documents/building_natl_capacity/guiding.pdf

The Madrid Plan of Action offers a new agenda for handling the issue of ageing in the 21st-century. It focuses on three main areas: older persons and development; advancing health and well being into old age; and ensuring enabling and supportive environments. It is intended to be a resource for policymaking, suggesting ways for Governments, non-governmental organizations, and other actors to reorient the ways in which their societies perceive, interact with and care for their older citizens.

United Nations General Assembly. (1948). *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. Retrieved on October 7, 2011 from <http://www.un-documents.net/a3r217a.htm>

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is the primary international articulation of the fundamental and inalienable rights of all members of the human family. Adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, 1948, the UDHR represents the first comprehensive agreement among nations as to the specific rights and freedoms of all human beings.

United Nations General Assembly. (1980). *International Youth Year: participation, development, peace*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/r35.htm>

Throughout the year 1985 activities took place all over the world as a result of this resolution declaring it the year of youth. These activities were coordinated by the Youth Secretariat within the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs, at the time based at the UN offices in Vienna, Austria. While not organizing any specific events itself, under the year's slogan of "Participation, Development, Peace", the IYY Secretariat helped facilitate numerous events helping spread the ideas and spirit connected with IYY.

Bibliography

Committee History for the General Assembly

Annan, Kofi A. (2000). *We the Peoples: The Role of the United Nations in the 21st Century*. New York: United Nations Department of Public Information.

Franda, M.F. (2006). *The United Nations in the Twenty-First Century: Management and Reform Processes in a Troubled Organization*. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman and Littlefield Publications.

Gareis, S. & Varwick, J. (2005). *The United Nations: An Introduction*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Kennedy P. (2006). *The Parliament of Man: the past, present and future of the United Nations*. New York: Random House.

Mingst K A, & Karns, M. P.. (2007). *United Nations in the twenty-first century*. Oxford: Westview Press.

Patomäki, H., & Teivainen, T. (2004). The United Nations. In *A Possible World. Democratic Transformations of Global Institutions*. London Zed Books.

Peterson, M. J. (2006). *The UN General Assembly*. New York: Routledge.

Ryan S. (2000). *The United Nations and International politics*. New York: St Martin's Press.

United Nations General Assembly. (n.d.) *Main Committees*. Retrieved August 1, 2011, from <http://www.un.org/ga/maincommittees.shtml>

United Nations. (1945). *United Nations Charter*. Retrieved September 2, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/index.shtml>

United Nations. (n.d.). *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*. Retrieved October 10, 2010, from <http://www.un.org/ga/about/background.shtml>

United Nations. (n.d.). *History of the UN*. Retrieved August 1, 2011, from <http://www.un.org/aboutun/history.htm>

United Nations. (2009). *Observers*. Retrieved August 12, 2009, from <http://www.un.org/ga/about/observers.shtml>

United Nations. (n.d.) *Special Sessions*. Retrieved September 6, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/en/ga/sessions/special.shtml>

Weiss T G., Daws, S. (2007). World Politics: Continuity and Change since 1945. In: Weiss, T. G., Daws, S. *The Oxford Handbook on the United Nations* (pp. 3-11).

Weiss, T. G., Forsythe, D.P., and Coate, R.A. (2007). *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview.

I. Fostering Prevention in Health Care

Crawford, D., & Jeffery, R. W. (2005). *Obesity prevention and public health, Volume 13*. New York: Oxford University Press.

G8 Summit (2009). *Progress Report on the implementation of the G8 Water Action Plan*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from http://www.g8italia2009.it/static/G8_Allegato/Water_Group_0.pdf

Montgomery M. A. (2007). Water and Sanitation in Developing Countries: Including Health in the Equation, *Environmental Science & Technology*. 2007 (January): 17-24.

Prüss-Üstün A., Corvalán, C. (2006). *Preventing disease through healthy environments: Towards an estimate of the environmental burden of disease*. WHO: Geneva. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from http://www.who.int/quantifying_ehimpacts/publications/preventingdisease/en/index.html

United Nations General Assembly. (2010). *A/RES/65/1 Keeping the promise: united to achieve the Millennium Development Goals*. New York. Retrieved 29th July 2011 from <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/r65.shtml>

United Nations General Assembly. (2009). *A/RES/64/265 Prevention and control of non-communicable diseases*. New York. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/r64.shtml>

United Nations General Assembly. (2010). *A/RES/65/180 Organization of the 2011 comprehensive review of the progress achieved in realizing the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS and the Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS*. New York. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.un.org/depts/dhl/resguide/r65.shtml>

United Nations General Assembly. (2011). *Political declaration of the High-level Meeting of the General Assembly on the Prevention and Control of Non-communicable Diseases*. Retrieved 12, October 2011 from http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/66/L.1

UNICEF. (2010). *Vaccinations in the world: views and strategies*. Retrieved 12, October 2011 from http://www.unicef.org/french/immunization/index_27089.html

Verweij, M. (2007). Tobacco Discouragement: A Non-Paternalistic Argument. In: Dawson A., & Verweij, M., *Ethics, Prevention and Public Health* (pp. 179-198). New York: Oxford University Press.

