Message from the Executive Staff Regarding Position Papers for the 2013 NMUN•DC Conference

At the 2013 NMUN•DC Conference, each delegation submits one position paper for each committee assignment. 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 or NGOs. 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. NMUN/NCCA 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 incidents of plagiarism to the Secretariat.

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

- Length must not exceed two single-sided pages
- Margins must be set at 1 inch or 2.54 centimeters for the whole paper
- Font must be Times New Roman sized between 10 pt. and 12 pt.
- Country/NGO name, school name, and committee name must be clearly labeled on the first page
- Agenda topics must be clearly labeled in separate sections
- National symbols (headers, flags, etc.) are deemed inappropriate for NMUN position papers
To be considered for awards, position papers need to be submitted by email in .pdf or .doc formats by 1 October 2013. As proof of submission, include yourself as an email recipient. Please use the committee name, your assignment, and delegation/school name in both the email subject line and in the filename (example: GA1st_Cuba_Mars College).

1. Send one complete set of all position papers for each of your country/NGO assignments to the Secretary-General at secgen.dc@nmun.org.

2. Send a copy of your position paper for each assigned committee to the corresponding committee email address listed below. Please note, the email addresses will be active on 1 August, 2013.

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<tr>
<th>Committee</th>
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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

Should you have any questions please feel free to contact the Conference staff.

Sincerely,

Kristina Getty                                      Cara Wagner
Secretary-General, NMUN•DC 2013                    Director-General, NMUN•DC 2013
Sample Position Paper

The following position paper is designed to be a sample of the standard format that an NMUN position paper should follow. Papers may be no longer than two single-sided pages. Only the first two pages of any submissions will be considered for awards.

Delegation from
Canada

Represented by
University of Jupiter

Position Paper for the General Assembly Plenary

The topics before the General Assembly Plenary are: Breaking the Link between Diamonds and Armed Conflict; the Promotion of Alternative Sources of Energy; and the Implementation of the 2001-2010 International Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Particularly in Africa. Canada is dedicated to collaborative multilateral approaches to ensuring protection and promotion of human security and advancement of sustainable development.

I. Breaking the Link between Diamonds and Armed Conflict

Canada endorses the Kimberley Process in promoting accountability, transparency, and effective governmental regulation of trade in rough diamonds. Canada believes the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (KPCS) is an essential international regulatory mechanism and encourages all Member States to contribute to market accountability by seeking membership, participation, and compliance with its mandate. Canada urges Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2007 Kimberley Process Communiqué to strengthen government oversight of rough diamond trading and manufacturing by developing domestic legal frameworks similar to the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative. Canada further calls upon participating states to act in accordance with the KPCS’s comprehensive and credible systems of peer review to monitor the continued implementation of the Kimberley Process and ensure full transparency and self-examination of domestic diamond industries. The delegation of Canada draws attention to our domestic programs for diamond regulation including Implementing the Export and Import of Rough Diamonds Act and urges Member States to consider these programs in developing the type of domestic regulatory frameworks called for in General Assembly resolution 55/56. Canada recognizes the crucial role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the review of rough diamond control measures developed through the Kimberley Process and encourages states to include NGOs, such as Global Witness and Partnership Africa Canada, in the review processes called for in General Assembly resolution 58/290. Canada urges Member States to act in accordance with General Assembly resolution 58/290 to optimize the beneficial development impact of artisanal and alluvial diamond miners by establishing a coordinating mechanism for financial and technical assistance through the Working Group of the Kimberley Process of Artisanal Alluvial Producers. Canada calls upon states and NGOs to provide basic educational material regarding diamond valuation and market prices for artisanal diggers, as recommended by the Diamond Development Initiative. Canada will continue to adhere to the 2007 Brussels Declaration on Internal Controls of Participants and is dedicated to ensuring accountability, transparency, and effective regulation of the rough diamond trade through the utilization of voluntary peer review systems and the promotion of increased measures of internal control within all diamond producing states.

II. The Promotion of Alternative Sources of Energy

Canada is dedicated to integrating alternative energy sources into climate change frameworks by diversifying the energy market while improving competitiveness in a sustainable economy, as exemplified through the Canadian Turning Corners Report and Project Green climate strategies. Canada views the international commitment to the promotion of alternative sources of energy called for in the Kyoto Protocol and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) as a catalyst to sustainable development and emission reduction. Canada fulfills its obligations under Article 4 of the UNFCCC by continuing to provide development assistance through the Climate Change Development Fund and calls upon Member States to commit substantial financial and technical investment toward the transfer of sustainable energy technologies and clean energy mechanisms to developing States. Canada emphasizes the need for Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2005 Beijing International Renewable Energy Conference to strengthen domestic policy frameworks to promote clean energy
tecnologies. Canada views dissemination of technology information called for in the 2007 Group of Eight Declaration on Growth and Responsibility in the World Economy as a vital step in energy diversification from conventional energy generation. Canada calls upon Member States to integrate clean electricity from renewable sources into their domestic energy sector by employing investment campaigns similar to the Canadian $1.48 billion initiative ecoENERGY for Renewable Power. Canada encourages states to develop domestic policies of energy efficiency, utilizing regulatory and financing frameworks to accelerate the deployment of clean low-emitting technologies and calls upon Member States to provide knowledge-based advisory services for expanding access to energy in order to fulfill their commitments to Goal 1 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Canada urges states to address the concerns of the 2007 Human Development Report by promoting tax incentives, similar to the Capital Cost Allowances and Canadian Renewable and Conservation Expenses, to encourage private sector development of energy conservation and renewable energy projects. As a member of the Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership, Canada is committed to accelerating the development of renewable energy projects, information sharing mechanisms, and energy efficient systems through the voluntary carbon offset system. We are dedicated to leading international efforts toward the development and sharing of best practices on clean energy technologies and highlight our release of the Renewable Energy Technologies Screen software for public and private stakeholders developing projects in energy efficiency, cogeneration, and renewable energy. Canada believes the integration of clean energy into state-specific strategies called for in the General Assembly Second Committee’s report to the General Assembly Plenary on Sustainable development: promotion of new and renewable sources of energy (A/62/419/Add.9) will strengthen energy diversification, promote the use of cogeneration, and achieve a synergy between promoting alternative energy while allowing for competitiveness in a sustainable economy.

