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Santa Barbara Intercollegiate Model United Nations Conference

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United Nations General Assembly, Sixth Committee

Chair's Letter

Dear delegates,

I am very pleased to welcome all of you to the General Assembly Sixth Committee at the Santa Barbara Intercollegiate Model United Nations Conference 2018! My name is John Kennedy and I am a second-year political science student here at UCSB. Currently, I am the Chief of Staff for our organization and have had the privilege of attending numerous conferences with many bright individuals during my time here. Overall, I cannot wait to meet all of you and to serve as your chair when the time comes!

As for the committee itself, the three topics presented before the body are ones of great controversy and provoke deep insight. After all, what good would a committee designed to handle subjects of legality be if they did not spur ethical deliberation? From the prospects of human cloning and nuclear terrorism to leadership accountability around the world, we expect to see you represent your country's moral foundation to the best of your ability. As diplomats, we also wish to see you helping this assembly acquire a fresh and detailed perspective on the jurisprudence of these subjects. In any event, I am confident that each of you will achieve this objective through sublime research, debate, and critical thinking. I wish you the best of luck in your preparation and please, do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or concerns!

Thank you,

John Kennedy

Chair, United Nations General Assembly, Sixth Committee

Chief of Staff, UCSB Model United Nations

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Committee Introduction

The General Assembly Sixth Committee (GA6) is the last of the six committees within the United Nations General Assembly tasked with managing and addressing legal questions within the international community. Article 13 of the Charter of the United Nations sums the mandate of this body perfectly, stating that it shall promote “international co-operation in the political field and encourage the progressive development of international law and its codification.”¹

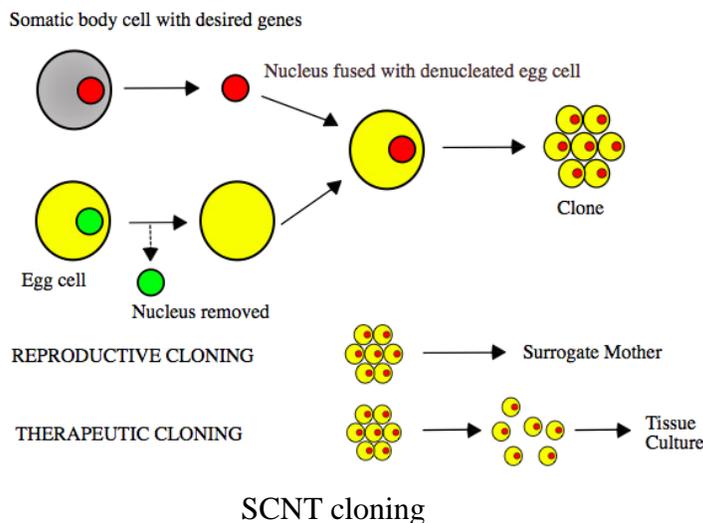
While many of the specialized bodies within the United Nations engage in negotiations regarding international law, it is more common for these dialogues to take place in the Sixth Committee. Overall, like the rest of the General Assembly, the committee boasts universal membership as well as landmark treaties such as the Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations and the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court.

Topic 1 – The Legal Consequences of Cloning

Background

Merely a few decades ago, the prospect of human cloning once belonged to imagination and science fiction. Not until recently, however, has this vision become a near reality for civilization in the 21st century. While there is no evidence that anyone has ever successfully cloned human embryos, scientists have proven time and again of its inevitability with case studies such as Dolly the Sheep in 1997 – the first cloned mammal in history.² As these advances continue, so does the moral debate.

Before diving into the history of this subject, however, we need to break down what exactly goes into the general process of cloning in layman’s terms. First, there are two types of cloning defined in the scientific community: **reproductive** and **therapeutic**. The latter involves cloning human cells or tissue for medical purposes such as organ transplants. On the other hand, reproductive cloning is what we typically imagine when we think of cloning: creating a full human rather than just cells and tissue.



