



Rotaract Club of Mumbai Shivaji Park



# MSP MUNA

for school students

25 September 2011 | Amulakh School, Wadala

“The United Nations, whose membership comprises almost all the states in the world, is founded on the principle of the equal worth of every human being.”

-- Kofi Annan (7<sup>th</sup> Secretary-General of the United Nations)

# GUIDE

Data courtesy RID 3140



for school students

Dear Delegates,

Welcome to MSP Model United Nations Assembly 2011.

Climate change is not just a human tragedy but changes the very basis of survival on this planet. We know that our window of opportunity for limiting climate change is closing and therefore unprecedented international cooperation and commitment is required.

We need to, and we can, progress much faster, catalyzing the world onto a low-carbon development pathway that is ambitious, effective and fair and ensures that the right to survival for the most vulnerable is not sacrificed.

The following study guide is by no means all you will require for the conference, We encourage you to discover more about this issue on the web, at your local library etc. We have mentioned the major areas that we felt should be the focus or the target areas of this committee

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## RESOLUTION

- A. Defining the Kyoto Protocol as an amendment to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), an international treaty on global warming committed to:
- The reduction in CO2 emissions and other greenhouse gases,
  - An engagement in emission trading which came into force on February 16th 2005,
- B. Approving the Kyoto Protocol as the first political step towards reducing greenhouse gas emissions worldwide,
- C. Realising that the aims of the Kyoto Protocol can be reached without causing economic stagnation,
- D. Keeping in mind that many countries are unlikely to be successful in reaching their goals by the expiry date of 2012,
- E. Noting with regret the following weaknesses of the Kyoto Protocol:
- Compliance is not mandatory,
  - Several countries, such as the USA and Australia are currently not adhering to this protocol,
  - The current political goals are not sufficient in reducing the effects of global warming,
- F. Convinced that emission trading can serve as a motivation for countries to consider reducing greenhouse gases,
- G. Further noting that emission trading is not a long term solution for the reduction in these gases,
- H. Noting the danger, that as the LEDC's grow economically, their energy consumption will increase exponentially, according to current findings,
- I. Deeply convinced that the EU alone cannot reduce a significant amount of the greenhouse gas emissions,
- J. Bearing in mind that the EU currently depends on importing energy,
- K. Keeping in mind that nuclear fission power is an effective yet unsafe solution,
- L. Aware of existing alternative, renewable energy sources, such as:
- Wind energy,
  - Solar energy,
  - Geothermal energy,
  - Biofuels,
  - Hydroelectric power,
- M. Alarmed by the lack of efficiency exhibited in today's methods of using alternative energy in industry,
- N. Believing that renewable energy will secure a better quality of life and a more sustainable economic growth,
- O. Deeply convinced by the lack of public and political awareness regarding global warming issues;
- Draws attention to the need for a stable economy based on renewable energy;
  - Strongly recommends the formation of new and more efficient treaty after 2012, that will include emission trading;
  - Suggests that financial penalties are introduced in the next Protocol, for countries which have failed to reach their target;
  - Further recommends that the money raised from these fines be invested in research on renewable energy;



## RESOLUTION

5. Calls for the EU to be a role model by using and promoting renewable energy;
6. Demands further investments in research regarding alternative and renewable energy sources, such as nuclear fusion, organic cells and magnetic motors;
7. Recommends LEDC's to be included in the research into renewable energy sources;
8. Calls for global cooperation in which each country specialises in a natural resource in order to gain maximum efficiency;
9. Encourages developed countries to support LEDC's in order to build up their own economy with renewable energy as the main source of energy;
10. Condemns the building of new nuclear fission power stations;
11. Calls for extensive publicity campaigns and educational programmes concerning the reduction of energy consumption;
12. Proposes an international eco-label for companies that meet required standards of emission restrictions and efficient energy usage in order to encourage consumers to purchase their products;
13. Suggests a tax reduction for people and companies that meet certain requirements of energy efficiency;
14. Strongly recommends governments subsidise public transportation;
15. Encourages city centres to be solely reserved for the use of public transport and environmental friendly vehicles.

Resolution should answer the questions and the problems highlighted which includes

- 1) Climate Change impact of human development
- 2) Developed countries to be blamed more than developing countries.
- 3) Technological development boon or bane for climate change
- 4) Kyoto Protocol – real achievements or empty legislation.
- 5) Global Warming or Global Warning
- 6) Alternative sources of energy impact on countries economic progress
- 7) Copenhagen Summit – future of climate change

Resolution is expected to be concrete, clear, implementable and acceptable to all parties involved in the conflict.



## UNITED NATIONS - AN INTERNATIONAL FORUM

The United Nations was created in the aftermath of World War II in an effort to avert future world conflict. The victorious states hoped that through the UN they could continue to foster cooperation and find a new mechanism of collective security.

While the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union called into question the plausibility of these goals, recent developments have renewed the hope held by the founders of the UN. Indeed, with over three times as many members as at its inception, the United Nations is now closer than ever to fulfilling the principles on which it was founded. Its principal purposes, as found in Article I of its Charter, are as follows:

- 1) to maintain international peace and security;
- 2) to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples;
- 3) to cooperate in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character, and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all; and
- 4) to be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these common ends.

To fulfill these goals, set forth on October 24, 1945, the UN aspires to uphold many standards. The organization believes in the sovereign equality of all nations, that members are to fulfill in good faith the obligations that they have assumed under the Charter, that international disputes are to be resolved by peaceful means, and that the organization is not to intervene in matters essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state.

The United Nations has its headquarters in New York and is composed of five organs (not including the Secretariat). At the center is the 191 member General Assembly, which is comprised of seven main committees and various subsidiary and related bodies.

The GA serves primarily as a forum for discussing general issues including: international peace and security; the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all; international collaboration in economic, social, cultural, educational, and health fields; the structure and function of the UN; and the UN budget. Empowered to establish committees and other bodies to study and report on specific issues, the GA also receives and considers reports from all of the other UN organs. Although the decisions of the Assembly have no binding legal force upon members, they carry the weight of opinion and the moral authority of the world community.

The Economic and Social Council is composed of 54 member states and consists of a large number of commissions, agencies, and other bodies. It serves as the central forum for the discussion of international economic and social issues. Charged with promoting respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms, the EcoSoc can conduct studies, make policy recommendations, call international conferences, consult with non-governmental organizations, and prepare draft conventions for submission to the General Assembly.

International disputes of pressing concern may be referred to the Security Council, the third organ of the UN, which is charged with maintaining international peace and security in accordance with the principles and purposes of the United Nations. Capable of directing the use of economic sanctions and military force, the Security Council is composed of fifteen members and is also responsible for recommending the appointment of the Secretary-General to the General Assembly. The Security Council has been in the news in recent years for its involvement in resolving long-term conflicts in Africa, peacekeeping efforts in East Timor, and the crisis in the Middle East.

The International Court of Justice, the fourth UN organ, considers disputes of a purely legal nature. The Court is made up of fifteen members and usually hears cases concerning the interpretation of treaties and the UN Charter. In the past, the Court has made such important decisions as declaring in 1958 that South Africa's political and military presence in Southwest Africa/Namibia was illegal.

The Trusteeship Council is the fifth organ of the UN. It was responsible for overseeing the administration of territories that were not yet self-governing before suspending its action in 1994. The Council is no longer active within the United Nations.



LIST OF COUNTRIES

- Australia
Canada
Germany
United Kingdom
France
India
Russia
United States of America
Switzerland
Iran
Iraq
Srilanka
Italy
Belgium
Poland
Spain
Greece
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Bangladesh
South Africa
China
Israel
Japan
New Zealand
Saudi Arabia
Zimbabwe
Sweden
Norway
Kenya

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## CLIMATE CHANGE

### AN OVERVIEW

Climate change refers to a statistically significant variation in either the mean state of the climate or in its variability, persisting for an extended period (typically decades or longer). Climate change may be due to natural internal processes or external forcings, or to persistent anthropogenic changes in the composition of the atmosphere or in land use.

The Earth is the only planet in our solar system that supports life. The complex process of evolution occurred on Earth only because of some unique environmental conditions that were present: water, an oxygen-rich atmosphere, and a suitable surface temperature.

The Earth's climate has changed throughout history. From glacial periods (or "ice ages") where ice covered significant portions of the Earth to interglacial periods where ice retreated to the poles or melted entirely - the climate has continuously changed.

This page contains information about the causes of climate change throughout the Earth's history, the rates at which the climate has changed, as well as information about climate change during the last 2,000 years. Factors that can shape climate are climate forcings. These include such processes as variations in solar radiation, deviations in the Earth's orbit, mountain-building and continental drift, and changes in greenhouse gas concentrations. There are a variety of climate change feedbacks that can either amplify or diminish the initial forcing. Some parts of the climate system, such as the oceans and ice caps, respond slowly in reaction to climate forcing because of their large mass. Therefore, the climate system can take centuries or longer to fully respond to new external forcings.

### CAUSES OF CLIMATE CHANGE

**Changes in the Earth's orbit:** Slight variations in Earth's orbit lead to changes in the seasonal distribution of sunlight reaching the Earth's surface and how it is distributed across the globe. There is very little change to the area-averaged annually-averaged sunshine; but there can be strong changes in the geographical and seasonal distribution. The three types of orbital variations are variations in Earth's eccentricity, changes in the tilt angle of Earth's axis of rotation, and precession of Earth's axis. Combined together, these produce Milankovitch cycles which have a large impact on climate and are notable for their correlation to glacial and interglacial periods, their correlation with the advance and retreat of the Sahara, and for their appearance in the stratigraphic record. These orbital processes -- which function in cycles of 100,000 (eccentricity), 41,000 (tilt), and 19,000 to 23,000 (precession) years -- are thought to be the most significant drivers of ice ages according to the theory of Milutin Milankovitch, a Serbian mathematician (1879-1958). The National Aeronautics and Space Administration's (NASA) Earth Observatory offers additional information about orbital variations and the Milankovitch Theory.

**Changes in the sun's intensity:** The sun is the predominant source for energy input to the Earth. Both long- and short-term variations in solar intensity are known to affect global climate.

Early in Earth's history the sun emitted only 70% as much power as it does today. With the same atmospheric composition as exists today, liquid water should not have existed on Earth. However, there is evidence for the presence of water on the early Earth, in the Hadean and Archean eons, leading to what is known as the faint young sun paradox. Hypothesized solutions to this paradox include a vastly different atmosphere, with much higher concentrations of greenhouse gases than currently exist. Over the following approximately 4 billion years, the energy output of the sun increased and atmospheric composition changed, with the oxygenation of the atmosphere being the most notable alteration. The luminosity of the sun will continue to increase as it follows the main sequence. These changes in luminosity, and the sun's ultimate death as it becomes a red giant and then a white dwarf, will have large effects on climate, with the red giant phase possibly ending life on Earth.

According to NASA research, reduced solar activity from the 1400s to the 1700s was likely a key factor in the "Little Ice Age" which resulted in a slight cooling of North America, Europe and probably other areas around the globe.





## CLIMATE CHANGE

**Volcanic eruptions:** Volcanism is a process of conveying material from the crust and mantle of the Earth to its surface. Volcanic eruptions, geysers, and hot springs, are examples of volcanic processes which release gases and/or particulates into the atmosphere. Eruptions large enough to affect climate occur on average several times per century, and cause cooling (by partially blocking the transmission of solar radiation to the Earth's surface) for a period of a few years. The eruption of Mount Pinatubo in 1991, the second largest terrestrial eruption of the 20th century (after the 1912 eruption of Novarupta) affected the climate substantially. Global temperatures decreased by about 0.5 °C (0.9 °F). The eruption of Mount Tambora in 1815 caused the Year Without a Summer. Much larger eruptions, known as large igneous provinces, occur only a few times every hundred million years, but may cause global warming and mass extinctions. Volcanoes are also part of the extended carbon cycle. Over very long (geological) time periods, they release carbon dioxide from the Earth's crust and mantle, counteracting the uptake by sedimentary rocks and other geological carbon dioxide sinks. According to the US Geological Survey, however, estimates are that human activities generate more than 130 times the amount of carbon dioxide emitted by volcanoes.

**Aerosol emissions:** Volcanic aerosols tend to block sunlight and contribute to short term cooling. Aerosols do not produce long-term change because they leave the atmosphere not long after they are emitted. According to the United States Geological Survey (USGS), the eruption of the Tambora Volcano in Indonesia in 1815 lowered global temperatures by as much as 5°F and historical accounts in New England describe 1816 as "the year without a summer."

**Carbon dioxide emissions:** Volcanoes also emit carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), a greenhouse gas, which has a warming effect. For about two-thirds of the last 400 million years, geologic evidence suggests CO<sub>2</sub> levels and temperatures were considerably higher than present. One theory is that volcanic eruptions from rapid sea floor spreading elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, enhancing the greenhouse effect and raising temperatures. However, the evidence for this theory is not conclusive and there are alternative explanations for historic CO<sub>2</sub> levels.

These climate change "drivers" often trigger additional changes or "feedbacks" within the climate system that can amplify or dampen the climate's initial response to them (whether the response is warming or cooling).

For example:

**Changes in greenhouse gas concentrations:** The heating or cooling of the Earth's surface can cause changes in greenhouse gas concentrations. For example, when global temperatures become warmer, carbon dioxide is released from the oceans. When changes in the Earth's orbit trigger a warm (or interglacial) period, increasing concentrations of carbon dioxide may amplify the warming by enhancing the greenhouse effect. When temperatures become cooler, CO<sub>2</sub> enters the ocean and contributes to additional cooling. During at least the last 650,000 years, CO<sub>2</sub> levels have tended to track the glacial cycles. That is, during warm interglacial periods, CO<sub>2</sub> levels have been high and during cool glacial periods, CO<sub>2</sub> levels have been low (See Figure 1).