III. Implementation of the 2001-2010 International Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Particularly in Africa

Canada views the full implementation of the treatment and prevention targets of the 2001-2010 International Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Especially in Africa, as essential to eradicating malaria and assisting African states to achieve Target 8 of Goal 6 of the MDGs by 2015. Canada recommends Member States to cooperate with the World Health Organization to ensure transparency in the collection of statistical information for Indicators 21 and 22 of the MDGs. Canada reaffirms the targets of the Abuja Declaration and Plan of Action stressing regional cooperation in the implementation, monitoring, and management of malaria prevention and treatment initiatives in Africa. To fully implement General Assembly resolution 61/228, Canada believes developed states must balance trade and intellectual property obligations with the humanitarian objective of the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health. We continue to implement Paragraph 6 of the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health into our compulsory licensing framework through the Jean Chrétien Pledge to Africa Act. Canada urges Member States to support compulsory licensing for essential generic medication by including anti-malarial vaccines and initiating domestic provisions to permit export-only compulsory licenses to domestic pharmaceutical manufacturers, similar to Canada’s Access to Medicines Regime. Canada calls upon Member States to establish advanced market commitments on the distribution of pneumococcal vaccines to developing States in cooperation with PATH and the Malaria Vaccine Initiative. Canada emphasizes the need for greater membership in the Roll Back Malaria initiative to strengthen malaria control planning, funding, implementation, and evaluation by promoting increased investment in healthcare systems and greater incorporation of malaria control into all relevant multi-sector activities. Canada continues to implement the Canadian International Development Agency’s (CIDA) New Agenda for Action on Health to reduce malaria infection rates among marginalized populations in Africa, increase routine immunizations rates, and reduce infection rates of other neglected infections. Canada will achieve the goal of doubling aid to Africa by 2008-2009 by providing assistance to the Global Fund to Fight Aids, Tuberculosis, and Malaria. We urge Member States to increase donations to intergovernmental organizations and NGOs that support malaria programming in Africa, exemplified by CIDA’s contribution of $26 million to the Canadian Red Cross. We continue our efforts to provide accessible and affordable vector control methods to African States through the Red Cross’ Malaria Bed Net Campaign and the African Medical Research Foundation Canada by supplying insecticide-treated mosquito nets and Participatory Malaria Prevention and Treatment tool kits.
Official Welcome

On behalf of the committee staff of the Security Council we would like to welcome you to the 2013 National Model United Nations Washington D.C. (NMUN•DC) Conference. This year’s Security Council committee staff includes Sonia Patel as Director and Rafael Corral as Assistant Director. Sonia Patel has both a Juris Doctor from the Charlotte School of Law and a BA in Political Science from Furman University. She is an attorney licensed to practice in New York State and is hoping to pursue a career in the international human rights field. This will be her sixth time on staff at an NMUN conference, and her eighth NMUN conference overall. Rafael has a BA in International Relations and Political Science from the Universidad San Francisco de Quito in Ecuador. Currently, he is working on urban development projects in Latin America for the World Bank in Washington, D.C. This will be his fourth time on staff at an NMUN conference.

The Security Council is the one body in the United Nations whose decisions are binding for all United Nations Member States. The Council has the ability to address any situation quickly, and therefore has the ability to respond to any issues of international peace and security almost immediately. The topics facing the Council range from urgent situations such as the situation in North Korea to thematic discussions including terrorism and women, peace, and security.

NMUN can be an incredibly rewarding experience, and we hope that you enjoy it as a delegate as much as we both have in the past. If you have any questions regarding preparation, please consult the delegate preparation guide available online and feel free to contact any of the conference leadership. Good luck in your preparation for the conference. We look forward to seeing you in October!

History of the Security Council

The Security Council (SC) is one of the six main organs of the United Nations (UN) and the principle organ responsible for maintaining international peace and security. In its more than 65 year history, the Council has acted on widely differing topics, adapting to the changing nature of threats to international peace and security. Given the SC’s role, it is important to understand the structure, rules, and governing principles that define its unique responsibilities and mandate. These are contained in Chapters V to VII of the Charter of the UN.

Chapter V refers to the organization and functioning of the Security Council. The Council is composed of 15 Member States; five of the seats on the Council are permanent, and the remaining ten seats are rotating. The permanent members of the Council are the Member States that emerged victorious from World War II: China, France, the Russian Federation (formerly the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics), the United States, and the United Kingdom. Rotating members are elected by the General Assembly for non-renewable two-year terms. According to the General Assembly (GA) Rules of Procedure 52/Rev.17, each year the GA elects five new non-permanent members of the SC based on equitable geographic distribution, the contribution of the Member State to the maintenance of international peace and security, and its contribution to the other purposes of the Council. The current geographic distribution in members is as follows: five from African and Asian States, one from Eastern European States, two from Latin American States, and two from Western European and other States. The next elections will be held during the 68th Session of the GA in October 2013.

According to Article 24 of the UN Charter, Member States confer to the SC the primary responsibility for the maintenance of international security. Thus, Member States “agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council” in these regards. This means that, unlike those of other UN organs, the decisions of the Council are legally binding. According to Article 27 of the UN Charter, SC decisions on procedural matters are taken by the affirmative vote of any nine members, while decisions on all substantive matters are taken by the affirmative vote of nine members, including no negative votes by the permanent members. This principle is known as “great power unanimity” or the “veto power” and ensures that the SC will not take action contrary to the interests of the five permanent members. As the structure of the SC has changed very little since its founding, there is an ongoing debate about Security Council reform including the size of the Council, regional representation, and the question of the veto, among others.
Chapter VI of the *UN Charter* contains provisions related to the peaceful settlement of disputes. While it provides that every Member State should attempt to solve any international dispute or situation by peaceful means, it also empowers the SC to call on the parties to settle it by any such means it deems appropriate. The Council can also take the initiative to investigate any dispute or situation that it believes might lead to an endangerment of international peace and security. Likewise, Member and Non-Member States can bring any situation to the attention of the SC, including when parties to a dispute fail to settle it by peaceful means. The SC can then recommend appropriate procedures or methods of adjustment for the solution being utilized, refer the case to the International Court of Justice, or recommend other terms of settlement. The Council has historically also dispatched military observers or peacekeeping forces to reduce tension, prevent violence from breaking out, and create the right conditions for the achievement of peaceful settlements.