Also, just as there are two *types* of cloning, there are two main *methods* of cloning as well: somatic cell nuclear transfer (SCNT) and induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs). The

former involves transferring DNA material from one cell to another or in scientific terms, where “the nucleus of a somatic (body) cell is transferred to the cytoplasm of an enucleated egg (an egg that has had its own nucleus removed).”³ This is the method that led to the success of Dolly the Sheep. iPSCs are a highly studied aspect of stem cell research and has applications in cloning. In this process, human cells are essentially reprogrammed and differentiated into other layers of the cell. Dr. Shinya Yamanaka (and friends) pioneered this research and their report is worth a read if you so desire.⁴

Throughout much of the 20th century, these methods yielded very little or fabricated success in therapeutic and reproductive cloning. However, the experiments that *did* work proved to be groundbreaking for the scientific community – even helping to advance the notion of stem cell research in medicine. In 2018, scientists successfully cloned two primates with SCNT, making the possibility of human cloning in the future an even likelier probability.⁵

Past UN Involvement

In December 2001, the United Nations established the Ad Hoc Committee on an International Convention against the Reproductive Cloning of Human Beings. Like many UN committees, its mandate allowed for all UN member states to join where they would begin work on addressing the legal questions of human cloning. Four years after the creation of the committee and after long and strenuous debate, the General Assembly adopted their report known as the United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning.⁶ Though a non-binding resolution backed by mainly Roman Catholic states, it was (and still is) the only statement on reproductive human cloning in the international community since the United Nations

Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) passed the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights (condemning human cloning) in 1997.⁷

Shortly after in 2008, the International Bio-ethics Committee (IBC) met in Paris to further discuss the 2005 Declaration on Human Cloning, which they reported did not provide enough detail on the legality of human cloning. After four years of research, debate, and deliberation, the IBC reported that the international community would benefit from discussing the following efforts:

Terminology: the IBC argues that the present frameworks and regulations are based on inaccurate and misleading terminologies that inadequately describe the technical procedures relevant to human cloning. The new scientific developments call for the redefinition and clarification of some widely used terms and for the dismissal of others.

International governance: the IBC considers that the existing international legal frameworks and regulations are not sufficient to properly address the challenges posed by the most recent developments. They are non-binding and mutually inconsistent as a result of different views of Member States. A process should be initiated that could lead to the establishment of a more robust mechanism, such as an internationally effective and valuable convention or a moratorium, to prohibit reproductive cloning.

Dissemination: the IBC stresses the importance of fostering public awareness by disseminating, discussing and debating on cloning issues at all levels. This would allow all countries, including the developing and least developed countries, to participate in the debate and put forward their concerns regarding the new technologies related to human cloning.⁸

Bloc Positions

North America

The United States National Bioethical Advisory Commission (1997) advised President Bill Clinton on refraining from passing any legislation that would provide funding for research projects involving human cloning. Currently the US Congress has not passed any legislation regarding human cloning due to controversy on the subject and competing proposals, though 15 states have officially banned research on reproductive cloning. Canada has also passed legislation banning reproductive cloning and both states voted in favor of the United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning. In Mexico, embryonic stem cell research is permitted, but not reproductive cloning.

Europe

The European Union has maintained that it will not fund any research into human cloning using the SCNT method – banning reproductive cloning but not explicitly banning therapeutic cloning research.⁹ Most European nations have all stated their opposition to human reproductive cloning, though many remain disappointed as to the language of the United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning, pointing to its non-specificity as outlined in the background section. For instance, the United Kingdom, fearing that a ban on human cloning in its entirety would lead to restrictions on scientific advancement, voted against the resolution along with many other developed European states.

Many European states to the east (Hungary, Poland, Ukraine, etc.) have restricted research into human cloning for therapeutic and medical purposes only, while states such as the Russian Federation have repeatedly extended bans on human cloning following the UN Declaration on Human Cloning.¹⁰

Asia

Like Europe and North America, many states within the Asian bloc have banned reproductive cloning such as in China and Japan, though both countries allow for carefully supervised research into therapeutic cloning. In fact, in Japan, any research or attempts at human reproductive cloning could result in a prison sentence.¹¹

Africa

Egypt and South Africa are the main two countries in Africa that have allowed supervised research into therapeutic cloning, though every country in Africa has banned reproductive cloning, particularly for religious reasons. The most recent legislation regarding human cloning in South Africa, for instance, comes from the National Health Act, which allows for therapeutic cloning under strict government supervision.¹²

South America

Aligned with much of the world it seems, most countries in South America ban both types of cloning except for, notably, Colombia which allows for research into therapeutic cloning.