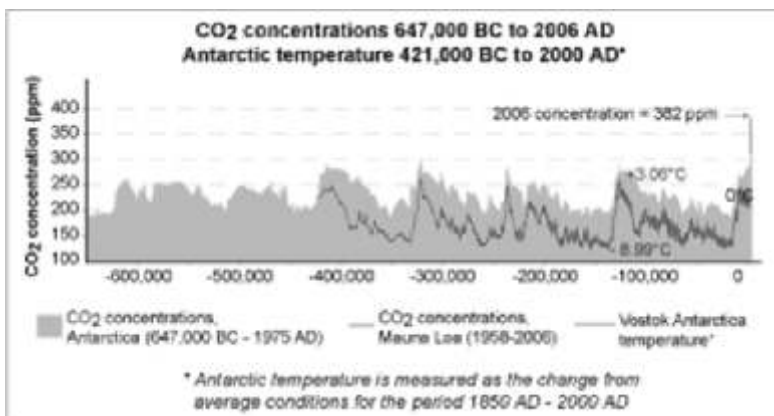


Figure 1: Fluctuations in temperature (red line) and in the atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (yellow) over the past 649,000 years. The vertical red bar at the end is the increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide levels over the past two centuries and before 2007



## CLIMATE CHANGE

Changes in ocean currents: The ocean is a fundamental part of the climate system. Short-term fluctuations (years to a few decades) such as the El Niño–Southern Oscillation, the Pacific decadal oscillation, the North Atlantic oscillation, and the Arctic oscillation, represent climate variability rather than climate change. On longer time scales, alterations to ocean processes such as thermohaline circulation play a key role in redistributing heat by carrying out a very slow and extremely deep movement of water, and the long-term redistribution of heat in the world's oceans.



### RATES OF CHANGE

The finding last week from NASA that summertime Arctic sea ice was declining at such a rate that it may disappear by the end of the century has been strengthened by scientists from Germany who say that the rate of climate change is increasing.

NASA used satellite imagery to examine the extent of Arctic sea ice at the end of September, for a period going back 27 years. The researchers concluded that Arctic sea ice had declined by around 8.5 percent per decade over the period. For the ice to recover, sustained cooling is needed, but this has not been the case over the past 20 years, and it is not expected to be the case in the future if new research from the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology is correct.

Calculations by the German scientists suggest that over the next century the climate will change more quickly than it ever has in the recent history of the earth. The results come from the latest climate model calculations from the German High Performance Computing Centre for Climate and Earth System Research.

If the model is correct, global temperatures could rise by up to four degrees Celsius by the end of the century. This could lead to the complete disappearance of summertime sea ice in the Arctic, sea levels rising by as much as 30 centimeters and more extreme weather events around the world.

The Medieval Climate Anomaly: Between roughly 900 and 1300 AD, evidence suggests Europe, Greenland and Asia experienced relative warmth. While historical accounts and other evidence document the warmth that occurred in some regions, the geographical extent, magnitude and timing of the warmth during this period is uncertain (NRC, 2006). The American West experienced very dry conditions around this time.

The Little Ice Age: A wide variety of evidence supports the global existence of a "Little Ice Age" (this was not a true "ice age" since major ice sheets did not develop) between about 1500 and 1850 (NRC, 2006). Average temperatures were possibly up to 2°F colder than today, but varied by region.

The Industrial Era: An additional warm period has emerged in the last 100 years, coinciding with substantially increasing emissions of greenhouse gases from human activities (see Recent Climate Change for more information).





## CLIMATE CHANGE

Prior to the Industrial Era, the Medieval Climate Anomaly and Little Ice Age had defined the upper and lower boundaries of the climate's recent natural variability and are a reflection of changes in climate drivers (the sun's variability and volcanic activity) and the climate's internal variability (referring to random changes in the circulation of the atmosphere and oceans).

The issue of whether the temperature rise of last 100 years crossed over the warm limit of the boundary defined by the Medieval Climate Anomaly has been a controversial topic in the science community. The National Academy of Sciences recently completed a study to assess the efforts to reconstruct temperatures of the past one to two millennia and place the Earth's current warming in historical context

Reconstructions of (Northern Hemisphere average or global average) surface temperature variations from six research teams (in different color shades) along with the instrumental record of global average surface temperature (in black). Each curve illustrates a somewhat different history of temperature changes, with a range of uncertainties that tend to increase backward in time (as indicated by the shading).

There is a high level of confidence that the global average temperature during the last few decades was warmer than any comparable period during the last 400 years.

Present evidence suggests that temperatures at many, but not all, individual locations were higher during the past 25 years than any period of comparable length since A.D. 900. However, uncertainties associated with this statement increase substantially backward in time.

Very little confidence can be assigned to estimates of hemisphere average or global average temperature prior to A.D. 900 due to limited data coverage and challenges in analyzing older data.

Are we seeing the end of the long period of benign climate since the last ice age? Will the climate change for the worse because of our actions? In fact, no one knows for sure. Most atmospheric scientists believe that the global climate is warming at least partially because of a build-up of CO<sub>2</sub> from fossil fuel use, but what that means to humans and natural ecosystems is largely unknown. The climate is vastly complex and strongly influenced by many factors other than greenhouse gas concentrations. (Some of these factors are explored in the Introduction to Climate Section.) This makes it extremely difficult to link any climatic events or characteristics to a single cause. As a result, controversy exists as to the magnitude and danger of global warming induced by greenhouse gases. Many scientists take the issue very seriously and support efforts to slow or reverse the build-up of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> with the expectation that global warming will slow as a result. Others, however, contend that CO<sub>2</sub> may not be affecting the climate and that the changes are part of natural, long-term climatic cycles. They suggest that efforts to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are unnecessary and dangerous to economic growth and development.





## KYOTO PROTOCOL

### AN OVERVIEW

The objective of the Kyoto Protocol is to achieve "stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system." [1]

As of June 2007, 175 Parties have ratified the Protocol. Of these, 36 countries and the EEC are required to reduce greenhouse gas emissions below levels specified for each of them in the treaty (representing over 61.6% of emissions from Annex I countries). Notable exceptions include the United States and Australia. One hundred thirty seven countries (137) have ratified the protocol, but have no obligation beyond monitoring and reporting emissions.

There is some debate about the usefulness of the protocol, and there have been some cost-benefit studies performed.

### DESCRIPTION

The Kyoto Protocol is an agreement made under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Countries that ratify this protocol commit to reduce their emissions of carbon dioxide and five other greenhouse gases, or engage in emissions trading if they maintain or increase emissions of these gases.

The Kyoto Protocol now covers more than 160 countries globally and more than 60% of countries in terms of global greenhouse gas emissions. This treaty expires in 2012, and international talks began in May 2007 on a future treaty to succeed the current one.

At its heart, the Kyoto Protocol establishes the following principles:

Kyoto is underwritten by governments and is governed by global legislation enacted under the UN's aegis;

Governments are separated into two general categories: developed countries, referred to as Annex I countries (who have accepted greenhouse gas emission reduction obligations and must submit an annual greenhouse gas inventory); and developing countries, referred to as Non-Annex I countries (who have no greenhouse gas emission reduction obligations but may participate in the Clean Development Mechanism);

Any Annex I country that fails to meet its Kyoto obligation will be penalized by having to submit 1.3 emission allowances in a second commitment period for every ton of greenhouse gas emissions they exceed their cap in the first commitment period (i.e., 2008-2012);

By 2008-2012, Annex I countries have to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by a collective average of 5% below their 1990 levels (for many countries, such as the EU member states, this corresponds to some 15% below their expected greenhouse gas emissions in 2008). While the average emissions reduction is 5%, national limitations range from 8% reductions for the European Union to a 10% emissions increase for Iceland; but since the EU intends to meet its obligation by distributing different rates among its member states, much larger increases (up to 27%) are allowed for some of the less developed EU countries. Reduction limitations expire in 2013;

Kyoto includes "flexible mechanisms" which allow Annex I economies to meet their greenhouse gas emission limitation by purchasing GHG emission reductions from elsewhere. These can be bought either from financial exchanges, from projects which reduce emissions in non-Annex I economies under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), from other Annex I countries under the JI, or from Annex I countries with excess allowances. Only CDM Executive Board-accredited Certified Emission Reductions (CER) can be bought and sold in this manner. Under the aegis of the UN, Kyoto established this Bonn-based Clean Development Mechanism Executive Board to assess and approve projects ("CDM Projects") in Non-Annex I economies prior to awarding CERs. (A similar scheme called "Joint Implementation" or "JI" applies in transitional economies mainly covering the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe).

What this means in practice is that Non-Annex I economies have no GHG emission restrictions, but when a greenhouse gas emission reduction project (a "Greenhouse Gas Project") is implemented in these countries, that Greenhouse Gas Project will receive Carbon Credit





## KYOTO PROTOCOL

which can be sold to Annex I buyers.

These Kyoto mechanisms are in place for two main reasons:

The cost of complying with Kyoto is prohibitive for many Annex I countries (especially those countries, such as Japan or the Netherlands for example, with highly efficient, low greenhouse gas polluting industries, and high prevailing environmental standards). Kyoto therefore allows these countries to purchase Carbon Credits instead of reducing greenhouse gas emissions domestically; and,

This is seen as a means of encouraging Non-Annex I developing economies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions since doing so is now economically viable because of the sale of Carbon Credits.

All the Annex I economies have established Designated National Authorities to manage their greenhouse gas portfolios under Kyoto. Countries including Japan, Canada, Italy, the Netherlands, Germany, France, Spain and many more, are actively promoting government carbon funds and supporting multilateral carbon funds intent on purchasing Carbon Credits from Non-Annex I countries. These government organizations are working closely with their major utility, energy, oil & gas and chemicals conglomerates to try to acquire as many Greenhouse Gas Certificates as cheaply as possible.

Virtually all of the Non-Annex I countries have also set up their own Designated National Authorities to manage the Kyoto process (and specifically the "CDM process" whereby these host government entities decide which Greenhouse Gas Projects they do or do not wish to support for accreditation by the CDM Executive Board).

The objectives of these opposing groups are quite different. Annex I entities want Carbon Credits as cheaply as possible, whilst Non-Annex I entities want to maximize the value of Carbon Credits generated from their domestic Greenhouse Gas Projects.

### OBJECTIVES

Kyoto is intended to cut global emissions of greenhouse gases.

The objective is the "stabilization and reconstruction of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system." [1]

The objective of the Kyoto climate change conference was to establish a legally binding international agreement, whereby all the participating nations commit themselves to tackling the issue of global warming and greenhouse gas emissions. The target agreed upon was an average reduction of 5.2% from 1990 levels by the year 2012. Contrary to popular belief, the Protocol will NOT expire in 2012.



## KYOTO PROTOCOL

The treaty was negotiated in Kyoto, Japan in December 1997, opened for signature on March 16, 1998, and closed on March 15, 1999. The agreement came into force on February 16, 2005 following ratification by Russia on November 18, 2004. As of December 2006, a total of 169 countries and other governmental entities have ratified the agreement (representing over 61.6% of emissions from Annex I countries).

According to article 25 of the protocol, it enters into force "on the ninetieth day after the date on which not less than 55 Parties to the Convention, incorporating Parties included in Annex I which accounted in total for at least 55% of the total carbon dioxide emissions for 1990 of the Parties included in Annex I, have deposited their instruments of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession." Of the two conditions, the "55 parties" clause was reached on May 23, 2002 when Iceland ratified. The ratification by Russia on 18 November 2004 satisfied the "55%" clause and brought the treaty into force, effective February 16, 2005.

### DETAILS OF THE AGREEMENT

According to a press release from the United Nations Environment Programme:

"The Kyoto Protocol is an agreement under which industrialized countries will reduce their collective emissions of greenhouse gases by 5.2% compared to the year 1990 (but note that, compared to the emissions levels that would be expected by 2010 without the Protocol, this limitation represents a 29% cut). The goal is to lower overall emissions of six greenhouse gases - carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, sulfur hexafluoride, HFCs, and PFCs - calculated as an average over the five-year period of 2008-12. National limitations range from 8% reductions for the European Union and some others to 7% for the US, 6% for Japan, 0% for Russia, and permitted increases of 8% for Australia and 10% for Iceland.

It is an agreement negotiated as an amendment to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC, which was adopted at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992). All parties to the UNFCCC can sign or ratify the Kyoto Protocol, while non-parties to the UNFCCC cannot. The Kyoto Protocol was adopted at the third session of the Conference of Parties to the UNFCCC (COP3) in 1997 in Kyoto, Japan.

Most provisions of the Kyoto Protocol apply to developed countries, listed in Annex I to the UNFCCC. Emission figures exclude international aviation and shipping.

### Common but differentiated responsibility

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change agreed to a set of a "common but differentiated responsibilities." The parties agreed that

1. The largest share of historical and current global emissions of greenhouse gases has originated in developed countries;
2. Per capita emissions in developing countries are still relatively low;
3. The share of global emissions originating in developing countries will grow to meet their social and development needs.

In other words, China, India, and other developing countries were not included in any numerical limitation of the Kyoto Protocol because they were not the main contributors to the greenhouse gas emissions during the industrialization period that is believed to be causing today's climate change. However, even without the commitment to reduce according to the Kyoto target, developing countries do share the common responsibility that all countries have in reducing emissions.