Furthermore, under Chapter VII, if the Council identifies the existence of any breaches of peace, threats to the peace, or acts of aggression, it can dictate provisional measures to the parties or act. The Council can call on Member States to apply measures not involving the use of force, such as “complete or partial interruption of economic relations and of rail, sea, air, postal, telegraphic, radio, and other means of communication, and the severance of diplomatic relations.” Article 42 of the *UN Charter* gives authority to the SC, if it finds that measures under Article 41 are inadequate, to take any action “necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security. Such action may include demonstrations, blockade, and other operations by air, sea, or land forces of Members of the United Nations.” Further, the SC can encourage the pacific settlement of disputes through regional arrangements and utilize them for enforcement action under its authority.

The SC usually exercises its powers by adopting resolutions. Alternatively, presidential statements are used to present the view of the Council regarding a certain topic without the formality of a resolution. Likewise, it is common practice for the Council to request a Report of the Secretary-General in order to deepen its understanding, and that of the international community, on any given topic.

While the Security Council was initially conceived to address controversies between states, the nature of the threats to international security have changed dramatically since the *UN Charter* was drafted. During the first years of the 21st century, the Security Council increasingly began discussing thematic topics, as opposed to country-specific issues. For example, in 2000, there was a debate on “the impact of AIDS on peace and security in Africa,” and, in 2003, a briefing on Africa’s food crisis. By 2011, the Council had already placed broad topics such as HIV/AIDS; women, peace and security; the interdependence between security and development; organized crime; and climate change on its agenda. Notably, in November 2011, a debate was held on “New Challenges to International Peace and Security” where the interconnectedness of these issues was discussed.

As the organ entrusted with the maintenance of international peace and security, the Security Council has the complex task of addressing both traditional and evolving threats, all while keeping within its decades-old mandate. Conflict mediation, the establishment of peacekeeping operations, the application of sanctions, and the authorization of military force are a few of the tools it has used throughout its history to fulfill this responsibility. In this context, the Council has allowed itself to innovate and evolve in a certain degree by addressing “new threats.” In the future, it will surely face issues multidimensional in nature and of growing complexity.

**I. Addressing the Situation in North Korea**

- Beyond sanctions, what are other measures that exist to bring the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea into compliance with existing Security Council resolutions?
- What can the Security Council do to improve conditions for citizens of the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea?
- What are the most effective actions that can attempt to bring about sustainable peace on the Korean peninsula?

Since its creation, the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK) has repeatedly ignored United Nations (UN) Security Council (SC) resolutions on issues related to acts of aggression and the creation of a non-peaceful nuclear program. The Security Council has suggested talks and implemented sanctions regarding the DPRK’s pursuance of a non-peaceful nuclear weapons program, both ideas that have proven to be ineffective. Today’s situation is also
complex because beyond disregarding international norms and threatening other states, the DPRK has committed human rights abuses against its citizens. Taken together, the DPRK’s pursuance of a nuclear weapons program threatens international peace and security, and human rights abuses question the role of the international community in their prevention. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the history of the situation and the current issues related to the DPRK to understand why this issue has become a critical issue on the SC’s agenda that must be resolved immediately.

At the end of World War II, the Korean Peninsula was split into two countries, the DPRK and the Republic of Korea (ROK), at the 38th Parallel. On June 25th, 1950, the DPRK, under the leadership of Kim Il-Sung, crossed over the 38th Parallel and invaded the ROK, inciting the Korean War. Acting swiftly, the SC passed its first resolution, UN SC Resolution 82 (1950), about the DPRK on the same day as the attack. In SC Resolution 82, the Council demanded that the DPRK end its invasion of the ROK. Within a month of passing SC Resolution 82, the Council then passed Resolutions 83 and 84. Resolution 83 (1950) established a UN Command force to aid the ROK in resisting the DPRK’s forces. Before 1950 was over, the Council passed two subsequent resolutions about the DPRK: SC Resolutions 85 and 88. In Resolution 85, the Council determined that the DPRK had “breached the peace” by crossing over the 38th Parallel. The lasting effects of DPRK’s actions in 1950 continue to impact the Korean Peninsula today, and have resulted in the SC passing a total of 14 resolutions about the DPRK. The Korean War ended with an armistice agreement signed on July 27, 1953, by the Commander-in-Chief of the UN Command, the Supreme Commander of the Korean Army, and the Commander of the Chinese People’s volunteers. However, tensions between the DPRK and ROK have remained to this day as the agreement was simply an armistice and not an agreement to end the war. Most recently, tensions have worsened due to the DPRK’s insistence on having a nuclear weapons program.

The current situation in the DPRK has largely revolved around the nuclear weapons program that the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and the SC believe the DPRK is pursuing. Little is known about this program except that any potential non-peaceful nuclear action by the DPRK could result in the destabilization of the Korean Peninsula. Moreover, the SC has viewed the DPRK’s nuclear weapons program as further destabilizing the Asian continent and threatening international peace and security. The DPRK’s first dispute with the SC regarding the DPRK’s nuclear weapons program was in 1993. On March 12, 1993, the Foreign Minister of the DPRK drafted a letter to the President of the SC stating the DPRK’s intention to withdraw from the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), which resulted in the SC passing Resolution 825 (1993). The main concern was that if the DPRK withdrew from the NPT, non-proliferation measures on the peninsula, in the region, and around the world would be disrupted. The SC also expressed its worry over the DPRK’s inability to comply with the IAEA safeguards and protocols as mandated by the NPT. The situation remained somewhat tense until October 1994 when the United States (US)-North Korea Agreed Framework was adopted. The agreement, along with international encouragement for the DPRK to keep its nuclear non-proliferation obligations, resulted in some peace in the region for approximately eight years, until a new US president was elected. Former US President George W. Bush changed the US policy in regards to the DPRK, resulting in a 2002 crisis between the DPRK, the SC, the IAEA, and the US.