Questions to Consider

- What kinds of ethical dilemmas does human cloning present to the world?
- Does human cloning breach the long-invoked Universal Declaration of Human Rights? What arguments can your state make for or against this question?
- Does human cloning really violate “human dignity?” Why or why not?
- Beyond human cloning in general, to what legal extent or limit should human cloning be allowed, if at all?
- What advances in scientific technology in your state has allowed for the nearing possibility of human cloning? Are these advances legal there?

- Is the world even ready for human clones? How can the United Nations ensure that human clones can be safely integrated into society, free from abuse?

Topic 2 – Prevention of Nuclear Terrorism

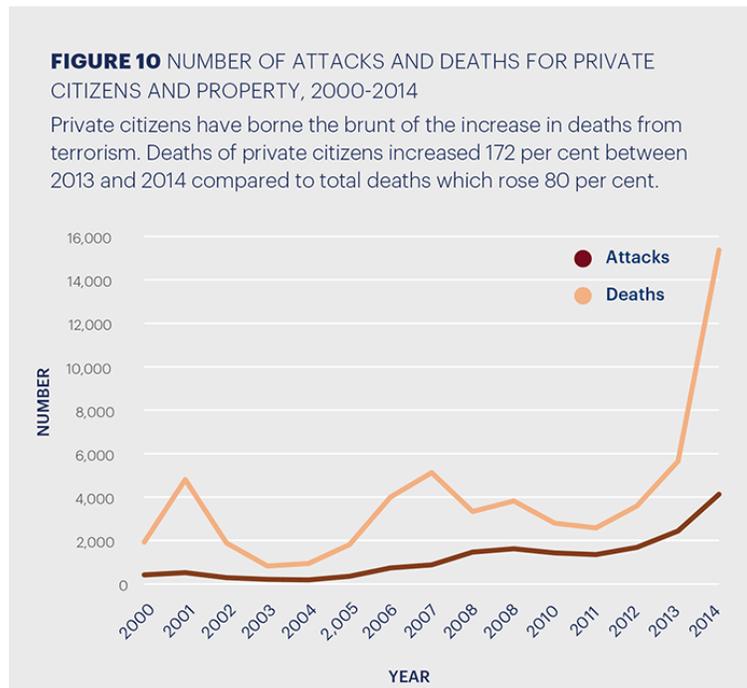
Background

The notion of nuclear terrorism is a rather new phenomenon that has been met with much controversy in the global community. While the threat of nuclear war emerged at the dawn of the Cold War, the notion of nuclear terrorism (let alone terrorism in general) arose decades later when watchdog reporting revealed the high possibility of uranium and plutonium smuggling.¹³ These materials, required for the creation of nuclear weapons, first started appearing on the black market in Europe and has since become a concern in the international community with hundreds of reported incidents within the past 12 years.⁷ Overall, there is no current evidence of any terrorist organization having the necessary components to make a nuclear weapon, yet the possibility of this happening reigns much of debate in political culture around the world.

Currently, there have been a total of 855 terror attacks and around 4,600 resulting fatalities so far in 2018, despite advanced counterterrorism strategies.²⁵ With nuclear capability, these numbers would surely climb dramatically. Alarmingly, only 25kg of highly enriched uranium (HEU) is all it takes to craft one improvised nuclear device in a year.²⁶ According to the Global Fissile Material Report in 2015, “the global stockpile of HEU at the end of 2014 was about 1370 ± 125 tons, enough for more than 76,000 simple, first generation fission implosion weapons.”²⁷

In 2004, after a United States investigation into Pakistani nuclear technology found in Libya, Pakistani nuclear physicist Abdul Qadeer Khan confessed to the transferring of

nuclear energy technology to Iran, Libya, and North Korea between 1989 and 1997 with authorization from a high-ranking military general in the Pakistani government, he claims.²¹ These 3 states he reportedly gave nuclear technology have been evaluated by a variety of intelligence agencies around the world as active state-sponsors of terrorism – thereby demonstrating Qadeer Khan’s involvement in this revelation as a significant advance in the prospect of nuclear terrorism.