### Financial commitments

The Protocol also reaffirms the principle that developed countries have to pay billions of dollars, and supply technology to other countries for climate-related studies and projects. This was originally agreed in the UNFCCC.



## KYOTO PROTOCOL

### Emissions trading

Kyoto is a 'cap and trade' system that imposes national caps on the emissions of Annex I countries. On average, this cap requires countries to reduce their emissions 5.2% below their 1990 baseline over the 2008 to 2012 period. Although these caps are national-level commitments, in practice most countries will devolve their emissions targets to individual industrial entities, such as a power plant or paper factory. An example of a 'cap and trade' system is the unrelated-to-Kyoto 'EU ETS'. Other countries may follow suit in time.

This means that the ultimate buyers of Credits are often individual companies that expect their emissions to exceed their quota (their Assigned Allocation Units, Allowances for short). Typically, they will purchase Credits directly from another party with excess allowances, from a broker, from a JI/CDM developer, or on an exchange.

National governments, some of whom may not have devolved responsibility for meeting Kyoto obligations to industry, and that have a net deficit of Allowances, will buy credits for their own account, mainly from JI/CDM developers. These deals are occasionally done directly through a national fund or agency, as in the case of the Dutch government's ERUPT programme, or via collective funds such as the World Bank's Prototype Carbon Fund (PCF). The PCF, for example, represents a consortium of six governments and 17 major utility and energy companies on whose behalf it purchases Credits.

Since Carbon Credits are tradeable instruments with a transparent price, financial investors have started buying them for pure trading purposes. This market is expected to grow substantially, with banks, brokers, funds, arbitrageurs and private traders eventually participating. Emissions Trading PLC, for example, was floated on the London Stock Exchange's AiM market in 2005 with the specific remit of investing in emissions instruments.

Although Kyoto created a framework and a set of rules for a global carbon market, there are in practice several distinct schemes or markets in operation today, with varying degrees of linkages among them.

Kyoto enables a group of several Annex I countries to join together to create a so-called 'bubble', or a cluster of countries that is given an overall emissions cap and is treated as a single entity for compliance purposes. The EU elected to be treated as such a group, and created the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS) as a market-within-a-market. The ETS's currency is an EUA (EU Allowance). The scheme went into operation on 1 January 2005, although a forward market has existed since 2003.

The UK established its own learning-by-doing voluntary scheme, the UK ETS, which ran from 2002 through 2006. This market will exist alongside the EU's scheme, and participants in the UK scheme have the option of applying to opt out of the first phase of the EU ETS, which lasts through 2007.

Next to the unrelated-to-Kyoto EU ETS, the most important sources of Kyoto-related credits are the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) and the Joint Implementation (JI) mechanism. The CDM allows the creation of new Carbon Credits by developing emission reduction projects in Non-Annex I countries, while JI allows project-specific credits to be converted from existing credits in Annex I countries. CDM projects produce Certified Emission Reductions (CERs), and JI projects produce Emission Reduction Units (ERUs). CERs are valid for meeting EU ETS obligations as of now, and ERUs will become similarly valid from 2008 (although individual countries may choose to limit the number and source of CER/JIs they will allow for compliance purposes starting from 2008). CERs/ERUs are overwhelmingly bought from project developers by funds or individual entities, rather than being exchange-traded like EUAs.

Since the creation of these instruments is subject to a lengthy process of registration and certification by the UN, and the projects themselves require several years to develop, this market is at this point almost completely a forward market where purchases are made at a deep discount to their equivalent currency, the EUA, and are almost always subject to certification and delivery (although up-front payments are sometimes made). According to IETA, the market value of CDM/JI credits transacted in 2004 was EUR 245 m; it is estimated that more than EUR 620 m worth of credits were transacted in 2005.

Several non-Kyoto carbon markets are already in existence as well, and these are likely to grow in importance and numbers in the coming years. These include the New South Wales Greenhouse Gas Abatement Scheme, the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative (RGGI) in





## KYOTO PROTOCOL

the United States, the Chicago Climate Exchange, the State of California's recent initiative to reduce emissions, the commitment of hundreds of US mayors to adopt Kyoto targets for their cities, and the State of Oregon's emissions abatement program.

These initiatives, taken together would create a series of linked markets, rather than a single carbon market. The common theme across most of them is the adoption of market-based mechanisms centered on Carbon Credits that represent a reduction of CO2 emissions. The fact that most of these initiatives have similar approaches to certifying their credits makes it conceivable that Carbon Credits in one market may in the long run be tradeable in most other schemes. This would broaden the current carbon market far more than the current focus on the CDM/JI and EU ETS domains. An obvious precondition, however, is a realignment of penalties and fines to similar levels, since these create an effective ceiling for each market.

### REVISIONS

The protocol left several issues open to be decided later by the Conference of Parties (COP). COP6 attempted to resolve these issues at its meeting in the Hague in late 2000, but was unable to reach an agreement due to disputes between the European Union on the one hand (which favoured a tougher agreement) and the United States, Canada, Japan and Australia on the other (which wanted the agreement to be less demanding and more flexible).

In 2001, a continuation of the previous meeting (COP6bis) was held in Bonn where the required decisions were adopted. After some concessions, the supporters of the protocol (led by the European Union) managed to get Japan and Russia in as well by allowing more use of carbon dioxide sinks.

COP7 was held from 29 October 2001 – 9 November 2001 in Marrakech to establish the final details of the protocol.

The first Meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol (MOP1) was held in Montreal from November 28 to December 9, 2005, along with the 11th conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC (COP11). See United Nations Climate Change Conference.

### ENFORCEMENT

If the Enforcement Branch determines that an Annex I country is not in compliance with its emissions limitation, then that country is required to make up the difference plus an additional 30%. In addition, that country will be suspended from making transfers under an emissions trading program.



## CURRENT POSITIONS OF GOVERNMENTS

Carbon emissions from various global regions during the period 1800-2000 AD

### Australia

Because Australia is one of the biggest emitters on a per capita basis (albeit the lowest on a per square kilometre basis due to low overall population density), the country was granted a limitation of an 8% increase. This is because Australia used its relative smallness, and the dependence of Australian electricity generation on coal, as a negotiation tool while other big players were negotiating. The result of the negotiation was reported in the Australian media as being to the country's advantage.

The Australian Prime Minister, John Howard, has declined to ratify the Agreement and has argued that the protocol would cost Australians jobs, due to countries with booming economies and massive populations such as China and India not having any reduction obligations. By way of example, industrial growth within China is expected to increase pollution within 9 months, and even if Australia were to shut down all of its coal fired power stations it would not negate this increase. Further, Mr Howard takes the view that Australia is already doing enough to cut emissions; the Australian government has recently pledged \$300 million over the next three years to reduce Greenhouse gas emissions. In October 2007 it emerged that the Federal Government's Environment Minister Malcolm Turnbull had argued in favour of ratifying the Agreement but that he had failed to convince cabinet. The Federal Opposition, the Australian Labor Party, is in full support of the protocol and ratification is currently a heavily debated issue within the political establishment. The opposition claims ratifying the protocol is a "risk free" prospect as it claims Australia would already be meeting the obligations the protocol would impose. This claim relies heavily on changes to land clearing policies that can only occur once, while ongoing emission sources have all increased substantially.

Analysis has projected Australia's greenhouse gas emissions at 109% of the 1990 emissions level over the period 2008–12. This is slightly above its 108% Kyoto Protocol limitation. As of 2007, the UNFCCC is reporting that Australia's 2004 greenhouse gas emissions were at 125% of 1990 levels. Australia remains committed to meeting its assigned limit despite not ratifying the Protocol.

The Australian government, along with the United States, agreed to sign the Asia Pacific Partnership on Clean Development and Climate at the ASEAN regional forum on 28 July 2005. Furthermore, the Australian state of New South Wales (NSW) commenced The NSW Greenhouse Gas Abatement Scheme (GGAS). This mandatory greenhouse gas emissions trading scheme commenced on 1 January 2003 and is currently being trialed by the state government in NSW alone. Uniquely this scheme allows Accredited Certificate Providers (ACP) to trade emissions from householders in the state. As of 2006 the scheme is still in place despite Prime Minister John Howard's clear dismissal of emissions trading as a credible solution to climate change. Following the example of NSW, the National Emissions Trading Scheme (NETS) has been established as an initiative of State and Territory Governments of Australia, all of which have Labor Party governments. The focus of NETS is to bring into existence an intra-Australian carbon trading scheme and to coordinate policy developments to this end. According to the Constitution of Australia, environmental matters are under the jurisdiction of the States, and the NETS is intended to facilitate ratification of the Kyoto Protocol by the Labor Party if they are elected to government in the 2007 Federal Elections.

Greenpeace have called Clause 3.7 of the Kyoto Protocol the "Australia Clause", as Australia was the major beneficiary. The clause allows for Annex 1 countries with high rates of land clearing in 1990 to consider that year a base level. Greenpeace argues that Australia had extremely high levels of land clearing in 1990, and that this meant that Australia's "baseline" was unusually high compared to other countries.

### Canada

On December 17, 2002, Canada ratified the treaty that came into force in February 2005, requiring it to reduce emissions to 6% below 1990 levels during the 2008-2012 commitment period. At that time, numerous polls showed support for the Kyoto protocol at around 70%. Despite strong public support, there was still some opposition, particularly by the Canadian Alliance, precursor to the governing





## CURRENT POSITIONS OF GOVERNMENTS

Conservative Party, some business groups, and energy concerns, using arguments similar to those being used in the US. In particular, there was a fear that since US companies would not be affected by the Kyoto Protocol that Canadian companies would be at a disadvantage in terms of trade. In 2005, the result was limited to an ongoing "war of words", primarily between the government of Alberta (Canada's primary oil and gas producer) and the federal government. There were even fears that Kyoto could threaten national unity, specifically with regard to Alberta. As of 2003, the federal government claimed to have spent or committed 3.7 billion dollars on climate change programmes. By 2004, CO2 emissions had risen to 27% above 1990 levels (which compares unfavorably to the 16% increase in emissions by the United States during that time.

In January 2006, a Conservative minority government under Stephen Harper was elected, who previously has expressed opposition to Kyoto, and in particular to the plan to participate in international emission trading. Rona Ambrose, who replaced Stéphane Dion as the environment minister, has since endorsed some types of emission trading, and indicated interest in international trading. On April 25, 2006, Ambrose announced that Canada would have no chance of meeting its targets under Kyoto, and would look to participate in U.S. sponsored Asia-Pacific Partnership on Clean Development and Climate. "We've been looking at the Asia-Pacific Partnership for a number of months now because the key principles around [it] are very much in line with where our government wants to go," Ambrose told reporters. On May 2, 2006, it was reported that environmental funding designed to meet the Kyoto standards had been cut, while the Harper government develops a new plan to take its place. As the co-chair of UN Climate Change Conference in Nairobi in November 2006, Canada and its government received criticism from environmental groups and from other governments for its climate change positions.[34] On January 4, 2007, Rona Ambrose moved from environment to become Minister of Intergovernmental Affairs. The Environment portfolio went to John Baird, the former President of the Treasury Board.

Canada's federal government has introduced legislation to set mandatory emissions targets for industry, but it will not take effect until an estimated 2050. The government has since begun working with opposition parties to improve the legislation.

A private member's bill was put forth by Pablo Rodriguez, Liberal, aiming to force the government to "ensure that Canada meets its global climate change obligations under the Kyoto Protocol." With the support of the Liberals, the New Democratic Party and the Bloc Québécois, and with the current minority situation, the bill passed the House of Commons on 14 February 2007 with a vote of 161-113, and is now being considered by the Senate. If passed, the bill would give the government 60 days to form a detailed plan of action. The government has flatly refused to abide by the bill, which may spark a constitutional crisis, lawsuit, or non-confidence motion once the bill becomes law, as is expected.

In May 2007 Friends of the Earth sued the Canadian federal government for failing to meet its Kyoto Protocol obligations to cut greenhouse gas emissions linked to global warming. This was based on a clause in the Canadian Environmental Protection Act that requires Ottawa to "prevent air pollution that violates an international agreement binding on Canada,". Canada's obligation to the treaty begins in 2008.

### People's Republic of China

In 2004 the total greenhouse gas emissions from the People's Republic of China were about 54% of the USA emissions. However, China is now building on average one coal-fired power plant every week, and plans to continue doing so for years. Various predictions see China overtaking the US in total greenhouse emissions between late 2007 and 2010, and according to many other estimates, this already occurred in 2006.

The Chinese government insists that the gas emissions level of any given country is a multiplication of its per capita emission and its population. Because China has emplaced population control measures while maintaining low emissions per capita, it claims it 3.65 tons, which is 87% of the world average and 33 per cent of that of Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development countries.



## CURRENT POSITIONS OF GOVERNMENTS

In June of 2007, China unveiled a 62-page climate change plan and promised to put climate change at the heart of its energy policies but insisted that developed countries had an "unshirkable responsibility" to take the lead on cutting greenhouse gas emissions and that the "common but differentiated responsibility" principle, as agreed up in the UNFCCC should be applied. In response to critics of the nation's energy policy, China responded that those criticisms were unjust.

### European Union

On May 31, 2002, all fifteen then-members of the European Union deposited the relevant ratification paperwork at the UN. The EU produces around 22% of global greenhouse gas emissions, and has agreed to a cut, on average, by 8% from 1990 emission levels. On 10 January 2007, the European Commission announced plans for a European Union energy policy that included a unilateral 20% reduction in GHG emissions by 2020. The EU has consistently been one of the major nominal supporters of the Kyoto Protocol, negotiating hard to get wavering countries on board.