In 2002, the US government charged the DPRK for violating the 1994 US-North Korea Agreed Framework because the US believed that the DPRK had begun an uranium enrichment program. As a result, the DPRK retaliated by sending a letter to the IAEA on December 14th, 2002, stating that they intended to reopen the nuclear facilities closed in accordance with the Agreed Framework. They further asked the IAEA to remove both the individuals placed to inspect the facilities and the monitoring equipment as well as the tamper-proof seals that were placed in the facilities. The IAEA refused to do so, and as a result the DPRK cut the seals and disrupted the monitoring equipment the IAEA had in place eight to ten days later. Once this was done, the DPRK ordered all IAEA individuals to leave the DPRK, which they did on December 31, 2002. Exactly 10 days later, the DPRK announced its formal withdrawal from the NPT, effective January 11, 2003. These actions resulted in the first set of talks, which the SC hoped would bring peace to the region.

The first talks that occurred were trilateral talks between the US, the DPRK, and China in April of 2003, followed by the first Six-Party Talks held in August 2003 between the US, the DPRK, China, the ROK, Japan, and the Russian Federation. The Six-Party Talks allowed for peace in the region for a short period of time, until the talks disintegrated in 2006. In 2006, the DPRK launched seven missiles, which was perceived by the Western powers to be an act of provocation. The SC, discouraged by the lack of compromise coming from the Six-Party talks, adopted SC Resolution 1695 (2006), demanding that the DPRK suspend its nuclear weapons program. The Six-Party Talks,
did not result in any fruitful action until 2007, when the DPRK agreed to shut down its nuclear weapons facilities in return for the lifting of some of the financial sanctions that were placed on the DPRK. This was short-lived, however, as the DPRK reopened these facilities and launched the Unha-2 long-range ballistic missile in 2009. The Unha-2 missile launch resulted in the first portion of its payload falling into the Sea of Japan, and the other two segments falling into the Pacific Ocean. This was the last missile launched until the 2012 Unha-3 missile launch. In response to the Unha-2 missile launch, SC Resolution 1718 was passed, condemning the launch. As a result, the DPRK withdrew from all talks and refused to comply with any SC resolutions or agreements that the DPRK had signed and refused to allow IAEA investigators to enter into the country. With no IAEA investigators, the DPRK continued to pursue its nuclear weapons program against the wishes of the SC and other international actors.

The DPRK, now under the rule of Kim Jong-Un (the grandson of Kim Il-Sung), launched the Unha-3 missile in December 2012. In response to this launch, the SC passed SC Resolution 2087, condemning the DPRK for the Unha-3 missile launch. Following the Unha-3 missile launch was the February 2013 nuclear test. This nuclear test was condemned by SC Resolution 2094 (2013), which was passed unanimously. Considering the DPRK’s recent missile activity, it is clear that the nuclear situation is a problem that needs to be tackled; however, along with the nuclear situation, repeated human rights violations by the DPRK are another vital area for concern for the SC. According to Navi Pillay, the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, there is great concern that all the attention regarding the DPRK’s nuclear regime is detracting from the need to address human rights abuses in the country. Because these abuses are so extreme and widespread, it is important to consider the DPRK’s impact on each civilian. Although the government of the DPRK has ratified multiple human rights treaties including the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), and the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the DPRK has perpetually violated these international agreements. The 2013 Human Rights Watch Report on the DPRK discusses how “arbitrary arrest, detention, lack of due process, and torture and ill-treatment of detainees remain serious and pervasive problems.” Other problems include “collective punishment for various anti-state offenses, for which it enslaves hundreds of thousands of citizens in prison camps, including children.” Anti-Socialist crimes are also prosecuted while the government has “continually subjected North Koreans to food shortages and famine.” These human rights violations by the DPRK have resulted in multiple human rights organizations petitioning the UN Human Rights Council to create a committee to investigate the human rights violations and potential crimes against humanity committed by the DPRK against its citizens, further making this an international concern.

The DPRK situation is of international concern because of the combination of significant human rights violations and the destabilization threat that nuclear weapons in the DPRK creates in Asia. The destabilization threat is a result of the DPRK acting irrationally in the past, and one of the most pressing concerns today is that the DPRK could use a nuclear weapon against regional and international powers. Such concerns have largely been the rationale behind not taking more aggressive action on the part of the international community to enforce international laws and end the human rights violations. The DPRK thus remains at the top of the SC’s agenda with reoccurring themes such as the DPRK as a UN Member State of questionable legitimacy, the DPRK’s continued choice to invest its money and infrastructure into its security while neglecting the conditions of its people, and its pursuit of a nuclear weapon’s program. The DPRK’s nuclear weapons program not only has the potential to destabilize the Korean Peninsula, but also threatens the efforts of the SC to create sustainable international peace and security in the entire region.

II. Enhancing International Cooperation on the Implementation of Counter-Terrorism

- Without a clear definition of terrorism or counter-terrorism, how should the United Nations Security Council effectively engage in combating terrorism?
- Given the many treaties, protocols, instruments, and international and regional bodies involved in the issue of counter-terrorism, what is the best way for the United Nations Security Council to encourage collaboration and communication amongst all of the groups that have similar ambitions?

In January 2013, Ambassador Masood Khan of Pakistan was the acting President of the Security Council and focused his presidency on terrorism and United Nations (UN) peacekeeping. Khan recognized that over the past 12 years, the UN Security Council (SC) had increasingly attempted to address terrorism as the SC had increasingly
began to identify terrorism as a threat to international peace and security. Today especially, terrorism increasingly threatens citizens and creates challenges for actors to respond to as individual terrorists are replacing terrorist organizations and cells. Therefore, the ever-changing face of counter-terrorism is important to understand because it shows which solutions have aided the UN in combating terrorism, and which have not. Further, it is necessary to understand the large number of counter-terrorism organizations and why there is a need to enhance international cooperation between them. It is also important to understand the main impediments to international cooperation, as there are many. The recent bombings at the Boston Marathon identified why counter-terrorism efforts were so necessary. It is believed that, had there been better cooperation between the governments of the United States and the Russian Federation prior to the attack, then it may have been thwarted. This is a prime example of why and how cooperation between Member States is necessary, of the new types of terrorist threats many Member States are now facing, and the need to shift the focus of counter-terrorism efforts to new, perhaps untraditional areas.