Now, recent terrorist groups such as ISIS, the North Caucasus militants, Lashkar-e-Taiba, Aum Shinrikyo, and Al Qaeda have repeatedly attempted to acquire nuclear weapons through smuggling or theft but have mostly been thwarted by counter-terrorism efforts.²⁴ Terror groups Aum Shinrikyo and Al Qaeda have also reportedly attempted to purchase nuclear material on the black market but ISIS, however, has gotten the closest to nuclear capability with heads of security in NATO and other international bodies warning the world

that ISIS is plotting nuclear attacks on the West (2016). It is important to note that ISIS has already repeatedly used chemical attacks on combatants and innocents alike.⁹

All of these developments occurred just a few years after the United Nations defined nuclear terrorism as an offense the accused “uses in any way radioactive material ... with the intent to cause death or serious bodily injury; or with the intent to cause substantial damage to property or to the environment; or with the intent to compel a natural or legal person, an international organization or a State to do or refrain from doing an act.”¹⁰ This definition, coming from the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism, now stands as the most relevant universal acknowledgement of this grave threat.

Past UN Involvement

Ever since its establishment, the United Nations has frequently attempted to address the overall issue of nuclear energy/weapons. In fact, the first General Assembly resolution ever adopted established a nuclear commission “to deal with the problems raised by the discovery of atomic energy.”¹⁶ Fast forward to March of 1970, the UN (in a sponsored 18-nation event in Geneva) agreed upon the renowned Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT), intended to “prevent the spread of nuclear weapons and weapons technology, to promote cooperation in the peaceful uses of nuclear energy and to further the goal of achieving nuclear disarmament and general and complete disarmament.”¹⁷ In other words, defined nuclear states should use their nuclear abilities for good (energy, sustainability, etc.), while non-nuclear states should remain free from nuclear weaponry.

Also, as an intergovernmental response to the rise of the nuclear era in 1957, the international community established the independent International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), consisting of a mandate promoting the use of atomic energy “to peace, health, and prosperity throughout the world” and a Board of Governors with advanced knowledge of nuclear energy technology.¹⁸ Now, through the IAEA Statute, it reports to both the General Assembly and Security Council on matters such as inspections of NPT state parties to ensure that the conditions of the treaty remain upheld. Between 1993 and 2008, member states have reported at least 421 instances of nuclear/radioactive material theft or loss to the IAEA.²² While none of these incidents have been traced to any terror attacks, the IAEA still considers this rate to be alarming. Former director of the IAEA and 2005 Nobel Peace Prize winner Mohamed ElBaradei called “nuclear terrorism the most serious danger the world is facing.”²³

UN Security Council Resolution 1540 (2004) called for all states to refrain from supporting terror groups and their attempt to “develop, acquire, manufacture, possess, transport, transfer or use nuclear, chemical or biological weapons and their means of delivery, in particular for terrorist purposes.”³² This particular resolution is interesting and effective since it cites nuclear terrorism as a threat to non-proliferation outlined in Chapter VII of the UN Charter – a move that would obligate states even further to reexamine their policies on this issue.

Adopted unanimously in 2005, the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism stipulates to all 113 of its states parties (including all nuclear powers) that they must criminalize acts of nuclear terrorism and cooperate with other states in this policing including extradition of offenders.³⁰ Additionally, signed in 1980 but

amended also in 2005, the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material (CPPNM) made it legally binding for state parties “to protect nuclear facilities and material in peaceful domestic use, storage as well as transport. It also provides for expanded cooperation between and among States regarding rapid measures to locate and recover stolen or smuggled nuclear material, mitigate any radiological consequences of sabotage, and prevent and combat related offences.”³¹