In December 2002, the EU created an emissions trading system in an effort to meet these tough targets. Quotas were introduced in six key industries: energy, steel, cement, glass, brick making, and paper/cardboard. There are also fines for member nations that fail to meet their obligations, starting at €40/ton of carbon dioxide in 2005, and rising to €100/ton in 2008. Current EU projections suggest that by 2008 the EU will be at 4.7% below 1990 levels.

Transport CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the EU grew by 32% between 1990 and 2004. The share of transport in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions was 21% in 1990, but by 2004 this had grown to 28%.

The position of the EU is not without controversy in Protocol negotiations, however. One criticism is that, rather than reducing 8%, all the EU member countries should cut 15% as the EU insisted a uniform target of 15% for other developed countries during the negotiation while allowing itself to share a big reduction in the former East Germany to meet the 15% goal for the entire EU. Also, emission levels of former Warsaw Pact countries who now are members of the EU have already been reduced as a result of their economic restructuring. This may mean that the region's 1990 baseline level is inflated compared to that of other developed countries, thus giving European economies a potential competitive advantage over the U.S.

Both the EU (as the European Community) and its member states are signatories to the Kyoto treaty.

### Germany

Germany has reduced greenhouse gas emissions by 17.2% between 1990 and 2004.[52] On June 28, 2006, the German government announced it would exempt its coal industry from requirements under the EU internal emission trading system. Claudia Kemfert, an energy professor at the German Institute for Economic Research in Berlin said, "For all its support for a clean environment and the Kyoto Protocol, the cabinet decision is very disappointing. The energy lobbies have played a big role in this decision."

### United Kingdom

The energy policy of the United Kingdom fully endorses goals for carbon dioxide emissions reduction and has committed to proportionate reduction in national emissions on a phased basis. The United Kingdom is a signatory to the Kyoto Protocol.

On March 13, 2007, a draft Climate Change Bill was published after cross-party pressure over several years, led by environmental groups. Informed by the Energy White Paper 2003, The Bill aims to put in place a framework to achieve a mandatory 60% cut in the UK's carbon emissions by 2050 (compared to 1990 levels), with an intermediate target of between 26% and 32% by 2020. If approved, the United Kingdom is likely to become the first country to set such a long-range and significant carbon reduction target into law.



## CURRENT POSITIONS OF GOVERNMENTS

The UK currently appears on course to meet its Kyoto limitation for the basket of greenhouse gases, assuming the Government is able to curb rising carbon dioxide emissions between now (2007) and the period 2008-2012. Although the UK's overall greenhouse gas emissions have fallen, annual net carbon dioxide emissions have risen by around 2% since Tony Blair's Labour Party came to power in 1997. As a result it now seems highly unlikely that the Government will be able to honour its manifesto pledge to cut carbon dioxide emissions by 20% from 1990 levels by the year 2010, unless immediate and drastic action is taken under after the passing of the Climate Change Bill.

### France

In 1990, France shut down its last coal mine, and now gets 80% of its electricity from nuclear power and therefore has relatively low CO2 emissions.

### India

Among the major world economies, India's economy is the least energy intensive. India signed and ratified the Protocol in August, 2002. Since India is exempted from the framework of the treaty, it is expected to gain from the protocol in terms of transfer of technology and related foreign investments. At the G-8 meeting in June 2005, Indian Prime Minister Manmohan Singh pointed out that the per-capita emission rates of the developing countries are a tiny fraction of those in the developed world. Following the principle of common but differentiated responsibility, India maintains that the major responsibility of curbing emission rests with the developed countries, which have accumulated emissions over a long period of time.

### Russia

Vladimir Putin approved the treaty on November 4, 2004 and Russia officially notified the United Nations of its ratification on November 18, 2004. The issue of Russian ratification was particularly closely watched in the international community, as the accord was brought into force 90 days after Russian ratification (February 16, 2005).

President Putin had earlier decided in favour of the protocol in September 2004, along with the Russian cabinet, against the opinion of the Russian Academy of Sciences, of the Ministry for Industry and Energy and of the then president's economic adviser, Andrey Illarionov, and in exchange to EU's support for Russia's admission in the WTO. As anticipated after this, ratification by the lower (22 October 2004) and upper house of parliament did not encounter any obstacles.

The Kyoto Protocol limits emissions to a percentage increase or decrease from their 1990 levels. Since 1990 the economies of most countries in the former Soviet Union have collapsed, as have their greenhouse gas emissions. Because of this, Russia should have no problem meeting its commitments under Kyoto, as its current emission levels are substantially below its limitations.

It is debatable whether Russia will benefit from selling emissions credits to other countries in the Kyoto Protocol.

### United States

The United States (U.S.), although a signatory to the Kyoto Protocol, has neither ratified nor withdrawn from the Protocol. The signature alone is symbolic, as the Kyoto Protocol is non-binding on the United States unless ratified. The United States was, as of 2005, the largest single emitter of carbon dioxide from the burning of fossil fuels. China was projected to take over at the top of the table by late 2007, however one study now concludes this has already occurred.

On July 25, 1997, before the Kyoto Protocol was finalized (although it had been fully negotiated, and a penultimate draft was finished),





## CURRENT POSITIONS OF GOVERNMENTS

the U.S. Senate unanimously passed by a 95–0 vote the Byrd-Hagel Resolution (S. Res. 98), which stated the sense of the Senate was that the United States should not be a signatory to any protocol that did not include binding targets and timetables for developing as well as industrialized nations or "would result in serious harm to the economy of the United States". On November 12, 1998, Vice President Al Gore symbolically signed the protocol. Both Gore and Senator Joseph Lieberman indicated that the protocol would not be acted upon in the Senate until there was participation by the developing nations. The Clinton Administration never submitted the protocol to the Senate for ratification.

The Clinton Administration released an economic analysis in July 1998, prepared by the Council of Economic Advisors, which concluded that with emissions trading among the Annex B/Annex I countries, and participation of key developing countries in the "Clean Development Mechanism" — which grants the latter business-as-usual emissions rates through 2012 — the costs of implementing the Kyoto Protocol could be reduced as much as 60% from many estimates. Other economic analyses, however, prepared by the Congressional Budget Office and the Department of Energy. Energy Information Administration (EIA), demonstrated a potentially large loss to GDP from implementing the Protocol of up to 4.2% (EIA).

The current President, George W. Bush, has indicated that he does not intend to submit the treaty for ratification, not because he does not support the Kyoto principles, but because of the exemption granted to China (the world's second largest emitter of carbon dioxide. Bush also opposes the treaty because of the strain he believes the treaty would put on the economy; he emphasizes the uncertainties which are present in the climate change issue. Furthermore, the U.S. is concerned with broader exemptions of the treaty. For example, the U.S. does not support the split between Annex I countries and others. Bush said of the treaty:

This is a challenge that requires a 100% effort; ours, and the rest of the world's. The world's second-largest emitter of greenhouse gases is the People's Republic of China. Yet, China was entirely exempted from the requirements of the Kyoto Protocol. India and Germany are among the top emitters. Yet, India was also exempt from Kyoto . . . America's unwillingness to embrace a flawed treaty should not be read by our friends and allies as any abdication of responsibility. To the contrary, my administration is committed to a leadership role on the issue of climate change . . . Our approach must be consistent with the long-term goal of stabilizing greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere."

In keeping with its refusal to submit the protocol to Congress for ratification, the Bush Administration has taken no specific actions towards mitigation of climate change. In June 2002, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) released the "Climate Action Report 2002". Some observers have interpreted this report as being supportive of the protocol, although the report itself does not explicitly endorse the protocol. At the G-8 meeting in June 2005 administration officials expressed a desire for "practical commitments industrialized countries can meet without damaging their economies". According to those same officials, the United States is on track to fulfill its pledge to reduce its carbon intensity 18% by 2012. The United States has signed the Asia Pacific Partnership on Clean Development and Climate, a pact that allows those countries to set their goals for reducing greenhouse gas emissions individually, but with no enforcement mechanism. Supporters of the pact see it as complementing the Kyoto Protocol while being more flexible, but critics have said the pact will be ineffective without any enforcement measures.

In September 2006 the journal Nature reported that the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration had blocked an internal report which concluded that global warming caused by greenhouse gas emissions may be contributing to the frequency and strength of hurricanes.

The Administration's position is not uniformly accepted in the U.S. For example, Paul Krugman notes that the target 18% reduction in carbon intensity is still actually an increase in overall emissions. The White House has also come under criticism for downplaying reports that link human activity and greenhouse gas emissions to climate change and that a White House official, former oil industry advocate and current ExxonMobile officer, Philip Cooney, watered down descriptions of climate research that had already been approved by government scientists, charges the White House denies. Critics point to the administration's close ties to the oil and gas industries. In





## CURRENT POSITIONS OF GOVERNMENTS

June 2005, State Department papers showed the administration thanking Exxon executives for the company's "active involvement" in helping to determine climate change policy, including the U.S. stance on Kyoto. Input from the business lobby group Global Climate Coalition was also a factor.

In 2002, Congressional researchers who examined the legal status of the Protocol advised that signature of the UNFCCC imposes an obligation to refrain from undermining the Protocol's object and purpose, and that while the President probably cannot implement the Protocol alone; Congress can create compatible laws on its own initiative.

### Support

Advocates of the Kyoto Protocol state that reducing these emissions is crucially important, as carbon dioxide is causing the earth's atmosphere to heat up. This is supported by attribution analysis.

No country has passed national legislation requiring compliance with their treaty obligation. The governments of all of the countries whose parliaments have ratified the Protocol are supporting it. Most prominent among advocates of Kyoto have been the European Union and many environmentalist organizations. The United Nations and some individual nations' scientific advisory bodies (including the G8 national science academies) have also issued reports favoring the Kyoto Protocol.

An international day of action was planned for 3 December 2005, to coincide with the Meeting of the Parties in Montreal. The planned demonstrations were endorsed by the Assembly of Movements of the World Social Forum.

A group of major Canadian corporations also called for urgent action regarding climate change, and have suggested that Kyoto is only a first step.

In the United States, there is at least one student group, Kyoto Now!, which aims to use student interest to support pressure towards reducing emissions as targeted by the Kyoto Protocol compliance.

### Opposition

Some public policy experts who are skeptical of global warming see Kyoto as a scheme to either slow the growth of the world's industrial democracies or to transfer wealth to the third world in what they claim is a global socialism initiative. Others argue the protocol does not go far enough to curb greenhouse emissions (Niue, The Cook Islands, and Nauru added notes to this effect when signing the protocol).

Some environmental economists have been critical of the Kyoto Protocol. Many see the costs of the Kyoto Protocol as outweighing the benefits, some believing the standards which Kyoto sets to be too optimistic, others seeing a highly inequitable and inefficient agreement which would do little to curb greenhouse gas emissions.[82][83] It should be noted, however, that this opposition is not unanimous, and that the inclusion of emissions trading has led some environmental economists to embrace the treaty.

Further, there is controversy surrounding the use of 1990 as a base year, as well as not using per capita emissions as a basis.

Countries had different achievements in energy efficiency in 1990. For example, the former Soviet Union and eastern European countries did little to tackle the problem and their energy efficiency was at its worst level in 1990; the year just before their communist regimes fell. On the other hand, Japan, as a big importer of natural resources, had to improve its efficiency after the 1973 oil crisis and its emissions level in 1990 was better than most developed countries. However, such efforts were set aside, and the inactivity of the former Soviet Union was overlooked and could even generate big income due to the emission trade. There is an argument that the use of per capita emissions as a basis in the following Kyoto-type treaties can reduce the sense of inequality among developed and developing countries alike, as it can reveal inactivities and responsibilities among countries.





## RECENT DEVELOPMENTS : PRESS REPORT

The UN Climate Change Conference in Copenhagen, Denmark, did not go as expected. It became clear a week before it ended on December 18 that a new global agreement to combat climate change beyond 2012, when the Kyoto Protocol expires, will not be signed. Failure to make a definitive diagnosis and prescribe measures to rectify global climate change, although not a problem for the present generation, may spell tragedy for those who will live in the 22nd century.

The Copenhagen conference was nothing more than a lively seminar on the subject, which is also good, because the international community has admitted that the air is a common heritage and must be clean everywhere, and that when the air is sweet in Switzerland but not in Romania, this is not entirely Romania's problem.

Other such meetings should follow the Copenhagen conference (COP15), which is expected to adopt a political declaration or a joint statement on Friday. Another conference may be held in six to twelve months to adopt specific commitments to cut CO2 emissions formulated in accordance with international law.

This is the most the world could expect from COP15. However, expectations were fanned to an incredible height during the two years before the conference in Copenhagen. UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon even warned that failure in Copenhagen would have a "potentially catastrophic consequence."

Against this backdrop, the events that happened in the Danish capital between December 7 and 18 were a complete disappointment. No agreement was signed, the CO2 country ceilings were not approved, allocations approved for the emerging nations are only 25% of what they need, China and India refused to make any practical commitments, and the pledge made by the United States should make this year's Nobel Peace Prize winner feel ashamed.

The South has again quarreled with the North, and China and India are furious because they are said to bear equal responsibility for the world's miner's lung disease with the United States and the European Union.

In fact, the conference participants have only agreed that the planet's temperature must not be allowed to rise by more than 2 degrees Celsius by 2050, and decided to set up an international fund to decrease deforestation, to which Britain, Norway, the U.S., Japan, France and Australia pledged to allocate \$3.5 billion in 2010.