The evolution of counter-terrorism efforts has been necessary to combat the ever-changing face of terrorism. Terrorist networks, like al-Qaeda, are fading, and the international community is now faced with having to deal with individuals committing acts of terrorism. The Center on Global Counterterrorism Cooperation, in its document *Reshaping United Nations Counterterrorism Efforts* suggests that, “the emphasis of multilateral counterterrorism efforts is shifting steadily, expanding from a focus on interdiction, the investigation and prosecution of terrorists, and protection of communities and infrastructure toward a more evenly distributed preventive and response capacity, with an increasing emphasis on resilience.” This is because individual actors, with weak ties at best to large networks, as opposed to organized terrorist networks like al-Qaeda who committed the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks, have perpetrated most of the terrorist attacks in recent history. Further, this suggests that efforts focused on reform at the global, UN level; intergovernmental collaboration based on rule of law; and even potential economic activity can be utilized and empowered as counter-terrorism strategies.

Prior to the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks, terrorism was an issue addressed solely by sanctions and was characterized by small-isolated incidents (similar to what has again become the face of terrorism). Post-September 11, 2001, however, a clear intensification regarding counter-terrorism strategy occurred. Shortly after September 11, 2001, the SC established a subsidiary body, the Security Council Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC). This committee was established through UN SC Resolution 1373 (2001), and is charged with monitoring the implementation of the resolution. In 2004, through SC Resolution 1535, the Council also created the Counter-Terrorism Executive Directorate (CTED) to aid in the work of the CTC. Both organizations have been tasked with upholding and maintaining the directorate provided to them by SC Resolutions 1373 (2001) and 1624 (2005). These resolutions are the two most relevant counter-terrorism resolutions impacting the debate today along with the existence of multiple organizations with the same goal of combating terrorism.

In 2004, Member States concluded that it would be necessary to have a united front to combat terrorism, and to address it was best done through a panel. Therefore, to further enhance international cooperation on the implementation of counter-terrorism, in December 2004, the UN High-Level Panel of on Threats, Challenges, and Change specifically addressed the issue of having various counter-terrorism organizations. They believed it was necessary to consolidate the various organizations within the UN dealing with counter-terrorism issues into a “common framework.” This framework is the UN Action to Counter Terrorism. This organization is currently the leading organization within the UN system dealing with counter-terrorism; however, the issue remains that there are multiple other organizations dealing with the same subject matter that do not cooperate with one another. As such, it is important to review the vast number of counter-terrorism organizations and how each organization plays a role in the international community, and why enhancing international cooperation is necessary to have effective counter-terrorism operations worldwide.

In 2005, then UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan proposed a five-pillar strategy to combat terrorism, the first major pillar strategy ever created to combat terrorism, and helped frame the issue. This five-pillar strategy included dissuading groups from resorting to terrorism; denying terrorists the means to carry out an attack; deterring states from supporting terrorist groups; developing state capacity to prevent terrorism; and defending human rights in the context of terrorism and counter-terrorism. Further, Annan developed strategies within each of these five pillars to combat these issues within three different levels. These pillars are similar to the pillars used by the UN community today. During the same 2005 speech, Secretary-General Annan also proposed a definition to terrorism that would read as, “any action constitutes terrorism if it is intended to cause death or serious bodily harm to civilians and non-combatants, with the purpose of intimidating a population or compelling a Government or an international
organization to do or abstain from any act.” Following his speech, also in 2005, the UN Action to Counter Terrorism recommended this same definition for terrorism.

The Report of the Secretary-General on the Implementation of Decisions from the 2005 World Summit Outcome for Action, a High-Level Plenary Meeting of the UN General Assembly (GA), discussed the creation of the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF). Secretary-General Annan created the CTITF in the hope that efforts could be coordinated amongst UN bodies to combat terrorism. In 2005, SC Resolution 1624 asked Member States to assess whether or not the CTITF was working. Twelve months later, in 2006, the UN GA endorsed the CTITF in the UN Global Counter-Terrorism strategy. Resolution 1624 also encouraged states to enhance cooperation in counter-terrorism, prohibit terrorism by law, and to deny safe haven to anyone “with respect to whom there is credible and relevant information giving serious reasons for considering that they have been guilty of such conduct.”

The CTITF’s membership includes many international organizations that play a role in maintaining global peace today such as the CTED, the International Atomic Energy Agency, the UN Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, the UN Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute. The organizations of CTITF must work together to combat terrorism inspite of terrorism’s evolving nature and the growing number of counter-terrorism organizations. The responsibility of the CTITF’s is to uphold what are now considered the four-pillars for combatting terrorism; these changed from five-pillars to four when the Secretary-General updated his strategy after the 2005 September Summit Outcome. The four pillars for combat terrorism are: measures to address the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism; measures to prevent and combat terrorism; measures to build states’ capacity to prevent and combat terrorism and to strengthen the role of the UN system in that regard; and measures to ensure respect for human rights for all and the rule of law as the fundamental basis for the fight against terrorism.

The CTITF is further broken down into eight sub-groups, while the UN has also created 14 other elements within subcommittees and related organizations that also focus on counter-terrorism. In addition, and in response to this growing international need to combat terrorism, the UN created 13 different conventions and 16 universal, legal instruments. Moreover, fellow intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) also have their own subcommittees to combat terrorism, just like the CTITF and the UN system. Such IGOs include the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, and the Organization of American States/Inter-American Committee Against Terrorism, amongst others. Additionally, beyond IGOs, the international system cannot overlook the fact that most governments have departments and organizations dedicated to combatting terrorism as well. The vast number of actors, particularly organizations, makes it clear that efficient cooperation is necessary to enhance international cooperation, but how best to do so has continually remained a problem that must be solved.

A key focus of debate today is the reform of the counter-terrorism system, with several unique proposals already presented by Member States. Most significantly, the Report of the Secretary-General on the Implementation of Decisions from the 2005 World Summit Outcome for Action – a High-Level Plenary Meeting of the GA – discussed a previously unconsidered strategy. This strategy, which still has not been put into effect, was the creation of a global, comprehensive terrorism convention. The convention would put the ideas related to counter-terrorism into one document with the hopes that it would enhance cooperation between Member States and international organizations.