World Health Assembly. (2008). *WHA61.14 Prevention and control of NCDs: Implementation of the Global Strategy*. WHO: Geneva.

World Health Organization. (2010). *20 ways that the World Health Organization helps countries reach the Millennium Development Goals*. WHO: Geneva.

World Health Organization. (2002). *Fact sheet N°172 Integrating prevention into health care*. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs172/en/index.html>

World Health Organization. (2010). Fact sheet N°266 *Climate Change and health*. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs266/en/index.html>

World Health Organization. (2011). Fact sheet N°317 *Cardiovascular Diseases (CVDs)*. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs317/en/index.html>

World Health Organization. (2011). Fact Sheet N°311 *Obesity and Overweight*. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs311/en/index.html>

World Health Organization. (2011). Fact Sheet N°339 *Tobacco*. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs339/en/index.html>

World Health Assembly. (2005). WHA58.22 *Cancer Prevention and Control*. Retrieved 29, July 2011 from <http://www.who.int/nmh/a5816/en/index.html>

World Health Organization. (2009). *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2009: Implementing smoke-free environments*. WHO: Geneva.

World Health Organization. (2011). *Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic: Warning about the Dangers of Tobacco*. WHO: Geneva. World Health Organization. (n.d.). *Risk Factors*. Retrieved 22, August from http://www.who.int/topics/risk_factors/en/index.html

World Health Organization. (2008). *The 2008-2013 Action Plan for the Global Strategy for the Prevention and Control of NCDs*. WHO: Geneva.

World Health Summit. (2011). *Program 2011*. Retrieved 21, August 2011 from <http://www.worldhealthsummit.org/program/program/program-2011/>

Zins J. E., & Erchul, W. P. (2003). The Use of Consultation as a Foundation for Promoting Health and Prevention Problems. In: Gullotta T. P., M. Bloom *Encyclopedia of Primary Prevention and Health Promotion* (pp. 80-85). New York: Kluwer Academic Plenum Publisher.

II. Africa's economic development, exploitation of natural resources and national sovereignty

African Development Bank. (2009). *Oil and Gas in Africa*. Retrieved September 26, 2011, from <http://www.afdb.org/en/knowledge/publications/oil-and-gas-in-africa/>

Brautigam, D. (2010). *The Dragon's Gift: The real story of China in Africa*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

Bretton Woods Project (2011). *World Bank Policies "enabling" African land grab*. Retrieved October 9, 2011 from <http://www.brettonwoodsproject.org/art-568890>

Burton, N. (2011). *Land Grabs in Africa Creating the Food Crisis?* Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://www.theroot.com/buzz/land-grabs-africa-creating-food-crisis>

China Development Bank (n.d.). *CAD Fund*. Retrieved October 20, 2011 from <http://www.cdb.com.cn/english/Column.asp?ColumnId=176>

China Sonangol (n.d.). *Website*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://www.chinasonangol.com/eng/index.asp>

Cotula, L., Dyer, N., & Vermeulen, S. (2008). *Fuelling exclusion? The biofuels boom and poor people's access to land*. International Institute for Environment and Development & Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://pubs.iied.org/pdfs/12551IIED.pdf>

Cotula, L., Vermeulen, S., Leonard, R., & Keeley, J. (2009). *Land grab or development opportunity? Agriculture investment and international land deals in Africa*. International Institute for Environment and Development, Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations & International Fund for Agricultural Development. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/011/ak241e/ak241e.pdf>

EITI (n.d.). *Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative*. Retrieved October 11, 2011 from <http://eiti.org/>

Farmlandgrab.org (n.d.). *Food Crisis and the Global Land Grab*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://farmlandgrab.org/>