In 2010, former US President Obama invited 47 nations, the Permanent 5, the IAEA, and the European Union to Washington D.C. for the first ever ‘Nuclear Security Summit’ with an agenda focused on:

- Minimizing the use of highly enriched uranium (HEU);
- Bolstering security at nuclear facilities through enhanced national regulations and implementation of best practices;
- Enhanced membership in international instruments and organizations such as the International Atomic Energy Agency;
- Instituting measures to detect and prevent illicit trafficking in nuclear and other radioactive materials; and,
- Centers of Excellence, build capacity, develop technology and coordinate assistance on nuclear Security.²⁸

In 2014, international research firms confirmed that a majority of this iconic meeting’s goals have been achieved, among which include:

- Removal and/or disposition of over 3.2 metric tons of vulnerable HEU and plutonium material.
- Completely removing HEU from 12 countries – Austria, Chile, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Libya, Mexico, Republic of Korea, Romania, Serbia, Turkey, Ukraine, and Vietnam.

- Verified shutdown or successful conversion to low enriched uranium (LEU) fuel use of 24 HEU research reactors and isotope production facilities in 15 countries, including Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, the Czech Republic, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Japan, Kazakhstan, the Netherlands, Poland, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States.
- Completion of physical security upgrades at 32 buildings storing weapons-usable fissile materials.
- Installation of radiation detection equipment at 328 international border crossings, airports, and seaports to combat illicit trafficking in nuclear materials.²⁹

Bloc Positions

North America

In the past 10 years, the United States has provided the IAEA with over \$70 million in funding following former President Obama's 2009 Prague speech, where he stated that nuclear terrorism "is the most immediate and extreme threat to global security."³³ However, the current White House may choose to disregard this internationally-backed conclusion, suggested by President Trump's multiple tweets including: "the United States must greatly strengthen and expand its nuclear capability until such time as the world comes to its senses regarding nukes."³⁴ Nevertheless, nuclear security and by extent, nuclear terrorism, is still a top concern for the United States.

The US, Canada, and Mexico are all partner nations of the Global Initiative to Combat Nuclear Terrorism (GICNT) and the latter two states have deemed nuclear terrorism to be one of the greatest threats of our time, actively maintaining their status as nuke-free.

Europe

France is a nuclear weapon state and 75% of its energy derives from nuclear power. On top of that, it has also been victim to numerous terror attacks within recent years and is

one of the main European countries deeply impacted by the threat of nuclear terrorism. However, France is a proponent of nuclear security and has helped states such as Russia and Pakistan in securing their nuclear material and improving their nuclear detection systems at the borders.³⁵

The United Kingdom has suffered the most terrorist attacks in Europe as of 2017 and has pledged over \$12 million towards improving global nuclear security standards. Most of this funding has gone to INTERPOL's Radiological and Nuclear Terrorism Prevention Unit as well as the World Institute for Nuclear Security Academy to "provide online nuclear security training to the nuclear industry worldwide...and to counter nuclear smuggling."³⁶

All other European countries have remained nuke-free in this nuclear era though some (i.e. Germany, Italy, Belgium...) share nuclear weapons as dictated by NATO membership compliance.

In Russia, uranium stockpiles have decreased sharply since the Cold War era but nuclear security and infrastructure is a huge concern for the former Soviet nation, with a number of theft and smuggling occurrences. Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus all gave Russia their nuclear material/weapons after the Soviet Union dissolved.

Asia

Being a non-NPT state, India sees its nuclear arsenal as a deterrent against neighboring Pakistan and China – both states known to have stockpiles of nuclear weapons. As a result, India has refused to give up its nuclear capabilities and their lack of transparency regarding this subject has led to concern over the security of their nuclear material. Pakistan, on the other hand, has had a stockpile since 1998 and will not sign the NPT unless the international community recognizes Pakistan as a nuclear state or India gives up their

nuclear arsenal. After the A. Q. Khan incident, the Pakistani government has adopted legislation that would keep their arsenals completely separate and secret, only using unarmed and discreet vehicles to transport nuclear material.