In order to proclaim his support for continuing to enhance counter-terrorism measures, Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon delivered remarks to the SC for the open debate on threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts. In this January 15, 2013, speech to the SC, Secretary-General Ban addressed the main concerns that the UN believes face counter-terrorism organizations. Similar to his predecessor, Secretary-General Ban also endorsed a comprehensive counter-terrorism convention. In addition to a new potential convention, Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon continued to move the debate on the issue forward. In his remarks he focused on the first pillar of the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, the pillar aimed at creating measures to address the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism. Currently, Secretary-General Ban suggests that the best measures to address this pillar include removing conditions that cause terrorism, improving dialogue and understanding amongst Member States, determining how information technology, specifically social media, has aided terrorist and extremist networks. These ideas are necessary to develop a comprehensive counter-terrorism strategy. He further stated that the steps going forward would require international cooperation amongst Member States in order to address a situation that he believes is important for sustainable peace.
In conclusion, the SC and the international community has made it clear that counter-terrorism is an extremely important issue that must be addressed in order to protect the maintenance of international peace and security. But the SC, along with other UN bodies and Member States, has been unable to determine the best method for consolidating counter-terrorism measures and increasing international cooperation. Nor has it decided how best to take the next steps in addressing the new era of terrorism. While how best to collaborate on these efforts is still unclear, strategies that must be included are the ideas that Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon outlined in his January 2013 speech regarding addressing the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism. As this topic is one that is vitally important for achieving sustainable international peace and security, this topic will continue to remain as one of the Council’s most important issues.

III. Advancing Women’s Participation in Mediation and Peace Processes

- Why has women’s participation in mediation and peace processes become a consideration for the international security environment?
- How can the Security Council contribute to the further implementation of Resolution 1325?
- How can the Security Council encourage the mainstreaming of the participation of women in peace processes and ensure the inclusion of gender sensitive content in peace agreements?

An important aspect of the mandate of the United Nations (UN) Security Council (SC) lies in its role of promoting the peaceful settlement of disputes, as set forth in Chapter VI of the Charter of the UN. This concept is known as peacemaking, whereas preventing the risk of relapsing into conflict is known as peacebuilding. Chapter VI of the UN Charter specifically refers to mediation as a peacemaking tool and defines it as, “a process whereby a third party assists two or more parties, with their consent, to prevent, manage or resolve a conflict by helping them to develop mutually acceptable agreements.” In keeping with its responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, the Council has identified the participation of women, in peacebuilding, peacekeeping, and peacemaking, as essential for the development of strong peace processes.

As SC Resolution 1325 (2000) mentions, women must have equal participation, both because they “account for the vast majority of those adversely affected by armed conflict,” and because women’s “full participation in the peace process can significantly contribute to the maintenance and promotion of international peace and security.” In this context, participation is related to the freedom to speak, assemble, and take part in the process of public affairs. In times of conflict or post-conflict, the right to participate extends to the formulation and application of peace processes. While in many places there are no formal legal impediments for the participation of women, practical barriers have historically prevented them from participating as much as men. These barriers can include lack of resources, insufficient education or access to information, greater family responsibilities, sexual violence, and discrimination based on traditional gender roles. In conflict and post-conflict societies, these barriers may be even greater.

According to UN Women, the exclusion of women from the negotiating table of peace agreements endangers both the discussion of topics of concern to women and the overall likelihood of stable negotiation outcomes. Topics of concern to women in negotiations can uniquely include violence against women, sexual violence, and their equality of citizen rights. When women are not included in the process, it is less likely that these issues, which provide a gender perspective, will be addressed. Furthermore, as there is a correlation between severe economic, social horizontal inequalities, and conflict, the inclusion of women in peace processes also increases the likelihood that the outcome agreements will be stable enough to prevent a relapse into conflict.

This is explained by Roohia S. Klein, at Harvard University, who argues that men and women have different attitudes towards negotiations due to differences in motivations. While the motivation of men tends to be to further their own interests, women tend to be motivated to further their acceptance by others, making them more likely to distribute resources more equally than men. Studies have shown that a collaborative approach to negotiations, such as the one that women tend to display, may be more productive in an international conflict situation as hard bargaining tactics may lead to stalled negotiations or worse, stalemates and intractable conflicts, in contexts where parties have to coexist. In light of this, UN Women has reported with concern that women are severely
unrepresented at the negotiating table; on average, in 31 major peace processes carried out between 1992 and 2011 only 2.4% of chief mediators, 3.7% of witnesses, and 9% of negotiators were women.

Ideally, a participatory peace process would include a combination of women in formal roles, like chief mediators, negotiators, and gender advisers to the mediator team, and also groups of women with access to negotiators and mediators. The inclusion of women in formal roles in the negotiation processes has shown to make a significant impact on whether provisions specific to women are included in the text or how gender sensitive a text is. An example of this is how a gender expert in the mediation team of the 2006 Abuja peace talks for Darfur, Sudan, helped build a common gender platform that was included in the text of the Darfur Peace Agreement. Likewise, a correlation exists between the organized participation of women’s groups and the gender-sensitivity of the texts of peace agreements. Specifically, organized women’s groups are more likely to voice gender concerns than women in official roles who might be bound to party interests. An example of this is that there is a striking difference in the language of peace agreements done before and after the involvement of women’s coalitions in the peace process in Uganda, the latter containing gender-equality provisions previously absent. Moreover, according to UN Women, when women’s groups are involved in the peacemaking phase they are more likely to also be involved in the implementation and peacebuilding phase.

The vital contribution of women to peace-processes and conflict resolution has prompted the UN to carry out significant efforts to enhance their participation. Article 8 of the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the 1982 Declaration on the Participation of Women in Promoting International Peace and Co-operation, and the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action all discuss the importance of women in the peacemaking process. CEDAW recognizes the right of women to equal participation in public life and to represent, in equal terms with men, their governments at the international level and participate in international organizations. The Declaration on the Participation of Women recognizes that women have unique contributions to international peace and security, and calls on national and international measures to ensure women’s contribution to efforts to secure world peace. Finally, the Beijing Declaration aims to remove barriers to women’s participation in all spheres of public and private life.