- FIAN (2010). The Impact of Europe's Policies and Practices on African Agriculture and Food Security. Retrieved September 16, 2011 from <http://www.fian.org/resources/documents/others/report-on-land-grabbing/pdf>
- Global Witness (2011). *Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative scrapes through credibility test*. Retrieved October 12, 2011 from <http://www.globalwitness.org/library/extractive-industries-transparency-initiative-scrapes-through-credibility-test>
- Guardian (2011, September 12). *Update: Aid for the food crisis in the Horn of Africa – get the data*. Retrieved September 16, 2011 from <http://www.guardian.co.uk/global-development/poverty-matters/2011/aug/01/drought-food-crisis-africa-data>
- GRAIN (2008). *Seized: The 2008 landgrab for food and financial security*. Retrieved October 8, 2011 from <http://www.grain.org/article/entries/93-seized-the-2008-landgrab-for-food-and-financial-security>
- Hanson, S. (2008). *China, Africa, and Oil*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from the Council on Foreign Relations Web site <http://www.cfr.org/china/china-africa-oil/p9557>
- Heinrich Böll Stiftung (2009). *Energy Futures? Eni's investments in tar sands and palm oil in the Congo Basin*. Retrieved October 12, 2011 from <http://www.boell.de/ecology/climate/climate-energy-7775.html>
- Human Rights Watch (2011). *World Report 2011: Equatorial Guinea*. Retrieved September 27, 2011 from <http://www.hrw.org/world-report-2011/equatorial-guinea>
- Hurst, C. (2006). *China's Oil Rush in Africa*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://www.iags.org/chinainafrika.pdf>
- John, M. & Kpodo, K. (2010, May 26). *Ghana bids to break Africa's oil curse*. Retrieved September 27, 2011 from <http://www.reuters.com/article/2010/05/26/us-frontiers-ghana-idUSTRE64P1HU20100526>
- Keenan, P. J. (2008). *Curse or Cure? China's Investments in Africa and their effect on human rights*. Retrieved October 11, 2011 from <http://www.law.georgetown.edu/nternationalhr colloquium/documents/KeenanDraft-Georgetown.pdf>
- Meyerson, E., Padró i Miguel, G., & Qian, N. (2008). *The Rise of China and the Natural Resource Curse in Africa*. Retrieved October 9, 2011 from http://personal.lse.ac.uk/padro/meyersonpadroqian_20080407_all.pdf
- New York Times, (2009, July 9). *Oil corruption in Equatorial Guinea*. Retrieved September 26, 2011 from <http://green.blogs.nytimes.com/2009/07/09/oil-corruption-in-equatorial-guinea/>
- Oakland Institute (2011). *Indian Agribusiness Sets Sights on Land in East Africa*. Retrieved September 16, 2011 from <http://media.oaklandinstitute.org/indian-agribusiness-sets-sights-land-east-africa>
- O'Neil, T. (2007). *Curse of the Black Gold. Hope and Betrayal on the Niger Delta*. *National Geographic*, February 2007. Retrieved October 8, 2011 from <http://ngm.nationalgeographic.com/2007/02/nigerian-oil/oneill-text/1>
- Royal African Society. (n.d.) *An RAS Guide: Oil and Africa*. Retrieved September 26, 2011 from <http://www.royalafricansociety.org/component/content/article/786.html>
- Sachs, J., & Warner, A.M. (2001). The curse of natural resources. *European Economic Review*, (45), 827-838.
- Shaxson, N. (2007). *Angola's homegrown answers to the "Resource Curse"*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://www.ifri.org/files/Energie/SHAXSON.pdf>
- The Case against Shell (2009). *Shell's Environmental Devastation in Nigeria*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://wiwavshell.org/shell's-environmental-devastation-in-nigeria/>

The Economist (2009). *Outsourcing's third wave: Rich food importers are acquiring vast tracts of poor countries' farmland. Is this beneficial foreign investment or neocolonialism?* Retrieved October 12, 2011 from <http://www.economist.com/node/13692889>

The Economist (2011). *China International Fund- The Queensway Syndicate and the Africa Trade*. Retrieved September 16, 2011 from <http://www.economist.com/node/21525847>

Transparency International (2008). *2008 Bribe Payers Index*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from http://www.transparency.org/policy_research/surveys_indices/bpi/bpi_2008

Turton, M. (2010, August 23). *Can Africa break its resource curse?*. Retrieved September 27, 2011 from http://articles.cnn.com/2010-08-23/world/africa.resource.curse_1_resource-curse-oil-rich-cabinda?_s=PM:WORLD

UNCTAD (2011). *World Investment Report 2011: Non-Equity Modes of International Production and Development*. Retrieved October 12, 2011 from <http://www.unctad.org/Templates/webflyer.asp?docid=15189&intItemID=6018&lang=1&mode=downloads>

UNDP (n.d.). *Angola Country profile for human development indicators*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/countries/profiles/AGO.html>

UNDP (n.d.). *Explanation note on 2010 HDR composite indices – Angola*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from <http://hdrstats.undp.org/images/explanations/AGO.pdf>

United Nations. (1966). *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*. Retrieved August 20, 2010, from <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/ccpr.htm>.