China's nuclear stockpile is currently guarded by a strict 4-step process: "a licensing system, the state system of accounting and control of nuclear materials, a physical protection system for all nuclear materials and facilities, and domestic inspection." This notable security system is also backed by a Chinese emergency nuclear response team similar to the United States' NEST.

North Korea has officially withdrawn from the NPT as of 2003 after they refused to allow IAEA inspectors to examine two of their nuclear material sites – prompting a response from the UN Security Council and intense sanctions from the United States. With its grim economy, its tendency towards isolation, and a dictator who blatantly violates human rights, there is much speculation that North Korea may help provide terrorist groups with nuclear material.

Taiwan, South Korea, and Japan each halted their own nuclear programs in exchange for either conventional weapons technology or United States nuclear protection.

Africa and the Middle East

Due to increasing international pressure, South Africa became the first nation to voluntarily give up its nuclear program. Similarly, Libya gave up all of its nuclear arsenal in exchange for a good relationship and recognition within the international community. Under the 1996 Treaty of Pelindaba, all of Africa now remains nuke-free.

In 1984, Iran was given the title of "most active sponsor of terrorism" due to their providing of weapons, recruitment, funding, and training to known terrorist groups in the

Middle East (Hezbollah, etc.).³⁷ While they are party to the NPT, Iran has failed to comply with the treaty by increasing HEU production – an indicator of an attempt to produce nuke. Overall, a nuclear Iran would severely disrupt any balance left in the Middle East.

Since 1958, Israel has been working on their own nuclear program, even though they will neither confirm nor deny its existence under their policy of deliberate ambiguity. The combination of “country's small size, overall vulnerability, as well as the history of deep hostility and large-scale attacks by neighboring states, require a deterrent capability.”³⁸ As with Iran, a nuclear Israel would also greatly shift the balance of power in the Middle East.

South America

Under the 1967 Treaty of Tlatelolco, all Latin American states are nuclear-free. Notably, Argentina and Brazil have indicated that they gave up their programs to pursue imminent domestic issues instead.³⁹

Questions to Consider

- How should the General Assembly, Sixth Committee address the threat of non-state actors and their possible acquisition of nuclear capability?
- How can the United Nations foster better international collaboration on the threat of nuclear terrorism?
- What other security methods should States implement in their nuclear facilities to prevent the possibility of nuclear material trafficking?
- What should the United Nations do to address the creation of “dirty bombs?” How can the international community live under this threat while still maintaining its goal of sustainability?

- How should this committee deal with numerous 2016 reports of looming nuclear attacks on Western cities by ISIS?
- What should the international community do to ensure all states (particularly nuclear ones) adhere to established agreements on nuclear safety and security?

Topic 3 – Improving Criminal Accountability of Political Leaders

Background

Criminality in politics is and has always been a sort of truism in the field of social/political science, with nearly every modern nation guilty of it in some way or another. Though, only recently has the global community enacted international laws and initiated cases against criminal leaders whose actions still affect many today.

Effective international criminal prosecution of political and military leaders began with the Nuremberg Trials in 1946, which indicted 24 men of war crimes and crimes against humanity committed during Nazi rule over Germany. All but three of those convicted were pronounced guilty and faced with either death or life prison sentences.⁴³ This world-famous trial is what many would argue paved the way to the criminal accountability we have today such as the International Criminal Court (ICC, but more on this in a bit).



Nuremberg Trials

Current international law obligates all states to prosecute crimes against humanity, genocide, and war crimes though history has shown us how difficult this can be much of the time. For instance, in 2008 and 2010, the International Criminal Court at The Hague indicted Sudanese president, Omar al-Bashir for genocide, crimes against humanity, and war crimes.⁴⁴ This was the first time the ICC has issued an indictment for a head of state and the Sudanese government, to this day, refuses to comply with the ICC warrant for his arrest.

Between these two events in history and beyond, much of the world's leaders have engaged in questionable activities but war crimes and crimes against humanity remain a strictly grey area for international accountability. Delegates should consider how the UN can effectively deal with this grey area while protecting state sovereignty at the same time.