This extensive work on the topic led to SC Resolution 1325 (2000), which, sets out “to ensure increased representation of women at all decision-making levels in national, regional and international institutions and mechanisms for the prevention, management and resolution of conflict.” SC Resolution 1325 remains the most important milestone in the process of increasing the role of women in all aspects of the maintenance of international peace and security, and acts as the base for subsequent efforts by the UN and the SC to achieve this purpose. The resolution calls on Member States to adopt a gender perspective when negotiating and implementing peace agreements. It also calls on the Secretary-General to expand the role of women within the UN apparatus not only by increasing their participation in UN institutions, but also by mainstreaming a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations. Expanding on the purpose of Resolution 1325, UNSC Resolutions 1820 (2008) and 1888 (2009) address the topic of sexual violence extensively, while Resolution 1889 (2009) focuses on the participation of women in peace processes, conflict resolution, post-conflict planning, and peacebuilding. Moreover, the Secretary-General has developed a Seven-Point Action Plan on Women’s Participation in Peacebuilding, for the implementation of these commitments, which is “aimed at changing practices among national and international actors and improving outcomes on the ground.”

While SC Resolution 1325 was a very important milestone in incorporating gender sensitivity into the maintenance of international peace and security, studies cited by UN Women show that there is still much to do. Even though participation and representation in politics for women has increased since 2000, “only marginal progress has been made with regard to the number of women in formal peace processes or the design and conduct of peace talks in ways that would give greater voice to women, particularly from civil society.” Therefore, UN Women has set forth a series of recommendations aimed at enhancing the participation of women in mediation and conflict resolution. For instance, the UN and regional organizations should develop standardized protocols for the engagement of women’s civil society groups in formal peace negotiations from the onset. This would prevent groups from wasting resources in seeking inclusion. The UN could also “establish and support context-appropriate structures for consultation with women’s civil society organizations, and these should be activated before substantive negotiations begin.” In this way, the input of women participants and women’s organizations can be channeled directly into peace talks. When supporting peace processes, the UN or other mediating actors, such as groups of Friends of Member States, could use their influence as sponsors to increase the level of women’s participation.
An example of effective participation by women in peacemaking and peacebuilding took place in Liberia. At the height of the Liberian Civil War, Leymah Gbowee and Asatu Bah Kennet brought together thousands of Christian and Muslim women to pray and voice their demands for peace amidst the growing violence in their country. By following a strategy of peaceful demonstration and consultation with both warring factions, the group, which took the name Women of Liberia Mass Action for Peace was able to bring both sides in the 14-year long civil war to the negotiation table to draft a peace agreement and end the conflict. They were also able to make their demands heard and applied in the peace process. During the transitional period leading to democratic elections, women were involved in forming strategies, including the establishment of a follow-up committee, which would guarantee their inclusion in decision-making during and after the transitional period. In 2005, Ellen Johnson Sirleaf became the first African female head of state. Liberia has since made significant advances in regard to Resolution 1325, especially in the implementation of the National Action Plan of Gender Based Violence, which advances the implementation of Resolution 1325 and, in President Johnson Sirleaf’s words, serves to “increase women’s access to justice and to advance greater equality in Liberia.”

There is a growing recognition in the international community that women play an essential role in creating the necessary conditions for peace in conflict scenarios, as well as strong and stable post-conflict societies. In this sense, the equal representation of women in peacemaking, peacekeeping, and peacebuilding processes is a very important step towards enhancing international peace and security. To achieve this, Member States must remove the barriers, legal and otherwise, to women’s participation in politics. Likewise, the United Nations must mainstream gender into its operations, making sure that women have equal participation in its institutions and ensuring that the processes and activities that it sponsors include a gender perspective. With such considerations in mind, the SC is prime to make a significant impact on the role of women in peace process with any actions and next steps that it pursues.

**Annotated Bibliography**

*History of the Security Council*


*The Charter of the United Nations is the most important document for understanding how the organization works. It outlines the rights and responsibilities of Member States as well as the mandates of each of the main organs of the UN. Chapters V, VI, and VII outline the main responsibilities and specific powers of the SC.*


*This is a very useful resource for finding everything related to the work of the SC since 1946. This Web site contains all available meeting records, every adopted resolution, decision and presidential statement, as well as all reports of the SC to the GA, of the Secretary-General and of subsidiary bodies. It also contains a repertoire of the practice of the SC where researchers can see how the Council has applied the UN Charter throughout the years. This resource provides an idea of the evolution of SC discussions on various topics and demonstrates how thematic discussions have become increasingly important in the last few years.*


*This is a quick reference document containing information about UN peacekeeping operations around the globe. The factsheet includes data on personnel numbers and types, geographic distribution, and financial aspects. It is also a useful and fast way of referencing the acronyms used by the different operations.*

*I. Addressing the Situation in North Korea*

The Arms Control Association has written a timeline of all of the events regarding nuclear and missile diplomacy between the United States and the DPRK. This timeline begins in 1985 and covers all of the events up until today, including the situation surrounding the 2012-2013 nuclear missile launches and tests. This timeline will be helpful for delegates to understand how events escalated and how these events reached the SC.


This Web site created by the Arms Control Association walks through every SC resolution passed regarding the DPRK. Entries on each resolution discuss the resolution’s principal provisions and sanctions. This is a must read for all delegates in the SC because being aware of the past work done by the SC in reference to this topic will help delegates understand what efforts the SC has already pursued.


This report created by the Human Rights Watch describes the human rights atrocities committed by various countries. The report discusses such atrocities as those that are occurring in the DPRK’s labor camps to the lack of freedom of association, information, and movement of the DPRK people. Delegates will find this extremely helpful in order to fully understand the type of human rights violations that are being committed by the DPRK.


North Korea Now is an international organization created to address the human rights situation in the DPRK. This Web site, in particular, discusses the various international human rights treaties that the DPRK has signed and ratified, and how the country is in violation of each treaty. It also goes further to discuss other important treaties that the DPRK has not signed (such as the Rome Statute), and how the DPRK is in violation of those treaties as well.