United Nations. (1966). *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*. Retrieved August 20, 2010, from <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cescr.htm>.

United Nations General Assembly (1952). *Right to exploit freely natural wealth and resources (A/RES/626(VII))*. Retrieved October 10, 2011 from [http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=a/res/626\(vii\)](http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=a/res/626(vii))

World Bank (2011). *The challenges and opportunities of Ghana's oil discovery*. Retrieved September 26, 2011 from <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPTRADE/Resources/14GhanaOilpolicynoteREVISED.pdf>

World Wildlife Fund (n.d.) *Oil exploitation in the green heart of Africa*. Retrieved September 26, 2011 from http://wwf.panda.org/what_we_do/where_we_work/congo_basin_forests/problems/oil_extraction/

III. Fostering the Implementation of the World Programme of Action for Youth

Action India. (2011). *Youth Programs*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://actionindiaworld.org/pages/programs-campaigns/youth-programs.php>

Alagiri P. (2011). *Tracking Public and Private Investments in AIDS Prevention, Care, and Research*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.kff.org/hiv/aids/loader.cfm?url=/commonspot/security/getfile.cfm&PageID=13683>

Boys and Girls Clubs of America. (n.d.) *Why Boys & Girls Clubs?* Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.bgca.org>

Clemense, A.(2001). *Violence and incivility at school: the situation in Switzerland*. In: Debarbieux E, Blaya C, *Violence in schools: ten approaches in Europe*. Issy-les-Moulineaux, Elsevier, 2001, pages 163–179.

Colder, C., (1997). The moderating effects of children's fear and activity level on relations between parenting practices and childhood symptomatology. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 25, 251-263.
Communities for all Ages (n.d.) *Approach*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://communitiesforallages.org/approach>

Communities for all Ages. (n.d.) *Process*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://communitiesforallages.org/approach/process>

Dahlberg L. (1998). Youth violence in the United States: major trends, risk factors, and prevention approaches. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, , pages 259–272.

Interagency Working Group on Youth Programs. (n.d.) *Program Directory*. Retrieved on October 10, from <http://www.findyouthinfo.gov/programsearch.aspx>

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, 2009, *AIDS epidemic update*, Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2009/JC1700_Epi_Update_2009_en.pdf

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2001). *Global crisis--global action*. Retrieved on October 11, 2011 from http://www.un.org/ga/aids/ungassfactsheets/pdf/fsunaids_en.pdf

Mendel, R. (2000). *What works in the prevention of youth crime?* Retrieved on October 20, 2011 from <http://www.cyc-net.org/cyc-online/cycol-0500-mendler.html>

Pawlowski, A. (2011). *Six Problems with the World Programme of Action for Youth: How WPAY Fails Young People*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.c-fam.org/docLib/6ProbsWPAY.pdf>

Ryan, E.B. (2007). *Aging, Identity, Attitudes, and Intergenerational Communication*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from http://www.sagepub.com/upm-data/15091_Chapter4.pdf

Stanecki K.A. (2000). *The AIDS pandemic in the 21st century: the demographic impact in developing countries*, Paper presented at: 13th International AIDS Conference; July, 2000; Durban, South Africa. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.usaid.gov/press/releases/2000/censusfinal.doc>

The Intergenerational Center. (n.d.). *Grandma's Kids*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://templeigc.org/grandmas-kids>

The Robert Wood Johnson Foundation. (2011) *Operation Cease Fire*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from http://www.sasnet.com/bostonstrategy/programs/11_OpCeaseFire.html

United Nations. (2011). *International Youth Day 12 August, Secretary Generals Message*. Retrieved September 9, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/en/events/youthday/sg.shtml>

United Nations General Assembly. (1960). *Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.un-documents.net/a15r1514.htm>

United Nations General Assembly. (1963). *United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.un-documents.net/a18r1904.htm>

United Nations General Assembly. (1965). *Declaration on the Promotion Among Youth of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding Between Peoples*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.un-documents.net/a20r2037.htm>

United Nations General Assembly. (2010). *Proclamation of 2010 as the International Year of Youth: Dialogue and Mutual Understanding*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=A/RES/64/134>

United Nations General Assembly. (1995). *World Programme of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and Beyond*, Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/50/a50r081.htm>

United Nations General Assembly. (2008). *Policies and programmes involving youth: youth in the global economy – promoting youth participation in social and economic development*. Retrieved on October 10, 2011 from <http://css.escwa.org.lb/GARes/62-126.pdf>