In the past 50 years, the area of the planet's arable land and tropical and rain forests has decreased 30%. Scientists say that deforestation is the third largest source of greenhouse gas emissions, generating 15%-20% of overall carbon emissions. If left intact, these forests could absorb such emissions.

The international community has never before aspired for a change on such a biblical scale, and it is not clear if it is ready for it. To attain this goal, the world should overhaul its economic traditions and convince billions of energy users, who are also taxpayers, to stop wasting energy. Any politician who dares to do this may face political suicide, which makes the choice especially difficult.

This is why all presidents and prime ministers from industrialized countries made only such promises in Copenhagen as would not damage their careers or health. Strangely, many people expected a miracle from U.S. President Barack Obama.

However, Obama's promise to cut his country's CO2 emissions by 17% by 2020 is unrealistic, because the United States takes the 2005 level of emissions as the point of departure. However, its cuts will be only 4% compared to 1990, the starting point accepted in the EU, which has promised to cut its CO2 emissions by 20% and possibly even 30% if the emerging nations, the U.S., China and India make commensurate pledges. Japan and Russia have also promised to cut their greenhouse gas emissions by 25%.

The problem is that from 1990 to 2005 the United States increased its CO2 emissions by 18%.





## RECENT DEVELOPMENTS : PRESS REPORT

The United States has not become a different country with the election of Obama. Americans have always been rather skeptical about the Old World's proposals. Only 45% of them think that the problem of global warming needs emergency measures, which is 23% less than the average in Europe. And another 43% of Americans think the problem is grossly exaggerated. Obama will have to take this into account if he has re-election plans.

Russia has benefited the most from the 1997 Kyoto Protocol and also stands to benefit the most from a Copenhagen deal. Russia and Ukraine could not use all the emission quotas set for them in the Kyoto Protocol because their industries were at the disintegration point. Russia was even allowed to sell unused quotas to the countries that have exceeded their quotas, and would like this provision to be sealed in a new deal that may replace the Kyoto Protocol.

Russia may increase its CO2 emissions by 30%, and Ukraine by 50%, by 2020, or sell the unused quotas. If it sells all of them, the global emissions will rise 15%.





## POSITION PAPERS - RESOLUTIONS - AMENDMENTS

### POSITION PAPERS

Once you have completed your preliminary research, you are ready to write your position paper MUNA requires delegates to write one single-spaced page paper for each topic area.

Each position paper has three basic parts: your country's national interests, your country's national policies, and your opinion on potential resolution components.

National interests are what a country would like to see happen in the world (e.g. Cameroon, a lesser developed country troubled by terrorism, wants to reduce the incidence of terrorism to stabilize its government). These interests are not subject to compromise; they are generally idealized goals or methods of solving specific problems.

National policies are the country's attempts to secure its interests (e.g. Cameroon, in an effort to combat terrorism, has sought to enter into new extradition treaties). These policy positions are usually open to negotiation.

Your opinions on potential resolution components are your responses to the "Proposed Solutions" and "Questions A Resolution Must Answer" sections of the Study Guide. But keep in mind that although these sections provide flexibility, you need to keep in mind the interests of your nation.

They must be consistent with your country's national interests and current national policies (e.g. Cameroon feels that any resolution on the prevention of terrorism must assign to the injured state the right to try the terrorists. In addition, Cameroon would not be averse to the establishment of an international information network on terrorism.

Cameroon, however, will not support any resolution that allows terrorist acts to be protected from extradition under the political offense exception doctrine).

Writing Position Papers benefits you in many ways. The staff and delegates read the Position Papers and summaries in order to gauge what the committee will be like and to see which delegates have done a good job preparing for the conference. You also have a chance to find out who is likely to support your ideas. Most importantly, writing a Position Paper makes you think about the information you have researched and helps you to express ideas concisely and clearly, making you better prepared for the conference.

### HOW TO WRITE A POSITION PAPER

The structuring of the Position Papers is intended to elicit responses from the delegates that provide a clear picture of a nation's stance on a particular topic area. By providing an outline of a Position Paper, we hope that delegates will be able to illustrate clear knowledge of their country's policies and interests instead of simply regurgitating parts of the Study Guide. However, all delegates should also read the section on Position Papers in their study guides and heed their director's specific instructions.

A Position Paper should include three sections, outlined below:

A. Background of the Topic

In your country's opinion, what are the main elements of the problem?  
What are the roots of those elements?

B. Position taken by your delegation

What are your national interests in the situation?  
What are your nation's policies on the topic?  
What steps would you like to see taken to deal with the problem?





## POSITION PAPERS - RESOLUTIONS - AMENDMENTS

### C. Justification

- What are your main reasons for supporting these positions?
- What do you predict will be the main opposition to your proposals?

Position Papers should roughly adhere to the following form, with the Country, the Committee, and the Topic included at the top. Please limit size to one single-spaced typed page.

### SAMPLE POSITION PAPER

Committee: Disarmament and International Security

Topic: Nuclear Test Ban

Country: The Republic of Sierra Leone

School: High School Academy

A. The nuclear test ban issue has been the first item on the agenda of the Conference on Disarmament since 1978 with good reason. In 1963, the United States, the United Kingdom, and the USSR entered into the Partial Test Ban Treaty (PTBT), which prohibited testing in the atmosphere and underwater. In 1974, the United States and the USSR entered into the Threshold Test Ban Treaty (TTBT) which placed an upper limit of 150 kilotons on nuclear tests.

The next logical step, a comprehensive test ban treaty (CTBT), has been long overdue. Nuclear weapon testing allows the arms race to continue and even escalate. The implementation of a test ban would slow down the development of new nuclear weapons and thereby slow down the arms race. Furthermore, a CTBT would not, as some states have claimed, threaten the stability of the policy of nuclear deterrence, on which both superpowers rely. In fact, a CTBT would maintain stability by preventing innovations and developments which could potentially give one nuclear state a unilateral advantage. Moreover, the increasing use of supercomputers has essentially eliminated the need for actual testing.

B. The Republic of Sierra Leone believes disarmament to be crucial for the maintenance of worldwide security and considers a nuclear test ban to be an important step in the process of reaching that goal. Sierra Leone is not a nuclear power nor does it aid other countries in producing nuclear weapons.

Our policy in the past has been to work diligently toward a Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty. We wish to accomplish this goal through negotiation in the Conference on Disarmament. In accordance with this policy, the Resolution 485 banning nuclear testing in Africa and Resolution 781 banning nuclear testing in Southeast Asia received whole hearted support from Sierra Leone.

Furthermore, our government received glowing reports from the international press for our stance on the issue. The African Journal wrote that "To maintain the fundamental principles of Africa, the UN needs more nations like Sierra Leone" (Volume 48, 1993, pp. 12).

C. The Republic of Sierra Leone supports the following proposals for a nuclear test ban treaty:

The treaty must be a comprehensive and permanent one. Although Japan's proposal to have a progressive lowering of the threshold limit until it reached zero is an interesting idea, not only does this legitimize nuclear weapon testing, it also delays a true resolution of the problem. In addition, it gives the nuclear states a greater opportunity to escape their obligations through inevitable loopholes in the treaty.

Although peaceful nuclear explosions could potentially bring about beneficial results, the nearly insurmountable difficulty in differentiating between nuclear tests for weapons and nuclear tests for peaceful purposes makes such a distinction infeasible. The proposal that a state must provide the Secretary-General with all relevant data about the planned explosion is laudable, yet proper assurance of the peaceful nature of a test would require a degree of monitoring to which most nuclear states would not agree.

States can rely not only on all national means of verification which are consistent with international law, but also an international verification system. Current seismic monitoring systems, such as the Norwegian Seismic Array (NORSAR), are sufficiently advanced to determine whether states are complying with a CTBT. In addition, the 1984 experiment involving the World Meteorological Organization/Global Telecommunications System (WMO/GTS) illustrates the viability of an international seismic network. As per the Ad Hoc Group's report, Sierra Leone is in favor of an international network of seismic monitoring stations which would send their data to International Data Centers (IDCs) for analysis. These IDCs would automatically give out type I data (basic information) with type II data



## POSITION PAPERS - RESOLUTIONS - AMENDMENTS

(data subjected to more advanced analysis) available upon request. Of course, even after the conclusion of a CTBT, there should be further research into the development of even more sensitive and accurate seismic monitoring equipment and analysis techniques. If the test ban treaty involved the gradual reduction of the threshold limit, then that limit should reflect current seismic monitoring technology. In addition, on-site inspections should be allowed.

Regarding compliance, a test ban treaty is of such paramount importance that violators should be punished.

Yet the fact remains that embargoes would most likely have little if any effect on most nuclear states. Perhaps compliance measures will eventually rely on first convincing the superpowers, and any other nuclear states, to enter into a CTBT and then getting the superpowers themselves to ensure that their allies abide by the treaty.

### RESOLUTIONS

Your solutions to the problems that the committee confronts take the form of a resolution. Resolutions represent the committee's final attempt to draw together the interests of many competing nations into a comprehensive solution which serves the interests of the collective world community. From the procedural perspective, the resolution is the formal document upon which the committee will take action via the amendment and voting processes.

A resolution is a complex document that follows a strict format (see sample resolution) and reflects the negotiation, debate, and innovative proposals which the committee has produced. Before a resolution can be formally introduced into a committee, it must receive the approval of the Director. The Director will sign a resolution if it demonstrates an adequate understanding of the issue, answers the questions posed in the Study Guide, and has a wide base of support. A well-written resolution exhibits:

Familiarity with the problem. Relevant background information and previous UN actions should be referenced. In addition, a good resolution should keep in mind the actual power and influence of the committee. Consensus is also important because, although in the UN everyone is on equal footing with one vote each, the real world is marked by asymmetrical power. An ambiguous, unenforceable resolution is useless.

Recognition of the issues. At the very least, the Resolution should answer the questions and the problems highlighted which includes

- 1) Climate Change impact of human development
- 2) Developed countries to be blamed more than developing countries.
- 3) Technological development boon or bane for climate change
- 4) Kyoto Protocol – real achievements or empty legislation.
- 5) Global Warming or Global Warming
- 6) Alternative sources of energy impact on countries economic progress
- 7) Copenhagen Summit – future of climate change

Resolution is expected to be concrete, clear, implementable and acceptable to all parties involved in the conflict.

Conciseness. Every clause and phrase has a purpose. Rarely is a resolution longer than 2 or 3 pages in length.

Good form. An otherwise sound resolution may suffer from clumsy grammar or sloppy format.

Of course, compromise for resolutions is not always possible, as delegates must also protect their national interests. Thus, every MUNA resolution passed does not have to be based entirely on compromise and consensus. Such a demand would ignore the essential national interests of the member nations of the UN. Compromise is not an end in itself, and neither is "the compromise resolution."

Delegates should never feel forced to unduly compromise their national interests for the sake of consensus.

## POSITION PAPERS - RESOLUTIONS - AMENDMENTS

### AMENDMENTS

Because not everything can be worked out ahead of time, it is expected that amendments to resolutions will be presented on the floor. The amendment process allows delegates to alter parts of a resolution without scrapping the entire document, strengthening consensus on the resolution by allowing delegates to change sections upon which they disagree. However, delegates must be aware of the direction in which the amendments are steering the committee. If the amendments are not substantive, they merely bog the committee down in procedure. Procedure is important for amending resolutions particularly because there are no friendly amendments at MUNA; it is not possible for a resolution to be changed after it has been amended without a vote.

#### Reaching a Decision

Once debate on a resolution has been closed, voting procedure is fairly standard. There is no turning back once debate has been closed; the committee moves directly into voting procedure. The voting itself, however, can then be altered by moving for a roll call vote or division of the question.

By adopting a resolution, the committee has agreed by a majority vote that the resolution is the best possible solution to the current problem. Discussion of the second topic area begins once a resolution on the first topic has been passed or the committee has moved to close debate on the topic after a proposed resolution has failed. Some committees never make it to the second topic area, which is perfectly fine if the quality of debate is excellent. The goal and philosophy is focused on the quality of debate and dedicated work in the committee.

After having compiled extensive research on the topic areas and an understanding of your country's stance on the issue, you are now ready to try to solve the problem while keeping your national interests in mind. But you may be unsure of how the actual committee will run. Because the United Nations strives to include every member of the international community, its membership is very large. As a result, debate must follow an organized procedure to be productive. MUNA strives to simulate that process and has adopted a series of rules with which to conduct debate.

### GUIDE TO RESOLUTIONS

#### Heading

1) The title should be centered, in capital letters, above the main body of the resolution. The title can be as simple as "DRAFT RESOLUTION."

2) On the left margin and two lines below the heading should be:

The committee name

The topic addressed by the resolution

NOTE: There are no sponsors of a resolution.

#### Body

The resolution is written in the format of a long sentence. Just as grammatical rules make a language more uniform in its usage, so is the resolution in its format.

1) The resolution begins with The General Assembly for all GA committees, and with The Economic and Social Council for all ECOSOC committees. The Specialized Agencies use their own names as the introductory line. The rest of the resolution consists of clauses with the first word of each clause underlined.

2) The next section, consisting of Preambulatory Clauses, describes the problem being addressed, recalls past actions taken, explains the purpose of the resolution, and offers support for the operative clauses that follow. Each clause in the preamble begins with an underlined word and ends with a comma.

## POSITION PAPERS - RESOLUTIONS - AMENDMENTS

3) Operative Clauses are numbered and state the action to be taken by the body. These clauses all begin with present tense, active verbs, which are generally stronger words than those used in the Preamble. Each operative clause is followed by a semicolon except the last, which ends with a period.