This SC resolution was the first SC resolution ever passed regarding the DPRK. It is important because it recognizes the ROK’s sovereign right to exist, free of aggression, which is something the DPRK has seemed to recognize. Delegates will find it helpful because it shows the first measures the SC used to solve the situation in the DPRK.


This is one of the two most recent UN SC resolutions passed regarding the DPRK, and it was drafted as a response to the Unha-3 missile launch. This resolution will likely steer debate on the topic, and delegates will need to look at this to help address what could potentially be debated during committee sessions. It is important to recognize what has already been addressed by the SC. This is so delegates can come up with new and creative ways to address the situation, and not to pursue something that the SC has already done.


This is the most relevant resolution passed by the SC in regards to the February 2013 underground nuclear test conducted by the DPRK. In it, SC Member States agreed to further sanctions to penalize the DPRK for the underground nuclear test. Delegates ought to understand this resolution because it will impact the debate on this topic.

II. Enhancing International Cooperation on the Implementation of Counter-Terrorism

Former Secretary-General Kofi Annan’s speech is one of the most pivotal speeches regarding counter-terrorism. This speech introduced Annan’s five-pillar strategy for counter-terrorism. This is the first “action plan” the UN had to combat terrorism, and thus delegates should be familiar with this speech.


This is the most recent speech by the Secretary-General regarding counter-terrorism efforts and the UN. The Secretary-General addresses the strides that the UN made throughout 2012, and the items that still need to be accomplished to combat terrorism. Delegates will find this helpful as it provides some solutions that the Secretary-General believes would aid counter-terrorism efforts, but delegates should also use this to help develop more creative solutions.


This document, created by a leading non-profit organization in the field, discusses potential solutions that the UN SC could use to help facilitate the debate on this topic. Although lengthy, this document provides an overarching view of how debate on this topic has evolved since the SC first addressed counter-terrorism in 2001. Delegates should read this document to help give them a full grasp of the topic.


This document provides another overarching view on the topic of counter-terrorism. Cordesman does a fantastic job of addressing all of the organizations that deal with counter-terrorism issues and how their cooperation is essential in combating this issue. Delegates will find this to be an extremely helpful tool in determining if their Member State is a participant in any other counter-terrorism organization and how their membership in that organization can help them play a role in the debate in the SC.


This is the main page of the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF), which, as explained in the main text of the background guide, is one of the UN’s most important resources for combating terrorism. Delegates will find this resource extremely helpful because it branches out into all the ways that the UN has attempted to combat terrorism and how different organizations are attempting to work together to combat terrorism. This page also explains how the CTITF operates, something the delegates will need to know if this topic is chosen for debate.


This organization created by the UN SC is the most important UN SC organization for fighting terrorism. Any issues related to counter-terrorism that the Security Council deals with will be easily researched through this Web site. Delegates should continue to monitor this Web site up until the conference.


The United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism is one of the most important organizations created by the UN to help develop important counter-terrorism measures. Delegates will find the
background of the organization important as it discusses the pillars incorporated into the guide and shows how these pillars were created. The portion that delegates will find most interesting is the biennial review of the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy as it shows the importance that this organization plays in international cooperation efforts.


The 2005 World Summit Outcome was a high-level plenary meeting of the GA. This document shows the goals of the summit, and how participants wanted to implement the outcomes from the World Summit. This document is extremely important because it established the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force, and focuses on counter-terrorism work already pursued by the UN.


This article discusses the goals of the UN SC President for January 2013, Pakistani Ambassador Masood Khan. Ambassador Khan stated that he wanted the special focus of the SC for the month of January to be on counter-terrorism; this article also details his reasons for having this focus. The article is helpful for delegates as it shows how specific instances of terrorism can result in the SC refocusing their goals in order to address a situation they believe must be addressed immediately because of how it impacts international peace and security.


SC Resolution 1624 (2005) was one of the most important resolutions relating to counter-terrorism. This resource not only includes the text of the resolution, but also discusses how the SC Member States at the time felt about this specific resolution. Delegates should find this helpful as it shows the Member States reasoning behind passing this resolution and why they believed the passage of this resolution was so incredibly important.

III. Advancing Women’s Participation in Mediation and Peace Processes


This paper uses academic studies of behavior in negotiation and mediation to provide insight on the implications of SC Resolution 1325 (2000). It shows that gender plays a role in negotiation and mediation because men and women might have different goals and motivations. It argues that the outcome of mediations and negotiations is affected by these differences by giving examples on how women differ in their approach to negotiation and mediation while weighing the scientific evidence against the principles set forth in SC Resolution 1325 (2000).


UN SC Resolution 1325, adopted in 2000, is a very important milestone in mainstreaming gender in the maintenance of international peace and security. It addresses the rights of women in conflict and post-conflict situations, and calls on Member States to increase, as much as possible, women’s participation in peace negotiations and post-conflict reconstruction. It also calls on the UN Secretary-General to expand the role of women within the organization by increasing their participation in UN institutions and by implementing a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations.
The SC, through Resolution 1889, which was adopted in 2009, requested the Secretary-General to submit this report. It analyzes the particular situation and needs of women and girls in post-conflict situations, especially in regard to their particular vulnerability to sexual violence and discrimination, as well as the challenges to women’s participation in all aspects of peacebuilding. The Report provides recommendations of measures such as the application temporary affirmative action plans and electoral quotas, where appropriate. It also calls on ensuring the equal participation of women in disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration programs, which can be applied to enhance the participation of women in peacebuilding.

The Secretary-General is required to report annually on the implementation of Resolution 1325. This particular report, submitted in 2011, gives an overview of progress and sets forth a strategic framework to guide the UN in implementing the resolution for the next ten years. The report is divided into sections about prevention of conflict and all forms of violence against women, the participation of women in decision-making forums, the protection of women at the normative level, and the participation of women in relief and recovery efforts. Each of these sections contains a series of indicators of success.

This document, published by UN Women, outlines the various forms of women’s participation used in different peace processes such as members of negotiating teams, gender advisors, mediators, and witnesses. It also provides an overview of women’s demands during peace negotiations while making a survey of the gender-related content of statements and declarations. Essentially, it clarifies that there is still much progress to be made in implementing Resolution 1325 (2000) and gives recommendations to the international community for that purpose.