Past UN Involvement

Inspired by the Nuremberg Trials, the United Nations established international jurisprudence through treaties such as the Geneva Convention on matters pertaining to crimes against humanity, war crimes, and war of aggression. They also established the ICC with jurisdiction over all State parties, which has been a problem in recent years seeing as states with morally corrupt leaders are not party to such statute.

During the human rights atrocities in former Yugoslavia involving ethnic cleansings in the early 1990s, the UN Security Council established the International Criminal Tribunal for Yugoslavia (ICTY), the first international tribunal since Nuremberg. A similar process took effect with Rwanda years later and has been seen as model for most UN action taken on this subject.

Overall, since its establishment, the ICC has made over 40 public indictments since its founding and continues to prove that criminal accountability of political leaders is an ongoing and very relevant discussion today.

Bloc Positions

North America

No instances of moral wrongdoing or war crimes currently exist in North America, though the heads of state in both the United States and Mexico face high unpopularity due to their alleged corruption regarding campaign finance. The United States has been accused by some international agencies for violating Geneva Convention standards in the past, however, such as the off-site “enhanced interrogation techniques” used on suspected terrorists post 9/11 in places such as Thailand. Because of such secret and suspicious circumstances, it is hard for the international community (in their current capacity) to indict a political or military leader on this accusation.

Europe

Similar to North America, Europe has experienced little to no cases of Geneva violations in recent history. The genocide in Bosnia and Herzegovina constitutes a crime against humanity in Europe, where a majority of Bosnian Serbs targeted Muslim Bosniaks and Bosnian Croats. The ICJ in the 1990s dubbed it a genocide but indicated lack of jurisdiction due to the term being used in a narrow sense in this case.

Soviet Russia saw crimes against humanity on a massive scale from genocides to mass deportations. In post-Soviet Russia, many argue that Russia has endangered European security with its military involvement in Ukraine, of which they see as still a part of Russia.

Asia

In Myanmar, there have been numerous accusations from the international community that the majority Buddhist government there have engaged in ethnic cleansing of the minority Rohingya Muslim population in recent years. This incident has left thousands of Rohingya displaced and the Myanmar government denies that they were responsible for this clear evidence of genocide.

In North Korea, dictator Kim Jong Un has repeatedly disregarded the needs of the North Korean people and has undergone numerous economic sanctions from nations around the world, further constraining the health and well-being of the population. Currently, the UN has declared its concern for the DPRK's oppressive treatment of their people.

In India, roughly 34% of members in the Indian Parliament are under ongoing criminal investigation. 21% of those are being investigated for serious crimes such as attempted murder, burglary, etc.⁴⁵ While not a crime against humanity, it shows the high level of unaccounted criminality in politics in the region.

Africa and the Middle East

Africa is where we tend to see the most instances of criminality in political leaders since the Nuremburg Trials. A total of 8 leaders in Africa are currently under investigation by the ICC for crimes against humanity. The most recent of which being President Omar al-Bashir of Sudan, who the ICC has accused "of having "masterminded and implemented" a plan to destroy the three main ethnic groups [of Sudan]—Fur, Masalit, and Zaghawa—with a campaign of murder, rape, and deportation."⁴⁶

Another criminal figure in recent memory is Muammar al-Gaddafi, the former dictator of Libya later overthrown by the Misrata militia. His crimes against humanity and global sponsorship

and funding of terrorism mirror the likes of modern Iran, accused of doing the same in the Middle East.

South America

Venezuela's current leader, Nicolás Maduro, is also accused of depriving basic human rights within the country. The currency there has all but failed under his authoritarian rule and the country has fallen into a state of true dystopia, with many attempting to seek refuge in neighboring countries. The international community, led by the United States and others, have began sanctions on the regime in hopes of trying to improve the situation there.

Questions to Consider

- Does holding political leaders accountable for their crimes help or hinder efforts toward peace? Is peace more important than justice? Vice versa?
- What can this committee do to ensure justice is brought on leaders accused of human rights violations?
- What are the impacts of criminal political leaders on their populace? What can the UN do to help the civilian population prosecute these leaders?
- How can this assembly craft a resolution that does not infringe upon state sovereignty while remaining effective in its approach towards keeping criminal leaders accountable?

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