### Resolution Introductory Phrases

The following tables indicate phrases that are suitable for beginning preambulatory and operative clauses:

#### Preambulatory Phrases

Affirming  
Alarmed by  
Approving  
Aware of

Believing  
Bearing in mind

Cognizant of  
Confident  
Contemplating  
Convinced

Declaring  
Deeply concerned  
Deeply conscious  
Deeply convinced  
Deeply disturbed  
Deeply regretting  
Desiring

Emphasizing  
Expecting  
Expressing its appreciation  
Expressing its satisfaction

Fulfilling  
Fully aware  
Fully alarmed  
Fully believing  
Further deploring  
Further recalling

Guided by

Having adopted  
Having considered  
Having considered further  
Having devoted attention  
Having examined  
Having heard  
Having received  
Having studied

Keeping in mind

Noting further  
Noting with regret  
Noting with satisfaction  
Noting with deep concern  
Noting further  
Noting with approval

Observing

Realizing  
Reaffirming  
Recalling  
Recognizing  
Referring

Seeking

Taking into account  
Taking note

Viewing with appreciation

Welcoming

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### Operative Phrases

Accepts  
Affirms  
Approves  
Authorizes

Calls for  
Calls upon  
Condemns  
Congratulates  
Confirms  
Considers

Declares accordingly  
Deplores  
Draws attention  
Designates

Emphasizes  
Encourages  
Endorses  
Expresses its appreciation  
Expresses its hope

Further invites  
Further proclaims  
Further remind  
Further recommends  
Further requests  
Further resolves

Has resolved

Notes

Proclaims

Reaffirms  
Recommends  
Reminds  
Regrets  
Requests  
Resolves

Solemnly affirms  
Strongly condemns  
Supports

Takes note of  
Trusts

Urges

### DRAFT RESOLUTION

Commission on Information Regulation

International News flow Imbalance

The Economic and Social Council,

Recalling its Resolution A/36/89 of 16 December 1981, "The Declaration on Fundamental Principles Concerning the Contribution of the Mass Media to Strengthening Peace and International Understanding,"

Recalling also Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, "Everyone has the right to...receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers,"

Recognizing that the problem of newsflow imbalance is that two-way information among countries of a region is either non-existent or insufficient and information exchanged between regions of the world is inadequate,

Realizing the need for all Sovereign Nations to maintain their integrity and still play an active role in the international system,

1) Recommends that a three-level information interchange system be established on the National, Regional, and International levels to ameliorate the current problems of newsflow imbalance. The three-level system is to operate as follows:

a) Each region's member nations will report their national information and receive the information of other nations in their region from the regional level of this interchange system;

b) Nations will decide the character of the newsflow media best suited to the need of their sovereign territory, be this printed, audio, or audiovisual;

c) Regional News Gathering Agencies will serve to gather information from the nations in their region, and these boards will have no editorial discretion and will serve to forward all information to the International Board;

d) Each regional agency will be composed of representatives from every member nation of the nation of the region;

e) The primary function of the International Board will be to translate information accumulated from the regional news gathering agencies;

f) The secondary purpose will be to transmit all information gathered back to the member nations via the regional news gathering agencies;

g) In order to expedite the transfer of information from the international to regional level the international board will utilize a UN frequency on an EEC (European Economic Community) satellite;



## POSITION PAPERS - RESOLUTIONS - AMMENDMENTS

2) Proposes that the following be designated as regional areas:

- a) Africa;
- b) Middle East;
- c) Asia and the Pacific;
- d) Latin America;
- e) Eastern Europe;
- f) Western Europe and North America;

3) Urges the establishment of the University of International Communications, Whose main branch will be in Geneva, Switzerland with additional branches located in each of the aforementioned regions, with the following aims:

- a) The University and branches will be established with the express purpose of bringing together world views and facilitating the transfer of technology;
  - b) All member nations of the United Nations will be equally represented at the University;
  - c) Incentives will be offered to students of journalism and communications at the University to return to their countries to teach upon completion of instruction;
  - d) The instructors of the regional education centers will be comprised of a multi-partisan coalition of educators from throughout the world;
  - e) The number of students admitted to the University will be contingent upon the amount of funding provided by the United Nations;
- 4) Calls for the continued use of funds from the International Program for the Development of Communications, Special Account, UNESCO, the UN Development Program, and other sources of funding including national governments and private donors;
- 5) Recommends that the distribution of funds be decided by the IPDC.



## THE ART OF COMMUNICATION

Oftentimes the most serious obstacle to a committee's progress is not some irreconcilable ideological difference, but simply a failure on the part of the delegates to listen to and understand one another. This section is designed to help you better utilize your opportunities for communication to effectively debate the issues at HMUN. The skills you learn from this may help you become a better speaker and debater.

### Using the Speakers List

During formal debate, the order in which delegates make their speeches is dictated by their order on the Speakers List (to which names are added as soon as they are submitted). Therefore, especially on large General Assembly committees, it is important to get on the Speakers List right from the start and then as often as you can. Since you can only be on the Speakers List once at any given time, you should resubmit your name as soon as you finish speaking to maximize speaking opportunities. Don't worry about not knowing what you will say next time; by the time your turn finally comes around there will be plenty of issues that you will want to talk about. You can also attempt to increase the number of times you can address the committee by asking other delegates to yield time to you.

### Speech Preparation and Content

When you are planning your upcoming speech, you need not write it out word for word. A written speech takes much time to prepare and may lack enthusiasm or spontaneity. You may prefer to outline your points and perhaps jot down a few key phrases. Pay attention to the previous few speeches: their content may prompt you to change what you were planning to say. Also, by referring back to previous speeches you make it far clearer how your position relates to other delegates' positions. You have a wide range of choices for the substantive content of your speech. You can introduce new ideas, elaborate on old ones, support and defend allied positions, attack opposing positions, or do any combination of the above. Keep in mind, however, that the content of your speech should be a balance between what you want to say and what the committee is currently discussing.

### Delivery

The key to a successful speech is a strong and effective presentation of your ideas. We are all a little nervous when we engage in public speaking, but you should not worry because all of the other delegates will be just as nervous as you are. Each time you rise to speak, you will be more confident about it; the sooner you begin speaking, the sooner you will feel comfortable in front of the committee. In terms of style, it is especially important that in your first few speeches you try to give the impression of confidence: confidence in your preparation, confidence in your ideas, and confidence in your ability to communicate. Remember that the point is to get your ideas across; you know what you want to say, so relax and concentrate on making your views clear.

### Yields

There are three different types of yields (Rule 22) you can make. Please remember, though, that yields only apply to substantive speeches, that there is only one yield per speech, and yielding then precludes any comments.

**To questions:** With this yield, the Moderator selects delegates who wish to ask you questions. Each delegate is allowed one question, and only your answer time is subtracted from your remaining time. Often the best kind of yield that you can make, yielding to questions lets you clear up any misconceptions that delegates may have. Unfortunately, many delegates decide not to yield to questions for fear of opening themselves to attack from opposing delegates. What these delegates fail to realize is that the rules give you the advantage in any such exchange; the questioner cannot engage in a dialogue with you, he or she can only ask a single question. How you choose to respond is up to you. However you respond, be sure to answer confidently. If you are asking a question, try to be as specific as possible; the narrower your question is, the more obvious any attempt to dodge it will be.

**To a delegate:** When you yield to another delegate, he/she is given your remaining time to speak. You usually opt for this yield when an ally knows a particular idea especially well and would be better able to express it. Besides its substantive value, yielding to another delegate has a psychological value. It strengthens the relationship between you and the delegate to whom you are yielding time, diversifies your speech, and fosters the image of you as a team player.



## THE ART OF COMMUNICATION

To the Chair: After you make this yield, the Chair proceeds to the next speaker, unless there are any motions. The only purpose of this yield is to prevent delegates from commenting on your speech. Yielding to the chair may give the impression that you are trying to hide something, that you do not want your speech to come under too close a scrutiny. Yields to either questions or to another delegate attain the same goal of avoiding comments, but without creating a negative image.

### Comments

If a delegate's speech is substantive and involves no yields, then comments are allowed. These 30-second critiques provide the timeliness of questions with the latitude of a substantive speech. The only restriction is that the comment must pertain directly to the content of the preceding speech. This is important to remember when a delegate is commenting on your speech; if he or she is not only challenging your ideas, but also introducing his or her own, call a Point of Order immediately.

### Caucus

While formal debate is a time for communication, caucus is a time for negotiation. The Rules of Parliamentary Procedure are not in effect and delegates are free to talk amongst themselves on any subject. Usually, after a motion to caucus is passed, the committee divides itself along regional and political lines into blocs. Each bloc then meets in different areas and discusses the topic at hand. Just as in formal debate, it is important to get involved in caucusing. It is always tough to make the first move, but after the initial awkwardness, you will start to feel more comfortable during the discussions.

### How and When to Move to Caucus

A motion to caucus, since it is a non-debatable procedural motion, takes precedence over all other motions except for Parliamentary Points. When you motion for a caucus, the moderator will ask you for how long and for what purpose you want to caucus. If you feel that discussion among delegates outside of formal debate is necessary, then move to caucus. Generally, delegates will call for a caucus to accomplish one of the following specific goals:

- Review ideas: One of the first things you should do in caucus is meet with your allies and review what was said, deciding which new ideas were acceptable and which were not. Encourage delegates in your caucusing session to put forth any new ideas they have. Also, you should analyze the response of the rest of the committee to the ideas brought up by you and your allies.

- Establish a consensus: Try to establish a consensus on the major points as soon as you can. Do not expect to hammer out all the little differences, as that will take a while. Just reach an agreement on the fundamentals so that your bloc can present a unified front to the committee during the next formal debate session.

- Contact other people: Besides talking to delegates in your own bloc, it is a good idea to talk to delegates in other blocs. Try to get some rough idea as to the positions of the other blocs and see which delegates are potential allies and which will be your opposition.

In addition, you should talk to the ADs and let them know your ideas and how negotiations are proceeding. Finally, you should begin thinking about forming strong coalitions.

Most probably, the initial caucusing blocs you will break into will be based on geographic lines. Such divisions, though, are simplifications and should serve only as a starting point.

Regardless of any suggested divisions, simplified or actual, you are, of course, free to caucus with any delegates you choose. In fact, after several caucuses, you will find blocs dividing and recombining in new ways, depending on both personalities and goals.



## THE ART OF COMMUNICATION

### Moderated Caucus

Compared to the strict parliamentary order of formal debate, caucus may appear to be (and often is) disorganized and hectic. A strong delegate, however, can moderate and direct his or her bloc's discussions, making them more productive. A good bloc leader is someone who encourages all the members of his bloc to participate and who makes sure that during each caucus session, a definite amount of progress is made. Remember, however, such moderating must be done with a light touch.

If it proves impossible to conduct productive caucuses, consider asking the Moderator to give you some help. One successful format for a moderated caucus divides the delegates pro and con on a particular issue and then alternates delegates from both groups, according each one minute to speak. Such moderated caucuses combine the best elements of formal debate and caucus, providing the order of formal debate with the spontaneous flow of ideas associated with caucus.

### Unofficial Caucus

These caucuses are not declared by the Moderator. Rather, they are times when you and other delegates get together and take care of some caucus-like business. These unofficial caucuses can take place before or after committee sessions, during meals, or even outside the committee room during formal debate (just make sure that you are not missing anything important). The importance of these meetings is that they let a few key players get together and discuss issues without the hectic, demanding pace of official caucuses. However, you must make sure that you are not constantly away from formal debate. If you are not following formal debate, you may miss an important vote or may miss important points brought up by your fellow delegates.

### Negotiation

While the ability to communicate is necessary to functioning in committee, the art of negotiation is necessary to producing a successful resolution. MUNAs value as a simulation lies not only with the substantive education one gets on current international problems, but more importantly, with the opportunity one has at the Conference to hone one's skills at negotiation, skills that are vital to future leaders in any field. Before we embark upon a discussion on negotiation, we must first discuss the base from which successful negotiation at MUNA starts: the coalition.

### The Coalition

While allied delegates may have similar goals, a coalition is a strongly unified group of delegates who not only share the same goals but also work together and follow a specific strategy to attain those goals. There are a few key differences between a bloc and a coalition. A bloc may or may not be unified, and even if it is unified, all the members of a bloc may not be willing or able to play an active role in drafting and attempting to pass a resolution. A coalition, on the other hand, by definition is a group of delegates working together to pass a resolution which is in keeping with their national interests. Ultimately, the negotiations between different coalitions will determine the characteristics of the final resolution.

When forming a coalition, you should carefully consider its size. A coalition that is too small will suffer from a lack of both breadth and manpower. A coalition that is too big will lack a strong sense of unity and is likely to fracture when the issues get complex and debate gets intense.

Consolidate your coalition's position by both meeting separately during caucus and making it clear during formal debate that you and your associates have reached a consensus on goals and the means to achieve them. You want to make sure that you do not alienate other delegates during this consolidation phase and do not seem unyielding to suggestions. It is often helpful for your coalition to sit together during formal debate to facilitate intra-coalition communication.

### Coalition Strategy

A coalition can do things that a single delegate would find difficult, if not impossible, to achieve, just as the state can do things that an individual cannot. Thus, the division of labor among a group of able similarly-minded delegates makes a coalition a powerful force in a committee. The successful coalition, then, is one which understands the source of its strength and capitalizes upon those strengths. The following are a few essential aspects of a successful coalition strategy:

Strengthening and Broadening of Support Base: Each member of a coalition, whether for personal or for national interest reasons,



## THE ART OF COMMUNICATION

may be loosely allied with certain delegates outside the coalition. These delegates can be counted on for yielding time to you, signing your resolution, and voting for your resolution. During caucus, members of a coalition should try to contact individual allies and strengthen the alliances. Also, it may be possible to get the support of the allies of your allies, thereby further broadening your support base.

**Using Formal Debate Effectively:** There are many ways a coalition can use formal debate to bring its ideas to the committee's attention. The key to effectively using formal debate is to review, as a group, the upcoming speeches by coalition members and then coordinate the delivery of those speeches. Having several delegates appear before the committee, talking about the same issues, gives a coalition the ability to focus the committee on specific issues within a topic area.

**Monitoring Opposition:** Just as you have formed your coalition, delegates with different interests and ideas have formed their own coalitions. It is important that your coalition stays aware of who the opposing coalitions are, who their allies are, and what they are doing. When you see a member of an opposing coalition on the Speakers List, try to get a delegate speaking after him to yield time to someone in your coalition so that he or she can provide an effective rebuttal.

### Negotiation Theory

There are a variety of different styles of negotiation, each supported by its own theory of negotiation. Although a complete review of all types of negotiation theory is beyond the scope of this Guide, the negotiation theories most relevant to MUNA committee dynamics will be discussed. The work of this section was inspired by and is based in part upon the ideas found in *Getting To Yes* by Roger Fisher and William Ury.

### Positional Bargaining

Most negotiation theories are based on positional bargaining, in which each side adopts and then gives up a sequence of positions until a position is reached that satisfies all sides. There are two types of positional bargaining: soft and hard. Soft positional bargaining stresses the need to reach agreement. The negotiator will compromise however much is necessary to reach a consensus.

In hard positional bargaining, rather than agreement, the goal is victory. The negotiator applies pressure and insists on his position as the solution.

In positional bargaining, the soft negotiator is extremely vulnerable to the hard negotiator, who will essentially get what ever he wants. Yet in a confrontation between two hard negotiators, a deadlock usually results. This deadlock illustrates the inherent problem with all forms of positional bargaining; the parties involved concentrate on positions when they should be concentrating on the underlying interests. Hard negotiators will dig into their positions when they should be looking for new positions that will allow both parties to satisfy their respective interests.

### Principled Negotiation

In this style of negotiation, the people are separated from the problem, negotiators are treated as people and not as abstract opponents, and negotiation relationships are made independent of substantive issues. Instead of applying or yielding to pressure (as in the hard and soft styles), reason and objective criteria are used. The focus is on interests and not on positions. Clearly, principled negotiation has its advantages over positional bargaining. But remember that negotiation theory assumes ideal bargaining situations. In applying the pure principled negotiation style to real life situations, delegates might run into complications and should not become frustrated. Remember that first, it is far easier for delegates to know their country's positions than it is for them to understand the underlying interests. Second, the large number of delegates and the limited amount of negotiation time renders certain processes, such as deciding upon objective criteria, etc., impractical if not unfeasible. Third, the final solution need not be agreed to unanimously; rather, a simple majority will suffice.

### Coming to Resolution

The desired product of successful negotiation is, of course, the resolution. At MUNA, we allow only one resolution to be passed per topic area. We hope that the demands we place on the product will result in a more rigorous and ultimately more exciting process.



## THE ART OF COMMUNICATION

### Passing the Resolution

When your coalition members speak on (not introduce) the resolution, it is important that they do not merely read the clauses; rather, they should explain the rationale behind them. Contrast the advantages and broad appeal of your resolution to the disadvantages of the opposing resolutions and/or working papers. It is an excellent idea to yield to questions so that you can clear up any misconceptions. During caucus, be prepared to run around answering questions and soliciting support. Divide up the labor: have each of your associates handle a different bloc. You must convince the neutral delegates that your resolution is in their best interests.

### Dealing with Other Resolutions

Your coalition has not been operating in a vacuum — other, opposing coalitions have, no doubt, formed and introduced their own resolutions. There are two basic ways to approach other resolutions.

**Consensus Approach:** If it is both possible and desirable, you might consider merging with the other main coalitions. Assuming that the other coalition has a resolution on the floor as well, you can then either modify one coalition's resolution by agreeing to amend it, or you can draft an entirely new compromise resolution. Each coalition will obviously want to have their resolution be the one that is amended and ultimately passed, rather than the other way around. The decision of which resolution to use should be based on objective criteria rather than a contest of wills.

**Conflict Approach:** If you cannot reach an agreement with the main opposing coalition, then you have your work cut out for you — you must convince at least a majority of the delegates to support your resolution. The best way to broaden your support base is to amend your resolution to make it more acceptable to the opposition's support base.

### The Amendment Process

Since there are no sponsors of resolutions, there is no such thing as a “friendly” or “unfriendly” amendment. The resolution is considered the property of the entire committee and it requires a majority of the committee to incorporate an amendment.

Amendments require a certain number of delegate signatures and the signature of the Director before they can be introduced (Rule 32). Amendments to your resolution, assuming they do not radically alter the intention of your resolution, are beneficial in that they validate the legitimacy of your resolution: no one would bother to amend a resolution that they thought would never pass. Bear in mind, however, that an excessive number of amendments, especially poorly written ones, will slow the pace of the committee. Therefore, make sure to keep yourself apprised of the amendments being written. Find out what are the most popularly requested changes, and then draft a comprehensive amendment which incorporates those changes which are acceptable to your coalition.

### Voting on the Resolution

Once debate is closed, the committee immediately moves to a vote on the resolution (or amendment; the parliamentary procedure is analogous). At this point, however, delegates may decide to use the Division of the Question rule (Rule 33) or the Role Call Vote rule (Rule 35) to their advantage.

### Division of the Question

This is the most complicated and, not coincidentally, the most widely misunderstood rule (your committee Moderator will take time to explain it thoroughly should it be moved). The delegate making the motion wishes the committee to consider including only certain operative clauses of the resolution on which debate has been closed in the final version.

Division of the question is a very dangerous motion. Since there is limited debate, you cannot fully defend the integrity of your resolution. Moreover, many delegates in your support base, although they support the resolution as a whole, may disagree with various parts of it. Thus, dividing the question may weaken your support base. The best defense against such a motion is to have your coalition work especially hard on maintaining the solidarity of your support base; let the delegates know that if they support the division, there is a chance that the resolution may be so badly split that it will be rejected as a whole.

On the other hand, division of the question can be very useful in helping you pass your ideal resolution. Often a resolution may contain clauses or amendments that violate your country's national interests and would prevent you from voting for an otherwise good resolution. Division of the question provides you with an opportunity to vote into the final resolution only those clauses that you deem appropriate.



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### Roll Call Vote

If this motion is passed (see rules for required number of seconds), the Moderator shall call the roll in alphabetical order, starting from a randomly selected country. There are two rounds of voting. During the first round, delegates can vote Yes, No, Abstain, or Pass. During the second round, all delegates who passed must then vote Yes, No, or Abstain. Delegates may request the right to explain their vote during either the first or second round.

The Roll Call Vote not only allows delegates to get a better picture of where delegates in the committee stand (which may be especially important if the resolution may be reconsidered), but also allows delegates to air their reasons for voting as they did. For instance, after a Division of the Question, some delegates may find that the changed resolution either does or does not fall in line with their national interests and may desire the opportunity to explain their vote. With both placard and roll call votes, a majority is defined as those members present and voting; there fore, abstentions do not count.

### What to do If Your Resolution Fails

Although this is a concept difficult to imagine, there may be times when your country's national interests are so radical that your resolution fails. If this is the case, do not isolate yourself by maintaining a radical position. Rather, keep a hand in shaping the remaining resolutions and try to alter them to be as compatible as possible with your countries national interests.

If, on the other hand, your resolution failed because you believe it was not explained clearly enough to the delegates, you may want to move for Reconsideration (Rule 18). If you honestly think there is a good chance the resolution might pass if you extol its virtues, a motion for Reconsideration (which applies to amendments as well) is in order. Such a motion can only be made by a delegate who voted on the majority side, takes two speakers against, and requires a two-thirds majority to pass. If the motion passes, your resolution would once again be on the floor.

Finally, remember that the value of MUNA resides not in getting your resolution passed, but in learning both about the UN as an international forum and about how to communicate and negotiate. The true victors at MUNA are those delegates who learn from their experiences in the committee process and take that knowledge from the Conference and apply it to their endeavors beyond.





## RULES OF PROCEDURE

Precedence (Rule 36) is the hierarchy established between different motions. Thus, after a Moderator recognizes a motion from the floor, he will ask if there are any other motions on the floor. If, for example, another delegate makes a different motion, the Moderator will act on the motion of higher precedence first.

Quorum: A quorum is the minimum number of delegates who must be present for the committee to conduct business. Unless challenged and shown to be absent, a director may permit debate when he or she feels that one quarter of the members are present. To conduct substantive votes (on resolutions or amendments), a majority of the members must be present.

Points: There are three types of points at HMUN. First, a delegate may rise to a point of personal privilege. Although they are in order at any time (a delegate may rise to this point even during a speech), delegates should use caution when employing this point; it should only be used when a delegate experiences extreme discomfort which may prevent him or her from engaging in worthwhile debate. Second, a delegate may rise to a point of order. Used to call attention to an instance of improper parliamentary procedure, this point is in order only when the floor is open unless it interrupts a speech that is, itself, out of order. Third, a delegate may raise to a point of parliamentary inquiry. This point is used when a delegate is unclear about a specific aspect of parliamentary procedure and is usually phrased as a question. It is not, however, used to obtain substantive information about a topic and may only be raised when the floor is open.





## RULES & REGULATIONS

MUNA is held all over the world and different countries follow different conventions based on the time available. Some MUNA sessions last over three to four days and the resolutions are actually drafted in the committees of the United Nations before they are put to debate and vote in the General Assembly.

If you do research on the Net, the rules and different procedures of different MUNA sessions held all over may confuse you.

So please read the background material about the United Nations (which is just to give you some background about the United Nations and the history) and thereafter the rules that are applicable at MSPMUNA 2011. The rules mentioned herein will be the only rules that would be applicable at this MUNA session. Therefore it is recommended that you carefully read them and come prepared for the MUNA session accordingly.

### Introducing the United Nations

The United Nations was founded on 24th October 1945 with the hope that succeeding generations could be saved from the scourge of war and that common standards could be agreed on human rights, international law and social progress. The UN is based on the principle of collective security - that any breach of international peace by one State will be punished jointly by the rest of the international community. Grounded on these ideals of global governance, since 1945 the UN system has expanded to consider nearly all areas of international relations - from its leadership in areas of development, security and human rights to less well-publicised work in areas as diverse as road traffic standards and the protection of cultural heritage.

Following the end of the Second World War, its initial 51 Member States officially adopted the United Nations Charter - the treaty document that acts as the organisation's constitution. Over the past 60 years, the United Nations has grown to a total of 192 Member States. With the recent admission of Switzerland, Timor-Leste and Montenegro, the Holy See is the only widely recognised State that is not a Member.

According to Article 1 of the United Nations Charter, the purposes of the UN are:  
to maintain international peace and security;  
to develop friendly relations among nations;  
to cooperate in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;  
and to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these ends.

For 2004-2005, the UN budget was US\$3.16 billion - five cents for every 100 people of the world's population. The organisation is funded by contributions from Member States, with the funds that each State provides calculated mainly on the basis of Gross National Product.

The two principal organs of the UN usually recreated at MUNA are the:  
General Assembly;  
Economic and Social Council; and the

Also at the UN's centre, although not recreated by delegates at MUNA are:  
Security Council;  
International Court of Justice  
The Secretariat ;  
The Trusteeship Council.

However at the MSPMUNA 2011, we will only recreate the General Assembly.

## RULES & REGULATIONS

The Secretariat is headed by the Secretary General.

In addition, the UN family embraces a much larger group of agencies and forums, some older than the UN itself. Many of these organisations are independent from the UN with separate governing bodies and budgets, but maintain strong links through co-operative agreements. Known as 'specialized agencies', they include the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Bank, and the World Health Organization (WHO). The International Maritime Organization, the only member of the UN family to be hosted in the UK, is also a 'specialized agency'.

Also part of the UN system, a number of other UN programmes and funds come under the direct authority of the General Assembly or Economic and Social Council. These include the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the UN Development Programme (UNDP) and the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF).

### The General Assembly

The General Assembly, UN's 'parliament', is unparalleled in scale, both in terms of the number of countries and cultures represented, but also in terms of the number of topics that may reach the agenda.

Every Member State, regardless of power or influence, political or social system, population or wealth, has a single vote in the GA. It is the only UN body where every country has representation. A simple majority (that is 50% plus one) decides most matters, while what the Charter refers to as 'important matters' are decided by a two-thirds majority. It normally meets between September and December at the United Nations Building in New York.

The GA is responsible for the consideration and approval of the UN budget. It elects all non-permanent members of the Security Council, members of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), and judges of the International Court of Justice (ICJ). The GA also appoints the Secretary General, on the recommendations of the Security Council. It may also admit and expel Member States. Although the GA has never expelled a member, it did suspend the voting rights of South Africa between 1974 and 1994 during the apartheid era. All these responsibilities are considered 'important matters' to be decided by a two-thirds majority.

The GA may consider and make recommendations on any matter of 'international peace and security' or otherwise within the scope of the UN Charter, so long as the issue is not already under consideration by the Security Council. It may also initiate studies and make recommendations that enhance 'the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, and international collaboration in economic, social, cultural, educational and health fields'. Under this power, it has been responsible for the adoption of many instruments of international law, including agreements on the law of war, human rights and the environment.

The GA is not a legislative body. Its decisions do not have the standing of international law, although they do establish the will of the international community and can be referred to in the decisions of the International Court of Justice, other international courts and domestic courts. In certain circumstances, it can establish binding international law by adopting a treaty, but a Member State must both sign and ratify it to be legally bound by the treaty's measures.

In addition to its 191 Member States, the GA may also be addressed by a number of formally recognised observers. These include one State (the Holy See), Intergovernmental Organisations (such as the African Union and the League of Arab States), NGOs (like the International Committee of the Red Cross) and territories whose sovereignty is ill defined (such as Palestine and the Sovereign Military Order of Malta).



## RULES & REGULATIONS

The GA's opening session is normally addressed by the Heads of Government of the world and the Secretary General. Due to the size of the GA's agenda, most items are referred to specialist committees for consideration. There are six GA committees:

- First Committee: Disarmament and International Security
- Second Committee: Economic and Financial
- Third Committee: Social, Humanitarian and Cultural
- Fourth Committee: Special, Political and Decolonization
- Fifth Committee: Administrative and Budgetary
- Sixth Committee: Legal

Less controversial items may be discussed in what is called plenary session without referral to a committee. Such agenda items are often adopted by acclamation – there is no formal vote.

Resolutions drafted in the six committees must be passed in committee before reaching the floor of the General Assembly where it is voted on a second time to determine whether it will be formally adopted.

MUNA tends to recreate the debate of the individual committees rather than the entire GA. The Economic and Financial Committee and the Administrative and Budgetary Committee are rarely recreated at Model UN conferences due to their technical nature.

### The Security Council

The Security Council offers MUNA delegates the opportunity to debate the most significant contemporary international security issues and crises in a very small and personal forum. Sometimes the agenda of a MUNA Security Council is interrupted by a crisis situation involving a fictitious break to international peace and security created by the conference Secretariat. Such crisis situations can be particularly challenging simulation and demand a broad knowledge of international affairs from Council delegates.

It is the duty of the Security Council to 'ensure prompt and effective action by the United Nations' and it has primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security. The Council may meet at any time to consider matters of concern. All decisions of the Security Council have the full authority of international law and must be obeyed by all States.

The Security Council consists of fifteen members. Five are permanent members (the so-called 'P5') - China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States. The remaining ten seats are for non-permanent members elected by the GA and limited to serving only one term consecutively. Decisions of the Council are made by nine affirmative votes. The P5 hold vetoes - no decision may pass the Council without the agreement of all five permanent members.

Despite changes to the geopolitical landscape since the late 1940's - decolonization, the end of East-West military confrontation and globalisation - the membership and operations of the Security Council have altered very little. It is seen by many as being undemocratic and unrepresentative of the current world power balance. Under consideration by the General Assembly since 1992, reform of the Security Council is one of the most contentious items on the UN agenda and is considered by some to be one of the most important issues faced by the UN in its attempts to remain relevant. The changing nature of the threats to international peace and security have only served to further highlight the need for reform as the threats of the Cold War give way to those of international terrorism, proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, intrastate conflict and genocide.

The challenges presented by these new threats have sometimes found the Security Council wanting and have intensified calls for reform.





## RULES & REGULATIONS

The Security Council may intervene in any dispute that is likely to endanger international peace and security. It may recommend a solution by negotiation, enquiry, mediation, arbitration, by referral to the International Court of Justice or by other peaceful means.

If efforts at peaceful resolution have or are likely to fail, the Security Council may resort to a more robust approach. Under what are referred to as its Chapter VII powers, the Council may impose economic sanctions, an arms embargo, sever diplomatic relations or other actions short of armed force. As a last resort, Chapter VII also authorises the Security Council to use 'all necessary means' including military force against any threat to international peace or security. Before the Gulf War in 1991, the Security Council had only use its Chapter VII powers to authorise military force once – during the Korean War of 1950. The Charter only permits States to use force in two circumstances - if acting under a Chapter VII mandate from the Security Council or if acting in self-defence (under Article 51 of the UN Charter, which recognises that States have the inherent right of self-defence against an armed attack). No other acts of force are considered legal - although in practice many unlawful incidents of the use of force have occurred throughout the 60 year lifetime of the Charter.

The Security Council also recommends to the GA new Secretary-Generals and new Member States.

However, at MSPMUNA 2011, the Security Council will not be created due to constraints of time.

RULES AND REGULATIONS applicable at MSPMUNA 2011.

At MUNA 2011, the draft resolution to be discussed and debated has already been circulated to all the delegates attending.

However it is not necessary that the same resolution be either passed in the form that it has been presented to the delegates. The resolution can be amended and passed or rejected depending on the countries that are present at the MUNA 2011.

The other rules are as follows:

### 1: Dress Code

Participants should wear the National Dress of the country they represent. There is an award for the best dressed team in their National costume at MUNA

### 2: Delegation

Each team will be asked to represent a country that is a member of the United Nations and shall consist of 3 Students (2 delegates & 1 Advisor). Only the two delegates are allowed to speak at the MUNA and the advisor is allowed to be a consultant only who cannot address either the Chairperson or the General Assembly.

### 3: Policy Statement

Each team will be given a chance to make a Policy Statement regarding their country's stance with respect to the resolution.

No representative may address the General Assembly without having previously obtained the permission of the Chairperson. The Chairperson shall call upon speakers in the order in which they have been designated to speak. The Chairperson may call a speaker to order if his/her remarks are not relevant to the subject under discussion. You could also add on the accent of your country to your speech – it will definitely help you to gain points. However please ensure that if you decide to add an accent, you are clearly audible and understood by the audience and the judges.

### 4: Time limit on Policy Statement

Only one designated delegate from each country will be allowed to speak and make the Policy Statement. The proposing country will be



## RULES & REGULATIONS

give 5 minutes for making their policy statement, the seconding country will be given 4 minutes and the delegates from other countries will be given 3 minutes to express their country's Policy statement either in support or against the resolution that is being debated before the assembly. When a representative has spoken his/her allotted time, the Chairperson shall call him/her to conclude and return to their seat without delay. However, before returning the delegate should unambiguously state whether their country supports or opposes the resolution.

### 5: How to address the assembly

To maintain order, permission to address this Assembly is granted by the Chairperson of the General Assembly. Delegates should open with:

"Mr. Chairperson, we the delegates from \_\_\_\_ (state your country)... wish to state....."

You are reminded that where possible, the views you put forward in debate should be the likely views of the country you are representing and not your own personal views. For a resolution to be carried, it requires 51% support, not merely a majority. You may abstain from voting. No country has a veto in the General Assembly.

### 6: Rules of debate

After all countries have finished making their policy statements, the Chairperson will throw the floor open for moderated caucus debate, the committee remains in formal debate, but temporarily departs from the Speakers' List and the Chair calls upon delegates to speak at their discretion. Delegates raise their placards to signal their wish to speak.

### 7: Points

A number of points can be made by the delegates by raising their country placard to seek the attention of the Chairperson. All points made shall have priority during a debate or while the speaker is speaking. Points are usually made by raising the forearms to form a triangle and the delegate making a point must clearly state the point that he or she is raising. For example they must state , Mr. Chairman, we the delegates of ..... crave permission to raise a point of..... Against the Honourable delegates of ....."

Any delegate may seek the Chairperson's permission to seek a Point of Information (POI) to the Assembly. A point of information is made to elicit information from a speaker or to provide additional information on a particular point being debated. Normally this will be to clarify a specific area of their stated policy. Points of information must be addressed in a question and must be kept relatively short. The delegate asking the question must remain standing during both their question and the answer given by the speaker as a sign of courtesy. Point of information is indicated by joining the tips of your fingers on both hands to form a triangle with your hands. POI shall be taken in the chronological order in which arisen and shall have precedence over Points of Order.

In addition, delegates may make Points of Personal Privilege (PoPP). A point of personal privilege is the only motion or point that may interrupt a speaker. These are made to draw the speaker or Chairperson's attention to something that is impairing a delegate's ability to participate in the proceedings. For example, the delegate cannot hear the speaker. Point of personal privilege are indicated by simply raising the placard of your country or raising your hand. Points of personal privilege shall have precedence all over all other points.

Points of Order (POO) draw the attention of the Chairperson to an instance where the rules of Procedure have been broken or where a delegate wants to urgently rebut what another delegate has stated. Points of order shall be indicated with a "T" being formed with both hands.



## RULES & REGULATIONS

While points of parliamentary inquiry allow delegates to ask questions to the chairperson regarding the rules. Although most chairpersons are happy to address simple questions through answers to points of parliamentary inquiry, significant questions are best discussed outside formal sessions. Points of Parliamentary inquiry are to be sent in writing on a note to the President of the session and he/ she will address it either during or after the session as deemed fit by the President.

Please note that frivolous or wrong points raised may be marked negatively however relevant points raised and allowed by the Chair will be marked positively by the judges.

8. At the end of the debate on Session One the MUNA session will be adjourned and will again be called to order on the after lunch. During lunch break , the delegates of various countries will be permitted to form “blocs” of countries to propose amendments to the resolution. To propose an amendment to the draft resolution, there should be at least 4 countries who support an amendment to the resolution.

9. Any amendment proposed to the draft resolution should clearly specify the clause number of the draft resolution that is sought to be amended or deleted. In case of amendment of the clause the new draft of the amended clause should reach the Chairperson before the commencement of the next MUNA session before 1.00 pm in the prescribed form.

10. During the next session, any amendments that are proposed to the resolution will be put forth before the assembly and each “bloc” of countries proposing the amendment shall be given 3 minutes (only one country will be allowed to speak) to explain the text of the resolution and the rationale behind the same to the assembly. Member countries can debate each amendment immediately after it has been proposed in a moderated caucus and each amendment shall be immediately put to vote to decide it's fate. An amendment to the draft resolution will be carried by a simple majority vote of the countries present.

11. After all the amendments proposed have been debated and voted upon the entire resolution shall be put to vote and shall be carried or rejected with a simple majority of the countries present. Member countries can choose to either vote for the resolution , against the resolution or abstain from voting.

### PREPARATION

There are two phases of preparation for the participating delegates:

#### General preparation

Two areas of reading and study are suggested: Both delegates and counselors should familiarize themselves with the nation they are representing – its history, geography, people, economy, international alignments, etc.

Next, in this general area, it is vital that the history, objectives, functioning and achievements of the United Nations be thoroughly reviewed and understood. If the participants have an appreciation of the role of the UN as an instrument of world peace and understanding, the success of MUNA is assured.

Resource and reference material is widely available in public and school libraries and the Internet for general preparation. Reading of daily and weekly newspapers and certain well-known magazines and journals will provide a good deal of general background in international trends and developments.

## RULES & REGULATIONS

### Specific preparation

An agenda of items of current interest in the United Nations General Assembly and in international affairs will be chosen by the committee. These specific topics must be studied by all delegations. Each agenda item is discussed and then brought to vote on the floor of the assembly. It is important that each delegation be informed and be able to advance or defend the view of the nation being represented.

Each delegation is advised of the agenda item to which one of its delegates must speak. Although time limitations will allow only one delegate the opportunity to speak, both must be prepared so that they may both enter the discussion on all items. Each agenda item is set forth in the form of a resolution. Be sure to research all aspects of the resolution, particularly unfamiliar terms or UN documents.

The mover of the resolution may speak for five minutes, while the seconder may speak for four minutes. The remaining delegated assigned to speak to the item are permitted three minutes. These addresses should be prepared in written form in advance of the opening of the session.

Remember to support your statements with statistics, facts and quotes. Also, remember that because you are the representatives of a country, you must speak using words such as we, us, my country, my government, and/or the country's name rather than words such as they, I or me. Similarly, when referring to one of your colleagues at the conference, avoid referring to them as he, she or they. The Honourable Delegate, the Honourable Delegate from \_\_\_\_\_ (the country's name), the country name by itself, are a more courteous means of indicating to whom you are referring.

Delegates and counselors are strongly advised to familiarize themselves with the parliamentary s of procedure as well as those specific to the UN General Assembly.

Information available to each delegation on the specific agenda item assigned to it will depend in large part upon the resourcefulness of the delegation and its counselor. Additional information may be secured from UN publications and journals or Internet contacts with the embassies of that particular nation.

Other good sources for research are :

#### 1. Study Guides

These are summaries prepared by the committee chairs of the topics on the committee agenda. They provide an excellent introduction to the issues and the major areas of contention. Most study guides also give policy positions according to regional blocs and suggest approaches that a resolution might adopt.

#### 2. CIA World Fact Book

The World Fact Book is maintained by the US Central Intelligence Agency and contains factual summaries on every country in the world, listing details of population, government, economy, language, religion and so on (access it at <http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/>). Check facts like land area, population and GDP against a State you are familiar with such as the UK to provide a comparison.

#### 3. Homepages of the Permanent Missions to the UN

Most missions to the UN have their own web sites containing policy statements and the text of speeches to UN bodies made by diplomats (go to <http://www.un.int/index-en/webs.html> for lists). They normally provide excellent summaries of that State's policy towards most items on the UN's agenda. Similar speeches and statements can also be found on the web sites of many national foreign affairs ministries.

#### 4. United Nations Bibliographic Information System (UNBIS)

The text of speeches made to the UN can also be accessed through the database on the UNBIS web site (<http://www.un.org/Depts/dhl/unbisnet/index.htm>). Other important tools on the UNBIS site are searchable databases of Member States' voting records and resolution sponsorship.

#### 6. UN Document Centre

Provides access to all UN resolutions since 1946 (<http://www.un.org/Depts/dhl/index.html>).



